Cape Peninsula
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STAFF TURNOVER WITHIN RESTAURANT KITCHENS IN CAPE TOWN CENTRAL BUSINESS DISTRICT

by

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A dissertation submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree

Master of Tourism and Hospitality Management

in the Faculty of Business and Management Sciences

at the Cape Peninsula University of Technology

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District Six, Cape Town

March 2022

DECLARATION

I, **Athi Ntwakumba**, student number **213048949,** declare that the contents of this thesis represent my own unaided work and that the thesis has not previously been submitted for academic examination towards any qualification. Furthermore, it represents my own opinions and not necessarily those of the Cape Peninsula University of Technology.

26 September 2022

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Signed   Date

ABSTRACT

Hospitality can be described as the friendly reception and entertainment of guests, visitors or strangers and usually includes food and accommodation. Because of the line of business, it requires employees with various levels of expertise, however, there are challenges in retaining these employees. The challenge of employee retention in the hotel subsector has been reported by multiple studies around the world, which have consistently reported high employee turnover in hotels. Most of these studies report on data obtained in Europe and North America and the literature lacks African data, with limited studies from South Africa. Much of the literature on staff turnover and retention focuses on hotels and not the high turnover observed in restaurants. This identified the need to focus on this gap as the researcher observed staff turnover within the restaurants. Therefore, this study was undertaken to investigate staff turnover in the restaurant sector, specifically within the kitchen department. The specific aim of the study was to assess staff turnover within these restaurant kitchens, to determine the status, causes and impact thereof.

This study used a quantitative research approach with a positivist paradigm. Two questionnaires were used for data collection, one for managers and one for employees. The sample frame was developed using the TripAdvisor website, which indicated that there were 401 restaurants in the Cape Town Central Business District at the time that the study was conducted, of which 150 participated in this study. A sampling calculator was used to calculate the number of restaurants to participate in the study. Systematic sampling was used to select the restaurants from the developed sample frame and convenience sampling was used to select the respondents (Managers and Employees) who participated in the study. Fifty managers and 100 employees completed the questionnaires. Data gathered were captured and analysed using Statistical Package for Social Sciences software (SPSS) version 26. Data were presented in the form of tables and graphs with frequencies and percentages, using descriptive statistics.

Apart from the three main objectives of the study, demographic information was collected from both participants to understand the differences between managers/executive chefs and employees (chefs). It was found that in both participants males dominated (60% and 54%) respectively, while there was a difference in age as for managers the age group which dominated was the 30-39 while employees were younger (20-29). The qualifications of managers differed significantly from the employees, the majority of the managers had a post-Matric qualification compared to the employees, which means the leaders are more educated than the employees in this study.

Data collected from managers gathered information about the status of staff turnover and the reasons thereof. The main highlights of the findings showed that most (62%) of the respondents (Managers) experienced high staff turnover. Managers further attributed high staff turnover to staff who could not handle the pressure of the restaurant industry (24%), those who left for better opportunities (12%), and a culture of constantly changing companies among young people (4%), not necessarily due to being dissatisfied with their current one. Employee data were collected to understand the cause and impact of staff turnover. The employees highlighted factors that cause constant staff turnover as long working hours (82%), being underpaid (86%), workers' efforts not being recognised (56%) and poor leadership roles (56%). The impact of staff turnover was reported by the employees of which the majority (86%) stated that the workload increased, 84% stated that the service was immensely impacted and the physical health (76%) of the employees was affected.

Whilst some of the restaurants experienced low (38%) staff turnover, it is evident that most (62%) experience high staff turnover. The study has revealed that high staff turnover is prevalent within these restaurants. Furthermore, the causes of high staff turnover were also observed with the impact thereof. Based on these findings the researcher has suggested the following recommendations which are, complying with labour laws specifically working hours, recognition of hard-working employees and thus giving incentives to those deserving individuals. These will benefit both managers/owners and employees working within the restaurant industry and more especially the kitchen department as they assist in reducing staff turnover.

Key words: Staff turnover, hospitality industry, kitchen department, managers, employees (chefs).

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to express my sincere gratitude and appreciation to the following:

DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my mother, Sanda Ntwakumba, for always being there for me throughout my life and school life and ensuring I have all the necessary study materials. I will always cherish the sacrifices she made for my brothers and myself, and I would not be where I am today if she did not instil the characteristics of hard work and dedication in me.

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CLARIFICATION OF BASIC TERMS

The following are key terms as applied in this study:

Cape Town Central Business District (CBD): The Cape Town CBD is ever busy and full of activity and the very core of the city where all business ventures, social outings, and nightly excursions blend into one. With a diverse range of coffee shops, restaurants, bars, nightclubs, theatres, museums, craft markets, shopping malls, and hotels, the Cape Town CBD is the perfect central base from which to explore the Mother City (Rosenberg, 2017:1).

Hospitality subsector: Some define hospitality as "the business of helping people to feel welcome and relaxed and to enjoy themselves." The hospitality industry is the combination of the accommodation, food and beverage sectors provided to guests, collectively making up the largest segment of the industry (Skripak et al., 2016:334).

Restaurants: Restaurants fall under the hospitality subsector and are defined as a place of business where people can choose a meal to be prepared and served to them at a table, and for which they pay, usually after eating (Cambridge Dictionary, 2021a).

Staff: Staff can be described as the entire group of employees who work at a company. These employees work under a given supervisor. The term ''staff'' is also defined as the act of holding a position at a company (Cambridge Dictionary, 2021b).

Staff turnover: Mayhew (2015:1) explains that employee turnover refers to the number or percentage of workers who leave an organization and are replaced by new employees.

High staff turnover: According to Ingram (2009:1), a high employee turnover rate implies that a company's employees leave their jobs at a relatively high rate. Employee turnover rates can increase for a variety of reasons, and turnover includes both employees who quit their jobs and those who are asked to leave.

Low staff turnover: Low turnover means a company has a relatively small number of employees leave during a given period relative to the employees hired or employed at the start of that period (Kokemuller, 2017:1).

Staff retention: Mita et al. (2014:154) defined employee retention as "a technique adopted by businesses to maintain an effective workforce and at the same time meet operational requirements". Das and Mukulesh (2013:8) adds that it is "a process in which the employees are encouraged to remain with the organization for the maximum period or until the completion of the project"

ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

BCEA   Basic Conditions of Employment Act

BOH   Back of House (the kitchen)

CBD   Central Business District

FOH   Front of House (the restaurant)

GDP   Gross Domestic Product

HBR   Harvard Business Review

SME   Small and Medium-sized Enterprise

SPSS   Statistical Package for Social Sciences

StatsSA   Statistics South Africa

UNWTO   United Nations World Tourism Organisation

US   United States

USD   United States Dollar

WTTC   World Travel & Tourism Council

CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

1.1 Introduction

The United Nations World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO) defines tourism as a combination of social, cultural, and economic phenomena that entail the movement of people to countries or places outside their usual immediate setting for business or personal purposes (UNWTO, 2013:1). Westcott (2015:3) states that tourism is broken down into three segments, which include domestic (Local travelers of a certain country travelling within their own country), inbound (Tourists exploring a given country) and outbound (Tourists from a different country exploring another country).

Tourism incorporates many industries, including services, transport, attractions, travel companies, recreation, entertainment, and hospitality industry which includes, food and beverage lodging, and accommodation (Lock, 2020:1). Hospitality is often described as 'home away from home', where you are surrounded by strangers and yet feel welcome (Wich, 2019:2). The idea of the terminology and its meaning have not been changed since the day they were created. Wich (2019:2) states that the word hospitality comes from the Latin word "hospes", which means stranger and visitor. This suggests that hospitality has its roots in ancient history.

The tourism industry is a combination of social, cultural, and economic phenomena that entail the movement of people to countries or places outside their usual environment for personal or business purposes (UNWTO, 2019:1). UNWTO further states that tourism is broken down into three segments, which are Domestic domestic (Local travellers of a certain country travelling within their own country), inbound (Tourists exploring a given country) and outbound (Tourists from a different country exploring another country).

When tourists travel, they need to be accommodated and this falls under the hospitality industry. Hospitality is widely regarded as a business that offers tourists accommodation, food and/or travels (Tiwari, 2015:9). The primary focus of the hospitality industry is to ensure that customers receive great service and a generally good experience for them (Crick & Spencer, 2011:457) and that this excellent service is provided by its employees. Restaurants form part of the hospitality industry as this is where the food for the guests is prepared and served (Tiwari, 2015:9). Restaurants form part of the hospitality industry as this is where the food for the guests is prepared and served (Tiwari, 2015:9).

Lock (2020:1) reports that 10.4% of global Gross Domestic Product (GDP) is contributed by the tourism industry. Over the past 5 years, the hospitality industry provided a quarter of new

jobs created, thus making it the best partner for governments to provide jobs for people (WTTC, 2019:2). WTTC (2019:1) adds that the tourism sector experienced 3.5% growth, which is 1% higher than the global economy (2.5%) growth rate for the ninth consecutive year. This makes the hospitality industry a valuable sector as it plays a great role in contributing to the economy of a country and as mentioned, it is one of the leading contributors to GDP. While globally, the hospitality industry is one of the largest contributors to employment; however, employee retention remains one of the biggest challenges faced by the industry with its significant turnover rate of employees. Numerous scholars have noted and highlighted the challenge of employee turnover in the hospitality industry (Davidson & Wang, 2011:236-237; Mohsin et al., 2013:48; Pearlman and Schaffer, 2013:217-220).

The hospitality industry started thousands of years ago, when road networks were scarce, and traveling was cumbersome outsiders landing in a foreign land had to rely on either their camping skills or a local's kindness when looking for shelter. The idea of a hotel built for the sole purpose of hosting guests did not exist in Europe until the 18th century, when technological progress and the introduction of faster and more reliable modes of transport made long distance travel available to wider public. With the invasion of large numbers of tourists into major cities, the demand for accommodation led to the launching of the first hotels in the contemporary sense. Since then, the sector has known a nearly unbroken run of growth and international expansion, even in the face of modern, innovative disruptions such as Airbnb.

Hospitality includes the restaurant industry as this is the department that prepares the food for the guests. Davidson (2020) states that people have been eating outside of the home for millennia, buying a quick snack from a street vendor or taking a travel break at a roadside inn for a bowl of stew and a bottle of beer. NetCredit recently published a series of maps showing the oldest restaurants in almost every country in the world (Davidson, 2020). In these maps, the world's oldest restaurant, called St. Peter Stifts Kulinarium is shown to have been established in 803, in Salizburg, Austria (Davidson, 2020), Thus, although in the West most early versions of the modern restaurant came from France in 18th-century Paris (Passidomo, 2020), it is Europe that birthed the world's first restaurant. North America's oldest restaurant was established in 1673, by a pirate named William Mayes, whilst Asia is recognised as having operated the first establishments that were easily recognizable as restaurants around 1100 A.D. in China (Shore & Rawson, 2019). According to Shore and Rawson (2019), the restaurant industry boom in China was sparked by Chinese tradesmen traveling outside their home city, and not being accustomed to the strange local foods, created a market for restaurants that sold foods that these travellers were accustomed to. "The original restaurants in those two cities are essentially southern cooking for people coming up from the south or northern cooking for people coming down from the north," (Shore & Rawson, 2019:304).

When it comes to Africa, the continent's oldest restaurant is thought to be Tunisia's El M'Rabet, founded by a minister of the bey of Tunis in 1630 (Davidson, 2020). Ghana is also thought to have played a significant role in the pioneering of commercialized, African public eateries in the continent (McCann, 2009:1). Closer to home, South Africa's oldest restaurant Pig and Whistle in Bathurst, was established in 1832, featuring British, classical pub food and Mediterrenian influences.

Mealey (2018) argues that it is not coincidental that the growth of restaurants through history corresponds to the growth of cities. The need for public eating places was firmly established as far back as the Roman Empire and ancient China. During this era when peasants brought their goods to the markets, they often travelled for several days at a time, stopping at roadside inns along the way. Usually located in the middle of the countryside, inns served meals at a common table to travellers. There were no menus or even options to choose from, every night was a chef's choice. Today we have four main types of restaurants categories fine dining, fast food, casual/bistro and family style (Barcellona, 2019).

Turnover remains one of the most troubling issues for the hospitality industry and remains a common phenomenon in the restaurant industry. While the turnover rates of hourly workers are legendary, even more challenging are the turnover rates among chefs especially because of the disruption caused by their departures (Ghiselli, Lopa, & Bai, 2001). In a limited study of kitchen chefs, annual turnover was found to be as high as 80 percent (Woods, 1992). Lam, Lo, & Chan, (2002) found that the impossible people in newcomers' lives influence the latter's turnover and commitment, which are rarely discussed in the literature. Since chefs are critical assets for organizational prosperity and growth, restaurants are eager to attract and retain them.

Staff turnover is defined as 'the movement of people into and out of employment within an organization' (Denvir & McMahon, 1992). It can be voluntary or involuntary. Correspondingly, on the basis that employees leave an organization for a multitude of reasons that may not be management-related, further turnover can be categorized into controllable and unavoidable turnover. Turnover in the hospitality industry has been shown to be unacceptably high (Kennedy & Berger, 1994), averaging up to 200 or 300 per cent per annum (Woods, 1992), although substantial variations exist between different establishments. The literature has so far identified factors that impact on turnover rates as orientation and socialization processes (Woods, 1992); discrimination at the workplace (Antolik, 1993); training and development opportunities (Hiemestra, 1990); management styles (Antolik, 1993); organizational commitment (Denvir & McMahon, 1992); competition and organizational culture (Woods, 1992); labour shortage (Wood, 1992); stress and burnout (Hom & Griffith, 1995); the seasonal nature of the industry (Antolik, 1993); and job dissatisfaction (Hom & Griffith, 1995).

There has long been concern about excessive staff turnover and its associated costs in restaurants (Narkhede, 2014). The sacrifice of weekends and holidays, as well as long working hours and late evening shifts, are all negative features of the restaurant sector, which contribute to higher turnover and the loss of qualified staff. Furthermore, the seasonal nature of the industry and inadequate training contribute to a high turnover rate. Subsequently, some causes of staff turnover are believed to be industry specific.

High turnover incurs significant replacement and recruitment costs and thus is likely to affect profitability. Correspondingly, Denvir and McMahon, (1992) suggested that labour turnover is not 'an isolated occurrence', where 'multi-dimensional' aspects include low staff morale, substandard work performance and absenteeism. Each incident of employee turnover is estimated to cost up to $2500 in direct costs and $1600 in indirect costs (Hogan, 1992). However, the pervasive impacts of labour turnover on a restaurant's bottom line can be classified into two categories: (1) direct expenditure and (2) intangible costs. Direct impacts are essentially financial consequences that include cost of re-staffing and administrative costs as a result of increased recruitment and training expenditure of new employees (Deery and Shaw, 1999; Antolik, 1993; Woods, 1992).

The indirect consequences of turnover include declining productivity, loss of both revenue (Holston-Okae & Mushi, 2018) and competitive advantage (Al Momani, 2017), poor service quality as a result of insufficient manpower (Al Momani, 2017), compromised standards and low morale due to the constant departures of workmates, which are in turn integrally damaging to a restaurant's reputation (Woods, 1992) because dissatisfaction in the employee will ultimately lead to the dissatisfaction of the customer (Woods, 1992). A low staff turnover will enable restaurateurs to reduce operational costs, boost strategic manpower planning, and enhance their competitiveness (Derindag & Canakci, 2019). To maintain a creative and cost-effective business, restaurateurs must focus on retaining employees and lowering turnover rates.

However, high staff turnover cannot be excused as an inherent characteristic feature of the restaurant industry (Mullins, 2005). Mullins suggested that 'an organization can theoretically influence turnover by various intervention processes' that include placement and orientation, job performance and training and development. Denvir and McMahon (1992) further argued that individual restaurants experience different levels of labour turnover, thereby confirming the view that 'turnover is partly within the control of management, and conflicts with the widespread impression that turnover is high and uniform throughout the industry', and hence an uncontrollable characteristic of the trade.

There have been numerous studies conducted on staff turnover that have focused on other industries. These may not be applicable due to the unique features of the restaurant industry, as discussed earlier. For example, the organizational structure of the restaurant may be a major determinant in influencing labour turnover, as compared to other industries. It was observed that in addition to salary there are other factors such as working conditions, sufficient lunch breaks, suggestion box, uniform, safety arrangements and relationship with other members (Narkhede, 2014). Paskin (2008) estimates that operative and unskilled staff comprise up to 64 per cent of the entire staff population. This might therefore indicate limited promotional and developmental opportunities for lower-level employees, resulting in a movement of staff out of that organization to one that provides better career options.

This study is important in adding to the body of knowledge on restaurants in sub-Saharan Africa and specifically Cape Town, South Africa. Restaurant owners and managers can positively benefit by following some of the recommendation that will be provided by this study to improve the status of staff turnover in the industry.

The hospitality industry, which includes restaurants, has a positive effect on the economy and is one of the largest industries that contributes to employment rates. According to Lock (2020:1), in 2019 it was calculated that, globally, tourism bookings, which comprise travel and the hospitality industry overall, reached a staggering USD 2.9 trillion, making it one of the most rapidly growing sectors in the world. The World Travel & Tourism Council (WTTC, 2019:1) reports that the tourism sector experienced 3.5% growth, which is 1% higher than the global economy (2.5%) growth rate for the ninth consecutive year. Lock (2020:1) adds that 10.4% of global Gross Domestic Product (GDP) is contributed by the tourism industry. Over the past five years, one in four new jobs were created by the sector, making the industry the best partner for governments to generate employment (WTTC, 2019:2). America, Asia, Europe, and Africa all showed growth in tourism dollars while the Middle East had a decline in tourism dollars when the reports were made (UNWTO, 2013:3).

There is a high staff turnover rate within the hospitality industry (Kysilka & Csaba, 2013: 374). Paskin (2008:3) argues that there is a constant flow of young students who work part-time, thus there is no surprise in the resignation rates. Be it as it may, Paskin further stipulates that the hospitality industry requires full time and determined staff. Whilst the hospitality industry has amongst the highest staff turnover rates, the hotel sector was projected to maintain a steady 5–6% growth throughout 2018, post-recession gains, which means that the industry was estimated to reach a record-breaking USD 170 billion in gross bookings (Global Business Travel Association, 2017:2). Abrams and Gabeloff (2017:2) assure growth in the industry, backing this up with the fact that restaurants are strategically planning to make this possible

by making the guest experience more pleasant, improving delivery, and driving employee engagement.

These global figures resonate in the South African context. In South Africa, travel and tourism contributed R425.8 billion to the economy in 2018, compared to R420 billion in the previous year, representing 8.6% of all economic activity in the country (WTTC, 2019:2). The industry also contributes to 1.5 million jobs in South Africa, making it a great impact on the economy (WTTC, 2019:3). The restaurant industry is expected to witness a steady increase in revenues from 5.6 billion in 2018 to 6.7 billion in 2023 (Statistics South Africa, 2021). South Africa is the largest market for food and drink in sub-Saharan Africa, with a large and competitive hospitality industry. StatsSA (2021) reports that the country will witness 'a rise in the number of tourists, strong levels of consumer spending and world-renowned wines and cuisine are some of the factors driving growth in the industry.'

Globally and nationally the hospitality industry is one of the largest contributors to employment, and yet the industry is faced with turnover challenges. Grobler, Warwich, Carrell, Elbert, and Hartfield (2006:125) define staff turnover as 'employees who have already left an organisation, are leaving an organisation, or will leave an organisation for various reasons. Tracey and Hinkin (2008:13) agree that staff turnover can be defined as the proportion of employees who, after having spent time in a business or company, decide to venture out to other companies and find new jobs.

Staff turnover is categorised in various types such as voluntary and involuntary; voluntary employee turnover refers to an employee's choice to leave the company whereas involuntary employee turnover is initiated by the employer, for example, retirement age or even dismissal, retrenchment, in which the employee has minimal input (Mensele & Coetzee, 2014:15; Nel & Werner, 2014:18; Theron et al., 2014:3). Mello (2015:330) further explains that there is functional and dysfunctional employee turnover under voluntary turnover, where functional employee turnover refers to a poor performer leaving a company, and dysfunctional employee turnover indicates that a top performer has left a company.

Dysfunctional staff turnover further has avoidable and unavoidable dimensions. Avoidable staff turnover occurs when an organisation has control over the factors that cause staff to leave; and unavoidable turnover is when an organisation has no control over staff leaving (Sikwela, 2016:37). Examples of avoidable staff turnover include lack of opportunities to advance within the company or poor pay scales, whereas Curran (2012) states that unavoidable turnover may include an employee relocating, the spouse being offered a job transfer, health issues or going to school full-time. Curran (2012) further argues that staff turnover is complex because there are different types of staff turnover and managers need to first identify which type of staff

turnover has caused their employees to leave in order to rectify this and not lose future valuable employees.

Status of staff turnover

Staff turnover can either be high or low, depending on the number of employees that leave the organisation. Kokemuller (2017) believes that achieving low staff turnover is an advantage and long-term goal for any organisation. It is further stated that low turnover generally evolves from a company hiring and recruiting the 'perfect' employees and maintaining a positive work environment. While Mamun and Hasan (2017:63), state that high staff turnover is delineated to a situation in which employees leave the organization for different reasons and thus negatively impacting the organisations profitability and the ability to effectively distribute the minimum required services. Staff turnover has been observed globally, in Africa and nationally (South Africa).

Globally, employee turnover has been an ongoing struggle for the hospitality industry (Tiwari, 2015:9). Moreover, this issue has been at the core of the problems faced by the hospitality sector with which experts have been grappling and it remains a contentious issue (Kotler et al., 2010:11). This is no different to a South African context as there are multiple studies which have reported staff turnover as a problem in the hospitality industry. For instance, Ebrahim (2014), Ezeuduji and Mbane (2014) and Ezeuduji and Mbane (2017) conducted studies in Cape Town hotels and noted that the hospitality sector is indeed affected by staff turnover. Ebrahim (2014:59) conducted a study on staff turnover in selected hotels in Cape Town and found a mixed picture of high staff turnover (64%) in some places, and relatively low or minimal in others. Both the results from Ezeuduji and Mbane (2014) and Ezeuduji and Mbane (2017) concurred that the hotel industry is faced with staff turnover challenges.

Causes of staff turnover

The restaurant industry, similar to other service-oriented industries, has features of heavy labour intensity and highly variable labour demands that affect staff turnover. Because of the unique characteristics of the hospitality industry, there are multiple causes of staff turnover, and literature has reported factors such as abnormal working hours, poor wages, and variability of demand which negatively affect staff motivation (Amos, Ristow & Pearse, 2008:250). Furthermore, what exacerbates staff turnover are factors such as low pay, exploitation, and lack of job dissatisfaction (Carrel et al., 2000:240). Researchers such as Braham (2005:3-5) has established seven most common causes as; The position or workplace was not what was expected; A mismatch between the position and the person; Limited coaching and feedback; Limited growth and advancement opportunities; Employees feel devalued and unrecognised;

Stress from overworking and work-life balance, Loss of trust and confidence in organisational leaders, and Employee expectations.

Causes of high employee turnover in the hospitality industry

The hospitality industry has one of the highest employee turnover rates of any industry, making the issue a serious challenge for organisations in this sector. In Ireland, a study by Ernst and Young (2013) showed that employment in the hospitality industry hit its peak in 2008 at 162,000 employees, but by 2010 had dropped by around 11 percent, employing 145,000 individuals directly. The industry, in total contributed around 230,000 jobs to Irish employment in 2010, which comprised 13 percent of the total workforce in the country (Ernst & Young, 2013).

The high rate of employee turnover in the industry has been linked to the low-skill requirement in most of the entry-level positions in the industry (Taylor & Finley, 2010). The low-skill requirement implies that the employees in the entry jobs receive poor wages and are also easy to replace. Wages in the Irish hospitality sector are, however, relatively high compared to other countries in Europe, with the report by Ernst and Young (2013) ranking the country's minimum wage second highest in the continent. However, while the high wages might be expected to contribute towards employee retention, they actually reduce the "flexibility of labour options for employers," whereby any drop in demand in the industry is met by laying off of some employees (Ernst & Young, 2013).

Work-life conflict has also been associated with the high employee turnover rate in the hospitality industry. In any industry, basically, work-life balance is an important factor that usually determines the satisfaction of employees with their work (O'Leary & Deegan, 2005). The hospitality industry, however, is more associated with poor work-life balance (WLB) than other industries. Blomme, Rheede, and Tromp (2010) reported that work-life conflict contributed significantly to turnover intentions for employees within the hospitality industry. Their study cited lack of organisational support and dissatisfaction with the flexibility at the workplace as the main causes of the work-life conflict.

The same trend has been reported in all parts of the world. In India, for instance, a study of the Indian hotel industry linked the abnormal and everchanging working hours, quality of health, and the pressure culminating from multiple roles as the main factors that contribute to poor WLB in the hotel industry (Mohanty & Mohanty, 2014). Other studies have also cited WLB as an influential factor in the decision of employees within the hospitality industry to change career (McGinley, O'Neill, Damaske, & Mattila, 2014; O'Leary & Deegan, 2005). While it is assumed that female employees are the most affected by this factor due to their responsibility of bringing up children, particularly following birth, a study by Darcy, McCarthy, Hill, and Grady (2012)

implied that work-life balance is a concern for all kinds of employees at different stages of their careers and not a preserve of those with young children.

The hospitality industry is also characterised by high flexibility in work demands, which has also been linked to poor job satisfaction (Chiang, Birtch, & Cal, 2014). This is because employees are likely to be made redundant without much notice when the demand for services drops. Dissatisfaction with the progression of their careers is another important factor that contributes to the high employee turnover rate in the industry (McGinley et al. 2014). This occurs as employees usually consider work opportunities in this industry only as steppingstones to better opportunities in other industries and, as a result, they rarely get into the industry with the intention of remaining and building a career (McGinley et al. 2014).

The characteristics of the hospitality industry including the abnormal working hours, poor wages, and variability of demand also mean that the motivation of employee is likely to be poor. A study of hospitality workplaces by Poulston (2008) reported that the motivation of employees in the hospitality industry to work was more likely to be affected negatively by dissatisfaction with remuneration, their supervisors, and the general working conditions. The result of poor motivation influenced the decision to seek an alternative place of work.

The hospitality industry has also been cited for poor implementation of best human resources practices. Connolly and McGing (2007) conducted a study to investigate the level of implementation of high-performance work practices in the Irish hospitality industry with particular focus on employee empowerment and the participation of employees in such practices. They reported that while the industry, particularly hotels, exhibited some of the HR practices linked with high performing work practices, the level of participation by employees was very low. This is a matter of concern as most of the literature in this field concludes that participation of employees is a key part of high-performance practices.

Employee stress is also a common occurrence in the hospitality industry. Overloads, such as failure of technologies and interpersonal tensions in the workplace have been cited as the main causes of stress in the workplace and they can cause the employees to contemplate leaving their job (O'Neill & Davis, 2011). Additionally, the hospitality industry is also characterised by temporary employment, which is associated with negative outcomes, such as stress, work-life conflict, and limited control over working schedule (McNamara, Bohle, & Quinlan, 2011).

Impact of staff turnover

It is said that high turnover can jeopardise a company's productivity as the staff which is left behind will need to either put more work in to fill in for the employees that have moved, or a new team will have to be employed (Hamermesh 2001:140). Adjei (2012:11) adds that staff leaving an establishment does not only affect productivity but also affects organisational profitability as part of measuring turnover involves three costs—separation cost, replacement cost and training cost. Employee turnover creates a significant problem for a business, influencing the value and quality of the goods and services (for example, delays on food orders because there are insufficient chefs in the kitchen), and it also increases the cost of replacement and recruitment of new employees (Tiwari, 2015:16). Das and Mukulesh (2013:11) underscore this point, stating that the most significant obstacles currently faced by the hospitality industry revolve around employee retention, which results in increased turnover rates of employees.

Overview of the studies conducted regarding the staff turnover

When conducting the literature review for this dissertation, the researcher found that there is no existing published research on staff turnover that is specific to the kitchen departments of restaurants operating in Cape Town. The lack of research on employee turnover within the restaurant sector leaves a gap for future studies. This is an important gap to fill because it means that there is no information about the degree to which the restaurant sector is affected by staff turnover and for what reasons. Importantly, although there is no published research on staff turnover in the restaurant sector in Cape Town, there are studies that have examined the staff turnover in the hotel sector in South Africa. Such studies were the following: Ezeuduji and Mbane (2014) on and Ezeuduji and Mbane (2017) and Ebrahim (2014) in Cape Town.

