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The effects of casualization on the working conditions of temporary employees in the hospitality industry

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Abstract

Employees in the events management and conferencing sectors in the tourism and hospitality industries are employed on either full-time and or temporary working arrangements, referred to as casualization. Traditionally, a full complement of employees would be present at hospitality venues; however, economic conditions, occupancy levels and consequently turnover, have dramatically changed, leading to venues only employing staff when they are needed. A South African survey (2010) reveals that most temporary employees are contracted from labour brokers, who in turn sell their skills and services to the events management and conferencing sectors, among others in the hospitality industry. This change was necessary to enable employers to only employ staff for busy periods. (Hickmore, 2011; Mosala, 2008).

The research aims to determine the real working conditions of temporarily employed hospitality employees, and to investigate these working conditions against international labour organisation standards and local labour laws.

The research makes use of a sequential explanatory descriptive design (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2007). A mixed-methods research methodology was used in the form of a quantitative method, which used a survey questionnaire to obtain geographical and personal data, and a qualitative method, which used semi-structured interviews for the purposeful sampling of respondents to obtain a deeper understanding of the issues raised. SPSS was used to analyse the data statistically.

The results show the working conditions to have a negative effect on employees who are contracted to work in a temporary capacity with exploitation, poor salaries, poor training and induction resulting in less than suitable service levels offered to guests and clients. Moreover a sense of complacency was discovered, as staff in this situation make the most of what is available to them.

Key Words: Labour brokers; temporary employees in the hospitality industry; working conditions; temporary employment, temporary staffing.

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This dissertation is dedicated to chefs who aspire to higher academic learning.



Abstract

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List of Abbreviations and Acronyms

AFL	-	Advice for Life Database
BCEA	-	Basic Conditions of Employment Act. No.198 (1996)
CDE	-	Centre of Development & Enterprise
CIETT	-	International Confederation of Private Employment Agencies
CTHRC	-	Canadian Tourism Human Resources Council
E&RA	-	Employment and Recruitment Agency Sector
GLA	-	Gangmasters Licensing Authority
ICC	-	International Convention Centre
IHRB	-	International Human Rights and Business
ILO	-	International Labour Office
LFS	-	Labour Force Survey
LRA	-	Labour Relations Amendment Act 2012
META	-	Mobile Europeans Taking Action
NYDA	-	National Youth Development Agency
PWC	-	Price Waterhouse Coopers
SHRM	-	Strategic Human Resources Management
TAW	-	Temporary Employment Workers
TES	-	Temporary employment Services
UFS	-	University of the Free State
TUC	-	Trade Union Congress

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CHAPTER ONE: Introduction and background to the study

1.1 Introduction

Employees in the event management and conferencing sectors of the hospitality industry are employed either in a full-time or temporary working capacity, also referred to as casualization. Traditionally a full complement of employees is present at venues to ensure that standards and demands of the employer and customers can be satisfied. However, circumstances with regard to economic conditions, occupancy levels and consequently turnover have dramatically changed this model, as venues are only willing to employ employees when they are required to match occupancy and service levels using temporary employment or casualization as an employment arrangement.

The word “temping” conjures up an era when young secretarial workers moved from assignment to assignment, almost like a rite of passage, until it was time to take up a desirable employment opportunity and settle down. Furthermore, people in skilled occupations such as nursing and information technology often avail of the services of temping as a way to see the world. Temporary agency working refers to the practice whereby an employment agency engages workers and leases them to a user company. It is a practice that is growing in frequency and in acceptability, but at the same time carries a serious risk of giving rise to employment conditions that fall far short of standards that prevail for non-agency workers (MacPartlin, 2008).

Labour disputes within the tourism industry have been a point of discussion since the early 1970's. Shaw and Williams (1994) indicate that since the early 1980's tourism employers have been guilty of reducing labour costs by decreasing salaries and requiring unreasonable working hours. A temporary solution to the problem is part-time contracts or peripheral employees who work alongside permanent employees. These workers may be employed all year round or just on a seasonal basis as part-time employees in many industries.

Sources adapted from CIETT (2010) indicate a growth in the number of agency workers in South Africa from “not significant” in 2002 to a reported 300.000 in 2007

and up to 924.000 in 2009 or a 208% increase in the last 3 years. The latest statistics show a growth of up to 1.3 million temporary employees, which represents a significant growth in the number of TES employees.

Opinions regarding the nature of private employment agencies vary. “Some consider the glass half full. Others see it as half empty”. If it is half full, private employment agencies are a useful springboard towards a regular employment position; they allow companies to cope in a flexible manner with fluctuations in demand. If it is half empty, it is a sector in which temporary agency workers do not have full rights and are seen as second – rate workers (Ecorys, 2009:3).

The research aims to determine the actual conditions of employment, as well as the effects these arrangements have on the employees employed on a casual basis in the conferencing sector of the hospitality industry.

1.2 Background

A South African survey reveals that most temporary employees are contracted to labour brokers, who in turn sell their skills and services to the events management and conferencing sectors. This change in the labour market’s employment model has given employers an opportunity to only employ staff during busy periods (Hickmore, 2011; Mosala, 2008:24-29).

Global growth in the private employment agency industry has been facilitated by labour market deregulation, mergers, business process out-sourcing and offshore activities, demands for talent and information technology, and an increasing use of flexible labour by user enterprises. It is also partly driven by people’s changing attitudes to work, and a wish to find a more flexible work-life balance (CIETT, 2010). The outcome of this changing work environment has implications for employees who find themselves employed under casualized working conditions.

Labour brokers are also referred to as *temporary employment agencies* or *temporary employment services* (TES), according to labour law. A labour broker will have on record a group of workers who are available to be sent to clients (conference

venues) who will pay that labour broker for services provided. The labour broker will in turn pay the temporary employees their remuneration, as agreed upon. The clients and the potential temporary employees enter into a contract with the labour broker. The employee is not permanently employed by either party, and usually does not work again until a new contract is available from the labour broker. As a result of the drastic changes in the labour market, employers in the hospitality industry are employing more temporary employees, which suits their employment needs as and when business requires. This phenomenon is referred to as casualization (replacing permanent positions with temporary employment contracts).

Growing price and other competition factors in many countries are increasingly pressurising profit margins, encouraging human resource management practices that favour part-time work, uncertain time schedules, low remuneration, recourse to agency worker staff, high attrition and low training and retraining. *“Women are often employed in retailing and hospitality services with many holding lower status, lower paid, casual or temporary agency jobs”* (ILO, 2010).

1.3 The Aims & Objectives of the study

The research study seeks to establish and document the factors leading to “casualization”. It also investigates and documents the phenomena of ‘casualization’ within a global context in order to make comparisons with the South African labour market. The research will establish the working conditions, job satisfaction and well-being of the temporary employees who work for or are contracted by labour brokers (employment agencies). It furthermore seeks to determine how and why casualization influences the working conditions of temporary employees who are employed by labour brokers in the hospitality industry owing to the effect of casualization, prescribed labour law and labour broker human resources practices.

The following are research objectives which the study has sought to accomplish:

- Establish and document the factors leading to “casualization” in hospitality.
- Investigate and document the phenomena of ‘casualization’ in the global context, in order to make comparisons with the South African labour market.

- Establish the working conditions, job satisfaction and well-being of temporary employees, who work for or are contracted by labour brokers (employment agencies) in the hospitality industry: and
- Determine how, and why, casualization influences the working conditions of temporary employees who are employed by labour brokers in the hospitality industry.

1.4 Research Questions

- Is Casualization effecting the working conditions of temporary employees?
- Is Casualization as a global phenomenon the reason for labour market deregulation?
- What are the factors driving the labour market deregulation?
- Are the operating practices of TES in accordance with the SA labour law?
- What are the real working conditions of temporary employees in the Hospitality Industry?

1.5 Justification of the Study

The study establishes and documents the effects of casualization on temporary employees, and operating practices of labour brokers, in the conferencing sector of the hospitality industry.

The working conditions of labour broker employees in the hospitality industry in South Africa and the “casualization phenomena” have not been documented or investigated. The issue is controversial and, from an academic viewpoint, debatable. Collation of facts that have been academically researched and tested will provide a background of knowledge, providing a basis to evaluate the present situation.

1.6 Research Methodology

Sequential Explanatory Design

This investigation uses a sequential explanatory design. The research will initially provide data to inform itself of the many possibilities of mixed method research types and approaches that may be used to collect the required data, and in the process determine the chosen methods.

Table 1. Sequential Explanatory Design

Quantitative data collection ➡	Quantitative data analysis ➡	Qualitative data collection ➡	Qualitative data analysis ➡	Interpretation of entire analysis.
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Source Ahmadnezhad, (2012).

Explanatory design

According to Creswell and Plano *et al.* (2007), “*the explanatory method indicates that the research question is more quantitatively orientated; it provides the researcher with the ability to return to the participants for a second round of qualitative data collection; and the researcher is given time to conduct the research in two phases*”. It provides the researcher with an opportunity to analyse and interpret one type of data collected at the time, and the researcher will be able to develop new questions based on quantitative results which cannot be answered with quantitative data. Strengths of this design include the fact that the two phase structure is fairly easy to implement, and that the final report can be written with a quantitative section followed by a qualitative section, providing a clear delineation for readers.

Descriptive methods selected

The quantitative research method that was selected made use of the survey method, using a Likert-scale questionnaire. The structured closed-ended questionnaires were answered by the participants, and the researcher described the responses. “*Closed ended questions are easy to analyse statistically, but they seriously limit the responses that participants can give. Many researchers prefer to use a Likert-type scale because it is easy to analyse statistically*” (Jackson, 2009). Hale (2011) emphasises that descriptive methods can “*only describe a set of observations or collected data, and it cannot draw conclusions from that data about which way the relationship goes*”.

The qualitative method selected made use of semi-structured interviews with managers and labour brokers to collect data which provided insight and correlation into the findings of phase 1, where data relating to the employees experiences were captured.

1.7 Theory search

The research commences with an investigation of the literature relating to existing international and local information and data pertaining to casualization. The working conditions of labour broker employees in the hospitality industry in South Africa and the “casualization phenomena” have not been documented or investigated. The issue is controversial and, from an academic viewpoint, debatable. Collation of facts and data that has been academically researched and tested will provide a background of knowledge, providing a basis to evaluate the present situation.

The theory will be extracted from existing documentation, which includes the global scenario regarding “casualization”, labour deregulation, human resources practices and working conditions in the hospitality industry in general.

1.8 Data collection and Analysis

The research used a sequential explanatory descriptive method as the most suitable method which allows the researcher to collect and analyse the quantitative data first.

1.8.1 Quantitative data collection and analysis

Quantitative data was collected from temporarily employed agency employees by means of a questionnaire. The employees were purposefully selected from the Johannesburg area. Conferencing facilities within the hospitality industry provided access to these employees.

The research data was analysed by using the S.P.S.S program and a professional statistician employed by the University of Johannesburg’s STATKON department. SPSS is a Windows based program that can be used to capture data entries and complete an analysis, as well as create tables and graphs.

The S.P.S.S program compiled the results of the quantitative data, consisting of:

Part 1: Frequencies and descriptives and the exploratory factor analysis.

Part 2: Normality and comparisons and the correlations.

As suggested by Ahmadnezhad (2012), when using a sequential approach, themes and specific statements must be obtained from participants in the initial quantitative data collection phase. In the next phase these statements are used as specific items, and the themes for scales to create a survey instrument, which is grounded in the view of the participants.

1.8.2 Qualitative data collection and analysis

Qualitative data was collected by means of two sets of interviews that were held both with the temporary employment companies, and with managers at the actual venues who employ their staff on a temporary basis. The interviews were conducted in order to probe and question the working conditions from the company and employer perspective, which would provide depth and data which could be compared to the data collected from the employees themselves. The interviews were recorded, then transcribed and analysed by looking for patterns, repeated words, or repeated concepts.

1.9 Limitations of the Study

As this study is sensitive and debatable and relates to working conditions in a controversial labour environment, the data was collected in a sensitive and respectful way. This required skilful and patient approach to ensure that the data would be accurate, reliable and valid.

Phase 1: The researcher found that from the total number of questionnaires returned a large part had to be disregarded, owing to respondents having not completed all sections of the questionnaire. Some sections of the questionnaires were quite clearly not understood or ignored. Some questionnaires were not returned at all, or were lost in the process. Consequently, more questionnaires were distributed.

The 152 collected and successfully completed questionnaires were, therefore, valuable to the research. The data collected provided the required information to analyse and interpret the results, and facilitated the making of a conclusion and recommendations.

Phase 2: The research found that a majority of the labour brokers were not willing to be interviewed. Another finding included knowledge that the interviewed labour brokers or their respective management provided, painted as a rosy picture which simply was not true. Statements made in these interviews were contradicted by the findings in the first phase.

1.10 Overview of Chapters

Chapter 1. Introduction, Background and Overview of the Study

Chapter 2. Literature Review

Chapter 3. Research Methodology

Chapter 4. Results and Findings

Chapter 5. Conclusions and Recommendations

List of References

Appendices

1.11 Definitions & Terminology

Labour Brokers – (TES) The agency who supplies the Hospitality venues with temporary workers with a pre-determined contract.

Temporary Agency Workers – The employee who will be working at the venues for the TES with a pre-determined contract.

Non – Standard work arrangements – Due to the labour market deregulations different part-time and other contract work arrangements are being put in place.

Working conditions – the work environment created by labour brokers (TES), employers, clients of TES and employees themselves.

Precarious work – non-standard employment which is poorly paid, insecure, unprotected and which cannot support a household.

Forced labour – is any work which people are forced to do against their will under the threat of some form of punishment. Almost all slavery practices including trafficking of people and bonded labour contain some elements of forced labour.

1.12 Summary

As the outcome of this changing work environment has implications for the employees who find themselves employed under casualized working conditions, this research aims to investigate and document the casualization phenomena and the consequences for temporary employed individuals who work in the conferencing sector of the hospitality industry.

CHAPTER TWO: Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

Hotels are a component of the hospitality industry and as such, one of the largest and most rapidly expanding industries worldwide. According to the International Labour Office (ILO) (2010), *"the sector can rightfully be described as a vehicle of globalisation, as the hotels themselves accommodate tourists and business travellers from around the world"*. As in most other industries, the hotel sector is increasingly dominated by multi-national companies such as Intercontinental, Marriott International, Hilton International, and Hyatt Regency among others. The industry also has close links to other key agents of globalisation such as airlines, travel agents, real estate investors and credit card companies.

Hotel work opportunities frequently draw workers from the most vulnerable segments of the labour market. *"Hotel jobs are typically low-skilled, flexible (insecure), have few language skill requirements and thus serve the multi-cultural labour markets in cities around the world"* (Gray, 2004). Although many of these features may seem universal, it is important to note that there is considerable variation between countries, between rural and urban areas, and between different segments of the hotel labour market. The degree and impact of unionisation also varies to a great extent (Eurofound, 2004).

Labour brokers form the link between the hospitality industry and the temporary employees. According to Coe (2010) the reasons and purpose for the hospitality industry making use of labour brokers (TES) include:

- Providing numerical flexibility, reducing turnover of skilled and trained core staff, while the use of agency workers allows rapid adjustments to staffing levels in periods of rapid growth or contractions (CIETT, 2010).
- Cutting labour costs, and save payment of the non- responsibilities of benefits payments.
- Reducing recruitment costs, out sourcing advertising and interviewing functions to agencies: and
- Externalizing risks which are associated with directly employing workers, selection, payroll and management costs and undermining trade unions

- The International Labour Organisation (ILO) is an international organisation which promotes decent working conditions for TES workers, establishing their rights and improving their function in the labour market. The ILO guidelines for working conditions will form the basis for comparison of this form of employment practice.

2.2 The Nature of Work in the Hospitality Industry

Tourism and hospitality represents highly labour intensive sectors and, numerically, offers a significant source of employment opportunities. The hospitality industry is among the world's top job creators and allows for quick entry into the work force for youth, women and migrants. As a leading contributor to export earnings, it accounted for 6% of all global exports in 2008 according to the Canadian Tourism Human Resources Council (CTHRC, 2010). With regard to the supply chain in the hospitality sector - one position in the core hospitality industry, indirectly, generates roughly 1.5 additional jobs in the related economies. The hospitality sector in Canada, for example, traditionally draws its work force from the youth. However, employers who are tapping more and more into the migrant labour market find workers on average 10 to 20 years older, which represents a substantial difference in the demographics of temporary employees.

According to the ILO (International Migration Paper No. 112, 2010), Canada's tourism sector faces a potentially severe shortage of labour over the next 15 years. Rising immigration and a higher degree of labour market participation by women will partially offset the shortages. However a number of challenges facing employers and migrant workers include factors such as those newcomers in Canada who lack a network that can help them find employment. Immigrants could consider how their skills can be transferred to the hospitality sector. A supportive community is needed to help immigrants to stay in their positions. Tourism and hospitality employers may not consider the immigrant talent pool as a potential source of labour. Work place culture, policies and practices may not support immigrant employees.

2.3 Previous research highlighting the positive aspects of the labour broker industry

In contrast to the negative opinions raised regularly related to casualization of employees, positive aspects have been identified in the use of labour brokers to provide labour for various markets. *“Global growth in the private employment agency industry has been facilitated by labour market deregulation, mergers, business process out-sourcing and offshore activities, demands for talent and information technology, and increasing use of flexible labour by user enterprises. It is also partly driven by people’s changing attitudes to work and a wish to find a more flexible work-life balance”* (CIETT, 2010).

There is significant use of agency work to cover employee shortages of a temporary or seasonal nature in hotels, restaurants or other catering or tourism enterprises in some countries, combined with some outsourcing of specific services (for example, housekeeping) to outside service providers who may use agency employees or workers (Eurofound, 2009).

2.4 Previous research highlighting the negative aspects of the labour broker industry

Labour disputes within the tourism and hospitality industry have been a point of discussion since the early 1970’s. Shaw and Williams (1994) indicate that as early as the 1980’s tourism employers have been guilty of reducing labour costs by decreasing salaries and requiring unreasonable working hours. *“A temporary solution to the problem is part-time contracts, or peripheral employees, who work alongside permanent employees. These part-time employees may be employed all year round or on a seasonal basis”*.

The ILO is well aware that fee-charging agencies are increasingly involved in international migration, and as some recruiters have engaged in unfair and abusive practices, hence efforts are increased to regulate this market. Licensing and supervision of contracting agencies for migrant workers is a key element in the *“decent work country programs”*, promoting wider ratification in order to prevent abusive practices and to ensure greater respect of worker’s rights (ILO, 2010).

2.5 Change in the International Labour Market

According to the ILO (2010) global competition has been gearing employers towards conducting high-value- added work in their countries, while exporting lower-value-added work. Rapid change in technology and the transformation from a manufacturing to a service economy has increased the demand for a skilled labour force. The global situation requires workers who are among the best skilled and most educated. Many workers and jobseekers however, “including those coming off the welfare rolls” (ILO,2010) do not meet these high standards. They have few of the skills and little of the work experience that employers increasingly value and often require.

“Even as the economy has subsided, the pressure to solve labour market problems continues. In many businesses, for instance, large numbers of workers are reaching retirement age. Where will the replacement workers come from? In many communities, meanwhile, a slowing economy only means that more people in poor neighbourhoods are out of work or underemployed, and they will not be able to rely on the reformed welfare system in many countries for an income”. (ILO, 2010)

In South Africa and many other poorer economies these welfare systems do not exist.

More importantly are the dynamics and complexities of employment, which result from the ongoing global economic change – with one constant being the ever increasing demand for workers who have higher skill levels. Change is happening so quickly that frequently employers themselves do not know what their next product or service will be, or what skills will be needed to produce it. *“Schools in many cities find it hard to keep up with helping students to prepare for the world of work”* (Seltzer, Combes Taylor, 2009).

Groups that typically have difficulty in getting back to work – for example, are the long term unemployed, disadvantaged people, older workers and ethnic minorities, were previously placed by non-profit organisations in temporary jobs with the aim of achieving full-time permanent employment. This practice seemed to be compatible with social goals and lent a positive image to temporary agency workers employed in most European countries (Eurofound, 2009). Temporary Agency Workers, or TAWs,

are found to have less favourable working conditions than other employees, and they also have less autonomy and fewer possibilities of influencing holidays, days off, and the pace of work.

According to Storrie (2007) there is limited knowledge available as to whether the differences are derived from employment status or from differences in age, education, or professional experiences. The frequent change of workplace at the different user firms and the duality of employer responsibility, may also lead to poor working conditions.

Relating to migrants, the Global Union's principles also emphasise the special dangers for migrant workers who are often engaged by temporary agencies or other intermediaries. According to Global Unions, abuses of migrant workers supplied by agencies are all too common. They include the denial of trade union representation and other human rights, human trafficking, confiscation of passports, deceptive practices with respect to wages and working conditions, and the denial of legal redress in the countries in which they work (global-unions.org)

By lowering compensation and firing costs, temporary help agencies made it more attractive for companies to try out workers with poor work histories or otherwise risky characters. Although agencies' temporary workers (TAW's) earned lower wages than those hired directly, many of these workers potentially benefit from exposure to jobs that temporary help agencies offered. Another advantage for these workers was that *"if they did not succeed in the position or did not like the job, the assignment simply ended. It was not recorded as a dismissal or a quit, which would have tarnished their employment records"* (Erickcek *et al.* 2003).

The changes are being driven by a number of factors, and for business the benefits are clear. The cost of labour is one of the largest expenses for businesses and in an uncertain economy employers resist having a large number of employees on their books. A contingent or temporary workforce enables businesses to have greater flexibility to manage changes in demand for products or services. It also means that they are not subjected to the same risks and costs, which are attached to employee absenteeism.

“The increase in temporary employees further enables business to quickly inject talent to meet specific shortfalls or competitive challenges, without incurring the costs and time delays of training. This opens the talent pool. Temporary workers can be drafted from across the world in order to fill positions that become available by the skills shortages” (Sanders, 2013).

So called “employment flexibility” simply means that employers, in their quest to reduce costs whilst trying to meet the demands of globalisation, are disregarding traditional job boundaries – often to the detriment of the unskilled, non-standard employees. Employers use non-standard workers to avoid restrictive labour laws and collective bargaining restraints. In addition, the practice provides them with more flexibility (Fourie, 2013).

2.6 Trends in the global labour market

According to Eurofound (2009), global growth in the temporary employment agency industry has been facilitated by labour market deregulation, mergers and acquisitions, business process outsourcing, offshore activity, demand for talent and information technology and increased use of flexible labour by the user enterprises. It is partly driven by people’s changing attitudes to work, and a wish to find a more flexible work-life balance.

According to ILO reports (2010), the following are global trends:

- Size and structure of the world’s labour market. There is an increasing share of women in the labour force, more women are unemployed than men and more young people are unemployed than adult workers. In addition, the number of older workers who participate in the work force is increasing. Countries face a daunting task of job creation to meet the demand created by an expanding work force.
- Emergence of global production systems and changes in the international division of labour. Cheaper transport, rapid technology advance, the breakup of production processes and location to different countries with lower labour costs have made the competitive advantage that businesses have in industrialized

countries, an almost impossible goal for developing countries (Southern African countries) to break into the global market.

- A shift away from agricultural work and growth of the informal economies in developing countries. There is a global movement away from rural to urban areas and the consequent rise in the number of urban dwellers that are part of a general development pattern. The factors characterize the transformation of economies, and societies based on agriculture, to more diversified systems of production. Despite the large-scale migration to cities, the rural workforce is still large in the developing world, where the share of agricultural employment in total employment levels remained at 48% in 2005.
- Skills shortages. The current process of economic and technological transformation requires constant renewal of skills on the part of the workers, employers and managers. This favours those countries that are best able to meet this demand for enhanced skills; have a more flexible workforce (especially in terms of computer literacy; and are more adaptable to rapid changes in the business environment. Underdeveloped or developing countries are lacking in educational institutions, skills developing institutions and employment creating agencies, thus creating major challenges to compete in the global markets.
- Equality of opportunity in employment. Discrimination in the world of work not only constitutes an abuse of fundamental principles and rights at work but represents a huge cost to society. By excluding members of certain groups from work, or by impairing their chances of developing market relevant capabilities, discrimination lowers the quality of jobs, which in turn enhances their risk of becoming or remaining poor.

Several factors may be blamed for the prevalence of casualization of labour in spite of labour laws provision intended to curtail its incidence. Contributing factors are innumerable in number, for example topping the list is the high unemployment and underemployment rates, which result in workers earning incomes below internationally stipulated poverty levels of at least \$ 1 a day.

Poor labour law enforcement is another contributing factor. *“The high infection rates of the HIV and AIDS pandemic, which causes bread winners and spouses to die,*

forcing the remaining family members to look for work and take on jobs at whatever the cost in order to survive” (Bodibe,2006).

2.7 Change in the labour market structures

For reformers such as the International labour Office (ILO), International Confederation of Private Employment Agencies (CIETT) and the United Nations (UN), the aim is to be of assist and protect low-income people. Challenges include dynamism and complexity resulting from on-going global economic change, with one constant being the ever increasing demand for workers with higher skills. Changes in the labour market, human resources and information technology are happening so quickly that frequently employers themselves do not know what their next product or services will be, or what skills will be needed to produce them. Changes could include the volume of production, technology changes required, issues such as transport logistics, distribution, and timing, purchasing and storage facility procedures.

Temporary Employment Services (TES), (wording found in the SA Labour Laws) are possibly making a difference. The proposed amendments to the labour laws are key to the sound and sustainable development of the Temporary Employment Services (*TES*) sector. “It is for companies to partner with a viable TES provider, one that can enable swift adaptation to change with new and innovative solutions to labour market challenges. In essence a valued and crucial partner for both business and employees” (Tulleken, 2012).

According to Robinson (2007), there are a set of forces which are shaping and changing the way in which work happens:

- An intensification of global competition as a consequence of trade and financial liberalization, as well as a dramatic reduction in transport and communication costs;
- A technological transformation created by the diffusion of new means of information processing and communications;
- A shift towards greater reliance on markets and a reduced role for the state, accompanied by, and sometimes at odds with, increased political pressure for

improved living and working conditions triggered by the spread of democratic mechanisms of representation and accountability; and

- The development imperative, stemming from the urgent need to reduce poverty and inequality within and among nations. World leaders are committed to the Millennium Development Goals and to decent work.

2.8 Drivers of change

According to Robinson (2007) *“globalization, the global economy, and the global market are terms that consume our daily discourse as we seek to understand and come to terms with the impact of changes wrought by trade and financial liberalization.”* Furthermore Robinson indicates that *“we are in the midst of a technological revolution, where the powers of the Nation State are eroded and it has trouble controlling fiscal and monetary policy; information flows; cultural norms; trade; and labour markets; and the human beings, the workers, who comprise world labour markets are required not only to cope, but to perform at increasingly high levels of competence”*

Seven strategies for changing drivers in the labour markets have been identified, according to Seltzer & Combes Taylor (2009), tabled below:

Table No. 2: Seven strategies for changing drivers.

(Supply-side strategies Employees)	(Demand-side strategies Employers)
<p>1. Increase public financial resources dedicated to upgrading the work-related skills of low-income people.</p> <p>2. Restructure educational institutions and training organisations so the content and outcomes of their courses meet employers’ needs and the course delivery meet low income people’s needs.</p> <p>3. Integrate human services, income support, and work force development to assist working individuals until they reach a family-supporting wage.</p>	<p>4. Change employers’ business and work place practices to support the retention and advancement of low-income workers.</p> <p>5. Restructure government financial incentives to businesses and investments in public infrastructure leverage resources and reduce barriers for low-income job seekers and employees.</p> <p>6. Develop a system of “portable” credentials and standards for work skills that is formally adopted by employers on</p>

	<p>the demand side and by the providers, including educators, on the supply side.</p> <p>7. Create policy-advocacy / influencing mechanisms that enable key stakeholders from the demand and supply sides- including low-income people and employers- to modify workforce development systems to meet their needs.</p>
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Source: Marlene B. Seltzer and Judith Combes Taylor (2009) Jobs for the future.

A Global Labour Market Distribution Chart represents the different “Worlds of Work” and changing labour markets: a system approach to reform, as shown below:

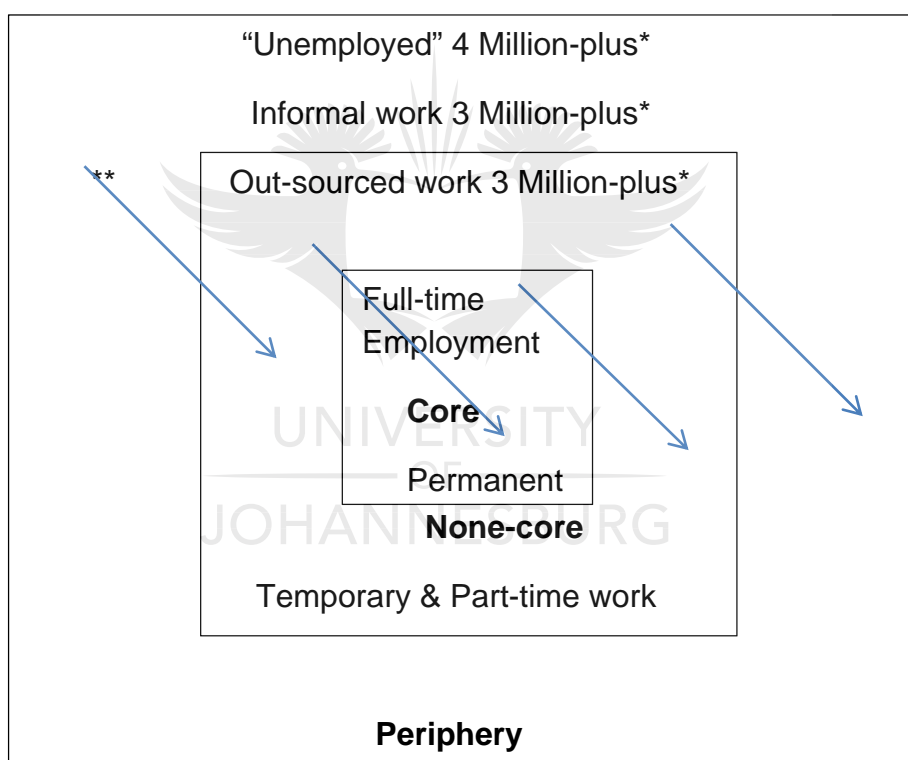


Figure 1: Global Labour Market Distribution Chart

*note: From the figure shown above it is not possible to distinguish between temporary, part-time and outsourced work.

**note: The arrows represent the movements between the different “worlds of work” with movement from the periphery and the non-core into the core that is difficult to achieve. The arrows flow from unemployed into out-sourced or non-permanent part-time employment indicates that unemployed workers gain rather temporary or

contract employment than permanent employment. As well the likely hood of becoming unemployed ones a contract has expired. The difficulty to gain permanent employment, the core being permanent employment, also shows the possibility of due to casualization becoming part-time or contract worker.

According to the CIETT (2010), *“Globalisation, deregulation and technological advancement compounded by unemployment, are to blame for the changes in the composition of the workforce”*. Labour legislation was drafted to protect employees in the traditional full-time paradigm and is currently inadequate to provide protection to workers who are employed in new forms of non-standard employment. It is becoming a hard task for the courts to distinguish between a worker who is a permanent employee and one who is a temporary employee. The CIETT tries to explore the scope of the extension of labour rights to non-standard workers in the context of South African labour laws and the international framework.

2.9 Casualization

According to the ILO (2010) the following factors have led to the shift from permanent employment to casualization:

- Economic and financial crisis

Although the tourism and hospitality industry has, in general, seen considerable growth since 1994, and the windfall of the 2010 Soccer World Cup in South Africa saw an increase in tourism and hotel accommodation from 2009 up until 2012, the influx of tourists has declined significantly owing to economic uncertainties and a global downturn, which began in 2008.

- Demand for talent and information technology

Growing price and other competition factors, such as superior communication channels, better and faster transport among others, have in many countries increasingly pressurised profit margins, encouraging human resource management practices that favour temporary demand for specifically skilled employees who are either experts in their field, or provide a gap filling role in the needs of a company. The need for expert skills relating to information technology, such as information

management and data integration, also provides only temporary positions in the workplace, in the form of consultancy positions, which disappear once the work has been completed.

- Labour market deregulation

The growth in irregular work has changed the nature of employment from a labour relationship to a commercial relationship, with the worker taking all the risks. There is now a sharp rise in casual employment and a parallel rise in the gap between the wages and benefits of permanent and casual workers. The use of casualization as a labour practice has become part of a business model; involving the strategic substitution of fulltime workers with contract and / or agency labour. This trend is responsible for more and more workers in permanent employment losing their jobs and being re-employed and or replaced by casual or contract workers. (ILO, 2011)

- Mergers and Acquisitions

Casualization refers to the “*displacement of standard employment by temporary or part-time employment or both*”, while externalization refers to “*a process of economic restructuring*” (increased mergers and acquisitions to become more globally competitive) in terms of which employment is regulated by a commercial contract rather than a contract of employment. In-formalization refers to the process by which employment is increasingly unregulated and workers are not protected by labour laws (ILO, 2011).

- Business process outsourcing and the use of flexible labour by the client.

Casualization is further segmenting the world’s labour markets. Certain business processes within companies are being outsourced to specialist providers of these services. Flexible labour is a further change that makes use of short term employment opportunities for employees, using them only when the need for their skills and talents arise. Anecdotal evidence, according to Cheadle (2006), suggests “*a growing polarity between those in full-time employment with the employer and those in casual employment; and there is a polarity between those who are employed by the employer (both full-time and casual) and those who are employed by other employers (contractors and labour brokers)*”. The consequent casualization has paved the way to disparity, highlighting the unfair difference in pay and

conditions of service between full-time employees and casual employees in the same company.

- The changing attitude to work, to find a more flexible work-life balance.

Employees themselves also contribute to changes within the traditional working spaces. Both males and females may look for work opportunities that allow them a better work-life balance. Choices may be made where working hours and commitment found in traditional working arrangements are not selected in favour of a more flexible working arrangements.

2.10 The global scenario.

According to Fapohunda & Tinuke (2012) *“the practice of casualization is an alarming trend, considering that working was once a hope for rising working and living standards.* Casualization is referred to in Europe and the US as “Non Standard Work Arrangements” (NSWA’s) (ILO, 2008), which involves the process whereby more and more of the workforce are employed in “casual” jobs. Typically, support services such as cleaning, catering, warehousing, transport, distribution and security are sub-contracted. It can also arise that in some cases the entire or part of the business activity is outsourced or “casualized”. A casual employee is barely guaranteed a legal minimum wage, any job security, and allowances for lunch, travel and housing. Neither do they receive benefits such as paid vacation, paid sick leave, funeral assistance and pension.

This situation results partly in the treatment meted on employees by employers, as employers believe that they will always have people who are willing to work for them, irrespective of the conditions. Again, there is the desperate attitude of potential or existing employees in getting or retaining jobs at any condition or cost. As noted earlier, nonstandard work (NSW) arrangements is a global issue (Kalleberg, 1999).

Growing price and other competition factors such as superior communication channels, better and faster transport, (among some others) in many countries are increasingly pressurising profit margins, encouraging human resources management practices that favour part-time work, uncertain time schedules, low remuneration, resource to agency worker staff, high attrition and low training and retraining.

Women are often in retailing (hospitality services included) with many of the women holding lower status, lower paid, casual or temporary agency jobs.

In areas like cleaning, security and domestic work and the hospitality industry, the work force is presented by a large percentage of migrant female and part-time workers, who are typically low skilled and low paid. (ILO, 2009).

2.11 Developments in the South African labour broking industry

According to the findings published in Price Waterhouse Cooper's (PWC) South African Hospitality Outlook 2011-2015 (First South African edition), growth is forecasted, although occupancy rates are not expected to match those seen prior to 2009 (Foster, 2011).

According to the previous SA Minister of Tourism, Martinus van Schalkwyk, *“the business events industry had a huge impact and influence on the country's macro-economy. Apart from delegates spending, stimulating international markets for locally produced goods and services and job creation. For most of these events temporary staff is employed for that occasion only”* (D'Angelo; 2013).

The TES employs staff for the hospitality, conferencing and events management industries; specifically concentrating on waiters, chefs, pot washers and general cleaners. The usual job requirements are for low skilled positions. These positions can virtually be performed by any hard worker, even the basic skills required for a commis-chef or apprentice, although some contractors do supply chef-de-parties and sous-chefs, which are higher level skilled staff for the kitchen environment (Hickmore, 2011).

In order to maintain standards and consistency in their services to the paying public, conference and events management facilities will need to permanently employ expensive, more permanent, highly skilled chefs, service staff and managers. While in contrast, the use of labour broker employees for lower-skilled positions will save cost-to-company wages in company budgets. The TES makes use of foreigners, African migrants and unemployed South Africans. They are vulnerable workers who would do virtually anything to find employment and earn some sort of a living.

Working conditions are influenced by the client, for example, by providing their temporary employees with a comprehensive induction or socialisation program. It may be questioned as to whether the conferencing industry is under the impression that they will be supplied with well-informed, trained, competent staff.

A possible good reason as to why conference centres should employ TES employees could be the fact that they do not have to deal with costly recruitment procedures, disciplinary processes, medical aid contributions, pension provisions and transport.

In the South African context, recent research by Foster (2011) on labour migration in SA has concluded that internal migration is beneficial to both the sending and receiving location if it is temporary; otherwise social consequences for the households that lose principal members are severe. Some of the direct benefits are the economic rewards and the skills transfer that it promotes, while an indirect benefit is the remittance of ideas and positive influence, which is described as a political remittance. Undocumented migrants are mainly to be found in insecure forms of work. Meanwhile, offshoots of small enterprises, which are owned by migrants, include job creation for South African workers which lead to the spending of up to 50% of their earnings in South Africa (Fakier, 2007).

This research will outline TES employees' working conditions, indicating remuneration, hours on duty, the presence of benefits such as medical aid, pension, and other benefits that permanent staff enjoy (supply of uniforms, laundry facilities, proper staff meals, overtime allowances and leave days) and the lack of, or sufficient training (introducing temporary employees to what is required by clients and standards that they expect).

2.12 Casualization in southern Africa and South Africa

The South African situation relating to TES (labour broking or employment agencies) has grown considerably in recent years, especially in the finance and commercial (hospitality) sectors among private services, while labour brokers are currently regulated by section 198 of the Labour Relations Act. No 198 (1996). This Act indicates that the user enterprise, (or TES client) and the labour broker itself, are

jointly and severally liable for any breach of a collective agreement or binding arbitration award that regulates terms and conditions of employment (BCEA, Act no. 198 of 1996).

However, Mosala (2008) reports that workers may have difficulty in contesting or imposing liability to agencies, or user enterprises owing to the unique relationship of the three parties, while agencies and user enterprises may accept little or no responsibility towards the labour rights of employees.

The protection of “vulnerable” workers has become a priority for the many actors who are involved in the revision of the Labour Relations Act. The Congress of South African Trade Unions (COSATU) is calling for the outright ban of labour brokers, while the Federation of Unions of South Africa has called for better regulations.

Over the past thirty years, employment agencies have become large-scale labour market intermediaries, acquiring the status of brokers of flexibility at both micro level (meeting the preferred needs of individuals and enterprises), and macro level (managing economic uncertainty and risk across labour market. In the context of widespread outsourcing and offshoring in many sectors, workers have experienced downward pressure on pay, conditions and employment in recent years in many countries. *“There has been increasing use of temporary employment agencies for staff at all levels and other forms of flexible labour and subcontracting”* (Taylor, 2010).

The increase in casualization in the southern African labour market region, according to Bodibe (2006), is a subject of great controversy. Increasingly, casually employed employees are filling positions that are permanent in nature. Retrenchments in the hospitality and tourism sector are a straightforward case of a company reducing its workforce. For example, the Sun International hotel group reduced workers from 120000 to 3000 within ten years. The following jobs have undergone substantial restructuring in hotels through outsourcing: maintenance, concierge, food & beverage, car-hire, cleaning and security. Other ways to keep costs down for companies include: retrenchments, outsourcing, and numerical, functional and wage

flexibility. The sector is characterized by high proportions of part-time and casual employees and substantial numbers of cash-in-hand informal hidden employees.

The outcome of casualization on workers, according to Bodibe (2006), includes the following:

- Women tended to work in storage facilities, as cleaners or as cooks assistants while the men are chefs;
- A working day is 8 hours with a 30 minute break;
- Basic wages are well below the poverty line and workers do not receive any benefits;
- Workers sign contracts but never receive copies; and
- Employers do not provide transport and this poses serious risks, for women who work night shifts.

A key finding from Bodibe (2006) is that “*casual (temporary) employment is on the rise, yet trade union strategies and labour regulations are trailing behind*”. Hence, casual employees are poorly organised and fall through the cracks of both labour regulations and social protection mechanisms. The rise of casual employment has dramatically increased insecurity in the work place among workers, and has shifted power to employers.

The poorly organised communication lines amongst temporary employees’ means that they do not act together to claim their rights. Certain exclusions within the law, such as the retrenching and rehiring employees on a contract basis, have been abused to convert employment contracts into commercial ones. Poor capacity of labour inspectorates results in poor enforcement. According to Bodibe (2006) “*it is the powerlessness and vulnerability that affect casual worker’s ability to claim their rights. Employers could use casual labour to weaken unions and to impose flexibility in the work force*”.

This shifts the balance of power in favour of management, as they confront a fragmented labour force, and more so one that they can easily dispose of. Tied to this is the economic rationale of holding down labour costs as a strategy to increase profits, and in response to increased global competition (Bodibe, 2006).

According to Cheadle (2006) indications are that full-time employees may typically belong to a union and have better pay and benefits plus better working conditions. Compared to full-time employees, casual employees receive lower wages and have no benefits such as medical aid and retirement. Casualization has increased the job insecurity of all workers by placing downward pressure on the conditions of permanent workers. Permanent employees live with the fear of losing their jobs and the benefits that come with such a job. Conversely, casual employees also live with the fear of losing their positions and become susceptible to management pressure. The workplace is becoming a veritable place of fear - fear of losing jobs.

The meagre wages earned by casual workers are not sufficient to support their families. In the context of high living costs, several studies (Mosoetsa ,2005; Van der Westhuizen, 2005) indicate that employees supplement their income by moonlighting in the informal sector or by participating in cash generating activities. The second fundamental effect of casualization and attendant low wages is to shift the burden of care and social reproduction into the house hold. A worker who previously had medical aid benefits has to pay out-of-pocket for health care once they lose this benefit. *“In a way, casual labour is now the source of cheap labour for capital across the South African economy”* (Bodibe, 2006).

Bodile (2006) further discusses that casualization has a history in the retail sector in South Africa. Shoprite is said to have inherited the principle from OK Bazaars. Underpayment is rife in the retail sector; as there is downward mobility of wages. The mobility of wages is the main bone of contention with management. On average, there are 64 permanent employees per store, with 150 casual employees. The permanent employment rate is decreasing due to death and retirements. Pick ‘n Pay workers are afraid to declare employment or casual status, for fear of victimization from the employer. *“The inefficient public inspection by the labour department is the cause for casualization and its misuse of employees”*. (Bodibe, 2006).

Relating to decent work deficit logic, Figure 2 below illustrates that the effect of casualization is eroding decent work. The dismantling of barriers to trade and capital flows has opened up cost-cutting competition between and within countries and

companies, with the result that employers bypass the labour laws, triggering a process of informalisation either through outsourcing or retrenchment. Theron (2010) calls outsourcing that is eroding jobs informalisation from above, and the creation of survivalist-type jobs informalisation from below.

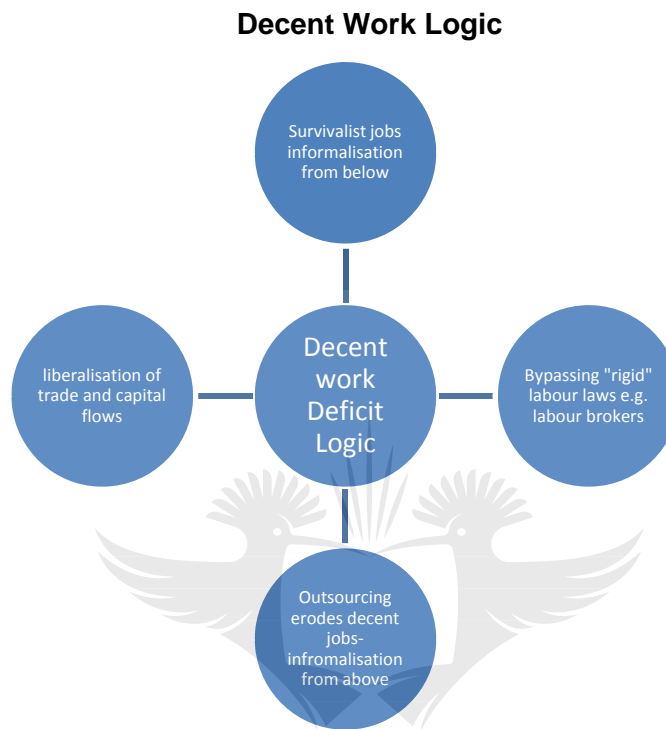


Figure 2: Effects of casualization illustrated (Theron, 2010).

Theron (2010) further indicates that the labour market has caused the transition by employers from one system of sourcing labour to another. These include the labour market phenomena described as casualization, externalization and in-formalization. Employment transition between formal employment, informal sector employment and unemployment are particularly pronounced among low-wage workers. The main thrust of the decent work discourse in South Africa is in-formalization and the growth of atypical forms of employment, which is characterized by casualization and externalization.

Changes of the labour market structures are fuelled by several factors, including the economic toll of HIV and AIDS on businesses in terms of reduced levels of productivity, high rates of absenteeism and increased health insurance costs. The

growth of non-standard employment has eroded the quality of labour protection, making a reappraisal of labour policies and laws imperative (ILO, 2011).

Labour brokers (TES) in South Africa were described as “*super exploiters*” during hearings in government into proposed amendments to labour laws. Business was told that it did not understand the vulnerability of people who are employed part-time or by labour brokers. Several studies by Price Water Cooper (2011) have cited warning of the damage to employment that would result with increased legislation. An executive from the retailer “Mr Price”, said that management do not regard part-time employees as vulnerable, and that forcing employers to treat part-time employees as equal to full-timers would lead to fewer part-time employees being employed (Crotty, 2012).

In the graph below the employment categories in each of Johannesburg, Gauteng and Cape Town, Western Cape are compared. There are differences to be found in the temporary employment categories combined with working for someone on a part-time basis, with Johannesburg leading with 29% of the workforce been temporarily employed. While Cape shows 25% of the workforce being temporary employed. Both provinces showing 25% and more being temporary employed.

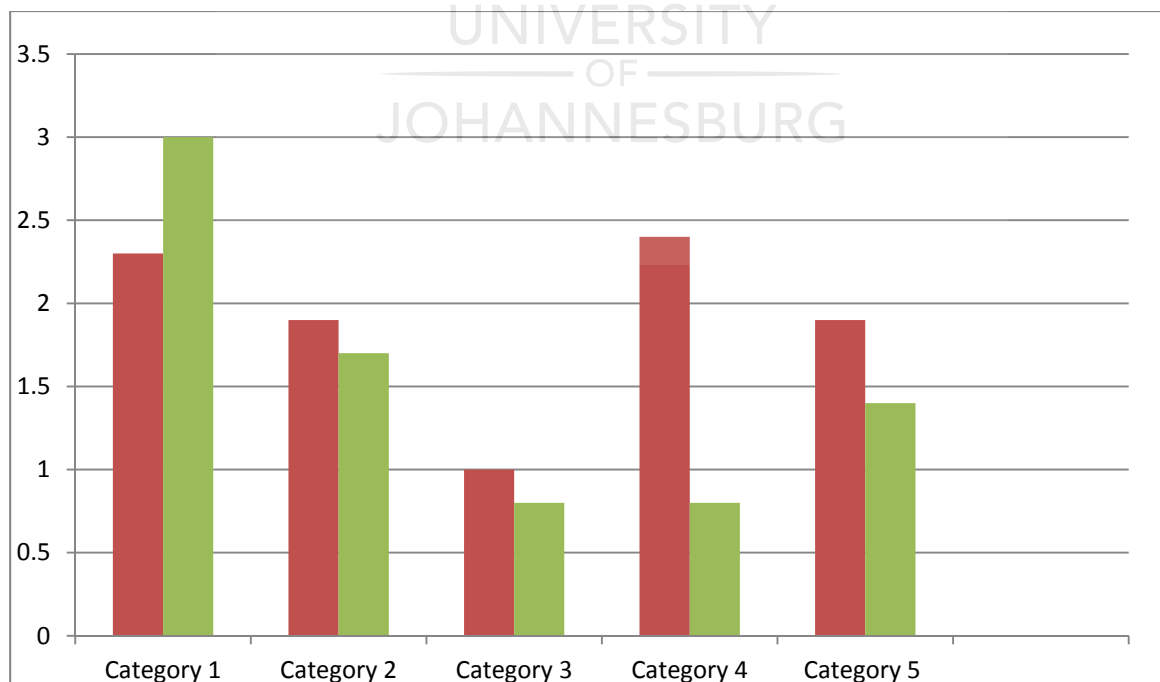


Figure 3: Employment type by city in South Africa

Source: MRMP (Migrants Rights Monitoring Project)

Red – Johannesburg, Gauteng (cat 1 / 23%) (cat 2 / 19%) (cat 3 /10%) (cat 4 / 24%) (cat 5 / 19%)
Green– Cape Town, Western Cape (cat 1 /30%) (cat 2 / 17%) (cat / 8%) (cat 3 / 8%) (cat 4 / 8%) (cat 5 / 14%)

Category 1: Not working at all.

Category 2. Casual/Temporary employment.

Category 3. Working part-time for someone.

Category 4. Working full-time for someone.

Category 5. Self-employed.

Other statistics from Mosala (2008) indicate that Zimbabweans are more likely to be unemployed in South Africa than other foreigners. On average it appears that Zimbabweans are also more likely to work in casual jobs, and less likely to be self-employed. Labour market transitions are a key challenge to the capacity of labour law to provide for decent work in southern Africa is the traditional, but now inadequate, reliance on the standard employment relationship as the focus of protective labour legislation.

“Casualization and externalisation have created varying forms of triangular employment that pose a challenge to workers’ protection in southern Africa. As these phenomena change the nature of employment, they remove the ambit of labour law protection” (Fenwick & Kalula, 2007).

2.13 Regulatory bodies

2.13.1 International Labour Office (ILO)

According to the ILO (2010) the definition of a private employment agency (or TES) is any enterprise or person, independent of the public authorities, which provides one or more of the following labour market services:

- (a) services for matching offers of and applications for employment;
 - (b) services for employing workers with a view to making them available to a third party (user enterprise); or
 - (c) other services relating to job seeking such as the provision of information, that does not aim to match specific employment offers and applications
- (ILO p. 296-299 and 300-307) Article 1 of Convention no.181 (2012).

The International Labour Convention (ILO), No. 181, discusses the protection of agency recruited workers. This guarantee covers fundamental rights at work such as freedom of association, collective bargaining, equal opportunity and treatment and elimination of child labour. Article No 4 protects workers against violations of the fundamental principles and rights. Article No 8 provides that countries adopt appropriate measures to protect and prevent the abuse of migrant workers. Article No 8 also requires states to establish a legal framework, including adequate penalties such as fines or closure of private agencies to protect migrant workers against abuse (ILO, General survey, 2010).

The ILO Convention 181 initiated the Decent Work Country Programmes or National Action Plan on a global scale, which began in Europe. The International Labour Organisation is aware of recruitment agencies involvement in international migration, and that some recruiters have engaged in unfair and abusive practices. The ILO has indicated that governments should also adopt measures to prevent fraudulent practices or abuse by agencies in relation to migrant workers. Positive perspectives regarding labour brokers where large international employment services operate with pride and honesty, according to stipulated labour laws. (Principles on Temporary Work Agencies, CGU General Secretaries Meeting, 11 June 2010).

The ILO recognises that if agencies are properly regulated they will contribute to improved functioning of the labour markets. They fulfil specific needs to enterprises as well as workers, and aim to complement other forms of employment. Several of today's agencies (like Manpower, Adecco, Kelly Services) are large, internationally active enterprises that are quoted on the stock exchange and take care to be seen as responsible and ethical. The ILO also recognises that there are many unscrupulous agencies in operation, which exploit the naivety and desperation of workers who are in vulnerable situations. Abuse can take many forms such as health and safety procedure issues, falsifying wage slips, confiscating passports, deducting excessive amounts of payments for housing and transport to work, debt bondage, bullying, harassment or even physical violence.

It took the death of 21 Chinese cockle pickers for the British government to enact the Gangmasters Licensing Act (2004). The temporary cockle pickers were employees

(illegal) that were canvassed from China. They were transported in closed trucks to Britain and suffocated during the trip. This sort of illegal recruitment of cheap labour is reflective of what occurs elsewhere in the world, including South Africa.

2.13.2 International Confederation of Private Employment Agencies (CIETT)

The triangular relationship between agencies, workers and user enterprises has been the main contention in labour laws, leading to poor working conditions and abuse of temporary employees around the globe.



Figure 4. Source: Adapted from a CIETT illustration (2009)

The triangular relationship between the client, agency (TES) and temporary employee is intermediated through the private employment agency (TES) and is governed by the national regulatory context (Labour Laws) in which it occurs. Changes in the circumstances of one of the parties involved in the relation can have a knock-on effect on the other two. This can constitute a virtuous circle during economic booms and a vicious circle for all during recessions. According to the CIETT, during economic downturns the importance of the relationships shrinks, as was the case from mid-2008. There is a close correlation in many industrialised countries between growth of gross domestic product and the use of temporary agency workers, so the recent financial and economic crisis and the subsequent fall in global economic output led to a contraction of the industry worldwide. Agency workers (temporary employed employees) were often the first who were obliged to leave user enterprises in difficult times, but were also often the first to be rehired when recovery began (CIETT, 2009: p.28).

Statistics SA indicates a growth in the number of agency workers in South Africa from “not significant” in 2002 to a reported 300,000 in 2007 and up to 924,000 in 2009 or a 208% increase in the last 3 years. 2011/ 2012 Reports indicate that up to 1.3 million agency employees are temporarily assigned to contract positions. In the amendments made in the Labour Relations Amendment Act (2012), the responsibility for employees is still jointly shared by the agency and user enterprises. The employees have difficulty contesting dismissal or imposing liability on agencies or user enterprises, owing to the unique relationship of the three parties, while agencies and user enterprises may accept little or no responsibility towards the labour rights of employees. The LRA (2012) proposed legislation to protect vulnerable workers and to regulate the entire labour broker industry (CIETT, 2008).

European trends include the use of temporary employees in manufacturing, shifting away to the service sectors. There is a significant use of agency employees to cover staff shortages of a temporary or seasonal nature in hotels, restaurants and other catering or tourism enterprises. Combined outsourcing and subcontracting of other services for example, housekeeping, cleaners, catering staff and waiters, also take place. User enterprises usually sign a contract with the agencies, but can easily switch over to another agency when they are not satisfied with expected services.

Agency employment in services has grown substantially as a proportion of total employment opportunities, but much research is needed about the significance of these differences in contractual status, human resources solutions, and other related issues.

More than three quarters of Chilean agencies' workers are in the services sectors. A total of 40% of agency workers are in construction in South Africa, and in manufacturing work in Argentina, Korea and Uruguay (CIETT, 2011, 21-34).

2.13.3 United Nations (UN) Guidelines

The United Nation's (UN's) principle guidelines on business and human rights in the Employment and Recruitment Agency Sector (E&RA) consider the actual definitions and whether migrant workers are by national law “legal or illegal” or “regular or irregular”, and whether E&AR firms are either “rogue or unscrupulous” and have any base in international law. UN guideline research done by Shift (2013) into the labour

broker industry considered impacts resulting from trafficking, slavery, forced and bonded labour. Impacts of human rights were specifically rife in regions in Africa, Central and South America, Asia, the Gulf States and Russia. Bonded labour plays a role, where workers have been indebted and now have to work to repay their loans. In many instances of illegal forms of labour or abuse deductions are made for accommodation, transport and food.

Globally, migrant workers are seen as particularly vulnerable to adverse human rights abuse for a number of reasons, including immigration status, can tie workers to one employer, while they often do not speak the host country's language, are not aware of the labour laws, nor the avenues to address abuse or illegal practices. UN investigations found that international recruitment most commonly takes place with the use of the E&AR or through agreements that do not have contractual basis, including lack of documentation and transparency.

There is also increased involvement of criminal gangs who manipulate labour laws and the rights of temporary employees in the E&AR industry, through threats and abuse. Further concerns relate to the E&AR's low rates, indicating worker and tax exploitation. "Frequent subcontracting across continents heightens the risks of human rights abuses" (Shift, 2013).

2.13.4 Basic Conditions of Employment Act No 198 of 1996, Part G. 30 (BCEA) (South Africa).

According to the Labour Relations Act, No 198 of 1996 (Part G, 30), reference is made to temporary employment services (TES) as:

- Any person who, for reward, procures for or provides employees to a client if that person remunerates the employees;
- For the purpose of this determination, an employee whose service has been procured for, or provided to, a client by a TES, is employed by that TES, and the TES is that person's employer;
- That the TES and the client are jointly and severally (individual) liable to comply with this determination in respect of its employees; and

- If the TES is in default of its obligation to make any payment in terms of this determination to an employee for a period of thirty days, the client concerned becomes liable to make payments.

Other determinations from the Labour Relations Act No 198 of 1996 include issues such as: commission work, overtime, payment of overtime, meal intervals, days off and leave, night work, and transport.

- Commission work: an employer must pay an employee the rates applicable for commission work as agreed to, provided that irrespective of the commission earned, the employer shall pay such an employee not less than the prescribed minimum wage for the period of time (in other words, the employer must pay the employee the applicable minimum wage as prescribed).
- Overtime: an employer may not require or permit an employee:
To work more than 10 hours overtime per week; and
To work more than 12 hours, including overtime, on any day.
- Payment of overtime: an employer must pay an employee at least one and a half times the employee's wage for overtime worked.
- Meal intervals: if during a meal interval an employee may be required or permitted to perform only duties that cannot be left unattended and cannot be performed by another employee, according to the Act. the employees must be paid (a meal interval being 60 minutes).
- Days off and leave: Apart from the 21 days annual leave (permanent staff) and by agreement one day annual leave per every 17 days worked, an employer must grant an employee an additional day of paid leave if a public holiday falls on a day during an employee's annual leave on which the employee would otherwise have worked.
- Night work and transport: a night shift refers to performed work between 18.00 and 6.00 the next day, in which case an employee receives an allowance or a reduction of work hours. Transportation is available between the employee's place of residence and the work place.

The Basic Conditions of Employment Act, No 198, SA (2 section 23, 1996) stipulates that every person has the right to "fair labour practices", which includes a reasonable

job with certain criteria that need to be met, reasonable working hours and decent remuneration. A further requirement of the law (BCEA) stipulates that employees, including temporary and fixed term workers, should be employed with a contract. Currently, the Labour Law Amendment Act (2012) is being considered in the South African parliament. This amendment bill will see drastic changes to be implemented specifically for TES employees and their clients, taking into consideration that current labour law prescribes confusing responsibilities to both TES as an employer and their clients who deal with their temporary staff. For example, the current related labour law prescribes that if, for whatever reason, the TES fails to pay their workers, the client will be responsible for remuneration. The law stipulates that the client will then reclaim these payments from the TES. The amendment bill is addressing certain problems and abusive practices which are associated with TES.

“The main thrust of this bill is to restrict the employment of more vulnerable, lower paid workers by TES, to situations of genuine and relevant “temporary work” (Tulleken, 2012).

2.13.5 Labour Relations Act. 2012 (LRA) (South Africa)

According to a newspaper article by Ann Crotty “MPs attack business over labour broker use” in The Star newspaper business (26-07-2012), labour brokers were described as “super exploiters” during hearings of the proposed amendments to labour laws, and business was told that it did not understand the vulnerability of people who are employed part-time or by labour brokers. Businesses stressed the importance of labour brokers in promoting employment opportunities and enabling businesses to be flexible.

Several government studies were cited warning of the damage to employment that would result with increased legislation. An executive from retailer “Mr Price”, said that management does not regard part-time employees as vulnerable, and that forcing employers to treat part-time employees equal to full-timers would lead to fewer people being employed (Crotty, 2012).

In another newspaper article by Loane Sharp “Amendments will throttle job creation” in The Star newspaper business (18-08-2013). Effectively about half a million people

find employment through labour brokers in South Africa (7% of the countries workers). The proposed amendments to the LRA (2012) seeks equal pay and benefits for any temporary employee who is hired for more than three months. If the employer fails to offer an indefinite contract if there is reasonable expectation of one, this will be construed as a dismissal. *“The contract worker must be employed permanently, unless the company can justify the need for continued fixed-term contract work”* (Sharp, 2013).

The LRA (2012) amendments to sections 198 (4) and 198 A of Act. 66 of 1995 (BCEA) section 198 continue to apply to all employees. It retains the general provisions that a TES is the employer of persons whom it employs and pays to work for a client, and that a TES and its client are jointly and severally liable for specified contraventions of employment laws. “Temporary service” will mean work for a client by a TES employee that does not exceed three months or where the TES employee substitutes for an employee of the client who is temporarily absent, even for longer than three months such as a client employee being on maternity leave. Even where a TES employee works for a client, the employee remains an employee of the TES. After three months of working for the client the TES employee becomes an employee on an indefinite period basis. Then the employee must be paid the same salary and benefits as the clients other employees who perform the same or similar work, unless there is a justifiable reason for different treatment.

A number of further general protections were also introduced by the LRA (2012). An employee bringing a claim, for which a TES and client are jointly and severally liable, may institute proceedings against either the TES or client or both, and may enforce any order or award that is made against the TES and client or against either of them. A labour inspector acting in terms of the BCEA may secure and enforce compliance against the TES or the client, as if it were the employer, or both. A TES may not employ an employee on terms and conditions of employment not permitted by the LRA, a sectoral determination or a collective agreement concluded at a bargaining council that is applicable to a client for whom the employee works.

The labour court or an arbitrator may now rule on whether a contract between a TES and a client complies with the LRA, a sectoral determination or applicable bargaining

council agreement, and make an appropriate award. There have been rulings that these agreements lie beyond their jurisdiction. A TES must be registered to conduct business, but the fact that it is not registered is no defence to any claim which is instituted in terms of the section. A TES must provide an employee who is assigned to a client with written particulars of employment that comply with section 29 of the BCEA no 198 of 1996.

The new section 198 in the LRA (2012) contains additional protection measures to protect employees. An employee who is employed on a fixed-term contract must be treated on the whole not less favourable than an employee who performs the same work on an indefinite contract. A fixed-term contract employee must be provided with the same opportunities to apply for a vacancy. If the section 198 of 1996 justified a contract of longer than 24 month expires, the employer must pay the employee one week's remuneration for each completed year of the contract.

A fixed term contract with an employee means a contract that terminates on:

- The occurrence of a specific event;
- The completion of a specific task or project; and
- A fixed date other than an employee's normal retirement date. An employer may extend the six month contract only if the nature of the work for which the employee is engaged is of a limited or definite duration.

Employers should also be aware that there are provisions to prevent the abuse of the three month period by a TES or its client for the purpose of avoiding employment by the client. Employers should realise that they will no longer be able to rely on the TES to act as a buffer for their industrial relations problems. The government has been aware of the abuse of labour broker employees and has acted accordingly by introducing the Amendment Act (2012). It was passed by parliament on the 6th July 2013, and gives TES and employers a year to implement. The consequences of the amendments are of interest to the research.

The new section 198 of the LRA (2012) requires employers to:

- Treat part-time employees on the whole not less favourable than comparative full-time employees;
- Provide part-time employees with access to training and skills development that is on the whole not less favourable than full-time employees; and
- Provide part-time employees with the same access to opportunities to apply for vacancies as full-time employees.

2.13.6 International Occupational Health & Safety concerns in connection with temporary employees in the hospitality Industry

With regard to Occupational Health & Safety (OHS) in South Africa, the Department of Labour has named the hospitality industry as “high risk” and “problematic” when it comes to compliance with the country’s labour laws. In 2013 various raids of inspection took place, according to the Department of Labour. The Department of Labour’s inspections into the hospitality sector started in a number of provinces. Areas of focus investigate and enforce included overall conditions of employment, existence of payslips, lunchtime, contracts of employment and payment for workers, as well as adherence to the Occupational Health and Safety Act (OHS Act No.40 of 2000). This initiative by the SA Minister of Labour, Mildred Olifant, was instigated after the concerns of vulnerable workers who are employed by the industry were exposed. The inspections will also create awareness and send a clear message about importance that is given by the department to adherence of labour laws. (Moth, 2013).

Relating to workplace injuries, the OHS Act No 40 of 2000 acknowledges the complex employment relationship between agency temporary employees, temporary work agencies and their client employers. It creates loopholes and incentives that may leave low-wage agency workers more vulnerable to workplace injuries, according to new research from the Institute for Work & Health. TES do not have control over the worksites to which workers are sent, and often do not fully know the risks. While both TES and client employers have responsibilities under the Ontario’s “Occupational Health and Safety Act.”, only the agencies are considered the employer under the Workers Compensation legislation, which weakens the incentives for client employers to protect these workers (MacEachen, 2012).

Working conditions threaten food integrity. In the USA food service industry workers have a difficult task, as workers face conditions that threaten both themselves, as well as public health. Restaurant employers, who take the high road by being concerned about the well-being of their employees, are the source of the best positions in the industry by providing liveable wages, access to health care and advancement in the industry. Taking the low road to profitability, by exploiting employees, however, creates low wage positions with long hours, few benefits, and exposure to dangerous and often unlawful workplace conditions. The majority of restaurant employers in each region of the USA that was examined appear to have taken the low road, creating a predominantly low wage industry in which violations of employment and health and safety laws are commonplace.

A USA labour survey, by Sarah Damian (2011) engaging some 4000 workers, was conducted in New York, Chicago, Detroit, Los Angeles, Miami, New Orleans and Washington DC. It showed that 64% of employees worked while being sick and 34% of employees reported having to do things under time pressure that might have harmed the health and safety of their customers. Employees reported health and safety hazards at the work place, compounded by a pervasive lack of health and safety training. In addition, many of the employees reported on the job injuries. *“Many employees who asserted their rights reported that their complaints were met with verbal abuse and threats of retaliation”* (Damian, 2011).

The temporary agency sector is an established part of today’s flexible labour market. Yet temporary agencies can be risky, for example, temporary agency employees have higher injury claim rate than those who are in regular work arrangements, and double the rates in construction and manufacturing. *“Low wage temporary employment agency workers are less well protected than workers in a standard employment relationship”* (MacEachen, 2013).

2.14 Labour broking

In recent decades the use of TES to supply employees has exploded all over the world, spreading also to sectors and occupations that had previously depended on

directly employed employees. Not only do temporary agency employees typically receive lower pay and fewer benefits, but when the financial crisis rapidly became an employment crisis, temporary agency workers were also among its first casualties. Many companies simply terminated their contracts with TES, so that the employees do not receive the minimum compensation or social benefits that they would have received as direct employees.

2.14.1 Developments around the world

According to IndustriALL Global Union, (2012) although during economic hardship temporary agency employees are the first to be laid off and were found to be the first casualties of the 2008 downturn, cost cutting and consequently casualization was the cause that agency work exploded way beyond any legitimate role in addressing short term labour shortages, owing for example, to production fluctuations or employee absenteeism. Evidence provided by labour unions around the world shows that agency work is being used to replace permanent positions, in order to reduce wage costs and evade legislative protection.

- A study, completed by IndustriALL Global Union (2012) reported that 10% of Mexico's labour force was employed by temporary agencies. Their electronics industry workers consists of 60% temporary agency employees, while some companies employ up to 90% of their workforce via agencies.
- In Russia nearly 75% of foreign companies and 35-50% of Russian companies use agency labour.
- In Spain temporary work constitutes 315 of all employment, while agency work accounts for 1 in 6 of all temporary contracts.
- Over half of all electronics industry employees in Thailand are agency workers.
- 30% of all private sector workers are employed via contractors and with levels in the manufacturing industries up to 50%.
- In 2008 in the Philippines, 11% of all employment occurred through agencies.
- The new laws in China which saw huge improvements for employees' protection, have resulted in employers, including multi-nationals, hiring agency workers to get around these increased protection laws.

Furthermore Jayaweera, H. & Anderson, B. (2009) in a Labour Force Survey (LFS) indicate that the following are top global labour broker firms involved in the recruitment and placement of temporary employees around the world:

- Adecco, HO Switzerland: 150,000 clients and 700,000 placements daily;
- Manpower, HO Milwaukee US: 400000 clients and 4 mil placements in 2008;
- Kelly Services, HO Michigan US: 10,000 employees and 650,000 placements;
- Randstad, HO Diemen NL: 386,770 employees; and
- According to the ILO (2012) Advantage Resourcing, US, Japan.

(Note: A Labour Force Survey is a quarterly sample of households that live at private addresses in Great Britain, designed to collect information on the labour market. The research refers to new migrants that have arrived in the UK not more than 10 years earlier.)

Research conducted by the ILO (2010) established that the large global employment agencies operate in many different countries under different laws. Thence, the consequences and the non-transparency of many operations lead to abuse of temporary employees in the hospitality industry.

Currently, around the world, and par example in the UK, reports of abuse and exploitation of migrant workers have received increasing attention from the media in the last ten years, particularly following the death of the Chinese cockle pickers in Morecombe Bay in 2004. While the government has focussed attention on the “illegal” immigrants as vulnerable, legal immigrants and even UK citizens are exposed by employers to abuse. (Jayaweera & Anderson, 2009)

Research work undertaken by Williams and Shaw (1988) in the UK, indicated that almost 33% of hotel and restaurant groups pay their employees less than the legal minimum wages set by the National Labour Council. It further found only limited career progression, poor levels of remuneration and working conditions which result in high labour turnover rates (Anderson and Rogaly, 2005).

The UK Trade Union Congress (TUC) on “Vulnerable Employment” defines vulnerable employment as: “precarious work that places people at risk of continuing poverty and injustice resulting from the imbalance of power in the employer-worker relationship”.

Indicators of vulnerable employment, as per TUC, are outlined as follows:

- Pay - below minimum wage, unfair deductions, illegal retention of wages and holiday / sick pay entitlements;
- Hours - for example, evidence of under-employment or excessive hours worked without payment;
- Insecurity - for example, lack of a written employment contract, temporary employment unfair dismissal or with no notice, payment of wages in cash, and lack of a national insurance; and
- Accommodation - for example, unfair deductions for employer provided accommodation, restrictive / poor quality conditions.

The UK’s TUC report further established that a significant proportion of recent migrants are in temporary work. The LFS has significantly underestimated the proportions of migrants who are in temporary employment. The TUC data sought whether all temporary workers are registered and concluded that most unregistered workers are employed through or by agencies (46% of all temporary workers). Regarding pay, temporary workers took low pay, specifically below the minimum wage as an indicator of vulnerable employment. *“There is widespread evidence of recent migrant workers who obtain less than the minimum wage equivalent to their age bands, both in the national and the regional data. Apart from pay, there are high proportions of migrant workers who work non-standard hours”* (ILO, 2011).

Page (2010), shows that the Agency Workers Regulations for labour brokers came into effect in October 2010 in the United Kingdom, in Scotland and in Wales in December 2010. These regulations stem from the EU Temporary Workers Directive (2008). This gives temporary workers the right to the same pay and working conditions enjoyed by permanently employed comparable workers / employees. The regulations do not alter the agency’s temporary employment status, namely rights granted under these regulations do not grant them employment status, by law.

These regulations also give temporary workers access to the same facilities such as canteen, gym, car parking, and subsidised transport and so on, as well as the right to be informed about suitable internal vacancies (Page, 2010).

In Japan an agency will usually supply staff, per contract, for specific functions but user enterprises can switch to any other agency if the services that are provided are dissatisfactory. Although regulatory bodies guidelines indicate differently, Japanese agencies still charge the job seeking employee a fee for their services after which they also charge their clients (European Company Survey; Overview 2009). In 2011 Morocco had the largest market for employment agencies in Northern Africa, with an estimated 1,200 temporary employment agencies.

Leading agencies, such as Manpower Maroc, Adecco Maroc and RMO Maroc try to collaborate with institutions to improve skills and to raise awareness about the job market and facilitate migrant professional labour. This indicates that some agencies are pushing for better regulations and setting industry standards, aiming to raise the industry's profile, establish its legitimacy and protect their brands in countries where the industry is either underdeveloped or plagued by bad practices. *"These leading agencies are attempting to coordinate sectoral activities and have organised themselves through industry associations. However, membership levels are low and communication between firms, their associations and government is suboptimal"* (Benson & Arkoubi, 2006).

Private employment agencies are critical to labour market efficiency, as Morocco's experience with global employment agencies demonstrates their importance into developing the labour market, upgrading and driving better regulations. *"However, many private employment agencies in Morocco are not transparent"* (Benson & Arkoubi, 2006)

In Nigeria, according to Fapohunda & Tinuke, (2012) the scourge of casualization of employment is gaining ground in an unprecedented proportion, intensity and scale. The increase in the spread and gradual acceptance of this labour practice in the Nigerian labour market has become an issue of great concern to stakeholders. Employers of labour are increasingly filling positions in their organisations that are

supposed to be permanent with casual employees. The trend has been largely attributed to the increasing desperation of employers to decrease organisational costs. Casualization of employment in Nigeria is seen as an appropriate strategy for cost reduction. Behind the issue is the high level of unemployment and accompanying poverty. Casual work is often temporary, with uncertain wages, long hours, and no job security. Nigerian workers are under pressure from corporate practices that seek to undercut their hard fought victories at the bargaining table and replace good jobs (jobs with benefits, training and security) with various forms of insecure and lower paid contracts, short-term and temporary work.

In an analysis regarding casualization in Nigeria, according to Shelley (2008), contract staffing and precarious work are major problems besetting decent work and social justice in the Nigerian work environment. Hence, Nigerians are forced by the realities of excruciating unemployment to sign any contract of employment merely to have a job. In most cases the agreements are not entered on equal terms but are forced down upon the employees by the realities of the country's labour market.

It is pertinent to also note that contract and agency labour and precarious work forms of employment have been rife in the Nigeria, bringing with it two categories of workers: one with good secure jobs and another category of workers who are faced with short term jobs, low wages, no social protection and a loss of rights. Specifically, the massive shift away from regular employment to temporary work or jobs through agencies and labour brokers is having a deep impact on all workers, their families, and the society. The erosion of employee – employer relationships, often the basis of labour law, is leading directly to a growing number of violations of worker rights. The disconnection in employment and productivity resulting from policy changes, especially those inspired by international financial institutions such as the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund (IMF), have in recent years encouraged work flexibility and brought with it a lowering of work conditions at both national and international levels (Shelley, 2008).

Flexibility in the workplace often refers to less regular and less reliable working hours, often determined at short notice. Casual workers seem to be disproportionately affected. A study by Bohle *et al.* (2004) on Canadian hotel workers

shows important differences in work organisation and working hours between casual and full-time employees at the same workplace. While full-time employees reported a satisfactory level of control and a good work-life balance, casual workers doing the same jobs have much less desirable work schedules and were additionally exposed to unpredictable variations in both daily and weekly working hours (Bohle *et al.* 2004).

The findings of research conducted at the Mid Sweden University of Ostersund in Sweden, explored employee's experiences of flexibility, control and autonomy in organisations with extensive numbers of temporary agency workers (TAW's/TES). The results indicate that there are few opportunities for either TAW's or regular staff to achieve workplace flexibility in terms of making choices about where, when, and how long they are at work (Olofsson, 2012).

The findings contradict assumptions that formal differences between employment conditions of regular and agency workers affect their opportunities for work flexibility. The Mid Sweden University study (Olofsson, 2012) demonstrates "*the complexity of controlling practices in firms with extensive use of agency workers, and how possibilities for workplace flexibility are intertwined with organisational control practices*".

The same research also established that most hospitality operations, and specifically conference venues, have controlled working hours. The employers pay the agencies where their workforce comes from per hour, and under strict conditions. Usually no over time is paid.

Large global agencies are a relatively new phenomenon, which arises out of a search for flexibility and competitiveness based on its "transaction costs" approach to human resource recruitment. In other words, capitalism wants cheap labour. The increase in the number of atypical contracts of employment is such that more than 10 per cent of the Irish labour force falls under the heading "non-permanent employees", temporary, fixed term contracts and casual workers.

A further step in this trend is the use of employment agency employees who are in abundant supply because of a lack of employment opportunities in failed economies (MacPartlin, 2008).

More and more migrant employees in the UK and Ireland in the hospitality, food processing and agricultural sectors, are hired on these short-term contracts. A hotel, for example, may use several different agencies to supply its waiting, catering and cleaning staff. Employees and their representatives, who may want to pursue a grievance, can find it difficult to identify someone who will take responsibility to deal with the issue. *“In this way employment agencies and employers, who use temporary contract employees can circumvent employment rights that are available to permanent staff”* (Jayaweera & Anderson, 2009).

Swedish research conducted in 2012 by the University of Ostersund, regarding the possibilities of TAW (temporary agency workers) shows results which imply that there are few opportunities for either TAW or regular staff to achieve workplace flexibility in terms of making choices about where, when and for how long they are going to work. The findings contradict assumptions that formal differences between the employment conditions of regulars and agency workers affect their opportunities for workplace flexibility (Olofsdotter, 2012).

In Sweden, organisations hire staff from different employment agencies, with differences in terms of employment, but who work together are often do the same tasks. TAW's, like other forms of temporary workers, may have varied skills or educational backgrounds. They may also work full-time or part-time and have short-term or long-term employment.

The diversity in TAW's personal and work related characteristics is also reflected in differences in pay, training, and control over work conditions, whereas skilled experts' and professionals' highly valued skills give them benefits and rewards. Further investigations established that TWA's are found to have less favourable working conditions than other employees, and they also have less autonomy and fewer possibilities of influencing holidays, days off, and places of work. The frequent change of workplaces at different user firms can also lead to poor working conditions (Olofsdotter, 2012).

Olofsdotter (2012) further noted that the Norwegian hotel industry outside Oslo is dominated by small operators and is typically a female workplace. Temporary staff (migrants) are, however, over represented to work irregular hours, and deal with repetitive, monotonous physical work and the mental strain from guests and employers. There is a low education level and language barriers exist, high staff turnover and reports of threats and violence.

High staff turnover challenges solidarity at work. NAV (2006) and Braten (2008) identify the hotel / restaurant sectors as areas of the labour market that have high levels of non-permanent employment. Moreover, repetitive and monotonous work (physical strain) and the pressure from guests and employee's needs are emphasised as major threats to effective occupational health and safety. The report states that the work tempo is high in the sector and that a large share of the employees experience threats and violence. Labour migration is an important factor, which shapes the labour market in the hotel sector in Norway.

Casualization in Australia shows similar employment practices. Australia has non-standard employment. The luxury hotel market within the Australian hospitality industry is an influential employer group with around one third of the total hotel's employees controlling approximately two thirds of the accommodation income share. As low wages are synonymous with the Australian hospitality industry, previous research by Knox (2010) suggests that the high turnover rates of staff may be attributed to a number of factors, including limited career advancement opportunities within the hotel industry.

In Australia casualization has a slightly narrower but more solid meaning. Because the labour markets contain a prominent form of employment that has been given the label of "casual", casualization in the Australian literature usually refers to a process whereby more and more of the workforce is employed in these "casual jobs".

According to Knox (2010), the phenomena of "casualization", casual jobs, either in the narrow sense or in the broader sense of jobs without rights and benefits, is widely seen "*as a symptom of an earlier raw phase of capitalist development, which has been superseded by the evolution of co-operative employment relations and*

industrial citizenship". A return of casual and casualization is, therefore, viewed with great concern by researchers such as Knox (2010). Casualization is seen as negative not only because it draws more workers into the net of casual work, but also because it exerts downward pressure on the wages and conditions even of those employees that continue to be viewed as permanent. Both cases are often identified at workplace level with processes such as outsourcing and labour hire, which threatens the direct or indirect replacement of permanent employees by casual employees.

Casual employment positions are not the only source of challenges in the labour market. Labour market reformers need to evaluate the wellness of all forms of employment. Varying forms of employment, including self-employed workers, fixed-term employees, permanent part-time employees, and even the core group of permanent employees, require evaluation. These problems are widely recognised, emphasising that casual employees are a particularly vulnerable group.

Challenges mentioned escalate during rising times of employment, contraction, as well as during periods of employment growth. Employees who are classified as "casual" now represent around one quarter of all employees. In some versions of the argument it is suggested that "casual" and "permanent" workers are in fact equivalent – it is just that the former have chosen to cash in their standard rights and benefits. This argument is not backed up by facts, according to May *et al.* (2012).

May, Campbell & Burgess (2012) indicate that it is sometimes suggested that although casual jobs might be less favourable, they constitute the price of progress. In this approach casual positions are identified with increased flexibility, which is in turn presented as a precondition for economic success. Flexibility clearly means different things to employers than it does to employees. In the casualization context, flexibility means more freedom for individual employers, namely increased management prerogative (in this context the important need for companies to save money). However, far from being the price of progress, casualization and enhanced management prerogative may be a barrier to progress. Two long run workforce problems confronting Australia are the skills gap and an aging population. Temporary employed employees are largely outside of formal training programs and

career path development associated with skill accreditation and an increasingly casual workforce share is hardly compatible with filling skills shortages. May, Campbell & Burgess (2012) emphasise that casualization, therefore, is not suited to long-term financial planning for many multinational companies.

In the USA any foreigner who seeks work is presumed to be an immigrant, mainly guest workers from Mexico. Migrants often claim abuse by recruiters (labour brokers) who exaggerate claims about what they can earn in the US. When the migrant is hooked by the recruiter he will be charged exorbitant fees for being employed in the first place. Further abuse takes place when the migrant owes the recruitment fee to the broker (Seminari, 2010). There are cultural expectations around working long and unsociable hours. It is also the case that minority ethnic catering businesses tend to look to recruit co-ethnics both to preserve the authenticity of the product and experience being offered, and for pecuniary reasons. In the most high profile cases, this has caused employers to hire irregular immigrants, a group who are particularly susceptible to exploitation.

At Nokia in China, agency workers are paid about three-quarters of the wage earned by directly employed employees of Nokia, who are hired to do the same job. *“They cannot live in the Nokia dormitories or join a union and are constantly threatened with dismissal”* (Kagan et al., 2011).

Bodibe (2006) did an extensive study of the southern African casualization labour situation. He indicates that Lesotho is a small country, which is situated within the boundaries of South Africa. For decades it has been a reservoir of cheap labour for the SA mining industry. Casualization, specifically in the textile industry, is there to stay and should be addressed by government and unions. Labour laws need to be amended to accommodate this phenomenon. He further indicates that *“existing labour laws do not take casual workers into consideration, and protection and regulations of these workers regarding their rights is not implemented or enforced owing to a lack of labour law inspectorate”*.

Bodibe (2006) further found that in Mozambique the definition in the Mozambican context encompasses casualization as a type of employment, whether regulated by

written or verbal contract, in which the employment relationship is not durable, but for a defined period of work. Ordinarily, the contract is used to accomplish defined tasks for a defined period. Liberalisation of the economy in Mozambique has propelled the emergence of casual work and other forms of non-standard type of employment. It has completely changed the society into a free market economy. In the labour market there was a dramatic shift from full-time permanent employment to a flexible labour regime of casual and informal sector employment. The social protection system, however, is still based on the standard employment relations of permanent and long term employment. Hence those with fixed term contracts or who are defined as casuals are excluded from the system. Recommendations include the legal protection of casual workers, as well as social protection legislation that should be changed for temporary and short term contracts

Swaziland, since the mid 90's, has experienced a marked economic decline and stagnation that can be attributed to the restructuring programmes accompanying globalization. High unemployment, competition in the global economy, high inflation, declining commodity prices for export and HIV / Aids are part reasons for large scale poverty and the widening gap between rich and poor. Casualization has a specifically negative effect on women, because of the loss of benefits, irregular uncertain hours of work, more risky work, lower wages and difficulties in organizing. Furthermore, factors such as the lack of security and favouritism in allocation of working are common, and this may make women more vulnerable to sexual harassment (Bodibe ,2006).

Zambian legislation is provided for the employment of persons, engagement of persons on contract of services, appointment of officers of the labour department and conferring of powers on such offers, protection of wages of employees, and control of employment agencies among other things. Casual employee means any employee whose terms of employment provide for payment at the end of each day, and who is engaged for a period of not more than six months but does not include persons who are employed under the Apprenticeship Act or as casual employees. Important provisions under the Act on contract of service include paid holiday, maternity leave, termination and redundancy, but this does not apply to casual employees (Bodibe, 2006).

2.14.2 Statistics and information on labour broking, supplied by CIETT (2011) (South Africa and globally)

The CIETT (2011) indicated the following findings in their annual report:

- Disabled workers in France find employment through employment agencies, and are integrated at every level of companies.
- Agencies in the Netherlands employ target groups, increasing labour market participation and diversity. Ethnic minorities, older people and the long term unemployed count for 31% of the agency workers.
- The Dutch government set all temporary agencies an end-of-2011 deadline to enrol with the trade registry. Non-compliant agencies and user enterprises face fines of 1200 Euro per worker posted by an unregistered office, and higher fines for repeat offenders. By April 2011, only 35% had complied. The Netherlands opted for self-regulation of agencies through a private certification system in accordance with the national code of conduct, partly based on collective bargaining agreements. The Dutch Labour Inspectorate concentrates on inspecting uncertified temporary agencies (Planet Labor, 2011).
- In Italy agency work offers groups such as migrant workers, women returning from childcare breaks, the disabled and unemployed people, across the labour market. In principle, agency work can help workers to develop their skills and experience, thereby offering pathways into more secure employment.
- In Japan and in the US agency workers tend to be older (over 30), which can be explained by the fact that agency work is culturally accepted as a viable alternative to permanent employment.
- In Europe 75% of agency workers are younger than 30.
- Agency workers outside Europe tend to be older.
- 77% of agency workers have at best completed their secondary education.
- Agency workers in a wide range of sectors are represented most strongly in services and manufacturing.
- In 2010 the USA and Japan were the world leaders regarding the sale of agency work.
- Temporary agency work facilities transition from temporary to permanent under certain conditions.

- In Europe, in general, 50% of temporary employment workers are under the age of 30 (EuroCIETT, 2012).
- In the Netherlands in 2009, 56% of agency workers reported that they sought permanent employment using agency work, and 29% of all temporary agency workers found a job within a year.
- In France, 16% of workers, who had at least one assignment as a temporary agency worker in 2010, had obtained an open-ended contract within a year.
- In Italy, 66,5% of workers aged 16 – 35 years old who completed temporary agency work in the last years, moved to permanent employment.
- Temporary agency work is an important entry channel for young people into the labour market.

Agency worker profiles indicate a significant increase in women agency workers in SA, Czech Rep. and Italy, from 2000 onward mainly in the services related industries. Japan's temporary agency staff consists of 66% women. Further survey research showed that the majority of agency workers are under the age of 30, while migrants are a significant element in the flexible labour markets. The length of contracts, in general, was longer than 3 months (CIETT, 2011).

2.14.3 “Labour broker work, a stepping stone to permanent employment”

According to the South African Government Accountability Office (2012) the labour market is undergoing fundamental shifts, as companies increasingly opt for a contingent temporary workforce so that they can scale their business performance. The trend is being seen across all the major western economies – in the US temporary workers comprise one third of the workforce.

The positive role of temporary agency work in bringing people into the workplace and reducing unemployment, as well as supporting labour market access (especially) of specific target groups, has been an important rationale to adopting regulations on temporary agency work in the context of labour market reforms at a national level. Policy makers regard temporary agency work as a means to create bridges for

unemployed persons into employment, and to act as a “stepping stone” for further employment opportunities. (SA Government Accountability Office, 2012)

Furthermore the office indicates that politically, the days of labour brokers may be numbered, however, agencies should be aware of this as their clients appear to be conscious of the fact that their days are numbered if they continue to do business with them. A further complication is that clients assume that the employees who are supplied to a business by a labour broker are “qualified”.

Clients should also be aware that there is no such benchmark applied across the recruitment sector, and that is highly unlikely that all of the staff that a client sources via such a labour broker, are appropriately qualified. The principal advantage in outsourcing, namely that the client can pass the employment obligation on to the labour broker, no longer exists in law. *“Both parties are now jointly and severally liable for the employment status, terms and progress of that worker, irrespective of who the contracted employer is. Agencies and their clients have to pay the minimum industry or sectorial determined wage applicable for the job, and should something go wrong beyond the honeymoon phase of that employment relation, they will be held accountable”* (Blumenthal, 2013).

According to the CIETT (2012), it is not true that agencies create jobs, because investment and the economy create jobs, not agencies. Examples are numerous employers’ systematically replacing permanent staff with agency workers, including getting rid of or preventing union involvement.

“There is currently no evidence that agency work is effective as a stepping stone to permanent employment” (CIETT, 2012). In contradiction to this, the ILO, in their quest to promote “decent work” finds the role of the labour broker important.

There is a triangular relationship that governs agency work with two types of contracts: an employment contract between the private employment agency and the employee, and a commercial service contract between the employment agency and the user enterprise. These agencies bridge the gap between the supply and the demand for labour by providing market intelligence about jobs, skills, training and managing people. *“Agency work helps to create new jobs and helps the young,*

women and less skilled people to join or reintegrate into the labour market” (ILO, 2012).

Agency workers consider the disadvantages of agency work to be job and employment instability, and sometimes lower pay. However, agency nurses often earn higher pay than regular staff. Agencies in some countries are reported to pay higher “reference wages” to compensate for regular workers’ allowances, premiums and fringe benefits, and pay “end-of-assignment” bonuses.

Questionnaire interviews, which were conducted by Japanese trade unions (2004) regarding reasons why employers replace permanent jobs with temporary jobs; revealed the following responses:

- I had no other choice 39%;
- Access to learning 22%;
- Gain work experience 19%; and
- Work in a flexible way 45% (Kvasnicka, 2005:31).

There are positive perspectives from a agencies’ point of view. There have been significant changes in agencies’ orientation towards additional or higher value services in recent years, reflecting user enterprises reasons for using employment agencies. Agencies have emphasised services that go beyond temporary employment services, such as recruitment outsourcing, permanent placement services human resources management functions and encouraging employers to change employment strategies to the companies benefit. Agencies can play a positive role to obtain the long-term unemployed, the disabled, ethnic minorities, and people from disadvantaged groups into work. For instance, an employment agency Ecorys found that over the longer period of time, 14% of or one in every seven temporary employment agency workers find a permanent job at the company that they work for (Ecorys, 2009).

From the workers’ perspective, agency work is relatively easy to obtain, no lengthy search for a permanent job with an uncertain outcome. Kvasnicka, (2005:31) suggests that “*agencies can be vital for the less skilled who lack informal networks, while the unemployed may acquire skills and work experience to improve their future prospects in the labour market*”. Many agencies offer a “foot-in-the-door” for many

workers, especially women, as temporary employment offers opportunities to combine work and family responsibilities, while young less qualified workers find easier pathways to regular employment via agencies.

According to research, which was conducted by the Centre for Development and enterprise (CDE) in South Africa (2010) reported that “*Labour brokers an important route into formal employment*”: TES firms have important advantages. Firms appear to be of use to unskilled, inexperienced workers whose connection to the labour market is particularly tenuous. In this respect, TES firms may help to bring excluded households and workers into the economy. Research reports indicated that closing down TES would result in costs and consequences that many who are currently participating in this debate may not have considered. Critically, if (as this research indicates) TES firms are a vehicle that people least connected to the labour market are able to use to access jobs, and this must be factored into the policy debate.

Other notable findings in South Africa, and globally, include:

- Mainly large capital intensive firms use TES / labour brokers;
- TES services help companies to compete globally and to grow;
- Most of the reliance on TES reflects seasonality and the broader trend towards flexible forms of work; and
- TES firms help a significant number of young inexperienced workers and the least connected to the labour market access to possible long-term or permanent employment opportunities.

The above conclusion included a definite no to closing down or banning TES firms (CDE, 2012).

2.14.4 The South African context (non-standard workers)

The current labour market in South Africa has many forms of employment relations that vary from traditional full-time employment. These include part-time employees, temporary employees, employees supplied by employment agencies, casual employees, home workers and workers who are engaged in a range of contracting relationships. Most of these employees are particularly vulnerable to exploitation because they are unskilled or work in sectors with little or no trade union organisations or little or no coverage by collective bargaining. A high proportion of them are women. They frequently have less favourable terms of employment than other employees who perform the same work, as well as less security of employment. Often they do not receive “social wage” benefits such as medical aid, pension or provident funds. These employees, therefore, depend on statutory employment standards for basic working conditions. Most have, in theory, the protection of current legislation, but in practice the circumstances of their employment make the enforcement of their rights difficult (Luo *et al.*, 2010).

According to Fourie (2013), five groups of temporary workers are recognised:

- Part-time work: are employed on an ongoing basis, work fewer than standard hours of work and are predominantly women. The basic norm should be that all employees, including those in this category, are protected by employment standards and at least receive benefits on a proportional basis;
- Casual and seasonal work: they are often found in labour intensive sectors such as the hospitality industry. This category of workers is left with limited legislative protection. Casual work is of a temporary nature, where income and availability are uncertain. These jobs are mainly created in low-paid occupations and present few opportunities for the training that would offer the hope of advancement, as employers would rather train permanent staff;
- Homework: is a form of subcontracting and refers to the work that is home based and involves an employment relationship. This form of employment creates a serious challenge to labour legislation and organisation. The LRA provides for bargaining councils to extend their services to home workers, but bargaining councils have difficulty in enforcing minimum standards owing to the concealed nature of homework;

- The independent contractor: workers should be treated as independent contractors if they are indeed independent entrepreneurs who perform services for a client, par example, if they present themselves to the public as an established business presence, have a number of clients, deal with the economic risk of loss from their work and the like. Workers who are economically dependent on the entity for whom they perform services, generally, should be treated as employees. Factors such as low wages, low skills levels and having one or a few employers should all militate against treatment as independent contractors; and
- Workers employed by labour brokers (temporary employment services): in SA employment by a temporary employment service is, to a certain extent, regulated by the LRA and the BCEA. The temporary employment service is the employer and not the client, and that the person placed is the employee of the TES. Why would an employer use a TES? The stringent labour law requirements are now moved to the TES. In other words, the dismissal procedure must now be complied with by the labour broker and not the client. The client can use the TES to provide labour when needed-an important factor to consider in respect of labour flexibility. Costs are reduced as it is often less costly to use the services of a person through a TES than to employ a person temporarily. Internationally these workers are often referred to as “temporary workers”.

The LRA 2012 / Labour Relations Amendment Act is currently in the process of being approved by parliament and, will be implemented in 2015.

2.14.5 Migrant workers in southern Africa and South Africa

The changing nature of work and employment in southern Africa in the wake of liberalization and casualization has intensified competition, leading to the evolution of three different “worlds of work” in which some workers benefit from global integration. Some survive in employment, but under worse conditions, while others are retrenched and forced to “make a living” in informal and unpaid work. This has created a “crisis of representation’ in which traditional organizational forms such as trade unions fail to provide a voice for the “new poor”, necessitating the creation of new coalitions to respond to liberalization (Webster, 2005).

Baum (2012) suggests that migrants:

- are a vital source of skills and labour for the hotel industry in countries, which are developed and less-developed across the world;
- They are more committed and bring organizational culture to the hotel industry;
- Income from migrant workers in the hotel industry makes a significant contribution to the national financial inflow in many countries; and
- There is strong consensus in the industry that migrant workers are vital to the operation viability of the sector and will remain so for the foreseeable future.

In the UK services that are provided in the hospitality industry by migrant temporary workers are regarded as more superior than UK nationals. The flow of migrant workers bring knowledge and social networks that are unsurpassed (Baum, 2012).

The current and future role of migrant workers in the hospitality industry, according to findings by the ILO (2011) research project indicated the following:

Table 3. The current and future role of migrant workers in the hospitality industry according to findings by the ILO (2011).

Shown in percentages	Agree	Disagree	Neutral
The use of migrant labour in the international hotel industry is likely to decrease over the next ten years.	22	69	9
There is political pressure to reduce the use of migrant labour in the hotel industry	43	27	30
Migrant workers improve the quality of our overall workforce	66	11	23
Migrant workers create problems for our local workforce	13	81	6
Migrant workers greatly improve the talent pool that we can recruit from internationally	85	4	11
Migrant workers are often better qualified than our local workers	41	47	12
Demographic pressure in many countries will force the employment of migrant workers	89	4	7

The hotel industry offers great employment opportunities for migrant workers	84	2	16
Employing migrant workers is unacceptable on social and political grounds	7	89	4
Our hotels greatly benefit from the cultural diversity provided by migrant workers	91	0	9
Migrant workers are popular with our guests	54	21	25
Migrant workers cause tension in the workplace	34	59	7
The company has a strategy to increase the use of migrant workers in its hotels	11	34	55
Migrant workers significantly reduce labour costs	45	22	33
Migrant workers should be confined to unskilled positions in the hotels	17	76	7

International migration paper no. 112 (ILO) 2011

The reasons why employers employ migrant workers have further been identified as follows:

Table 4. Reasons for employers to employ migrant workers

Reasons stated	Companies responding "yes" (%)
Absence of suitable skills in the local labour market.	87
Migrant workers are cheaper to employ than locals.	59
Migrants workers are more reliable and committed.	17
Company policy is to employ the best worker, irrespective of nationality.	76
Staff members are recruited by agencies, hence companies have limited control over who is employed.	31
Company is committed to socially responsible employment practices in employment.	91
Local workers are not interested in hotel work.	76
Migrant workers cause fewer industrial relation problems.	11
Other reasons.	64

Source: Statistics and source (Mosala, 2008)

Mosala (2008) further indicates that Zimbabwe migrants in SA generally enter labour markets that are undergoing structural changes. Global labour standards for many workers are decreasing and cover only a shrinking pool of workers in long-term

formal employment. However, short-term and casual employment is growing, leaving many workers without protection.

He further states that companies increasingly rely on labour brokers to fulfil their need for a flexible, mobile and pliable labour force. Regardless of political or purely economic imperatives, migrants seek work in the host country even if their status (documented or undocumented) affects their ability to legally seek work.

In his report Mosala (2008) he further states that the recent Zimbabwean migration into South Africa is the first post-1994 large scale in-migration from a neighbouring country. Its occurrence is owing to Zimbabwe's unresolved political and economic crisis. It is estimated that 3.5 million Zimbabweans have left their country since 2000. The vast majority of Zimbabweans in South Africa have obvious economic motivations for leaving. Many move to South Africa because it is accessible and familiar, with long established historical ties. They are attracted by South Africa's relative political and economic stability, which translates into better living conditions, educational opportunities and the prospect of raising money to move to the UK or US.

General Zimbabwean employment patterns are characterised by high levels of unemployment, reaching up to 40%. Of those who are employed, between 20% and 30% are in casual or temporary employment (mainly unskilled professions, with security and the hospitality industry being the leading employers). Referral by a friend, family or other connection is the most common way of finding work. Networking among Zimbabweans is developed and is influential. Zimbabwean migrants, however, face a similar fate to that of migrants from other parts of Africa. They are viewed with suspicion and are, among other things, accused of stealing jobs that are meant for South Africans. These simmering negative attitudes have recently exploded into outright resentment, culminating in brutal xenophobic attacks in 2008 (Fashoyin, 2011).

Key findings of a Mulholland (2014) report include the following:

- Documentation such as refugee, asylum seeker, residence status, marital, curriculum vitae and other work related documents are crucial, but not essential to finding employment;

- Jobs are quicker found via social and community networks; and
- Any assessment of Zimbabwean working conditions is limited by the fact that working Zimbabweans are a privileged minority and by the inescapable reality that as the situation in Zimbabwe deteriorates, finding any form of employment in South Africa represents an improvement of their subjective conditions.

It is one of history's ironies that modern societies that are built on immigration, such as the US, Australia and others, are presently sealing their borders, hunting down and deporting illegal migrants and denying even those who have become well established, the rights of permanent residency. There is ample evidence that migrants can be economically beneficial to a society, providing skills and ambitions that are scarce (taking care of jobs that other people refuse to do, and South Africa has about 5 million foreigners and half is made up of Zimbabweans (Mulholland, 2014).

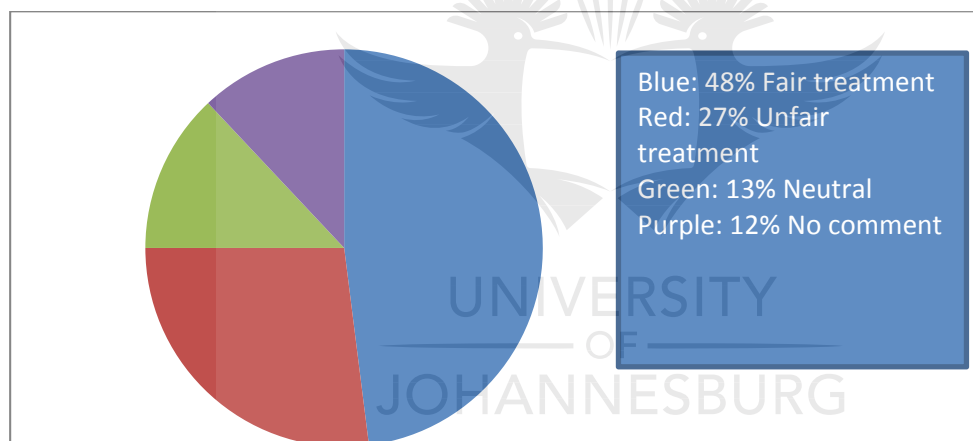


Figure 5. Showing the treatment received by Zimbabweans in South African employ

Source: MRMP (Migrant Rights Monitoring Project, 2014) Wits University.

Generally, treatment is found to be fair (48%), however *fairly, unfair and neutral* all refer to negative treatment by fellow workers. Nationality segregation, local worker's "xenophobia" and the precarious nature of Zimbabwean's work experience add to the negative experience. Key findings include that rather contradictory in analysis, the treatment is described as 'fair', which further negatively influences the findings. Labour broker practices experienced by Zimbabwean immigrants looking for employment have been highlighted. NGO's such as the Scalabrini Centre of Cape Town (SCCT) are receiving communication from migrants who have requested assistance. Zimbabweans would like the SCCT to act on their behalf regarding the

activities of emerging, and often unregistered, labour brokers or agents. These labour brokers recruit undocumented or documented migrants to work in the construction, commercial agriculture, hospitality and related service sectors.

The SCCT has explained that there are “pick-up points” in the centre of Cape Town, namely known places where brokers collect migrants. The conditions of work that is offered defy all labour standards. Migrants engage in employment without signing a formal contract and at the end of the working day they are paid in cash for their services. Those who work on construction sites consistently report harsh and often hazardous conditions. Undocumented migrants are sought after because they accept lower wages. Working without a formal contract, they are exploited to the extent that the employer may refuse to pay them wages owed; with most employers believing that even documented refugees are not protected by legal frameworks. This is in contrast to the CCMA decision that has extended protection to undocumented migrants who are employed (ILO, 2012).

The title of an article, namely “Migrant workers invade cities” (Author unknown, The Sunday Times newspaper, 2012) highlights that just as in South Africa; China will have to spend substantial amounts of money to meet the needs of the millions of people who flock to the cities from rural areas. Mass migration continuous at a neck breaking speed. Shan Jingjing, a researcher from the Academy of Social Science’s Institute for Urban and Environmental Studies, said that urbanisation was welcome and “natural”, but that authority had to prepare for its side effects. Large funding is needed for housing, social welfare and infrastructure projects to support the new arrivals. In 1982 about 25% of the international population lived in cities, which after three decades has grown to over 50%. Expectations are that in the next 20 years the urban population will grow to 75 %, because people are looking for work and better living conditions. The situation in China is a reflection of the South African scenario. Urbanisation is real, with not only our rural areas, but also many other Africans migrating to the big cities (Johannesburg, Durban, Cape Town).

Cox (2014) in a further newspaper article headed “Urban poverty surges”, indicates that *“focus is placed on resolving rural poverty by the S.A. government, but that the government is failing to see that poverty in the cities is growing at a rapid speed.”* An

ever growing number of people migrate to cities and cannot find accommodation and employment. They are moving into informal settlements on the periphery of cities, which are not close to economic hubs and are far from transport. Because of the rapid urban migration, there are the same numbers of people who live in informal settlements as there were in 1994 in spite of the government having built 3 million houses (Cox, 2014). A large number of people migrate to cities and cannot find accommodation and employment. Johannesburg has grown to 1.2 million people in the last 10 years. This global phenomenon leads to dire poverty in cities. This relates to the research regarding the huge influx of poverty stricken people who seek employment, and end up working for labour brokers (Cox, 2014).

As migrant workers, refugees present a particular set of challenges as a result of traumatic experiences of migration and their uncertain status on arrival in the host country. As in many countries the regularization of status can take months or years and can lead to the undermining of both personal and vocational confidence in the workplace (Hall & Howard, 2008). The situation that these migrants live in and the general poor living conditions and uncertainties are part of this research's findings regarding poor working conditions and job satisfaction.

“Employees are considered “vulnerable” with regard to payment of wages, non-payment of wages prescribed by law, leaving waiters to survive on a “starvation wage”, leaving them “marginalised and excluded from gains won for the permanent workforce” (Mosala, 2008:29). Migrant workers from other countries are also vulnerable as they often do not know their rights and are taken advantage of by employers. Young women in all sectors are vulnerable because they are exposed to high levels of sexual harassment and abuse in the workplace. Because they lack protection, rights and representation, these workers often remain trapped in poverty (Horn, 2014).

The dilemma of South Africa's labour market, according to Gumede (2014), is that most of the unemployed have few or no skills, yet jobs that are created are for those with technical and professional skills or who are in management. The labour market is also racialized. Those without jobs are likely to be Black and are often young. Furthermore, they will most likely live in Apartheid-planned townships and rural

areas, far from the centres of employment and public transport. Many Black school leavers do not have the hard skills, social skills or connections to enter the labour market. The reality of the current situation is that job seekers and those in part-time employment are happy with any job than not to be employed at all. The challenge is whether those in the lowest of jobs will be treated fairly, with dignity, according to health and safety regulations, and without racism.

2.14.6 Banning of labour brokers / Employment agencies and its practices

According to the ILO (2011), countries such as Russia and South Africa favour labour broker bans. A bill to restrict the use of agency and other forms of temporary labour was submitted to the Russian State Duma in mid-2011. In SA labour broking has been a subject of great controversy. In a communication from the ILO the total banning of agencies operate according to the principles of Convention 181 (ILO, 2011). Private employment agencies, which adhere to the principles of the ILO Convention 181 (2011) should contribute to decent work. However, if some of the applicable rights at work are flouted, sidestepped or disregarded, a decent work deficit will arise.

