

# **GREEN PRACTICES IN RESTAURANTS: AN EXPLORATION OF THE EGYPTIAN CONTEXT THROUGH A STAKEHOLDER APPROACH**

**NADA ELABD**

Supervisory team: Dr Adam Dennett

Professor Morven McEachern

Department of Logistics, Marketing, Hospitality and Analytics,  
University of Huddersfield

A thesis submitted to the University of Huddersfield in partial fulfilment of  
the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

December 2022

## Copyright statement

i. The author of this thesis (including any appendices and/ or schedules to this thesis) owns any copyright in it (the "Copyright") and s/he has given The University of Huddersfield the right to use such Copyright for any administrative, promotional, educational and/or teaching.

ii. Copies of this thesis, either in full or in extracts, may be made only in accordance with the regulations of the University Library. Details of these regulations may be obtained from the Librarian. This page must form part of any such copies made.

iii. The ownership of any patents, designs, trademarks and any and all other intellectual property rights except for the Copyright (the "Intellectual Property Rights") and any reproductions of copyright works, for example graphs and tables ("Reproductions"), which may be described in this thesis, may not be owned by the author and may be owned by third parties. Such Intellectual Property Rights and Reproductions cannot and must not be made available for use without permission of the owner(s) of the relevant Intellectual Property Rights and/or Reproductions.

## **Abstract**

Hospitality businesses are constantly scrutinized and questioned for their sustainability efforts due to the harm resulting from their operations i.e., products and services. Compared with the lodging sector, restaurants lag behind in adopting environmental measures, with the purpose of protecting and conserving the environment. Therefore, the aim of this research is to explore the barriers restaurants face while implementing green criteria and how the relevant stakeholder groups can help such businesses in becoming more environmental-friendly. Using stakeholder theory, with reference to stakeholder salience, this study highlights the influence of stakeholders on restaurants' realization of their environmental goals. Egypt, categorized by the International Monetary Fund (IMF) as a developing country, has started to take some steps towards environmental sustainability, including Egypt Vision 2030 and hosting of COP27 in 2022. The hospitality and tourism sector, which contributes around 15% to GDP, prioritizes hotels in terms of green adoption with the establishment of the Green Star Hotel Program, where 29% of hotels are considered green (El Demerdash, 2019). On the contrary, restaurants, around 40,600 establishments, are neglected by the industry and therefore lack the required environmental frameworks to become greener businesses.

In order to understand the challenges restaurants face and how stakeholders, through certain roles, can impact and presumably aid restaurants to resolve such issues, an exploratory qualitative approach is used. A multi-case study of the Egyptian hospitality context was undertaken in this thesis, where data was gathered in 2 stages. Initially, in-depth semi-structured interviews were carried out with 20 local restaurants, followed by a diverse focus-group discussion constituting all the identified, relevant stakeholder groups. Data from both stages were analyzed using thematic analysis.

Using interpretation and analysis, findings indicate several obstacles hindering restaurateurs in Egypt from being able to implement green practices. Such factors include the nonexistent laws and pro-environmental infrastructure, poor awareness of environmental protection, expensive green materials and most importantly the difficulty in getting employees to change their habits and mentality. Findings also indicate that stakeholder salience attributes in the network of stakeholders were found to determine the impact of each stakeholder group in terms of adopting green activities. This study postulates that each stakeholder necessitates participation in the value creation process (going green), where each of their roles or contribution is compared with the benefit they receive. Furthermore, stakeholders, for

example such as governments, consumers, employees, suppliers, communities or NGOs, must be held accountable for their role in the network and can be further motivated to fulfill this role through stakeholder leadership. Leadership is a common task that should be exercised by all stakeholders towards each other in the network. If any of these groups are unable to fulfill their duty in the network, they can be replaced or removed.

# Table of Contents

<b>List of Figures</b> .....	12
<b>List of Tables</b> .....	13
<b>Acknowledgements</b> .....	14
<b>Chapter 1. Introduction</b> .....	<b>16</b>
1.1 Introduction.....	16
1.2 Rationale.....	21
1.3 Problem statement.....	26
1.4 Aim and objectives.....	27
1.5 Structure of research chapters.....	28
<b>Chapter 2. Green Management</b> .....	<b>30</b>
2.1 Introduction.....	30
2.2 Green management.....	31
2.2.1 Definitions and development.....	31
2.2.2 Green management theories.....	34
2.2.3 Green management in hospitality .....	38
2.3 Restaurants' Environmental Impact.....	41
2.4 Green Restaurants.....	48
2.5 Green Restaurant Studies.....	50
2.5.1 Consumer-focused studies .....	50
I. Demographics.....	51

II. Attitudes, personal values and experiences.....	53
III. Role of emotions.....	53
2.5.2 Management-focused studies.....	58
I. Managers' intentions and motivations.....	59
II. Barriers, supply chains and performance.....	60
2.6 Green restaurant attributes.....	64
2.7 Chapter summary.....	71
<b>Chapter 3. Stakeholder Theory.....</b>	<b>72</b>
3.1 Introduction.....	72
3.2 The stakeholder concept.....	72
3.3 Who is a stakeholder?.....	75
3.4 Stakeholder salience.....	80
3.4.1 Stakeholder power.....	81
3.4.2 Stakeholder legitimacy.....	81
3.4.3 Stakeholder urgency.....	82
3.4.4 Stakeholder salience in hospitality.....	87
3.5 Stakeholder Influence and Engagement.....	91
3.5.1 Stakeholder networks.....	92
3.6 Chapter summary.....	103
<b>Chapter 4. Research Methodology.....</b>	<b>104</b>
4.1 Introduction.....	104
4.2 Research aim and objectives.....	104
4.3 Philosophical assumptions.....	105
4.4 Research Paradigms.....	107

4.5	Approaches to theory development.....	112
4.6	The Egyptian context.....	113
	4.6.1 Preliminary study.....	116
4.7	Methodological approach for this study.....	121
	4.7.1 Study assumptions.....	122
	4.7.2 Research design.....	124
	4.7.3 Research Strategy.....	128
4.8	Data Collection Tools.....	131
4.9	Stage 1-IDs.....	134
	4.9.1 Development of interview guide.....	134
	4.9.2 Pilot Study.....	138
	4.9.3 Study Sample.....	138
	4.9.4 Interviewing process.....	141
	4.9.5 Effect of COVID-19.....	144
	4.9.6 Data Analysis.....	146
	4.9.6.1 Introduction to theme generation.....	148
4.10	Stage 2- (FGD) .....	152
	4.10.1 Development of FGD guide.....	152
	4.10.2 FGD sample.....	155
	4.10.3 FGD session.....	158
	4.10.4 Data Analysis.....	159
	4.10.4.1 Introduction to theme generation.....	160
4.11	Credibility of research findings.....	161
4.12	Research ethics.....	164
4.13	Chapter Summary.....	165

## **Chapter 5. Research Findings: In-Depth Interview (IDIs).....167**

5.1 Introduction.....	167
5.2 Restaurant Participants.....	167
5.3 Emergent Themes and Thematic Map.....	171
5.4 Theme one: Factors shaping green application.....	172
5.4.1 Type of Restaurant.....	175
5.4.2 Restaurant Location.....	179
5.4.3 Restaurant Consumers.....	183
5.5 Theme two: Surrounding green institutional environment.....	186
5.5.1 Green Laws and Infrastructure.....	187
5.5.2 Green Supply Chains.....	191
5.5.3 Supportive Tools.....	195
5.6 Theme three: Trust towards Stakeholders.....	199
5.7 Theme four: Environmental Awareness of Society.....	204
5.8 Theme five: Employee Management.....	209
5.9 Theme six: Green Stakeholder Categorization.....	214
5.10 Summary.....	219

## **Chapter 6. Research Findings: Focus Group Discussion (FGD).....221**

6.1 Introduction.....	221
6.2 FGD Participants.....	221
6.3 Emergent Themes and Thematic Map .....	221
6.4 Theme one: First step to go green: government intervention.....	223
6.5 Theme two: Employees are pivotal to green implementation.....	229
6.6 Theme three: Education must include	



stakeholder benefit.....	233
6.6.1. Stakeholder Value.....	236
6.6.2. Consumer Trust.....	241
6.7 Theme four: Community/Location dictate urgency.....	243
6.8 Theme five: Salience attributes determine stakeholder Impact.....	246
6.9 Chapter summary.....	254

**Chapter 7. Discussion of Research Findings.....255**

7.1 Introduction.....	255
7.2 The Green Context.....	257
7.2.1 Community/location as activators.....	261
7.2.2 The consumer narrative.....	263
7.3 Means for Green Adoption.....	265
7.3.1 Role of Government.....	266
7.3.2 Green Supply Chains.....	272
7.3.3 Employee Development.....	275
7.4 Required Environmental Knowledge.....	280
7.4.1 Acknowledging stakeholder value.....	285
7.4.2 Stakeholder skepticism.....	292
7.5 Stakeholders Networks.....	298
7.5.1 Green Stakeholder Categories.....	300
7.5.2 Salience Attributes Represent Stakeholder Impact.....	304
7.6 Green Role & Value Creation.....	310
7.7 Management recommendations.....	316
7.8 Chapter summary.....	319

<b>Chapter 8. Conclusion.....</b>	<b>321</b>
8.1 Introduction.....	321
8.2 Meeting research objectives.....	321
8.3 Research originality.....	328
8.4 Theoretical contributions.....	329
8.5 Practical and managerial implications.....	332
8.6 Limitations of the research.....	336
8.7 Future research.....	337

- Appendix 1 - Ethical form approved from University of Huddersfield
- Appendix 2 - In-depth interviews consent form
- Appendix 3 - In-depth interview guide
- Appendix 4 - Focus group discussion letter
- Appendix 5 - Information sheet for focus group discussion
- Appendix 6 - Focus group discussion consent form
- Appendix 7 - Focus group discussion guide
- Appendix 8 - Ministry of Environment proposal approval
- Appendix 9 - Web portal
- Appendix 10 – Codes of IDIs
- Appendix 11 – Codes of FGD

## List of Figures

Figure 3.1	The original stakeholder model (Freeman, 1984)
Figure 3.2	The stake model of the firm
Figure 3.3	Stakeholder Typology: One, Two, or Three Attributes Present
Figure 3.4	Network structures: patterns of relationships
Figure 3.5	Conceptual framework
Figure 5.1	IDIs thematic map
Figure 5.2	Green stakeholder categorization
Figure 6.1	FGD thematic map
Figure 7.1	Links between generated themes & discussion chapter
Figure 7.2	Green stakeholder categorization-modified
Figure 7.3	Role vs. Value Creation in Green Application

## List of Tables

Table 2.1	Major theories in green and sustainability management
Table 2.2	Green Restaurant Associations
Table 2.3	Mentioned stakeholders in green restaurant management studies
Table 2.4	Green Restaurant Indicators
Table 2.5	Barriers and Benefits of Green Practices
Table 3.1	Stakeholder categories, attributes and salience
Table 3.2	Main Characteristics of the approaches to stakeholders network.
Table 4.1	Comparison of five research philosophical positions in business and management research
Table 4.2	Profile of Preliminary Interviewees
Table 4.3	Methods used in previous research on green restaurants
Table 4.4	Qualitative research strategies
Table 4.5	IDIs Interview Guide
Table 4.6	Non-probability sampling methods
Table 4.7	FGD Interview Guide
Table 4.8	Stakeholders emergent from in-depth interviews
Table 4.9	Ethical aspects concerning data collection
Table 4.10	Summary of the research's methodological design
Table 5.1	Restaurant Profiles
Table 5.2	Overview of participants
Table 5.3	Emergent themes from IDIs
Table 6.1	Stakeholder's Profiles
Table 6.2	Emergent themes from FGD
Table 6.3	Evaluations of stakeholder salience

## **Acknowledgements**

To start off, a special thanks needs to be given to my supervisory team. Dr. Adam Dennett, I want to thank you for your continuous constructive feedback, ongoing support and the thousands of Zoom meetings to discuss any issues whenever I requested. Honestly, without your encouragement and dedication to this project, I wouldn't have been able to complete the program. Thanks for never doubting my abilities. Professor Morven McEachern, your professional guidance and input are undeniable, which were foundational for my overall academic progression. I have learnt so much from you. Thank you for helping me get through this on all levels. I sincerely thank you both for contributing to my achievement of holding a doctorate degree. A special thanks also needs to be given to my VIVA examiners, Dr. Andrew Jenkins and Dr. Susann Power.

Special acknowledgement also needs to be given to others. Dr. Khaled ElSakty, thank you for standing by me; your support for my career progression is very much appreciated. Dr. Raghda Bahaa, thank you for always understanding and giving words of support. I also want to thank Dr. Mohamed Hassan for his help during this journey. Dr. Tatyana Karpenko-Seccombe, what can I say? Thank you for your knowledge and beautiful spirit. I would also like to thank all the participants involved in my data collection, as well as both the Ministries of Environment and Tourism for their help.

To my mom, thank you for pushing me through and reminding me of my potential; without you I wouldn't be who I am today. My brother, thanks for being there. My kids, Badr and Amina, I love you and thanks for bearing with me and my anxiety and for all the times I was busy and had to study.

Last but not least, I want to thank myself for the perseverance and all the striving throughout this tough, yet wonderful journey.

## **Chapter 1 - Introduction**

### **1.1 Introduction**

This research is set out to understand the challenges restaurants in a developing country face when they choose to adopt environmental-friendly practices. Considered one of the main pillars of sustainability, environmental considerations or green practices are currently burgeoning. This is evidenced by the growing amount of research into dismantling the dynamics of green management as well as efforts by some business industries to adopt environmental measures. Green management majorly focuses on environmental protection, through resource conservation and waste reduction. Examples include the elimination of plastics, reuse & recycling, efficient energy and water management, local sourcing, etc. Yet, it should be noted that in developing nations, embedding green criteria into operations and service provision is not a priority, and relatively, a difficult task, where concentration is mainly on economic development. Klemensits (2019) writes that African nations are unable to focus on environmental protection due to their economic and political agendas.

For example, Egypt, located in Northern Africa with a population of 104, 258, 000 people, is categorized by The International Monetary Fund (IMF) as a developing country because of its economic performance (WorldData, 2022). To be more specific, according to the World Bank for example, in 2021, Egypt's GDP is 404 billion, GDP per capita is around \$3900, with annual GDP growth of 3.3%. The World Bank also writes that the Central Bank of Egypt (CBE) depreciated the exchange rate in 2022 around 16% to combat the net exports deficit while inflation in February 2022 has risen to



8.8%. Such figures show that nations such as Egypt are facing difficulty, from an economic perspective, where the engagement and adoption of environmental practices is presumably of less importance. Azam (2016) argues that the contradictory relationship between economic prosperity and environmental protection needs concrete strategies and actions, both on a domestic and global level.

Hotels and restaurants in Egypt mainly fall within the umbrella of tourism. Local tourism on average contributes around 15% to Egypt's GDP (Abu Zaid, 2021), with generated income of \$13 billion in 2019, according to the Central Agency for Public Mobilization and Statistics (CAPMAS, 2020). Also, the United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) declares that the sector employs around 2.5 million people, which is represented by 9.5% of total employment (Zaineldine, 2020). Concerning the lodging sector, there are 1,410 hotels (CEIC, n.d.), with an average of 205,000 hotel rooms (Abu Zaid, 2021) in Egypt. For the restaurant sector, in 2019, there were around 40,605 outlets, with generated sales of \$7.5 billion (United States Department of Agriculture, 2020), which has increased from \$4.6 billion in 2017 (Elshaer, 2022).

It should be noted that COVID-19 has affected hotels in Egypt, resulting in terminations, job cutting and reduced occupancy (Salem et al., 2021), however, the government was able to offer support to such firms by delaying payments, providing loans and training to staff concerning health and hygiene (Salem et al., 2021). Even though restaurants in Egypt have suffered as well during the pandemic, fine dining establishments more than fast foods (Elshaer, 2022), yet they were able to mitigate such impacts, better than hotels, where they relied more on home delivery (Sobaih et al., 2021). The report by Euromonitor International (2021) has claimed that eat-

in sales are expected to increase once again, as people are ready to consume their meals inside restaurants.

Environmental sustainability has become an urgent matter globally, where Egypt has started to pave its way towards sustainability, including the embedment of green measures. In 2016, the Ministry of Planning and Economic Development in Egypt has developed the Egypt Vision 2030 Sustainable Development Plan. This initiative parallels the United Nation's Sustainable Development Goals (UN SDGs), incorporating the dimensions of economic, social and environmental sustainability. It is also considered a first, major step in adopting sustainability practices within the country. Since then and to date, other ministries, including Environment, Tourism, Education, International Cooperation and Finance, have started to make efforts in order to achieve the Egypt Vision 2030. For example, in 2019, the Ministry of Environment launched the popular campaign named "Live Green", aimed to raising public awareness concerning environmental protection (Ahram Online, 2020). The Ministry of Education has altered school curriculums to include sustainability teachings for early school graders. Also, the UN's climate change, Conference of the Parties, session 27(COP27) in 2022 was held in Egypt during the month of November (United Nations Climate Change, n.d.).

For the tourism industry, the Ministry of Tourism has established the Green Star Hotel Program in 2015 to guide local hotels all over Egypt on sustainable matters by offering green certification. Hotels are rated and therefore certified according to their environmental standpoint. The major categories include sustainable & environmental management, employee engagement, water, energy, waste, food & beverage kitchen, guest room, gardening & beach area and guest information. Each category includes a list

of both obligatory criteria (to grant certification), as well as optional ones (leading to higher scores).

For example, the 'food & beverage kitchen' section mainly entails 60-80% sourcing from local suppliers, serving of larger water bottles, diversion of fats in sewage systems and posting of environmental instructions for staff related to energy & water usage, to minimize overconsumption. Some optional targets include provision of organic dishes, biodegradable cleaning agents, staff awareness of food allergies. However, this is the only single initiative established, where the industry still suffers and is short of adopting a proper environmental framework. In fact, El Demerdash and Mohamed (2013) and El Demerdash (2019) argue that the tourism and hospitality industry in Egypt should make efforts to incorporate environmental activities, where it heavily relies on the country's beaches and marine environment. This shows that it is a vital sector, therefore, signifying the importance of adopting sustainable measures within this specific industry. El Demerdash (2019) confirms that 29% of hotels in Egypt are certified as green hotels.

Nonetheless, the concept of environmental protection, through the adoption of green practices, is currently considered premature in Egypt. Even though there have been some green initiatives, both by the government and a few private businesses, for example, such as plastic reduction (Aboshady, 2019), yet it still remains vaguely understood by many others, including business owners, society, consumers, etc. There have been some environmentally related studies conducted in the Egyptian hospitality context for hotels (El Demerdash and Mohamed, 2013; Abou Kamar, 2017; El Demerdash, 2019; Abduelhassan and Elsayed, 2020; Sobaih et al., 2020; Soliman, 2020; Eid et

al.,2021; Rady et al., 2021) and fewer for restaurants (Saad and Raslan, 2017; Saleh and Elsaied, 2018; Abbas and Hussien, 2021).

However, to date, this approach is still not widely prevalent within the Egyptian hospitality context, due to the lack of frameworks, the know-how, infrastructure and required resources available on how to become more environmental-friendly. In other words, these earlier studies have not been able to highlight, in-depth, the major obstacles hindering the application of green practices nor the necessitated stakeholder entities required to influence such an implementation. Different stakeholders can have the ability to carry out a certain task, for example, the provision of a resource, in order to facilitate and progress the adoption of environmental measures within business operations. Yet, Sobaih et al. (2021) confirm that small tourism and hospitality firms in Egypt have important economic, social and environmental contributions, yet, they are neglected by the government and other regulators, from a sustainability perspective, which is even more apparent post COVID-19.

To be more specific, the hospitality industry in general is known for its contribution to environmental degradation (Baloglu et al., 2020), as a result of high consumption and therefore mismanagement of energy, water and waste. Precisely, the restaurant sector, in Egypt and other contexts, is currently in its infancy stage, when it comes to incorporating environmental criteria, compared with the lodging sector. Christ and Burritt (2017) confirm that restaurants have been neglected by environmental activists and researchers, in comparison with the amount of harm they cause. Restaurant businesses, in most cases, are discouraged from implementing green activities, and tend to neglect the overall concept of sustainability (Kasim and Ismail, 2012; Perramon et al., 2014; Cantele and Cassia, 2020).

Reasons include financial requirements, believing impact of restaurant processes, on the environment, is low and the general overall weak demand to go green (Kasim and Ismail, 2012, Iraldo et al., 2017).

Given the above, the study aims to explore the challenges restaurants face when implementing green practices and detailing how they can overcome certain barriers, through stakeholder engagement. Concentration is given on determining the roles that can be played by the various relevant stakeholder groups in achieving environmental goals of local restaurants. By interpreting the different stakeholder relations and possible types of influence on restaurant firms, this study can help in establishing a framework for progressing the industry, in terms of its environmental standpoint.

## **1.2 Rationale**

Around the world, hospitality/tourism businesses are considered as building blocks to any economy, thereby being of vital importance to any country. This is confirmed by Stringam and Partlow (2015, pg. 2), where the authors write that, "The hospitality industry has often been charged with helping to facilitate a global economy, often known as an ambassador to the community or country". This shows that the industry is a critical one, where it positively contributes to developing an economy.

On the other hand, although its importance is undeniable, however, it is inevitable that the industry has a big impact on the environment through the high consumption of various resources and waste generation (Cavagnaro and Gehrels, 2009; Hu et al., 2010; Pirani and Arafat, 2014; Filimonau et al., 2019; Baloglu et al., 2020). Even the production of greenhouse gas emissions (Lee et al., 2020) have been cited, where it is presumed toxic

particles are generated from hospitality operations, residing in the air, soil and water (Horng et al., 2017; Ashraf et al., 2019). Therefore, it should be expected that environmental degradation is high, as confirmed by Baloglu et al. (2020). In fact, Moosa and He (2021) advocate that it is required that the hospitality industry adopt environmental practices in order to be able to sustain in the long run, where resources are extensively consumed, causing high environmental damage (Ozturk et al., 2016).

Furthermore, Pirani and Arafat (2014) have claimed that the hospitality industry is growing, where it is projected that globally, it will rise from an average of \$3900 billion in 2021 to \$4500 billion in 2022 (ReportLinker, n.d.). This translates into increased waste levels, and the overly use of water and energy (Moliner et al., 2019), causing damage to the ecosystem. Filimonau et al. (2019) and Raab et al. (2018) declare the industry to be one of the least environmental-friendly, as a result of its contribution to and generation of pollution and wastes. The environment is greatly harmed by hospitality firms due to the misuse of energy and resource inefficiency (Prud'homme and Raymond, 2013), in addition to the use of environmentally harmful materials (Sakshi et al., 2020).

To date, studies in different contexts have claimed that the industry has started to give attention to environmental matters (Chan and Hsu, 2016; Kwok et al., 2016), where it is seen as necessary. This can be justified due to the industry's eco-sensitive nature, reliance on natural surroundings and importance in local development (Ioannidis et al., 2021). However, from a practical standpoint, the majority of businesses within this industry still tend to generally ignore protecting the environment for multiple reasons. Iraldo et al. (2017) explain this is due to a falsely perceived notion of their businesses generating minimal harm, in addition to, not comprehending the long-term impact of their operations and products on the environment. For the restaurant sector specifically, some outlets currently consume high levels of energy to perform their operations, generate huge amounts of both organic and solid waste, use disposables, and may not be active in sourcing sustainable ingredients nor engaging in environmental education (Jeong et al., 2014; Lang et al., 2020; Lee et al., 2020; Park et al., 2021).

The emergence of COVID-19 has ensured the provision of healthier and safely cooked meals using fresher, local sources. Restaurants also operated for less hours, which meant lower energy and water consumption, there was a high rise in the use of plastics. Kasim and Ismail (2012) and Kwok (2016) argue that most restaurants contribute to environmental deterioration, where many are not acknowledging this reality nor giving it the required attention. Therefore, this calls for such restaurants to start acting towards resolving environmental issues (Wang et al., 2013). In fact, if restaurants are to become sustainable, they are required to develop technological innovations and generally adopt green practices (Gossling et al., 2011; Chou et al., 2016; Horng et al., 2016; Chou et al., 2018).

Integrating sustainability actions within restaurant operations is becoming common, since consumers are becoming more aware of environmental issues (Cho and Yoo, 2021). Therefore, restaurant businesses try to implement green measures in terms of food sourcing, resource management, use of eco-packaging and waste reduction (Filimonau et al., 2017; Salzberg et al., 2019). These aspects are all related to the green philosophy, with the aim of conducting business in a way which relatively reduces environmental degradation. Restaurants striving towards implementing such practices are referred to as green restaurants (Jang et al., 2011; Namkung and Jang, 2013; Wang et al., 2013; Kwok et al., 2016).

Applying such practices can benefit restaurants in multiple ways, including reducing the harm to the environment by lowering energy and water consumption, as well as generated waste, both organic and solid (Kim et al., 2017; Baloglu et al., 2020; Cantele and Cassia 2020). It is also advantageous for them from financial and operational perspectives (Jang et al., 2017; Alonso-Almeida et al., 2018; Saleh and Elsaied, 2018), where costs are expected to decrease, due to the efficient use of resources or, in some instances, reduced purchases of certain materials, resulting in low levels of generated waste (Chiu and Hsieh, 2016; Iraldo et al., 2016; Namkung and Jang, 2017; Cantele and Cassia, 2020). Most importantly, value is also acquired from a marketing standpoint, where a restaurant's image is improved (Hu, 2015; Jang et al., 2015).

When some of these activities are adopted, it is either to comply with enforced regulations, which are currently at a minimum, or are voluntarily applied by the restaurant. It should be noted that restaurants face obstacles when adopting such practices (Kasim and Ismail, 2012; Raab et al., 2018; Saleh and Elsaied, 2018; Tan et al., 2018; Salzberg et al., 2019; Chevallier-



Chantepie and Batt, 2021; Meager et al., 2021) including for example, cost constraints and low consumer demand.

In developing contexts such as Egypt, there is more difficulty in understanding and applying green measures to firms, compared with developed nations, where such approaches may be more straightforward or feasible in terms of application. The prioritization of economic goals can also explain why businesses in developing countries may neglect adopting environmental objectives (Mihalic et al., 2012; Kim et al., 2017). Cotaie and Bacali (2017) advocate that companies have better environmental performance in more economically advanced nations, with cultural background of the operative country having an effect as well. Song et al. (2018) find that companies' adoption of environmental practices is affected by national culture, which of course differs from a country to another, and suggest further understanding of how cultures can contribute to environmental preservation while achieving economic growth.

Due to the above, where the idea is introduced in few relevant academic studies (Welter, 2012; Kasim and Ismail, 2012; Jang et al., 2017), the need for acknowledging and engaging stakeholder is vital, where such groups can foster and induce the implementation of green measures. For example, whether it is governmental legislation and initiatives to become more sustainable, as stated earlier, or consumer demand for green products/services, the inclusion of stakeholders is considered viable in environmental management (Jang et al., 2017; Perrigot et al., 2021; Haleem et al., 2022; Kaur et al., 2022; Shin and Cho, 2022).

Harrison et al. (2015) also claim that the stakeholder theory approach can be advantageous for businesses in developing nations, where stakeholder

engagement will be of value-adding, since for example, access to resources is sometimes difficult. Stakeholder management is one of the tactics used for planning strategically and revolves around the process of value creation (Laplume et al., 2008; Harrison et al., 2015). Yet to date, research focusing on restaurants from a managerial perspective (Jang et al., 2017; Raab et al., 2018; Kwok and Huang, 2019; Salzberg et al., 2019; Baloglu et al., 2020; Meager et al., 2021) have not yet fully explored, in order to detail, which stakeholder groups can work with restaurant management and how they can develop and push the industry forward in implementing environmental measures, as mentioned above.

### **1.3 Problem Statement**

According to the above, restaurants are contributing to environmental harm and also lack the knowledge concerning which stakeholders can participate in their green journey, including the possible roles these stakeholders can fulfill to aid them in becoming more environmental-friendly. This gives support for the need to research such aspects and within the restaurant sector, firstly, due to the number of establishments in Egypt, where already local brands are beginning to consider and mitigate some of their harm on the environment, such as TBS, Zooba and Eish w Malh.

Secondly, the hospitality/tourism industry, from a governmental perspective, in Egypt has already started giving attention to hotels, in terms of their environmental sustainability. This has created a gap for the restaurant industry, with no guidelines provided on how this sector can be more environmentally conscious. Thirdly, from past environmental restaurant studies (Chiu and Hsieh, 2016; Nicolau et al., 2020; Cho and Yoo, 2021; Oshua et al., 2022; Riva et al., 2022; Shin and Cho, 2022), it can be

concluded that stakeholders have a role and can therefore help restaurants become more environmental-friendly.

To be more specific, this thesis is set out to understand restaurant challenges in adopting green practices in Egypt and how different stakeholders can help in progressing their green management application.

#### **1.4 Aim and Objectives**

The aim of this research is to explore the challenges faced by restaurants in Egypt when adopting environmental practices and depict the important stakeholder groups and their relevant roles, using salience attributes. In order to achieve this aim, the study objectives are as follows:

1. To explore the barriers faced by restaurant operators in adopting green measures in Egypt.
2. To determine the stakeholder groups in addition to their evaluative salience attributes, relevant in the greening of the Egyptian restaurant industry.
3. To understand the roles and impact of such stakeholders within the restaurant industry in Egypt.
4. To develop a new conceptual framework, depicting the implementation of restaurant green practices using a stakeholder value perspective.

Achieving the above objectives will allow the research to provide certain outcomes, specifically from theoretical and conceptual perspectives.

Theoretically, it is expected that further understanding and exploration of stakeholder engagement in the adoption of restaurant green practices will

contribute to the refinement of stakeholder theory, including stakeholder salience theory. It is also presumed that green restaurant literature will benefit with newer and different approaches to green application. From a conceptual lens, the research maybe able to develop a framework depicting how both restaurants and their stakeholders can co-operate in the process of applying green practices, in addition to management recommendations. The research outcomes may also be able to provide a practical solution/s, to restaurants and policy makers, to progress the adoption of green practices.