The studies of Ebrahim (2014), Ezeuduji and Mbane (2014) and Ezeuduji and Mbane (2017) conducted in Cape Town hotels suggest that the industry is indeed affected by staff turnover as all of these studies found high staff turnover. Ebrahim (2014:59) conducted a study on the causes of high staff turnover within selected hotels in Cape Town and found a mixed picture of high staff turnover (64%) in some places, and relatively low or minimal staff turnover (36%) in others. Ezeudiji and Mbane (2014) focused on hotel employee profile and employee retention statements: The case of hotels in Cape Town, South Africa. Whereas Ezeuduji and Mbane (2017) focused on Employee retention factors: The case of hotels in Cape Town, South Africa.

Apart from these studies, there are also other researchers within the African continent such as Wanjiru (2018) in Kenya, Edao (2019) in Ethiopia and Deri, Zaazie and Bazaanah (2021) who conducted research pertaining to staff turnover within the hospitality industry. Wanjiru (2018) focusing on factors influencing employee turnover in the hospitality industry in Kenya. Edao (2019) focused on factors affecting the intention of employee turnover in five star rated hotels in Addis Ababa. Whereas Deri et al., focused on turnover intentions among hotel employees in Ghana.

There are international studies that have focused on hospitality employee retention and turnover, such as Mohanty and Mohanty (2014), Tiwari (2015), Abrams and Gabeloff (2017). Mohanty and Mohanty (2014) focused on employee retention: A key driver to the growth of tourism and hospitality in Odisha, India. Tiwari (2015) focused on an analysis of the factors affecting employee retention and turnover in the Irish hospitality Industry. Whereas Abrams and Gabeloff (2017) focused their research on restaurants in New York.

These few studies conducted within the hospitality industry showcase a gap for more research to be done to ensure that the challenge of staff turnover is dealt with. Furthermore, the studies mostly focused on hotels only and none focused on the kitchen department specifically which is what this dissertation focused on and investigates staff turnover holistically with the intention of identifying the status, causes and impact thereof.

1.2   Problem statement

High staff turnover rates adversely affect profitability (Lee, Hom, Eberly, & Li, 2017). In South Africa, staff turnover was 43% in 2017, costing restaurants about 200% per replaced employee in annual salary (Stas SA, 2018). The general business problem is that most restaurants spend an excessive amount on employee training only to lose trained employees because of high turnover rates. The specific business problem is that most restaurants lack strategies to mitigate staff turnover, which results in profit loss. However, despite this problem, there is a paucity of research on staff turnover in the restaurant industry, although some restaurants have undertaken individual turnover analyses to address this issue (Nankervis, 2000). According to Tiwari: "staff turnover rates in the hospitality industry, it is generally agreed, are as high as or higher than in any other industry." Despite these studies, it is surprising that relatively little attention is being given to managing staff turnovers in spite of the fact that most operators are struggling to maintain profit margins. This could be attributed to the fact that, even though staff turnover has financial consequences, the problem is often ignored because the costs are indirect and hidden (Abrams & Gabeloff, 2017).

Furthermore, many restaurants may consider it simply part of "doing business" in this industry. In their attempts to find and keep employees, many companies use incentives such as pay, benefits, promotion, and training. However, these efforts often miss their goal, as some research indicated that the front-line manager is the key to attracting and retaining employees (Nankervis, 2000). In relation to the literature, many studies pertaining to staff turnover has focused mainly on other industry, and turnover studies undertaken in the hospitality industry by far has focused on the management, service staff, amusement park, hotel staff as a whole, and part time or hourly paid employees. To date, there are no studies that has been undertaken to assess staff turnover among the kitchen staff in restaurants in Cape Town.

Cape Town is known to be the most-visited city in South Africa with scenic beauty, Table Mountain, whale-watching, world-class shopping, wine farms and its food (Haarhoff & de Klerk, 2019:204). In addition, Cape Town is home to most of the top 10 restaurants in South Africa and two restaurants which feature in the top 50 in the world (Eat Out, 2019:1).

One of the main reasons for the researcher's focus on the kitchen department is the lack of research in this area, especially in the context of South Africa. Through observation and past industry experience as a chef in different restaurants in Cape Town, the researcher identified a gap concerning the staff turnover rate in restaurants. This gave rise to the main research problem of this study, which was to assess the staff turnover rate in restaurant kitchens to identify the status, causes and impact thereof.

1.3 Study aims and objectives

1.3.1 Aim of the study

The study aimed to assess the staff turnover within restaurant kitchens in the Cape Town Central Business District (CBD), to identify the status, causes and impact thereof.

1.3.2 Objectives

The objectives of the study are:

a) To assess the status of staff turnover within restaurant kitchens in the Cape Town CBD;
b) To determine the causal factors of staff turnover within restaurant kitchens in the Cape Town CBD; and
c) To establish the impact of staff turnover within restaurant kitchens in the Cape Town CBD.

1.4   Research questions

The following research questions guided the study.

1.4.1   Main question

How does staff turnover affect the restaurant kitchens in the Cape Town CBD?

1.4.2   Sub-questions

a) What is the status of staff turnover in the restaurant kitchen departments in the Cape Town CBD?
b) What are the causes of staff turnover in the restaurant kitchen departments in the Cape Town CBD?
c) What is the impact of staff turnover in the restaurant kitchen departments in the Cape Town CBD?

1.5   Significance of the study

The researcher observed that there is no research to date on staff turnover within the hospitality industry in South Africa, more particularly in Cape Town restaurants. Therefore, this study provides new and up-to-date information regarding staff turnover in the hospitality industry, especially in the kitchen department of restaurants in the Cape Town CBD. This research will also be of benefit to the following areas:

1.5.1   Restaurants

The results will benefit the selected restaurants, specifically the kitchen departments of these establishments. The study will also be of interest to similar restaurants beyond Cape Town which might be facing challenges with staff turnover. The establishments can use the study findings to better understand staff turnover and use the recommendations to address identified problems to improve staff retention.

1.5.2   Academia and institutions

This study adds to the current body of knowledge in the hospitality industry globally, in Africa and in South Africa, which can be used as a reference when future research is conducted on staff turnover and related research questions. The study is novel as it focuses specifically on the kitchen department of restaurants in Cape Town, therefore, future researchers who would like to expand on this topic can use it as a reference.

1.5.3 Organisations

The government will benefit from this research because it will have up-to-date information and statistics about staff turnover in restaurants, especially valuable for the Department of Tourism which could use this evidence to improve labour laws. The researcher has presented this study at the National Department of Tourism and all preliminary information was shared amongst different stakeholders, Academia, and different organisations within the tourism sector to exchange knowledge.

Figure 1 depicts the conceptual framework and gives the direction of the study. Based on the literature, the main concepts are classified as follows.

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                        ┌─────────────────────────┐
                        │                         │
                        │     STAFF TURNOVER      │
                        │                         │
                        └─────────────────────────┘
                   ↙                             ↖
      ┌──────────────────┐              ┌──────────────────┐
      │ Managers/Executive│ ←────────→  │ Employees (chefs) │
      │      chefs        │              │                  │
      └──────────────────┘              └──────────────────┘
                                │
   ┌──────────┐         ┌──────────┐         ┌──────────┐
   │  Status  │ ←────→  │  Causes  │ ←────→  │  Impact  │
   └──────────┘         └──────────┘         └──────────┘
        │                    │                    │
┌──────────────┐   ┌──────────────────┐  ┌──────────────────┐
│              │   │Long working hours│  │ Profitability    │
│High staff    │   │                  │  │                  │
│turnover      │   │Being underpaid   │  │ Productivity     │
│              │   │                  │  │                  │
│Low staff     │   │Not being recognised│ │ Workload increases│
│turnover      │   │                  │  │                  │
│              │   │Poor leadership roles│ │ Physical health issues│
└──────────────┘   └──────────────────┘  └──────────────────┘
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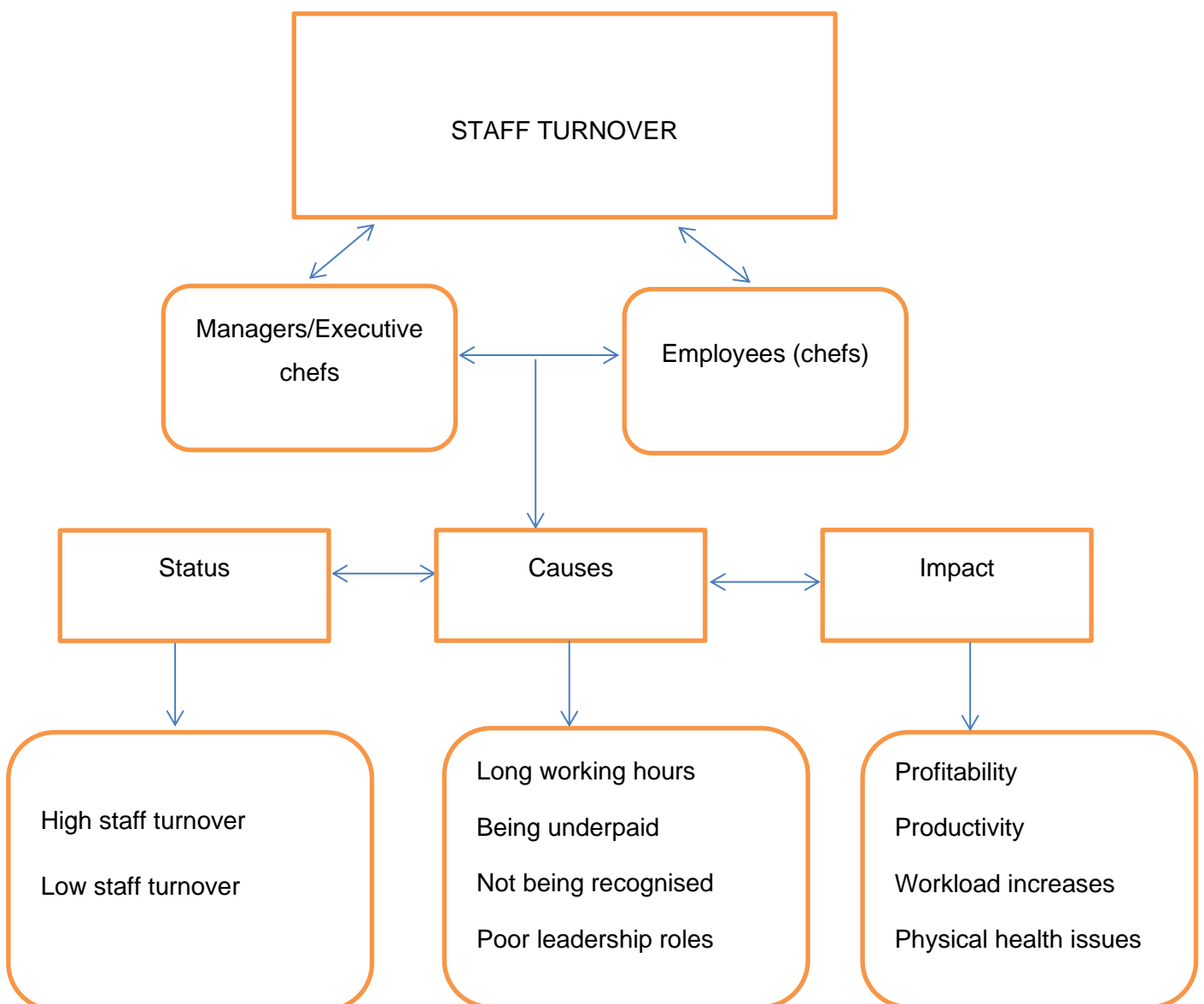
Figure 1.1: Conceptual Framework

1.6   Chapter outline

The chapter outline summarises the focus of each chapter.

Chapter 1: This chapter provides a brief background to the tourism and hospitality industry and then looks at staff turnover in general. The problem statement and the rationale for the study is explained, with the aims and objectives, concluding with the study's significance and a summary of the chapter.

Chapter 2: This chapter begins with an overview of the hospitality industry and then narrows it down to an overview of restaurants. It reviews relevant literature on staff turnover in general, presents a global overview of local perspectives and highlights what previous authors have already discovered about this topic. The staff turnover modules (namely the unfolding model and the image theory) are discussed and explained. The chapter expands on the categories of staff turnover which include high and low staff turnover and discusses the causes, effects, and impact of staff turnover, which is part of the objectives of this study. The advantages and disadvantages of staff turnover, the factors that contribute to staff turnover and measures for employee retention are discussed.

Chapter 3: This chapter explains the research methodology applied in this study. It starts by discussing the research paradigm, the research approach which was quantitative and the descriptive research design. The demarcation, study population, sampling method and data collection are described. The chapter further discusses the data analyses and presentation, ethical considerations, and the limitations of data collection.

Chapter 4: This chapter presents the results (chefs and managers/executive chefs) which were collected through the questionnaires. The results are structured according to the categories of the participants, starting with managers and then chefs. Pilot results are also included in this chapter. The results are presented in various themes—the status of staff turnover, the causes of staff turnover and their impacts. Data are presented graphically and in tabular format, using frequencies and percentages.

Chapter 5: This chapter concludes the study. It expands on the results presented in the previous chapter and links them with literature and other studies relevant to this study. The discussion section begins with the demographics of managers/executives, followed by the status of staff turnover from the perspectives of managers/executive chefs.

The second part of the discussion section covers the demographics and staff turnover from the perspectives of employees (chefs). The causes and the impact of staff turnover are also discussed from the employees' point of view. The limitations of this study are stated, and recommendations are suggested, as well as the contribution of the study to the existing body of knowledge.

1.7   Chapter summary

The chapter provided a background to the study, focusing on the tourism and hospitality industry. The chapter further highlighted current gaps in the research conducted to date in the hospitality arena. The problem statement, aim and objectives of the study were discussed to emphasise the importance and relevance of the study. This dissertation sought to examine and understand staff turnover in restaurant kitchens in Cape Town, and the process of answering the study question entailed three objectives related to: status of staff turnover; causes of staff turnover; and the impact of staff turnover. The chapter concludes with an illustration of the conceptual framework of the study and gives an outline of the thesis, chapter by chapter.

The next chapter focuses on the literature review which provides the theoretical background to this study.

CHAPTER 2
LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1   Introduction

Staff turnover has been a subject of research for several years in the hospitality industry (Blomme et al., 2010, Cho et al., 2009, Slatten, Svensson, & Svaeri, 2011, Wells and Peachey, 2011, Yang, 2010, Yang, Wan, & Fu, 2012, Zhou, Zhang, & Liu, 2012). Denvir and McMahon (1992) defined staff turnover as "the movement of people into and out of employment within an organisation" (143). Although staff turnover is seen to be a usual phenomenon in the service industry, it has been noted to be exceptionally high in the hospitality industry for over three decades (Birdir, 2002, Deery & Shaw, 1999, Kennedy & Berger, 1994, Woods, 1992, Yang, 2010, Yang et al., 2012).

Staff turnover in the hospitality industry has been well documented over the last two decades as stated in the introduction (Yang et al., 2012; Zhou et al., 2012; Wells & Peachey, 2011; Slatten et al., 2011; Blomme et al., 2010; Yang, 2010; Cho et al., 2009). Denvir and McMahon (1992) defined staff turnover as 'the movement of people into and out of employment within an organisation' (143). Staff turnover in the hospitality industry is unacceptably high (Kennedy and Berger, 1994), averaging up to 200 or 300% per annum (Woods, 1992), although substantial variations are found between different establishments. Yang and Wan (2004) note that this subject has been examined in the hospitality-related literature for at least 10 years.

Authors such as Birdir (2002), Stalcup and Pearson (2001), Choi et al. (2000), Teare and O'Hern (2000), Deery and Shaw (1999), Iverson and Deery (1997), Cho et al. (1996), Ohlin and West (1993), Boles, Ross, and Johnson (1995), Cantrell and Sarabahksh (1995), Yang (2010), Cho et al. (2009), Chalkiti and Sigala (2010), Yang et al. (2012) and Hogan (1992) have also published various studies on the topic in different academic journals. Studies have shown that high staff turnover rates in the hotel industry are not country specific but are a worldwide phenomenon (Birdir, 2002). Authors such as Yang et al. (2012), Cho et al. (2009), Chalkiti and Sigala (2010), Blomme et al. (2010), Bonn and Forbringer (1992) and Iverson and Deery (1997) confirm that rapid staff turnover is one of the most long-term issues in human resources within the tourist sector. The search did not reveal any authentic evidential statistics in relation to staff turnover in the hotel/hospitality/tourism industry in India.

Grobler, Warwich, Carrell, Elbert, and Hartfield (2006:125) define staff turnover as 'employees who have already left an organisation, are leaving an organisation, or will leave an organisation for various reasons. Tracey and Hinkin (2008:13) agree that staff turnover can be defined as the proportion of employees who, after having spent time in a business or company, decide to venture out to other companies and find new jobs. Below the researcher will expand the literature as follows, overview of the hospitality industry, overview of restaurants, types of restaurants, and lastly overview of staff turnover.

2.2   Overview of the hospitality industry

The word hospitality is derived from the Latin word 'hospes' which translate to stranger and visitor (Wich, 2019). It is often described as 'home away from home' where one is surrounded by strangers and yet feels welcomed. Thousands of years ago, when road networks were scarce, and traveling was cumbersome strangers arriving in a foreign land had to rely on either their camping skills or a local's kindness when looking for shelter. Wich (2019) explains that before hotels which were only built after the 18th century when technology evolved it was mostly inns and taverns offering primitive rooms to weary travellers.

With globalisation and the invasion of large numbers of travellers into major cities, the need for accommodation led to the opening of the first hotels in the modern sense. Since then, the sector has known a nearly unbroken run of growth and international expansion, even in the face of modern, innovative disruptions such as Airbnb. The hospitality industry is considered one of the most important industry as it is the largest. The industry is said to be one of the largest GDP contributors of most countries and in South Africa it was said to contribute R425.8 billion to the economy in the year 2018 and this figure increases yearly (WTTC, 2019:2). Apart from the economical contribution the hospitality industry is said to contribute over 1.5 million jobs in South Africa. According to Lock (2020:1), in 2019, it was calculated that, globally, tourism bookings, which comprise travel and the hospitality industry overall, reached a staggering USD 2.9 trillion, making it one of the most rapidly growing sectors in the world.

Turnover

Although the literature is filled with many other definitions, Mobley's (1982) definition most accurately reflects the conceptual position of this thesis. Mobley states that turnover is "the cessation of membership in an organization by an individual who received monetary compensation from the organization" (10). Given corporate America's increased use of temporary workers, this definition ensures that those who may have been contracted for a temporary period, often through an outside agency, will not be considered. Also excluded from

consideration are those who transfer within the organization. A final salient feature is Mobley's inclusion of all forms of cessation from the organization. The employee turnover rate is usually calculated by dividing the number of employees separated from the company they were working for by the base number of jobs during the period. Employees who transfer to other positions within the same organization are not considered in the calculation, as well as those who retired, had their job phased-out or were terminated due to downsizing.

Turnover rates for employees can be measured and compared over time and across companies using what is commonly referred to as the employee turnover index. Some companies add in the number of new positions added during the year to get a more accurate turnover figure. Employee turnover that results in vacancies caused by internal promotions are not included in most turnover statistics.

2.3   Overview of restaurants

Restaurants fall under the hospitality subsector and are defined as a business whereby people can choose a meal of their choice to be prepared and served after which they pay after eating it (Cambridge Dictionary, 2021a). Szende and Cipriano (2017:3) explain that restaurants are normally divided between the Front of House (FoH, 'the restaurant') and Back of House (BoH, 'the kitchen'), which are both needed to meet and exceed the guests' expectations. They add that each kitchen design is influenced by the type of menu offered. Typically, every restaurant has a food preparation area, a dish room, dry storage, walk-in coolers and potentially a walk-in freezer, space allocation, skill of staff, finances, amongst others. Each of these areas, depending on the type of restaurant, has to be assigned to a certain chef. Egan (2018: 2) describes the FoH as the place where customers order and dine; it might include a host or hostess, waiters, bartenders, and the general manager (basically, anyone who might interact with customers).

Najib et al. (2021) state that a restaurant is considered a business and as such, most restaurants fall under the small, micro and medium-sized enterprise category, depending on the type and size of the restaurant. Liberto (2020:1) defines Small, Micro and Medium-sized Enterprises '(SMMEs) as businesses that usually maintain revenue, assets or the number of employees below a certain threshold. Each country has its own definition of what constitutes an SMME'. According to Thulo (2019:5), small businesses in South Africa make less than R200 000 per year and almost half of them employ between two to five people each. In the catering and accommodation sector (which includes restaurants), it is said that a small enterprise employs between 11–50 employees, a medium between 11-20 employees, while a micro-enterprise employs 0–10 employees (Thulo, 2019:5).

Apart from the restaurants being categorised as SMMEs, they are divided into different types which are differentiated by their size, structure, and style of service. These are discussed in more detail below:

2.3.2   Types of restaurants

There are a variety of restaurants, from unpretentious, family-run businesses for local workers, serving simple food which costs relatively low, to high-priced places serving high-end food and wine in a more formal manner. Below, Barcellona (2019:4-5) defines the four main types of restaurants found around the world:

a)   Fine dining

This type of restaurant is most popularly visited for special occasions, such as birthday celebrations, anniversaries, or weddings. The majority of these restaurants are characterised by a formal dress code and fine dining etiquette. Staff members are attentive and highly skilled. Menus from this type of restaurant may feature exotic and interesting dishes, making them more expensive than most.

b)   Fast food

Fast-food eateries are a type of restaurant in which patrons have a quick meal on the go. The menu features mainly burgers, hot dogs, steaks, French fries, fried onion, pizzas, fish, sandwiches and assorted sauces like mustard, mayonnaise and tomato sauce.

Fast food usually costs low and has a wide distribution of outlets. Their target market varies but mostly caters to the younger generation, however, is not limited to this as it also included adults for various reasons from cost, and convenience to their working schedule.

c)   Casual dining/bistro

The ambience of casual restaurants differs based on the brand and the intended customer base. The majority of them share similarities such as moderately priced menus, table service and unique décor.

d)   Family style

Family-style restaurants normally offer family-style options and the option of individual dishes. Common attributes of these types of restaurants include table service, food served on large platters with the option of sharing. Guests normally pass around the dishes and serve themselves.

Each restaurant type has kitchen hierarchy that informs the structure of its employees. This explains what each position entails and the duties each of these positions are responsible for. Sherman (2021:1) explains that "no one organisational hierarchy fits all restaurants, a smaller

restaurant will have fewer position while a larger restaurant might have all positions. Below the researcher further explains the kitchen hierarchy and how each position fits in.

2.3.3   Kitchen hierarchy

Pathak (2010:5-7) describes the kitchen hierarchy as what each is typically in charge of doing. The term kitchen is derived from the French word "cuisine" which means the art of cooking or food preparation in the kitchen (Pathak,2010:6). Food production rests with the kitchen department, which is responsible for the actual preparation of food items. Sherman (2021:1) explains that "no one organisational hierarchy fits all restaurants, a taco truck run by a couple does not need a hierarchy". It is further explained that running a burger joint requires less of a hierarchy than running a fine-dining restaurant (Sherman, 2021:2). The below positions are typically found in restaurant kitchens. The kitchen department has a different position within its structure, and each position has its specific roles, which is explained below, according to Pathak (2010:6-7).

2.3.3.1 Executive Group Chef

This is the first commander of the chefs' management structure. They are mainly found at larger establishments, and it is predominantly a management role. Executive chefs are often responsible for the operation of multiple outlets or oversee various groups of hotels with restaurants within and therefore they do very little actual cooking.

2.3.3.2 Head Chef (Executive Chef, Chef de Cuisine)

"Chef de Cuisine is the traditional French term, and although it is slightly more common in European kitchens, the head chef is the title that is used most around the world. The head chef usually controls the whole kitchen, from managing kitchen staff and controlling kitchen costs to interacting with suppliers and creating the menus.

2.3.3.3 Sous Chef (Second Chef)

The sous chef de cuisine is second in the hierarchy and translated it means 'under chef'. Their role will usually overlap with the head chef's one, but the sous chef will tend to be more hands-on and actively involved in the day-to-day running of the kitchen; the sous chefs will also fill in for the head chefs when they are off, as well as a chef de partie when needed.

2.3.3.4 Chef de Partie (Station Chef, Line Chef, Line Cook)

Each chef de partie is responsible for running a specific section of the kitchen, and they are usually the only worker in that department, although in some larger kitchens each station chef may well have several assistant chefs. Again, this is a term that can have multiple hierarchical precedents, such as junior or senior.

2.3.3.5 Commis Chef

A commis chef is a junior member of staff that works under a chef de partie to learn everything about a specific station. These are often individuals that have recently completed or are still undergoing formal culinary training.

2.3.3.6 Kitchen Porter (Kitchen Assistant or Kitchenhand)

These are workers that assist with basic tasks within the kitchen and are less likely to have any formal culinary training. Tasks include basic food preparation such as cleaning spinach and peeling onions, in addition to basic cleaning duties."

This is the general hierarchy of the kitchen department; however, each kitchen may run differently and not all kitchens have all of the chefs outlined in this hierarchy.

Figure 2.1 below presents a basic kitchen brigade organogram for a typical restaurant kitchen in South Africa, as adopted from Lissy (2016:1) and amended by the researcher to fit the South African context. This organogram was amended to fit a typical modern restaurant kitchen as opposed to a hotel kitchen brigade, which is often much bigger.
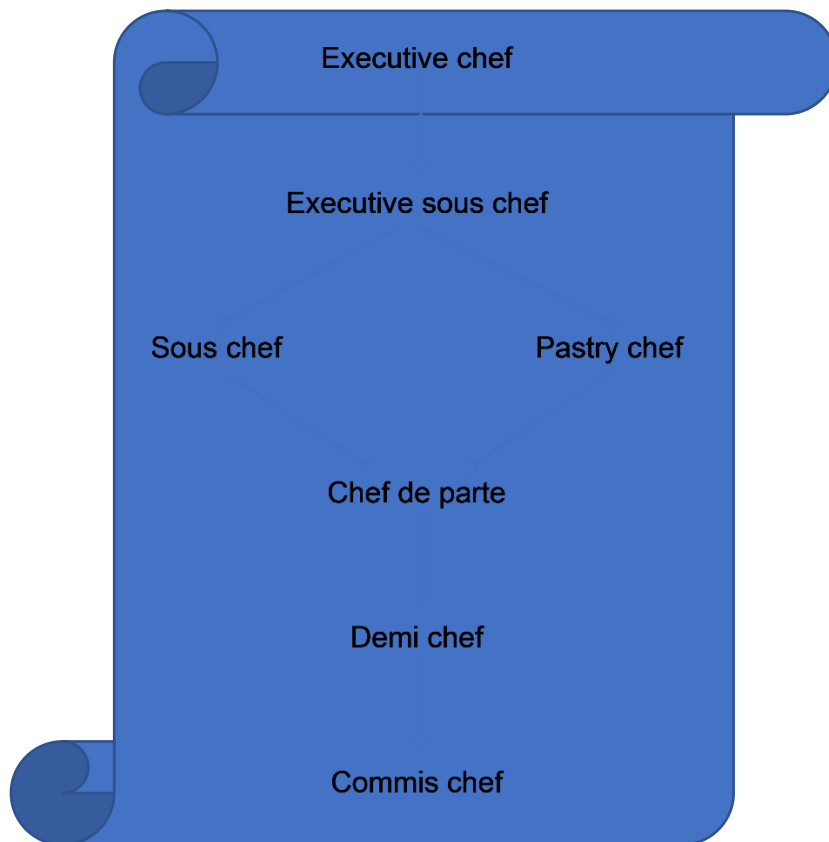
Figure 2.1: Typical modern-day restaurant kitchen brigade
(Adapted from Lissy, 2016:3)

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2.4 Overview of staff turnover

Tracey and Hinkin (2008:13) define employee turnover as the proportion of employees who, after having spent time in a business or company, decide to venture out to other companies and find new jobs. Grobler et al. (2006:121) argue that staff turnover refers to employees who either have already left an organisation or are in the process of leaving it for whatever reason. Therefore, employee turnover can be seen as an outward movement of employees who are replaced by new employees (Samuel & Chipunza, 2009:410). Mayhew (2015:3) echoes this definition and states that employee turnover is the number or percentage of workers who decide to leave an organisation and are replaced by new employees.