Temporary agency work can also be accompanied by or reinforce other changes in the world of work such as downward pressure on wages, erosion of workers' rights, weakening of social dialogue and social protection, and increasing insecurity and instability of employment in general. *"There is a need for vigilance to ensure that there is effective regulation of temporary work and monitoring of agencies, in order to prevent the abuse and exploitation of workers"* (ILO, 2010). In this context there has been debate in several countries about the merits of banning the operation of labour brokers altogether, based on previous experience. The convention provides a frame work that should be implemented, as a whole, that ensure that agencies that are involved in migration contribute positively to the economic development of countries of origin, and the destination by promoting decent work.

"A balance should be reached by reconciling the needs of labour markets and the rights of labour workers, including equal treatment and respect for labour legislation

in destination countries". Namibia, the Russian Federation and South Africa (ILO, 2010).

Although outright banning of labour brokers is rare, South Africa, Namibia and Russia tried to ban labour broking completely. However fierce opposition and High court rulings have rendered banning to be unconstitutional and have made banning impossible.

According to Holdcroft (2012) the following countries have dealt with the issue of labour broking in different ways:

- In Malaysia: the government proposed to legalize labour suppliers in 2010 as *bone fide* employers and to entrench the contract system.
- In Turkey: legislation has been proposed to make employment flexible, and working conditions better through, among other measures, legalizing subcontracting of core work and legalizing temporary agencies.
- In Korea: the government has proposed to amend its legislation to extend the period within which temporary workers must be made permanent from 2 to 4 years, and to remove all restrictions on the categories of work in which dispatch, or agency employment is allowed.
- In Europe: the most common form of restriction on agency work is to prohibit its use to replace striking workers. Outright bans on agency work are rare, but while many countries place restrictions, these are progressively undermined through lobbying by businesses and agencies.
- In Russia: known as the Labour Banning Bill, proposed legislation included amendments to the Russian Labour Code to rule out triangular employment relationships. The Bill was passed in 2011, but was met with fierce opposition by agencies and CIETT, hence the bill will likely change.
- In Namibia: a law was passed, which bans all forms of labour hire. Businesses and agencies challenged the law, which was subsequently overturned by the High Court as being unconstitutional. The Namibian legislature effectively banned labour broking making it a criminal offence to conduct the business of a labour broker in that country. Shortly after the ban, African Personnel Services, a labour broker, which operates in Namibia, challenged the criminalisation of labour

broking. The matter ultimately came before the Namibian Supreme Court for consideration. The Supreme Court handed down a judgement in which it found that the total ban of labour broking was unconstitutional, as it unreasonably restricted the right to carry on a trade or business, a constitutional right under the Namibian Constitution.

- In South Africa: unions lobbied for legislation to ban agency employment.

Unable to succeed through legislative means, South African unions took the issue to the bargaining table. The National Union of Metalworkers (NUM) achieved an agreement in the motor industry to phase out the use of labour brokers, and is determined to spread this agreement to other sectors.

Other SA bargaining or union agreements reached include:

- In 2010 Numsa agreed with the Tyre Federation and the Automobile Employers Federation to phase out labour brokers and ultimately to ban them from the industry.
- Numsa also reached an agreement with the Steel and Engineering Federation of South Africa, the main metal employers' federation, that workers cannot be employed through labour brokers for longer than 4 months, after which a worker must be made permanent.

International agreements reached indicate that:

- In Finland: the High Court ruled that there is no justification or objective reason for a job to be temporary, only permanent. The High Court ruled that a job is not temporary merely because an employer uses work agencies.
- In Indonesia: the Constitutional Court ruled that contract based work is unconstitutional and against workers' rights, as enshrined in the Indonesian Constitution. The court ruled unanimously to remove all chapters on contract workers and outsourcing in labour law, since these contravened the Constitution, which assures the protection of workers and their rights.
- In India: the Supreme Court used strong language to condemn the widespread practice by employers to declare their employees to be employees of a

contractor. This is used to get around labour regulation and to pay lower wages (Holdcroft, 2012).

This provides evidence that there is work afoot to change regulations in order to protect temporary employee rights.

2.15 Working conditions

In his 1981 encyclical letter on work, Pope John Paul speaks of the human person being the “subject of work” and strongly asserts that “the primary basis of the value of work is the human person who is its subject. This, he says, leads immediately to an important conclusion of an ethical nature – work is, in the first place, “for” the human person, rather than the person being “for” work (Pope John Paul, 1981). The emotional work aspect of the hospitality industry, where workers are expected to meet the demands of guests with a smile, while being overworked and underpaid, is also discussed. The resulting working conditions in all sectors of the economy are reputed to be unfavourable and undesirable, exploiting the vulnerability of the employees in question, and leading to “exploitation’ (Mosala, 2008:28).

The concept of respect is a further point of note, reflected in discussions relating to working conditions. Respect may be defined as:

- A feeling of deep admiration for someone or something elicited by their abilities, qualities or achievements (Google free dictionary, 2014).
- Respect has great importance in our lives; children are taught to respect their parents and / or elderly (Stanford Encyclopaedia of Philosophy, 2012).
- Respect is a way treating or thinking about someone or something. If you respect your teacher, you admire her and treat her well (Collins, 2010).

Relating to the world of work respect is a reciprocal concept, expected and appreciated both employees and employers. Cultural interpretations may differ in application, however the root understanding of respect remains an observable feeling or response to how well one is treated, or mistreated.

Eurofound (2010) refers to working conditions as the work environment and aspects of terms and conditions of employment. This covers matters such as the organisation of work and work activities, training skills and employability, health and safety and

well-being and a life-work balance. Remuneration is also part of working conditions. The issue of remuneration becomes an issue when one investigates casualization. The consequence and ultimate goal of changing permanent jobs into temporary employment is saving money for end-user enterprises (Collins, 2010).

Working conditions, internationally and in South Africa, according to the Constitution of South Africa (RSA. 1996 Chapter 2, Section 23) stipulates that every person has the right to “fair labour practices”, which includes a reasonable job with certain criteria that should be met, reasonable working hours and decent remuneration. A further requirement of the law stipulates that employees including temporary and fixed term workers, should be employed with a contract. Confirmed in an article, which was published by The Star newspaper (July 6), research was conducted for the proposed Labour Relations Amendment Act 2012, which will soon be considered in the South African parliament. The bill will have to be considered amid COSATU’s controversial action, which calls for a total ban of labour brokers (Pressley, D’Angelo & Magwasa 2012). The proposed bill will give temporary employees and TES staff, in general, better protection regarding working conditions and job security.

The Labour Relations Amendment Bill 2012, section 198 of Act 66 of 1995 alludes in this section of Temporary Employment Services (TES), which is commonly referred to as “labour brokers“. The amendment bill addresses more effectively certain problems and abusive practices that are associated with TES. The main thrust of this bill is to restrict the employment of more vulnerable, lower-paid workers by a TES to situations of genuine and relevant “temporary work”, and to introduce various further measures to protect workers who are employed in this way.

Overall, the working conditions of tourism in many countries have attracted considerable criticism and concern. Adler and Adler (2004), Gentry (2007), Fernandez *et al.* (2009), and Brown and Hall (2008) maintain that tourism involves exploitation of the labour force because of its low wages, excessive hours on duty and / or duties on par example cruise liners that work seven days a week, and twelve to eighteen hour days on six to ten month contracts.

According to Clancy (2008), as cited in Christian (2020: 27), work may often be seasonal and temporary in nature, while in many developing countries there is a lack of possibilities for advancement to senior positions. Patullo (2005), as cited in Christian (2010:27), also discusses the “emotional work” aspect of the tourism and hospitality industries, where workers are expected to meet the demands of tourists / guests with a smile, while being overworked and underpaid.

Housekeepers at the Hyatt Hotel Corporation lost their jobs after room cleaning duties were outsourced to a labour broker. The housekeepers had made \$15-00 per hour cleaning 16 rooms per day in comparison to housekeepers at Hospitality Staffing Solutions (HHS) “labour brokers”, where staff earned \$8-00 per hour cleaning up to 30 rooms per day (Los Angeles Times, 2012).

2.15.1 Precarious work

Common characteristics which identify precarious work include a means to shift risks and responsibilities to workers. Workers are being exposed to variable levels of uncertainty and insecurity. Uncertainty relates to the duration of their employment, multiple possible employers or a disguised or ambiguous employment relationship, a lack of access to social protection and benefits that are usually associated with employment, low pay, and substantial legal and practical obstacles to join a trade union and bargaining, collectively. The category of contract workers, although contested by labour consultants, was largely understood to include workers with temporary contracts. *“Triangular relationships are those who are hired via agencies and subcontractors, and workers who are labelled as self-employed when they are in fact dependent on or integrated into the firm for which they perform the work: in other words, workers working under the disguised, ambiguous or triangular employment relationship”* (ACTRAV, 2011).

Precarious work has a deep impact on individuals and on society. Over the past years, economic crises and turbulences on the financial markets have led to wide spread anxiety among workers. Increasing rates of unemployment and precarious work arrangements deteriorate the quality of working and living conditions. The normalization of precarious work is already showing its deep damaging impacts on society at large and in general, it leaves workers and communities in unstable and

insecure situations, disrupting their life planning options. More concretely, precarious workers are found to suffer a higher rate of occupational safety and health issues. *“Such impacts fortify gender divisions and worsen the already precarious situation of migrant workers. The general condition of fear and insecurity also dissuade workers from joining trade unions, leaving them even more vulnerable to precarious work arrangements”* (Weller & Roethlisberger, 2011).

Precariousness can be the result of total exclusion of specific categories of workers from the labour code. Such is the case, for instance, for domestic workers, agricultural, public sector and export processing workers and in some cases workers who work under temporary arrangements such as hospitality labour broker employees. If the worker does not fit the definition of “employee”, it almost certainly means that they will not be entitled to any rights under labour legislation.

Although these definitions differ from country to country, depending on the context and legal framework, they share a feature that can serve to exclude certain groups of workers explicitly. Precarious work arrangements are also associated with poor health conditions. Workers on temporary or agency contracts are often exposed to hazardous work environments, stressful psychosocial working conditions, increased workload and disproportional travel time between multiple sites. Research in the field has also found that precarious workers are less likely to receive adequate training for the tasks that they are to perform while their occupational safety and health is poorly monitored by inspection systems (Menendez, et al, 2007)

Precarious work has been the key driver for the growing low pay sector. In countries without comprehensive bargaining coverage and without statutory minimum wages, the downward pressure on wages is strong, in particular during periods of high unemployment. In countries such as South Africa, where access to social security benefits is restricted or absent, people are forced to take on any precarious jobs for mere survival. Weak enforcement of labour law practices implies that even those workers who are protected may feel precarious.

As in South Africa, many countries which have the responsibility of regulating, implementing and enforcing labour laws, have been fractured across ministries.

“Moreover, labour law enforcement mechanisms have been deflated through resource reduction. This is seen most acutely in typically under resourced labour inspectorates - as in the South African situation” (Arthurs, 2006).

2.15.2 Forced labour

Research conducted in the UK regarding forced labour, and dealing with migrant worker’s plight. Scott *et al.* (2012) found that low-wage migrant workers in the UK experience exploitation, that this exploitation occurs both within the workplace and through the provision of substandard accommodation, that employers and employment agencies are culpable, and that competitive pressures may drive some of the exploitation observed. Overall knowledge is limited, however, by exploited worker’s reticence to take grievances forward and the fact that, even when workplaces are inspected, workers testimonies are stage-managed.

Many workers continue to experience a lack of their basic rights and, even when they are empowered by law, there are barriers, which enforce rights. For many there is an acute sense of powerlessness, despair and, in some cases, fear of their employers. This acts to regulate behaviour and to create deferential workers. The most notable, novel and unexpected forced labour practice we found was the ‘underwork scam’, too many workers being recruited and then being given just enough employment to meet their financial obligations to the gangmaster.

Informal employment and housing brokers (gangmasters) (labour brokers in SA) continue to exploit workers (migrants in particular). Albeit from a single study, the UK food industry is a sector where exploitation remains significant. The intensity of work in the food industry, driven by economic pressures throughout the supply the chain, undoubtedly contributes to the exploitation observed. Low-wage migrant workers appear especially vulnerable to forced labour and it is not just irregular migrants or those with limited status who are exploited.

Findings of the research (Scott *et al.* 2012) further revealed that many interviewees were lived in poverty, on insecure and subsistence-level wages, and often in substandard accommodation. Secondly, the dreams that respondents had harboured of a better life in the UK had not been realised, and in many cases working

conditions (not pay) were seen as being worse in the UK than back home. Pay may have been better in numerical terms, but the increase in the cost of living eroded that advantage also. Thirdly, it was obvious that forced labour victims who were spoken to were fearful of complaining and, more generally, they felt devoid of any power to effect positive change within the workplace. There was, in short, a resignation to the way that things were and the way that things would always be. Fourthly, a significant minority of interviewees had experienced stress, depression or anxiety as a result of the forced labour indicators and practices they had experienced.

This is significant, since it indicates that there may be hidden costs which are associated with forced labour to the health service such as out of work benefit payments, and in terms of the impact that exploitation has on one's family and private life. A number of workers reported poor health owing to the practices that they had experienced (Scott, Craig & Geddes, 2012).

Forced labour indicators that have been identified, according to Scott *et al.* (2012), and include the following:

- Poverty through a combination of debt, deductions, flexible employment, irregular migration status, and constraint opportunities. Shocking reports have surfaced of migrant workers being unable to pay for food or accommodation because of their poverty-level wages;
- Tie-ins (money)-dependency on the employer or gang masters was not only created through tied accommodation, because in some cases employers and gangmasters also held on to migrants' pay for safekeeping;
- Tie-ins (accommodation) it is common in the food industry for accommodation to be linked with employment. In the worst case scenario of abuse encountered, exploitation involved situations where work and accommodation were controlled by an employer, gang masters or both;
- Tie-ins (work permits). A link exists between immigration status, vulnerability and forced labour. Being employed through the employer-sponsor and work permit system (UK), the migrant is tied to an employer, which creates vulnerability (TUC, 2005:47);
- Documentation abuse: numerous cases have been reported of employers holding on to migrants passports, mainly because migrant workers' employment was

informal, and one assumes undeclared. Essentially, this involved working without a contract or payslips;

- Pay and conditions: once in the UK, employment agencies and those that are linked to employment agencies charge workers for the following services: obtaining work, travelling to and from work, accommodation, utility bills and shopping. Migrants often have to pay for excessive deductions for transport and accommodation that result in almost 'zero-wages' working conditions;
- Deductions and Charges, which are paid to labour market intermediaries that operate illegally;
- No breaks during a work shift;
- Non-and underpayment of wages;
- Overwork;
- Disciplining through dismissal; and
- Threats and bullying.

Scott, Craig & Geddes, (2012) further identified “drivers” behind forced labour (migrants) as being the following:

- Economics: especially the need for low costs and a highly flexible workforce;
- Cultural: especially the expectation of long hours and limited breaks;
- Consumers: the expectation of readily available cheap food;
- Supply chains: the structure of food supply chains and the risk of responsibilities within them;
- Criminals: the activities of criminal employers and employment agencies;
- Migrants: the different status of immigrant workers, as defined by the state;
- Intermediaries: the extent to which agents mediate between a worker and an employment or housing opportunity and the degree of regulation regarding;
- Law: the extent to which employers or employment agencies fear sanctions should they be found to be exploiting workers; and
- Civil society: barriers that prevent workers from forming broader collectives

The three domains of forced labour from a different perspective may be expressed as follows:

Table 5: The three domains of forced labour from a different perspective:

Time poor	Money poor	Controlled
Extreme productivity targets and excessive workplace surveillance	Upfront fees and debt bondage	Productivity targets and work place surveillance
Overwork	Non-and underpayment of wages	Disciplining through dismissal
No paid break or paid holidays	Underwork and indebtedness	Documentation abuse
	Deductions and charges	Threats and bullying
	Tie-ins: money	Threat of denunciation
	Tie-ins: accommodation	Tie-ins: work permits
		Tie-ins: money

Source: Lerche, (2007).

2.15.3 Previous South African research

Following an investigation into the working conditions of waiters in the restaurant industry in Bloemfontein, researchers at the University of the Free State (UFS) (2001) concluded that, contrary to general perception, waiters are merely young people who earn pocket money. The results show that this is not necessarily true. More than half of the respondents are full-time waiters who make a living from waiting tables. However laws should improve the life experience of those to whom it applies. Therefore the question is: if the BCEA is enforced in the restaurant industry, will waiters actually be better off? The answer to this is not a simple “yes or no”. With regard to termination of employment, waiters seem to be extremely vulnerable. The overwhelming majority who were interviewed for the study could be summarily dismissed; and have to perform tasks for which they receive no compensation. Enforcement of the law would provide waiters job security and stability.

The BCEA (1996) section 198 is quite specific about the issue of deductions, night work and Sunday shifts. None of the respondents in the research were consulted regarding deductions for losses. No distinction was made between day and night shifts, while Sundays and holidays are treated like ordinary working days. Since the law stipulates that different rates should apply, waiters lose income that they are

legally entitled to. Hence, enforcement of the law would benefit waiters. Conversely, in the case of working hours, enforcing the law could be to waiters' detriment. Since waiters themselves determine their working hours and the length of their work week, they often work more hours than the law allows. More hours implies higher remuneration. In other words, the enforcement of the law in this regard would mean lower wages for waiters.

As the BCEA (1996) section 198 allows the minister to determine minimum wages, there could be a strong case for the above, since a considerable number of waiters in this study indicated that they do not receive any remuneration from their employers. They are solely dependent on gratuities or tips, which, though an age old practice, still depends on the guests' generosity. Even waiters who are paid a percentage of sales will not earn anything if no customers were served during that particular shift.

The UFS study clearly shows that there are discrepancies between the stipulations of the BCEA (1996) and the actual working conditions of waiters in the South African hospitality industry. Although the results apply to Bloemfontein restaurants only, this will likely be the case throughout South Africa. Although waiters could gain from a minimum wage in terms of income, one should consider the impact of employment levels. *"Theory predicts that, in a competitive market, employment levels will decrease"* (Bothma & Thomas, 2001).

The table below shows discrepancies between the actual working conditions and the stipulations by law (BCEA), in relation to the Bloemfontein study.

Table 6. The table showing the discrepancies between the actual working conditions and the stipulations by law. (BCEA) (Bloemfontein study UFS 2001)

Conditions	BCEA	Waiters
Working time:		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ordinary hours / day 	Maximum of 9 hours	58% work longer, some up to 16 hours.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ordinary hours / week 	Maximum of 45 hours	49% work more, some up to 96 hours.
	1 hour after 5 consecutive hours.	92% get none.
	Allowance must be paid	

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Meal intervals • Night work • Sundays 	and transport provided ½ times wage should be paid	No allowance paid, no transport provided. No extra commission paid.
Particulars of employment	Should be in writing and detailed	89% have nothing in writing.
Termination of employment	Notice: 1 week, 2 weeks or 1 month (depending on length of service)	64% could be summarily dismissed without any notice.
Deductions	Only written agreement, and proven guilt	88% are in some other way responsible for losses, guilty not proven.

Source: Bothma & Thomas (2001).

Research conducted in the Cape lodging sector in South Africa by Maumbe and van Wyk (2008) regarding the transformation in the hotel industry, relating to skills and opportunities, shows that income variability exists among different racial groups and genders. This further extends to the types of positions that are held by different racial groups and genders. The relationship between qualification, race, gender, length of service and income in the same or similar positions indicates varying levels of difference, which results in disparity between groups of people,

The results indicate significant differences with regard to salaries based on race.

Table 7: Employee's income range by race

Race	Income range
Black	R 2,501- R 3,500
Coloured	R 3,501- R 4,500
White	R 6,001- R 8,000

The correlation tests showed a significant and positive relationship between length of service and income only for White employees. The findings imply that White employees' incomes increased with an increase in the length of service, but the

same could not be said for Black and Coloured employees. Working conditions and the types of contracts for all races were similar, which indicates that employees, in general, were satisfied with their respective jobs. Other results of this study show that the lodging sector is generally labour intensive, utilizing mostly low academic skills and offering low paying employment. This conclusion follows the findings that almost a quarter of the respondents indicated that their jobs did not require any formal qualifications; the average working day comprises 9.2 hours; and about 52% indicated that they earn below R 3,500.00 a month (Maumbe & van Wyk, 2008).

Detailed research regarding working conditions, and the effect on the moral, and thus the commitment of the employees to the conferencing and event management industry, has not been done in South Africa. This research investigates the actual working conditions, and the consequent results of the conditions on individuals; and their consequent effectiveness, efficiency and value to the user enterprises (clients). Rogerson and Visser (2004) provide an overview of the progress of tourism and hospitality research in South Africa. They conclude that the working conditions within the industry are scarcely explored.

Previous research by Geddes, et al (2007) reveals in a Gangmasters licensing authority evaluation study, which formed a baseline report from the University of Sheffield (UK), wherein working conditions of domestic workers, the agricultural sector and health and social care, were investigated. Domestic migrant workers, face similar challenges like migrant TES staff. (Geddes *et al*, 2007).

Research was conducted by staff members at the University of the Free State, which dealt with the working conditions of waiters in the restaurant industry in Bloemfontein (Bothma & Thomas, 2001).

Research by Webster (2005) examines the changing nature of work and employment in southern Africa in the wake of liberalization, which has intensified competition, leading to the evolution of three different “worlds of work” in which workers benefit from global integration, some survive in employment, but under worse conditions, and others are retrenched and forced to “make a living” in informal and unpaid work.

“Earning a living” refers to those who are employed and get (regular) paid a salary, while “making a living” refers to those who are forced to survive from informal activities (creating your own job) (Webster, 2005)

Research that was conducted and published in the “International Political Science Report Vol. 26” (2005) suggests that the informal economy is largely dependent on the formal economy, and is connected to the “first economy”. There is no “Chinese Wall” between those who “earn a living” and those “who make a living”. Men and women move between these categories and households provide “fragile stability” for the un-employed, the sick, informal workers, casual workers, and if they are fortunate, those who have a regular paid job. The challenge that faces those who “make a living” arises from the fact that they are in a subordinate position within the economy, and lack access to financial resources and market information, not that they belong to “a separate economy”. This increasing inequality in the labour market is, however, a global phenomenon (Webster, 2005).

2.15.4 Human Resources Practices

Many businesses – both large and small, have difficulty in understanding their human resources and employment relations obligations, whichever country or countries in which they operate. The hospitality industry is no exception and in many cases is more complex than the average business. A publication of Biz Momentum, Lye (2007) outlines matters arising and gives sound reliable advice for solutions. It has been estimated that 75% of businesses do not have an established employee agreement, and employment related policies and procedures.

In the event of a dispute, the law will decide for an employee and this almost always goes against the employer. Worldwide bullying and sexual harassment claims are escalating, and the average cost of these claims comes directly from bottom line profit, apart from the bad publicity for one’s business. Theft of inventory such as quality wine, food and equipment is rampant. Misuse and unlawful use of facilities for personal gain is increasing. Many hotels and restaurants deliberately flout occupational health and safety rules, which results in staff turnover, fines and costly pay-outs to employees.

Lye (2007) further claims that many managers do not understand or have the experience and knowledge of how to manage and lead employees. *“People skills are paramount to one’s business success. Not having an adequate job description and controlling management behaviour can be a cause of psychological injury, resulting in hefty fines, not to mention the process of litigation, which can take up to three years to resolve”.*

A common practice is to stick to a certain group of TES employees in order to ensure consistency in services. This means in reality that these staff members are familiar with that particular facility and perform their duties owing to experience gained there over time. Many of these employees have never been trained in the first place, not by the TES and not by the facility. The facility presumes that the hired employees are able to do the tasks required. In reality, these employees should also have been orientated and socialised into that operation and possibly have received some sort of training in order to understand what is required to perform their duties. They should have been informed about procedures, policies, visions and missions, as well as the above mentioned HR practices.

Lye (2007) suggests that HR departments in hotels issue their staff, in general, as well as their temporary employees with comprehensive job descriptions, employment agreements, policies and procedures and a proper induction program. A theft case in a hotel that wanted the dismissal of the accused employee caught on camera was converted into a written warning, because the employee had never been inducted into the operation, and not been told about the presence of surveillance cameras (Lye, 2007).

2.15.5 Defining good HR practices and management

According to Grobler and Diedericks (2009), recruitment practices that result in the selection of excellent staff include the following:

- Accurate advertisements, job /role descriptions and person specifications and context information;
- Appropriate selection tools, criteria and mechanisms;
- Timely hiring;

- Well planned induction;
- Viable and attractive benefits and compensation packages;
- Equitability of treatment / relativities between individuals and work groups; and
- Appropriate for the market.

Relating to employee performance management, Grobler and Diedericks (2009) refer to the following as being important employee management factors:

- Individual staff objectives linked to business plans;
- Regular feedback as well as formal appraisals;
- Up to date job descriptions/roles;
- Staff development and training that meets work place requirements and individual needs; based on competencies required and developmental needs;
- Skills audit / inventory.

Furthermore, workforce continuity and succession planning envisages taking the following into consideration:

- Monitoring of absence and resignation data;
- Monitoring age profiles;
- Appropriate maternity and paternity leave provisions;
- Identification of single person/critical dependencies;
- Knowledge sharing system;
- Mentoring of employees;
- Shadowing opportunities for employees to develop;
- Job rotation in order to upskill and expose employees;
- Job exchanges to familiarize employees with all the tasks within a department or area;
- Documentation/expert recording systems; and
- Exit interviews and management of knowledge handover.

Conformance with legal obligations involves awareness of the following aspects:

- Discrimination and its meaning within the workplace;
- Diversity of employees relating to culture, religion and race;
- Privacy, and respect for the privacy of others;(this is covered in the south Africa context by the introduction of the POPPY Act of 2014)

- Health and Safety;
- Freedom of information;
- Equal opportunities;
- Conditions of employment; and
- Freedom of association.

According to Grobler and Diedericks (2009), a positive workplace culture places emphasis on the following:

- Value defined and driven;
- Change orientated, flexible culture;
- Effective communication and dialogue;
- Plans, policies, guidelines available to staff;
- Positive encouragement / support for innovation and continuous quality improvement;
- Recognition and reward systems;
- Engagement with work groups and union representatives;
- Management of major change procedures; and
- Monitoring staff satisfaction.

The above information is critical in creating and maintaining good labour relations and working conditions for all employees, whether employed permanently or casually.

2.15.6 Orientation / Training

The purpose of an orientation / induction is to expose new employees to the organisation's mission and culture, to inform them of the company's corporate profile, values and systems, and to familiarise new employees with the rules and regulations and to help them socialise. Training, together with the job descriptions for non-managerial staff, should take place on a regular basis or when needed, while on the job training and cross-training are an important stimulus and motivation factor, which as this research will inform contribute to confidence and improve working conditions (Ahmad *et.al.*, 2010). Directly related to the above, the importance of good communication cannot be underestimated. The effects of poor communication

can include: drastic effects on production and employee relations; misunderstandings; confusion; wastage; accidents; and high labour turnover. Good communication practices are especially essential in a customer driven environment such as the hospitality industry (Grobler & Diedericks, 2009).

2.15.7 Performance appraisals, career development opportunities and remuneration

Effective performance appraisals, apart from making decisions about pay, can also significantly contribute to the satisfaction and motivation of employees. This influences talent utilisation and succession management, with both strategies recognising the dedicated, talented hard worker. For the appraisal system to be fully effective, employees should be regularly reviewed to establish whether they still reflect future company needs. Clancy (2008), as cited in Christian (2010:27), states that *“work may often be seasonal and temporary in nature, while in many developing countries there is a lack of possibilities for advancement to senior positions”*. Also discussed in the same context is the emotional aspect of work in the hospitality industry, where workers are expected to meet the demands of guests with a smile, while being overworked and underpaid.

2.15.8. Job descriptions and communication

Job descriptions define specific tasks that should be performed in a given position, as well as personal qualities that are needed to adequately perform the job. Management can use the job descriptions for training and any disciplinary action when needed (Kavanaugh and Ninemeier, 2010). The importance of good communication cannot be underestimated. The effects of poor communication can include drastic effects on production and employee relations; misunderstandings; confusion; wastage; accidents; and high labour turnover. *“Good communication practices are especially essential in a customer driven environment such as the hospitality industry. Issuing job descriptions and proper communication are both attributes to a satisfied workforce, whether they are temporary or permanent”* (Grobler & Diedericks, 2009).

2.16 Job satisfaction

According to Grobler *et al.* (2011), many factors contribute to employee job satisfaction. The following are the four elements that most surveyed employees reported to be the “best liked” about their position.

- Most satisfying is the kind of work that the employee performs, especially when interesting and challenging and the freedom that they have to determine how the work is done.
- Co-worker relations and the quality of relationships in the workgroup are important. It is important that the employee is accepted as an individual in the work unit and that he / she receives friendliness and support from his / her co-workers.
- Good supervision, and job satisfaction improves when supervisors are perceived to be fair, helpful, competent and effective. This includes supervisor skills in problem solving, coaching, training, listening and provision of authoritative key information.
- Opportunity to grow: employees derive great satisfaction from acquiring new knowledge and skills, as well as opportunities presented to them.

The most frequently reported detractors from achieving job satisfaction include:

- Insensitive, uncaring and incompetent leadership. This includes biased treatment by supervisors, poor communication and not attending to problems.
- Interpersonal conflicts, conflicts, lack of teamwork, unfriendliness and rivalry.
- Dirty, noisy, unsafe and unhealthy working conditions which lead to job dissatisfaction.
- Poor pay, low uncompetitive pay is a major contributor to job dissatisfaction. (Grobler *et al.*, 2011).

By dealing with the distractors, and resolving exposed challenges, a more positive work experience will deliver a better satisfied temporary workforce.

Robbins and Judge (2001) created a theoretical model, which assists in the understanding of the impact of dissatisfaction in the workplace.

Active	Exit	Voice	Passive
Destructive	Neglect	Loyalty	Constructive

Figure 6. The exit-voice-loyalty-neglect frame work.

Source: Robbins and Judge 2001. Journal of Applied Social Psychology 15 No. 1, p 83. (2001) V.H. (Winston & Sons)

The exit-voice-loyalty-neglect framework (Robbins and Judge, 2001) is helpful in understanding the consequences of job dissatisfaction. The exit response directs behaviour towards leaving the organisation, including looking for a new position, as well as resigning. The voice response includes actively and constructively attempting to improve conditions, including suggesting improvements, discussing problems with superiors, and undertaking some forms of union activity.

The loyalty response means passively, but optimistically, waiting for conditions to improve, including speaking up for the organisation in the face of external criticism and trusting the organisation and its management to “do the right thing”. The neglect response passively, allows conditions to worsen and includes chronic absenteeism or lateness, reduced effort, and increased error rate.

- Researchers have now confirmed that the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance is evident, while they that found organisations that have satisfied employees to be more effective as organisations.
- Satisfied employees seem more likely to talk positively about their organisation, be more helpful, and go beyond the normal expectations in their job.
- In service orientated organisations (like the hospitality industry), front of house staff and anyone in contact with customers, research has proven that satisfied employees is directly related to customer’ positive outcomes.
- Satisfied employees increase customer’s satisfaction and loyalty.
- Researchers found a consistent negative relationship between job satisfaction and absenteeism.

- Job satisfaction and antagonistic relationships with co-workers predicts undesirable behaviours such as, unionization attempts, substance abuse, stealing at work, undue socializing and tardiness.
- Overall, job dissatisfaction will negatively affect turn-over.

“By creating a happy workforce, a happy guest experience is created” (Robbins & Judge, 2011).

2.17 Summary

Internationally there is support for the concern arising from the changing working conditions brought about by temporary and/or contract labour agreements emerging into the 21st century. Deregulation of the labour market is an international occurrence which this research aims to record for the South African labour market in the hospitality industry, resulting in changing working conditions.

The literature provides a background against which the working conditions and effects of casualization in Gauteng will be determined and compared. The literature indicates that this is indeed a controversial, sensitive and debatable subject indicating conflict between business practices and labour expectations

A contributing factor to working conditions, in general, can be found in the human resource practices that are applied by either the TES and / or their clients. The research investigates the TES human resource practices and procedures with the help of the first phase of the research design questionnaires and interviews, The second phase of interviews would contribute to the data established, by supporting or contradicting the findings. (Wheelhouse and Longstreet, 2004; Lye, 2007).

The selection of a suitable research design using a sequential explanatory design and a mixed methods approach have been selected, and discussed in Chapter Three. These methods ensure that the research provides data that is required in order to reach valid and reflective findings.

CHAPTER THREE: Research Methodology

3.1 Introduction

The chapter elaborates on the research methodology selected to collect and analyse primary data in order to answer the research questions. It considers the chosen methodological approaches for effective data collection and data analysis to ensure an accurate reflection of the working conditions of temporary employed employees in the hospitality industry.

3.2 Research design

According to van Wyk (2008), research design articulates what data is required, what methods will be used to collect and analyse this data, and how this will answer the research question. The research methodology focuses on the end- results, and the methods used for the explanatory study / quantitative in the case of this research in which the point of departure is the research question. Methodology, according to van Wyk (2008), focuses on the research process, tools and procedures, the individual steps in the research process, and the most objective (unbiased) procedures to be employed.

Although this research can be interpreted as exploratory (which starts with the collection of qualitative data), the research makes use of a sequential explanatory descriptive method in which case the quantitative data is collected first.

Sequential Explanatory Design

Table 8: Sequential Explanatory Design

Quantitative data collection ➡	Quantitative data analysis ➡	Qualitative data collection ➡	Qualitative data analysis ➡	Interpretation of entire analysis.
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Source Ahmadnezhad, (2012).

This investigation used a sequential explanatory design type. The research will initially inform itself of the many possibilities of mixed research types, methods and approaches and, in the process, explain the chosen design.

3.2.1 A Sequential Research design

Sequential design, as discussed by Creswell and Plano Clark (2007), involves *“collecting data strategies in a process whereby the collected data in one phase contributes to the collected data in the next. Sequential refers to one type of data, which provides a basis for collection of another type of data”*. Data is collected in these designs to provide more data about results from the earlier phase of data collection and analysis, to select participants who can best provide that data, or to generalize findings by verifying and augmenting study results from members of a defined population.

Sequential designs in which quantitative data is collected can first use statistical methods to determine which findings to augment in the next phase. This research embraces a mixed method research design with the intention to use this method as the best suitable approach.

In the first phase of this research quantitative survey data was collected, and in the second phase in-depth interview qualitative data was collected.

The survey questions were structured using closed-ended questions, and the response categories developed in order to profile the TES employees as comprehensively as needed to obtain the desired answers to the research questions. The subsequent in-depth, semi-structured interviews were intended to find answers of the views of the labour brokers considering particular interesting or ambiguous survey responses, as well as standard questions, which explore general perspectives on the topic.

This design provided the researcher with an opportunity to review and analyse the survey results, and tailor the subsequent in-depth interview questions accordingly.

Sequential timing, according to Creswell (2011), refers to *“pacing and implementing of the two phases, and the relationship between the quantitative and qualitative data collected, and occurs when the researcher implements the surveys in two distinct phases, with the collection and analysis of one type of data occurring after the collection and analysis of the other type”*.

A researcher who uses sequential timing may choose to start by either collecting and analysing quantitative data first, or collecting and analysing qualitative data first. This research proceeded with the collection of quantitative data first, to enable the researcher to establish what to further investigate in the next phase.

3.2.2 Explanatory design

According to Creswell and Plano *et al.* (2007), “*the explanatory method indicates that the research question is more quantitatively orientated; it provides the researcher with the ability to return to the participants for a second round of qualitative data collection; and the researcher is given time to conduct the research in two phases*”. It provides the researcher with an opportunity to analyse and interpret one type of data collected at the time, and the researcher will be able to develop new questions based on quantitative results which cannot be answered with quantitative data. Strengths of this design include the fact that the two phase structure is fairly easy to implement, and that the final report can be written with a quantitative section followed by a qualitative section, providing a clear delineation for readers.

Furthermore explanatory research, according to Robson (2002), encompasses the following:

- Seeks an explanation of a situation or problem, traditionally but not necessarily in the form of casual relationships;
- Explains patterns relating to the phenomenon that is researched; and
- Identifies relationships between aspects of the phenomenon.

3.2.3 Philosophical assumptions behind the explanatory design

The research commenced the quantitative first phase, with the research problem and purpose calling for a greater importance to be placed on the quantitative aspects. Although this may encourage researchers to use a post positivist orientation to the study, Creswell and Plano Clark (2007), suggest to use different assumptions within each phase – that is, since the study begins using a quantitatively method, the researcher typically begins from the perspectives of post-positivism to develop instruments, measurable variables, and to assess statistical results. When the researcher moves to the qualitative phase that values multiple perspectives and in-depth description, there is a shift towards using the assumption of constructivism.

The overall philosophical assumptions in this design change and shift from post-positivist to constructivist, as researchers use multiple philosophical positions.

A worldview or paradigm for the study may be seen from a post-positivism or constructivism perspective, as indicated in the table below

Table 9: Worldview or paradigm for study

Postpositivism	Constructivism
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Determination • Reductionism • Empirical observation and measurement • Their verification 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Understanding. • Multiple participant meanings. • Social and historical construction • Theory generation

Sourced from Creswell, (2008)

3.3 Research methodology The researcher identified the sequential explanatory descriptive design as the most suitable design for this study, as the researcher is then able to establish shortcomings in the first phase of the research, which can be accommodated in the second phase.

A mixed method research methodology has been selected, which may be defined as:

“Mixed methods research is a design for collecting, analysing, and mixing quantitative and qualitative research data in a single study or series of studies to understand a research problem” (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2007).

Hughes (2008) interprets the combined approach as follows:

1. *“Logic of triangulation: the findings from one can be checked against the findings of the other type of study.*
2. *Qualitative research facilitates quantitative research: quantitative helping with the choice of subjects for a qualitative investigation.*
3. *Quantitative & qualitative research is combined to provide a general picture, while quantitative may be employed to plug the gaps in a qualitative study.*

4. *Structure and process: quantitative studies are usually stronger at structural features, while qualitative are stronger in processes.*
5. *Interpretation: quantitative will establish relationships among variables, while qualitative will explore reasons for these relationships.*
6. *Macro and Micro levels: quantitative research can tap large-scale structural features, while qualitative research tends to address small-scale behavioural aspects”.*

As the research has selected an existing typology to answer the research question, which is the guide to data collection and analysis, several other approaches will be discussed. Hall and Howard (2008) recently described another dynamic approach to the mixed methods design, which they called the synergistic approach. Hall and Howard (2008) further suggest that the synergistic approach provides a way to combine a typological approach with a systematic approach. In a synergistic approach two or more options interacted so that their combined effect was greater than the sum of the individual parts. Translated into mixed methods, this means that the sum of quantitative and qualitative research was greater than either approach alone. Although this research could with one single phase answer part of the research question, the mixed method renders the answer the research question more credible, reliable and valid.

3.3.1 Quantitative and qualitative research methods.

“Quantitative research consists of a study in which the data concerned can be analysed in terms of numbers” (Hughes, 2008). In general quantitative research methods are usually associated with deductive approaches. Associated with the deductive approach is the collection of quantitative data, highly structured, the application of controls to ensure the validity of data, and the necessity to select samples of a sufficient size in order to generalise conclusions.

Quantitative data can reveal generalizable information for a large group of people. This data often fails to provide specific answers, reasons, explanations or examples. Conversely, qualitative research is concerned with collecting and analysing information in as many forms as possible, chiefly non-numeric. It tends to focus on

exploring, in as much detail as possible, smaller numbers of instances or examples, which are seen as being interesting or illuminating, and aims to achieve “depth”.

Qualitative research methods are associated with inductive approaches. Gaining an understanding of the meanings that humans attach to events involves a close understanding of the research content, the collection of qualitative data and a realisation that the researcher is part of the research process. Because the research will make use of both research methodologies, an investigation of the combined approaches is needed in order to analyse and interpret the collected data correctly. Qualitative research provides data about meaning and context regarding the people and environments of study. Both methods have strengths and weaknesses, and when used together, these methods can be complimentary.

Table 10: Saunders *et al* (2009) make the following distinctions between quantitative and qualitative data.

Quantitative data	Qualitative data
Based on meanings derived from numbers.	Based on the meanings expressed through words.
Collection results in numerical and standardised data.	Collection results in non-standardised data requiring classification into categories.
Analysis conducted through the use of diagrams and statistics.	Analysis conducted through the use of conceptualisation.

Source: Saunders *et al* (2009)

Table 11: Burney (2008) adds the following distinctions between quantitative and qualitative methods.

Concepts usually associated with quantitative method:	Concepts usually associated with qualitative method:
Type of reasoning Deduction Objectivity Causation Type of question Pre-specified	Induction Subjectivity Meaning Open-ended

Outcome oriented	Process-oriented
Type of analysis	
Numerical estimation	Narrative description.
Statistical inference	Constant comparison.

Source: Burney (2008)

Table 12: Both approaches have limitations, according to Hughes (2008) and these limitations can be summarised as shown below:

Quantitative data	Qualitative data
It tends to exclude notions of freedom, choice and moral responsibility.	The problem of adequate reliability and validity is a major concern.
It leads to the assumption that all the facts are true.	Contexts, situations, events and conditions cannot be replicated.
Quantification can become an end in itself.	Time required for data collection, analysis and interpretation are lengthy.
It is often difficult to control all the variables.	Researchers' presence has a profound effect on the subjects of study.
It fails to take into account people's unique ability to interpret their experiences, construct their own meanings and act on these.	Issues of confidentiality and anonymity present problems when selecting findings.

Source: Hughes (2011)

3.3.2 Descriptive methods

The quantitative research method that was selected made use of the survey method, the structured closed-ended questionnaires were answered by the participants, and the researcher described the responses. *“Closed ended questions are easy to analyse statistically, but they seriously limit the responses that participants can give. Many researchers prefer to use a Likert-type scale because it is easy to analyse statistically”* (Jackson, 2009). Hale (2011) emphasises that descriptive methods can *“only describe a set of observations or collected data, and it cannot draw conclusions from that data about which way the relationship goes”*.

Descriptive research and analysis, according to Robson (2002) may be used to portray an accurate profile of persons, events or situations; and requires extensive

knowledge of the situation to be researched or described, so that you know appropriate aspects on which to gather information.

3.3.3 Inductive and deductive research

Table 13: Saunders (2009) summarises inductive and deductive research as follows:

Deductive research approach	Inductive research approach
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Deductive works from the more general to the specific. • Conclusion follows logically from premises. (available facts) • Arguments based on law, rules and accepted principles are generally used for deductive reasoning. • Formal logic has been described as the science of deduction. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Inductive reasoning works the other way, moving from specific observations to broader generalizations and theories. • Conclusion is likely based on premises. • Observations tend to be used for inductive arguments. • Inductive reasoning is known as informal logic or critical thinking.

Source: Saunders (2009)

3.3.4 Sampling & Population

“A “sample” is a subset of the population, elected by either “probability” or “non-probability” methods. When using a probability sample you simply know the likelihood of any member of the population being included and that it is random. Quantitative random sampling gives the research the possibility of generalising the population. Simple random sampling is subset of individuals (a sample) chosen from a larger set (population)”. Furthermore “Sampling is the process of selecting a group of subjects for a study in such a way that the individuals represent the larger group from which they were selected” (Yount, 2006).

Purposeful selection was used to ensure that all the respondents met the criteria of being contracted employees, employed by a labour broker and placed in the hospitality industry, within the conferencing sector in Gauteng.

The venues selected represented the hotel industry where conferencing facilities were available in Gauteng, South Africa.

3.4 Data Collection method

The data was collected by means of a purposefully selected population of temporary employees at conferencing centres in the hospitality industry in Gauteng. As indicated by a PWC research project (2010) in the literature review, 95% of the temporary employment population is employed via or through a labour broker.

The questionnaires were taken to the purposefully selected venues where these temporary employees work and were distributed by the field workers and the researcher. Purposeful sampling was used for the qualitative interviews, where five labour brokers involved with the hiring and placement of hospitality employees were approached.

An overview of the labour brokers (Agencies) involved in the survey phase:

Please note: Labour brokers (referred to as LB), may have a number of venues where they supply staff to (referred to as V).

1. Labour broker (LB) 1, a Braamfontein and Randburg based employment agency, has been operating for 16 years with approximately 60 clients (user-enterprises). One of the owners was happy to cooperate and had no problem with the temporary employees, or his management, being interviewed. LB 1 further operates from premises in Pretoria. Semi-structured recorded and transcribed interviews were conducted with two managers, who are responsible for a temporary employee pool of approximately 120 temporary employees, who are employed at a number of different venues in Gauteng.
2. LB 2 – where approximately 180 temporary employees are registered with a Braamfontein based private employment agency. Although initial interviews at their operation seemed possible, this did not materialise, as confirmed interview were not kept.
3. LB 3 – With 150 temporary employees. A Sandton based private employment agency, which mainly deals with an industrial catering group. Attempts to interview management were not granted, and after several attempts, the request was abandoned.

4. LB 4 is one of the largest temporary employment agencies in Gauteng, supplying a large number of employees to a number of hospitality operations in Gauteng (their pool consisting of approximately 1000 temporary waiters, cooks and cleaners). The labour broker employs a contract manager at Venue 3 (V 3) who was supportive in the survey phase. A short interview was conducted with the contract manager regarding operational aspects of the premises in her line of responsibility. A semi-structured, recorded and transcribed interview was conducted with the Managing Director of LB 4 at their premises in Randburg.

5. LB 5 - (A permanent placement and temporary employee pool agency). A short interview at two of their venues (V 1 and V 2) provided the researcher with a basic idea of their operations, although the impression was created that future interviews or survey opportunities were not likely to be granted. An interview was further conducted at V 5 with one of the contract managers of LB 5. A further short interview took place at V 4 with the contract manager supplying temporary employees to the venue.

Limitations of the data collection:

The following was noted as to working arrangements between LB and venues where temporary staff are employed:

- The contract manager employed by LB 5 spoke briefly to the researcher although he was not willing to divulge details regarding finances such as wages. He reports to management at the head office. He suggested that the many fly-by-night operators in the labour broker industry give the industry as a whole a bad name.
- An interview was planned with a manager from LB 2 in Braamfontein. They had a change of mind and were not available to being interviewed.
- Further interviews that were expected to be conducted were cancelled once the reasons for the research were provided.

3.4.1 Validity and reliability

“Validity in research refers to the degree to which a study accurately reflects or assesses the specific concept that the researcher is attempting to measure. While reliability is concerned with accuracy of the actual measuring instruments or procedure, validity is concerned with the study’s success at measuring what the researchers set out to measure. Reliability in research is the extent to which an experiment, test or any measuring procedure yields the same results on repeated trails. Without the agreement of independent observers able to replicate research procedures, or the ability to use research tools and procedures that yield consistent measures, researcher would be unable to satisfactorily draw conclusions, formulate theories or make claims about the generalizability” (Trochim, 2006).

In this research the statistical analysis of the quantitative data made use of the S.P.S.S. computer program, in which case reliability could be tested by using the Cronbach Alpha coefficient which indicates internal consistency.

Ideally, the Cronbach Alpha coefficient of a scale should be above .7.

Reliability of a scale can vary depending on the sample with which it is used. It is therefore necessary to check that each of the scales used in the questionnaires is reliable with a particular sample. The researcher used a mixed-data collection method employing quantitative and qualitative methods, which enabled the researcher to cross-check findings and thus enhances the reliability and validity of the questions posed.

In the research the data collected using a structured interview survey method was combined with the data provided by the individual interviews’ when the working conditions of TES employees; who are employed in the conferencing and events management industry in Johannesburg; was determined. The validity and reliability of the research findings was tested in order to make the study credible. In instances where two or more methods are employed, researchers often use the term triangulation when determining the relevance of the data.

The process of triangulation provides the researcher with:

- An accurate description of the survey method used (quantitative data).
- An opportunity of being prepared to modify your interpretation in light of the researcher’s involvement (when analysing and integrating the collected data).

- An opportunity to consider alternative explanations. (when interpreting the data)
- An opportunity of using reflexivity to identify bias (determine during the data collection process the appropriate method).
- A triangulation option (triangulation being one of several rationale of a mixed methods research project, associated with measurement practices such as surveys and interviews).
- An opportunity of peer debriefing and support (comparing and analysing data collected from different field workers).

In this research the statistical analysis makes use of the S.P.S.S. computer program, in which case reliability is tested by using the Cronbach Alpha coefficient, indicating internal consistency. Ideally, the Cronbach Alpha coefficient of a scale should be above .7. Reliability of a scale can vary depending on the sample with which it is used. It is, therefore, necessary to check that each of the scales is reliable with your particular sample.

Validity (credibility and trustworthiness) in qualitative design can be strengthened in various ways, and these are outlined below.

3.4.2 Triangulation

According to Bryman (2008), triangulation refers to *“the use of more than one approach to an investigation of a research question in order to enhance confidence in the ensuing findings”*. Bailey-Beckett and Turner (2012) describe the gathering of intelligence in business: *“By combining multiple observers, theories, methods, and empirical materials, researchers can hope to overcome the weakness or intrinsic biases and the problems that come from single –method, single-observer and single-theory studies. Often the purpose of triangulation in specific contexts is to obtain confirmation of findings through the convergence of different perspectives. The point at which the perspectives converge is seen to represent reality”*.

3.4.3. Ethical issues

In context of this research, the data collection process considered ethical issues in the design execution by not:

1. Involving respondents without their knowledge or consent through the involvement of hospitality industry related temporary employees;
2. Coercing respondents to participate through the researchers and fieldworkers careful approach and clear explanation of the topic;
3. Withholding information about the true nature of the research, through transparent explanations of the research topic;
4. Otherwise deceiving the respondents through an honest, genuine approach which was acknowledged by the participants;
5. Inducing respondents to commit acts which diminish their self-esteem, through the use of field workers with the occupation and background; and
6. Forgetting that each respondent is to be treated fairly, with consideration and respect (Robson 2002).

3.4.4 Questionnaires

In the quantitative first phase of the research, the profiling of the TES employees was conducted by using a questionnaire which made use of a Likert-scale. According to Bertram (2012), a definition of a Likert-scale is: “A *psychometric response scale primarily used in questionnaires to obtain participants preferences or degree of agreement with a statement or a set of statements. Likert-scales are a non-comparative scaling technique and are unidimensional (only measure a single trait) in nature*”. Respondents are asked to indicate their level of agreement with a given statement by way of an ordinal scale. It is most commonly seen as a 5-point scale, which ranges from “strongly disagree” on one end to “strongly agree” on the other, and with “neither agree nor disagree” in the middle.

The research used a questionnaire, which was constructed to record responses by using a Likert-scale to determine and understand the working conditions of the labour broker employees. More importantly, it provided the researcher with sufficient background information to develop the qualitative second round interview phase, which involved questionnaires among labour brokers. (Bertram, 2012).

A Likert-scale has the following facets:

- Strengths include a simple way of construction, a highly reliable scale and an easy to read document for participants;

- Weaknesses central tendency bias / participants may avoid extreme response categories. acquiescent bias / participants may agree with statements to “please” the experimenter;
- Social desirability bias / portray themselves in a favourable light rather than be honest;
- Lack of reproducibility; and
- Validity may be difficult to demonstrate that one is measuring what you set out to measure.

3.5 Data collection methods and analysis

The research purposefully selected a sample from a pool of TES employees employed to work at a conferencing function. Every function or event makes use of different labour broker employees, and therefore a selection of the available employees would not be selected twice. The research made use of 3 field workers to distribute and collect the questionnaires.

The profile of the field workers reveal that:

Field worker 1, who was also employed by Labour broker 1, provided access to Venue 1, and, at the offices of Labour broker 1. The field worker assisted in the presence of the researcher, where a number of reliably completed questionnaires could be gathered.

Field worker 2 was employed by Labour broker 2, as well as at another agency Labour broker 3. He collected a number of questionnaires, again in the presence of the researcher. Field worker 2 was considered a valuable, reliable and trustworthy field worker, who ensured that the questionnaires would be completed without interference or influence.

Field worker 3 collected questionnaires in small batches that were distributed and collected at Venue 2. As an independent temporary employee his contribution to the research was invaluable, as he ensured non-interference by other employees, ensuring that the respondents were not intimidated and he was trusted was the co-workers.

- A total of 80 questionnaires were distributed at Venue 1, and approximately 40 were collected by field worker 1 representing a 50% response rate.
- Venue 2 and Venue 3 50 questionnaires were distributed and 39 were returned - representing a 78% response rate. A large group of temporary employees from labour broker 4 were trained at a specific allocated conference room at venue 3. The contract manager at venue 3 voluntarily returned 28 questionnaires, representing a 56% response rate.
- Labour broker 3 supplied temporary employees to the Venue 4 group. Field worker 2 distributed 40 questionnaires and 35 were returned completed, representing an 88% response rate.
- Labour broker 2 was supplied with 35 questionnaires which distributed on several occasions (functions) at different smaller venues, using fieldworker 2, of which 30 were returned completed – representing an 85% response rate.
- At venue 2 approximately 40 questionnaires were distributed by field worker 3, of which 26 completed questionnaires were returned - representing a 65% response rate.

In total 295 questionnaires were distributed, of which 153 fully completed questionnaires could be used to analyse the responses. A number of partially or incomplete questionnaires were removed from the responses, so as not to influence the data, or skew the data.

3.5.1 Analysis of the primary data

3.5.1.1 Quantitative data.

Each specific question or statement can have its response analysed separately, or have it summed up with other related items to create a score for a group of statements. Likert-scales are sometimes referred to as summative scales; as individual responses are normally treated as ordinal data as, although the response levels do have relative position, one cannot presume that participants perceive the difference between adjacent levels to be equal. For example, there is no way to ensure that participants view the difference between “agree” and “strongly agree” the same as they view the difference between “agree” and “neutral”. *“The average of*

“fair” and “good” is not “fair-and-a-half”; which is true even when one assigns integers to represent “fair” and “good”“ (Jamieson, 2004).

The research was analysed by using the S.P.S.S program and a professional statistician employed by the University of Johannesburg’s STATKON department. SPSS is a Windows based program that can be used to capture data entries and complete an analysis, as well as create tables and graphs.

The S.P.S.S program compiled the results of the quantitative data, consisting of:

Part 1: Frequencies and descriptives and the exploratory factor analysis.

Part 2: Normality and comparisons and the correlations.

As suggested by Ahmadnezhad (2012), when using a sequential approach, themes and specific statements must be obtained from participants in the initial quantitative data collection phase. In the next phase these statements are used as specific items, and the themes for scales to create a survey instrument, which is grounded in the view of the participants.

3.5.1.2 Qualitative data

Qualitative data was collected by means of two sets interviews that were held both with the temporary employment companies and with managers at the actual venues who employ their staff on a temporary basis. The interviews were conducted in order to probe and question the working conditions from the company and employer perspective, which would provide depth and data which could be compared to the data collected from the employees themselves.

Responses to the interview questions were recorded, and then transcribed using the computer programme “Word” into individual documents relating to each interview. Once transcribed, the main headings of the interviews were used to collate the responses to each of the questions in a format that allowed for patterns, repeated words, concepts and opinions to be identified. The number of times a word or concept was repeated was identified, and if repeated more than 3 (three) times, it was deemed significant in terms of the study.

3.6 Writing of the reports

Table 14. Writing of the mixed method sequential explanatory design report

<p>The mixed methods sequential explanatory design consists of two distinct phases: quantitative, followed by qualitative (Creswell & Plano Clark 2003). In this design, a researcher first collects and analyses the quantitative (numeric) data. The qualitative data is collected and analysed second in the sequence and helps to explain, or elaborates on the quantitative results obtained in the first phase. The second qualitative phase builds on the first quantitative phase, and the two phases are connected in the intermediate stage in the study. The rationale for this approach is that the quantitative data and the subsequent analysis provide a general understanding of the research problem. The qualitative data and the analysis refine and explain those statistical results by exploring participant's views in more depth (Creswell, 2003).</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Names the design -Discusses interaction timing and priority -Discusses mixing -Discusses reason for design -Cites methodological references
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Source: Ivankova, Creswell and Stick, (2006:5)

The structure of the report, according to Ahmadnezhad (2012), follows a sequence whereby *“researchers typically organize the report procedures into quantitative data collection and analysis followed by qualitative data collection and analysis. In the conclusions or interpretation phase of the study, comments will be made on how the qualitative findings helped to elaborate on or extend the quantitative results. Alternatively, the qualitative data collection and analysis could come first followed by the quantitative data collection and analysis. In either structure, the writer typically will present the project as two distinct phases, with separate headings of each. The research has chosen to report both phases under two different headings, although triangulation and overlapping integrated results will show”*.

The explanatory design of this research used a more quantitative data collection method in establishing a TES employee profile. The profile consists of data that was collected using structured closed ended questionnaires, while demographics and geo-graphics responses were captured. The structured survey established whether

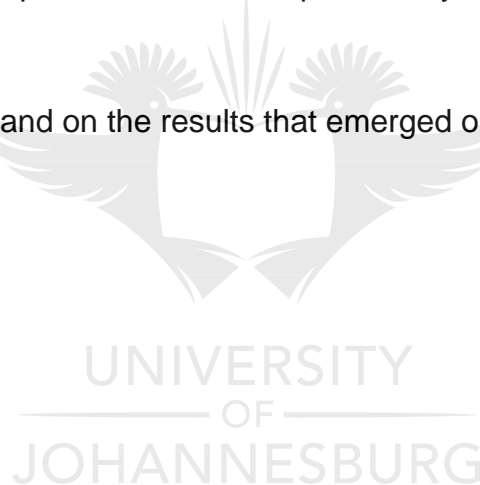
employees received training, and is informed about general rules and regulations of the TES client.

The research is conclusively more quantitative in nature, as the profiling of the TES employees collected facts. As the research question needed more details relating to some questions that were answered in the first phase, a second round of interviews which made use of a qualitative method through a semi-structured questionnaire with the labour brokers, was completed.

3.7 Summary

This chapter outlined and explained the explanatory research design and the mixed methods research methodology that was selected to collect the data for this research. This was followed by the data collection methods, and an explanation on how the analysis was completed for both the qualitatively and quantitatively data that had been collected.

The next chapter will expand on the results that emerged on the analysis of the data.



CHAPTER FOUR: Research results

4.1 Introduction

The research used a sequential explanatory descriptive method, the most suitable method, which allows the researcher to collect and analyse the quantitative data first. Although the design of the research question method is more quantitative in nature, the research has determined that certain questions need further exploration. In the research, the quantitative research method made use of a survey, which asked TES employees about their actual working conditions, using a Likert-scale questionnaire. The in-depth interviews with the labour brokers (employer) followed a qualitative design in order to establish general perceptions, trends and opinions regarding the employees' working conditions.

The results of the research will now be discussed.

4.1.1 Quantitative research data

Results from the quantitative survey, which was conducted from August / September 2013 to November 2013 were analysed by STATKON (UJ) using S.P.S.S., and is described in the text that follows.

The data collected in a questionnaire/survey format revealed the following research findings:

4.1.2 Frequencies and descriptives

The confidential profile (part 1) questions established the following related to the respondents

Q. 1 Gender:

A total of 55.3% females and 44.7% males participated in the research study.

The research shows a slightly higher percentage of female employee respondents. Findings of research by Hickmore (2011) confirm that more and more females are entering the hospitality industry, and use labour brokers.

Q. 2 Most respondents' age:

19 to 25 and 26 to 35; the findings indicate that 60% of people between ages 19 and 35 are employed as temporary employees in the hospitality industry. The findings could illustrate that the often irregular shifts and night shifts are not suitable for older employees, who may have home and personal reasons for not applying for temporary positions.

Q. 3 Marital status:

Most of the labour broker employees are single (57.2%); a few live together; 16 are in traditional marriages (10.5%); 15 are married by law (10%); and one is widowed.

Q. 4 Number of children and Q. 5 Number of dependants / living off your income:

Table 15. Statistics relating to Mean and Standard Deviation for Questions 4 & 5

	Valid	Missing	Mean	Median	Mode	Std Deviation	Min.	Max.
Q4 No. of children	73	79	2.55	2.00	1	1.915	0	11
Q5 No. of dependents	65	87	3.52	3.00	2a	1.874	1	8

a. Multiple modes exist. The smallest value is shown.

A total of 50% of the respondents did not answer the question, while the other 50% reflected to have 2.55 children, on average, which is low. The research however, established that a number of the female employees have children who are left behind with their mothers, either in the original country of birth (for example, Zimbabwe) or the region or province which they come (for example, Kwazulu Natal). After speaking to a number of female employees who reside in Johannesburg (not being their original place of birth), it was found that the majority are without their children. During the collection of the quantitative data, direct interviews that were conducted in follow up to some of the questions indicated that the female employees are not keen to divulge their marital status or the number of children that they have. This is supported by the following results outlined below.

Q. 6 Country of Passport:

From the 152 questionnaires, 100 respondents are South Africans and 47 are from other countries. One-on-one interviews revealed, however, that for a number of the participants their country of origin is not something to be proud of, however, they are proudly part of the South African workforce (which could be considered a limitation).

Q. 7 Type of residence:

54 respondents live in houses; 63 in flats; 20 in townships; and 8 in other'. In all categories the majority of respondents share accommodation (Q.9).

Q. 8 In which area do you stay?

Hillbrow and the CBD are where most labour broker employees reside (category 1). The areas that are included in that category: Yeoville, Bellevue East, Orange Grove and Norwood. Firstly, these areas are affordable for the labour broker employees and are suburbs of Johannesburg, and secondly, most agencies have their offices and pick up points in town (Park Station and Braamfontein).

Soweto (Diepkloof), Bruma and Alexandra (category 2) are reasonably accessible to the central business district of Johannesburg.

Residents of Kathlehong, Daveyton, Kempton Park, Orange Farm, Midrand, Lenasia and Deep Soweto (Zola, Bobsonville, Naledi) (category 3) require substantial travelling to get to town, as these areas are a distance from Johannesburg.

Q. 9 Are you sharing your place of residence?

76 % of respondents share their accommodation. Sharing accommodation can lead to uncomfortable home situations and confrontations, which could have an influence on the rest of a working day, e.g. being late for work because the bathrooms were occupied and also influence working conditions, according to respondents.

Q. 10 With how many families do you share your residence?

The majority (80%) or more indicated that they share with at least 2 families. As per questions 7, 8, and 9 the research tried to establish the respondents' access to comfort and privacy. A number of respondents mentioned that there are challenges with sharing and waiting while cleanliness was also an issue, par example toilet and

bathroom facilities. If a respondent does not have access to the bathroom, they have to wait and could miss their transport.

Q. 11 Highest education level achieved:

46% of the respondents do not have the highest level of education in SA (grade 12), with 54% having Grade 12, and not many being college or university graduates. The level of education an individual has, has an impact on the jobs obtained by the labour broker employees at the agencies for whom they work. The client who sees potential in a labour broker employee with a higher level of education will be given more responsibility by the client and the labour broker, while the client might approach the employee for further and or future employment. This is an important revelation in the investigation regarding working conditions, since a labour broker who gives an employee more responsibility when sending the employee to a client, will charge a higher fee, according to the labour brokers who were interviewed.

Q.12 How many years have you worked in the hospitality industry?

Less than one year	15.2%;
1 - 2 years	28%;
2– 5 years	28%;
5 – 10 years	19%; and
More than 10 years	7.8%.

According to Maumbe and van Wyk (2008), in the Cape lodging industry (South Africa), length of service has an influence on remuneration and education opportunities.

Q. 13 How long have you been employed with the agency that you currently work for?

64% of the respondents indicated that they worked for their present employer longer than a year (46% of these between 1 and 5 years), while 36% have worked for less than a year for the agency with whom they are currently employed.

Q. 14 What is your current job title?

52% indicated that they work as a waiter; 27% worked as cooks; 16% as barmen; 17% cleaners; and 11% indicated other positions'. One reason for having so many

waiters is that learning to just carry plates in and out of a conference venue needs little training or skills. However, any reasonably skilled chef will have to have been exposed to proper training and have experience in order to be able to be appointed as a capable and efficient chef.

Q. 15 Which previous positions have you held?

62% of the respondents indicated that they had worked as waiters, cooks (33%), barmen and cleaners (25%).

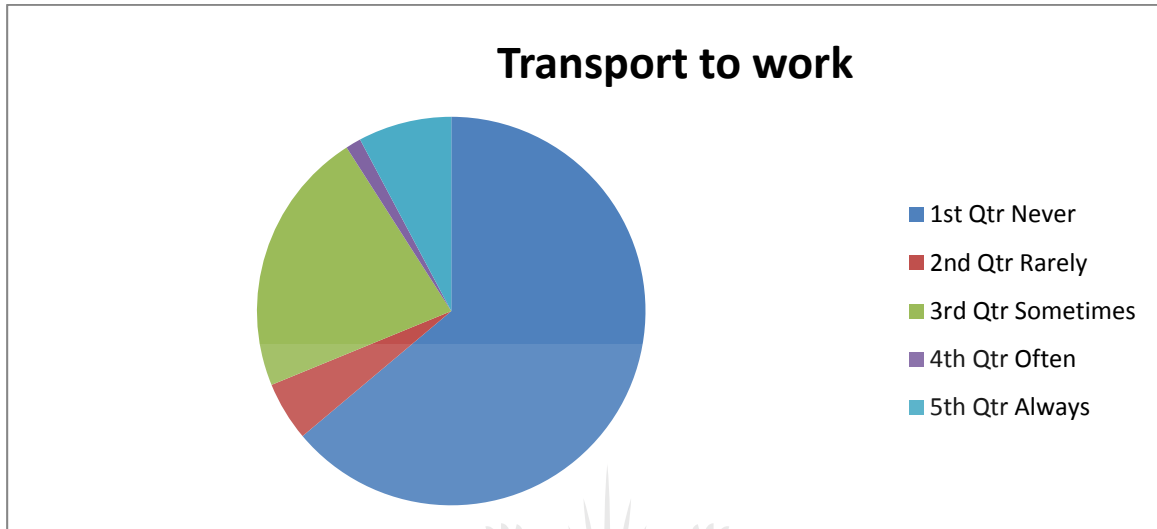
Q. 16 How many hours do you work on average per day?

80% of the respondents work 8 – 12 hours per day. Findings revealed during the data collection stage that most labour broker employees were asked to stay on after their normal shift, although no overtime was paid. In a number of cases when an employee finished his / her morning shift, he / she was asked to remain for the late shift because someone did not show up for duty. That same employee was then expected to return the next day for his / her normal day shift.

Q. 17 How much do you get paid per hour?

75% + got paid between R 10-00 and R 15-00 per hour. Remuneration varies among different employment agencies. Some employees receive better pay because they are in better position, such as head waiters, chef de parties and supervisors. The average rate of pay was determined to be R 12-50 per hour.

4.1.3 Working conditions – tangible (part 2a) .Q. 18 How often is transport provided to work?

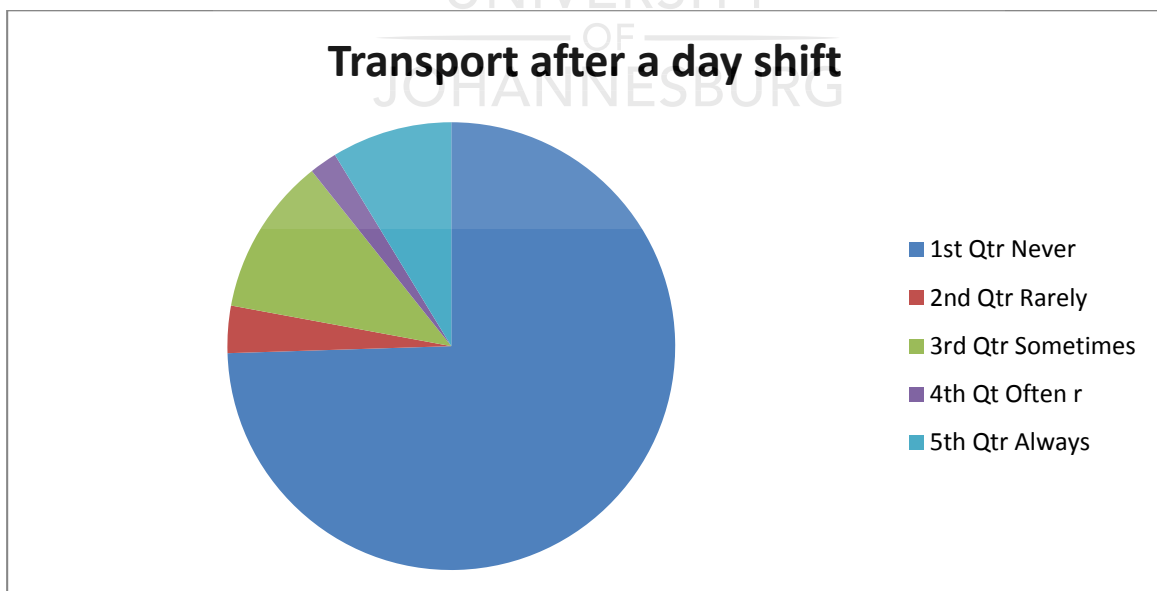


Never-64.9% Rarely-3.3% Sometimes-22.5% Often-1.3% Always-7.9%

Mean 1.84 Standard Deviation 1.2

Figure 7.1

Q. 19 How often is transport provided from work back home after a day's shift?

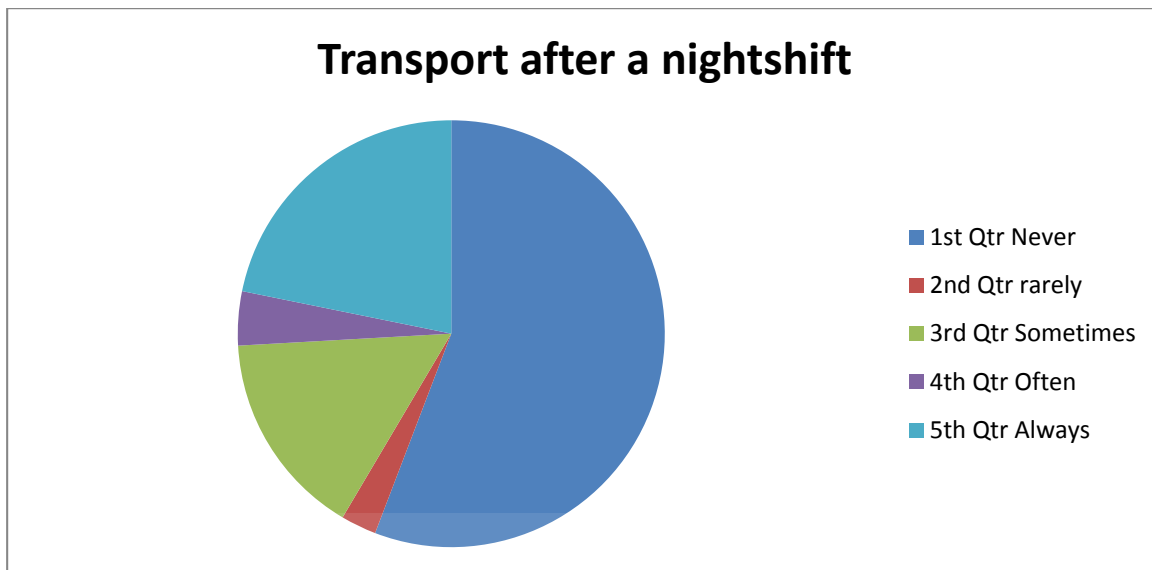


Never-74.5% Rarely-3.4% Sometimes-11.4% Often-2% Always-8.7%

Mean 1.67 Standard Deviation 1.267

Figure 7.2

Q. 20 How often is transport provided from work back home after a nightshift?



Never-55.8% Rarely-2.7% Sometimes-15.6% Often-4.1% Always-21.8%
Mean 2.33 Standard Deviation 1.657

Figure 7.3

Questions 18, 19 and 20, which relate to transport indicates that transport is mainly not provided by labour brokers for their employees. A number of labour brokers have pick up points in Braamfontein, Park Station and Soweto in Johannesburg, South Africa. The staff are call by phone and told to meet a representative of the agency at a particular pick-up point. On arrival they are then told where to travel to and consequently take a taxi to the place of work. They have to pay for their own transport to the pick-up point, as well as to the place they work. The research found that a number of labour broker clients provide transport after a nightshift; however, the cost of most transport is covered by either the client or the employee. Some labour brokers do provide transport but the research found that the transport is not very reliable, leaving employees waiting for many hours to be collected after work. A number of labour broker's employees complained about the transport. These issues and practices are a major contributor to poor working conditions.

Q. 21 How often do you receive training from the agency for who you work?

The results show that one quarter (25%) of the respondents often or always receive training, while 75% never received any training. Mean 2.79, Standard Deviation 1.534.

Q. 22 How often are you paid for overtime?

The results show that 36% of the respondents are paid overtime on a regular basis, but not always. When asked about overtime, most participants indicated that they are never paid for overtime or any other extras. The research found that a number of the agencies that are interviewed contradicted the findings, stating that overtime is in fact paid. Mean 2.77, Standard Deviation 1.698.

Q.23 How often do you receive your salary on time?

60% of the respondents indicated that they never, rarely or sometimes receive their salary on time. 40% received their salaries usually, although not always, on time. The research found that in a couple of cases, employees were paid on payday on an agreed day and at a pay point until money ran out, after which they were told to return the following week. Mean 3.34, Standard Deviation 1.532.

Q. 24 How often do you get any other benefits or extras, apart from your salary?

More than 80% of the employees do not receive any benefits. Mean 2.29, Standard Deviation 1.414.

The collected data from Questions 25, 26, 27 and 28 all refer to the conditions created by the venues (clients) that the labour broker employees work for. Indications derived from the results are that non-access to shower facilities, locker rooms, meal provisions and the lack of attention paid by supervisors and management to the labour broker employees, are detrimental to working conditions.

Q. 25 How often are you allocated to a supervisor at the venue at which you work?

60% of respondents indicated that they have never been allocated a supervisor, while 40% are often or always allocated to a supervisor. The research found that once the employee of an agency had been at a venue for a while, they were assumed to merely get on with the job. Top management, in general, was often not aware of what was happening with the hired labour broker staff, leaving the daily engagements with these employees to middle management. Mean 3.30, Standard Deviation 1.497.

Q. 26 How often are you provided with a meal?

The results show that 50% of employees receive a meal and 50% sometimes or never receive a meal. In many instances the meal would be leftovers'. Nutrition and health were never taken into consideration. Mean 3.82, Standard Deviation 1.260.

Q. 27 How often do you have access to a locker / change room?

50% of the respondents indicated that they had rarely or never had access to any sort of locker or change room. Mean 3.22, Standard Deviation 1.692.

Q. 28 How often do you have access to shower facilities?

This relates to Question 27, and with similar results. Mean 3.21, Standard Deviation 1.749.

4.1.4 Working conditions – not tangible (part 2b)

Q. 29 How often are you treated with respect by the agency for whom you work?

50% indicated that they consider themselves to be treated with respect, while the other 50% stated that they are sometimes or never respected by the labour broker. Mean 3.55, Standard Deviation 1.495.

Q. 30 How often has any agency that you worked for introduced you to disciplinary and grievance procedures?

75% of the respondents were never introduced to any procedures, code of conduct or policies. The research also found that only a few employees were aware of their rights when employed by an agency or client. Mean 2.46, Standard Deviation 1.688.

Q. 31 How often has any agency that you worked for made you aware of your rights, which are prescribed by labour law?

As in question 30, 75% of the respondents were not informed regarding the labour law. The research established that a clear majority are not informed by either the agency or the client about labour laws and their rights as workers. The research further established that the respondents (temporary employee) are not informed about their right to report grievances, as well as their right to fair working conditions. Mean 2.5, Standard Deviation 1.693.

Q. 32 How often do you feel that you have nowhere to go with grievances that you would like to report?

As in the previous two questions, more than 78% of the respondents have nowhere to go with their concerns, which results in agencies, as well as some clients, not being concerned about working conditions. During phase one of data collection, the direct contact with employees and their feedback, gave the impression that the labour broker employee's feelings are neglected, resulting in them being despondent and creating uncaring and uncommitted workers. Mean 2.28, Standard Deviation 1.489.

Q. 33 How often have you been allocated time for an induction or socialization program at the venue that you were sent to?

70% of the interviewed employees indicated that no induction took place. No employee was aware of codes of conduct, rules and regulations at the venues and disciplinary procedures. The research found that the vast majority of labour broker employees is expected to know what to do and to get on with the job. It was furthermore established that the client had no concept of the employee's background, education and / or experience. This indicates a possible mismatch between expectations from the employer and the ability of the employee to meet the working requirements. Mean 2.73, Standard Deviation 1.618.

Q. 34 How often are you treated with respect by the venue that you work for?

50% found the treatment by the venues to be respectful, although the other 50% reported that they were sometimes to never treated with respect. A number of employees also found the treatment by the permanent workforce to be poor. Mean 3.57, Standard Deviation 1.407.

Q. 35 How often are you treated with respect by the permanent staff at the venue?

Among the employees 60% found the treatment by the venue's permanent staff to be sometimes to never respectful, while 40% said that they are treated with respect. This supports the findings of Question no.34. Mean 3.26, Standard Deviation 1.437.

Working conditions –not tangible (part 2c)

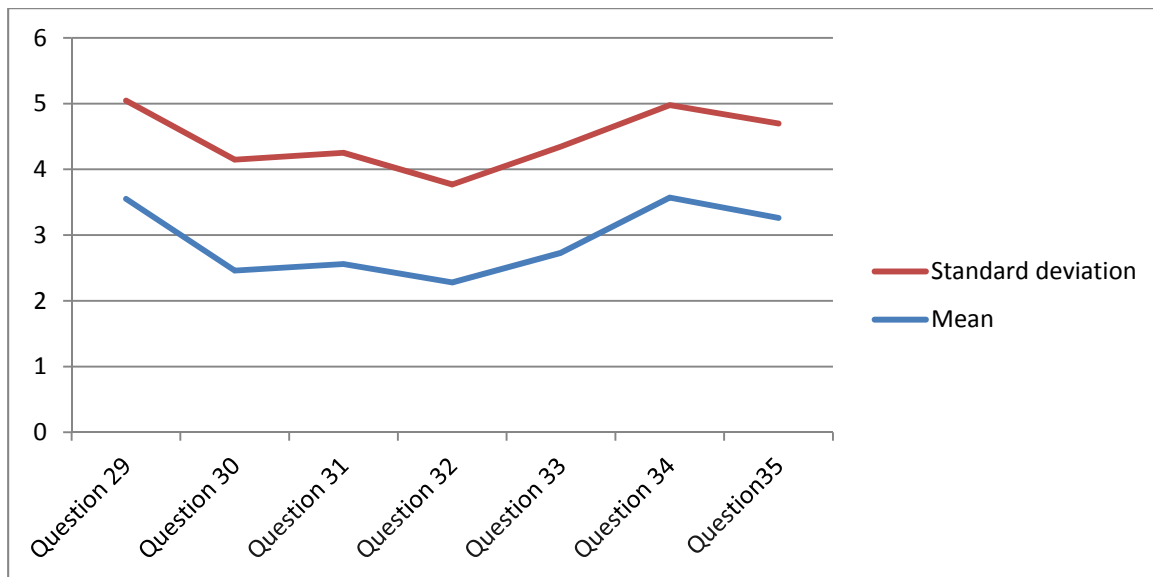


Figure 8. The relationship between mean and standard deviation

4.1.5 Working conditions (part 2c)

Q. 36 Is tax deducted from your salary?

Of the labour broker employees, 66% knew that tax was deducted from their salary, while 23% indicated that no tax was deducted. The research data indicated that many employees actually did not know whether or not tax was deducted from their salary.

Q. 37 Are you registered for UIF?

Of the respondents, 74 (50%) said yes to the above question, 35 (25%) said no, and 36 (25%) did not know.

4.1.6 Questionnaire (part 3) related to the labour market

Q. 38 Do you feel that the current economic crisis is the reason that you cannot find permanent employment?

66% confirmed that the crisis was a reason for them not to find permanent jobs, 34% however, found that this was not a reason. According to the ILO (2010), during an economic crisis, labour broker employees are the first to be affected, however, the end-user / clients are in the casualization process the first to make use of labour brokers, in order to save money.

Q. 39 Have you ever received an offer of permanent employment while working for an agency in South Africa?

41% of the respondents said that they had received an offer for permanent employment, while the majority of 59% said that they had not.

Q. 40 Can you find employment in your country of origin?

69% indicated yes, and 31% said no. The research revealed that the reason for someone to leave their country of origin includes many different aspects other than employment and remuneration only.

Q. 41 Did the poor pay in your country of origin force you to come and work in South Africa? 45% said yes, while 55% said no.

Q. 42 Did the poor working conditions in your country of origin force you to come and seek work in South Africa?

53% said yes, while 47% said no. The data correlates with the results of the country of origin and poor pay in that country questions.

The questions (40, 41, 42) which relate to reasons for them being in South Africa revealed that although 69% reported that they were able to find employment in their country of origin, 55% reported that poor pay and poor working conditions were the reason why they had left their country of origin.

Q. 43 Do you see a future in this industry?

71% said yes, and 29% said no, which can be interpreted that having a job by itself is good enough for a future. The results cannot only be linked to the hospitality industry.

4.1.7 Satisfaction (part 4)

Q. 48, Q. 55, Q. 60: These questions dealt with work relationships:

Regarding relationships with co-workers, 65% of respondents indicated that they were satisfied with their relationship;

Regarding relationships with supervisors, 63% were satisfied;

Regarding relationships with sub-ordinates, 59% were satisfied;

On average, 20% were not sure; and

In general, working relationships within the agency was in order, which is different to results regarding the client's venues.

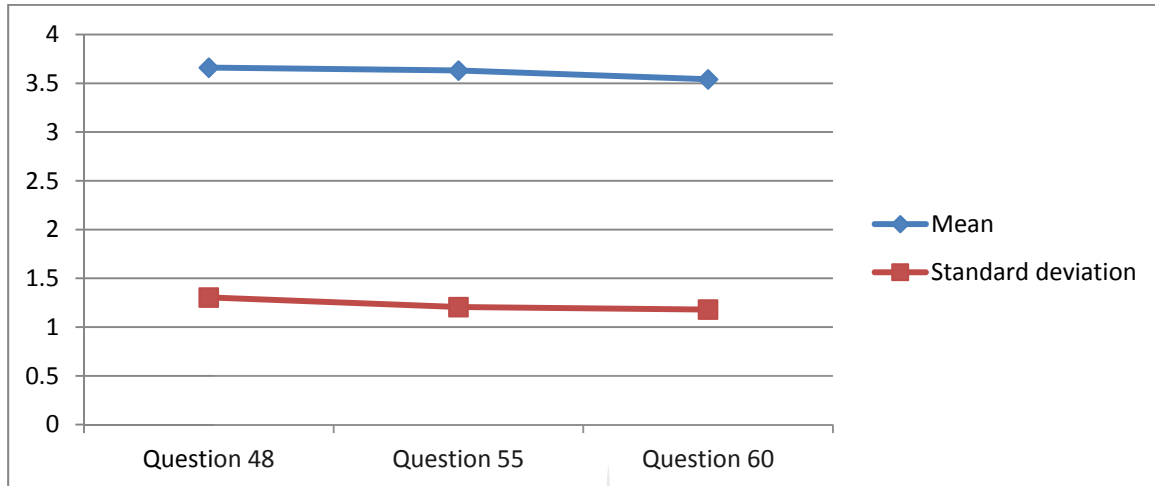


Figure 9. The relationship between mean and standard deviation.

Questions 48, 55, 60

Q. 51, Q. 57, Q. 62, Q. 65: These questions dealt with well-being and satisfaction in their work / life balance:

Regarding happiness at work, 63% respondents indicated that they are satisfied and 37% were unsure or not satisfied;

Regarding their health 67% were satisfied, and 33% were unsure or dissatisfied.

With family life and life, in general, 70% - 80% were satisfied

20% - 30% indicated that they were unsure or dissatisfied.

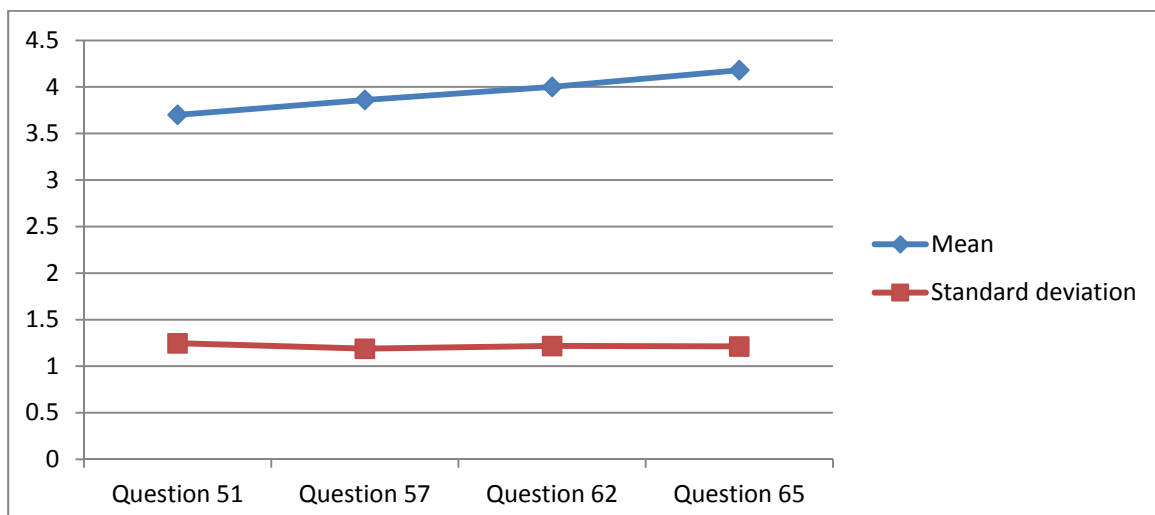


Figure 10: The relationship between mean and standard deviation
 Question 51, 57, 62, 65

Q. 44, Q. 45, Q. 2, Q. 58, Q. 63: Labour broker employees' work satisfaction and general working conditions:

With their hours worked per week, half of the respondents (50%) were dissatisfied; 50% were from not sure to moderately satisfied; and the more hours the labour broker staff worked, the more they were paid;

Flexible work scheduling: more than half the respondents were not satisfied to unsure, while the other half was satisfied;

More than 60% of the employees were happy about the location of their work, and almost 40% was unsure to very unhappy; and

Regarding paid leave days and sick leave, 66% was very dissatisfied, 25% were unsure and the rest were satisfied. This may be linked with benefits that employees do not receive.

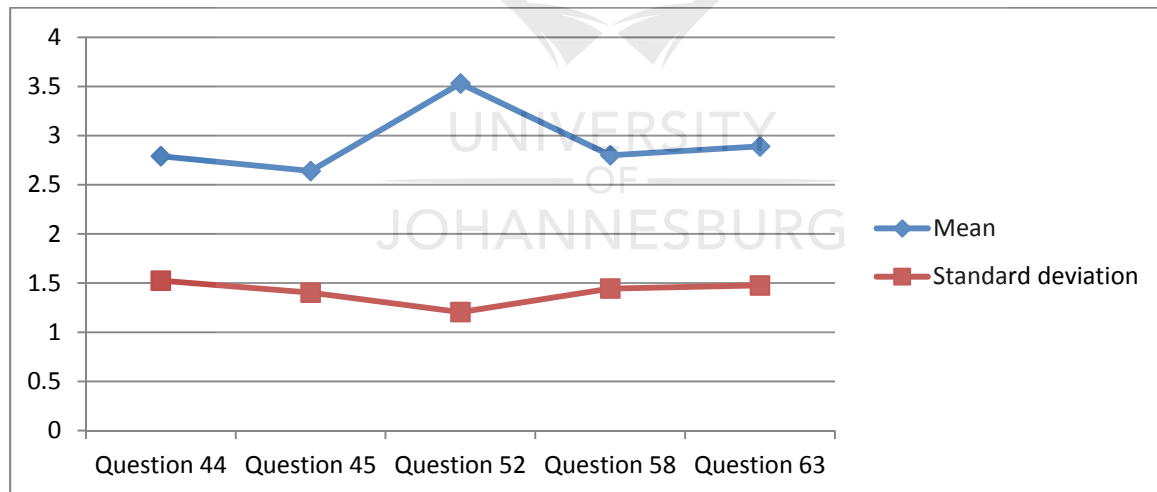


Figure 11. The relationship between mean and standard deviation.
 Questions 44, 45, 52, 58, 63.

Q. 46, Q. 47, Q. 53, Q. 54, Q. 59: Opportunities in the work place:

Regarding salary, 70% of the respondents were dissatisfied and the other 30% were satisfied;

Regarding the satisfaction of health benefits, 30% were satisfied, while 25% were unsure, and 45% were dissatisfied; and

Opportunities for promotion and job security were found to not be satisfactory for between 17% - 30%; 20% - 30% were unsure; and 30% - 40% were satisfied.

Recognition for work accomplishments was satisfactory for 74% of the respondents.

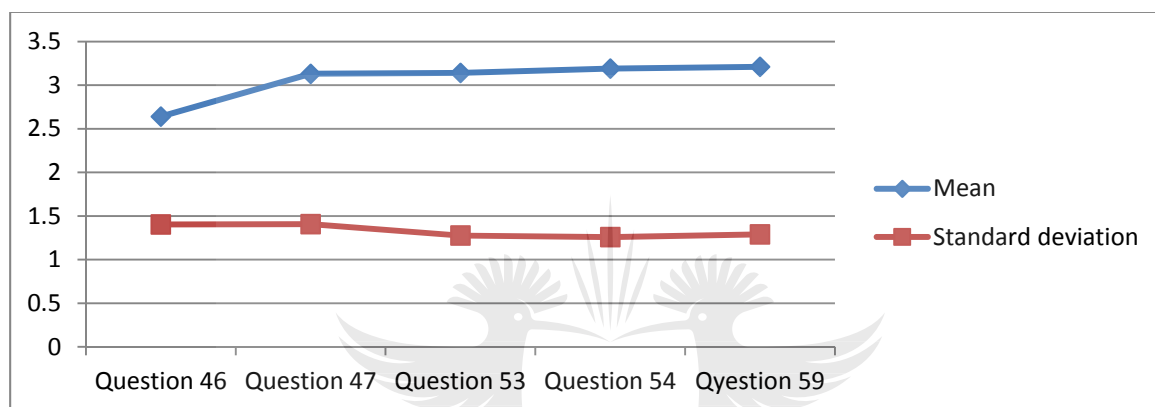


Figure 12: The relationship between mean and standard deviation.

Questions 46, 47, 53, 54, 59.



Q. 49, Q. 50, Q. 56, Q. 61, Q. 64: Deal with the use of skills and work activities:

Regarding opportunities to use their skills and talents, 65% of the respondents interpreted this as satisfactory, while 56% reported that they were given enough opportunity to work independently;

Half of the employees found the support for training and education satisfactory, while the other half was not happy; and

63% of the labour broker employees were satisfied with the opportunities to learn new skills, while 40% found the opportunities for change of duties satisfying.

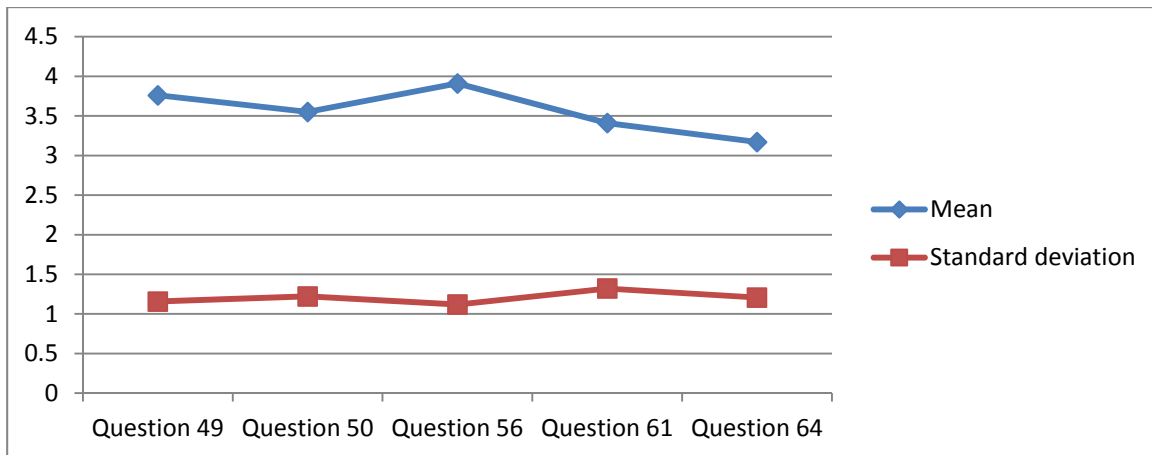


Figure 13: The relationship between mean and standard deviation Questions 49, 50, 56, 61, 64.

4.1.8 Exploratory factor analysis

Exploratory factor analysis is used when you have a large number of related variables (for example, items that make up a scale) and you wish to explore the underlying structure of this set of variables, which is often used in the early stages of research to gather information about (explore) the interrelationships among a set of variables. The term “factor analysis” encompasses a variety of different, although related, techniques. One of the main distinctions is between what is termed principal components analysis (PCA) and factor analysis (FA). Those two sets of techniques are similar in many ways and are often used interchangeably by researchers. Both attempt to produce a smaller number of linear combinations of the original variables in a way that captures most of the variability in the pattern of correlations.

In factor analysis, however, factors are estimated by using a mathematical model, whereby only the shared variance is analysed.

In the research analysis:

- The extraction method, which was used in this analysis is principle axis factoring, and the rotation method that was used for the first order was the Varimax rotation and for the second order was direct Oblimin rotation.
- The research omitted Question 24; the MSA (Measures of Sampling Adequacy) was equal to this. As the MSA should be bigger than 0.6 and Question 24 scored 0.594, it indicates a weak question.

- Reverse scoring was checked at the component matrix when a principle component analysis was done; the results were positive, therefore, no reverse scoring was necessary.
- At the correlation matrix most of the correlations are bigger than 0.3, which indicates a good result.
- The KMO Bartlett's Test: Kaiser – Meyer – Olkin measure of solving adequacy is 0.78, which has a value bigger than 0.6 and the Bartlett's test of Sphericity is 0.000, which is less than 0.05, and this supports the factor ability of the correlation matrix.
- For the anti – image correlations of the measure of solving adequacy all the values on the diagonal are bigger than 0.6, therefore, no items needed to be excluded from the analysis.
- Communalities- the extraction column shows communalities bigger than 0.3. Question 25 is less, however, the MSA is high. It was decided to leave it in the analysis, because taking it out would not influence the end results.
- Reliability statistics: The Cronbach's Alpha column shows values above .7 and values above .8, which suggest good internal consistency reliability.
- Two Eigen values are above one, as factor 1 shows 3.532, and factor 2 shows 2.942. These two Eigen values explain the 64.73% of the variation before rotation. The rotation sums of squared loadings, it explains 57.268% after rotation.

4.1.9 Qualitative interviews with labour brokers

Second phase: labour brokers' interview report

The first interview with two managers from LB 1 recorded the following key findings:

The agency relies on the networking of their employee pool, which introduces new recruits.

The only real requirement for employment is a reasonable understanding and use of English.

50% of their workforce consists of foreigners, with the majority being Zimbabwean.

The aim is to employ staff who have obtained a Grade 12 certificate (matric), although it is not necessary, as training is provided (used training materials are in line with that, which is required by SAQA (South African Qualification Authority)).

Identity books and work permits are supposedly requested, although in reality checking is hardly done.

No benefits are offered apart from the mandatory UIF.

Although offered training by the LB, this not compulsory and many employees have either no time or interest to attend.

If a user-enterprise wants to employ a certain member of their staff, a recruitment fee is charged.

The LB acknowledges that their employees are not made aware of their labour law rights.

Neither the management nor the employees are presently informed about any new labour laws or expected changes.

If labour disputes arise with clients the LB will institute disciplinary action.

The second interview was conducted with the management of LB 4.

The following key findings were reported:

Recently all temporary employees were required to be either in the possession of a South African passport, permanent residency or a work permit. There were no statistics available regarding the number of foreigners in their employ.

A Grade 12 certificate is required by all new staff who is employed, although a number of employees taken over at certain venues when accepting new contracts do not comply with these requirements, and no exceptions are made.

Employment procedures include a numeracy and literacy test.

All new recruits attend a five day basic training course at their premises. On line training tools are used for theory (Lobster Ink), and short courses for certain employees include HTA.

All new recruits are checked for a criminal record, while cashiers are checked regarding their credit record.

All temporary employees are introduced to the user-enterprise induction program, as well as rules and regulations, and so on.

No benefits are offered apart from the mandatory UIF.

Transport is only provided from and to a central point in town for contracts in the Sandton area.

Management of LB 4 acknowledges the story that there are a number of so-called "labour brokers" in action who operate from a car with a cell phone and a laptop and

pick up people from the street without any CV's, reference checks or training. They merely send these people to any client and tell them to be back at the end of the month for payment. They recruit vulnerable unemployed individuals who are prepared to work for low wages, and are merely happy to be employed and with whatever they are paid.

4.1.10 Normality testing results (box plots in the appendix)

Normality test results:

Question 6: Country of passport (South African / Other)

The results clearly show that the South African people are more positive and score higher towards sometimes and always, while the other group scores more towards never and sometimes regarding transport provided.

The research found that any facilities offered to migrant workers are appreciated.

The statistics confirm the research findings of poor treatment and less respect received by migrant workers.

The boxplot shows a negative skewed result for the South African group who is substantially more satisfied in their work relations than the group of other nationalities. This confirms the difficulties that migrants experience regarding their acceptance and integration into the workplace, as found in this research (Mosala, 2008)

The responses in the questionnaires were hence interpreted as such by the participants of the survey. Further questioning and the general perceptions uncovered by the research shows that the skills levels of the temporary employees is not in question or addressed by the client. The client presumes that the employees who are sent to them are able to perform the required duties. The above statistics confirm that the employees are performing duties well in their scope of knowledge, experience and capabilities.

The research, however, concluded that neither the agency nor the client are really interested in the actual capabilities of the employees. The agency wants to satisfy the low skills that are required for the clients at a relatively low cost, which they then recover by paying the employees lower wages. The client wants temporary employees who can perform low skilled jobs at a low cost, and without being held accountable for anything else other than to pay the agency.

The group of other nationalities was reasonably satisfied about their wellbeing. The research, however, found during the survey process and questioning that the group of nationalities is generally happy because they come from countries where there are no opportunities, and where poor living conditions exist.

Normality test results: Question 38: Do you feel that the current economic crisis is the reason why you cannot find permanent employment?

The descriptives indicate that all variables have a majority “Yes” score which indicates that the majority of respondents feel that the issues listed below are influenced by the economic crisis, resulting in temporary employees not being able to find permanent employment. In relation to “No” scores, only the wellbeing variable indicates that both “Yes” and “No” responses feel the same.

- Transport provided;
- availability of facilities;
- respect and treatment;
- general working conditions;
- promotional potential;
- work relations;
- skills work activity; and
- wellbeing are the issues, which the majority of respondents believe to be influenced by the economic crisis.

Normality tests results Question 39: Have you ever received an offer of permanent employment while working for an agency in South Africa?

The tests of Normality tables indicate a column df which is the degree of freedom score. The Sig., which means Significant, is the p-value. If the p-value is less than 0.05 it is not normally distributed, but where it is more than 0.05 it indicates normal distribution. Not normally distributed on the table is highlighted in **red**, while normal distribution is highlighted in **blue**. The Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was used for both groups because both had more than 50 people in it. In the group answering “**yes**”, 6 of the p-values were less than 0.05 (not normal distribution), while 3 p-values were more than 0.05 (normal distribution). In the group answering “**no**”, 5 of the p-values

were over 0.05 (normal distribution), while 3 p-values were less than 0.05 (not normal distribution).

Normality Tests results Question 43: Do you see a future in this industry?

The tests of Normality tables indicate a column df which is the degree of freedom score. The Sig., which means Significant, is the p-value. If the p-value is less than 0.05 it is not normally distributed, but where it is more than 0.05 it indicates normal distribution. Not normally distributed on the table is highlighted in **red**, while normal distribution is highlighted in **blue**. The Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was used for the group answering “**yes**”, because it was more than 50 people, while the Shapiro-Wilk test was used for the other group answering “**no**”, because it was less than 50. In the group answering “**yes**”, 6 of the p-values were less than 0.05 (not normally distributed), and 2 p-values were more than 0.05 (normally distributed), while in the other group answering “**no**”, 6 of the p-values were more than 0.05 (normally distributed), and 2 p-values were less than 0.05 (not normally distributed).

Normality Tests results Question 13: How long have you been employed with the agency that you currently work for?

“More than 5 years” scores minimum 1 to maximum 5, with the median being 1.5. Apart from a couple of outliers, all results are all positively skewed, which indicate that regardless of the length of service all respondents were unhappy with the facilities that are provided at the venue at which they work.

All results show that majority of the respondents are fairly happy with the respect that they receive.

The research found that a longer length of service leads to contentment, a feeling of satisfaction and comfort regarding working conditions.

The results show that the longer the service, the greater “the perception” that promotional opportunities arise. The actual promotional potential is probably limited to being given more responsibility rather than a monetary reward. It was discovered during the interviews and when the questionnaires were collected, that nobody had actually been promoted.

Generally the results are negatively skewed which indicates that the respondents are in overall feeling good about their work relationships.

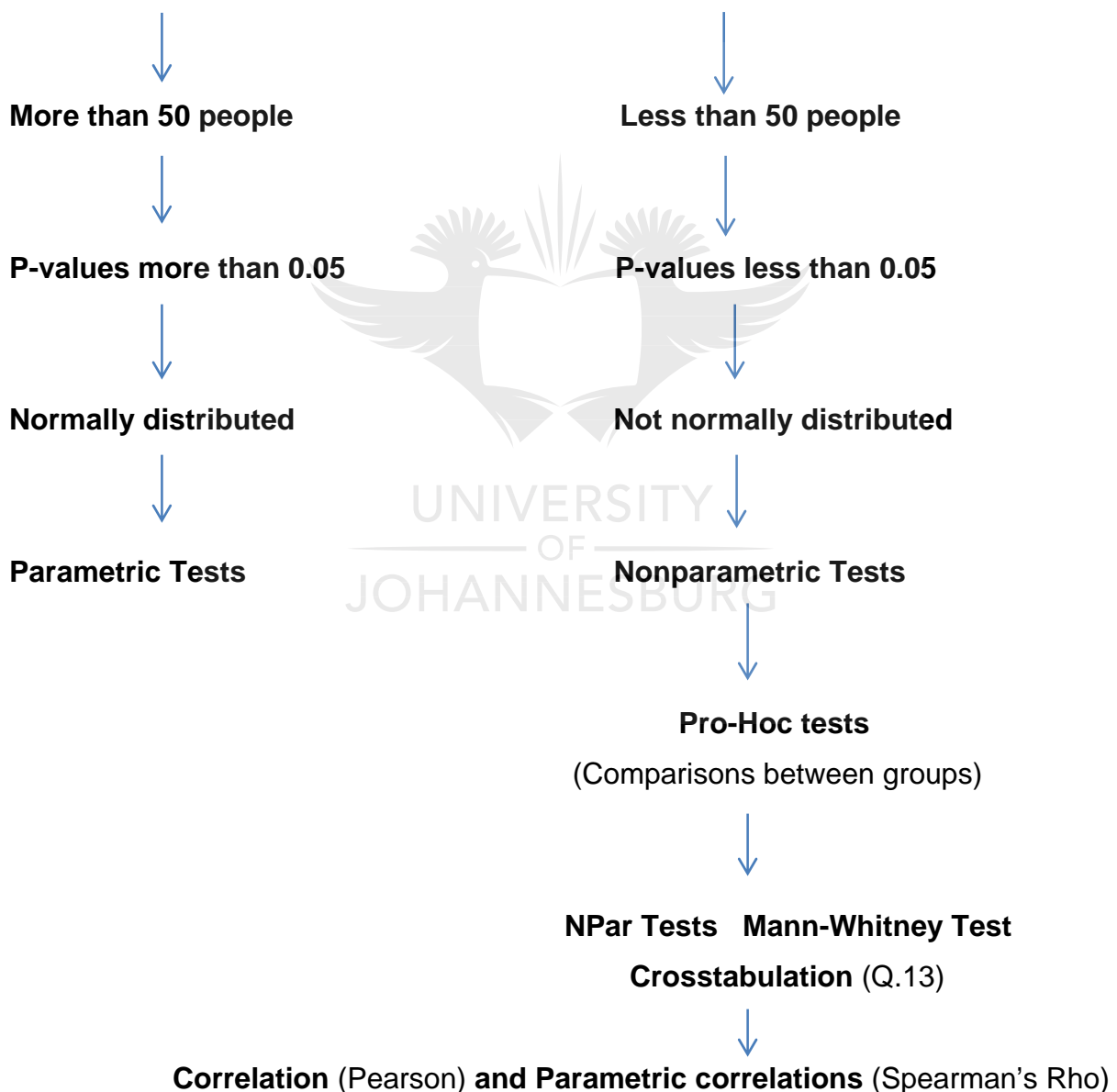
The results are in general are consistent negatively skewed indicating that the respondents feel good about the task that they perform in accordance with their skill, knowledge and experience levels. The boxplot again shows that the longer the length of service, the stronger the positive perceptions.

The results are negatively skewed, which indicates that in every group of length of service, wellbeing is positively perceived. In this boxplot, the longer the length of service, the greater the positive perception of wellbeing.

4.1.11 Normality, and comparisons, in sequence.

Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test

Shapiro-Wilk Test



The Mann-Whitney test was used for Qs, 6, 38, 39 and 43 because there were 2 groups that were compared. Although Question 13 had four groups, which had to be tested by using the NPar Kruskal-Wallis Test, the research actually tested 6 groups of two being 1 and 2, 1 and 3, 1 and 4, 2 and 3, 3 and 4, and 3 and 4. The research also used the Mann-Whitney test for Q 13. Although there were a few variables that were normally distributed, most of the variables were not normally distributed which resulted in the use of nonparametric tests for the comparisons.

RAGS - Parametric testing does not deal with Outliers, which affects the mean. This means that the mean is calculated with the Outlier, which makes the mean lower. Par example, when doing a scale of ages between 20 and 30 and one person is 90, the average will be 32, while without the Outlier the average will be 25. The nonparametric test calculates a Mean rank, which is then the decision tool to establish whether or not there is a difference.

4.1 12 Comparisons between groups (Normality tests between the groups to establish and or reconfirm differences with the calculated Mean Rank). The parametric test does not test the differences between means because it is not affected by them. It calculates a mean Rank, making the tests stricter to see differences. The Rank indicates whether there is a difference between the groups or not. In other words, the test takes care of the Outliers, which influence the mean. The **p-values** on the test statistics table are a bit different. The p-values bigger or equal to 0.05 indicate no differences between the groups.