## **1.5 Structure of the Research Chapters**

**Chapter 1:** introduces the research, the rationale of the study, problem statement, as well as the aim and objectives.

**Chapter 2:** discusses the relevant academic literature concerning green management, restaurants' environmental impact and green restaurants. The chapter highlights current gaps in literature, where it is expected that they are fulfilled by this study.

**Chapter 3:** discusses stakeholder theory, stakeholder salience attributes, stakeholder influence including the network concept. This chapter ends with the presentation of a conceptual framework for the study.

**Chapter 4:** outlines the research methodology deemed appropriate to answer the research questions. It presents the researcher's ontological, epistemological and axiological views. A qualitative approach is applied, where two tools are used for data collection; in-depth interviews and a focus

group discussion. Sampling, data analysis techniques and ethical considerations are also discussed.

**Chapter 5:** presents the findings of the initial data collection stage i.e., the in-depth interviews with restaurants. The data was analyzed using a thematic analysis technique, where six major themes have emerged, detailing the outcomes from this stage.

**Chapter 6:** disseminates the findings that have resulted from the focus group discussion carried out with the identified stakeholders. A thematic analysis is once again used, where five themes have also been generated.

**Chapter 7:** presents a combined discussion of the research findings, which were detailed in chapters 4&5. The chapter compares such findings with current academic literature and derives important insights and conclusions.

**Chapter 8:** discusses how the aim and objectives were met. In addition, it outlines the theoretical and practical contributions. Limitations and future research are also highlighted.

## Chapter 2 – Green Management

### 2.1 Introduction

Environmental sustainability is gaining momentum, where concepts such as waste management, resource efficiency, climate change and energy optimization are becoming a global trend. As a result, some nations and businesses have started to give attention to preserving the environment and its sustainability, through engaging in the application of green practices and providing greener products.

The purpose of this chapter is to review the literature pertaining to green management and the relevant theories cited in academic literature. Another section is dedicated to the restaurant sector, including their environmental impact, the establishment of green restaurants and also the academic theories that have been used to study different concepts within this area. This process will help in providing a thorough and critical review including the highlighting of literature gaps. As a result, the study's aim and objectives can be developed accordingly, with the purpose of filling such gaps.

In order to achieve this, a systematic process for searching and reviewing the literature was followed. To be more specific, certain keywords were used such as green management, green practices, green measures, environmental management, eco-friendly, environmental-friendly, restaurants, food-service establishments, cafes, dining. These precise keywords are directly related to the areas of academic interest and have generated the relevant literature. The databases used to search for such keywords mainly included Scopus, JSTOR, Google Scholar and ScienceDirect. The most valuable journals which have yielded critical papers were *The*

*International Journal of Hospitality Management, The International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, Sustainability, Journal of Cleaner Production, Journal of Sustainable Tourism, Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research, Tourism Management and Sustainability.* This chapter is divided into few sections to include green management, restaurants' environmental impact and green restaurants.

## **2.2 Green Management**

Green is a word used to refer to environmental aspects, and is interchangeable with other terminology, such as sustainable, eco-friendly, environmental sustainability and environmental-friendly. Loknath and Azeem (2017) also claim that green management is synonymous with environmental management, corporate sustainability and corporate environmentalism. All these terminologies are used to refer to environmental preservation with the purpose of maintaining and sustaining its resources on the long-run. The following sections will firstly discuss green management definitions in more detail. Next, theories used in past academic literature are presented, followed by exploring the green management concept in the hospitality industry.

### **2.2.1 Definitions and development**

The purpose of green management is simply to protect the environment. This means a green management approach is one that revolves around optimizing the consumption of certain resources and minimizing the wastes that are generated. Engaging in such practices will greatly allow for the

containment of environmental harm, resulting in better environmental preservation.

Green management practices, tailored around environmental dimensions, can help in achieving sustainability goals (Raharjo, 2019). Wang et al. (2013, pg. 264) write that "Green industry is sustainable industry". This means that adopting green strategies leads the way to a more sustainable environment. Mensah (2019, pg. 10) puts forth that "environmental sustainability is about the natural environment and how it remains productive and resilient to support human life". In other words, it's mainly concerned with protecting the environment and its resources in order to endure future generations.

Yucedag et al. (2018) explain that the misuse of natural resources has resulted in environmental damage leading to climate change, pollution and global warming, which in turn negatively affects human life.

From a business perspective, Haden et al. (2009, pg. 1052) establish and provide a definition for green management:

"Green management is the organization-wide process of applying innovation to achieve sustainability, waste reduction, social responsibility, and a competitive advantage via continuous learning and development and by embracing environmental goals and strategies that are fully integrated with the goals and strategies of the organization".

The above definition shows that a green approach to management contributes to sustainability, minimization of waste types, including plastic,



paper, hazardous and organic, as well as social development through new and innovative tactics. Such innovations can lead to improved competitive advantage, which can for example, be achieved by means of improved resource efficiency, minimization of costs and satisfaction of the public.

Sustainability, as mentioned previously, is related to the pillars of green management. Svensson and Wagner (2012, pg. 544) describe sustainability as “a company’s or an organization’s efforts to manage (minimize and optimize) its impact on Earth’s life and eco-systems (i.e., E-footprint) and its whole business network (i.e., Total E-Footprint)”.

Lim (2016, pg. 162) articulates sustainability precisely as “economic (profit), environmental (planet), and social (people) well-being”. The author explicitly highlights sustainability to entail 3 main dimensions which include the environment, the people as well as economic development. When one of these dimensions is improved, it is presumed to have positive effects on the other dimensions, thereby progressing each of them forward (Moosa and He, 2021). For example, adopting environmental measures within business operations will lead to economic and social benefits, such as cost savings or developing local markets.

In general, nations and businesses globally have started to make effort and work towards becoming more sustainable by trying to minimize the harmful impacts on the future and the depletion of resources (Mensah, 2019). This is majorly due to the development of the United Nation’s Sustainable Development Goals in 2015. These goals include economic stability, environmental protection, sustainable communities, clean energy, quality education, overcoming poverty, etc. (United Nations, n.d.).

Major environmental trends around the world now include the reduction of plastics, combating climate change, the use of clean energy, conserving water and purchasing greener products (Han et al., 2009, Jang et al., 2017 Jang and Zheng, 2020). Applying green practices can have positive effects, both environmental and economical. From an environmental perspective, it is expected that minimizing wastes for example will contribute to environmental protection. Economically, the business can reduce costs due to managing its resource usage (Juliao et al., 2018; Singjai et al., 2018). From an academic perspective, the topic of green management has been studied using different theoretical lens. The next section therefore will outline these major theories, which have been discussed earlier in green management/sustainability literature.

### ***2.2.2 Green management theories***

In the academic world, there are multiple theories that have been used by scholars to study green and sustainable management. Of the most common are institutional theory (Gauthier, 2013; Glover et al., 2014; Raab et al., 2018; Gupta and Gupta, 2021), resource dependency theory (Foerstl et al., 2015; Al-Shaer and Zaman, 2018; Rossignoli and Lionzo, 2018), resource-based view (Darcy et al., 2014; Barrutia and Echebarria, 2015; Savino and Shafiq, 2018; Arda et al., 2021), stakeholder theory (Frynas and Yamahaki, 2013; Horisch et al., 2014; Montiel and Delgado-Ceballos, 2014; Vilchez et al., 2017; Schaltegger et al., 2017; Freudenreich et al., 2020) and the theory of planned behavior (Chou et al., 2012; Jang et al., 2015; Chung, 2016; Shen, 2017; Tommasetti et al., 2018; Salzbery, 2019), which are explained in Table 2.1.

**Table 2.1 Major theories in green and sustainability management**

<b>Theory</b>	<b>Meaning</b>
Institutional theory	How organizations choose to behave or respond to external/social pressures (DiMaggio and Powell, 1983).
Resource dependency theory	Explains how external resources, which contribute to organizational success, can influence organizational behaviors (Pfeffer and Salancik, 1978).
Resource-based view (RBV)	Competitive advantage and long-term success depend on a firm's acquisition of unique and valuable resources (Barney, 1991)
Stakeholder theory	A stakeholder is one that can affect or is affected by the achievement of the organization's objectives. Firms should manage for stakeholders for ultimate value creation (Freeman, 1984)
Theory of planned behavior (TPB)	Intentions to carry out a behavior can be predicted by studying attitudes, subjective norms and perceived behavioral control (Ajzen, 1991).

To be more specific, these previous studies have set out to further understand sustainability approaches or how they can be adopted, examples of which include, how stakeholder pressures may influence the adoption of environmental practices (Vilchez et al., 2017). Others give attention to sustainable supply chains (Foerstl et al., 2015) and sustainable productions (Savino and Shafiq, 2018). Research has also aimed to investigate managers' (Chou et al., 2012; Salzbery, 2019) and consumers' (Chung, 2016; Shen, 2017) attitudes towards green adoption and consumption, respectively. Another study considers whether the existence of resources leads to sustainability planning (Barrutia and Echebarria, 2015).

These studies confirm that green and sustainability management are topics of attention. However, there is room and opportunity to yet understand how businesses can practically engage in sustainable development (Gray 2010;

Giovannoni and Fabietti, 2014; Mensah and Enu-Kwesi, 2018; Mensah, 2019), which is considered a challenging task. In specific, research is required into which stakeholders are considered important and how each of these stakeholders can help in implementing and achieving environmental targets through stakeholder engagement. Other lens, from a theoretical perspective, such as resource theories or behavioral theory (TPB), will not allow for the further exploration and in-depth understanding of how the stakeholder approach and salience theory can be utilized for facilitating and achieving environmental sustainability in Egyptian restaurants. For this reason, this study chooses to adopt the stakeholder ideology and not other academic theories, such as the ones in Table 2.1.

The inclusion and participation of stakeholders i.e., stakeholder engagement, is common in environmentally sustainable research (Frynas and Yamahaki, 2013; Horisch et al., 2014; Montiel and Delgado-Ceballos, 2014; Chan and Hsu, 2016; Vilchez et al., 2017) and in adopting sustainable practices (Haleem et al., 2022). It can also have positive effects on a firm's sustainable performance (Strand et al., 2015; Silva et al., 2019). Delivering value to firm stakeholders is one of the major outcomes when implementing sustainability objectives (Bocken et al., 2013; Schaltegger et al., 2017; Upward and Jones 2016; Ludeke-Freund and Dembek, 2017).

In their suggested framework to achieving sustainability goals, in specific ones directly related to the SDGs, Raub and Martin-Rios (2018) propose that it is necessary for hospitality firms to list the important stakeholder groups relevant to the specific context. Failing to foster stakeholder participation hinders the application of sustainable business models (Fobbe and Hilletoft, 2021). The authors believe that firms face difficulties in tackling

sustainability matters solely, claiming that working with stakeholders can help overcome this.

Freudenreich et al. (2020) presume stakeholder co-operation contributes to the achievement of sustainability objectives by means of supplying important resources. Meixell and Luoma (2015) conclude that stakeholders can highly impact the decision of firms to adopt sustainable supply chain practices. In fact, the authors put forth that different stakeholder groups have varying influence on supply chain decisions, such as purchasing, product design, packaging, logistics, etc.

Concerning stakeholder groups, Byrd (2007) outlines present and future visitors, as well as host communities, as important stakeholders in sustainable tourism. Presenza and Cipollina (2010) claim that hospitality firms in Italy find public stakeholders, namely governments and tourism bureau as critical for their managerial and marketing activities. Mbasera (2015) recommends hotels in Zimbabwe and South Africa to educate consumers and employees concerning environmental issues, while suppliers are provided with environmental knowledge in order to provide relevant products and services. Roxas et al. (2020) develop a framework of tourism stakeholders to include community, local & national government, businesses and international bodies (tourism organizations).

From their case study, Fliaster and Kolloch (2017) claim that external stakeholders, including governments, communities and regulators not only affect the adoption of a green innovation project, but actively engage with other stakeholders to further impact the focal organization. The authors confirm the importance of acknowledging the invisible relationships between stakeholders and their relative impact. This means that the focal

organization should be wary of the network ties between stakeholders and how such relationships can affect or influence it. This concept has been presented in several studies. For example, Vilchez et al. (2017) claim that stakeholders, including suppliers, employees, government and media, shape firm management in terms of the environmental practices to be adopted.

Another study by Thomas et al. (2021) argues that in Italy, non-contractual stakeholders, including universities, community and competitors have higher effects, than contractual ones, on SMEs' decision to adopt green innovative strategies, although excluding employee influence. Seroka-Stolka and Fijorek (2020) specifically find that governments/regulators, top management and shareholders had the highest impact on a firm's proactive environmental strategy within the food industry and others, while Sanchez-Medina et al. (2016) state the community drives hotels to adopt environmental measures in Mexico. These studies show that stakeholders can drive a firm to adopt green measures, presumably through influence or pressure. Exploration of stakeholders in the restaurant sector will be presented in a later section (2.6.2).

### ***2.2.3 Green management in hospitality***

Green hospitality includes products and services provided by green hotels and restaurants (Jang et al., 2011; Han, 2015; Line et al., 2016; Han, 2020), which are becoming common in the hospitality and tourism industries (Joshua et al., 2022). Green restaurants, similar to green hotels, also aim to provide consumers with greener foods while minimizing their harm to the environment, such as managing their waste and reducing the use of disposables (Line et al., 2016). Kim et al. (2017, pg. 236) explain that "a

green practice is a value-added business strategy that benefits a hospitality operation that engages in environmental protection initiatives". The authors conclude that green measures are not only a means of merely environmental preservation, but also a way of gaining competitive advantage. The study supported earlier arguments made by Jones et al. (2014), in terms of sustainability within hospitality, claiming that hospitality businesses perceive sustainability from a business perspective, as a tool to achieve resource efficiency and become stronger competitively. This perspective is also put forth by Miles and Covin (2000). Such studies are claiming that hospitality firms may be choosing to adopt sustainability criteria for specific business reasons, presumably such as cost savings, due to the efficient use of resources and being distinguished in the market by offering greener products.

According to the above, some hospitality organizations maybe opting to integrate sustainable activities into their operations as a means of business success. However, there are others, for the purpose of improving their image, who may falsify their efforts in adopting green practices, in order to be perceived by consumers as environmental-friendly. Such acts are referred to as greenwashing. Delmas and Burbano (2011, pg.65) define greenwashing as "...the intersection of two firm behaviors: poor environmental performance and positive communication about environmental performance". On their website, Greenpeace, a US environmental NGO, writes "Greenwashing is a PR tactic used to make a company or product appear environmentally friendly, without meaningfully reducing its environmental impact" (n.d.). Such definitions put forth that greenwashing is when businesses' environmental practices don't match their environmental claims.

Seele and Gatti (2017, pg.248) present an altered definition; “greenwashing is a co-creation of an external accusation toward an organization with regard to presenting a misleading green message”, where the authors advocate to be classified as greenwashing, external accusation must take place. Rahman et al. (2015) argue consumers in USA question the authenticity of hotels’ environmental practices when such practices are portrayed or marketed in a way to reduce cost for example, which in turn affects their return intentions. This is supported by Zhang et al. (2022), claiming greenwashing affects a consumer’s repurchase of hospitality products and generates a negative word of mouth. Recommendations to counter greenwashing misperceptions include effective communication, required tools for reducing waste, reducing emissions and raising awareness (Kapoor et al., 2021; Majeed and Kim, 2023; Molina-Collado et al., 2022). From a food service perspective, Cavazos et al. (2023) also emphasize the role of institutions, i.e., a university in the USA, to strategically locate their composting bins where they are clearly visible to students, in addition to educating these students about food waste, with the purpose of reducing the occurrence of greenwashing incidents.

The benefits from adopting environmentally sustainable practices have been reported in prior hospitality industry studies. It has been found that when hospitality businesses adopt environmentally sustainable measures, they are able to enhance both customer satisfaction and the company’s reputation, competitiveness and firm performance (Manaktola and Jauhari, 2007; Rao et al., 2009; Han et al., 2011; Kim and Han, 2010; Kang et al., 2012; DiPietro et al., 2013; Llach et al., 2013; Bagur-Femenías et al., 2013; Alonso-Almeida et al., 2018; Yi et al., 2018; Merli et al., 2019). Mbasera (2015) also states that hotels in Africa can reduce their costs by using resources efficiently and the ability to engage in mitigating environmental harm.



The hotel sector has been given much more attention in academic research, from an environmental perspective. Sharma et al. (2020) state that eco-innovation research, including green certifications, green consumerism, environmental strategy, etc. concerning hotels, from 1998-2018, constitutes 56% of articles, while restaurants were found to be only 17%. Acampora et al. (2022) claim that hotels are dominant in green implementation, which is attributed to both management environmental awareness and consumer demand for greener services. According to Green Lodging Trends Report (2018), 30% of hotels have stopped using single use plastics, 75% are engaged in recycling, 75% have low flow toilets, 91% encourage towel reuse and 77% communicate green initiatives in their guest rooms. The report is a survey of 4544 hotels from 60 different countries. Since this sector is already progressing in its environmental agenda, the next section will instead focus on the restaurant sector and its harm on the environment.

### **2.3 Restaurants' Environmental Impact**

Although most restaurant businesses are considered SMEs, they are considered to have a high impact on the environment and therefore, should not neglect focusing on its protection (Wang et al., 2013). It is important to understand how restaurant businesses affect the environment and contribute in harming its resources. This section will help in presenting the different ways restaurant products and services impact the environment. Such a discussion is needed in order to meet the objectives of the research; understanding challenges in the Egyptian restaurant context and the required stakeholder engagement.

The processes carried out to provide restaurant products and services are considered harmful and therefore, result in environmental degradation. In fact, not only does this impact the environment, but people as well are

affected negatively (Baldwin et al., 2011; Filimonau et al., 2017; Salzberg et al., 2019). Examples include breathing in polluted air containing greenhouse gas (GHGs) emissions, or consuming foods that include plastic residues, leading to higher probabilities of getting diseases. In other words, people are impacted by the type of food consumed, how it is prepared and the environment they are served in.

In most cases, restaurants deter any concern towards adopting environmental action, because they find their impact to be negligible or not worthy of tackling (Gössling, 2002; Legrand et al., 2010; Kasim and Ismail; 2012). Restaurants tend to disregard taking action towards preserving the environment for a few reasons. Firstly, some restaurants believe that since their overall size is comparatively smaller than other businesses in the hospitality industry, namely the lodging sector, then the harm resultant from their operations is somehow contained. This is supported by Kasim and Ismail (2012, pg. 553) where they claim that "...there are hundreds of thousands of independently owned restaurant operations that 'fly under the radar' when in fact, alone or collectively, restaurants are adding to environment degradation, as an effect from their daily operational activities". This means restaurant management feel that their businesses are not harmful like other large-scale businesses, i.e., hotels, where it is likely that their contribution to environmental degradation isn't as high.

Secondly, restaurants may not prioritize environmental conservation due to required capital (Hu et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2013; Iaquinto, 2014; Perramon et al., 2014; Cantele and Cassia, 2020) needed for implementing environmental systems, investing in specific machinery, procuring green products and training for staff. Other reasons can be attributed to the inadequate knowledge or know-how to go green as well as low societal pressure to become more environmentally conscientious.

Park et al. (2021) argue that restaurant environmental impact is substantially significant. Restaurant operations consume high levels of resources, both renewable and non-renewable, and contribute to the overall generation of waste (McAdams et al., 2019; Baloglu et al., 2020; Lang et al., 2020), thereby causing environmental degradation. To be more specific, waste includes organic, which is food related and non-organic energy, water, plastic, paper and cans.

Energy consumption is one of the issues that causes environmental harm in the restaurant industry. Baloglu et al. (2020) claim that restaurants have to bear costly utility bills due to gas and power needed to carry out their operations. In fact, Ioannidis et al. (2021) find that hospitality firms focusing on reuse, reduce and recycling strategies can have financial advantages, where optimal and efficient use of water and energy will lead to a reduction in utility bills. In addition, multiple studies assert that restaurants use high levels of energy within their operations (Hu et al., 2013; Lee et al., 2020) which is needed for cooling, heating, ventilating and air condition (HVAC), storage, cooking and required transportation (Jeong and Jang, 2010; Schubert et al., 2010). Dewald et al. (2014) argue that restaurants are high consumers of energy, claiming it to be 2.5 more times than other businesses. This clearly shows that restaurant operations require high levels of energy in order to be carried out. In fact, in their study of Taiwanese restaurants, Wang et al. (2013) find that the inefficient use of energy in equipment results in generating carbon dioxide emissions.

Food waste is another aspect posing concerns in the hospitality industry; however, it is starting to gain attention specifically in the restaurant sector (Lang et al., 2020). Food waste generated from cooked meals is around 7-24% (Katajajuuri et al., 2014) and 45-65% during food preparation (Filimonau et al., 2019). Food waste and loss have negative environmental

consequences, such as the generation of greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions (Garnett, 2011; Lang et al., 2020), contribution to climate change (Chauhan et al., 2021), high use of water and energy for food production (Cuellar and Webber, 2010; Lang et al., 2020), as well as economic and social related issues (Principato et al., 2018; Baul et al., 2021; Chalak et al., 2021) such as increasing poverty rates.

This shows that food waste is a critical aspect and one that should be tackled and managed in the restaurant industry (McAdams et al., 2019). Sakaguchi et al. (2018) and Dhir et al. (2020) advocate that different stakeholders, such as governments, communities, consumers and employees including chefs and managers, can be both attributed to the contribution of food waste and, are at the same time able to engage in minimizing it. Overall, managers can promote the concept through communicating positive environmental messages (Chen and Jai, 2018) which can result in more positive consumer attitudes and perhaps providing incentives to ones who finish their food.

Other tactics would be to collaborate with food banks or charities, as mentioned by Pirani and Arafat (2016) and Miroso et al. (2018). Yet, Sakaguchi et al. (2018) state that more than 70% of restaurants in the US avoid donations due to legal issues, so instead they resort to giving it to employees or customers as they leave. Filimonau et al. (2019) also argue restaurants in Bulgaria should carry out improved forecasting to reduce their food waste, while governments can help by increasing public awareness through campaigns. For example, the EU Commission is seeking to reduce food waste and loss through certain aspects such as managing 'best before' dates on food items and resorting to food donations by the end of 2023 (European Commission, n.d.). Such targets are aimed at creating a more sustainable food system, which can ensure higher food security.

The high level of environmental degradation in the restaurant industry has triggered the development of green associations to provide awareness and guidance to such businesses in terms of becoming more environmental-friendly (Jeong et al., 2014). These restaurant associations, including ones tailored for sustainability, are popular in developed nations such as the US, UK and Canada where they help promote the restaurant industry. Popular ones include the Green Restaurant Association (GRA) as mentioned earlier, Sustainable Restaurant Association (SRA) in the UK, Green Table Network in Canada (DiPietro et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2013). Such associations help to represent the industry by providing education related to sustainability management and certain services tailored to minimizing environmental impacts. This is shown in the following Table:

**Table 2.2 Green Restaurant Associations**

<p><b>GRA (1990)</b></p>	<p>Provides services to restaurants, consumers, employees and suppliers on how to become green. The association provides restaurants with an initial assessment to determine their current level of sustainability. Certification for restaurants is according to: energy, water, waste, food, chemicals &amp; pollution, reusables &amp; disposables, building &amp; furnishing, education &amp; transparency (GRA, 2022). Recycling, composting and nonuse of polystyrene foam are a must for earning any certification, where there exists a level 1 and then 3 levels of stars. <i>Examples: Park Café, Design Cuisine, Blackburn Restaurant, Greek Eats, Chick-fil-A, Honeycomb Café, Barcade LA, Coral Tree Café Brentwood.</i></p>
<p><b>SRA</b></p>	<p>'Food Made Good' framework in 2010, focuses on sourcing, society (people) and the environment. Currently its community consists of around 10,500 food service providers and 74 suppliers. Members are rated according to their sustainability performance. Such accreditation is considered a means of validating an outlet's sustainable efforts to consumers, staff and potential investors (SRA, 2022). The association also provides an online community for businesses to discuss mutual issues. The association has online community hubs in the UK, Hong Kong, Greece and Japan. <i>Examples: Nando's, Pizza Hut, Coast to Coast, FireJacks, Chiquito, Maray, Joe's Kitchen.</i></p>
<p><b>Green Table Network (2007)</b></p>	<p>Certifies &amp; recognizes green restaurants according to: elimination of plastics, recycling, water management, efficient lighting, sustainable menu item, adoption of a sustainability philosophy (Green table network, 2022). The association also provides a directory of suppliers who are engaged in environmental services, such as recycling, waste management, fresh food producers as well as offering sustainability related business solutions. <i>Examples: Bishop's Restaurant, Vij's Rangoli, Cactus Club, Sobo Restaurant, Gone Village Eatery, Ricardo's Mediterranean Kitchen.</i></p>

From the above table, it can be seen that these restaurant associations are established to help promote the restaurant industry on environmental matters. They all mainly tackle the same issues, such as waste management and food sustainability, as well as providing a channel to display or market any green businesses, such as suppliers. These associations also offer restaurants a way to be credible in their industry, on a sustainable level, by offering green certification. They are considered a means of providing solutions on how to operate in a more environmental-friendly way. From their websites, it is clear that such associations focus on linking restaurants

mainly with suppliers. Yet, they don't foster the comprehensive networking of restaurants with wider potential stakeholders that may be of importance for engaging in environmental protection. Other stakeholders are presumably critical and required, such as customers, governments or communities each in their own way of progressing the implementation of environmental/green criteria. Engaging certain stakeholders can be very important and effective to the greening of the restaurant industry.

Earlier in this section, it was highlighted that restaurants have adverse impacts on the environment, yet the majority aren't proactive when it comes to environmental protection. This could be due to the nonexistent institutional pressures, relating to institutional theory, from the external environment in terms of becoming more environmental-friendly or the inability to acquire the required resources i.e., resource theories, such as financial capital. On the other hand, the existence of stakeholders, relating to stakeholder theory, can aid these restaurants by progressing the adoption of green criteria in their products and services, with the goal of minimizing environmental harm. Once again, identifying stakeholders, understanding how they can co-operate with these restaurants and engage in green management implementation, with the purpose of overcoming certain barriers, can be advantageous and is the focus of this research.

Also, such associations exist for developed, more economically stable nations, such as the ones above, where on the contrary, such businesses are not existent in developing contexts including Egypt.

## 2.4 Green Restaurants

Even though, as argued above, most restaurants don't prioritize the environment, there are few food outlets that have started to put effort in minimizing their environmental impact. Kaur et al. (2022) claim that restaurants have started to acknowledge the harm they cause to the environment through participation in environmental initiatives. To reduce the harm to the environment resulting from restaurant operations, a greener approach to managing such businesses is starting to take rise in some contexts. Such an approach calls on a restaurant to change how food is sourced, the way service is provided, the handling of waste management, as well as water use minimization and optimization of energy consumption (Filimonau et al., 2017; Salzberg et al., 2019). In fact, it is often referred to as the three Rs; reduce, reuse and recycle and two Es; energy and efficiency (Gilg et al., 2005).

Hu et al. (2010) confirm that the food and beverage industry is increasingly recognizing its ability to make an environmental contribution, which is evidenced by the growth and development of green restaurants, such as ones affiliated and certified by the restaurant associations mentioned earlier. On their website, Lumina Intelligence (n.d.) writes that a few restaurants in the UK try to be sustainable by using less plastic throughout their supply chains and growing some of their own produce within their outlets or sourcing from local producers. In fact, Perramon et al. (2014), claim that restaurants can experience pressure from customers, suppliers, the government, and other stakeholders for adopting green practices, and can also fear the risk of arriving late when competitors are becoming increasingly engaged in such practices.



In general, a green restaurant is defined as one that aims to apply green measures within its operations, by integrating a recycling process, engaging in waste management reduction, providing green foods, as well as, practicing efficient energy and water management (Jang et al., 2011).

In literature, most green restaurant studies refer to the definitions of green restaurants developed by either Lorenzini (1994) or the Green Restaurant Association (GRA), a US based nonprofit organization aimed at promoting the sustainability of the restaurant industry.

Lorenzini defines green restaurants as (1994, pg. 119) “new or renovated structures designed, constructed, operated, and demolished in an environmentally-friendly and energy-efficient manner”. The author puts forth that a green restaurant is one that is initially designed, built, functions and terminated (at end of its cycle) with environmental considerations. Although many green restaurant studies refer to this definition (Tan and Yeap, 2012; Namkung and Jang, 2013, 2017; Wu et al., 2013; Teng et al., 2015; Chung, 2016; Tan et al., 2018; Hwang and Lee, 2019), yet it is not able to highlight the details or main elements of a green restaurant.

Even though the GRA doesn't offer an explicit definition, it does however outline the different dimensions required to implement green practices in areas such as water, energy management, waste and recycling, sustainable foods, reusables and disposables, sustainable goods & building materials, chemical & pollution reduction, transparency & education (Green Restaurant Association, 2021). Within each of these categories, a list of detailed criteria is presented, with the aim of granting certification. This articulation put forth by the GRA is more usable, since it is more comprehensive and practical. Studies conforming to such a definition include Chou et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2013; Jang et al., 2015; Jeng and Yeh, 2016; Jang et al., 2017.

## **2.5 Green restaurant studies**

To date, green restaurant studies either focus on unfolding the dynamics of green consumers or on further understanding the variables affecting management decisions to adopt green measures. However, the majority of these studies are consumer-based, which have set out to understand consumer perceptions, attitudes, behaviors and intentions towards green restaurants. Such studies have explored several concepts including consumer preference towards green products/services, consumer's willingness to pay (WTP) a premium for green products/services and consumer intention to patronize green restaurants. Studies in this category, as well, have been conducted to profile the "green" consumer. The other perspective taken in green restaurant studies, yet not as dominant as the previous category, are managerially-based. These studies were conducted with the purpose of understanding management green attitudes, as well as what drives them to adopt such practices. The following sections will discuss both categories in detail.