Literature indicates that employee turnover remains a phenomenon that could negatively impact the operations and profitability of any business entity (Smith, 2018). Managers and business leaders, and individuals in academia have invested time and resources to try to reduce this phenomenon. Agovino (2019:2) states that staff turnover in the hospitality industry is generally higher than in any industry, ranging from 60 to 120% annually. Shaw (2011:188) agrees that staff turnover has been proved to negatively affect any organisation. There are several reasons for the increase in staff turnover within the hospitality industry and Schilder (2021) found that restaurant employees are dissatisfied with their salaries, poor supervision and the high work pressure environment and the lack of career growth opportunities.

As a result of the loss of employees, organisations are then compelled to replace them at an extra cost (Tracey & Hinkin, 2008:24). Mathis and Jackson (2007:301) state that staff turnover can be divided into two distinct categories, namely, internal, and external staff turnover. Shawkat (2019:1) describes internal turnover as involving employees leaving their current positions and taking new posts within the same organization. In contrast, external turnover involves employees leaving an organisation for a new job elsewhere. Below is a description and discussion of staff turnover at global, African, and national levels, as well as the effects of staff turnover and models.

2.4.1 Staff turnover in the hospitality industry

When analysing the data an overall trend emerges, the restaurant industry turnover rates are on average higher than the private sector turnover rates. Several factors contribute to the industry's comparatively higher turnover rates. For example, the restaurant industry workforce tends to face long hours which include work on weekends and holidays, poor working environments, and possibly even negative relationships with supervisors or co-workers (Hinkin & Tracey, 2000; Lashley, 2000). In addition, upward mobility in the restaurant industry often happens when employees move from one restaurant to another. More than any other industry

in the economy, the existence of multiple restaurants in nearly every community gives employees additional opportunities for upward mobility and career growth (NRA, 2017).

Thus, by being aware of the causal factors which cause these phenomena, managers would stand a far greater chance of preventing and resolving this issue before employees decide to leave. Booth and Hamer (2007:290) state that in an ideal context, people occupying managerial positions in an organisation collaborate and try to reduce the high staff turnover. That is, management is responsible for managing the working environment, for ensuring a harmonious working team working towards growing the organisational goals.

Leadership style is one of the important factors for an employee to remain with or leave an establishment. This statement is validated by a study conducted by Ng'ethe et al. (2012:289) in public universities, which revealed that unfavourable leadership practice was one of the primary reasons for employees leaving an organization. Therefore, there is a crucial need to focus on the importance of the leadership style in the operation of the organisation in terms of minimising employee turnover. However, leadership style alone is not sufficient to influence staff turnover or retention, particularly in an industry like hospitality, which is notorious for exploitation and for creating a precarious labour force (Dwivedi et al., 2019).

Cairncross and Kelly (2008:367) explain that the hotel industry has always dependent on casual employees in order to achieve labour flexibility and thus fill up vacant job positions. A third of employees in hotels are casual workers which cause managers in the industry to take the team for granted because they believe there is always a surplus of casual staff waiting to be employed (Cairncross & Kelly, 2008:380-381).

On the other hand, the exploitative conditions of casual employment mean that employees work under difficult conditions and are always looking for greener pastures. It is thus no surprise that studies have shown casual employees in the restaurant industry to have a higher turnover because of the precarious nature of the job and because these employees may engage in several jobs to increase their earning potential (Vettori, 2017).

2.4.2 Overview of staff turnover in Africa

The researcher discovered a number of staff turnover studies in the hospitality industry conducted in some African countries. These studies were conducted in hotels rather than specifically in restaurants, which is the main focus of this study. The literature of these studies from various African countries have researched and reported on staff turnover include Kenya, Ghana, and Ethiopia. Wanjiru (2018) conducted a study which focused on factors influencing employee turnover in the hospitality industry in Kenya: A case study of Hill park hotel; as well as Kyule (2010) who conducted a study on determinants of staff turnover in the hospitality

industry in Kitui, Kenya. Amissah, Gamor, Deri, and Amissah, (2016) focused on factors influencing employee job satisfaction in Ghana's hotel industry, while Deri, Zaazie and Bazaanah (2021) conducted research pertaining to staff turnover within the hospitality industry in Ghana. While Edao (2019) focused on factors affecting the intention of employee turnover: Case study of three to five star rated hotels in Addis Ababa (Ethiopia).

The authors mentioned above all highlighted that the industry ranks among the highest in employee turnover as indicated by ongoing recruitment exercises in the firms within the industry. The determining factors which were observed were inadequate compensation, lack of job training, good leadership styles within management, and career growth within the organisation (Kyule, 2010:44). Deri et al. (2021:239) found that more than half (55%) of the staff were not satisfied with their jobs and wanted to move to another organisation, which suggests they were not happy because of long working hours, poor leadership roles and lack of job training. Wanjiru (2018) and Edao (2019) concurred these findings as found themain causal factors were found to be the lack of promotion, pay, lack of supervision and training within these organisations. The current study reports similar results of factors contributing to staff turnover as remuneration, career advancement, training, development, proper leadership, reward and recognition. These factors have been previously noted by most of the studies done within the hospitality industry, despite the geographical differences.

2.4.3   Overview of staff turnover in South Africa

The literature on the underlying context framing staff turnover in the hospitality industry in South Africa is silent on the fact that a big part of the precarity of restaurant work is due to the enduring legacy of the exploitative casual labour conditions that began their roots in the colonial and apartheid eras. The historical legacies of unfair and poorly paid casual labour practices extended to the post-apartheid dispensation due to the neoliberal economic template that the democratic government adopted, which upholds creating favourable conditions for capital accumulation and expansion, at the expense of the welfare of workers (Mfete, 2020). Interestingly, a comparison of the condition of workers in South Africa's hospitality industry with those of restaurant and hotel workers in Nordic countries such as Sweden, Norway, Finland, and Denmark, reveals that even though establishments in these wealthy, social democratic nations are renowned for paying staff well, they too suffer from high staff turnover, due to the poor working conditions in their establishments (Gjerald et al., 2021).

The researcher found similar research to this study, based in Cape Town but that specifically focused on hotels, was undertaken by Ebrahim (2014), Ezeuduji and Mbane (2014), Ezeuduji and Mbane (2017) and Dwesini (2019). These studies have common outcomes which highlight high staff turnover within the industry and similar reasons that cause staff turnover. Ebrahim

(2014:50) conducted a study on staff turnover in selected hotels in Cape Town and found that some hotels had a high staff turnover of 64% while others had a relatively low 36% staff turnover. Ezeuduji and Mbane (2017:6) found that a high number of hotel employees were concerned about strict supervision, long working hours and unfair salary scales in hotels, reinforcing what has been highlighted by other researchers.

Dwesini (2019:7) conducted a study on the causes and prevention of high employee turnover within the hospitality industry and found similar reasons (compensation, organisational culture, career development, work environment) for staff turnover. The problem of high staff turnover is not unique to the hospitality industry. Warden et al. (2018:10) conducted a study in the retail industry, on the causes and prevention of staff turnover within micro-retail businesses in South Africa and found similar causes (poor training, poor working conditions, rate of pay, management practices) of staff turnover. A similar study done by Owence et al. (2014:69) found that 'poor working conditions, employees given short-term contracts for a long period of time', understaffing and lack of academic promotion were factors causing employee turnover.

2.4.4   Overview of staff turnover in restaurants

Lachapelle (2021) reports that the restaurant industry has a huge amount of staff turnover, with data showing an average of 73%, which is about 1.5% more compared to other industries. The restaurant times (2017) agrees that "there are several restaurant employee problems, and the high attrition rate is one of the most prominent issues. Restaurants are known to be notorious for having high employee turnover rates. According to economists, the employee turnover rate in the restaurant sector was 62.6% compared to a 42.2% turnover rate in the overall private sector" (The restaurant times, 2017).

Lachapelle (2021) further states that no restaurant will ever completely eliminate employee turnover, however if the right steps are followed the percentage can be reduced. The restaurant industry is globally known as very well suited to the use of part-time, fixed term and seasonal workers, typically young people and students who work to make extra money and it is no surprise that these employees are constantly leaving for better pay or greener pastures (Vettori 2017:1). Chan and Kuok (2011) also found that a leading factor for employees to resign was because of salaries and other organisations offering slightly better salaries. However, some researchers oppose this, such as Lee and Way (2010:349) who believe money/wages alone is not what makes an employee resign. Milman (2003), Kim and Jogaratnam (2010), Chan and Kuok (2011), Choi and Dickson (2009) all found that leading contributors to staff turnover in restaurants were lack of promotion, working environment, training, development, leadership style, long working hours, and remuneration.

Issues of staff turnover

High staff turnover can also lead to important issues of low-quality customer service and greater costs for the hotels through recruitment and training expenditure (Horner and Swarbrooke, 2004). Customer satisfaction is directly influenced when the quality-of-service declines. The front office employees are the 'face' of a hotel which impacts first impression and relates to customer satisfaction, as such, inexperienced staff may lower the customer's satisfaction and thereby indirectly decrease the occupancy rates. In addition, Powell and Wood (1999) claim the 'brain drain' is an important problem. A brain drain occurs when skills and qualifications gained in one hotel are easily transferable to other hotels. In the modern hotel industry, the senior and skilled employees are very familiar with the hotel's operation and business secrets, so the competitive advantage will be decreased if they leave the previous hotel and seek employment elsewhere.

High costs of staff turnover have a negative impact on hotel finances. Hinkin and Tracey (2000) state that many managers do not understand how to deal with the impact of turnover on the bottom line, ". . . for example, in Cascio, the average cost of replacing an hourly line employee was $1500, while that amount jumped to $3000 for a salaried staff member" (p. 17). Lashley (2000) also divides the cost of staff turnover into direct and hidden costs. Direct costs include advertising for replacements, interview, orientation, training costs, and uniforms. Indirect costs include the management's time spent recruiting, selecting, and training, lost staff expertise, decreased quality of service, productivity, and customer satisfaction, and poor impact on remaining employees (Lashley, 2000). Therefore, a high rate of staff turnover can cause the hotel's costs to rise.

The costs of staff turnover are usually divided into four types including leaving costs, replacement costs, transition costs and indirect costs (Lashley, 2001). Leaving costs refer to payroll and personnel costs such as payments made to the person who leaves the hotel e.g., redundancy payments, and the administrative cost arising from the resignation (Lashley, 2001). Replacement costs include the recruitment costs, interview time and employee selection and any agency fees the company may incur (Lashley, 2001). Thirdly, transition costs are training costs, both direct (e.g., courses) and indirect (e.g., supervisors spending time teaching the new employee), the costs of induction and the loss of productivity while the new employee is learning the job (Lashley, 2001). Lastly, indirect, or hidden costs are associated with the loss of customer service and/or satisfaction as a result of staff turnover.

The cost of staff turnover in the hotel industry are both direct and indirect, though the latter are more difficult to calculate (Lashley, 2001). Training is normally considered a direct cost because employers know how much was paid for training, while the value of skilled employees can often be ignored when measuring results. Employers tend to only see the monetary costs of training (Lashley, 2001). However, staff turnover also has intangibles known as indirect or hidden costs. These 'soft issues' are difficult to calculate or to ascribe an actual monetary cost (Lashley, 2001). Indirect costs include anything leading to loss of customer service and/or satisfaction, such as lost investment in training, loss of skills, reduced service quality, lower productivity, increased wastage and costs, customer dissatisfaction, negative impact on remaining staff, lost opportunity cost, management time (Lashley, 2001). Relevant to both direct and indirect costs, employees should be considered as a key aspect in providing consistency of service quality, sustaining which is a challenging task for any hotel. The loss of quality can result in customer dissatisfaction and ultimately lead to loss of revenue and productivity. Hinkin and Tracey also point out that the loss of productivity due to staff turnover can account for more than two-thirds of the total turnover cost.

2.5   Staff turnover models

In recent years, research has been conducted on employee turnover in other industries, including its causes and retention strategies but there is still minimal research within the hospitality industry. Consequently, this led to the formulation of different models that have been published, such as the unfolding model theory and image theory, which are discussed below. March and Simon presented the first turnover theory in 1958 (Holtom et al., 2008:231). These theories elaborate on the effects of staff turnover.

2.5.1   The unfolding model

These theories are based on some of the reasons or decisions employees take before deciding to quit an organisation.

The unfolding model sees new incoming information as shocks (eg. Alternative job offers or pregnancy). It stipulates that internal or external factors will result in an employee leaving an establishment when such a situation arises i.e. shock. The model introduces five paths that it argues will lead to turnover. The first is that the shock activates existing writing or script to which the employee connects which ultimately causes the employee to leave that establishment without considering an alternative or the relationship and connection they have with the organisation. The second path is what triggers the employee to resign without considering other job replacements (Lee et al., 2017:12).

"The incoming information is perceived as a violation of the person's values, objectives and strategies. Path 3 includes a shock that triggers an assessment of the images of the job they currently have, provided the information in the shock is not in tune with the images. This path leads to an intentional job search."

The last two paths do not have shocks but path four is when an employee resigns with immediate effect because their job satisfaction had reached an all-time low even when they do not have another job. Lee et al. (2017:15) further explain that with Path 5, "the employee's job satisfaction is low, which leads to a job search, an assessment of alternatives, the intention to leave, and subsequently, turnovers."

The unfolding theory holds a lot of analytical value when applied to the staff turnover scenario in the hospitality industry. However, it is limited by its lack of focus on staff turnover pertinent to employer factors such as being dismissed or fired from a job due to the perceived dispensability of workers in a particular job category. Put simply, employees are not the only agents who influence staff turnover, they are sometimes pushed out of a job by their managers or superiors (Nasution, 2017).

Restaurant and hotel kitchens are often portrayed in popular media as environments that are run with an iron fist by the senior chefs who manage them and where dismissals are common. Although South Africa lacks studies in the hospitality industry that pay attention to the relationship employees have with senior managers such as chefs, anecdotal evidence suggests that indeed restaurant and hotel kitchens are environments that are run on strict and punitive time schedules and protocols, making it easy for dismissals of staff for what others may consider minor offences. Add to this the strenuous, costly, and sometimes unpredictable process of getting to work that is the reality of many public transport casual labourers in South Africa, which makes it easy to be late for or miss work altogether, then staff turnover due to dismissals or regular altercations with senior managers becomes even more commonplace.

2.5.2   Image theory

This model was created by Beach (1990) and explains how employees process information when deciding when to leave their current job. Melaku (2014:8-10) explains that with the image theory there are three determining factors (called images):

"The first image is the value image which refers to the employee's set of significant beliefs and values concerning the job. Secondly, the employee can compare the facts or information with the trajectory image, which refers to the person's particular goals that determine job behaviour. Lastly, the employee may compare the facts or information with the strategic image, which

refers to the strategies and methods that the person views as vital in reaching job-related goals."

If the incoming information has an alternative which seems enticing, the employee will then compare and contrast the choices that they presently have. Beach (2010:264) argues that if a person has more than one compatible option, they will analyse their options further. "The essential principle of this theory is that individuals leave an organization after having assessed the reason for leaving their job. Individuals do not have the thinking ability to analyse all incoming information carefully." Hence, they merely compare it with more experimental-type information, which suggests they learn from their own experience. The image theory proposes that decision-makers use these three knowledge arrangements (images) to arrange their thinking about decisions. According to this theory, some incoming facts (i.e., a job offer) will be compared to these images.

The image theory suffers the same limitations as the unfolding theory before it, in that it only takes into account employee factors that lead to staff turnover. A more robust theoretical framework to improve the analysis of staff turnover is therefore needed, one that will take into consideration the multiplicity of variables that contribute to high staff turnover in the hospitality industry.

Having described the two models above and how each influences staff turnover, the literature review below delves deeper into describing issues related to staff turnovers such as effects, types of staff turnover, causes of staff turnover, employee recognition, employee expectations and lack of supervision. This influenced the literature below, which is structured as follow, categories of staff turnover, reasons for staff turnover, types of staff turnover, advantages and disadvantages, factors influencing staff turnover and lastly measures of retaining staff.

2.6   Categories of staff turnover: High staff turnover and low staff turnover

The categories of staff turnover, namely high staff turnover and low staff turnover, are described and discussed below. Table 2.1 defines the difference between high staff turnover and low staff turnover.

Table 2.1: Definition of high and low turnover

High staff turnover	Low staff turnover
"A high employee turnover rate implies that a company's employees leave their jobs at a relatively high rate. Employee turnover rates can increase for a variety of reasons, and turnover includes both employees who quit their jobs and those who are asked to leave" (Ingram, 2009:3).	"Low turnover means a company has a relatively small number of employees leave during a given period relative to the employees hired or employed at the start of that period" (Kokemuller, 2017:2).

2.6.1   Low staff turnover

Kokemuller (2017) reports that achieving low staff turnover is an advantage and long-term goal for any organisation. It is further stated that low turnover generally evolves from a business effectively recruiting and hiring employees that are a perfect fit for the organisation and offering a positive work environment, which in turn retains staff, versus leaving for other competitors. Human resources save a great deal in terms of monetary and non-monetary costs as there is no need for advertising a post and retraining new staff (Kokemuller, 2017). Picincu (2018) has the same interments about low staff turnover as it increases profitability of the organisation and increases customer experience as a happy employee produces better products or services. The author further reiterates that workplace stress and conflicts are often the driving factors behind employee absenteeism, as such if staff turnover is low it means the employees are happy which in turn decreases the absenteeism of staff and the by-product of that is increased revenue (Picincu, 2018).

2.6.2   High staff turnover

According to Mamun and Hasan (2017:63), high staff turnover is delineated as a situation in which employees leave the organization for different reasons and thus negatively impact the organisation in terms of overall expenses and the ability to effectively distribute the minimum required services. Masango and Mpofu (2016:883) concur that "employee turnover is not only costly but also detrimental to the survival, growth and prosperity of any organisation."

2.6.3   Causes of staff turnover

The review of the literature indicates that the causes of labour turnover are due to a multiplicity of factors stemming from factors considered to be items external to the individual, such as pay and benefits, working conditions, co-workers, and supervision. Other factors include those associated with employee's personal characteristic such as age, length of service and family, and lastly factors tied to the employee's reaction to the job, such as job satisfaction, involvement and expectation. Each of these factors will be discussed in a separate way to show how these affect labour turnovers.

As Masango and Mpofu (2016) points out, high rates of staff turnover may be endemic in the hospitality industry; however, it is not inevitable. The most critical period of turnover incidents is the first few days and weeks of the incorporation of a new employee in an organization. According to Walker, more people leave then than at any other time. This is often called the

induction crisis and it occurs when the new employee for whatsoever reason, has not been integrated into the team. This may be as a result of poor recruitment or a poor induction programme, with insufficient care and time spent on enabling the new recruit to build strong relationships with his supervisor and co-workers. The new worker may have been left to swim or sink without sufficient support.

"In this industry, opportunities both at home and internationally are huge. So, people with ambition will always be looking to improve their career prospects and will want to move about to gain more experience and responsibility and to earn more money. And where pay levels do not compare well with the competition, the urge to leave and earn more may be overpowering" remarks Masango and Mpofu (2016). Nevertheless, he argues, people remain in jobs that they like even though higher pay may be available elsewhere. A number of factors will influence this decision: - if there are good employment conditions, if staff like working in the business and if there are realistic opportunities for advancement, people are likely to want to stay (Walker, 2006).

Alternatively, it has been suggested that to enhance employees trust in an organization and subsequently reduce turnover intentions, hotels need to continue providing training and development programs for their employees, conduct fair and formal appraisal, and provide ample and clear career advancement to their employees (Hemdi, 2006). In other words, HRM practices send powerful signals to employees about the extent to which the organization trusts them and if organizations fail to deliver on contractual or other promises, employees' sense of indebtedness or mutual obligations will be reduced.

According to Agrusa and Lema (2007) when investigating the issue of employee retention, many surveys and studies reveal that more people leave their jobs because they do not get along with their boss or supervisors than for any other reason. Direct service employees, particularly, are the people who come in the closest contact with the customer on a daily basis. A customer will often make a decision to return to an establishment based on their interaction with a single employee. Thus, when valuable employees continually leave an organization, it has a direct effect on the customer experience.

In determining the causes of staff turnover in the hospitality industry, Fallon and Rutherford (2010) state that hospitality employees in one organisation ranked the "most likely causes of high staff turnover as treatment by superiors, amount of work hours, job pressure, scheduling, training, fringe benefit packages, better opportunities elsewhere, and physical demands of the job" (p. 454). Similarly, Hinkin and Tracey (2000) found in their study that bad working environment and poor supervision results in increased intention to leave the job. With specific reference to the New Zealand hotel industry, Williams, Harris, and Parker (2008) found that age, and low unemployment and remuneration, were the key factors which led to a high staff

turnover. Low pay specifically has also been noted as a significant problem in the house-keeping department of hotels (Ogbonna & Harris, 2002). Linking work-life balance practices with organisational performance remains an issue influencing staff turnover (Beauregard & Henry, 2009).

Furthermore, training or investment is very important in a company especially if they belong to the service sector because in experienced, poorly trained staff can turn customers away, subsequently these customers then talk about their unhappy experience to their friends. Bad news travels fast and customers could discredit a hotel if they had a bad experience. Therefore, it can be assumed that customer turnover (guests who leave and not return) is also directly related to employee turnover which can become a challenge for many hospitality businesses. Customer and employee turnover both have a direct link to the bottom line and profit (Agrusa, 2007).

Staff turnover has been said to result from factors including wages, working conditions, promotional opportunities, and supervision quality, which play a major role in how employees perceive an organisation (Amos, Ristow and Pearse, 2008:250). Furthermore, what exacerbates staff turnover are factors such as low pay, exploitation, and lack of job dissatisfaction (Carrel et al., 2000:240). Staff quitting their jobs is associated with costs, including recruiting, and training new staff members, and variation in service delivery, resulting in the subsequent loss of customer loyalty (Mohanty & Mohanty, 2014:110-111).

A study conducted in Cape town by Ezeuduji and Mbane (2017:6) reports that 46% of hotel employees complained about strict supervision, 34% raised concerns over long working hours, while another 34% saw unfair salaries when comparing it to their associated responsibilities, as the most demotivating factors.

2.6.3.1   Empirical review - Reasons for high staff turnover:

Studies done regarding labour turnover in the service industry across the world indicate that, the hospitality sector leads with many employees' changing jobs from time to time. Subsequently, some causes of labour turnover are believed to be industry specific. Both the internal and external causes of labour turnover affect the growth, profitability, and customer satisfaction whenever it occurs in the workplace. Employers see the process of staff leaving and being replaced as a natural and inevitable feature of the industry (Kuria, Ondingi & Wanderi, 2012).

A study carried out by Kuria, Ondingi, and Wanderi (2012) to establish the internal and external causes of labour turnover in 3- and 5-star hotels in Nairobi Kenya, found out that poor remuneration was cited as the major contributor to staff turn-over with an overwhelming majority (60%) of the respondents dissatisfied with their pay. This was closely followed by lack of involvement of staff in decision making and creativity at 56% of the total respondents saying they were unhappy with the current scenario. Lack of a defined motivation criterion (reward scheme) was cited by 46% of the respondents saying they were dissatisfied with the lack of a well-defined scheme for rewarding workers who excel in their duties.

Another study by Stalcup and Pearson, A. (2001) on causes and effects of employee turnover in Banglandesh, found out that poor pay and irregular payments were the major contributors to employee turnover together accounting for a combined 45% of the total respondents citing. These were followed by the availability of a better job option cited by a marginal 10% of the total respondents sampled. On the other hand, respondents were asked to propose solutions to the problem of high employee turnover, 80% of the respondents gave standard salary structure as the possible cure to the problem. This was followed by regular salary increment at 70% of the total respondents. This study shows that pay is a very critical factor which influences the decision by staff to quit or stay.

Hammerberg (2002) in his study on reasons given for employee turnover in a full priced department store, paints a very disturbing picture on the rate of employee turnover. In his findings, 67.7% of all exiting employees in the store have only served for between zero and one year. This represents a very high rate of attrition at the initial stages of engagement which can cast doubts on their recruitment procedures. Followed by those who have served between one and two years representing 16%. The study also found out that job related factors were the main contributors to termination of employment by category at 37.4%, followed by closely by individual factors at 30.3%. This was true for both permanent and part time staff.

According to Masango and Mpofu (2016), some businesses can experience 50 – 100% turnover very year, way above the best practice forum's Benchmark index of 26.5%. At 26.5%, more than a quarter of staff changes their jobs every year; at 50%, a business is replacing half its staff every year. This is an alarming figure that reinforces the idea that the hospitality industry possesses one of the highest rates of turnover, among all the service industries. In the article "The cost of employee turnover", O'connel & Kung (2007) makes the point that organizations tend to underestimate the cost of turnover, yet collectively turnover costs organizations billions of dollars a year. According to a conservative estimate by the Bureau of labour statistics in America, the average cost to replace an employee is $13,996 (O'Connel, 2007).

Research done by Hinkin and Tracey (2000) found out that hotels all over the world experience high turnover rates. According to their research, globally, the turnover rate in the hotel industry is estimated to range from 60% to 300% annually, far higher than the 34.7% reported in the manufacturing industry. Most importantly, they affirm that excessive employee turnover rate is detrimental to organizations. It is evident that it is related to direct and indirect costs; furthermore, it affects moral, productivity, reputation, and survival of organizations. That is to say, turnover, when high, often means that employees are unhappy with the work compensation, it can also indicate unsafe or unhealthy conditions, or that too few employees give satisfactory performance due to unrealistic expectations or poor candidate screening. By contrast, turnover, when it is low, indicates that none of the above is true: employees are satisfied, healthy and safe, and their performance is satisfactory to the employer.

Most researchers (Kalliath & Beck, 2001; Kramer et al., 1995) have attempted to answer the question of what determines people's intention to quit by investigating possible antecedents of employees' intentions to quit. To date, there has been little consistency in findings, which is partly due to the diversity of techniques employed, variables included by the researchers and the lack of consistency in their findings. However, a number of attempts have been made to understand management turnover such as career advancement, organizational culture and commitment, the intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction and work-life balance have been found to be among the key motivators for employees to quit. Employee turnover intentions are affected to a greater extent by psychological, perceptual, and affective factors rather than by the characteristics of the employees or hotels, although age is a factor that is significantly associated with long-term employee turnover (Ghiselli et al., 2001; Stalcup & Pearson, 2001).

Braham (2005:3–5) created the following list of the top seven most common <u>reasons for employees to quit their job</u>, which are further elaborated on using other relevant literature.

a)   The position or workplace was not what was expected
Chiboiwa, Chipunza and Samuel (2011:2910-2911) explain that this occurs when a disappointed employee experiences something different from what they expected the job to be. Chiboiwa et al. (2011:2914-2915) elaborate that employees react negatively toward an unfavourable working environment.

b)   A mismatch between the position and the person
The mismatch means employees have accepted a job that does not fit their skills, talent, preferences, abilities, or cultural values, which in turn results in dissatisfaction or boredom. This can result in high staff turnover because such an employee does not stay long with the organisation (Ariokasamy, 2013:1532).

c)   Limited coaching and feedback

This refers to employees feeling that they are not being adequately coached by their managers or not being told how or where to improve. This promotes low morale in the employees, making them opt for a different organisation, thus causing high staff turnover (DuBrin, 2008:359; Muteswa & Ortlepp, 2011:26).

d)   Limited growth and advancement opportunities

Gimbel (2015:2) explains that whenever employees see no progress or growth in their current position, they usually feel uncomfortable and tend to leave an organisation. Numerous researchers emphasise this, stating that whenever employees lack opportunities for growth and development, they become frustrated, resulting in them leaving the organisation (Seijts & Crim, 2006; Lesabe & Nkosi, 2007; Ngobeni & Bezuidenhout, 2011).

e)   Employees feel devalued and unrecognised

Recognising employees is very important. If employees are performing in their current roles, managers should recognise these employees to keep them motivated. Ng'ethe et al. (2012:299-300) support these sentiments and argue that employees become demotivated and leave an organisation if they do not receive regular positive feedback and recognition.

f)   Stress from overworking and work-life balance

Work-life balance is the equilibrium between home life and career. If this is not attained, it could affect employees' personal lives or their mental or physical health (Harvard Business Review [HBR], 2016:5). Ariokasamy (2013:1533) argues that organisations need to help employees to manage their commitments at home and work, as well creating a balance between the two. If this work-life balance is not achieved, there is a likelihood of employees leaving the organisation.

g)   Loss of trust and confidence in organisational leaders

Ng'ethe et al., (2012:300) state that 'incompetent leadership often results in poor employee performance, low job commitment, low job satisfaction, high stress, and a turnover intention'. Gimbel (2015:1) states that when staff no longer believe in the organisation and feel that no one recognises their efforts, this results in a loss of confidence, and they will look for another job.

h)   Employee expectations

Employees who have only recently started working have preconceived ideas about what to expect from a work environment. However, when these are not met, these employees may start to withdraw from work, giving seemingly compassionate reasons such as family crises as reasons for not being able to make it work (De Vos et al., 2007:14). When employees see that their high performance is recognised, they continue performing better and expect better rewards.

i)   Lack of supervision

Nasution (2017:8) states that the process of supervision should be democratic, whereby, employees are encouraged and supported, which empowers them. Recognition of employees by their supervisor should be fair and empowering and should reassure every employee that they play a significant role in achieving and delivering excellent service. When positive and supportive supervision is lacking, this may contribute to employees leaving.

j)   Typical restaurant work

Vettori (2017:1) reports that the "nature of work in the hospitality sector is globally very well suited to the use of part-time, fixed-term and seasonal workers, and South Africa is no exception. Typically, these jobs are not well paid and are precarious. Migrant workers are often willing to settle for almost any wages and any work conditions just to survive" and this is what gives the hospitality industry leaders the ability to exploit and continue underpaying their employees (Vettori, 2017:2).