Tests show no differences between the two groups (SA & others) regarding the availability of facilities, promotion potential, work relationships, skills work activities and wellbeing. The two groups, however, indicate differences regarding Transport provided, respect received and working conditions, in general. The results show Mean and Median differences, which indicate that the South African group is between sometimes and often provided with transport, while the other nationalities feel that they are rarely or never given transport. The same significant differences and feelings are prevalent regarding respect and treatment which are closely related and support the general working conditions that they experience.

Tests indicate no differences regarding available facilities. Regarding general working conditions and wellbeing in terms of answering “Yes” or “No” the respondents felt the same way about the three mentioned variables. The rest of the variables show differences. The results show that a majority of the respondents feel that the economic crisis has “No” influence on their transport, respect, promotional potential, work relations and skills work activities.

The results show though that there is a significant difference regarding wellbeing in terms of “Yes” and “No” responses. The respondents who said yes had received an offer of permanent employment, and hence perceive their wellbeing a lot more positively than the respondents who answered no. As mentioned previously, the research hardly found any evidence indicating any temporary employee receiving any offer of permanent employment.

The research believes that the temporary employees probably said that they received an offer of permanent employment to feel good and appreciated (no results).

Another reason for the mentioned findings is the fact that if respondents received permanent job offers, why were they still employed by Temporary Employment agencies? In support of these statements, the research refers to Chapters 1 & 2, where the term “casualization” by itself indicates the global trend of changing permanent employment to temporary employment. Further support and confirmation of the above statements is confirmed in research conducted by the CIETT (2012), which indicates that no evidence is provided that agency work is effective as a stepping stone to permanent employment.

Tests suggest that, in general, the respondents are positive, and see a future in the industry, although there are a number of differences considering the “Yes” and “No” answers. Most variables show that respondents who feel positive (“Yes”) are happier regarding general working conditions, promotional potential, working conditions and skills work activities. No differences regarding wellbeing amongst respondents who answered “yes’ or “no” were recorded, which indicates that all are feeling good about their future in the industry.

All the test results indicate that the longer temporary workers are employed by an agency, the more positive they perceive their general working conditions.

The research found that the length of service is perceived as appreciation and creates loyalty from temporary employees. Although table tests were done and not reported, the **Cross-tabulation** tests was necessary because Question 13, which consists of 4 variables was compared with Question 43, which consisted of 2 variables. The statistics below show that all groups of length of service positively perceive a future in the industry, although long service from 2 to 5 years and longer shows a higher positive score.

4.1.13 Correlations (Pearson)

Nonparametric correlations (Spearman's Rho)

A correlation is the relationship between two variables. A correlation is a value between 0 and 1 which indicates the strength of the correlation. The first correlation "transport" with itself is one, and the N is the number of respondents. All correlations with itself are one. If the p-value is less than 0.05 there is significant correlation (sig. 2-tailed). In other words, if the p-value is not significant we do not consider the coefficient, and there is no correlation (a coefficient above 5 is significant, indicating a strong correlation).

The second is "transport" and "facilities", where the p-value is bigger than 0.05, hence there is no correlation. The third is "transport and "respect", where the p-value is less than 0.05 and the coefficient is .608, indicating a strong correlation. The results show that the respondents felt good about treatment and respect and also had a positive feeling towards available transport facilities. The fourth is "transport" and "general working conditions", where the p-value is less than 0.05 and the coefficient is .532**, indicating a strong correlation. The results show that well perceived general working conditions made the respondents feel good about the available transport. The fifth is "transport" and "promotional potential", where the p-value is less than 0.05 and the coefficient is .378*, indicating a relationship although not a strong one. The results show that when respondents feel that promotional potential is present, they are also positive about transport availability. The sixth is "transport" and "work relations", where the p-value is less than 0.05 and the coefficient is .467**, indicating a reasonable but not too strong relationship. The

results show that respondents who have good working relationships feel better about the available transport.

The seventh is “transport” and “skills work activities”, where the p-value is less than 0.05 and the coefficient is .313**, which shows that there is a relationship although not strong. The results show that when work related skills are good, transport is perceived to be satisfying.

The last is “transport” and “Wellbeing”, where the p-value is bigger than 0.05, and there is no correlation. Regarding “facilities” and “respect”, all variables show a p-value of more than 0.05, indicating that there is no relationship. The next is “respect” and “general working conditions”, where the p-value is below 0.05 and the coefficient is .515**, hence the relationship is strong. The results show that when temporary workers are treated with respect they feel good about their working conditions. There is a relationship between “respect” and “promotional potential”, where the p-value is below 0.05 and the coefficient is .420**. The results indicate that the temporary workers’ feeling’ of respect increase their feelings regarding perceived promotional opportunities.

“Respect” and “working relations”, where the p-value is below 0.05 and the coefficient is .545** shows a strong relationship between temporary workers who are treated with respect and their co-workers. “Respect” and “skills work activity”, show that the p-value is below 0.05 and the coefficient is .289**. Which shows that the relationship is not strong, indicating that the work skills activities have some influence on the respect received. “Respect” and “wellbeing” with a p-value of more than 0.05 shows no correlation “regarding general working conditions” and “promotional potential”, the p-value is below 0.05 and the coefficient is .690** which shows that there is a strong relationship. The same applies to “work relations”, where the coefficient is .654**, “work skills activity”, where the coefficient is .556** and “wellbeing”, where the coefficient is .387** indicating that all variables have a great influence on the positive feelings perceived regarding general working conditions. The relationship between “promotional potential” and “work relations” where the coefficient is .639** as well as “work skills activity” where the coefficient is .748** and “wellbeing” where the coefficient is .472** have p-values less than 0.05, which indicate a strong correlation. When the temporary workers feel good about their promotional opportunities they also perceive relationships, skills activities and

wellbeing positively. “Work relations” compared to work skills activity” where the coefficient is .604** and “wellbeing” where the coefficient is .425**, have p-values less than 0.05. positive work relations have a strong positive influence on work skills activity and wellbeing. “Skills work activity” is strongly related to “wellbeing”, with a p-value below 0.05 and a coefficient of .523**, which shows that work performance and skills activities influence temporary employees’ “wellbeing” positively.

4.1.14 Interpretation of Frequencies and Descriptives

The quantitative data shows that more female temporary employees in the age group of 19 to 35 are employed in the hospitality industry, which was confirmed by the qualitative interview phase with the labour brokers. This confirms a research report which was conducted by a labour broker based in Randburg (2011) that confirms that more female temporary employees are entering the hospitality sector. One of the reasons, as mentioned in this report, is opportunities for these employees to determine their own working hours and length of workweek. The reasons given by the research were, however, contradicted by the quantitative data implying not much flexibility as potential employers who use labour broker employees dictate the working hours and conditions for their hired temps. “Women are often employed in retailing and hospitality services with many holding lower status, lower paid, casual or temporary agency jobs” (ILO, 2010), which is a further confirmation of the possible abuse of female labour broker employees.

Concerning a country of origin, although not all the quantitative data supports the findings that the majority of temporary employees are migrants, in areas such as cleaning, security, domestic work and hospitality and tourism, the workforce has a large percentage of female migrant and part-time workers who are typically low skilled and low paid (ILO, 2010; CIETT, 2010). This is further confirmed in the qualitative phase when the labour brokers indicated that they make use of foreigners.

Employees who were interviewed indicated that undocumented temporary employees are welcomed by labour brokers, indicating an inclination to abuse vulnerable employees, who are merely happy to have found some sort of work to earn a living. Relating to education levels of respondents, the quantitative data

shows that almost 50% of the temporary employees have not completed Grade 12. The labour broker report of the research confirms that work related and educational documentation is not essential to finding employment. Jobs at labour brokers (LB) are found more readily via social and community networks. The results of a study which was conducted in the Cape lodging sector (Maumbe & van Wyk, 2008) show that the lodging sector is generally labour intensive, utilizes mostly low academic skills, and offers low paying employment. 25% of the respondents in the research indicated that their jobs did not require any formal qualifications.

In terms of length of employment, the quantitative data revealed that 36% of temporary employees worked for less than a year, and another 46% worked for less than 5 years for one labour broker. The qualitative data confirmed that labour broker employees change agencies in the hope of finding better remuneration and working conditions. Although no direct proof was found in the literature, poor working conditions are a likely reason for employees seeking greener pastures.

With regard to remuneration, the quantitative data indicated that a vast majority of the temporary employees work for 8 hours per day, 5 days per week (more in the high season, which is from September to the end of the year). This is supported by the qualitative data, which shows that the average temporary employee earns between R 10-00 and R 15-00 per hour. An average month's earnings is less than R 2000-00 (South African)

A study in the Cape lodging industry (2008) shows that the average working day is 9.2 hours with 52% earning less than R 3,500-00 per month. Furthermore many of the undocumented temporary employees have no access to unions, bargaining power or minimum wages, resulting in employers abusing their precarious situation by paying them unacceptably low wages. The meagre wages earned by casual workers are not sufficient to support their families. In the context of high living costs several studies (Bezuidenhout, 2005; Mosoetsa, 2005; Van der Westhuizen, 2005) indicate that workers supplement their income by moonlighting in the informal sector, or by participating in cash generating activities.

The second, fundamental effect of casualization and attendant low wages is to shift the burden of care and social reproduction into the household. A worker who previously had medical aid benefits has to pay out for health care from his / her own pocket once they lose this benefit. In a way casual labour is now a source of cheap labour for capital across the South African economy. Workers' activities to supplement their income are an indirect subsidy for capitalists in the same way that productive underpaid women are a disguised subsidy for capital. (Oupa Bodibe, 2006)

Regarding benefits, the quantitative data shows that 80% of the respondents never receive any benefits, extra's or overtime pay. These findings are confirmed by the non-provision of meals, locker rooms and shower facilities by 50% of the respondents.

Qualitative data, in the form of labour broker interview feedback, indicates that temporary employees receive no benefits apart from in some cases transport provisions for nightshift work. This is supported by the literature. A casual employee is barely guaranteed a legal minimum wage, any job security, and allowances for lunch, travel and housing. They neither receive benefits such as paid vacation, paid sick leave, funeral assistance and pension. This situation results partly in the treatment meted on employees, as employers believe that they will always have people who will be willing to work for them, irrespective of the conditions. Again there is the desperate attitude of potential or existing employees in obtaining or retaining jobs at any condition or cost. As noted earlier, nonstandard work (NSW) arrangements is a global issue (Kalleberg, 1999).

A literature study of a Dutch temporary employment agency who had contracted several hundred young people in Spain to perform temporary jobs in the Netherlands in the run-up to the Christmas season, reflects the findings. The employment of the Spanish has had repercussions on public opinion and amongst the social partners, because not only are there many thousands of unemployed people in the Netherlands, but also because these workers do not seem to have suitable working conditions. The agreed working conditions are nine hours per day, travelling expenses, and board and lodging (in youth hostels). The real conditions seem to be

different. A large group returned after a week, claiming that the accommodation and food were unacceptable, that the working day had been increased and could be 11 to 12 hours, and that some had been forced to work in agricultural jobs for which they had not been contracted. This is similar to the case of thousands of young peoples from central and northern Europe who work in the Spanish tourist resorts as waiters and guides, and in other catering jobs.

Casual work is often temporary, with uncertain wages, long hours, and no job security. Nigerian workers are under pressure from corporate practices that seek to undercut their hard fought victories at the bargaining table to replace good jobs (jobs with benefits, training and security) with various forms of insecure and lower paid contract, short-term and temporary work (Fapohunda & Tinuke, 2012). Treatment, respect and grievances: the quantitative data indicates that between 50% and 80% of the respondents never received any introduction to policy and procedures regarding disciplinary action, grievances and code of conducts. Three quarters of the temporary employees who were interviewed were never exposed to any induction or socialization program. This may be partly because they felt that they were not taken seriously, and not treated with respect.

The qualitative interviews with the labour brokers revealed that the temporary employees were not informed about their rights and the presence of new legislation in the making.

The literature provides proof that a majority of temporary employees do not receive “social wages”, benefits such as pension or medical aid, and furthermore, they have virtually no knowledge of or access to any legislature, depending on statutory employment standards for basic working conditions. Non-documentation and low levels of education do not encourage them or give them access to unionization (Luo, 2010).

According to 66% of the interviewed participants the economic crisis is the reason for them not finding permanent employment. A further 60% have never been offered a permanent job. The findings, however, contradict the findings of the labour broker interviews. On the one hand employees blame the economic crisis for not finding

permanent employment, and conversely, they indicate that more than half have received offers of permanent employment. Many respondents informed the interviewers that at the specific venues at which they were employed, there were no permanent positions available.

CHAPTER FIVE: Conclusions and recommendations

5.1 Introduction

The research study sought to establish and document the factors leading to 'casualization'. It also investigated and documented the phenomena of 'casualization' within a global context in order to make comparisons with the South African labour market. The research established the working conditions, job satisfaction and well-being of the temporary employees who work for or are contracted by labour brokers (employment agencies). It furthermore sought to determine how and why casualization influences the working conditions of temporary employees who are employed by labour brokers in the hospitality industry owing to the effect of casualization, prescribed labour law and labour broker human resources practices.

5.2 Relating to South African labour laws

The existing South African labour laws (as at 2014) are not designed to deal with the needs of temporary employees. Although new labour laws are being implemented, supposedly to protect the vulnerable and insecure temporary workforce, many loopholes still exist. A labour broker is responsible, together with their clients, for the wellbeing of temporary employees. However, when issues arise it is still difficult for the employee to know where to go to with his / her grievances. The agencies hardly deal with employee issues, usually only supply staff to hospitality businesses, such as conferencing centres. Although they claim to follow up on disciplinary action and address reported conflicts, the reality is that problematic temps will not be considered again for new or other contracts. The agencies were honest enough to admit that problem candidates were not re-employed for new assignments.

During various stages of the interviewing process, temporary employees indicated that they had issues with venues, management or peers, including favouritism and

respect; leading to managers informing the agency not to want to rehire certain individuals. In both above mentioned situations the law is unable to allocate specific problems to specific parties in the three-way relationship. Full-time employees have a human resources department to go to with their grievances.

The new labour law (Labour Relations Amendment Act, 2012) prescribes that a temporary employee that is employed for longer than three months at one venue will be entitled to the same rights as a permanent employee. The consequence is that user enterprises will not employ labour broker employees for longer than three months anymore, in order to circumvent this requirement. In this scenario any labour broker employee will be on short three months contracts after which that individual should be placed in a new position by the agency. The insecurity is now hugely increased because most agencies will be unable to have a new three month job lined up for every temporary employee. Apart from all the challenges associated with temporary work, continued changes of employer, environment, rules and regulations, transport and other issues related to starting a new job, compound the situation.

The agencies admit that they do not inform employees about their rights within labour law. The agencies (LB) hardly deal with employee issues, as they usually only supply staff. Although they claim to follow up on disciplinary action and address reported conflicts, the reality is that problematic temps will not be re-considered for new or other contracts.

5.3 Human resources practices:

The labour broker industry does not apply proper human resource practices. The larger agencies (LB) are better organized, however, when taking over a new contract not much is done for existing temporary employees. One example was the contract taken that was taken over at a facility in the Johannesburg area. Last year a dispute was ignored involving temporary kitchen staff complaining to facilities management about the non-payment of overtime, only when the temporary staff downed tools, did the agency involved address the issues.

The findings regarding HR practices for temporary employees, in general, were confirmed by quantitative results which indicate that 75% of the respondents never received any training. Only 36% of respondents said that they were paid on time and

received overtime, while 60% was seldom paid on time and irregular, no overtime was paid and often time sheets (record of hours worked) that were handed in to the agency contained wrong information or were handed in late, which affected pay dates.

In the comparison section of this report evidence shows that these sorts of practices are detrimental for temporary employees working conditions and wellbeing.

Hence induction programs, employment agreements and the employee knowledge of policies and procedures are critical for the protection of the hotel business, as well as employees (Lye. 2007).

Temporary employees are continuously striving to find employment with better working conditions and better pay. The research has confirmed the movement of temporary employees from one agency to another stems from ever increasing economic challenges. These challenges stem from a decline of tourism work opportunities; declining hotel and conference occupancy rates; increasing retrenchments, and consequently a continuously growing number of people with declining disposable remunerations and income.

Possible recommendations for better human resource practices relating to temporary employees in the hospitality industry could include:

- Every HR departments would be advised to keep current employees (as long as they meet company's needs) in lieu of constantly hiring new employees. Retaining experienced, long term employees (including temporary employees) saves money and effort, however it requires a human resources management strategy consideration that plans far beyond remuneration only. In the hospitality industry for example, it is not an unusual for the entire temporary employee pool to change perpetually.
- HR departments would be advised to implement new ways to boost employee motivation. One way to keep experienced temporary employees motivated is to have more consistent communication lines and structures. It is furthermore important and natural for employees to want to know how well they are doing, as well as having some knowledge as to the stability of the entire company they work for.

Regular staff meetings, which should include temporary employees, could be beneficial to the entire operation therefore making all employees feel that they are not a separate, but an inseparable link within the greater entity. The consequent growing of unity between all employees and management will in turn enhance greater internal, or intrinsic, motivation. Grievances boxes or other communication processes that can highlight grievances are furthermore important. Temporary employees should be able to list their grievances without fear, otherwise they might simply leave an employment opportunity without the management ever knowing why they left.

There are also several good remuneration practices that involve material incentives. It is truly essential to note that people need money, which is probably the best way to boost motivation. Development of fair remuneration practices and policies within the business environment would ensure equitable working conditions, which in return would retain employees.

A further effective incentive method would be to provide relevant and possibly free training courses and career development classes, which would make employees feel involved, as well as valued.

5.4 Recruitment procedures

The agencies (LB) rely on networking within their temporary employee pool, as they introduce new recruits. Although they claim to check identity documents and work permits, the reality reflects a different situation. The only real requirement is reasonable understanding and use of the English language. Documentation such as refugee, asylum seeker, residence status, marital status, curriculum vitae and other work related documents are crucial, but not essential to finding employment. Employment opportunities are found more quickly via social and community networks. An assessment of working conditions of Zimbabweans in South Africa reveals that working Zimbabweans feel they are a privileged minority, as finding any form of employment in South Africa represents an improvement of their employment conditions in Zimbabwe (Mosala, 2008).

5.5 User enterprises (the client)

The user enterprises who hire labour broker employees have been found to have no human resource management practices and procedures in place to deal with a group of continuously changing employees.

Management of most facilities presume that the temporary employees that they hire are able to perform the tasks and duties for which they are hired. A possible reason is that 60% of the respondents indicated that they had never been allocated a supervisor, while 40% are often, but not always supervised (subject to the number of functions to be catered for at the same time).

Facilities (such as showers and lockers) are sometimes, or not, available to temporary staff and only 50% of the respondents receive a meal (often leftovers). One meal while working a full shift is standard practice in the conferencing sector.

At various stages of the interviewing process temporary employees indicated that they have issues with venue management or peers, which include favouritism and the lack of showing of respect, which could lead to managers informing the agency that they do not want to rehire certain individuals.

At the time that the survey was conducted, a sensitive labour dispute was brewing regarding the number of paid hours worked, for which a number of temporary employees did not receive any overtime. According to a field worker, who was employed at a conference centre, overtime work was regarded as totally normal by the conference centre's management and therefore expected from the temporary employees, without management expecting any complaints or queries relating to the practise. A convention centre hires employees from an agency, and is not responsible for the recording and payment of remuneration. How the discrepancy was resolved was not clear.

HR management in co-operation with the TES should institute recruitment processes before they have to recruit temporary employees. The recommendation is that temporary employees should be tested and examined related to their performance levels. An on-going appraisal system needs to be implemented and maintained on a

regular basis to ensure employee competency and to identify training needs. Such practices would give the HR department the opportunity to measure commitment, attitude, skills and abilities, who to re-hire, promote or to lay-off. The rewards of establishing a relevant casual labour force and a satisfying employee relation will benefit repeat guest improvements and ultimately the bottom line.

Jerris, L. (1999)

5.6 The temporary employee

As the quantitative data reveals there is a difference between South African and migrant workers regarding working conditions. South African temporary workers are generally more satisfied with their work situation than foreigners are. The South African temporary employees were also more positive about transport (although, in general, no transport is provided apart for the nightshifts), treatment and respect, work relationships, work skill activities and promotional opportunities. When the general working conditions are perceived as satisfactory, all other factors, including wellbeing, are perceived positive.

Migrants are generally worse off than their South African counterparts, although their wellbeing is perceived as satisfactory. The data shows a significantly lower score in wellbeing than the South Africans. In contrast, the research found that most foreigners perceive their wellbeing as being satisfactory, as the majority are merely happy to earn some money, and will in principle accept any job opportunity in order to survive. As the results indicate, some talented chefs could be found working in the dish washing area, if no kitchen work is available. The privilege of having some or any, form of employment leads to an increased perception of being lucky and being well off.

Temporary workers feel that the general economic crisis has certainly influenced their working conditions, specifically regarding permanent job offers and their own wellbeing. The results show that the longer a temporary employee works for the same agency (LB) and preferably the same venue, the better they perceive their working conditions and wellbeing to be. The research found that during data collection and the interviews conducted, many labour broker employees change agencies in the hope of finding better remuneration and working conditions. The

trends that have emerged internationally in the world of work regarding the definition of an employee, have directly and indirectly lead to the informalisation and casualization of jobs. These trends, amongst others, include an increase in disguised employment (independent contractors) and a rise in unclear terms of employment resulting in a decrease in the protection of workers who require protection (such as the labour broker employees investigated in this research).

Another contributing factor to poor working conditions is in the form of poorly fed unhealthy employees who likely to perform below par. The research found issues in this regard, clearly show that the venues are either not prepared for an influx of temporary employees, or simply do not find this important enough and leave supervisors to deal with the issue. This shows that management at the venues are neither committed nor aware of the needs regarding temporary employees working conditions or well-being.

5.7 Triangulation of the findings

The process of tri-angulating the findings of the research provides the means to support, challenge, show confusion or dispute the data by means of comparing the qualitative and quantitative findings and the literature.

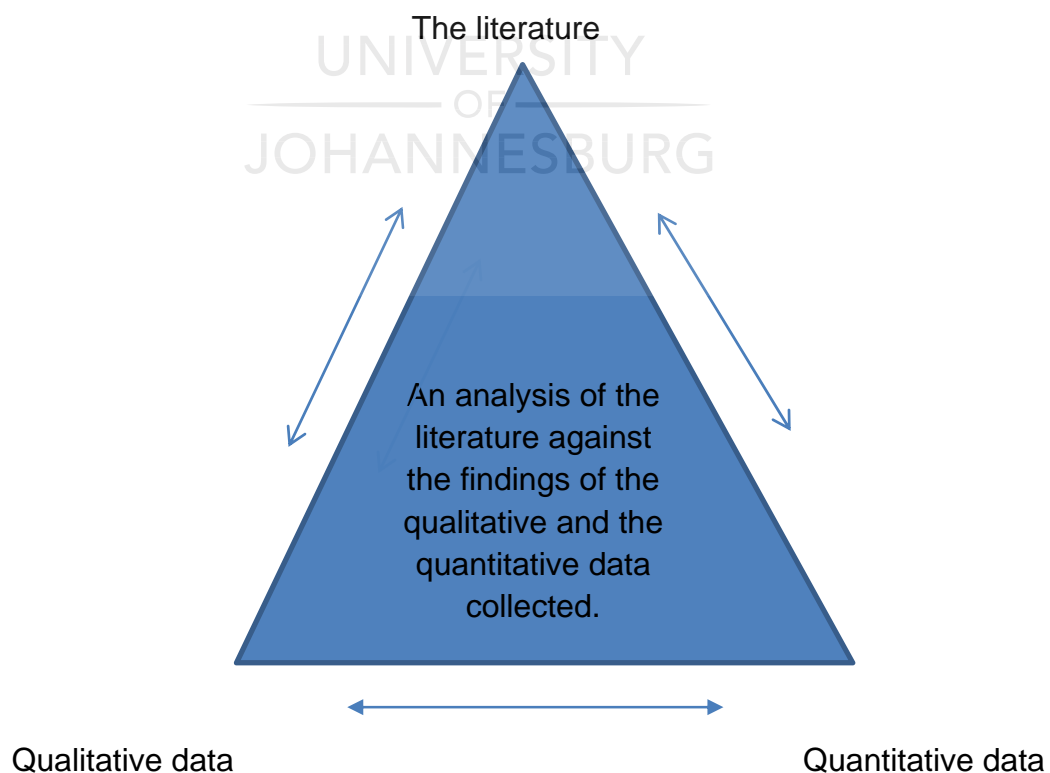


Figure 14: Triangulation of the forms of data for comparative analysis.

The literature indicates international concern for the casualization of temporary employees, revealing abuse, irregular working conditions and poor remuneration practices for those in this category. Although the working conditions have been brought about by changing economic conditions, general social well-being, employment practices and the deregulation of the labour market, abuse of these conditions appears to be common to the detriment of the temporary employees.

The quantitative data, obtained during the first phase of the research, by means of questionnaires to temporary employees, supports the literature by revealing similar practices in South Africa to those discussed in the literature. The International Labour Organisation has made known abusive practices found in Europe, America and the Far East. Concern is expressed for the vulnerability of unprotected temporary employees, either by employment practices or working conditions. Similar results could be found in the research findings in support of this concern

The qualitative interviews revealed a general covering up of the working conditions, with effort made to protect agency practices, as well as their client's practices, which may not be following the labour laws of South Africa. Resistance by the managers to being interviewed further draws attention to their awareness of poor practices, which would rather not be exposed. The Labour laws of South Africa are insufficiently inclusive to protect vulnerable employees. Nor are the existing laws adequately implemented or practiced to protect temporary employees, and give them no voice as they are not unionized.

5.8 Combined findings.

The research concludes that permanent employment is hard to come by for temporary employees. Regarding country of origin, according to the findings in this report, migrant temporary employees left their country of origin not only to find work, but also to find better working and living conditions. The temporary employees indicated that any job, which supplies living wages, improves their quality of life.

The contradiction, however, is shown in the literature, which suggests that urban migration is growing rapidly. An ever-growing number of people migrate to cities and

cannot find accommodation or employment. They end up in informal settlements on the periphery of cities, which are not close to economic hubs and far from transport. Like in South Africa, China will have to spend substantial amounts of money to meet the needs of the millions of people who migrate to the cities from rural areas. Mass migration to the cities continues at an increasing speed.

In 1982 about 25% of the population lived in cities, which after three decades has grown to over 50%. Expectations are that in the next 20 years the urban population will grow to 75 %, because people are looking for work and better living conditions. The situation in China is a reflection of the South African scenario. Urbanisation is real, with not only our rural areas, but also many other Africans migrating to the big cities such as Johannesburg, Durban and Cape Town (The Sunday Times, August 2012).

Job satisfaction shows confusion. A majority of the respondents indicated satisfaction with their employer although the findings show a vast majority to be unhappy with the number of hours that they worked. Opportunities regarding promotion, job security, skills development, training and education were by up to 70% of the temporary employees who scored it as not existing and unsatisfactory. The labour brokers, however, indicated that opportunities were there for the right candidates, which was determined by the level of education, hard work and commitment to their assignments. The literature confirms that migrants work in unhealthy environments, and require low skills. Jobs are allocated owing to poor language skills, low levels of education, lack of knowledge of workers' rights and low pay. All of these factors significantly contribute to unsatisfactory working conditions and unhappiness (Damian, 2011).

In terms of the labour law, the quantitative interviews confirmed employees' lack of knowledge concerning labour laws. The quantitative interviews with the labour brokers indicated that the agencies do not inform their temporary employees about their rights by law. The literature regarding the law, which never dealt with the plight of temporary workers, confirmed that certain exclusions in the law have been abused to convert employment contracts into commercial ones. Poor capacity of labour

inspectorates results in poor enforcement. It is the powerlessness and vulnerability that affect temporary workers to claim their rights (Cheadle, 2006).

Relating to casualization the quantitative data shows that 75% of the temporary employed workers feel that the economic crisis is the reason that they are unable to find permanent employment. The labour brokers are feeling the impact through the loss of employment contracts. The consequent new competitive contract negotiations, which are led by a narrowing market of competing labour brokers and employers of contract staff, resulting in tighter financial contracts being awarded, which in turn further exacerbates the abusive situation for contract workers. The literature extensively elaborates on the impact of casualization, providing evidence of international and African comparisons.

Casualization is referred to in Europe and the US as Non Standard Work Arrangements (NSWA's) (ILO, 2007) and involve the process whereby more and more of the workforce are employed in "casual" jobs. Typically, support services such as cleaning, catering, warehousing, transport, distribution and security are sub-contracted. This type of situation can also arise in some cases, as the entire or part of the business activity is outsourced or "casualized". A casual employee is barely guaranteed a legal minimum wage, any job security, and allowances for lunch, travel and housing. They neither receive benefits such as paid vacation, paid sick leave, funeral assistance and pension. This situation results partly in the treatment that employees receive, as employers believe that they will always have people who are willing to work for them, irrespective of the conditions. Again there is the desperate attitude of potential or existing employees obtaining or retaining jobs at any condition or cost. As noted earlier, nonstandard work (NSW) arrangements is a global issue (Kalleberg, 1999).

Growing price and other competition factors in many countries are increasingly pressurising profit margins: encouraging human resource management practices that favour part-time work; uncertain time schedules; low remuneration; recourse to agency worker staff; high attrition; and low training and retraining. Women are often in retailing (hospitality services included) with many of the women holding lower status, lower paid, casual or temporary agency jobs. In areas such as cleaning,

security and domestic work and the hospitality industry, the workforce is presented by a large percentage of migrant female and part-time workers who are typically low skilled, and low paid (ILO, 2009: 3).

Key findings are that casual employment is on the rise, yet trade union strategies and labour regulations are trailing behind. Hence, casuals are poorly organised and fall through the cracks of both labour regulations and social protection mechanisms. The rise of casual employment has dramatically increased insecurity in the work place among workers and has shifted power to employers.

The figures, tables, normality testing and correlations, which are presented in this chapter, show the analysis of the collected data and an explanation, which suggests that the findings are reliable and valid.

On order to make conclusive statements relating to the findings, probing and determining that the questions and the responses met the requirements, this process was concluded successfully.

The following chapter reflects on the findings and makes a conclusion relating to the working conditions of temporary employees in the hospitality industry.

When combining both the quantitative and qualitative findings, the research found that working conditions for temporary employees in general to be poor, and warranting the publicity afforded to this practice.

Considering the objectives of the study, the research shows a clear lack of protection for temporary employees in the labour laws (vulnerable migrants), poor human resource practices within temporary employment agencies or labour brokers, as well as a lack of involvement by the venues who hire the temporary staff.

These factors, together with the other findings, originate and are influenced by a high unemployment rate and the global casualization process, with a lack of monitoring by labour officials, and implementation of the law by the authorities.

The South African situation is worsened by the huge influx of foreigners into the hospitality and other industries, of whom the majority are Zimbabwean. Exploitation by a number of so-called labour brokers is rife, and a large contributor to the poor working conditions of the temporary employees.

5.9 Conclusion

Although the research was conducted in the area of Johannesburg, and in the hospitality arena, the findings reflect a general trend of casualization within the international hotel and hospitality industries.

Economics, both relating to controlling labour costs and the seasonality of functions within the hospitality industry, are indicated as primary explanations for the casualization of a workforce.

The findings reveal a pattern of concern in two domains. The contract employers of the employees fail to neither inform contracted casual labour of their legal employment rights, nor support them relating to training and induction programs to ensure high quality standards are provided to the hospitality business that employ them. The second domain relates to the employees themselves, who feel victimised and unsupported in their quest for work opportunities. One finding is significant, that of a sense of acceptance of their situation, leading to lethargy in effecting change. People seem to have adapted to a life style of insecurity and an unsafe work environment.

Further research related to a full extent of the use of labour brokers in the hotel and hospitality industries is recommended in order to determine the extent of the practice, and to make recommendations that would meet the requirements of the labour laws in South Africa, whilst improving the condition of employment for workers in the hospitality industry

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Appendices

Time table from 2012 – 2014.

December 2012 to September 2013	Complete and finish proposal.
October 2013	Get approval.
July 2013 to the end 2013	Design the questionnaires and start the survey, the data collection and analysis.
January to May 2014	Completion of Data collecting and analysis, start research report.
January to end of 2014	Finish the research report.
During the two years the literature review will be on going.	The research will follow up on developments with the LRA 2012.

Budget

Paper and Cartridges for printing.	R 2000-00
Telephone costs for interviews & making appointments.	R 1000-00
Travel petrol costs.	R2000-00
Transcribing of 10 recorded interviews	R 10000-00
Other unforeseen costs	R 1000-00
Estimated total	R 16000-00

Questionnaires (approved by STATKON)

Research questionnaire

Research is being conducted by a Master's degree student – Aiko Kuipers, at the University of Johannesburg (011 5591141)

I am collecting data relating to the employment of staff in the hospitality industry, through the use of labour brokers.

You, as a respondent, is respected as a person giving information. There will be no reference to who you are – so your identity is anonymous. All the information will only be used for this research. You may withdraw from the session at any time.

Please answer as many questions as honestly as possible – it all helps to give a clearer picture of the reality of this situation.

The survey questionnaire will take probably 10 minutes of your time. A research assistant will be handing you the questionnaire, giving you ample time to complete the paper after which you will return the paper to him / her.

The research assistant is available to translate words for you, but the answer must be your own please.

Part 1. Confidential Profile: Please place a cross (x) in the correct answer block

1. Gender:	Male	
	Female	

2. Age:	18 or younger	
	19 - 25	
	26 - 35	
	36 - 45	
	46 - 55	
	56 or older	

3. Marital Status:	Single	
	Divorced	
	Living together	
	Traditional marriage	
	Married by law	

	Widowed	
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4. Number of children:	
5. Number of dependants / living off your income:	

6. Country of passport:	South African
If "other country" please specify	

7. Type of residence:	House
	Flat
	Township
	Other
If "other" please specify	

8. In which area do you stay?

	yes	no
9. Are you sharing your place of residence?		

10. With how many families are you sharing your residence?	1	
	2	
	3	
	4 to 5	
	5 or more	

11. Highest education achieved:	School – gr 9 and lower	
	School - gr 10 - 11	
	School - gr 12 or matric	

	College	
	University qualification	
	Other	
If "other" please specify		

12. How many years have you worked in the hospitality industry?	Less than 1 year	
	1 to 2 years	
	2 to 5 years	
	5 to 10 years	
	More than 10 years	

13. How long have you been employed with the agency you currently work for?	Less than 1 year	
	1 to 2 years	
	2 to 5 years	
	5 to 10 years	
	More than 10 years	

14. What is your current job title?	Waiter	
	Cook / Chef	
	Barman	
	Cleaner	
	Other	
If "other" please specify		

15. Which previous positions have you held ?	Waiter	
Mark all applicable job titles	Cook / Chef	
	Barman	

	Cleaner	
	Other	
If "other" please specify		

16. How many hours do you work on average per day?	Less than 8	
	8	
	8 – 12	
	12 – 15	
	15 or more	

17. How much do you paid per hour?	Less than – R10-00	
	R10-01 - R15-00	
	R15-01 - R20-00	
	R20-01 - R25-00	
	R25-01 or more	

Part 2a. Working conditions: please place a cross in the most suitable answering block

How often:	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Always
18is transport provided to work?					
19.... is transport provided from work back home after a day shift?					
20....is trans port provided from work back home after a nightshift?					
21....do you receive training by the agency you work for?					
22....do get paid for overtime worked?					
23....do you receive your salary payments on time?					

24....do you get any other benefits or extras apart from your salary?					
25....do you get allocated to a supervisor at the venue you work/					
26....do you get provided with a meal?					
27....do you have access to a locker / change room?					
28....do you have access to shower facilities?					

Part 2b. Working conditions: please place a cross in the most suitable answering block

How often:	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Always
29....are you treated with respect by the agency you work for?					
30....has any agency you worked for introduced you to disciplinary and grievance procedures?					
31....has any agency you worked for made you aware of your rights prescribed by labour law?					
32....do you feel you have nowhere to go with grievances you would like to report?					
33....have you been allocated time for an induction or socialization program at the venue you were send to?					
34....are you treated with respect by the venue you work?					
35....are you treated with respect by the permanent staff at the venue?					

Part 2c. Working conditions: Please answer the following question by indicating
Yes / No / Don't know

	Yes	No	Don't know
36. Is tax deducted from your salary?			
37. Are you registered for UIF?			

Part 3. The labour market

	Yes	No
38. Do you feel that the current economic crisis is the reason you can't find permanent employment?		
39. Have you ever received an offer of permanent employment while working for an agency in South Africa?		
40. Can you find employment in your country of origin?		
41. Did the poor pay in your country of origin force you to come and work in South Africa?		
42. Did the poor working conditions in your country of origin force you to come and work in South Africa?		
43. Do you see a future in this industry?		

Part 4. Satisfaction: Please place a cross in the most suitable answering block:

How satisfied are you with the following:	Very dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Unsure	Satisfied	Very satisfied

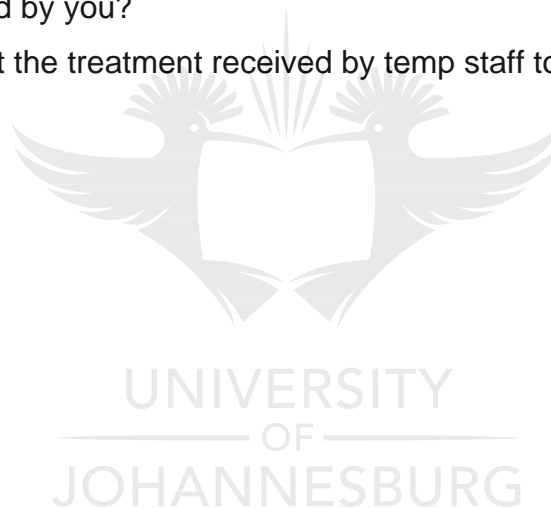
44. Hours worked per week.					
45. Flexibility in scheduling.					
46. Salary					
47. Benefits (health / life insurance)					
48. Relationships with co-workers					
49. Opportunities to utilize your skills and talents					
50. Degree of independence in your work role.					
51. How satisfied are you, all in all, with your present work?					
52. Location of work.					
53. Opportunities for promotion					
54. Job security					
55. Relationships with supervisor / s					
56. Opportunities to learn new skills.					
57. How satisfied are you with state of health?					
58. Amount of paid leave days					
59. Recognition for work accomplished.					
60. Relationships with subordinates					
61. Support for additional training and education					
62. How satisfied are you with your family life?					
63. Amount of paid sick leave days					
64. Adequate opportunities for periodic change of duties					
65. Overall, how satisfied are you with your life					

I would like to thank you for completing this questionnaire, your help makes the difference!

Semi-structured interview questions to be conducted with the labour brokers.

1. When was your company established, how many years in operation?
2. How many temp-staff are on your books and are regularly send out to clients / conference centres, event management companies and conference hotels?

3. How many of those employees are migrants (foreigners) from Southern Africa (e.g. .Zimbabweans, Congolese etc.)
4. Please tell us about your recruitment procedures.
5. Do you sign some sort of employment contract with your temp staff?
6. Are there any regulatory procedures you have to follow as stipulated by the Department of Labour?
7. How many clients do provide with your services?
8. Do you train your staff?
9. Does your client train your staff?
10. Is your staff registered for UIF and, or gets pension and med aid benefits?
11. Are your temp-staff given opportunities to grow within your organisation?
12. Is any of your staff been given opportunities to permanent employment or is that encouraged by you?
13. Do you feel that the treatment received by temp staff to be fair and non-discriminatory?



Part 2a. Working Conditions – Tangible

Total Variance Explained

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	3.532	35.317	35.317	3.097	30.968	30.968	3.055	30.550	30.550
2	2.942	29.416	64.733	2.630	26.300	57.268	2.672	26.718	57.268
3	.839	8.387	73.121						
4	.624	6.238	79.359						
5	.592	5.923	85.281						
6	.465	4.649	89.930						
7	.342	3.417	93.347						
8	.308	3.082	96.429						
9	.223	2.235	98.664						
10	.134	1.336	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Axis

Factoring.

	Factor	
	1	2
Q28	.868	
Q23	.783	
Q27	.753	
Q22	.687	
Q26	.642	
Q25	.467	
Q18		.937
Q20		.834
Q19		.797

Q21	.624
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Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.^a

a. Rotation converged in 3 iterations.

2nd Order Factor Analysis

Total Variance Explained

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	1.007	50.347	50.347	.012	.608	.608
2	.993	49.653	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

Factor Matrix^a

	Factor
	1
Mean_P2a_F1	.078
Mean_P2a_F2	-.078

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

a. 1 factors extracted. 3 iterations required.

Factor Analysis

**Total Variance
Explained**

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	3.442	57.370	57.370	2.992	49.868	49.868
2	.899	14.987	72.358			
3	.681	11.355	83.713			
4	.458	7.632	91.345			
5	.295	4.910	96.255			
6	.225	3.745	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

Factor matrix

	Factor
	1
Q34	.868
Q31	.785
Q29	.774
Q35	.652
Q30	.593
Q33	.497

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

a. 1 factors extracted. 6 iterations required.

Part 4. Job Satisfaction. Factor Analysis

Total Variance Explained



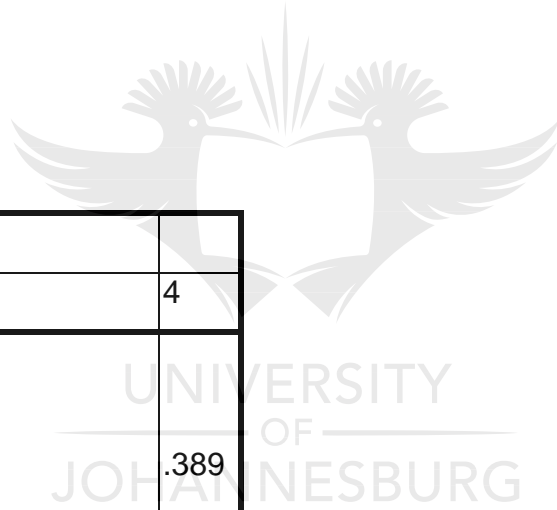
Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	8.340	46.331	46.331	7.947	44.148	44.148	3.431	19.059	19.059
2	1.418	7.878	54.208	1.093	6.072	50.220	3.037	16.875	35.933
3	1.265	7.026	61.234	.838	4.658	54.879	2.073	11.518	47.451
4	1.100	6.109	67.344	.718	3.987	58.866	2.055	11.415	58.866
5	.802	4.457	71.801						
6	.763	4.238	76.039						
7	.641	3.561	79.600						
8	.553	3.073	82.673						
9	.510	2.832	85.504						

10	.462	2.568	88.072					
11	.424	2.353	90.426					
12	.345	1.916	92.341					
13	.318	1.769	94.111					
14	.269	1.492	95.603					
15	.248	1.377	96.980					
16	.218	1.208	98.188					
17	.182	1.012	99.200					
18	.144	.800	100.000					

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

Rotated Factor Matrix^a

	Factor			
	1	2	3	4
Q45	.799			
Q44	.741			.389
Q48	.567	.306	.376	
Q60	.560	.494	.300	
Q46	.460		.286	.457
Q52	.428	.376	.300	
Q53		.742		.337
Q53	.499	.576		



5				
Q4	.266	.561	.255	
9				
Q5	.509	.532		
4				
Q5		.500		
6				
Q6	.349	.483		.461
4				
Q5	.374	.457	.410	
9				
Q4			.634	.263
7				
Q6			.628	
1				
Q5	.312	.348	.477	
0				
Q6				.864
3				
Q5	.416		.483	.599
8				

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.^a

a. Rotation converged in 10 iterations.

2nd Order Factor Analysis

Total Variance Explained

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues		Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings

	Total	% of	Cumulative	Total	% of	Cumulative
		Variance	%		Variance	%
1	2.693	67.324	67.324	2.284	57.094	57.094
2	.574	14.339	81.663			
3	.469	11.726	93.389			
4	.264	6.611	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Axis

Factoring.

Factor Matrix^a

	Factor
	1
Mean_P4_F1	.852
Mean_P4_F2	.807
Mean_P4_F3	.701
Mean_P4_F4	.644

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

a. 1 factors extracted. 7 iterations required.

Part 4. Well-Being Factor Analysis

Total Variance Explained

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	1.910	47.751	47.751	1.348	33.699	33.699
2	.840	21.011	68.762			

3	.796	19.912	88.673			
4	.453	11.327	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Axis

Factoring.

Factor

Matrix^a

	Factor
	1
Q62	.789
Q65	.672
Q57	.392
Q51	.347

Extraction Method:

Principal Axis Factoring.

a. 1 factors extracted. 15 iterations required.



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Research Statistical Analysis Part 2 Normality and Comparisons.

- The Descriptives of part 2a Tangible Working conditions Factor 1.
- the Descriptives of part 2a Tangible working conditions Factor 2
- the Descriptives of part 2b Non-tangible working conditions Factor 1
- together with Q.6, Q.38, Q.39, Q.43 and Q.13.

The above will be compared with two groups namely the South African passport holders and the non-South African passport holders, each group of which the differences are tested firstly Normality testing is done.

Normality testing: before comparisons can be done “Normality” needs to be tested, which is the distribution of the variables that are going to be tested against each other. The reason for this is based on the results of the Normality after which a decision is made what test is used for the comparisons. The normality tests for

differences. This research is looking for differences which will with the statistics prove and support the findings.

A variable is the mean score of part 2, which will be compared with the variables in Part 1, 3 and part 4.

- If it is normally distributed parametric tests will be used and if it is not normally distributed nonparametric tests will be used.
- When the wrong test would be used, the results could influence and interpret the answers as being biased. Normality testing will justify the use of that specific test for that specific comparison.
- Normality testing consists of two tests, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test and the Shapiro-Wilk Test, indicating whether the distribution is normal or not. The Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test is used if there are 50 or more people in that specific group.
- The Shapiro- Wilk Test is used when there are less than 50 in each group.
- The tests of Normality tables will indicate a column df which is the Degree of freedom score.
- Not normally distributed on the table is highlighted in **red**, while normal distribution is highlighted in **blue**.
- The Sig. which means Significant is the p-value. If the p-value is less than 0.05 it is not normally distributed, where it is more than 0.05 it indicates normal distribution.
- RAGS - Parametric testing does not deal with Outliers, which affects the mean. This means that the mean is calculated with the Outlier making the mean lower. Par example, when doing a scale of ages between 20 and 30 and one person is 90, the average will be let say 32, while without the Outlier the average will be 25.
- The nonparametric test calculates a Mean Rank which score is the decision tool to establish whether there is a difference or not.
- The p-value means that there is a 5% change that the mean score is not accurate, because of the outliers.
- The Boxplots and Histograms indicate frequencies measuring 1 – 5 because the answers on the questionnaires were rated from 1- never, 2-rarely, 3-sometimes, 4 - often to 5-always.

- Mean P2a F1 indicates working conditions – Tangible (general working conditions consisting of transport provided)
- Mean P2a F2 indicates working conditions – Tangible (general working conditions consisting of benefits and facilities received or having access to)
- Mean P2b F1 indicates working conditions - Not Tangible (general working conditions consisting of their feelings regarding respect and working relationships)

Tests of Normality

Q6	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Mean P2a – South African F1	.201	100	.000	.905	100	.000
Transport Other prov.	.158	46	.006	.938	46	.016
Mean_P2a_F2 South African	.240	100	.000	.775	100	.000
Facilities Other	.168	46	.002	.921	46	.004
Mean_P2b_F1 South African	.122	98	.001	.961	98	.005
Respect Other	.135	44	.043	.936	44	.016
GenWorkCon South African	.116	96	.003	.969	96	.021
Other	.147	43	.021	.960	43	.137
PromotionPot South African	.082	95	.123	.976	95	.073
Other	.121	42	.131	.967	42	.269
WorkRelation South African	.190	94	.000	.926	94	.000
Other	.135	41	.056	.944	41	.045
SkillsWorkAc South African	.158	94	.000	.957	94	.003
tiv						

	Other	.119	41	.152	.960	41	.154
WellBeing	South African	.172	95	.000	.912	95	.000
	Other	.081	41	.200*	.967	41	.269

*. This is a lower bound of the true significance.

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

Normality test results:

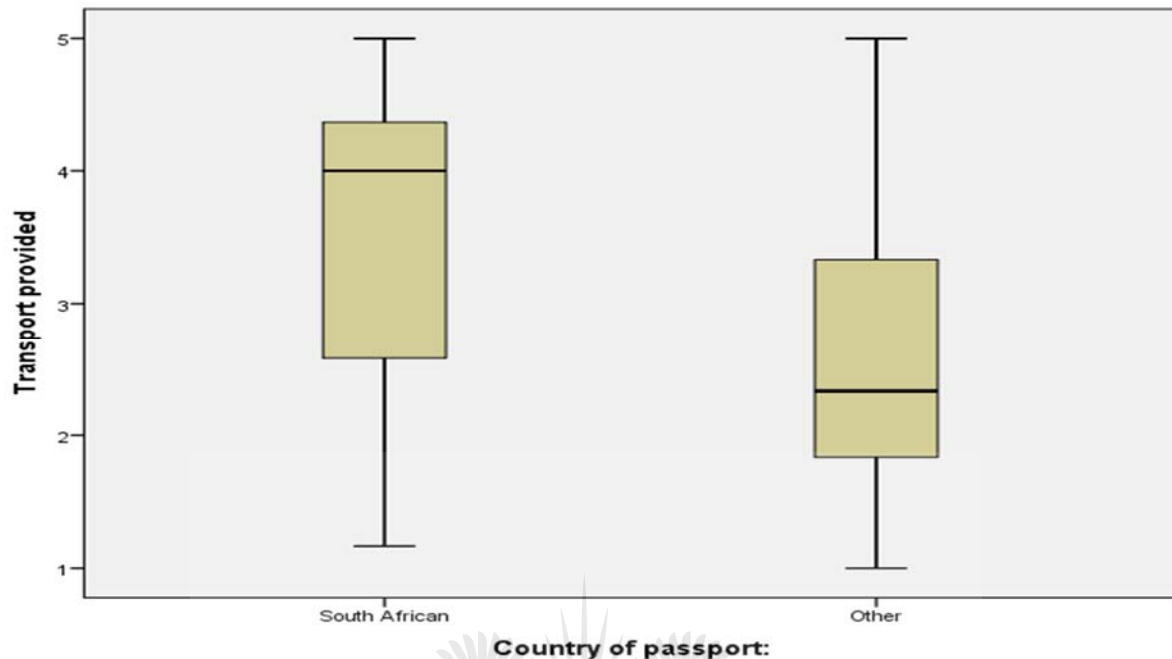
Question no. 6 Country of passport (South African / Other)

The Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was used for the South African group because it was more than 50 people while the Shapiro-Wilk test was used for the other group of other countries because it was less than 50.

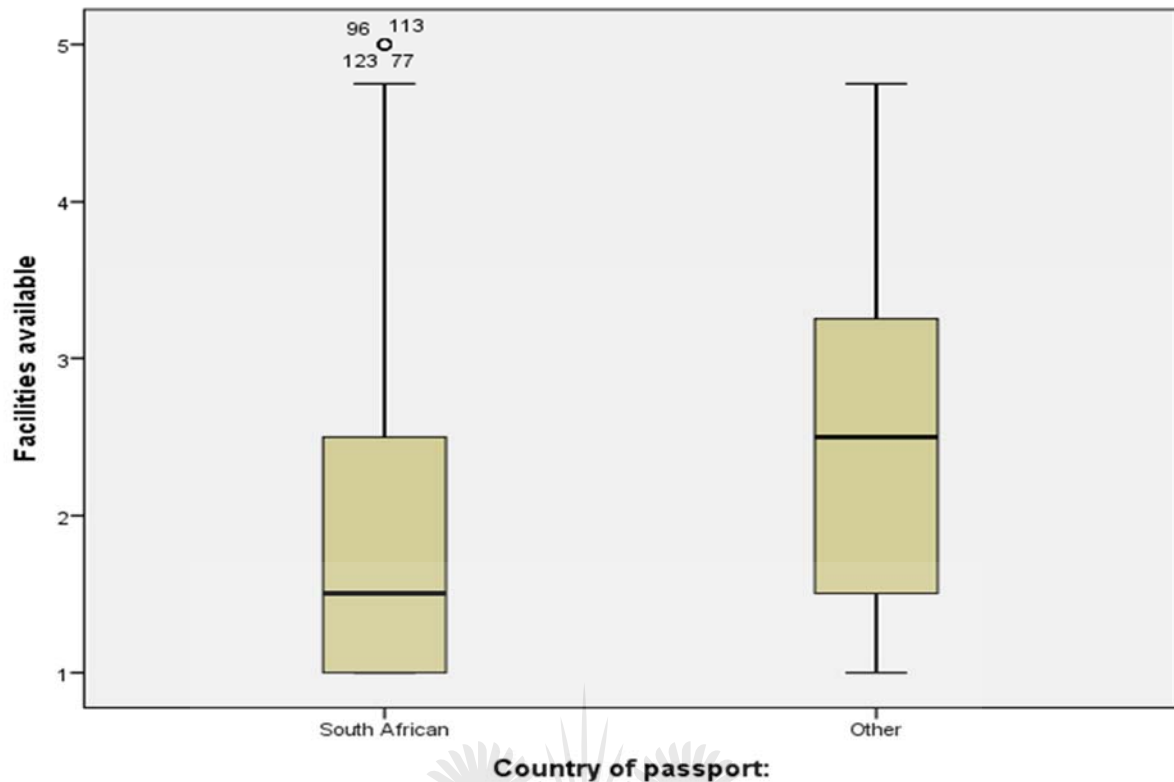
In the group of South African passport holders (country of origin) all p-values were below 0.05 (not normally distributed) except promotion potential which p-value is .123 (normally distributed), indicating that more participants declared to be South African. In the group not South African passport holders (not being the country of origin) all p-values were more than 0.05 (normally distributed) except P2a-F2 which p-value indicates a score below 0.05.

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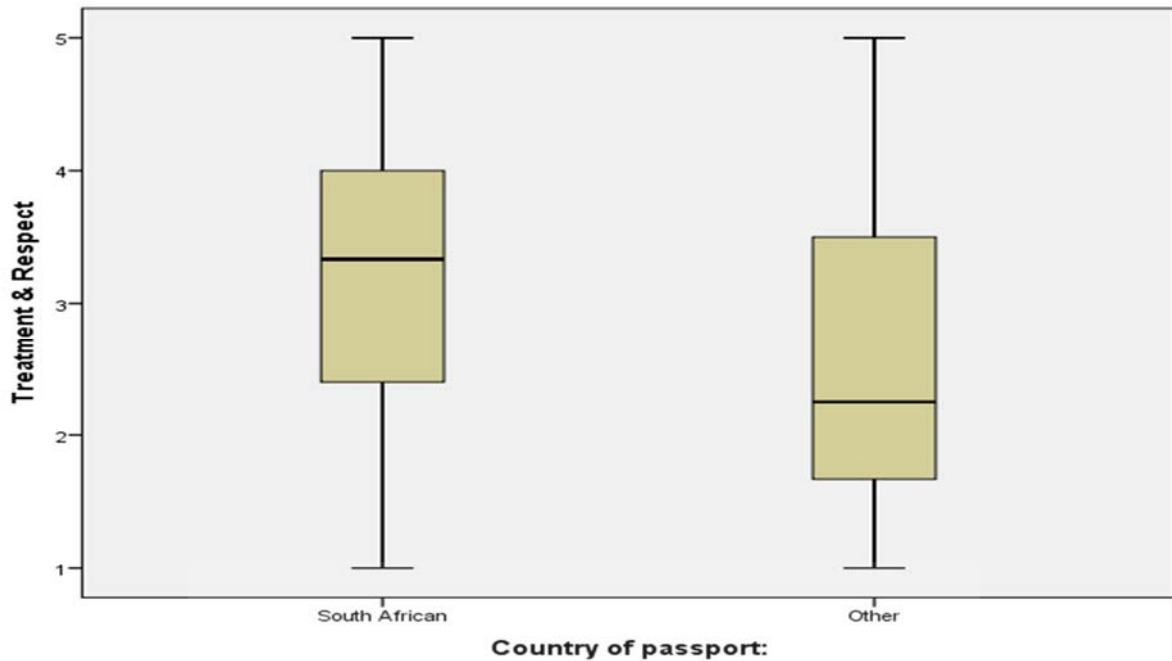
Box plot Question no.6



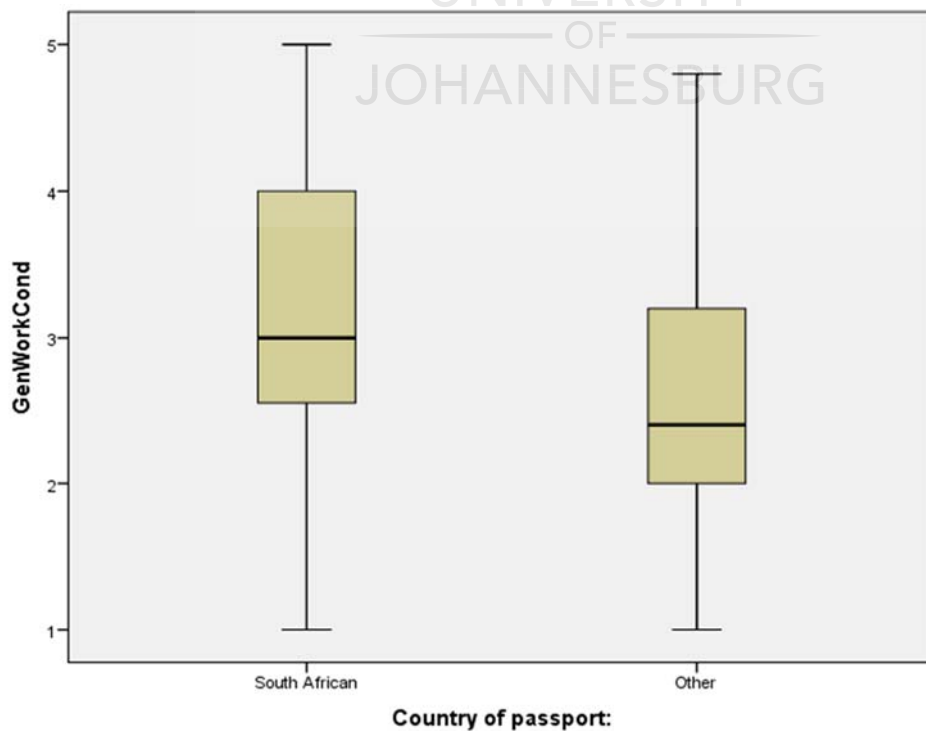
Question no. 6, the Boxplot indicates that the South African group scores were between minimum 1.167 and maximum 5, the median being 4. The other nationalities score between 1.1 and 4 with a median of 2.3. The Boxplot shows in the first tile a score of 1.1 to 2.6 meaning the lowest scores, the next tile 2.6 to 4 and the third tile 4 to 4.4. The picture clearly shows that the South African people are more positive and score higher towards sometimes and always while the other group scores more towards never and sometimes regarding transport provided. As the Histogram counts the people (respondents) the graph will tell you that there are quite a lot more people on the positive side going down to less on the negative side which is called "negative skewed". If the scores are normally distributed the Boxplot should be symmetrical which in this case it is not. The Boxplot indicates a big difference between the contributions of the groups, which is important to determine the tests to be used for the comparisons. As the scores are not normally distributed the tests used for the comparisons are nonparametric.



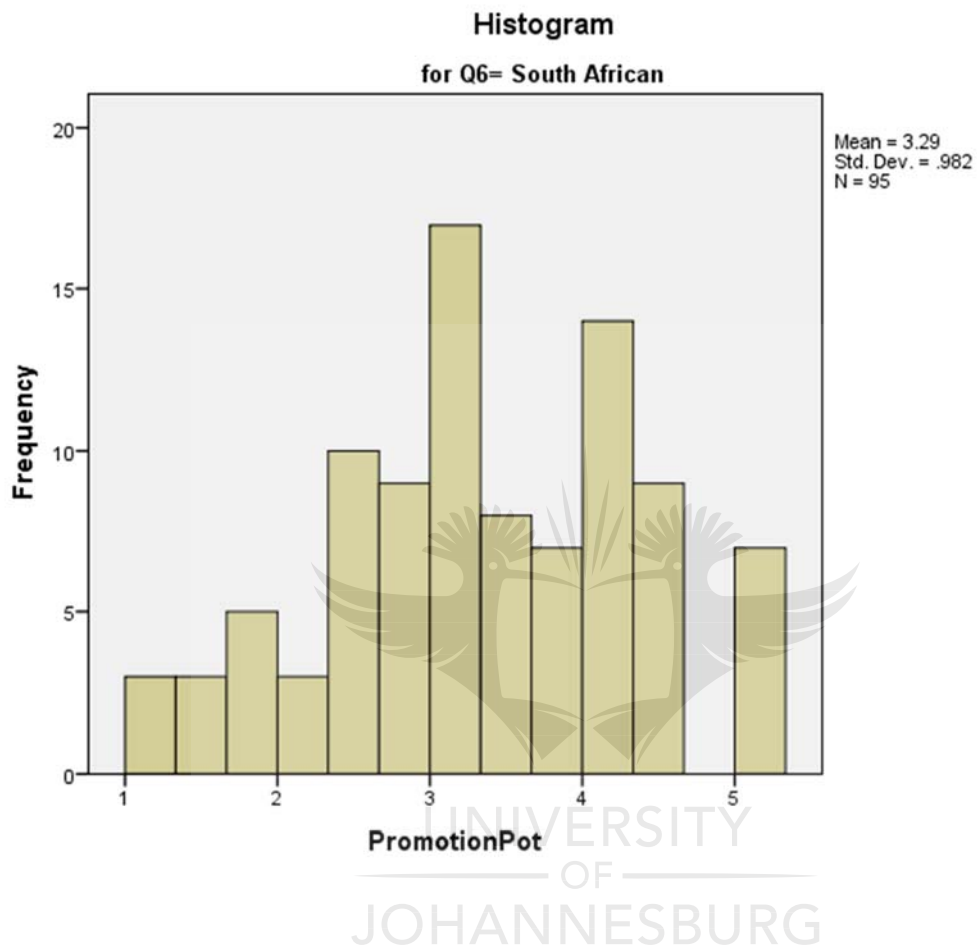
Both groups have p-values less than 0.05 showing a positive skewed result. Indicating that both groups have a rather negative score, the histograms above explain. The South African group scores between minimum 1 to maximum 5, the median being 1.5. The other nationalities score between minimum 1 to maximum 4.740, the median being 2.5. The score is not normally distributed showing a difference. Although the Histograms show that both groups are unhappy and score negative regarding benefits and facilities they receive or have access to, the group other nationalities are less negative. The research found that any facilities offered to migrant workers are appreciated.

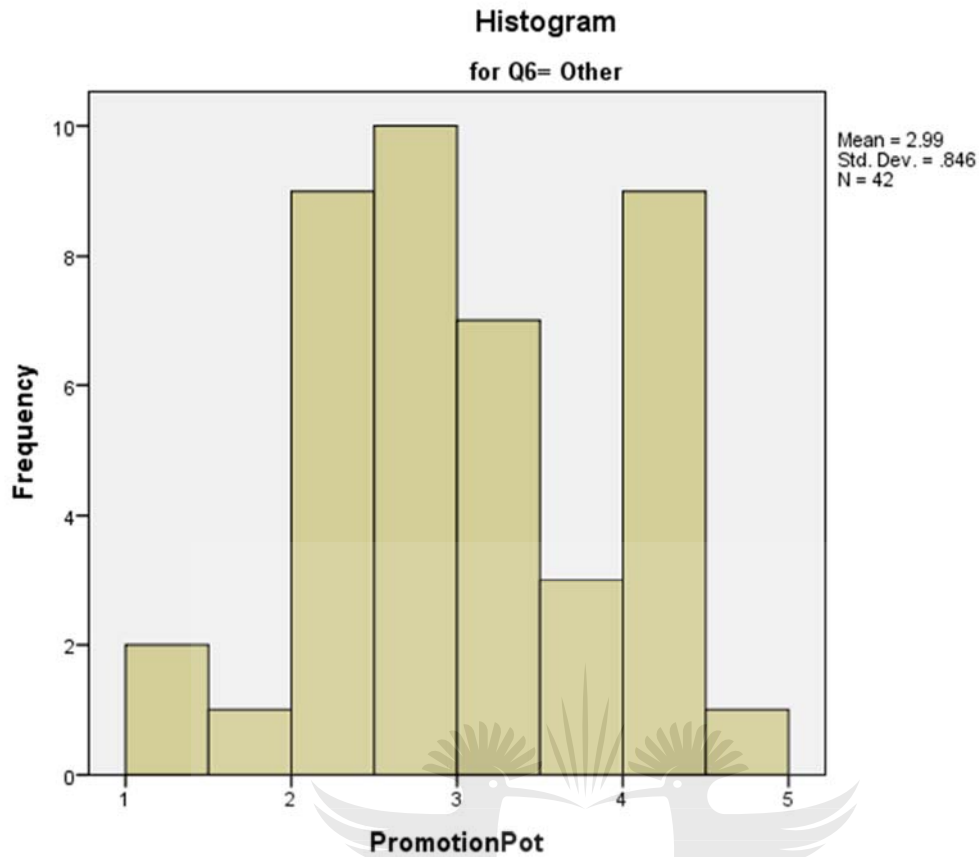


The South African group scores between minimum 1 to maximum 5, the median being 3.333. The other nationalities score between minimum 1 to maximum 5, the median being 2.250. The positive skewed results indicate that there is a rather big difference between the groups regarding their feelings of treatment and respect. The statistics confirm the research findings of poor treatment and less respect received by migrant workers.

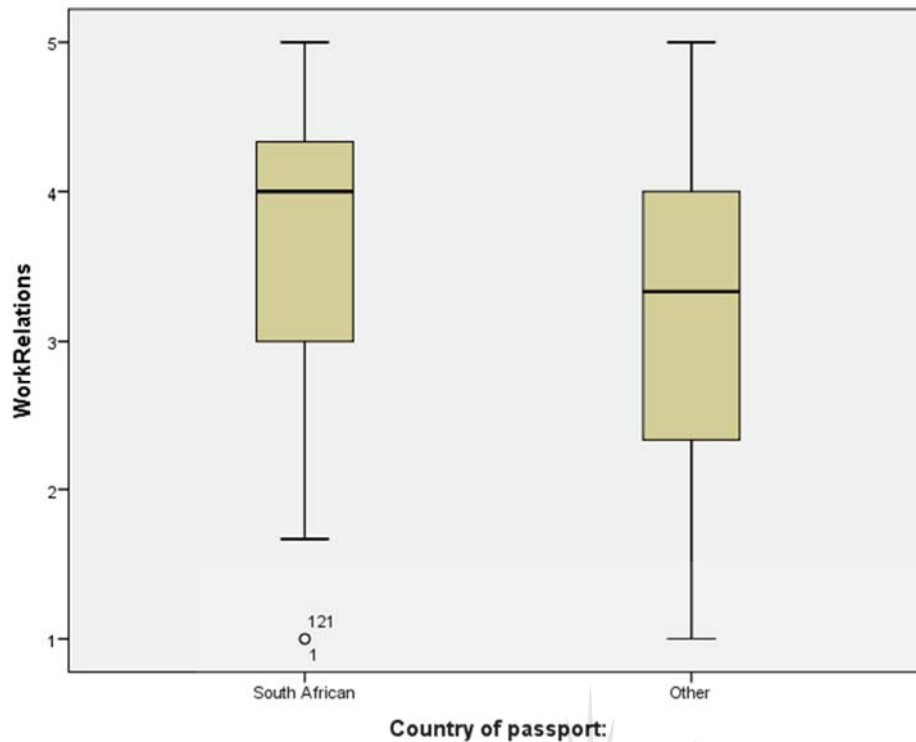


The South African group scores between minimum 1 to maximum 5, the median being 3. The other nationalities score between minimum 1 to maximum 4.8, the median being 2.4. The “not normal” distribution shows a big difference between the groups. Confirming the poor working conditions experienced by migrant workers.

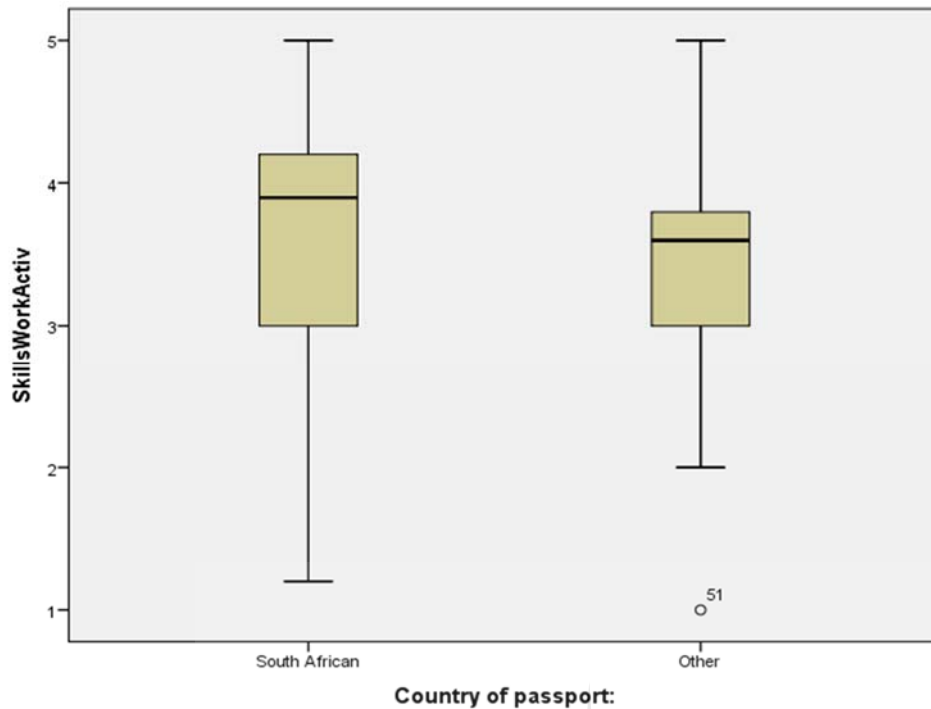




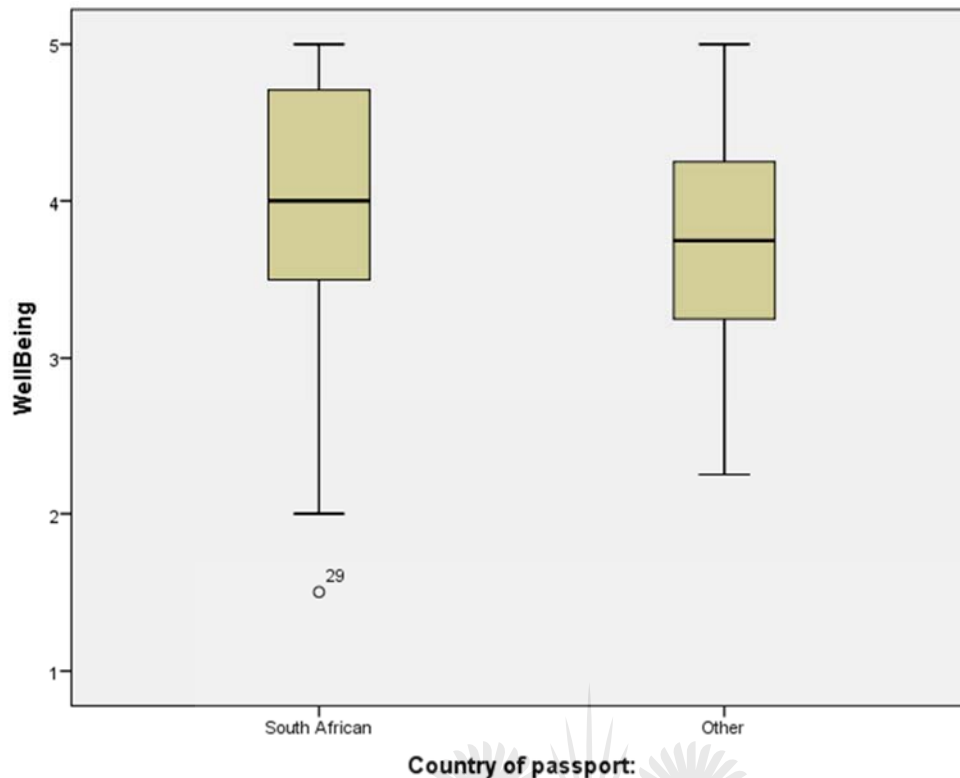
Promotion potential being the only variable were both groups score p-values higher than 0.05 indicating normal distribution. The South African group scores between minimum 1 to maximum 5, the median being 3.2. The other nationalities score between minimum 1 to maximum 4.6, the median being 2.8. The normal distribution and p-values show that both groups feel the same regarding promotional potential in their work place. Although this variable is normally distributed the research will apply the parametric test for the comparisons.



The South African group scores between minimum 1 to maximum 5, the median being 4. The other nationalities score between minimum 1 to maximum 5, the median being 3.333. The boxplot shows a negative skewed result for the South African group who are substantially more satisfied in their work relations than the group of other nationalities. Confirming the difficulties migrants experience regarding their acceptance and integration into the workplace as found in this research (Mosala, 2008)



The South African group scores between minimum 1.2 to maximum 5, the median being 3.9. Although it shows some outliers, the boxplot shows for both groups a score indicating relative satisfaction regarding Skills work activity. Skills work activity refers in the research to the job knowledge of the temporary employees and the actual work they perform at the venues they work for (user enterprises, the client). The response in the questionnaires was as such interpreted by the participants of the survey. During further questioning and the general perception uncovered by the research shows that the skills levels of the temporary employees is not in question or addressed by the client. The client presumes that the employees sent to them is able to perform the required duties. The above statistics confirm that the employees are performing duties well in their scope of knowledge, experience and capabilities. The research however concluded that neither the agency, nor the client, are really interested in the actual capabilities of the employees. The agency wants to satisfy the low skills needed for the clients at a relative low cost, which they then recover by paying the employees lower wages. The client wants temporary employees who can perform low skilled jobs at a low cost and without being held accountable for anything else than to pay the agency.



The South African group scores between minimum 1.5 to maximum 5, the median being 4. The other nationalities score between minimum 2.250 to maximum 5. The median being 3.750.

The South African group is, despite a number of outliers, satisfied regarding their wellbeing. The group of other nationalities are reasonable satisfied about their wellbeing. The research, however, found during the survey process and questioning that the group of nationalities are in general happy because they come from countries where there are no opportunities, and in general poor living conditions exist.

Normality test results: Question no. 38 Do you feel the current economic crisis is the reason you cannot find permanent employment?

The tests of Normality tables will indicate a column df which is the Degree of freedom score. The Sig. which means Significant is the p-value. If the p-value is less than 0.05 it is not normally distributed, where it is more than 0.05 it indicates normal distribution. Not normally distributed on the table is highlighted in **red**, while normal distribution is highlighted in **blue**. The Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was used for the group answering “**yes**” because it was more than 50 people while the Shapiro-Wilk test was used for the other group answering “**no**” because it was less than 50. In the

group answering “**yes**” half the p-values were more than 0.05 (normally distributed) while the other half scored p-values less than 0.05 (not normally distributed). In the group answering “**no**” also half the p-values were more than 0.05 (normally distributed) while the other half scored p-values less than 0.05.

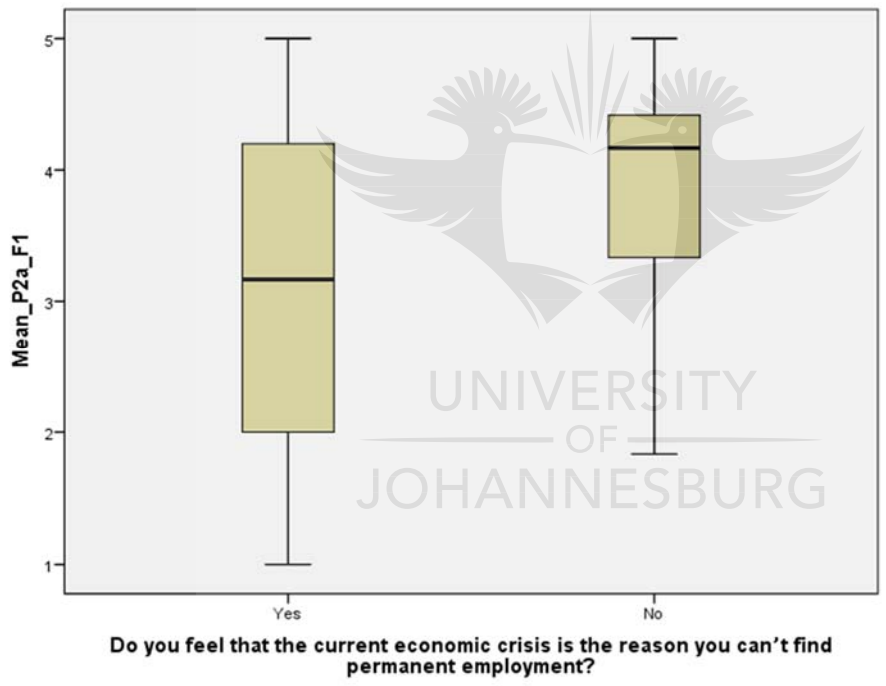
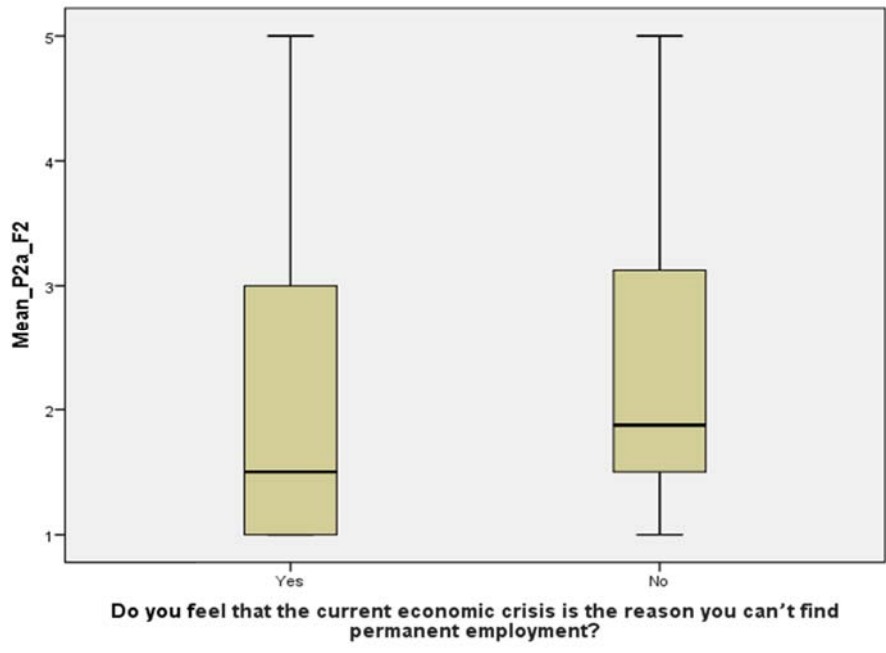
Tests of Normality
 a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

Q38	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Mean_P2a_ Yes F1	.167	85	.000	.916	85	.000
Transport No prov.	.182	44	.001	.905	44	.002
Mean_P2a_ Yes F2	.218	85	.000	.835	85	.000
Facilities No	.210	44	.000	.847	44	.000
Mean_P2b_ Yes F1	.111	84	.013	.952	84	.003
Respect No	.154	43	.012	.926	43	.008
GenWorkCo Yes nd	.111	82	.015	.964	82	.022
No	.116	43	.168	.967	43	.239
PromotionPo Yes t	.091	81	.091	.981	81	.286
No	.204	42	.000	.886	42	.001
WorkRelatio Yes ns	.142	79	.000	.948	79	.003
No	.286	42	.000	.836	42	.000
SkillsWorkAc Yes tiv	.118	79	.008	.974	79	.113

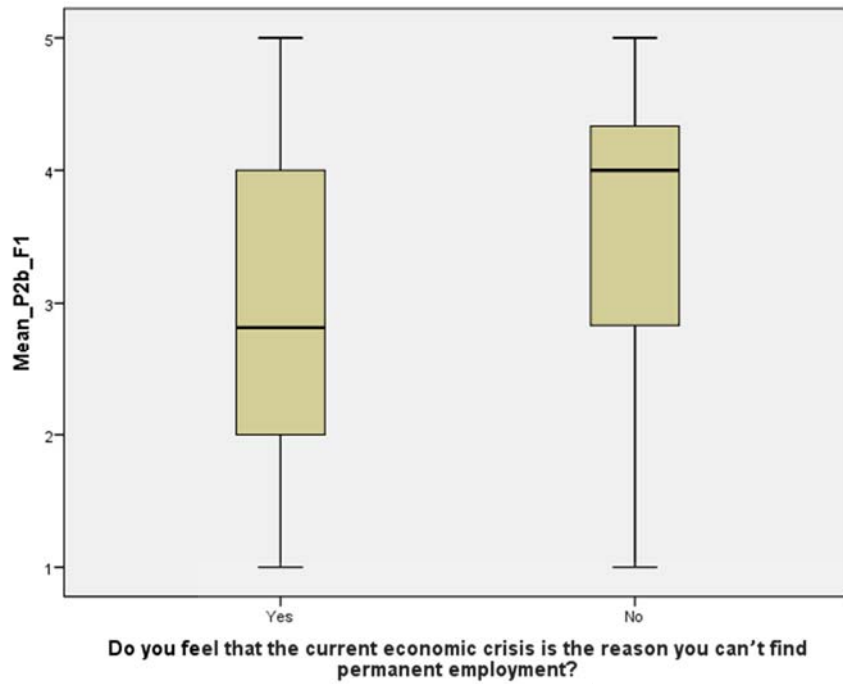
	No	.118	42	.157	.927	42	.010
WellBeing	Yes	.153	80	.000	.932	80	.000
	No	.115	43	.182	.921	43	.006

“Yes” scores minimum 1 to maximum 5, the median being 3.167. “No” scores minimum 1.833 to maximum 4.167.

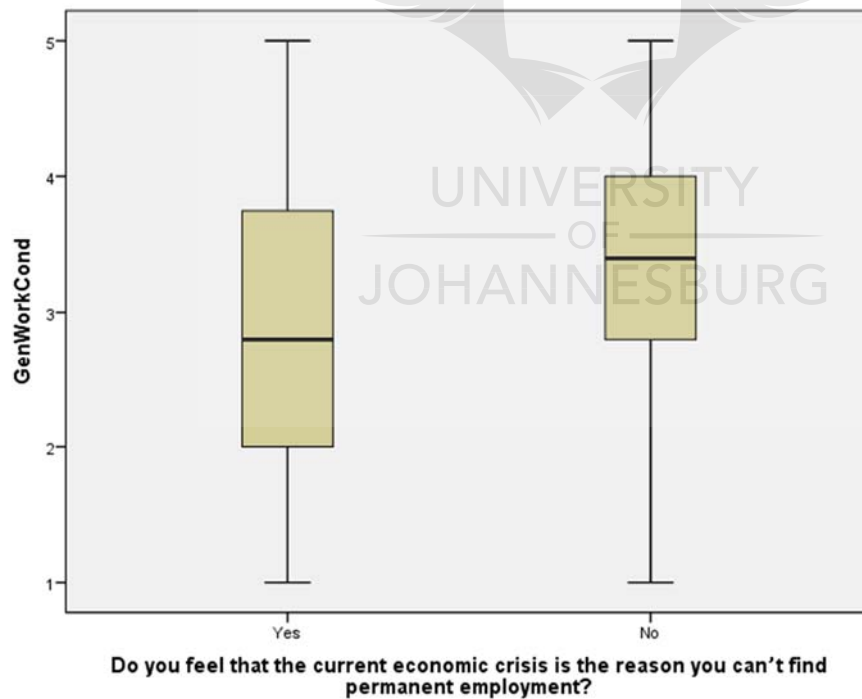




“Yes” scores minimum 1 to maximum 5, the median being 1.5. “No” scores minimum 1 to maximum 5, the median being 1.875.



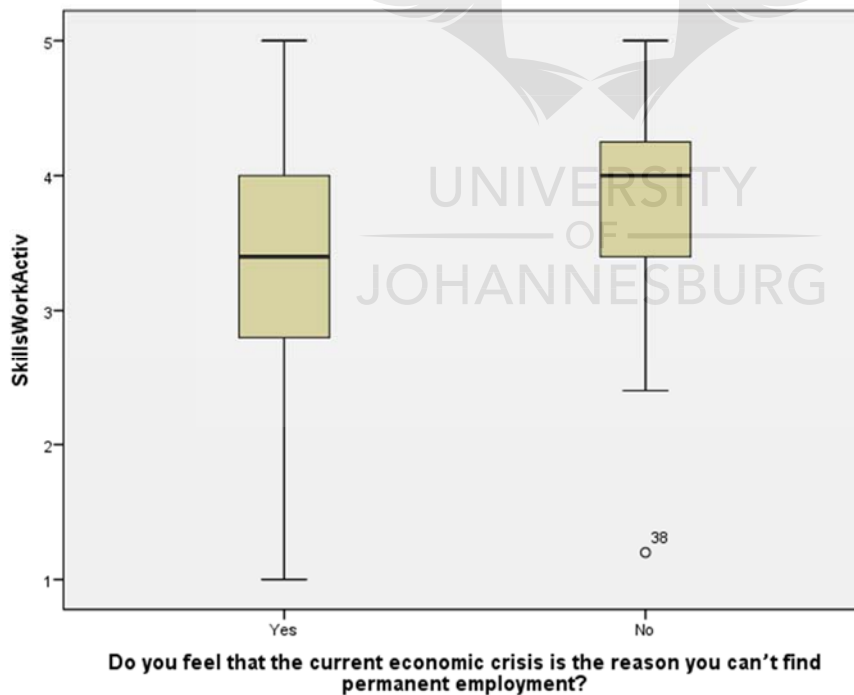
“Yes” scores minimum 1 to maximum 5, the median being 2.817. “No” scores minimum 1 to maximum 5, the median being 4.



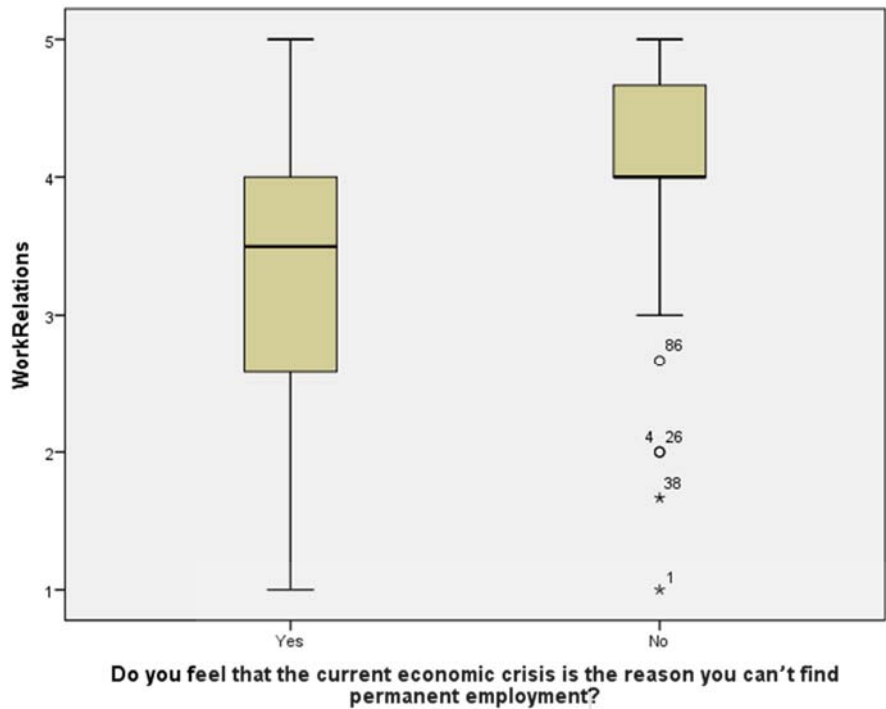
“Yes” scores minimum 1 to maximum 5, the median being 2.8. “No” scores minimum 1 to maximum 5, the median being 3.4



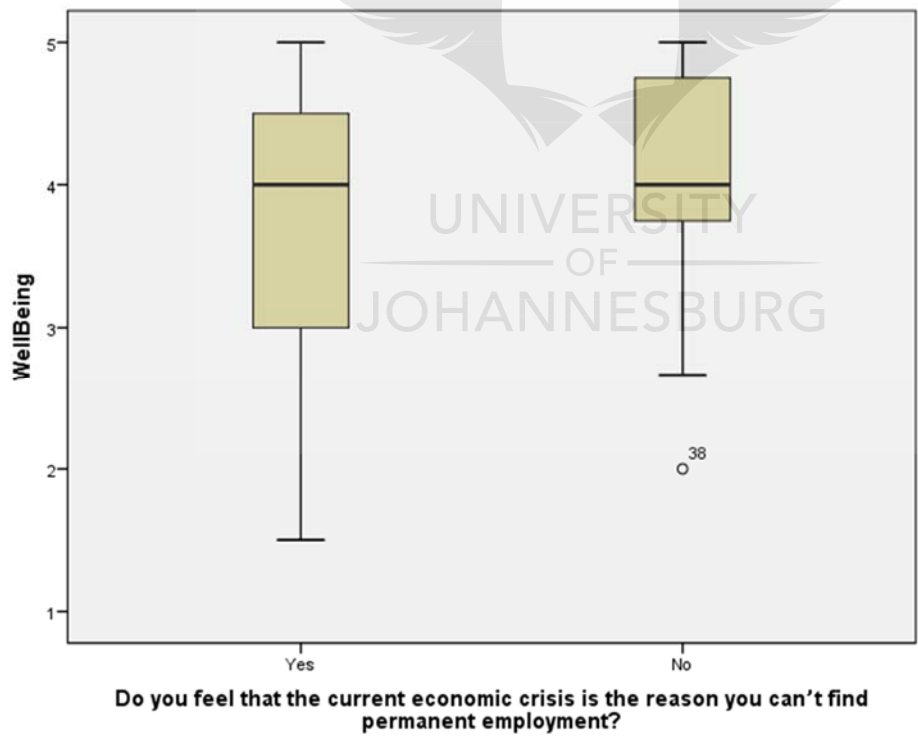
“Yes” scores minimum 1 to maximum 5, the median being 2.8. “No” scores minimum 1 to maximum 5, the median being 3.8.



“Yes” scores minimum 1 to 5, the median being 3.4. “No” scores minimum 1.2 to maximum 5, the median being 4.



“Yes” scores minimum 1 to 5, the median being 3.5. “No” scores minimum 1 to maximum 5, the median being 4.



“Yes” scores minimum 1.5 to maximum 5, the median being 4. “No” scores minimum 2 to maximum 5, the median being 4.

The descriptives indicate that all variables have a majority “Yes” score which indicates that the majority of respondents feel that the below listed issues are influenced by the economic crisis, resulting in temporary employees not being able to find permanent employment. In relation to “No” scores only the wellbeing variable indicates that both “Yes” and “No” responses feel the same.

- transport provided,
- availability of facilities,
- respect and treatment,
- general working conditions,
- promotional potential,
- work relations,
- skills work activity
- wellbeing

Normality tests results Question no. 39 Have you ever received an offer of permanent employment while working for an agency in South Africa ?

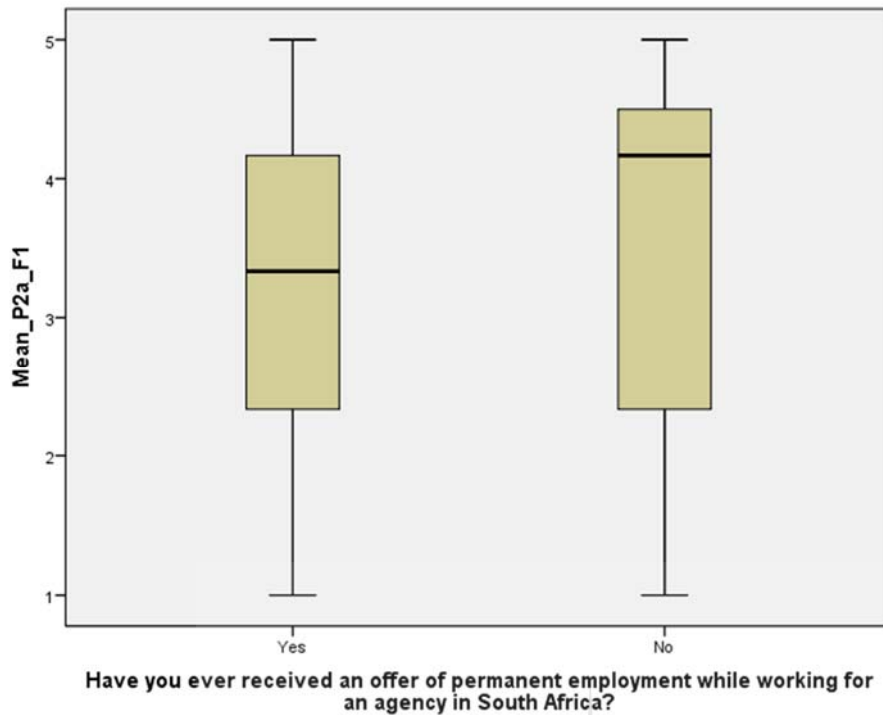
The tests of Normality tables will indicate a column df which is the Degree of freedom score. The Sig. which means Significant is the p-value. If the p-value is less than 0.05 it is not normally distributed, where it is more than 0.05 it indicates normal distribution. Not normally distributed on the table is highlighted in **red**, while normal distribution is highlighted in **blue**. The Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was used for both groups because both had more than 50 people answering. In the group answering “**yes**” 6 of the p-values were less than 0.05 (not normal distribution) while 3 p-values were more than 0.05 (normal distribution). In the group answering “**no**” 5 of the p-values were over 0.05 (normal distribution) while 3 p-values were less than 0.05 (not normal distribution).

Tests of Normality

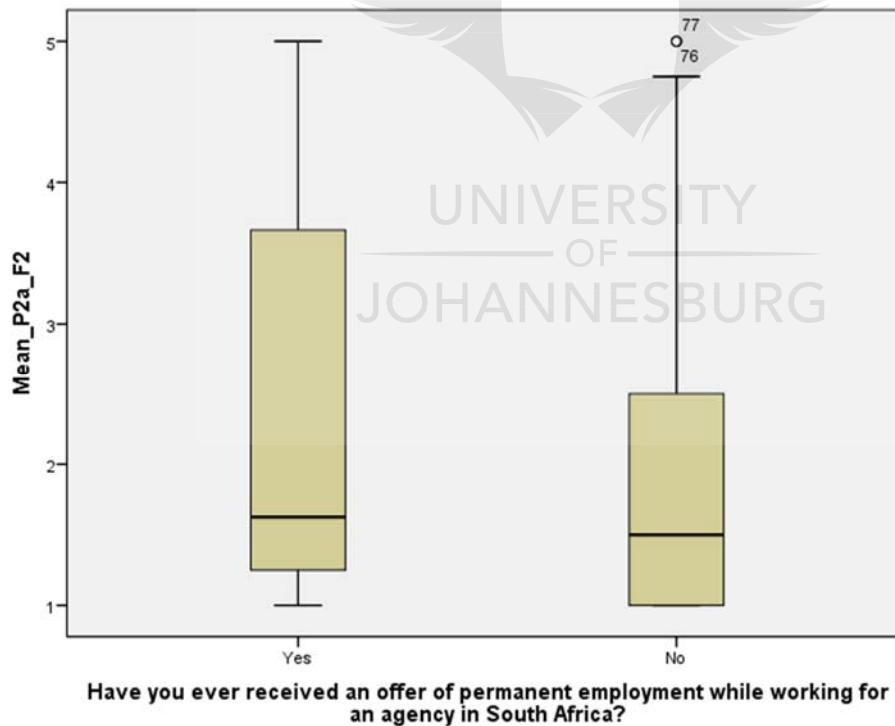
Q39	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Mean_P2a_F Yes 1	.134	54	.017	.949	54	.023

	No	.227	77	.000	.875	77	.000
Mean_P2a_F	Yes	.244	54	.000	.843	54	.000
2	No	.193	77	.000	.834	77	.000
Mean_P2b_F	Yes	.127	52	.036	.938	52	.010
1	No	.110	77	.021	.949	77	.004
GenWorkCon	Yes	.126	53	.036	.939	53	.010
d	No	.100	75	.063	.983	75	.401
PromotionPot	Yes	.130	53	.026	.963	53	.103
	No	.094	73	.181	.966	73	.045
WorkRelation	Yes	.189	53	.000	.928	53	.003
s	No	.176	72	.000	.922	72	.000
SkillsWorkAc	Yes	.119	53	.058	.962	53	.094
tiv	No	.145	72	.001	.954	72	.010
WellBeing	Yes	.156	53	.003	.873	53	.000
	No	.132	73	.003	.959	73	.018

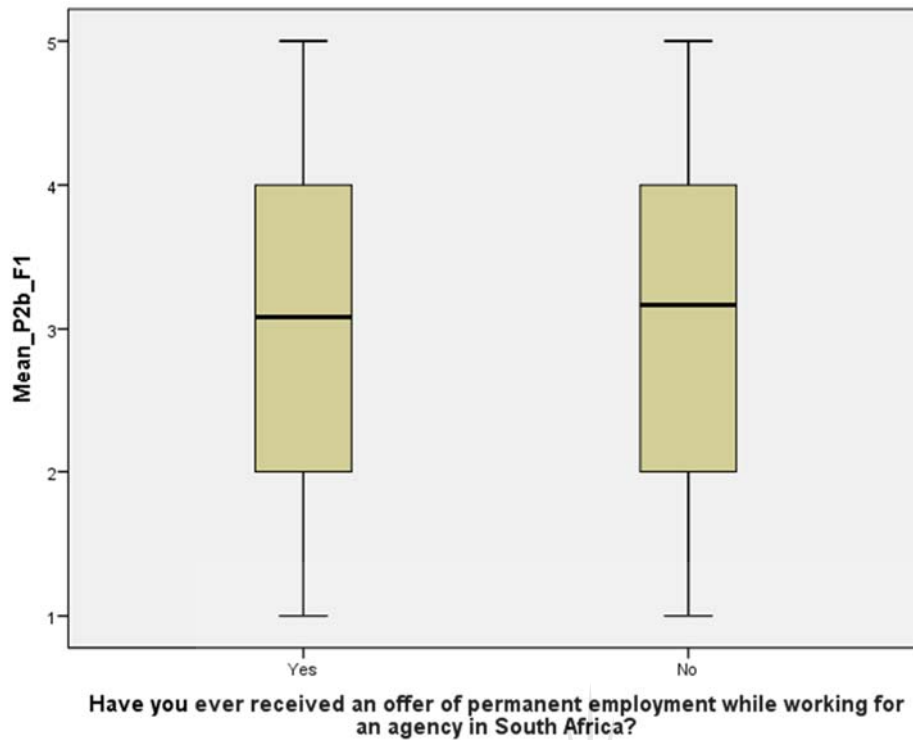
a. Lilliefors Significance Correction



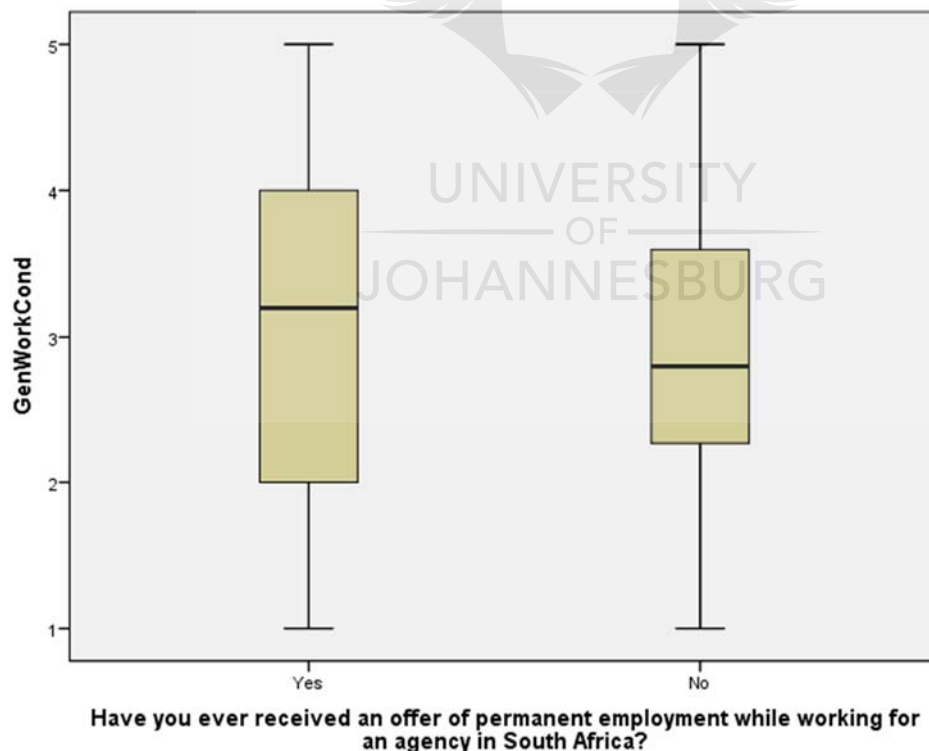
“Yes” scores minimum 1 to maximum 5, the median being 3.333. “No” scores minimum 1 to maximum 5, the median being 4.167



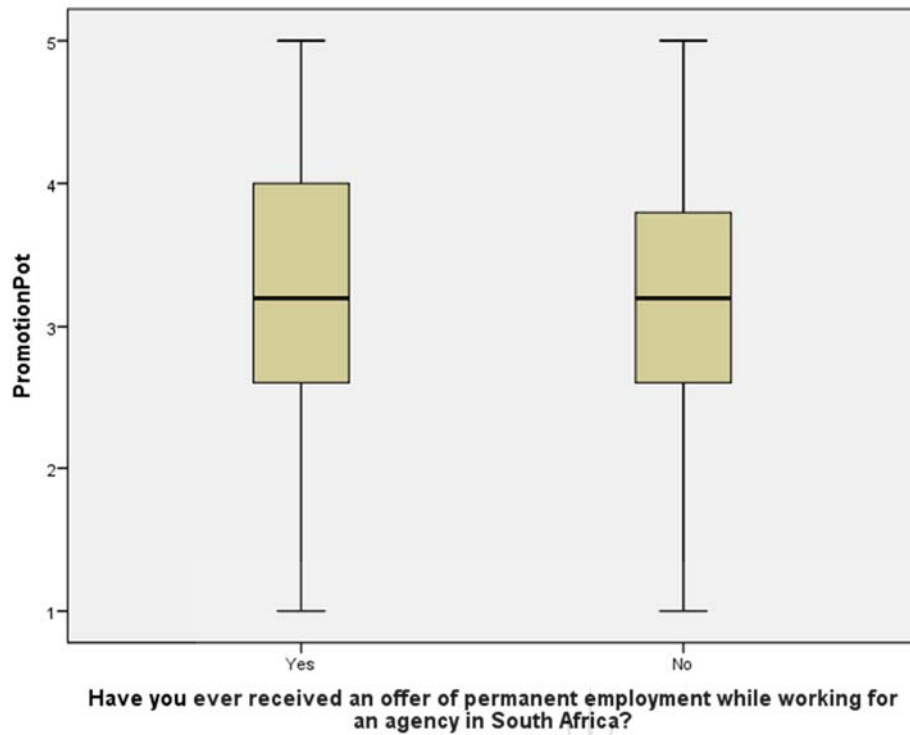
“Yes” scores minimum 1 to maximum 5, the median being 1.625. “No” scores minimum 1 to maximum 5, the median being 1.5.



“Yes” scores minimum 1 to maximum 5, the median being 3.083. “No” scores minimum 1 to maximum 5, the median being 3.167.



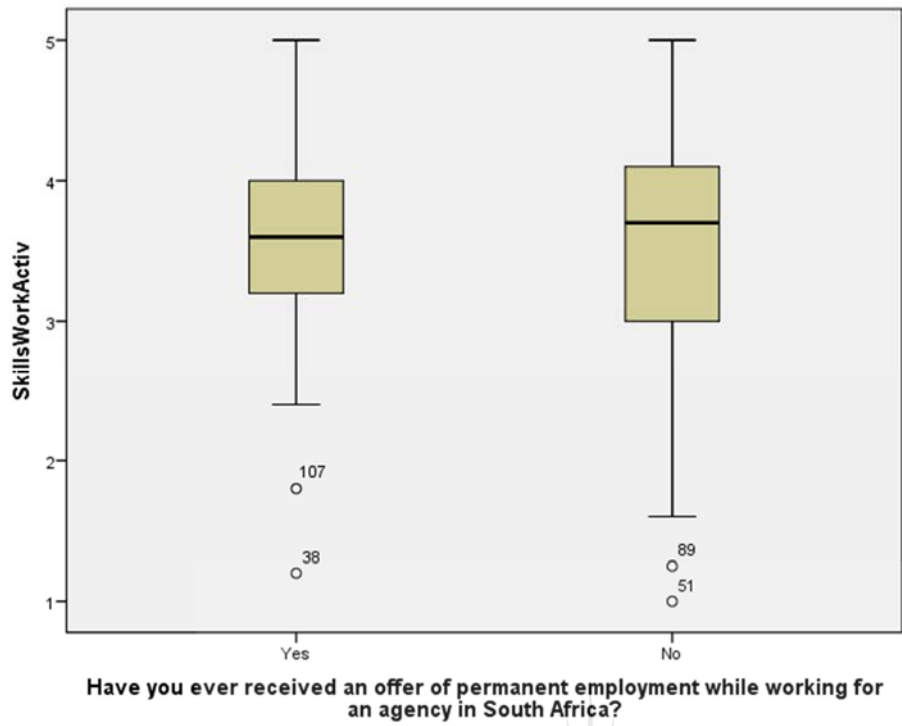
“Yes” scores minimum 1 to maximum 5, the median being 3.2. “No” scores minimum 1 to maximum 5, the median being 2.8.