### ***2.5.1 Consumer-Focused studies***

Consumers are an important aspect for any business. In fact, when dining out at a restaurant, one of the deciding factors that some consumers base their decision on, is this restaurant's green stance. This "evaluation" by the consumer is related to the restaurant's waste, water and energy management, packaging, recyclability, provision of local, organic foods as well as their use of plastics, bottles and cans, according to the NRA (2020). To date, consumer-based researches have mainly studied consumer demographics, attitudes, personal values and experiences, as well as

emotions, in order to understand their behavioral intentions towards green restaurants. Each of these will be discussed next in a separate section:

## **I. Demographics**

Demographics serve as a significant factor when it comes to disseminating green consumers. A few green restaurant studies aimed not only to depict how certain demographics can help shape the profile of a green consumer, but also how such various groups value green practices differently. Studies have used demographics as a factor to highlight how consumer preferences differ towards green practices and their effect on behavioral intentions.

For example, when it comes to gender, some studies have shown that females are more concerned about environmental issues and can engage in more ecological behaviors, than their male counterparts. Even though this claim was rejected by Hu et al. (2010), perhaps due to cultural differences i.e., Taiwan, it is however, supported by others including Szuchnicki (2009), Schubert et al. (2010), DiPietro et al. (2013a), Hu (2015), Kwok et al. (2016), Namkung and Jang (2017) and Sarmiento and Hanandeh (2018).

Age, another demographic aspect, has been used in order to further understand its relevance to consumers' green behaviors. There have been some conflicting advocations in terms of the age group with more environmental concern. Some studies claim that environmental behaviors are more correspondent with older people, aged 40+ (Hu et al., 2010; DiPietro et al., 2013), while more recent studies argue that younger consumers, aged 35 and less, are more likely to display environmental behaviors (Schubert et al., 2010, Hu, 2015; Kwok et al., 2016; Namkung and Jang, 2017; Sarmiento and Hanandeh, 2018). In specific, Kwok et al. (2016) point out that people with children, whom are concerned with their

children's health, and younger consumers give more care towards the sustainability of the food consumed; food-focused attributes. In fact, consumers aged 18-35, referred to as millennials, are more likely to be advocates of green consumerism (demanding green products), especially ones whom are concerned with their own health (Nicolau et al., 2020).

Another demographic factor tackled in green restaurant studies is income. Some studies reveal that income isn't a predictor of green behaviors (Hu, 2015; Kwok et al., 2016), while an earlier study by Schubert et al. (2010) states that people earning higher incomes are less inclined to be involved in environmental behaviors than people with lower incomes. On the contrary, others have supported that income is, in fact, relevant when trying to understand green consumers; the higher the income, the more consumers are engaged in green practices (Hu et al., 2010). This is possibly attributed to the fact that such people earn higher incomes, where, for example, they are able to afford the consumption of organic foods.

Education, another aspect of demographics, was also assessed in terms of its relevance to understanding green consumers. Once again, Hu et al. (2010) and DiPietro et al. (2013) found that people with higher education are more environmentally conscious, while Hu (2015) and Kwok et al. (2016) found that education serves as non-significant in understanding green consumers. This signals that perhaps one's education is starting to not be a determinant of green consumers.

Some studies have used such demographics to understand consumers' willingness to pay (WTP) more for a restaurant's green product/service. According to Namkung and Jang (2017, pg. 332), "Willingness to pay (WTP) refers to the maximum amount of money a customer is willing to spend for a product or service citing Cameron & James (1987) and Krishna (1991). For example, Sarmiento and Hanandeh (2018) explain that females, people with

higher education and aged 18-34 in Australia influence a consumer's WTP. Nicolau et al. (2020) conclude that consumers with higher incomes, are health conscious are willing to pay more and make extra effort to visit such places. Other studies tackling consumer WTP by investigating other variables will be discussed in the next section.

It is clear that such studies confirm that demographics can serve as important factor in understanding the profile of green consumers and the possibility of paying more money to invest in green products/services. However, more recent studies show that perhaps such demographic factors, such as income and education, are becoming irrelevant when it comes to depicting environmentally-conscious consumers, while people of a younger age have more interest in the environment (Schubert et al., 2010; Hu, 2015; Kwok et al., 2016; Namkung and Jang, 2017).

## **II. Attitudes, personal values and experiences**

Consumers choose to dine at a green restaurant according to some criteria which include the provision of healthy and fresh menu items, ease of access, a good offering and is an outlet that benefits the environment, based on the advocacy made by Dewald et al. (2014) as well as waste management practices (Kwok and Huang, 2019). However, what initially encourages or affects consumers' decisions to visit and patronize a green restaurant? Various aspects include, past experience, attitudes, subjective norms, behavioral control, personal green behaviors, environmental concern and some green restaurant attributes.

Gao et al. (2016) assert that when consumers have positive perceptions, in terms of quality, image and value acquired, towards hospitality businesses,

including restaurants, there's a higher chance of engagement. For example, service and ambiance (Yu et al., 2018) as well as attitudes, food quality and concern for nature (Chen et al., 2017) influence consumers' patronage intentions. Such attitudes shape behavioral intentions. Attitudes, subjective norms and behavioral controls are representative of the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB). The TPB, a subset of the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA), has been used in the majority of green restaurant studies, along with other variables, to understand consumers' green behaviors and intentions (Jang et al., 2015; Chung, 2016; Shen, 2017 and Tommasetti et al., 2018). For example, Jang et al. (2015) postulate that one's concern for the environment and perceived usefulness, which refers to one's feeling that their actions will resolve a problem, affects their attitudes towards green products. Han et al. (2019) highlight that reference groups influence one's green consumption.

Jang et al. (2011) have studied consumers in terms of their food life styles and categorized them into four types by using the food related lifestyle scale. The authors conclude that consumers belonging to two groups, namely the 'adventurous' and 'health conscious', are willing to pay for green products. 'Adventurous' consumers are ones who take spontaneous decisions and like to try new things, while 'health conscious' consumers are concerned about their health in terms of the type of food consumed. The study by Campbell et al. (2014) claims that consumers who favor local food consumption have higher willingness to pay for such products.

Personal green behaviors are ones practiced in a consumer's personal life. Examples of green behaviors practiced at home include recycling, use of energy efficient lighting, consumption of local foods, etc. Studies show there is a positive correlation between green practices carried out at home and

consumers' WTP (DiPietro et al., 2013), which can be a reflection of a consumer's self-identify (Hu et al., 2014).

Price is another factor used to understand consumers' WTP for green products. According to the study by Campbell et al. (2014), products that are expensive are perceived as of high quality. Consumers with such perceptions tend to be willing to pay more for green products, believing they are of higher quality. However, this rationale doesn't apply to price-conscious consumers, whom on the contrary, demand lower-priced items. The study conveys that a negative relationship exists between price-conscious consumers and willingness to pay for green products, which is also validated by DiPietro et al. (2013).

In terms of past experience, Hu et al. (2014) prove that, using the self-completion theory, the recollection of past experiences does influence peoples' intentions to consume green foods. Namkung and Jang (2017) analyze psychographic variables, such as previous experience, perception, self-perception and degree of involvement i.e., interest in green products and their relation to consumers' willingness to pay. The authors claim that 68% have the intention to pay more for green practices in general, while around 26% are willing to pay 10% or more for green products. These percentages are higher than ones recorded by Hu et al. (2010) and DiPietro et al. (2013), which signals there a rise in consumer demand for green practices. The authors confirm as well that all four psychographic variables do influence willingness to pay, even more than demographics.

### **III. Role of Emotions**

Even though the TPB has been used extensively in literature to depict consumer attitudes and behaviors, it has been argued, however, that on its own, it doesn't suffice to fully grasp the concept of green consumerism and related behaviors. For this reason, some authors have integrated an emotional construct within their studies to be able to further illuminate the various driving forces behind green behavioral intentions. Although there are studies that promote the idea of incorporating emotional variables to further understand consumer behaviors, there are others that argue against this.

For example, Kim et al. (2013) integrate the TPB model, in terms of green practices, with an emotional variable i.e., anticipated regret, to demonstrate whether emotional engagement can help in predicting consumers' green behavioral intentions. Not only do the authors highlight that subjective norm had the highest influence on ecological behavior, but adding the 'regret' variable was a successful addition. This inclusion has helped in going beyond what the TPB can solely portray. In fact, it showed more variance than the norm in terms of selecting eco-friendly restaurants. The authors argue that emotions are significant drivers in decision making; consumers felt a sense of regret towards not choosing a green restaurant, leading to an increased intention to select an environmental-friendly restaurant. Anticipated regret, followed by attitudes, rated third in terms of predicting green consumer intentions.

Jang et al. (2015) analyze how tangible green practices could affect consumers' store attachment which, in return, can influence consumers' loyalty towards both green restaurants and products. The study uses the congruity theory, to support their claim to use an emotional variable, which helps explain how consumers respond to green restaurant measures. The authors found that consumers who form an emotional bond with the



restaurant, as a result of its visible and tangible green practices, are more likely to become more loyal to this restaurant. This of course is more applicable to consumers who are environmentally conscious, as the theory proves that when a consumer's self-image is in parallel with a store's image, the store is considered self-congruent.

These studies show that perhaps emotions do have a role in predicting green consumer behaviors. This notion is also supported by Campbell et al. (2014, pg. 47) where they cite, "This follows prior research that posited if people feel more of an emotional tie with the product or have a belief that the product is healthier or more socially responsible, they were more likely to purchase it (Delind, 2006; DuPuis and Goodman, 2005; Martinez et al., 2010)". By ensuring the provision of a quality experience at a green restaurant, this may increase consumers' green emotional attachment, satisfaction and perceived image, which all can trigger perceived customer loyalty for green restaurants (Wu et al., 2021).

On the other hand, although it could seem that emotional variables are helpful in understanding consumer intentions and behaviors, yet, value acquired from practical, functional terms is also necessitated, which is proclaimed in the study by Teng and Wu (2019). The authors postulate that value, from a practical perspective, is more representative than hedonic/emotional attributes when it comes to behavioral intentions. This is further supported by Han et al. (2019), where they argue that feelings of guilt are non-consequential, it is rather the decisions of reference groups that has an influence on consumers' intentions to consume green products. This concludes that consumers will not be swayed by green restaurant practices, if they are only to enjoy such experiences. There must be a feeling of value acquired from functional, practical terms.

From the above, it can be postulated that consumers are an important entity for the restaurant industry and considering them a stakeholder is plausible. Consumers are becoming more environmentally conscious (Martinez-Navalon, et al., 2019; Shin et al., 2019; Cho and Yoo, 2021; Maynard et al., 2021) meaning that green consumerism is growing and gaining attention. Riva et al. (2022) claim that it positively affects restaurants and this reflects the rise of consumer interest in the provision of green products and services. Such consumer awareness, in some cases, acts as a motivator or driver for outlets to implement such measures. Furthermore, one of the tactics that can further drive green consumerism is through green communication; educating consumers about the firm's environmental practices (Preziosi et al., 2019). Although the mentioned studies have some differing results, they were able to give an insight about the likely profile of a green consumer and how some factors may trigger their environmental behaviors. Most of these studies have applied a certain lens to understand consumer perspective, which is the Theory of planned behavior and focused on consumers from American, Asian or Australian contexts.

### ***2.5.2 Management-Focused studies***

To date, studies from a managerial perspective haven't gained as much attention as ones tailored to understanding green consumers. However, the studies in this category can be categorized into two main themes. The first includes managers' perceptions, intentions and motivations to adopt green practices. The second theme explores the barriers, relevance of green supply chains and related benefits, mainly related to restaurant performance, of implementing green practices.

## **I. Managers' intentions and motivations**

Choi and Parsa (2006) analyze how psychological attributes of managers (attitude, preference and involvement) can affect the implementation of green practices. They only found that managers having high preference towards environmental and social activities and are more involved (in terms of planning and implementation), may consider charging extra costs for green measures, such as increasing menu prices.

From an innovation perspective, using the TPB once again, similar to studies of consumer behaviors, Chou et al. (2012) claim that Taiwanese managers' attitudes and perceived behavioral control, which refers to the ease of implementing such a behavior, have higher effects on their behavioral intentions, while social constraints were not influential. Although in a different context, yet similar conclusions are put forth by Salzberg et al. (2019), indicating that behavioral control and positive perceived innovation related factors (including advantages, compatibility, etc.) can be determinants of sustainable behaviors of US managers. Also focusing on US restaurant managers, Kwok and Huang (2019) find that energy and water efficiency practices are the most favored.

Sampling US managers, Jang et al. (2017) postulate that managers' environmental values and leadership, which refers to considering consequences of strategies on stakeholders, as well as their active participation, all have positive influence on a restaurant's environmental sustainability. This means that social criteria, i.e., stakeholder considerations, are taken into account and are related to the adoption of environmental criteria. This is supported by Raab et al. (2018), where it is found that social pressures (i.e., subjective norms), related to institutional theory, from suppliers and customers, highly guide a manager's intention to adopt green criteria as well as external pressures by similar groups,

including competitors and policy makers in Spain (Perramon et al., 2014). Pressure from customers can also be a powerful external driver for employee green creative behavior (Cho and Yoo, 2021).

In terms of motivations, once again personal values in addition to compliance, cost reductions and company image appear to be the top reasons for restaurants to apply green measures. For example, personal values seem to influence the decision to offer organic menu items, however, not in all types of restaurants. Managers of mid-scale restaurants in New Zealand used organic items, since it correlates with their environmental beliefs and green values, while managers of upscale restaurants used organic ingredients for marketing purposes, with the aim of contributing to the provision of exceptional experience to high end consumers (Poulston and Yiu, 2011). Baloglu et al. (2020) claim that managers in casual restaurants in the US implement green practices mainly to achieve cost reductions, improved image and enhance employee satisfaction. Similar findings were put forth by Saleh and Elsaied (2018) stating that managers of international quick service restaurants in Egypt choose to adopt green practices (energy and waste management) to improve customer satisfaction and the restaurant's image.

## **II. Barriers, supply chains and performance**

Studies have outlined consumer demand, financial requirements, lack of environmental policies, pressure by stakeholders and implementation difficulties as factors hindering green adoption (Kasim and Ismail, 2012; Iaquinto, 2014; Perramon et al., 2014; Cantele and Cassia, 2020) in both developed and developing contexts. To overcome some of those barriers, Tan et al. (2018) recommend governments to provide financial green incentives, increase environmental education and establish appropriate

regulations relevant to environmental protection. In addition, Oshua et al. (2022) argue that green restaurant attributes are directly related to employee green behaviors, both required and voluntary. Furthermore, Kasim and Ismail (2012) put forth drivers to implementation as higher demand by society, top management awareness, competitive supply chains and legality.

Srivastava (2007, pg. 55) defines green supply chain management as, 'integrating environmental thinking into supply-chain management, including product design, material sourcing and selection, manufacturing processes, delivery of the final product to the consumers as well as end-of-life management of the product after its useful life'. Simply, the author explains that a green supply chain is incorporating environmental thinking or the adoption of certain measures into a firm's supply chain activities. A study by Wang et al. (2013) mentioned earlier, uses approaches of green supply chains to present indicators for the green management of restaurant operations in Taiwan.

Abbas and Hussien (2021) study whether green supply chain dimensions, related to ones identified by Wang et al. (2013), have an effect on international QSR restaurants' competitive advantage and performance in Egypt. The authors advocate that green policies and employee training, relative to green issues, positively affect a restaurant's competitive advantage. The study also shows that a restaurant's green environment, including dining, the kitchen and its equipment and post treatment of waste, positively affects operational performance, due to reduced costs. In turn, such improvements in operational performance influence the restaurant's performance positively. Chiu and Hsieh (2016) also confirm the use of green suppliers helps in advancing a restaurant's performance, from an economic and environmental perspective. The authors explain that green supply chain practices are means of enhancing business relations and optimizing costs.

In addition, Meager et al. (2021) advocate that independent restaurants in the UK find it difficult to implement a GSCM approach mainly include costs, logistics, non-cooperation with supply chain actors, lack of awareness and skepticism in terms of recycling taking place and the originality of ethical foods. On the other hand, engaging with green suppliers in eco-design and waste reduction during production & logistical processes, can foster the adoption of environmental attitudes within restaurants in South Korea (Shin and Cho, 2022). Mukucha et al. (2021) advocate that green sourcing allows restaurants in Zimbabwe to acquire high-quality materials and achieve logistical efficiency in deliveries from such suppliers.

In general, if a restaurant hopes to implement a supply chain approach, it is necessitated to foster the participation of and engagement with its suppliers. Suppliers are an important stakeholder for their ability to provide restaurants with eco-friendly materials, such as packaging, cutlery as well as sustainable foods grown without the use of fertilizers. This would be the foundation of a greener supply chain, including the storage and movement of such products. Yet, a more comprehensive, general approach to management is needed, which can encompass the different entities/parties that are needed for adopting more environmentally sound activities.

This section has shown that consumers, suppliers, governments and employees can presumably be important stakeholders for green restaurants. Table 2.3 summarizes references made of different stakeholders in green restaurant studies from a management perspective.

**Table 2.3 Mentioned stakeholders in green restaurant management**

<b>Study</b>	<b>G</b>	<b>C</b>	<b>S</b>	<b>E</b>	<b>CP</b>	<b>CM</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>M</b>	<b>GR</b>
<i>Kasim and Ismail (2012) - Malaysia</i>	√	√	√	√		√			
<i>Tan et al. (2018) - Malaysia</i>	√		√	√	√				
<i>Perramon et al. (2014) - Spain</i>	√	√	√		√				
<i>Chiu and Hsieh (2016) - Taiwan</i>		√	√						
<i>Wang (2016) - Taiwan</i>				√					
<i>Yucedag et al. (2018) - Turkey</i>				√					
<i>Charlebois et al. (2015) - Canada</i>			√	√					
<i>Jang et al. (2017) - US</i>									√
<i>Raah et al. (2018) - US</i>		√	√						
<i>Filimonau et al. (2019)- Bulgaria</i>	√								
<i>Cho and Yoo (2021) - US</i>		√		√					
<i>Saleh and Elsaied, (2018) - Egypt</i>		√		√					
<i>Perrigot et al. (2021) - France</i>		√	√	√			√		
<i>Meager et al. (2021) - UK</i>		√		√				√	
<i>Shin and Cho (2022) - South Korea</i>			√						

G= government/policy maker

F= franchisees

C= consumers

M= media

S= suppliers

GR= general referral

E= employees

CM= community

CP= competitors

The table depicts studies that have been conducted in the last decade in different regions. It can be explicated that the common stakeholders are suppliers, consumers, employees and governments. Other studies make reference to other stakeholders, which they presume can foster green implementation in the restaurant industry. This shows firstly, there's no consensus concerning critical stakeholders for green adoption in the restaurant industry, especially in a developing, Middle Eastern country, namely Egypt. Secondly, it can be implied that perhaps important and relevant stakeholders for progressing a restaurant's environmental performance are not universal for every context and require exploration into their identification as well as the roles they should fulfil. Raub and Martin-Rios (2018) and Damian et al. (2022) assert that it is required to initially identify context-specific stakeholder groups for stakeholder engagement.

## **2.6 Green Restaurant Attributes**

A green restaurant is one that is concerned about the environment and therefore adopts certain measures to minimize its contribution to environmental degradation. There are certain characteristics or features which help in describing this type of food establishment and how it is likely to operate. A few studies have highlighted the attributes that constitute a green restaurant (Choi and Parsa, 2006; Legrand et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2013; Kwok et al., 2016; Park et al., 2021). The following Table will highlight these indicators:



**Table 2.4 Green Restaurant Indicators**

Source	Category	Example of Indicators
<p><b>(Choi and Parsa, 2006; Hu, 2015; Kwok et al., 2016; Teng and Wu, 2019; Park et al., 2021)</b></p>	<p><i>Food-focused attributes</i></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Organic foods (free from pesticides &amp; fertilizers).</li> <li>• Locally grown.</li> </ul>
	<p><i>Environment-focused attributes (3Rs – reduce, reuse, recycle &amp; two Es – energy &amp; efficiency)</i></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Recycled materials (paper, plates, containers, etc.)</li> <li>• Use of renewable energy sources such as solar power.</li> <li>• Chemically-safe materials.</li> <li>• Energy-efficient bulbs, equipment.</li> <li>• Low-flow toilets, sensor faucets.</li> </ul>
	<p><i>Administration-focused attributes</i></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Green certification.</li> <li>• Employee training.</li> <li>• Community activities.</li> </ul>
<p><b>Legrand et al., (2010)</b></p>	<p><i>Sustainable Sitting, Design, and Construction</i></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Environmental impact assessment carried out for site.</li> <li>• Building materials: certain percentage locally sourced, recyclable, non-toxic, environmentally certified. Gardening of area.</li> </ul>
	<p><i>Sustainable Furniture, Fixtures, and Fittings</i></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Eco-friendly materials, part of restaurant policy.</li> <li>• Local sourcing.</li> <li>• Energy efficient equipment.</li> <li>• Bulk purchases of cleaning materials.</li> </ul>
	<p><i>Energy and Waste</i></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Aim to use renewable energy sources.</li> <li>• Reduce, reuse &amp; recycle approach for staff &amp; suppliers.</li> <li>• Avoid plastics.</li> <li>• Organic waste composted or reused.</li> <li>• Paper, oil, etc. recycled.</li> </ul>
	<p><i>Corporate Social Responsibility</i></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Support given to local community by provision of resources.</li> <li>• Guests &amp; employees are educated about the environment.</li> <li>• Engagement with industry associations related to sustainability.</li> </ul>
	<p><i>Sustainable Food and Beverage Model</i></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Percentage of organic, local, seasonal foods.</li> <li>• Special diet served for allergic people.</li> </ul>

		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Menu labeling in terms of fat or 'gluten-free'.</li> <li>• The Menu is used to advertise sustainable activities.</li> </ul>
<b>Wang et al. (2013)</b>	<i>Green Foods (material)</i>	<u>Green food procurement:</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Local, seasonal foods.</li> <li>• Organic certified foods.</li> <li>• Avoiding foods that have expired i.e., out of shelf life.</li> </ul>
		<u>Green menu planning and cooking:</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Healthy meals prepared (less fat, sugar, salt, etc.)</li> <li>• Fried dishes don't exceed 20%.</li> <li>• Dishes are made up of more fruits &amp; vegetables than meats.</li> <li>• Turning off cooking hoods when not needed and avoid wasting food items.</li> </ul>
		<u>Green package for takeout:</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Safe packaging material for reheating.</li> <li>• Use of recyclable or biodegradable packaging.</li> <li>• Avoid polystyrene.</li> </ul>
	<i>Green environment and equipment (environment)</i>	<u>Green kitchen environment:</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Regular maintenance of equipment.</li> <li>• Grease interceptors to avoid exhaust pollution.</li> <li>• Replacing equipment with energy-saving ones.</li> </ul>
		<u>Green dining environment:</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Lighting bulbs are energy-efficient.</li> <li>• No smoking inside outlet.</li> <li>• Water-saving faucets.</li> <li>• Use of sunlight.</li> </ul>
		<u>Green cleaning and post-treatment:</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Recycling &amp; segregation of waste.</li> <li>• Compost kitchen waste</li> <li>• Eco-friendly detergents.</li> <li>• Recycling of hazardous waste.</li> </ul>
<i>Green management and social responsibility (people)</i>	<u>Green management policy:</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Avoid disposable tableware.</li> <li>• Training for employees.</li> <li>• Advertising energy-saving posters.</li> <li>• Market green concepts.</li> </ul>	

		<u>Green customer education:</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Encouraging customers to take away leftovers.</li> <li>• Poster to encourage customers to be green.</li> <li>• Rewarding policy for customers for green behaviors.</li> </ul>
		<u>Green corporation social responsibility:</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Consumer education.</li> <li>• Participate in community, healthy, environmental activities.</li> </ul>

The above table shows how different studies have outlined the various green practices/indicators in a restaurant. Although there are some variations in the labeling of categories, the above indicators are majorly targeting the same aspects including use of safe/ environmental-friendly materials, management of waste, water & energy, sustainable foods and green education. As can be seen from the table, food-related indicators entail the sourcing of local, fresh, organic ingredients and the preparation of dishes that contain more fruits & vegetables. Environmental attributes are mainly related to the efficient use of resources for energy and water management, the use of energy saving bulbs and water saving faucets for example, as well as recycling to minimize the amount of waste generated. Administrative attributes mainly entail green education, local community development and the acquisition of green certifications. Other less common indicators relate to sustainable buildings and furniture.

In the practical world, there are examples of pioneer food establishments implementing green measures. Top global chains include McDonald’s, Subway, Starbucks, Pizza Hut, Taco Bell and many more (Spyrou, 2021). For example, Starbucks is known for using energy efficient lighting bulbs, environmentally friendly packaging and equipment which utilizes and optimizes water usage (Jeong and Jang, 2010; Jeong et al., 2014). Hu

(2015) writes that Subway opened its first LEED certified green restaurant in 2007, aiming to lower carbon pollution, manage the use of energy and water, resulting in a 60% decrease in utility bills. McDonald's has invested in electric plans since 2013 and plans by 2030 that their restaurants to be net zero emitters through their operations and waste reduction (McDonald's, n.d.).

Other few restaurants have also made efforts to reduce their carbon footprint in their supply chains (Shaik, n.d.). For example, besides Starbucks, Chipotle Mexican Grill opts for using more plant-based ingredients and organic foods, with their slogan "Food with integrity" (Guest Author, 2021). Domino's uses packaging that is completely recyclable. In other countries such as the UK, Silo restaurant sources food from local suppliers and composts waste on site (Joyce, 2021). According to Joyce (2021), Haoma in Bangkok uses kitchen waste as food for fish or as fertilizers and collects rainwater to be used later, while Corrutela in Brazil also focuses on providing local foods and avoids the use of plastic by engaging in bulk purchases. In Egypt, there are some local restaurants, including chains, independents and upscale diners that engage in sustainable and non-plastic packaging and materials, such as straws, take-away bags, cups, etc.

As articulated earlier and similarly to the benefits of green management, the implementation of green practices in restaurants has certain advantages. In their discussion on the dynamics of green restaurant patrons, Hu et al. (2010) have concluded that green practices could help a restaurant gain competitive advantage, build consumers' loyalty, and improve brand image (Kang et al., 2012; Dipietro et al., 2013; Hu, 2015; Jang et al., 2015). It has even been determined that communicating the implementation of green practices to employees may result in increased employee satisfaction and

commitment to the organization, which in turn, may lead to better service and increased customer satisfaction, especially in a service-oriented business (Schubert et al., 2010; Dipietro et al., 2013). Although it is clear there are advantages to the adoption of green practices, studies have highlighted several barriers to implementation of such practices. The following table shows some of these cited barriers and benefits.

**Table 2.5 Barriers and Benefits of Green Practices**

<b>Barriers</b>	<b>Benefits</b>
<p><u>Lack of environmental policies/ pressure &amp; consumer demand</u></p> <p>Kasim and Ismail (2012); Tan et al. (2018); Salzberg et al. (2019); Chevallier-Chantepie and Batt (2021)</p>	<p><u>Resource optimization/efficiency, reduced cost, minimization of waste &amp; pollution reduction</u></p> <p>Kasim and Ismail (2012); Wang et al. (2013); Iraldo et al. (2017); Kim et al. (2017); Fieschi and Pretato (2018); Baloglu et al. (2020); Cantele and Cassia (2020)</p>
<p><u>Financial requirements</u></p> <p>Kasim and Ismail (2012); Wang et al. (2013); Iaquinto (2014); Saleh and Elsaied (2018); Chevallier-Chantepie and Batt (2021); Meager et al. (2021)</p>	<p><u>Enhanced stakeholder relations</u></p> <p>Schubert et al., (2010); Poulston and Yiu (2011); Dipietro et al. (2013); Kwok and Huang (2019); Baloglu et al. (2020); Chevallier-Chantepie and Batt (2021)</p>
<p><u>Implementation difficulties (knowledge, resources, technologies, logistics, non-cooperation of supply chain actors)</u></p> <p>Raab et al. (2018); Saleh and Elsaied (2018); Tan et al. (2018); Chevallier-Chantepie and Batt (2021); Meager et al. (2021)</p>	<p><u>Improved operational, financial &amp; environmental performance due to better image, higher competitive advantage &amp; customer satisfaction</u></p> <p>Kang et al. (2012); Dipietro et al. (2013); Perramon et al. (2014); Hu (2015); Jang et al. (2015); Chiu and Hsieh (2016); Iraldo et al. (2016); Jang et al. (2017); Namkung and Jang (2013, 2017); Alonso-Almeida et al. (2018); Saleh and Elsaied (2018); Baloglu et al. (2020); Cantele and Cassia (2020)</p>

The above studies have been able to highlight some obstacles to the implementation of green practices, such as increased costs and lack of external pressure, as well as the benefits a restaurant can expect from such an application. However, none of these studies have focused on the Egyptian context, where it is presumable that each context uniquely dictates its own green management challenges. This means it is critical to in this research to initially understand and explore the barriers local Egyptian restaurants face in applying green practices. The determination of such challenges will also dictate which stakeholders are important and the required roles they need to play to facilitate green adoption.

## **2.7 Chapter summary**

Green management is the application of an environmental-friendly approach into business products and services. The hospitality industry, including hotels and restaurants, are required to adopt green measures, in order to be more sustainable and reduce their environmental impact. Restaurants specifically are given less attention in the green hospitality academic literature, unlike their lodging counterparts, albeit their contribution to environmental degradation. Initially, some restaurants falsely comprehend the level of environmental degradation their operations cause, due to their smaller business scope as an industry. Other cited reasons include their perceptions concerning the cost of applying some of the green criteria, as well as the lack of external pressure to go green. In literature, the majority of green restaurant studies have focused on green consumerism, showing that consumers are an important stakeholder in the greening of the restaurant. Although management focused studies are much less, yet, a few studies have outlined how stakeholders, such as consumers and governments can positively affect management's decision to apply green practices. Working with green suppliers was also cited for their contribution to a restaurant's environmental performance. This signals that the existence of some stakeholders can aid restaurants in green management implementation. Therefore, the next chapter will introduce and discuss stakeholder theory.

## **Chapter 3 – Stakeholder Theory**

### **3.1 Introduction**

The purpose of this chapter is to present and discuss the different aspects of stakeholder theory, including stakeholder salience, stakeholder influence and stakeholder networks. This discussion will show the essence behind stakeholder theory and the different articulations put forth in literature. This process will help the researcher in guiding how this study will forward, from a theoretical perspective.