For instance, Emiroğlu, Akova, and Tanrıverdi (2015) raised findings that link demographic factors to turnover intention. In Emiroğlu et al. (2015) study, they argued that demographic factors like age, gender, marital status, and education and other factors such as tenure, wage, position, the area of assignment can also be the determinants for turnover intention. For instance, Akova, Cetin, and Cifci (2015) inferred in their study that while the turnover intention of employees on pre-opening hotel businesses is low, male employees have shown to have more intentions of quitting their job than female employees.

Moreover, Foreman (2009) stated that there are three factors that generally cause a turnover. These are 'individual factors' (e.g., age, education, gender, tenure), 'work-related factors' (e.g., job satisfaction, wage, performance, organizational commitment), and 'external factors' (e.g., unemployment rate, perceptions of employment, the presence of trade union'' (Foreman, 2009).

2.6.4   The impact of high staff turnover

Turnover is very difficult to predict, and questions remain unanswered as to why actually the employee left. Brough and Frame (2004) defined turnover intention as an individual's estimated probability to leave his or her current organization at some point in the near future. Many scholars have attempted to answer the questions of what determines employees' intention to quit their job (Kalliath & Beck, 2001; Nasyira, Othman, & Ghazali, 2014; Nasir & Ghazali, 2019). According to Perez (2008), there were determinants that cause turnover and to deduce hypothetical direction of action where several variables will be categorized into three different group: psychological, economic, and demographical variables. Psychological determinants refer to the employee's mental process and behaviour, such as expectations, orientation, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, job involvement or affectivity (Perez, 2008). Economic view the employee's decision, whether he wants to leave or stay, as a result of a rational cost-benefit assessment and analyses the turnover process with more emphasis on the interplay between externally determined variables such as pay or opportunity (Perez, 2008).

While demographic variables known as personal characteristics that widely used in turnover research with two determinants were examined to have a direct impact on turnover intent such as tenure and age (Perez, 2008). The social aspect refers to the social behaviour of an employee within his organization, such as integration or relationship with other associates and low perceived financial and social aspects in the own can lead to turnover (Perez, 2008). Apart from that, there was a study conduct in UK where the aims to identify key variables that influence the variability of labour turnover. The approach used in this research was a case study of a major retailer and the key data sources was an index for local competitive and labour market factors, an annual employee survey, and internal labour turnover data for each UK unit of the retailer. Environmental and organizational factors have a major influence on labour turnover. While management behaviour as seen through operational and control variables are also of importance. "Values, trust and respect between employees" is the most important significant predictor of labour turnover (Hamer, 2007). Next, corporate value; "give support to each other" and employees' level of "development and career building satisfaction" were reported as significant predictor of labour turnover (Hamer, 2007).

Losing staff members is costly and can cause a loss of efficiency in the notice period (Sikwela, 2016:40). It is reiterated that employee turnover is expensive, affects productivity and is generally disruptive to an organisation (Fakhraei et al., 2015:766). To add, recruiting replacements for employees that leave the organisation creates additional costs and an increase in training costs (South Africa. Public Service Commission, 2006:18).

Hamermesh (2001:140) reports that high external turnover can jeopardise productivity because the staff which is left behind will need to either put more work in to fill in for the employees that have moved, or a new team will have to be employed. Adjei (2012:11) adds that staff leaving an establishment does not only affect productivity but also affects organisational profitability as part of measuring turnover involves three costs—separation cost, replacement cost and training cost. Staff turnover can also harm other employees by disrupting group morale and friendships and increasing internal conflict, which can trigger additional absenteeism (Neo et al., 2006:3). Hamermesh (2001:151) echoes this and advances that staff turnover may affect services offered by the business and may cause delays in meeting customer demands.

Figure 2.2 below explains that there are two categories of costs that occur when employees leave, namely visible and invisible costs. Visible costs start the moment an employee resigns as now the organisation will have to recruit and train a new staff member, which comes with visible expenses. Invisible costs are those which are difficult to quantify, such as the loss of productivity resulting from the employee who quit (Sikwela, 2016:93). There is pressure on the employees who have to cover the work which is left when an employee leaves.
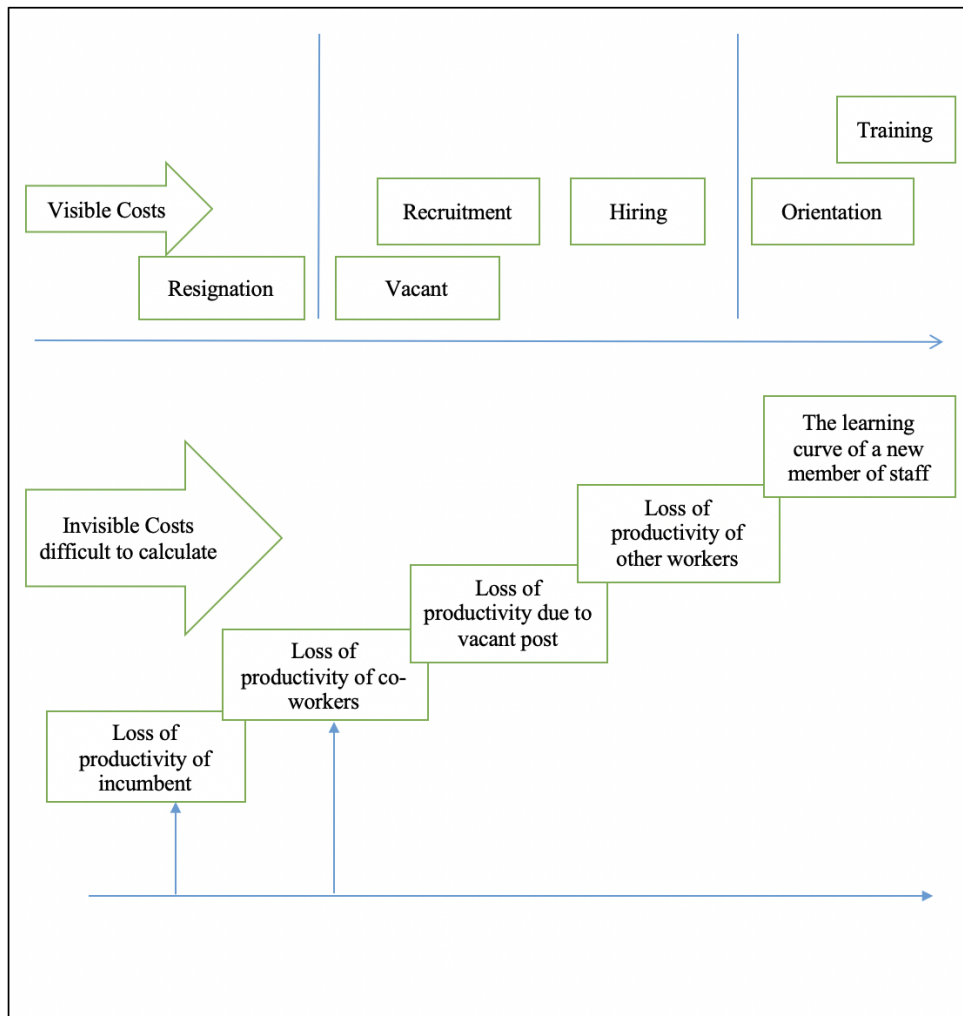
Figure 2.2: Impact of high employee turnover
(Sikwela, 2016:39)

Theron et al. (2014:3), Mello (2015:575) and Sikwela (2016:34) show the time it can take to replace staff members. For example, it can take up to 18 months' worth of salary to replace a manager or professional and up to six months' salary to replace an hourly worker. Sissons (2008:2) reports on the international staff turnover statistics of countries such as the United States, which is estimated to cost USD 40 billion annually, Canada, USD 12 billion and Germany DM 60 billion (Robbins, 2003:51). Furthermore, Sikwela (2016:52) suggests that staff turnover is costing South African organisations millions of Rands because of decreased competence as well as the closure of some of these organisations. The increasing high staff turnover is an evident problem as literature has shown that the industry plays an important part in the economy's GDP (contributing over R425 billion) as well as job creation in the past five years, as one in four new jobs were created by the sector, making the industry the best partner for governments to generate employment (WTTC, 2019:2).

Several studies, including Sissons (2008), Muteswa and Ortlepp (2011) and Fakhraei et al. (2015) confirm that staff turnover requires extensive management time because of reviewing new applications, interviewing candidates and conducting reference checks. According to Sissons (2008:4), this could lead to possible overtime costs incurred by paying other staff while the position is vacant, thus costing the organisation more money. Gardner (2009:11) argues that staff turnover may negatively affect services offered by the organisation and that these may result in inconsistencies in fulfilling and exceeding customer demands. Thus, this leads to customer dissatisfaction and inevitable complaints.

2.7 Types of staff turnover

There are different types of employee turnover. According to Dwivedi et al. (2019:1573), types of staff turnover are double-sided and include voluntary, involuntary, functional, dysfunctional, and avoidable, unavoidable. These types of staff turnover apply to low or high staff turnover.

Figure 2.3 below illustrates and explains the different types of employee turnover.
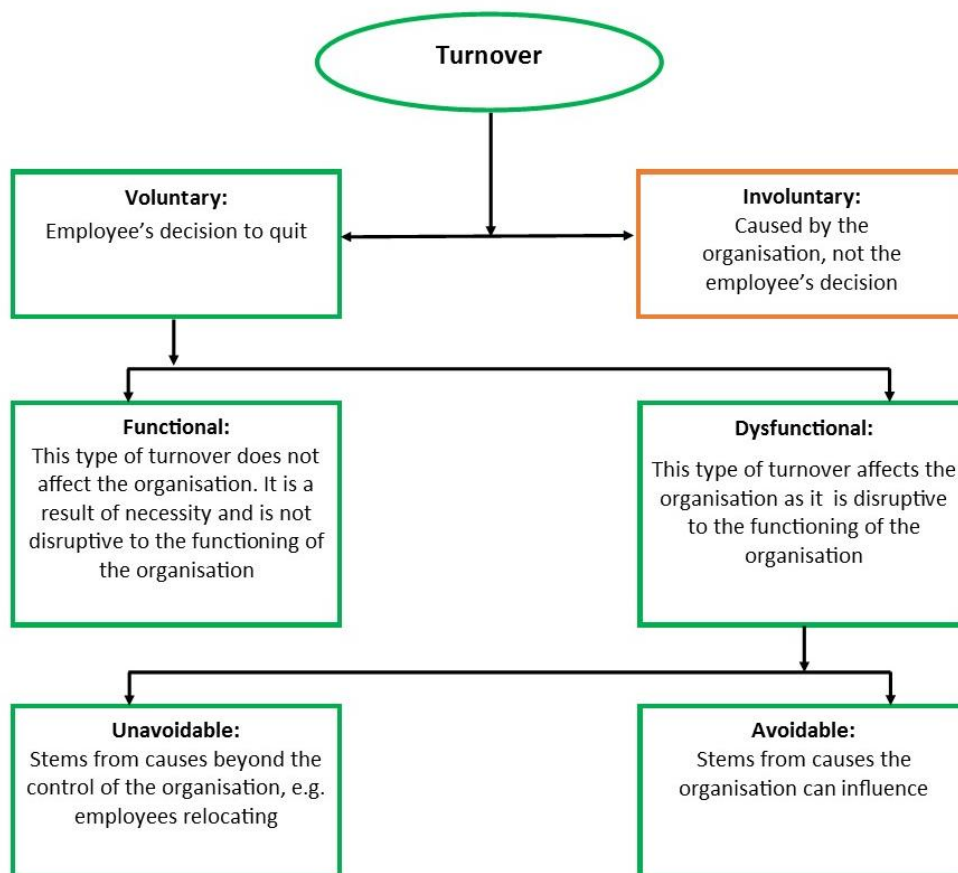
Figure 2.3: Different types of employee turnover
(Allen, 2006:2)

2.7.1 Voluntary and involuntary employee turnover

As the name implies, voluntary employee turnover refers to an employee's choice to leave the company. Curran (2012:11) explains that most employee turnover is voluntary. Voluntary turnover is when an employee is unhappy with their current job and they will actively look for another job to replace their current one, should the offer be more appealing to them (Mensele & Coetzee, 2014:15). On the other hand, involuntary turnover is initiated by the employer, for example, retrenchment, retirement age or even dismissal, in which the employee has minimal input (Mensele & Coetzee, 2014:15; Nel & Werner, 2014:18; Theron et al., 2014:3).

Furthermore, Mello (2015:576) explains that 'voluntary employee turnover usually provides more costs than benefits, whereas involuntary turnover is beneficial for the organisation from a cost viewpoint'. Volunturay employee turnover is further categorised into functional and dysfunctional and this is explained below:

2.7.2 Functional and dysfunctional employee turnover

Functional employee turnover arises when poor performers leave the organisation, whereas dysfunctional employee turnover is when top performers leave the organisation (York, 2010:91). Mello (2015:332) adds that an organisation should, by all means, try to reduce dysfunctional turnover by developing company recognition such as employee of the month or reward systems to keep and motivate top-performing employees. Sikwela (2016:37) stresses that dysfunctional employee turnover does hurt an organisation because "the costs exceed any potential benefits". Dysfunctional employee turnover is further categorised into avoidable and unavoidable employee turnover and this is explained below:

2.7.3 Avoidable and unavoidable employee turnover

There is avoidable and unavoidable employee turnover. Studies show that employee turnover can be avoided by recruiting, evaluating, and stimulating employees (Curran, 2012:11) and by putting strategies in place such as rewards systems to encourage employees to stay (Morrel & Arnold, 2007:3; Theron et al., 2014:3). Sikwela (2016:174) states that the organisation is often responsible for avoidable staff turnover, which may include poor pay scales or a lack of opportunities to advance within the organisation.

In contrast to avoidable employee turnover, there is unavoidable employee turnover, which is beyond the employer's control. Unavoidable turnover may include an employee relocating, the spouse being offered a job transfer, health issues or going to school full-time (Curran, 2012:12; Ariokasamy, 2013:1535; Sikwela, 2016:37). With so many different types of staff turnover, each organisation needs to try and identify which type of turnover has caused their employees to leave, how to rectify this and not lose future valuable employees. However, this can only be determined by knowing the typical reasons thereof. This viewpoint is discussed in the next section.

2.8   Advantages of staff turnover

Turnover within the restaurant industry may not always be detrimental to the business. There are some benefits to turnover when the opportunity for new employees may provide a higher level of customer service, which can positively impact performance and profitability. Some benefits can exist with turnover, which prevails over the cost it generates. Benefits of turnover can include acquiring lower-paid replacement employees, more significant opportunities to promote restaurant employees who are loyal and stay employed by the hiring restaurant (Larkin et al., 2016). Also, to bring in new employees with new ideas, knowledge, and experiences. On average, turnover rates of 10-12 percent are considered healthy by leading scholars (Lider, Harper, Shon, Sellers, & Castrucci, 2016).

Lepheana (2012:12) argues that employee turnover can sometimes be a positive factor to an organisation as it leaves room for growth, development and potential promotion for the employees who remain, as well as a gap for new and fresh ideas from new employees that can bring growth to an organisation. Thus, new employees can bring new innovative ideas and unique experiences which could have a positive influence on an organisation's ambitions and growth (Makhuzeni, 2014:32).

2.9   Disadvantages of staff turnover

Masango and Mpofu (2016:883) advance that the major disadvantage of employee turnover is that it is not only extremely costly, but also puts the survival and ultimate growth of a business at great risk. Getting skilled and competent employees are a crucial requirement for competent service delivery, therefore sometimes, negative consequences of employee turnover are mandatory under specific circumstances (Schlechter et al., 2016:2). The above statement applies to the restaurant sector because of the assumed high staff turnover rates. As such, the researcher finds it important to assess employee turnover and arrive at recommendations for restaurants owners to minimise this, which will, in turn, minimise costs.

There are different components of employee turnover namely but not exclusively; separation costs (overtime pay and severance pay), replacement costs (process of getting and training new employees) and performance costs which arise as a result of productivity loss (York, 2010:91). In summary, this means that the loss of an organisations employees to another organisation along with the time and money invested in them in training and recruitment results in significant cost to the organisation who loses their employees (Makhuzeni, 2014:33).

Omotoye (2011:88) argues that the failure to attract and retain skilled and vital employees consequently leading to increased employee turnover is often referred to as a setback for the achievement of successful and competent service delivery. This increased employee turnover often paints a negative perception of the organisations image in the labour market and often results in difficulty to recruit and retain employees who possess scarce skills in the industry (O'Hara & Probst, 2016:9).

Employee turnover is inevitably likely to affect levels of productivity, which in turn brings negative costs for the organisation. Mabindisa (2013:9) echoes these views when he argues that employee turnover has the potential to affect organisational productivity as it increases the workload of the remaining employees which can lead to high levels of stress and depleted moral leading to absenteeism.

2.10 Factors contributing to staff turnover

Multiple factors contribute to staff turnover, such as the type of recruitment the organisation uses, type of promotion used, working conditions, employee recognition, and supervision quality. Some of these are explained further below.

2.10.1 Types of recruitment

There are typically two types of recruitment, namely internal and external, each of which can affect staff turnover. These are explained further below.

2.10.1.1 Internal recruitment

Juneja (2015:2) explains internal recruitment as recruitment that takes place within the organization. Kapur (2018:9) adds that internal recruitment is important for an organisation as it provides opportunities for progress and the use of existing resources within the organisation. This will eliminate one of the reasons which constantly reoccurs for causes of staff turnover which is "promotion". With internal recruitment, the stress on the Human Resource department is reduced as they select an employee whose performance and qualities are known to the company (Kapur, 2018:10).

2.10.1.2   External recruitment

External recruitment can be defined as a type of recruitment that selects employees from outside the organisation (Juneja, 2015:2). Kapur (2018:3) states the positive aspect of this type of recruitment is that new employees bring innovativeness, resourcefulness, creativity and new thoughts and ideas to the organisation. Juneja (2015:3) also discusses the negatives of this type of recruitment, stating that it involves significant time and money (i.e., for advertising and training) which in turn can lead to other employees wanting to resign as they were not given the opportunity for growth.

2.11   Measures for employee retention

Mita et al. (2014:155) define employee retention as "a technique adopted by businesses to maintain an effective workforce and at the same time meet operational requirements". Das and Mukulesh (2013:16) add that it is "a process in which the employees are encouraged to remain with the organisation for the maximum period or until the completion of the project".

For an organisation to have good employee retention, it needs to go beyond catering for salaries and benefits but have a holistic approach which incorporates the needs of all its employees regardless of age which would lead to increased individual job satisfaction, loyalty and commitment (Sinha & Sinha, 2012 146). Nienbaer (2016:76) puts it best when they explain that retaining skilled employees starts with attracting the most suitable and competent applicant for a specific role, and by doing this, it ensures that the best employees get selected which increases the likelihood of optimum performance for that role which would be a positive for the organisation as the employee would want to stay. Some of the benefits of employee retention include saving on training and recruiting new candidates which in turn improves productivity in an organisation and ultimately increases employee performance in order to meet organisational needs and objectives (Hong et al., 2012:62).

In short, it is in the best interest of an organisation to retain employees with scarce skills as it is less expensive and more effective than recruiting, training, and deploying new employees (Zingheim & Schuster, 2008:39). In addition, retaining skilled and competent employees is an advantage as it ensures improved service delivery (Hong et al., 2012:62). Furthermore, when an organisation retains its skilled employees, it endorses positive working relationships which enhance employee management relationships and enables important succession plans (Chikumbi, 2011:59) which advance and preserve the organisations' knowledge and learning (Chikumbi, 2011:59; Kowalewski et al., 2011:100).

The below highlights ways of retaining Staff:

2.11.1 Additional measures for employee retention

Below, Jacobsen (2013:2) lists additional <u>measures for employee retention</u>.

a) **Hire the right employee**

Hiring the right employee means carefully selecting the right candidate from the applicants in the first place. As an employer, you need to clearly define the role of the employee and be sure that the candidate fits the role and the company culture.

b) **Keep compensation and benefits current**

Keeping compensation and benefits current simply means as an employer you need to pay competitive wages and benefits relative to the position. This ensures that employees are motivated and want to stay with the company.

c) **Recognise and reward employees**

Recognition of a hardworking and dedicated employee does not only boost the confidence of the employee, but also encourages them to continue the hard work, which in turn improves the service rendered by the company. An employer can also use tangible rewards such as a bonus or award for employee of the month.

d) **Offer flexibility**

The hospitality industry is always busy, but managers need to manage staff in such a way that employees can request time off for an important event if required. A job that does not offer some sort of flexibility impacts retention directly. The Boston College Centre for Work and Family (2007) found that '76% of managers and 80% of employees indicated that flexible work arrangements had positive effects on retention.'

e) **Prioritise employee happiness**

Prioritising employee happiness is key for any company because if the employee is happy, they will in turn make the guest happy. In the hospitality industry, a happy guest means return business which means greater sales for the company. A happy employee will seldom leave the company, meaning staff turnover will be reduced.

f) **Make opportunities for development and growth**

Every employee is looking for an opportunity to grow and develop in any workplace. It is the employer's responsibility to assist employees to develop and grow within their career, which will, in turn, help the company grow as well, which is a win/win situation. Employees have no reason to serve long-term with a company that does not provide opportunities for growth and development.

g)   Provide an inclusive vision

A key factor for employers to bear in mind is to provide a sense of purpose and meaning for every employee, which will make them feel special and included in the company's mission and goals. This also increases the sense of belonging and loyalty to the company.

h)   Demonstrate and cultivate respect

Managers are encouraged to demonstrate and cultivate a culture of respect in their employees, which will in turn reduce staff turnover. Augsberger et al. (2012:1226) stress that respect in the workplace is a key factor in voluntary staff turnover.

2.12   Chapter summary

The chapter contextualised the literature for the study topic and covered staff turnover globally and in Africa as well as nationally. Different articles and journals were referenced in support of why the chosen topic was worth exploring. The chapter discussed in detail staff turnover in general, the effects of staff turnover, the impact of staff turnover and lastly, the causes of staff turnover. This chapter also highlighted how the hospitality industry plays a vital role in the economy of the country, as well as in job creation.

In the next chapter the research design and methodology employed in this study will be addressed.

CHAPTER 3
RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1   Introduction

Research methodology is the outline of research methods followed when conducting research. This provides information on the respondents, the sampling framework, instruments used for data collection, presentation and the rationale for the research method used (McCombes, 2019:4). The research methods selected for this study were deemed fit as they speak to a specific problem identified, the rationale, the specific research questions, and the aims and objectives of the research topic (Sahu, 2013:25). This chapter includes the research paradigm, research method used, the research design, demarcation, study population, sampling method, data collection, data analyses and presentation, ethical considerations as well as limitations for data collection.

The results were acquired through two separate questionnaires which were adapted and amended from the studies of Adjei (2012), Ebrahim (2014), Tiwari (2015) and Sikwela (2016) to fit this particular research. The questions in the questionnaire were structured to respond to the three objectives of the study:

a)   To assess the status of staff turnover within restaurant kitchens in the Cape Town CBD;

b)   To determine the causal factors of staff turnover within restaurant kitchens in Cape Town CBD; and

c)   To establish the impact of staff turnover within restaurant kitchens in the Cape Town CBD.

Both questionnaires consisted of structured and unstructured questions. One questionnaire was for managers who answered on the status of staff turnover, and the other questionnaire was for employees who stated the causes and impact of staff turnover.

3.2   Research paradigm

Rehman and Alharthi (2016:51) refer to a research paradigm as the ideology and assumptions about the world underlying the way research is conducted.

Understanding the different research paradigms that exist is important in guiding a researcher's decision-making process about what method to select. The researcher can understand the potential strengths and limitations of each approach and can use this information to inform their research design before undertaking the research (Crossan,

2003:47). The two main paradigms that underpin research methodologies are positivism and post-positivism or interpretivism (Crossan, 2003:48).

The Oxford Dictionary (2021) defines positivism as "a philosophical system that holds that every rationally justifiable assertion can be scientifically verified or is capable of logical or mathematical proof….". According to Crossan (2003:48), positivism presupposes that absolutism exists; thus, it is focused on a belief in objectivity, logic and a search for universal laws and prediction. Quantitative methodology falls under this paradigm.

Crossan (2003:48) asserts that:

> Post-positivism provides an alternative to the traditions and foundations of positivism for conducting a disciplined enquiry. For the post-positivist, the reality is not a rigid thing; instead, it is a creation of those individuals involved in the research.

Crossan (2003:50) continues that:

> …as a result, post-positivists, rather than pursue absolute truth (through generalisations and laws), seek warranted assertability where evidence is constructed from multiple realities and multiple perspectives without compromising research validity.

Quantitative research methodology often holds the positivist paradigm (Noordin & Masrek, 2016:5), and as such, for this study, a positivist paradigm was used. The reason for using the quantitative method is because the sample is large, and the results of this study can be generalised to other restaurants within the study population.

3.3   Research methods

The researcher used a quantitative research approach for this study. Quantitative research is a process that is objective in its use of mathematical and statistical techniques of using data. It selects from a sample of a population to generalise the results to the larger population (Maree, 2016:163). This assisted in the selection of a quantitative method for this study to answer the main research question which is: 'How does staff turnover affect the restaurant kitchens in the Cape Town CBD'.

3.4   Research design

A descriptive research design was considered the most appropriate for this study. Boru (2018:2) explains that 'descriptive research design is a scientific method that involves observing and describing the behaviour of a subject without influencing it in any way.' McCombes (2019:4) elaborates by saying descriptive research is often used as a pre-cursor to more quantitative research designs with the general overview giving some valuable pointers as to what variables are worth testing quantitatively. "Descriptive research design helps provide answers to the questions of who, what, when, where, and how associated with a

particular research problem." These are the reasons this research design was selected as the most appropriate for the study because the researcher's main question sought to ascertain the status, causes, and impact of staff turnover within the kitchen department of restaurants in the Cape Town CBD. This research design was also considered because it acquired first-hand information from respondents that articulated rational, sound conclusions and recommendations for this thesis.

3.4.1 Research approach

This study is mainly quantitative. In quantitative research, an investigator relies on numerical data to test the relationships between the variables (Charles & Mertler, 2002:11). Quantitative research attempts to measure the precise count of some behaviour, knowledge, opinion or attitude (Cooper & Schindler, 2003:216). It involves looking at numbers or quantities of one or more variables of interest (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010:94). Quantitative measures (survey) were used to gather data to test the responses to questions (Creswell, Ebersohn, Eloff, Ferreira, Ivankova, Jansen, Nieuwenhuis, Pietersen, Clark & Van der Westhuizen, 2007:255). In quantitative research, the data are collected using existing or pilot-tested, self-developed instruments (surveys, tests, scales) intended to yield highly reliable and valid scores (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010:94).