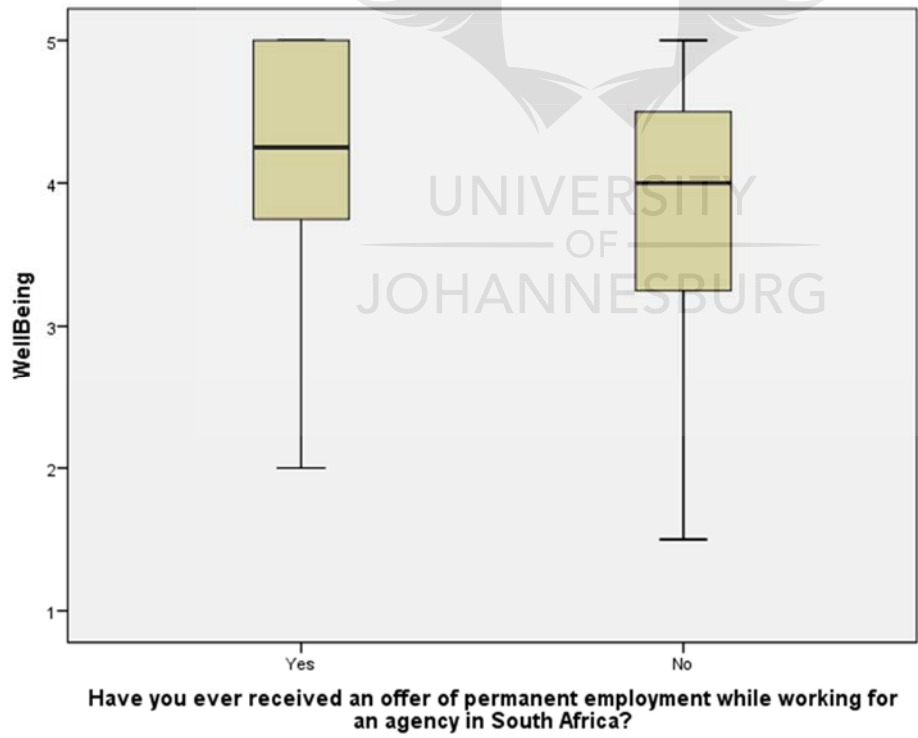
“Yes” scores minimum 1 to maximum 5, the median being 3.2. “No” scores minimum 1 to maximum 5, the median being 3.2.



“Yes” scores minimum 1 to maximum 5, the median being 4. “No” scores minimum 1 to maximum 5, the median being 4.



“Yes” scores minimum 1.2 to maximum 5, the median being 3.6. “No” scores minimum 1 to maximum 5, the median being 3.7.



“Yes” scores minimum 2 to maximum 5, the median being 4.250. “No” scores minimum 1.5 to maximum 5, the median being 4.

Normality Tests results Question no. 43 Do you see a future in this industry ?

The tests of Normality tables will indicate a column df which is the Degree of freedom score. The Sig. which means Significant is the p-value. If the p-value is less than 0.05 it is not normally distributed, where it is more than 0.05 it indicates normal distribution. Not normally distributed on the table is highlighted in **red**, while normal distribution is highlighted in **blue**. The Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was used for the group answering “**yes**” because it was more than 50 people while the Shapiro-Wilk test was used for the other group answering “**no**” because it was less than 50. In the group answering “**yes**” 6 of the p-values were less than 0.05 (not normally distributed) and 2 p-values were more than 0.05 (normally distributed) while the other group answering “**no**” 6 of the p-values were more than 0.05 (normally distributed) and 2 p-values were less than 0.05 (not normally distributed).

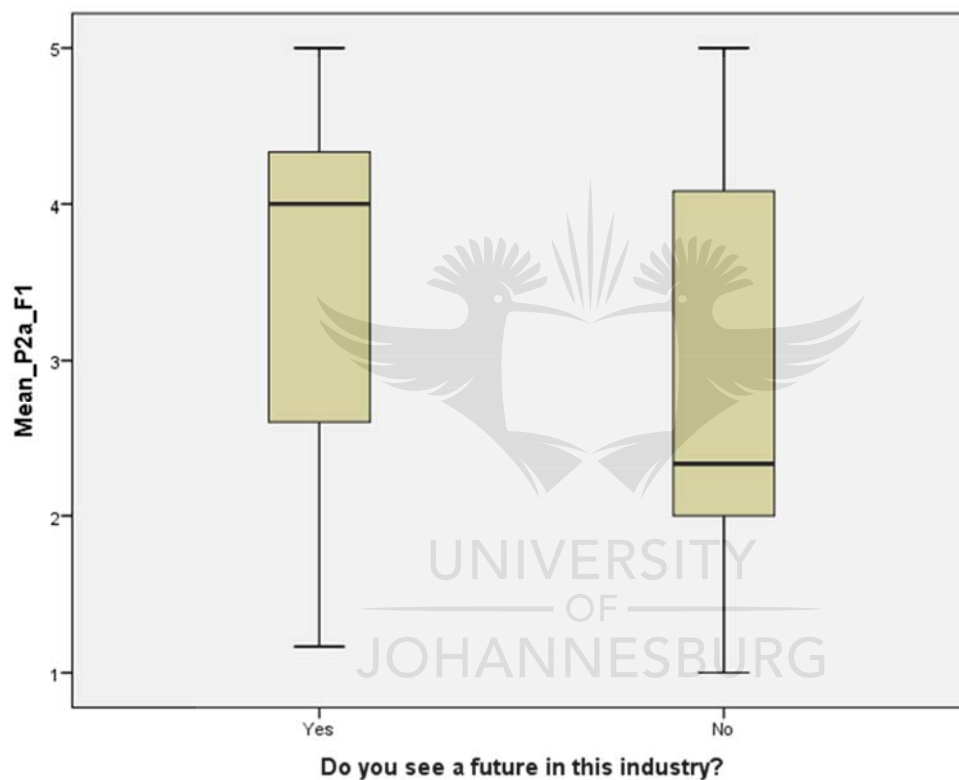
Tests of Normality

Q43	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Mean_P2a_F Yes 1	.196	94	.000	.894	94	.000
	No	.200	39	.000	.914	39
Mean_P2a_F Yes 2	.236	94	.000	.828	94	.000
	No	.160	39	.013	.872	39
Mean_P2b_F Yes 1	.114	93	.004	.957	93	.004
	No	.131	38	.095	.902	38
GenWorkCon Yes d	.109	91	.009	.967	91	.020
	No	.152	38	.028	.926	38
PromotionPot Yes	.102	90	.022	.974	90	.073
	No	.135	37	.085	.964	37
WorkRelation Yes s	.211	88	.000	.903	88	.000
	No	.093	37	.200*	.949	37

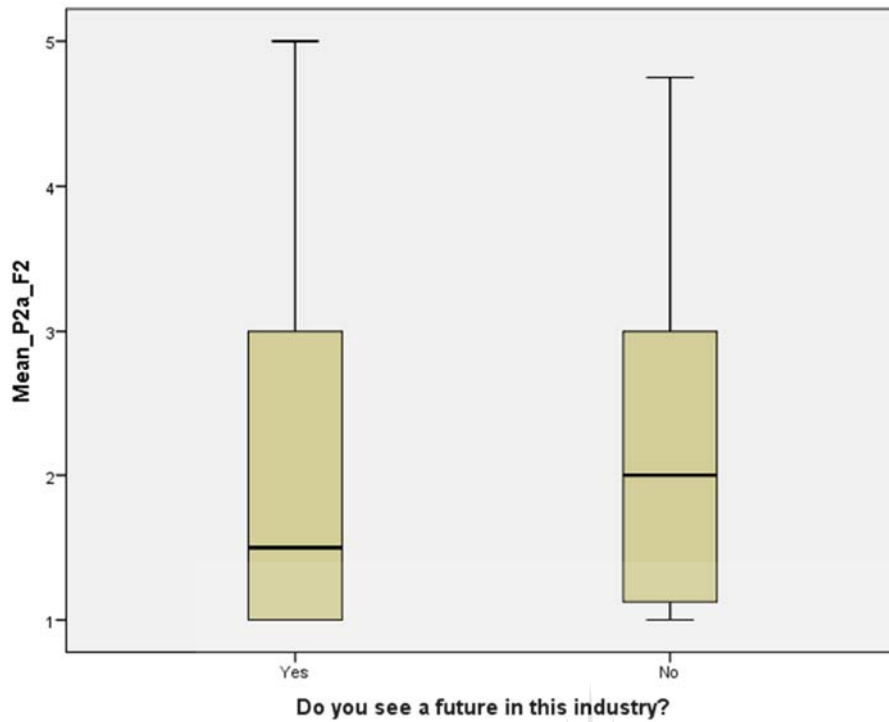
SkillsWorkAc	Yes	.124	88	.002	.963	88	.012
	No	.097	37	.200*	.971	37	.430
WellBeing	Yes	.148	89	.000	.922	89	.000
	No	.118	38	.200*	.936	38	.032

*. This is a lower bound of the true significance.

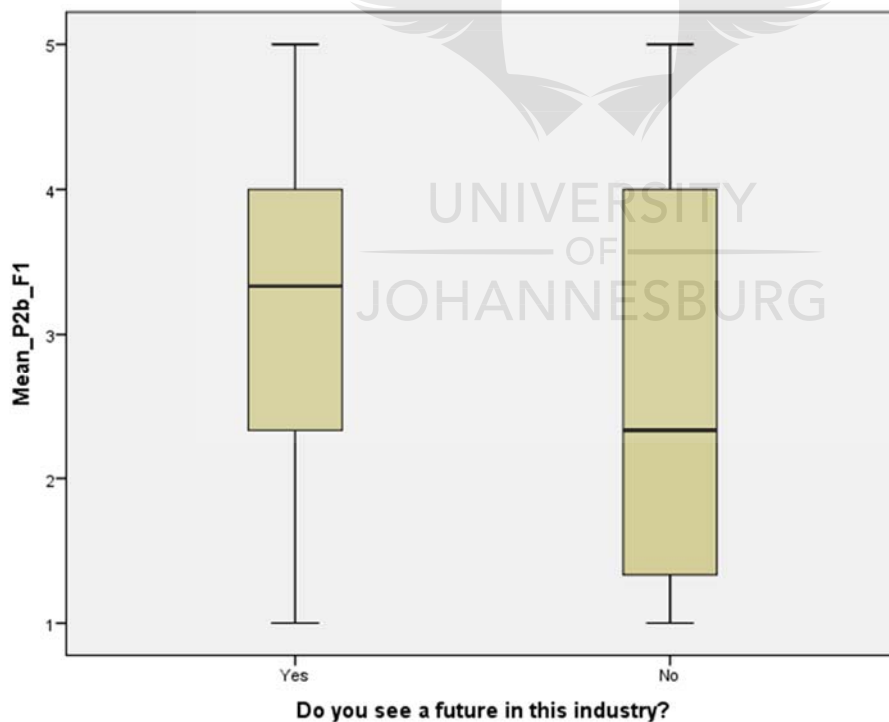
a. Lilliefors Significance Correction



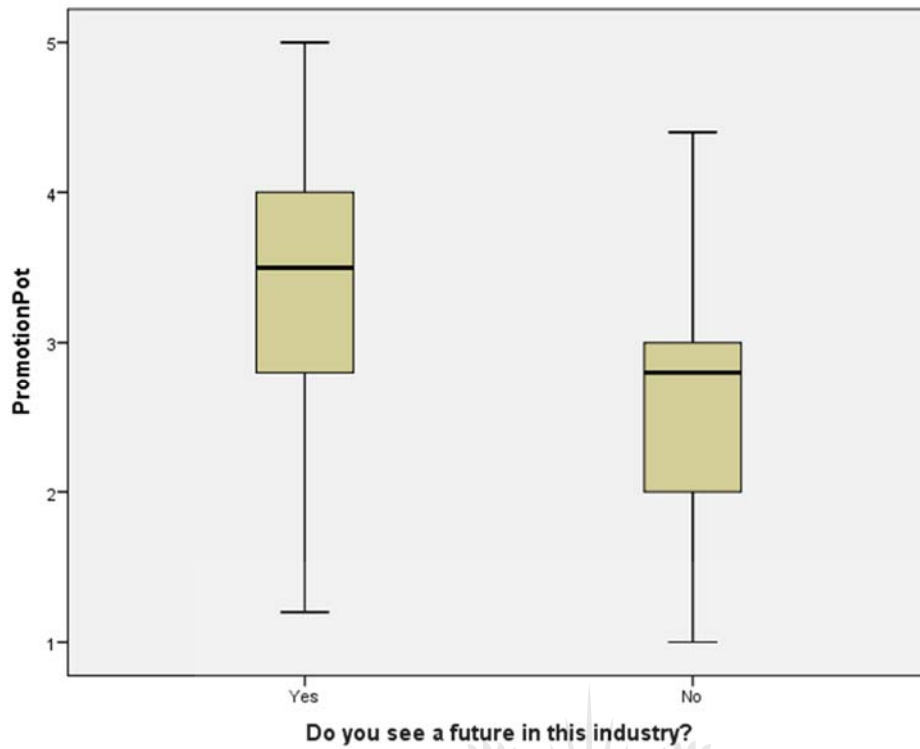
“Yes” scores minimum 1.167 to maximum 5, the median being 4. “No” scores minimum 1 to maximum 5, the median being 2.333.



“Yes” scores minimum 1 to maximum 5, the median being 1.5. “No” scores minimum 1 to maximum 4.750, the median being 2.



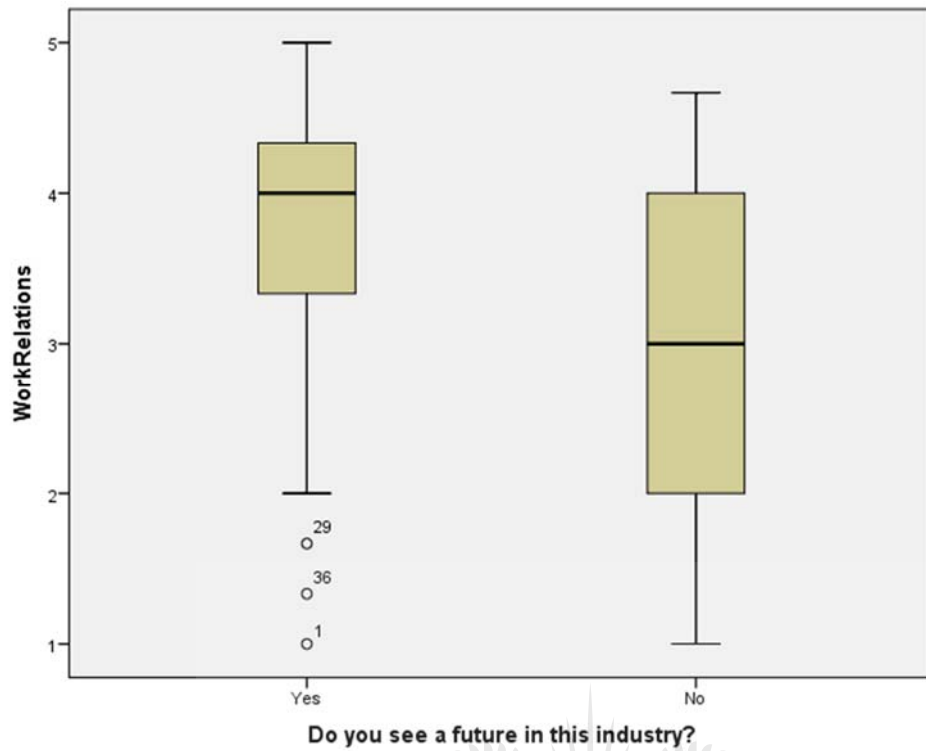
“Yes” scores minimum 1 to maximum 5, the median being 3.333. “No” scores minimum 1 to maximum 5, the median being 2.333.



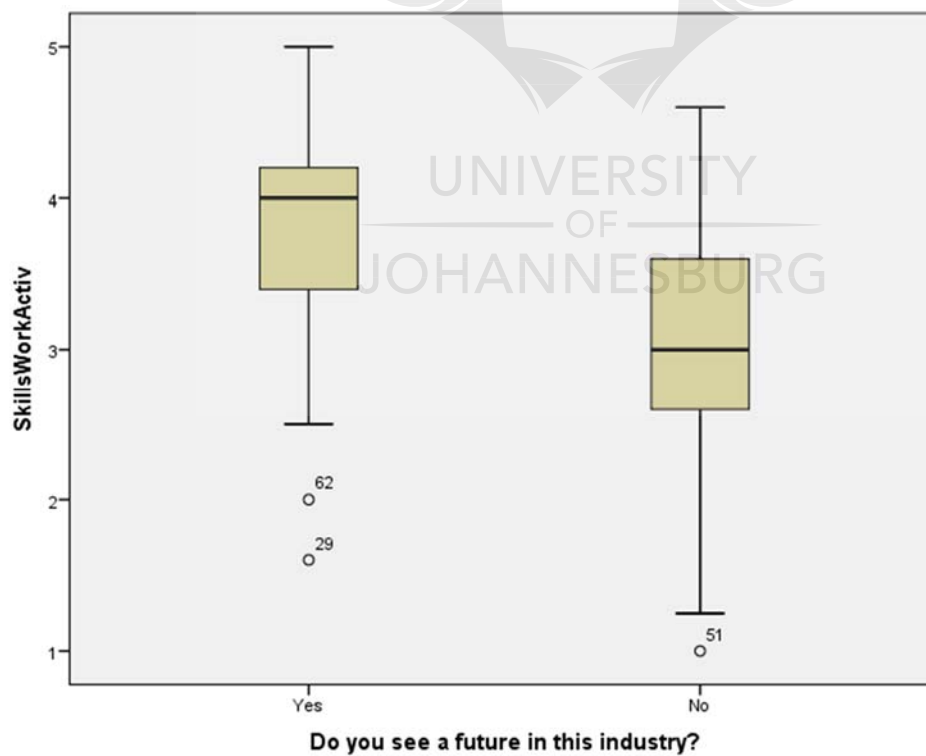
“Yes” scores minimum 1.2 to maximum 5, the median being 3.5. “No” scores minimum 1 to maximum 4.4, the median being 2.8.



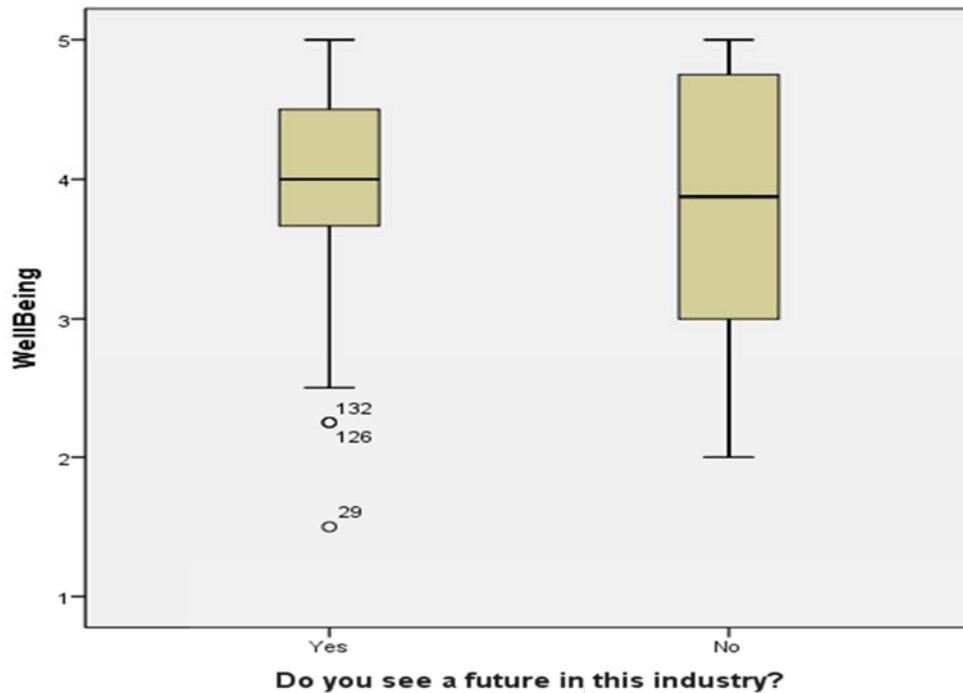
“Yes” scores minimum 1.4 to 5, the median being 3.2. “No” scores minimum 1 to maximum 4.6, the median being 2.1.



“Yes” scores minimum 1 to maximum 5, the median being 4. “No’ scores minimum 1 to maximum 4.6, the median being 3.



“Yes’ scores minimum 1.6 to maximum 5, the median being 4. “No” score minimum 1 to maximum 4.6, the median being 3.



“Yes” scores minimum 1.5 to maximum 5, the median being 4. “No” scores minimum 2 to maximum 5, the median being 3.875.

Normality Tests results Question no. 13 How long have you employed with the agency you currently work for ?

The tests of Normality tables will indicate a column df which is the Degree of freedom score. The Sig. which means Significant is the p-value. If the p-value is less than 0.05 it is not normally distributed, where it is more than 0.05 it indicates normal distribution. Not normally distributed on the table is highlighted in **red**, while normal distribution is highlighted in **blue**. In order to make the group similar in size for comparisons, the original group of 5 – 10 years and the group more than 10 years (consisting of 9 – 18 respondents) were made into one group “more than 5 years”. That is why the r in front of question 13 is an indication that the question had been recoded. (r13). The first group of less than 1 year is tested using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov (more than 50 respondents) and the other three groups using the Shapiro-Wilk test (less than 50 respondents). In the **first** group “less than 1 year”, 3 of the p-values were less than 0.05 (not normally distributed) and 4 of the p-values were more than 0.05 (normally distributed) while the last measure “well-being” was tested using the Shapiro-Wilk test. The group was smaller than 50. In the **second** group “1 to 2 years”, 5 of the p-values were more than 0.05 (normally distributed) and 3 of the

p-values were less than 0.05 (not normally distributed). In the **third** group “2 to 5 years”, the p-values were more than 0.05 (normally distributed) except for the “Mean P2a-F2” which was less than 0.05 (not normally distributed). In the **fourth** group “more than 5 years”, 6 of the p-values were more than 0.05 (normally distributed) while 2 p-values were less than 0.05 (not normally distributed). Although the table below shows that just over half of the variables are not normally distributed, some groups were normally distributed. The groups are however quite small in number of participants (df) which is fine for statistical testing, therefore the research will use nonparametric tests as well.

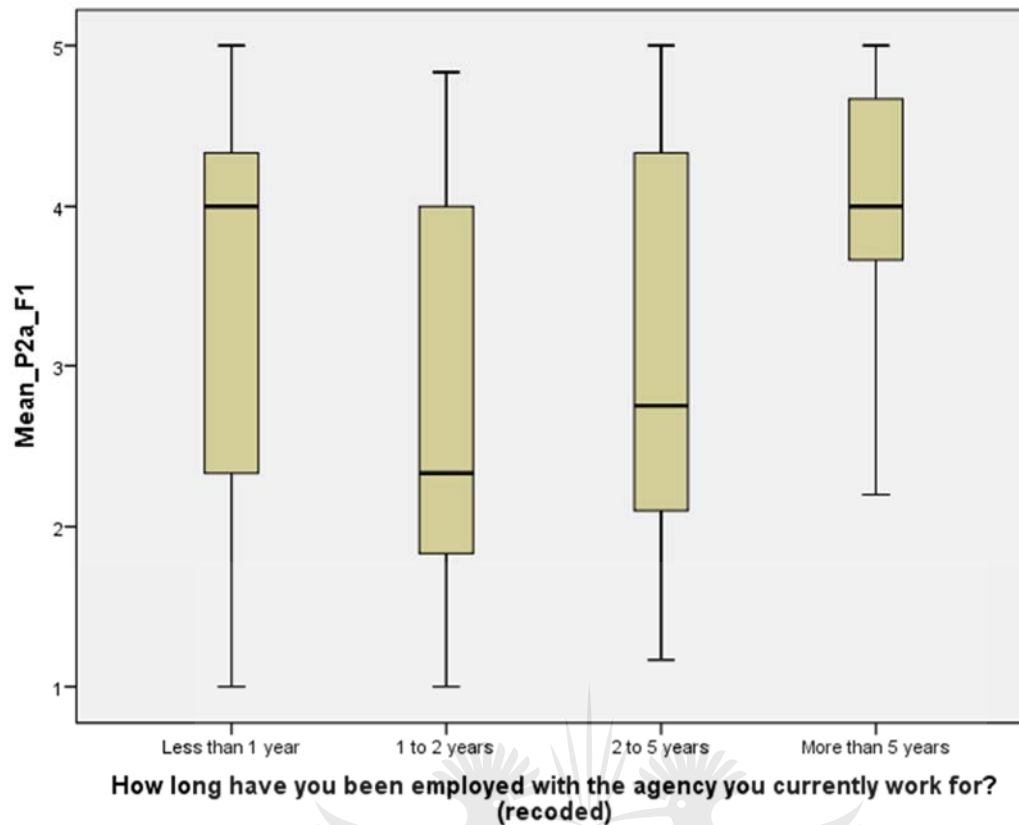
Tests of Normality

rQ13	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk			
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.	
1 Mean_P2a_F	Less than 1 year	.198	54	.000	.912	54	.001
	1 to 2 years	.182	37	.003	.899	37	.003
	2 to 5 years	.173	32	.016	.918	32	.018
	More than 5 years	.138	26	.200*	.921	26	.048
2 Mean_P2a_F	Less than 1 year	.219	54	.000	.841	54	.000
	1 to 2 years	.206	37	.000	.883	37	.001
	2 to 5 years	.175	32	.014	.863	32	.001
	More than 5 years	.304	26	.000	.711	26	.000
1 Mean_P2b_F	Less than 1 year	.142	52	.010	.935	52	.007
	1 to 2 years	.187	35	.003	.905	35	.006
	2 to 5 years	.126	32	.200*	.952	32	.164
	More than 5 years	.136	26	.200*	.970	26	.627
GenWorkCon	Less than 1 year	.114	50	.107	.972	50	.285

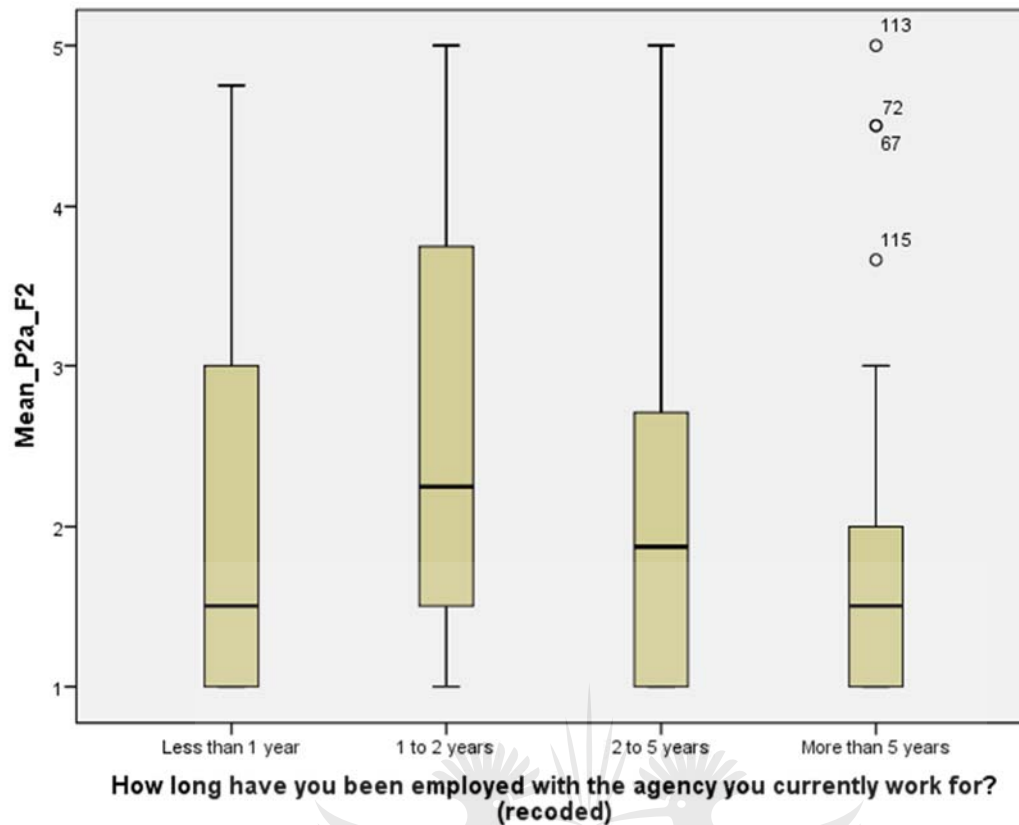
d							
	1 to 2 years	.115	36	.200*	.958	36	.192
	2 to 5 years	.171	30	.026	.938	30	.078
	More than 5 years	.102	25	.200*	.939	25	.141
PromotionPot	Less than 1 year	.096	50	.200*	.979	50	.512
	1 to 2 years	.104	35	.200*	.964	35	.295
	2 to 5 years	.126	30	.200*	.962	30	.356
	More than 5 years	.123	24	.200*	.946	24	.225
WorkRelation	Less than 1 year	.163	50	.002	.927	50	.004
s	1 to 2 years	.207	34	.001	.894	34	.003
	2 to 5 years	.175	30	.019	.939	30	.088
	More than 5 years	.174	24	.058	.885	24	.010
SkillsWorkAc	Less than 1 year	.109	50	.187	.968	50	.198
tiv	1 to 2 years	.150	34	.051	.904	34	.006
	2 to 5 years	.192	30	.006	.932	30	.054
	More than 5 years	.185	24	.034	.928	24	.089
WellBeing	Less than 1 year	.125	49	.053	.936	49	.010
	1 to 2 years	.180	35	.006	.936	35	.043
	2 to 5 years	.161	30	.045	.946	30	.131
	More than 5 years	.182	24	.039	.857	24	.003

*. This is a lower bound of the true significance.

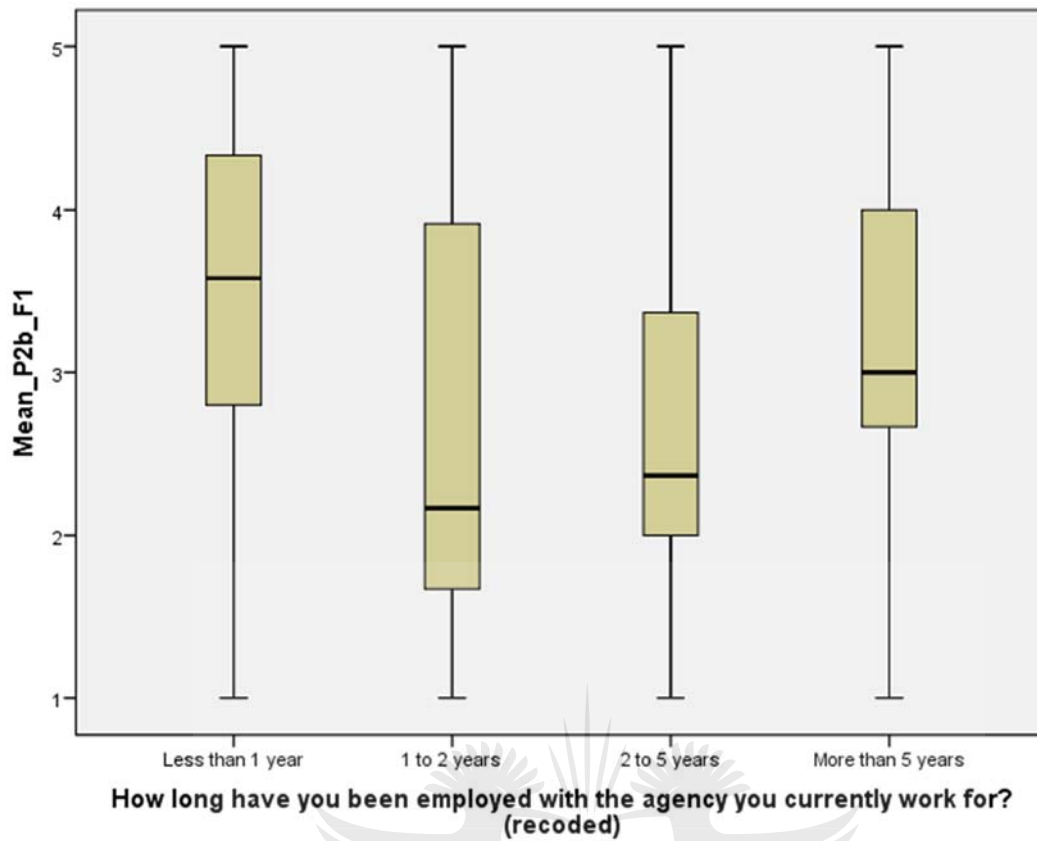
a. Lilliefors Significance
Correction



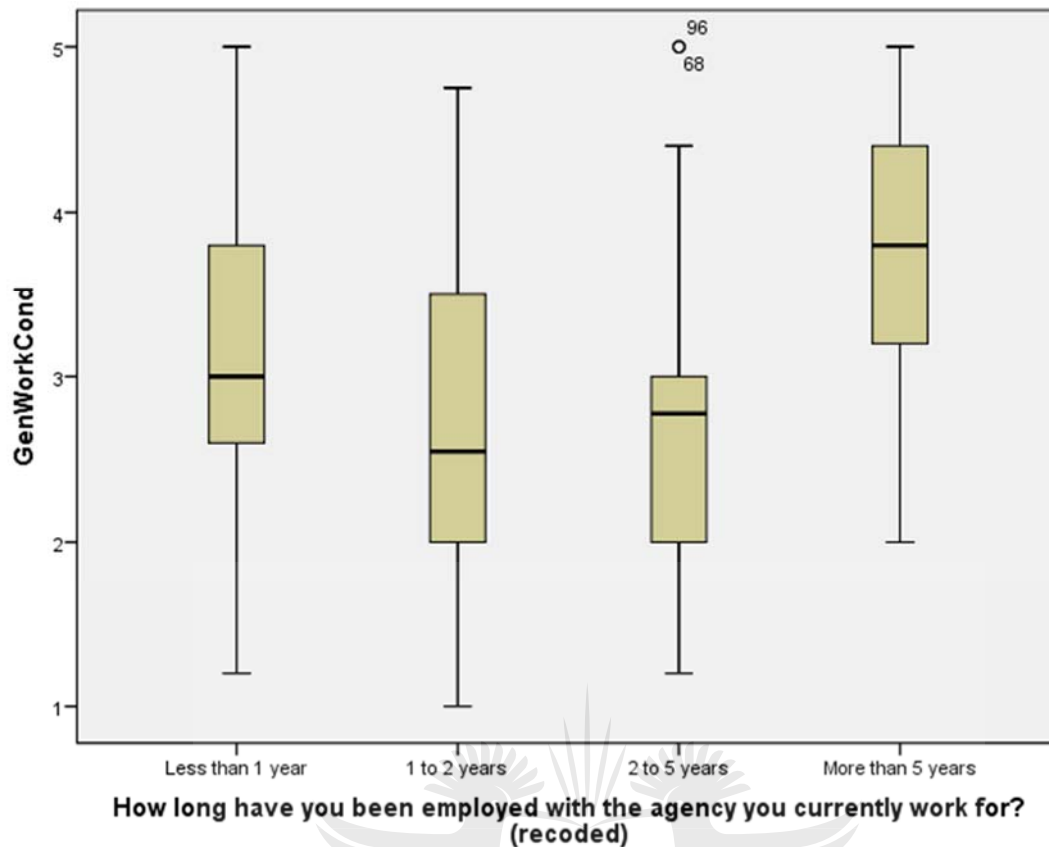
“Less than 1 year” scores minimum 1 to maximum 5, the median being 4. The respondents in this group show that they feel quite good about the availability of transport provided. “1 to 2 years” scores minimum 1 to maximum 4.833, the median being 2.333. “2 to 5 years” scores minimum 1.167 to 5, the median being 2.750. The respondents of both groups had a percentage not being happy with the transport arrangements although the majority feels content. “More than 5 years” scores minimum 2.2 to maximum 5, the median being 4. The histograms a negative skewed result therefor the respondents in this group feel good about transport provided.



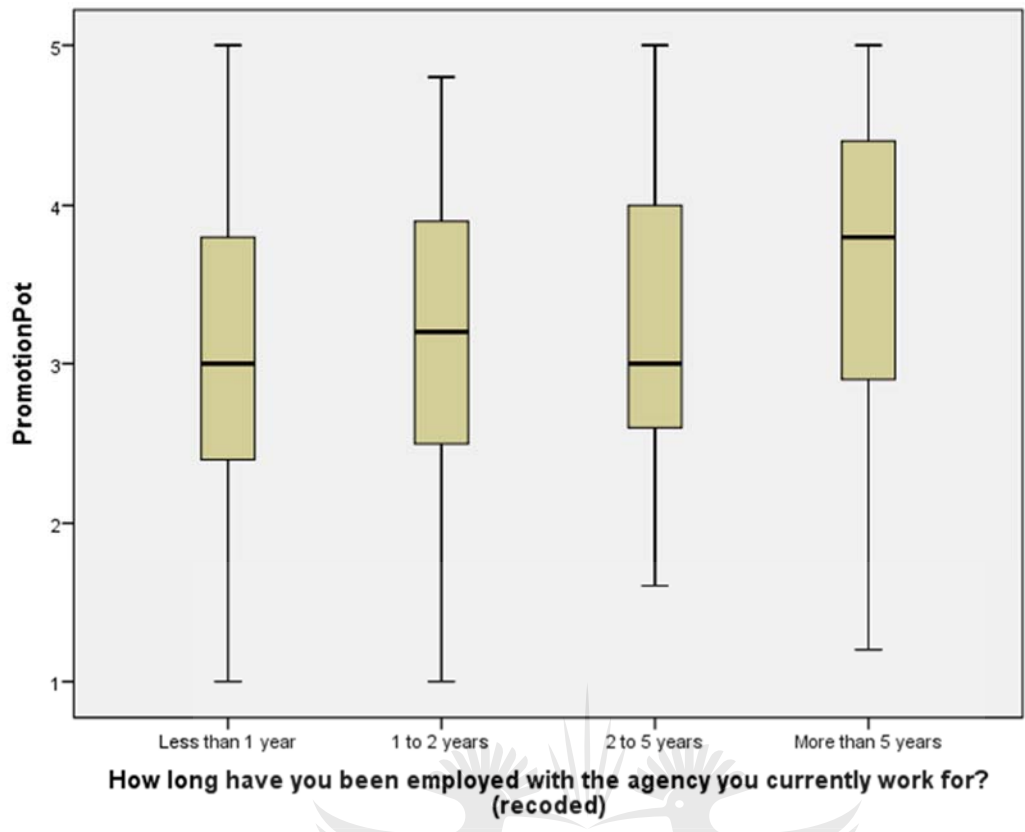
“Less than 1 year” scores minimum 1 to maximum 4.750, the median being 1.5.”
 “1 to 2 years” scores minimum 1 to maximum 5, the median being 2.250.
 “2 to 5 years” scores minimum 1 to maximum 5, the median being 1.875.
 “More than 5 years” scores minimum 1 to maximum 5, the median being 1.5. Apart from a couple of outliers, all results are all positively skewed, indicating that regardless length of service all respondents are unhappy with the facilities provided at the venues they work for.



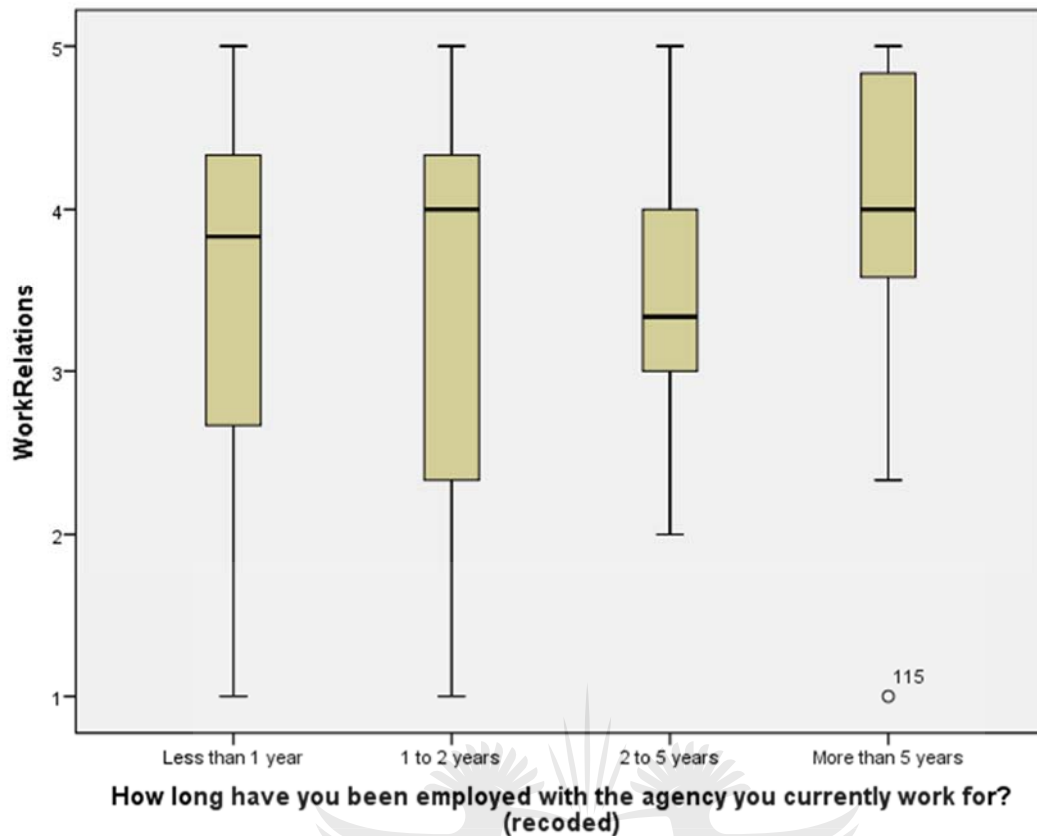
“Less than 1 year” scores minimum 1 to maximum 5, the median being 3.583. “1 to 2 years” scores minimum 1 to maximum 5, the median being 2.167. “2 to 5 years” scores minimum 1 to maximum 5, the median being 2.367. “More than 5 years” scores minimum 1 to maximum 5, the median being 3. All results show that the majority of the respondents are being quite happy with the respect they receive.



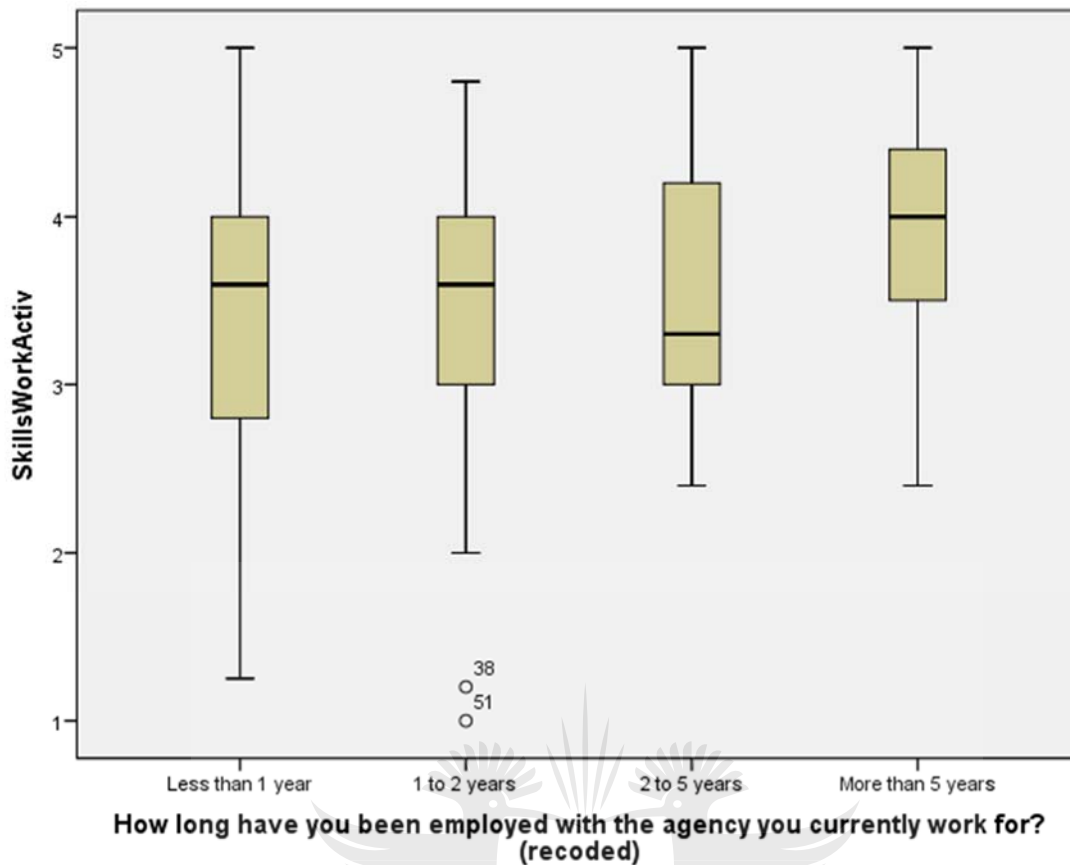
“Less than 1 year” scores minimum 1.2 to maximum 5, the median being 3. “1 to 2 years“ scores minimum 1 to maximum 4.750, the median being 2.550. “2 to 5 years” scores minimum 1.2 to maximum 5, the median being 2.775. “More than 5 years” score minimum 2 to maximum 5, the median being 3.8. The Less than 1 year up to 5 years of employment seem reasonable happy about their working conditions. The stats show that employees longer employed than 5 years are happy and content with their working conditions. The research found that a longer length of service leads to contentment a feeling of satisfaction and comfort regarding working conditions.



“Less than 1 year” scores minimum 1 to maximum 5, the median being 3.
 “1 to 2 years” scores minimum 1 to maximum 4.8, the median being 3.2
 “2 to 5 years” scores minimum 1.6 to maximum 5, the median being 3.
 “More than 5 years” scores minimum 1.2 to 5, the median being 3.8. The stats show that the longer the service the greater “the perception” that promotional opportunities arise. The actual promotional potential is probably limited to being given more responsibility rather than a monetary reward. During interviews when collecting questionnaires there was nobody actually promoted.



“Less than 1 year” scores minimum 1 to maximum 5, the median being 3.833.
 “1 to 2 years” scores minimum 1 to maximum 5, the median being 4.
 “2 to 5 years” scores minimum 2 to maximum 5, the median being 3.333.
 “More than 5 years” scores minimum 1 to maximum 5, the median being 4. The results are in general negatively skewed indicating that the respondents are in overall feeling good about their work relationships.



“Less than 1 year” scores minimum 1.250 to 5, the median 3.6.

“1 to 2 years” scores minimum 1 to maximum 4.8, the median being 3.6.

“2 to 5 years” scores minimum 2.4 to maximum 5, the median being 3.3.

“More than 5 years” scores minimum 2.4 to maximum 5, the median being 4.

The results are in general are consistent negatively skewed indicating that the respondents are feeling good about the task they perform in accordance with their skill, knowledge and experience levels. The boxplot shows again the longer the length of service the stronger that perception is positively felt.



“Less than 1 year” scores minimum 1.5 to maximum 5, the median being 4.
 “1 to 2 years” scores minimum 2 to maximum 5, the median being 4.
 “2 to 5 years” scores minimum 2.667 to maximum 5, the median being 4.
 “More than 5 years” scores minimum 2.5 to maximum 5, the median being 4.5. The results are negatively skewed indicating that in every group of length of service, wellbeing is very positively perceived. In this boxplot, the longer the length of service, the greater more positive perception of wellbeing is perceived.

Normality, and Comparisons, in sequence.

Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test

Shapiro-Wilk Test



More than 50 people

Less than 50 people



P-values more than 0.05

P-values less than 0.05



Normally distributed



Parametric Tests

Not normally distributed



Nonparametric Tests



Pro-Hoc tests

(Comparisons between groups)



NPar Tests Mann-Whitney Test

Crosstabulation (Q.13)



Correlation (Pearson) and Parametric correlations (Spearman's Rho)

The Mann-Whitney test for Q. 6, 38, 39 and 43 because there were 2 groups we are comparing. Although question 13 has four groups which should then be tested using the NPar Kruskal-Wallis Test, the research actually tests 6 groups of two being, 1 and 2, 1 and 3, 1 and 4, 2 and 3, 3 and 4 and 3 and 4. The research will also use the Mann-Whitney test for Q 13. Although there were a few variables that were normally distributed, most of the variables were not normally distributed resulting in the use of nonparametric tests for the comparisons.

RAGS - Parametric testing does not deal with Outliers, which affects the mean. This means that the mean is calculated with the Outlier making the mean lower. For example, when doing a scale of ages between 20 and 30 and one person is 90, the average will be let say 32, while without the Outlier the average will be 25. The nonparametric test calculates a Mean rank which then is the decision tool to establish whether there is a difference or not.

Comparisons between Groups (Normality tests between the groups to establish and or reconfirm differences with the calculated Mean Rank. The parametric test does not test the differences between means because it is not affected by them. It will calculate a mean Rank, making the tests stricter to see differences. The Rank

will indicate whether there is a difference between the groups or not. In other words, the test takes care of the Outliers which influence the mean.

The **p-values** on the test statistics table will be a bit different. The p-values bigger or equal to 0.05 indicate no differences between groups.

Question 6. Country of Passport / NPar Tests / Mann-WhitneyTest.

Group statistics & Ranks

Question 6	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Median
Mean P2a F1 SA	100	3.61	1.080	84.45	8445.00	4.000
Others	46	2.64	1.063	49.70	2286.00	2.333
Mean p2a F2 SA	100	2.02	1.249	67.91	6790.50	1.500
Others	46	2.40	1.073	85.66	3940.50	2.500
Mean P2b F1 SA	98	3.27	1.109	79.30	7771.50	3.333
Others	44	2.54	1.160	54.13	2381.50	2.250
GenWorkCond SA	96	3.25	1.073	77.74	7463.00	3.000
Others	43	2.58	0.955	52.72	2267.00	2.400
PromotionPot SA	95	3.29	0.982	72.93	6928.00	3.200
Others	42	2.99	0.846	60.12	2525.00	2.800
WorkRelations SA	94	3.70	1.018	73.01	6862.50	4.000
Others	41	3.26	1.071	56.52	2317.50	3.333
SkillsWorkActiv SA	94	3.65	0.860	71.61	6731.50	3.900
Others	41	3.44	0.773	59.72	2448.50	3.600
Well-being SA	95	4.00	0.845	73.29	6962.50	4.000
Others	41	3.72	0.771	57.40	2353.50	3.750

Test

Statistics^a

	Mann-Whitney U	Wilcoxon W	Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
Mean_P2a_F1	1205.000	2286.000	-4.619	.000
Mean_P2a_F2	1740.500	6790.500	-2.395	.017

Mean_P2b_F1	1391.500	2381.500	-3.379	.001
GenWorkCond	1321.000	2267.000	-3.394	.001
PromotionPot	1622.000	2525.000	-1.746	.081
WorkRelations	1456.500	2317.500	-2.272	.023
SkillsWorkActiv	1587.500	2448.500	-1.633	.103
WellBeing	1492.500	2353.500	-2.174	.030

a. Grouping Variable: Q6

The statistics above show no differences between the two groups (SA & others) regarding the availability of Facilities, Promotion potential, Work relationships, Skills Work Activities and Wellbeing. The two groups however indicate differences regarding Transport provided, Respect received and Working conditions in general. The stats show Mean and Median differences indicating that the South African group is between sometimes and often provided with transport, while the other nationalities feel that they are rarely to never given transport. The same significant differences and feelings are regarding Respect & Treatment and the closely related and supporting General Working Conditions experienced.

Question 38. Do you feel that the current economic crisis is a reason that you can't find permanent employment ?

Group statistics & ranks

Question 38	N	Mean	Std Deviation	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Median	
Mean P2a F1	yes	85	3.13	1.190	57.30	4870.50	3.167
	no	44	3.85	0.911	79.88	3514.50	4.167
Mean P2a F2	yes	85	2.16	1.259	62.90	5346.50	1.500
	no	44	2.28	1.250	69.06	3038.50	1.875
Mean P2b F1	yes	84	2.84	1.154	56.23	4723.00	2.817
	no	43	3.59	1.123	79.19	3405.00	4.000
GenWorkCond	yes	82	2.87	1.062	57.16	4687.50	2.800
		43	3.34	1.013	74.13	3187.50	3.400
PromotionPot	yes	81	2.99	0.931	54.64	4425.50	2.800
	no	42	3.51	0.940	76.20	3200.50	3.800
WorkRelations	yes	79	3.34	1.052	52.44	4142.50	3.500

	no	42	4.00	0.977	77.11	3238.50	4.000
SkillsWork Activ	yes	79	3.36	0.837	53.53	4228.50	3.400
	no	42	3.86	0.764	75.06	3152.50	4.000
Wellbeing	yes	80	3.85	0.910	58.43	4674.50	4.000
	no	43	4.15	0.676	68.64	2951.50	4.000

Test

Statistics^a

	Mann-Whitney U	Wilcoxon W	Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
Mean_P2a_F 1	1215.500	4870.500	-3.257	.001
Mean_P2a_F 2	1691.500	5346.500	-.898	.369
Mean_P2b_F 1	1153.000	4723.000	-3.333	.001
GenWorkCon d	1284.500	4687.500	-2.492	.013
PromotionPot	1104.500	4425.500	-3.193	.001
WorkRelation s	982.500	4142.500	-3.719	.000
SkillsWorkActi v	1068.500	4228.500	-3.233	.001
WellBeing	1434.500	4674.500	-1.526	.127

a. Grouping Variable: Q38

The stats above show no differences regarding Facility availabilities, General Working Conditions and Wellbeing indicating that whether the answer is “Yes” or “No” the respondents feel the same about the three mentioned variables. The rest of the variables show differences. The stats are showing that the majority of respondents feel that the economic crisis has “No” influence on their Transport, Respect, Promotional potential, Work relations and Skills work activities.

Question 39. Have you ever received an offer of permanent employment while working for an agency in South Africa ?

Group statistics & Ranks

Question 39	N	Mean	Std Deviation	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Median	
Mean P2a F1	yes	54	3.28	1.033	59.75	3226.50	3.333
	no	77	3.51	1.222	70.38	5419.50	4.167
Mean P2a F2	yes	54	2.42	1.405	71.68	3870.50	1.625
	no	77	1.99	1.094	62.02	4775.50	1.500
Mean P2b F1	yes	52	3.04	1.235	62.78	3264.50	3.083
	no	77	3.17	1.178	66.50	5120.50	3.167
GenWorkCond	yes	53	3.18	1.219	69.95	3707.50	3.200
	no	75	2.91	0.912	60.65	4548.50	2.800
PromotionPot	yes	53	3.23	1.041	65.76	3485.50	3.200
	no	73	3.12	0.887	61.86	4515.50	3.200
WorkRelations	yes	53	3.49	1.091	59.99	3279.50	4.000
	no	72	3.64	1.061	65.22	4695.50	4.000
SkillsWorkActiv	yes	53	3.60	0.803	62.86	3331.50	3.600
	no	72	3.54	0.879	63.10	4543.50	3.700
Wellbeing	yes	53	4.16	0.811	73.60	3901.00	4.250
	no	73	3.79	0.826	56.16	4100.00	4.000

Test

Statistics^a

	Mann-Whitney U	Wilcoxon W	Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
Mean_P2a_F1	1741.500	3226.500	-1.581	.114
Mean_P2a_F2	1772.500	4775.500	-1.453	.146
Mean_P2b_F1	1886.500	3264.500	-.556	.578

GenWorkCon d	1698.500	4548.500	-1.401	.161
PromotionPot	1814.500	4515.500	-.595	.552
WorkRelation s	1748.500	3179.500	-.804	.421
SkillsWorkActi v	1900.500	3331.500	-.038	.970
WellBeing	1399.000	4100.000	-2.666	.008

a. Grouping Variable: Q39

The above stats show that only regarding Wellbeing there is a significant difference in “Yes” and “No” responses. The respondents who said yes they received an offer of permanent employment perceive their Wellbeing a lot higher than the respondents answering no. As mentioned previously, the research found hardly any evidence indicating any temporary employee receiving any offer of permanent employment. The research felt that the temporary employees probably say they received an offer of permanent employment to feel good and appreciated. (no stats) Another reason for the mentioned findings is the fact that if respondents got permanent job offers, why they then still are employed by Temporary employment agencies? In support of these statements the research refers to Chapter 1 & 2 where the term “casualization” by itself indicates the global trend of changing permanent employment to temporary employment. Further support and confirmation of the above statements is research conducted by the CIETT (2012) indicating no evidence is provided that agency work is effective as a stepping stone to permanent employment.

Question 43. Do you see a future in this industry ?

Group statistics & Ranks

Question 43	N	Mean	Std Deviation	Mean Rank	Sum of ranks	Median	
Mean P2a F1	yes	94	3.60	1.096	74.34	6987.50	4.000
	no	39	2.80	1.112	49.32	1923.50	2.333
Mean P2a F2	yes	94	2.18	1.269	66.43	6244.00	1.500
	no	39	2.21	1.187	68.38	2667.00	2.000

Mean P2b F1	yes	93	3.29	1.064	71.98	6694.00	3.333
	no	38	2.60	1.340	51.37	1952.00	2.333
GenWorkCond	yes	91	3.33	0.933	74.52	6781.50	3.200
	no	38	2.41	1.042	42.20	1603.50	2.100
PromotionPot	yes	90	3.44	0.841	72.84	6556.00	3.500
	no	37	2.65	0.900	42.49	1572.00	2.800
WorkRelations	yes	88	3.82	0.935	70.66	6218.50	4.000
	no	37	3.03	1.133	44.77	1656.50	3.000
SkillsWorkActiv	yes	88	3.82	0.684	72.93	6417.50	4.000
	no	37	3.06	0.826	39.39	1457.50	3.000
Wellbeing	yes	89	4.07	0.752	67.44	6002.00	4.000
	no	38	3.79	0.912	55,95	2126.00	3.875

**Test
Statistics^a**

	Mann-Whitney U	Wilcoxon W	Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
Mean_P2a_F1	1143.500	1923.500	-3.414	.001
Mean_P2a_F2	1779.000	6244.000	-.270	.787
Mean_P2b_F1	1211.000	1952.000	-2.826	.005
GenWorkCond	862.500	1603.500	-4.487	.000
PromotionPot	869.000	1572.000	-4.238	.000
WorkRelations	953.500	1656.500	-3.682	.000
SkillsWorkActiv	754.500	1457.500	-4.752	.000
WellBeing	1385.000	2126.000	-1.624	.104

a. Grouping Variable: Q43

The above stats show that in general the respondents being positive, seeing a future in the industry, although there are a number of differences looking at the “Yes” and the “No” answers. Most variables show that respondents feeling positive “Yes” are happier regarding general Working conditions, Promotional potential, Working conditions and Skills work activities. No difference regarding Wellbeing in respondents answering “yes’ or “no” is recorded, indicating that all are feeling well about their future in the industry.

Pro-Hoc Tests (If differences between groups, where ?)

Test smallest p-value of each variable against a significance level of 0.05 / 4 = 0.0125

Question 13. How long have you been employed at the current agency ?

Descriptives & Ranks Q r13 N M Std Deviation MeanRank Median

Mean P2a F1	Less than 1 year	54	3.47	1.114	80.62	4.000
	1 to 2 years	37	2.75	1.151	54.74	2.333
	2 to 5 years	32	3.07	1.167	68.86	2.750
	More than 5 years	26	4.03	0.721	99.71	4.000
	Total	149	3.30	1.168		
Mean P2a F2	Less than 1 year	54	2.12	1.180	75.31	1,500
	1 to 2 years	37	2.52	1.367	87.59	2.250
	2 to 5 years	32	1.96	1.000	70.78	1.875
	More than 5 years	26	1.85	1.235	61.62	1.500
	Total	149	2.14	1.216		
Mean P2b F1	Less than 1 year	52	3.41	1.126	86.08	3.583
	1 to 2 years	35	2.74	1.278	61.24	2.167
	2 to 5 years	32	2.67	1.126	59.23	2.367
	More than 5 years	26	3.24	0.960	79.62	3.000
	Total	145	3,05	1.173		
GenWorkCond F1	Less than 1 year	50	3.13	0.960	74.99	3.000
	1 to 2 years	36	2.66	1.045	57.39	2.550

	2 to 5 years	30	2.77	0.969	59.35	2.775
	More than 5 years	25	3.70	0.960	96.60	3.800
	Total	141	3.03	1.040		
PromotionPot	Less than 1 year	50	3.09	0.978	66.21	3.000
	1 to 2 years	35	3.05	0.951	66.34	3.200
	2 to 5 years	30	3.14	0.977	67.17	3.000
	More than 5 years	24	3.58	1.066	86.77	3.800
	Total	139	3.18	0.960		
WorkRelations	Less than 1 year	50	3.53	1.114	68.19	3.833
	1 to 2 years	34	3.46	1.169	67.22	4.000
	2 to 5 years	30	3.56	0.855	65.10	3.333
	More than 5 years	24	3.88	1.012	80.96	4.000
	Total	138	3.58	1.058		
SkillsWorkActiv	Less than 1 year	50	3.50	0.892	65.61	3.600
	1 to 2 years	34	3.46	0.891	66.16	3.600
	2 to 5 years	30	3.53	0.752	65.27	3.300
	More than 5 years	24	3.97	0.739	87.63	4.000
	Total	138	3.58	0.849		
Wellbeing	Less than 1 year	49	3.87	0.903	67.20	4.000
	1 to 2 years	36	3.70	0.841	58.37	4.000
	2 to 5 years	30	4.06	0.660	74.35	4.000
	More than 5 years	24	4.22	0.785	84.35	4.500
	Total	138	3.93	0.830		

Test Statistics^{a,b}

	Chi-Square	df	Asymp. Sig.
Mean_P2a_F1	18.294	3	.000
Mean_P2a_F2	6.157	3	.104
Mean_P2b_F1	11.911	3	.008
GenWorkCond	16.812	3	.001
PromotionPot	5.071	3	.167
WorkRelations	2.543	3	.468

SkillsWorkActiv	6.037	3	.110
WellBeing	6.726	3	.081

a. Kruskal Wallis Test

b. Grouping Variable: rQ13

Because the tests are compared in groups of two the research uses the Mann-Whitney test. The significant level is made stricter than 5%, to be able to see where the difference is. The group to be tested will be 1 and 2, 1 and 3, 1 and 4, 2 and 3, 2 and 4 and 3 and 4.

Pair 1 NPar Tests Mann-Whitney Test

Group statistics & Ranks

Question r13	N	Mean	Std Deviation	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Mean P2a F1 Less than 1 year	54	3.47	1.144	52.34	2826.50
1 to 2 years	37	2.75	1.151	36.74	1359.50
Mean P2b F1 Less than 1 year	53	3.41	1.126	49.30	2563.50
1 to 2 years	35	2.74	1.278	36.13	1264.50
GenWorkCond Less than 1 y.	50	3.13	0.960	48.02	2401.00
1 to 2 years	36	2.66	1.045	37.22	1340.00

Test

Statistics^a

	Mann-Whitney U	Wilcoxon W	Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
Mean_P2a_F 1	656.500	1359.500	-2.774	.006
Mean_P2b_F 1	634.500	1264.500	-2.391	.017
GenWorkCon d	674.000	1340.000	-1.984	.047

a. Grouping Variable: rQ13

Pair 2 NPar Tests Mann-Whitney Test

Group statistics & Ranks

Question r13	N	Mean	Std Deviation	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Mean P2a F1 Less than 1 year	54	3.47	1.144	45.94	2840.50
2 to 5 years	32	3.07	1.187	39.39	1260.50
Mean P2b F1 Less than 1 year	52	3.41	1.126	48.41	2517.50
2 to 5 years	32	2.67	1.276	32.89	1052.50
GenWorkCond Less than 1 y.	50	3.13	0.960	44.07	2203.50
2 to 5 years	30	2.77	0.969	34.55	1036.50

Test

Statistics^a

	Mann-Whitney U	Wilcoxon W	Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
Mean_P2a_F 1	732.500	1260.500	-1.177	.239
Mean_P2b_F 1	524.500	1052.500	-2.840	.005
GenWorkCon d	571.500	1036.500	-1.779	.075

a. Grouping Variable: rQ13

Pair 3 NPar Tests Mann-Whitney Test

Group statistics & Ranks

Question r13	N	Mean	Std Deviation	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Mean P2a F1 Less than 1 year	54	3.47	1.144	45.94	2840.50
More than 5 years	26	4.03	0.721	39.39	1260.50
Mean P2b F1 Less than 1 year	52	3.41	1.126	48.41	2517.50
More than 5 years	26	3.24	0.960	32.89	1052.50
GenWorkCond Less than 1 y.	50	3.13	0.960	44.07	2203.50
More than 5 years	25	3.70	0.960	34.55	1036.50

Test

Statistics^a

	Mann-Whitney U	Wilcoxon W	Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
Mean_P2a_F 1	531.500	2016.500	-1.755	.079
Mean_P2b_F 1	579.000	930.000	-1.032	.302
GenWorkCon d	420.000	1695.000	-2.308	.021

a. Grouping Variable: rQ13

Pair 4 NPar Tests Mann-Whitney Test

Group statistics & Ranks

Question r13	N	Mean	Std Deviation	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Mean P2a F1 1 to 2 years	37	2.75	1.151	31.84	1178.00
2 to 5 years	32	3.07	1.187	38.66	1237.00
Mean P2b F1 1 to 2 years	35	2.74	1.278	33.79	1182.50
2 to 5 years	32	2.67	1.126	34.23	1095.50
GenWorkCond 1 to 2 years	36	2.66	1.045	32.83	1182.00
2 to 5 years	30	2.77	0.969	34.30	1029.00

Test

Statistics^a

	Mann-Whitney U	Wilcoxon W	Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
Mean_P2a_F 1	475.000	1178.000	-1.410	.158
Mean_P2b_F 1	552.500	1182.500	-.094	.925
GenWorkCon	516.000	1182.000	-.310	.756

d				
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a. Grouping Variable: rQ13

Pair 5 NPar Tests Mann-Whitney Test

Group statistics & Ranks

Question r13	N	Mean	Std Deviation	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Mean P2a F1 1 to 2 years	37	2.75	1.151	24.16	894.00
More than 5 years	26	4.03	0.721	43.15	1122.00
Mean P2b F1 1 to 2 years	35	2.74	1.278	27.33	956.50
More than 5 years	26	3.24	0.960	35.94	934.50
GenWorkCond 1 to 2 years	36	2.66	1.045	24.33	876.00
More than 5 years	25	2.70	0.960	40.60	1015.00

Test

Statistics^a

	Mann-Whitney U	Wilcoxon W	Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
Mean_P2a_F 1	191.000	894.000	-4.057	.000
Mean_P2b_F 1	326.500	956.500	-1.878	.060
GenWorkCon d	210.000	876.000	-3.530	.000

a. Grouping Variable: rQ13

Pair 6 NPar Tests Mann-Whitney Test

Group statistics & Ranks

Question r13	N	Mean	Std Deviation	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Mean P2a F1 2 to 2 years	32	3.07	1.187	23.81	726.00
More than 5 years	26	4.03	0.721	36.50	949.00

Mean P2b F1	2 to 2 years	32	2.67	1.126	25.11	803.50
	More than 5 years	26	3.24	0.960	34.90	907.50
GenWorkCond	2 to 2 years	30	2.77	0.969	21.50	645.00
	More than 5 years	25	3.70	0.960	35.80	895.00

Test

Statistics^a

	Mann-Whitney U	Wilcoxon W	Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
Mean_P2a_F1	234.000	762.000	-2.850	.004
Mean_P2b_F1	275.500	803.500	-2.201	.028
GenWorkCond	180.000	645.000	-3.304	.001

a. Grouping Variable: rQ13

All the test results indicate that the longer temporary workers are employed by an agency their General Working Conditions are perceived more positive. The research found that the length of service is perceived as appreciation and creates loyalty by temporary employees. Although on tables tests have been done which not have to be reported, the test **Crosstabulation** is necessary because question no.13 which consists of 4 variables will be compared with question no. 43 consisting of 2 variables. The statistics below show that all groups of length of service positively perceive a future in the industry, although longer service from 2 to 5 years and longer shows a higher positive score.

Cross Tabulation

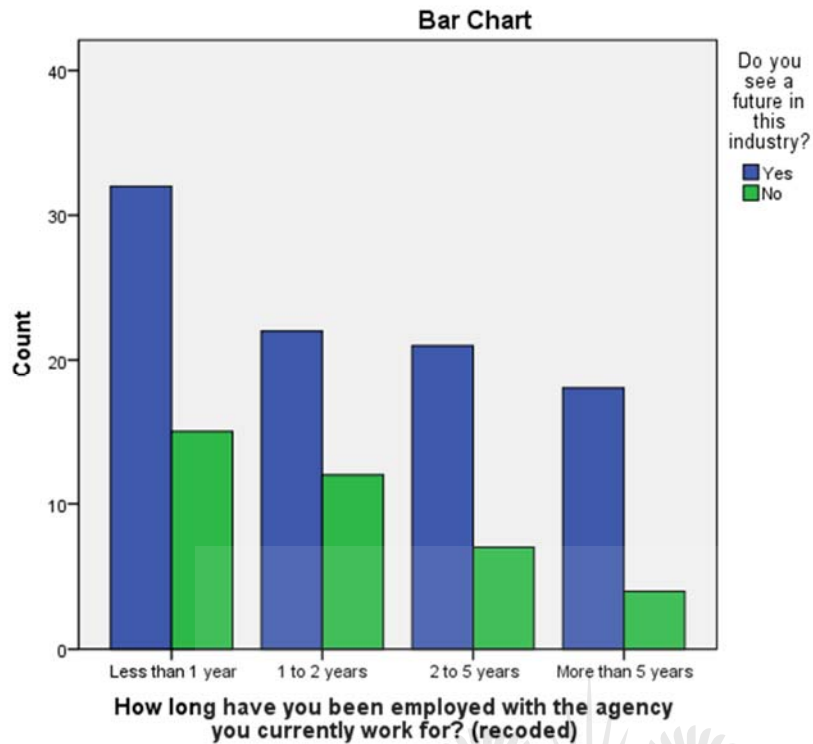
rQ13 * Q43 Cross tabulation	Q43		Total

		Yes	No	
rQ13	Less than 1 year	Count 32	15	47
	% within rQ13	68.1%	31.9%	100.0%
	1 to 2 years	Count 22	12	34
	% within rQ13	64.7%	35.3%	100.0%
	2 to 5 years	Count 21	7	28
	% within rQ13	75.0%	25.0%	100.0%
	More than 5 years	Count 18	4	22
	% within rQ13	81.8%	18.2%	100.0%
Total	Count	93	38	131
	% within rQ13	71.0%	29.0%	100.0%

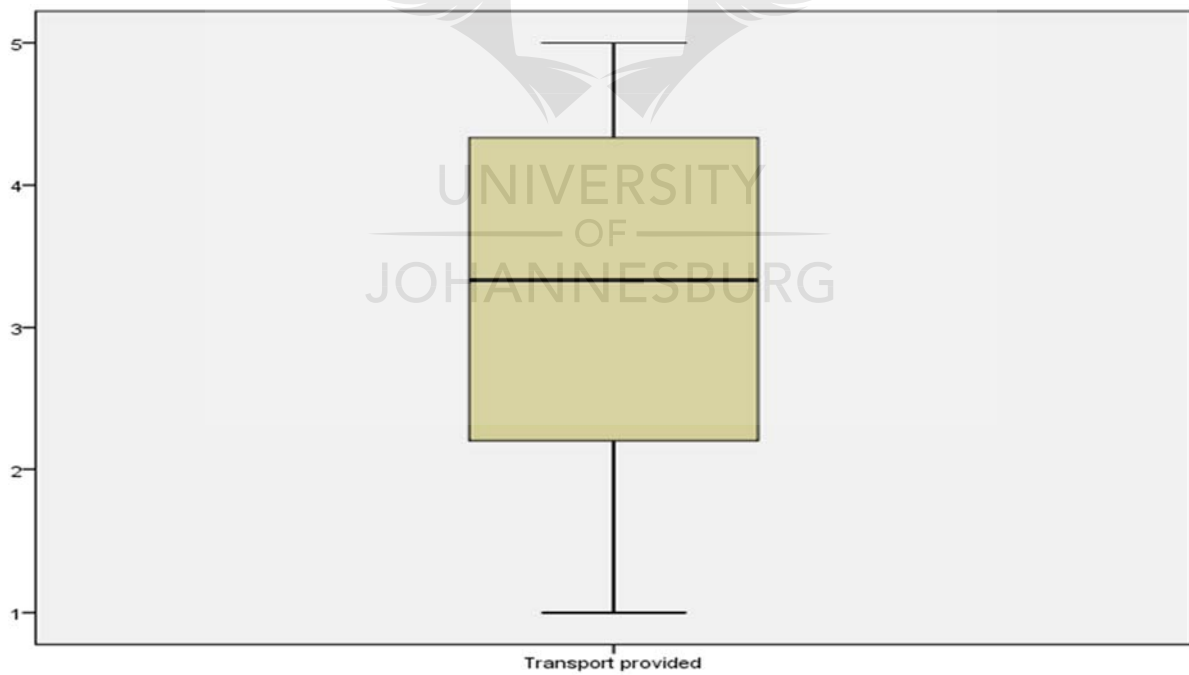
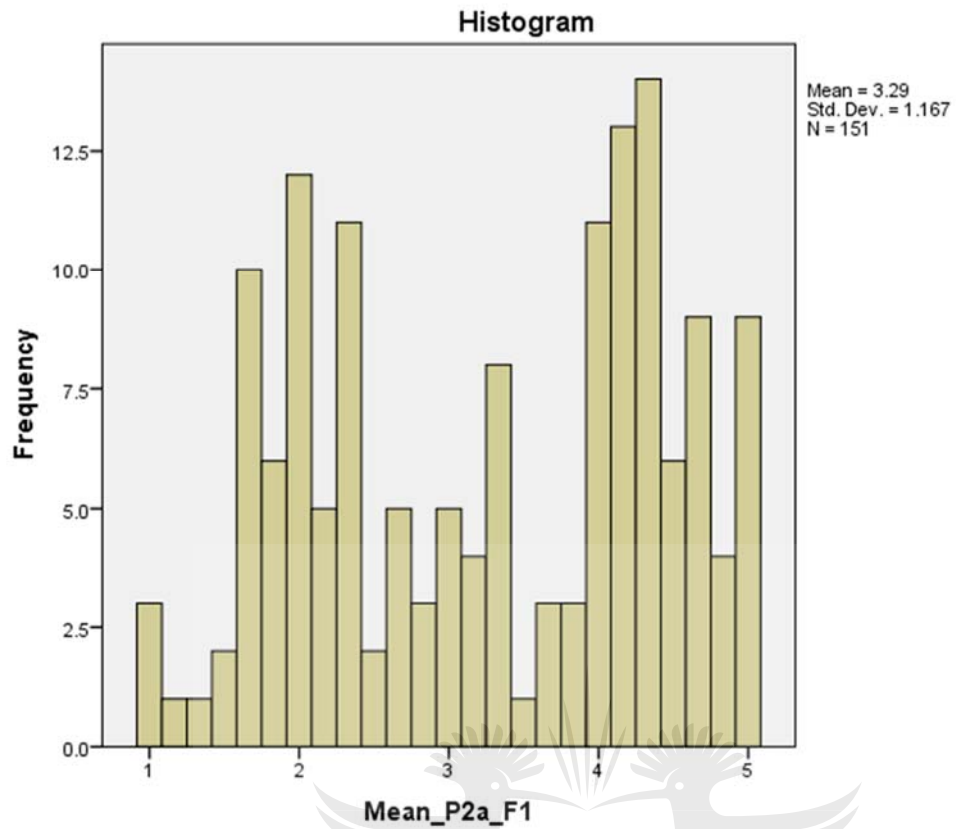
Chi-Square Tests

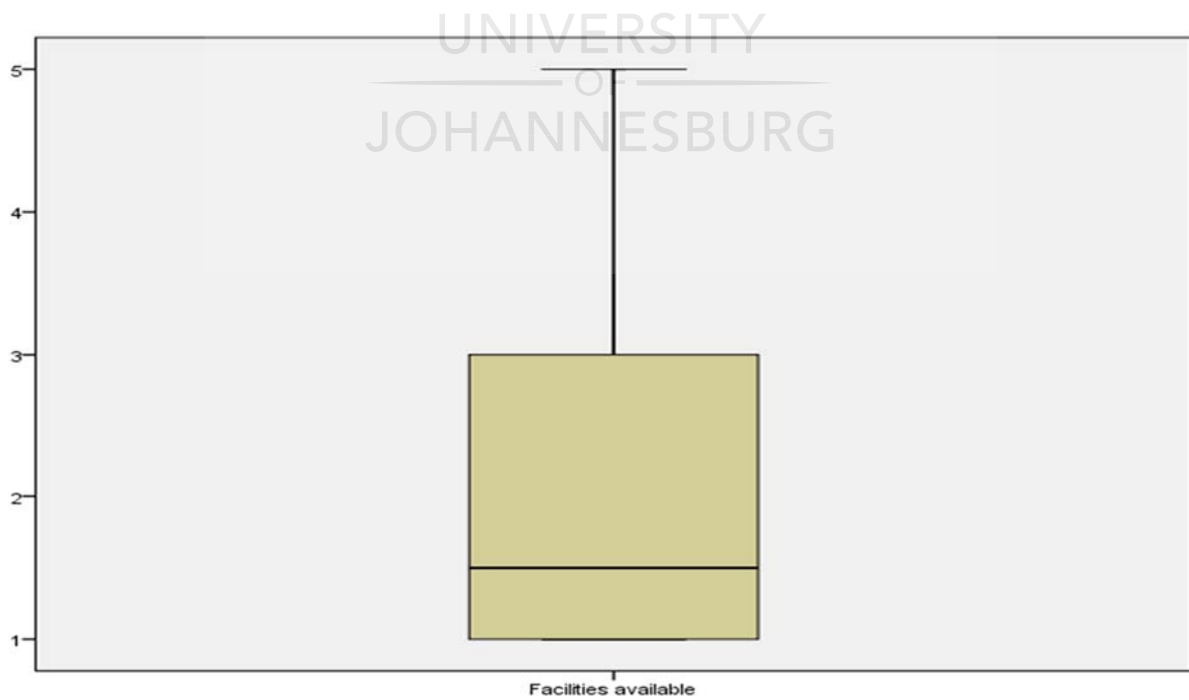
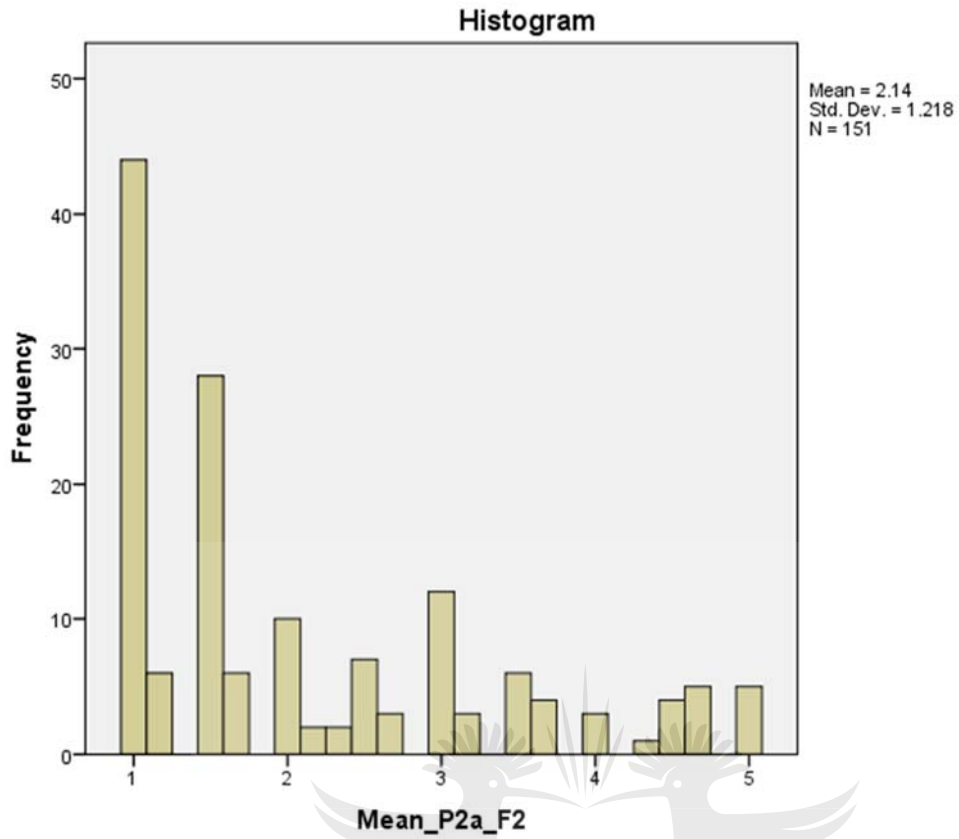
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	2.316 ^a	3	.509
Likelihood Ratio	2.415	3	.491
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.602	1	.206
N of Valid Cases	131		

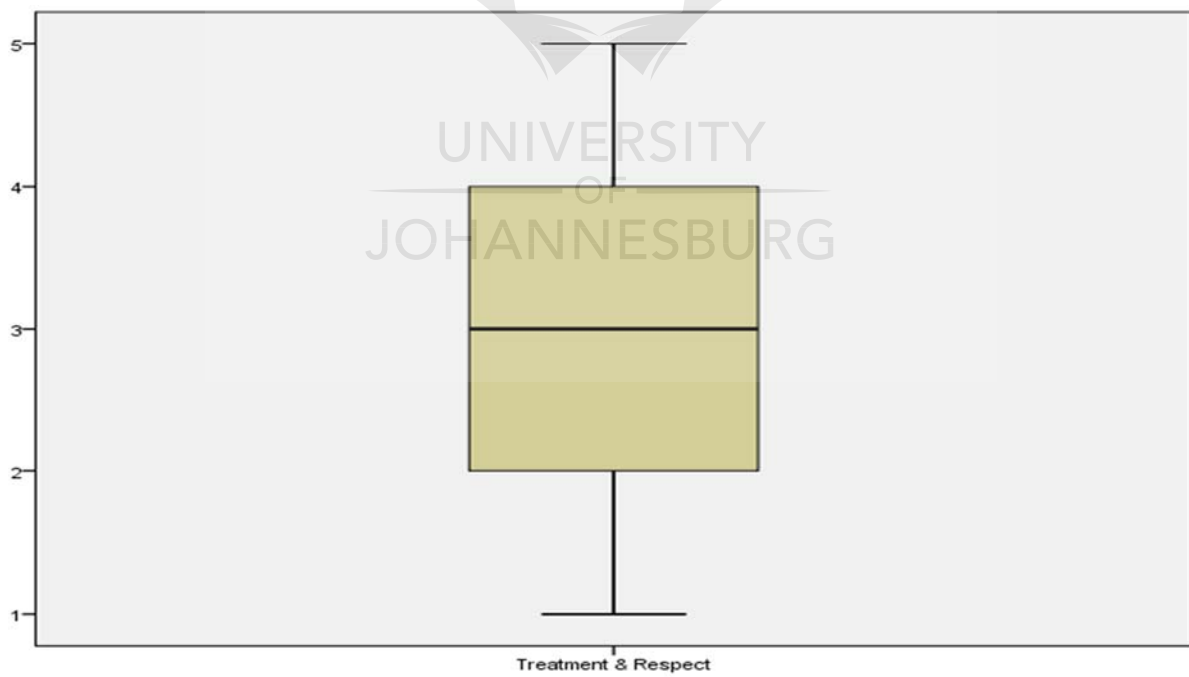
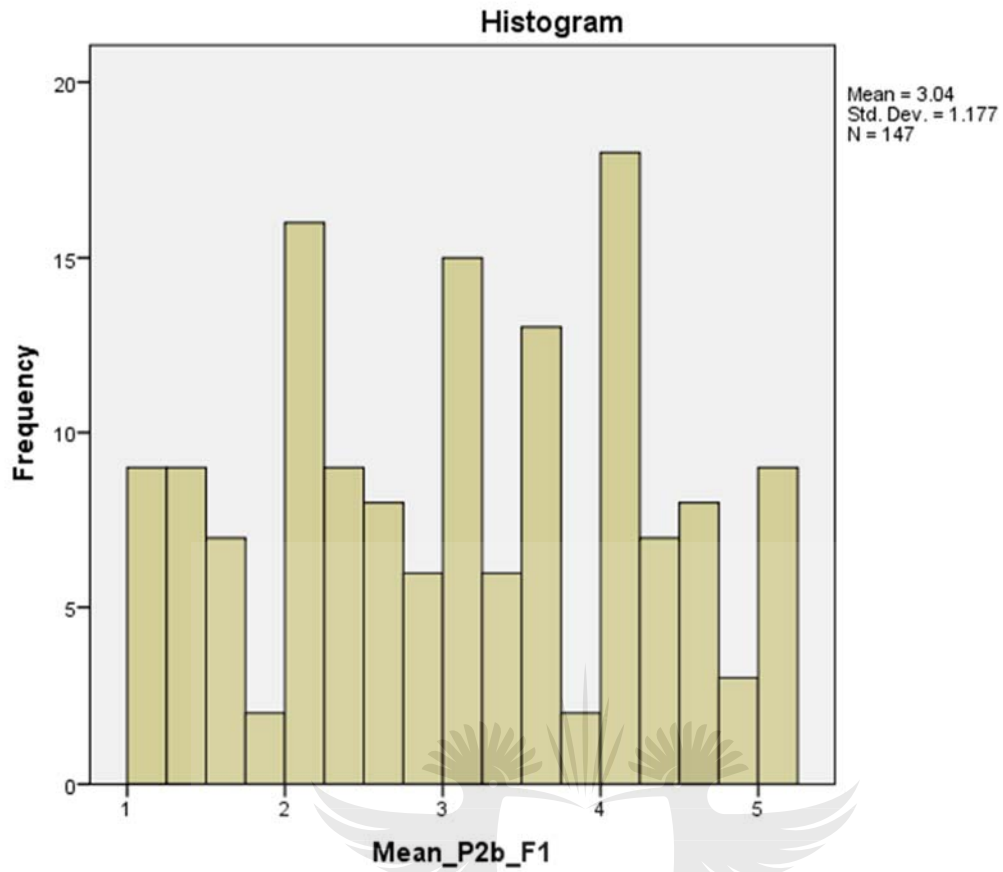
a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 6.38.

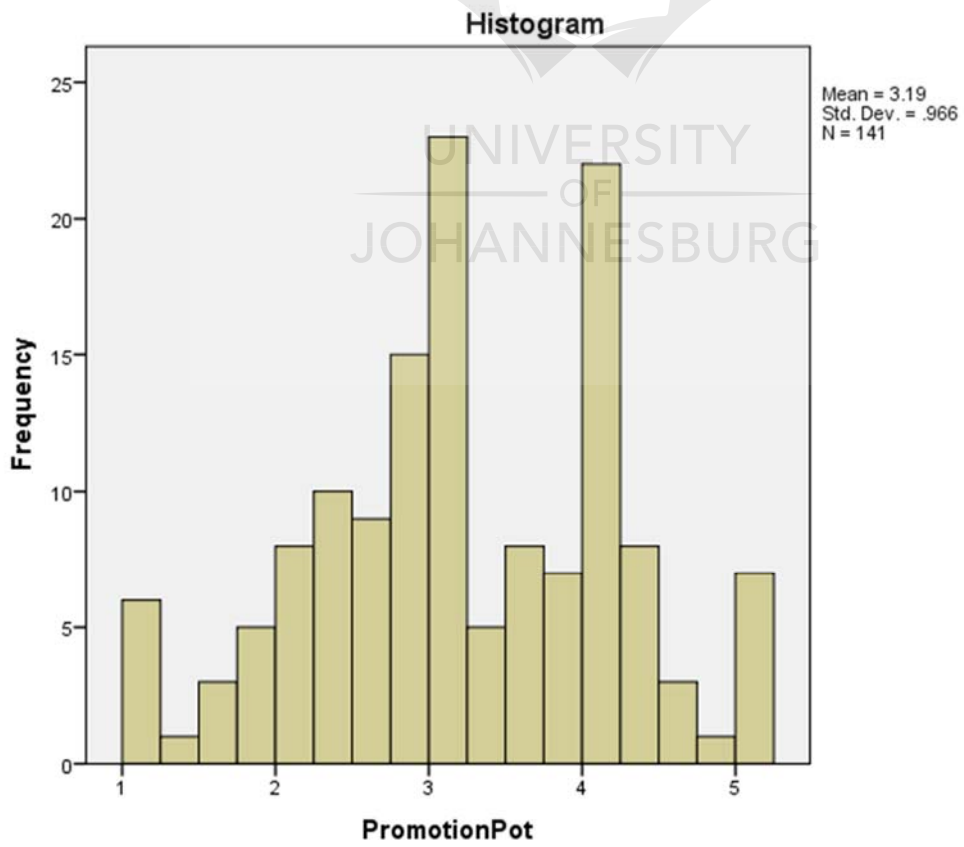
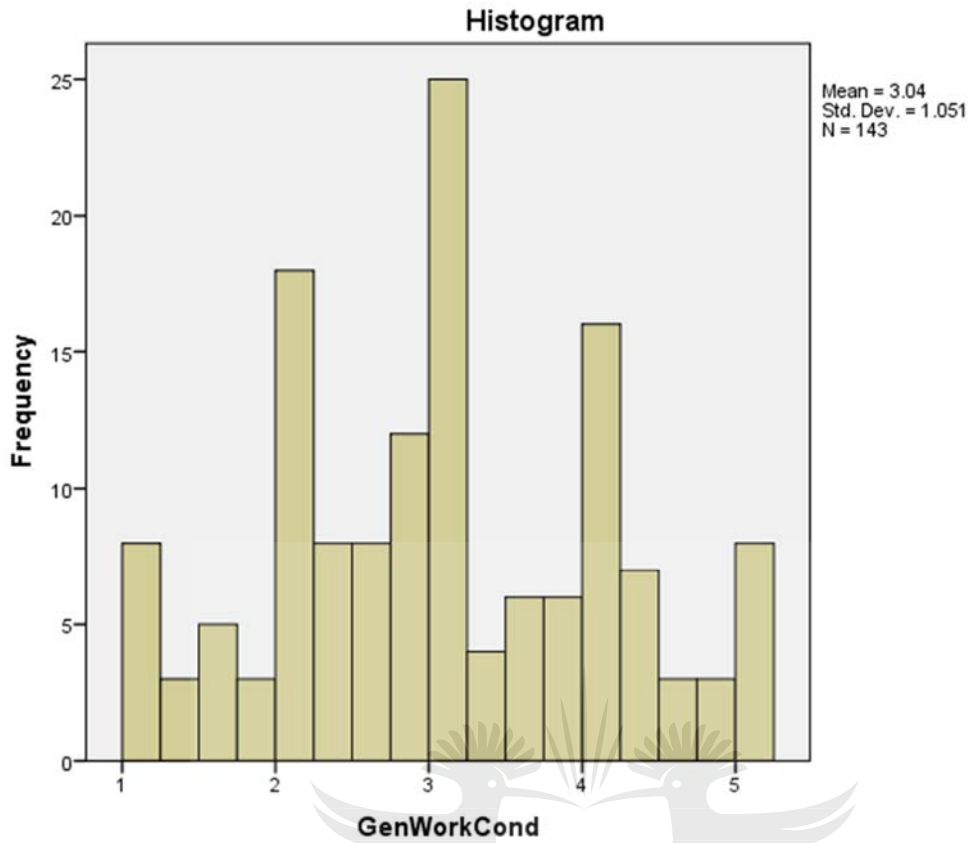


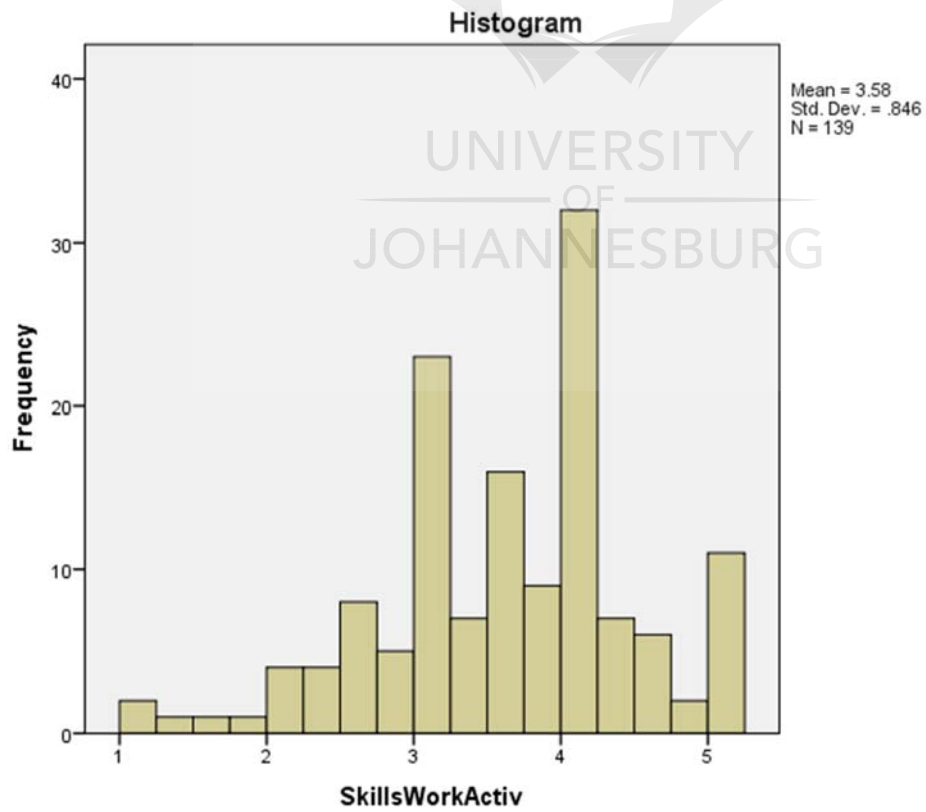
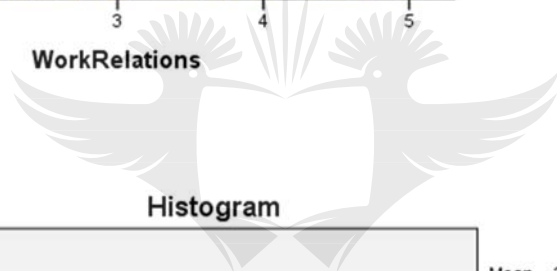
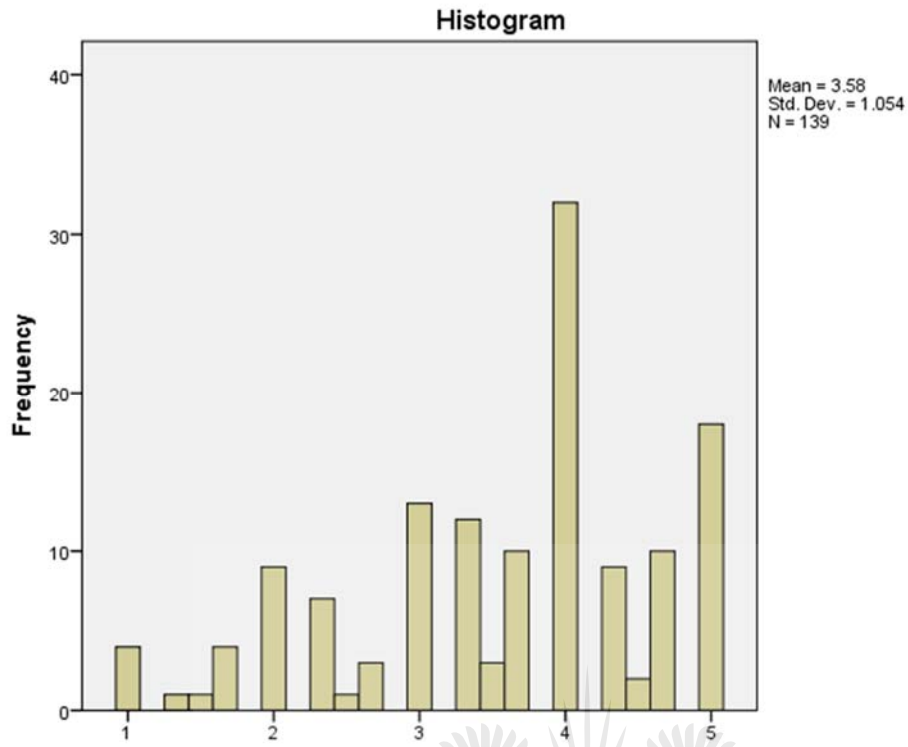
For the Correlation testing Normality tests are first done. Because there is no group comparison we look at the descriptives being mean and standard deviation for each whole group. The research uses the nonparametric test although the correlation test for Normality is also shown.

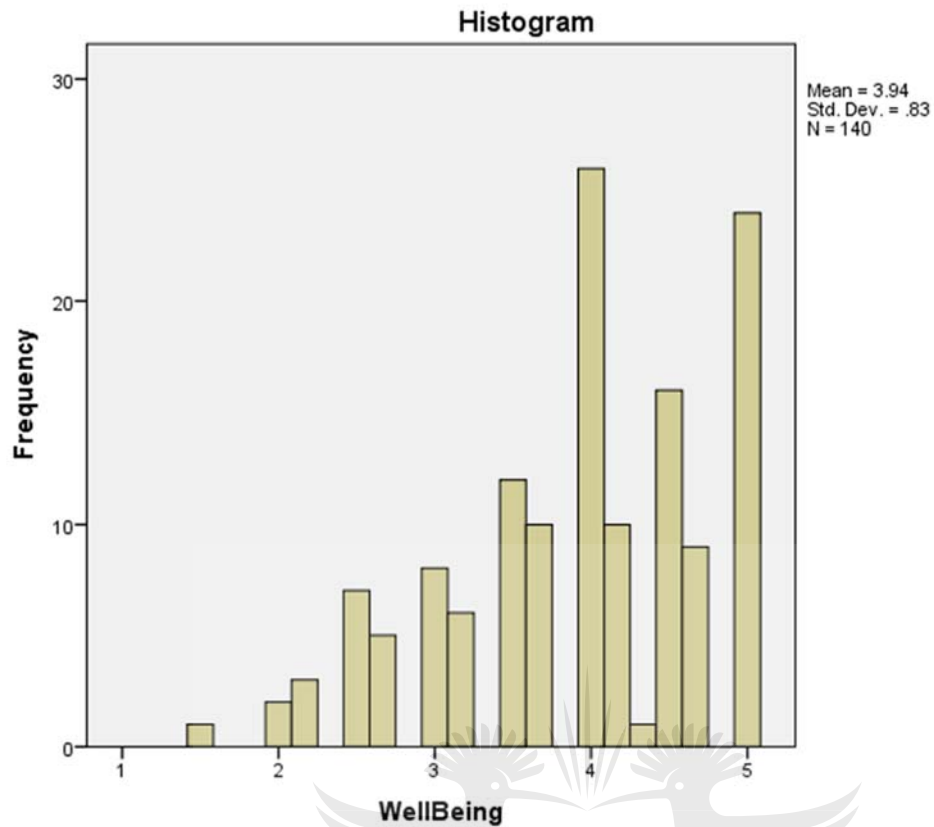












Correlations

Correlations (Pearson)

	Transp ort	Facili ties	Resp ect	GenWor kCon	Promotio nPot	WorkRela tions	SkillsWork Activ	Wellbe ing
Transport prov.	1	-	.653**	.571**	.367**	.445**	.305**	.161
Pearson correl.		.007	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.058
Sig. (2- tailed)		.933						
N	151	151	147	142	140	138	138	139
Facilities		1	-.191*	.098	-.189*	.106	.180*	.103
Pearson correl.	-.007		.020	.245	.025	.216	.035	.227
Sig. (2- tailed)	.933		.020	.245	.025	.216	.035	.227
N	151	151	147	142	140	138	138	139

tailed) N								
Respect								
Pearson		.191	1	.524**	.407	.500**	.266**	.131
correl.	.663	.020		.000	.000	.000	.002	.129
Sig. (2- tailed) N	.000 142	147	147	139	137	135	135	136
GenWorkC								
on.	.571**	.098	.524**	1	.713**	.639**	.583**	.403**
Pearson	.000	.245	.000		.000	.000	.000	.000
correl.	142	142	139	143	141	139	139	140
Sig. (2- tailed) N								
Promotion								
Pot	.376**	.189*	.407**	.713**	1	.684**	.782**	.486**
Pearson	.000	.025	.000	.000		.000	.000	.000
correl.	140	140	137	141	141	139	139	139
Sig. (2- tailed) N								
WorkRelati								
ons	.445**	.106	.500**	.639**	.648**	1	.594**	.384**
Pearson	.000	.216	.000	.000	.000		.000	.000
correl.	138	138	135	139	139	139	139	138
Sig. (2- tailed) N								
SkillsWork								
activ.	.305**	.180*	.268**	.583**	.782**	.594**	1	.553**
Pearson	.000	.035	.002	.000	.000	.000		.000
orrel.	138	138	135	139	139	139	139	138

Sig. (2-tailed)								
N								
Wellbeing								
Pearson correl.	.161	.103	.131	.403**	.486**	.384**	.553**	1
Sig. (2-tailed)	.058	.227	.129	.000	.000	.000	.000	
N	139	139	136	140	139	138	138	140

** Correlation is significant on the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

*Correlation is significant on the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

The above shows the Pearson correlation as well which is used when you have Normality. The research put in the graph although the parametric tests are used and interpreted. Some supervisors or others might like to see the above test results as well.

Nonparametric Correlations

Spearman's Rho

	Transp ort	Facili ties	Resp ect	GenWor kCon	Promotio nPot	WorkRela tions	SkillsWork Activ	Wellbe ing
Transport prov.	1.000	.042	.646**	.532**	.378*	.467**	.313**	.166
Correl. Coefficient		.608	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.050
Sig. (2-tailed)								
N	151	151	147	142	140	138	138	139
Facilities		1.000	.191*	.038	.156	.076	.121	.047
Correl. Coefficient	.042		.021	.657	.065	.374	.159	.585
Sig. (2-tailed)								
N	151	151	147	142		138	138	139

tailed) N					140			
Respect.								
Correl.	.646**	.191*	1.000	.515**	.420**	.545**	.289**	.153
Coefficient	.000	.021		.000	.000	.000	.001	.076
Sig. (2-tailed)	147	147	147	139	137	135	135	136
N								
GenWorkC								
on.	.532**	.038	.515**	1.000	.690**	.654**	.556**	.387**
Correl.	.000	.657	.000		.000	.000	.000	.000
Coefficient	142	142	139	143	141	139	139	140
Sig. (2-tailed)								
N								
Promotion								
Pot Correl.	.378**	.156	.420**	.690**	1.000	.639**	.748**	.472**
Coefficient	.000	.065	.000	.000		.000	.000	.000
Sig. (2-tailed)	140	140	137	141	141	139	139	139
N								
WorkRelati								
ons	.467**	.076	.545**	.654**	.693**	1.000	.604**	.425**
Correl.	.000	.374	.000	.000	.000		.000	.000
Coefficient	138	138	135	139	139	139	139	138
Sig. (2-tailed)								
N								
SkillsWork								
activ.	.313**	.121	.289**	.556	.748**	.604**	1.000	.523**
Correl.	.000	.159	.001	.000	.000	.000		.000
Coefficient	138	138	135	139	139	139	139	138
Sig. (2-tailed)								

tailed)								
N								
Wellbeing								
Correl.	.166	.047	.153	.387**	.472**	.425**	.523**	1.000
Coefficient	.050	.585	.076	.000	.000	.000	.000	
Sig. (2-tailed)	.139	.139	.136	.140	.139	.138	.138	.140
N								

** Correlation is significant on the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

*Correlation is significant on the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

A correlation is the relationship between two variables. A correlation is a value between 0 and 1 indicating the strength of the correlation. The first correlation “Transport “with itself is one and the N is the amount of respondents. All correlations with itself are one. If the p-value is less than 0.05 there is significant correlation. (sig. 2-tailed) In other words if the p-value is not significant we don’t look at the coefficient, there is no correlation. (A coefficient above 5 is significant, indicating a strong correlation) The second is “Transport” and “Facilities”, the p-value is bigger than 0.05, there is no correlation. The third is “Transport and “Respect”, the p-value is less than 0.05 and the coefficient is .608, indicating a strong correlation. The stats show that the respondents feeling good about treatment respect also have a good feeling about the transport facilities available. The fourth is “Transport” and “General Working Conditions”, the p-value is less than 0.05 and the coefficient is .532**, indicating a strong correlation. The stats show that well perceived general working conditions make the respondents feel good about transport provided. The fifth is “Transport” and “Promotional potential”, the p-value is less than 0.05 and the coefficient is .378*, indicating a relation although not very strong. The stats show that when respondents feel that promotional potential is present their transport availability feels good. The sixth is “Transport” and “Work Relations”, the p-value is less than 0.05 and the coefficient is .467**, indicating a reasonable but not to strong relationship. The stats show that respondents with good working relationships feel better about transport provided.

The seventh is "Transport" and "Skills Work Activities", the p-value is less than 0.05 and the coefficient is .313**, a relationship although not very strong. The stats show that when work related skills are good, transport is perceived to be satisfying.

The last is "Transport" and "Wellbeing", the p-value bigger than 0.05, there is no correlation. Regarding "Facilities" and "Respect", all variables show a p-value of more than 0.05 indicating there is no relationship. The next is "Respect" and "General Working Conditions", the p-value is below 0.05 and the coefficient is .515**, the relationship is strong. The stats show that when temporary workers are treated with respect they feel good about their working conditions. There is a relationship between "Respect" and "Promotional potential", the p-value is below 0.05 and the coefficient is .420**. The stats indicate that the temporary workers feeling of respect, increases their feelings regarding perceived promotional opportunities.

"Respect" and "Working relations", the p-value being below 0.05 and the coefficient being .545** shows a strong relationship between temporary workers being treated with respect and the positive relationships with their co-workers. "Respect" and "Skills Work Activity", the p-value is below 0.05 and the coefficient being .289**. A not very strong relationship indicating that the work skills activities have some influence on the respect received. "Respect" and "Wellbeing" with a p-value of more than 0.05 shows no correlation. "General Working Conditions " and "Promotional Potential", the p-value is below 0.05 and the coefficient is .690** shows that there is a strong relation. The same with "Work Relations", coefficient .654**, "Work Skills Activity", coefficient .556** and "Wellbeing", coefficient .387** indicating that all variables have a great influence on the good feelings perceived regarding general working conditions. The relation between "Promotional Potential" and "Work Relations" coefficient .639** as well as "Work Skills Activity" coefficient .748** and "Wellbeing" coefficient .472** have p-values less than 0.05, indicating a strong correlation. When the temporary workers feel good about their promotional opportunities they also perceive Relationships, Skills activities and Wellbeing to be good. "Work Relations" compared to Work Skills Activity" coefficient .604** and "Wellbeing" coefficient .425** have p-values less than 0.05. Positive Work Relations have a strong positive influence on their Work Skills Activity and Wellbeing. "Skills Work Activity" is strongly related to "Wellbeing" with a p-value below 0.05 and a

coefficient of .523** showing that the work performance and skill activity influences temporary employees “Wellbeing” positively.