In order to achieve this, a systematic process for searching and reviewing the literature was followed. To be more specific, certain keywords were used such as stakeholders, stakeholder theory, stakeholder salience, stakeholder engagement, stakeholder influence, stakeholder networks, stakeholder cultures. These keywords are directly related to the areas of academic interest and have generated the relevant literature. The databases used to search for such keywords mainly included Scopus, JSTOR, Google Scholar and ScienceDirect. The journals used for such a search were *The Academy of Management Journal*, *Journal of Business Ethics*, *Business & Society*, *Strategic Management Journal* and *Academy of Management Review*.

### **3.2 The Stakeholder Concept**

Any business is said to have both an internal and external environment, where both have tremendous effects on its long-term survival.

Given all the complexities on how to manage and ultimately succeed in today's world, businesses constantly search for ways to sustain themselves



in their relative markets. One common approach to tackle this is by engaging in the art of strategic management, which aims to strategize for the future. Planning for the future entails satisfying and adhering to the demands and requests of the relevant entities which businesses are continuously interacting with (Freeman, 2010). These entities are deemed crucial, where it is believed that businesses more than ever cannot afford to survive without their existence. Hence, management should be innovative in devising pertinent strategies to tackle stakeholder claims, with regard to the current organizational lifecycle stage (Jawahar and McLaughlin, 2001). So therefore, this means it is necessitated that those businesses carefully acknowledge such parties, address their requirements and optimally satisfy their interests.

Stakeholder theory, considered as a tactic of strategic management (Laplume et al., 2008) for ultimate value creation (Harrison et al., 2015), is one that explains how businesses should view and manage such entities, where they can be referred to as stakeholders. The stakeholder approach is designed around managing a firm's business relationships as well as adhering to particular interests to ensure future survival (Freeman and McVea, 2001; Haleem et al., 2022). In fact, Freeman (2010, pg. 7) articulates this explicitly where he writes:

“Business can be understood as a set of relationships among groups which have a stake in the activities that make up the business. Business is about how customers, suppliers, employees, financiers (stockholders, bondholders, banks, etc.), communities and managers interact and create value. To understand a business is to know how these relationships work”.

This extract clearly explains that managing a business is mainly concerned with managing the relationships it has with the different stakeholder groups. The author also argues that firm management is the one responsible to govern and regulate such relationships, ultimately achieving joint value creation for all relevant stakeholders (Schneider and Sachs, 2015). Overall, put in other words, since stakeholders have the ability to affect organizational outcomes and supply important resources (Donaldson and Preston, 1995; Freudenreich et al., 2020), long-term value can be created by carefully managing stakeholder relationships (Post et al., 2002).

Clarkson (1995) argues that creating and delivering value to firm stakeholders contributes to firm survival, both from a financial perspective as well as maintaining such groups as stakeholders. Reypens et al. (2016) stress that when stakeholders provide resources, such as tools, skills, infrastructure, etc. and engaging with one another, value is co-created in the form of innovation such as improved problem solving, knowledge, both technical or managerial as well as relational, referring to business relationships. Laszlo (2008, pg.120) writes, "Value is created when a business adds to the capital or well-being of its stakeholders". To be more concise, Haksever et al. (2004) claim value to be financial, non-financial, such as employee development, and time-based, referring to the time frame benefits are accrued, time saved or benefit extensions for prolonged time. Time value can be, as put forth by authors, long-term financial security for suppliers or quick product repairs for consumers. Lankoski et al. (2016) support this by claiming that stakeholder value is subjectively defined by the stakeholder of all the benefits (financial and non-financial) resulting from company actions.

Vracheva and Mason (2015) stress the importance of secondary stakeholders, such as governments, communities, competitors and the media, in terms of their contribution in the firm's value-adding process, through knowledge sharing or the improvement of financial performance. Su and Tsang (2015) even claim that such groups can help companies with high product diversification in overcoming barriers existing in their socio-political environments. Garriga (2014) and Schneider and Sachs (2017) both advocate that value has many dimensions and therefore, is perceived differently, since it is not objectively nor universally defined.

The stakeholder concept is not a new concept, in fact, it dates back to the 1970s, where it was first introduced by Edward Freeman and James Emshoff. The authors put forth that any party, which can influence an organization and in turn the organization influences it back, should be of importance to management, not just shareholders. Since the 1970s, especially after the introduction of the groundbreaking work in 1984 by Edward Freeman, "Strategic Management: A Stakeholder Approach", a lot of attention and deliberation have been given by other authors in academic literature to further understand who stakeholders are, how they can be prioritized by management in addition to depicting stakeholder influence and engagement. These concepts will be discussed next.

### **3.3 Who is a Stakeholder?**

Countless articles have presented various meanings of what constitutes a stakeholder. Yet, it should be noted that to date, the definition put forth by Freeman (1984) is the most common and traditional. This can perhaps be understandable, due to its simplicity and ability to express the essence of the stakeholder concept. Freeman (1984, pg. 46) writes that a stakeholder

is one that can "affect or is affected by the achievement of the organization's objectives". This definition represents the stakeholder ideology, clarifying that there is an inherent link between an organization and its stakeholders, with an explicit highlight on organizational objectives.

Although the above definition is acknowledged for its straightforwardness, however, there have been postulations made by other authors. Even though authors articulate such definitions with precise diction, yet there is a high degree of similarity, with only a single variation relating to perspectives, also known as the 'narrow' or 'wide' view (Freeman and Reed, 1983).

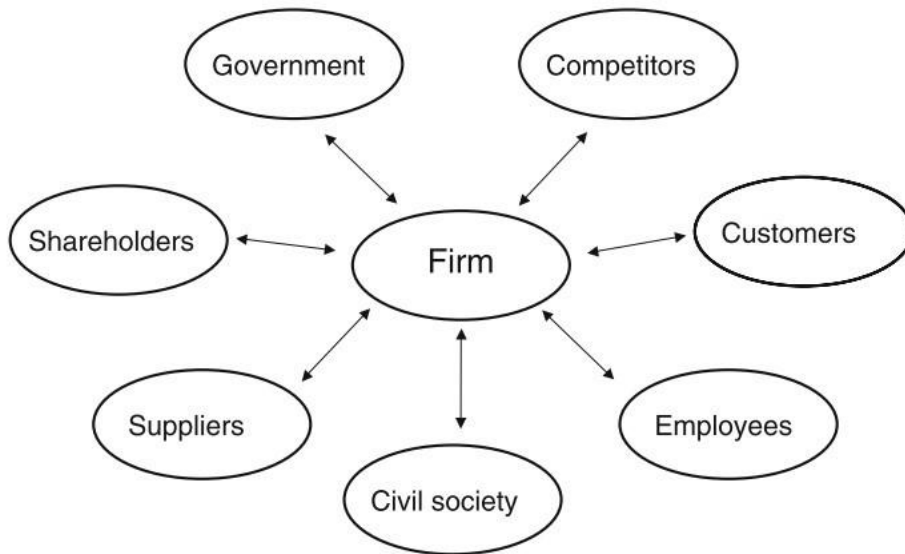
The 'narrow' view is purely economically based, one that is characterized by reciprocity between the firm and its stakeholders. It is founded on the basis of legitimate contractual rights, where different entities are then attributed as stakeholders of interest, such as customers, shareholders, employees, key suppliers, creditors and some governmental agencies (Freeman and Reed, 1983). These stakeholder groups are necessitated for firm survival. On the other hand, the 'wide' view is established with a moral perspective, where any entity is considered a stakeholder, even if it lacks any legitimate rights (Mitchell et al., 1997) and would consider, in addition to the above, competitors, interest groups and trade associations (Freeman and Reed, 1983). Viewing stakeholders using the moral perspective means identifying groups as inheriting the status of stakeholders stems from an ethical basis. In other words, the 'wide' view allows the integration of moral ethics, where all entities (or the majority) are viewed as stakeholders to the firm.

'Narrow' views translate into stakeholders being in a more powerful position than firms, where such stakeholders have rights or an official/legal stake in the firm. Meanwhile, the 'wide' views correspond with firms being more

dominant over their stakeholders (Mitchell et al., 1997), where some of these groups can be considered stakeholders, although they might not have legal contractual rights, such as consumer unions or trade associations. It should be noted that the original definition proposed by Freeman (1984) correlates with the 'wide' view.

Articulations of the meaning of a stakeholder mainly revolve around the legitimacy of claims and/or existence of a degree of influence (Freeman, 1984; Cornell and Shapiro; 1987; Freeman and Evan, 1990; Savage et al., 1991; Hill and Jones, 1992; Brenner, 1993; Clarkson, 1995; Mitchell et al., 1997; Phillips, 2003; Fassin, 2009; Miles, 2017), where it is precisely pronounced that a relationship exists between the firm and its stakeholders, as defined by Thompson et al. (1991). In fact, Miles (2017) shows that most stakeholder definitions portray the influence aspect, followed by definitions articulating such groups as recipients, or as described by Freeman (1984) "are affected by". Freeman (1984) establishes the initial concept of stakeholder theory, explaining that stakeholders represent entities that affect or are affected by organizational objectives. The author graphically shows groups of stakeholders, in relation to the focal firm i.e., organization, namely through a stakeholder map. Figure 3.1 shows the original stakeholder model.

**Figure 3.1: the original stakeholder model (Freeman, 1984)**



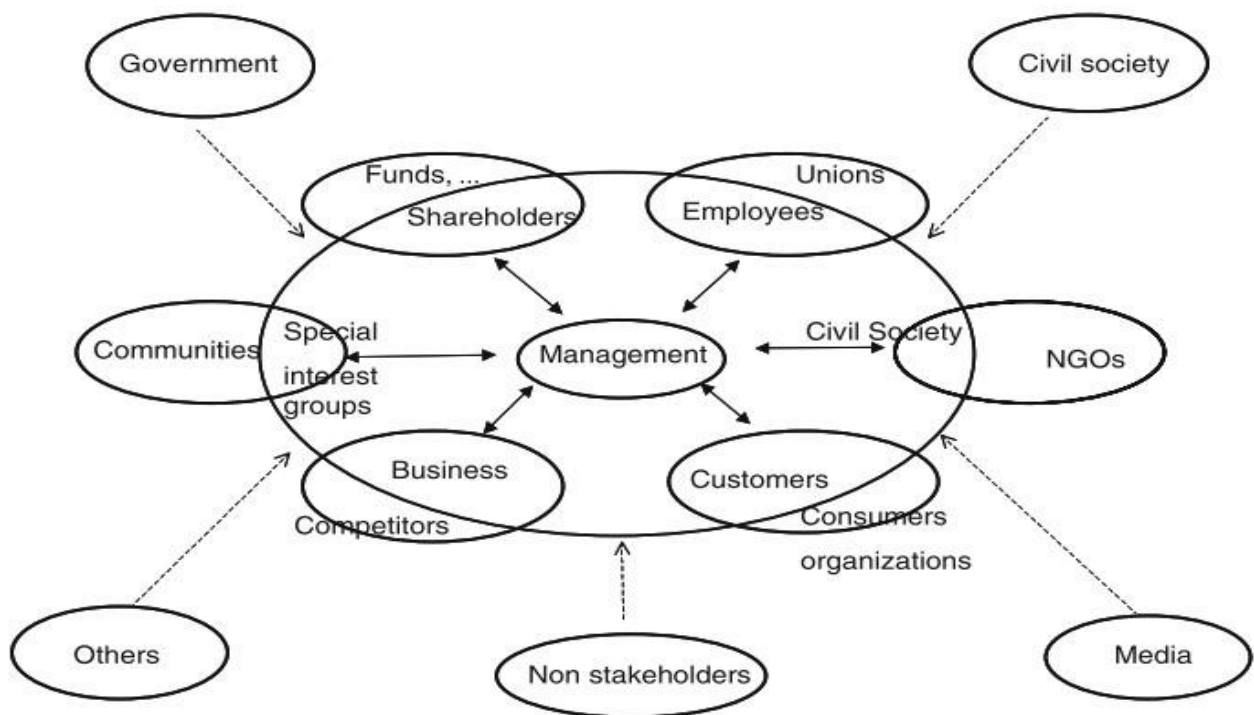
Adapted from: Fassin (2009)

Some of the traditional depictions of stakeholders include having interest in firm activities (Clarkson, 1995) or stake (Carroll, 1989) with possible influence (Savage et al., 1991), are internal vs. external to the firm (Freeman, 2003), normative vs. derivative (Philips, 2003) where the former has a legitimate claim, while the latter may have the ability to affect normative stakeholders. It should be noted here that legitimate claims correspond to 'narrow' view, while the influence aspect generally conforms more with the 'wide' view.

Also, Fassin (2009) identifies three categories, namely stakeholders, stakewatchers (protect stakeholders' interests) and stakekeepers (may

influence previous types), shown in Figure 3.2. This model delineates stakeholder groups differently, as the author categorized them into stakeholders (real stakeholders, such as customers), stakewatchers (don't have a real stake in organization, yet can protect interests of real stakeholders, such as consumer associations) and stakekeepers (don't possess a stake either, but can exercise influence, such as the government).

**Figure 3.2: The stake model of the firm**



Adapted from: Fassin (2009)

All these authors have referred to governments, suppliers, financiers, customers, employees, communities, media, shareholders, NGOs, shareholders, competitors, businesses, critics, etc. as stakeholders.

As explained before, although stakeholders can be identified according to moral perspectives i.e., the 'wide' view, where many groups can be considered stakeholders. However, this will result in impractical realizations, where management will have to attend to multiple, variant, sometimes conflicting, interests (Phillips and Reichart, 2000; Laplume et al., 2008). This debate is known in stakeholder literature as "Who or what really counts" (Freeman, 1994), where a seminal paper by Mitchell et al. (1997) outlines how managers can organize and should prioritize stakeholder claims; stakeholder salience. This will be discussed in the following section.

### **3.4 Stakeholder Salience**

Hamidu et al. (2014, pg.6) conclude that "The whole idea behind stakeholder management is to identify stakeholders based on the three attributes which defines their power to influence decision making and enforce their will, the legitimacy of the claims or rights they possess to expect fulfilment from the organization, and the urgent nature in which they require the satisfaction of their needs and expectations". These three attributes were earlier presented in the works by Mitchell et al. (1997), which is considered profound, providing a guide on who management needs to pay attention to. The authors introduce these three variables, namely power, legitimacy and urgency, which can help managers in prioritizing their stakeholders' claims. Salience is determined according to managerial perspectives. This means that managers subjectively evaluate and rate stakeholders, by ascribing to each group their corresponding attribute/s. Each of these attributes will be further explained next.



### ***3.4.1 Stakeholder power***

In their seminal paper, Mitchell et al. (1997) explain that stakeholders can be powerful, where they have the ability to force others to act in a certain way, by use of punishment or incentives. Parent and Deephouse (2007, pg.21) define stakeholder power as “the (potential) ability of stakeholders to impose their will on a given relationship through coercive, utilitarian or normative means”. Coercive power stems from the ability to force or restraint physical resources, utilitarian power is related to financial resources, while normative power deals with social aspects, such as esteem and prestige (Mitchel et al., 1997). Examples of stakeholders exercising power towards the focal company can be in the form of discontinuing resource provision or business co-operation (Pfeffer, 1981 via Ibrahim et al., 2023), in addition to acts of punishment (Pava and Krausz, 1997), such as withholding certain resources.

### ***3.4.2 Stakeholder legitimacy***

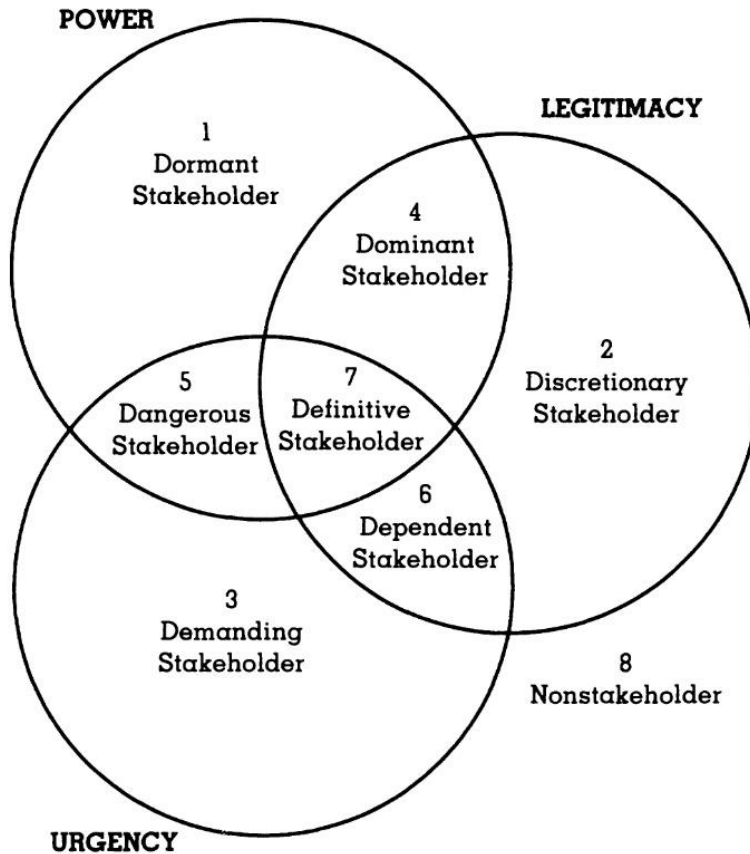
Suchman (1995, pg. 574) defines legitimacy as “a general perception or assumption that the actions of an entity are desirable, proper, or appropriate within some socially constructed systems of norms, values and beliefs”. In other words, when stakeholders possess legitimacy, it means their demands are socially acceptable and correlate with societal norms (Mitchell et al., 1997). Ibrahim et al. (2023) argue that businesses make efforts to be seen as legitimate, with the purpose of gaining important resources from stakeholders.

### **3.4.3 Stakeholder urgency**

Urgency or urgent stakeholder claims are ones that are viewed as “time sensitive” as portrayed by Parent and Deephouse (2007) or require immediate attention from managers (Laplume et al., 2008). This aligns with earlier depictions by Mitchell et al. (1997), putting for that urgency. In other words, urgent stakeholders, as described by Rowley and Moldoveanu (2003), have critical issues that necessitate management response.

According to Mitchell et al. (1997), stakeholders can exhibit one, two or all three attributes, where a stakeholder possessing all three attributes (definitive) would be the most important to management i.e., salient. Figure 3.3 shows the different categories of stakeholders exhibiting different combinations of the 3 attributes.

**Figure 3.3 Stakeholder Typology: One, Two, or Three Attributes Present**



Adapted from Mitchell et al. 1997 pg. 874.

The above salience model is considered remarkable and a major contribution to stakeholder theory to date. Since its origin, there have been some different perspectives put forth concerning the attributes of stakeholder salience provided by Mitchell et al. (1997). For example, Agle et al. (1999) find that urgency was higher than power and legitimacy for shareholders, which has resulted in capturing management attention, although Mitchell et al. (1997) have categorized them as dominant stakeholders (having only power and legitimacy). Parent and Deephouse (2007) claim power including

its three types, coercive, normative and utilitarian, across different managerial levels, is the stronger predictor gaining salience by managers. In other words, a stakeholder given attention by managers assumes power and either urgency or legitimacy. Other postulations have been put forth. For example, together both power and legitimacy are seen as dominant in determining stakeholder importance (Boesso and Kumar, 2009), where urgency is seen as a subset of power (Neville et al., 2011; Ali, 2017).

Others also articulate that legitimacy of stakeholders may need to be differentiated from legitimacy of their claims (Eesley and Lenox, 2006; Ali, 2017). Managers occasionally may perceive some claims as illegitimate, although resulting from a powerful, legitimate stakeholder, especially in the absence of urgency. Such claims may be presumably ignored by management i.e., not given attention. For example, managers of restaurants may choose to ignore requests made by the government to become more environmental-friendly, since there is absence of legality. The inexistence of formal punishment mechanisms, which can refer to urgency, gives freedom to such managers in adopting green measures.

It is suggested that the model established by Mitchell et al., (1997) can be further refined, where other authors postulate that some stakeholders, although acquiring only one salience attribute may be, in fact, more prioritized than another exhibiting all three attributes (Parent and Deephouse, 2007; Neville et al., 2011; Khurram and Pestre, 2017). For example, Neville et al. (2011) advocate that a stakeholder possessing power only may be perceived by managers as more salient than another with all 3 attributes, i.e., a definitive stakeholder. Even stakeholders with the same number of attributes can be perceived by managers differently, in terms of saliency degree. This means that stakeholders, for example, having two

attributes or in the 'expectant' category can be prioritized differently. Other authors have argued that a manager's position in the organization (Parent and Deephouse, 2007), a firm's environmental approach (Henriques and Sadorsky, 1999), how an organization deals with its stakeholder relations i.e., stakeholder culture (Jones et al., 2007) and the critical resources possessed by stakeholders (Jawahar and McLaughlin, 2001) may affect managerial perceptions of stakeholder salience.

It should be noted that, due to dynamic environments, stakeholder attributes may change and, therefore, their categorization is not static (Mitchell et al., 1997) nor fixed (Magness, 2008), where some stakeholders may disappear by time and others may become more significant and of interest to managers (Ali, 2017). The emergence of COVID-19 may have forced hospitality businesses give more attention to their suppliers, consumers and employees, as well as governments. The effect of such a pandemic on business operations and products has forced such businesses to focus on certain stakeholders more than others. For example, consumers were given more attention by offering products and services that they feel safe to consume, such as the use of disposable items (Magdy, 2020). This ultimately leads to organizations giving more focus to their suppliers, in terms of the products produced and provided. Also, employees were also given high attention of how to perform their tasks, during such an event.

Furthermore, some authors have provided recommendations for stakeholder salience identification, with the aim of perhaps deriving different outcomes, where the theory can be further refined. For example, Neville and Menguc (2006) question the influence of combined stakeholder individual salience attributes on the firm, for example, the effect of a powerful stakeholder and a legitimate stakeholder, and under which conditions might this be positive

or negative for the firm. In other words, the authors anticipate how synergies between stakeholders, each with a single attribute, can have an effect on the firm. For example, government power and NGO legitimacy can have influence on management. This influence can be advantageous or detrimental.

Tashman and Raelin (2013), as put forth earlier, introduce a new strategy for determining stakeholder salience, where they recommend it to be negotiated and co-decided by both managers and stakeholders to resolve issues such as managers having incomplete information, actions taken in favor of the firm, heuristic decision making and others. This can perhaps resolve the issues introduced earlier by Eesley and Lenox (2006) and may generate less subjectivity in deciding salience (Mitchell et al., 1997; Neville et al., 2011). In fact, Eesley and Lenox (2006), defining salience as firm action towards stakeholder claims, also voice stakeholders with power, who possess more resources than the firm, are accorded higher salience in response to their requests. Neville et al. (2011, pg. 369) provide an alteration to stakeholder salience, where they explain it to be, "the prioritization of stakeholder claims by managers is based on their perception of the degree of power of the stakeholder and the degree of moral legitimacy and urgency of the claim".

Bundy et al. (2013) write that managing stakeholders should be associated with enhanced financial performance, improved reputation, efficiency and innovation, as well as the ability to overcome uncertainty, citing Parmar et al. (2010). The authors define salience in terms of stakeholders' claimed issues and incorporating organizational identity (purpose) and strategic frames (actions) to depict firm responsiveness. The authors postulate that

both issues that parallel and contradict with both variables are of high saliency, where managers are expected to dedicate increased efforts.

#### ***3.4.4 Stakeholder salience in hospitality***

Even though as discussed in the previous section that the stakeholder salience approach has had some criticism and suggestions for further development, it still remains the most common technique for identifying and categorizing stakeholders. Within the hospitality literature, several studies have applied the stakeholder salience attributes for investigating green management, sustainability and corporate social responsibility.

For example, Saito and Ruhanen (2017) find that governments and the public sector possess coercive power over other stakeholders in tourism destination planning and management. Vallet et al. (2020) argue that certain institutions and the existence of policies, such as the case with public organizations, allow such entities to be actors of power and therefore, can exercise it. Local authorities are entirely in control of policies and regulations, in terms of corporate social responsibility (Goodman et al., 2017), where Marques et al. (2019) advocate that such authorities have high levels of power and influence in how other stakeholders can attain their goals in the context of a European multinational organization operating in the food & beverage industry. Perrigot et al. (2021) also state that governments have the power to act coercively towards fast food chains in France, in terms of their green waste management practices, by giving them fines. Such claims suggest that power is inherent in governments and authorities, meaning they have the ability to exercise force over organizations and presumably other stakeholders.

Furthermore, Farmaki (2019) finds that managers of hotels in Cyprus, in terms of CSR, perceive tour operators as highly salient, while customers, local authorities, employees and trade unions as moderately salient i.e., possessing only two attributes. Community and suppliers are attributed low saliency, with competitors as potential stakeholders. The author pinpoints that specifically employees, governments and tour operators can either positively or negatively impact the adoption of CSR practices in the hotel industry, while owners, hotel associations and suppliers can presumably be supportive. For example, employees can either be helpful by carrying out their duties as told, or otherwise if discouraged, can hinder the accomplishment of such tasks. Such a study shows that although employees and governments/local authorities are moderately prioritized by hotel operators, yet, they have high influence on the hotel business.

Table 3.2 outlines these above studies, among other ones, that have integrated stakeholder salience attributes, indicating stakeholders' degree of salience.



**Table 3.1 Stakeholder categories, attributes and salience**

<b>Degree of salience</b>	<b>Stakeholder category</b>	<b>Attribute/s possessed</b>	<b>Articulations for the hospitality industry</b>
<b>Latent (low)</b>	Dormant	Power	Government & public sector (Saito and Ruhanen, 2017). Franchisees, local authorities, employees, suppliers & customers (Perrigot et al., 2021). Customers, government (Jiang et al., 2023).
	Discretionary	Legitimacy	Suppliers (Farmaki, 2019). Communities (Canhoto and Wei, 2021).
	Demanding	Urgency	Local community (Farmaki, 2019).
<b>Expectant (intermediate)</b>	Dominant	Power, legitimacy	Customers, local authorities (Farmaki, 2019). Suppliers (Canhoto and Wei, 2021).
	Dangerous	Power, urgency	-
	Dependent	Legitimacy, urgency	Employees (Farmaki, 2019).
<b>Definitive (high)</b>	Definitive	Power, legitimacy, urgency	Government, NGO, Business, customer, media (ElShafei, 2017). Government (Farmaki, 2019). Public sector & the Singapore's hotel association (Hu et al., 2019). Owners, customers, employees, governments (Canhoto and Wei, 2021). Government, consumer, competitors, media (ElShafei, 2022).
<b>Potential</b>	Non-stakeholder	none	Competitors (Farmaki, 2019).

However, the following needs to be highlighted. Firstly, the study by Hu et al. (2019), in their investigation of sustainable water management policy formation in hotels in Singapore, has two main variations from the above studies. Firstly, they define the three salience attributes slightly different than originally depicted by Mitchell et al. (1997). For example, the authors (pg. 7) define legitimacy as “acceptability” where stakeholders have the ability to engage in policy formation. Power is measured by the “problem-solving capacity”, meaning the degree of power they can exercise over others. Urgency, referred to “trustworthiness”, entails stakeholder claims that are deemed trustworthy.

Secondly, stakeholders, who are evaluated as low and moderately salient, possessed all three attributes, not one or two attributes as originally presented by Mitchell et al. (1997), but with lower degrees. For example, hotel property developers and consulting entities are attributed moderate saliency, scoring “moderate” degrees on all three attributes. Other stakeholders, such as the media and universities, were accorded low salience, also on all three attributes. The public sector and the country’s hotel association were found as highly salient.

Next, in the process of reviewing hospitality literature, no studies have allotted stakeholders as dangerous; i.e., possessing only power and urgency. In other words, these hospitality studies have not presented a dangerous stakeholder could mean, at this point in time, there were no stakeholders with such characteristics; powerful, with lack of legitimacy, and urging for their critical needs to be met. However, in other contexts, dangerous stakeholders have been identified. In the sports industry, Miragaia et al. (2014) advocate that internal and external decision makers in a Portuguese football club, perceive member associations as dangerous stakeholders,

followed by regulatory bodies (government and the Federation) and local communities.

In the health industry, Conaty and Robbins (2021) find the Health Service Agency and the Health Information and Quality Authority in Ireland as dangerous stakeholders, from the perception of management in non-profit organizations operating in the intellectual disability sector. For example, the Health Service Agency is seen as illegitimate when failing to acknowledge labor needs voiced by managers. In addition, also concerning the health sector, Kafiriri and Razavi (2021) articulate that participants in Uganda express development assistance partners as dangerous stakeholders, who hold important resources and at some point, have critical claims. This occurs when such stakeholders use their power (resources) to overcome and resolve, from their own point of view, time critical issues hence, lacking legitimate status.

The process of identifying stakeholders and prioritizing their claims validates the existence of stakeholder influence on organizations. Therefore, the next section will discuss this concept.

### **3.5 Stakeholder Influence and Engagement**

Earlier stakeholder maps illustrated stakeholder relations with the firm as one-to-one (Freeman, 1984; Freeman, 2003), referred to as dyadic or hub-and-spoke. However, considered a significant contribution to understanding stakeholder relationships, Rowley (1997) argues, with reference to social networks, that stakeholders of a firm exist in a network, where in some cases, each stakeholder has a different network of their own. In other words,

stakeholders are assumed to be engaged in relationships with each other, where Freeman and Evan (1990, pg. 354) explain the stakeholder arena as “a series of multilateral contracts among stakeholders”. Boaventura et al. (2020) add to this concept by arguing that stakeholders do have an effect on firm behavior, which presumably leads to value creation.

The idea of stakeholder influence on organizations is indisputable, which is shown directly in earlier definitions of stakeholders. Many authors have deliberated the nature of such influence and how it affects organizational behaviors in responding to such pressures. An early study by Frooman (1999) clarifies that firms and stakeholders influence on one another, using the resource dependence perspective. The author argues that firstly, it needs to be known who is dependent upon whom, meaning which entity is more dominant (the firm vs. the stakeholder). Depending on the nature of dependence, where possibly both parties can be mutually dependent, stakeholders have few ways to influence organizations, either by withholding resources or, on the other hand, promoting and granting them to the firm (Frooman, 1999). For example, creditors or shareholders can refuse to provide firms with needed financial resources or communities prohibiting the operation of the firm. On the other hand, granting resources, for example, can be suppliers providing the needed materials or regulators offering incentives. Such influences imply and support the idea that stakeholders of a firm exist in a network. The next section will discuss the network concept.