Babbie and Mouton (2001:80) posit that descriptive studies use a quantitative research approach to elicit answers to the research questions and sub-questions. Descriptive studies may be employed to conduct a survey of people who have had practical experience of the problem to be studied (Babbie & Mouton, 2001:80-81). A descriptive study establishes only associations between variables (Creswell et al., 2007:255) and in this study it will be used to establish the relationship between the causes and impact of staff turnover.

3.4.2 Research technique

A field survey was used to collect data for analysis and interpretation. McMillan and Schumacher (2010:602) define survey research as the assessment of the current status, opinions, beliefs and attitudes by using questionnaires or interviews from a known population. In survey research, researchers select samples of respondents before administering questionnaires or conducting interviews to collect information about their attitudes, values, habits, ideas, demographics, feelings, opinions, perceptions, plans and beliefs (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010:601).

Basically, surveys are performed to generate original information from a sample (Babbie & Mouton, 2001:232). The purpose of a survey is to generalise from a sample to a population so that inferences can be made about some characteristic, attitude or behaviour of the population (Creswell, 2003:154). Several researchers (MacLaurin & MacLaurin, 2000:78; Oh, 2000:59; Spinelli & Canavos, 2000:30; Choi & Chu, 2001:280) have found surveys to be a powerful technique for eliciting information on diner research. The section below focuses on the research methodology.

3.5   Demarcation

A study demarcation normally covers a geographic area that can be clearly defined (Creswell, 2014:215). This research was conducted in the kitchen departments of the selected restaurants situated in the Cape Town CBD. Respondents for the study were head/executive chefs (managers) and chefs (employees) working in these restaurants. The areas where the selected restaurants are situated within the Cape Town CBD are circled in Figure 3.1 below, being Zonnebloem, Gardens, Kloof, Greenmarket Square and Tamboerskloof.
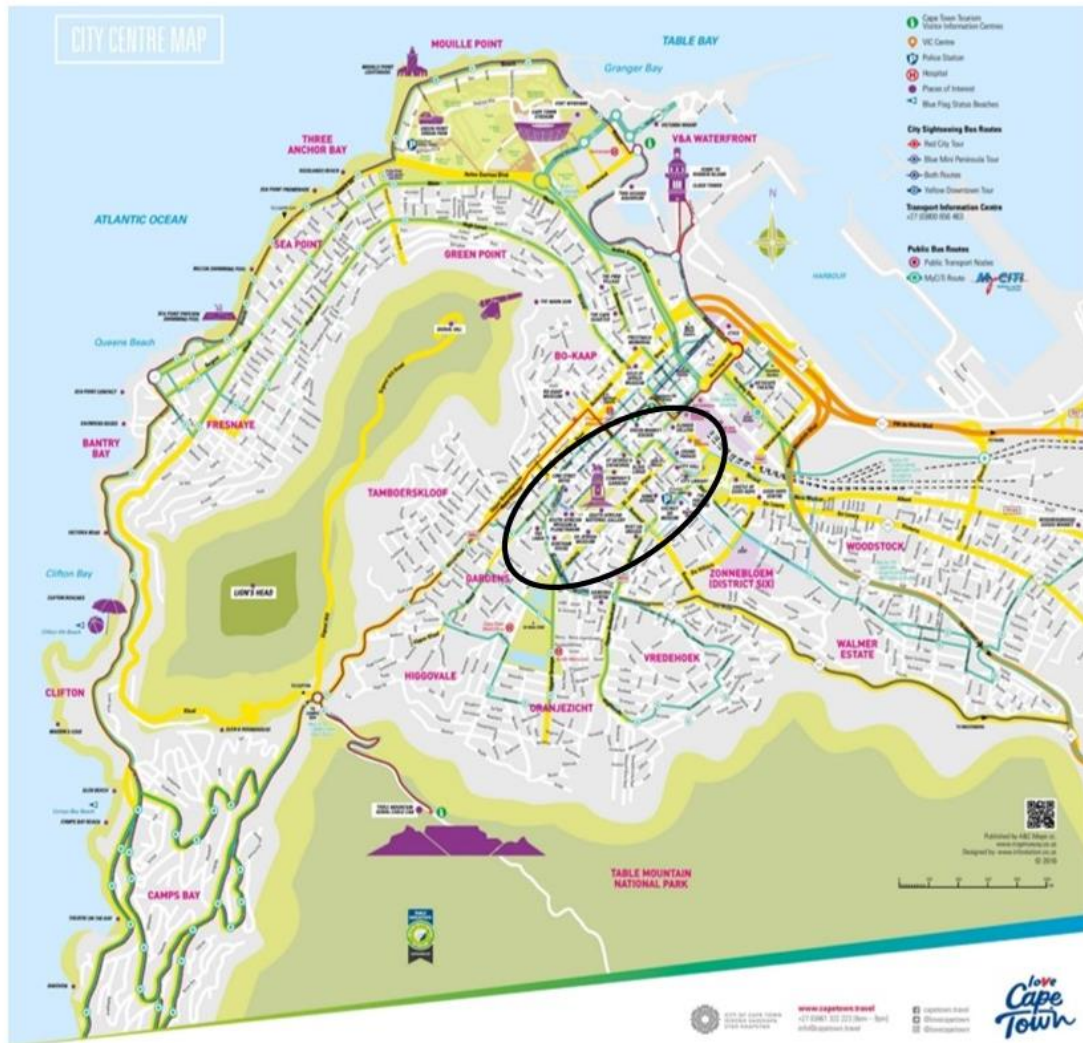
Figure 3.1: Map of the Cape Town CBD indicating the location of selected restaurants
(OnTheWorldMap, 2017:1).

3.6 Study population

A study population encompasses the units of analysis that are used for sampling. Collectively, the study units make up the population of the study (Majid, 2018:3). The population in this study comprised head/executive chefs (managers) and junior chefs (employees) in the kitchen departments of selected restaurants in the Cape Town CBD.

Most of the restaurants that participated in the study were bistro (casual dining) and café style (family style), which vary from small to micro-size businesses, which means they are SMEs (Thulo, 2019:4). As explained in the literature review, these types of restaurants hire up to 10 employees (Thulo, 2019:4). It was further observed during data collection that the majority of the participating restaurants had 2–4 chef employees per shift.

3.7   Sampling method

A sampling method is the selection of participants and the population of the study (Creswell, 2013:30). This study utilised both probability and non-probability sampling, where probability sampling was used to select the restaurants and non-probability sampling was used to select the respondents. This is further explained below.

3.7.1   Database development

After searching multiple restaurant sites for a database within the Cape Town CBD, the researcher found that there was no list of only restaurants that could be used as a sample frame of the restaurants in Cape Town, let alone the CBD. In the absence of such a list of restaurants, the researcher developed a restaurant sample frame. To develop the sampling frame, several online websites such as Zomato, Eat Out, Dining-out.com, SA-venues.com, Food24.com and TripAdvisor were consulted because they consist of several restaurants, bars, and hotels around Cape Town.

It was noted that TripAdvisor had the highest number (401) of restaurants that are based in the Cape Town CBD at the time this database was accessed (12 May 2018) compared to the above-mentioned websites. Therefore, TripAdvisor was found to be a suitable website for this study as it maximised the number of restaurants to participate in the study. The sample frame was formulated based on TripAdvisor's database by capturing the details of the restaurants on a Microsoft Excel spreadsheet that was structured alphabetically into columns headed name of the restaurant, type of restaurant, contact details and address. The details were captured to locate these restaurants and make contact for data collection. After this, the selection of restaurants and respondents was done and is elaborated on below.

3.7.2   Selection of restaurants

The researcher used the sample size calculator from Surveymonkey to calculate the number of restaurants needed to participate in the study (Surveymonkey, 2018). The sample size calculated was 196 (from a total of 401 restaurants) with an interval level of 5%, which is equal to a 95% level of confidence (Sedgwick, 2014:2). The restaurant list that was formulated alphabetically made it easier to select systematically and give each restaurant a fair chance of being selected because every second restaurant was selected until the sample size was reached. The names of the participating restaurants are not exposed for ethical/confidentiality reasons and are referred to as Restaurants A, B, C, D, E etc.

3.7.3   Selection of the respondents

Particular attention was paid to the identification and selection of the most appropriate person in each restaurant to participate in the study. The researcher used the approach suggested by Huber and Power (1985), using a single key informant, with a view to minimising the potential for systematic and random sources of error.

Convenience sampling was used to select the respondents. This was deemed a suitable sampling method because employees participated based on their availability (Creswell, 2013:15) on the day that data were collected. Also, it gave an equal chance of selection to those that were available and were willing to participate in the study.

3.8   Data collection

The data collection for this study is discussed in this section. The section will firstly introduce the data collection instrument for this study. Data collection instruments are used to collect the data to be analysed for results.

3.8.1   Data collection instrument

The data for this study was collected using two questionnaires, one questionnaire was for the managers (Appendix A) who answered on the status of staff turnover, and the second questionnaire was for employees (Appendix B) who answered on the causes and impact of staff turnover. The questionnaire items were influenced by the two theories (namely the unfolding model and the image theory) and adapted from previous studies that focused on staff turnover within the hospitality industry, which were amended to suit the context of this study (Ebrahim, 2014:115-119; Sikwela, 2016:282-289; Tiwari, 2015:68:71).

The questionnaires were structured to respond to the three objectives of the study which are further described below.

The managers' questionnaire consisted of unstructured and open-ended questions which were aimed to answer the status of staff turnover (Objective 1). The employees' questionnaire consisted of three sections. Section A comprised structured questions created for demographic purposes in both questionnaires. The managers responded to the causes of staff turnover together with Section B of the employees, which contained Likert-type statements designed to answer this objective (Objective 2). The Likert-type items were scored on a 5-point scale that was structured as (1) "Strongly agree, (2) Agree, (3) Neutral, (4) Disagree, and (5) Strongly disagree" (Vanek, 2012:2). The 5-point scale was chosen because it is the most widely used in research. It provides respondents with a range of statements and multiple-choice responses from which to choose, and because it does not box people in between the agree/disagree

binary as it gives them a neutral option as well (McLeod, 2008:1). Section C of the employees' questionnaire consisted of structured questions to address the impact of staff turnover (Objective 3).

Not only does good research necessitate a good set of research instruments and sample methodologies, but it also considers validity and reliability. Despite the multiplicity of research methods, these are the important criteria for the evaluation of the authenticity and trustworthiness of study conclusions. As summarized by Creswell (2012, 250, 253), validation is a determination of a piece of research's trustworthiness or usefulness while reliability refers to the constancy of replies to various coders of data sets. In short, validity is concerned with the correctness of the measurement, whereas reliability is about its consistency. These criteria should be addressed in the revised version of the thesis.

Validity - The validity of a measurement instrument is the extent to which the instrument measures what it is actually intended to measure (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010:92). Validity refers to the degree to which a study accurately reflects or assesses the specific concept that the researcher is attempting to measure (Creswell, 2007:34). In this study, three forms of validity, namely face, content and interpretive validity were incorporated into the questionnaire.

To incorporate face validity, the questionnaire was compiled based on the framework of this study and with reference to questionnaires used in previous studies (Adjei (2012), Ebrahim (2014), Tiwari (2015) & Sikwela (2016)). Face validity is the extent to which, on the surface, an instrument seems to be measuring a particular characteristic (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010:92). Face validity was useful in ensuring the co-operation of chefs who were participating in the research study.

Content validity was also assessed through the literature review and by consulting experienced managers in the area. Based on these two procedures, it was concluded that the measures that were used in the questionnaire had content validity.

To incorporate content validity, the questionnaire was submitted to three subject experts in Hospitality Management at the CPUT after which it was pilot tested among 39 chefs in different restaurants in Cape Town to ensure readability. The pre-test subjects comprised people to whom the questionnaire was at least appropriate to ensure content validity of the questionnaire (Babble & Mouton, 2001:244-245). Content validity connotes the extent to which a measurement instrument is a representative sample of the content area being measured (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010:92). By utilising the content validity approach, the researcher measured the validity of the results obtained during the study by determining whether the questionnaire measured the characteristics it was supposed to measure. Interpretive validity

was incorporated by integrating expertise from the Department of Statistics at the CPUT during data analysis and interpretation. Interpretive validity, according to Struwig and Stead (2001:144), refers to whether the information for a study is accurately analysed and reported.

Reliability – The reliability of a measurement instrument refers to the consistency with which a measuring instrument yields a certain result when the entity being measured has not changed (Cooper & Schindler, 2003:235). It is the extent to which an experiment, test or any measuring procedure yields the same result on repeated trials (Creswell, 2007:34). Without the agreement of independent observers able to replicate research procedures, or the ability to use research tools and procedures that yield consistent measurements, researchers would be unable to satisfactorily draw conclusions, formulate theories or make claims about the generalisation of their research (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010:92).

The researcher ensured reliability by using measures that have proven their reliability in previous research (Adjei (2012), Ebrahim (2014), Tiwari (2015) and Sikwela (2016)). Babbie and Mouton (2001:122) posit that one way to help ensure reliability in getting information from people is to use measures that have proven their reliability in previous research.

Reliability was also incorporated by collecting data on weekdays, over weekends and across the month for a two-month period. This allowed to check variations in various attributes of the participating restaurants such as staff turnover and staff retention.

3.8.2   Pilot study

A pilot study was conducted to test the effectiveness of the data collection instruments and to limit potential errors before data collection. In the pilot study, 39 questionnaires were completed by restaurants in the Cape Town CBD.

The questionnaires were also tested to ensure validity, which tested whether the respondents understood the questions. It eliminated any ambiguous questions and ensured reliability and alignment of questions to the objectives of the study. Fortunately, the respondents who participated in the pilot study understood and were able to complete the questionnaires. The pilot study process showed that there was no need for amendment of the questionnaires and the questionnaires for both senior and junior chefs (Appendices A and B respectively) remained the same.

3.8.3   Data collection (fieldwork)

Before the start of the research, ethical clearance was obtained from the CPUT Ethics Committee in the Faculty of Business and Management Sciences (see Appendix C).

Data collection only commenced once permission was obtained from the participating restaurants to conduct research at their premises (see Appendix D). The researcher explained what the questionnaires were about, and the restaurant owners/managers agreed to the research being conducted.

The data were collected by the researcher with the assistance of two trained fieldworkers who were students doing postgraduate studies in hospitality at the Cape Town Hotel School. The researcher, together with the field workers, physically distributed and collected the questionnaires from the selected restaurants. After being granted permission to conduct the research by the restaurant manager, consent was requested from the employees who were at the restaurant at the time whether they were willing to participate in the study. Each respondent (Employee) was briefed about the study and received an informed consent letter (see Appendix E) which explained the purpose of the study and the ethical aspects thereof. The majority of respondents completed the questionnaire themselves but some needed assistance from the fieldworkers and researcher to clarify certain questions and explain the questionnaires for them. Only those who gave verbal consent proceeded to complete the questionnaire.

Most questionnaires were completed and returned immediately to the researcher or fieldworkers, but a few managers requested that questionnaires be left and collected the following day because the restaurant was busy, and they would only have time to look at it after the shift was done. Through observations, the researcher identified that most of these restaurants were less busy during the morning hours and because of this data was collected during the morning. However, some requested the questionnaires to be left behind to be collected the following day.

Data were collected from the beginning of September till the end of December 2019 from these restaurants. Data collection was done on different days to include most restaurants from the sample of 196 restaurants which were selected using systematic sampling. However, the 196 restaurants, which was the required sample size, was not met, so to reach this sample size, restaurants that were not selected were then listed alphabetically and systematically selected to reach the required sample size from the same sample frame. Hundred and fifty restaurants participated in the study. Of the 150 participating restaurants, only one respondent per restaurant completed the questionnaire.

This was due to the limited number of employees per shift and the nature of the business operation. The restaurants could each allow only one employee to participate in the study, resulting in 50 managers and 100 employees. This constitutes a 23% refusal rate (77% response rate) and falls within acceptable levels, as a response rate approximating 53% is the average in social studies (Sedgwick, 2014:2).

3.9 Data analyses and presentation

Data analysis explains how the data were captured and coded. Data from the completed questionnaires were captured using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences software (SPSS) version 26 and were analysed using the same software. Because of the nature and the purpose of the study, descriptive statistical analysis was used, and data were presented in the form of graphs and tables, with frequencies and percentages. Section A of the managers' questionnaire (Appendix A) represented demographics and was presented in frequencies and percentages in the form of graphs, while the rest (Section B) of the results were presented in frequencies and percentages. The second questionnaire (for employees, Appendix B) is divided into sections as well where section A is the demographics presented in graphs and Section B of the results presented in table format with frequencies and percentages.

3.10 Ethical considerations

Ethical research principles are the measures used to protect the rights of the respondents (Maree, 2016:164). The research proposal and the other relevant documents (questionnaire, permission/consent letter and the completed ethical protocol form) were approved by CPUT's Faculty of Business and Management Sciences Research Ethics Committee (see Appendix C). Ethical considerations for data collection began with obtaining a permission letter (see Appendix D) from the restaurants and thereafter respondents gave verbal consent to participate after they were fully informed about the study through the consent letter (see Appendix E). The questionnaire included an introductory informed consent paragraph for the respondents to read when the questionnaire was delivered, which informed the respondents that participation is voluntary, and they could withdraw from the study at any time without suffering any prejudice. Respondents were also informed that they could omit any questions with which they felt uncomfortable. They were assured that all responses would remain confidential and only the researcher would see the responses, which would be kept in a password-protected file.

Anonymity was assured by omitting the names or identities of each respondent and the restaurant; instead, numbers were allocated to each completed questionnaire. Data captured were not amended to support a particular conclusion. A confidentiality statement was issued that read "information supplied will be used for study purposes of academic research only and will be kept in strict professional confidence", whereby only the researchers for the study had access to the responses.

The abovementioned ethical considerations were applied in this study. In addition, the researcher and the fieldworkers were mindful of showing respect to those who could not read or understand the questions and were spoken to privately to avoid embarrassment from other employees.

3.11   Limitations for data collection

Limitations are influences over which the researcher has no control. These are shortcomings, conditions or influences that are not controllable and usually put restrictions on the methodology and conclusion of the research (Creswell, 2014:217). The limitations of the study while conducting the fieldwork are detailed below.

a)   Literacy

During data collection, the researcher observed that there were a few respondents who could not read or understand the questions in the questionnaire because it was in English. In these instances, the researcher, together with the fieldworkers, assisted the respondents to complete the questionnaire by reading the questions to them (these participants understood English but could not read it) and filling in their responses.

b)   Non-participation

A few restaurants refused to participate in the study without reading the questionnaires and a few managers did not want to participate or let their employees participate in the study after reading through the questionnaires. They felt that some of the questions were too invasive (mainly the question of 'how many staff members have left…') and personal. They felt that it was unnecessary to answer them even though anonymity was assured.

c)   Business structure

The sampling frame (list of restaurants) consisted mainly of casual/bistro-style restaurants, which are smaller restaurants and employees' number between 2–10. It was observed when collecting data that each restaurant would have between 2–4 employees per shift. The managers only offered one employee to participate in that shift while the others covered for them because the restaurant had to continue operating. For the restaurants with even fewer employees (about 2 chefs) the only person that would be able to partake in answering the questionnaires would be the managers instead of the employees.

d)   Business operations

Amissah et al. (2016:168) state that the hospitality industry is a labour-intensive industry, fast-paced, pays low salaries and as such, organisations utilise minimal staff. This made it difficult for the restaurants to allow more than one employee to participate in the study as time wasted equates to money. This is what the researcher encountered as the reason why some restaurants refused to participate. Some restaurants said that they were busy during the mornings or lunch and suggest that we came back when it was less busy because they could not allow anyone to take part in the study during these peak times.

3.12   Chapter summary

Chapter 3 discussed the research methodology applied in this study. A quantitative research method was used with a descriptive research design. Systematic sampling was used to select the restaurants that participated in this study and convenient sampling was used to select the participants. Data was collected by the researcher with the help of two field workers where questionnaires were physically distributed to the restaurants. The questionnaire items were adapted from previous studies that focused on staff turnover and were amended to suit the context of this study.

In the next chapter, the results that were obtained are presented and discussed.

CHAPTER 4
RESULTS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents and interprets the results of data collected from both managers and employees. Data are presented in tabular format, with frequencies and percentages.

4.2 Research results

A total of 150 restaurants participated in this study. Because of the busy nature of the business and the minimal employees available per shift, each restaurant only allowed one person to participate of which 50 were managers and 100 were employees. The managers (50) who participated in the study were from different restaurants to the employees (100). The results are divided into two parts. Part 1 comprises Managers (Executive Chefs) and part 2 comprises Employees (Chefs). Part 1 below contains the results from managers, followed by Part 2, the results from employees.

4.2.1 Part 1: Managers (Head/executive chefs)

The questionnaire for the managers (Appendix A) is divided into two sections. Section A presents the demographic information of the managers, which included their position, age, gender, highest qualification and lastly, how long they have been working at their current restaurants. Section B presents the status of turnover within these restaurants. The information was collected from the managers who were on duty when the fieldwork was conducted. Part 1 contains the results reported from 50 managers from 50 restaurants and is presented below.

4.2.1.1 Section A: Demographics

This section presents the demographic results in terms of position, age, gender, qualifications and length of service. These variables are presented to understand the employment dynamics of the restaurants. These are discussed below.

Figure 4.1. shows that of the managers who participated in the study, majority of the were head/executive chefs (82%), followed by restaurant managers (10%) and the minority were restaurant owners at 8%.

Figure 4.1: Positions of the managers (head/executive chefs)

Results for gender which is presented in figure 4.2 below shows that 60% of managers were male and 40% were female.
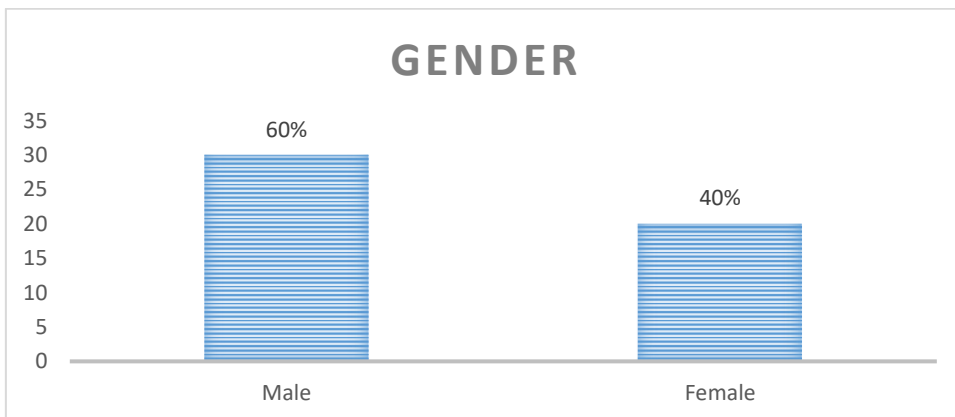
Figure 4.2: Gender of respondents

Figure 4.3 below categorises the positions of the managers by gender to identify which gender holds which roles, and to determine if this is the same or similar to that which is presented in the literature. As seen, males hold most of the positions of head/executive chef at 50% compared to 32% females, and restaurant manager at 8% males compared to 2% females. Interestingly most (6%) of the owners were females compared to the 2% of males.
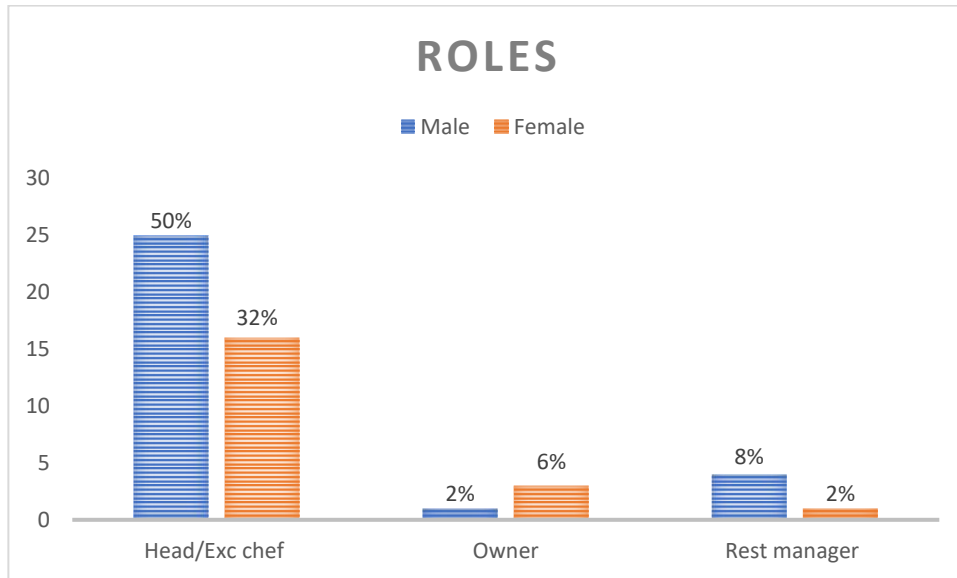
Figure 4.3: Position of the managers categorised by gender

Figure 4.4 below indicates that most (42.2%) of the managers were in the age range of 30–39 years, followed by 26% aged between 40–49 and 23.9% between 20–29, with the least (2%) under 20 and above 60 years of age.
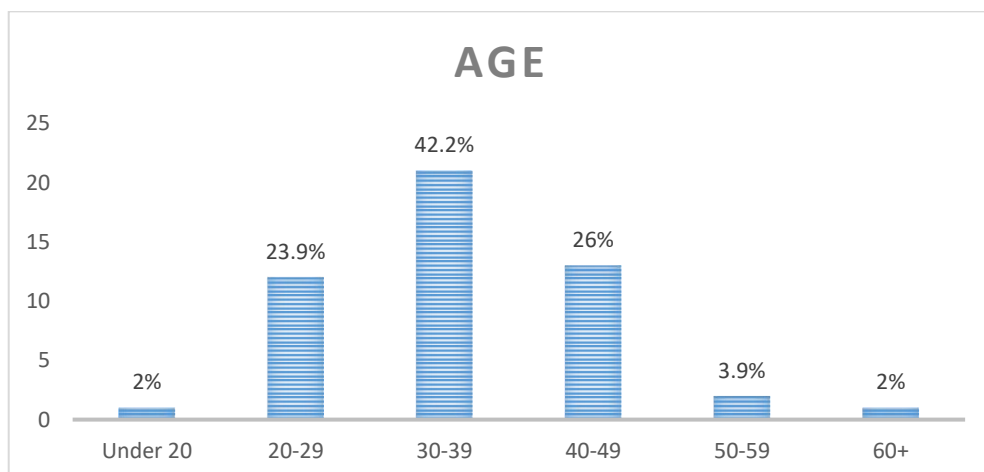
Figure 4.4: Age of the managers

The age of the managers was categorised by gender and as seen in Figure 4.5, males dominated in the age range of 20–29, 30–39 and 40–49, while females dominated the under 20, 50–59 and 60+ age range.
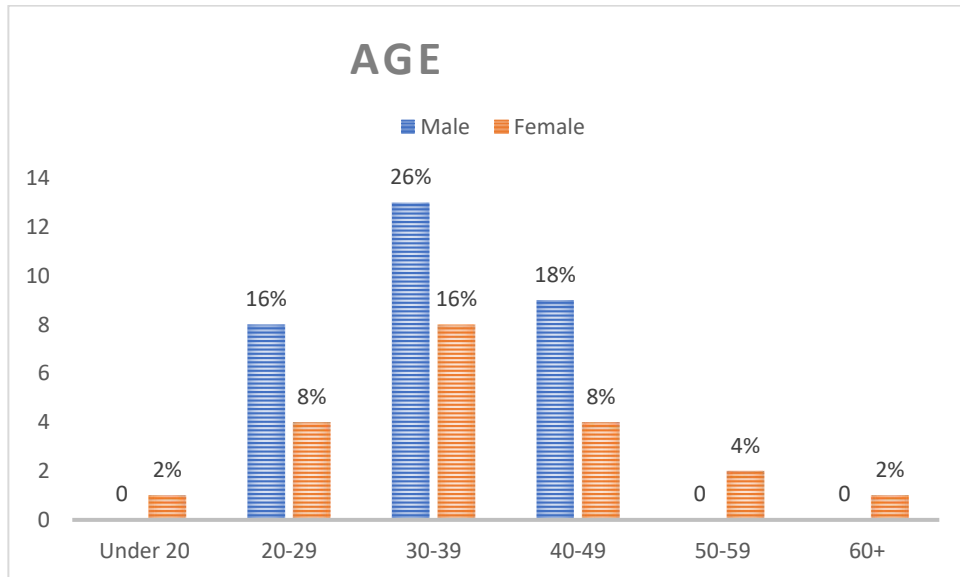
Figure 4.5: Age of managers categorised by gender