The effects of casualization on the working conditions of temporary employees in the hospitality industry

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Research Dissertation submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree: Master's Degree: Tourism and Hospitality Management

At the University of Johannesburg

In the Faculty of Management

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Abstract

Employees in the events management and conferencing sectors in the tourism and hospitality industries are employed on either full-time and or temporary working arrangements, referred to as casualization. Traditionally, a full complement of employees would be present at hospitality venues; however, economic conditions, occupancy levels and consequently turnover, have dramatically changed, leading to venues only employing staff when they are needed. A South African survey (2010) reveals that most temporary employees are contracted from labour brokers, who in turn sell their skills and services to the events management and conferencing sectors, among others in the hospitality industry. This change was necessary to enable employers to only employ staff for busy periods. (Hickmore, 2011; Mosala, 2008).

The research aims to determine the real working conditions of temporarily employed hospitality employees, and to investigate these working conditions against international labour organisation standards and local labour laws.

The research makes use of a sequential explanatory descriptive design (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2007). A mixed-methods research methodology was used in the form of a quantitative method, which used a survey questionnaire to obtain geographical and personal data, and a qualitative method, which used semi-structured interviews for the purposeful sampling of respondents to obtain a deeper understanding of the issues raised. SPSS was used to analyse the data statistically.

The results show the working conditions to have a negative effect on employees who are contracted to work in a temporary capacity with exploitation, poor salaries, poor training and induction resulting in less than suitable service levels offered to guests and clients. Moreover a sense of complacency was discovered, as staff in this situation make the most of what is available to them.

Key Words: Labour brokers; temporary employees in the hospitality industry; working conditions; temporary employment, temporary staffing.

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This dissertation is dedicated to chefs who aspire to higher academic learning.



Abstract

Acknowledgements

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List of Abbreviations and Acronyms

AFL	-	Advice for Life Database
BCEA	-	Basic Conditions of Employment Act. No.198 (1996)
CDE	-	Centre of Development & Enterprise
CIETT	-	International Confederation of Private Employment Agencies
CTHRC	-	Canadian Tourism Human Resources Council
E&RA	-	Employment and Recruitment Agency Sector
GLA	-	Gangmasters Licensing Authority
ICC	-	International Convention Centre
IHRB	-	International Human Rights and Business
ILO	-	International Labour Office
LFS	-	Labour Force Survey
LRA	-	Labour Relations Amendment Act 2012
META	-	Mobile Europeans Taking Action
NYDA	-	National Youth Development Agency
PWC	-	Price Waterhouse Coopers
SHRM	-	Strategic Human Resources Management
TAW	-	Temporary Employment Workers
TES	-	Temporary employment Services
UFS	-	University of the Free State
TUC	-	Trade Union Congress

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CHAPTER ONE: Introduction and background to the study

1.1 Introduction

Employees in the event management and conferencing sectors of the hospitality industry are employed either in a full-time or temporary working capacity, also referred to as casualization. Traditionally a full complement of employees is present at venues to ensure that standards and demands of the employer and customers can be satisfied. However, circumstances with regard to economic conditions, occupancy levels and consequently turnover have dramatically changed this model, as venues are only willing to employ employees when they are required to match occupancy and service levels using temporary employment or casualization as an employment arrangement.

The word “temping” conjures up an era when young secretarial workers moved from assignment to assignment, almost like a rite of passage, until it was time to take up a desirable employment opportunity and settle down. Furthermore, people in skilled occupations such as nursing and information technology often avail of the services of temping as a way to see the world. Temporary agency working refers to the practice whereby an employment agency engages workers and leases them to a user company. It is a practice that is growing in frequency and in acceptability, but at the same time carries a serious risk of giving rise to employment conditions that fall far short of standards that prevail for non-agency workers (MacPartlin, 2008).

Labour disputes within the tourism industry have been a point of discussion since the early 1970's. Shaw and Williams (1994) indicate that since the early 1980's tourism employers have been guilty of reducing labour costs by decreasing salaries and requiring unreasonable working hours. A temporary solution to the problem is part-time contracts or peripheral employees who work alongside permanent employees. These workers may be employed all year round or just on a seasonal basis as part-time employees in many industries.

Sources adapted from CIETT (2010) indicate a growth in the number of agency workers in South Africa from “not significant” in 2002 to a reported 300.000 in 2007

and up to 924.000 in 2009 or a 208% increase in the last 3 years. The latest statistics show a growth of up to 1.3 million temporary employees, which represents a significant growth in the number of TES employees.

Opinions regarding the nature of private employment agencies vary. *“Some consider the glass half full. Others see it as half empty”*. If it is half full, private employment agencies are a useful springboard towards a regular employment position; they allow companies to cope in a flexible manner with fluctuations in demand. If it is half empty, it is a sector in which temporary agency workers do not have full rights and are seen as second – rate workers (Ecorys, 2009:3).

The research aims to determine the actual conditions of employment, as well as the effects these arrangements have on the employees employed on a casual basis in the conferencing sector of the hospitality industry.

1.2 Background

A South African survey reveals that most temporary employees are contracted to labour brokers, who in turn sell their skills and services to the events management and conferencing sectors. This change in the labour market’s employment model has given employers an opportunity to only employ staff during busy periods (Hickmore, 2011; Mosala, 2008:24-29).

Global growth in the private employment agency industry has been facilitated by labour market deregulation, mergers, business process out-sourcing and offshore activities, demands for talent and information technology, and an increasing use of flexible labour by user enterprises. It is also partly driven by people’s changing attitudes to work, and a wish to find a more flexible work-life balance (CIETT, 2010). The outcome of this changing work environment has implications for employees who find themselves employed under casualized working conditions.

Labour brokers are also referred to as *temporary employment agencies* or *temporary employment services* (TES), according to labour law. A labour broker will have on record a group of workers who are available to be sent to clients (conference

venues) who will pay that labour broker for services provided. The labour broker will in turn pay the temporary employees their remuneration, as agreed upon. The clients and the potential temporary employees enter into a contract with the labour broker. The employee is not permanently employed by either party, and usually does not work again until a new contract is available from the labour broker. As a result of the drastic changes in the labour market, employers in the hospitality industry are employing more temporary employees, which suits their employment needs as and when business requires. This phenomenon is referred to as casualization (replacing permanent positions with temporary employment contracts).

Growing price and other competition factors in many countries are increasingly pressurising profit margins, encouraging human resource management practices that favour part-time work, uncertain time schedules, low remuneration, recourse to agency worker staff, high attrition and low training and retraining. *“Women are often employed in retailing and hospitality services with many holding lower status, lower paid, casual or temporary agency jobs”* (ILO, 2010).

1.3 The Aims & Objectives of the study

The research study seeks to establish and document the factors leading to “casualization”. It also investigates and documents the phenomena of ‘casualization’ within a global context in order to make comparisons with the South African labour market. The research will establish the working conditions, job satisfaction and well-being of the temporary employees who work for or are contracted by labour brokers (employment agencies). It furthermore seeks to determine how and why casualization influences the working conditions of temporary employees who are employed by labour brokers in the hospitality industry owing to the effect of casualization, prescribed labour law and labour broker human resources practices.

The following are research objectives which the study has sought to accomplish:

- Establish and document the factors leading to “casualization” in hospitality.
- Investigate and document the phenomena of ‘casualization’ in the global context, in order to make comparisons with the South African labour market.

- Establish the working conditions, job satisfaction and well-being of temporary employees, who work for or are contracted by labour brokers (employment agencies) in the hospitality industry: and
- Determine how, and why, casualization influences the working conditions of temporary employees who are employed by labour brokers in the hospitality industry.

1.4 Research Questions

- Is Casualization effecting the working conditions of temporary employees?
- Is Casualization as a global phenomenon the reason for labour market deregulation?
- What are the factors driving the labour market deregulation?
- Are the operating practices of TES in accordance with the SA labour law?
- What are the real working conditions of temporary employees in the Hospitality Industry?

1.5 Justification of the Study

The study establishes and documents the effects of casualization on temporary employees, and operating practices of labour brokers, in the conferencing sector of the hospitality industry.

The working conditions of labour broker employees in the hospitality industry in South Africa and the “casualization phenomena” have not been documented or investigated. The issue is controversial and, from an academic viewpoint, debatable. Collation of facts that have been academically researched and tested will provide a background of knowledge, providing a basis to evaluate the present situation.

1.6 Research Methodology

Sequential Explanatory Design

This investigation uses a sequential explanatory design. The research will initially provide data to inform itself of the many possibilities of mixed method research types and approaches that may be used to collect the required data, and in the process determine the chosen methods.

Table 1. Sequential Explanatory Design

Quantitative data collection ➡	Quantitative data analysis ➡	Qualitative data collection ➡	Qualitative data analysis ➡	Interpretation of entire analysis.
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Source Ahmadnezhad, (2012).

Explanatory design

According to Creswell and Plano *et al.* (2007), “*the explanatory method indicates that the research question is more quantitatively orientated; it provides the researcher with the ability to return to the participants for a second round of qualitative data collection; and the researcher is given time to conduct the research in two phases*”. It provides the researcher with an opportunity to analyse and interpret one type of data collected at the time, and the researcher will be able to develop new questions based on quantitative results which cannot be answered with quantitative data. Strengths of this design include the fact that the two phase structure is fairly easy to implement, and that the final report can be written with a quantitative section followed by a qualitative section, providing a clear delineation for readers.

Descriptive methods selected

The quantitative research method that was selected made use of the survey method, using a Likert-scale questionnaire. The structured closed-ended questionnaires were answered by the participants, and the researcher described the responses. “*Closed ended questions are easy to analyse statistically, but they seriously limit the responses that participants can give. Many researchers prefer to use a Likert-type scale because it is easy to analyse statistically*” (Jackson, 2009). Hale (2011) emphasises that descriptive methods can “*only describe a set of observations or collected data, and it cannot draw conclusions from that data about which way the relationship goes*”.

The qualitative method selected made use of semi-structured interviews with managers and labour brokers to collect data which provided insight and correlation into the findings of phase 1, where data relating to the employees experiences were captured.

1.7 Theory search

The research commences with an investigation of the literature relating to existing international and local information and data pertaining to casualization. The working conditions of labour broker employees in the hospitality industry in South Africa and the “casualization phenomena” have not been documented or investigated. The issue is controversial and, from an academic viewpoint, debatable. Collation of facts and data that has been academically researched and tested will provide a background of knowledge, providing a basis to evaluate the present situation.

The theory will be extracted from existing documentation, which includes the global scenario regarding “casualization”, labour deregulation, human resources practices and working conditions in the hospitality industry in general.

1.8 Data collection and Analysis

The research used a sequential explanatory descriptive method as the most suitable method which allows the researcher to collect and analyse the quantitative data first.

1.8.1 Quantitative data collection and analysis

Quantitative data was collected from temporarily employed agency employees by means of a questionnaire. The employees were purposefully selected from the Johannesburg area. Conferencing facilities within the hospitality industry provided access to these employees.

The research data was analysed by using the S.P.S.S program and a professional statistician employed by the University of Johannesburg’s STATKON department. SPSS is a Windows based program that can be used to capture data entries and complete an analysis, as well as create tables and graphs.

The S.P.S.S program compiled the results of the quantitative data, consisting of:

Part 1: Frequencies and descriptives and the exploratory factor analysis.

Part 2: Normality and comparisons and the correlations.

As suggested by Ahmadnezhad (2012), when using a sequential approach, themes and specific statements must be obtained from participants in the initial quantitative data collection phase. In the next phase these statements are used as specific items, and the themes for scales to create a survey instrument, which is grounded in the view of the participants.

1.8.2 Qualitative data collection and analysis

Qualitative data was collected by means of two sets of interviews that were held both with the temporary employment companies, and with managers at the actual venues who employ their staff on a temporary basis. The interviews were conducted in order to probe and question the working conditions from the company and employer perspective, which would provide depth and data which could be compared to the data collected from the employees themselves. The interviews were recorded, then transcribed and analysed by looking for patterns, repeated words, or repeated concepts.

1.9 Limitations of the Study

As this study is sensitive and debatable and relates to working conditions in a controversial labour environment, the data was collected in a sensitive and respectful way. This required skilful and patient approach to ensure that the data would be accurate, reliable and valid.

Phase 1: The researcher found that from the total number of questionnaires returned a large part had to be disregarded, owing to respondents having not completed all sections of the questionnaire. Some sections of the questionnaires were quite clearly not understood or ignored. Some questionnaires were not returned at all, or were lost in the process. Consequently, more questionnaires were distributed.

The 152 collected and successfully completed questionnaires were, therefore, valuable to the research. The data collected provided the required information to analyse and interpret the results, and facilitated the making of a conclusion and recommendations.

Phase 2: The research found that a majority of the labour brokers were not willing to be interviewed. Another finding included knowledge that the interviewed labour brokers or their respective management provided, painted as a rosy picture which simply was not true. Statements made in these interviews were contradicted by the findings in the first phase.

1.10 Overview of Chapters

Chapter 1. Introduction, Background and Overview of the Study

Chapter 2. Literature Review

Chapter 3. Research Methodology

Chapter 4. Results and Findings

Chapter 5. Conclusions and Recommendations

List of References

Appendices

1.11 Definitions & Terminology

Labour Brokers – (TES) The agency who supplies the Hospitality venues with temporary workers with a pre-determined contract.

Temporary Agency Workers – The employee who will be working at the venues for the TES with a pre-determined contract.

Non – Standard work arrangements – Due to the labour market deregulations different part-time and other contract work arrangements are being put in place.

Working conditions – the work environment created by labour brokers (TES), employers, clients of TES and employees themselves.

Precarious work – non-standard employment which is poorly paid, insecure, unprotected and which cannot support a household.

Forced labour – is any work which people are forced to do against their will under the threat of some form of punishment. Almost all slavery practices including trafficking of people and bonded labour contain some elements of forced labour.

1.12 Summary

As the outcome of this changing work environment has implications for the employees who find themselves employed under casualized working conditions, this research aims to investigate and document the casualization phenomena and the consequences for temporary employed individuals who work in the conferencing sector of the hospitality industry.

CHAPTER TWO: Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

Hotels are a component of the hospitality industry and as such, one of the largest and most rapidly expanding industries worldwide. According to the International Labour Office (ILO) (2010), *"the sector can rightfully be described as a vehicle of globalisation, as the hotels themselves accommodate tourists and business travellers from around the world"*. As in most other industries, the hotel sector is increasingly dominated by multi-national companies such as Intercontinental, Marriott International, Hilton International, and Hyatt Regency among others. The industry also has close links to other key agents of globalisation such as airlines, travel agents, real estate investors and credit card companies.

Hotel work opportunities frequently draw workers from the most vulnerable segments of the labour market. *"Hotel jobs are typically low-skilled, flexible (insecure), have few language skill requirements and thus serve the multi-cultural labour markets in cities around the world"* (Gray, 2004). Although many of these features may seem universal, it is important to note that there is considerable variation between countries, between rural and urban areas, and between different segments of the hotel labour market. The degree and impact of unionisation also varies to a great extent (Eurofound, 2004).

Labour brokers form the link between the hospitality industry and the temporary employees. According to Coe (2010) the reasons and purpose for the hospitality industry making use of labour brokers (TES) include:

- Providing numerical flexibility, reducing turnover of skilled and trained core staff, while the use of agency workers allows rapid adjustments to staffing levels in periods of rapid growth or contractions (CIETT, 2010).
- Cutting labour costs, and save payment of the non- responsibilities of benefits payments.
- Reducing recruitment costs, out sourcing advertising and interviewing functions to agencies: and
- Externalizing risks which are associated with directly employing workers, selection, payroll and management costs and undermining trade unions

- The International Labour Organisation (ILO) is an international organisation which promotes decent working conditions for TES workers, establishing their rights and improving their function in the labour market. The ILO guidelines for working conditions will form the basis for comparison of this form of employment practice.

2.2 The Nature of Work in the Hospitality Industry

Tourism and hospitality represents highly labour intensive sectors and, numerically, offers a significant source of employment opportunities. The hospitality industry is among the world's top job creators and allows for quick entry into the work force for youth, women and migrants. As a leading contributor to export earnings, it accounted for 6% of all global exports in 2008 according to the Canadian Tourism Human Resources Council (CTHRC, 2010). With regard to the supply chain in the hospitality sector - one position in the core hospitality industry, indirectly, generates roughly 1.5 additional jobs in the related economies. The hospitality sector in Canada, for example, traditionally draws its work force from the youth. However, employers who are tapping more and more into the migrant labour market find workers on average 10 to 20 years older, which represents a substantial difference in the demographics of temporary employees.

According to the ILO (International Migration Paper No. 112, 2010), Canada's tourism sector faces a potentially severe shortage of labour over the next 15 years. Rising immigration and a higher degree of labour market participation by women will partially offset the shortages. However a number of challenges facing employers and migrant workers include factors such as those newcomers in Canada who lack a network that can help them find employment. Immigrants could consider how their skills can be transferred to the hospitality sector. A supportive community is needed to help immigrants to stay in their positions. Tourism and hospitality employers may not consider the immigrant talent pool as a potential source of labour. Work place culture, policies and practices may not support immigrant employees.

2.3 Previous research highlighting the positive aspects of the labour broker industry

In contrast to the negative opinions raised regularly related to casualization of employees, positive aspects have been identified in the use of labour brokers to provide labour for various markets. *“Global growth in the private employment agency industry has been facilitated by labour market deregulation, mergers, business process out-sourcing and offshore activities, demands for talent and information technology, and increasing use of flexible labour by user enterprises. It is also partly driven by people’s changing attitudes to work and a wish to find a more flexible work-life balance”* (CIETT, 2010).

There is significant use of agency work to cover employee shortages of a temporary or seasonal nature in hotels, restaurants or other catering or tourism enterprises in some countries, combined with some outsourcing of specific services (for example, housekeeping) to outside service providers who may use agency employees or workers (Eurofound, 2009).

2.4 Previous research highlighting the negative aspects of the labour broker industry

Labour disputes within the tourism and hospitality industry have been a point of discussion since the early 1970’s. Shaw and Williams (1994) indicate that as early as the 1980’s tourism employers have been guilty of reducing labour costs by decreasing salaries and requiring unreasonable working hours. *“A temporary solution to the problem is part-time contracts, or peripheral employees, who work alongside permanent employees. These part-time employees may be employed all year round or on a seasonal basis”*.

The ILO is well aware that fee-charging agencies are increasingly involved in international migration, and as some recruiters have engaged in unfair and abusive practices, hence efforts are increased to regulate this market. Licensing and supervision of contracting agencies for migrant workers is a key element in the *“decent work country programs”*, promoting wider ratification in order to prevent abusive practices and to ensure greater respect of worker’s rights (ILO, 2010).

2.5 Change in the International Labour Market

According to the ILO (2010) global competition has been gearing employers towards conducting high-value- added work in their countries, while exporting lower-value-added work. Rapid change in technology and the transformation from a manufacturing to a service economy has increased the demand for a skilled labour force. The global situation requires workers who are among the best skilled and most educated. Many workers and jobseekers however, “including those coming off the welfare rolls” (ILO,2010) do not meet these high standards. They have few of the skills and little of the work experience that employers increasingly value and often require.

“Even as the economy has subsided, the pressure to solve labour market problems continues. In many businesses, for instance, large numbers of workers are reaching retirement age. Where will the replacement workers come from? In many communities, meanwhile, a slowing economy only means that more people in poor neighbourhoods are out of work or underemployed, and they will not be able to rely on the reformed welfare system in many countries for an income”. (ILO, 2010)

In South Africa and many other poorer economies these welfare systems do not exist.

More importantly are the dynamics and complexities of employment, which result from the ongoing global economic change – with one constant being the ever increasing demand for workers who have higher skill levels. Change is happening so quickly that frequently employers themselves do not know what their next product or service will be, or what skills will be needed to produce it. *“Schools in many cities find it hard to keep up with helping students to prepare for the world of work”* (Seltzer, Combes Taylor, 2009).

Groups that typically have difficulty in getting back to work – for example, are the long term unemployed, disadvantaged people, older workers and ethnic minorities, were previously placed by non-profit organisations in temporary jobs with the aim of achieving full-time permanent employment. This practice seemed to be compatible with social goals and lent a positive image to temporary agency workers employed in most European countries (Eurofound, 2009). Temporary Agency Workers, or TAWs,

are found to have less favourable working conditions than other employees, and they also have less autonomy and fewer possibilities of influencing holidays, days off, and the pace of work.

According to Storrie (2007) there is limited knowledge available as to whether the differences are derived from employment status or from differences in age, education, or professional experiences. The frequent change of workplace at the different user firms and the duality of employer responsibility, may also lead to poor working conditions.

Relating to migrants, the Global Union's principles also emphasise the special dangers for migrant workers who are often engaged by temporary agencies or other intermediaries. According to Global Unions, abuses of migrant workers supplied by agencies are all too common. They include the denial of trade union representation and other human rights, human trafficking, confiscation of passports, deceptive practices with respect to wages and working conditions, and the denial of legal redress in the countries in which they work (global-unions.org)

By lowering compensation and firing costs, temporary help agencies made it more attractive for companies to try out workers with poor work histories or otherwise risky characters. Although agencies' temporary workers (TAW's) earned lower wages than those hired directly, many of these workers potentially benefit from exposure to jobs that temporary help agencies offered. Another advantage for these workers was that *"if they did not succeed in the position or did not like the job, the assignment simply ended. It was not recorded as a dismissal or a quit, which would have tarnished their employment records"* (Erickcek *et al.* 2003).

The changes are being driven by a number of factors, and for business the benefits are clear. The cost of labour is one of the largest expenses for businesses and in an uncertain economy employers resist having a large number of employees on their books. A contingent or temporary workforce enables businesses to have greater flexibility to manage changes in demand for products or services. It also means that they are not subjected to the same risks and costs, which are attached to employee absenteeism.

“The increase in temporary employees further enables business to quickly inject talent to meet specific shortfalls or competitive challenges, without incurring the costs and time delays of training. This opens the talent pool. Temporary workers can be drafted from across the world in order to fill positions that become available by the skills shortages” (Sanders, 2013).

So called “employment flexibility” simply means that employers, in their quest to reduce costs whilst trying to meet the demands of globalisation, are disregarding traditional job boundaries – often to the detriment of the unskilled, non-standard employees. Employers use non-standard workers to avoid restrictive labour laws and collective bargaining restraints. In addition, the practice provides them with more flexibility (Fourie, 2013).

2.6 Trends in the global labour market

According to Eurofound (2009), global growth in the temporary employment agency industry has been facilitated by labour market deregulation, mergers and acquisitions, business process outsourcing, offshore activity, demand for talent and information technology and increased use of flexible labour by the user enterprises. It is partly driven by people’s changing attitudes to work, and a wish to find a more flexible work-life balance.

According to ILO reports (2010), the following are global trends:

- Size and structure of the world’s labour market. There is an increasing share of women in the labour force, more women are unemployed than men and more young people are unemployed than adult workers. In addition, the number of older workers who participate in the work force is increasing. Countries face a daunting task of job creation to meet the demand created by an expanding work force.
- Emergence of global production systems and changes in the international division of labour. Cheaper transport, rapid technology advance, the breakup of production processes and location to different countries with lower labour costs have made the competitive advantage that businesses have in industrialized

countries, an almost impossible goal for developing countries (Southern African countries) to break into the global market.

- A shift away from agricultural work and growth of the informal economies in developing countries. There is a global movement away from rural to urban areas and the consequent rise in the number of urban dwellers that are part of a general development pattern. The factors characterize the transformation of economies, and societies based on agriculture, to more diversified systems of production. Despite the large-scale migration to cities, the rural workforce is still large in the developing world, where the share of agricultural employment in total employment levels remained at 48% in 2005.
- Skills shortages. The current process of economic and technological transformation requires constant renewal of skills on the part of the workers, employers and managers. This favours those countries that are best able to meet this demand for enhanced skills; have a more flexible workforce (especially in terms of computer literacy; and are more adaptable to rapid changes in the business environment. Underdeveloped or developing countries are lacking in educational institutions, skills developing institutions and employment creating agencies, thus creating major challenges to compete in the global markets.
- Equality of opportunity in employment. Discrimination in the world of work not only constitutes an abuse of fundamental principles and rights at work but represents a huge cost to society. By excluding members of certain groups from work, or by impairing their chances of developing market relevant capabilities, discrimination lowers the quality of jobs, which in turn enhances their risk of becoming or remaining poor.

Several factors may be blamed for the prevalence of casualization of labour in spite of labour laws provision intended to curtail its incidence. Contributing factors are innumerable in number, for example topping the list is the high unemployment and underemployment rates, which result in workers earning incomes below internationally stipulated poverty levels of at least \$ 1 a day.

Poor labour law enforcement is another contributing factor. *“The high infection rates of the HIV and AIDS pandemic, which causes bread winners and spouses to die,*

forcing the remaining family members to look for work and take on jobs at whatever the cost in order to survive” (Bodibe,2006).

2.7 Change in the labour market structures

For reformers such as the International labour Office (ILO), International Confederation of Private Employment Agencies (CIETT) and the United Nations (UN), the aim is to be of assist and protect low-income people. Challenges include dynamism and complexity resulting from on-going global economic change, with one constant being the ever increasing demand for workers with higher skills. Changes in the labour market, human resources and information technology are happening so quickly that frequently employers themselves do not know what their next product or services will be, or what skills will be needed to produce them. Changes could include the volume of production, technology changes required, issues such as transport logistics, distribution, and timing, purchasing and storage facility procedures.

Temporary Employment Services (TES), (wording found in the SA Labour Laws) are possibly making a difference. The proposed amendments to the labour laws are key to the sound and sustainable development of the Temporary Employment Services (*TES*) sector. “It is for companies to partner with a viable TES provider, one that can enable swift adaptation to change with new and innovative solutions to labour market challenges. In essence a valued and crucial partner for both business and employees” (Tulleken, 2012).

According to Robinson (2007), there are a set of forces which are shaping and changing the way in which work happens:

- An intensification of global competition as a consequence of trade and financial liberalization, as well as a dramatic reduction in transport and communication costs;
- A technological transformation created by the diffusion of new means of information processing and communications;
- A shift towards greater reliance on markets and a reduced role for the state, accompanied by, and sometimes at odds with, increased political pressure for

improved living and working conditions triggered by the spread of democratic mechanisms of representation and accountability; and

- The development imperative, stemming from the urgent need to reduce poverty and inequality within and among nations. World leaders are committed to the Millennium Development Goals and to decent work.

2.8 Drivers of change

According to Robinson (2007) *“globalization, the global economy, and the global market are terms that consume our daily discourse as we seek to understand and come to terms with the impact of changes wrought by trade and financial liberalization.”* Furthermore Robinson indicates that *“we are in the midst of a technological revolution, where the powers of the Nation State are eroded and it has trouble controlling fiscal and monetary policy; information flows; cultural norms; trade; and labour markets; and the human beings, the workers, who comprise world labour markets are required not only to cope, but to perform at increasingly high levels of competence”*

Seven strategies for changing drivers in the labour markets have been identified, according to Seltzer & Combes Taylor (2009), tabled below:

Table No. 2: Seven strategies for changing drivers.

(Supply-side strategies Employees)	(Demand-side strategies Employers)
<p>1. Increase public financial resources dedicated to upgrading the work-related skills of low-income people.</p> <p>2. Restructure educational institutions and training organisations so the content and outcomes of their courses meet employers’ needs and the course delivery meet low income people’s needs.</p> <p>3. Integrate human services, income support, and work force development to assist working individuals until they reach a family-supporting wage.</p>	<p>4. Change employers’ business and work place practices to support the retention and advancement of low-income workers.</p> <p>5. Restructure government financial incentives to businesses and investments in public infrastructure leverage resources and reduce barriers for low-income job seekers and employees.</p> <p>6. Develop a system of “portable” credentials and standards for work skills that is formally adopted by employers on</p>

	<p>the demand side and by the providers, including educators, on the supply side.</p> <p>7. Create policy-advocacy / influencing mechanisms that enable key stakeholders from the demand and supply sides- including low-income people and employers- to modify workforce development systems to meet their needs.</p>
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Source: Marlene B. Seltzer and Judith Combes Taylor (2009) Jobs for the future.

A Global Labour Market Distribution Chart represents the different “Worlds of Work” and changing labour markets: a system approach to reform, as shown below:

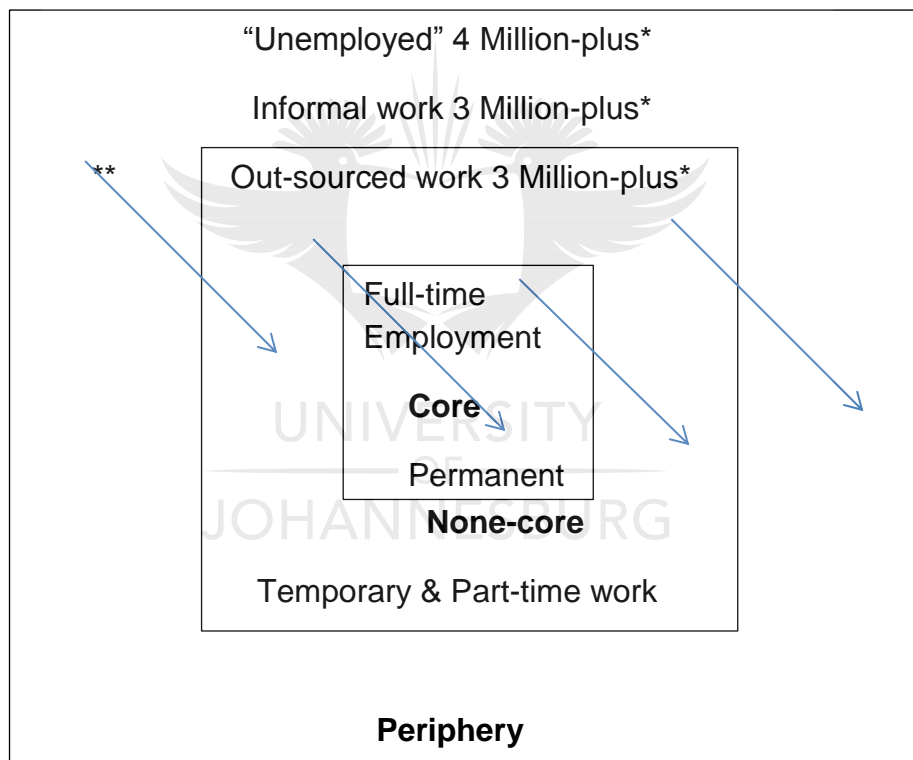


Figure 1: Global Labour Market Distribution Chart

*note: From the figure shown above it is not possible to distinguish between temporary, part-time and outsourced work.

**note: The arrows represent the movements between the different “worlds of work” with movement from the periphery and the non-core into the core that is difficult to achieve. The arrows flow from unemployed into out-sourced or non-permanent part-time employment indicates that unemployed workers gain rather temporary or

contract employment than permanent employment. As well the likely hood of becoming unemployed ones a contract has expired. The difficulty to gain permanent employment, the core being permanent employment, also shows the possibility of due to casualization becoming part-time or contract worker.

According to the CIETT (2010), *“Globalisation, deregulation and technological advancement compounded by unemployment, are to blame for the changes in the composition of the workforce”*. Labour legislation was drafted to protect employees in the traditional full-time paradigm and is currently inadequate to provide protection to workers who are employed in new forms of non-standard employment. It is becoming a hard task for the courts to distinguish between a worker who is a permanent employee and one who is a temporary employee. The CIETT tries to explore the scope of the extension of labour rights to non-standard workers in the context of South African labour laws and the international framework.

2.9 Casualization

According to the ILO (2010) the following factors have led to the shift from permanent employment to casualization:

- Economic and financial crisis

Although the tourism and hospitality industry has, in general, seen considerable growth since 1994, and the windfall of the 2010 Soccer World Cup in South Africa saw an increase in tourism and hotel accommodation from 2009 up until 2012, the influx of tourists has declined significantly owing to economic uncertainties and a global downturn, which began in 2008.

- Demand for talent and information technology

Growing price and other competition factors, such as superior communication channels, better and faster transport among others, have in many countries increasingly pressurised profit margins, encouraging human resource management practices that favour temporary demand for specifically skilled employees who are either experts in their field, or provide a gap filling role in the needs of a company. The need for expert skills relating to information technology, such as information

management and data integration, also provides only temporary positions in the workplace, in the form of consultancy positions, which disappear once the work has been completed.

- Labour market deregulation

The growth in irregular work has changed the nature of employment from a labour relationship to a commercial relationship, with the worker taking all the risks. There is now a sharp rise in casual employment and a parallel rise in the gap between the wages and benefits of permanent and casual workers. The use of casualization as a labour practice has become part of a business model; involving the strategic substitution of fulltime workers with contract and / or agency labour. This trend is responsible for more and more workers in permanent employment losing their jobs and being re-employed and or replaced by casual or contract workers. (ILO, 2011)

- Mergers and Acquisitions

Casualization refers to the “*displacement of standard employment by temporary or part-time employment or both*”, while externalization refers to “*a process of economic restructuring*” (increased mergers and acquisitions to become more globally competitive) in terms of which employment is regulated by a commercial contract rather than a contract of employment. In-formalization refers to the process by which employment is increasingly unregulated and workers are not protected by labour laws (ILO, 2011).

- Business process outsourcing and the use of flexible labour by the client.

Casualization is further segmenting the world’s labour markets. Certain business processes within companies are being outsourced to specialist providers of these services. Flexible labour is a further change that makes use of short term employment opportunities for employees, using them only when the need for their skills and talents arise. Anecdotal evidence, according to Cheadle (2006), suggests “*a growing polarity between those in full-time employment with the employer and those in casual employment; and there is a polarity between those who are employed by the employer (both full-time and casual) and those who are employed by other employers (contractors and labour brokers)*”. The consequent casualization has paved the way to disparity, highlighting the unfair difference in pay and

conditions of service between full-time employees and casual employees in the same company.

- The changing attitude to work, to find a more flexible work-life balance.

Employees themselves also contribute to changes within the traditional working spaces. Both males and females may look for work opportunities that allow them a better work-life balance. Choices may be made where working hours and commitment found in traditional working arrangements are not selected in favour of a more flexible working arrangements.

2.10 The global scenario.

According to Fapohunda & Tinuke (2012) *“the practice of casualization is an alarming trend, considering that working was once a hope for rising working and living standards.* Casualization is referred to in Europe and the US as “Non Standard Work Arrangements” (NSWA’s) (ILO, 2008), which involves the process whereby more and more of the workforce are employed in “casual” jobs. Typically, support services such as cleaning, catering, warehousing, transport, distribution and security are sub-contracted. It can also arise that in some cases the entire or part of the business activity is outsourced or “casualized”. A casual employee is barely guaranteed a legal minimum wage, any job security, and allowances for lunch, travel and housing. Neither do they receive benefits such as paid vacation, paid sick leave, funeral assistance and pension.

This situation results partly in the treatment meted on employees by employers, as employers believe that they will always have people who are willing to work for them, irrespective of the conditions. Again, there is the desperate attitude of potential or existing employees in getting or retaining jobs at any condition or cost. As noted earlier, nonstandard work (NSW) arrangements is a global issue (Kalleberg, 1999).

Growing price and other competition factors such as superior communication channels, better and faster transport, (among some others) in many countries are increasingly pressurising profit margins, encouraging human resources management practices that favour part-time work, uncertain time schedules, low remuneration, resource to agency worker staff, high attrition and low training and retraining.

Women are often in retailing (hospitality services included) with many of the women holding lower status, lower paid, casual or temporary agency jobs.

In areas like cleaning, security and domestic work and the hospitality industry, the work force is presented by a large percentage of migrant female and part-time workers, who are typically low skilled and low paid. (ILO, 2009).

2.11 Developments in the South African labour broking industry

According to the findings published in Price Waterhouse Cooper's (PWC) South African Hospitality Outlook 2011-2015 (First South African edition), growth is forecasted, although occupancy rates are not expected to match those seen prior to 2009 (Foster, 2011).

According to the previous SA Minister of Tourism, Martinus van Schalkwyk, *"the business events industry had a huge impact and influence on the country's macro-economy. Apart from delegates spending, stimulating international markets for locally produced goods and services and job creation. For most of these events temporary staff is employed for that occasion only"* (D'Angelo; 2013).

The TES employs staff for the hospitality, conferencing and events management industries; specifically concentrating on waiters, chefs, pot washers and general cleaners. The usual job requirements are for low skilled positions. These positions can virtually be performed by any hard worker, even the basic skills required for a commis-chef or apprentice, although some contractors do supply chef-de-parties and sous-chefs, which are higher level skilled staff for the kitchen environment (Hickmore, 2011).

In order to maintain standards and consistency in their services to the paying public, conference and events management facilities will need to permanently employ expensive, more permanent, highly skilled chefs, service staff and managers. While in contrast, the use of labour broker employees for lower-skilled positions will save cost-to-company wages in company budgets. The TES makes use of foreigners, African migrants and unemployed South Africans. They are vulnerable workers who would do virtually anything to find employment and earn some sort of a living.

Working conditions are influenced by the client, for example, by providing their temporary employees with a comprehensive induction or socialisation program. It may be questioned as to whether the conferencing industry is under the impression that they will be supplied with well-informed, trained, competent staff.

A possible good reason as to why conference centres should employ TES employees could be the fact that they do not have to deal with costly recruitment procedures, disciplinary processes, medical aid contributions, pension provisions and transport.

In the South African context, recent research by Foster (2011) on labour migration in SA has concluded that internal migration is beneficial to both the sending and receiving location if it is temporary; otherwise social consequences for the households that lose principal members are severe. Some of the direct benefits are the economic rewards and the skills transfer that it promotes, while an indirect benefit is the remittance of ideas and positive influence, which is described as a political remittance. Undocumented migrants are mainly to be found in insecure forms of work. Meanwhile, offshoots of small enterprises, which are owned by migrants, include job creation for South African workers which lead to the spending of up to 50% of their earnings in South Africa (Fakier, 2007).

This research will outline TES employees' working conditions, indicating remuneration, hours on duty, the presence of benefits such as medical aid, pension, and other benefits that permanent staff enjoy (supply of uniforms, laundry facilities, proper staff meals, overtime allowances and leave days) and the lack of, or sufficient training (introducing temporary employees to what is required by clients and standards that they expect).

2.12 Casualization in southern Africa and South Africa

The South African situation relating to TES (labour broking or employment agencies) has grown considerably in recent years, especially in the finance and commercial (hospitality) sectors among private services, while labour brokers are currently regulated by section 198 of the Labour Relations Act. No 198 (1996). This Act indicates that the user enterprise, (or TES client) and the labour broker itself, are

jointly and severally liable for any breach of a collective agreement or binding arbitration award that regulates terms and conditions of employment (BCEA, Act no. 198 of 1996).

However, Mosala (2008) reports that workers may have difficulty in contesting or imposing liability to agencies, or user enterprises owing to the unique relationship of the three parties, while agencies and user enterprises may accept little or no responsibility towards the labour rights of employees.

The protection of “vulnerable” workers has become a priority for the many actors who are involved in the revision of the Labour Relations Act. The Congress of South African Trade Unions (COSATU) is calling for the outright ban of labour brokers, while the Federation of Unions of South Africa has called for better regulations.

Over the past thirty years, employment agencies have become large-scale labour market intermediaries, acquiring the status of brokers of flexibility at both micro level (meeting the preferred needs of individuals and enterprises), and macro level (managing economic uncertainty and risk across labour market. In the context of widespread outsourcing and offshoring in many sectors, workers have experienced downward pressure on pay, conditions and employment in recent years in many countries. *“There has been increasing use of temporary employment agencies for staff at all levels and other forms of flexible labour and subcontracting”* (Taylor, 2010).

The increase in casualization in the southern African labour market region, according to Bodibe (2006), is a subject of great controversy. Increasingly, casually employed employees are filling positions that are permanent in nature. Retrenchments in the hospitality and tourism sector are a straightforward case of a company reducing its workforce. For example, the Sun International hotel group reduced workers from 120000 to 3000 within ten years. The following jobs have undergone substantial restructuring in hotels through outsourcing: maintenance, concierge, food & beverage, car-hire, cleaning and security. Other ways to keep costs down for companies include: retrenchments, outsourcing, and numerical, functional and wage

flexibility. The sector is characterized by high proportions of part-time and casual employees and substantial numbers of cash-in-hand informal hidden employees.

The outcome of casualization on workers, according to Bodibe (2006), includes the following:

- Women tended to work in storage facilities, as cleaners or as cooks assistants while the men are chefs;
- A working day is 8 hours with a 30 minute break;
- Basic wages are well below the poverty line and workers do not receive any benefits;
- Workers sign contracts but never receive copies; and
- Employers do not provide transport and this poses serious risks, for women who work night shifts.

A key finding from Bodibe (2006) is that “*casual (temporary) employment is on the rise, yet trade union strategies and labour regulations are trailing behind*”. Hence, casual employees are poorly organised and fall through the cracks of both labour regulations and social protection mechanisms. The rise of casual employment has dramatically increased insecurity in the work place among workers, and has shifted power to employers.

The poorly organised communication lines amongst temporary employees’ means that they do not act together to claim their rights. Certain exclusions within the law, such as the retrenching and rehiring employees on a contract basis, have been abused to convert employment contracts into commercial ones. Poor capacity of labour inspectorates results in poor enforcement. According to Bodibe (2006) “*it is the powerlessness and vulnerability that affect casual worker’s ability to claim their rights. Employers could use casual labour to weaken unions and to impose flexibility in the work force*”.

This shifts the balance of power in favour of management, as they confront a fragmented labour force, and more so one that they can easily dispose of. Tied to this is the economic rationale of holding down labour costs as a strategy to increase profits, and in response to increased global competition (Bodibe, 2006).

According to Cheadle (2006) indications are that full-time employees may typically belong to a union and have better pay and benefits plus better working conditions. Compared to full-time employees, casual employees receive lower wages and have no benefits such as medical aid and retirement. Casualization has increased the job insecurity of all workers by placing downward pressure on the conditions of permanent workers. Permanent employees live with the fear of losing their jobs and the benefits that come with such a job. Conversely, casual employees also live with the fear of losing their positions and become susceptible to management pressure. The workplace is becoming a veritable place of fear - fear of losing jobs.

The meagre wages earned by casual workers are not sufficient to support their families. In the context of high living costs, several studies (Mosoetsa ,2005; Van der Westhuizen, 2005) indicate that employees supplement their income by moonlighting in the informal sector or by participating in cash generating activities. The second fundamental effect of casualization and attendant low wages is to shift the burden of care and social reproduction into the house hold. A worker who previously had medical aid benefits has to pay out-of-pocket for health care once they lose this benefit. *“In a way, casual labour is now the source of cheap labour for capital across the South African economy”* (Bodibe, 2006).

Bodile (2006) further discusses that casualization has a history in the retail sector in South Africa. Shoprite is said to have inherited the principle from OK Bazaars. Underpayment is rife in the retail sector; as there is downward mobility of wages. The mobility of wages is the main bone of contention with management. On average, there are 64 permanent employees per store, with 150 casual employees. The permanent employment rate is decreasing due to death and retirements. Pick 'n Pay workers are afraid to declare employment or casual status, for fear of victimization from the employer. *“The inefficient public inspection by the labour department is the cause for casualization and its misuse of employees”*. (Bodibe, 2006).

Relating to decent work deficit logic, Figure 2 below illustrates that the effect of casualization is eroding decent work. The dismantling of barriers to trade and capital flows has opened up cost-cutting competition between and within countries and

companies, with the result that employers bypass the labour laws, triggering a process of informalisation either through outsourcing or retrenchment. Theron (2010) calls outsourcing that is eroding jobs informalisation from above, and the creation of survivalist-type jobs informalisation from below.

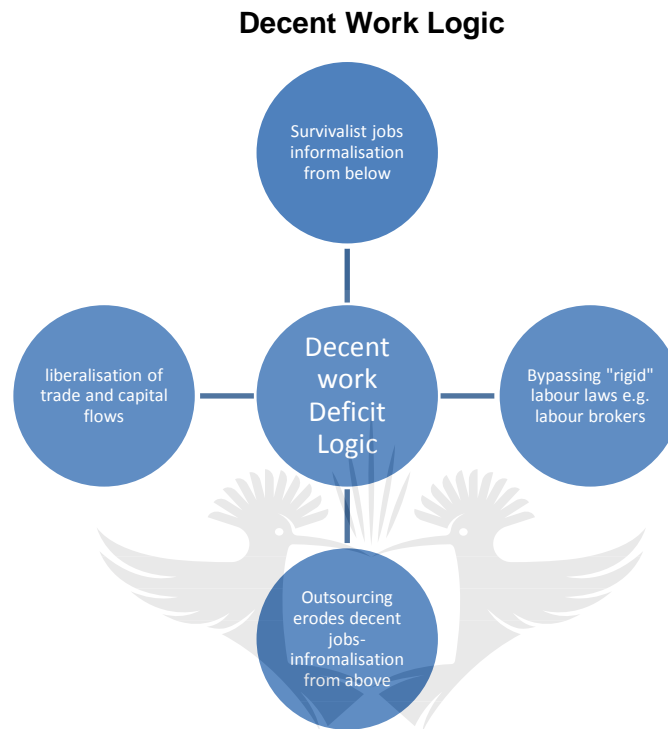


Figure 2: Effects of casualization illustrated (Theron, 2010).

Theron (2010) further indicates that the labour market has caused the transition by employers from one system of sourcing labour to another. These include the labour market phenomena described as casualization, externalization and in-formalization. Employment transition between formal employment, informal sector employment and unemployment are particularly pronounced among low-wage workers. The main thrust of the decent work discourse in South Africa is in-formalization and the growth of atypical forms of employment, which is characterized by casualization and externalization.

Changes of the labour market structures are fuelled by several factors, including the economic toll of HIV and AIDS on businesses in terms of reduced levels of productivity, high rates of absenteeism and increased health insurance costs. The

growth of non-standard employment has eroded the quality of labour protection, making a reappraisal of labour policies and laws imperative (ILO, 2011).

Labour brokers (TES) in South Africa were described as “*super exploiters*” during hearings in government into proposed amendments to labour laws. Business was told that it did not understand the vulnerability of people who are employed part-time or by labour brokers. Several studies by Price Water Cooper (2011) have cited warning of the damage to employment that would result with increased legislation. An executive from the retailer “Mr Price”, said that management do not regard part-time employees as vulnerable, and that forcing employers to treat part-time employees as equal to full-timers would lead to fewer part-time employees being employed (Crotty, 2012).

In the graph below the employment categories in each of Johannesburg, Gauteng and Cape Town, Western Cape are compared. There are differences to be found in the temporary employment categories combined with working for someone on a part-time basis, with Johannesburg leading with 29% of the workforce being temporarily employed. While Cape shows 25% of the workforce being temporary employed. Both provinces showing 25% and more being temporary employed.

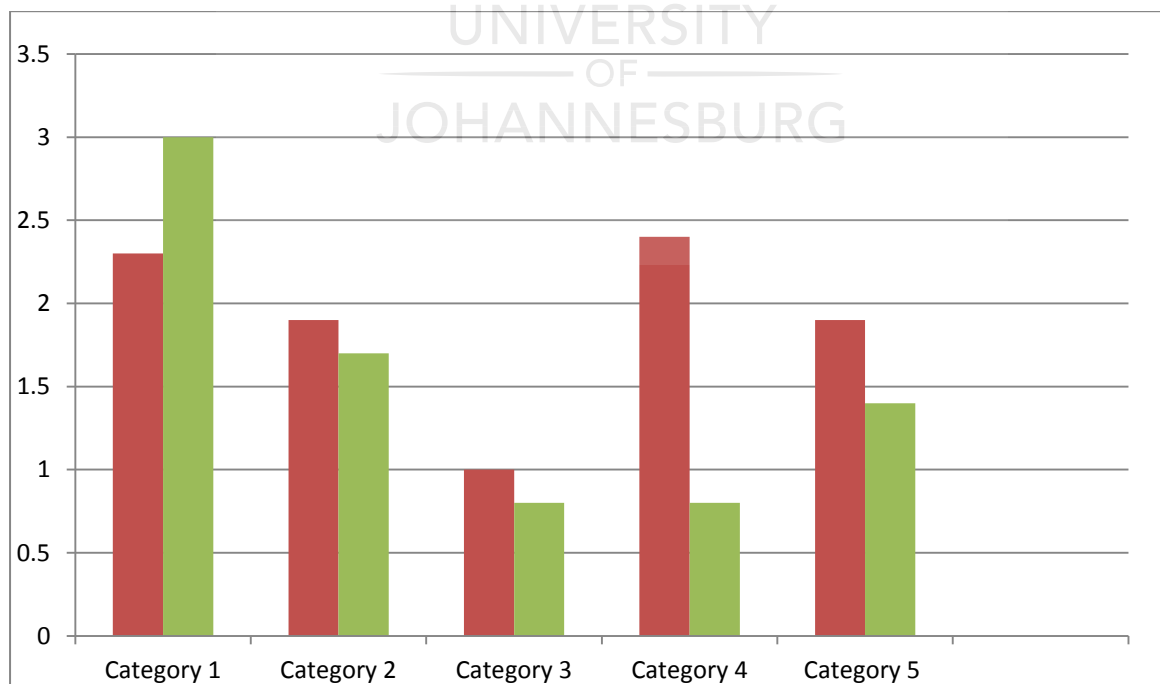


Figure 3: Employment type by city in South Africa

Source: MRMP (Migrants Rights Monitoring Project)

Red – Johannesburg, Gauteng (cat 1 / 23%) (cat 2 / 19%) (cat 3 / 10%) (cat 4 / 24%) (cat 5 / 19%)
Green– Cape Town, Western Cape (cat 1 / 30%) (cat 2 / 17%) (cat / 8%) (cat 3 / 8%) (cat 4 / 8%) (cat 5 / 14%)

Category 1: Not working at all.

Category 2. Casual/Temporary employment.

Category 3. Working part-time for someone.

Category 4. Working full-time for someone.

Category 5. Self-employed.

Other statistics from Mosala (2008) indicate that Zimbabweans are more likely to be unemployed in South Africa than other foreigners. On average it appears that Zimbabweans are also more likely to work in casual jobs, and less likely to be self-employed. Labour market transitions are a key challenge to the capacity of labour law to provide for decent work in southern Africa is the traditional, but now inadequate, reliance on the standard employment relationship as the focus of protective labour legislation.

“Casualization and externalisation have created varying forms of triangular employment that pose a challenge to workers’ protection in southern Africa. As these phenomena change the nature of employment, they remove the ambit of labour law protection” (Fenwick & Kalula, 2007).

2.13 Regulatory bodies

2.13.1 International Labour Office (ILO)

According to the ILO (2010) the definition of a private employment agency (or TES) is any enterprise or person, independent of the public authorities, which provides one or more of the following labour market services:

- (a) services for matching offers of and applications for employment;
 - (b) services for employing workers with a view to making them available to a third party (user enterprise); or
 - (c) other services relating to job seeking such as the provision of information, that does not aim to match specific employment offers and applications
- (ILO p. 296-299 and 300-307) Article 1 of Convention no.181 (2012).

The International Labour Convention (ILO), No. 181, discusses the protection of agency recruited workers. This guarantee covers fundamental rights at work such as freedom of association, collective bargaining, equal opportunity and treatment and elimination of child labour. Article No 4 protects workers against violations of the fundamental principles and rights. Article No 8 provides that countries adopt appropriate measures to protect and prevent the abuse of migrant workers. Article No 8 also requires states to establish a legal framework, including adequate penalties such as fines or closure of private agencies to protect migrant workers against abuse (ILO, General survey, 2010).

The ILO Convention 181 initiated the Decent Work Country Programmes or National Action Plan on a global scale, which began in Europe. The International Labour Organisation is aware of recruitment agencies involvement in international migration, and that some recruiters have engaged in unfair and abusive practices. The ILO has indicated that governments should also adopt measures to prevent fraudulent practices or abuse by agencies in relation to migrant workers. Positive perspectives regarding labour brokers where large international employment services operate with pride and honesty, according to stipulated labour laws. (Principles on Temporary Work Agencies, CGU General Secretaries Meeting, 11 June 2010).

The ILO recognises that if agencies are properly regulated they will contribute to improved functioning of the labour markets. They fulfil specific needs to enterprises as well as workers, and aim to complement other forms of employment. Several of today's agencies (like Manpower, Adecco, Kelly Services) are large, internationally active enterprises that are quoted on the stock exchange and take care to be seen as responsible and ethical. The ILO also recognises that there are many unscrupulous agencies in operation, which exploit the naivety and desperation of workers who are in vulnerable situations. Abuse can take many forms such as health and safety procedure issues, falsifying wage slips, confiscating passports, deducting excessive amounts of payments for housing and transport to work, debt bondage, bullying, harassment or even physical violence.

It took the death of 21 Chinese cockle pickers for the British government to enact the Gangmasters Licensing Act (2004). The temporary cockle pickers were employees

(illegal) that were canvassed from China. They were transported in closed trucks to Britain and suffocated during the trip. This sort of illegal recruitment of cheap labour is reflective of what occurs elsewhere in the world, including South Africa.

2.13.2 International Confederation of Private Employment Agencies (CIETT)

The triangular relationship between agencies, workers and user enterprises has been the main contention in labour laws, leading to poor working conditions and abuse of temporary employees around the globe.

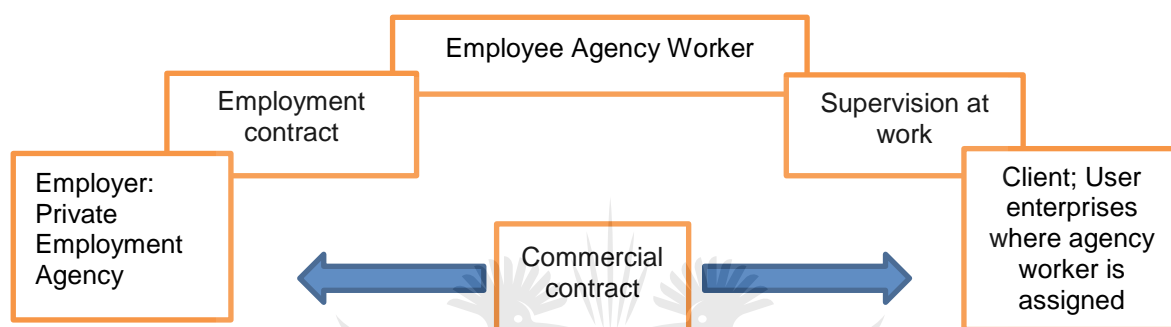


Figure 4. Source: Adapted from a CIETT illustration (2009)

The triangular relationship between the client, agency (TES) and temporary employee is intermediated through the private employment agency (TES) and is governed by the national regulatory context (Labour Laws) in which it occurs. Changes in the circumstances of one of the parties involved in the relation can have a knock-on effect on the other two. This can constitute a virtuous circle during economic booms and a vicious circle for all during recessions. According to the CIETT, during economic downturns the importance of the relationships shrinks, as was the case from mid-2008. There is a close correlation in many industrialised countries between growth of gross domestic product and the use of temporary agency workers, so the recent financial and economic crisis and the subsequent fall in global economic output led to a contraction of the industry worldwide. Agency workers (temporary employed employees) were often the first who were obliged to leave user enterprises in difficult times, but were also often the first to be rehired when recovery began (CIETT, 2009: p.28).

Statistics SA indicates a growth in the number of agency workers in South Africa from “not significant” in 2002 to a reported 300,000 in 2007 and up to 924,000 in 2009 or a 208% increase in the last 3 years. 2011/ 2012 Reports indicate that up to 1.3 million agency employees are temporarily assigned to contract positions. In the amendments made in the Labour Relations Amendment Act (2012), the responsibility for employees is still jointly shared by the agency and user enterprises. The employees have difficulty contesting dismissal or imposing liability on agencies or user enterprises, owing to the unique relationship of the three parties, while agencies and user enterprises may accept little or no responsibility towards the labour rights of employees. The LRA (2012) proposed legislation to protect vulnerable workers and to regulate the entire labour broker industry (CIETT, 2008).

European trends include the use of temporary employees in manufacturing, shifting away to the service sectors. There is a significant use of agency employees to cover staff shortages of a temporary or seasonal nature in hotels, restaurants and other catering or tourism enterprises. Combined outsourcing and subcontracting of other services for example, housekeeping, cleaners, catering staff and waiters, also take place. User enterprises usually sign a contract with the agencies, but can easily switch over to another agency when they are not satisfied with expected services.

Agency employment in services has grown substantially as a proportion of total employment opportunities, but much research is needed about the significance of these differences in contractual status, human resources solutions, and other related issues.

More than three quarters of Chilean agencies' workers are in the services sectors. A total of 40% of agency workers are in construction in South Africa, and in manufacturing work in Argentina, Korea and Uruguay (CIETT, 2011, 21-34).

2.13.3 United Nations (UN) Guidelines

The United Nation's (UN's) principle guidelines on business and human rights in the Employment and Recruitment Agency Sector (E&RA) consider the actual definitions and whether migrant workers are by national law “legal or illegal” or “regular or irregular”, and whether E&AR firms are either “rogue or unscrupulous” and have any base in international law. UN guideline research done by Shift (2013) into the labour

broker industry considered impacts resulting from trafficking, slavery, forced and bonded labour. Impacts of human rights were specifically rife in regions in Africa, Central and South America, Asia, the Gulf States and Russia. Bonded labour plays a role, where workers have been indebted and now have to work to repay their loans. In many instances of illegal forms of labour or abuse deductions are made for accommodation, transport and food.

Globally, migrant workers are seen as particularly vulnerable to adverse human rights abuse for a number of reasons, including immigration status, can tie workers to one employer, while they often do not speak the host country's language, are not aware of the labour laws, nor the avenues to address abuse or illegal practices. UN investigations found that international recruitment most commonly takes place with the use of the E&AR or through agreements that do not have contractual basis, including lack of documentation and transparency.

There is also increased involvement of criminal gangs who manipulate labour laws and the rights of temporary employees in the E&AR industry, through threats and abuse. Further concerns relate to the E&AR's low rates, indicating worker and tax exploitation. "Frequent subcontracting across continents heightens the risks of human rights abuses" (Shift, 2013).

2.13.4 Basic Conditions of Employment Act No 198 of 1996, Part G. 30 (BCEA) (South Africa).

According to the Labour Relations Act, No 198 of 1996 (Part G, 30), reference is made to temporary employment services (TES) as:

- Any person who, for reward, procures for or provides employees to a client if that person remunerates the employees;
- For the purpose of this determination, an employee whose service has been procured for, or provided to, a client by a TES, is employed by that TES, and the TES is that person's employer;
- That the TES and the client are jointly and severally (individual) liable to comply with this determination in respect of its employees; and

- If the TES is in default of its obligation to make any payment in terms of this determination to an employee for a period of thirty days, the client concerned becomes liable to make payments.

Other determinations from the Labour Relations Act No 198 of 1996 include issues such as: commission work, overtime, payment of overtime, meal intervals, days off and leave, night work, and transport.

- Commission work: an employer must pay an employee the rates applicable for commission work as agreed to, provided that irrespective of the commission earned, the employer shall pay such an employee not less than the prescribed minimum wage for the period of time (in other words, the employer must pay the employee the applicable minimum wage as prescribed).
- Overtime: an employer may not require or permit an employee:
 - To work more than 10 hours overtime per week; and
 - To work more than 12 hours, including overtime, on any day.
- Payment of overtime: an employer must pay an employee at least one and a half times the employee's wage for overtime worked.
- Meal intervals: if during a meal interval an employee may be required or permitted to perform only duties that cannot be left unattended and cannot be performed by another employee, according to the Act. the employees must be paid (a meal interval being 60 minutes).
- Days off and leave: Apart from the 21 days annual leave (permanent staff) and by agreement one day annual leave per every 17 days worked, an employer must grant an employee an additional day of paid leave if a public holiday falls on a day during an employee's annual leave on which the employee would otherwise have worked.
- Night work and transport: a night shift refers to performed work between 18.00 and 6.00 the next day, in which case an employee receives an allowance or a reduction of work hours. Transportation is available between the employee's place of residence and the work place.

The Basic Conditions of Employment Act, No 198, SA (2 section 23, 1996) stipulates that every person has the right to "fair labour practices", which includes a reasonable

job with certain criteria that need to be met, reasonable working hours and decent remuneration. A further requirement of the law (BCEA) stipulates that employees, including temporary and fixed term workers, should be employed with a contract. Currently, the Labour Law Amendment Act (2012) is being considered in the South African parliament. This amendment bill will see drastic changes to be implemented specifically for TES employees and their clients, taking into consideration that current labour law prescribes confusing responsibilities to both TES as an employer and their clients who deal with their temporary staff. For example, the current related labour law prescribes that if, for whatever reason, the TES fails to pay their workers, the client will be responsible for remuneration. The law stipulates that the client will then reclaim these payments from the TES. The amendment bill is addressing certain problems and abusive practices which are associated with TES.

“The main thrust of this bill is to restrict the employment of more vulnerable, lower paid workers by TES, to situations of genuine and relevant “temporary work” (Tulleken, 2012).

2.13.5 Labour Relations Act. 2012 (LRA) (South Africa)

According to a newspaper article by Ann Crotty “MPs attack business over labour broker use” in The Star newspaper business (26-07-2012), labour brokers were described as “super exploiters” during hearings of the proposed amendments to labour laws, and business was told that it did not understand the vulnerability of people who are employed part-time or by labour brokers. Businesses stressed the importance of labour brokers in promoting employment opportunities and enabling businesses to be flexible.

Several government studies were cited warning of the damage to employment that would result with increased legislation. An executive from retailer “Mr Price”, said that management does not regard part-time employees as vulnerable, and that forcing employers to treat part-time employees equal to full-timers would lead to fewer people being employed (Crotty, 2012).

In another newspaper article by Loane Sharp “Amendments will throttle job creation” in The Star newspaper business (18-08-2013). Effectively about half a million people

find employment through labour brokers in South Africa (7% of the countries workers). The proposed amendments to the LRA (2012) seeks equal pay and benefits for any temporary employee who is hired for more than three months. If the employer fails to offer an indefinite contract if there is reasonable expectation of one, this will be construed as a dismissal. *“The contract worker must be employed permanently, unless the company can justify the need for continued fixed-term contract work”* (Sharp, 2013).

The LRA (2012) amendments to sections 198 (4) and 198 A of Act. 66 of 1995 (BCEA) section 198 continue to apply to all employees. It retains the general provisions that a TES is the employer of persons whom it employs and pays to work for a client, and that a TES and its client are jointly and severally liable for specified contraventions of employment laws. “Temporary service” will mean work for a client by a TES employee that does not exceed three months or where the TES employee substitutes for an employee of the client who is temporarily absent, even for longer than three months such as a client employee being on maternity leave. Even where a TES employee works for a client, the employee remains an employee of the TES. After three months of working for the client the TES employee becomes an employee on an indefinite period basis. Then the employee must be paid the same salary and benefits as the clients other employees who perform the same or similar work, unless there is a justifiable reason for different treatment.

A number of further general protections were also introduced by the LRA (2012). An employee bringing a claim, for which a TES and client are jointly and severally liable, may institute proceedings against either the TES or client or both, and may enforce any order or award that is made against the TES and client or against either of them. A labour inspector acting in terms of the BCEA may secure and enforce compliance against the TES or the client, as if it were the employer, or both. A TES may not employ an employee on terms and conditions of employment not permitted by the LRA, a sectoral determination or a collective agreement concluded at a bargaining council that is applicable to a client for whom the employee works.

The labour court or an arbitrator may now rule on whether a contract between a TES and a client complies with the LRA, a sectoral determination or applicable bargaining

council agreement, and make an appropriate award. There have been rulings that these agreements lie beyond their jurisdiction. A TES must be registered to conduct business, but the fact that it is not registered is no defence to any claim which is instituted in terms of the section. A TES must provide an employee who is assigned to a client with written particulars of employment that comply with section 29 of the BCEA no 198 of 1996.

The new section 198 in the LRA (2012) contains additional protection measures to protect employees. An employee who is employed on a fixed-term contract must be treated on the whole not less favourable than an employee who performs the same work on an indefinite contract. A fixed-term contract employee must be provided with the same opportunities to apply for a vacancy. If the section 198 of 1996 justified a contract of longer than 24 month expires, the employer must pay the employee one week's remuneration for each completed year of the contract.

A fixed term contract with an employee means a contract that terminates on:

- The occurrence of a specific event;
- The completion of a specific task or project; and
- A fixed date other than an employee's normal retirement date. An employer may extend the six month contract only if the nature of the work for which the employee is engaged is of a limited or definite duration.

Employers should also be aware that there are provisions to prevent the abuse of the three month period by a TES or its client for the purpose of avoiding employment by the client. Employers should realise that they will no longer be able to rely on the TES to act as a buffer for their industrial relations problems. The government has been aware of the abuse of labour broker employees and has acted accordingly by introducing the Amendment Act (2012). It was passed by parliament on the 6th July 2013, and gives TES and employers a year to implement. The consequences of the amendments are of interest to the research.

The new section 198 of the LRA (2012) requires employers to:

- Treat part-time employees on the whole not less favourable than comparative full-time employees;
- Provide part-time employees with access to training and skills development that is on the whole not less favourable than full-time employees; and
- Provide part-time employees with the same access to opportunities to apply for vacancies as full-time employees.

2.13.6 International Occupational Health & Safety concerns in connection with temporary employees in the hospitality Industry

With regard to Occupational Health & Safety (OHS) in South Africa, the Department of Labour has named the hospitality industry as “high risk” and “problematic” when it comes to compliance with the country’s labour laws. In 2013 various raids of inspection took place, according to the Department of Labour. The Department of Labour’s inspections into the hospitality sector started in a number of provinces. Areas of focus investigate and enforce included overall conditions of employment, existence of payslips, lunchtime, contracts of employment and payment for workers, as well as adherence to the Occupational Health and Safety Act (OHS Act No.40 of 2000). This initiative by the SA Minister of Labour, Mildred Olifant, was instigated after the concerns of vulnerable workers who are employed by the industry were exposed. The inspections will also create awareness and send a clear message about importance that is given by the department to adherence of labour laws. (Moth, 2013).

Relating to workplace injuries, the OHS Act No 40 of 2000 acknowledges the complex employment relationship between agency temporary employees, temporary work agencies and their client employers. It creates loopholes and incentives that may leave low-wage agency workers more vulnerable to workplace injuries, according to new research from the Institute for Work & Health. TES do not have control over the worksites to which workers are sent, and often do not fully know the risks. While both TES and client employers have responsibilities under the Ontario’s “Occupational Health and Safety Act.”, only the agencies are considered the employer under the Workers Compensation legislation, which weakens the incentives for client employers to protect these workers (MacEachen, 2012).

Working conditions threaten food integrity. In the USA food service industry workers have a difficult task, as workers face conditions that threaten both themselves, as well as public health. Restaurant employers, who take the high road by being concerned about the well-being of their employees, are the source of the best positions in the industry by providing liveable wages, access to health care and advancement in the industry. Taking the low road to profitability, by exploiting employees, however, creates low wage positions with long hours, few benefits, and exposure to dangerous and often unlawful workplace conditions. The majority of restaurant employers in each region of the USA that was examined appear to have taken the low road, creating a predominantly low wage industry in which violations of employment and health and safety laws are commonplace.

A USA labour survey, by Sarah Damian (2011) engaging some 4000 workers, was conducted in New York, Chicago, Detroit, Los Angeles, Miami, New Orleans and Washington DC. It showed that 64% of employees worked while being sick and 34% of employees reported having to do things under time pressure that might have harmed the health and safety of their customers. Employees reported health and safety hazards at the work place, compounded by a pervasive lack of health and safety training. In addition, many of the employees reported on the job injuries. *“Many employees who asserted their rights reported that their complaints were met with verbal abuse and threats of retaliation”* (Damian, 2011).

The temporary agency sector is an established part of today’s flexible labour market. Yet temporary agencies can be risky, for example, temporary agency employees have higher injury claim rate than those who are in regular work arrangements, and double the rates in construction and manufacturing. *“Low wage temporary employment agency workers are less well protected than workers in a standard employment relationship”* (MacEachen, 2013).

2.14 Labour broking

In recent decades the use of TES to supply employees has exploded all over the world, spreading also to sectors and occupations that had previously depended on

directly employed employees. Not only do temporary agency employees typically receive lower pay and fewer benefits, but when the financial crisis rapidly became an employment crisis, temporary agency workers were also among its first casualties. Many companies simply terminated their contracts with TES, so that the employees do not receive the minimum compensation or social benefits that they would have received as direct employees.

2.14.1 Developments around the world

According to IndustriALL Global Union, (2012) although during economic hardship temporary agency employees are the first to be laid off and were found to be the first casualties of the 2008 downturn, cost cutting and consequently casualization was the cause that agency work exploded way beyond any legitimate role in addressing short term labour shortages, owing for example, to production fluctuations or employee absenteeism. Evidence provided by labour unions around the world shows that agency work is being used to replace permanent positions, in order to reduce wage costs and evade legislative protection.

- A study, completed by IndustriALL Global Union (2012) reported that 10% of Mexico's labour force was employed by temporary agencies. Their electronics industry workers consists of 60% temporary agency employees, while some companies employ up to 90% of their workforce via agencies.
- In Russia nearly 75% of foreign companies and 35-50% of Russian companies use agency labour.
- In Spain temporary work constitutes 315 of all employment, while agency work accounts for 1 in 6 of all temporary contracts.
- Over half of all electronics industry employees in Thailand are agency workers.
- 30% of all private sector workers are employed via contractors and with levels in the manufacturing industries up to 50%.
- In 2008 in the Philippines, 11% of all employment occurred through agencies.
- The new laws in China which saw huge improvements for employees' protection, have resulted in employers, including multi-nationals, hiring agency workers to get around these increased protection laws.

Furthermore Jayaweera, H. & Anderson, B. (2009) in a Labour Force Survey (LFS) indicate that the following are top global labour broker firms involved in the recruitment and placement of temporary employees around the world:

- Adecco, HO Switzerland: 150,000 clients and 700,000 placements daily;
- Manpower, HO Milwaukee US: 400000 clients and 4 mil placements in 2008;
- Kelly Services, HO Michigan US: 10,000 employees and 650,000 placements;
- Randstad, HO Diemen NL: 386,770 employees; and
- According to the ILO (2012) Advantage Resourcing, US, Japan.

(Note: A Labour Force Survey is a quarterly sample of households that live at private addresses in Great Britain, designed to collect information on the labour market. The research refers to new migrants that have arrived in the UK not more than 10 years earlier.)

Research conducted by the ILO (2010) established that the large global employment agencies operate in many different countries under different laws. Thence, the consequences and the non-transparency of many operations lead to abuse of temporary employees in the hospitality industry.

Currently, around the world, and par example in the UK, reports of abuse and exploitation of migrant workers have received increasing attention from the media in the last ten years, particularly following the death of the Chinese cockle pickers in Morecombe Bay in 2004. While the government has focussed attention on the “illegal” immigrants as vulnerable, legal immigrants and even UK citizens are exposed by employers to abuse. (Jayaweera & Anderson, 2009)

Research work undertaken by Williams and Shaw (1988) in the UK, indicated that almost 33% of hotel and restaurant groups pay their employees less than the legal minimum wages set by the National Labour Council. It further found only limited career progression, poor levels of remuneration and working conditions which result in high labour turnover rates (Anderson and Rogaly, 2005).

The UK Trade Union Congress (TUC) on “Vulnerable Employment” defines vulnerable employment as: “precarious work that places people at risk of continuing poverty and injustice resulting from the imbalance of power in the employer-worker relationship”.

Indicators of vulnerable employment, as per TUC, are outlined as follows:

- Pay - below minimum wage, unfair deductions, illegal retention of wages and holiday / sick pay entitlements;
- Hours - for example, evidence of under-employment or excessive hours worked without payment;
- Insecurity - for example, lack of a written employment contract, temporary employment unfair dismissal or with no notice, payment of wages in cash, and lack of a national insurance; and
- Accommodation - for example, unfair deductions for employer provided accommodation, restrictive / poor quality conditions.

The UK’s TUC report further established that a significant proportion of recent migrants are in temporary work. The LFS has significantly underestimated the proportions of migrants who are in temporary employment. The TUC data sought whether all temporary workers are registered and concluded that most unregistered workers are employed through or by agencies (46% of all temporary workers). Regarding pay, temporary workers took low pay, specifically below the minimum wage as an indicator of vulnerable employment. *“There is widespread evidence of recent migrant workers who obtain less than the minimum wage equivalent to their age bands, both in the national and the regional data. Apart from pay, there are high proportions of migrant workers who work non-standard hours”* (ILO, 2011).

Page (2010), shows that the Agency Workers Regulations for labour brokers came into effect in October 2010 in the United Kingdom, in Scotland and in Wales in December 2010. These regulations stem from the EU Temporary Workers Directive (2008). This gives temporary workers the right to the same pay and working conditions enjoyed by permanently employed comparable workers / employees. The regulations do not alter the agency’s temporary employment status, namely rights granted under these regulations do not grant them employment status, by law.

These regulations also give temporary workers access to the same facilities such as canteen, gym, car parking, and subsidised transport and so on, as well as the right to be informed about suitable internal vacancies (Page, 2010).

In Japan an agency will usually supply staff, per contract, for specific functions but user enterprises can switch to any other agency if the services that are provided are dissatisfactory. Although regulatory bodies guidelines indicate differently, Japanese agencies still charge the job seeking employee a fee for their services after which they also charge their clients (European Company Survey; Overview 2009). In 2011 Morocco had the largest market for employment agencies in Northern Africa, with an estimated 1,200 temporary employment agencies.

Leading agencies, such as Manpower Maroc, Adecco Maroc and RMO Maroc try to collaborate with institutions to improve skills and to raise awareness about the job market and facilitate migrant professional labour. This indicates that some agencies are pushing for better regulations and setting industry standards, aiming to raise the industry's profile, establish its legitimacy and protect their brands in countries where the industry is either underdeveloped or plagued by bad practices. *"These leading agencies are attempting to coordinate sectoral activities and have organised themselves through industry associations. However, membership levels are low and communication between firms, their associations and government is suboptimal"* (Benson & Arkoubi, 2006).

Private employment agencies are critical to labour market efficiency, as Morocco's experience with global employment agencies demonstrates their importance into developing the labour market, upgrading and driving better regulations. *"However, many private employment agencies in Morocco are not transparent"* (Benson & Arkoubi, 2006)

In Nigeria, according to Fapohunda & Tinuke, (2012) the scourge of casualization of employment is gaining ground in an unprecedented proportion, intensity and scale. The increase in the spread and gradual acceptance of this labour practice in the Nigerian labour market has become an issue of great concern to stakeholders. Employers of labour are increasingly filling positions in their organisations that are

supposed to be permanent with casual employees. The trend has been largely attributed to the increasing desperation of employers to decrease organisational costs. Casualization of employment in Nigeria is seen as an appropriate strategy for cost reduction. Behind the issue is the high level of unemployment and accompanying poverty. Casual work is often temporary, with uncertain wages, long hours, and no job security. Nigerian workers are under pressure from corporate practices that seek to undercut their hard fought victories at the bargaining table and replace good jobs (jobs with benefits, training and security) with various forms of insecure and lower paid contracts, short-term and temporary work.

In an analysis regarding casualization in Nigeria, according to Shelley (2008), contract staffing and precarious work are major problems besetting decent work and social justice in the Nigerian work environment. Hence, Nigerians are forced by the realities of excruciating unemployment to sign any contract of employment merely to have a job. In most cases the agreements are not entered on equal terms but are forced down upon the employees by the realities of the country's labour market.

It is pertinent to also note that contract and agency labour and precarious work forms of employment have been rife in the Nigeria, bringing with it two categories of workers: one with good secure jobs and another category of workers who are faced with short term jobs, low wages, no social protection and a loss of rights. Specifically, the massive shift away from regular employment to temporary work or jobs through agencies and labour brokers is having a deep impact on all workers, their families, and the society. The erosion of employee – employer relationships, often the basis of labour law, is leading directly to a growing number of violations of worker rights. The disconnection in employment and productivity resulting from policy changes, especially those inspired by international financial institutions such as the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund (IMF), have in recent years encouraged work flexibility and brought with it a lowering of work conditions at both national and international levels (Shelley, 2008).

Flexibility in the workplace often refers to less regular and less reliable working hours, often determined at short notice. Casual workers seem to be disproportionately affected. A study by Bohle *et al.* (2004) on Canadian hotel workers

shows important differences in work organisation and working hours between casual and full-time employees at the same workplace. While full-time employees reported a satisfactory level of control and a good work-life balance, casual workers doing the same jobs have much less desirable work schedules and were additionally exposed to unpredictable variations in both daily and weekly working hours (Bohle *et al.* 2004).

The findings of research conducted at the Mid Sweden University of Ostersund in Sweden, explored employee's experiences of flexibility, control and autonomy in organisations with extensive numbers of temporary agency workers (TAW's/TES). The results indicate that there are few opportunities for either TAW's or regular staff to achieve workplace flexibility in terms of making choices about where, when, and how long they are at work (Olofsdotter, 2012).

The findings contradict assumptions that formal differences between employment conditions of regular and agency workers affect their opportunities for work flexibility. The Mid Sweden University study (Olofsdotter,2012) demonstrates "*the complexity of controlling practices in firms with extensive use of agency workers, and how possibilities for workplace flexibility are intertwined with organisational control practices*".

The same research also established that most hospitality operations, and specifically conference venues, have controlled working hours. The employers pay the agencies where their workforce comes from per hour, and under strict conditions. Usually no over time is paid.

Large global agencies are a relatively new phenomenon, which arises out of a search for flexibility and competitiveness based on its "transaction costs" approach to human resource recruitment. In other words, capitalism wants cheap labour. The increase in the number of atypical contracts of employment is such that more than 10 per cent of the Irish labour force falls under the heading "non-permanent employees", temporary, fixed term contracts and casual workers.

A further step in this trend is the use of employment agency employees who are in abundant supply because of a lack of employment opportunities in failed economies (MacPartlin, 2008).

More and more migrant employees in the UK and Ireland in the hospitality, food processing and agricultural sectors, are hired on these short-term contracts. A hotel, for example, may use several different agencies to supply its waiting, catering and cleaning staff. Employees and their representatives, who may want to pursue a grievance, can find it difficult to identify someone who will take responsibility to deal with the issue. *“In this way employment agencies and employers, who use temporary contract employees can circumvent employment rights that are available to permanent staff”* (Jayaweera & Anderson, 2009).

Swedish research conducted in 2012 by the University of Ostersund, regarding the possibilities of TAW (temporary agency workers) shows results which imply that there are few opportunities for either TAW or regular staff to achieve workplace flexibility in terms of making choices about where, when and for how long they are going to work. The findings contradict assumptions that formal differences between the employment conditions of regulars and agency workers affect their opportunities for workplace flexibility (Olofsdotter, 2012).

In Sweden, organisations hire staff from different employment agencies, with differences in terms of employment, but who work together are often do the same tasks. TAW's, like other forms of temporary workers, may have varied skills or educational backgrounds. They may also work full-time or part-time and have short-term or long-term employment.

The diversity in TAW's personal and work related characteristics is also reflected in differences in pay, training, and control over work conditions, whereas skilled experts' and professionals' highly valued skills give them benefits and rewards. Further investigations established that TWA's are found to have less favourable working conditions than other employees, and they also have less autonomy and fewer possibilities of influencing holidays, days off, and places of work. The frequent change of workplaces at different user firms can also lead to poor working conditions (Olofsdotter, 2012).

Olofsdotter (2012) further noted that the Norwegian hotel industry outside Oslo is dominated by small operators and is typically a female workplace. Temporary staff (migrants) are, however, over represented to work irregular hours, and deal with repetitive, monotonous physical work and the mental strain from guests and employers. There is a low education level and language barriers exist, high staff turnover and reports of threats and violence.

High staff turnover challenges solidarity at work. NAV (2006) and Braten (2008) identify the hotel / restaurant sectors as areas of the labour market that have high levels of non-permanent employment. Moreover, repetitive and monotonous work (physical strain) and the pressure from guests and employee's needs are emphasised as major threats to effective occupational health and safety. The report states that the work tempo is high in the sector and that a large share of the employees experience threats and violence. Labour migration is an important factor, which shapes the labour market in the hotel sector in Norway.

Casualization in Australia shows similar employment practices. Australia has non-standard employment. The luxury hotel market within the Australian hospitality industry is an influential employer group with around one third of the total hotel's employees controlling approximately two thirds of the accommodation income share. As low wages are synonymous with the Australian hospitality industry, previous research by Knox (2010) suggests that the high turnover rates of staff may be attributed to a number of factors, including limited career advancement opportunities within the hotel industry.

In Australia casualization has a slightly narrower but more solid meaning. Because the labour markets contain a prominent form of employment that has been given the label of "casual", casualization in the Australian literature usually refers to a process whereby more and more of the workforce is employed in these "casual jobs".

According to Knox (2010), the phenomena of "casualization", casual jobs, either in the narrow sense or in the broader sense of jobs without rights and benefits, is widely seen *"as a symptom of an earlier raw phase of capitalist development, which has been superseded by the evolution of co-operative employment relations and*

industrial citizenship". A return of casual and casualization is, therefore, viewed with great concern by researchers such as Knox (2010). Casualization is seen as negative not only because it draws more workers into the net of casual work, but also because it exerts downward pressure on the wages and conditions even of those employees that continue to be viewed as permanent. Both cases are often identified at workplace level with processes such as outsourcing and labour hire, which threatens the direct or indirect replacement of permanent employees by casual employees.

Casual employment positions are not the only source of challenges in the labour market. Labour market reformers need to evaluate the wellness of all forms of employment. Varying forms of employment, including self-employed workers, fixed-term employees, permanent part-time employees, and even the core group of permanent employees, require evaluation. These problems are widely recognised, emphasising that casual employees are a particularly vulnerable group.

Challenges mentioned escalate during rising times of employment, contraction, as well as during periods of employment growth. Employees who are classified as "casual" now represent around one quarter of all employees. In some versions of the argument it is suggested that "casual" and "permanent" workers are in fact equivalent – it is just that the former have chosen to cash in their standard rights and benefits. This argument is not backed up by facts, according to May *et al.* (2012).

May, Campbell & Burgess (2012) indicate that it is sometimes suggested that although casual jobs might be less favourable, they constitute the price of progress. In this approach casual positions are identified with increased flexibility, which is in turn presented as a precondition for economic success. Flexibility clearly means different things to employers than it does to employees. In the casualization context, flexibility means more freedom for individual employers, namely increased management prerogative (in this context the important need for companies to save money). However, far from being the price of progress, casualization and enhanced management prerogative may be a barrier to progress. Two long run workforce problems confronting Australia are the skills gap and an aging population. Temporary employed employees are largely outside of formal training programs and

career path development associated with skill accreditation and an increasingly casual workforce share is hardly compatible with filling skills shortages. May, Campbell & Burgess (2012) emphasise that casualization, therefore, is not suited to long-term financial planning for many multinational companies.

In the USA any foreigner who seeks work is presumed to be an immigrant, mainly guest workers from Mexico. Migrants often claim abuse by recruiters (labour brokers) who exaggerate claims about what they can earn in the US. When the migrant is hooked by the recruiter he will be charged exorbitant fees for being employed in the first place. Further abuse takes place when the migrant owes the recruitment fee to the broker (Seminari, 2010). There are cultural expectations around working long and unsociable hours. It is also the case that minority ethnic catering businesses tend to look to recruit co-ethnics both to preserve the authenticity of the product and experience being offered, and for pecuniary reasons. In the most high profile cases, this has caused employers to hire irregular immigrants, a group who are particularly susceptible to exploitation.

At Nokia in China, agency workers are paid about three-quarters of the wage earned by directly employed employees of Nokia, who are hired to do the same job. *“They cannot live in the Nokia dormitories or join a union and are constantly threatened with dismissal”* (Kagan et al., 2011).

Bodibe (2006) did an extensive study of the southern African casualization labour situation. He indicates that Lesotho is a small country, which is situated within the boundaries of South Africa. For decades it has been a reservoir of cheap labour for the SA mining industry. Casualization, specifically in the textile industry, is there to stay and should be addressed by government and unions. Labour laws need to be amended to accommodate this phenomenon. He further indicates that *“existing labour laws do not take casual workers into consideration, and protection and regulations of these workers regarding their rights is not implemented or enforced owing to a lack of labour law inspectorate”*.

Bodibe (2006) further found that in Mozambique the definition in the Mozambican context encompasses casualization as a type of employment, whether regulated by

written or verbal contract, in which the employment relationship is not durable, but for a defined period of work. Ordinarily, the contract is used to accomplish defined tasks for a defined period. Liberalisation of the economy in Mozambique has propelled the emergence of casual work and other forms of non-standard type of employment. It has completely changed the society into a free market economy. In the labour market there was a dramatic shift from full-time permanent employment to a flexible labour regime of casual and informal sector employment. The social protection system, however, is still based on the standard employment relations of permanent and long term employment. Hence those with fixed term contracts or who are defined as casuals are excluded from the system. Recommendations include the legal protection of casual workers, as well as social protection legislation that should be changed for temporary and short term contracts

Swaziland, since the mid 90's, has experienced a marked economic decline and stagnation that can be attributed to the restructuring programmes accompanying globalization. High unemployment, competition in the global economy, high inflation, declining commodity prices for export and HIV / Aids are part reasons for large scale poverty and the widening gap between rich and poor. Casualization has a specifically negative effect on women, because of the loss of benefits, irregular uncertain hours of work, more risky work, lower wages and difficulties in organizing. Furthermore, factors such as the lack of security and favouritism in allocation of working are common, and this may make women more vulnerable to sexual harassment (Bodibe ,2006).

Zambian legislation is provided for the employment of persons, engagement of persons on contract of services, appointment of officers of the labour department and conferring of powers on such offers, protection of wages of employees, and control of employment agencies among other things. Casual employee means any employee whose terms of employment provide for payment at the end of each day, and who is engaged for a period of not more than six months but does not include persons who are employed under the Apprenticeship Act or as casual employees. Important provisions under the Act on contract of service include paid holiday, maternity leave, termination and redundancy, but this does not apply to casual employees (Bodibe, 2006).

2.14.2 Statistics and information on labour broking, supplied by CIETT (2011) (South Africa and globally)

The CIETT (2011) indicated the following findings in their annual report:

- Disabled workers in France find employment through employment agencies, and are integrated at every level of companies.
- Agencies in the Netherlands employ target groups, increasing labour market participation and diversity. Ethnic minorities, older people and the long term unemployed count for 31% of the agency workers.
- The Dutch government set all temporary agencies an end-of-2011 deadline to enrol with the trade registry. Non-compliant agencies and user enterprises face fines of 1200 Euro per worker posted by an unregistered office, and higher fines for repeat offenders. By April 2011, only 35% had complied. The Netherlands opted for self-regulation of agencies through a private certification system in accordance with the national code of conduct, partly based on collective bargaining agreements. The Dutch Labour Inspectorate concentrates on inspecting uncertified temporary agencies (Planet Labor, 2011).
- In Italy agency work offers groups such as migrant workers, women returning from childcare breaks, the disabled and unemployed people, across the labour market. In principle, agency work can help workers to develop their skills and experience, thereby offering pathways into more secure employment.
- In Japan and in the US agency workers tend to be older (over 30), which can be explained by the fact that agency work is culturally accepted as a viable alternative to permanent employment.
- In Europe 75% of agency workers are younger than 30.
- Agency workers outside Europe tend to be older.
- 77% of agency workers have at best completed their secondary education.
- Agency workers in a wide range of sectors are represented most strongly in services and manufacturing.
- In 2010 the USA and Japan were the world leaders regarding the sale of agency work.
- Temporary agency work facilities transition from temporary to permanent under certain conditions.

- In Europe, in general, 50% of temporary employment workers are under the age of 30 (EuroCIETT, 2012).
- In the Netherlands in 2009, 56% of agency workers reported that they sought permanent employment using agency work, and 29% of all temporary agency workers found a job within a year.
- In France, 16% of workers, who had at least one assignment as a temporary agency worker in 2010, had obtained an open-ended contract within a year.
- In Italy, 66,5% of workers aged 16 – 35 years old who completed temporary agency work in the last years, moved to permanent employment.
- Temporary agency work is an important entry channel for young people into the labour market.

Agency worker profiles indicate a significant increase in women agency workers in SA, Czech Rep. and Italy, from 2000 onward mainly in the services related industries. Japan's temporary agency staff consists of 66% women. Further survey research showed that the majority of agency workers are under the age of 30, while migrants are a significant element in the flexible labour markets. The length of contracts, in general, was longer than 3 months (CIETT, 2011).

2.14.3 “Labour broker work, a stepping stone to permanent employment”

According to the South African Government Accountability Office (2012) the labour market is undergoing fundamental shifts, as companies increasingly opt for a contingent temporary workforce so that they can scale their business performance. The trend is being seen across all the major western economies – in the US temporary workers comprise one third of the workforce.

The positive role of temporary agency work in bringing people into the workplace and reducing unemployment, as well as supporting labour market access (especially) of specific target groups, has been an important rationale to adopting regulations on temporary agency work in the context of labour market reforms at a national level. Policy makers regard temporary agency work as a means to create bridges for

unemployed persons into employment, and to act as a “stepping stone” for further employment opportunities. (SA Government Accountability Office, 2012)

Furthermore the office indicates that politically, the days of labour brokers may be numbered, however, agencies should be aware of this as their clients appear to be conscious of the fact that their days are numbered if they continue to do business with them. A further complication is that clients assume that the employees who are supplied to a business by a labour broker are “qualified”.

Clients should also be aware that there is no such benchmark applied across the recruitment sector, and that is highly unlikely that all of the staff that a client sources via such a labour broker, are appropriately qualified. The principal advantage in outsourcing, namely that the client can pass the employment obligation on to the labour broker, no longer exists in law. *“Both parties are now jointly and severally liable for the employment status, terms and progress of that worker, irrespective of who the contracted employer is. Agencies and their clients have to pay the minimum industry or sectorial determined wage applicable for the job, and should something go wrong beyond the honeymoon phase of that employment relation, they will be held accountable”* (Blumenthal, 2013).

According to the CIETT (2012), it is not true that agencies create jobs, because investment and the economy create jobs, not agencies. Examples are numerous employers’ systematically replacing permanent staff with agency workers, including getting rid of or preventing union involvement.

“There is currently no evidence that agency work is effective as a stepping stone to permanent employment” (CIETT, 2012). In contradiction to this, the ILO, in their quest to promote “decent work” finds the role of the labour broker important.

There is a triangular relationship that governs agency work with two types of contracts: an employment contract between the private employment agency and the employee, and a commercial service contract between the employment agency and the user enterprise. These agencies bridge the gap between the supply and the demand for labour by providing market intelligence about jobs, skills, training and managing people. *“Agency work helps to create new jobs and helps the young,*

women and less skilled people to join or reintegrate into the labour market” (ILO, 2012).

Agency workers consider the disadvantages of agency work to be job and employment instability, and sometimes lower pay. However, agency nurses often earn higher pay than regular staff. Agencies in some countries are reported to pay higher “reference wages” to compensate for regular workers’ allowances, premiums and fringe benefits, and pay “end-of-assignment” bonuses.

Questionnaire interviews, which were conducted by Japanese trade unions (2004) regarding reasons why employers replace permanent jobs with temporary jobs; revealed the following responses:

- I had no other choice 39%;
- Access to learning 22%;
- Gain work experience 19%; and
- Work in a flexible way 45% (Kvasnicka, 2005:31).

There are positive perspectives from a agencies’ point of view. There have been significant changes in agencies’ orientation towards additional or higher value services in recent years, reflecting user enterprises reasons for using employment agencies. Agencies have emphasised services that go beyond temporary employment services, such as recruitment outsourcing, permanent placement services human resources management functions and encouraging employers to change employment strategies to the companies benefit. Agencies can play a positive role to obtain the long-term unemployed, the disabled, ethnic minorities, and people from disadvantaged groups into work. For instance, an employment agency Ecorys found that over the longer period of time, 14% of or one in every seven temporary employment agency workers find a permanent job at the company that they work for (Ecorys, 2009).

From the workers’ perspective, agency work is relatively easy to obtain, no lengthy search for a permanent job with an uncertain outcome. Kvasnicka, (2005:31) suggests that “*agencies can be vital for the less skilled who lack informal networks, while the unemployed may acquire skills and work experience to improve their future prospects in the labour market*”. Many agencies offer a “foot-in-the-door” for many

workers, especially women, as temporary employment offers opportunities to combine work and family responsibilities, while young less qualified workers find easier pathways to regular employment via agencies.

According to research, which was conducted by the Centre for Development and enterprise (CDE) in South Africa (2010) reported that “*Labour brokers an important route into formal employment*”: TES firms have important advantages. Firms appear to be of use to unskilled, inexperienced workers whose connection to the labour market is particularly tenuous. In this respect, TES firms may help to bring excluded households and workers into the economy. Research reports indicated that closing down TES would result in costs and consequences that many who are currently participating in this debate may not have considered. Critically, if (as this research indicates) TES firms are a vehicle that people least connected to the labour market are able to use to access jobs, and this must be factored into the policy debate.

Other notable findings in South Africa, and globally, include:

- Mainly large capital intensive firms use TES / labour brokers;
- TES services help companies to compete globally and to grow;
- Most of the reliance on TES reflects seasonality and the broader trend towards flexible forms of work; and
- TES firms help a significant number of young inexperienced workers and the least connected to the labour market access to possible long-term or permanent employment opportunities.

The above conclusion included a definite no to closing down or banning TES firms (CDE, 2012).

2.14.4 The South African context (non-standard workers)

The current labour market in South Africa has many forms of employment relations that vary from traditional full-time employment. These include part-time employees, temporary employees, employees supplied by employment agencies, casual employees, home workers and workers who are engaged in a range of contracting relationships. Most of these employees are particularly vulnerable to exploitation because they are unskilled or work in sectors with little or no trade union organisations or little or no coverage by collective bargaining. A high proportion of them are women. They frequently have less favourable terms of employment than other employees who perform the same work, as well as less security of employment. Often they do not receive “social wage” benefits such as medical aid, pension or provident funds. These employees, therefore, depend on statutory employment standards for basic working conditions. Most have, in theory, the protection of current legislation, but in practice the circumstances of their employment make the enforcement of their rights difficult (Luo *et al.*, 2010).

According to Fourie (2013), five groups of temporary workers are recognised:

- Part-time work: are employed on an ongoing basis, work fewer than standard hours of work and are predominantly women. The basic norm should be that all employees, including those in this category, are protected by employment standards and at least receive benefits on a proportional basis;
- Casual and seasonal work: they are often found in labour intensive sectors such as the hospitality industry. This category of workers is left with limited legislative protection. Casual work is of a temporary nature, where income and availability are uncertain. These jobs are mainly created in low-paid occupations and present few opportunities for the training that would offer the hope of advancement, as employers would rather train permanent staff;
- Homework: is a form of subcontracting and refers to the work that is home based and involves an employment relationship. This form of employment creates a serious challenge to labour legislation and organisation. The LRA provides for bargaining councils to extend their services to home workers, but bargaining councils have difficulty in enforcing minimum standards owing to the concealed nature of homework;

- The independent contractor: workers should be treated as independent contractors if they are indeed independent entrepreneurs who perform services for a client, par example, if they present themselves to the public as an established business presence, have a number of clients, deal with the economic risk of loss from their work and the like. Workers who are economically dependent on the entity for whom they perform services, generally, should be treated as employees. Factors such as low wages, low skills levels and having one or a few employers should all militate against treatment as independent contractors; and
- Workers employed by labour brokers (temporary employment services): in SA employment by a temporary employment service is, to a certain extent, regulated by the LRA and the BCEA. The temporary employment service is the employer and not the client, and that the person placed is the employee of the TES. Why would an employer use a TES? The stringent labour law requirements are now moved to the TES. In other words, the dismissal procedure must now be complied with by the labour broker and not the client. The client can use the TES to provide labour when needed-an important factor to consider in respect of labour flexibility. Costs are reduced as it is often less costly to use the services of a person through a TES than to employ a person temporarily. Internationally these workers are often referred to as “temporary workers”.

The LRA 2012 / Labour Relations Amendment Act is currently in the process of being approved by parliament and, will be implemented in 2015.

2.14.5 Migrant workers in southern Africa and South Africa

The changing nature of work and employment in southern Africa in the wake of liberalization and casualization has intensified competition, leading to the evolution of three different “worlds of work” in which some workers benefit from global integration. Some survive in employment, but under worse conditions, while others are retrenched and forced to “make a living” in informal and unpaid work. This has created a “crisis of representation’ in which traditional organizational forms such as trade unions fail to provide a voice for the “new poor”, necessitating the creation of new coalitions to respond to liberalization (Webster, 2005).

Baum (2012) suggests that migrants:

- are a vital source of skills and labour for the hotel industry in countries, which are developed and less-developed across the world;
- They are more committed and bring organizational culture to the hotel industry;
- Income from migrant workers in the hotel industry makes a significant contribution to the national financial inflow in many countries; and
- There is strong consensus in the industry that migrant workers are vital to the operation viability of the sector and will remain so for the foreseeable future.

In the UK services that are provided in the hospitality industry by migrant temporary workers are regarded as more superior than UK nationals. The flow of migrant workers bring knowledge and social networks that are unsurpassed (Baum, 2012).

The current and future role of migrant workers in the hospitality industry, according to findings by the ILO (2011) research project indicated the following:

Table 3. The current and future role of migrant workers in the hospitality industry according to findings by the ILO (2011).

Shown in percentages	Agree	Disagree	Neutral
The use of migrant labour in the international hotel industry is likely to decrease over the next ten years.	22	69	9
There is political pressure to reduce the use of migrant labour in the hotel industry	43	27	30
Migrant workers improve the quality of our overall workforce	66	11	23
Migrant workers create problems for our local workforce	13	81	6
Migrant workers greatly improve the talent pool that we can recruit from internationally	85	4	11
Migrant workers are often better qualified than our local workers	41	47	12
Demographic pressure in many countries will force the employment of migrant workers	89	4	7

The hotel industry offers great employment opportunities for migrant workers	84	2	16
Employing migrant workers is unacceptable on social and political grounds	7	89	4
Our hotels greatly benefit from the cultural diversity provided by migrant workers	91	0	9
Migrant workers are popular with our guests	54	21	25
Migrant workers cause tension in the workplace	34	59	7
The company has a strategy to increase the use of migrant workers in its hotels	11	34	55
Migrant workers significantly reduce labour costs	45	22	33
Migrant workers should be confined to unskilled positions in the hotels	17	76	7

International migration paper no. 112 (ILO) 2011

The reasons why employers employ migrant workers have further been identified as follows:

Table 4. Reasons for employers to employ migrant workers

Reasons stated	Companies responding "yes" (%)
Absence of suitable skills in the local labour market.	87
Migrant workers are cheaper to employ than locals.	59
Migrants workers are more reliable and committed.	17
Company policy is to employ the best worker, irrespective of nationality.	76
Staff members are recruited by agencies, hence companies have limited control over who is employed.	31
Company is committed to socially responsible employment practices in employment.	91
Local workers are not interested in hotel work.	76
Migrant workers cause fewer industrial relation problems.	11
Other reasons.	64

Source: Statistics and source (Mosala, 2008)

Mosala (2008) further indicates that Zimbabwe migrants in SA generally enter labour markets that are undergoing structural changes. Global labour standards for many workers are decreasing and cover only a shrinking pool of workers in long-term

formal employment. However, short-term and casual employment is growing, leaving many workers without protection.

He further states that companies increasingly rely on labour brokers to fulfil their need for a flexible, mobile and pliable labour force. Regardless of political or purely economic imperatives, migrants seek work in the host country even if their status (documented or undocumented) affects their ability to legally seek work.

In his report Mosala (2008) he further states that the recent Zimbabwean migration into South Africa is the first post-1994 large scale in-migration from a neighbouring country. Its occurrence is owing to Zimbabwe's unresolved political and economic crisis. It is estimated that 3.5 million Zimbabweans have left their country since 2000. The vast majority of Zimbabweans in South Africa have obvious economic motivations for leaving. Many move to South Africa because it is accessible and familiar, with long established historical ties. They are attracted by South Africa's relative political and economic stability, which translates into better living conditions, educational opportunities and the prospect of raising money to move to the UK or US.

General Zimbabwean employment patterns are characterised by high levels of unemployment, reaching up to 40%. Of those who are employed, between 20% and 30% are in casual or temporary employment (mainly unskilled professions, with security and the hospitality industry being the leading employers). Referral by a friend, family or other connection is the most common way of finding work. Networking among Zimbabweans is developed and is influential. Zimbabwean migrants, however, face a similar fate to that of migrants from other parts of Africa. They are viewed with suspicion and are, among other things, accused of stealing jobs that are meant for South Africans. These simmering negative attitudes have recently exploded into outright resentment, culminating in brutal xenophobic attacks in 2008 (Fashoyin, 2011).

Key findings of a Mulholland (2014) report include the following:

- Documentation such as refugee, asylum seeker, residence status, marital, curriculum vitae and other work related documents are crucial, but not essential to finding employment;

- Jobs are quicker found via social and community networks; and
- Any assessment of Zimbabwean working conditions is limited by the fact that working Zimbabweans are a privileged minority and by the inescapable reality that as the situation in Zimbabwe deteriorates, finding any form of employment in South Africa represents an improvement of their subjective conditions.

It is one of history's ironies that modern societies that are built on immigration, such as the US, Australia and others, are presently sealing their borders, hunting down and deporting illegal migrants and denying even those who have become well established, the rights of permanent residency. There is ample evidence that migrants can be economically beneficial to a society, providing skills and ambitions that are scarce (taking care of jobs that other people refuse to do, and South Africa has about 5 million foreigners and half is made up of Zimbabweans (Mulholland, 2014).

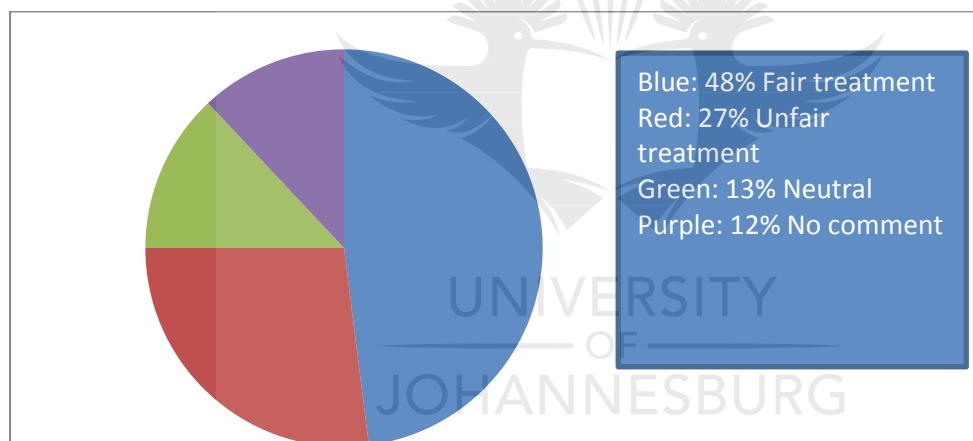


Figure 5. Showing the treatment received by Zimbabweans in South African employ

Source: MRMP (Migrant Rights Monitoring Project, 2014) Wits University.

Generally, treatment is found to be fair (48%), however *fairly, unfair and neutral* all refer to negative treatment by fellow workers. Nationality segregation, local worker's "xenophobia" and the precarious nature of Zimbabwean's work experience add to the negative experience. Key findings include that rather contradictory in analysis, the treatment is described as 'fair', which further negatively influences the findings. Labour broker practices experienced by Zimbabwean immigrants looking for employment have been highlighted. NGO's such as the Scalabrini Centre of Cape Town (SCCT) are receiving communication from migrants who have requested assistance. Zimbabweans would like the SCCT to act on their behalf regarding the

activities of emerging, and often unregistered, labour brokers or agents. These labour brokers recruit undocumented or documented migrants to work in the construction, commercial agriculture, hospitality and related service sectors.

The SCCT has explained that there are “pick-up points” in the centre of Cape Town, namely known places where brokers collect migrants. The conditions of work that is offered defy all labour standards. Migrants engage in employment without signing a formal contract and at the end of the working day they are paid in cash for their services. Those who work on construction sites consistently report harsh and often hazardous conditions. Undocumented migrants are sought after because they accept lower wages. Working without a formal contract, they are exploited to the extent that the employer may refuse to pay them wages owed; with most employers believing that even documented refugees are not protected by legal frameworks. This is in contrast to the CCMA decision that has extended protection to undocumented migrants who are employed (ILO, 2012).

The title of an article, namely “Migrant workers invade cities” (Author unknown, The Sunday Times newspaper, 2012) highlights that just as in South Africa; China will have to spend substantial amounts of money to meet the needs of the millions of people who flock to the cities from rural areas. Mass migration continuous at a neck breaking speed. Shan Jingjing, a researcher from the Academy of Social Science’s Institute for Urban and Environmental Studies, said that urbanisation was welcome and “natural”, but that authority had to prepare for its side effects. Large funding is needed for housing, social welfare and infrastructure projects to support the new arrivals. In 1982 about 25% of the international population lived in cities, which after three decades has grown to over 50%. Expectations are that in the next 20 years the urban population will grow to 75 %, because people are looking for work and better living conditions. The situation in China is a reflection of the South African scenario. Urbanisation is real, with not only our rural areas, but also many other Africans migrating to the big cities (Johannesburg, Durban, Cape Town).

Cox (2014) in a further newspaper article headed “Urban poverty surges”, indicates that *“focus is placed on resolving rural poverty by the S.A. government, but that the government is failing to see that poverty in the cities is growing at a rapid speed.”* An

ever growing number of people migrate to cities and cannot find accommodation and employment. They are moving into informal settlements on the periphery of cities, which are not close to economic hubs and are far from transport. Because of the rapid urban migration, there are the same numbers of people who live in informal settlements as there were in 1994 in spite of the government having built 3 million houses (Cox, 2014). A large number of people migrate to cities and cannot find accommodation and employment. Johannesburg has grown to 1.2 million people in the last 10 years. This global phenomenon leads to dire poverty in cities. This relates to the research regarding the huge influx of poverty stricken people who seek employment, and end up working for labour brokers (Cox, 2014).