### ***3.5.1 Stakeholder networks***

Earlier stakeholder maps illustrated one-to-one relationships between the focal entity and its stakeholders, as seen earlier in Figure 3.1. However, the stakeholder concept, i.e., stakeholder influence and engagement, in the past

years has taken a different perspective in viewing its stakeholders, namely through a network lens. For example, Sciarelli and Tani (2013) promote stakeholder management by highlighting the various network approaches as seen in Table 3.1. The authors explain three different approaches for how to view and manage a network of stakeholders. The 'ego-network' approach is when managers view all stakeholder requests collectively, as a whole. The 'multiple interactions' perspective suggests managers understanding the various interactions that exist between the network stakeholders, i.e., stakeholder relationships with one another. The last approach, 'complete network', calls for a more holistic approach in managing stakeholder networks. In other words, it recommends acknowledging the indirect interactions between stakeholders and how these stakeholders can influence one another, as well as the focal entity.

**Table 3.2 Main Characteristics of the approaches to stakeholders network.**

<b>Ego-network</b>	Managers should define the whole set of stakeholders and try to answer to all the relevant requests	Donaldson and Preston, 1995; Clarkson, 1995; Davenport, 2000; Post, Preston and Sachs, 2002;.
<b>Multiple Interactions</b>	Managers should understand how stakeholder's interacts and how they relate to their environments	Freeman and Evans, 1990; Wood and Jones, 1995; Sirgy, 2002; Preble, 2005; Wicks and Harrison, 2013
<b>Complete Network</b>	Managers should understand the structure of the network the stakeholder act in in order to find the most relevant interests	Freeman, 1984; Rowley, 1997; Frooman, 1999; Scott and Lane, 2000; Mahon, Heugens and Lamertz, 2004; Vandekerckhove and Dentchev, 2005.

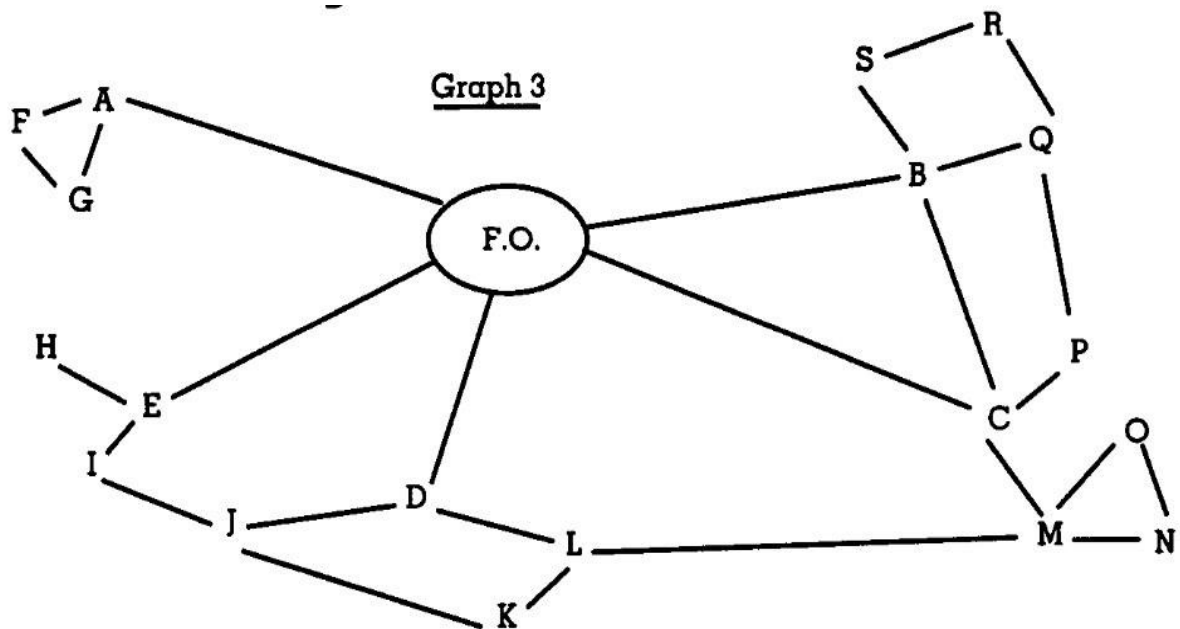
Adapted from: Sciarelli and Tani (2013, pg.81).

Rowley (1997) also advances stakeholder theory by referring to social network concepts. Nogueira and Pinho (2015, pg.327) write "Social network theory (SNA) views organizations as systems of people, groups and businesses linked by multiple relations (Tichy et al., 1979; Serrat, 2009) where shared values, visions, ideas, social contacts, financial or commercial

exchanges occur (Serrat, 2009)". This means that organizations are viewed as networks encompassing many members, who interact and engage, thereby establishing relationships. Rowley (1997) depicts stakeholder relations in a network by presenting network centrality (position in the network) and density (number of relationships). The author explains that since stakeholders exist in a network, stakeholders can pressure firms to behave in certain ways. Likely though, firms would not be able to respond to stakeholder demands individually, rather, it is the combined influence by stakeholders that has the most effect on management, especially in high density environments, namely where the firm is characterized as a "compromiser" or "subordinate" (Rowley, 1997).

The work of Rowley (1997) is paramount. In fact, Rowley (2017) argues that stakeholders likely have relationships with each other in the network and most stakeholder research neglects the links or conflict between these stakeholders' interests. The author argues that the network concept has the capacity to practically mirror the stakeholder environment, shown in Figure 3.4.

**Figure 3.4 Network structures: patterns of relationships**



Adapted from: Rowley (1997)

The existence of stakeholder networks confirms possible interactions between stakeholders, which translates into stakeholder influences on firms. In their article about stakeholder networks, Svendsen and Laberge (2005) argue that strong relationships between network members, built on understanding and trust, are key to an organization's long-term sustainability, since such entities exist in open systems; dealing with many actors in the external environment. From a sustainability perspective, Martini and Buffa (2015) state that social network analysis has given opportunity in realizing important stakeholders in the community, who can transmit information, influence others and make effective decisions to promote sustainable tourism destinations. Timur and Getz (2008) also urge for more links between stakeholders, including governments, businesses and others,

in a network, by referring to 'sustainability networks', for fostering sustainable destination development through collective engagement.

Relationships between stakeholders are established due to contractual reasons or founded based on trust (Zhou et al., 2018). Rousseau et al. (1998, pg. 395) define trust as "a psychological state characterized by the acceptance of vulnerability based on positive expectations about the intentions or behavior of others". In organizational sense, stakeholder trust is trusting others in the network or the business itself to act in a stakeholder's best interests, due to collaboration or the provision of a resource, such as capital, human-related etc. (Greenwood, 2007; Greenwood and Van Buren III, 2010). One of the ways to build trust is to share information that is accurate, clear and of sufficient degree (Schnackenberg and Tomlinson, 2016), allowing for more transparency of a stakeholder's process. Jahansoozi (2006) finds that transparency, or as articulated by a participant as "evidence", in communication and engagement between stakeholders helps in resolving issues pertaining to lack of trust felt by communities towards businesses in Canada.

Matuleviciene and Stravinskiene (2015) propose that organizations can heighten stakeholder trust, namely that of the consumer, employee, shareholder and community, through their trustworthiness and reputation. Trustworthiness encompasses ability, benevolence and integrity (Mayer et al., 1995). Ability is organizational competence to perform a certain task, benevolence is prioritizing stakeholder claims or interests, while integrity refers to righteous acts, or in accordance to certain norms. Such aspects of trustworthiness lead to trust formation. Brown et al. (2016, pg.188) claim that lack of trust results from "unmet expectations of integrity, benevolence, and consistency of action". Therefore, organizations need to find ways to



strengthen stakeholder trust because it can be advantageous. In fact, Bandsuch et al. (2008, pg. 121) write, "Trust is an invaluable asset that impacts and sustains not only an individual business (e.g., formally recognized as "goodwill" in some financial statements), but arguably the entire free market system". Such an extraction clearly signifies the importance of trust, not only for the organization but for the smooth operation of business markets. Zhou et al. (2018) believe high levels of trust improve risk perceptions tied with green manufacturing in China. De Oliveira and Rabechini Jr (2019) recommend project managers in Brazil to build trustful relationships, based on competence, integrity and intuitive (through displaying empathy and interest), with stakeholders during a project life cycle. Jonas et al. (2018) claim that trust, resulting from past collaborations with certain members, facilitates future stakeholder engagement in organizational innovation.

Since firm stakeholders likely exist in a network, as argued above, another important study about stakeholder interactions, namely stakeholder multiplicity (Neville and Menguc, 2006) provides critical insights. According to the authors, stakeholder interactions can result in either positive outcomes, in the case of complementary, synergistic or alliance formulation, or negative consequences, where claims may be conflicting. This conception promotes the salience model, where the authors argue that the effect of combined stakeholder claims should be acknowledged, rather than perceiving them individually (Neville and Menguc, 2006). Their work also supports the idea that in some cases, claims of certain stakeholders, who are deemed of higher salience, e.g., the government, can support claims of other less salient stakeholders (customers) where, in turn, managers may need to pay attention to these parties as well. This is stressed by their argument that governments can force organizations to abide by certain laws

and therefore, have the ability to punish those who don't, due to the government's possession of power. Yet, the study is limited as it only focuses on three stakeholder groups (government, customers and employees).

According to these claims, this research will aim to further understand how stakeholders, jointly and collectively, can influence restaurants in Egypt, from a green management perspective. If stakeholders are accorded salience by management, where they are prioritized or viewed as important, it means such stakeholders can have some degree of influence on these organizations to adopt environmental measures. This is further stressed by Haleem et al. (2022), where they write that a stakeholder, each by their own particular means, is capable of influencing a firm to implement sustainable strategies. However, the authors are only referring to external stakeholders, claiming governments and NGOs for example, can aid in promoting interests of the public. In addition, Verma and Chandra (2018) and Rassiah et al. (2022) find that consumers can highly influence hotel managers' environmental awareness and attitudes in adopting environmental activities. It can be inferred that in this case, outside pressures, perhaps relating to institutional forces, can be influential in terms of adopting environmental actions.

Stakeholder influence confirms the concept of reciprocity in general, where stakeholders are expected to have certain duties to fulfill, although Fassin (2012) argues this mutuality exists only with the legitimate stakeholders (stakeowners). In addition, Harrison et al. (2015) write that giving attention and taking care of the multiple stakeholder groups can foster stakeholder co-operation. This in turn has a ripple effect, where the authors explain that treating one stakeholder well, can enhance other stakeholder relationships

or positively affect their attitudes, citing Du Luque et al. (2008) and Cording et al. (2014).

Given all the theories that have been discussed, this study will adopt the stakeholder theory lens, and not others, for several reasons. Institutional theory deals with how organizations react to pressures/forces in their external environment. In Egypt, it is obvious businesses are not obligated to adopt green criteria within their operations. There are currently no laws or regulations forcing restaurants to implement green measures. Resource theories, both the resource-based view and resource dependency, focus on acquiring resources or how such resources, possessed by others in the external environment, can be used to sway firm behaviors. Once more, the study aims to determine the roles or influence of stakeholders, which may include provision of resources. It is not only focused on how restaurants can use resources to become green.

In addition, Jang et al. (2017, pg.102) confirm that the "stakeholder is also a central variable in corporate environmental strategies; however, limited studies have focused on the effect of stakeholder engagement on the implementation of environmental strategies and practices". Byrd (2007, pg.12) explicitly states that "Without stakeholder involvement, the term sustainable development would just be a marketing slogan or, at best, a topic for theoretical debate". This signifies that the stakeholder lens is well suited and can be highly capable in critically understanding the application of green management. Furthermore, the TPB has been used numerously, specifically when studying behavioral intentions, in terms of adopting sustainable measures or understanding consumer attitudes towards greener products/services. Myung et al. (2012) and Gao et al. (2016) assert the TPB has been the dominant lens hospitality studies, suggesting the adopting of

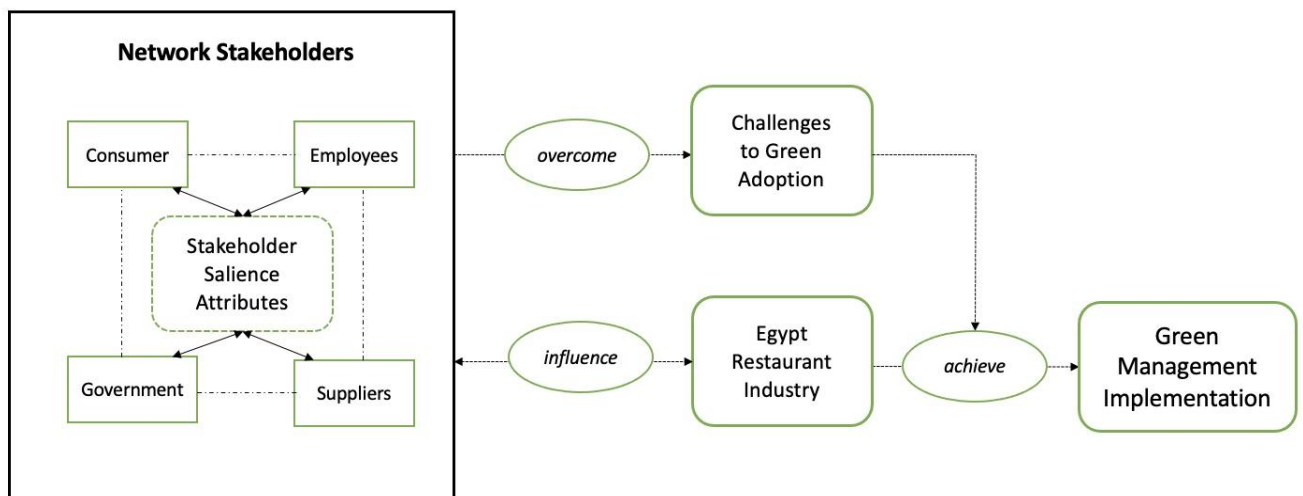
newer perspectives The objective of this study is not to understand pro green behaviors, as the green approach is still new in Egypt and does require further exploration of what it is and how people perceive it.

To conclude, Chan and Hsu (2016) write that there is little research aimed at highlighting the links between stakeholders of hospitality businesses and environmental management. In fact, empirical research concerning the effect of stakeholder engagement on the development of environmental sustainability strategies has been understudied. Sharma et al. (2020) call for research into understanding the relevance of important stakeholders, such as governments, suppliers, NGOs, in adopting eco-innovative measures while Haleem et al. (2022) recommend research is required into how stakeholders can pressure firms, within the service industry, to adopt environmental strategies. Kaur et al. (2022) suggest further exploration in terms of the role of crucial stakeholders, including the media and NGOs, which are deemed important for a restaurant's environmental and social objectives.

In addition, Hillman and Keim (2001) confirm that building relationships with stakeholders, such as employees, customers, suppliers and communities heightens and sustains an organization's competitive advantage. Initially though, stakeholder groups must be outlined, as Damian et al. (2022, pg. 518) write "To get an effective stakeholder engagement, all the relevant stakeholders must be identified early in the process. This calls for a systematic approach to define and identify stakeholders in different contexts". In addition, Harrison et al. (2015) assert that value among stakeholders is not clear and needs further research to be more understood. The authors specifically question how stakeholders perceive value and what it means to them. In terms of stakeholder salience, Neville and Menguc

(2006) suggests research to consider how the combination of one salience attribute with another (different one, for example, power and legitimacy), each possessed by a different stakeholder, may affect the organization. A conceptual framework for this study is presented below in Figure 3.5.

**Figure 3.5 Conceptual framework**



The above figure highlights a few aspects derived from reviewing the relevant literature. Firstly, it is presumed that consumers, employees, suppliers and governments can help restaurants go green. These groups are derived from previous green restaurant management studies, articulated in Table 2.3, as the most commonly cited stakeholders. As presented earlier in Chapter 2, green consumerism is on the rise. This means that consumers are becoming more aware and in some cases are willing to pay more to consume green products and services. It was also discussed that consumers can affect employee green behaviors, which can be further promoted through green training. In addition, if restaurants want to facilitate green

adoption, they are advised to deal with green suppliers. Finally, governments are cited for their ability to pressure or force restaurants to implement environmental measures through law establishment. For these reasons, such stakeholders are presumed to be vital in terms of green management application. Also, according to Table 3.1, these specific stakeholders are commonly prioritized by management, meaning they have a degree (with differing levels) of influence over organizations. Secondly, it is postulated that these stakeholders exist in a network, based on claims of Rowley (1997). The author argues that social networks are better in perceiving the stakeholder environment, where it is believed they can overcome challenges to green adoption in the Egyptian restaurant industry. Furthermore, stakeholders are believed to have the ability to influence restaurant management, through their possessed salience attribute/s (Mitchell et al., 1997), namely power, legitimacy or urgency, in becoming more environmental-friendly establishments. The existence of accorded attributes signals restaurants acknowledging and giving attention to such stakeholders. This means restaurants may also be able to influence back stakeholders in terms of green adoption. In the end, this will facilitate the application of green measures and allow restaurants to achieve their environmental goals. Furthermore, implementing such green practices is believed to foster value creation within the Egyptian restaurant industry.

### **3.6 Chapter Summary**

This research sets out to further explore and understand the factors that hinder the adoption of environmental criteria within restaurant operations and the relevant stakeholders that can help such outlets to facilitate such an approach. The hospitality literature shows that some stakeholders are interested in green management and could be potentials in its adoption. So therefore, the study will relate to the dynamics of stakeholder theory including salience attributes, to explore which stakeholders can help restaurants in becoming greener and how they can do this to overcome the various challenges. A few restaurants in Egypt are currently adopting some green practices, but most restaurants are still lagging when it comes to environmental protection. It should be noted that environmental research has been majorly focused on developed contexts and is minimal within developing nations (Li et al., 2017; Moosa and He, 2021) particularly Egypt. Even though the nation is currently trying to move forward in terms of its environmental agenda, no pressure exists for such businesses to be environmental-friendly. In general, Jacobs and Klosse (2016) urge further exploration on how restaurants can be more sustainable. Therefore, these restaurant businesses are presumably lacking the knowledge and resources to go green. The next chapter will detail the adopted methodology for this study.

## **Chapter 4 – Research Methodology**

### **4.1 Introduction**

The purpose of this chapter is to outline the planned methodology for this study. Before presenting and discussing the various research philosophies and assumptions in business research, the study's aim and objectives are outlined. Next, a section is dedicated to justifying and detailing the chosen methodology for this research, which includes the research paradigm, research design and research strategy. Following this, a pilot study conducted prior to data collection is presented. Also, research methods for data collection as well as analysis techniques are provided. The last section discusses research credibility and trustworthiness, as well as ethical considerations. Finally, the chapter ends with a summary.

### **4.2 Research Aim and Objectives**

The aim of this research is to explore the challenges faced by restaurants in Egypt when adopting environmental practices and depict the important stakeholder groups and their relevant roles, using salience attributes.

Therefore, the study has the following objectives:

1. To explore the barriers faced by restaurant operators in adopting green measures in Egypt.
2. To determine the stakeholder groups in addition to their evaluative salience attributes, relevant in the greening of the Egyptian restaurant industry.



3. To understand the roles and impact of such stakeholders within the restaurant industry in Egypt.
4. To develop a new conceptual framework, depicting the implementation of restaurant green practices using a stakeholder value perspective.

In order to arrive at the study's aim and achieve such objectives, philosophical assumptions, including epistemology, ontology and axiology, in addition to the research paradigm, must be outlined. The following section is dedicated to discussing these elements.

### **4.3 Philosophical Assumptions**

Any researcher makes certain assumptions about their study, which will guide them in answering research questions, choosing the appropriate methods and determining their findings (Crotty, 1998). Researchers conducting business and management studies should be wary of their adopted assumption since it will have an impact, and therefore, shape their research process in terms of what they are trying to understand (Johnson and Clark, 2006). To be more specific, such assumptions constitute of three main elements, namely ontology (how reality is viewed), epistemology (how one understands knowledge) and axiology (degree to which researcher values influence research outcomes). Each of these are further explained next.

Ontology is concerned with how reality is formed or constructed (Creswell, 2013) or as portrayed by Easterby Smith et al. (2012, pg.31), "assumptions that we make about the nature of reality". Saunders et al. (2018) explain that one's ontological views serve as guidance and ultimately determine how they see their studied objects, which include organizations, management and others. Epistemology correlates with what can be known (Guba and

Lincoln, 1994) or as argued by Saunders et al. (2018, pg.135), "how can we know what we know? or what is considered acceptable knowledge", in the chosen discipline. Axiology deals with researcher values and whether such values might influence their study. During the research process, researchers must recognize that their values might affect their study findings. This means that they must initially decide whether they will allow such values to shape research outcomes, or to be more objective by minimizing this from happening.

Saunders et al. (2018) explain that each of these elements in research can exist at one end of a continuum, namely objectivism or subjectivism. Objectivism, from an ontological basis, is a reflection of a single reality or truth, where studied objects offer understanding independent of the researcher. While from an epistemological perspective, it is more related to studies concerned with natural science, supported by figures and numerical data. Objectivism mirrors realism, as supported by Peter (1992, pg. 73) stating that "the world exists independently of its being perceived...realism views science as being capable of knowing reality". This extraction shows that these approaches rely heavily on scientific, objective facts. In terms of axiology, researcher values are considered non-involved.

On the other hand, subjectivism can be juxtaposed to all this. From an ontological sense, subjectivism embraces multiple truths, which are formed by actors or "socially constructed". Subjectivist views mimic relativist approaches in research, where Wetherell and Still (1998, 106) write "relativism is most often associated with the social constructionist perspective, which argues for the multiple nature of reality and the importance of human constructive work". Epistemologically, knowledge is represented through perspectives, textual data, shaped by certain contexts.

Lastly, unlike objectivism, in terms of axiology, researcher values are present during what is being investigated.

#### **4.4 Research Paradigms**

As has been mentioned above, at the beginning of their study, a researcher must consider and decide upon their philosophical assumptions. Ultimately, such assumptions lead to justifying the chosen research paradigm. Guba (1990, pg.17) defines a paradigm as “basic set of beliefs that guides action” while Brand (2008, pg.432) describes it as “the ultimate framework within which a piece of research is located”. In other words, these beliefs help shape what is being explored, how it will be explored using the various scientific methods, as well as the perspective taken to interpret findings (Bryman, 1988). According to Saunders et al. (2018), there are 5 major research paradigms, namely positivism, critical realism, interpretivism, postmodernism and pragmatism, where each will be discussed next.

Positivist approaches can be used to study social domains. In the article by Mackenzie and Knipe (2006), the authors clarify this notion by citing Mertens (2005, pg.8): "the social world can be studied in the same way as the natural world, that there is a method for studying the social world that is value free, and that explanations of a causal nature can be provided". Positivist researchers begin their studies by engaging in hypothesis formulation, according to a chosen theory as seen fit by the researcher. Within this philosophical paradigm, researchers are interested in verifying facts, which will either support or reject their earlier postulations (Rehman and Alharthi, 2016). Such a paradigm is shaped around objectivism.

Next, there is critical realism. Phillips (1987, pg. 205) defines realism as “the view that entities exist independently of being perceived, or independently of

our theories about them". This means, critical realism is detached from any subjective interpretations, and therefore are fully based on what is "seen", observed or experienced (Saunders et al., 2018). Realists put aside their own judgements, since truth is provided by what is presented by the object studied, where Fletcher (2017) writes that critical realism merges between positivism and constructivism, where it (pg. 182) "treats the world as theory-laden, but not theory-determined", meaning less reliance on subjective interpretations by the observer.

Continuing on, interpretivism is considered the opposite of positivism, which simply advocates knowledge is to be created. Merriam and Tisdell (2016, pg. 9) state that "Interpretive research assumes that reality is socially constructed; that is, there is no single, observable reality. Rather, there are multiple realities, or interpretations, of a single event. Researchers do not "find" knowledge; they construct it". The objective of interpretivist/constructivist philosophies is to recognize that experiences are shaped as a result of human interaction (Cohen & Manion, 1994). Goldkuhl (2012, pg. 137) argues that "the aim of understanding the subjective meanings of persons in studied domains is essential in the interpretive paradigm". Unlike with other research paradigms where researchers base their claims upon theoretical foundations, constructivists are likely to divert from this, since there's a tendency during the research to focus on the identification of new meanings or theory generation Creswell (2013).

The fourth paradigm is postmodernism, which Creswell (2013) claims initially intends on modifying perspectives, or "ways of thinking". Romani et al. (2018, pg. 251), write postmodern studies "focus on language, texts, and discourses (see Derrida 1967; Foucault 1977), as they do not see texts as a simple mirror of reality; they see the world and organizations as a series of

texts performing reality instead". Karatas-Ozkan and Murphy (2010, pg.457) state that postmodernism in organizations tends to give meaning and generates outcomes by looking at organizational "discourse, texts and artefacts".

Lastly there is pragmatism, where researchers aim to propose and develop solutions to a problem. Using this perspective, pragmatic research entails views that are non-specific to a single approach. In fact, believing there are multiple ways to understand the problem at hand (Saunders et al., 2018), pragmatists promote their research claims by combining interpretivist and positivist beliefs. Such researchers adopt a research design which best suits their objectives, albeit their suitability. It is likely that pragmatic researchers resort to mixed method approaches to conducting their study. The researchers feel multiple strategies are most common, can help them arrive at their study objectives (Creswell, 2013).

The following table, adopted from Saunders et al. (2018), is more detailed and helps to offer a precise distinction of the above research paradigms, in relation to philosophical assumptions and relevant methods.

**Table 4.1 Comparison of five research philosophical positions in business and management research**

<b>Philosophy</b>  <b>Paradigm</b>	<b>Ontology</b>  (nature of reality or being)	<b>Epistemology</b>  (what constitutes acceptable knowledge)	<b>Axiology</b>  (role of values)	<b>Typical methods</b>
<b>Positivism</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>○ Real, external, independent</li> <li>○ One true reality (universalism)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>○ Scientific method</li> <li>○ Observable and measurable facts</li> <li>○ Causal explanation and prediction as contribution</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>○ Value-free research</li> <li>○ Researcher is independent of what is researched</li> <li>○ Researcher maintains objective stance</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>○ Typically deductive, highly structured, large samples, typically quantitative methods of analysis, but a range of data can be analyzed</li> </ul>
<b>Critical realism</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>○ Stratified/layered (the empirical, the actual and the real)</li> <li>○ External, independent</li> <li>○ Objective structures</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>○ Epistemological relativism</li> <li>○ Facts are social constructions</li> <li>○ Historical causal explanation as contribution</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>○ Value-laden research</li> <li>○ Researcher tries to minimize bias by being as objective as possible</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>○ Retroductive, in-depth historically situated analysis of pre-existing structures</li> <li>○ Range of methods and data types to fit subject matter</li> </ul>
<b>Interpretivism</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>○ Complex, rich</li> <li>○ Socially constructed through culture and language</li> <li>○ Multiple meanings, interpretations, realities</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>○ Theories and concepts too simplistic</li> <li>○ Focus on narratives, stories, perceptions and interpretations</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>○ Value-bound research</li> <li>○ Researchers are part of what is researched, subjective</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>○ Typically inductive.</li> <li>○ Small samples, in-depth investigations, qualitative methods of analysis, but a</li> </ul>

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>○ Flux of processes, experiences, practices</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>○ New understandings and worldviews as contribution</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>○ Researcher interpretations key to contribution</li> <li>○ Researcher reflexive</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>○ range of data can be interpreted</li> </ul>
<b>Postmodernism</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>○ Nominal</li> <li>○ Complex, rich</li> <li>○ Socially constructed through power relations</li> <li>○ Flux of processes, experiences, practices</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>○ What counts as 'truth' and 'knowledge' is decided by dominant ideologies</li> <li>○ Focus on absences, silences and oppressed/ repressed meanings, interpretations and voices</li> <li>○ Exposure of power relations and challenge of dominant views as contribution</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>○ Value-constituted research</li> <li>○ Researcher and research embedded in power relations</li> <li>○ Researcher radically reflexive</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>○ Typically deconstructive – reading texts and realities against themselves</li> <li>○ In-depth investigations of anomalies, silences and absences</li> <li>○ Range of data types, typically qualitative methods of analysis</li> </ul>
<b>Pragmatism</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>○ Complex, rich, external</li> <li>○ 'Reality' is the practical consequences of ideas</li> <li>○ Flux of processes, experiences and practices</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>○ Practical meaning of knowledge in specific contexts</li> <li>○ Focus on problems, practices and relevance</li> <li>○ Problem solving and informed future practice as contribution</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>○ Value-driven research</li> <li>○ Research initiated and sustained by researcher's doubts and beliefs</li> <li>○ Researcher reflexive</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>○ Range of methods: mixed, multiple, qualitative, quantitative, action research</li> <li>○ Emphasis on practical solutions and outcomes</li> </ul>

Adapted from: Saunders et al. (2018).

## 4.5 Approaches to Theory Development

Any research project is associated with a theory, which represents its “logical reasoning” and “building blocks” (Reichertz, 2013). These include the deductive, inductive and abduction basis. Deductive researchers explicitly base their studies on a theoretical foundation (Saunders et al., 2009), starting from a general view and ending with theory modifications, through hypothesis testing (Hyde, 2000). Initially, theories that deem most suitable to the problem statement are selected from the review of previous literature. Postulations or hypotheses are made as to the type of correlations existing between certain variables. After the data is collected, these postulations are either supported or rejected and theoretical alterations are presented (Locke, 2007; Nola and Sankey, 2007; Wicshyn and Daellenbach, 2018). Deductive studies are generally set out to test hypothesis of interest to the researcher, based on a specific theory. Studies of deductive nature dictate quantitative research approaches.