The results seen in Figure 4.6 below reveal that the majority (84.4%) of the managers have a post-matric qualification. The highest percentage (37.3%) attained their bachelor's degree or diploma, followed by 21.6% who hold an Honours degree and 21.6% hold a master's degree. The 3.9% 'other' is those that have obtained a higher certificate related to hospitality.
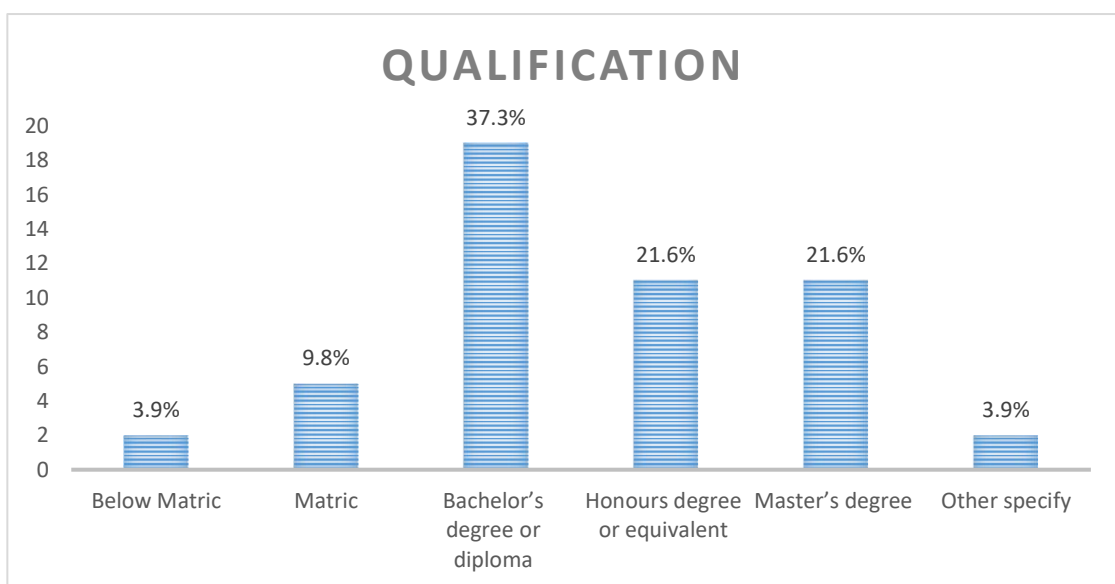
Figure 4.6: Highest qualification of managers

64

Figure 4.7 below presents the highest qualification compared to age. Results show that males dominate most of the qualifications with only the Bachelors/Diploma and other being the same (20%) and (2%) respectively from both genders. It was also noted that males held more qualifications, especially post-graduation qualifications.
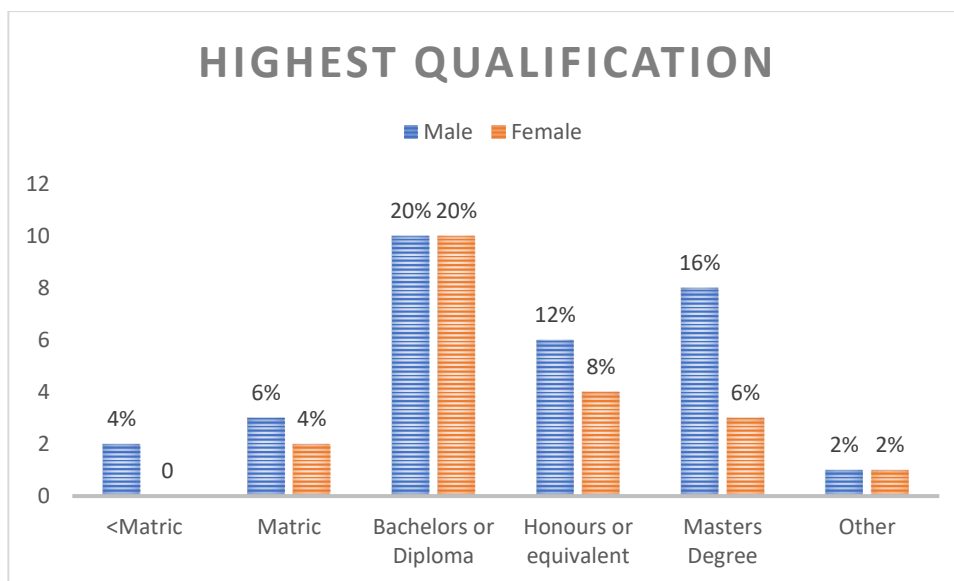
Figure 4.7: Highest qualification of managers categorised by gender

The results in Figure 4.8 below show that nearly 38% of the respondents worked at the restaurant for 1–3 years, 25.8% have worked for 3–5 years; 8% have worked 5–8 years, while only 4% have worked longer than 8 years.
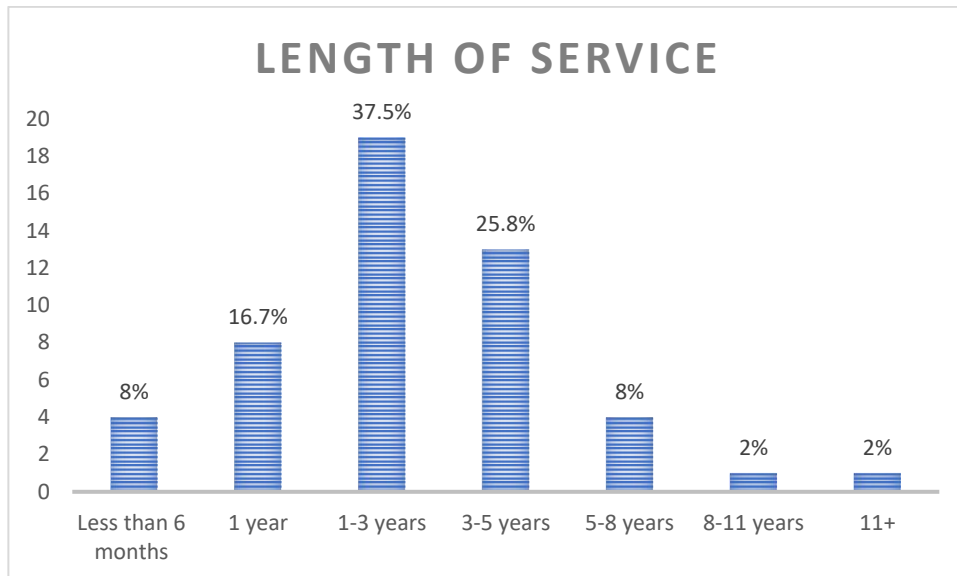
Figure 4.8: Length of service

Figure 4.9 below shows that most categories are dominated by males except 1–3 years and the 11+ years group, which is dominated by females. Only the 5–8 years category was equal at 4%.

Another significant finding is that a person that has been in the industry for more than 2 years, but less than 5 years tend to switch organizations much more frequently compared to those that are in the industry for less than 2 years and those that have been working for more than 5 years in the hotel industry. The findings also revealed that the staff holding a position higher than Demi Chef works longer in one organization in comparison with their lower-level subordinates.
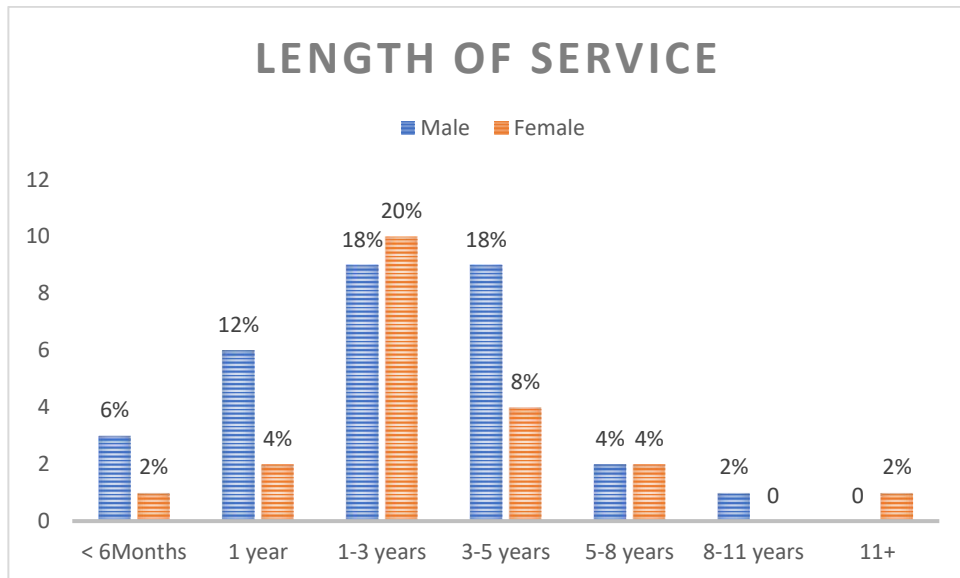
Figure 4.9: Length of service of managers categorised by gender

In the next section the staff turnover results of managers/excecutive chefs are presented. See the following page.

4.2.1.2   Section B: Staff turnover

This section presents the staff turnover results for managers and is presented in tabular format, showing frequencies and percentages.

Staff turnover: Frequency of staff turnover

The managers were asked to report on staff turnover in their restaurants for a period of 12 months, whereby they had to indicate the number of people who left their restaurants in the past 2 to 12 months period.

The following tables indicate the staff turnover categorised into months. These were multiple response questions that required multiple answers from the respondents. The percentages of each month category were calculated based on the total number of staff members who left reported by the managers for that month.

Table 4.1 shows employees who left in the past 2 months. Of all the restaurant participants, 21 employees left within the first 2 months. Most managers (62%) indicated that 1–3 employees left the restaurant, while only 38% in the 7–9 range left, which suggests that most employees leave after 2 months. Only 10 (20%) managers indicated that employees left in the past 2 months; 40 (80%) managers reported that none has left within the last 2 months.

Table 4.1: Staff turnover: employees who left in the past 2 months

Past 2 months (Range of the number of people who have left)	Number of people who left per range	Percentage
1–3	13	62
4–6	0	0
7–9	8	38
Total number of people who left	21	100

As seen in Table 4.2 below, a total of 53 employees left in the past four months, most of which (49%) were in the range of 1–3, followed by the range 4–6 and 10–12, which was 19%. Only 17 (34%) managers indicated that employees left in the past 4 months while 33 (66%) managers reported that none has left within the past 4 months.

Table 4.2: Staff turnover: employees who left in the past 4 months

Past 4 months (Range of the number of people who have left)	Number of people who left per range	Percentage
1–3	26	49
4–6	10	19
7–9	7	13
10–12	10	19
Total number of people who left	53	100

Table 4.3 below shows that in the past 6 months, 40% of employees who left were in the range of 4–6, followed by 22%, which was in the range of 1–3.

Table 4.3: Staff turnover: employees who left in the past 6 months

Past 6 months (Range of the number of people who have left)	Number of people who left per range	Percentage
1–3	19	22
4–6	35	40
7–9	8	9
10–12	10	11
13–15	0	0
16–18	16	18
Total number of people who left	88	100

Table 4.4 below shows that the past 8 months show that the highest range (4–6 and 10-12) for employees that left is 24%, closely followed by the range (19–21) which is 19%.

Table 4.4: Staff turnover: employees who left in the past 8 months

Past 8 months (Range of the number of people who have left)	Number of people who left per range	Percentage
1–3	17	17
4–6	24	24
7–9	16	16
10–12	24	24
13–15	0	0
16–18	0	0
19–21	20	19
Total number of people who left	101	100

*Only 20 (40%) managers indicated that employees left in the past 8 months.
30 (60%) managers reported that none has left within the past 8 months.

Table 4.5 indicates that the past 10 months show the highest range (4–6 and 13–15) for employees that left at 31% each. This was followed by the range 19–21 with 21% of the employees that have left.

Table 4.5: Staff turnover: employees who left in the past 10 months

Past 10 months (Range of the number of people who have left)	Number of people who left per range	Percentage
1–3	16	17
4–6	29	31
7–9	0	0
10–12	0	0
13–15	29	31
16–18	0	0
19–21	20	21
Total number of people who left	94	100

*Only 18 (36%) managers indicated that employees left in the past 10 months.
32 (64%) managers reported that none has left within 10 months.

Table 4.6 shows that 34 (68%) managers indicated that they have had employees who had left their restaurant within the last 12 months, whereby the range 10–12 had the highest (32%), followed by 14% in the range 7–9. The range 1–3 had the least (5%) number of people that left in the last 12 months.

Table 4.6: Staff turnover: Employees who left in the past 12 months

Past 12 months (Range of the number of people who have left)	Number of people who left per range	Percentage
1–3	14	5
4–6	28	9
7–9	42	14
10–12	98	32
13–15	28	9
16–18	32	10
19–21	39	13
22–25	25	8
Total number of people who left	306	100

*Only 16 (32%) managers reported that none has left within the last 12 months.

Table 4.7 below summarises all 12 months and when analysing the responses, it was observed that within the first 2 months most employees who left were in the range of 1-10. This number increased as the months increased and by 4 months, managers indicated that the number of employees had more than doubled (from 21 to 53). It was further observed that from the 6-month period there was a rapid increase in the range of employees leaving the restaurants. The range increased to 1-18 by 6 months and continued in the 8th and 10th month to 1-21 and finished off with 1-24 by month 12. In each month category, it was also observed that the number of managers who indicated employees leaving increased each month, as only 20% indicated this at month 2 and at month 12 there is a total of 68%. The 12-month period had the highest number of people that left (306) compared to the rest of the other months presented previously. The general observation shows that the number of employees leaving the restaurants starts off slowly within the first 4 months and then after 6 months there is a rapid increase. It was also noted that the highest number of the people who left was observed at a 12-month period which shows that staff turnover is low in the first few months and hight annually. The number of people has been moving gradually from 2 to 4 months, however there is a rapid increase at month 12, at 306 employees leaving the organisation.

Table 4.7: Summary table representing the total numbers of all the chefs (employees) that have left the restaurants ranging from 2-12 months

Range of the number of people who have left	Past 2 months (%)	Past 4 months (%)	Past 6 months (%)	Past 8 months (%)	Past 10 months (%)	Past 12 months (%)
1–3	13 (62)	26 (49)	19 (22)	17 (17)	16 (17)	14 (5)
4–6	0	10 (19)	35 (40)	24 (24)	29 (31)	28 (9)
7–9	8 (38)	7 (13)	8 (9)	16 (16)	0	42 (14)
10–12	0	10 (19)	10 (11)	24 (24)	0	98 (32)
13–15	0	0	0	0	29 (31)	28 (9)
16–18	0	0	16 (18)	0	0	32 (10)
19–21	0	0	0	20 (19)	20 (21)	39 (13)
22-24	0	0	0	0	0	25 (8)
Total of people who left	21	53	88	101	94	306
No. of managers who responded per months category	10 (20%)	17 (34%)	19 (38%)	20 (40%)	18 (36%)	34 (68%)

Staff turnover: Categories of staff turnover

This section presents the categories (high and low) of staff turnover as well as the reasons, therefore.

Table 4.8 presents the status of staff turnover; the managers were asked to indicate whether the staff turnover was high or low and further had to state the reason thereof (open ended question). The majority of the managers (62%) indicated that the staff turnover at their restaurant was high, while 36% indicated it was low. Several reasons for high staff turnover were stated, among those reasons 'Can't handle pressure' (23.5%) was reported by most managers, the second highest was for 'better opportunities' (11.8%) followed by 'Staff constantly change companies' (3.9%). 'Lazy', 'restaurant issues', 'because of competitors' were reported to be the least (2%) reasons for high staff turnover. Regarding low staff turnover, managers did not state the actual reasons for staff not leaving the company instead they either indicated that 'no one has left in the past year' (17.6%), or one (2%) or two (3.9%) staff have left as the reason for low staff turnover.

Table 4.8: Status and reasons for turnover

	Frequency	Percentage
High	31	62
Low	19	38
Total	50	100
Reason for high staff turnover (multiple responses)		
Because of competitor	1	2
Better opportunities	6	11.8
Can't handle the pressure	12	23.5
Lazy	1	2
Restaurant Issues	1	2
Staff constantly change companies	2	3.9
Reason for low staff turnover (multiple responses)		
No one has left in the past year	9	17.6
Only one person has left in the past year	2	3.9
Only two people have left in the past year	1	2

A follow-up question was asked to determine further reasons for staff turnover, and these are presented in Table 4.9 below. Table 4.9 indicates that most (54.9%) employees leave an organisation because of long working hours. This was followed by employees' responses of not having enough time for personal issues (51%). Other respondents gave their reasons as to why they believe their employees quit and this includes, 'better opportunities' (21.6%), 'better wages/salary' (5.9%), 'laziness', 'can't follow through instructions', 'discouraged easily' (5.9), and 'retrenchment' (2%). From these responses, most (21.6%) stated that their employees quit because of better opportunities elsewhere.

Table 4.9: Reasons for employees to leave the organisation

Reasons for employees to leave the organisation	Frequency	Percentage
Compensation	17	33.3
Long working hours	28	54.9
Not having enough time for personal issues	26	51
Others		
Better opportunities	11	21.6
Better Wages/Salary	3	5.9
Lazy, can't follow through, Discouraged easy.	3	5.9
Retrenchment	1	2

Factors that contribute to staff turnover (High and Low)

In addition to assessing staff turnover, other factors were included in this study that has a direct or indirect contribution to the staff turnover. These are presented and discussed below.

Table 4.10 below indicates that most (62%) of the respondents selected internal recruitment as the preferred type of recruitment with only 38% that indicated they prefer external recruitment.

Table 4.10: Types of recruitment

	Frequency	Percentage
Internal recruitment	31	62
External recruitment	19	38
Total	50	100

In this question, the respondents were asked whether they use an internal promotion system or hire from outside. Table 4.11 reflects that most (64%) stated they practise internal promotion. They were asked to motivate their choice of promotion and most (over 40%) indicated the reason was that the internal employees are already 'clued up' (23.6%) and that it promotes their career growth (17.6%). The minority (36%) that chose external recruitment to bring in new employees stated that the reason for this is because new employees bring in new ideas (19.6%).

Table 4.11: Types of promotions

	Frequency	Percentages
Internal promotion	32	64
External recruitment	18	36
Total	50	100
Reasons for internal promotion (multiple responses)		
Career growth	9	17.6
Clued up,	12	23.6
Fewer costs	4	7.8
Motivates staff	4	7.8
Reasons for external recruitment (multiple responses)		
Bring in new ideas	10	19.6
Decrease unemployment rate	1	2
Diversity	1	2
More experienced outsiders	3	5.9
New staff are willing to learn	1	2

Table 4.12 below reveals the measures put in place by the restaurants to try and retain their staff. The table shows that most of the managers (37.3%) stated 'none', meaning they do not have incentives to retain staff within the organisation. However, 67.7% of the managers provided various measures to keep their employees with the organisation, measures such as days off or a bonus, gift cards and reward systems were reported the most at 5.9%. These were followed by the employee of the month, incentives, and recognition at 3.9%.

Table 4.12: Measures put in place for retaining employees within the organisation

	Frequency	Percentage
None	19	37.3
Reward systems	3	5.9
Benefits	1	2
Days off, Bonus	3	5.9

The employee of the month	2	3.9
Gift cards	3	5.9
Incentives and recognition	2	3.9
Monthly awards	1	2
Pay overtime	1	2
Internal promotion	1	2
The staff of the year bonus	1	2
They don't last long enough	2	3.9
Training & development programmes	2	3.9
Performance review & salary increases	2	3.9

In table 4.13 the researcher wanted to ascertain whether the employees left behind are expected to put in more hours and the majority (82%) of the managers stated that when employees quit, it affects those that are left behind because they are expected to put in more hours.

Table 4.13: Employees expected to work overtime

	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	41	82
No	9	18
Total	50	100

Table 4.14 below reflects that most (56%) managers stated they do not pay overtime even though these employees are given no choice to work overtime, especially when there are gaps left by employees who quit.

Table 4.14: Overtime work paid

	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	22	44
No	28	56
Total	50	100

This is the end of part 1 (Managers' results) and the next section (Part 2) will present findings from employees (chefs).

4.2.2   Part 2: Employees (chefs)

Part 2 results, provides a report on the information provided by 100 chef employees from different restaurants. Section A reflects the demographics of these respondents, including their position, age, gender, highest qualification, and the period they have been working at their current restaurants. Section B contains results from Likert-style statements, presented in tabular format, that reveal the factors that contribute to staff turnover. Lastly, Section C, reveals the impact of staff turnover, presented with frequencies and percentages in tabular format.

4.2.2.1   Section A: Demographics

This section presents a comparison between position and other demographic variables (age, gender and qualification) to understand the employment dynamics of these restaurants.

Figure 4.10 below reflects that most (43%) of the respondents were commis chefs, which is the general entry-level for chefs, followed by 24% who are demi chefs and the lowest percentage was junior sous chefs.
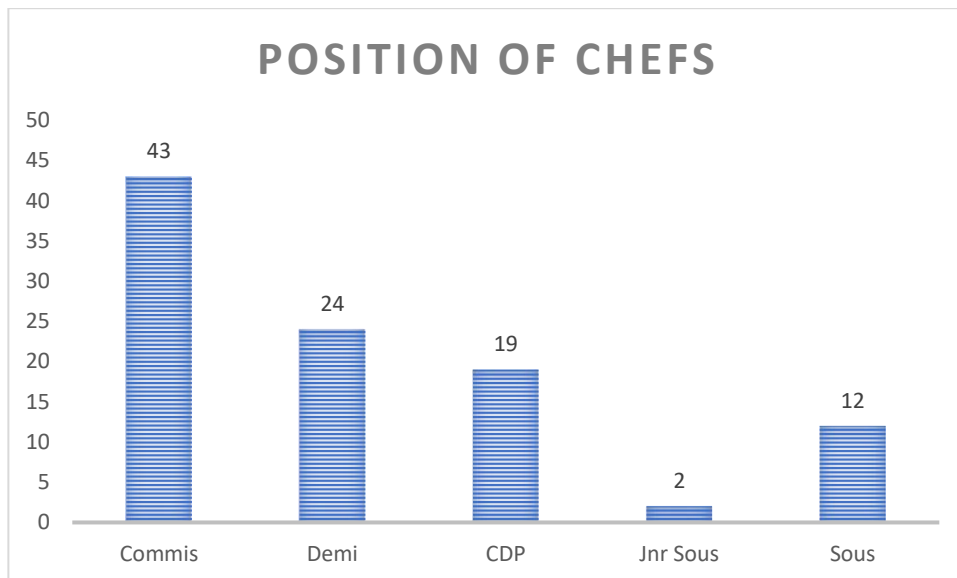
Figure 4.10: Position of the employees

Figure 4.11 below reports the gender of the respondents, dominated by males (54%), followed by 46% of females.
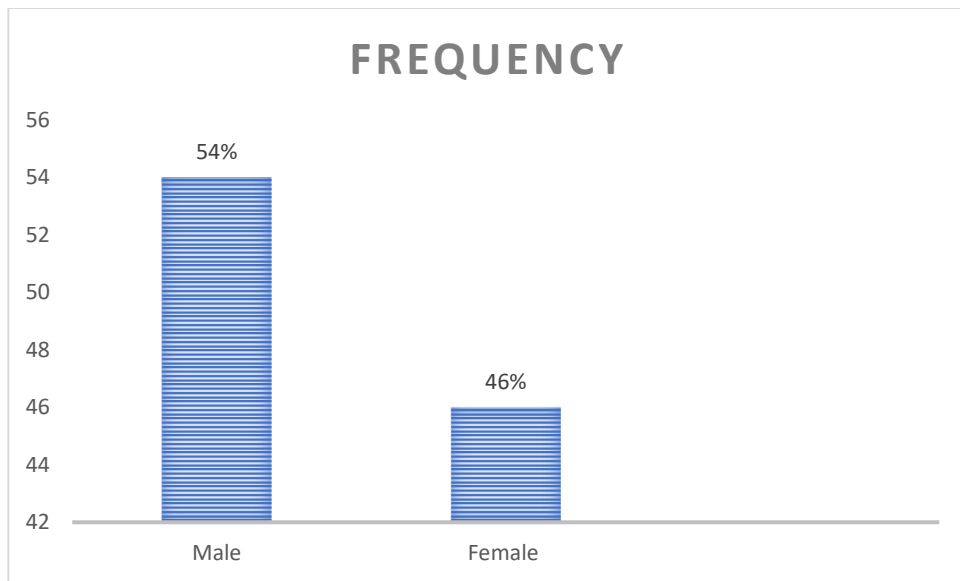
Figure 4.11: Gender of the employees

Figure 4.12 indicates which gender held which position in the restaurants that participated in the study. As seen on the graph, all the positions were dominated by males apart from demi chefs of which 14% were females and 10% were males. The junior sous chefs were only females (2%).
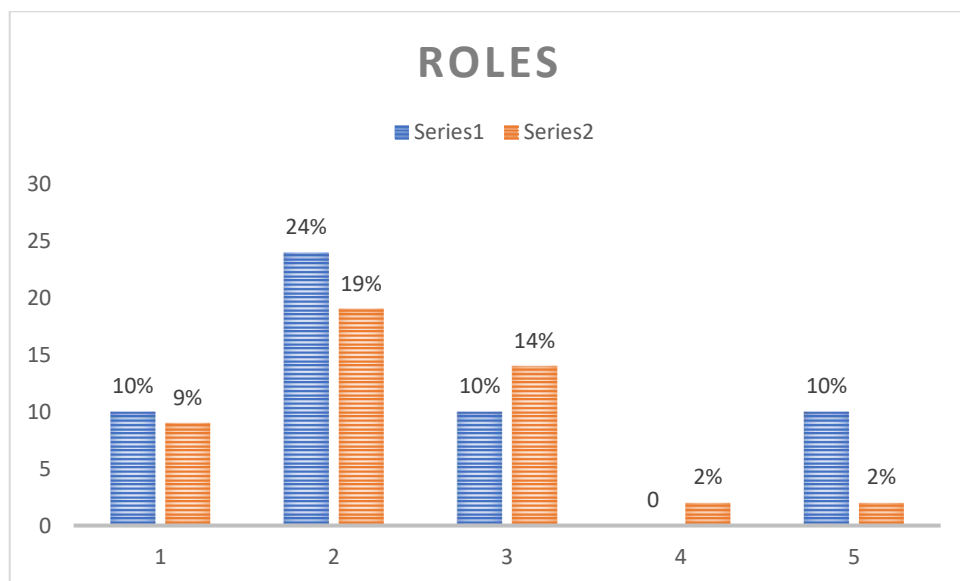
Figure 4.12: Position of employees categorised by gender

Figure 4.13 below indicates that most of the employees (41%) were in the 20–29 age group, followed by 30% in the 30–39 age group, the two dominant groups. Only 14% fell within the Under-20 group and the 40–49-year age group. The bar chart also shows that none of the respondents was 60 years of age and above.
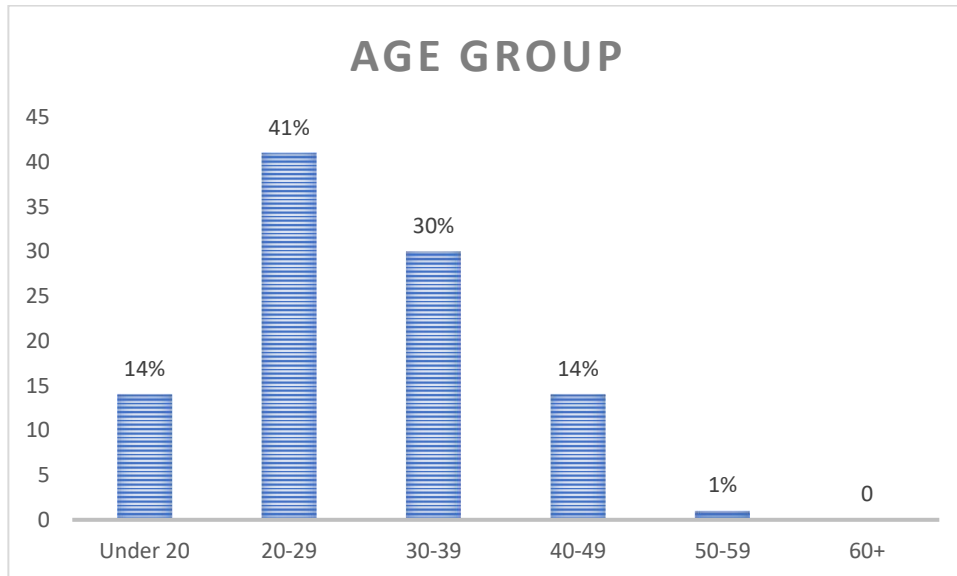
Figure 4.13: Age group of employees