As migrant workers, refugees present a particular set of challenges as a result of traumatic experiences of migration and their uncertain status on arrival in the host country. As in many countries the regularization of status can take months or years and can lead to the undermining of both personal and vocational confidence in the workplace (Hall & Howard, 2008). The situation that these migrants live in and the general poor living conditions and uncertainties are part of this research's findings regarding poor working conditions and job satisfaction.

“Employees are considered “vulnerable” with regard to payment of wages, non-payment of wages prescribed by law, leaving waiters to survive on a “starvation wage”, leaving them “marginalised and excluded from gains won for the permanent workforce” (Mosala, 2008:29). Migrant workers from other countries are also vulnerable as they often do not know their rights and are taken advantage of by employers. Young women in all sectors are vulnerable because they are exposed to high levels of sexual harassment and abuse in the workplace. Because they lack protection, rights and representation, these workers often remain trapped in poverty (Horn, 2014).

The dilemma of South Africa's labour market, according to Gumede (2014), is that most of the unemployed have few or no skills, yet jobs that are created are for those with technical and professional skills or who are in management. The labour market is also racialized. Those without jobs are likely to be Black and are often young. Furthermore, they will most likely live in Apartheid-planned townships and rural

areas, far from the centres of employment and public transport. Many Black school leavers do not have the hard skills, social skills or connections to enter the labour market. The reality of the current situation is that job seekers and those in part-time employment are happy with any job than not to be employed at all. The challenge is whether those in the lowest of jobs will be treated fairly, with dignity, according to health and safety regulations, and without racism.

2.14.6 Banning of labour brokers / Employment agencies and its practices

According to the ILO (2011), countries such as Russia and South Africa favour labour broker bans. A bill to restrict the use of agency and other forms of temporary labour was submitted to the Russian State Duma in mid-2011. In SA labour broking has been a subject of great controversy. In a communication from the ILO the total banning of agencies operate according to the principles of Convention 181 (ILO, 2011). Private employment agencies, which adhere to the principles of the ILO Convention 181 (2011) should contribute to decent work. However, if some of the applicable rights at work are flouted, sidestepped or disregarded, a decent work deficit will arise.

Temporary agency work can also be accompanied by or reinforce other changes in the world of work such as downward pressure on wages, erosion of workers' rights, weakening of social dialogue and social protection, and increasing insecurity and instability of employment in general. *"There is a need for vigilance to ensure that there is effective regulation of temporary work and monitoring of agencies, in order to prevent the abuse and exploitation of workers"* (ILO, 2010). In this context there has been debate in several countries about the merits of banning the operation of labour brokers altogether, based on previous experience. The convention provides a frame work that should be implemented, as a whole, that ensure that agencies that are involved in migration contribute positively to the economic development of countries of origin, and the destination by promoting decent work.

"A balance should be reached by reconciling the needs of labour markets and the rights of labour workers, including equal treatment and respect for labour legislation

in destination countries". Namibia, the Russian Federation and South Africa (ILO, 2010).

Although outright banning of labour brokers is rare, South Africa, Namibia and Russia tried to ban labour broking completely. However fierce opposition and High court rulings have rendered banning to be unconstitutional and have made banning impossible.

According to Holdcroft (2012) the following countries have dealt with the issue of labour broking in different ways:

- In Malaysia: the government proposed to legalize labour suppliers in 2010 as *bone fide* employers and to entrench the contract system.
- In Turkey: legislation has been proposed to make employment flexible, and working conditions better through, among other measures, legalizing subcontracting of core work and legalizing temporary agencies.
- In Korea: the government has proposed to amend its legislation to extend the period within which temporary workers must be made permanent from 2 to 4 years, and to remove all restrictions on the categories of work in which dispatch, or agency employment is allowed.
- In Europe: the most common form of restriction on agency work is to prohibit its use to replace striking workers. Outright bans on agency work are rare, but while many countries place restrictions, these are progressively undermined through lobbying by businesses and agencies.
- In Russia: known as the Labour Banning Bill, proposed legislation included amendments to the Russian Labour Code to rule out triangular employment relationships. The Bill was passed in 2011, but was met with fierce opposition by agencies and CIETT, hence the bill will likely change.
- In Namibia: a law was passed, which bans all forms of labour hire. Businesses and agencies challenged the law, which was subsequently overturned by the High Court as being unconstitutional. The Namibian legislature effectively banned labour broking making it a criminal offence to conduct the business of a labour broker in that country. Shortly after the ban, African Personnel Services, a labour broker, which operates in Namibia, challenged the criminalisation of labour

broking. The matter ultimately came before the Namibian Supreme Court for consideration. The Supreme Court handed down a judgement in which it found that the total ban of labour broking was unconstitutional, as it unreasonably restricted the right to carry on a trade or business, a constitutional right under the Namibian Constitution.

- In South Africa: unions lobbied for legislation to ban agency employment.

Unable to succeed through legislative means, South African unions took the issue to the bargaining table. The National Union of Metalworkers (NUM) achieved an agreement in the motor industry to phase out the use of labour brokers, and is determined to spread this agreement to other sectors.

Other SA bargaining or union agreements reached include:

- In 2010 Numsa agreed with the Tyre Federation and the Automobile Employers Federation to phase out labour brokers and ultimately to ban them from the industry.
- Numsa also reached an agreement with the Steel and Engineering Federation of South Africa, the main metal employers' federation, that workers cannot be employed through labour brokers for longer than 4 months, after which a worker must be made permanent.

International agreements reached indicate that:

- In Finland: the High Court ruled that there is no justification or objective reason for a job to be temporary, only permanent. The High Court ruled that a job is not temporary merely because an employer uses work agencies.
- In Indonesia: the Constitutional Court ruled that contract based work is unconstitutional and against workers' rights, as enshrined in the Indonesian Constitution. The court ruled unanimously to remove all chapters on contract workers and outsourcing in labour law, since these contravened the Constitution, which assures the protection of workers and their rights.
- In India: the Supreme Court used strong language to condemn the widespread practice by employers to declare their employees to be employees of a

contractor. This is used to get around labour regulation and to pay lower wages (Holdcroft, 2012).

This provides evidence that there is work afoot to change regulations in order to protect temporary employee rights.

2.15 Working conditions

In his 1981 encyclical letter on work, Pope John Paul speaks of the human person being the “subject of work” and strongly asserts that “the primary basis of the value of work is the human person who is its subject. This, he says, leads immediately to an important conclusion of an ethical nature – work is, in the first place, “for” the human person, rather than the person being “for” work (Pope John Paul, 1981). The emotional work aspect of the hospitality industry, where workers are expected to meet the demands of guests with a smile, while being overworked and underpaid, is also discussed. The resulting working conditions in all sectors of the economy are reputed to be unfavourable and undesirable, exploiting the vulnerability of the employees in question, and leading to “exploitation’ (Mosala, 2008:28).

The concept of respect is a further point of note, reflected in discussions relating to working conditions. Respect may be defined as:

- A feeling of deep admiration for someone or something elicited by their abilities, qualities or achievements (Google free dictionary, 2014).
- Respect has great importance in our lives; children are taught to respect their parents and / or elderly (Stanford Encyclopaedia of Philosophy, 2012).
- Respect is a way treating or thinking about someone or something. If you respect your teacher, you admire her and treat her well (Collins, 2010).

Relating to the world of work respect is a reciprocal concept, expected and appreciated both employees and employers. Cultural interpretations may differ in application, however the root understanding of respect remains an observable feeling or response to how well one is treated, or mistreated.

Eurofound (2010) refers to working conditions as the work environment and aspects of terms and conditions of employment. This covers matters such as the organisation of work and work activities, training skills and employability, health and safety and

well-being and a life-work balance. Remuneration is also part of working conditions. The issue of remuneration becomes an issue when one investigates casualization. The consequence and ultimate goal of changing permanent jobs into temporary employment is saving money for end-user enterprises (Collins, 2010).

Working conditions, internationally and in South Africa, according to the Constitution of South Africa (RSA, 1996 Chapter 2, Section 23) stipulates that every person has the right to “fair labour practices”, which includes a reasonable job with certain criteria that should be met, reasonable working hours and decent remuneration. A further requirement of the law stipulates that employees including temporary and fixed term workers, should be employed with a contract. Confirmed in an article, which was published by The Star newspaper (July 6), research was conducted for the proposed Labour Relations Amendment Act 2012, which will soon be considered in the South African parliament. The bill will have to be considered amid COSATU’s controversial action, which calls for a total ban of labour brokers (Pressley, D’Angelo & Magwasa 2012). The proposed bill will give temporary employees and TES staff, in general, better protection regarding working conditions and job security.

The Labour Relations Amendment Bill 2012, section 198 of Act 66 of 1995 alludes in this section of Temporary Employment Services (TES), which is commonly referred to as “labour brokers“. The amendment bill addresses more effectively certain problems and abusive practices that are associated with TES. The main thrust of this bill is to restrict the employment of more vulnerable, lower-paid workers by a TES to situations of genuine and relevant “temporary work”, and to introduce various further measures to protect workers who are employed in this way.

Overall, the working conditions of tourism in many countries have attracted considerable criticism and concern. Adler and Adler (2004), Gentry (2007), Fernandez *et al.* (2009), and Brown and Hall (2008) maintain that tourism involves exploitation of the labour force because of its low wages, excessive hours on duty and / or duties on par example cruise liners that work seven days a week, and twelve to eighteen hour days on six to ten month contracts.

According to Clancy (2008), as cited in Christian (2020: 27), work may often be seasonal and temporary in nature, while in many developing countries there is a lack of possibilities for advancement to senior positions. Patullo (2005), as cited in Christian (2010:27), also discusses the “emotional work” aspect of the tourism and hospitality industries, where workers are expected to meet the demands of tourists / guests with a smile, while being overworked and underpaid.

Housekeepers at the Hyatt Hotel Corporation lost their jobs after room cleaning duties were outsourced to a labour broker. The housekeepers had made \$15-00 per hour cleaning 16 rooms per day in comparison to housekeepers at Hospitality Staffing Solutions (HHS) “labour brokers”, where staff earned \$8-00 per hour cleaning up to 30 rooms per day (Los Angeles Times, 2012).

2.15.1 Precarious work

Common characteristics which identify precarious work include a means to shift risks and responsibilities to workers. Workers are being exposed to variable levels of uncertainty and insecurity. Uncertainty relates to the duration of their employment, multiple possible employers or a disguised or ambiguous employment relationship, a lack of access to social protection and benefits that are usually associated with employment, low pay, and substantial legal and practical obstacles to join a trade union and bargaining, collectively. The category of contract workers, although contested by labour consultants, was largely understood to include workers with temporary contracts. *“Triangular relationships are those who are hired via agencies and subcontractors, and workers who are labelled as self-employed when they are in fact dependent on or integrated into the firm for which they perform the work: in other words, workers working under the disguised, ambiguous or triangular employment relationship”* (ACTRAV, 2011).

Precarious work has a deep impact on individuals and on society. Over the past years, economic crises and turbulences on the financial markets have led to wide spread anxiety among workers. Increasing rates of unemployment and precarious work arrangements deteriorate the quality of working and living conditions. The normalization of precarious work is already showing its deep damaging impacts on society at large and in general, it leaves workers and communities in unstable and

insecure situations, disrupting their life planning options. More concretely, precarious workers are found to suffer a higher rate of occupational safety and health issues. *“Such impacts fortify gender divisions and worsen the already precarious situation of migrant workers. The general condition of fear and insecurity also dissuade workers from joining trade unions, leaving them even more vulnerable to precarious work arrangements”* (Weller & Roethlisberger, 2011).

Precariousness can be the result of total exclusion of specific categories of workers from the labour code. Such is the case, for instance, for domestic workers, agricultural, public sector and export processing workers and in some cases workers who work under temporary arrangements such as hospitality labour broker employees. If the worker does not fit the definition of “employee”, it almost certainly means that they will not be entitled to any rights under labour legislation.

Although these definitions differ from country to country, depending on the context and legal framework, they share a feature that can serve to exclude certain groups of workers explicitly. Precarious work arrangements are also associated with poor health conditions. Workers on temporary or agency contracts are often exposed to hazardous work environments, stressful psychosocial working conditions, increased workload and disproportional travel time between multiple sites. Research in the field has also found that precarious workers are less likely to receive adequate training for the tasks that they are to perform while their occupational safety and health is poorly monitored by inspection systems (Menendez, et al, 2007)

Precarious work has been the key driver for the growing low pay sector. In countries without comprehensive bargaining coverage and without statutory minimum wages, the downward pressure on wages is strong, in particular during periods of high unemployment. In countries such as South Africa, where access to social security benefits is restricted or absent, people are forced to take on any precarious jobs for mere survival. Weak enforcement of labour law practices implies that even those workers who are protected may feel precarious.

As in South Africa, many countries which have the responsibility of regulating, implementing and enforcing labour laws, have been fractured across ministries.

“Moreover, labour law enforcement mechanisms have been deflated through resource reduction. This is seen most acutely in typically under resourced labour inspectorates - as in the South African situation” (Arthurs, 2006).

2.15.2 Forced labour

Research conducted in the UK regarding forced labour, and dealing with migrant worker’s plight. Scott *et al.* (2012) found that low-wage migrant workers in the UK experience exploitation, that this exploitation occurs both within the workplace and through the provision of substandard accommodation, that employers and employment agencies are culpable, and that competitive pressures may drive some of the exploitation observed. Overall knowledge is limited, however, by exploited worker’s reticence to take grievances forward and the fact that, even when workplaces are inspected, workers testimonies are stage-managed.

Many workers continue to experience a lack of their basic rights and, even when they are empowered by law, there are barriers, which enforce rights. For many there is an acute sense of powerlessness, despair and, in some cases, fear of their employers. This acts to regulate behaviour and to create deferential workers. The most notable, novel and unexpected forced labour practice we found was the ‘underwork scam’, too many workers being recruited and then being given just enough employment to meet their financial obligations to the gangmaster.

Informal employment and housing brokers (gangmasters) (labour brokers in SA) continue to exploit workers (migrants in particular). Albeit from a single study, the UK food industry is a sector where exploitation remains significant. The intensity of work in the food industry, driven by economic pressures throughout the supply the chain, undoubtedly contributes to the exploitation observed. Low-wage migrant workers appear especially vulnerable to forced labour and it is not just irregular migrants or those with limited status who are exploited.

Findings of the research (Scott *et al.* 2012) further revealed that many interviewees were lived in poverty, on insecure and subsistence-level wages, and often in substandard accommodation. Secondly, the dreams that respondents had harboured of a better life in the UK had not been realised, and in many cases working

conditions (not pay) were seen as being worse in the UK than back home. Pay may have been better in numerical terms, but the increase in the cost of living eroded that advantage also. Thirdly, it was obvious that forced labour victims who were spoken to were fearful of complaining and, more generally, they felt devoid of any power to effect positive change within the workplace. There was, in short, a resignation to the way that things were and the way that things would always be. Fourthly, a significant minority of interviewees had experienced stress, depression or anxiety as a result of the forced labour indicators and practices they had experienced.

This is significant, since it indicates that there may be hidden costs which are associated with forced labour to the health service such as out of work benefit payments, and in terms of the impact that exploitation has on one's family and private life. A number of workers reported poor health owing to the practices that they had experienced (Scott, Craig & Geddes, 2012).

Forced labour indicators that have been identified, according to Scott *et al.* (2012), and include the following:

- Poverty through a combination of debt, deductions, flexible employment, irregular migration status, and constraint opportunities. Shocking reports have surfaced of migrant workers being unable to pay for food or accommodation because of their poverty-level wages;
- Tie-ins (money)-dependency on the employer or gang masters was not only created through tied accommodation, because in some cases employers and gangmasters also held on to migrants' pay for safekeeping;
- Tie-ins (accommodation) it is common in the food industry for accommodation to be linked with employment. In the worst case scenario of abuse encountered, exploitation involved situations where work and accommodation were controlled by an employer, gang masters or both;
- Tie-ins (work permits). A link exists between immigration status, vulnerability and forced labour. Being employed through the employer-sponsor and work permit system (UK), the migrant is tied to an employer, which creates vulnerability (TUC, 2005:47);
- Documentation abuse: numerous cases have been reported of employers holding on to migrants passports, mainly because migrant workers' employment was

informal, and one assumes undeclared. Essentially, this involved working without a contract or payslips;

- Pay and conditions: once in the UK, employment agencies and those that are linked to employment agencies charge workers for the following services: obtaining work, travelling to and from work, accommodation, utility bills and shopping. Migrants often have to pay for excessive deductions for transport and accommodation that result in almost 'zero-wages' working conditions;
- Deductions and Charges, which are paid to labour market intermediaries that operate illegally;
- No breaks during a work shift;
- Non-and underpayment of wages;
- Overwork;
- Disciplining through dismissal; and
- Threats and bullying.

Scott, Craig & Geddes, (2012) further identified “drivers” behind forced labour (migrants) as being the following:

- Economics: especially the need for low costs and a highly flexible workforce;
- Cultural: especially the expectation of long hours and limited breaks;
- Consumers: the expectation of readily available cheap food;
- Supply chains: the structure of food supply chains and the risk of responsibilities within them;
- Criminals: the activities of criminal employers and employment agencies;
- Migrants: the different status of immigrant workers, as defined by the state;
- Intermediaries: the extent to which agents mediate between a worker and an employment or housing opportunity and the degree of regulation regarding;
- Law: the extent to which employers or employment agencies fear sanctions should they be found to be exploiting workers; and
- Civil society: barriers that prevent workers from forming broader collectives

The three domains of forced labour from a different perspective may be expressed as follows:

Table 5: The three domains of forced labour from a different perspective:

Time poor	Money poor	Controlled
Extreme productivity targets and excessive workplace surveillance	Upfront fees and debt bondage	Productivity targets and work place surveillance
Overwork	Non-and underpayment of wages	Disciplining through dismissal
No paid break or paid holidays	Underwork and indebtedness	Documentation abuse
	Deductions and charges	Threats and bullying
	Tie-ins: money	Threat of denunciation
	Tie-ins: accommodation	Tie-ins: work permits
		Tie-ins: money

Source: Lerche, (2007).

2.15.3 Previous South African research

Following an investigation into the working conditions of waiters in the restaurant industry in Bloemfontein, researchers at the University of the Free State (UFS) (2001) concluded that, contrary to general perception, waiters are merely young people who earn pocket money. The results show that this is not necessarily true. More than half of the respondents are full-time waiters who make a living from waiting tables. However laws should improve the life experience of those to whom it applies. Therefore the question is: if the BCEA is enforced in the restaurant industry, will waiters actually be better off? The answer to this is not a simple “yes or no”. With regard to termination of employment, waiters seem to be extremely vulnerable. The overwhelming majority who were interviewed for the study could be summarily dismissed; and have to perform tasks for which they receive no compensation. Enforcement of the law would provide waiters job security and stability.

The BCEA (1996) section 198 is quite specific about the issue of deductions, night work and Sunday shifts. None of the respondents in the research were consulted regarding deductions for losses. No distinction was made between day and night shifts, while Sundays and holidays are treated like ordinary working days. Since the law stipulates that different rates should apply, waiters lose income that they are

legally entitled to. Hence, enforcement of the law would benefit waiters. Conversely, in the case of working hours, enforcing the law could be to waiters' detriment. Since waiters themselves determine their working hours and the length of their work week, they often work more hours than the law allows. More hours implies higher remuneration. In other words, the enforcement of the law in this regard would mean lower wages for waiters.

As the BCEA (1996) section 198 allows the minister to determine minimum wages, there could be a strong case for the above, since a considerable number of waiters in this study indicated that they do not receive any remuneration from their employers. They are solely dependent on gratuities or tips, which, though an age old practice, still depends on the guests' generosity. Even waiters who are paid a percentage of sales will not earn anything if no customers were served during that particular shift.

The UFS study clearly shows that there are discrepancies between the stipulations of the BCEA (1996) and the actual working conditions of waiters in the South African hospitality industry. Although the results apply to Bloemfontein restaurants only, this will likely be the case throughout South Africa. Although waiters could gain from a minimum wage in terms of income, one should consider the impact of employment levels. *"Theory predicts that, in a competitive market, employment levels will decrease"* (Bothma & Thomas, 2001).

The table below shows discrepancies between the actual working conditions and the stipulations by law (BCEA), in relation to the Bloemfontein study.

Table 6. The table showing the discrepancies between the actual working conditions and the stipulations by law. (BCEA) (Bloemfontein study UFS 2001)

Conditions	BCEA	Waiters
Working time:		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ordinary hours / day 	Maximum of 9 hours	58% work longer, some up to 16 hours.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ordinary hours / week 	Maximum of 45 hours	49% work more, some up to 96 hours.
	1 hour after 5 consecutive hours.	92% get none.
	Allowance must be paid	

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Meal intervals • Night work • Sundays 	and transport provided ½ times wage should be paid	No allowance paid, no transport provided. No extra commission paid.
Particulars of employment	Should be in writing and detailed	89% have nothing in writing.
Termination of employment	Notice: 1 week, 2 weeks or 1 month (depending on length of service)	64% could be summarily dismissed without any notice.
Deductions	Only written agreement, and proven guilt	88% are in some other way responsible for losses, guilty not proven.

Source: Bothma & Thomas (2001).

Research conducted in the Cape lodging sector in South Africa by Maumbe and van Wyk (2008) regarding the transformation in the hotel industry, relating to skills and opportunities, shows that income variability exists among different racial groups and genders. This further extends to the types of positions that are held by different racial groups and genders. The relationship between qualification, race, gender, length of service and income in the same or similar positions indicates varying levels of difference, which results in disparity between groups of people,

The results indicate significant differences with regard to salaries based on race.

Table 7: Employee's income range by race

Race	Income range
Black	R 2,501- R 3,500
Coloured	R 3,501- R 4,500
White	R 6,001- R 8,000

The correlation tests showed a significant and positive relationship between length of service and income only for White employees. The findings imply that White employees' incomes increased with an increase in the length of service, but the

same could not be said for Black and Coloured employees. Working conditions and the types of contracts for all races were similar, which indicates that employees, in general, were satisfied with their respective jobs. Other results of this study show that the lodging sector is generally labour intensive, utilizing mostly low academic skills and offering low paying employment. This conclusion follows the findings that almost a quarter of the respondents indicated that their jobs did not require any formal qualifications; the average working day comprises 9.2 hours; and about 52% indicated that they earn below R 3,500.00 a month (Maumbe & van Wyk, 2008).

Detailed research regarding working conditions, and the effect on the moral, and thus the commitment of the employees to the conferencing and event management industry, has not been done in South Africa. This research investigates the actual working conditions, and the consequent results of the conditions on individuals; and their consequent effectiveness, efficiency and value to the user enterprises (clients). Rogerson and Visser (2004) provide an overview of the progress of tourism and hospitality research in South Africa. They conclude that the working conditions within the industry are scarcely explored.

Previous research by Geddes, et al (2007) reveals in a Gangmasters licensing authority evaluation study, which formed a baseline report from the University of Sheffield (UK), wherein working conditions of domestic workers, the agricultural sector and health and social care, were investigated. Domestic migrant workers, face similar challenges like migrant TES staff. (Geddes *et al*, 2007).

Research was conducted by staff members at the University of the Free State, which dealt with the working conditions of waiters in the restaurant industry in Bloemfontein (Bothma & Thomas, 2001).

Research by Webster (2005) examines the changing nature of work and employment in southern Africa in the wake of liberalization, which has intensified competition, leading to the evolution of three different “worlds of work” in which workers benefit from global integration, some survive in employment, but under worse conditions, and others are retrenched and forced to “make a living” in informal and unpaid work.

“Earning a living” refers to those who are employed and get (regular) paid a salary, while “making a living” refers to those who are forced to survive from informal activities (creating your own job) (Webster, 2005)

Research that was conducted and published in the “International Political Science Report Vol. 26” (2005) suggests that the informal economy is largely dependent on the formal economy, and is connected to the “first economy”. There is no “Chinese Wall” between those who “earn a living” and those “who make a living”. Men and women move between these categories and households provide “fragile stability” for the un-employed, the sick, informal workers, casual workers, and if they are fortunate, those who have a regular paid job. The challenge that faces those who “make a living” arises from the fact that they are in a subordinate position within the economy, and lack access to financial resources and market information, not that they belong to “a separate economy”. This increasing inequality in the labour market is, however, a global phenomenon (Webster, 2005).

2.15.4 Human Resources Practices

Many businesses – both large and small, have difficulty in understanding their human resources and employment relations obligations, whichever country or countries in which they operate. The hospitality industry is no exception and in many cases is more complex than the average business. A publication of Biz Momentum, Lye (2007) outlines matters arising and gives sound reliable advice for solutions. It has been estimated that 75% of businesses do not have an established employee agreement, and employment related policies and procedures.

In the event of a dispute, the law will decide for an employee and this almost always goes against the employer. Worldwide bullying and sexual harassment claims are escalating, and the average cost of these claims comes directly from bottom line profit, apart from the bad publicity for one’s business. Theft of inventory such as quality wine, food and equipment is rampant. Misuse and unlawful use of facilities for personal gain is increasing. Many hotels and restaurants deliberately flout occupational health and safety rules, which results in staff turnover, fines and costly pay-outs to employees.

Lye (2007) further claims that many managers do not understand or have the experience and knowledge of how to manage and lead employees. *“People skills are paramount to one’s business success. Not having an adequate job description and controlling management behaviour can be a cause of psychological injury, resulting in hefty fines, not to mention the process of litigation, which can take up to three years to resolve”.*

A common practice is to stick to a certain group of TES employees in order to ensure consistency in services. This means in reality that these staff members are familiar with that particular facility and perform their duties owing to experience gained there over time. Many of these employees have never been trained in the first place, not by the TES and not by the facility. The facility presumes that the hired employees are able to do the tasks required. In reality, these employees should also have been orientated and socialised into that operation and possibly have received some sort of training in order to understand what is required to perform their duties. They should have been informed about procedures, policies, visions and missions, as well as the above mentioned HR practices.

Lye (2007) suggests that HR departments in hotels issue their staff, in general, as well as their temporary employees with comprehensive job descriptions, employment agreements, policies and procedures and a proper induction program. A theft case in a hotel that wanted the dismissal of the accused employee caught on camera was converted into a written warning, because the employee had never been inducted into the operation, and not been told about the presence of surveillance cameras (Lye, 2007).

2.15.5 Defining good HR practices and management

According to Grobler and Diedericks (2009), recruitment practices that result in the selection of excellent staff include the following:

- Accurate advertisements, job /role descriptions and person specifications and context information;
- Appropriate selection tools, criteria and mechanisms;
- Timely hiring;

- Well planned induction;
- Viable and attractive benefits and compensation packages;
- Equitability of treatment / relativities between individuals and work groups; and
- Appropriate for the market.

Relating to employee performance management, Grobler and Diedericks (2009) refer to the following as being important employee management factors:

- Individual staff objectives linked to business plans;
- Regular feedback as well as formal appraisals;
- Up to date job descriptions/roles;
- Staff development and training that meets work place requirements and individual needs; based on competencies required and developmental needs;
- Skills audit / inventory.

Furthermore, workforce continuity and succession planning envisages taking the following into consideration:

- Monitoring of absence and resignation data;
- Monitoring age profiles;
- Appropriate maternity and paternity leave provisions;
- Identification of single person/critical dependencies;
- Knowledge sharing system;
- Mentoring of employees;
- Shadowing opportunities for employees to develop;
- Job rotation in order to upskill and expose employees;
- Job exchanges to familiarize employees with all the tasks within a department or area;
- Documentation/expert recording systems; and
- Exit interviews and management of knowledge handover.

Conformance with legal obligations involves awareness of the following aspects:

- Discrimination and its meaning within the workplace;
- Diversity of employees relating to culture, religion and race;
- Privacy, and respect for the privacy of others;(this is covered in the south Africa context by the introduction of the POPPY Act of 2014)

- Health and Safety;
- Freedom of information;
- Equal opportunities;
- Conditions of employment; and
- Freedom of association.

According to Grobler and Diedericks (2009), a positive workplace culture places emphasis on the following:

- Value defined and driven;
- Change orientated, flexible culture;
- Effective communication and dialogue;
- Plans, policies, guidelines available to staff;
- Positive encouragement / support for innovation and continuous quality improvement;
- Recognition and reward systems;
- Engagement with work groups and union representatives;
- Management of major change procedures; and
- Monitoring staff satisfaction.

The above information is critical in creating and maintaining good labour relations and working conditions for all employees, whether employed permanently or casually.

2.15.6 Orientation / Training

The purpose of an orientation / induction is to expose new employees to the organisation's mission and culture, to inform them of the company's corporate profile, values and systems, and to familiarise new employees with the rules and regulations and to help them socialise. Training, together with the job descriptions for non-managerial staff, should take place on a regular basis or when needed, while on the job training and cross-training are an important stimulus and motivation factor, which as this research will inform contribute to confidence and improve working conditions (Ahmad *et.al.*, 2010). Directly related to the above, the importance of good communication cannot be underestimated. The effects of poor communication

can include: drastic effects on production and employee relations; misunderstandings; confusion; wastage; accidents; and high labour turnover. Good communication practices are especially essential in a customer driven environment such as the hospitality industry (Grobler & Diedericks, 2009).

2.15.7 Performance appraisals, career development opportunities and remuneration

Effective performance appraisals, apart from making decisions about pay, can also significantly contribute to the satisfaction and motivation of employees. This influences talent utilisation and succession management, with both strategies recognising the dedicated, talented hard worker. For the appraisal system to be fully effective, employees should be regularly reviewed to establish whether they still reflect future company needs. Clancy (2008), as cited in Christian (2010:27), states that *“work may often be seasonal and temporary in nature, while in many developing countries there is a lack of possibilities for advancement to senior positions”*. Also discussed in the same context is the emotional aspect of work in the hospitality industry, where workers are expected to meet the demands of guests with a smile, while being overworked and underpaid.

2.15.8. Job descriptions and communication

Job descriptions define specific tasks that should be performed in a given position, as well as personal qualities that are needed to adequately perform the job. Management can use the job descriptions for training and any disciplinary action when needed (Kavanaugh and Ninemeier, 2010). The importance of good communication cannot be underestimated. The effects of poor communication can include drastic effects on production and employee relations; misunderstandings; confusion; wastage; accidents; and high labour turnover. *“Good communication practices are especially essential in a customer driven environment such as the hospitality industry. Issuing job descriptions and proper communication are both attributes to a satisfied workforce, whether they are temporary or permanent”* (Grobler & Diedericks, 2009).

2.16 Job satisfaction

According to Grobler *et al.* (2011), many factors contribute to employee job satisfaction. The following are the four elements that most surveyed employees reported to be the “best liked” about their position.

- Most satisfying is the kind of work that the employee performs, especially when interesting and challenging and the freedom that they have to determine how the work is done.
- Co-worker relations and the quality of relationships in the workgroup are important. It is important that the employee is accepted as an individual in the work unit and that he / she receives friendliness and support from his / her co-workers.
- Good supervision, and job satisfaction improves when supervisors are perceived to be fair, helpful, competent and effective. This includes supervisor skills in problem solving, coaching, training, listening and provision of authoritative key information.
- Opportunity to grow: employees derive great satisfaction from acquiring new knowledge and skills, as well as opportunities presented to them.

The most frequently reported detractors from achieving job satisfaction include:

- Insensitive, uncaring and incompetent leadership. This includes biased treatment by supervisors, poor communication and not attending to problems.
- Interpersonal conflicts, conflicts, lack of teamwork, unfriendliness and rivalry.
- Dirty, noisy, unsafe and unhealthy working conditions which lead to job dissatisfaction.
- Poor pay, low uncompetitive pay is a major contributor to job dissatisfaction. (Grobler *et al.*, 2011).

By dealing with the distractors, and resolving exposed challenges, a more positive work experience will deliver a better satisfied temporary workforce.

Robbins and Judge (2001) created a theoretical model, which assists in the understanding of the impact of dissatisfaction in the workplace.

Active	Exit	Voice	Passive
Destructive	Neglect	Loyalty	Constructive

Figure 6. The exit-voice-loyalty-neglect frame work.

Source: Robbins and Judge 2001. Journal of Applied Social Psychology 15 No. 1, p 83. (2001) V.H. (Winston & Sons)

The exit-voice-loyalty-neglect framework (Robbins and Judge, 2001) is helpful in understanding the consequences of job dissatisfaction. The exit response directs behaviour towards leaving the organisation, including looking for a new position, as well as resigning. The voice response includes actively and constructively attempting to improve conditions, including suggesting improvements, discussing problems with superiors, and undertaking some forms of union activity.

The loyalty response means passively, but optimistically, waiting for conditions to improve, including speaking up for the organisation in the face of external criticism and trusting the organisation and its management to “do the right thing”. The neglect response passively, allows conditions to worsen and includes chronic absenteeism or lateness, reduced effort, and increased error rate.

- Researchers have now confirmed that the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance is evident, while they that found organisations that have satisfied employees to be more effective as organisations.
- Satisfied employees seem more likely to talk positively about their organisation, be more helpful, and go beyond the normal expectations in their job.
- In service orientated organisations (like the hospitality industry), front of house staff and anyone in contact with customers, research has proven that satisfied employees is directly related to customer’ positive outcomes.
- Satisfied employees increase customer’s satisfaction and loyalty.
- Researchers found a consistent negative relationship between job satisfaction and absenteeism.

- Job satisfaction and antagonistic relationships with co-workers predicts undesirable behaviours such as, unionization attempts, substance abuse, stealing at work, undue socializing and tardiness.
- Overall, job dissatisfaction will negatively affect turn-over.

“By creating a happy workforce, a happy guest experience is created” (Robbins & Judge, 2011).

2.17 Summary

Internationally there is support for the concern arising from the changing working conditions brought about by temporary and/or contract labour agreements emerging into the 21st century. Deregulation of the labour market is an international occurrence which this research aims to record for the South African labour market in the hospitality industry, resulting in changing working conditions.

The literature provides a background against which the working conditions and effects of casualization in Gauteng will be determined and compared. The literature indicates that this is indeed a controversial, sensitive and debatable subject indicating conflict between business practices and labour expectations

A contributing factor to working conditions, in general, can be found in the human resource practices that are applied by either the TES and / or their clients. The research investigates the TES human resource practices and procedures with the help of the first phase of the research design questionnaires and interviews, The second phase of interviews would contribute to the data established, by supporting or contradicting the findings. (Wheelhouse and Longstreet, 2004; Lye, 2007).

The selection of a suitable research design using a sequential explanatory design and a mixed methods approach have been selected, and discussed in Chapter Three. These methods ensure that the research provides data that is required in order to reach valid and reflective findings.

CHAPTER THREE: Research Methodology

3.1 Introduction

The chapter elaborates on the research methodology selected to collect and analyse primary data in order to answer the research questions. It considers the chosen methodological approaches for effective data collection and data analysis to ensure an accurate reflection of the working conditions of temporary employed employees in the hospitality industry.

3.2 Research design

According to van Wyk (2008), research design articulates what data is required, what methods will be used to collect and analyse this data, and how this will answer the research question. The research methodology focuses on the end- results, and the methods used for the explanatory study / quantitative in the case of this research in which the point of departure is the research question. Methodology, according to van Wyk (2008), focuses on the research process, tools and procedures, the individual steps in the research process, and the most objective (unbiased) procedures to be employed.

Although this research can be interpreted as exploratory (which starts with the collection of qualitative data), the research makes use of a sequential explanatory descriptive method in which case the quantitative data is collected first.

Sequential Explanatory Design

Table 8: Sequential Explanatory Design

Quantitative data collection ➡	Quantitative data analysis ➡	Qualitative data collection ➡	Qualitative data analysis ➡	Interpretation of entire analysis.
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Source Ahmadnezhad, (2012).

This investigation used a sequential explanatory design type. The research will initially inform itself of the many possibilities of mixed research types, methods and approaches and, in the process, explain the chosen design.

3.2.1 A Sequential Research design

Sequential design, as discussed by Creswell and Plano Clark (2007), involves “collecting data strategies in a process whereby the collected data in one phase contributes to the collected data in the next. Sequential refers to one type of data, which provides a basis for collection of another type of data”. Data is collected in these designs to provide more data about results from the earlier phase of data collection and analysis, to select participants who can best provide that data, or to generalize findings by verifying and augmenting study results from members of a defined population.

Sequential designs in which quantitative data is collected can first use statistical methods to determine which findings to augment in the next phase. This research embraces a mixed method research design with the intention to use this method as the best suitable approach.

In the first phase of this research quantitative survey data was collected, and in the second phase in-depth interview qualitative data was collected.

The survey questions were structured using closed-ended questions, and the response categories developed in order to profile the TES employees as comprehensively as needed to obtain the desired answers to the research questions. The subsequent in-depth, semi-structured interviews were intended to find answers of the views of the labour brokers considering particular interesting or ambiguous survey responses, as well as standard questions, which explore general perspectives on the topic.

This design provided the researcher with an opportunity to review and analyse the survey results, and tailor the subsequent in-depth interview questions accordingly.

Sequential timing, according to Creswell (2011), refers to “pacing and implementing of the two phases, and the relationship between the quantitative and qualitative data collected, and occurs when the researcher implements the surveys in two distinct phases, with the collection and analysis of one type of data occurring after the collection and analysis of the other type”.

A researcher who uses sequential timing may choose to start by either collecting and analysing quantitative data first, or collecting and analysing qualitative data first. This research proceeded with the collection of quantitative data first, to enable the researcher to establish what to further investigate in the next phase.

3.2.2 Explanatory design

According to Creswell and Plano *et al.* (2007), “*the explanatory method indicates that the research question is more quantitatively orientated; it provides the researcher with the ability to return to the participants for a second round of qualitative data collection; and the researcher is given time to conduct the research in two phases*”. It provides the researcher with an opportunity to analyse and interpret one type of data collected at the time, and the researcher will be able to develop new questions based on quantitative results which cannot be answered with quantitative data. Strengths of this design include the fact that the two phase structure is fairly easy to implement, and that the final report can be written with a quantitative section followed by a qualitative section, providing a clear delineation for readers.

Furthermore explanatory research, according to Robson (2002), encompasses the following:

- Seeks an explanation of a situation or problem, traditionally but not necessarily in the form of casual relationships;
- Explains patterns relating to the phenomenon that is researched; and
- Identifies relationships between aspects of the phenomenon.

3.2.3 Philosophical assumptions behind the explanatory design

The research commenced the quantitative first phase, with the research problem and purpose calling for a greater importance to be placed on the quantitative aspects. Although this may encourage researchers to use a post positivist orientation to the study, Creswell and Plano Clark (2007), suggest to use different assumptions within each phase – that is, since the study begins using a quantitatively method, the researcher typically begins from the perspectives of post-positivism to develop instruments, measurable variables, and to assess statistical results. When the researcher moves to the qualitative phase that values multiple perspectives and in-depth description, there is a shift towards using the assumption of constructivism.

The overall philosophical assumptions in this design change and shift from post-positivist to constructivist, as researchers use multiple philosophical positions.

A worldview or paradigm for the study may be seen from a post-positivism or constructivism perspective, as indicated in the table below

Table 9: Worldview or paradigm for study

Postpositivism	Constructivism
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Determination • Reductionism • Empirical observation and measurement • Their verification 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Understanding. • Multiple participant meanings. • Social and historical construction • Theory generation

Sourced from Creswell, (2008)

3.3 Research methodology The researcher identified the sequential explanatory descriptive design as the most suitable design for this study, as the researcher is then able to establish shortcomings in the first phase of the research, which can be accommodated in the second phase.

A mixed method research methodology has been selected, which may be defined as:

“Mixed methods research is a design for collecting, analysing, and mixing quantitative and qualitative research data in a single study or series of studies to understand a research problem” (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2007).

Hughes (2008) interprets the combined approach as follows:

1. *“Logic of triangulation: the findings from one can be checked against the findings of the other type of study.*
2. *Qualitative research facilitates quantitative research: quantitative helping with the choice of subjects for a qualitative investigation.*
3. *Quantitative & qualitative research is combined to provide a general picture, while quantitative may be employed to plug the gaps in a qualitative study.*

4. *Structure and process: quantitative studies are usually stronger at structural features, while qualitative are stronger in processes.*
5. *Interpretation: quantitative will establish relationships among variables, while qualitative will explore reasons for these relationships.*
6. *Macro and Micro levels: quantitative research can tap large-scale structural features, while qualitative research tends to address small-scale behavioural aspects”.*

As the research has selected an existing typology to answer the research question, which is the guide to data collection and analysis, several other approaches will be discussed. Hall and Howard (2008) recently described another dynamic approach to the mixed methods design, which they called the synergistic approach. Hall and Howard (2008) further suggest that the synergistic approach provides a way to combine a typological approach with a systematic approach. In a synergistic approach two or more options interacted so that their combined effect was greater than the sum of the individual parts. Translated into mixed methods, this means that the sum of quantitative and qualitative research was greater than either approach alone. Although this research could with one single phase answer part of the research question, the mixed method renders the answer the research question more credible, reliable and valid.

3.3.1 Quantitative and qualitative research methods.

“Quantitative research consists of a study in which the data concerned can be analysed in terms of numbers” (Hughes, 2008). In general quantitative research methods are usually associated with deductive approaches. Associated with the deductive approach is the collection of quantitative data, highly structured, the application of controls to ensure the validity of data, and the necessity to select samples of a sufficient size in order to generalise conclusions.

Quantitative data can reveal generalizable information for a large group of people. This data often fails to provide specific answers, reasons, explanations or examples. Conversely, qualitative research is concerned with collecting and analysing information in as many forms as possible, chiefly non-numeric. It tends to focus on

exploring, in as much detail as possible, smaller numbers of instances or examples, which are seen as being interesting or illuminating, and aims to achieve “depth”.

Qualitative research methods are associated with inductive approaches. Gaining an understanding of the meanings that humans attach to events involves a close understanding of the research content, the collection of qualitative data and a realisation that the researcher is part of the research process. Because the research will make use of both research methodologies, an investigation of the combined approaches is needed in order to analyse and interpret the collected data correctly. Qualitative research provides data about meaning and context regarding the people and environments of study. Both methods have strengths and weaknesses, and when used together, these methods can be complimentary.

Table 10: Saunders *et al* (2009) make the following distinctions between quantitative and qualitative data.

Quantitative data	Qualitative data
Based on meanings derived from numbers.	Based on the meanings expressed through words.
Collection results in numerical and standardised data.	Collection results in non-standardised data requiring classification into categories.
Analysis conducted through the use of diagrams and statistics.	Analysis conducted through the use of conceptualisation.

Source: Saunders *et al* (2009)

Table 11: Burney (2008) adds the following distinctions between quantitative and qualitative methods.

Concepts usually associated with quantitative method:	Concepts usually associated with qualitative method:
Type of reasoning Deduction Objectivity Causation Type of question Pre-specified	Induction Subjectivity Meaning Open-ended

Outcome oriented	Process-oriented
Type of analysis	
Numerical estimation	Narrative description.
Statistical inference	Constant comparison.

Source: Burney (2008)

Table 12: Both approaches have limitations, according to Hughes (2008) and these limitations can be summarised as shown below:

Quantitative data	Qualitative data
It tends to exclude notions of freedom, choice and moral responsibility.	The problem of adequate reliability and validity is a major concern.
It leads to the assumption that all the facts are true.	Contexts, situations, events and conditions cannot be replicated.
Quantification can become an end in itself.	Time required for data collection, analysis and interpretation are lengthy.
It is often difficult to control all the variables.	Researchers' presence has a profound effect on the subjects of study.
It fails to take into account people's unique ability to interpret their experiences, construct their own meanings and act on these.	Issues of confidentiality and anonymity present problems when selecting findings.

Source: Hughes (2011)

3.3.2 Descriptive methods

The quantitative research method that was selected made use of the survey method, the structured closed-ended questionnaires were answered by the participants, and the researcher described the responses. *“Closed ended questions are easy to analyse statistically, but they seriously limit the responses that participants can give. Many researchers prefer to use a Likert-type scale because it is easy to analyse statistically”* (Jackson, 2009). Hale (2011) emphasises that descriptive methods can *“only describe a set of observations or collected data, and it cannot draw conclusions from that data about which way the relationship goes”*.

Descriptive research and analysis, according to Robson (2002) may be used to portray an accurate profile of persons, events or situations; and requires extensive

knowledge of the situation to be researched or described, so that you know appropriate aspects on which to gather information.

3.3.3 Inductive and deductive research

Table 13: Saunders (2009) summarises inductive and deductive research as follows:

Deductive research approach	Inductive research approach
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Deductive works from the more general to the specific. • Conclusion follows logically from premises. (available facts) • Arguments based on law, rules and accepted principles are generally used for deductive reasoning. • Formal logic has been described as the science of deduction. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Inductive reasoning works the other way, moving from specific observations to broader generalizations and theories. • Conclusion is likely based on premises. • Observations tend to be used for inductive arguments. • Inductive reasoning is known as informal logic or critical thinking.

Source: Saunders (2009)

3.3.4 Sampling & Population

“A “sample” is a subset of the population, elected by either “probability” or “non-probability” methods. When using a probability sample you simply know the likelihood of any member of the population being included and that it is random. Quantitative random sampling gives the research the possibility of generalising the population. Simple random sampling is subset of individuals (a sample) chosen from a larger set (population)”. Furthermore *“Sampling is the process of selecting a group of subjects for a study in such a way that the individuals represent the larger group from which they were selected”* (Yount, 2006).

Purposeful selection was used to ensure that all the respondents met the criteria of being contracted employees, employed by a labour broker and placed in the hospitality industry, within the conferencing sector in Gauteng.

The venues selected represented the hotel industry where conferencing facilities were available in Gauteng, South Africa.

3.4 Data Collection method

The data was collected by means of a purposefully selected population of temporary employees at conferencing centres in the hospitality industry in Gauteng. As indicated by a PWC research project (2010) in the literature review, 95% of the temporary employment population is employed via or through a labour broker.

The questionnaires were taken to the purposefully selected venues where these temporary employees work and were distributed by the field workers and the researcher. Purposeful sampling was used for the qualitative interviews, where five labour brokers involved with the hiring and placement of hospitality employees were approached.

An overview of the labour brokers (Agencies) involved in the survey phase:

Please note: Labour brokers (referred to as LB), may have a number of venues where they supply staff to (referred to as V).

1. Labour broker (LB) 1, a Braamfontein and Randburg based employment agency, has been operating for 16 years with approximately 60 clients (user-enterprises). One of the owners was happy to cooperate and had no problem with the temporary employees, or his management, being interviewed. LB 1 further operates from premises in Pretoria. Semi-structured recorded and transcribed interviews were conducted with two managers, who are responsible for a temporary employee pool of approximately 120 temporary employees, who are employed at a number of different venues in Gauteng.
2. LB 2 – where approximately 180 temporary employees are registered with a Braamfontein based private employment agency. Although initial interviews at their operation seemed possible, this did not materialise, as confirmed interview were not kept.
3. LB 3 – With 150 temporary employees. A Sandton based private employment agency, which mainly deals with an industrial catering group. Attempts to interview management were not granted, and after several attempts, the request was abandoned.

4. LB 4 is one of the largest temporary employment agencies in Gauteng, supplying a large number of employees to a number of hospitality operations in Gauteng (their pool consisting of approximately 1000 temporary waiters, cooks and cleaners). The labour broker employs a contract manager at Venue 3 (V 3) who was supportive in the survey phase. A short interview was conducted with the contract manager regarding operational aspects of the premises in her line of responsibility. A semi-structured, recorded and transcribed interview was conducted with the Managing Director of LB 4 at their premises in Randburg.

5. LB 5 - (A permanent placement and temporary employee pool agency). A short interview at two of their venues (V 1 and V 2) provided the researcher with a basic idea of their operations, although the impression was created that future interviews or survey opportunities were not likely to be granted. An interview was further conducted at V 5 with one of the contract managers of LB 5. A further short interview took place at V 4 with the contract manager supplying temporary employees to the venue.

Limitations of the data collection:

The following was noted as to working arrangements between LB and venues where temporary staff are employed:

- The contract manager employed by LB 5 spoke briefly to the researcher although he was not willing to divulge details regarding finances such as wages. He reports to management at the head office. He suggested that the many fly-by-night operators in the labour broker industry give the industry as a whole a bad name.
- An interview was planned with a manager from LB 2 in Braamfontein. They had a change of mind and were not available to being interviewed.
- Further interviews that were expected to be conducted were cancelled once the reasons for the research were provided.

3.4.1 Validity and reliability

“Validity in research refers to the degree to which a study accurately reflects or assesses the specific concept that the researcher is attempting to measure. While reliability is concerned with accuracy of the actual measuring instruments or procedure, validity is concerned with the study’s success at measuring what the researchers set out to measure. Reliability in research is the extent to which an experiment, test or any measuring procedure yields the same results on repeated trails. Without the agreement of independent observers able to replicate research procedures, or the ability to use research tools and procedures that yield consistent measures, researcher would be unable to satisfactorily draw conclusions, formulate theories or make claims about the generalizability” (Trochim, 2006).

In this research the statistical analysis of the quantitative data made use of the S.P.S.S. computer program, in which case reliability could be tested by using the Cronbach Alpha coefficient which indicates internal consistency.

Ideally, the Cronbach Alpha coefficient of a scale should be above .7.

Reliability of a scale can vary depending on the sample with which it is used. It is therefore necessary to check that each of the scales used in the questionnaires is reliable with a particular sample. The researcher used a mixed-data collection method employing quantitative and qualitative methods, which enabled the researcher to cross-check findings and thus enhances the reliability and validity of the questions posed.

In the research the data collected using a structured interview survey method was combined with the data provided by the individual interviews’ when the working conditions of TES employees; who are employed in the conferencing and events management industry in Johannesburg; was determined. The validity and reliability of the research findings was tested in order to make the study credible. In instances where two or more methods are employed, researchers often use the term triangulation when determining the relevance of the data.

The process of triangulation provides the researcher with:

- An accurate description of the survey method used (quantitative data).
- An opportunity of being prepared to modify your interpretation in light of the researcher’s involvement (when analysing and integrating the collected data).

- An opportunity to consider alternative explanations. (when interpreting the data)
- An opportunity of using reflexivity to identify bias (determine during the data collection process the appropriate method).
- A triangulation option (triangulation being one of several rationale of a mixed methods research project, associated with measurement practices such as surveys and interviews).
- An opportunity of peer debriefing and support (comparing and analysing data collected from different field workers).

In this research the statistical analysis makes use of the S.P.S.S. computer program, in which case reliability is tested by using the Cronbach Alpha coefficient, indicating internal consistency. Ideally, the Cronbach Alpha coefficient of a scale should be above .7. Reliability of a scale can vary depending on the sample with which it is used. It is, therefore, necessary to check that each of the scales is reliable with your particular sample.

Validity (credibility and trustworthiness) in qualitative design can be strengthened in various ways, and these are outlined below.

3.4.2 Triangulation

According to Bryman (2008), triangulation refers to *“the use of more than one approach to an investigation of a research question in order to enhance confidence in the ensuing findings”*. Bailey-Beckett and Turner (2012) describe the gathering of intelligence in business: *“By combining multiple observers, theories, methods, and empirical materials, researchers can hope to overcome the weakness or intrinsic biases and the problems that come from single –method, single-observer and single-theory studies. Often the purpose of triangulation in specific contexts is to obtain confirmation of findings through the convergence of different perspectives. The point at which the perspectives converge is seen to represent reality”*.

3.4.3. Ethical issues

In context of this research, the data collection process considered ethical issues in the design execution by not:

1. Involving respondents without their knowledge or consent through the involvement of hospitality industry related temporary employees;
2. Coercing respondents to participate through the researchers and fieldworkers careful approach and clear explanation of the topic;
3. Withholding information about the true nature of the research, through transparent explanations of the research topic;
4. Otherwise deceiving the respondents through an honest, genuine approach which was acknowledged by the participants;
5. Inducing respondents to commit acts which diminish their self-esteem, through the use of field workers with the occupation and background; and
6. Forgetting that each respondent is to be treated fairly, with consideration and respect (Robson 2002).

3.4.4 Questionnaires

In the quantitative first phase of the research, the profiling of the TES employees was conducted by using a questionnaire which made use of a Likert-scale. According to Bertram (2012), a definition of a Likert-scale is: “A *psychometric response scale primarily used in questionnaires to obtain participants preferences or degree of agreement with a statement or a set of statements. Likert-scales are a non-comparative scaling technique and are unidimensional (only measure a single trait) in nature*”. Respondents are asked to indicate their level of agreement with a given statement by way of an ordinal scale. It is most commonly seen as a 5-point scale, which ranges from “strongly disagree” on one end to “strongly agree” on the other, and with “neither agree nor disagree” in the middle.

The research used a questionnaire, which was constructed to record responses by using a Likert-scale to determine and understand the working conditions of the labour broker employees. More importantly, it provided the researcher with sufficient background information to develop the qualitative second round interview phase, which involved questionnaires among labour brokers. (Bertram, 2012).

A Likert-scale has the following facets:

- Strengths include a simple way of construction, a highly reliable scale and an easy to read document for participants;

- Weaknesses central tendency bias / participants may avoid extreme response categories. acquiescent bias / participants may agree with statements to “please” the experimenter;
- Social desirability bias / portray themselves in a favourable light rather than be honest;
- Lack of reproducibility; and
- Validity may be difficult to demonstrate that one is measuring what you set out to measure.

3.5 Data collection methods and analysis

The research purposefully selected a sample from a pool of TES employees employed to work at a conferencing function. Every function or event makes use of different labour broker employees, and therefore a selection of the available employees would not be selected twice. The research made use of 3 field workers to distribute and collect the questionnaires.

The profile of the field workers reveal that:

Field worker 1, who was also employed by Labour broker 1, provided access to Venue 1, and, at the offices of Labour broker 1. The field worker assisted in the presence of the researcher, where a number of reliably completed questionnaires could be gathered.

Field worker 2 was employed by Labour broker 2, as well as at another agency Labour broker 3. He collected a number of questionnaires, again in the presence of the researcher. Field worker 2 was considered a valuable, reliable and trustworthy field worker, who ensured that the questionnaires would be completed without interference or influence.

Field worker 3 collected questionnaires in small batches that were distributed and collected at Venue 2. As an independent temporary employee his contribution to the research was invaluable, as he ensured non-interference by other employees, ensuring that the respondents were not intimidated and he was trusted was the co-workers.

- A total of 80 questionnaires were distributed at Venue 1, and approximately 40 were collected by field worker 1 representing a 50% response rate.
- Venue 2 and Venue 3 50 questionnaires were distributed and 39 were returned - representing a 78% response rate. A large group of temporary employees from labour broker 4 were trained at a specific allocated conference room at venue 3. The contract manager at venue 3 voluntarily returned 28 questionnaires, representing a 56% response rate.
- Labour broker 3 supplied temporary employees to the Venue 4 group. Field worker 2 distributed 40 questionnaires and 35 were returned completed, representing an 88% response rate.
- Labour broker 2 was supplied with 35 questionnaires which distributed on several occasions (functions) at different smaller venues, using fieldworker 2, of which 30 were returned completed – representing an 85% response rate.
- At venue 2 approximately 40 questionnaires were distributed by field worker 3, of which 26 completed questionnaires were returned - representing a 65% response rate.

In total 295 questionnaires were distributed, of which 153 fully completed questionnaires could be used to analyse the responses. A number of partially or incomplete questionnaires were removed from the responses, so as not to influence the data, or skew the data.

3.5.1 Analysis of the primary data

3.5.1.1 Quantitative data.

Each specific question or statement can have its response analysed separately, or have it summed up with other related items to create a score for a group of statements. Likert-scales are sometimes referred to as summative scales; as individual responses are normally treated as ordinal data as, although the response levels do have relative position, one cannot presume that participants perceive the difference between adjacent levels to be equal. For example, there is no way to ensure that participants view the difference between “agree” and “strongly agree” the same as they view the difference between “agree” and “neutral”. *“The average of*

“fair” and “good” is not “fair-and-a-half”; which is true even when one assigns integers to represent “fair” and “good” “ (Jamieson, 2004).

The research was analysed by using the S.P.S.S program and a professional statistician employed by the University of Johannesburg’s STATKON department. SPSS is a Windows based program that can be used to capture data entries and complete an analysis, as well as create tables and graphs.

The S.P.S.S program compiled the results of the quantitative data, consisting of:

Part 1: Frequencies and descriptives and the exploratory factor analysis.

Part 2: Normality and comparisons and the correlations.

As suggested by Ahmadnezhad (2012), when using a sequential approach, themes and specific statements must be obtained from participants in the initial quantitative data collection phase. In the next phase these statements are used as specific items, and the themes for scales to create a survey instrument, which is grounded in the view of the participants.

3.5.1.2 Qualitative data

Qualitative data was collected by means of two sets interviews that were held both with the temporary employment companies and with managers at the actual venues who employ their staff on a temporary basis. The interviews were conducted in order to probe and question the working conditions from the company and employer perspective, which would provide depth and data which could be compared to the data collected from the employees themselves.

Responses to the interview questions were recorded, and then transcribed using the computer programme “Word” into individual documents relating to each interview. Once transcribed, the main headings of the interviews were used to collate the responses to each of the questions in a format that allowed for patterns, repeated words, concepts and opinions to be identified. The number of times a word or concept was repeated was identified, and if repeated more than 3 (three) times, it was deemed significant in terms of the study.

3.6 Writing of the reports

Table 14. Writing of the mixed method sequential explanatory design report

<p>The mixed methods sequential explanatory design consists of two distinct phases: quantitative, followed by qualitative (Creswell & Plano Clark 2003). In this design, a researcher first collects and analyses the quantitative (numeric) data. The qualitative data is collected and analysed second in the sequence and helps to explain, or elaborates on the quantitative results obtained in the first phase. The second qualitative phase builds on the first quantitative phase, and the two phases are connected in the intermediate stage in the study. The rationale for this approach is that the quantitative data and the subsequent analysis provide a general understanding of the research problem. The qualitative data and the analysis refine and explain those statistical results by exploring participant's views in more depth (Creswell, 2003).</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Names the design -Discusses interaction timing and priority -Discusses mixing -Discusses reason for design -Cites methodological references
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Source: Ivankova, Creswell and Stick, (2006:5)

The structure of the report, according to Ahmadnezhad (2012), follows a sequence whereby *“researchers typically organize the report procedures into quantitative data collection and analysis followed by qualitative data collection and analysis. In the conclusions or interpretation phase of the study, comments will be made on how the qualitative findings helped to elaborate on or extend the quantitative results. Alternatively, the qualitative data collection and analysis could come first followed by the quantitative data collection and analysis. In either structure, the writer typically will present the project as two distinct phases, with separate headings of each. The research has chosen to report both phases under two different headings, although triangulation and overlapping integrated results will show”*.

The explanatory design of this research used a more quantitative data collection method in establishing a TES employee profile. The profile consists of data that was collected using structured closed ended questionnaires, while demographics and geo-graphics responses were captured. The structured survey established whether

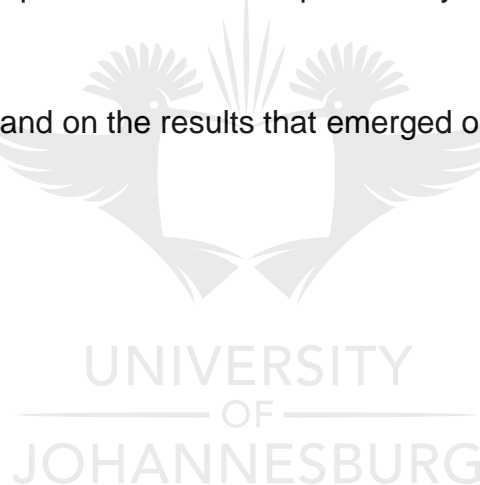
employees received training, and is informed about general rules and regulations of the TES client.

The research is conclusively more quantitative in nature, as the profiling of the TES employees collected facts. As the research question needed more details relating to some questions that were answered in the first phase, a second round of interviews which made use of a qualitative method through a semi-structured questionnaire with the labour brokers, was completed.

3.7 Summary

This chapter outlined and explained the explanatory research design and the mixed methods research methodology that was selected to collect the data for this research. This was followed by the data collection methods, and an explanation on how the analysis was completed for both the qualitatively and quantitatively data that had been collected.

The next chapter will expand on the results that emerged on the analysis of the data.



CHAPTER FOUR: Research results

4.1 Introduction

The research used a sequential explanatory descriptive method, the most suitable method, which allows the researcher to collect and analyse the quantitative data first. Although the design of the research question method is more quantitative in nature, the research has determined that certain questions need further exploration. In the research, the quantitative research method made use of a survey, which asked TES employees about their actual working conditions, using a Likert-scale questionnaire. The in-depth interviews with the labour brokers (employer) followed a qualitative design in order to establish general perceptions, trends and opinions regarding the employees' working conditions.

The results of the research will now be discussed.

4.1.1 Quantitative research data

Results from the quantitative survey, which was conducted from August / September 2013 to November 2013 were analysed by STATKON (UJ) using S.P.S.S., and is described in the text that follows.

The data collected in a questionnaire/survey format revealed the following research findings:

4.1.2 Frequencies and descriptives

The confidential profile (part 1) questions established the following related to the respondents

Q. 1 Gender:

A total of 55.3% females and 44.7% males participated in the research study.

The research shows a slightly higher percentage of female employee respondents. Findings of research by Hickmore (2011) confirm that more and more females are entering the hospitality industry, and use labour brokers.

Q. 2 Most respondents' age:

19 to 25 and 26 to 35; the findings indicate that 60% of people between ages 19 and 35 are employed as temporary employees in the hospitality industry. The findings could illustrate that the often irregular shifts and night shifts are not suitable for older employees, who may have home and personal reasons for not applying for temporary positions.

Q. 3 Marital status:

Most of the labour broker employees are single (57.2%); a few live together; 16 are in traditional marriages (10.5%); 15 are married by law (10%); and one is widowed.

Q. 4 Number of children and Q. 5 Number of dependants / living off your income:

Table 15. Statistics relating to Mean and Standard Deviation for Questions 4 & 5

	Valid	Missing	Mean	Median	Mode	Std Deviation	Min.	Max.
Q4 No. of children	73	79	2.55	2.00	1	1.915	0	11
Q5 No. of dependants	65	87	3.52	3.00	2a	1.874	1	8

a. Multiple modes exist. The smallest value is shown.

A total of 50% of the respondents did not answer the question, while the other 50% reflected to have 2.55 children, on average, which is low. The research however, established that a number of the female employees have children who are left behind with their mothers, either in the original country of birth (for example, Zimbabwe) or the region or province which they come (for example, Kwazulu Natal). After speaking to a number of female employees who reside in Johannesburg (not being their original place of birth), it was found that the majority are without their children. During the collection of the quantitative data, direct interviews that were conducted in follow up to some of the questions indicated that the female employees are not keen to divulge their marital status or the number of children that they have. This is supported by the following results outlined below.

Q. 6 Country of Passport:

From the 152 questionnaires, 100 respondents are South Africans and 47 are from other countries. One-on-one interviews revealed, however, that for a number of the participants their country of origin is not something to be proud of, however, they are proudly part of the South African workforce (which could be considered a limitation).

Q. 7 Type of residence:

54 respondents live in houses; 63 in flats; 20 in townships; and 8 in other'. In all categories the majority of respondents share accommodation (Q.9).

Q. 8 In which area do you stay?

Hillbrow and the CBD are where most labour broker employees reside (category 1). The areas that are included in that category: Yeoville, Bellevue East, Orange Grove and Norwood. Firstly, these areas are affordable for the labour broker employees and are suburbs of Johannesburg, and secondly, most agencies have their offices and pick up points in town (Park Station and Braamfontein).

Soweto (Diepkloof), Bruma and Alexandra (category 2) are reasonably accessible to the central business district of Johannesburg.

Residents of Kathlehong, Daveyton, Kempton Park, Orange Farm, Midrand, Lenasia and Deep Soweto (Zola, Bobsonville, Naledi) (category 3) require substantial travelling to get to town, as these areas are a distance from Johannesburg.

Q. 9 Are you sharing your place of residence?

76 % of respondents share their accommodation. Sharing accommodation can lead to uncomfortable home situations and confrontations, which could have an influence on the rest of a working day, e.g. being late for work because the bathrooms were occupied and also influence working conditions, according to respondents.

Q. 10 With how many families do you share your residence?

The majority (80%) or more indicated that they share with at least 2 families. As per questions 7, 8, and 9 the research tried to establish the respondents' access to comfort and privacy. A number of respondents mentioned that there are challenges with sharing and waiting while cleanliness was also an issue, par example toilet and

bathroom facilities. If a respondent does not have access to the bathroom, they have to wait and could miss their transport.

Q. 11 Highest education level achieved:

46% of the respondents do not have the highest level of education in SA (grade 12), with 54% having Grade 12, and not many being college or university graduates. The level of education an individual has, has an impact on the jobs obtained by the labour broker employees at the agencies for whom they work. The client who sees potential in a labour broker employee with a higher level of education will be given more responsibility by the client and the labour broker, while the client might approach the employee for further and or future employment. This is an important revelation in the investigation regarding working conditions, since a labour broker who gives an employee more responsibility when sending the employee to a client, will charge a higher fee, according to the labour brokers who were interviewed.

Q.12 How many years have you worked in the hospitality industry?

Less than one year	15.2%;
1 - 2 years	28%;
2– 5 years	28%;
5 – 10 years	19%; and
More than 10 years	7.8%.

According to Maumbe and van Wyk (2008), in the Cape lodging industry (South Africa), length of service has an influence on remuneration and education opportunities.

Q. 13 How long have you been employed with the agency that you currently work for?

64% of the respondents indicated that they worked for their present employer longer than a year (46% of these between 1 and 5 years), while 36% have worked for less than a year for the agency with whom they are currently employed.

Q. 14 What is your current job title?

52% indicated that they work as a waiter; 27% worked as cooks; 16% as barmen; 17% cleaners; and 11% indicated other positions'. One reason for having so many

waiters is that learning to just carry plates in and out of a conference venue needs little training or skills. However, any reasonably skilled chef will have to have been exposed to proper training and have experience in order to be able to be appointed as a capable and efficient chef.

Q. 15 Which previous positions have you held?

62% of the respondents indicated that they had worked as waiters, cooks (33%), barmen and cleaners (25%).

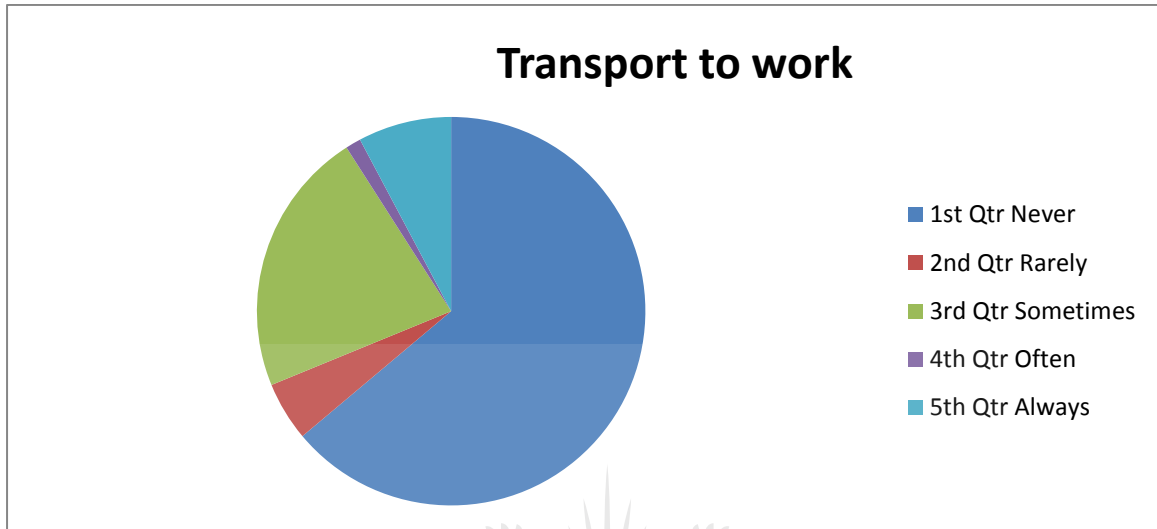
Q. 16 How many hours do you work on average per day?

80% of the respondents work 8 – 12 hours per day. Findings revealed during the data collection stage that most labour broker employees were asked to stay on after their normal shift, although no overtime was paid. In a number of cases when an employee finished his / her morning shift, he / she was asked to remain for the late shift because someone did not show up for duty. That same employee was then expected to return the next day for his / her normal day shift.

Q. 17 How much do you get paid per hour?

75% + got paid between R 10-00 and R 15-00 per hour. Remuneration varies among different employment agencies. Some employees receive better pay because they are in better position, such as head waiters, chef de parties and supervisors. The average rate of pay was determined to be R 12-50 per hour.

4.1.3 Working conditions – tangible (part 2a) .Q. 18 How often is transport provided to work?

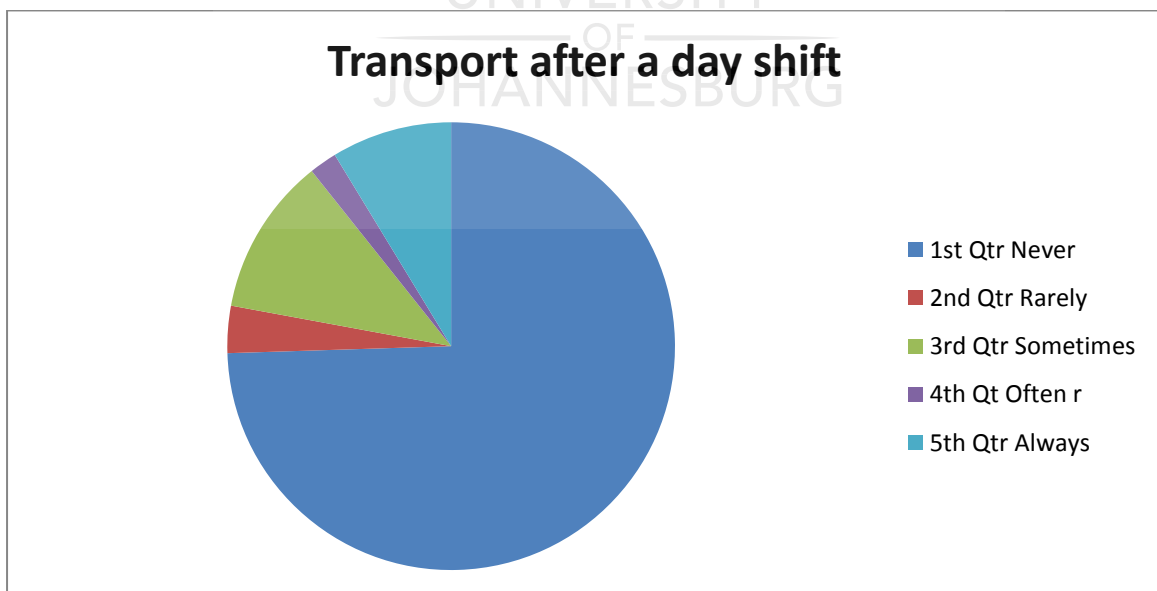


Never-64.9% Rarely-3.3% Sometimes-22.5% Often-1.3% Always-7.9%

Mean 1.84 Standard Deviation 1.2

Figure 7.1

Q. 19 How often is transport provided from work back home after a day's shift?

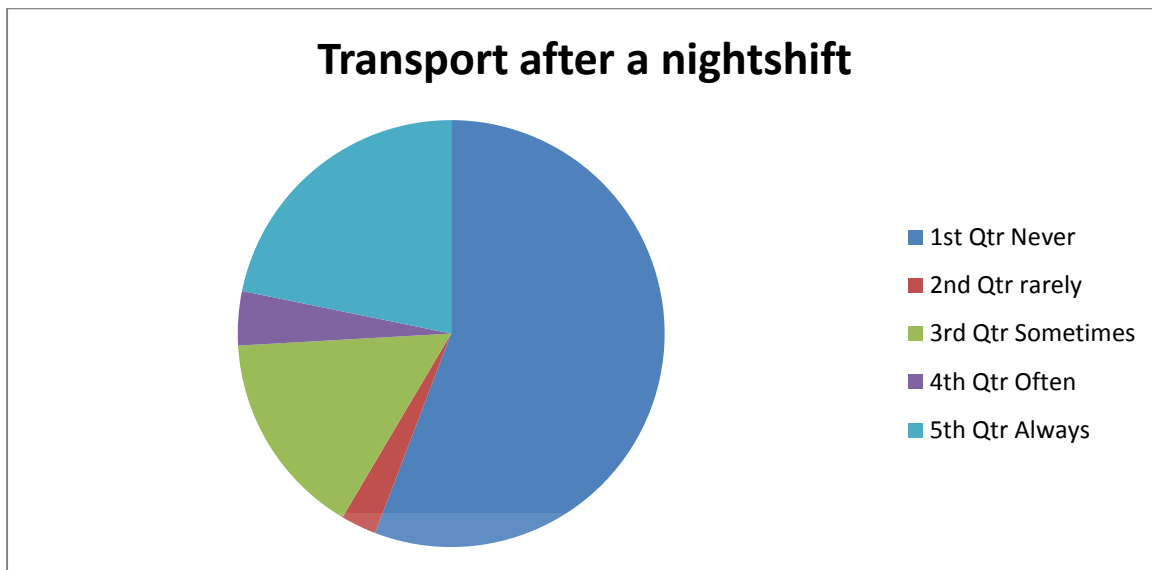


Never-74.5% Rarely-3.4% Sometimes-11.4% Often-2% Always-8.7%

Mean 1.67 Standard Deviation 1.267

Figure 7.2

Q. 20 How often is transport provided from work back home after a nightshift?



Never-55.8% Rarely-2.7% Sometimes-15.6% Often-4.1% Always-21.8%
Mean 2.33 Standard Deviation 1.657

Figure 7.3

Questions 18, 19 and 20, which relate to transport indicates that transport is mainly not provided by labour brokers for their employees. A number of labour brokers have pick up points in Braamfontein, Park Station and Soweto in Johannesburg, South Africa. The staff are call by phone and told to meet a representative of the agency at a particular pick-up point. On arrival they are then told where to travel to and consequently take a taxi to the place of work. They have to pay for their own transport to the pick-up point, as well as to the place they work. The research found that a number of labour broker clients provide transport after a nightshift; however, the cost of most transport is covered by either the client or the employee. Some labour brokers do provide transport but the research found that the transport is not very reliable, leaving employees waiting for many hours to be collected after work. A number of labour broker's employees complained about the transport. These issues and practices are a major contributor to poor working conditions.

Q. 21 How often do you receive training from the agency for who you work?

The results show that one quarter (25%) of the respondents often or always receive training, while 75% never received any training. Mean 2.79, Standard Deviation 1.534.

Q. 22 How often are you paid for overtime?

The results show that 36% of the respondents are paid overtime on a regular basis, but not always. When asked about overtime, most participants indicated that they are never paid for overtime or any other extras. The research found that a number of the agencies that are interviewed contradicted the findings, stating that overtime is in fact paid. Mean 2.77, Standard Deviation 1.698.

Q.23 How often do you receive your salary on time?

60% of the respondents indicated that they never, rarely or sometimes receive their salary on time. 40% received their salaries usually, although not always, on time. The research found that in a couple of cases, employees were paid on payday on an agreed day and at a pay point until money ran out, after which they were told to return the following week. Mean 3.34, Standard Deviation 1.532.

Q. 24 How often do you get any other benefits or extras, apart from your salary?

More than 80% of the employees do not receive any benefits. Mean 2.29, Standard Deviation 1.414.

The collected data from Questions 25, 26, 27 and 28 all refer to the conditions created by the venues (clients) that the labour broker employees work for. Indications derived from the results are that non-access to shower facilities, locker rooms, meal provisions and the lack of attention paid by supervisors and management to the labour broker employees, are detrimental to working conditions.

Q. 25 How often are you allocated to a supervisor at the venue at which you work?

60% of respondents indicated that they have never been allocated a supervisor, while 40% are often or always allocated to a supervisor. The research found that once the employee of an agency had been at a venue for a while, they were assumed to merely get on with the job. Top management, in general, was often not aware of what was happening with the hired labour broker staff, leaving the daily engagements with these employees to middle management. Mean 3.30, Standard Deviation 1.497.

Q. 26 How often are you provided with a meal?

The results show that 50% of employees receive a meal and 50% sometimes or never receive a meal. In many instances the meal would be leftovers'. Nutrition and health were never taken into consideration. Mean 3.82, Standard Deviation 1.260.

Q. 27 How often do you have access to a locker / change room?

50% of the respondents indicated that they had rarely or never had access to any sort of locker or change room. Mean 3.22, Standard Deviation 1.692.

Q. 28 How often do you have access to shower facilities?

This relates to Question 27, and with similar results. Mean 3.21, Standard Deviation 1.749.

4.1.4 Working conditions – not tangible (part 2b)

Q. 29 How often are you treated with respect by the agency for whom you work?

50% indicated that they consider themselves to be treated with respect, while the other 50% stated that they are sometimes or never respected by the labour broker. Mean 3.55, Standard Deviation 1.495.

Q. 30 How often has any agency that you worked for introduced you to disciplinary and grievance procedures?

75% of the respondents were never introduced to any procedures, code of conduct or policies. The research also found that only a few employees were aware of their rights when employed by an agency or client. Mean 2.46, Standard Deviation 1.688.

Q. 31 How often has any agency that you worked for made you aware of your rights, which are prescribed by labour law?

As in question 30, 75% of the respondents were not informed regarding the labour law. The research established that a clear majority are not informed by either the agency or the client about labour laws and their rights as workers. The research further established that the respondents (temporary employee) are not informed about their right to report grievances, as well as their right to fair working conditions. Mean 2.5, Standard Deviation 1.693.

Q. 32 How often do you feel that you have nowhere to go with grievances that you would like to report?

As in the previous two questions, more than 78% of the respondents have nowhere to go with their concerns, which results in agencies, as well as some clients, not being concerned about working conditions. During phase one of data collection, the direct contact with employees and their feedback, gave the impression that the labour broker employee's feelings are neglected, resulting in them being despondent and creating uncaring and uncommitted workers. Mean 2.28, Standard Deviation 1.489.

Q. 33 How often have you been allocated time for an induction or socialization program at the venue that you were sent to?

70% of the interviewed employees indicated that no induction took place. No employee was aware of codes of conduct, rules and regulations at the venues and disciplinary procedures. The research found that the vast majority of labour broker employees is expected to know what to do and to get on with the job. It was furthermore established that the client had no concept of the employee's background, education and / or experience. This indicates a possible mismatch between expectations from the employer and the ability of the employee to meet the working requirements. Mean 2.73, Standard Deviation 1.618.

Q. 34 How often are you treated with respect by the venue that you work for?

50% found the treatment by the venues to be respectful, although the other 50% reported that they were sometimes to never treated with respect. A number of employees also found the treatment by the permanent workforce to be poor. Mean 3.57, Standard Deviation 1.407.

Q. 35 How often are you treated with respect by the permanent staff at the venue?

Among the employees 60% found the treatment by the venue's permanent staff to be sometimes to never respectful, while 40% said that they are treated with respect. This supports the findings of Question no.34. Mean 3.26, Standard Deviation 1.437.

Working conditions –not tangible (part 2c)

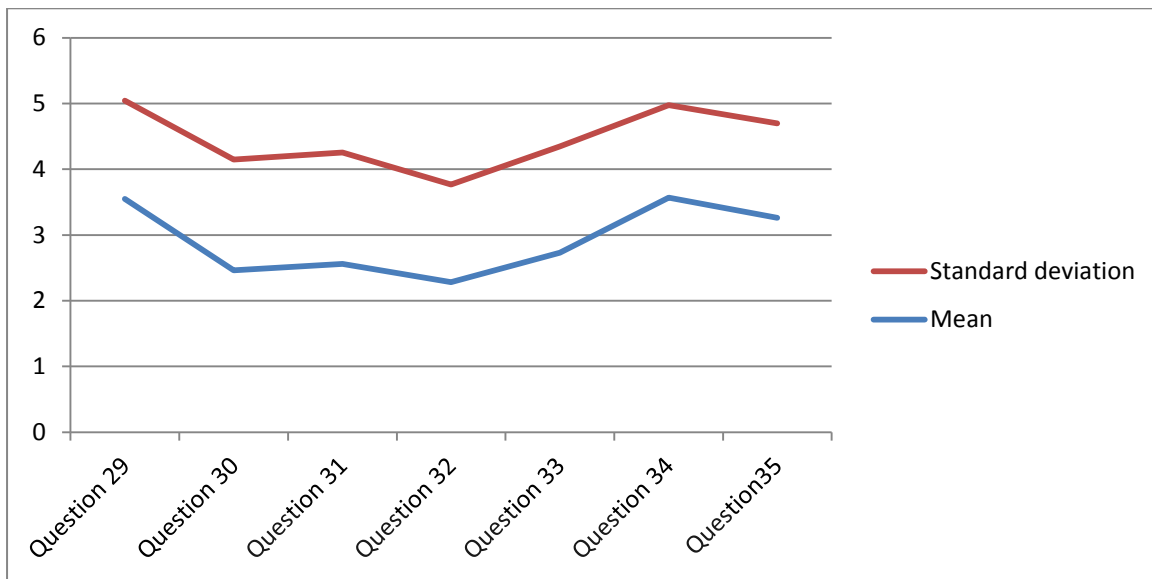


Figure 8. The relationship between mean and standard deviation

4.1.5 Working conditions (part 2c)

Q. 36 Is tax deducted from your salary?

Of the labour broker employees, 66% knew that tax was deducted from their salary, while 23% indicated that no tax was deducted. The research data indicated that many employees actually did not know whether or not tax was deducted from their salary.

Q. 37 Are you registered for UIF?

Of the respondents, 74 (50%) said yes to the above question, 35 (25%) said no, and 36 (25%) did not know.

4.1.6 Questionnaire (part 3) related to the labour market

Q. 38 Do you feel that the current economic crisis is the reason that you cannot find permanent employment?

66% confirmed that the crisis was a reason for them not to find permanent jobs, 34% however, found that this was not a reason. According to the ILO (2010), during an economic crisis, labour broker employees are the first to be affected, however, the end-user / clients are in the casualization process the first to make use of labour brokers, in order to save money.

Q. 39 Have you ever received an offer of permanent employment while working for an agency in South Africa?

41% of the respondents said that they had received an offer for permanent employment, while the majority of 59% said that they had not.

Q. 40 Can you find employment in your country of origin?

69% indicated yes, and 31% said no. The research revealed that the reason for someone to leave their country of origin includes many different aspects other than employment and remuneration only.

Q. 41 Did the poor pay in your country of origin force you to come and work in South Africa? 45% said yes, while 55% said no.

Q. 42 Did the poor working conditions in your country of origin force you to come and seek work in South Africa?

53% said yes, while 47% said no. The data correlates with the results of the country of origin and poor pay in that country questions.

The questions (40, 41, 42) which relate to reasons for them being in South Africa revealed that although 69% reported that they were able to find employment in their country of origin, 55% reported that poor pay and poor working conditions were the reason why they had left their country of origin.

Q. 43 Do you see a future in this industry?

71% said yes, and 29% said no, which can be interpreted that having a job by itself is good enough for a future. The results cannot only be linked to the hospitality industry.

4.1.7 Satisfaction (part 4)

Q. 48, Q. 55, Q. 60: These questions dealt with work relationships:

Regarding relationships with co-workers, 65% of respondents indicated that they were satisfied with their relationship;

Regarding relationships with supervisors, 63% were satisfied;

Regarding relationships with sub-ordinates, 59% were satisfied;

On average, 20% were not sure; and

In general, working relationships within the agency was in order, which is different to results regarding the client's venues.

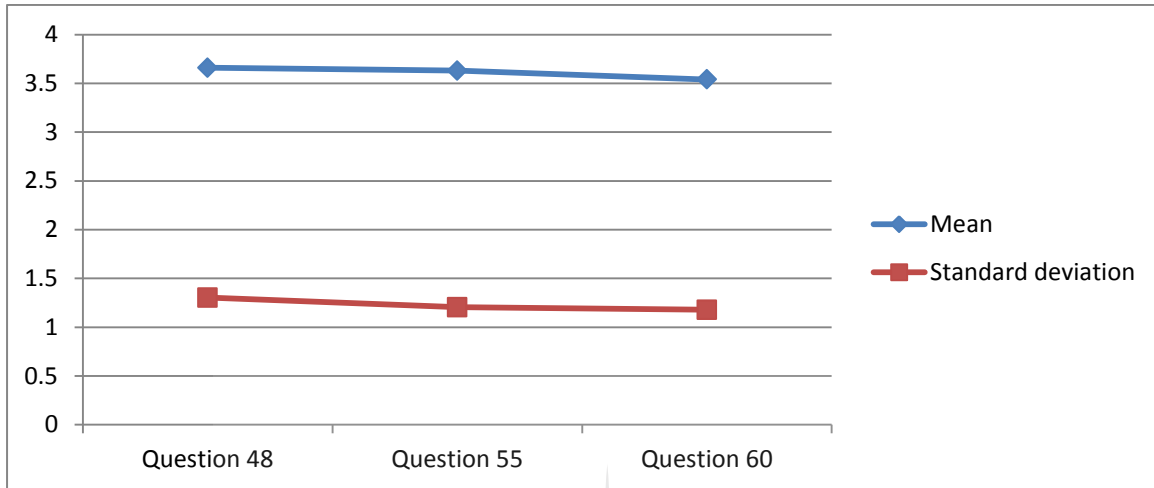


Figure 9. The relationship between mean and standard deviation.

Questions 48, 55, 60

Q. 51, Q. 57, Q. 62, Q. 65: These questions dealt with well-being and satisfaction in their work / life balance:

Regarding happiness at work, 63% respondents indicated that they are satisfied and 37% were unsure or not satisfied;

Regarding their health 67% were satisfied, and 33% were unsure or dissatisfied.

With family life and life, in general, 70% - 80% were satisfied

20% - 30% indicated that they were unsure or dissatisfied.

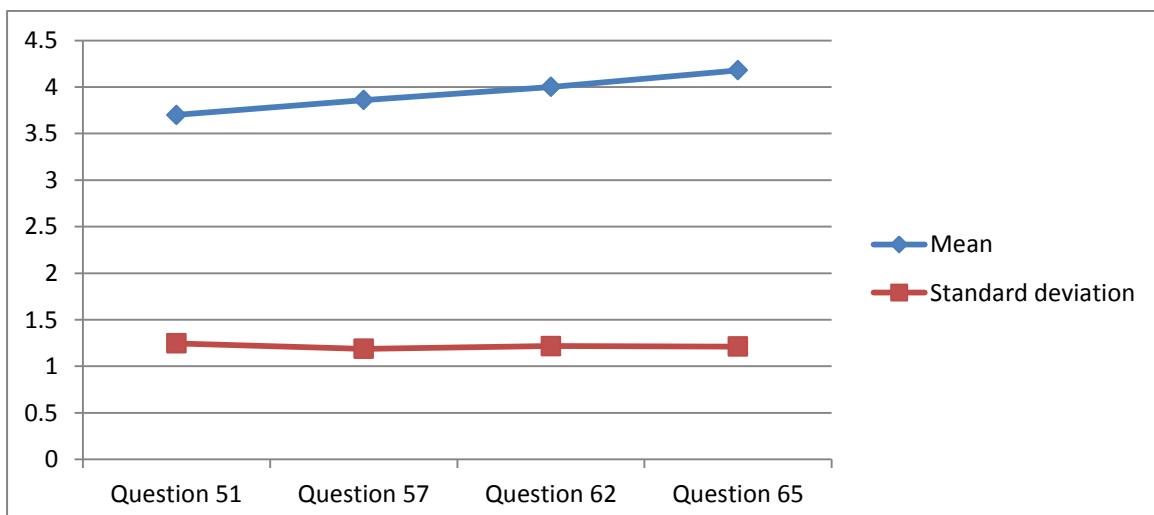


Figure 10: The relationship between mean and standard deviation
 Question 51, 57, 62, 65

Q. 44, Q. 45, Q. 2, Q. 58, Q. 63: Labour broker employees' work satisfaction and general working conditions:

With their hours worked per week, half of the respondents (50%) were dissatisfied; 50% were from not sure to moderately satisfied; and the more hours the labour broker staff worked, the more they were paid;

Flexible work scheduling: more than half the respondents were not satisfied to unsure, while the other half was satisfied;

More than 60% of the employees were happy about the location of their work, and almost 40% was unsure to very unhappy; and

Regarding paid leave days and sick leave, 66% was very dissatisfied, 25% were unsure and the rest were satisfied. This may be linked with benefits that employees do not receive.

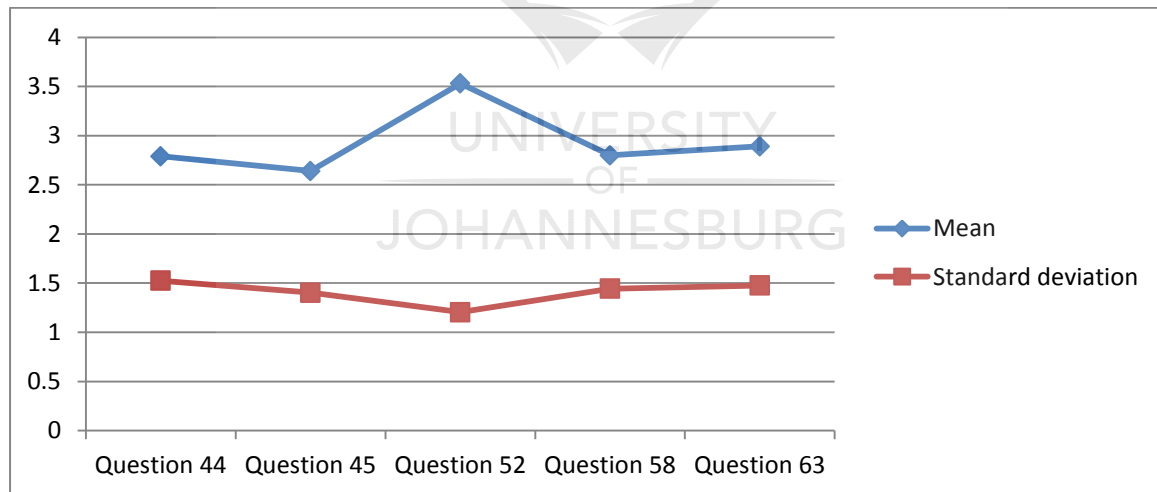


Figure 11. The relationship between mean and standard deviation.
 Questions 44, 45, 52, 58, 63.

Q. 46, Q. 47, Q. 53, Q. 54, Q. 59: Opportunities in the work place:

Regarding salary, 70% of the respondents were dissatisfied and the other 30% were satisfied;

Regarding the satisfaction of health benefits, 30% were satisfied, while 25% were unsure, and 45% were dissatisfied; and

Opportunities for promotion and job security were found to not be satisfactory for between 17% - 30%; 20% - 30% were unsure; and 30% - 40% were satisfied.

Recognition for work accomplishments was satisfactory for 74% of the respondents.

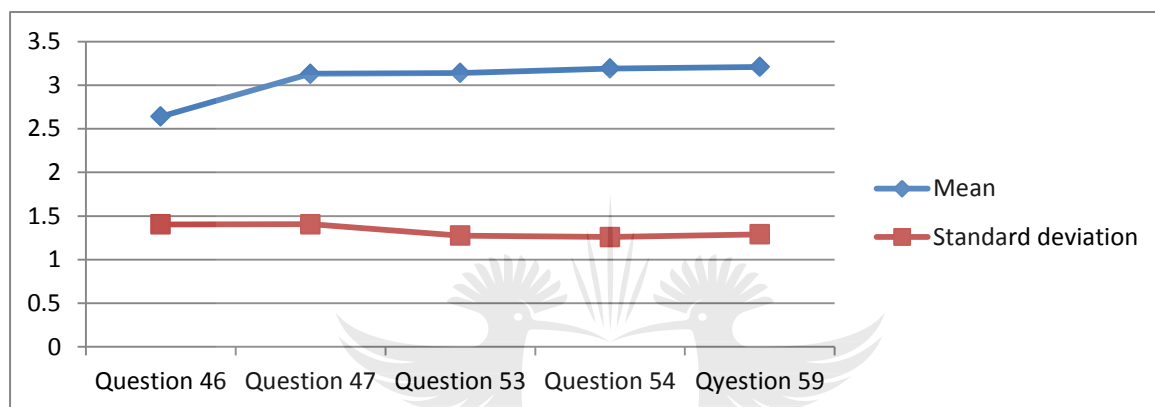


Figure 12: The relationship between mean and standard deviation.

Questions 46, 47, 53, 54, 59.



Q. 49, Q. 50, Q. 56, Q. 61, Q. 64: Deal with the use of skills and work activities:

Regarding opportunities to use their skills and talents, 65% of the respondents interpreted this as satisfactory, while 56% reported that they were given enough opportunity to work independently;

Half of the employees found the support for training and education satisfactory, while the other half was not happy; and

63% of the labour broker employees were satisfied with the opportunities to learn new skills, while 40% found the opportunities for change of duties satisfying.

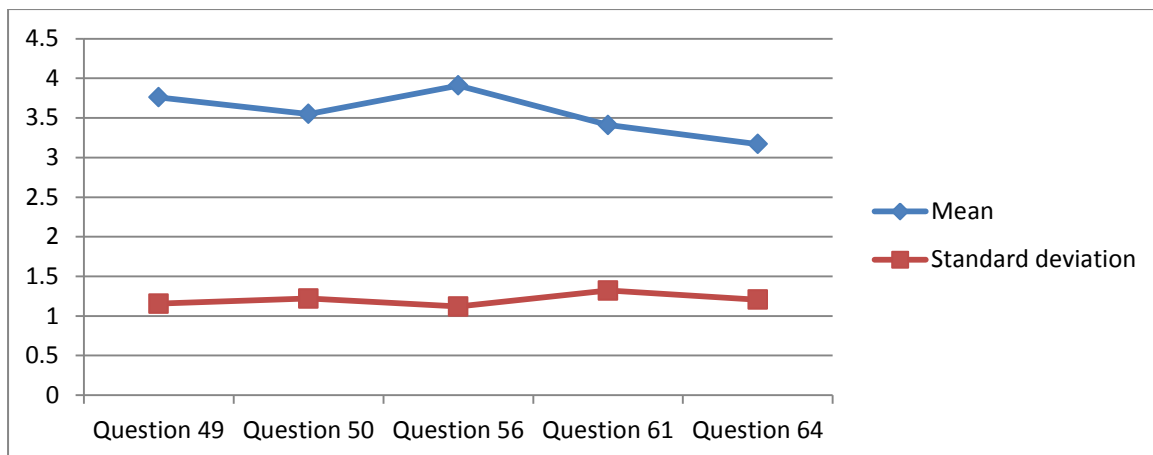


Figure 13: The relationship between mean and standard deviation Questions 49, 50, 56, 61, 64.

4.1.8 Exploratory factor analysis

Exploratory factor analysis is used when you have a large number of related variables (for example, items that make up a scale) and you wish to explore the underlying structure of this set of variables, which is often used in the early stages of research to gather information about (explore) the interrelationships among a set of variables. The term “factor analysis” encompasses a variety of different, although related, techniques. One of the main distinctions is between what is termed principal components analysis (PCA) and factor analysis (FA). Those two sets of techniques are similar in many ways and are often used interchangeably by researchers. Both attempt to produce a smaller number of linear combinations of the original variables in a way that captures most of the variability in the pattern of correlations.

In factor analysis, however, factors are estimated by using a mathematical model, whereby only the shared variance is analysed.

In the research analysis:

- The extraction method, which was used in this analysis is principle axis factoring, and the rotation method that was used for the first order was the Varimax rotation and for the second order was direct Oblimin rotation.
- The research omitted Question 24; the MSA (Measures of Sampling Adequacy) was equal to this. As the MSA should be bigger than 0.6 and Question 24 scored 0.594, it indicates a weak question.

- Reverse scoring was checked at the component matrix when a principle component analysis was done; the results were positive, therefore, no reverse scoring was necessary.
- At the correlation matrix most of the correlations are bigger than 0.3, which indicates a good result.
- The KMO Bartlett's Test: Kaiser – Meyer – Olkin measure of solving adequacy is 0.78, which has a value bigger than 0.6 and the Bartlett's test of Sphericity is 0.000, which is less than 0.05, and this supports the factor ability of the correlation matrix.
- For the anti – image correlations of the measure of solving adequacy all the values on the diagonal are bigger than 0.6, therefore, no items needed to be excluded from the analysis.
- Communalities- the extraction column shows communalities bigger than 0.3. Question 25 is less, however, the MSA is high. It was decided to leave it in the analysis, because taking it out would not influence the end results.
- Reliability statistics: The Cronbach's Alpha column shows values above .7 and values above .8, which suggest good internal consistency reliability.
- Two Eigen values are above one, as factor 1 shows 3.532, and factor 2 shows 2.942. These two Eigen values explain the 64.73% of the variation before rotation. The rotation sums of squared loadings, it explains 57.268% after rotation.

4.1.9 Qualitative interviews with labour brokers

Second phase: labour brokers' interview report

The first interview with two managers from LB 1 recorded the following key findings:

The agency relies on the networking of their employee pool, which introduces new recruits.

The only real requirement for employment is a reasonable understanding and use of English.

50% of their workforce consists of foreigners, with the majority being Zimbabwean.

The aim is to employ staff who have obtained a Grade 12 certificate (matric), although it is not necessary, as training is provided (used training materials are in line with that, which is required by SAQA (South African Qualification Authority)).

Identity books and work permits are supposedly requested, although in reality checking is hardly done.

No benefits are offered apart from the mandatory UIF.

Although offered training by the LB, this not compulsory and many employees have either no time or interest to attend.

If a user-enterprise wants to employ a certain member of their staff, a recruitment fee is charged.

The LB acknowledges that their employees are not made aware of their labour law rights.

Neither the management nor the employees are presently informed about any new labour laws or expected changes.

If labour disputes arise with clients the LB will institute disciplinary action.

The second interview was conducted with the management of LB 4.

The following key findings were reported:

Recently all temporary employees were required to be either in the possession of a South African passport, permanent residency or a work permit. There were no statistics available regarding the number of foreigners in their employ.

A Grade 12 certificate is required by all new staff who is employed, although a number of employees taken over at certain venues when accepting new contracts do not comply with these requirements, and no exceptions are made.

Employment procedures include a numeracy and literacy test.

All new recruits attend a five day basic training course at their premises. On line training tools are used for theory (Lobster Ink), and short courses for certain employees include HTA.

All new recruits are checked for a criminal record, while cashiers are checked regarding their credit record.

All temporary employees are introduced to the user-enterprise induction program, as well as rules and regulations, and so on.

No benefits are offered apart from the mandatory UIF.

Transport is only provided from and to a central point in town for contracts in the Sandton area.

Management of LB 4 acknowledges the story that there are a number of so-called "labour brokers" in action who operate from a car with a cell phone and a laptop and

pick up people from the street without any CV's, reference checks or training. They merely send these people to any client and tell them to be back at the end of the month for payment. They recruit vulnerable unemployed individuals who are prepared to work for low wages, and are merely happy to be employed and with whatever they are paid.

4.1.10 Normality testing results (box plots in the appendix)

Normality test results:

Question 6: Country of passport (South African / Other)

The results clearly show that the South African people are more positive and score higher towards sometimes and always, while the other group scores more towards never and sometimes regarding transport provided.

The research found that any facilities offered to migrant workers are appreciated.

The statistics confirm the research findings of poor treatment and less respect received by migrant workers.

The boxplot shows a negative skewed result for the South African group who is substantially more satisfied in their work relations than the group of other nationalities. This confirms the difficulties that migrants experience regarding their acceptance and integration into the workplace, as found in this research (Mosala, 2008)

The responses in the questionnaires were hence interpreted as such by the participants of the survey. Further questioning and the general perceptions uncovered by the research shows that the skills levels of the temporary employees is not in question or addressed by the client. The client presumes that the employees who are sent to them are able to perform the required duties. The above statistics confirm that the employees are performing duties well in their scope of knowledge, experience and capabilities.

The research, however, concluded that neither the agency nor the client are really interested in the actual capabilities of the employees. The agency wants to satisfy the low skills that are required for the clients at a relatively low cost, which they then recover by paying the employees lower wages. The client wants temporary employees who can perform low skilled jobs at a low cost, and without being held accountable for anything else other than to pay the agency.

The group of other nationalities was reasonably satisfied about their wellbeing. The research, however, found during the survey process and questioning that the group of nationalities is generally happy because they come from countries where there are no opportunities, and where poor living conditions exist.

Normality test results: Question 38: Do you feel that the current economic crisis is the reason why you cannot find permanent employment?

The descriptives indicate that all variables have a majority “Yes” score which indicates that the majority of respondents feel that the issues listed below are influenced by the economic crisis, resulting in temporary employees not being able to find permanent employment. In relation to “No” scores, only the wellbeing variable indicates that both “Yes” and “No” responses feel the same.

- Transport provided;
- availability of facilities;
- respect and treatment;
- general working conditions;
- promotional potential;
- work relations;
- skills work activity; and
- wellbeing are the issues, which the majority of respondents believe to be influenced by the economic crisis.

Normality tests results Question 39: Have you ever received an offer of permanent employment while working for an agency in South Africa?

The tests of Normality tables indicate a column df which is the degree of freedom score. The Sig., which means Significant, is the p-value. If the p-value is less than 0.05 it is not normally distributed, but where it is more than 0.05 it indicates normal distribution. Not normally distributed on the table is highlighted in **red**, while normal distribution is highlighted in **blue**. The Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was used for both groups because both had more than 50 people in it. In the group answering “**yes**”, 6 of the p-values were less than 0.05 (not normal distribution), while 3 p-values were more than 0.05 (normal distribution). In the group answering “**no**”, 5 of the p-values

were over 0.05 (normal distribution), while 3 p-values were less than 0.05 (not normal distribution).

Normality Tests results Question 43: Do you see a future in this industry?

The tests of Normality tables indicate a column df which is the degree of freedom score. The Sig., which means Significant, is the p-value. If the p-value is less than 0.05 it is not normally distributed, but where it is more than 0.05 it indicates normal distribution. Not normally distributed on the table is highlighted in **red**, while normal distribution is highlighted in **blue**. The Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was used for the group answering “**yes**”, because it was more than 50 people, while the Shapiro-Wilk test was used for the other group answering “**no**”, because it was less than 50. In the group answering “**yes**”, 6 of the p-values were less than 0.05 (not normally distributed), and 2 p-values were more than 0.05 (normally distributed), while in the other group answering “**no**”, 6 of the p-values were more than 0.05 (normally distributed), and 2 p-values were less than 0.05 (not normally distributed).

Normality Tests results Question 13: How long have you been employed with the agency that you currently work for?

“More than 5 years” scores minimum 1 to maximum 5, with the median being 1.5. Apart from a couple of outliers, all results are all positively skewed, which indicate that regardless of the length of service all respondents were unhappy with the facilities that are provided at the venue at which they work.

All results show that majority of the respondents are fairly happy with the respect that they receive.

The research found that a longer length of service leads to contentment, a feeling of satisfaction and comfort regarding working conditions.

The results show that the longer the service, the greater “the perception” that promotional opportunities arise. The actual promotional potential is probably limited to being given more responsibility rather than a monetary reward. It was discovered during the interviews and when the questionnaires were collected, that nobody had actually been promoted.

Generally the results are negatively skewed which indicates that the respondents are in overall feeling good about their work relationships.

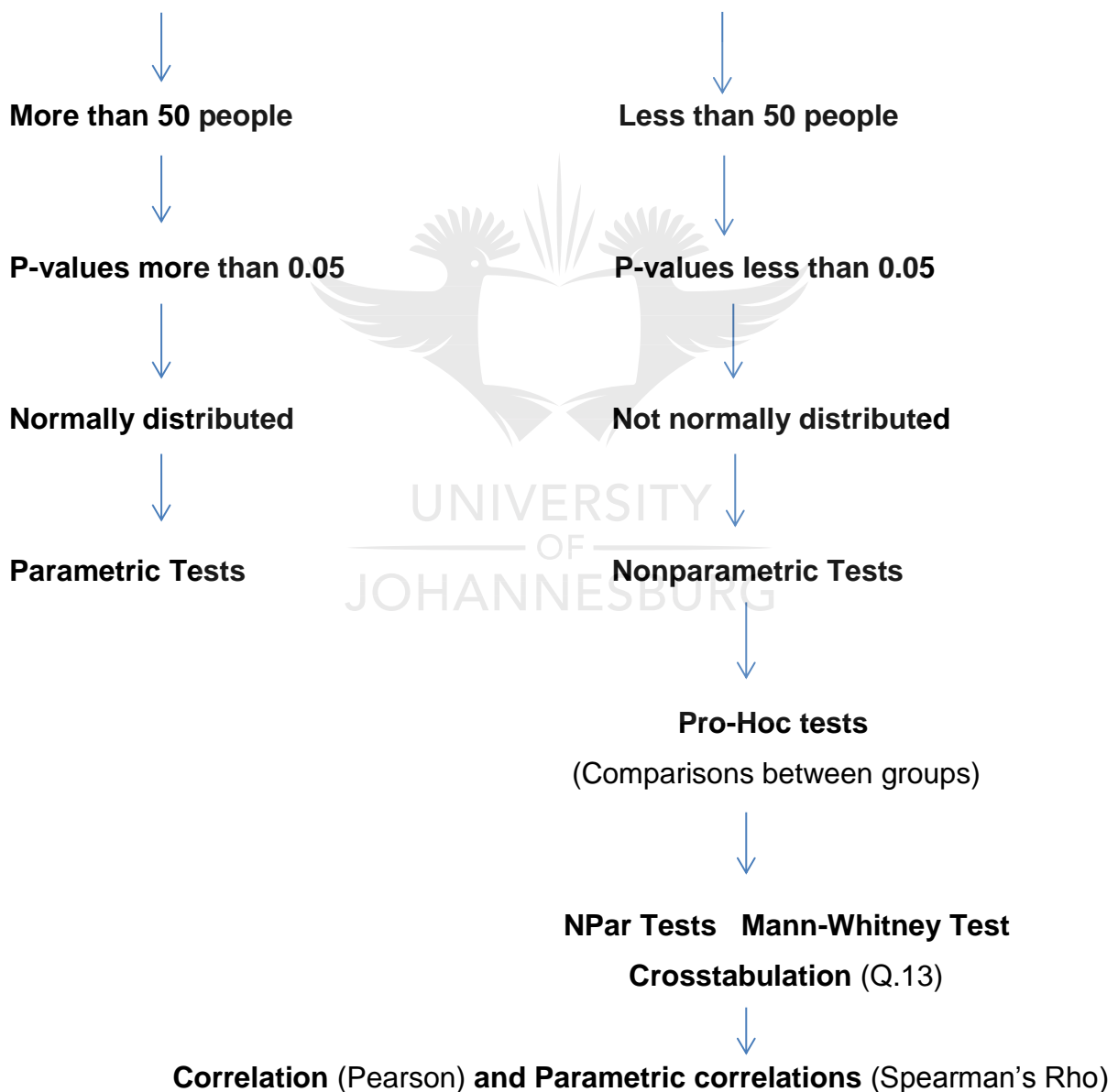
The results are in general are consistent negatively skewed indicating that the respondents feel good about the task that they perform in accordance with their skill, knowledge and experience levels. The boxplot again shows that the longer the length of service, the stronger the positive perceptions.