An inductive approach in research varies from a deductive one, where researchers begin by observing specific aspects concerning a particular issue, resulting in refining concepts and theories (Locke, 2007; Wicshyn and Daellenbach, 2018). Kennedy and Thornberg (2018, pg. 51) write “...induction means that patterns, concepts and theories emerge from the data through the researchers; interactions with the data without pre-supposing such outcomes a priori”. This means, researchers are heavily reliant on initially collecting their data, which ultimately leads to identification of certain relationships or perhaps theory development. In other words, studies in this category are mainly concerned with generalizations or theory construction, which can be referenced to the



empirical data gathered at an earlier stage. Qualitative research methods are likely to reflect inductive approaches.

The abductive approach is simply the combination of the deductive and abductive approaches (Saunders et al., 2019). Conaty (2021) further explains that abductive reasoning involves the development of hypotheses based on facts, which may either lead to the validation of a new theory or the refinement of an existing theory. The author further states that using such an approach may or may not begin with adopting a theoretical “frame”.

#### **4.6 The Egyptian context**

According to a report by Euromonitor International (2018), Egyptians enjoy consuming a meal outside the house, specifically on weekends with family, with an average record of 39,000 food establishments. Yet, currently, only very few restaurants in Egypt are adopting some green measures. These local chains are trying to mainly cut out on their plastic usage (Aboshady, 2019), by resorting to eco-friendly packaging, and materials, as well as using local foods when preparing meals. Examples of popular chains include TBS, Zooba and Gad. Another local restaurant, Eish w Malh, is known to sponsor and carry out a monthly event, where local producers display their fresh, sometimes organic, ingredients. The restaurant on that specific day prepares some meals using such products. This act also helps in raising consumer awareness towards consuming healthier meals.

These above examples can indicate a few aspects. Firstly, restaurants have the capacity to implement some green practices, yet more research is needed into the obstacles that are currently hindering the industry from being a sustainable one (Jacobs and Klosse, 2016). In other words,

practically and operationally, restaurants require a framework or an understanding of how to go green. Next, in order for such restaurants to adopt green practices, it is presumable that, at least, they are dealing with eco suppliers and have trained their employees on such environmental aspects. This once again signals an opportunity to study the different stakeholders that can influence, through participation, the implementation of green practices in a hospitality context, including restaurants (Chan and Hsu, 2016; Sharma et al., 2020; Madanaguli et al., 2022).

Yet, unlike restaurants, the hotel sector has been given more attention, from a sustainability perspective i.e., the Ministry of Tourism's green hotel certification, as mentioned earlier in the introduction chapter. The focus on the lodging industry has also heightened, as a result of the research studies conducted for this specific sector. For example, El Dief and Font (2012) have investigated how organizational, and managers' values may affect the decision to adopt environmental practices within both local and international hotels. They concluded that organizational altruism is more evident in international chain hotels, while local hotels are more inclined to achieve economic rather than environmental goals. El Demerdash and Mohamed (2013) argue that barriers to implementing environmental regulations in Red Sea hotels include financial constraints, employee skills and consumer demand for such practices.

Furthermore, Sobaih et al. (2020) find that managers/owners of small hotels in Egypt who can select and hire employees with environmental values, in addition to administering the required level of training, can result in such hotels engaging in higher green innovation, including improved environmental performance. From a food waste perspective, Abou Kamar (2017) claims that 3-star hotels in Cairo have higher food waste levels than

other regions, namely Europe, Asia and the US, where there is opportunity to minimize 'avoidable' waste which arises during serving meals (buffets). Also, both Soliman (2020) and Rady et al. (2021) investigate food waste levels in hotels in Alexandria and Hurghada, respectively. Soliman (2020) finds low awareness among kitchen staff while Rady et al. (2021) find consumer awareness and lack of staff training as major causes for generated food waste. Rady et al. (2021) also claim that these hotels currently try to limit their food waste by modifying menu items, reducing buffet food quantity and trying to educate consumers on ordering smaller portions.

From a consumer perspective, El Demerdash (2019) and Eid et al. (2021) examine consumer intentions in terms of visiting green hotels. Both studies recommend managers focus efforts on educating consumers, through media & campaigns, and how they can help in protecting the environment, which can further strengthen their intention towards visiting such hotels. Such hotel studies suggest that adopting environmental measures can help in reducing waste, given that employees are trained accordingly, and encouraging customers to participate, for example, by consuming eco-friendly products. This suggests that there is room to further explore the inclusion of stakeholders when implementing green practices.

For the restaurant sector, fewer studies have been conducted in the Egyptian context, in terms of their sustainability. Saleh and Elsaied (2018) found managers to have some knowledge concerning the environment, and direct efforts mainly towards energy and waste management, although costing issues serve as a constraint. Abbas and Hussien (2021) find that green planning, for example such as green training for employees, and policy affect the restaurant's image, while green kitchen and dining affect operational performance. Yet, both studies have focused only on international QSRs. Saad and Raslan (2017) claim that some local

restaurants try to include sustainable food sourcing, i.e., local and fresh, in their menu offerings, with recommendations to grow their own ingredients. In general, green management within the hospitality industry in Egypt is still unclear (Eid et al., 2021), where Sobaih et al. (2021) advocate the industry is not given enough attention by governments on becoming more sustainable. The following section will be discussing the pilot study carried out before the data collection phase of the research.

#### ***4.6.1 Preliminary Study***

In order to better shape the methodological position of this research, one of the tactics needed was to conduct a small, initial study concerning the problem at hand. In other words, the researcher wanted to learn whether restaurant operators are aware of the green concept and how they feel in terms of adopting this approach. There were very few examples locally known to have applied a simple initiative, such as removing plastics. Therefore, the researcher wanted to visit 2-3 restaurants and check what restaurants know and think of green management. At the same time, the researcher also wanted to learn if the government gives any attention or concern to green application. This specifically was an important step, since data about such an issue was not evident or reachable through published records. Concerning governmental records, there were no documents to outline what is expected of the industry, in terms of going green. From an academic perspective, there were almost no studies conducted on local restaurants adopting environmental measures. It should be noted that in general, Egypt suffers from lack of valid and concrete data, including statistical figures. Abou Gendy (2013, pg. 115) argues that CAPMAS (Central Agency for Public Mobilization and Statistics), which is the official governmental agency responsible for collecting and analyzing statistical data

in Egypt, is unable to provide reliable statistics in terms of “quantity, type, accuracy and relevance”. This shows that statistical information available for the nation is clearly unreliable and perhaps distorted. In fact, Ayad (2014) writes that statistical data is not updated, therefore it is of little value and difficult to obtain, therefore obstructing the research process. Sobaih and Jones (2015) claim research culture in hospitality and tourism in specific is very weak amongst academics and practitioners, supporting Zakhary (2013), who wrote that social science research is not given attention by the government.

The researcher decided to conduct 3 preliminary interviews with restaurant operators; 1 owner and 2 managers in Cairo. More details are provided in Table 4.4

**Table 4.2 Profile of Preliminary Interviewees**

<b>Interview</b>	<b>Profile</b>
#1	Owner of an independent restaurant, breakfast, lunch & dinner. 30 employees. 5 years in business.
#2	Manager of a local café chain, serves breakfast, lunch & dinner. 160 employees. 10 years in business.
#3	Manager of local chain restaurant serves breakfast, lunch & dinner. 300 employees. 10 years in business.

The objective was to probe about their perspectives in terms of green management and to check the current situation in terms of its applicability in Egypt. In other words, the researcher wanted to check if operators understand the green concept, whether they would wish to adopt any green practices and how they would go about doing this. The outcome was the following:

1. No distinction between garbage and waste that can be recycled; the garbage collector is the only one who does this segregation (whom benefits from such process).
2. No governmental aid/support or in contrast pressure and follow-up on restaurants in Egypt.
3. The green philosophy is not yet clearly understood by restaurateurs (definition & benefits); even though 1 of the owners implements some green practices at their restaurant.
4. Applying green measures is a decision totally up to the restaurant owner whether it is for profit, environmental preservation or both.

In terms of the second point, government support and pressure, it was mentioned by restaurant operators that it was non-existent. Also, it was argued by all three interviewees, that green application should be initially adopted by the government, where it is seen as their responsibility. The participants have voiced that the nation needs to establish the relevant laws and force them onto businesses, communities and the wider society. Once this has been done, businesses can then start to integrate green measures within their operations. In other words, they believe it is not their responsibility to initiate and lead actions directed at environmental protection.

Following these interviews with restaurants, the researcher decided to also carry out 2 interviews with 2 different ministries, namely the Ministry of Tourism and Ministry of Environment. The objective was to question and inquire about the importance of green management and if there were any exceptions concerning this from the restaurant business. The choice of these ministries is as follows. The Ministry of Tourism represents a segment of registered restaurants in the nation, mainly touristic establishments. The

Ministry of Environment, of course, was chosen because it is concerned with environmental issues.

At the Ministry of Tourism, the general manager explained that restaurants registered in the ministry are ones that are able to offer entertainment activities on their premises or provide alcohol. Most other restaurants usually are registered within their municipalities. The minister provided documents including an excel sheet of registered restaurants' database, the criteria for a restaurant to be categorized as either a three, four or five-star rating and the required documentation to be submitted at the ministry, in the case of opening a new restaurant. Through the tourism ministry, the license from the environmental ministry is obtained. The output from this visit was only the understanding of restaurant categories and types and nothing related to green management. In other words, the manager did not have any knowledge concerning expectations or requirements, from an environmental perspective, for restaurants to adopt.

The managing director at the Ministry of Environment stated that policies for restaurants were targeted at waste management (including garbage). They stated that before establishment, restaurants must fill and submit a form at the ministry, where it will be decided whether the restaurant owner would be granted a license to operate or not. However, this isn't the real case; some restaurants do start operating without this license. When an inspection by government officials takes place, the restaurant is fined a penalty. Obtaining a license is obligatory, however, its approval takes a long time. Most restaurants wait till they are permitted this license to operate their businesses. The inspections that take place are not planned, where these officials drop by anytime. When the license is granted though, a declaration form is signed by the restaurant where they must:

1. Have a contract with companies for waste/garbage collection. One company for hazardous materials (oils, plastics, etc.) and another for normal waste, including organic waste.
2. Have an environmental record where the owner records such information onto a database or by manual means (to be ready at any time for inspection).

During their interview, the managing director at the Ministry of Environment said, practically speaking, in most cases, these 2 conditions are rarely ever met, even though these are essential when applying for the license.

Concerning waste management i.e., its collection and disposal, this same managing director stated that the ministry coordinates with the nation's garbage institution. Concerning inspection, he attributed the problem to the shortage of employees at the ministry, where they and 1 other personnel are responsible for all records concerning touristic establishments, and unfortunately, there is no recruitment of other employees. Also, in addition, the inspection department mainly concerns itself with more problematic cases, mainly manufacturing sites with pollution. The manager finally stated that even if and when an inspection takes place, given the fact that none of the waste/garbage constraints are met, a financial penalty is given or an agreed upon settlement (financial) takes place.

At this point, after such visits and carefully thinking about the outcome from such meetings, it was clear that there exist stakeholder groups that could be potentially important, in terms of management. Firstly, restaurants have mentioned the inclusion of governments and how they are responsible for adopting such a philosophy. Restaurants believe that governments should initiate adopting green measures, through establishment of laws and required tools for implementation. Then, they could begin to apply such environmental practices within their businesses. Next, restaurants have also



mentioned the garbage collectors, who are affiliated with the government, and are officially known for managing and handling that nation's garbage/waste. This shows that waste management is perhaps a task that these garbage specialists can handle and not something the restaurant needs to do. Also, there are these two major ministries, which are seen to be linked with restaurants, either from a licensing or environmental perspective. These two ministries are important, from a governing perspective, and presumably, from the restaurant interviews, have the ability to and can force certain environmental regulations. Also, reviewing the relevant literature in the areas of hospitality and sustainability, stakeholders presumably can influence and engage in green adoption. Given all this, the researcher has become more interested in further exploring the existence of the important stakeholders and identification of others, required to foster green implementation, in addition to each of their roles. The following section will explain the methodological design for this study.

#### **4.7 Methodological Approach for this Study**

As stated above, to be able to answer and arrive at the research aim and objectives (see section 4.2), a researcher is required to carefully consider their assumptions, which fall under a certain research paradigm. The following step was to decide on a research design or strategy that fits the context of the study. In order to arrive at this decision, the researcher precisely gave thought to few aspects, namely past literature, research aim and objectives. Therefore, the following section will explain this in more detail.

#### **4.7.1 Study assumptions**

Bogdan and Biklen (1998, pg.22) write that a paradigm is "a loose collection of logically related assumptions, concepts, or propositions that orient thinking and research". As has been outlined earlier, there are various research paradigms, each with their own assumptions. It should be noted that each of these paradigms is unique, robust and therefore dictates the appropriate methodological design. Yet, it is believed that for each research, there is one best "fitting" approach, deemed to be more usable and suitable. Nguyen (2019, pg.3) explain that the choice of a research paradigm is based on how researchers "...view the truth, what they know and how they know it, along with their theoretical perspective(s) about the research topic, the literature that exists on the subjects and their own value system". In other words, a researcher must consider not only their epistemological, ontological and axiological views, but in addition their theoretical position relevant to the problem studied and the current body of literature. Furthermore, the chosen paradigm should be one that aligns with the context of the study, which is able to yield findings that can help in meeting research objectives and ultimately arrive at achieving research aim.

Darby et al. (2019, pg.398) write that "Interpretive research, in contrast, adopts a more particularistic approach in that particular phenomena are studied in a particular time and place (Hudson and Ozanne, 1988). With the interpretive approach, the particular motives, meanings, and experiences are studied to provide "thick descriptions" that are time-and context-bound (Geertz, 1973)". In addition to earlier definitions of interpretivism, this extraction clearly shows the ideology behind interpretivism, which is arriving at knowledge about a problem of interest, through meanings and interactions, relevant to a specific scenario. In other words, given the

objectives of the research, namely understanding restaurant challenges in green adoption, in addition to identifying stakeholder groups and their roles in implementing environmental criteria, interpretivism deemed the most relevant paradigm for this research study. This ideology of interpretivism can help in arriving at certain knowledge, only attainable through flexible lens, accepting the fact that there are different versions of what exists. In other words, meaning and interpretations resultant from a certain context are unique and therefore are able to provide and enhance understanding in a certain area.

Given the above, the researcher ontologically believes there's no one single version of the truth but, there are multiple truths that can be derived, which are socially constructed within a certain context. The researcher also believes that epistemologically, knowledge can be reached or is obtained from meanings, interpretations and new understandings. This means, for example, findings from past research on green restaurants in other contexts are not applicable to understand the Egyptian hospitality industry, including participant views on how they make sense of the phenomenon they experience. Participants operating within this specific context face certain challenges and varying perspectives on stakeholder engagement. Tackling such issues, using a more flexible, interpretive approach is presumed to generate precise and context-specific concepts and understandings. Such findings can only be reached through explicating the thoughts and meanings given to concepts by the study participants. Although interpretivist approaches contribute to exploring socially constructed issues in depth, yet, like any other paradigm, it has its limitations. According to Mack (2010), interpretivism lacks the ability to generalize findings, unlike positivist approaches for example, because it doesn't give attention to verifying the outcomes of research. The author also writes that another disadvantage arises from deploying the interpretivist paradigm is concerned with the

inherent researcher subjectivity. Such an approach doesn't apply an objectivist lens to the research. Even though such weaknesses exist within this approach, yet it is believed to be appropriate lens for the exploration of the phenomenon in this study.

#### **4.7.2 Research design**

Saunders et al. (2019) write that research design represents the overall plan for carrying out the study. One of the most important decisions in research design is deciding whether the study will be qualitative, quantitative or adopting a mixed method approach. Qualitative methods are concerned with exploring and further understanding a research problem, involving the study of contexts, people and the like where the researcher disseminates in an interpretive manner their participants' experiences (Yilmaz, 2013). On the other hand, quantitative studies focus on producing quantified conclusions. Creswell (2013, pg.31) explains that "quantitative research is an approach for testing objective theories by examining the relationship among variables". Questionnaires and surveys complement studies that are quantitative in nature.

Miles and Huberman (1994, pg.1) write that qualitative data "are a source of well-grounded, rich descriptions and explanations of processes in identifiable local contexts" Habib et al. (2014, pg.9) advocate that qualitative research "refers to the meanings, concepts, definitions, characteristics, metaphors, symbols, and descriptions of things". Studies employing qualitative methods tend to have smaller sample numbers, as they aren't concerned with generalizations like quantitative studies.

A mixed methods approach, as the name implies, is a combination of both quantitative and qualitative research methods. Mixed methods are applied in a study when the researcher feels there's a need to integrate both independent methods i.e., quantitative and qualitative, to accomplish the study's objectives. Lopez-Fernandez and Molina-Azorin (2011, pg.1460) write "the use of mixed methods may play an important role in research, since the results obtained via the different methods can enrich and improve our understanding of the matters under study and foster fresh ideas about them, in order to give answers to questions that are difficult to answer by a sole classical method (quantitative or qualitative)". Accordingly, such an approach therefore can allow researchers to present more rich outcomes which have not been possible by the use of one single approach.

Given the nature of this study, namely interpretivist, the researcher adopts a qualitative approach. It should be noted that each of the above approaches have their advantages, yet, due to the objectives and gaps to be explored in literature, qualitative research design is deemed the most suitable, allowing the researcher to achieve the aim of the study. Krauss (2005) explains that qualitative research supports the existence of multiple truths, which are created and given meaning through human experiences. The purpose of the study i.e., research objectives, is to further understand the obstacles and barriers restaurants in Egypt face when implementing environmental practices, in addition to highlighting the roles stakeholder groups can play to facilitate green adoption. Such objectives require a qualitative approach, which is designed to explore, interpret and give meaning to the perceptions of and articulations made by participants. Trochim (2006) infers that comprehending a phenomenon in a certain context is reflected in qualitative studies. In terms of literature, green restaurant studies, exploring the management perspective, have mostly adopted quantitative approaches. This can be seen in the following table.

**Table 4.3 Methods used in previous research on green restaurants**

<b>Author &amp; Date</b>	<b>Focus of Study</b>	<b>Method/ response rate</b>
Choi and Parsa (2006)	Examined managers' attitudes, preferences, and involvement in terms of green practices and assessed the relationship between the psychological factors and managers' willingness to charge a premium to support such practices. (US).	QUAN-22.26%
Chou et al. (2012)	Explored restaurants' behavioural intentions toward adopting green practices through the theory of planned behavior and innovation adoption perspective. (Taiwan)	QUAN-71.7%.
Kasim and Ismail (2012)	Examined the internal and external drivers and barriers that may contribute to the responsiveness of restaurateurs towards implementation of environmentally friendly practices. (Malaysia)	QUAN-37%
Wang et al. (2013)	To explore and construct green standards of restaurant management. (Taiwan)	Delphi technique; QUAN&QUAL analysis
Perramon et al. (2014)	To examine the motivations for the adoption of green practices in restaurants and the impact of this adoption on firm performance. (Spain)	Questionnaire through interviews; 374 restaurants.
Chou et al. (2016)	Investigated ideas on sustainable service innovation in restaurants gathered from interviews with restaurant managers, government experts and scholars. (Taiwan)	QUAL-15 interviews
Jang et al. (2017)	Examined the role of top managers' values and leadership in advancing environmental sustainability. It also investigates the effects of stakeholder engagement on restaurants' environmental sustainability and assesses the impact of related practices on restaurant performance. (US)	QUAN-8.7%
Raab et al. (2018)	Investigated casual restaurant managers concerning their motivations to adopt and implement sustainable practices and by examining managers' behaviors when facing environmental pressures with referral to theory of planned behavior & institutional theory. (US)	QUAN-15.4%
Tan et al. (2018)	To understand restaurant operators' perception towards key areas of green practices that could be adopted in the future operations of the restaurant business. (Malaysia)	QUAL- 5 interviews

Jang and Zheng (2019)	Investigated the current levels of environmental sustainability in restaurants to determine whether a restaurant's proclivity for environmental sustainability depended on its characteristics such as chain affiliation or restaurant type. (US)	QUAN-8.7%
Salzbery et al. (2019)	Behavioral control & innovation factors (value, advantages) can predict managers' sustainable behaviors.	QUAN-8%

As seen from the above table, research concerning green practices in restaurants has mostly adopted a quantitative approach, with the aim of confirming or generalizing research findings. Although such statistical figures can be important for representation, a quantitative research approach does not focus on exploring an issue in depth; it is designed to test specific hypotheses, using a large sample, in order to generalize research findings (Swanson and Holton III, 2005). On the other hand, qualitative methods are suitable when research objectives are designed around elaborating on certain issues, with the goal of further comprehending such matters, such as through identification of certain patterns. The study aims to learn of the complexities of adopting green measures in restaurants, given the dynamics of the Egyptian context as well as realize the potential stakeholder influence and roles that can be fulfilled by such groups. As the study's conceptual framework points out, the network of stakeholders needs to be explored in how it can facilitate and affect restaurants' implementation of environmental criteria. Such an aim requires a more open, interactive approach. Also, these studies have been majorly carried out in certain contexts, such as Taiwan, US and Malaysia, with minimal focus on the middle east, particularly Egypt.

Taking into consideration the research aim and objectives, methodological design of past literature and a call from authors to further explore the factors hindering green adoption in restaurants, in addition to stakeholder

involvement (Chan and Hsu, 2016; Jang et al., 2017; Jang and Zheng, 2019; Kaur et al., 2022) this study adopts a qualitative approach where its objectives are tailored to understand and inquire into Egyptian restaurant operators' perceptions and reasoning in terms of adopting green practices, with referral to stakeholder inclusion. This research target requires in-depth investigation of the Egyptian context specifically, where findings from other contexts are not representative and therefore can't contribute to understanding the dynamics of the targeted phenomenon.

### **4.7.3 Research strategy**

There are multiple research strategies in qualitative research. Saunders et al. (2019) explains that a research strategy is the plan a researcher deploys for answering their research questions while Merriam and Tisdell (2016) explain it to be the "type" of qualitative research. In qualitative research, there are multiple strategies that can be adopted, which are briefly explained in the following table:

**Table 4.4 Qualitative research strategies**

<b>Research Strategy</b>	<b>Explanation</b>
Ethnography	Centers around descriptions of culture and society (Merriam and Tisdell, 2016).
Phenomenology	Articulations of how individuals experience a certain phenomenon (Creswell, 2013). Descriptions include "what and how" these individuals have experienced it (Moustakas, 1994).
Case study	Investigates a certain issue within its real-life setting (Yin, 2018; Saunders et al., 2019).
Grounded Theory	Presents an explanation; theory generation or "discovery", from data gathered (Creswell, 2013).
Narrative	It's mainly concerned with narrating stories about an event, told in a chronological manner (Saunders et al., 2019).



The above table shows that there are multiple strategies in qualitative studies. Each of these strategies is unique, having their own objective and could be the most suitable for certain research studies, based on the researcher's philosophies, assumptions and study objectives.

Ethnography refers to the study of cultures. To be more precise, the researcher studies a cultural issue, which is unfamiliar to them, and tries to further understand it from the perspectives of certain people involved (Nurani, 2008). Ethnographic studies mainly entail and heavily rely on the observation of participants, but also make use of interviews, images, texts and performances (Watson and Till, 2010). A phenomenological study aims to outline how groups engage with a particular phenomenon (Creswell, 2013). There are two types of phenomenological studies; descriptive and interpretive or hermeneutic. Connelly (2010) writes that researchers carrying out descriptive studies, are able to put aside their thoughts and biases, while in interpretive studies, this is not possible to do and therefore can't engage in separating such perceptions.

Saunders et al. (2019, pg.196) claim that case studies are designed to examine dynamics within a certain context, meaning "interactions between the subject of the case and its context". The aim of a case study approach is to unveil the dimensions or aspects of a topic, in greater detail, which is specific to predefined context, as articulated by Miles et al. (2014) within a "bounded context". Merriam and Tisdell (2016, pg.234) further elaborate on case studies by writing, "A qualitative, inductive, multi-case study seeks to build abstractions across cases". This extraction shows the purpose or outcome from a case study; presenting an overall understanding of the studied cases.

Grounded theory, another qualitative approach, centers around the generation of theory. Grounded theory allows researchers to study interpretations ascribed to events and processes, with the aim of offering more clarity to the investigated issue (Backman and Kyngas, 1999). Charmaz (2014) explains that the grounded theory approach begins with notions that are not clearly defined. The outcome from such an approach is the generation of theory, embedded within the data, which is founded on theoretical sampling, where sampling decisions are altered during data collection due to emerging concepts (Strauss and Corbin, 1998).

Moen (2006) explains narrative research constitutes participants giving meaning to their lived experiences, in the form of stories. It entails detailing such experiences, analyzing them and then systematically representing them in an organized manner. Carless and Douglas (2017, pg.1) write "Recounting moments of personal experience in story form (detailing what happened, where, when, to whom, what were the consequences) is important not so much to reveal the objective details of events but to understand the individual's subjective responses to those events". Such a quote shows the distinctive purpose and essence of narrative research; the detailed and precise accounts of how participants "lived" such events. Careless (2010) argues that narrative research allows for the exploration of how bodies and stories interplay, affect and impact one another.

The researcher is interested to understand how local restaurants in Egypt currently adopt green practices, in terms of challenges they face, and the required stakeholder aid, with the aim of presenting a better picture of this process. In alignment with the researcher's philosophy, adopted paradigm and research objectives, this study is considered qualitative in nature and in specific, a case of the Egyptian context. Therefore, this research will adopt a

case study strategy, where the study is focused and tailored to the exploration of the Egyptian restaurant industry.

#### **4.8 Data Collection Tools**

In order to achieve the research aim and objectives, two data collection tools are adopted in this study, namely in-depth interviews (IDIs) and a focus group discussion (FGD). Interviewing is a method for gathering information from the selected sample and can either be structured or unstructured. Schostak (2006, pg.10) writes "The interview can be described in terms of individuals directing their attention towards each other with the purpose of opening up the possibility of gaining an insight into the experiences, concerns, interests, beliefs, values, knowledge and ways of seeing, thinking, and acting of the other". This means interviews give an opportunity for study participants to express themselves freely and enable the interviewer as well, to engage in a dialogue with such participants, digging deeper into their insights and perspectives. Such a dialogue may not be possible if other types of data collection tools were used, such as surveys or observations. Referring to this study, the research intends to explore the insights of restaurant operators and the meanings they articulate in terms of adopting green measures in their outlets. This study, in specific, aims to uncover the barriers to such an adoption and the relevant stakeholders evident to contributing to green implementation.

In qualitative research, the use of multiple methods of data collection is referred to as data triangulation. Saunders et al. (2019, pg. 218) write that "For interpretivists, the value of using triangulation is that it adds depth, breadth, complexity and richness to their research (Denzin, 2012; Denzin and Lincoln, 2018)". Due to the small sample sizes within qualitative approaches, once again, adopting more than one data collection tool

heightens research trustworthiness. Therefore, in order to meet the study objectives and increase the credibility of findings, another data collection tool is adopted, namely a focus group discussion.

Hennink (2014) explains focus groups are designed to bring the perspective of certain people together to discuss a specific topic. A focus group discussion is tailored to foster a discussion amongst different people seen as significant to a certain problem. This is the main reason why the researcher has opted towards this method and not a group interview for example, which has similar characteristics, yet lacks group interaction and may not precisely focus on a specific issue. Carrying out a group discussion, where all stakeholders are present, will allow interaction between these groups and discussion of their perspectives and viewpoints. For this study, it was important to have these stakeholders articulate their thoughts in front of other stakeholders, where a discussion follows. This aligns with the thoughts of such groups existing in a network, where they are also expected to collectively engage with one another for the implementation of green practices in the restaurant industry.

Furthermore, Hennink (2014, pg.2&3) states that "...the most unique characteristic of focus group research is the interactive discussion through which data are generated, which leads to a different type of data not accessible through individual interviews. During the group discussion participants share their views, hear the views of others, and perhaps refine their own views in light of what they have heard". This is exactly what the researcher was aiming to achieve; the interaction and discussion between stakeholder groups. The researcher wanted each stakeholder to express their opinion, in terms of the implementation of green management, and have other stakeholders comment and give their feedback on such issues. This also supports the earlier suggestion presented in the literature review

for co-determining stakeholder salience, suggested by Tashman and Raelin (2013). Stakeholder salience, as argued by the authors, needs to be evaluated and decided upon collectively by management and firm stakeholders. Of course, no data collection tool is without any limitations.

Focus group discussions neglect statistical figures, therefore failing to present generalizations, generates big amounts of data and recruiting participants can be difficult (Wilkinson, 2004). Yet, given the objectives of the study, the researcher wasn't focusing on generating statistical conclusions. Concerning participant selections, the researcher adopted sampling techniques to overcome any obstacles, in order to recruit the people needed for the discussion. Given the above, the first stage of data collection comprised the in-depth interviews. The study has set out to uncover and further understand the adoption of green practices in Egypt, from the perspective of restaurant operators. In other words, as argued above in this section, the research needed to highlight the challenges faced when applying green measures and identify the stakeholder groups restaurants believe are important for such a process. Accordingly, this dictates the IDIs to be the main tool used for data collection in this study, where they were administered to restaurant owner/managers. Furthermore, in order to carry out the FGD with the relevant stakeholders, it was necessary to firstly outline such groups, once again, from the perspectives of these restaurants. This was conducted during the IDIs.

## **4.9 Stage 1-IDs**

### ***4.9.1 Development of interview guide***

Sekaran and Bougie (2009) explain that predetermined, direct questions such as ones that lead to answers of 'yes' and 'no' make up structured interviews, while on the other hand, unstructured interviews are unplanned, with no set questions to be asked. However, there are semi-structured interviews, combining the above two approaches, where the researcher enters the interview with a set of questions, yet enabling further exploration of concepts arising during the interview (Galletta, 2013). In other words, it allows the interviewer to direct the interview on important issues and gives room for the interviewee to express themselves. In fact, semi-structured interviews have been described by Silverman (2005, pg.239), as "the gold standard of qualitative research" while Brinkmann (2014, pg.286) writes they are "equated with qualitative interviewing...are the most widespread form of interviews in the human and social sciences". Semi-structured interviews were selected as the primary means of data collection. This method of interviewing was deemed the most appropriate, given the outcome from the preliminary study. The outcome from such a study showed that the green concept in the Egyptian hospitality context is still fresh, with some ambiguity in terms of its adoption. Accordingly, the researcher believed new ideas and interpretations will surface during the interview, using questions of a semi-structured style. Therefore, due to this tool's adaptability, it was chosen so they could further build on and question about emerging or new ideas and meanings arising during the interview.