Figure 4.14 compares the age groups to gender and as seen in the graph, most of the age groups are dominated by males, with only the age group 30–39 having more (16% compared to 14%) females than males.
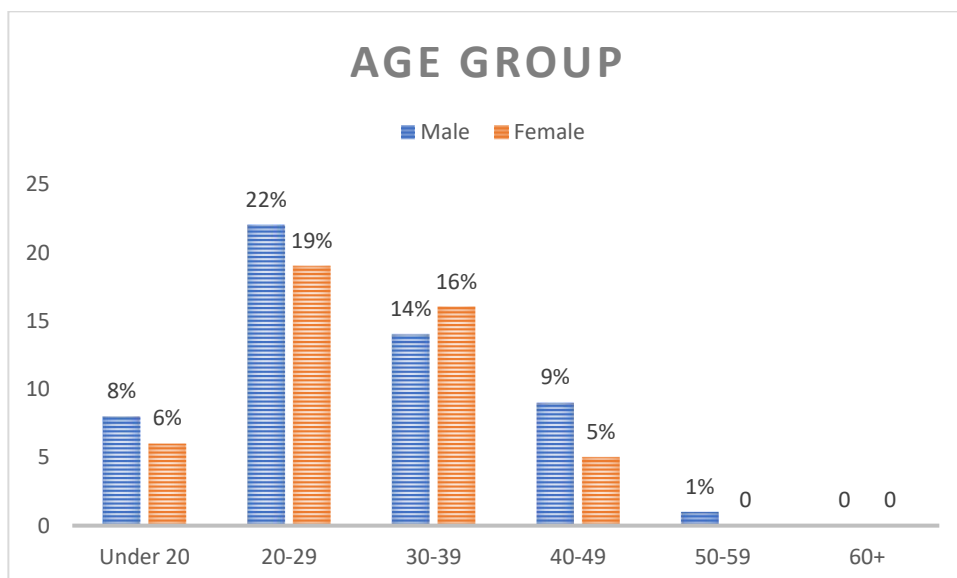
Figure 4.14: Age of employees categorised by gender

Figure 4.15 shows the highest qualification of employees and as seen, 37% do not have Matric. Most (42%) of them do have a matric certificate, while only 15% have a diploma or bachelor's degree.
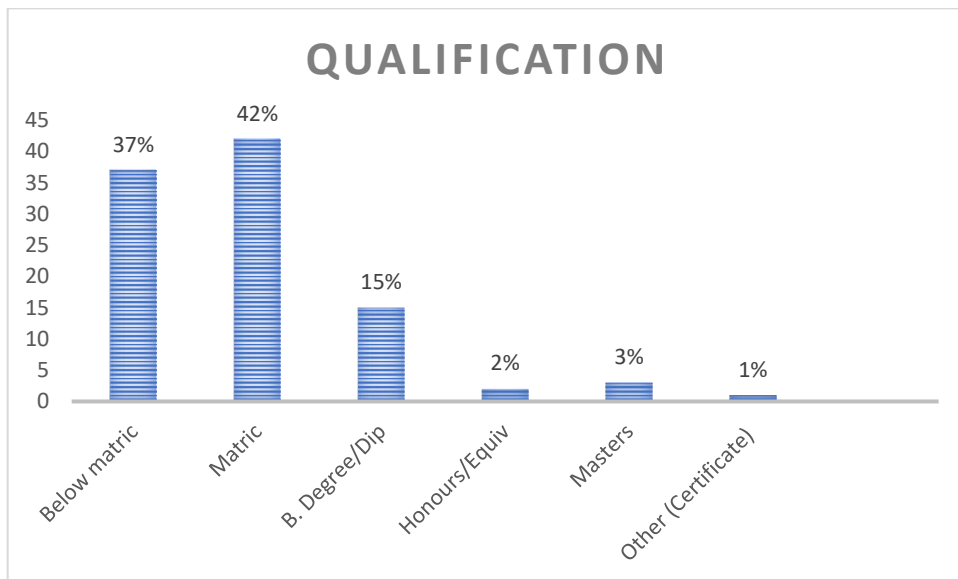
Figure 4.15: Highest qualification of employees

Figure 4.16 below indicates the highest qualifications compared to gender, as seen in the graph most of the qualifications are dominated by males with the exception of Honours degree which is equivalent (1%) and other which females are higher (1%) compared to none for males.
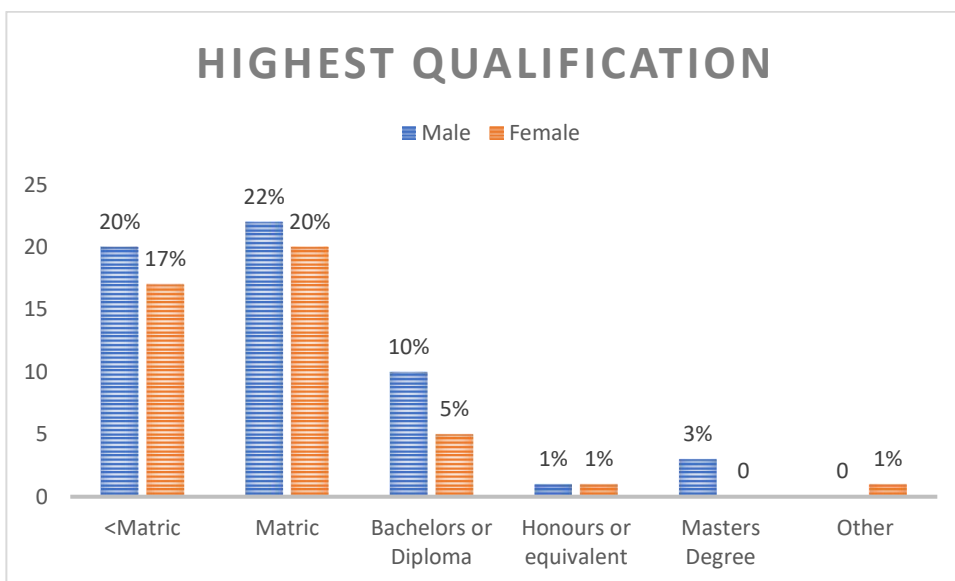
Figure 4.16: Highest qualification categorised by gender

Figure 4.17 shows that the majority (over 70%) of employees have not been working for more than 3 years in the specific restaurant where the data were collected.
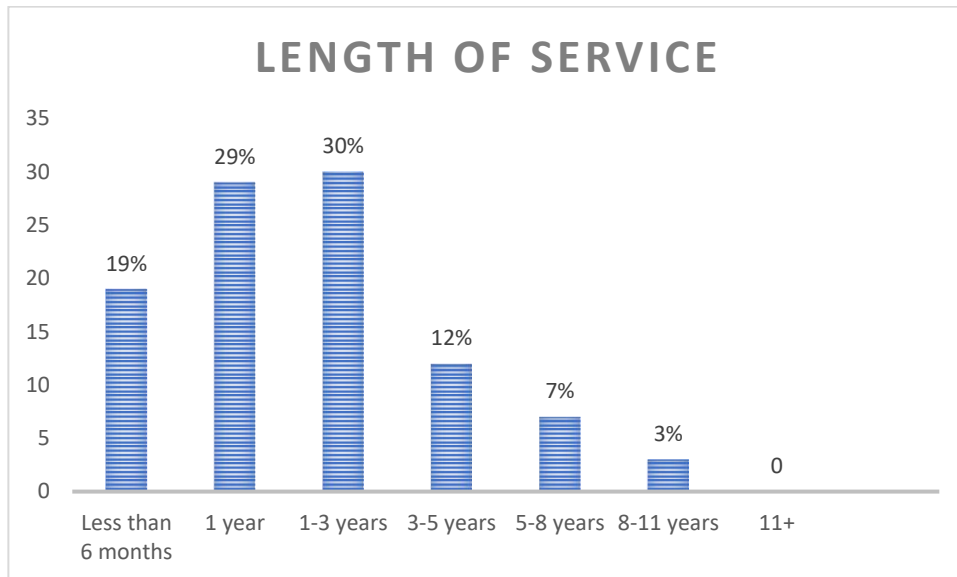
Figure 4.17: Length of service

Figure 4.18 presents the length of services compared to gender, and as seen in the graph below most categories are dominated by males with the exception of the fewer than 6 months and 5-8 years category. The findings also revealed that the staff holding a position higher than Demi Chef works longer in one organization in comparison with their lower-level subordinates.
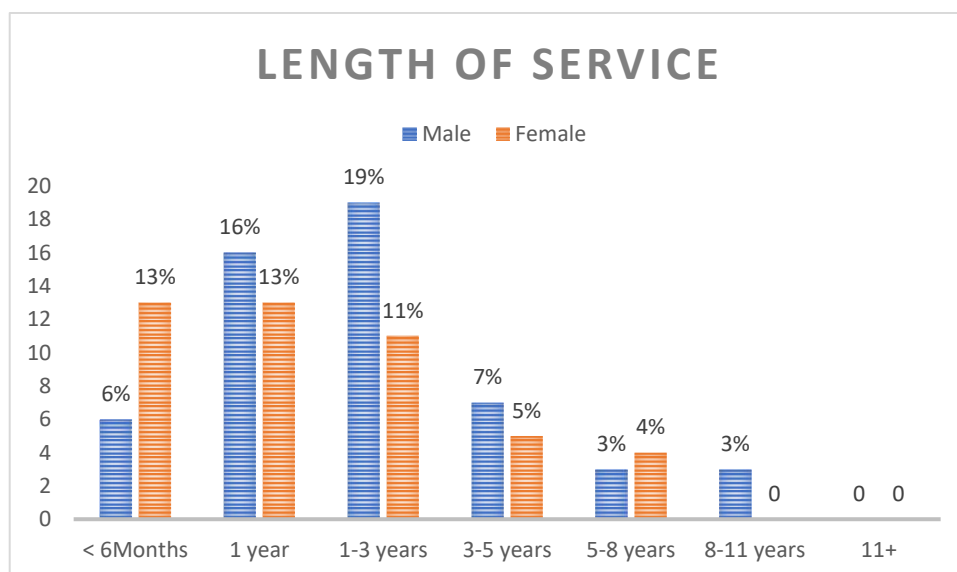
Figure 4.18: Length of service of employees categorised by gender

4.2.2.2 Section B: Staff turnover

This section shows the factors that contribute to staff turnover.

Table 4.15 below present the factors that cause staff turnover into the following categories—working conditions, employee recognition and current job satisfaction. These are further discussed under each of these categories.

Table 4.15: Factors that cause staff turnover

STAFF TURNOVER FACTORS	S/A	A	U	D	S/D	Freq./%
WORKING CONDITIONS						
1. You work more hours than those set by the Basic Conditions of Employment Act (BCEA).	27	58	3	12	0	100
2. I am not offered good working conditions and flexible working hours.	26	52	3	16	3	100
3. My organisation does not care about my welfare, so I am considering finding a job elsewhere.	7	31	21	34	7	100
4. My organization does not provide a better working environment for me.	2	29	16	50	3	100
5. I do not have an interest in the job I currently do.	2	16	12	57	13	100
6. I believe we are underpaid.	37	49	5	8	1	100
7. I would prefer to work in a different industry.	4	21	19	40	16	100
EMPLOYEE ADVANCEMENT AND RECOGNITION						
8. My organisation does not allow employees to develop themselves.	2	42	18	35	3	100
9. Workers' efforts are not recognized at this restaurant.	10	46	11	31	2	100
10. When there are available positions the organisation would rather hire from outside than do internal promotion.	14	51	9	23	3	100
WORK ENVIRONMENT						
11. I will accept almost any type of job assignment elsewhere apart from working for this organisation.	3	34	31	26	6	100
12. I am not considering leaving my job anytime soon.	7	25	42	26	0	100
13. I am clear of the restaurant's vision and mission, where the organization is going and what it stands for, and do not think of staying for long.	6	41	38	14	1	100
14. My organization offers poor conditions of services.	0	7	11	62	20	100
15. There is a poor leadership role at the restaurant.	16	40	6	32	6	100

16. I do not have a challenging job at the current moment.	2	25	7	56	10	100
17. There are non-competitive compensation and differences in compensation package among staff.	2	26	33	35	4	100

* The total number of respondents for this statement was 100, meaning the frequency is equal to percentages.

* Legend: S/A = strongly agree; A = agree; U = unsure; D = disagree; S/D = strongly disagree.

Working conditions

Table 4.15 above shows that majority (85%) of the employees agreed and strongly agreed that they work more hours than those set by the Basic Condition of Employment Act (Nxesi, 2020:5-7). Furthermore, confirmed by the follow up question which most (52%) of the employees agreed that they are not offered flexible working hours and good working conditions. Majority (86%) of the employees indicated that they are underpaid, this was one of the most commonly reported underlying drivers of high staff turnover by literature.

Even though the respondents reported not to be satisfied with the working conditions and the salary offered, it was interesting that most employees (56%) oppose the statement that says they would rather work in a different industry. This suggests that employees enjoy the hospitality industry but experience all kinds of push and pull factors that ultimately drive them to seek greener pastures at other hospitality businesses.

Apart from the negative findings reported by the employees above, the findings also present a different notion which showcase that employees are satisfied with how the company cares about their welfare, they have interest at what they do, and their first preference is working in the hospitality industry. This was observed by the positive responses towards the following statements, 'My organisation does not care about my welfare, so I am considering finding a job elsewhere'; 'I do not have an interest in the job I currently do'; and 'I would prefer to work in a different industry'.

Employee advancement and recognition

The employees commonly agreed (42%) that employers do not allow them to develop their careers and they do not recognise their efforts (46%) because when there are available positions, the organisation would rather hire from outside than do internal promotion (51% agreed). This is contrary to the results from managers results in Table 4.10, which states that 62% of the time managers believe in internal recruitment. Although we cannot ignore that more than 30% of the employees reported otherwise, indicating that their employers allow them to develop and recognise their efforts meaning that other employers do support and encourage their employees.

Work environment

The majority of the employees (80%) disagreed/strongly disagreed with the statement that the restaurant did not offer great service to its guests. However, 56% agreed/strongly agreed that there is poor leadership in their restaurant. This may imply that the managers are business orientated which is expected as they rely entirely on customers for business to stay in operation.

As such most (37%) employees agreed/strongly agreed that they would accept almost any type of job assignment elsewhere apart from their restaurant which concurs with the assumption that employees are always looking for greater pastures. This may also imply that the employees are not entirely satisfied with their current leaders or they may not be content with their current positions. Furthermore, most (56%) employees also disagreed with the statement 'I do not have a challenging job at the current moment'.

As seen in these results, factors that were constantly reported to possibly cause staff turnover were poor leadership, long working hours, unfair salaries, and lack of employee recognition.

In the next section, the impact of staff turnover will be presented.

4.2.2.3 Section C: Impact of staff turnover

This section shows the impact of staff turnover in a table with frequencies.

Something is missing, it's not clear where the results below are presented

Effect of staff turnover on workload

The majority of the employees (86%) agreed that once a colleague resigns the workload increases, while 10% of the employees stated that the work stays the same and 7% responded that it decreases.

Cost of staff turnover

The majority (70%) of the employees shared the same sentiments on the following two statements: 'It cost the company more money because new staff members would need to be trained' and 'that it affects the staff left behind as they are left with more workload which results in overtime work and is less productive which affects the profitability of the organisation.

Staff turnover affects productivity

The employees explain how staff resigning significantly affects the working hours of the team left behind as they are expected to work longer hours to finish the work. The results show that the majority (82%) of the employees stated that they are always tired because of the extra hours they need to put in, to get the work done. It was stated by 75% of the employees that one becomes less productive when a colleague resigns because the workload increases.

Effects of staff turnover on physical health

The majority of the respondents (76%) stated that staff leaving affects their health because of the long hours and standing on their feet for hours on end.

Effect of staff turnover on employee's personal life

The employees raised concerns about the fact that they have less time to spend with their families (66%) and the physical risk involved (53%) because they leave home in the early hours of the morning if they are on early shift or get home when it is very dark if they are working the late shift.

The total number of respondents for this question was 100, meaning the frequency is equal to percentages so only the frequency appears in the table.

Table 4.16: Impact of staff turnover (multiple responses)

Frequency	
1. Effect of staff turnover on workload	
A) It increases because you are left with the workload of the colleague that just resigned.	86
B) It decreases because you work better when there are fewer employees.	7
C) The workload stays the same.	10
2. Cost of staff turnover	
A) The employees that are left behind are left with too much on their hands.	70
B) It cost the company more money because new staff must be trained.	70
C) There are no costs	5
3. Staff turnover affecting productivity	
A) You are more productive because you get more work done when you have less staff.	18
B) You produce less because of the gap that is left when a former colleague resigns.	75
C) The amount of work you produce is not affected.	7
4. Effects of staff turnover on physical health	
A) You are always tired because you have to work extra hours to get the work done.	82
B) Work continues being the same in the kitchen I am not affected by other staff quitting.	14
5. Effect of staff turnover on employee's personal life.	
A) Does it affect your health i.e., you get to stand for extra hours, so are faced with leg or back problems.	76
B) You have less time to spend with your family.	66
C) Physical risks i.e., you get home very late, or you need to be super early at work in the morning to finish the workload.	53

*The total number of respondents for this question was 100, meaning the frequency is equal to percentages.

Comparative analyses regarding the causes of staff turnover:

Amongst the results that were reported by managers and employees it was noted that there are similarities and contradictions. Similarities were identified under demographics and causes of staff turnover. Similarities on the demographics of the two groups were that males dominated both the managers and the employees results. Figure 4.4 indicates that most (42.2%) of the managers were in the age range of 30–39 years which was different from employees as most (41%) was the 20-29 age group which is younger. The similarities observed as causes of staff turnover amongst the two groups were low salaries and long working hours which was no surprise as these variables have been reported to be prevalent in other studies like, Milman (2003); Kim and Jogaratnam (2010); Chan and Kuok (2011); Choi and Dickson (2009); Amos et al. (2008); Mohanty and Mohanty (2014) and Ezeuduji and Mbane (2017). The managers indicated in Table 4.9 that most (54.9%) employees leave an organisation because of long working hours and better wages/salaries (5.9%), which corresponded with 51% of employees' indicating that they did not have enough time for personal issues and 86% believed they are underpaid on table 4.15.

Apart from the similarities there were contradictory statements which emanated from the results, this includes the fact that most managers stated that they believe in internal recruitments whereas most employees stated that their organisation would rather hire from outside (external recruitment). The majority (84.4%) of the managers have a post-matric qualification whereas only 42% of employees had matric and 37% did not have a matric certificate. This may mean that the requirements to be a manager requires some level of education that is post matric.

In other findings in the study, managers indicated that they believed their employees quit their jobs due to seeking, 'better opportunities' (21.6%), 'better wages/salary' (5.9%), and due to 'laziness', 'can't follow through instructions', 'discouraged easily' (5.9), and 'retrenchment' (2%). On the other hand, the employees' most cited reasons for high staff turnover were unfair salaries (86%), long working hours (58%), poor leadership (56%), and lack of employee recognition (46%).

The results in Figure 4.8 show that nearly 38% of the managers worked at the restaurant for 1–3 years, 25.8% have worked for 3–5 years; 8% have worked 5–8 years whereas majority (78%) of employees as seen on table 4.17 have not been working for over 3 years at these restaurants. Which may be caused by the fact that managers have greater benefits from these restaurants and greater salaries which may be what keeps them longer than the employees.

Importantly, the researcher noted an important point of contradiction between the responses given by the two groups regarding the organizations' internal promotion principles and practices; whereas most of the managers (62%) stated that they believed in internal promotion, most (51%) employees believed that their managers would rather hire from outside than award an internal promotion.

Looking at the comparative analysis above, one can see that for most of the questions regarding the causes of staff attrition, the two groups assigned different causal factors or drivers for high staff turnover, only giving similar responses when it came to long working hours and the issue of low salaries.

4.3 Chapter summary

This chapter presented the results of the surveys conducted. The results are divided into sections and subsections. The first section presented the managers' (head/executive chef or managers) results which were presented in the form of graphs and tables with each illustrated and explained. The results covered the demographics, the restaurants' staff turnover from the managers' point of view, the status, reasons, and factors that contribute to staff turnover.

The second section presented the employees' results which were also presented in graphic and tabular format, each illustrated and explained. This section covered the demographics, factors that cause staff turnover and lastly, the impact of staff turnover from the employees' point of view.

The following chapter, Chapter 5 concludes the study with a discussion, limitations of the study and recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

5.1   Introduction

This chapter discusses the results presented in Chapter 4, starting with a discussion of managers/executive chefs, which covers the demographics, the status of staff turnover and discussing the reasons thereof. This is followed by a discussion of employees (chefs), which begins with the demographics, staff turnover from an employee's perspective, causes and the impact thereof. Lastly, the limitations of the study are discussed, and recommendations are suggested on how to assist restaurant owners to deal with staff turnover.

5.2   Discussion

The main research problem of this study is how staff turnover within the hospitality industry, specifically affects restaurant kitchens in the Cape Town CBD. In response to the research problem, this study attempted to identify the status, causes and impact of staff turnover on the hospitality industry, specifically restaurant kitchens in the Cape Town CDB. The study utilised a quantitative research approach that entailed the development and administration of a questionnaire (see Appendices A and B) that was adapted from Ebrahim (2014), Tiwari (2015) and Sikwela (2016) and amended to suit the purpose of this study. The data were collected from restaurants located in the Cape Town CBD and include the main (CBD) and the pilot study (Zonnebloem). Below follows a discussion of the results presented in Chapter 4.

5.3   Managers/Executive chefs results (Demographics)

The demographics of gender, age and qualifications of the managers/executive chefs are discussed below.

Gender

The results from the study show the participating restaurants were male-dominated. Shriedeh's (2019) study, which was conducted in Jordan in a restaurant setting also had similar results as males dominated (55.4%). These findings differ from those of Ebrahim (2014:47) and Ezeuduji and Mbane (2017:9), whose studies focused on the causes of staff turnover within selected hotels in Cape Town and employee retention factors in hotels in Cape Town respectively. In both these studies, females dominated at 54% and 63.8% respectively. Statistics South Africa (StatsSA) reports that "The four industries that employ more females than males are the food and beverage serving industry, accommodation, recreation and retail" (StatsSA 2019:1). This suggests that in South Africa the hospitality industry is dominated by females.

It was observed that of the 8% of owners who participated in this study, 6% were females and only 2% were males, thus even though the majority of staff were male, the owners were mostly females. This again differs from the results of Ebrahim (2014:47) and Ezeuduji and Mbane (2017:9) whose studies were conducted within the same industry, addressing staff turnover specifically in Cape Town, where females had a lower representation at the management/owner level. An important distinction between these two studies is that, unlike the current study, they were both conducted in the hotel industry, thus further demonstrating the literature gap that this dissertation fills as it presents results from kitchen departments of restaurants.

Age

Ebrahim (2014:48) and Ezeuduji and Mbane (2017:9) support the findings of the current study, that the age group of 30–39 dominates. Shriedeh's (2019) study in Jordan, which focused on fast-food restaurants, had a slight difference as most participants were under 30 years of age.

Qualifications

The qualifications of managers differed significantly from the employees. The majority of the managers had a post-Matric qualification compared to the employees, which means the leaders are more educated than the employees in this study. The results on the qualification of managers are supported by a study done in New Zealand by Harkison et al. (2011) who found that managers had higher qualifications and greater experience than general employees. Education also seems to have a strong influence in turnover, whereby its shows the more educated they are, the longer they will stay in one particular organisation. These findings could lead to a possibility that the more educated staff received a much better pay compared to the less educated.

5.3.1   Staff turnover from the managers' perspectives

Staff turnover has been reported as high in the hospitality sector, specifically in South African hotels (Ebrahim, 2014:12; Ezeuduji & Mbane, 2014:8; Ezeuduji & Mbane, 2017:8). This is further confirmed by Davidson and Wang (2011:353) who conducted a study in Australia on "sustainable labour practices, hotel human resource managers' views on turnover and skill shortages" which found high staff turnover. Davidson and Wang found that 78.3% of the respondents stated they faced high rates of staff turnover. These findings align with the findings of Pearlman and Schaffer (2013:217) whose study focused on labour issues within the hospitality and tourism industry. In the previous chapter, 62% of the manager respondents in the current study reported experiencing high staff turnover. Below are factors which may contribute to staff turnover.

Working conditions

The results show slightly more than half of the respondents reported that their employees left because of long working hours, a finding similar to those reported by Adjei (2012:17), Mohanty and Mohanty (2014: 94) and Tiwari (2015:25) who all conducted studies on employee turnover and employee retention in different countries (Ghana, India and Ireland respectively) and found long working hours were a key cause of high staff turnover. The findings of this study concurred with the results from Mohsin et al., (2013) research which attributes the intention to leave on the part of hotel employees to long working hours, coupled with work pressures and stress.

Some research endeavours (Amos et al., 2008:305; Mohanty & Mohanty,2014:102; Ezeuduji & Mbane, 2017:10), found that long working hours (40%, 48%, 34% respectively) were one of the leading causes for employees to leave an organization. This is supported by the current study as 54.9% of employees agreed that long working hours was a factor contributing to high staff turnover. Furthermore, employees stated that long working hours place increased pressure on remaining employees who take on extra work to make up for the gap left by employees who have resigned. This means employees must work overtime, which impacts their personal and family time. This could be one of the reasons for staff being demotivated, as they are expected to put in more work whilst not being paid for it. Mita et al. (2014:160-162) found that employers who do not pay overtime tend to lose their staff to organisations that pay for overtime worked. The results reported in this study show that just over half of the managers who participated in the study did not pay employees overtime, which could lead to high staff turnover.

Type of recruitment

The findings show that the managers preferred to hire internally, however, this was contradicted by the majority of employees who stated that their organisation would rather hire from outside than promote internally. Jacobsen (2013:3); Mita et al. (2014:162); Nienaber (2016:76) found that recruiting and promoting within the organisation is financially beneficial and promotes a good working environment for everyone, thus concurring with the scholars above.

Reward systems

Adjei (2012:45), Sikwela (2016:34) and Ebrahim (2014:50) all found that staff generally do not stay long if a company (60%) has inadequate compensation and does not have any benefits or reward systems, such as bonuses, overtime pay, and employee of the month awards. The results of the current study align with these findings in that most employers/managers of the restaurants under study indicated that they do not put any measures in place to motivate staff to stay with their establishments. This is in line with the findings by Ongori and Agolla (2012) who concluded that when employers provide adequate financial incentives, there are high

chances that employees will remain with the organization and vice versa. Khan (2014) noted that poor remuneration, that is, very low wage or salary will cause employees to search for greener pastures. Ali, Amin and Hamid (2016) also noted that employees who feel unsatisfied with their present pay begin their job search unnoted.

In light of the results, it is not surprising that several studies such as Horner and Swarbrooke (2004) find that lack of career progression and low pay are particularly noted in restaurant kitchens and lead to job insecurity. Williams et al. (2008) found that remuneration is one of the factors that significantly impacted staff turnover in New Zealand's hospitality industry. Ogbonna and Harris (2002) note that low pay is very significant problem in the housekeeping department, and Dickinson and Perry (2002), Chalkiti and Sigala (2010) and Yang et al. (2012) indicate that salary can predict the retention of employees. As noted above, general observation and factual evidence demonstrates, and that job security and pay are important pull factors for new recruits and regular pay rises can be a key retention tool.