The results are negatively skewed, which indicates that in every group of length of service, wellbeing is positively perceived. In this boxplot, the longer the length of service, the greater the positive perception of wellbeing.

4.1.11 Normality, and comparisons, in sequence.

Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test

Shapiro-Wilk Test



The Mann-Whitney test was used for Qs, 6, 38, 39 and 43 because there were 2 groups that were compared. Although Question 13 had four groups, which had to be tested by using the NPar Kruskal-Wallis Test, the research actually tested 6 groups of two being 1 and 2, 1 and 3, 1 and 4, 2 and 3, 3 and 4, and 3 and 4. The research also used the Mann-Whitney test for Q 13. Although there were a few variables that were normally distributed, most of the variables were not normally distributed which resulted in the use of nonparametric tests for the comparisons.

RAGS - Parametric testing does not deal with Outliers, which affects the mean. This means that the mean is calculated with the Outlier, which makes the mean lower. Par example, when doing a scale of ages between 20 and 30 and one person is 90, the average will be 32, while without the Outlier the average will be 25. The nonparametric test calculates a Mean rank, which is then the decision tool to establish whether or not there is a difference.

4.1 12 Comparisons between groups (Normality tests between the groups to establish and or reconfirm differences with the calculated Mean Rank). The parametric test does not test the differences between means because it is not affected by them. It calculates a mean Rank, making the tests stricter to see differences. The Rank indicates whether there is a difference between the groups or not. In other words, the test takes care of the Outliers, which influence the mean. The **p-values** on the test statistics table are a bit different. The p-values bigger or equal to 0.05 indicate no differences between the groups.

Tests show no differences between the two groups (SA & others) regarding the availability of facilities, promotion potential, work relationships, skills work activities and wellbeing. The two groups, however, indicate differences regarding Transport provided, respect received and working conditions, in general. The results show Mean and Median differences, which indicate that the South African group is between sometimes and often provided with transport, while the other nationalities feel that they are rarely or never given transport. The same significant differences and feelings are prevalent regarding respect and treatment which are closely related and support the general working conditions that they experience.

Tests indicate no differences regarding available facilities. Regarding general working conditions and wellbeing in terms of answering “Yes” or “No” the respondents felt the same way about the three mentioned variables. The rest of the variables show differences. The results show that a majority of the respondents feel that the economic crisis has “No” influence on their transport, respect, promotional potential, work relations and skills work activities.

The results show though that there is a significant difference regarding wellbeing in terms of “Yes” and “No” responses. The respondents who said yes had received an offer of permanent employment, and hence perceive their wellbeing a lot more positively than the respondents who answered no. As mentioned previously, the research hardly found any evidence indicating any temporary employee receiving any offer of permanent employment.

The research believes that the temporary employees probably said that they received an offer of permanent employment to feel good and appreciated (no results).

Another reason for the mentioned findings is the fact that if respondents received permanent job offers, why were they still employed by Temporary Employment agencies? In support of these statements, the research refers to Chapters 1 & 2, where the term “casualization” by itself indicates the global trend of changing permanent employment to temporary employment. Further support and confirmation of the above statements is confirmed in research conducted by the CIETT (2012), which indicates that no evidence is provided that agency work is effective as a stepping stone to permanent employment.

Tests suggest that, in general, the respondents are positive, and see a future in the industry, although there are a number of differences considering the “Yes” and “No” answers. Most variables show that respondents who feel positive (“Yes”) are happier regarding general working conditions, promotional potential, working conditions and skills work activities. No differences regarding wellbeing amongst respondents who answered “yes’ or “no” were recorded, which indicates that all are feeling good about their future in the industry.

All the test results indicate that the longer temporary workers are employed by an agency, the more positive they perceive their general working conditions.

The research found that the length of service is perceived as appreciation and creates loyalty from temporary employees. Although table tests were done and not reported, the **Cross-tabulation** tests was necessary because Question 13, which consists of 4 variables was compared with Question 43, which consisted of 2 variables. The statistics below show that all groups of length of service positively perceive a future in the industry, although long service from 2 to 5 years and longer shows a higher positive score.

4.1.13 Correlations (Pearson)

Nonparametric correlations (Spearman's Rho)

A correlation is the relationship between two variables. A correlation is a value between 0 and 1 which indicates the strength of the correlation. The first correlation "transport" with itself is one, and the N is the number of respondents. All correlations with itself are one. If the p-value is less than 0.05 there is significant correlation (sig. 2-tailed). In other words, if the p-value is not significant we do not consider the coefficient, and there is no correlation (a coefficient above 5 is significant, indicating a strong correlation).

The second is "transport" and "facilities", where the p-value is bigger than 0.05, hence there is no correlation. The third is "transport and "respect", where the p-value is less than 0.05 and the coefficient is .608, indicating a strong correlation. The results show that the respondents felt good about treatment and respect and also had a positive feeling towards available transport facilities. The fourth is "transport" and "general working conditions", where the p-value is less than 0.05 and the coefficient is .532**, indicating a strong correlation. The results show that well perceived general working conditions made the respondents feel good about the available transport. The fifth is "transport" and "promotional potential", where the p-value is less than 0.05 and the coefficient is .378*, indicating a relationship although not a strong one. The results show that when respondents feel that promotional potential is present, they are also positive about transport availability. The sixth is "transport" and "work relations", where the p-value is less than 0.05 and the coefficient is .467**, indicating a reasonable but not too strong relationship. The

results show that respondents who have good working relationships feel better about the available transport.

The seventh is “transport” and “skills work activities”, where the p-value is less than 0.05 and the coefficient is .313**, which shows that there is a relationship although not strong. The results show that when work related skills are good, transport is perceived to be satisfying.

The last is “transport” and “Wellbeing”, where the p-value is bigger than 0.05, and there is no correlation. Regarding “facilities” and “respect”, all variables show a p-value of more than 0.05, indicating that there is no relationship. The next is “respect” and “general working conditions”, where the p-value is below 0.05 and the coefficient is .515**, hence the relationship is strong. The results show that when temporary workers are treated with respect they feel good about their working conditions. There is a relationship between “respect” and “promotional potential”, where the p-value is below 0.05 and the coefficient is .420**. The results indicate that the temporary workers’ feeling of respect increase their feelings regarding perceived promotional opportunities.

“Respect” and “working relations”, where the p-value is below 0.05 and the coefficient is .545** shows a strong relationship between temporary workers who are treated with respect and their co-workers. “Respect” and “skills work activity”, show that the p-value is below 0.05 and the coefficient is .289**. Which shows that the relationship is not strong, indicating that the work skills activities have some influence on the respect received. “Respect” and “wellbeing” with a p-value of more than 0.05 shows no correlation “regarding general working conditions” and “promotional potential”, the p-value is below 0.05 and the coefficient is .690** which shows that there is a strong relationship. The same applies to “work relations”, where the coefficient is .654**, “work skills activity”, where the coefficient is .556** and “wellbeing”, where the coefficient is .387** indicating that all variables have a great influence on the positive feelings perceived regarding general working conditions. The relationship between “promotional potential” and “work relations” where the coefficient is .639** as well as “work skills activity” where the coefficient is .748** and “wellbeing” where the coefficient is .472** have p-values less than 0.05, which indicate a strong correlation. When the temporary workers feel good about their promotional opportunities they also perceive relationships, skills activities and

wellbeing positively. “Work relations” compared to work skills activity” where the coefficient is .604** and “wellbeing” where the coefficient is .425**, have p-values less than 0.05. positive work relations have a strong positive influence on work skills activity and wellbeing. “Skills work activity” is strongly related to “wellbeing”, with a p-value below 0.05 and a coefficient of .523**, which shows that work performance and skills activities influence temporary employees’ “wellbeing” positively.

4.1.14 Interpretation of Frequencies and Descriptives

The quantitative data shows that more female temporary employees in the age group of 19 to 35 are employed in the hospitality industry, which was confirmed by the qualitative interview phase with the labour brokers. This confirms a research report which was conducted by a labour broker based in Randburg (2011) that confirms that more female temporary employees are entering the hospitality sector. One of the reasons, as mentioned in this report, is opportunities for these employees to determine their own working hours and length of workweek. The reasons given by the research were, however, contradicted by the quantitative data implying not much flexibility as potential employers who use labour broker employees dictate the working hours and conditions for their hired temps. “Women are often employed in retailing and hospitality services with many holding lower status, lower paid, casual or temporary agency jobs” (ILO, 2010), which is a further confirmation of the possible abuse of female labour broker employees.

Concerning a country of origin, although not all the quantitative data supports the findings that the majority of temporary employees are migrants, in areas such as cleaning, security, domestic work and hospitality and tourism, the workforce has a large percentage of female migrant and part-time workers who are typically low skilled and low paid (ILO, 2010; CIETT, 2010). This is further confirmed in the qualitative phase when the labour brokers indicated that they make use of foreigners.

Employees who were interviewed indicated that undocumented temporary employees are welcomed by labour brokers, indicating an inclination to abuse vulnerable employees, who are merely happy to have found some sort of work to earn a living. Relating to education levels of respondents, the quantitative data

shows that almost 50% of the temporary employees have not completed Grade 12. The labour broker report of the research confirms that work related and educational documentation is not essential to finding employment. Jobs at labour brokers (LB) are found more readily via social and community networks. The results of a study which was conducted in the Cape lodging sector (Maumbe & van Wyk, 2008) show that the lodging sector is generally labour intensive, utilizes mostly low academic skills, and offers low paying employment. 25% of the respondents in the research indicated that their jobs did not require any formal qualifications.

In terms of length of employment, the quantitative data revealed that 36% of temporary employees worked for less than a year, and another 46% worked for less than 5 years for one labour broker. The qualitative data confirmed that labour broker employees change agencies in the hope of finding better remuneration and working conditions. Although no direct proof was found in the literature, poor working conditions are a likely reason for employees seeking greener pastures.

With regard to remuneration, the quantitative data indicated that a vast majority of the temporary employees work for 8 hours per day, 5 days per week (more in the high season, which is from September to the end of the year). This is supported by the qualitative data, which shows that the average temporary employee earns between R 10-00 and R 15-00 per hour. An average month's earnings is less than R 2000-00 (South African)

A study in the Cape lodging industry (2008) shows that the average working day is 9.2 hours with 52% earning less than R 3,500-00 per month. Furthermore many of the undocumented temporary employees have no access to unions, bargaining power or minimum wages, resulting in employers abusing their precarious situation by paying them unacceptably low wages. The meagre wages earned by casual workers are not sufficient to support their families. In the context of high living costs several studies (Bezuidenhout, 2005; Mosoetsa, 2005; Van der Westhuizen, 2005) indicate that workers supplement their income by moonlighting in the informal sector, or by participating in cash generating activities.

The second, fundamental effect of casualization and attendant low wages is to shift the burden of care and social reproduction into the household. A worker who previously had medical aid benefits has to pay out for health care from his / her own pocket once they lose this benefit. In a way casual labour is now a source of cheap labour for capital across the South African economy. Workers' activities to supplement their income are an indirect subsidy for capitalists in the same way that productive underpaid women are a disguised subsidy for capital. (Oupa Bodibe, 2006)

Regarding benefits, the quantitative data shows that 80% of the respondents never receive any benefits, extra's or overtime pay. These findings are confirmed by the non-provision of meals, locker rooms and shower facilities by 50% of the respondents.

Qualitative data, in the form of labour broker interview feedback, indicates that temporary employees receive no benefits apart from in some cases transport provisions for nightshift work. This is supported by the literature. A casual employee is barely guaranteed a legal minimum wage, any job security, and allowances for lunch, travel and housing. They neither receive benefits such as paid vacation, paid sick leave, funeral assistance and pension. This situation results partly in the treatment meted on employees, as employers believe that they will always have people who will be willing to work for them, irrespective of the conditions. Again there is the desperate attitude of potential or existing employees in obtaining or retaining jobs at any condition or cost. As noted earlier, nonstandard work (NSW) arrangements is a global issue (Kalleberg, 1999).

A literature study of a Dutch temporary employment agency who had contracted several hundred young people in Spain to perform temporary jobs in the Netherlands in the run-up to the Christmas season, reflects the findings. The employment of the Spanish has had repercussions on public opinion and amongst the social partners, because not only are there many thousands of unemployed people in the Netherlands, but also because these workers do not seem to have suitable working conditions. The agreed working conditions are nine hours per day, travelling expenses, and board and lodging (in youth hostels). The real conditions seem to be

different. A large group returned after a week, claiming that the accommodation and food were unacceptable, that the working day had been increased and could be 11 to 12 hours, and that some had been forced to work in agricultural jobs for which they had not been contracted. This is similar to the case of thousands of young peoples from central and northern Europe who work in the Spanish tourist resorts as waiters and guides, and in other catering jobs.

Casual work is often temporary, with uncertain wages, long hours, and no job security. Nigerian workers are under pressure from corporate practices that seek to undercut their hard fought victories at the bargaining table to replace good jobs (jobs with benefits, training and security) with various forms of insecure and lower paid contract, short-term and temporary work (Fapohunda & Tinuke, 2012). Treatment, respect and grievances: the quantitative data indicates that between 50% and 80% of the respondents never received any introduction to policy and procedures regarding disciplinary action, grievances and code of conducts. Three quarters of the temporary employees who were interviewed were never exposed to any induction or socialization program. This may be partly because they felt that they were not taken seriously, and not treated with respect.

The qualitative interviews with the labour brokers revealed that the temporary employees were not informed about their rights and the presence of new legislation in the making.

The literature provides proof that a majority of temporary employees do not receive “social wages”, benefits such as pension or medical aid, and furthermore, they have virtually no knowledge of or access to any legislature, depending on statutory employment standards for basic working conditions. Non-documentation and low levels of education do not encourage them or give them access to unionization (Luo, 2010).

According to 66% of the interviewed participants the economic crisis is the reason for them not finding permanent employment. A further 60% have never been offered a permanent job. The findings, however, contradict the findings of the labour broker interviews. On the one hand employees blame the economic crisis for not finding

permanent employment, and conversely, they indicate that more than half have received offers of permanent employment. Many respondents informed the interviewers that at the specific venues at which they were employed, there were no permanent positions available.

CHAPTER FIVE: Conclusions and recommendations

5.1 Introduction

The research study sought to establish and document the factors leading to 'casualization'. It also investigated and documented the phenomena of 'casualization' within a global context in order to make comparisons with the South African labour market. The research established the working conditions, job satisfaction and well-being of the temporary employees who work for or are contracted by labour brokers (employment agencies). It furthermore sought to determine how and why casualization influences the working conditions of temporary employees who are employed by labour brokers in the hospitality industry owing to the effect of casualization, prescribed labour law and labour broker human resources practices.

5.2 Relating to South African labour laws

The existing South African labour laws (as at 2014) are not designed to deal with the needs of temporary employees. Although new labour laws are being implemented, supposedly to protect the vulnerable and insecure temporary workforce, many loopholes still exist. A labour broker is responsible, together with their clients, for the wellbeing of temporary employees. However, when issues arise it is still difficult for the employee to know where to go to with his / her grievances. The agencies hardly deal with employee issues, usually only supply staff to hospitality businesses, such as conferencing centres. Although they claim to follow up on disciplinary action and address reported conflicts, the reality is that problematic temps will not be considered again for new or other contracts. The agencies were honest enough to admit that problem candidates were not re-employed for new assignments.

During various stages of the interviewing process, temporary employees indicated that they had issues with venues, management or peers, including favouritism and

respect; leading to managers informing the agency not to want to rehire certain individuals. In both above mentioned situations the law is unable to allocate specific problems to specific parties in the three-way relationship. Full-time employees have a human resources department to go to with their grievances.

The new labour law (Labour Relations Amendment Act, 2012) prescribes that a temporary employee that is employed for longer than three months at one venue will be entitled to the same rights as a permanent employee. The consequence is that user enterprises will not employ labour broker employees for longer than three months anymore, in order to circumvent this requirement. In this scenario any labour broker employee will be on short three months contracts after which that individual should be placed in a new position by the agency. The insecurity is now hugely increased because most agencies will be unable to have a new three month job lined up for every temporary employee. Apart from all the challenges associated with temporary work, continued changes of employer, environment, rules and regulations, transport and other issues related to starting a new job, compound the situation.

The agencies admit that they do not inform employees about their rights within labour law. The agencies (LB) hardly deal with employee issues, as they usually only supply staff. Although they claim to follow up on disciplinary action and address reported conflicts, the reality is that problematic temps will not be re-considered for new or other contracts.

5.3 Human resources practices:

The labour broker industry does not apply proper human resource practices. The larger agencies (LB) are better organized, however, when taking over a new contract not much is done for existing temporary employees. One example was the contract taken that was taken over at a facility in the Johannesburg area. Last year a dispute was ignored involving temporary kitchen staff complaining to facilities management about the non-payment of overtime, only when the temporary staff downed tools, did the agency involved address the issues.

The findings regarding HR practices for temporary employees, in general, were confirmed by quantitative results which indicate that 75% of the respondents never received any training. Only 36% of respondents said that they were paid on time and

received overtime, while 60% was seldom paid on time and irregular, no overtime was paid and often time sheets (record of hours worked) that were handed in to the agency contained wrong information or were handed in late, which affected pay dates.

In the comparison section of this report evidence shows that these sorts of practices are detrimental for temporary employees working conditions and wellbeing.

Hence induction programs, employment agreements and the employee knowledge of policies and procedures are critical for the protection of the hotel business, as well as employees (Lye. 2007).

Temporary employees are continuously striving to find employment with better working conditions and better pay. The research has confirmed the movement of temporary employees from one agency to another stems from ever increasing economic challenges. These challenges stem from a decline of tourism work opportunities; declining hotel and conference occupancy rates; increasing retrenchments, and consequently a continuously growing number of people with declining disposable remunerations and income.

Possible recommendations for better human resource practices relating to temporary employees in the hospitality industry could include:

- Every HR departments would be advised to keep current employees (as long as they meet company's needs) in lieu of constantly hiring new employees. Retaining experienced, long term employees (including temporary employees) saves money and effort, however it requires a human resources management strategy consideration that plans far beyond remuneration only. In the hospitality industry for example, it is not an unusual for the entire temporary employee pool to change perpetually.
- HR departments would be advised to implement new ways to boost employee motivation. One way to keep experienced temporary employees motivated is to have more consistent communication lines and structures. It is furthermore important and natural for employees to want to know how well they are doing, as well as having some knowledge as to the stability of the entire company they work for.

Regular staff meetings, which should include temporary employees, could be beneficial to the entire operation therefore making all employees feel that they are not a separate, but an inseparable link within the greater entity. The consequent growing of unity between all employees and management will in turn enhance greater internal, or intrinsic, motivation. Grievances boxes or other communication processes that can highlight grievances are furthermore important. Temporary employees should be able to list their grievances without fear, otherwise they might simply leave an employment opportunity without the management ever knowing why they left.

There are also several good remuneration practices that involve material incentives. It is truly essential to note that people need money, which is probably the best way to boost motivation. Development of fair remuneration practices and policies within the business environment would ensure equitable working conditions, which in return would retain employees.

A further effective incentive method would be to provide relevant and possibly free training courses and career development classes, which would make employees feel involved, as well as valued.

5.4 Recruitment procedures

The agencies (LB) rely on networking within their temporary employee pool, as they introduce new recruits. Although they claim to check identity documents and work permits, the reality reflects a different situation. The only real requirement is reasonable understanding and use of the English language. Documentation such as refugee, asylum seeker, residence status, marital status, curriculum vitae and other work related documents are crucial, but not essential to finding employment. Employment opportunities are found more quickly via social and community networks. An assessment of working conditions of Zimbabweans in South Africa reveals that working Zimbabweans feel they are a privileged minority, as finding any form of employment in South Africa represents an improvement of their employment conditions in Zimbabwe (Mosala, 2008).

5.5 User enterprises (the client)

The user enterprises who hire labour broker employees have been found to have no human resource management practices and procedures in place to deal with a group of continuously changing employees.

Management of most facilities presume that the temporary employees that they hire are able to perform the tasks and duties for which they are hired. A possible reason is that 60% of the respondents indicated that they had never been allocated a supervisor, while 40% are often, but not always supervised (subject to the number of functions to be catered for at the same time).

Facilities (such as showers and lockers) are sometimes, or not, available to temporary staff and only 50% of the respondents receive a meal (often leftovers). One meal while working a full shift is standard practice in the conferencing sector.

At various stages of the interviewing process temporary employees indicated that they have issues with venue management or peers, which include favouritism and the lack of showing of respect, which could lead to managers informing the agency that they do not want to rehire certain individuals.

At the time that the survey was conducted, a sensitive labour dispute was brewing regarding the number of paid hours worked, for which a number of temporary employees did not receive any overtime. According to a field worker, who was employed at a conference centre, overtime work was regarded as totally normal by the conference centre's management and therefore expected from the temporary employees, without management expecting any complaints or queries relating to the practise. A convention centre hires employees from an agency, and is not responsible for the recording and payment of remuneration. How the discrepancy was resolved was not clear.

HR management in co-operation with the TES should institute recruitment processes before they have to recruit temporary employees. The recommendation is that temporary employees should be tested and examined related to their performance levels. An on-going appraisal system needs to be implemented and maintained on a

regular basis to ensure employee competency and to identify training needs. Such practices would give the HR department the opportunity to measure commitment, attitude, skills and abilities, who to re-hire, promote or to lay-off. The rewards of establishing a relevant casual labour force and a satisfying employee relation will benefit repeat guest improvements and ultimately the bottom line.

Jerris, L. (1999)

5.6 The temporary employee

As the quantitative data reveals there is a difference between South African and migrant workers regarding working conditions. South African temporary workers are generally more satisfied with their work situation than foreigners are. The South African temporary employees were also more positive about transport (although, in general, no transport is provided apart for the nightshifts), treatment and respect, work relationships, work skill activities and promotional opportunities. When the general working conditions are perceived as satisfactory, all other factors, including wellbeing, are perceived positive.

Migrants are generally worse off than their South African counterparts, although their wellbeing is perceived as satisfactory. The data shows a significantly lower score in wellbeing than the South Africans. In contrast, the research found that most foreigners perceive their wellbeing as being satisfactory, as the majority are merely happy to earn some money, and will in principle accept any job opportunity in order to survive. As the results indicate, some talented chefs could be found working in the dish washing area, if no kitchen work is available. The privilege of having some or any, form of employment leads to an increased perception of being lucky and being well off.

Temporary workers feel that the general economic crisis has certainly influenced their working conditions, specifically regarding permanent job offers and their own wellbeing. The results show that the longer a temporary employee works for the same agency (LB) and preferably the same venue, the better they perceive their working conditions and wellbeing to be. The research found that during data collection and the interviews conducted, many labour broker employees change agencies in the hope of finding better remuneration and working conditions. The

trends that have emerged internationally in the world of work regarding the definition of an employee, have directly and indirectly lead to the informalisation and casualization of jobs. These trends, amongst others, include an increase in disguised employment (independent contractors) and a rise in unclear terms of employment resulting in a decrease in the protection of workers who require protection (such as the labour broker employees investigated in this research).

Another contributing factor to poor working conditions is in the form of poorly fed unhealthy employees who likely to perform below par. The research found issues in this regard, clearly show that the venues are either not prepared for an influx of temporary employees, or simply do not find this important enough and leave supervisors to deal with the issue. This shows that management at the venues are neither committed nor aware of the needs regarding temporary employees working conditions or well-being.

5.7 Triangulation of the findings

The process of tri-angulating the findings of the research provides the means to support, challenge, show confusion or dispute the data by means of comparing the qualitative and quantitative findings and the literature.

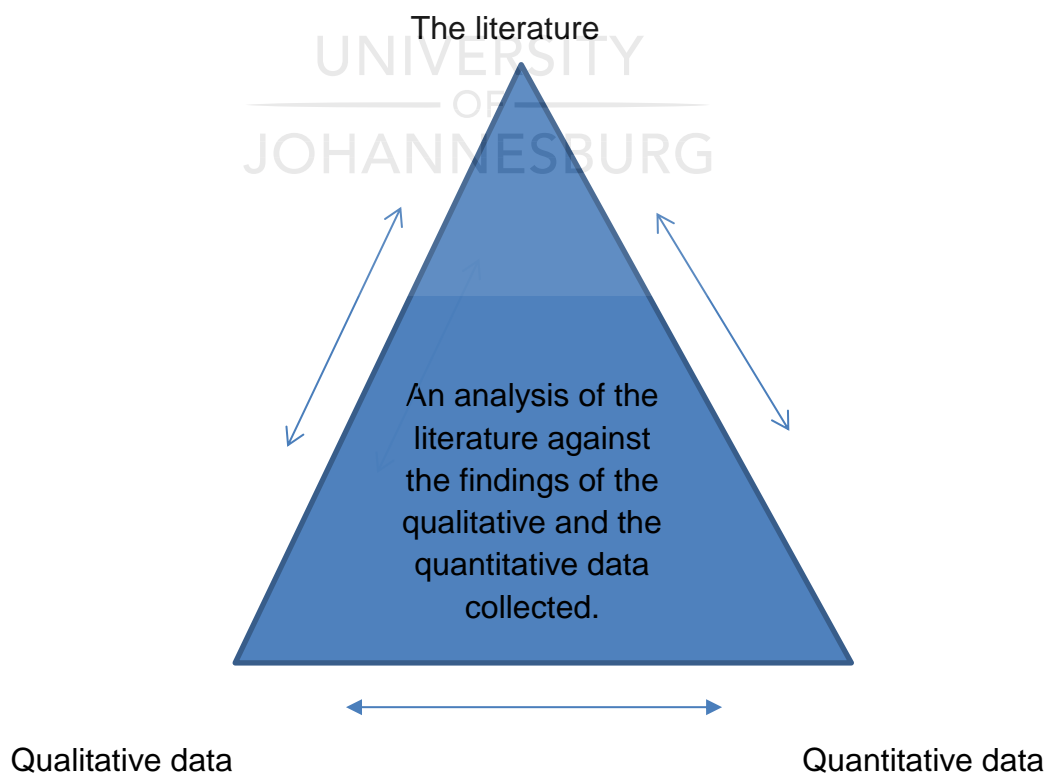


Figure 14: Triangulation of the forms of data for comparative analysis.

The literature indicates international concern for the casualization of temporary employees, revealing abuse, irregular working conditions and poor remuneration practices for those in this category. Although the working conditions have been brought about by changing economic conditions, general social well-being, employment practices and the deregulation of the labour market, abuse of these conditions appears to be common to the detriment of the temporary employees.

The quantitative data, obtained during the first phase of the research, by means of questionnaires to temporary employees, supports the literature by revealing similar practices in South Africa to those discussed in the literature. The International Labour Organisation has made known abusive practices found in Europe, America and the Far East. Concern is expressed for the vulnerability of unprotected temporary employees, either by employment practices or working conditions. Similar results could be found in the research findings in support of this concern

The qualitative interviews revealed a general covering up of the working conditions, with effort made to protect agency practices, as well as their client's practices, which may not be following the labour laws of South Africa. Resistance by the managers to being interviewed further draws attention to their awareness of poor practices, which would rather not be exposed. The Labour laws of South Africa are insufficiently inclusive to protect vulnerable employees. Nor are the existing laws adequately implemented or practiced to protect temporary employees, and give them no voice as they are not unionized.

5.8 Combined findings.

The research concludes that permanent employment is hard to come by for temporary employees. Regarding country of origin, according to the findings in this report, migrant temporary employees left their country of origin not only to find work, but also to find better working and living conditions. The temporary employees indicated that any job, which supplies living wages, improves their quality of life.

The contradiction, however, is shown in the literature, which suggests that urban migration is growing rapidly. An ever-growing number of people migrate to cities and

cannot find accommodation or employment. They end up in informal settlements on the periphery of cities, which are not close to economic hubs and far from transport. Like in South Africa, China will have to spend substantial amounts of money to meet the needs of the millions of people who migrate to the cities from rural areas. Mass migration to the cities continues at an increasing speed.

In 1982 about 25% of the population lived in cities, which after three decades has grown to over 50%. Expectations are that in the next 20 years the urban population will grow to 75 %, because people are looking for work and better living conditions. The situation in China is a reflection of the South African scenario. Urbanisation is real, with not only our rural areas, but also many other Africans migrating to the big cities such as Johannesburg, Durban and Cape Town (The Sunday Times, August 2012).

Job satisfaction shows confusion. A majority of the respondents indicated satisfaction with their employer although the findings show a vast majority to be unhappy with the number of hours that they worked. Opportunities regarding promotion, job security, skills development, training and education were by up to 70% of the temporary employees who scored it as not existing and unsatisfactory. The labour brokers, however, indicated that opportunities were there for the right candidates, which was determined by the level of education, hard work and commitment to their assignments. The literature confirms that migrants work in unhealthy environments, and require low skills. Jobs are allocated owing to poor language skills, low levels of education, lack of knowledge of workers' rights and low pay. All of these factors significantly contribute to unsatisfactory working conditions and unhappiness (Damian, 2011).

In terms of the labour law, the quantitative interviews confirmed employees' lack of knowledge concerning labour laws. The quantitative interviews with the labour brokers indicated that the agencies do not inform their temporary employees about their rights by law. The literature regarding the law, which never dealt with the plight of temporary workers, confirmed that certain exclusions in the law have been abused to convert employment contracts into commercial ones. Poor capacity of labour

inspectorates results in poor enforcement. It is the powerlessness and vulnerability that affect temporary workers to claim their rights (Cheadle, 2006).

Relating to casualization the quantitative data shows that 75% of the temporary employed workers feel that the economic crisis is the reason that they are unable to find permanent employment. The labour brokers are feeling the impact through the loss of employment contracts. The consequent new competitive contract negotiations, which are led by a narrowing market of competing labour brokers and employers of contract staff, resulting in tighter financial contracts being awarded, which in turn further exacerbates the abusive situation for contract workers. The literature extensively elaborates on the impact of casualization, providing evidence of international and African comparisons.

Casualization is referred to in Europe and the US as Non Standard Work Arrangements (NSWA's) (ILO, 2007) and involve the process whereby more and more of the workforce are employed in "casual" jobs. Typically, support services such as cleaning, catering, warehousing, transport, distribution and security are sub-contracted. This type of situation can also arise in some cases, as the entire or part of the business activity is outsourced or "casualized". A casual employee is barely guaranteed a legal minimum wage, any job security, and allowances for lunch, travel and housing. They neither receive benefits such as paid vacation, paid sick leave, funeral assistance and pension. This situation results partly in the treatment that employees receive, as employers believe that they will always have people who are willing to work for them, irrespective of the conditions. Again there is the desperate attitude of potential or existing employees obtaining or retaining jobs at any condition or cost. As noted earlier, nonstandard work (NSW) arrangements is a global issue (Kalleberg, 1999).

Growing price and other competition factors in many countries are increasingly pressurising profit margins: encouraging human resource management practices that favour part-time work; uncertain time schedules; low remuneration; recourse to agency worker staff; high attrition; and low training and retraining. Women are often in retailing (hospitality services included) with many of the women holding lower status, lower paid, casual or temporary agency jobs. In areas such as cleaning,

security and domestic work and the hospitality industry, the workforce is presented by a large percentage of migrant female and part-time workers who are typically low skilled, and low paid (ILO, 2009: 3).

Key findings are that casual employment is on the rise, yet trade union strategies and labour regulations are trailing behind. Hence, casuals are poorly organised and fall through the cracks of both labour regulations and social protection mechanisms. The rise of casual employment has dramatically increased insecurity in the work place among workers and has shifted power to employers.

The figures, tables, normality testing and correlations, which are presented in this chapter, show the analysis of the collected data and an explanation, which suggests that the findings are reliable and valid.

On order to make conclusive statements relating to the findings, probing and determining that the questions and the responses met the requirements, this process was concluded successfully.

The following chapter reflects on the findings and makes a conclusion relating to the working conditions of temporary employees in the hospitality industry.

When combining both the quantitative and qualitative findings, the research found that working conditions for temporary employees in general to be poor, and warranting the publicity afforded to this practice.

Considering the objectives of the study, the research shows a clear lack of protection for temporary employees in the labour laws (vulnerable migrants), poor human resource practices within temporary employment agencies or labour brokers, as well as a lack of involvement by the venues who hire the temporary staff.

These factors, together with the other findings, originate and are influenced by a high unemployment rate and the global casualization process, with a lack of monitoring by labour officials, and implementation of the law by the authorities.

The South African situation is worsened by the huge influx of foreigners into the hospitality and other industries, of whom the majority are Zimbabwean. Exploitation by a number of so-called labour brokers is rife, and a large contributor to the poor working conditions of the temporary employees.

5.9 Conclusion

Although the research was conducted in the area of Johannesburg, and in the hospitality arena, the findings reflect a general trend of casualization within the international hotel and hospitality industries.

Economics, both relating to controlling labour costs and the seasonality of functions within the hospitality industry, are indicated as primary explanations for the casualization of a workforce.

The findings reveal a pattern of concern in two domains. The contract employers of the employees fail to neither inform contracted casual labour of their legal employment rights, nor support them relating to training and induction programs to ensure high quality standards are provided to the hospitality business that employ them. The second domain relates to the employees themselves, who feel victimised and unsupported in their quest for work opportunities. One finding is significant, that of a sense of acceptance of their situation, leading to lethargy in effecting change. People seem to have adapted to a life style of insecurity and an unsafe work environment.

Further research related to a full extent of the use of labour brokers in the hotel and hospitality industries is recommended in order to determine the extent of the practice, and to make recommendations that would meet the requirements of the labour laws in South Africa, whilst improving the condition of employment for workers in the hospitality industry

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Appendices

Time table from 2012 – 2014.

December 2012 to September 2013	Complete and finish proposal.
October 2013	Get approval.
July 2013 to the end 2013	Design the questionnaires and start the survey, the data collection and analysis.
January to May 2014	Completion of Data collecting and analysis, start research report.
January to end of 2014	Finish the research report.
During the two years the literature review will be on going.	The research will follow up on developments with the LRA 2012.

Budget

Paper and Cartridges for printing.	R 2000-00
Telephone costs for interviews & making appointments.	R 1000-00
Travel petrol costs.	R2000-00
Transcribing of 10 recorded interviews	R 10000-00
Other unforeseen costs	R 1000-00
Estimated total	R 16000-00

Questionnaires (approved by STATKON)

Research questionnaire

Research is being conducted by a Master's degree student – Aiko Kuipers, at the University of Johannesburg (011 5591141)

I am collecting data relating to the employment of staff in the hospitality industry, through the use of labour brokers.

You, as a respondent, is respected as a person giving information. There will be no reference to who you are – so your identity is anonymous. All the information will only be used for this research. You may withdraw from the session at any time.

Please answer as many questions as honestly as possible – it all helps to give a clearer picture of the reality of this situation.

The survey questionnaire will take probably 10 minutes of your time. A research assistant will be handing you the questionnaire, giving you ample time to complete the paper after which you will return the paper to him / her.

The research assistant is available to translate words for you, but the answer must be your own please.

Part 1. Confidential Profile: Please place a cross (x) in the correct answer block

1. Gender:	Male	
	Female	

2. Age:	18 or younger	
	19 - 25	
	26 - 35	
	36 - 45	
	46 - 55	
	56 or older	

3. Marital Status:	Single	
	Divorced	
	Living together	
	Traditional marriage	
	Married by law	

	Widowed	
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4. Number of children:		
5. Number of dependants / living off your income:		

6. Country of passport:	South African	
If "other country" please specify		

7. Type of residence:	House	
	Flat	
	Township	
	Other	
If "other" please specify		

8. In which area do you stay?	
-------------------------------	--

	yes	no
9. Are you sharing your place of residence?		

10. With how many families are you sharing your residence?	1	
	2	
	3	
	4 to 5	
	5 or more	

11. Highest education achieved:	School – gr 9 and lower	
	School - gr 10 - 11	
	School - gr 12 or matric	

	College	
	University qualification	
	Other	
If "other" please specify		

12. How many years have you worked in the hospitality industry?	Less than 1 year	
	1 to 2 years	
	2 to 5 years	
	5 to 10 years	
	More than 10 years	

13. How long have you been employed with the agency you currently work for?	Less than 1 year	
	1 to 2 years	
	2 to 5 years	
	5 to 10 years	
	More than 10 years	

14. What is your current job title?	Waiter	
	Cook / Chef	
	Barman	
	Cleaner	
	Other	
If "other" please specify		

15. Which previous positions have you held ?	Waiter	
Mark all applicable job titles	Cook / Chef	
	Barman	

	Cleaner	
	Other	
If "other" please specify		

16. How many hours do you work on average per day?	Less than 8	
	8	
	8 – 12	
	12 – 15	
	15 or more	

17. How much do you paid per hour?	Less than – R10-00	
	R10-01 - R15-00	
	R15-01 - R20-00	
	R20-01 - R25-00	
	R25-01 or more	

Part 2a. Working conditions: please place a cross in the most suitable answering block

How often:	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Always
18is transport provided to work?					
19.... is transport provided from work back home after a day shift?					
20....is trans port provided from work back home after a nightshift?					
21....do you receive training by the agency you work for?					
22....do get paid for overtime worked?					
23....do you receive your salary payments on time?					

24....do you get any other benefits or extras apart from your salary?					
25....do you get allocated to a supervisor at the venue you work/					
26....do you get provided with a meal?					
27....do you have access to a locker / change room?					
28....do you have access to shower facilities?					

Part 2b. Working conditions: please place a cross in the most suitable answering block

How often:	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Always
29....are you treated with respect by the agency you work for?					
30....has any agency you worked for introduced you to disciplinary and grievance procedures?					
31....has any agency you worked for made you aware of your rights prescribed by labour law?					
32....do you feel you have nowhere to go with grievances you would like to report?					
33....have you been allocated time for an induction or socialization program at the venue you were send to?					
34....are you treated with respect by the venue you work?					
35....are you treated with respect by the permanent staff at the venue?					

Part 2c. Working conditions: Please answer the following question by indicating
Yes / No / Don't know

	Yes	No	Don't know
36. Is tax deducted from your salary?			
37. Are you registered for UIF?			

Part 3. The labour market

	Yes	No
38. Do you feel that the current economic crisis is the reason you can't find permanent employment?		
39. Have you ever received an offer of permanent employment while working for an agency in South Africa?		
40. Can you find employment in your country of origin?		
41. Did the poor pay in your country of origin force you to come and work in South Africa?		
42. Did the poor working conditions in your country of origin force you to come and work in South Africa?		
43. Do you see a future in this industry?		

Part 4. Satisfaction: Please place a cross in the most suitable answering block:

How satisfied are you with the following:	Very dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Unsure	Satisfied	Very satisfied

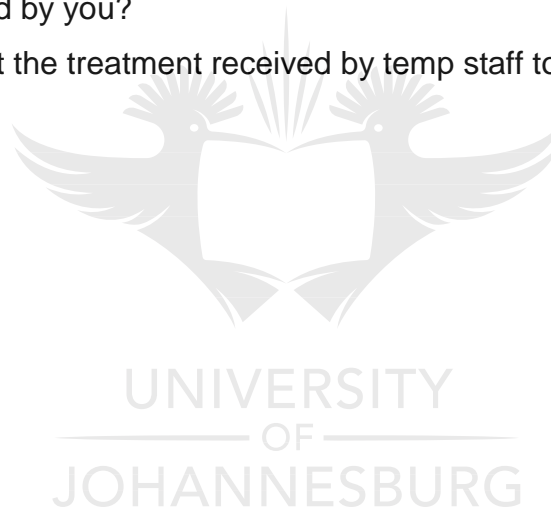
44. Hours worked per week.					
45. Flexibility in scheduling.					
46. Salary					
47. Benefits (health / life insurance)					
48. Relationships with co-workers					
49. Opportunities to utilize your skills and talents					
50. Degree of independence in your work role.					
51. How satisfied are you, all in all, with your present work?					
52. Location of work.					
53. Opportunities for promotion					
54. Job security					
55. Relationships with supervisor / s					
56. Opportunities to learn new skills.					
57. How satisfied are you with state of health?					
58. Amount of paid leave days					
59. Recognition for work accomplished.					
60. Relationships with subordinates					
61. Support for additional training and education					
62. How satisfied are you with your family life?					
63. Amount of paid sick leave days					
64. Adequate opportunities for periodic change of duties					
65. Overall, how satisfied are you with your life					

I would like to thank you for completing this questionnaire, your help makes the difference!

Semi-structured interview questions to be conducted with the labour brokers.

1. When was your company established, how many years in operation?
2. How many temp-staff are on your books and are regularly send out to clients / conference centres, event management companies and conference hotels?

3. How many of those employees are migrants (foreigners) from Southern Africa (e.g. .Zimbabweans, Congolese etc.)
4. Please tell us about your recruitment procedures.
5. Do you sign some sort of employment contract with your temp staff?
6. Are there any regulatory procedures you have to follow as stipulated by the Department of Labour?
7. How many clients do provide with your services?
8. Do you train your staff?
9. Does your client train your staff?
10. Is your staff registered for UIF and, or gets pension and med aid benefits?
11. Are your temp-staff given opportunities to grow within your organisation?
12. Is any of your staff been given opportunities to permanent employment or is that encouraged by you?
13. Do you feel that the treatment received by temp staff to be fair and non-discriminatory?



Part 2a. Working Conditions – Tangible

Total Variance Explained

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	3.532	35.317	35.317	3.097	30.968	30.968	3.055	30.550	30.550
2	2.942	29.416	64.733	2.630	26.300	57.268	2.672	26.718	57.268
3	.839	8.387	73.121						
4	.624	6.238	79.359						
5	.592	5.923	85.281						
6	.465	4.649	89.930						
7	.342	3.417	93.347						
8	.308	3.082	96.429						
9	.223	2.235	98.664						
10	.134	1.336	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Axis

Factoring.

	Factor	
	1	2
Q28	.868	
Q23	.783	
Q27	.753	
Q22	.687	
Q26	.642	
Q25	.467	
Q18		.937
Q20		.834
Q19		.797

Q21	.624
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Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.^a

a. Rotation converged in 3 iterations.

2nd Order Factor Analysis

Total Variance Explained

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	1.007	50.347	50.347	.012	.608	.608
2	.993	49.653	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

Factor Matrix^a

	Factor
	1
Mean_P2a_F1	.078
Mean_P2a_F2	-.078

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

a. 1 factors extracted. 3 iterations required.

Factor Analysis

**Total Variance
Explained**

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	3.442	57.370	57.370	2.992	49.868	49.868
2	.899	14.987	72.358			
3	.681	11.355	83.713			
4	.458	7.632	91.345			
5	.295	4.910	96.255			
6	.225	3.745	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

Factor matrix

	Factor
	1
Q34	.868
Q31	.785
Q29	.774
Q35	.652
Q30	.593
Q33	.497

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

a. 1 factors extracted. 6 iterations required.

Part 4. Job Satisfaction. Factor Analysis

Total Variance Explained

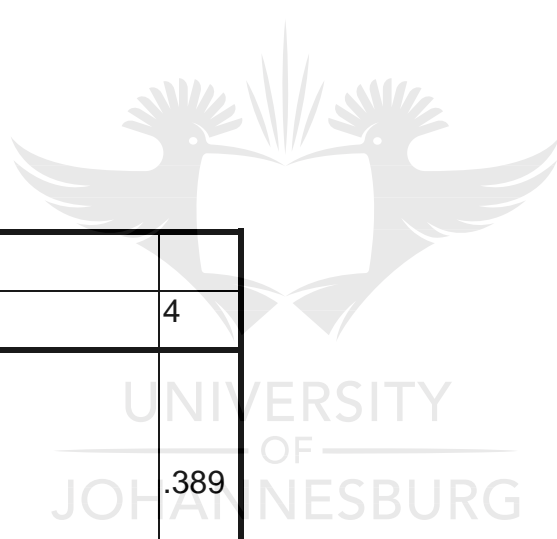
Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	8.340	46.331	46.331	7.947	44.148	44.148	3.431	19.059	19.059
2	1.418	7.878	54.208	1.093	6.072	50.220	3.037	16.875	35.933
3	1.265	7.026	61.234	.838	4.658	54.879	2.073	11.518	47.451
4	1.100	6.109	67.344	.718	3.987	58.866	2.055	11.415	58.866
5	.802	4.457	71.801						
6	.763	4.238	76.039						
7	.641	3.561	79.600						
8	.553	3.073	82.673						
9	.510	2.832	85.504						

10	.462	2.568	88.072					
11	.424	2.353	90.426					
12	.345	1.916	92.341					
13	.318	1.769	94.111					
14	.269	1.492	95.603					
15	.248	1.377	96.980					
16	.218	1.208	98.188					
17	.182	1.012	99.200					
18	.144	.800	100.000					

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

Rotated Factor Matrix^a

	Factor			
	1	2	3	4
Q45	.799			
Q44	.741			.389
Q48	.567	.306	.376	
Q60	.560	.494	.300	
Q46	.460		.286	.457
Q52	.428	.376	.300	
Q53		.742		.337
Q54	.499	.576		



5				
Q4	.266	.561	.255	
9				
Q5	.509	.532		
4				
Q5		.500		
6				
Q6	.349	.483		.461
4				
Q5	.374	.457	.410	
9				
Q4			.634	.263
7				
Q6			.628	
1				
Q5	.312	.348	.477	
0				
Q6				.864
3				
Q5	.416		.483	.599
8				

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.^a

a. Rotation converged in 10 iterations.

2nd Order Factor Analysis

Total Variance Explained

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues		Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings

	Total	% of	Cumulative	Total	% of	Cumulative
		Variance	%		Variance	%
1	2.693	67.324	67.324	2.284	57.094	57.094
2	.574	14.339	81.663			
3	.469	11.726	93.389			
4	.264	6.611	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Axis

Factoring.

Factor Matrix^a

	Factor
	1
Mean_P4_F1	.852
Mean_P4_F2	.807
Mean_P4_F3	.701
Mean_P4_F4	.644

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

a. 1 factors extracted. 7 iterations required.

Part 4. Well-Being Factor Analysis

Total Variance Explained

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	1.910	47.751	47.751	1.348	33.699	33.699
2	.840	21.011	68.762			

3	.796	19.912	88.673			
4	.453	11.327	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Axis

Factoring.

Factor

Matrix^a

	Factor
	1
Q62	.789
Q65	.672
Q57	.392
Q51	.347

Extraction Method:

Principal Axis Factoring.

a. 1 factors extracted. 15 iterations required.



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Research Statistical Analysis Part 2 Normality and Comparisons.

- The Descriptives of part 2a Tangible Working conditions Factor 1.
- the Descriptives of part 2a Tangible working conditions Factor 2
- the Descriptives of part 2b Non-tangible working conditions Factor 1
- together with Q.6, Q.38, Q.39, Q.43 and Q.13.

The above will be compared with two groups namely the South African passport holders and the non-South African passport holders, each group of which the differences are tested firstly Normality testing is done.

Normality testing: before comparisons can be done “Normality” needs to be tested, which is the distribution of the variables that are going to be tested against each other. The reason for this is based on the results of the Normality after which a decision is made what test is used for the comparisons. The normality tests for

differences. This research is looking for differences which will with the statistics prove and support the findings.

A variable is the mean score of part 2, which will be compared with the variables in Part 1, 3 and part 4.

- If it is normally distributed parametric tests will be used and if it is not normally distributed nonparametric tests will be used.
- When the wrong test would be used, the results could influence and interpret the answers as being biased. Normality testing will justify the use of that specific test for that specific comparison.
- Normality testing consists of two tests, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test and the Shapiro-Wilk Test, indicating whether the distribution is normal or not. The Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test is used if there are 50 or more people in that specific group.
- The Shapiro- Wilk Test is used when there are less than 50 in each group.
- The tests of Normality tables will indicate a column df which is the Degree of freedom score.
- Not normally distributed on the table is highlighted in **red**, while normal distribution is highlighted in **blue**.
- The Sig. which means Significant is the p-value. If the p-value is less than 0.05 it is not normally distributed, where it is more than 0.05 it indicates normal distribution.
- RAGS - Parametric testing does not deal with Outliers, which affects the mean. This means that the mean is calculated with the Outlier making the mean lower. Par example, when doing a scale of ages between 20 and 30 and one person is 90, the average will be let say 32, while without the Outlier the average will be 25.
- The nonparametric test calculates a Mean Rank which score is the decision tool to establish whether there is a difference or not.
- The p-value means that there is a 5% change that the mean score is not accurate, because of the outliers.
- The Boxplots and Histograms indicate frequencies measuring 1 – 5 because the answers on the questionnaires were rated from 1- never, 2-rarely, 3- sometimes, 4 - often to 5-always.

- Mean P2a F1 indicates working conditions – Tangible (general working conditions consisting of transport provided)
- Mean P2a F2 indicates working conditions – Tangible (general working conditions consisting of benefits and facilities received or having access to)
- Mean P2b F1 indicates working conditions - Not Tangible (general working conditions consisting of their feelings regarding respect and working relationships)

Tests of Normality

Q6	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Mean P2a – South African F1	.201	100	.000	.905	100	.000
Transport Other prov.	.158	46	.006	.938	46	.016
Mean_P2a_F2 South African	.240	100	.000	.775	100	.000
Facilities Other	.168	46	.002	.921	46	.004
Mean_P2b_F1 South African	.122	98	.001	.961	98	.005
Respect Other	.135	44	.043	.936	44	.016
GenWorkCon South African	.116	96	.003	.969	96	.021
Other	.147	43	.021	.960	43	.137
PromotionPot South African	.082	95	.123	.976	95	.073
Other	.121	42	.131	.967	42	.269
WorkRelation South African	.190	94	.000	.926	94	.000
Other	.135	41	.056	.944	41	.045
SkillsWorkAc South African	.158	94	.000	.957	94	.003
tiv						

	Other	.119	41	.152	.960	41	.154
WellBeing	South African	.172	95	.000	.912	95	.000
	Other	.081	41	.200*	.967	41	.269

*. This is a lower bound of the true significance.

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

Normality test results:

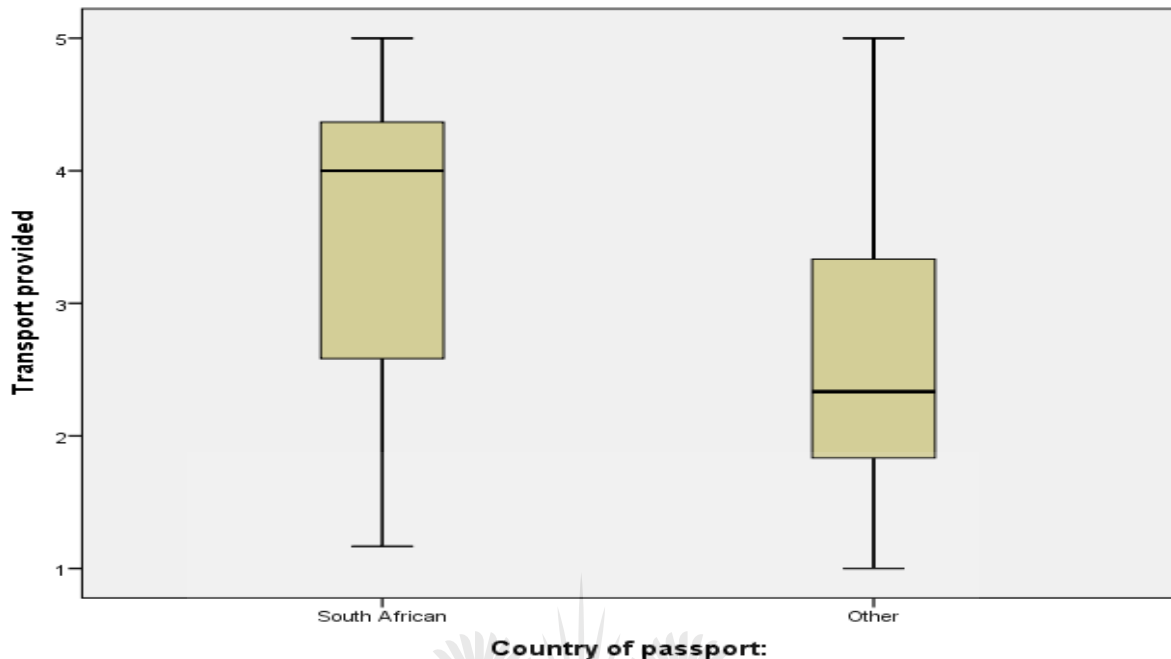
Question no. 6 Country of passport (South African / Other)

The Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was used for the South African group because it was more than 50 people while the Shapiro-Wilk test was used for the other group of other countries because it was less than 50.

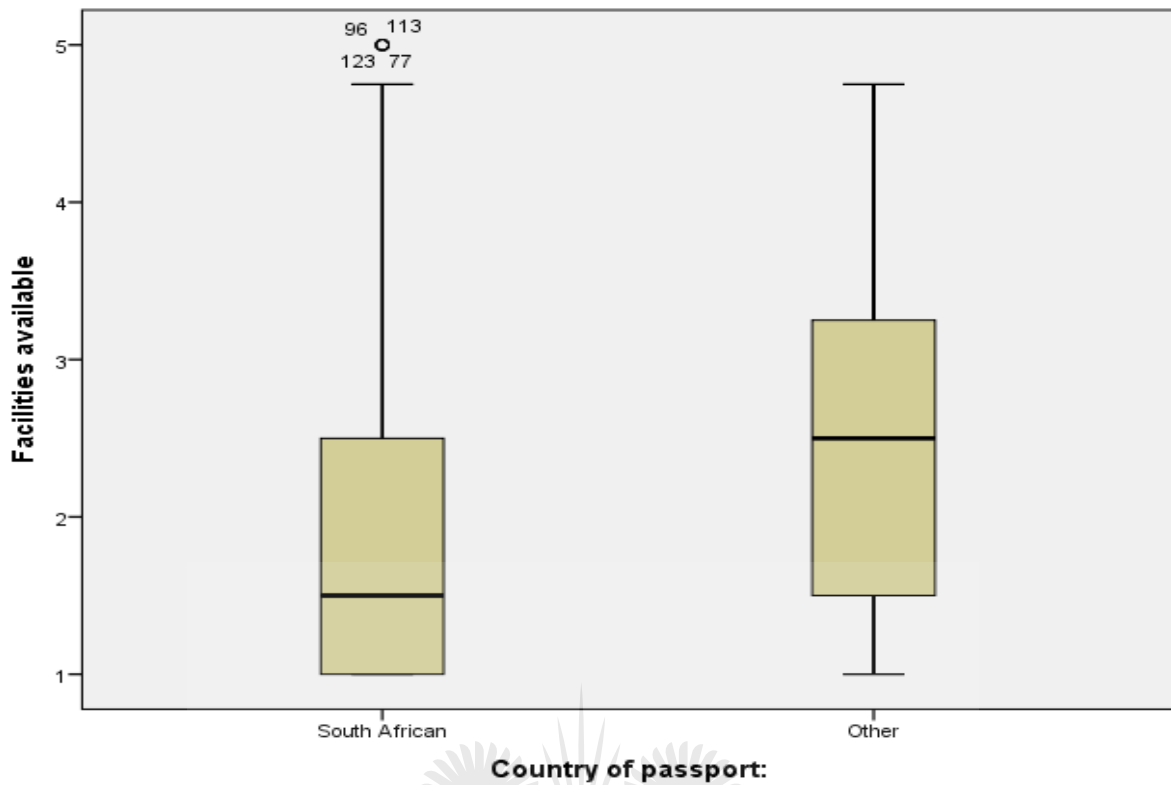
In the group of South African passport holders (country of origin) all p-values were below 0.05 (not normally distributed) except promotion potential which p-value is .123 (normally distributed), indicating that more participants declared to be South African. In the group not South African passport holders (not being the country of origin) all p-values were more than 0.05 (normally distributed) except P2a-F2 which p-value indicates a score below 0.05.

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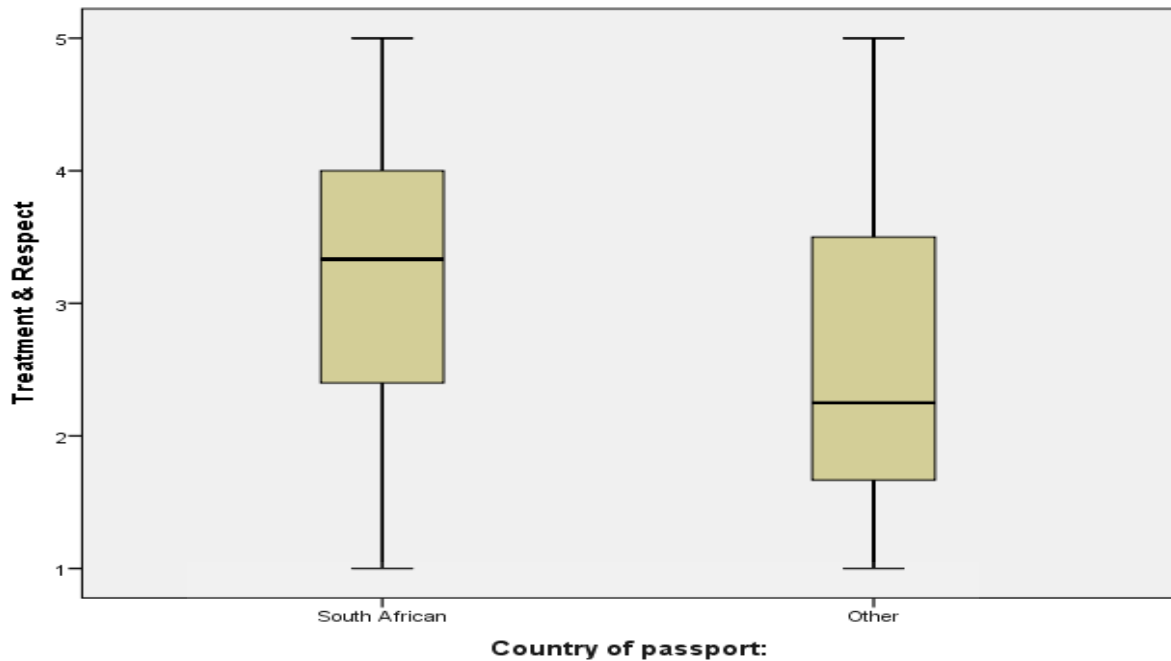
Box plot Question no.6



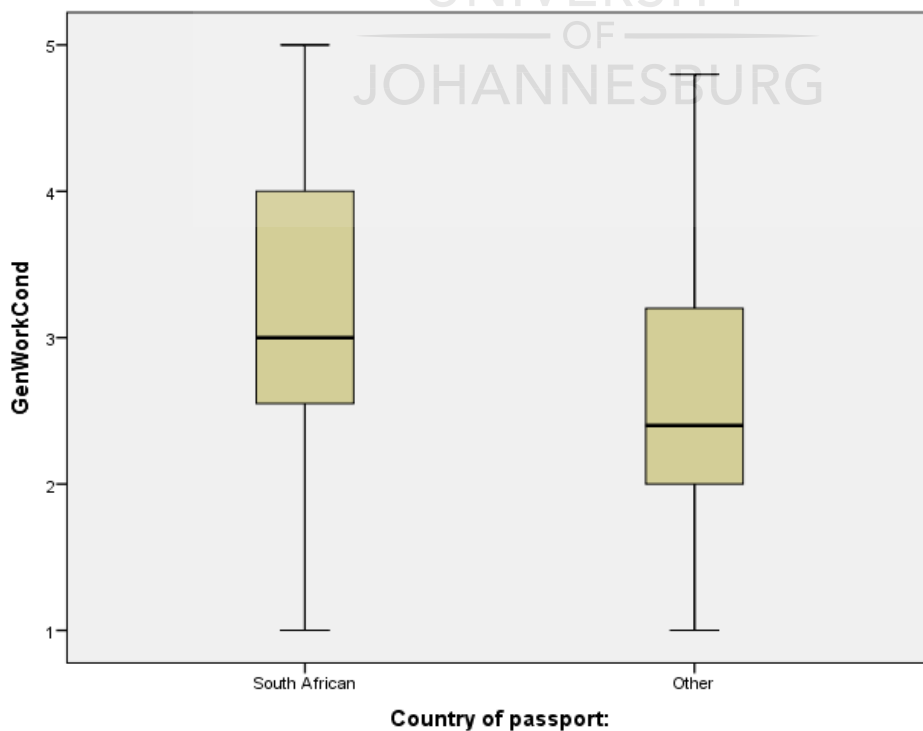
Question no. 6, the Boxplot indicates that the South African group scores were between minimum 1.167 and maximum 5, the median being 4. The other nationalities score between 1.1 and 4 with a median of 2.3. The Boxplot shows in the first tile a score of 1.1 to 2.6 meaning the lowest scores, the next tile 2.6 to 4 and the third tile 4 to 4.4. The picture clearly shows that the South African people are more positive and score higher towards sometimes and always while the other group scores more towards never and sometimes regarding transport provided. As the Histogram counts the people (respondents) the graph will tell you that there are quite a lot more people on the positive side going down to less on the negative side which is called "negative skewed". If the scores are normally distributed the Boxplot should be symmetrical which in this case it is not. The Boxplot indicates a big difference between the contributions of the groups, which is important to determine the tests to be used for the comparisons. As the scores are not normally distributed the tests used for the comparisons are nonparametric.



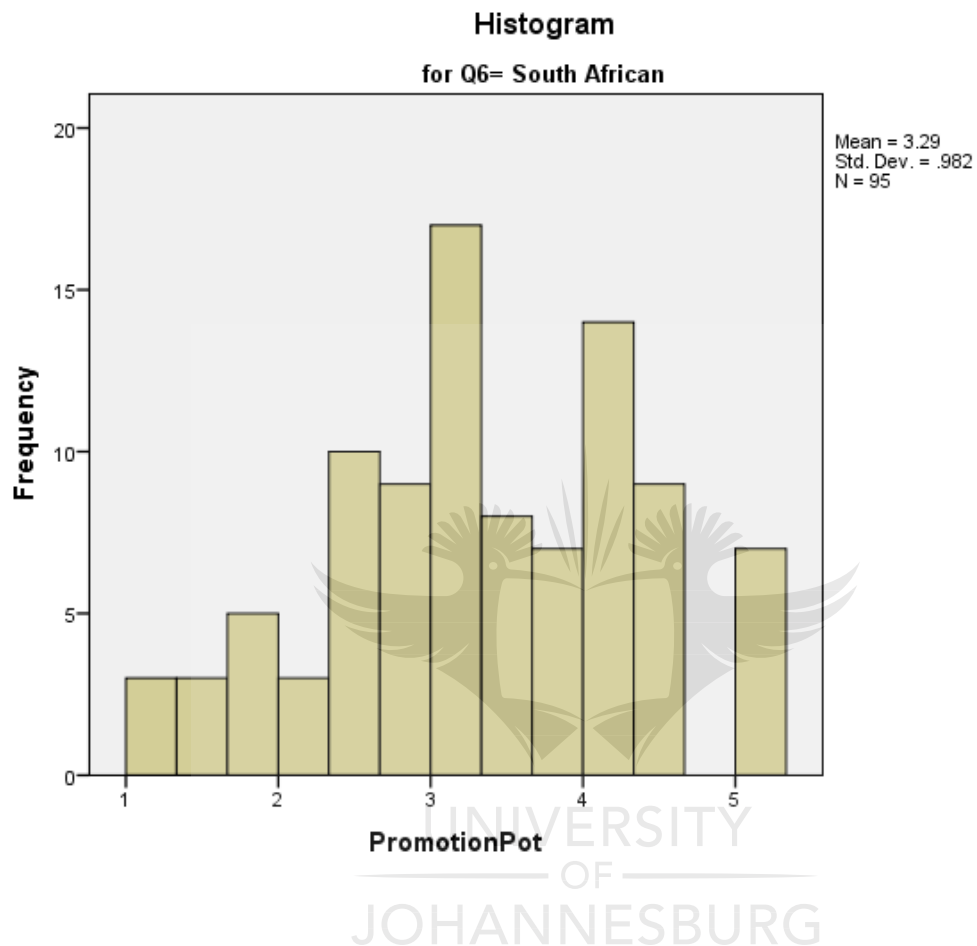
Both groups have p-values less than 0.05 showing a positive skewed result. Indicating that both groups have a rather negative score, the histograms above explain. The South African group scores between minimum 1 to maximum 5, the median being 1.5. The other nationalities score between minimum 1 to maximum 4.740, the median being 2.5. The score is not normally distributed showing a difference. Although the Histograms show that both groups are unhappy and score negative regarding benefits and facilities they receive or have access to, the group other nationalities are less negative. The research found that any facilities offered to migrant workers are appreciated.

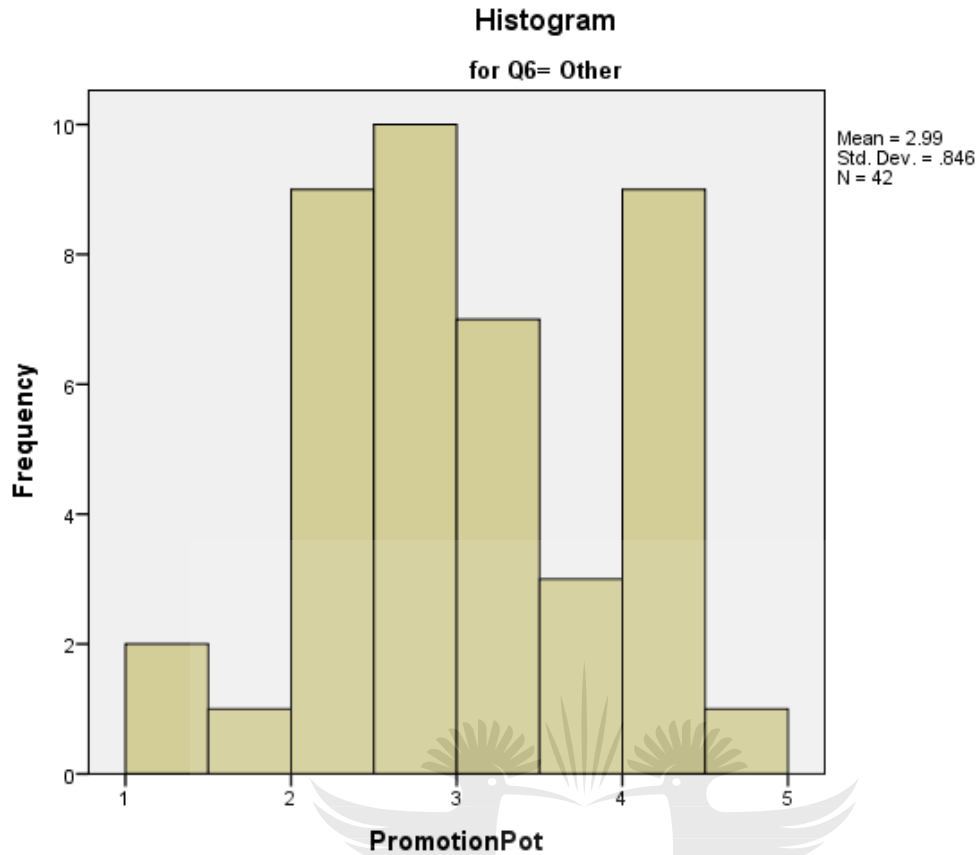


The South African group scores between minimum 1 to maximum 5, the median being 3.333. The other nationalities score between minimum 1 to maximum 5, the median being 2.250. The positive skewed results indicate that there is a rather big difference between the groups regarding their feelings of treatment and respect. The statistics confirm the research findings of poor treatment and less respect received by migrant workers.

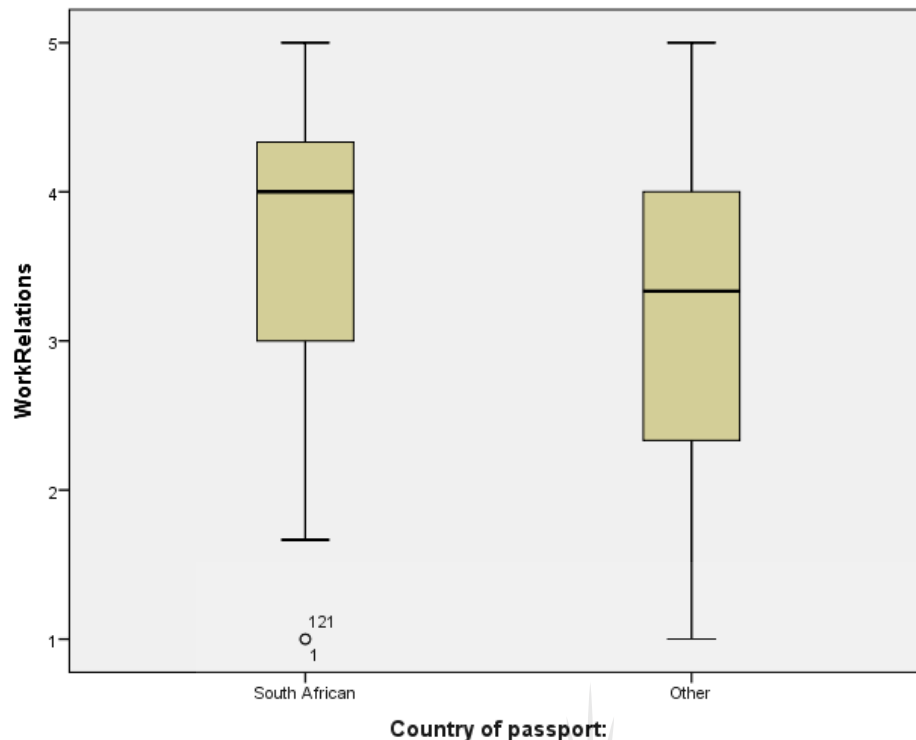


The South African group scores between minimum 1 to maximum 5, the median being 3. The other nationalities score between minimum 1 to maximum 4.8, the median being 2.4. The “not normal” distribution shows a big difference between the groups. Confirming the poor working conditions experienced by migrant workers.

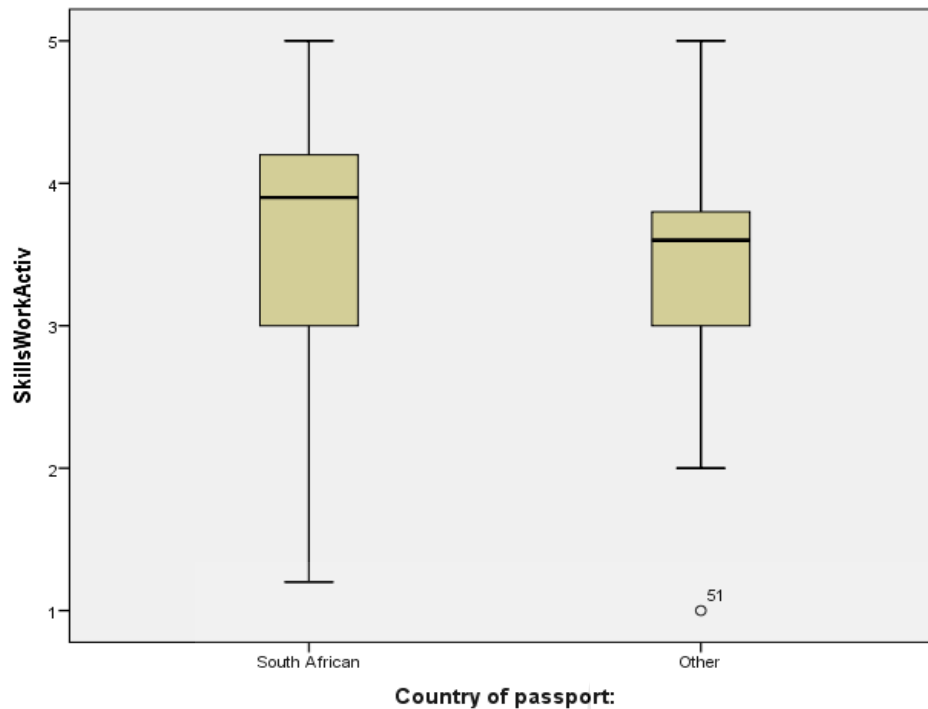




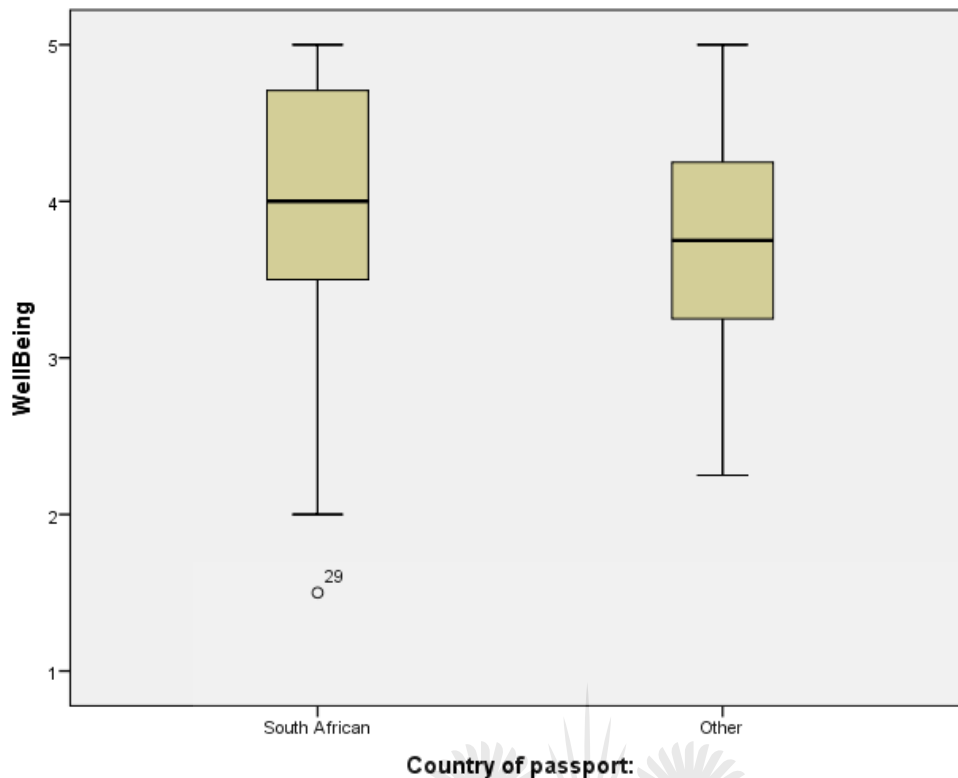
Promotion potential being the only variable were both groups score p-values higher than 0.05 indicating normal distribution. The South African group scores between minimum 1 to maximum 5, the median being 3.2. The other nationalities score between minimum 1 to maximum 4.6, the median being 2.8. The normal distribution and p-values show that both groups feel the same regarding promotional potential in their work place. Although this variable is normally distributed the research will apply the parametric test for the comparisons.



The South African group scores between minimum 1 to maximum 5, the median being 4. The other nationalities score between minimum 1 to maximum 5, the median being 3.333. The boxplot shows a negative skewed result for the South African group who are substantially more satisfied in their work relations than the group of other nationalities. Confirming the difficulties migrants experience regarding their acceptance and integration into the workplace as found in this research (Mosala, 2008)



The South African group scores between minimum 1.2 to maximum 5, the median being 3.9. Although it shows some outliers, the boxplot shows for both groups a score indicating relative satisfaction regarding Skills work activity. Skills work activity refers in the research to the job knowledge of the temporary employees and the actual work they perform at the venues they work for (user enterprises, the client). The response in the questionnaires was as such interpreted by the participants of the survey. During further questioning and the general perception uncovered by the research shows that the skills levels of the temporary employees is not in question or addressed by the client. The client presumes that the employees sent to them is able to perform the required duties. The above statistics confirm that the employees are performing duties well in their scope of knowledge, experience and capabilities. The research however concluded that neither the agency, nor the client, are really interested in the actual capabilities of the employees. The agency wants to satisfy the low skills needed for the clients at a relative low cost, which they then recover by paying the employees lower wages. The client wants temporary employees who can perform low skilled jobs at a low cost and without being held accountable for anything else than to pay the agency.



The South African group scores between minimum 1.5 to maximum 5, the median being 4. The other nationalities score between minimum 2.250 to maximum 5. The median being 3.750. The South African group is, despite a number of outliers, satisfied regarding their wellbeing. The group of other nationalities are reasonable satisfied about their wellbeing. The research, however, found during the survey process and questioning that the group of nationalities are in general happy because they come from countries where there are no opportunities, and in general poor living conditions exist.

Normality test results: Question no. 38 Do you feel the current economic crisis is the reason you cannot find permanent employment?

The tests of Normality tables will indicate a column df which is the Degree of freedom score. The Sig. which means Significant is the p-value. If the p-value is less than 0.05 it is not normally distributed, where it is more than 0.05 it indicates normal distribution. Not normally distributed on the table is highlighted in **red**, while normal distribution is highlighted in **blue**. The Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was used for the group answering “**yes**” because it was more than 50 people while the Shapiro-Wilk test was used for the other group answering “**no**” because it was less than 50. In the

group answering “**yes**” half the p-values were more than 0.05 (normally distributed) while the other half scored p-values less than 0.05 (not normally distributed). In the group answering “**no**” also half the p-values were more than 0.05 (normally distributed) while the other half scored p-values less than 0.05.

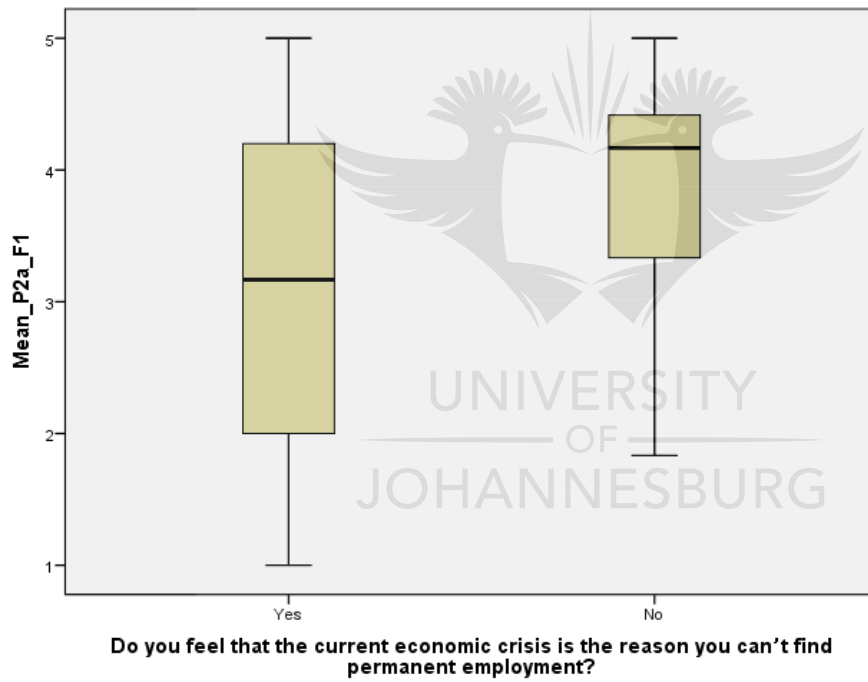
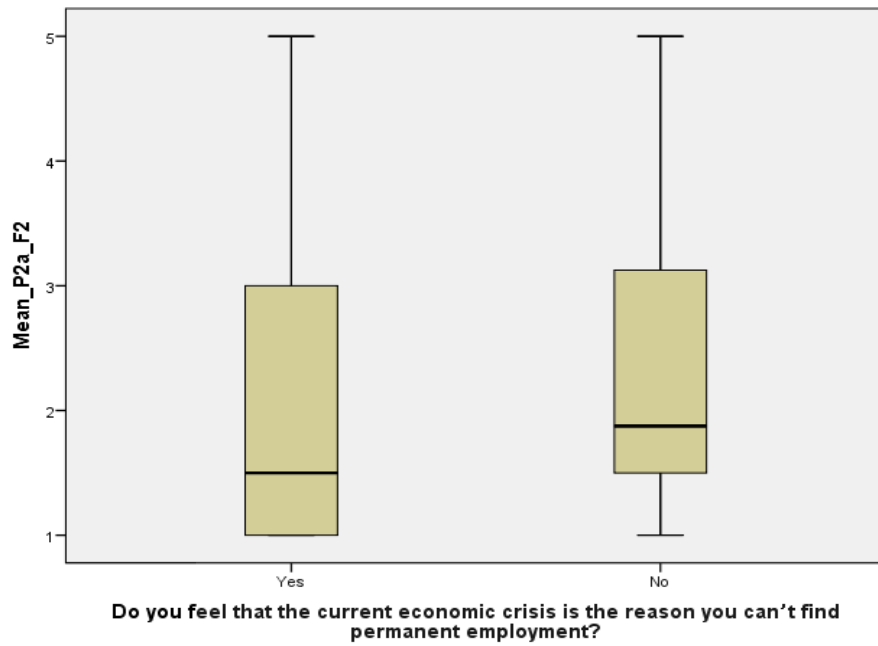
Tests of Normality
a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

Q38	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic ^c	df	Sig.
Mean_P2a_ Yes	.167	85	.000	.916	85	.000
F1						
Transport No prov.	.182	44	.001	.905	44	.002
Mean_P2a_ Yes	.218	85	.000	.835	85	.000
F2						
Facilities No	.210	44	.000	.847	44	.000
Mean_P2b_ Yes	.111	84	.013	.952	84	.003
F1						
Respect No	.154	43	.012	.926	43	.008
GenWorkCo Yes	.111	82	.015	.964	82	.022
nd						
No	.116	43	.168	.967	43	.239
PromotionPo Yes	.091	81	.091	.981	81	.286
t						
No	.204	42	.000	.886	42	.001
WorkRelatio Yes	.142	79	.000	.948	79	.003
ns						
No	.286	42	.000	.836	42	.000
SkillsWorkAc Yes	.118	79	.008	.974	79	.113
tiv						

	No	.118	42	.157	.927	42	.010
WellBeing	Yes	.153	80	.000	.932	80	.000
	No	.115	43	.182	.921	43	.006

“Yes” scores minimum 1 to maximum 5, the median being 3.167. “No” scores minimum 1.833 to maximum 4.167.

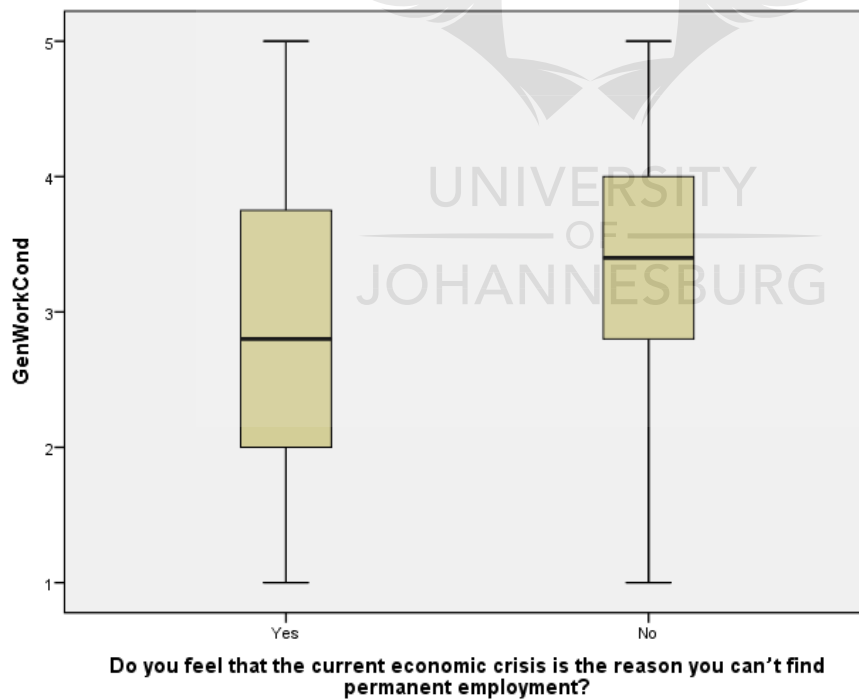




“Yes” scores minimum 1 to maximum 5, the median being 1.5. “No” scores minimum 1 to maximum 5, the median being 1.875.



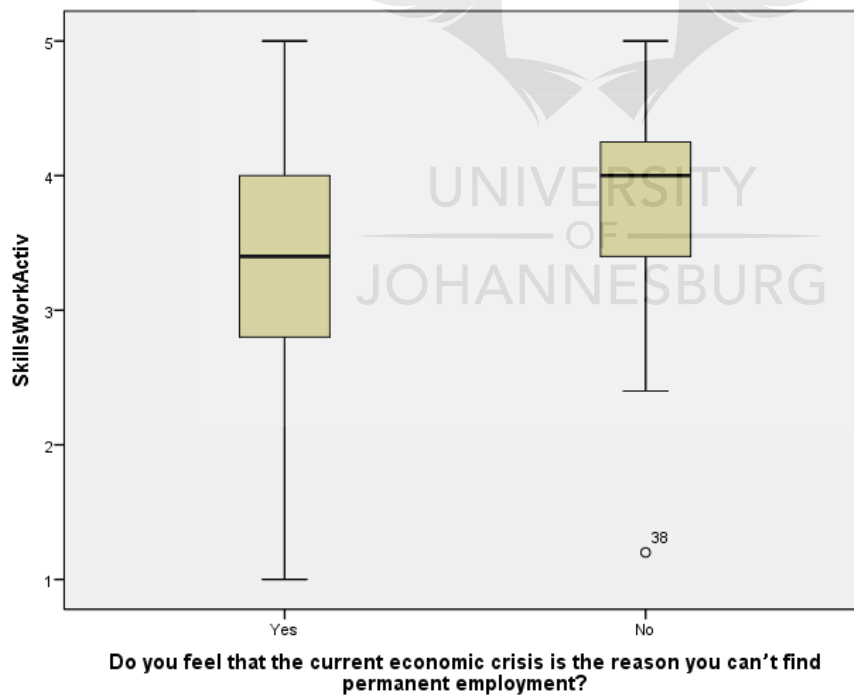
“Yes” scores minimum 1 to maximum 5, the median being 2.817. “No” scores minimum 1 to maximum 5, the median being 4.



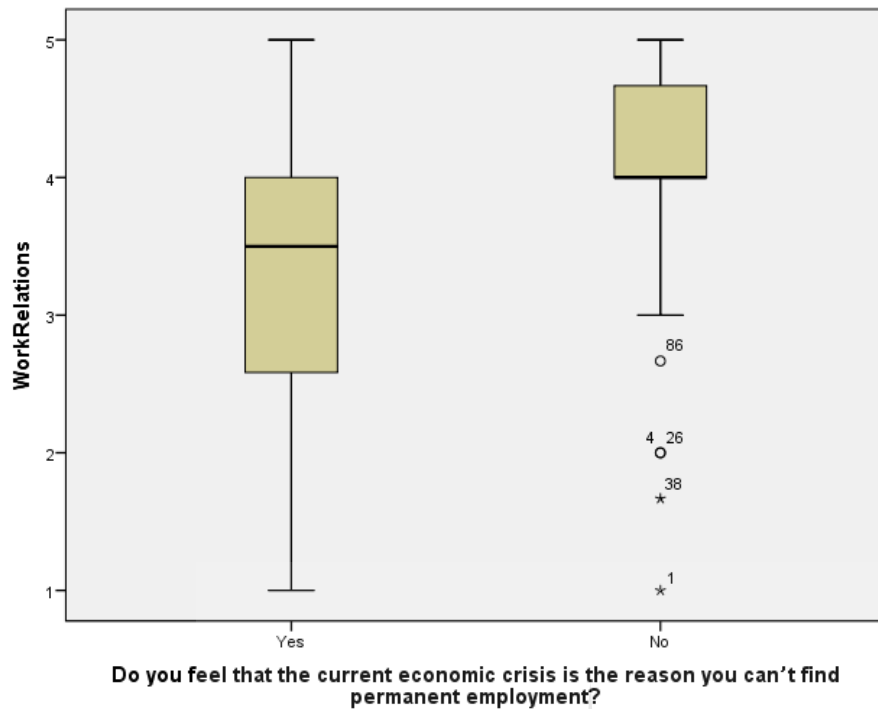
“Yes” scores minimum 1 to maximum 5, the median being 2.8. “No” scores minimum 1 to maximum 5, the median being 3.4



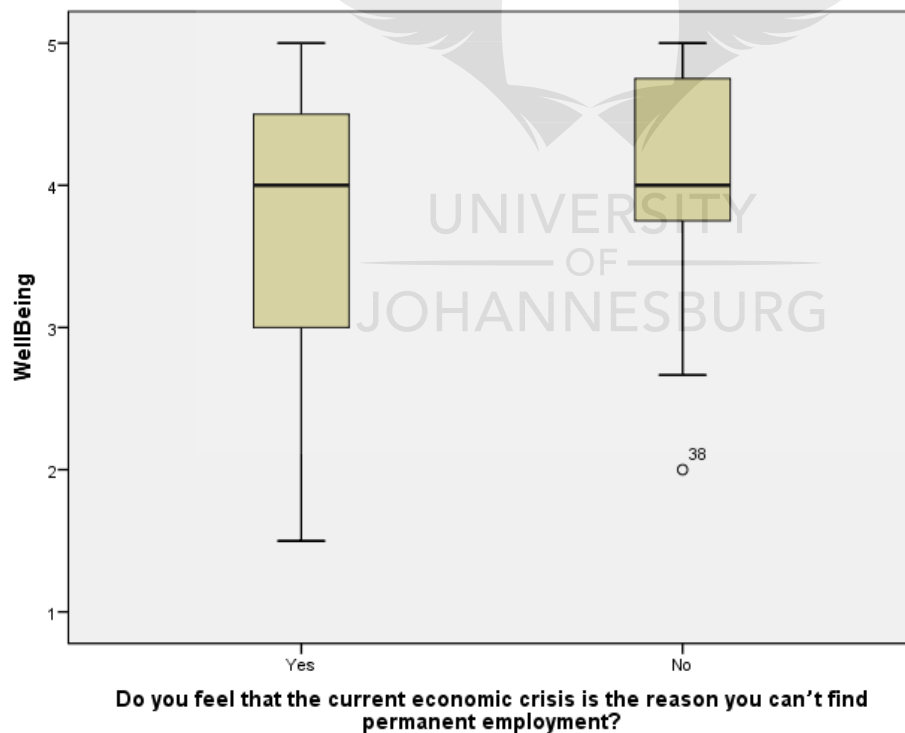
“Yes” scores minimum 1 to maximum 5, the median being 2.8. “No” scores minimum 1 to maximum 5, the median being 3.8.



“Yes” scores minimum 1 to 5, the median being 3.4. “No” scores minimum 1.2 to maximum 5, the median being 4.



“Yes” scores minimum 1 to 5, the median being 3.5. “No” scores minimum 1 to maximum 5, the median being 4.



“Yes” scores minimum 1.5 to maximum 5, the median being 4. “No” scores minimum 2 to maximum 5, the median being 4.

The descriptives indicate that all variables have a majority “Yes” score which indicates that the majority of respondents feel that the below listed issues are influenced by the economic crisis, resulting in temporary employees not being able to find permanent employment. In relation to “No” scores only the wellbeing variable indicates that both “Yes” and “No” responses feel the same.

- transport provided,
- availability of facilities,
- respect and treatment,
- general working conditions,
- promotional potential,
- work relations,
- skills work activity
- wellbeing

Normality tests results Question no. 39 Have you ever received an offer of permanent employment while working for an agency in South Africa ?

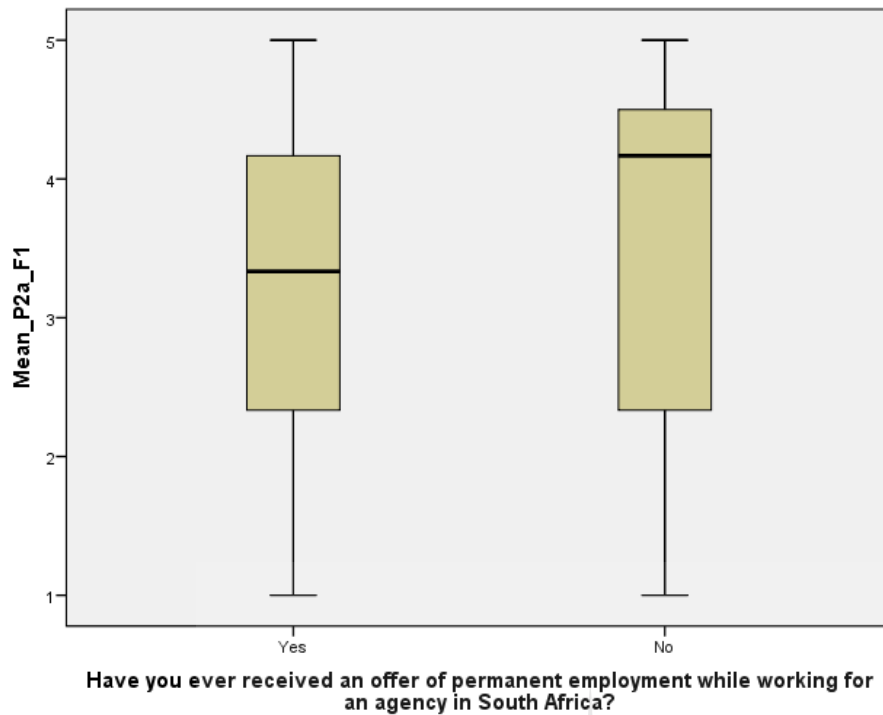
The tests of Normality tables will indicate a column df which is the Degree of freedom score. The Sig. which means Significant is the p-value. If the p-value is less than 0.05 it is not normally distributed, where it is more than 0.05 it indicates normal distribution. Not normally distributed on the table is highlighted in **red**, while normal distribution is highlighted in **blue**. The Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was used for both groups because both had more than 50 people answering. In the group answering “**yes**” 6 of the p-values were less than 0.05 (not normal distribution) while 3 p-values were more than 0.05 (normal distribution). In the group answering “**no**” 5 of the p-values were over 0.05 (normal distribution) while 3 p-values were less than 0.05 (not normal distribution).

Tests of Normality

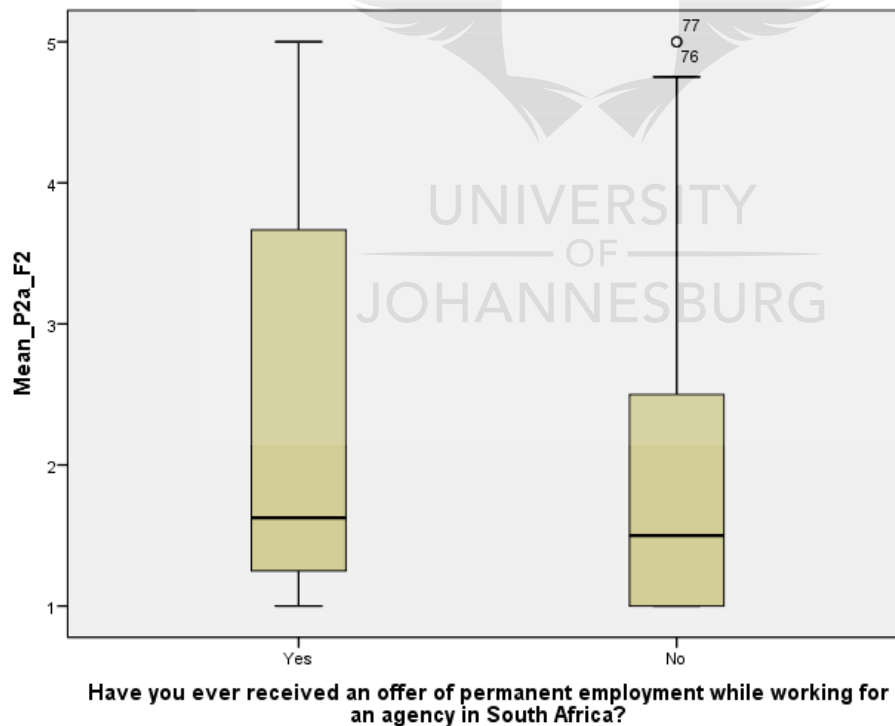
Q39	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Mean_P2a_F Yes 1	.134	54	.017	.949	54	.023

	No	.227	77	.000	.875	77	.000
Mean_P2a_F	Yes	.244	54	.000	.843	54	.000
2	No	.193	77	.000	.834	77	.000
Mean_P2b_F	Yes	.127	52	.036	.938	52	.010
1	No	.110	77	.021	.949	77	.004
GenWorkCon	Yes	.126	53	.036	.939	53	.010
d	No	.100	75	.063	.983	75	.401
PromotionPot	Yes	.130	53	.026	.963	53	.103
	No	.094	73	.181	.966	73	.045
WorkRelation	Yes	.189	53	.000	.928	53	.003
s	No	.176	72	.000	.922	72	.000
SkillsWorkAc	Yes	.119	53	.058	.962	53	.094
tiv	No	.145	72	.001	.954	72	.010
WellBeing	Yes	.156	53	.003	.873	53	.000
	No	.132	73	.003	.959	73	.018

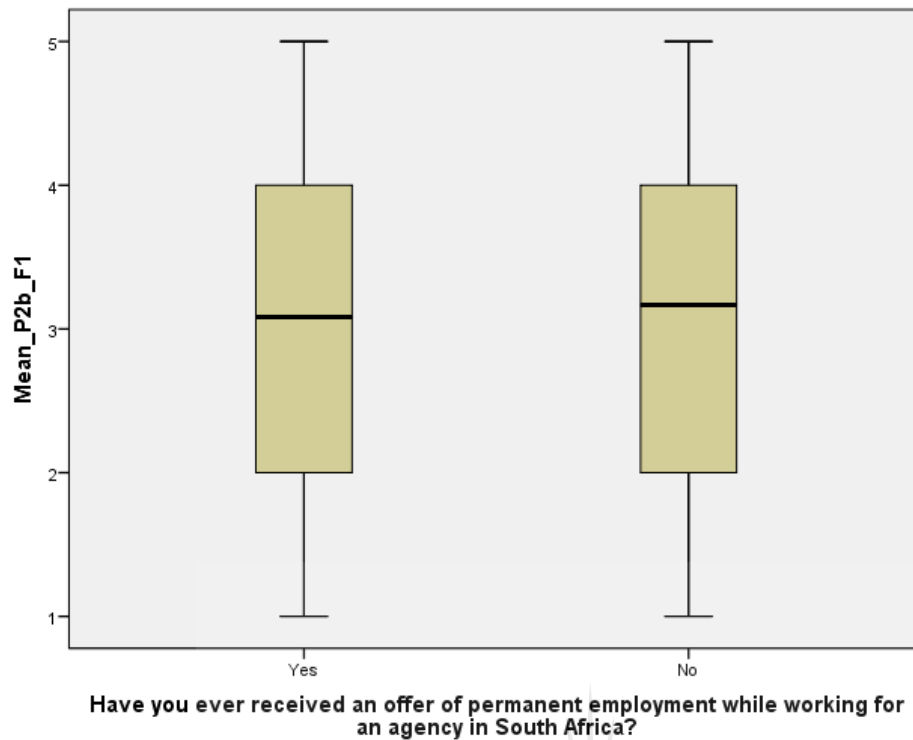
a. Lilliefors Significance Correction



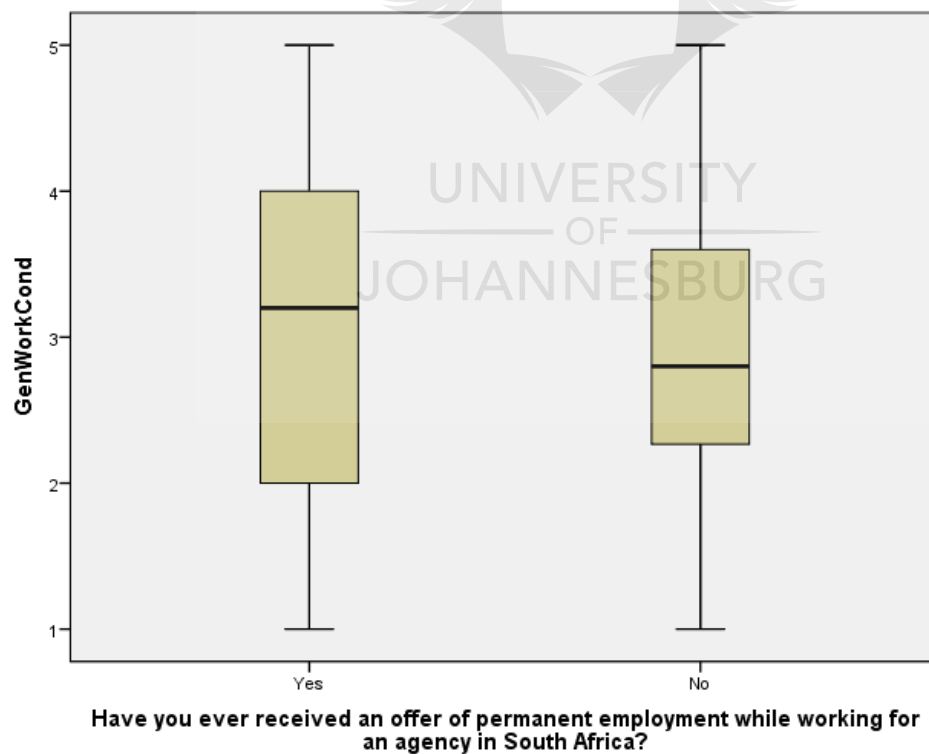
“Yes” scores minimum 1 to maximum 5, the median being 3.333. “No” scores minimum 1 to maximum 5, the median being 4.167



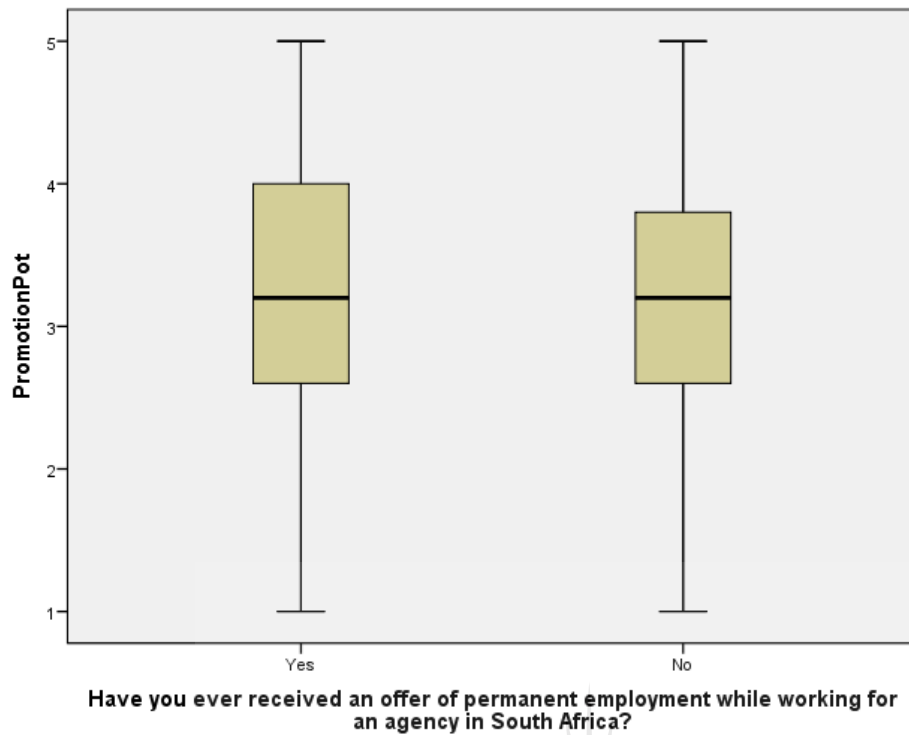
“Yes” scores minimum 1 to maximum 5, the median being 1.625. “No” scores minimum 1 to maximum 5, the median being 1.5.



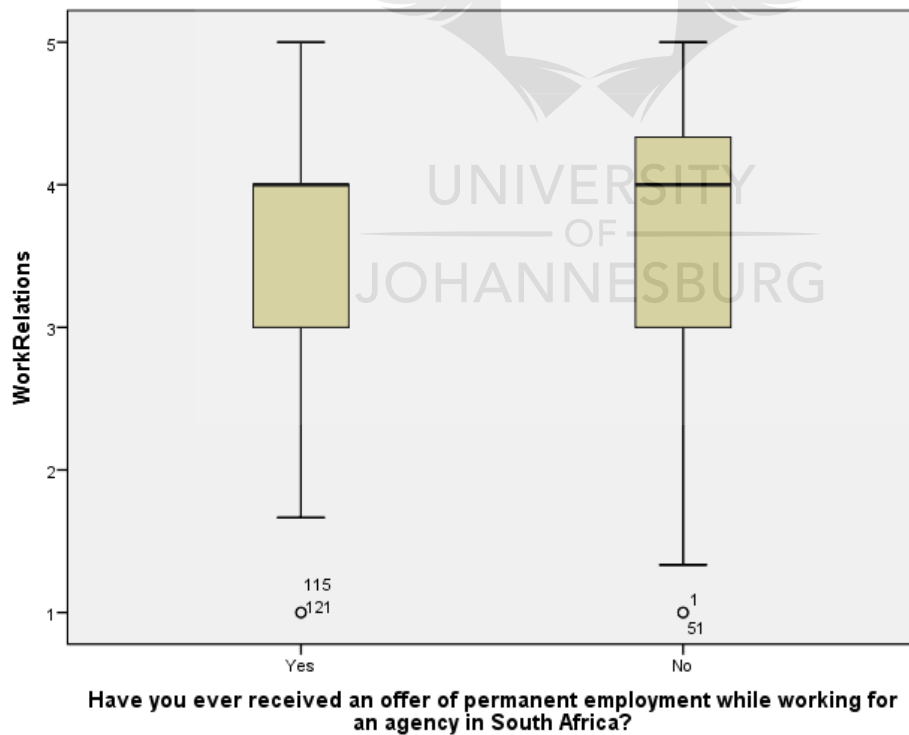
“Yes” scores minimum 1 to maximum 5, the median being 3.083. “No” scores minimum 1 to maximum 5, the median being 3.167.