An interview guide constitutes a set of questions that are prepared by the researcher, to be asked during an interview. They serve as guidance to the researcher as to what they need to inquire about. There are past studies

that have helped the researcher in constructing this guide. For example, the study by Mbasera (2015) develops a green framework for hotels in 2 African countries through semi-structured interviews. Their interview guide consisted of questions inquiring about understanding/importance of green management, the type of practices implemented and relevant challenges, as well as, if a green policy is in place. The researcher extracted some of these questions from their study, due to their relevance, in terms of the issues to be explored in this research. There are other various studies that have helped shape the interview guide and question development, some of which include Chan and Hsu, 2016; Jacobs and Klosse, 2016; Raub and Martin-Rios, 2018; Saleh and Elsaied, 2018; Farmaki, 2019; Sharma et al., 2020. Table 4.5 outlines each of the interview questions and how it relates to literature or the justification for its use.

**Table 4.5 IDIs Interview Guide**

Question	Justification/ links to literature	Objective served
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>◆ Restaurant Name:</li> <li>◆ Name of interviewee:</li> <li>◆ Date of Interview:</li> <li>◆ Time of interview:</li> <li>◆ Position:</li> <li>◆ Gender:</li> <li>◆ Number of years in the company:</li> <li>◆ Restaurant size (seating):</li> <li>◆ Type of Food served (breakfast, lunch, dinner):</li> <li>◆ Cuisine:</li> <li>◆ Years in business:</li> <li>◆ No. of employees:</li> <li>◆ Ownership/Type: If chain: how many branches?</li> <li>◆ Targeted class:</li> <li>◆ Geographic location:</li> </ul>	Profiling of sampled restaurants & participants; demographics.	-
Could you please tell me about your restaurant? A brief history.	Developed by researcher. <b>Purpose:</b> to “break the ice” and build rapport with participant.	-
Can you walk me through the legal process of opening a new restaurant?	Developed by researcher.	1

	<b>Purpose:</b> to check the licensing process; whether it constitutes any green regulations.	
Is there a restaurant federation or association here in Egypt that is responsible for restaurant matters or issues?	Developed by researcher. <b>Purpose:</b> to determine if restaurants have a representative body, managing their issues. Inspired by the existence of green associations.	1
How can I get more information on restaurants in Egypt?	Developed by researcher. <b>Purpose:</b> to find what sources of information exist for restaurants.	1
The concept of green management is relatively new. What do you understand by green management or practices?	Mbasera (2015); Saleh and Elsaied (2018).	1,2
Can you please elaborate on the keywords in the explanation you have given?	Mbasera (2015).	1,2
Are you aware of any national initiatives (projects, NGOs, suppliers, etc.) promoting environmental sustainability?	Developed by researcher. <b>Purpose:</b> to check if restaurant operators recognize other stakeholder efforts in terms of sustainability.	1,2
What are some green initiatives that should be implemented nationally that are not being implemented at the moment?	Mbasera (2015).	2,3
Within the restaurant setting, how important is the concept of green management? If important ... why? If not important, why?	Mbasera (2015).	1
Are there any sustainability practices being implemented specifically within the restaurant industry?	Developed by researcher <b>Purpose:</b> to determine if there are currently established laws pertaining to the sustainability of restaurants.	1,2
If yes, what are they? If not, why do you think that is?	Developed by researcher. <b>Purpose:</b> if yes, to find out what laws exist. If not, to find out the reason for their non-existence.	1,2
Does your restaurant implement green practices? If not, do you intend to do this? When do you feel you can take this decision?	Developed by researcher. <b>Purpose:</b> to understand whether restaurant adopts green practices and if not, what's their perception concerning such a decision.	1,2,3,4



What, in specific terms, are the green management practices implemented in your restaurant?	Inspired by green restaurant indicators in literature: Choi and Parsa (2006); Wang et al. (2013); Legrand et al. (2010); Hu, (2015); Kwok et al. (2016); Teng and Wu, (2019); Park et al. (2021).	1
What motivated you to implement the aforementioned practices?	Mbasera (2015); Saleh and Elsaied (2018).	1,2
Please tell me about the challenges and barriers you faced when implementing each of the above practices.	Mbasera (2015); Jacobs and Klosse (2016); Saleh and Elsaied (2018).	1,2,3,4
Do you communicate any of these achievements to the public? If yes, how? Who is the most important entity? If no, why not? It's not important?	Developed by researcher. <b>Purpose:</b> to check if there's communication with any stakeholders.	1,2
How do the above-mentioned practices affect the performance of your restaurant?	Mbasera (2015)	1
Are there certain indicators to measure this performance?	Developed by researcher. <b>Purpose:</b> to check whether restaurants link green practices with their performance.	1
In your opinion, who are the main entities/ stakeholders that are important for enabling green practices in the restaurant industry in Egypt?	Raub and Martin-Rios (2018); Farmaki (2019).	2
How do each of the previously identified entities influence the greening process? What can each stakeholder do?	Chan and Hsu (2016); Sharma et al. (2019).	3,4
Are there any other barriers you believe pose as an obstacle towards green adoption in restaurants?	Developed by researcher. <b>Purpose:</b> to ensure there are no other barriers that haven't been discussed. Recapping.	1
Is there anything else that you want to add in terms of green management practices in restaurants?	Derived from Mbasera (2015).	-
Can you recommend any other green or non-green restaurants that I can speak with?	Developed by researcher. <b>Purpose:</b> satisfy snow-ball sampling technique.	-

### **4.9.2 Pilot Study**

The interview guide needed to be pilot tested, to ensure whether the questions are clearly understood or require tweaking. Also, pilot testing was important to carry out to show that the questions in the interview guide are eliciting the needed data from participants, in relation to the research questions. The researcher carried out 4 pilot tests with 4 different restaurants, whom have been excluded from data analysis i.e., study sample. After the first two tests, it was clear that 2-3 questions needed to be asked in a different way because interviewees didn't initially understand what was being asked. The researcher each time had to reword the questions. For example, an initial question was "Is the restaurant industry represented by a certain federation to manage the industry's collective issues?". This question was not clear, and the pilot-study participants signaled their inability to understand. Therefore, a slight change was made, and the new question was "Is there a restaurant association or federation here in Egypt that is responsible for restaurant matters or issues?". This was the only obstacle with the first set of questions, which needed modifications. After alterations have been made, the researcher decided to conduct 2 more interviews to ensure interviewees wouldn't be confused about such questions. At this point, the researcher didn't need to carry out any more pilot interviews and was ready to start the actual data collection process.

### **4.9.3 Study sample**

Sampling is deciding upon the appropriate population, leading the researcher to answer the research questions (Saunders et al., 2019). According to Sekaran and Bougie (2009), the sampling technique is either probability or non-probability. In probability sampling, participants are selected randomly

and not according to specific criteria, whereas on the contrary, non-probability sampling involves the precise selection of unique participants in reference to certain criteria. Gill (2020, pg. 579) writes, "All qualitative samples are non-random; only non-probability sampling methods are used. The qualitative researcher interviews people (participants) who can help the researcher understand the study phenomenon". Qualitative research is exploratory in nature, which means the researcher must ensure they recruit specific samples, in order to arrive at the research aim and objectives.

In other words, "randomly" selecting a population would not align with the design of qualitative studies. Participants must be selected according to their ability in providing rich data concerning issues of importance to the research (Patton, 1990). Therefore, a non-probability sampling design was applied in this study. There are multiple methods in non-probability sampling which include convenience, snowball, purposive and theoretical sampling. The following table explains each of these, including their advantages and disadvantages:

**Table 4.6 Non-probability sampling methods**

<b>Convenience</b>	Participants are chosen due to ease of access by the researcher i.e., convenience (Vehovar et al., 2016).	<b>Advantage:</b> selection is based on practicality; locational, time, willingness to participate (Dornyei, 2007). <b>Disadvantage:</b> recruiting outliers, which are irrelevant cases to the research (Hatch and Lazaraton, 1991; Farrokhi et al., 2012).
<b>Snowball</b>	Current participants recommend persons who might be willing to participate in the study (Acharya et al., 2013).	<b>Advantage:</b> when the intended sample is difficult to reach by the researcher. <b>Disadvantage:</b> researcher must ensure that the participants making such recommendations represent an initially variable sample, to avoid a total of skewed suggested samples (Etikan et al., 2015).

<b><i>Purposive</i></b>	Is referred to as judgmental sampling, where participants are chosen according to certain criteria developed by the researcher (Berndt, 2020).	<b>Advantage:</b> allows the researcher to make generalizations or conclusions from pre-defined criteria to select samples. <b>Disadvantage:</b> such a list, based on a researcher's subjective judgement can lead to bias (Sharma, 2017).
<b><i>Theoretical</i></b>	Main sampling technique in grounded theory research, which dictates how, where and from whom data needs to be collected (Butler et al., 2018).	<b>Advantage:</b> the ability to alter samples recruited i.e., required sample to participate, based on research progress, with the purpose of refining the emerging theory (Morse, 2008; Breckenridge and Jones, 2009). <b>Disadvantage:</b> theoretical samples can't be predetermined at an early stage of research (Morse and Clark, 2019) so therefore, it could be difficult to engage in.

In order to answer the research questions, as well as discovering restaurants that either adopt green practices or have considered this, which was not an easy task, a mix of sampling methods were applied. This means, the researcher has resorted to three types of sampling, namely purposive, convenience and snowball. In terms of purposive sampling the participating restaurants had to be:

- local businesses and,
- not belonging to hotel chains.

The researcher wanted to avoid international and hotel restaurants because she was more interested in the perspectives and understandings of participants operating in the local Egyptian context, with no possibility of international procedures by parent companies being adopted blindly. In addition, the researcher adopted a convenience sampling strategy as well. In Egypt, people somehow are not always flexible or familiar with being

interviewed for research purposes, so therefore, having them agree to take part in a study might not always be the case. For this specific reason in conjunction with the purposive criteria, the researcher selected restaurants based on their consent to participate. Simply such restaurants were just approached or contacted by phone, informed about the study and its purpose then asked whether they would agree to participate.

Finally, snowball technique was adopted as well, where in some instances, because it was not easy to initially be aware of the restaurants applying green practices. The researcher felt that presumably, restaurants being interviewed would know of others in their relevant industry that may be adopting green practices. For this specific reason, the researcher planned on asking restaurants at the end of each interview if they would recommend others to participate. In total, 5 of the interviews conducted in this study were recommended by participants.

#### ***4.9.4 Interviewing process***

Participants were contacted face-to-face and through the phone prior to the interview, where they were informed about the research study and aims. Unfortunately, when the researcher contacted a few participants for interviewing, there were some challenges faced. One participant didn't see any benefits for them by stating, "What's in it for me?" and kept arguing about their benefit or outcome from the interview. Some participants also said they would call back for an interview and never did. Some interviewees were hesitant about the duration of the interview, expressing how it was too long for them.

However, for others who have agreed to take part, an interview appointment was booked at a place of preference to the participant, which happened to all

take place at their restaurants, except for 3 conducted via Zoom Meetings due to COVID-19, which will be discussed later (section 4.9.5). All interviews were conducted between October 2019 and June 2020 in English.

Participants were asked to fill out the research consent form (see Appendix 1) prior to the interview in order to start recording. The purpose of the recording was explained to the participants, which they all agreed to.

Recording took place on two different devices in case there is any data loss by any one of the devices, which happened at an earlier stage of the data gathering with one specific interview (in which it was re-conducted). This was the main reason behind dedicating two devices for the interviewing process. These recording devices included a recorder specifically for PhD interviews and a mobile phone. Both devices had passwords, which are only known by the researcher.

In order to “break the ice” and make the participant feel at ease, as well as, building rapport as suggested by Yilmaz (2013), the interview would start with the question, “can you tell me a brief history about your restaurant and how it started?”. The researcher felt this question would induce participants to feel more encouraged and comfortable to collaborate with the researcher.

In many instances, there were questions formulated instantly by the researcher in response to interesting interpretations made by the interviewees. Almost during all interviews, the researcher probed participants in order to elicit more in-depth explanations or articulations of certain concepts. Examples of probes used include “uh-huh”, “tell me more” or simply staying silent, showing the interviewee the need to continue speaking or elaborating. These match with examples put forth by Bernard (2000). In general, the researcher always encouraged participants to share any ideas or thoughts freely, confirming that they are interested and have the time to listen to their explanations. During the interviews, the researcher

also would summarize some of the issues discussed by participants, to ensure that they have clearly understood what is being communicated.

During the first set of interviews, as the researcher was inquiring about the adoption of green practices in the industry in Egypt, several participants have recommended interviewing restaurants in the Red Sea region. This has also come up by participants when using the snowball technique, as mentioned earlier, for restaurant recommendations. The reason for this was due to locational aspects, where they are located near the Sea and therefore such outlets might be giving more attention to such an approach. So, the research decided to conduct a few interviews with restaurants in that specified region.

The researcher searched for restaurants in that specific area and contacted 6 random participants through the phone. The researcher explained the objective of the study and arranged for interview meetings. The researcher travelled 5 hours from Cairo to Gouna and as opposed to the original plan, conducted only 4 interviews. The 5<sup>th</sup> participant had an emergency and the 6<sup>th</sup> didn't respond to the call for confirmation. After finishing interviews in Gouna, the researcher returned to Cairo to complete the rest of the interviews. However, as the study progressed, the researcher began to focus more on finding restaurants that apply green measures, as they can provide more meaning and discuss their experiences, unlike their non-green counterparts. This means they are able to offer richer data and more real-life examples of the challenges and obstacles faced during this process. In addition, this also made their claims of the various stakeholders and their advocations of how they can help more realistic. In other words, their responses reflected actual and more representative responses.

The researcher also modified the purposive sampling criteria, where they wanted to seek newer establishments, within the last 10-15 years for

interviewing. The reason for this is that the researcher felt, from previous interviews during this stage, the green philosophy is somehow more grasped or familiar to people with a modernized mindset, presumably ones managing or owning newer restaurants.

In terms of data saturation, Trotter (2012, pg.399) write that "Redundancy is 'the process of sequentially conducting interviews until all concepts are repeated multiple times without new concepts or themes emerging'". Saturation is reached when 'all questions have been thoroughly explored in detail [and] no new concepts or themes emerge in subsequent interviews'". The researcher has felt they have reached data saturation after conducting 20 interviews. This means, at this point, the researcher felt there were no new concepts or ideas being provided by participants. Articulations were becoming repetitive and resembling earlier perspectives put forth by participants. Concerning sample size, Bertaux (1981) states that 15 is the least acceptable sample size for qualitative research, as cited by Mason (2010).

#### ***4.9.5 Effect of COVID-19***

Due to the COVID 19 circumstances, some face-to-face interviews had to be replaced with phone interviews or online through a video conferencing application like Zoom or Google Meet. Participants were contacted via phone and informed about the research objectives. However, some participants were uneasy and discouraged to conduct an interview during such hard times and therefore rejected being interviewed. The researcher contacted a previous participant, who has been already interviewed, requesting recommendations for other restaurants. The participant explicitly advised to avoid conducting interviews at the moment, as restaurant owners are quite devastated with the current situation and the business losses. The



participant even stressed the impact of COVID 19 can hinder the interview outcomes. This actually did happen with some potential participants, where some didn't call back and others refused to take part in the study due to the circumstances and negative effect of COVID-19 on the industry. Also, one potential refused being recorded during the interview, another was very discouraged and explicitly said "I don't feel it's the right time to talk about green management as I'm currently suffering to pay my workers their salaries". These participants were not contacted again, and the researcher resorted to recruiting alternative participants.

As for the phone interviews that were conducted, they were difficult and not so effective, as they firstly lacked face-to-face contact, secondly, the phone coverage would not be stable the whole call, where their voice would cut out a few times. These two reasons prevented the interviewer from having a proper dialogue with participants. Sekaran and Bougie (2009) claim that face-to-face interviews allow the interviewer to pick up and act upon any negative non-verbal cues to ensure interview success. Charmaz (2014, pg.91) stresses this fact by writing "What participants do not say can be as telling as what they do say". They were also challenging in terms of keeping the participant engaged on the phone and not feeling any frustration. This is concisely argued by Creswell (2013) where the author writes that face-to-face interviews are considered the leading means of gathering data in qualitative research. Therefore, such interviews were eliminated and replaced with other face-to-face interviews.

#### **4.9.6 Data Analysis**

After data has been fully collected, the next logical step in research is data analysis. Flick (2014) explains data analysis as organizing the communicated data in a certain way in order to present inherent understandings. Merriam and Tisdell (2016, pg.202) write "Data analysis is the process of making sense out of the data. And making sense out of data involves consolidating, reducing, and interpreting what people have said and what the researcher has seen and read — it is the process of making meaning". It is at this stage that data is beginning to take a comprehensible form, leading to the generation of results and outcomes of research.

There are multiple types of qualitative data analysis including content, discourse, narrative and thematic approaches. Sekaran and Bougie (2009) explain that content analysis is analyzing certain "content" of a text, in terms of its occurrence and frequency, into precise categories (Stemler, 2001). Prasad (2008) depicts content analysis is carried out in an objective and organized manner, where results have the ability to be generalized. Narrative analysis is a representation of a "series of events", or simply unfolding the story told by others. Butina (2015, pg.190) advocates that the narrative approach contributes to portraying, "...the culture, historical experiences, identity and lifestyle of the narrator". This means that such an analysis technique allows researchers to focus on unfolding such "narratives".

Scharp and Sanders (2019, pg.117) write, "Thematic analysis is a qualitative method for identifying, analyzing, and reporting patterns within a data corpus". In other words, researchers choose to adopt this method to present meanings, from the data, through the identification of themes (Willig, 2014).

A theme represents the underlying understandings of participant accounts resulting from a subjective, interpretive analytical process (Ryan and Bernard, 2003; Graneheim and Lundman, 2004; Braun and Clarke, 2006; Vaismoradi et al., 2016), which constitutes discovering and highlighting commonalities from the collected data (DeSantis and Noel Ugarriza, 2000; Vaismoradi et al., 2013).

A thematic approach to analyze the data collected from the IDIs was adopted. The justification for this decision is as follows. Firstly, the chosen method for analysis needs to complement the researcher's philosophy i.e., the interpretivist approach. Once again, interpretivist studies are focused on giving meaning to the elaborations made by the participants. In addition to the research objectives, the qualitative research design also shapes how data will be analyzed. Data collected and analyzed using qualitative approaches gives opportunity to derive rich theoretical explanations (Eisenhardt et al., 2016; Woiceshyn and Daellenbach, 2018). Regarding the content and narrative analysis techniques, each are unique and serve a certain purpose. For example, content analysis is mainly concerned with showing the occurrence of concepts put forth by participants, which entails an objectivity in the process. The narrative technique is concerned with portraying the precise, descriptive stories told by participants, which represent "accounts of themselves" (Burck, 2005). Although both are considered powerful approaches to data analysis, however they do not align with the objectives of the study.

The aim of the study entails the exploration of challenges as well as stakeholder roles in the adoption of green practices in Egyptian restaurants. Therefore, the chosen data analysis approach must support the achievement of such an aim. Highlighting word frequencies or narrating the personal

accounts of participants is not the focus of this researcher and therefore, can't be adopted for analyzing the collected data. On the contrary, in order to engage in an in-depth inquiry to meet study objectives, the thematic approach was found most relevant. Maguire and Delahunt (2017) confirm that thematic analysis focuses on pinpointing patterns in the data, leading to theme generation, which can offer more understanding of a certain phenomenon. Similarly, Saunders et al. (2019) describes this method as straightforward, simple and flexible, allowing the researcher to develop concrete articulations, in the form of themes. Such a technique fosters the presentation of contextualized meanings and understandings, attributed to the issue of interest. The process of thematic analysis followed by the researcher is the one proposed by Braun and Clarke (2012), consisting of a six-step guide for data analysis which is discussed in greater next.

#### ***4.9.6.1 An Introduction to theme generation***

In order to carry out a rigorous thematic analysis, the researcher followed the qualitative scheme, developed by Braun and Clarke (2012), comprising of six main steps. However, before starting this analysis process, the interviews were transcribed verbatim by the researcher, which was a very exhausting and time-consuming task. The first step, 'getting familiar with the data', was achieved by reading and rereading the interview transcripts multiple times. Next, for 'generating initial codes', initially the researcher resorted to NVivo, a popular qualitative data analysis software, for managing the data and construction of codes.

'Searching for themes', the third step in the analysis process, began with the researcher looking at the different codes. Where there were commonalities,

codes were combined or in some instances, poor codes were eliminated, but this occurred only once or twice. A thematic map was produced, yet it must be noted that at this stage in the research, the generated themes were not representative of the data gathered. For example, during this stage, the researcher was coding according to the interview questions, which has resulted in faults and hence, an inconclusive analysis. This has led to 3 themes, which were related to challenges, stakeholder groups and stakeholder roles

At this point, it was obvious that the findings were not representative of the data collected. This means the process of interpretation and analysis wasn't carried out in a manner where the data was exhausted to the fullest. Therefore, the researcher then decided to re-do the analysis from scratch. This time though the researcher decided to do it manually in order to better engage and immerse themselves with the data on hand. This was carried out with the use of printed interviews, field notes as recommended by Miles and Huberman (1994) and highlighters, yet still following the scheme by Braun and Clarke (2012).

Researchers adopting a thematic analysis approach should take into consideration, as Vaismoradi et al. (2013, pg.401) recommend both "latent and manifest content in data analysis". Braun and Clarke (2012, pg.61) specifically explain latent content to be "interpretive or to lie beneath the surface" while manifested ones to be "semantic or descriptive; close to the content". Therefore, a line-by-line coding scheme was followed to ensure the researcher was able to capture both clear/obvious and hidden interpretations. At this stage, the researcher created a big table of codes in the form of rows and the 20 restaurants as columns on giant paper and started once again to look at commonalities from scratch (see Appendix 10).

In other words, the researcher was continually asking "what is this data trying to say?" As a result, newer codes were formed where initial interpretations had emerged. For example, some codes related to green management include definitions, importance, benefits, activities, requirements for implementation. Codes were also developed for each stakeholder mentioned by participants, as well as their roles or how they can help. Other codes also included industry representation, sources of information, demographics and current sustainability standards for restaurants.

Moving from this stage, the following process, 'Searching for themes' was combining all the relevant, final codes on additional giant boards to be able to understand the bigger picture. At first, it was very difficult to generate concrete themes, where instances of overlapping themes or even substantially weak ones had existed. For example, there were codes 'incentives', 'employee resistance', 'awareness', 'training' in almost all interviews when speaking about restaurant employees. Therefore, it was very obvious for such codes to be elevated to a theme, which was a pattern in the data sets including its various aspects. The theme was named 'employee management'. Another example, there were codes named 'cost of eco-materials', 'substitutes', 'functionality of product', 'product availability', 'organic materials' when speaking about willingness to go green. The researcher has combined these above codes into a sub-theme named 'green supply chains', since they are all related to a single concept. In addition, this sub-theme was placed within a major/overarching theme named 'surrounding green institutional environment'. The reason for this is that green supply chains are seen as one of the means to establish a greener environment. Other codes, such as 'tourist treatment at airport' or 'road safety', were discarded, as they did not fit with the scope of the research, were not

related to answering the research questions or did not form a pattern as suggested by Braun and Clarke (2006).

In general, Braun and Clarke (2006) affirm that researchers require non-rigid thinking, but in contrast, to use their “judgement” when developing their themes as they are pg. 15 “searching across a data set to find repeated patterns of meaning”. Given this, the researcher was keen on generating representative themes, which was time consuming, with weeks of reviewing and collating codes, as well as critical analysis i.e., interpretation of the data to categorize into patterns, ending with a thematic map.

‘Reviewing potential themes’ required the researcher to go back to the interviews and re-read them, to ensure that themes are constructive, and that the data is fully exhausted; nothing needs to be further added. Key questions are provided by Braun and Clarke (2012) during this phase, which can help guide the researcher in terms of theme concreteness. The researcher is required to ensure there were no other concepts, ideas or articulations that generated patterns, which can be presented as themes, with the goal being Braun and Clarke (2012, pg. 65) “to tell a particular story about the data, that answers your research question”. For ‘naming themes’, it took some time to establish names for themes, longer than expected, where some themes had their names changed a few times. Finally, ‘producing the report’ included writing the findings (see chapter 5) and the discussion (Chapter 7) of the research.

## **4.10 Stage 2- (FGD)**

### ***4.10.1 Development of FGD guide***

Similar to the process of developing an interview guide for the interviews, a set of questions have been constructed at this stage to guide the discussion. The outcomes from the first stage of data collection (IDIs) have helped in shaping the points and ideas to be further discussed. Given the purpose of focus groups, the researcher has given it a lot of thought, and decided they will mainly inquire about or determine the following:

1. Feedback from stakeholders on the findings from the initial stage of data collection; interviews.
2. Co-determining salience for each stakeholder group.
3. The type of influence that can be exerted on restaurants by stakeholders jointly.
4. The value acquired by each stakeholder when restaurants become more environmentally sustainable.

In terms of tackling stakeholder salience, the researcher considered the works by Mitchell et al. (1997) and Eesley and Lenox (2006). This means the researcher combined the claims made in both studies for investigating stakeholder salience. The reason for this is that the work by Eesley and Lenox (2006) provided some further progressions to the original work by Mitchell et al. (1997), where the researcher believed this is more practical to the current setting and would therefore generate findings of higher value. Also, questions were designed around the concept of stakeholder networks, as put forth by Rowley (1997).

According to the above, the researcher constructed a guide (see Appendix 6) to include very precise questions and points of discussion. It should be



noted, as put forth earlier, that findings from the in-depth interviews have influenced the structure of the FGD. The identification of stakeholders as well, which has emerged during the in-depth interviews, has helped the researcher in knowing which stakeholders to include in the FGD. The structure of the guide was developed with guidelines provided by Hennink (2014), where the author recommended the FGD to include introductory, key and closing questions. The following table outlines the questions formulated and their link to literature or justification for inputting in the guide.

**Table 4.7 FGD Interview Guide**

<b>Questions/ points of discussion</b>	<b>Justification/ links to literature</b>	<b>Objective served</b>
From your own perspective, what are your thoughts concerning these study findings derived from the restaurant interviews?	Developed by researcher. <b>Purpose:</b> validation, discussion of research findings from IDIs. Promotes data triangulation.	1,2,3,4
If you can add or modify any of these major findings, what would it be and your reason for this?	Developed by researcher. <b>Purpose:</b> validation, discussion of research findings from IDIs. Promotes data triangulation.	1,2,3,4
Restaurants in Egypt mainly implement green practices for their marketability and improved company image. Restaurants adopting the most green practices tend to target certain consumer profiles, ranging from 18-35. Do you believe that some consumers in Egypt do in fact appeal to a restaurant's green practices? And there is potential for this? Would making such practices more visible and known, heighten consumer demand?	Developed by researcher. <b>Purpose:</b> validation, discussion of research findings from IDIs. Promotes data triangulation.	2,3,4

<p>What is your input concerning this SH layout in terms of expected roles?</p>	<p>Developed by researcher. <b>Purpose:</b> validation, discussion of research findings from IDIs. Promotes data triangulation.</p>	<p>2,3,4</p>
<p>Can it be categorized differently? How?</p>	<p>Developed by researcher. <b>Purpose:</b> elicit stakeholders' perspectives concerning stakeholder roles.</p>	<p>2,3,4</p>
<p>In your opinion, do you believe these stakeholder groups exist in a network and interact with one another on some level?</p>	<p>Rowley (1997).</p>	<p>3,4</p>
<p>How does this interaction (examples given in the previous question) affect the restaurant in going green? When can it be positive or when can it be negative?</p>	<p>Neville and Menguc (2006).</p>	<p>2,3,4</p>
<p>We need to evaluate/rate each SH group based on these 3 attributes. Let's take each 1 and rate them. Government, consumer, supplier, employee, NGOs, community, media, competitor, pro-environmental groups.</p>	<p>Mitchell et al. (1997); Eesley and Lenox (2006); Tashman and Raelin (2013); Farmkai (2019); Jonsson and Yacobucci (2019).</p>	<p>2,3,4</p>
<p>If we consider a stakeholder having only 1 attribute...we agree that stakeholders do interact (as you mentioned earlier). If 2 stakeholders come together, each with a 1 attribute for example: SH A has power SH B has an urgent claim Do you believe this collaboration or alliance will result in the restaurant giving their claim a high priority?</p>	<p>Mitchell et al. (1997); Neville and Menguc (2006).</p>	<p>2,3,4</p>
<p>Or sometimes, in certain situations, this collaboration is not able to gain high importance by the restaurant. For this specific example:  Will lack of power of SH B affect total power? Result total power is insignificant. Will lack of urgency of SH A affect total urgency? Result total urgency is insignificant.  In other words, under which conditions can this alliance have high/strong influence on the restaurant or low/weak influence?</p>	<p>Neville and Menguc (2006).</p>	<p>2,3,4</p>

Do you think that for developing nations, let's focus specifically for Egypt, this method of evaluation can be different? FOR EXAMPLE, like the earlier SH categorization? Or perhaps can you suggest another way we rate the importance of SHs?	Jonsson and Yacobucci (2019).	2,3,4
We have outlined how SH groups can help restaurants in becoming more environmental-friendly. In return, what is the value or benefit acquired by each SH when a restaurant goes green?	Harrison et al. (2015).	3,4
Our discussion for today is coming to an end, however, I have 1 final question if you had one final recommendation or comment to restaurant businesses today wanting or trying to go green, what would it be?	Developed by researcher. <b>Purpose:</b> to conclude; to ensure any concepts participants wanted to highlight were shared.	-

**4.10.2 FGD sample**

According to findings from the in-depth interviews, the following stakeholders were highlighted as important for adopting green measures in restaurants:

**Table 4.8 Stakeholders emergent from in-depth interviews**

Government	Consumer	Supplier
Employee	NGOs	Media
Industry players	Community	Pro-environmental groups

Accordingly, the researcher opted to invite to the focus group discussion a representative for each of the above. In fact, the researcher has contacted more than 1 participant to represent the government, suppliers and consumers. For the government, the researcher felt they needed to get the

perspective of specific people in the ministry, including legality, sustainable development, including sustainable tourism. It should be noted that the choice of representatives for the government was made by the minister themselves, as the researcher felt they best make this allocation. A meeting was scheduled with the minister prior to the focus group discussion, where the researcher explained their researcher objectives, initial findings and purpose of the focus group.