The study showed the status of staff turnover to be high. The responses from this questionnaire, particularly this question, agree with existing literature that states that staff turnover is high in the hospitality industry. The findings from Table 4.8 further show that the majority of the respondents agreed that staff turnover at their restaurant was high. Out of the 62% respondents (managers) that stated staff turnover was high, only 46% indicated reasons for this, such as the 'staff cannot handle the pressure' (24%), 'better opportunities' (12%) and 'staff normally change companies' (4%). These results closely correlate with those of Ezeuduji and Mbane (2017:10) on the issue of staff turnover in hotels in Cape Town, that staff turnover was high because of 'serious concerns towards strict supervision' (46%), 'long working hours being a problem' (34%) and 'perceived unfair salary in relation to responsibilities' (34%) as clear demotivating factors.

This was answered by the managers' questionnaire as they have the history of the status of turnover of their restaurants, hence the question was posed to them.

5.3.2 Causal factors of staff turnover in restaurant kitchens in the Cape Town CBD

There are multiple causes of staff turnover, such as working conditions, promotional opportunities, and supervision quality. The results in Table 4.9 show that most (54.9%) of the managers believed that employees quit because of long working hours. Results from the employees' questionnaire in Table 4.15 support this because 58% agreed that they work more hours than those set by the BCEA, which is one of the causes of staff turnover within kitchen departments of restaurants. The causal factors mentioned above are not unique to this study and are supported by Amos et al. (2008:250), Gjerald et al. (2021), Kapur (2018:10) and Juneja (2015:2) from different countries and settings.

In addition, 37.3% of the managers in Table 4.12 responded with 'none' for measures put in place for keeping employees within the organisation, which adds to the causes for staff turnover in restaurants. This is contrary to the recommendations contained in the literature review about the need to ensure staff retention through staff appreciation and recognition (Robbins, 2003:52). Monster (2012:2-3) echoes these sentiments, stating that to make employees feel valued and an integral part of a particular organization, incentives such as employee of the month should be in place. The majority of the respondents (chef employees) agreed and strongly agreed that they are underpaid and cited this as one of the reasons why employees are constantly changing restaurants, looking for a restaurant that offers better pay

5.4   Employee (chefs) results: (Demographics)

Gender

The results shown in Figure 4.11 from the employees are similar to those of the managers, as males dominated (in the study). These results are supported by the Shriedeh (2019) study which was done in a restaurant setting and had similar results as males dominated (55.4%).

Age

The employees' results were different from the managers as the dominant age group was 20–29, which shows the majority of the employees were of a younger age group. The result shows that most of the workforce in the restaurant kitchens are new entrants, inexperienced and immatured and are mainly responsible for the turnover; similar results are obtained in the Hong Kong Hotel Industry (Lam, Lo, & Chan, 2002). Taal (2012) found that most (60%) of employees were young and most (72%) were general workers in the hospitality industry, which supports the results from this current study.

Qualifications

Employee results revealed that 79% of them either have Matric or below, which clearly shows that only a minority of the employees had a post-Matric qualification, ranging from under- to post-graduate qualifications. A major difference is seen between the managers and employees as the majority of managers had post-Matric qualifications. These results are similar to those of Ezeuduji and Mbane (2017:9), that the majority of employees do not have any qualifications beyond Matric.

The hospitality industry is known for employing low-skilled workers, for its lack of career and development programmes, for not investing in training, and for not focussing on long-term commitment (Choi et al., 2000, Iverson & Deery, 1997, Vettori 2017). The stimulation associated with a job can cease within a short period of time, thereby contributing towards the increase in the high level of turnover found in the industry (Blomme et al., 2010, Choi et al., 2000).

Length of service

Figure 4.17 shows that the majority (over 70%) of employees have not been working at the restaurants for more than three years, and under 50% have less than a year at these restaurants which supports Vettori (2017) that many employees from the restaurant industry are either part-time workers or they work many different jobs and always leave for perceived greener pastures.

The length of service plays a major role in kitchen staff turnover. It seems that the longer staff are in the hospitality industry, the more committed and loyal they are in their current workplace compared to those that have been in the industry for less than 5 years. Those holding positions of Demi Chef or higher seems to be working longer in their current workplace compared to the lower-level kitchen staff.

5.4.1   Staff turnover from employees' (chefs') perspective

5.4.1.1 Causes of staff turnover

The majority of the respondents (employees) agreed that once a colleague resigns the workload increases. It was also indicated by 75% of the respondents that one becomes less productive when a colleague resigns because the workload increases. This response echoes Gardner's (2009:12) statement that staff turnover "may negatively affect service offered by the organisation as the other employees have added pressure…".

The employees stated that it costs the company money if they do not comply with the BCEA, as new staff members would need to be trained, which affects the staff left behind as they are burdened with a higher workload, which in turn results in overtime work. The combined effect of this is less productivity, which affects the profitability of the organisation. These results support Adjei's (2012:12) findings that staff resignations have direct and indirect costs to an organisation which affect its profitability.

As seen in the results, the majority of the employees stated that they are always tired because of the extra hours they need to work. Melaku (2014:18) and Tiwari (2015:25) conducted a study which showed that long working hours were one of the reasons why staff left an organisation. Both the pilot and the main study showed that most of the employees agreed that they work longer hours than those set by the BCEA (Nxesi, 2020:5). In addition, most of the employees agreed that they are not offered flexible working hours,

The majority of the respondents (employees) stated that staff leaving affects their health because of the long hours and standing on one's feet for hours. They raised concerns that they have less time to spend with their families, and the physical risk involved. Davidson and Wang

(2011:237) and Mohsin et al. (2013:48) found that long working hours have negative effects on the physical health of employees and do not encourage it, as it results in high staff turnover.

As mentioned by Vettori (2017), the nature of work in the hospitality sector globally is well suited to the use of part-time, fixed-term and seasonal workers, and South Africa is no different. It comes as no surprise that employees take on more than one job to make enough money to survive, which adds to the fatigue which in turn also contributes to high staff turnover. Typically, these jobs are precarious and not well paid, which is another reason why staff constantly move from one establishment to another. However, migrant workers are often willing to settle for any wages and any work conditions just to survive as many of them are in the country illegally and do not have papers that can protect them with the current labour laws of the country. Vettori (2017:2) states that migrant workers are often willing to settle for almost any wages and any work conditions just to survive and this is what allows the hospitality industry leaders to exploit and continue underpaying their employees. The results presented in Chapter 4 show that high staff turnover has a negative effect on the kitchen department. The following discussion further unpacks the findings related to staff turnover.

5.4.1.2 The impact of staff turnover in restaurant kitchens in the Cape Town CBD

The impact of staff turnover was answered by Table 4.16. In the employees' questionnaire, the majority (86%) agreed that once a colleague resigns, the workload increases, which was one of the impacts of staff turnover. This was followed by 84% who agreed that service is affected if a staff member resigns because of the pressure that remaining employees face. Gardner (2009:11) mentions that "staff turnover may negatively affect the service offered by the organisation…". This was confirmed by the findings, with the majority of respondents stating that they experienced reduced productivity each time a colleague resigned because of workload increase. High staff turnover can also have a physical impact on remaining employees as they will push themselves and work more shifts to make extra income (Vettori, 2017). In this study, most respondents stated that staff turnover affected their health because of the long hours.

Discussion on comparative analyses regarding the causes of staff turnover

The similarities observed as causes of staff turnover amongst the two groups were low salaries and long working hours which was no surprise as these variables have been reported to be prevalent in other studies that focus on staff turnover. There were also comparable similarities on the demographics of the two groups. Apart from the similarities there were contradictory statements which emanated from the results, this includes the fact that most managers stated that they believe in internal recruitments whereas most employees stated that their organisation would rather hire from outside (external recruitment).

The managers indicated in Table 4.9 that most (54.9%) employees leave an organisation because of long working hours, which corresponded with 51% of employees' indicating that they did not have enough time for personal issues. The employees' most commonly cited reasons for high staff turnover were long working hours (58%), and unfair salaries (86%) which also corresponds with managers as they stated that employees leave for better salaries/wages in table 4.9.

It was observed that males dominated both the managers and the employees' results. Figure 4.4 indicates that most of the managers were in the age range of 30–39 years which was different from employees as most was the 20-29 age group which is younger which is no surprise as literature states that the industry employees' young people which includes students. The managers are older as the position normally requires one to have few years of experience before attaining it. The majority of the managers have a post-matric qualification whereas only 42% of employees had matric and 37% did not have a matric certificate. This could also be another reason why the managers were much older as they first studied then had working experience before becoming managers. Harkison et al. (2011) found that managers had higher qualifications and greater experience than general employees which supports the above statements. The results in Figure 4.8 shows that most managers tend to work longer service period as compared to employees as seen on table 4.17 majority (78%) have not been working for over 3 years at these restaurants.

5.5   Limitations

As stated in Chapter 3, limitations were the literacy of the respondents, non-participation, business structure, and business operations. Below, the limitations of the study are broken down into location, literature, literacy, participation restaurant types and sampling frame.

Location: The study was conducted in one location (Cape Town CBD) so the study findings cannot be generalised to settings beyond the City of Cape Town, although inferences can be drawn for similar settings.

Literature: Another challenge the researcher faced was that the study is one of its kind, which made it difficult to source literature that focuses directly on restaurant kitchens; instead, most of the literature was based on hotels which were not in South Africa. This poses a gap in the body of knowledge on staff turnover within restaurants and more specifically, restaurant kitchens, which is the focus of this study. Overall, there is still a lack of literature on the hospitality industry, especially in Africa.

Literacy: During data collection, the researcher observed that there were a few respondents who could not read or understand the questions in the questionnaire because it was in English.

This was not encountered during the pilot study. In these instances, the researcher, together with the fieldworkers, assisted the respondents to complete the questionnaire by reading the questions to them (these participants understood English but could not read it) and filling in their responses.

Participation: A few managers did not want to participate or let their employees participate in the study after reading through the questionnaires. They felt that some of the questions were too invasive (mainly the question of 'how many staff members have left…') and personal. They felt that it was unnecessary to answer them even though anonymity was assured.

Restaurant types: The sampling frame (list of restaurants) consisted mainly of casual/bistro-style restaurants, which are smaller restaurants with 2-10 employees. It was observed when collecting data that each restaurant had 2–4 employees per shift. The managers only offered one employee to participate in that shift while the others covered for them because the restaurant had to continue operating. For the restaurants with even fewer employees (about 2 chefs) the only person able to partake in answering the questionnaires would be the managers instead of the employees. This limited the number of respondents which made it difficult to reach the targeted sample size. The percentage of staff turnover could not be calculated as well because the questionnaires did not have a question asking the total number each restaurant had in order to calculate this.

Business operations: The restaurant industry is fast-paced and normally utilises minimal staff to cover a shift, which made it difficult to get some restaurants to participate as they complained about not having anyone available to answer the questionnaires.

5.6 Recommendations

The study has picked up high staff turnover within these restaurants and as such suggests the following recommendations to remedy this. The following recommendations are based on the results obtained from this study. Restaurant owners, managers and supervisors within the hospitality industry should consider these recommendations if they intend to reduce staff turnover.

5.6.1   Incentives for employees

Robbins (2003:51) found that employees want to be appreciated and recognized for their occupational achievements. Some managers (63%) stated they have some sort of incentives for employees with the most being reward system, days off, bonus, gift cards (5.9%); employee of the month, recognition, training and development programmes (3.9%) and benefits, monthly awards, pay overtime, internal promotion and staff of the year (2%). The researcher suggests that managers who do not have any incentives at their restaurant could adopt some of these in order to retain staff.

The findings showed that the most (37%) of restaurant managers did not have any incentives in place to retain their employees and reduce staff turnover, yet it is recorded in the literature that recognition of employees and appreciation play a significant role in staff retention. In this study, most responses from staff indicated that workers' efforts were not recognised. This dissertation thus recommends that restaurants establish a talent retention strategy that includes a basket of tangible benefits or incentives that employees who excel are given. The development of a talent retention strategy for the restaurant industry could be preceded by a formative study to gather suggestions and contributions from restaurant employees about the kind of incentives they would find attractive.

5.6.2   Recognition for employees

Managers should value employees and recognise an employee that goes the extra mile. From the employees' responses in this study, they suggest that managers who recognise staff could be a strategy to reduce high staff turnover. Recognition can be done through implementing monetary and non-monetary rewards, such as employee of the month, training and development programmes, bonuses, staff benefits and internal promotion. While collecting data, the researcher found that some of the restaurants that participated in this study did recognise their employees. It would be helpful if these were shared on platforms such as restaurant associations in South Africa where other restaurant owners or managers could view them and possibly use them in their restaurants. This should not be overly complex or require excessive capacity as the associations already exist and the restaurants could share general formats and templates for implementing incentives.

5.6.3   Remuneration

As shown in the findings, one of the key reasons for staff leaving restaurants is non-competitive pay, that is, salaries that are comparable to other similar employers in the industry and that offer pay that is equal to or higher than the standard offered by restaurants in the same industry. To address this, owners or management of restaurants should conduct market research of salaries paid by similar establishments and compete with that when deciding on salaries. Amos et al. (2008:110) found this to be one measure to help reduce staff turnover. Restaurants should also consider not following the 'norm' of not paying for overtime, especially when employees are 'forced' to work overtime as shown from the results in Tables 4.13 and 4.14. Overtime work can be offered on days off during quiet seasons or time owing. This could reduce staff turnover and attract good employees who leave other organisations because of the salary package.

5.6.4   Working conditions and environment

Results from the Likert-style statements show that 56% of employees disagreed and strongly disagreed when asked if they would prefer working in a different industry. This means the problems partly reside in what is offered by each restaurant and not the industry (Gimbel, 2015:2) as employees seem to like working in the industry but are discouraged or are unhappy with the working conditions, as demonstrated by the findings in this study. A positive work environment can help keep staff happy, which may reduce the thought of wanting to leave the organisation (Chiboiwa et al., 2011:2916-2917). Restaurant owners and managers need to ensure that they are not understaffed as this increases pressure on employees, who in turn want to quit as well.

To ensure this does not happen, owners and managers should put shifts in place, having early and late shifts and rotating staff so that it is not the same employees working long shifts without relief. This is important if the restaurant operates for more hours than those set by the BCEA. Long working hours put a strain on the physical health of staff and could cause them to take 'sick leave', which could affect the productivity and profitability of the organisation. Most employees disagreed with the fact that the organisation does not care about their welfare and would rather find a job elsewhere (34%), which suggests that despite unfavourable working conditions, some restaurant employees remain loyal to their organizations.

5.6.5   Training and development programmes

Training and development programmes are essential for employees because this increases product knowledge and helps to produce the best results. The majority of the employee responses stated that employers do not allow them to develop themselves. Staff development also helps the employees feel valued and to feel part of the organisation, which in turn could help reduce staff turnover. Muteswa et al. (2011:16) mention that if employees feel like they do not get enough training and development programmes this causes low morale and they become demotivated. The researcher suggest that restaurants should invest in training and development programs for example internal cross training with higher positions or other departments within the restaurant to build employees. Deri et al. (2021:238) found that the more opportunities there were for promotion the less likely it would be that employees would leave the job (odds = 0.37). Thus, the probability of the person leaving decreases by a factor of 0.37 for every promotional opportunity that an employee receives (Deri et al., 2021:250). Based on these findings, the government, associations, and organisations can assist restaurants by having a specific standard training program for chefs where restaurants can send their employees for training or short courses for skills development purposes.

5.6.6   Future research

Although this study has the aforementioned limitations, it is those very limitations that can represent a starting point and guidelines for future research. The recommendation for future research is to conduct a survey questionnaire on a representative sample which will also encircle other restaurant categories in South Africa in order to obtain fuller research results. Also, as the research is replicable and could be conducted in other restaurants in other cities in South Africa, it could present a platform for comparative studies and new knowledge acquiring. Triangulation requirements could be considered by applying multiple methods (for example, guest interviews and focus group discussions) and multiple data sources (for example, data obtained from hotel management) in order to enhance the reliability and validity of the research (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010:92; Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011:31). Finally, this research only utilized a quantitative research method. Future studies could include a qualitative component which would be valuable in obtaining more in-depth information regarding employees' perceptions on staff turnover.

There is a paucity of research on staffing issues in the restaurant industry in the South African context in general and specifically on the kitchen department in restaurants. This opens many opportunities for future studies in this arena. What the researcher found is that existing literature on the hospitality industry is mostly focused on hotels, most of it is international, with only some pertaining to Africa.

Emanating from the fieldwork, the researcher recommends that future researchers should get assistance from fieldworkers who can speak a foreign language, such as French or Shona because these are the two most commonly spoken languages of foreigners who work at these restaurants. This would make data collection much easier as the fieldworkers could translate whatever is written in English to the mother tongue of the respondents. Future research should also ensure that the pilot study is done within the same area in which the main study will be conducted as different settings can produce different results, as language challenges were not encountered during the pilot study of this research.

To broaden the study, future researchers could collect and compare data from different areas and include all types of restaurants. This will eliminate some limitations such as the number of participants and the study can be generalised to a greater population.

Lastly, future researchers are encouraged to include a question that asks the total number of employees working for the restaurant. This was not asked in this study which made it complicated to calculate the percentage of staff turnover within the restaurants.

5.7   Contribution to the body of knowledge

Eat Out (2019:1) reports that Cape Town is home to most of the top 10 restaurants in South Africa and two restaurants that feature in the top 50 in the world. However, there is minimal existing research on the restaurant industry, especially in the kitchen department. Therefore, the current study is important in adding to the global body of knowledge on restaurants, including sub-Saharan Africa and more specifically in Cape Town, South Africa.

The study is novel as it focuses specifically on the kitchen department of restaurants in Cape Town, therefore, future researchers who would like to expand on this topic can use it as a reference.

5.8   Conclusion

Staff turnover occurs very frequently in the restaurant industry and has become an epidemic. The main aim of this study was to assess staff turnover in restaurants, specifically the kitchen department, to determine the status, causes and the impact thereof. The three objectives of this study were answered by both managers and chef employees, whereby the status was answered by managers and the causes and impact was answered by chef employees. The results of this study, obtained from participating restaurants in the Cape Town CBD about high staff turnover rates, are valuable for future research on a similar topic as a reference. While it is important for restauranteurs to be aware of the turnover issue and know how to decrease

the level of turnover in their operations, this study provides insights and solutions that can be used to create an environment in which employees enjoy working.

Chapter 1 informed the reader by providing a background to the problem of staff turnover in the hospitality industry. Chapter 2 is a detailed review of relevant literature, both global and from a South African perspective. The methodology applied in this study is discussed in Chapter 3. The chapter outlines the research design, data collection tools, data collection method, as well as data analysis. The results were presented in the form of graphs and tables in Chapter 4.

The study results reveal that although a few kitchen departments have a low staff turnover, high turnover rates are far more prevalent, which is what answered objective one on the status of staff turnover. This is echoed by similar studies conducted in hotels in the hospitality sector. The causal factors of staff turnover which arose from the study were wages, working conditions, promotional opportunities, and supervision quality, which is what answered objective two. Objective three, to determine the impact of staff turnover, was answered by chef employees. The results identify the impact as work overload, cost to the company, productivity, and physical health

Gjerald et al.'s (2021) research findings on Nordic hospitality were that the recent times of Covid-19 exacerbated the poor conditions and exploitation of workers in the hospitality industry, leading to high staff turnover. Mullins (2005:58) adds that organisations that manage to retain hardworking employees have a better chance of succeeding in the highly competitive hospitality industry, which requires quality and cost-efficiency.

The managers' highlighted reasons for high staff turnover as 'staff can't handle the pressure', 'staff leave for better opportunities' and 'staff constantly change companies', whereas the employees' highlighted factors that cause constant staff turnover as 'long working hours', 'underpaid', 'workers efforts not recognised' and 'poor leadership roles.

Ultimately, this study confirmed that the selected restaurants face high turnover rates, which affects business operations. Recommendations are suggested to alleviate high staff turnover in restaurants and managers/owners are encouraged to consider these.

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APPENDIX A: QUESTIONNAIRE 2 FOR EXECUTIVE CHEFS (MANAGERS)

Section A: Biographical data

A.1

Please tick on the appropriate block.	
Head/Executive Chef/ Restaurant Manager	
Other, please specify.	

A.2

What is your gender?	
Male	
Female	

A.3

What is your age group?	
Under 20	
20–29	
30–39	
40–49	
50–59	
60+	

A.4

Please indicate your highest qualification?	
Below Matric	
Matric	
Bachelor's degree or Diploma	
Honour's degree or equivalent	
Master's degree	
Other. Please specify	

A.5

How long have you been working at this restaurant?	
Less than 6 months	
1 year	
1–3 years	
3–5 years	
5–8 years	
8-11 years	
11+	

SECTION B: Assessing the status of turnover

Assessing status of turnover	
1. How many employees have left the kitchen department in the past year?	
1.1 Past2 months	
1.2 Past 4 months	
1.3 Past 6 months	
1.4 Past 8 months	
1.5 Past 10 Months	
1.6 Past 12 months	
2. What do you think is the cause of employees leaving your organisation?	
2.1 Because of the compensation	
2.2 Because of long working hours	

2.3 Because of not having enough time for personal issues.	
2.4 other, please specify	
3. In your opinion, do you think staff turnover is high or low? Please motivate your answer.	
4. Which of the following does your organisation prefer? Tick one and explain why.	
4.1 Internal recruitment	
4.2 External recruitment	
5. Do you believe in internal promotion over bringing in new outsiders? Please give a reason for your response.	
6. What measures are in place for keeping your staff within the organisation? For example any rewards systems offered.	
7. Does the employees that are left behind required to put more hours to fill the gap left by the employees that quit?	
8. Do you pay for overtime should the employees work overtime?	

APPENDIX B: QUESTIONNAIRE 1 FOR CHEFS (EMPLOYEES)

SECTION A: BIOGRAPHICAL DATA

Please supply the following information by marking the appropriate block with an "X" .

A.1

Please tick on the appropriate block.	
Head/Executive Chef	
Restaurant Manager	
Other, please specify.	

A.2

What is your gender?	
Male	
Female	

A.3

What is your age group?	
Under 20	
20–29	
30–39	
40–49	
50–59	
60+	

A.4

Please indicate your highest qualification?	
Below Matric	
Matric	
Bachelor's degree or Diploma	
Honour's degree or equivalent	
Master's degree	
Other. Please specify	

A.5

How long have you been working at this restaurant?	
Less than 6 months	
1 year	
1–3 years	
3–5 years	
5–8 years	
8-11 years	
11+	

SECTION B: STAFF TURNOVER FACTORS

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with each statement by putting an 'X' in the appropriate box.

STAFF TURNOVER FACTORS	Strongly Agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

1. You work more hours than those set by the basic condition of employments act (BCEA)					
2. My organisation does not care about my welfare, so I am considering finding a job elsewhere.					
3. I believe we are under paid.					
4. I would prefer working in a different industry.					
5. My organisation does not allow employees to develop themselves.					
6. I will accept almost any type of job assignment elsewhere apart from working for this organisation.					
7. My organization does not provide a better working environment for me.					
8. I am not considering leaving my job anytime soon.					
9. Workers efforts are not recognized at this restaurant.					
10. I am clear of the vision and mission of the restaurant, where the organization is going and what it stands for and do not think of staying for long.					
11. I am not offered good working conditions and flexible working hours.					
12. My organization offers poor conditions of services.					
13. There is poor leadership role at the restaurant.					
14. I do not have interest in the job I currently do.					
15. I do not have a challenging job at the current moment.					
16. There is non-competitive compensation and differences in compensation package among staff.					

17. When there are available positions the organisation would rather hire from outside than do internal promotion.					

SECTION C: IMPACT OF STAFF TURNOVER

Please tick on the appropriate block; you can tick more than one option.

1. When a former colleague resigns do you think your workload increases or decreases?

A) It increases because you are left with the workload of the colleague that just resigned.	
B) It decreases because you work better when there are fewer employees.	
C) The workload stays the same.	

2. In your view when a staff member resigns is the service you give to guest affected?

A) It is affected because there is more pressure on the employees that are left behind.	
B) It is not affected because you get more work done when there are fewer employees.	

3. In your view are there costs that occur when a staff member resigns?

A) The employees that are left behind are left with too much on their hands.	
B) It cost the company more money because new staff have to be trained.	
C) There are no costs	

4. Do you think you became more or less productive when a staff member resigns?

A) You are more productive because you get more work done when you are fewer staff.	
B) You produce less because you of the gap that is left when a former colleague resigns.	
C) The amount of work you produce is not affected.	

5. Does staff quitting affect your working hours, as well as fatigue?

A) You are always tired because you have to work extra hours to get the work done?	
B) Work continues being the same in the kitchen I am not affected by other staff quitting.	

6. Is your environment affected in anyway of the following ways.

Does it affecting your health i.e. you get to stand for extra hours, so are faced with leg or back problems.	
You have less time to spend with your family.	
Physical risks i.e. you get home very late or you need to be super early at work in the morning to finish the work load.	

APPENDIX C: CPUT ETHICAL CLEARANCE

**Cape Peninsula
University of Technology**

Office of the Chairperson Research Ethics Committee	**Faculty:** **BUSINESS AND MANAGEMENT SCIENCES**

At a meeting of the Faculty's Research Ethics Committee on **19 February 2019**, Ethics **Approval** was granted to **Athi Ntwakumba (213048949)** for research activities of **M Tech: Tourism and Hospitality Man** at Cape Peninsula University of Technology.

Title of dissertation/thesis/project:	STAFF TURNOVER WITHIN KITCHEN DEPARTMENTSOF RESTURANTS IN CAPE TOWN CENTRAL BUSINESS DISTRICT Lead Researcher/Supervisor: Dr. T. Nyathela

Comments:

Decision: Approved

	4 April 2019
Signed: Chairperson: Research Ethics Committee	**Date**

Clearance Certificate No | 2019FBREC631

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APPENDIX D: PERMISSION LETTER FOR RESTAURANTS TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

To whom it may concern

My name is Athi Ntwakumba, a registered Masters (Mtech) student in Tourism and Hospitality Management at the Cape Peninsula University of Technology (CPUT), in Cape Town. I am hereby seeking your consent to conduct a study titled, "Staff turnover within the kitchen department of restaurants in Cape Town CBD" at your restaurant.

Objectives of the study:

- To assess the status of staff turnover within the kitchen department of restaurants in Cape Town CBD.
- To Determine the causes of staff turnover within the kitchen department of restaurants inCape Town CBD,
- To establish the impact of staff turnover within the kitchen department of restaurants in Cape Town CBD.

Participants:

- All participants will be made aware of the purpose of the study and the methods that will be used.
- All participants will be guaranteed confidentiality.
- There will be no names mentioned of the participants.
- This project will be conducted under the supervision of Dr. Tshinakaho Nyathela and Miss Mandisa Silo. For further clarity you can contact them on 0214405723, or nyathelat@cput.ac.za and silom@cput.ac.za.

Thank you for your time and consideration in this matter.

Yours sincerely

Athi Ntwakumba

In accepting my request to conduct my research at your restaurant please sign below:

APPENDIX E: INFORMED CONSENT LETTER FOR THE RESPONDENTS

REQUEST FOR RESPONSE TO QUESTIONAIRE

My name is Athi Ntwakumba and I am a student at Cape Peninsula University of Technology currently studying towards a Master's degree in Tourism and Hospitality. I am currently undertaking research on "Staff turnover within the kitchen department of the restaurants in the Cape Town CBD."

Your assistance to provide sincere opinion or response to questions on the questionnaire will be highly appreciated. All information will be treated strictly and purely for academic purposes. Should you request a summary of the results for this research once it is completed I would gladly provide this. Your response to this request will be highly appreciated.

Should you have any queries, please do not hesitate to contact me on 0617293893 or email me at antwakumba@yahoo.com. Thank you for your time and valuable contribution.

APPENDIX F: GRAMMARIAN LETTER

<div align="right">

22 Krag Street

Napier

7270

Overberg

Western Cape

7 March 2022

</div>

LANGUAGE & TECHNICAL EDITING

Cheryl M. Thomson

_____

STAFF TURNOVER WITHIN RESTAURANT KITCHENS IN CAPE TOWN CENTRAL BUSINESS DISTRICT

Supervisor: Dr. T. Nyathela

Co-supervisor: Ms. M. Silo

This is to confirm that I, Cheryl Thomson, executed the language and technical editing of the above-titled Master's dissertation of **ATHI NTWAKUMBA,** student number **213048949**, at the CAPE PENINSULA UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY in preparation for submission of this dissertation for assessment.

Yours faithfully

CHERYL M. THOMSON

Email: cherylthomson2@gmail.com

Cell: 0826859545