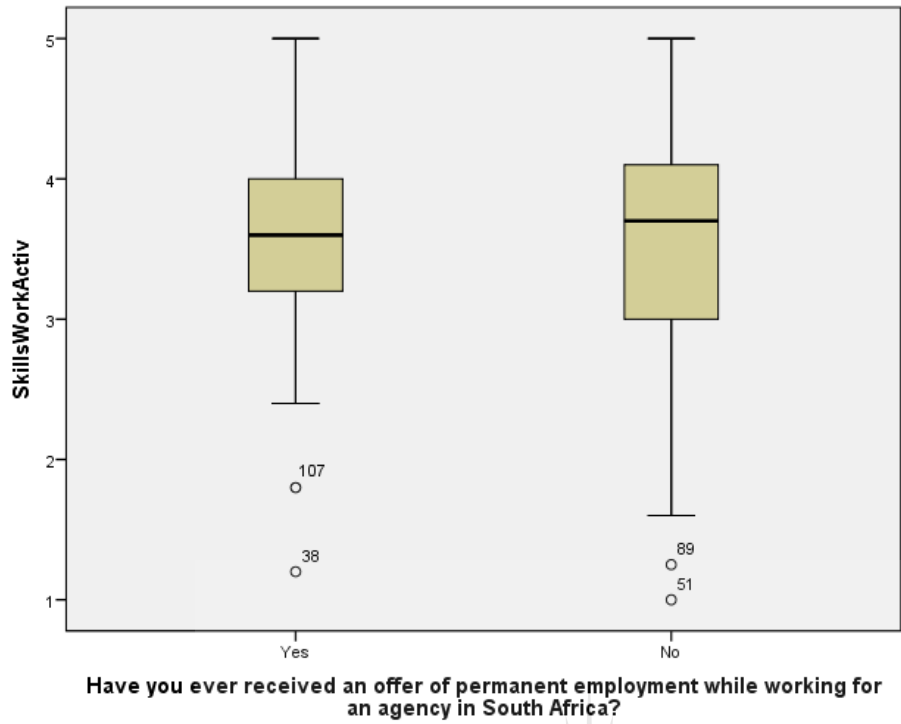
“Yes” scores minimum 1 to maximum 5, the median being 3.2. “No” scores minimum 1 to maximum 5, the median being 2.8.



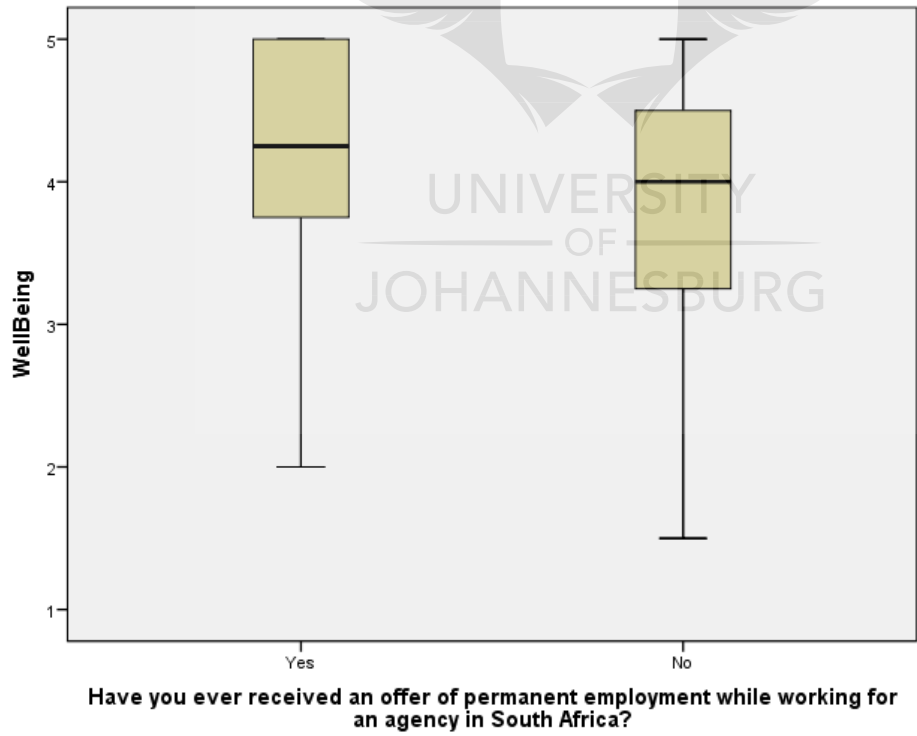
“Yes” scores minimum 1 to maximum 5, the median being 3.2. “No” scores minimum 1 to maximum 5, the median being 3.2.



“Yes” scores minimum 1 to maximum 5, the median being 4. “No” scores minimum 1 to maximum 5, the median being 4.



“Yes” scores minimum 1.2 to maximum 5, the median being 3.6. “No” scores minimum 1 to maximum 5, the median being 3.7.



“Yes” scores minimum 2 to maximum 5, the median being 4.250. “No” scores minimum 1.5 to maximum 5, the median being 4.

Normality Tests results Question no. 43 Do you see a future in this industry ?

The tests of Normality tables will indicate a column df which is the Degree of freedom score. The Sig. which means Significant is the p-value. If the p-value is less than 0.05 it is not normally distributed, where it is more than 0.05 it indicates normal distribution. Not normally distributed on the table is highlighted in **red**, while normal distribution is highlighted in **blue**. The Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was used for the group answering “**yes**” because it was more than 50 people while the Shapiro-Wilk test was used for the other group answering “**no**” because it was less than 50. In the group answering “**yes**” 6 of the p-values were less than 0.05 (not normally distributed) and 2 p-values were more than 0.05 (normally distributed) while the other group answering “**no**” 6 of the p-values were more than 0.05 (normally distributed) and 2 p-values were less than 0.05 (not normally distributed).

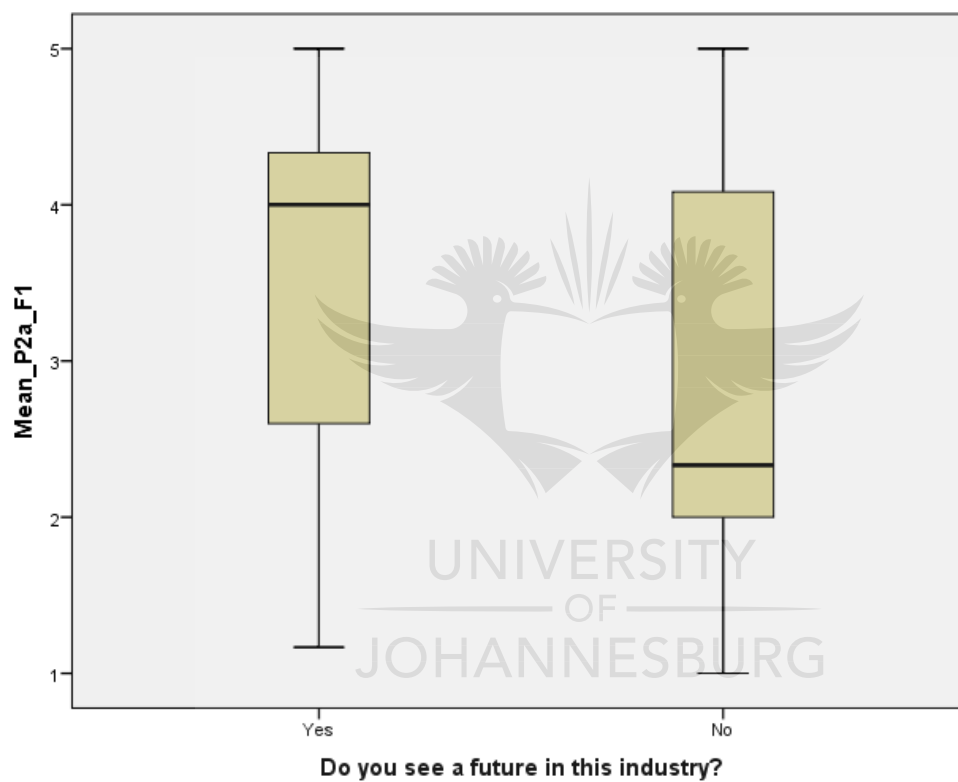
Tests of Normality

Q43	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Mean_P2a_F Yes 1	.196	94	.000	.894	94	.000
	No	.200	39	.000	.914	39
Mean_P2a_F Yes 2	.236	94	.000	.828	94	.000
	No	.160	39	.013	.872	39
Mean_P2b_F Yes 1	.114	93	.004	.957	93	.004
	No	.131	38	.095	.902	38
GenWorkCon Yes d	.109	91	.009	.967	91	.020
	No	.152	38	.028	.926	38
PromotionPot Yes	.102	90	.022	.974	90	.073
	No	.135	37	.085	.964	37
WorkRelation Yes s	.211	88	.000	.903	88	.000
	No	.093	37	.200*	.949	37

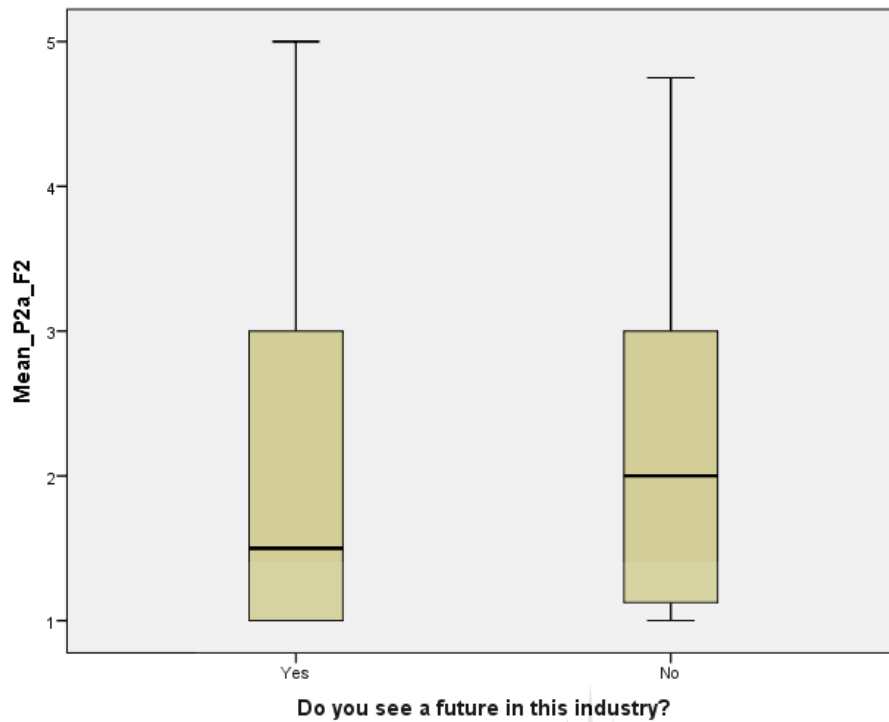
SkillsWorkAc	Yes	.124	88	.002	.963	88	.012
	No	.097	37	.200*	.971	37	.430
WellBeing	Yes	.148	89	.000	.922	89	.000
	No	.118	38	.200*	.936	38	.032

*. This is a lower bound of the true significance.

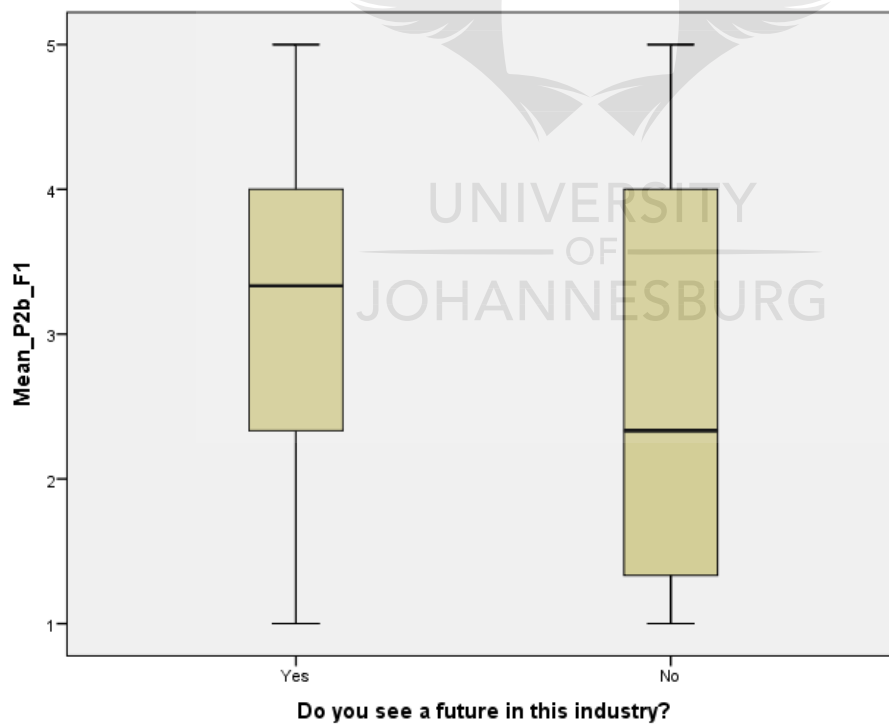
a. Lilliefors Significance Correction



“Yes” scores minimum 1.167 to maximum 5, the median being 4. “No” scores minimum 1 to maximum 5, the median being 2.333.



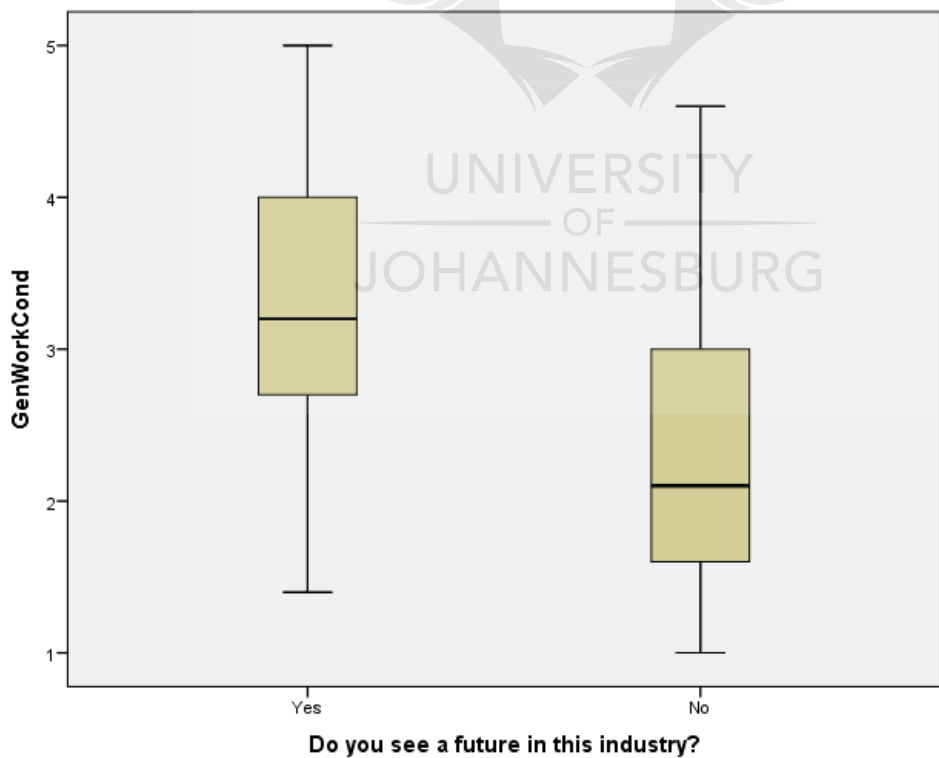
“Yes” scores minimum 1 to maximum 5, the median being 1.5. “No” scores minimum 1 to maximum 4.750, the median being 2.



“Yes” scores minimum 1 to maximum 5, the median being 3.333. “No” scores minimum 1 to maximum 5, the median being 2.333.



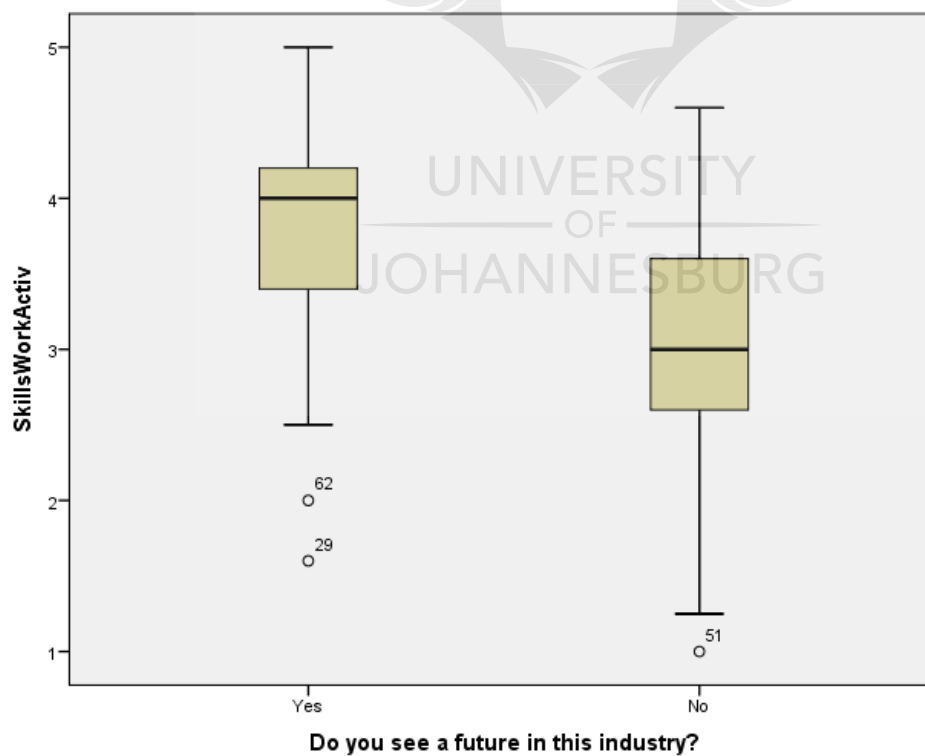
“Yes” scores minimum 1.2 to maximum 5, the median being 3.5. “No” scores minimum 1 to maximum 4.4, the median being 2.8.



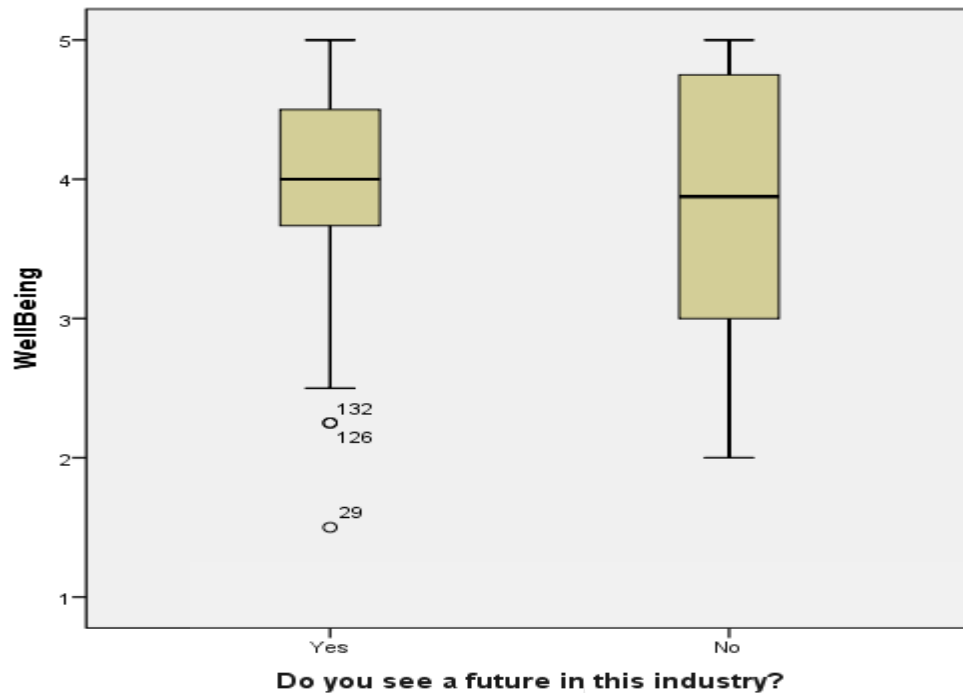
“Yes” scores minimum 1.4 to 5, the median being 3.2. “No” scores minimum 1 to maximum 4.6, the median being 2.1.



“Yes” scores minimum 1 to maximum 5, the median being 4. “No’ scores minimum 1 to maximum 4.6, the median being 3.



“Yes’ scores minimum 1.6 to maximum 5, the median being 4. “No” score minimum 1 to maximum 4.6, the median being 3.



“Yes” scores minimum 1.5 to maximum 5, the median being 4. “No” scores minimum 2 to maximum 5, the median being 3.875.

Normality Tests results Question no. 13 How long have you employed with the agency you currently work for ?

The tests of Normality tables will indicate a column df which is the Degree of freedom score. The Sig. which means Significant is the p-value. If the p-value is less than 0.05 it is not normally distributed, where it is more than 0.05 it indicates normal distribution. Not normally distributed on the table is highlighted in **red**, while normal distribution is highlighted in **blue**. In order to make the group similar in size for comparisons, the original group of 5 – 10 years and the group more than 10 years (consisting of 9 – 18 respondents) were made into one group “more than 5 years”. That is why the r in front of question 13 is an indication that the question had been recoded. (r13). The first group of less than 1 year is tested using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov (more than 50 respondents) and the other three groups using the Shapiro-Wilk test (less than 50 respondents). In the **first** group “less than 1 year”, 3 of the p-values were less than 0.05 (not normally distributed) and 4 of the p-values were more than 0.05 (normally distributed) while the last measure “well-being” was tested using the Shapiro-Wilk test. The group was smaller than 50. In the **second** group “1 to 2 years”, 5 of the p-values were more than 0.05 (normally distributed) and 3 of the

p-values were less than 0.05 (not normally distributed). In the **third** group “2 to 5 years”, the p-values were more than 0.05 (normally distributed) except for the “Mean P2a-F2” which was less than 0.05 (not normally distributed). In the **fourth** group “more than 5 years”, 6 of the p-values were more than 0.05 (normally distributed) while 2 p-values were less than 0.05 (not normally distributed). Although the table below shows that just over half of the variables are not normally distributed, some groups were normally distributed. The groups are however quite small in number of participants (df) which is fine for statistical testing, therefore the research will use nonparametric tests as well.

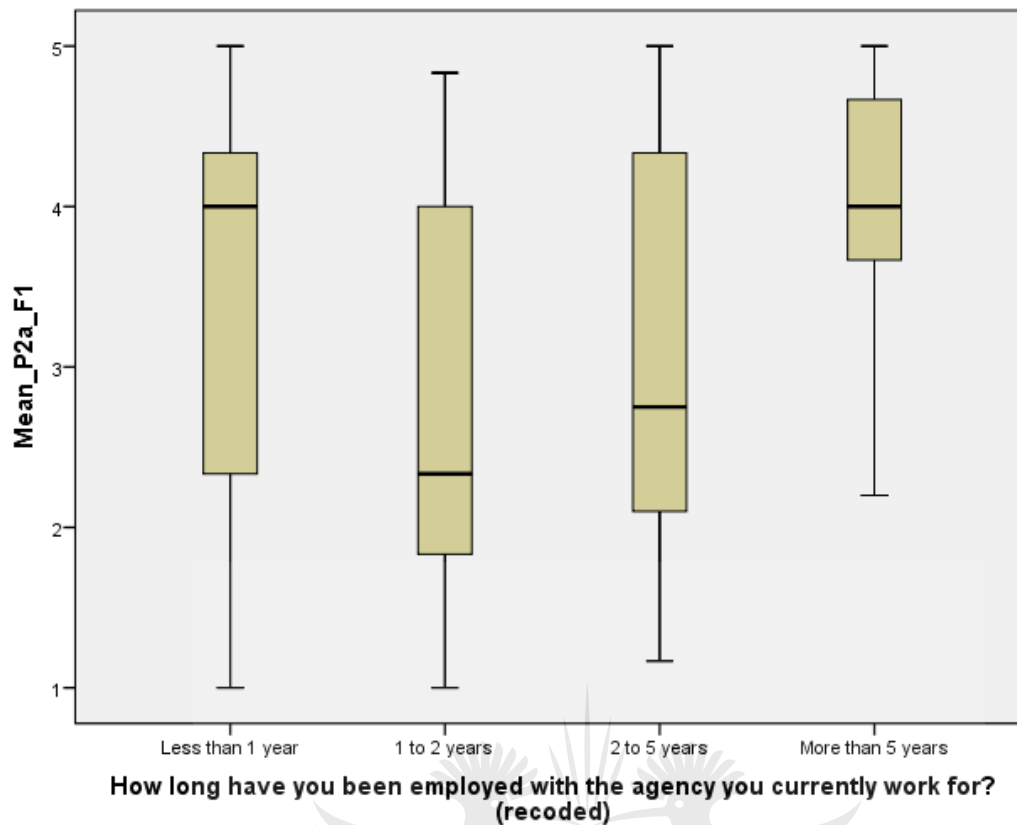
Tests of Normality

rQ13	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk			
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.	
1 Mean_P2a_F	Less than 1 year	.198	54	.000	.912	54	.001
	1 to 2 years	.182	37	.003	.899	37	.003
	2 to 5 years	.173	32	.016	.918	32	.018
	More than 5 years	.138	26	.200*	.921	26	.048
2 Mean_P2a_F	Less than 1 year	.219	54	.000	.841	54	.000
	1 to 2 years	.206	37	.000	.883	37	.001
	2 to 5 years	.175	32	.014	.863	32	.001
	More than 5 years	.304	26	.000	.711	26	.000
1 Mean_P2b_F	Less than 1 year	.142	52	.010	.935	52	.007
	1 to 2 years	.187	35	.003	.905	35	.006
	2 to 5 years	.126	32	.200*	.952	32	.164
	More than 5 years	.136	26	.200*	.970	26	.627
GenWorkCon	Less than 1 year	.114	50	.107	.972	50	.285

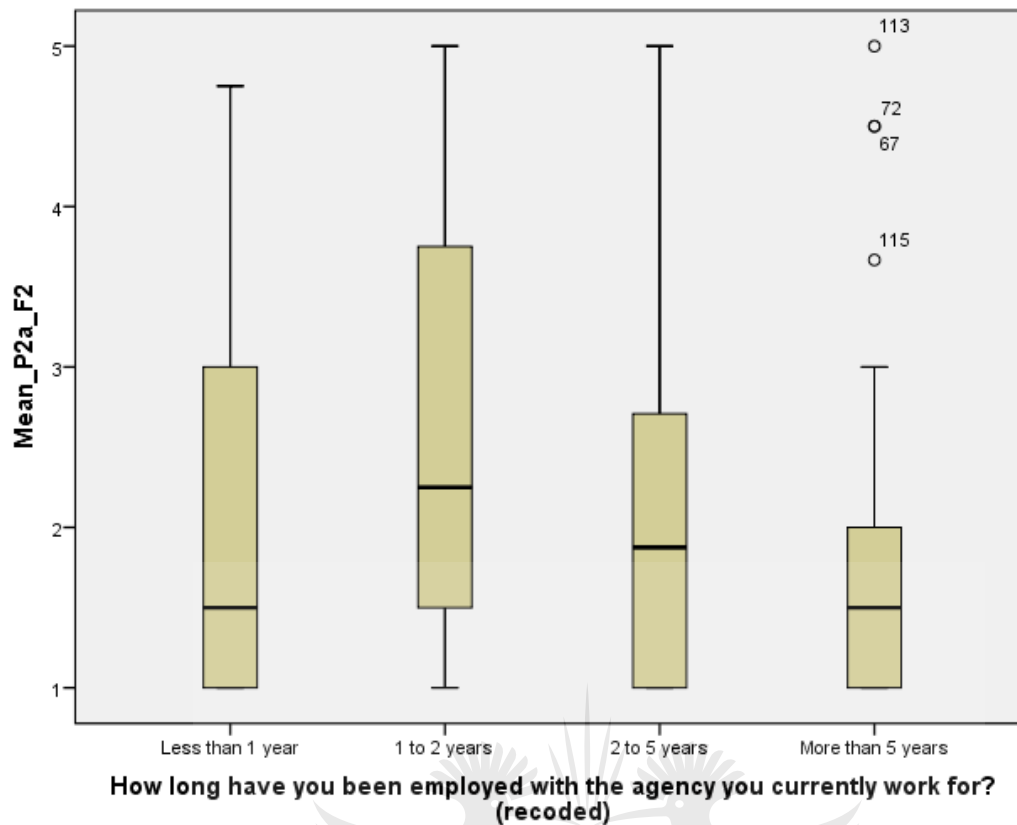
d							
	1 to 2 years	.115	36	.200*	.958	36	.192
	2 to 5 years	.171	30	.026	.938	30	.078
	More than 5 years	.102	25	.200*	.939	25	.141
PromotionPot	Less than 1 year	.096	50	.200*	.979	50	.512
	1 to 2 years	.104	35	.200*	.964	35	.295
	2 to 5 years	.126	30	.200*	.962	30	.356
	More than 5 years	.123	24	.200*	.946	24	.225
WorkRelation	Less than 1 year	.163	50	.002	.927	50	.004
s	1 to 2 years	.207	34	.001	.894	34	.003
	2 to 5 years	.175	30	.019	.939	30	.088
	More than 5 years	.174	24	.058	.885	24	.010
SkillsWorkAc	Less than 1 year	.109	50	.187	.968	50	.198
tiv	1 to 2 years	.150	34	.051	.904	34	.006
	2 to 5 years	.192	30	.006	.932	30	.054
	More than 5 years	.185	24	.034	.928	24	.089
WellBeing	Less than 1 year	.125	49	.053	.936	49	.010
	1 to 2 years	.180	35	.006	.936	35	.043
	2 to 5 years	.161	30	.045	.946	30	.131
	More than 5 years	.182	24	.039	.857	24	.003

*. This is a lower bound of the true significance.

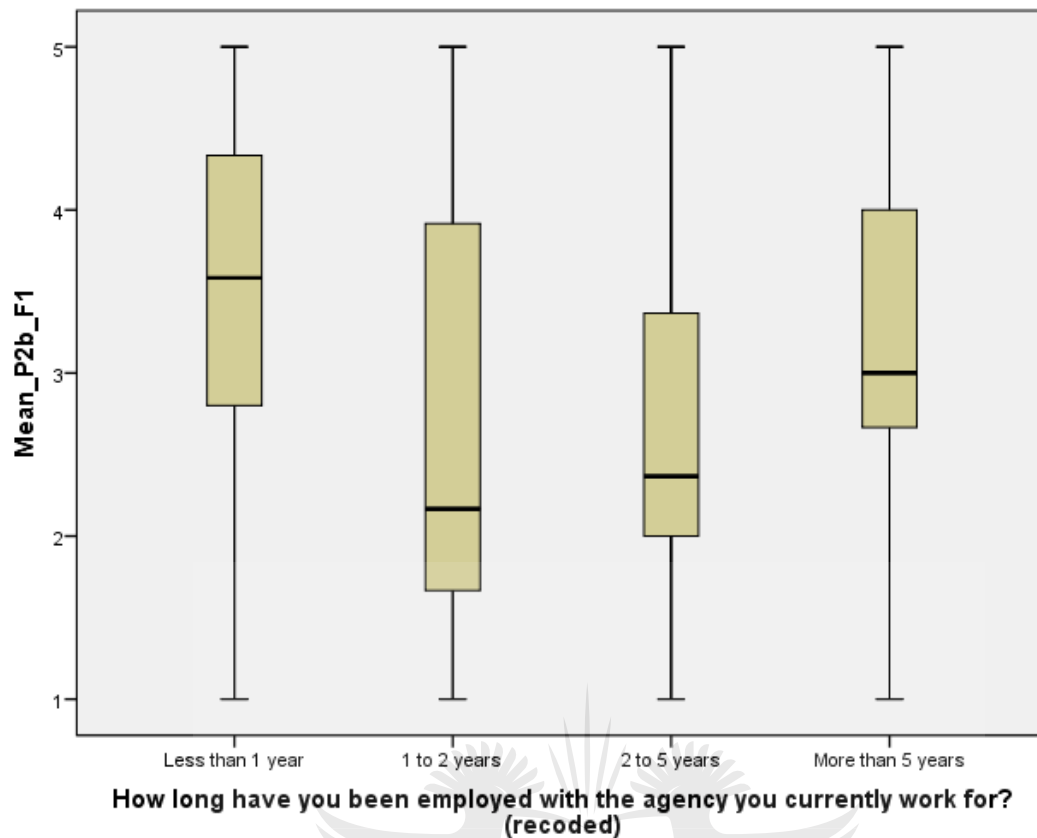
a. Lilliefors Significance
Correction



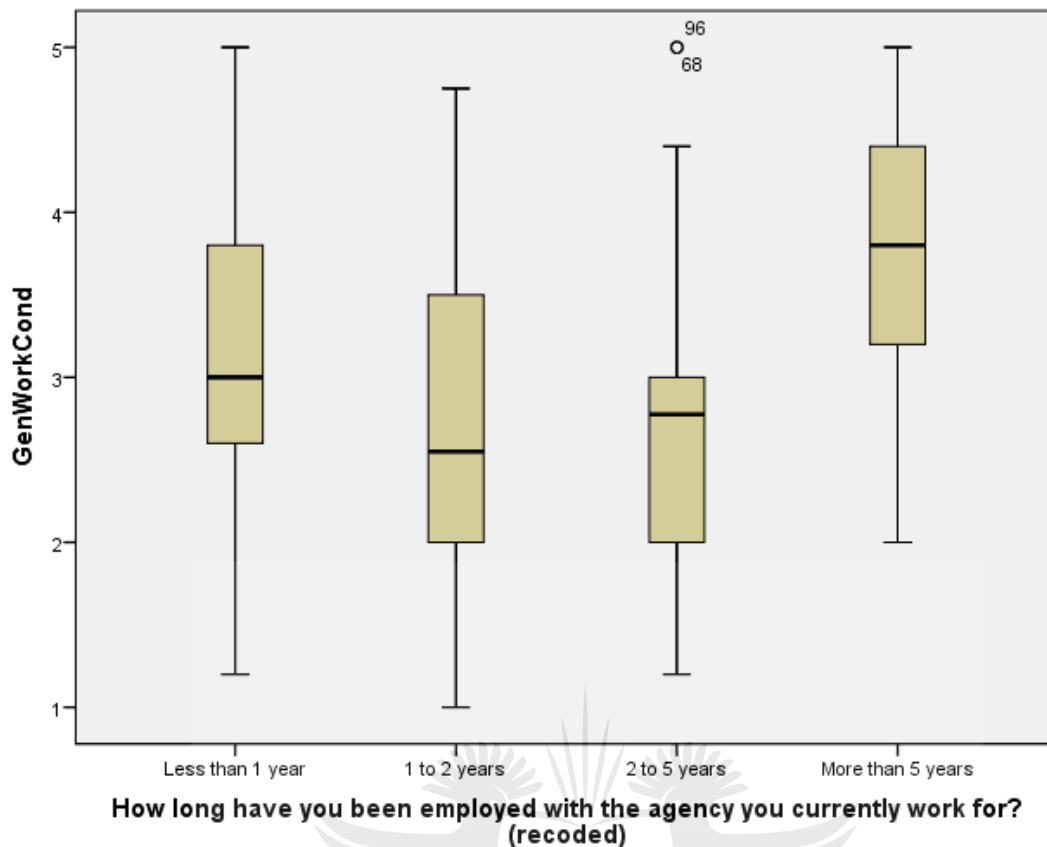
“Less than 1 year” scores minimum 1 to maximum 5, the median being 4. The respondents in this group show that they feel quite good about the availability of transport provided. “1 to 2 years” scores minimum 1 to maximum 4.833, the median being 2.333. “2 to 5 years” scores minimum 1.167 to 5, the median being 2.750. The respondents of both groups had a percentage not being happy with the transport arrangements although the majority feels content. “More than 5 years” scores minimum 2.2 to maximum 5, the median being 4. The histograms a negative skewed result therefor the respondents in this group feel good about transport provided.



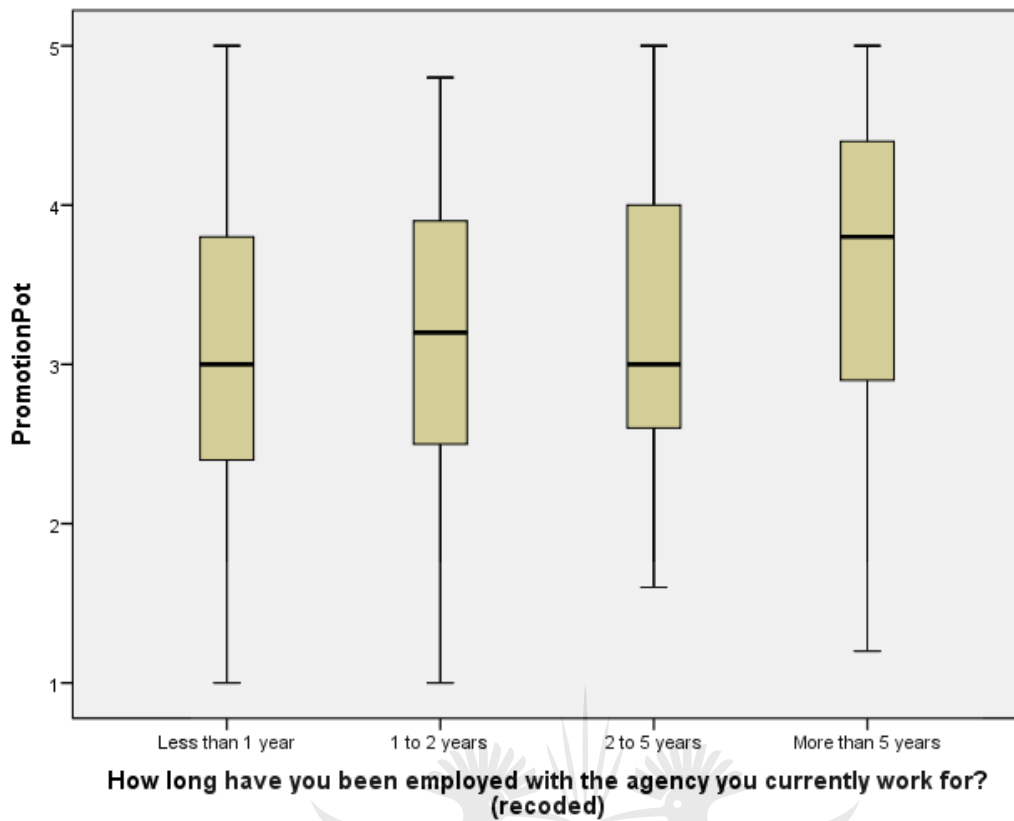
“Less than 1 year” scores minimum 1 to maximum 4.750, the median being 1.5.”
 “1 to 2 years” scores minimum 1 to maximum 5, the median being 2.250.
 “2 to 5 years” scores minimum 1 to maximum 5, the median being 1.875.
 “More than 5 years” scores minimum 1 to maximum 5, the median being 1.5. Apart from a couple of outliers, all results are all positively skewed, indicating that regardless length of service all respondents are unhappy with the facilities provided at the venues they work for.



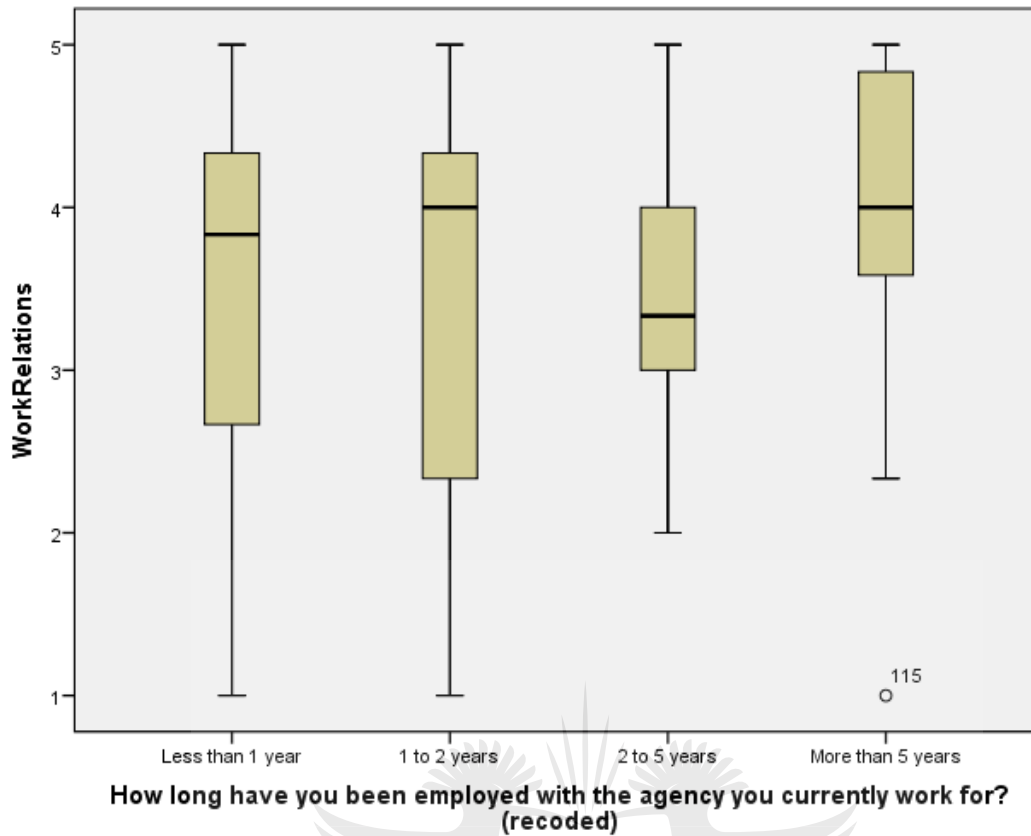
“Less than 1 year” scores minimum 1 to maximum 5, the median being 3.583. “1 to 2 years” scores minimum 1 to maximum 5, the median being 2.167. “2 to 5 years” scores minimum 1 to maximum 5, the median being 2.367. “More than 5 years” scores minimum 1 to maximum 5, the median being 3. All results show that the majority of the respondents are being quite happy with the respect they receive.



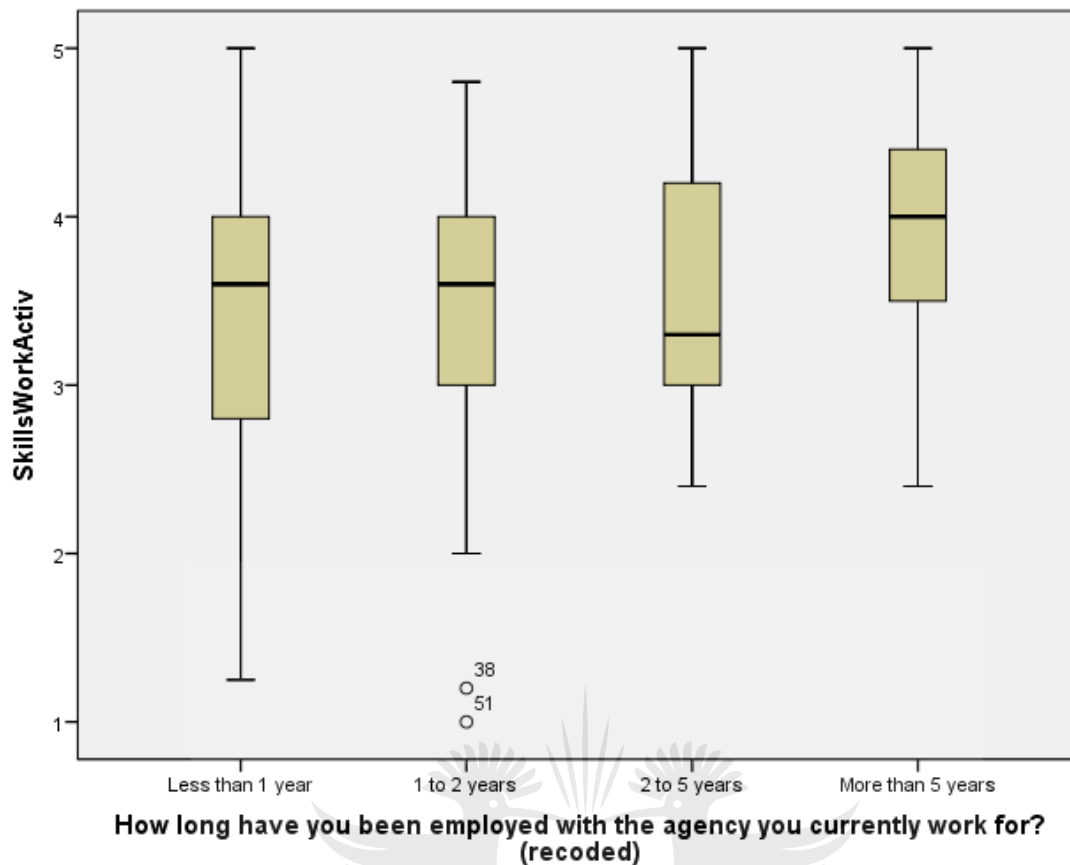
“Less than 1 year” scores minimum 1.2 to maximum 5, the median being 3. “1 to 2 years“ scores minimum 1 to maximum 4.750, the median being 2.550. “2 to 5 years” scores minimum 1.2 to maximum 5, the median being 2.775. “More than 5 years” score minimum 2 to maximum 5, the median being 3.8. The Less than 1 year up to 5 years of employment seem reasonable happy about their working conditions. The stats show that employees longer employed than 5 years are happy and content with their working conditions. The research found that a longer length of service leads to contentment a feeling of satisfaction and comfort regarding working conditions.



“Less than 1 year” scores minimum 1 to maximum 5, the median being 3. “1 to 2 years” scores minimum 1 to maximum 4.8, the median being 3.2 “2 to 5 years” scores minimum 1.6 to maximum 5, the median being 3. “More than 5 years” scores minimum 1.2 to 5, the median being 3.8. The stats show that the longer the service the greater “the perception” that promotional opportunities arise. The actual promotional potential is probably limited to being given more responsibility rather than a monetary reward. During interviews when collecting questionnaires there was nobody actually promoted.



“Less than 1 year” scores minimum 1 to maximum 5, the median being 3.833.
 “1 to 2 years” scores minimum 1 to maximum 5, the median being 4.
 “2 to 5 years” scores minimum 2 to maximum 5, the median being 3.333.
 “More than 5 years” scores minimum 1 to maximum 5, the median being 4. The results are in general negatively skewed indicating that the respondents are in overall feeling good about their work relationships.



“Less than 1 year” scores minimum 1.250 to 5, the median 3.6.

“1 to 2 years” scores minimum 1 to maximum 4.8, the median being 3.6.

“2 to 5 years” scores minimum 2.4 to maximum 5, the median being 3.3.

“More than 5 years” scores minimum 2.4 to maximum 5, the median being 4.

The results are in general are consistent negatively skewed indicating that the respondents are feeling good about the task they perform in accordance with their skill, knowledge and experience levels. The boxplot shows again the longer the length of service the stronger that perception is positively felt.



“Less than 1 year” scores minimum 1.5 to maximum 5, the median being 4.
 “1 to 2 years” scores minimum 2 to maximum 5, the median being 4.
 “2 to 5 years” scores minimum 2.667 to maximum 5, the median being 4.
 “More than 5 years” scores minimum 2.5 to maximum 5, the median being 4.5. The results are negatively skewed indicating that in every group of length of service, wellbeing is very positively perceived. In this boxplot, the longer the length of service, the greater more positive perception of wellbeing is perceived.

Normality, and Comparisons, in sequence.

Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test

Shapiro-Wilk Test



More than 50 people



Less than 50 people



P-values more than 0.05



P-values less than 0.05



Normally distributed



Parametric Tests

Not normally distributed



Nonparametric Tests



Pro-Hoc tests

(Comparisons between groups)



NPar Tests Mann-Whitney Test

Crosstabulation (Q.13)



Correlation (Pearson) and Parametric correlations (Spearman's Rho)

The Mann-Whitney test for Q. 6, 38, 39 and 43 because there were 2 groups we are comparing. Although question 13 has four groups which should then be tested using the NPar Kruskal-Wallis Test, the research actually tests 6 groups of two being, 1 and 2, 1 and 3, 1 and 4, 2 and 3, 3 and 4 and 3 and 4. The research will also use the Mann-Whitney test for Q 13. Although there were a few variables that were normally distributed, most of the variables were not normally distributed resulting in the use of nonparametric tests for the comparisons.

RAGS - Parametric testing does not deal with Outliers, which affects the mean. This means that the mean is calculated with the Outlier making the mean lower. For example, when doing a scale of ages between 20 and 30 and one person is 90, the average will be let say 32, while without the Outlier the average will be 25. The nonparametric test calculates a Mean rank which then is the decision tool to establish whether there is a difference or not.

Comparisons between Groups (Normality tests between the groups to establish and or reconfirm differences with the calculated Mean Rank. The parametric test does not test the differences between means because it is not affected by them. It will calculate a mean Rank, making the tests stricter to see differences. The Rank

will indicate whether there is a difference between the groups or not. In other words, the test takes care of the Outliers which influence the mean.

The **p-values** on the test statistics table will be a bit different. The p-values bigger or equal to 0.05 indicate no differences between groups.

Question 6. Country of Passport / NPar Tests / Mann-WhitneyTest.

Group statistics & Ranks

Question 6	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Median
Mean P2a F1 SA	100	3.61	1.080	84.45	8445.00	4.000
Others	46	2.64	1.063	49.70	2286.00	2.333
Mean p2a F2 SA	100	2.02	1.249	67.91	6790.50	1.500
Others	46	2.40	1.073	85.66	3940.50	2.500
Mean P2b F1 SA	98	3.27	1.109	79.30	7771.50	3.333
Others	44	2.54	1.160	54.13	2381.50	2.250
GenWorkCond SA	96	3.25	1.073	77.74	7463.00	3.000
Others	43	2.58	0.955	52.72	2267.00	2.400
PromotionPot SA	95	3.29	0.982	72.93	6928.00	3.200
Others	42	2.99	0.846	60.12	2525.00	2.800
WorkRelations SA	94	3.70	1.018	73.01	6862.50	4.000
Others	41	3.26	1.071	56.52	2317.50	3.333
SkillsWorkActiv SA	94	3.65	0.860	71.61	6731.50	3.900
Others	41	3.44	0.773	59.72	2448.50	3.600
Well-being SA	95	4.00	0.845	73.29	6962.50	4.000
Others	41	3.72	0.771	57.40	2353.50	3.750

Test

Statistics^a

	Mann-Whitney U	Wilcoxon W	Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
Mean_P2a_F1	1205.000	2286.000	-4.619	.000
Mean_P2a_F2	1740.500	6790.500	-2.395	.017

Mean_P2b_F1	1391.500	2381.500	-3.379	.001
GenWorkCond	1321.000	2267.000	-3.394	.001
PromotionPot	1622.000	2525.000	-1.746	.081
WorkRelations	1456.500	2317.500	-2.272	.023
SkillsWorkActiv	1587.500	2448.500	-1.633	.103
WellBeing	1492.500	2353.500	-2.174	.030

a. Grouping Variable: Q6

The statistics above show no differences between the two groups (SA & others) regarding the availability of Facilities, Promotion potential, Work relationships, Skills Work Activities and Wellbeing. The two groups however indicate differences regarding Transport provided, Respect received and Working conditions in general. The stats show Mean and Median differences indicating that the South African group is between sometimes and often provided with transport, while the other nationalities feel that they are rarely to never given transport. The same significant differences and feelings are regarding Respect & Treatment and the closely related and supporting General Working Conditions experienced.

Question 38. Do you feel that the current economic crisis is a reason that you can't find permanent employment ?

Group statistics & ranks

Question 38	N	Mean	Std Deviation	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Median	
Mean P2a F1	yes	85	3.13	1.190	57.30	4870.50	3.167
	no	44	3.85	0.911	79.88	3514.50	4.167
Mean P2a F2	yes	85	2.16	1.259	62.90	5346.50	1.500
	no	44	2.28	1.250	69.06	3038.50	1.875
Mean P2b F1	yes	84	2.84	1.154	56.23	4723.00	2.817
	no	43	3.59	1.123	79.19	3405.00	4.000
GenWorkCond	yes	82	2.87	1.062	57.16	4687.50	2.800
		43	3.34	1.013	74.13	3187.50	3.400
PromotionPot	yes	81	2.99	0.931	54.64	4425.50	2.800
	no	42	3.51	0.940	76.20	3200.50	3.800
WorkRelations	yes	79	3.34	1.052	52.44	4142.50	3.500

	no	42	4.00	0.977	77.11	3238.50	4.000
SkillsWork Activ	yes	79	3.36	0.837	53.53	4228.50	3.400
	no	42	3.86	0.764	75.06	3152.50	4.000
Wellbeing	yes	80	3.85	0.910	58.43	4674.50	4.000
	no	43	4.15	0.676	68.64	2951.50	4.000

Test

Statistics^a

	Mann-Whitney U	Wilcoxon W	Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
Mean_P2a_F 1	1215.500	4870.500	-3.257	.001
Mean_P2a_F 2	1691.500	5346.500	-.898	.369
Mean_P2b_F 1	1153.000	4723.000	-3.333	.001
GenWorkCon d	1284.500	4687.500	-2.492	.013
PromotionPot	1104.500	4425.500	-3.193	.001
WorkRelation s	982.500	4142.500	-3.719	.000
SkillsWorkActi v	1068.500	4228.500	-3.233	.001
WellBeing	1434.500	4674.500	-1.526	.127

a. Grouping Variable: Q38

The stats above show no differences regarding Facility availabilities, General Working Conditions and Wellbeing indicating that whether the answer is “Yes” or “No” the respondents feel the same about the three mentioned variables. The rest of the variables show differences. The stats are showing that the majority of respondents feel that the economic crisis has “No” influence on their Transport, Respect, Promotional potential, Work relations and Skills work activities.

Question 39. Have you ever received an offer of permanent employment while working for an agency in South Africa ?

Group statistics & Ranks

Question 39	N	Mean	Std Deviation	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Median	
Mean P2a F1	yes	54	3.28	1.033	59.75	3226.50	3.333
	no	77	3.51	1.222	70.38	5419.50	4.167
Mean P2a F2	yes	54	2.42	1.405	71.68	3870.50	1.625
	no	77	1.99	1.094	62.02	4775.50	1.500
Mean P2b F1	yes	52	3.04	1.235	62.78	3264.50	3.083
	no	77	3.17	1.178	66.50	5120.50	3.167
GenWorkCond	yes	53	3.18	1.219	69.95	3707.50	3.200
	no	75	2.91	0.912	60.65	4548.50	2.800
PromotionPot	yes	53	3.23	1.041	65.76	3485.50	3.200
	no	73	3.12	0.887	61.86	4515.50	3.200
WorkRelations	yes	53	3.49	1.091	59.99	3279.50	4.000
	no	72	3.64	1.061	65.22	4695.50	4.000
SkillsWorkActiv	yes	53	3.60	0.803	62.86	3331.50	3.600
	no	72	3.54	0.879	63.10	4543.50	3.700
Wellbeing	yes	53	4.16	0.811	73.60	3901.00	4.250
	no	73	3.79	0.826	56.16	4100.00	4.000

Test

Statistics^a

	Mann-Whitney U	Wilcoxon W	Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
Mean_P2a_F1	1741.500	3226.500	-1.581	.114
Mean_P2a_F2	1772.500	4775.500	-1.453	.146
Mean_P2b_F1	1886.500	3264.500	-.556	.578

GenWorkCon d	1698.500	4548.500	-1.401	.161
PromotionPot	1814.500	4515.500	-.595	.552
WorkRelation s	1748.500	3179.500	-.804	.421
SkillsWorkActi v	1900.500	3331.500	-.038	.970
WellBeing	1399.000	4100.000	-2.666	.008

a. Grouping Variable: Q39

The above stats show that only regarding Wellbeing there is a significant difference in “Yes” and “No” responses. The respondents who said yes they received an offer of permanent employment perceive their Wellbeing a lot higher than the respondents answering no. As mentioned previously, the research found hardly any evidence indicating any temporary employee receiving any offer of permanent employment. The research felt that the temporary employees probably say they received an offer of permanent employment to feel good and appreciated. (no stats) Another reason for the mentioned findings is the fact that if respondents got permanent job offers, why they then still are employed by Temporary employment agencies? In support of these statements the research refers to Chapter 1 & 2 where the term “casualization” by itself indicates the global trend of changing permanent employment to temporary employment. Further support and confirmation of the above statements is research conducted by the CIETT (2012) indicating no evidence is provided that agency work is effective as a stepping stone to permanent employment.

Question 43. Do you see a future in this industry ?

Group statistics & Ranks

Question 43	N	Mean	Std Deviation	Mean Rank	Sum of ranks	Median	
Mean P2a F1	yes	94	3.60	1.096	74.34	6987.50	4.000
	no	39	2.80	1.112	49.32	1923.50	2.333
Mean P2a F2	yes	94	2.18	1.269	66.43	6244.00	1.500
	no	39	2.21	1.187	68.38	2667.00	2.000

Mean P2b F1	yes	93	3.29	1.064	71.98	6694.00	3.333
	no	38	2.60	1.340	51.37	1952.00	2.333
GenWorkCond	yes	91	3.33	0.933	74.52	6781.50	3.200
	no	38	2.41	1.042	42.20	1603.50	2.100
PromotionPot	yes	90	3.44	0.841	72.84	6556.00	3.500
	no	37	2.65	0.900	42.49	1572.00	2.800
WorkRelations	yes	88	3.82	0.935	70.66	6218.50	4.000
	no	37	3.03	1.133	44.77	1656.50	3.000
SkillsWorkActiv	yes	88	3.82	0.684	72.93	6417.50	4.000
	no	37	3.06	0.826	39.39	1457.50	3.000
Wellbeing	yes	89	4.07	0.752	67.44	6002.00	4.000
	no	38	3.79	0.912	55,95	2126.00	3.875

Test Statistics^a

	Mann-Whitney U	Wilcoxon W	Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
Mean_P2a_F1	1143.500	1923.500	-3.414	.001
Mean_P2a_F2	1779.000	6244.000	-.270	.787
Mean_P2b_F1	1211.000	1952.000	-2.826	.005
GenWorkCond	862.500	1603.500	-4.487	.000
PromotionPot	869.000	1572.000	-4.238	.000
WorkRelations	953.500	1656.500	-3.682	.000
SkillsWorkActiv	754.500	1457.500	-4.752	.000
WellBeing	1385.000	2126.000	-1.624	.104

a. Grouping Variable: Q43

The above stats show that in general the respondents being positive, seeing a future in the industry, although there are a number of differences looking at the “Yes” and the “No” answers. Most variables show that respondents feeling positive “Yes” are happier regarding general Working conditions, Promotional potential, Working conditions and Skills work activities. No difference regarding Wellbeing in respondents answering “yes’ or “no” is recorded, indicating that all are feeling well about their future in the industry.

Pro-Hoc Tests (If differences between groups, where ?)

Test smallest p-value of each variable against a significance level of 0.05 / 4 = 0.0125

Question 13. How long have you been employed at the current agency ?

Descriptives & Ranks Q r13 N M Std Deviation MeanRank Median

Mean P2a F1	Less than 1 year	54	3.47	1.114	80.62	4.000
	1 to 2 years	37	2.75	1.151	54.74	2.333
	2 to 5 years	32	3.07	1.167	68.86	2.750
	More than 5 years	26	4.03	0.721	99.71	4.000
	Total	149	3.30	1.168		
Mean P2a F2	Less than 1 year	54	2.12	1.180	75.31	1,500
	1 to 2 years	37	2.52	1.367	87.59	2.250
	2 to 5 years	32	1.96	1.000	70.78	1.875
	More than 5 years	26	1.85	1.235	61.62	1.500
	Total	149	2.14	1.216		
Mean P2b F1	Less than 1 year	52	3.41	1.126	86.08	3.583
	1 to 2 years	35	2.74	1.278	61.24	2.167
	2 to 5 years	32	2.67	1.126	59.23	2.367
	More than 5 years	26	3.24	0.960	79.62	3.000
	Total	145	3,05	1.173		
GenWorkCond F1	Less than 1 year	50	3.13	0.960	74.99	3.000
	1 to 2 years	36	2.66	1.045	57.39	2.550

	2 to 5 years	30	2.77	0.969	59.35	2.775
	More than 5 years	25	3.70	0.960	96.60	3.800
	Total	141	3.03	1.040		
PromotionPot	Less than 1 year	50	3.09	0.978	66.21	3.000
	1 to 2 years	35	3.05	0.951	66.34	3.200
	2 to 5 years	30	3.14	0.977	67.17	3.000
	More than 5 years	24	3.58	1.066	86.77	3.800
	Total	139	3.18	0.960		
WorkRelations	Less than 1 year	50	3.53	1.114	68.19	3.833
	1 to 2 years	34	3.46	1.169	67.22	4.000
	2 to 5 years	30	3.56	0.855	65.10	3.333
	More than 5 years	24	3.88	1.012	80.96	4.000
	Total	138	3.58	1.058		
SkillsWorkActiv	Less than 1 year	50	3.50	0.892	65.61	3.600
	1 to 2 years	34	3.46	0.891	66.16	3.600
	2 to 5 years	30	3.53	0.752	65.27	3.300
	More than 5 years	24	3.97	0.739	87.63	4.000
	Total	138	3.58	0.849		
Wellbeing	Less than 1 year	49	3.87	0.903	67.20	4.000
	1 to 2 years	36	3.70	0.841	58.37	4.000
	2 to 5 years	30	4.06	0.660	74.35	4.000
	More than 5 years	24	4.22	0.785	84.35	4.500
	Total	138	3.93	0.830		

Test Statistics^{a,b}

	Chi-Square	df	Asymp. Sig.
Mean_P2a_F1	18.294	3	.000
Mean_P2a_F2	6.157	3	.104
Mean_P2b_F1	11.911	3	.008
GenWorkCond	16.812	3	.001
PromotionPot	5.071	3	.167
WorkRelations	2.543	3	.468

SkillsWorkActiv	6.037	3	.110
WellBeing	6.726	3	.081

a. Kruskal Wallis Test

b. Grouping Variable: rQ13

Because the tests are compared in groups of two the research uses the Mann-Whitney test. The significant level is made stricter than 5%, to be able to see where the difference is. The group to be tested will be 1 and 2, 1 and 3, 1 and 4, 2 and 3, 2 and 4 and 3 and 4.

Pair 1 NPar Tests Mann-Whitney Test

Group statistics & Ranks

Question r13	N	Mean	Std Deviation	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Mean P2a F1 Less than 1 year	54	3.47	1.144	52.34	2826.50
1 to 2 years	37	2.75	1.151	36.74	1359.50
Mean P2b F1 Less than 1 year	53	3.41	1.126	49.30	2563.50
1 to 2 years	35	2.74	1.278	36.13	1264.50
GenWorkCond Less than 1 y.	50	3.13	0.960	48.02	2401.00
1 to 2 years	36	2.66	1.045	37.22	1340.00

Test

Statistics^a

	Mann-Whitney U	Wilcoxon W	Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
Mean_P2a_F 1	656.500	1359.500	-2.774	.006
Mean_P2b_F 1	634.500	1264.500	-2.391	.017
GenWorkCon d	674.000	1340.000	-1.984	.047

a. Grouping Variable: rQ13

Pair 2 NPar Tests Mann-Whitney Test

Group statistics & Ranks

Question r13	N	Mean	Std Deviation	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Mean P2a F1 Less than 1 year	54	3.47	1.144	45.94	2840.50
2 to 5 years	32	3.07	1.187	39.39	1260.50
Mean P2b F1 Less than 1 year	52	3.41	1.126	48.41	2517.50
2 to 5 years	32	2.67	1.276	32.89	1052.50
GenWorkCond Less than 1 y.	50	3.13	0.960	44.07	2203.50
2 to 5 years	30	2.77	0.969	34.55	1036.50

Test

Statistics^a

	Mann-Whitney U	Wilcoxon W	Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
Mean_P2a_F 1	732.500	1260.500	-1.177	.239
Mean_P2b_F 1	524.500	1052.500	-2.840	.005
GenWorkCon d	571.500	1036.500	-1.779	.075

a. Grouping Variable: rQ13

Pair 3 NPar Tests Mann-Whitney Test

Group statistics & Ranks

Question r13	N	Mean	Std Deviation	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Mean P2a F1 Less than 1 year	54	3.47	1.144	45.94	2840.50
More than 5 years	26	4.03	0.721	39.39	1260.50
Mean P2b F1 Less than 1 year	52	3.41	1.126	48.41	2517.50
More than 5 years	26	3.24	0.960	32.89	1052.50
GenWorkCond Less than 1 y.	50	3.13	0.960	44.07	2203.50
More than 5 years	25	3.70	0.960	34.55	1036.50

Test

Statistics^a

	Mann-Whitney U	Wilcoxon W	Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
Mean_P2a_F 1	531.500	2016.500	-1.755	.079
Mean_P2b_F 1	579.000	930.000	-1.032	.302
GenWorkCon d	420.000	1695.000	-2.308	.021

a. Grouping Variable: rQ13

Pair 4 NPar Tests Mann-Whitney Test

Group statistics & Ranks

Question r13	N	Mean	Std Deviation	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	
Mean P2a F1	1 to 2 years	37	2.75	1.151	31.84	1178.00
	2 to 5 years	32	3.07	1.187	38.66	1237.00
Mean P2b F1	1 to 2 years	35	2.74	1.278	33.79	1182.50
	2 to 5 years	32	2.67	1.126	34.23	1095.50
GenWorkCond	1 to 2 years	36	2.66	1.045	32.83	1182.00
	2 to 5 years	30	2.77	0.969	34.30	1029.00

Test

Statistics^a

	Mann-Whitney U	Wilcoxon W	Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
Mean_P2a_F 1	475.000	1178.000	-1.410	.158
Mean_P2b_F 1	552.500	1182.500	-.094	.925
GenWorkCon	516.000	1182.000	-.310	.756

d				
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a. Grouping Variable: rQ13

Pair 5 NPar Tests Mann-Whitney Test

Group statistics & Ranks

Question r13	N	Mean	Std Deviation	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Mean P2a F1 1 to 2 years	37	2.75	1.151	24.16	894.00
More than 5 years	26	4.03	0.721	43.15	1122.00
Mean P2b F1 1 to 2 years	35	2.74	1.278	27.33	956.50
More than 5 years	26	3.24	0.960	35.94	934.50
GenWorkCond 1 to 2 years	36	2.66	1.045	24.33	876.00
More than 5 years	25	2.70	0.960	40.60	1015.00

Test

Statistics^a

	Mann-Whitney U	Wilcoxon W	Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
Mean_P2a_F1	191.000	894.000	-4.057	.000
Mean_P2b_F1	326.500	956.500	-1.878	.060
GenWorkCon	210.000	876.000	-3.530	.000

a. Grouping Variable: rQ13

Pair 6 NPar Tests Mann-Whitney Test

Group statistics & Ranks

Question r13	N	Mean	Std Deviation	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Mean P2a F1 2 to 2 years	32	3.07	1.187	23.81	726.00
More than 5 years	26	4.03	0.721	36.50	949.00

Mean P2b F1	2 to 2 years	32	2.67	1.126	25.11	803.50
	More than 5 years	26	3.24	0.960	34.90	907.50
GenWorkCond	2 to 2 years	30	2.77	0.969	21.50	645.00
	More than 5 years	25	3.70	0.960	35.80	895.00

Test

Statistics^a

	Mann-Whitney U	Wilcoxon W	Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
Mean_P2a_F1	234.000	762.000	-2.850	.004
Mean_P2b_F1	275.500	803.500	-2.201	.028
GenWorkCond	180.000	645.000	-3.304	.001

a. Grouping Variable: rQ13

All the test results indicate that the longer temporary workers are employed by an agency their General Working Conditions are perceived more positive. The research found that the length of service is perceived as appreciation and creates loyalty by temporary employees. Although on tables tests have been done which not have to be reported, the test **Crosstabulation** is necessary because question no.13 which consists of 4 variables will be compared with question no. 43 consisting of 2 variables. The statistics below show that all groups of length of service positively perceive a future in the industry, although longer service from 2 to 5 years and longer shows a higher positive score.

Cross Tabulation

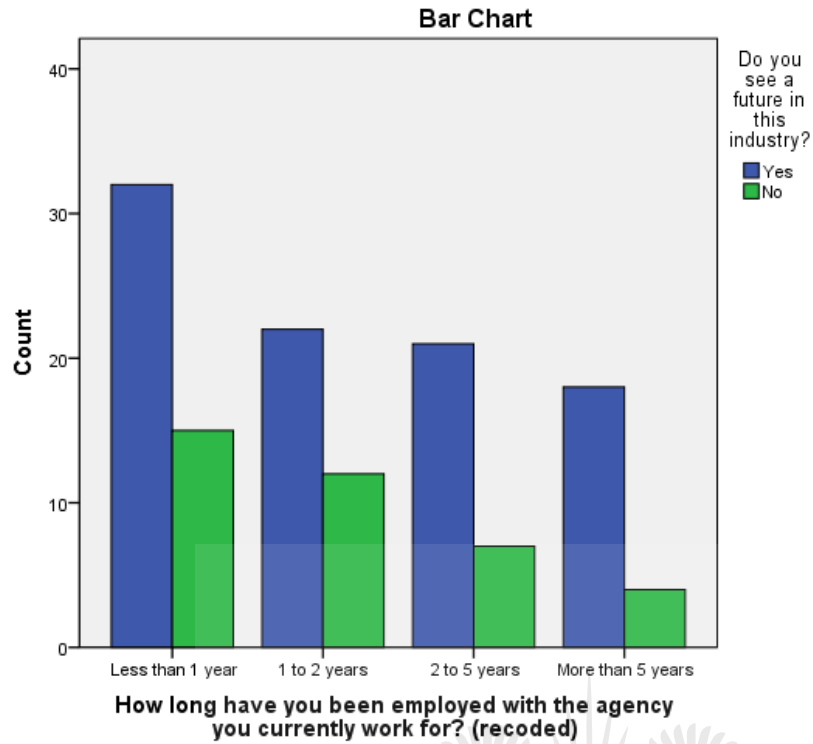
rQ13 * Q43 Cross tabulation	Q43		Total

		Yes	No	
rQ13	Less than 1 year	Count 32	15	47
	% within rQ13	68.1%	31.9%	100.0%
	1 to 2 years	Count 22	12	34
	% within rQ13	64.7%	35.3%	100.0%
	2 to 5 years	Count 21	7	28
	% within rQ13	75.0%	25.0%	100.0%
	More than 5 years	Count 18	4	22
	% within rQ13	81.8%	18.2%	100.0%
Total	Count	93	38	131
	% within rQ13	71.0%	29.0%	100.0%

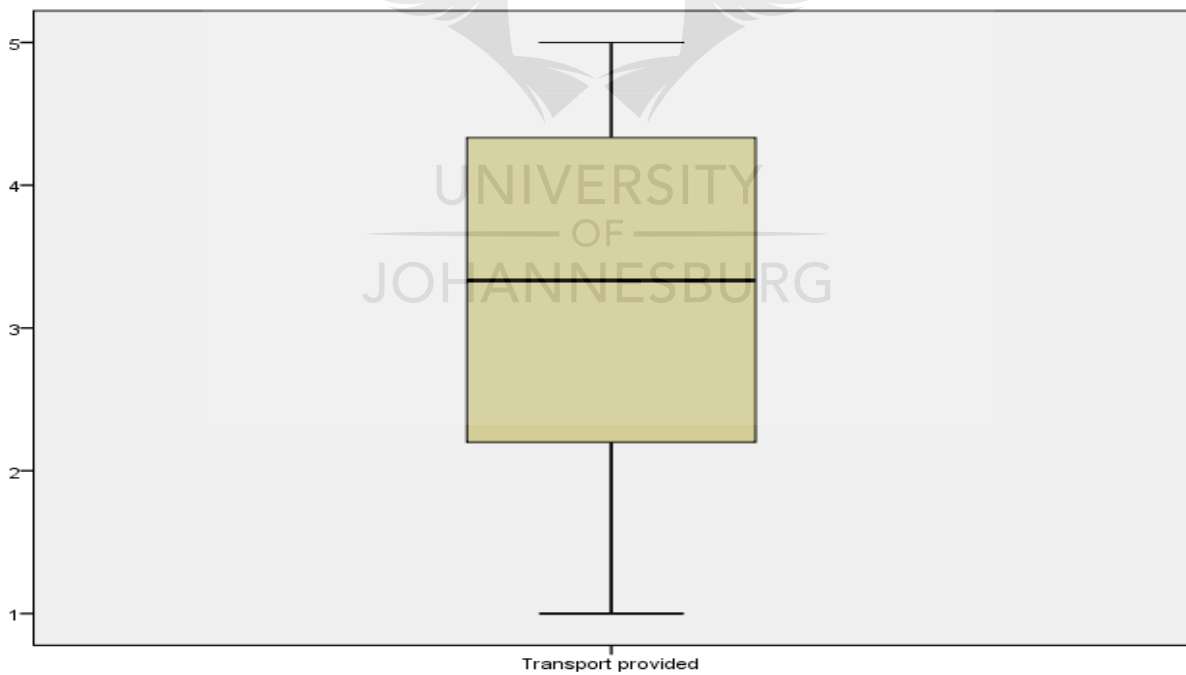
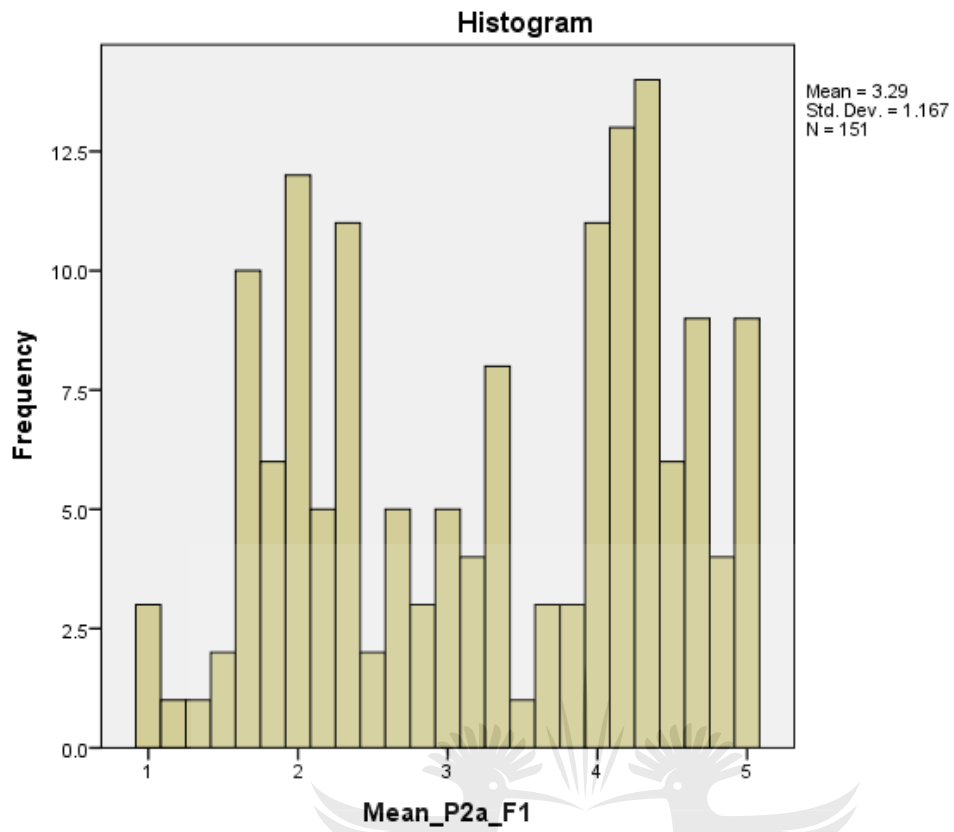
Chi-Square Tests

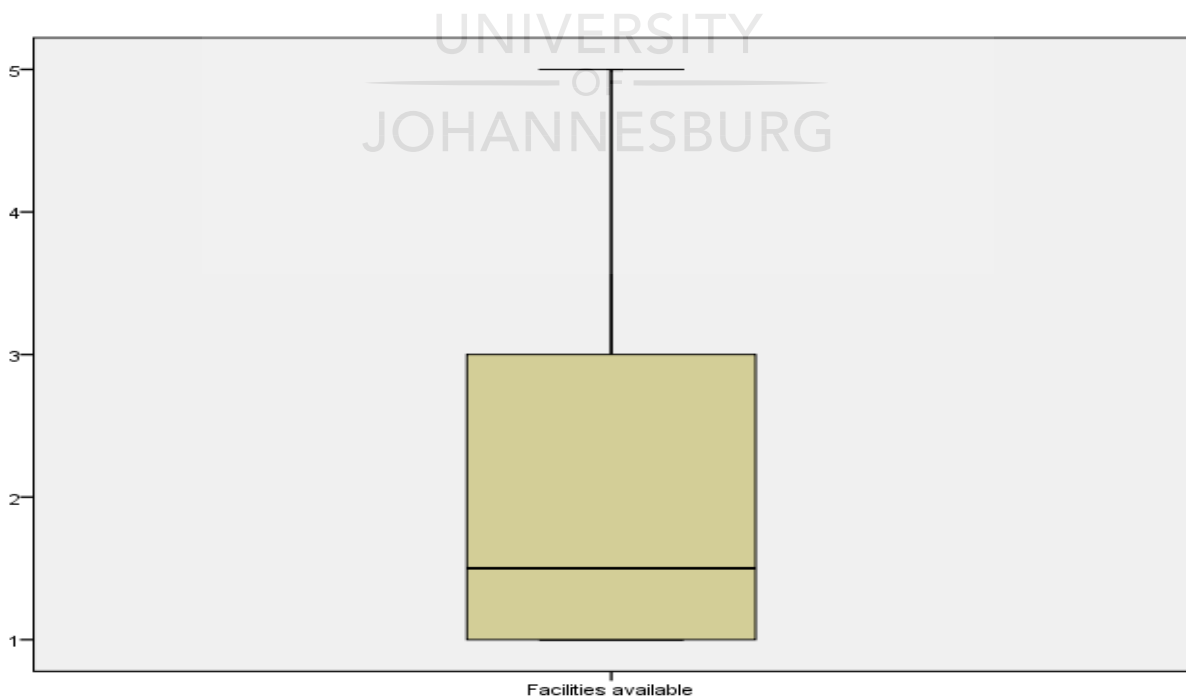
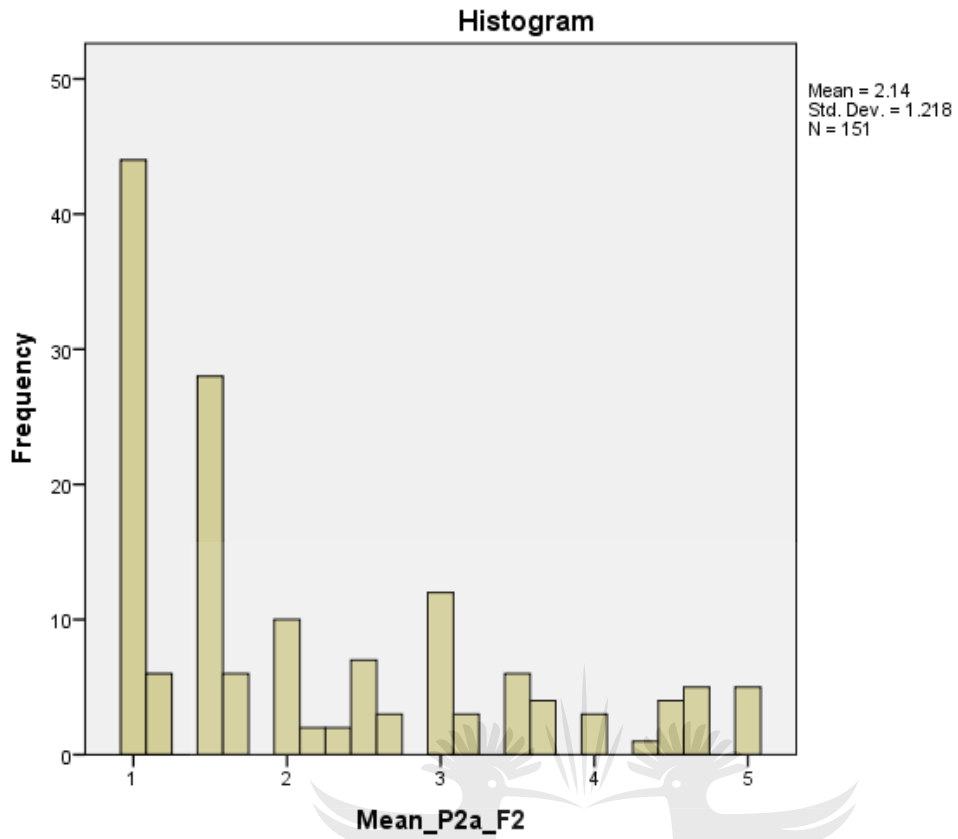
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	2.316 ^a	3	.509
Likelihood Ratio	2.415	3	.491
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.602	1	.206
N of Valid Cases	131		

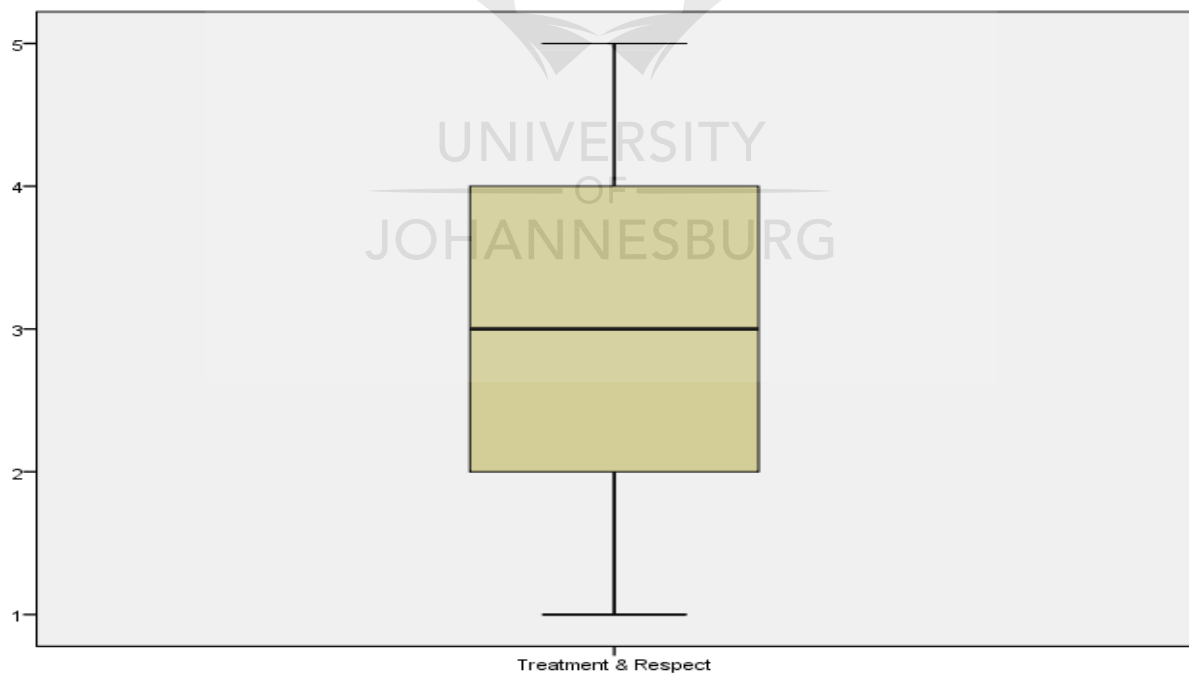
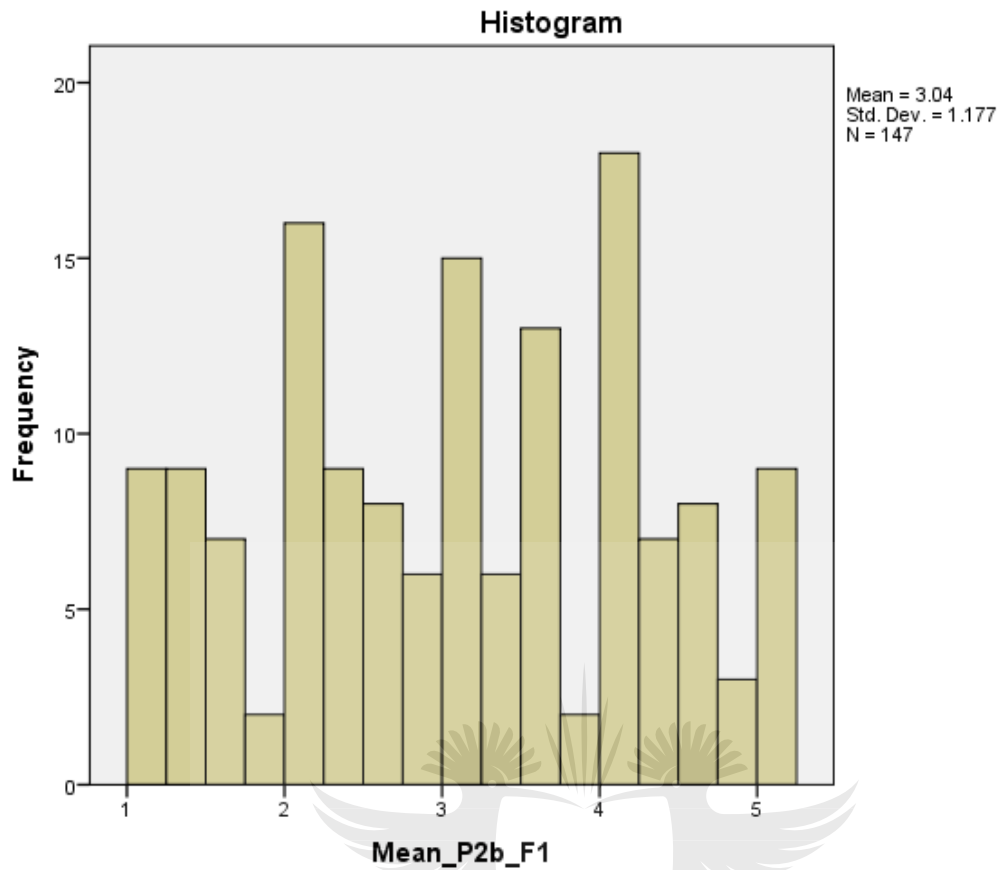
a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 6.38.

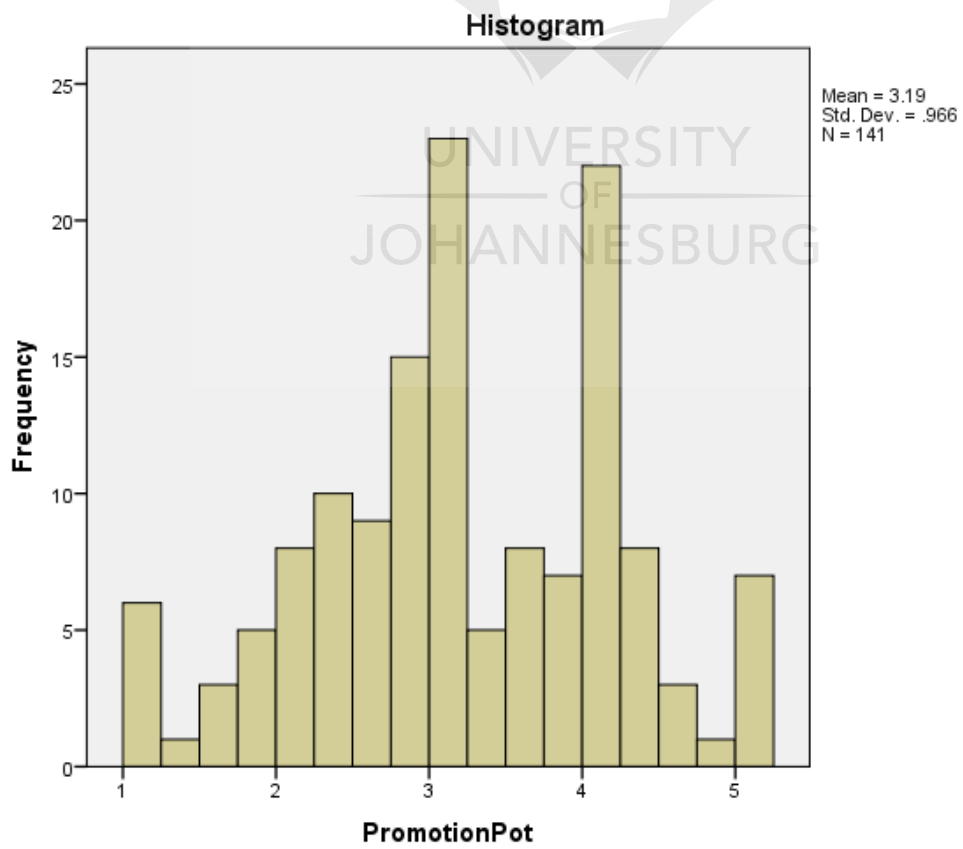
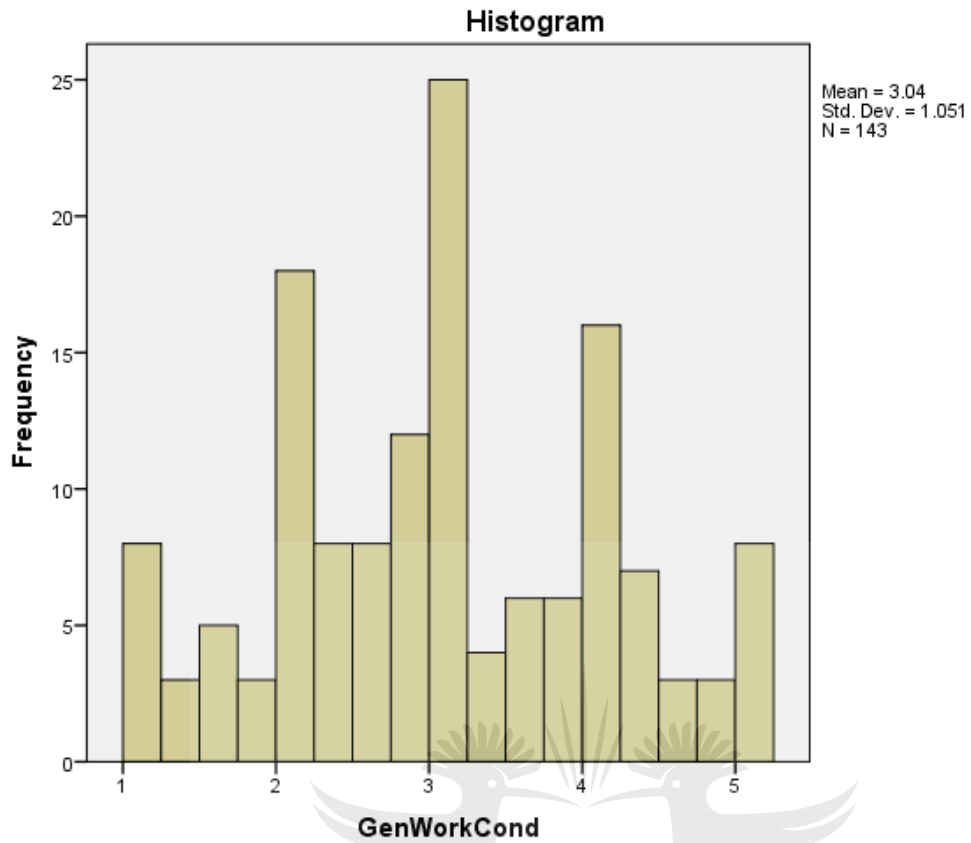


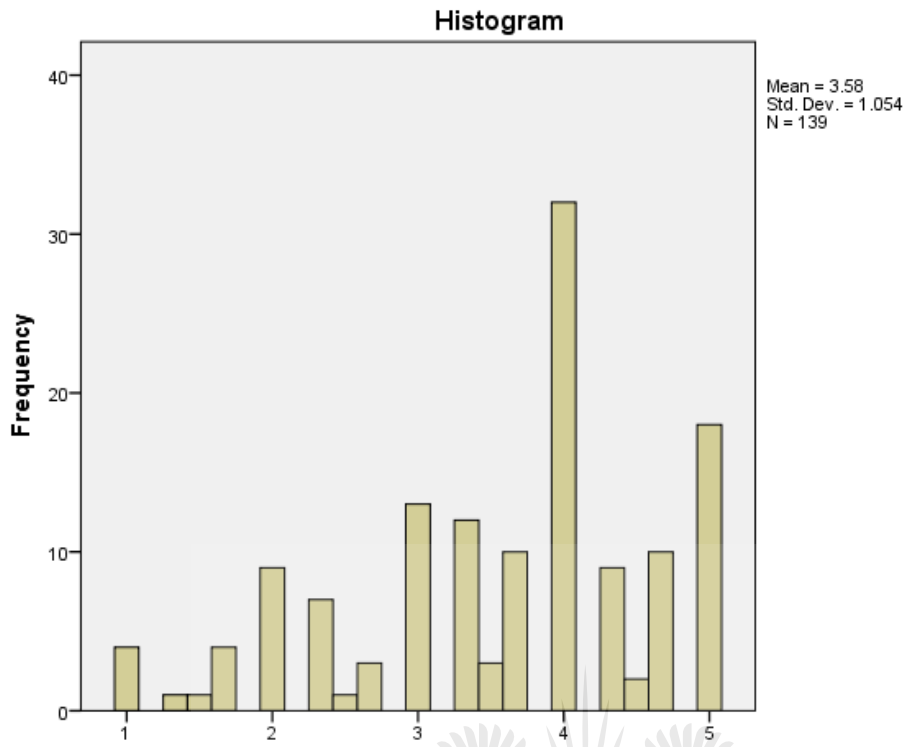
For the Correlation testing Normality tests are first done. Because there is no group comparison we look at the descriptives being mean and standard deviation for each whole group. The research uses the nonparametric test although the correlation test for Normality is also shown.



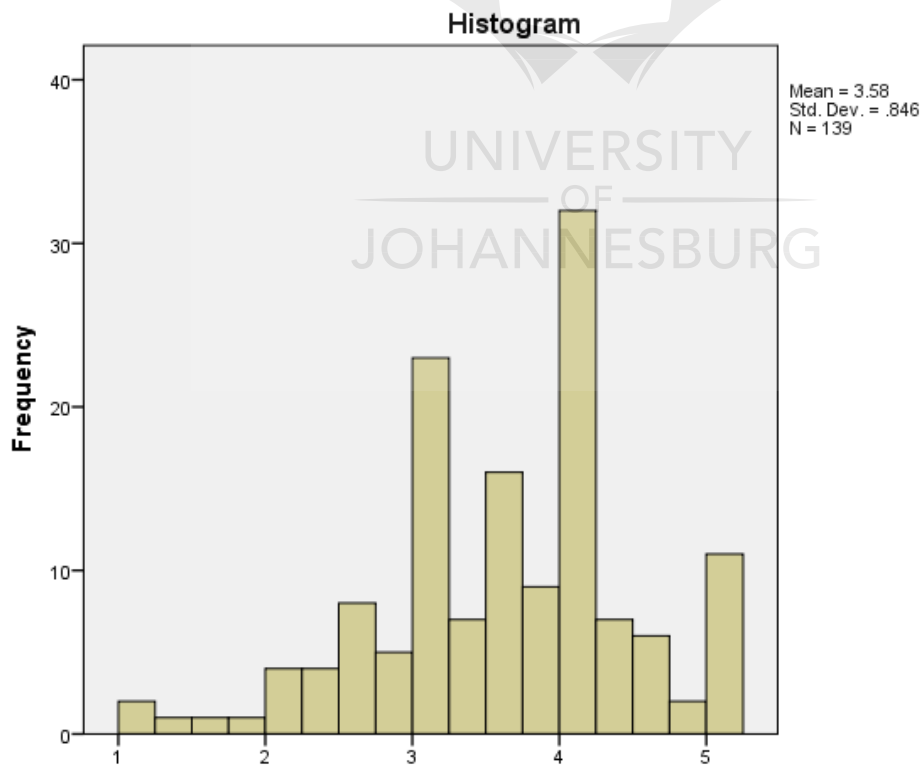




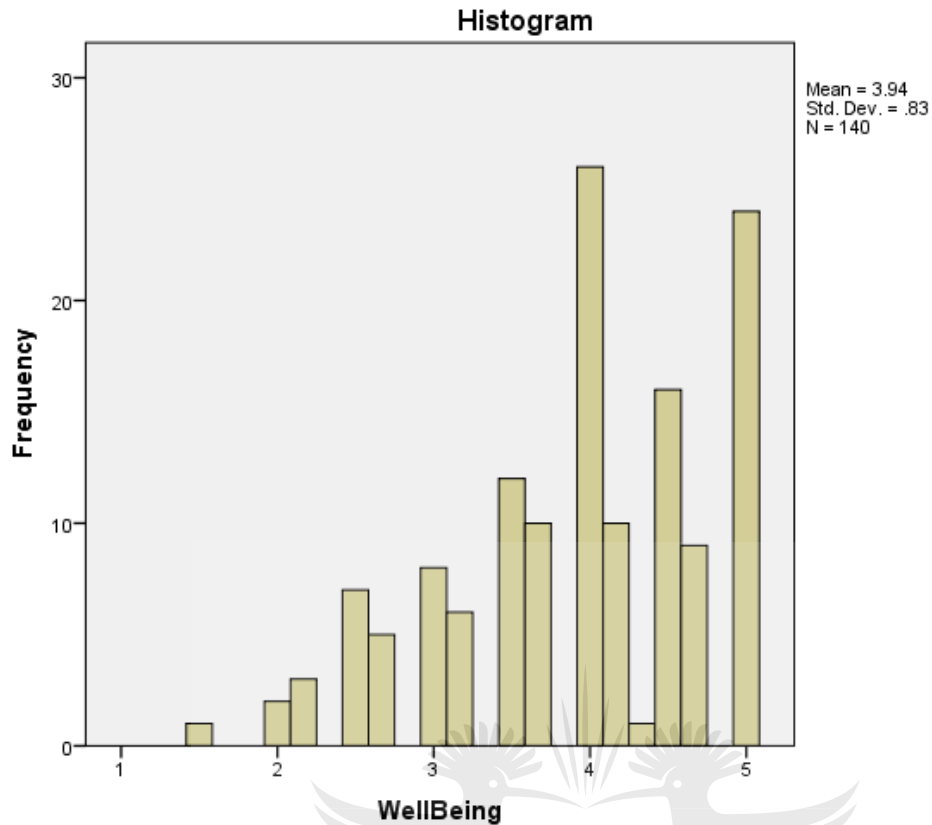




WorkRelations



SkillsWorkActiv



Correlations

Correlations (Pearson)

	Transp ort	Facili ties	Resp ect	GenWor kCon	Promotio nPot	WorkRela tions	SkillsWork Activ	Wellbe ing
Transport prov.	1	-	.653**	.571**	.367**	.445**	.305**	.161
Pearson correl.		.007	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.058
Sig. (2- tailed)		.933						
N	151	151	147	142	140	138	138	139
Facilities		1	-.191*	.098	-.189*	.106	.180*	.103
Pearson correl.	-.007		.020	.245	.025	.216	.035	.227
Sig. (2- tailed)	.933		.020	.025	.025	.216	.035	.227
N	151	151	147	142	140	138	138	139

tailed) N								
Respect								
Pearson		.191	1	.524**	.407	.500**	.266**	.131
correl.	.663	.020		.000	.000	.000	.002	.129
Sig. (2- tailed)	.000	147	147	139	137	135	135	136
N	142							
GenWorkC								
on.	.571**	.098	.524**	1	.713**	.639**	.583**	.403**
Pearson	.000	.245	.000		.000	.000	.000	.000
correl.	142	142	139	143	141	139	139	140
Sig. (2- tailed)								
N								
Promotion								
Pot	.376**	.189*	.407**	.713**	1	.684**	.782**	.486**
Pearson	.000	.025	.000	.000		.000	.000	.000
correl.	140	140	137	141	141	139	139	139
Sig. (2- tailed)								
N								
WorkRelati								
ons	.445**	.106	.500**	.639**	.648**	1	.594**	.384**
Pearson	.000	.216	.000	.000	.000		.000	.000
correl.	138	138	135	139	139	139	139	138
Sig. (2- tailed)								
N								
SkillsWork								
activ.	.305**	.180*	.268**	.583**	.782**	.594**	1	.553**
Pearson	.000	.035	.002	.000	.000	.000		.000
orrel.	138	138	135	139	139	139	139	138

Sig. (2-tailed)								
N								
Wellbeing								
Pearson	.161	.103	.131	.403**	.486**	.384**	.553**	1
correl.	.058	.227	.129	.000	.000	.000	.000	
Sig. (2-tailed)	.139	.139	.136	.140	.139	.138	.138	140
N								

** Correlation is significant on the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

*Correlation is significant on the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

The above shows the Pearson correlation as well which is used when you have Normality. The research put in the graph although the parametric tests are used and interpreted. Some supervisors or others might like to see the above test results as well.

Nonparametric Correlations

Spearman's Rho

	Transp ort	Facili ties	Resp ect	GenWor kCon	Promotio nPot	WorkRela tions	SkillsWork Activ	Wellbe ing
Transport prov.	1.000	.042	.646**	.532**	.378*	.467**	.313**	.166
Correl. Coefficient		.608	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.050
Sig. (2-tailed)	.151	.151	.147	.142	.140	.138	.138	.139
N								
Facilities		1.000	.191*	.038	.156	.076	.121	.047
Correl. Coefficient	.042		.021	.657	.065	.374	.159	.585
Sig. (2-tailed)	.151	.151	.147	.142		.138	.138	.139
N								

tailed) N					140			
Respect.								
Correl.	.646**	.191*	1.000	.515**	.420**	.545**	.289**	.153
Coefficient	.000	.021		.000	.000	.000	.001	.076
Sig. (2-tailed)	147	147	147	139	137	135	135	136
N								
GenWorkC								
on.	.532**	.038	.515**	1.000	.690**	.654**	.556**	.387**
Correl.	.000	.657	.000		.000	.000	.000	.000
Coefficient	142	142	139	143	141	139	139	140
Sig. (2-tailed)								
N								
Promotion								
Pot Correl.	.378**	.156	.420**	.690**	1.000	.639**	.748**	.472**
Coefficient	.000	.065	.000	.000		.000	.000	.000
Sig. (2-tailed)	140	140	137	141	141	139	139	139
N								
WorkRelati								
ons	.467**	.076	.545**	.654**	.693**	1.000	.604**	.425**
Correl.	.000	.374	.000	.000	.000		.000	.000
Coefficient	138	138	135	139	139	139	139	138
Sig. (2-tailed)								
N								
SkillsWork								
activ.	.313**	.121	.289**	.556	.748**	.604**	1.000	.523**
Correl.	.000	.159	.001	.000	.000	.000		.000
Coefficient	138	138	135	139	139	139	139	138
Sig. (2-								

tailed) N								
Wellbeing								
Correl.	.166	.047	.153	.387**	.472**	.425**	.523**	1.000
Coefficient	.050	.585	.076	.000	.000	.000	.000	
Sig. (2-tailed) N	139	139	136	140	139	138	138	140

** Correlation is significant on the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

*Correlation is significant on the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

A correlation is the relationship between two variables. A correlation is a value between 0 and 1 indicating the strength of the correlation. The first correlation “Transport “with itself is one and the N is the amount of respondents. All correlations with itself are one. If the p-value is less than 0.05 there is significant correlation. (sig. 2-tailed) In other words if the p-value is not significant we don’t look at the coefficient, there is no correlation. (A coefficient above 5 is significant, indicating a strong correlation) The second is “Transport” and “Facilities”, the p-value is bigger than 0.05, there is no correlation. The third is “Transport and “Respect”, the p-value is less than 0.05 and the coefficient is .608, indicating a strong correlation. The stats show that the respondents feeling good about treatment respect also have a good feeling about the transport facilities available. The fourth is “Transport” and “General Working Conditions”, the p-value is less than 0.05 and the coefficient is .532**, indicating a strong correlation. The stats show that well perceived general working conditions make the respondents feel good about transport provided. The fifth is “Transport” and “Promotional potential”, the p-value is less than 0.05 and the coefficient is .378*, indicating a relation although not very strong. The stats show that when respondents feel that promotional potential is present their transport availability feels good. The sixth is “Transport” and “Work Relations”, the p-value is less than 0.05 and the coefficient is .467**, indicating a reasonable but not to strong relationship. The stats show that respondents with good working relationships feel better about transport provided.

The seventh is "Transport" and "Skills Work Activities", the p-value is less than 0.05 and the coefficient is .313**, a relationship although not very strong. The stats show that when work related skills are good, transport is perceived to be satisfying.

The last is "Transport" and "Wellbeing", the p-value bigger than 0.05, there is no correlation. Regarding "Facilities" and "Respect", all variables show a p-value of more than 0.05 indicating there is no relationship. The next is "Respect" and "General Working Conditions", the p-value is below 0.05 and the coefficient is .515**, the relationship is strong. The stats show that when temporary workers are treated with respect they feel good about their working conditions. There is a relationship between "Respect" and "Promotional potential", the p-value is below 0.05 and the coefficient is .420**. The stats indicate that the temporary workers feeling of respect, increases their feelings regarding perceived promotional opportunities.

"Respect" and "Working relations", the p-value being below 0.05 and the coefficient being .545** shows a strong relationship between temporary workers being treated with respect and the positive relationships with their co-workers. "Respect" and "Skills Work Activity", the p-value is below 0.05 and the coefficient being .289**. A not very strong relationship indicating that the work skills activities have some influence on the respect received. "Respect" and "Wellbeing" with a p-value of more than 0.05 shows no correlation. "General Working Conditions " and "Promotional Potential", the p-value is below 0.05 and the coefficient is .690** shows that there is a strong relation. The same with "Work Relations", coefficient .654**, "Work Skills Activity", coefficient .556** and "Wellbeing", coefficient .387** indicating that all variables have a great influence on the good feelings perceived regarding general working conditions. The relation between "Promotional Potential" and "Work Relations" coefficient .639** as well as "Work Skills Activity" coefficient .748** and "Wellbeing" coefficient .472** have p-values less than 0.05, indicating a strong correlation. When the temporary workers feel good about their promotional opportunities they also perceive Relationships, Skills activities and Wellbeing to be good. "Work Relations" compared to Work Skills Activity" coefficient .604** and "Wellbeing" coefficient .425** have p-values less than 0.05. Positive Work Relations have a strong positive influence on their Work Skills Activity and Wellbeing. "Skills Work Activity" is strongly related to "Wellbeing" with a p-value below 0.05 and a

coefficient of .523** showing that the work performance and skill activity influences temporary employees “Wellbeing” positively.