In terms of suppliers, 1 specializes in eco-packaging and the other in wooden straws. For consumers, the researcher wanted to try and have more than 1 perspective as well. Besides the governmental stakeholders, all others were recruited according to their line of work or, for consumers, their interest in the environment. The researcher only had difficulty in recruiting a representative for the media. It was quite challenging to reach any person working in the media field. Yet, the researcher felt that, since the media in Egypt is in some ways controlled by the government, the representatives of the government may be able to articulate or give their opinions concerning the media's role.

In order to increase research trustworthiness and obtain more rich data, as has been explained earlier, the researcher decided to recontact 2 restaurants (1 owner and 1 manager), due to their ease of reach and willingness to participate. These participants have already participated in the first phase of data collection and were asked to take part in the focus group discussion. Merriam and Tisdell (2016) refer to this as respondent validation or member checks. Having these two restaurants attend the focus group, where the researcher will be highlighting their major findings from the in-depth interviews, will help in either confirming or perhaps refining such findings that have emerged from analysis. Also, these 2 restaurants were able to

fulfill as representatives for industry players. A profile of representatives can be found in Chapter 6 (see section 6.2).

From the above explanations, the researcher has adopted a non-probability sampling technique. In terms of choosing stakeholders, whether by the minister (gatekeeper) or the researcher, was according to their criticality to the research area (Saunders et al., 2019). The choice of restaurants was according to convenience sampling; in other words, the researcher has contacted multiple participants from the first phase, and these 2 are the ones that have agreed to participate. At this point, the researcher contacted the representatives, explained the purpose of the discussion by sending them the information sheet (see Appendix 5), gave a rough date for the discussion and most importantly, ensuring consent for participation.

A moderator was also contacted to conduct the discussion as the researcher felt, firstly, they are not competent enough to carry it out professionally and, secondly and more importantly, they wanted to focus and take notes during this discussion. The use of a moderator is needed to facilitate the discussion and foster the elicitation of valuable information. Before the session date, 2 meetings were organized between the researcher and the moderator to explain the findings from the 1<sup>st</sup> phase of data collection, the exact points required for discussion, the participant profiles, etc. Also, it was agreed that the researcher would be responsible for explaining some of the findings or part of the stakeholder theory, while the moderator would follow by asking questions and probing participants for answers.

### **4.10.3 FGD session**

Initially, the FGD was set to take place on October 30<sup>th</sup>, 2021, however, it was cancelled due to last minute cancellations by several participants. This was very frustrating to the researcher, as planning for such a discussion was quite difficult and hectic. Another round of arrangements took place following this incident, although the whole process of organization was very challenging, especially in the Egyptian context. Firstly, most people would not feel comfortable expressing their opinions publicly, so the researcher faced difficulty in convincing some of them to participate in the discussion. Secondly, asking people to spare around 3 hours of their day for a discussion was also not an easy task. Yet, luckily, the second trial for a FGD was held in English on November 16<sup>th</sup>, 2021, with 15 participants present. The session lasted around 3 and half hours with no breaks and took place at Cairo House-Ministry of Environment from 4:30-8 pm.

At the start of the session, the moderator explained the purpose of the discussion and how the session will be conducted. Next, representatives were asked to introduce themselves. The researcher has created a PowerPoint presentation for displaying the findings from the in-depth interviews as well as the questions to be asked and points of discussion. Before starting, the ethical issues were communicated to the participants by the moderator, including the required forms to be signed, as well as the purpose of recording, which was by both audio and video means. No participants had any objections, since this was explained earlier when they were contacted by phone.

Participants were assured that information from the session would be coded anonymously and used only by the researcher for research purposes. They were also informed that the questions are about the nature of green management adoption in Egypt and that no personal questions would be

asked. Yet, the moderator confirmed that any question a representative feels uncomfortable answering would be skipped. During the discussion, the researcher jumped in to clarify or reexplain concepts related to the study. This happened twice during the session, when the researcher felt participants needed more clarification or didn't properly comprehend certain concepts when presented by the moderator. The researcher also engaged in a little probing of answers from participants once or twice throughout the session.

#### ***4.10.4 Data analysis***

Qualitative data analysis techniques have been discussed earlier in this chapter (see section 4.9.6). These include content, narrative and thematic analysis. As previously argued, content analysis focuses on depicting word frequencies, which is related to quantification of such instances, while narrative analysis is shaped around presenting the stories of participants, using a narrative style. Once again, these two analysis methods were not relevant to the objectives of the study. The researcher arranged a focus group discussion to elicit participants' views on certain issues, with the purpose of interpreting and constructing meaning from their interactions. The presentation of these meanings involved the generation of thematic categories, with supporting quotes from the discussion (Wilkinson, 2004). Also, it seemed a wise decision to adopt the same analysis strategy as for the in-depth interviews, which is the guideline provided by Braun and Clarke (2012) for thematic analysis. More details on how data analysis was carried out are presented in Chapter 6.

#### ***4.10.4.1 An introduction to theme generation***

A thematic analysis approach was adopted once again to analyze the data, with reference to the guidance provided by Braun and Clarke (2012). Before beginning the analysis, the focus group discussion needed to be transcribed. Although having less data to transcribe than the total number of interviews in the first stage of data collection, yet this time transcription was a little challenging. Since there were so many participants involved, it was sometimes confusing to figure out who was speaking. However, the video recording helped to resolve such issues.

Starting the analysis process, the first step is 'getting familiar with the data'. The researcher had to read the transcript a few times in order to start comprehending the concepts that were discussed. Secondly, for 'generating initial codes', the researcher adopted the same technique as the interviews, where they resorted to big charts of paper (see Appendix 11) to record the initial codes, as recommended by Miles and Huberman (1994).

Afterwards, 'Searching for themes' was the next logical step. Once again, as with any thematic analysis, the process of collating codes into themes is hectic and challenging. However, the use of the big sized paper, has facilitated this process. In addition, the researcher felt more experienced with thematic analysis at this stage, due to their engagement in thematic analysis for the in-depth interviews. Therefore, the researcher carried out this process meticulously by going back and forth with the data, allowing for the development of representative themes from the list of codes. Some codes were obvious and straightforward, leading themselves to a theme, while others required more interpretation to present hidden meanings. For example, codes such as 'government support green environment',



'government incentives', 'government force, 'government power', 'government influence', 'government laws' have led themselves to be collated into a theme named 'first step to go green: government intervention". Other codes such as, 'integrate environment with health', 'giving back', 'use local product', 'consuming healthy foods' were interpreted and collated into a sub-theme named 'stakeholder value' under a major theme named 'education must include stakeholder benefit'. This was a major theme because there other additional codes concerning 'awareness' and 'education'. 'Reviewing potential themes' involves reviewing the transcript again, assuring that no important concepts have been ignored while all critical meanings and interpretations have to be presented.

The 'Naming themes' step included giving names or titles to the generated themes. Although an easy task, however choosing the precise titles to represent the theme content takes a lot of thought. For example, one specific theme was changed from "First step: government intervention" to "First step to go green: government intervention". Finally, 'producing the report' refers to producing the data findings, which is presented in this chapter 6 and later discussed in chapter 7.

#### **4.11 Credibility of Research Findings**

In any study, a researcher needs to ensure that findings conform to the concepts of what is commonly known as reliability and validity. Reliability is whether another study, if carried out, would have the same outcome as the original study, while validation refers to the ability to verify the data collected or its "accuracy (Creswell, 2013). In qualitative research, such concepts are referred to as credibility and trustworthiness. The reason for

this is that reliability is difficult to achieve in qualitative research, due to its nature of exploring human behaviors, which are dynamic and ever changing (Saunders et al., 2019). Tracy (2013, pg.229) defends this by writing “because socially constructed understandings are always in process and necessarily partial, even if the study were repeated (by the same researcher, in the same manner, in the same context, and with the same participants), the context and participants would have necessarily transformed over time — through aging, learning, or moving on”. This extraction models the reality, where in different points of time, even if the sample and researcher are the same and exploring the same issues, different results can be expected.

Yet, a common tactic in managing this limitation is by carrying out a multi-method qualitative study i.e., using two methods for data collection, which Sekaran and Bougie (2009) also call method triangulation. This process or the use of multi-method qualitative techniques refers to adopting more than one data collection tool, as is the case in this study; IDIs and a FGD. Having two different tools to collect data allows a researcher to further validate their findings. Since qualitative research relies on interpretation and involves a high degree of subjectivity, collecting data using two different techniques helps elevate the quality of the research. Therefore, as explained above, such a process can help contribute to achieving trustworthiness of research outcomes through the use of multiple methods, along with respondent validation, which will be discussed in the next section.

Merriam and Tisdell (2016) confirm that arriving at an objective “truth” in qualitative studies is not realistic. In general, due to the nature of qualitative research, which centers around exploration of meanings through certain constructions, this is a challenging task. Reflexivity, which refers to researcher engagement with their research, should also be defined and

managed to allow for increased research rigor. Reflexivity refers to the degree to which researcher assumptions, biases and values may influence their study findings, where Berger (2013, pg. 220) explains "Researchers need to increasingly focus on self-knowledge and sensitivity; better understand the role of the self in the creation of knowledge; carefully self-monitor the impact of their biases, beliefs, and personal experiences on their research; and maintain the balance between the personal and the universal". This means the researcher needs to reduce their biases from impacting their study findings.

It should be noted that in interpretive, qualitative studies, subjectivity is an inevitable factor, meaning that the researcher tends to engage with their research. One of the ways to tackle or reduce such an impact is by respondent validation, as stated above. Another tactic in tackling reflexivity was adopted during the interviews, where the researcher retold or articulated what participants have shared, to ensure that there were no misunderstandings, as explained earlier.

It should be noted that the topic being explored is not considered of an emotional or a personal nature. The researcher is an academic at a local university and has an interest in the concept of environmental preservation in general. Also, the researcher has no affiliation with the hospitality industry or the participants. Other tactics that have helped reduce bias include both the preliminary and pilot studies that have been carried out prior to starting data collection, and the systematic process the researcher followed for carrying out the thematic analysis. Also, there were the discarded telephone interviews, as mentioned earlier, since they were unable to serve the study or provide rich data that can be used. Therefore, according to these reasons,

the researcher has tried as much as possible to carry out the research with minimal bias.

#### 4.12 Research Ethics

Before engaging in data collection, an ethical form (see Appendix 1) was completed by the researcher, submitted and approved by the University of Huddersfield to conduct the interviews. The ethical form outlines the important issues that a researcher needs to be aware of prior to collecting data from participants. These issues include who will participate & how they will be reached, topic sensitivity to be discussed or if harm can be caused, recording of data, right to withdraw and confidentiality. Answers to these issues can be found in Table 4.9.

**Table 4.9 Ethical aspects concerning data collection**

<b>Who will participate</b>	Owners/managers of restaurants, project/NGO executives, customers...
<b>How to reach participants</b>	Participants will be identified using purposive sampling, convenience and snowball techniques. They will be contacted by phone to arrange a face-to-face interview.
<b>Topic sensitivity</b>	The topic to be discussed is business-related and shouldn't cause any personal harm to participants. Questions asked will be concerned with restaurant operations.
<b>Informed consent</b>	A brief introduction is given to participants to ensure their wish to participate. According to their approval and before beginning the interview, the participant consent form is signed.
<b>Recording of data</b>	Data will be recorded on 2 devices, which are locked, and passwords only known to the researcher.

<b>Right to withdraw</b>	Participants are told they have the right to withdraw if they feel they don't wish to continue participation, which is up to the beginning of the interview process.
<b>Confidentiality</b>	A coding scheme is used to represent the data. No original names of people or restaurants will be used. Data will be accessible only to the researcher & their supervisors.

The interview would start with the researcher, once again, communicating the purpose of the study and outlining research objectives and what it is they are trying to further understand. Also, the researcher told participants that interview data will be analyzed anonymously, by use of codes only known by the researcher, strictly for analysis purposes. The researcher also ensured that such data will be discarded (deleted from the 2 devices) once the research is completed and published. Participants were also informed that they have the freedom to skip any question they aren't comfortable answering and have the right to withdraw from participating in the research at any time. At this point participants were asked to sign the consent form to commence the interview. This same process has been applied to the focus group discussion, in addition to the video recording of the session, which was by consent of all participants.

**4.13 Chapter Summary**

The chapter began by highlighting the research aims and objectives. Next, a section is presented to discuss the research philosophies and paradigms. Afterwards, an outline was then given of the research methods. To be more specific, an interpretivist, qualitative approach is applied to the research, using a case study strategy. The pilot study which was carried out before data collection was introduced. In terms of data collection, two stages took place, namely in-depth interviews and a focus group discussion, where both

were analyzed using a thematic analysis technique. Research credibility is discussed in addition to the ethical issues considered to carry out the study. A summary of the methodological decisions made for this study are summarized in table 4.10. Chapters 5 and 6 detail the findings that have emerged from each of the data collection stages.

**Table 4.10 Summary of the research’s methodological design**

<b><i>Research paradigm</i></b>	Interpretivism
<b><i>Research philosophy</i></b>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Ontology: multiple truths exist; subjectivism.</li> <li>2. Epistemology: knowledge is created based on human interactions and perceptions.</li> <li>3. Axiology: researcher values influence study outcomes.</li> </ol>
<b><i>Approach to theory development</i></b>	Inductive
<b><i>Research design</i></b>	Qualitative approach
<b><i>Research strategy</i></b>	Case study
<b><i>Data collection methods</i></b>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. In-depth interviews</li> <li>2. Focus group discussion</li> </ol>
<b><i>Sampling strategies</i></b>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Purposive</li> <li>2. Convenience</li> <li>3. Snowball</li> </ol>
<b><i>Data analysis technique</i></b>	Thematic analysis

## **Chapter 5 – Research Findings: In-Depth Interview (IDIs)**

### **5.1 Introduction**

This research sets out to explore the challenges restaurants in Egypt face in becoming more environmental-friendly and how to they can overcome such issues as they become greener establishments. The research also aims to determine the different stakeholder groups critical to the implementation of green activities within restaurant operations. The purpose of this chapter is to present an analysis of the emergent themes generated from the in-depth interviews. Section 4.2 gives a brief about the participating restaurants sampled in the research while the rest of the chapter discusses the interpretations of the emergent themes.

### **5.2 Restaurant Participants**

As mentioned already in chapter 3, the research adopted a purposive sampling technique. Participating restaurants had to fit two main criteria; being a local establishment and not belonging to a hotel chain. The researcher also tried to interview restaurants that apply any green measures, which was carried out by means of the snowball technique. Table 5.1 presents a profile of the participating restaurants, while Table 5.2 gives an overview of these participants.

**Table 5.1 Restaurant Profiles**

<b>#</b>	<b>Type</b>	<b>Years in Business</b>	<b>Ownership</b>	<b>Meals Offered</b>	<b>Seating Size</b>	<b>Number of employees</b>	<b>Geographic Location</b>
R1	Casual dining	15	Independent	B, L, D	160	400	Cairo
R2	Upscale dining	15	Independent	L, D	92	6	Gouna
R3	Casual dining	40	Independent, family	L, D	86	25	Alexandria
R4	Casual dining	6	Chain	B, L, D	286	265	Cairo, North Coast
R5	Casual dining	5	Independent	B, L, D	150-200	25-30	Cairo
R6	Upscale dining	13	Chain	L, D	170	250	Cairo, North Coast
R7	Fast Casual	51	Chain, family	B, L, D	180	2000	Cairo, Alexandria
R8	Upscale dining	17	Independent, family	L, D	133	12	Gouna
R9	Casual Dining	3	Independent, family	L, D	20-25	3	Cairo
R10	Upscale dining	5	Independent, family	D	150	43	Cairo
R11	Casual dining	6 months	Independent	B, L, D	150	100	Cairo



R12	Casual dining	7	Chain	B, L, D	110	272	Cairo
R13	Upscale dining	12	Independent	L, D	80	30	Gouna
R14	Casual dining	7	Chain	B, L	70-100	250	Cairo
R15	Upscale dining	9	Chain	L, D	300	190	Cairo, Gouna, North Coast
R16	QSR	12	Chain	B, Brunch, snacks	8-10	650	Cairo, North Coast
R17	Fast Casual	30	Chain	L, D	100	500	Cairo, Alexandria, North Coast
R18	Casual Dining	2	Independent	B, L, D	130	60	Cairo
R19	Upscale dining	8	Independent, family	L, D	180	48	Gouna
R20	QSR	9	Chain	B, Brunch	35	270	Cairo

B= Breakfast L= Lunch D= Dinne

**Table 5.2 Overview of participants**

<b>Participant</b>	<b>Gender</b>	<b>Position</b>	<b>Number of years in company</b>
P1	M	Owner/CEO	15
P2	M	Owner/CEO	15
P3	F	Owner & Managing director	35
P4	M	Part owner	6
P5	F	Part owner	5
P6	M	Part owner	13
P7	M	Part owner & CEO	15
P8	M	Operation Manager	7
P9	F	Owner & Manager	3
P10	M & F	Owner/CEO & Marketing Manager	5
P11	M	Owner/CEO	6 months
P12	F	Marketing Manager	3
P13	M	Part owner/Managing director	10
P14	F	Marketing Manager	5
P15	F	Owner/CEO	9
P16	F	Marketing Manager	5
P17	M	Operation Manager	10
P18	M	Owner	2
P19	M	Owner	8
P20	M	Part owner & CEO	9

In order to ensure confidentiality and for ethical considerations, as explained earlier in chapter 3, a numbering system was used to identify the restaurants and the participants. As Table 5.1 shows, the sample includes different restaurants including type of activity i.e., casual dining vs. QSR, chains and independents, the years in business, number of employees as well as the outlets' geographic locations. This has given the research a more realistic overview of the different restaurants trying to go green in Egypt. As Table 5.2 shows, the interviewees were a mix of restaurant owners and ones with a managerial position. There was no intentional reason for this, yet the

researcher requested initially an interview with the owner, but when this was not possible, an interview was conducted with personnel from management, mainly the marketing or operations department. Interviews were face to face, conducted in English and would last a minimum of 30 minutes and a maximum of 120 minutes.

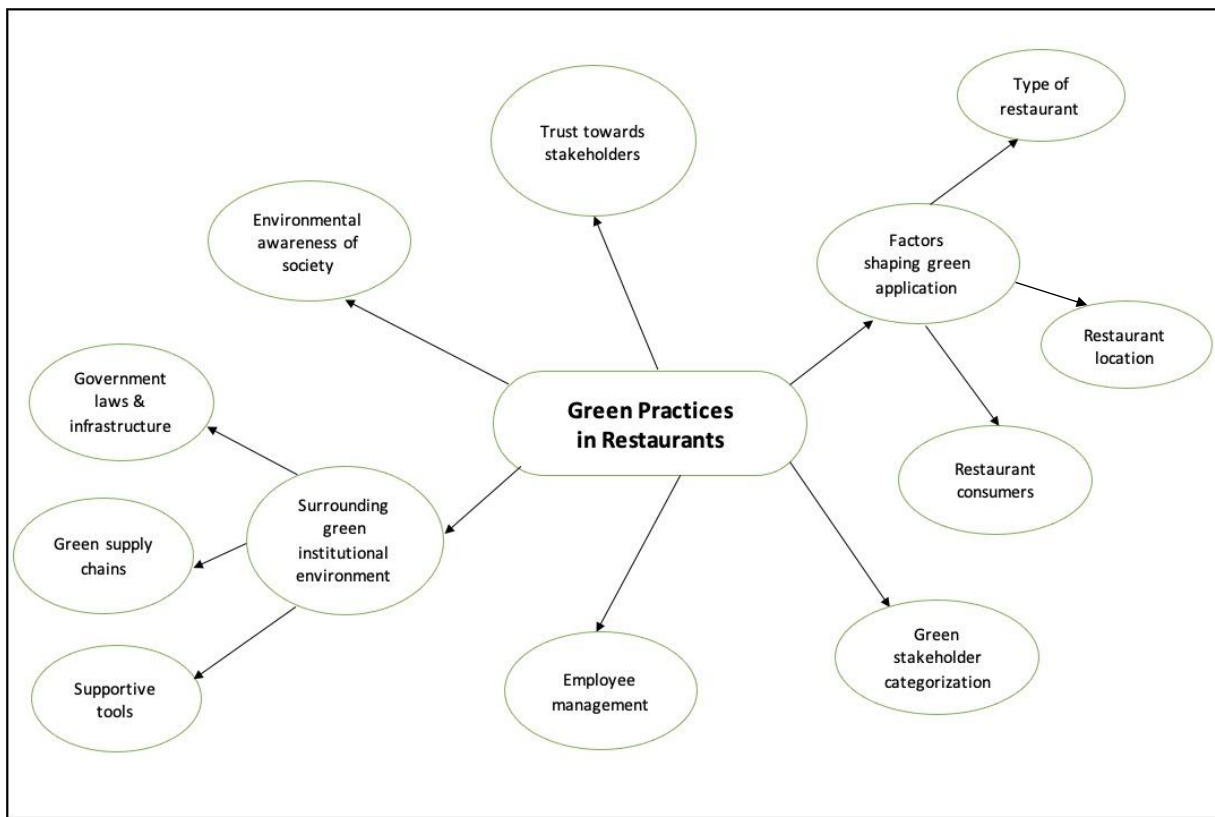
### 5.3 Emergent Themes and Thematic Map

After conducting data analysis, where the process was fully detailed and presented in the previous chapter, the thematic approach has resulted in the generation of a total of 6 themes, with relevant subthemes. Table 5.3 lists these themes and subthemes, while Figure 5.1 represents the thematic map.

**Table 5.3 Emergent themes from IDIs**

<b>Theme</b>	<b>Sub-theme</b>
1. Factors shaping green application	1.1 Type of restaurant 1.2 Restaurant location 1.3 Restaurant consumers
2. Surrounding green institutional environment	2.1 Green laws and infrastructure 2.2 Green supply chains 2.3 Supportive tools
3. Trust towards stakeholders	N/A
4. Environmental awareness of society	N/A
5. Employee management	N/A
6. Green stakeholder categorization	N/A

**Figure 5.1 IDIs Thematic Map**



#### **5.4 Theme one: Factors shaping green application**

The general understanding of green practices is that they are adopted to reduce environmental impact resultant from business operations. They are a means of providing products and services in an environmental-friendly way. Most interviewees in this research align with this common understanding, believing that green practices are designed to reduce environmental harm and should be ones that are sustainable. However, the sampled restaurants don't all adopt the same number of green practices and, in fact, the current scenario shows that most of them strive when implementing these green practices. During the interviews, it was evident that green definitions, from

the perspective of restaurateurs in this study, revolve around two main aspects; people's health and safety and the overall reduction of waste:

*"If we want to become green, recycle"* (R3).

*"It is taking care of the people and to segregate the garbage"* (R4).

*"We try to change peoples' bad food habits because of their health, before anything else"* (R9).

*"Because when you say green automatically, I think of waste, recycling of the products we use and all that"* (R15).

Participants have voiced that green management in restaurants generally is important because it is primarily associated with peoples' wellbeing and "...will affect me or my family at some point" (R8). Participants have also argued that green management adoption for them translates into mainly applying waste reduction strategies in terms of food, water and, most popularly, plastic elimination, the reuse of certain items, as well as, communicating the benefits of such activities so i.e., green communication. It is also worthy to note that such perceptions of green management are similar to types of green practices in earlier studies namely food, environment and administration focused (Choi and Parsa, 2006; Kwok et al., 2016) although the major focus for restaurants in Egypt is on offering healthy food (local and fresh, rather than organic) and the use of environmental-friendly materials, with the aim of reducing waste levels.

Restaurants in this study currently implementing green practices are either forced to do so, due to locational constraints, or for improving their image i.e., marketing purposes (Kang et al., 2012; Dipietro et al., 2013; Hu, 2015; Jang et al., 2015; Baloglu et al., 2020; Cantele and Cassia, 2020). Even restaurants that claim they focus on greening some of their operations,

because it supports their environmental beliefs, which align with their personal environmental values, are still doing so majorly out of marketing related intentions. Few participants even engage in green practices with the purpose of lowering their consumption, which translates into decreased costs:

*"Going green in restaurants, I think, there's two ways to go about it. It's saving cost and all that. There's a procedural part. And there are decisions that aren't going to be particularly profitable but are for the best interests of our environment. I guarantee you any business that's going to do that, isn't doing it out of the goodness of their heart. They are doing it because they can capitalize on a marketing platform. And that's just nature of...let's be honest" (R6).*

This means that participating restaurants implementing green practices are majorly aware of the benefits to their businesses, which supports the above definition. There are even few restaurants (R6, R9, R18) that make use of their cooking oil, where it's sold to certain recyclers in exchange for money, and one restaurant (R9), in fact, refabricates the oil inhouse into soap, where it is reused in the restaurant's kitchen and bathroom. This means that these restaurants, which are trying to embed environmental criteria, are doing so mainly because of the positive outcomes, including improved image and cost reductions, although it is portrayed that engaging in green practices is purely for environmental protection. This relates to the concept of value, where such restaurants adopt certain green practices because they are aware that such activities can be beneficial for their outlets, whether financially or from a marketing perspective, as argued above.

It is evident from the interview data that applying green practices in restaurants in Egypt is not a uniform process for these restaurants. It is presumed that the decision to adopt certain practices is shaped by certain criteria including the type of restaurant or activity, location and target market. Each of these factors, discussed below, are considered decisive of the green practices adopted by the restaurant.

#### **5.4.1 Type of restaurant**

During the interviews, participants would describe and detail their experience as they were trying to implement green activities within their restaurants. It became obvious to the researcher that not all restaurant types equally implement the same green activities. Although restaurants believe that green management is an environmental-friendly initiative, as explained earlier, however, they prioritize and, therefore, give attention to specific green practices. For example, it was commonly noticed that chain restaurants carry out food donations more than their independent counterparts. This can be attributed to the higher amounts of food leftovers resulting from a chain's total outlets. Such restaurants co-operate with a local NGO, named the Egyptian Food Bank (EFB), for food charity. The EFB is responsible for taking the restaurant unconsumed leftovers and donating it to certain neighborhoods:

*"We do a collaboration, if we see there's any food waste that we see that...we know our consumption. We coordinate with the EFB, but I'm talking about food waste that's frozen. Not from the plate" (R12).*

Food donations here refer to leftover, unconsumed foods. Other restaurants, when they are faced with any plate left-overs, initially try requesting that

the guest takes the uneaten foods home, "When people here have leftovers, I give it to them as they are leaving", (R9). Otherwise, restaurants try to dispose such foods off, yet ensuring their safe packaging and condition, but in an informal way. The most common example is distributing such food to "poor people or ones in need" (R14), in neighboring areas, such as security staff.

In this study, a few of the restaurants categorized as more upscale, with a fine dining experience were found to focus their green measures more on initially reducing their food waste. Examples of tactics are related to menu design and portion control, aiming to provide an experience tailored around quality, which normally aligns with the nature of more upscale restaurants:

*"In restaurants, generally speaking, if you are a proper restaurateur, you do your menu mixing so you don't produce a lot of waste" (R6).*

*"Honestly our food waste is relatively good because one, we have very good chefs so they know how to limit food waste as much as possible. They use everything. Secondly, honestly our portions are small so the client finishes their food" (R10).*

The second quote shows that training employees on how to carry out and optimize their tasks to reduce waste is an important factor which can yield lower waste levels. This again goes back to the essence of high-end restaurants, where their main focus is on quality, which ultimately translates into offering precise and lower quantities. This can also be explained by the caution taken by such restaurants in purchasing ingredients of higher quality, which presumably costs more.



Casual upscale restaurants can also afford to implement more costly green practices such as efficient water and energy equipment, provision of a few, if any, sustainable foods and use of environmental-friendly packaging. On the other hand, restaurants with a less formal setting, similar to fast foods, and even quick service ones (QSRs), are more interested and ultimately heavily engage in lowering their plastic usage, “We ruled out our plastic containers” (R20), and participating in green education, “We tell the guest we don’t use plastic straws for the environment” (R5). QSRs and fast casual restaurants opt for using mainly biodegradable containers, as well as paper bags and straws. It can be assumed this is favored because of their higher take-away and delivery activities, which was stressed by one participant:

*“If I’m a fast-food restaurant, and I serve my food in plastic bags, I know my people will eat my meals outside the restaurant and they will throw them in the bin or outside the bin. So, then it’s that restaurant’s garbage that is on the street. Unlike dine-in, or seated restaurants, the take-away part of the restaurant is very minimal. We are talking less than 1%. This is what goes out. So, my product doesn’t end up on the street at the end of the day. It goes back to the type of the place, what they serve, and the harm that is being done” (R11).*

This means that QSRs or restaurants of similar type seem to be more vulnerable to environmental degradation because of their plastic usage. It is presumed that in many instances, such meals are consumed outside the outlet, which is beyond a restaurant’s control. This means they try to ensure they have at least done their part by using environmental-friendly material, regardless of how it will be disposed of at later stages, with some efforts to market this. Another reason for this is because plastic worldwide now is a big issue, which has tremendous harm on the environment, especially from a

marine perspective. Nations around the world are starting to give attention to their plastic consumption and some have developed strategies for managing their use of plastics. Restaurants, similar to QSRs, also tend to highly engage in green/environmental communication, events or campaigns. This is in the form of communicating about the harm of plastic usage or waste levels to guests, taking part in environmental campaigns or sponsoring local suppliers of fresh produce:

*"I tell them not to have leftovers. I say order minimum quantity, and if you still want, add more. They learnt it's bad to throw out food" (R9).*

*"So, this is one day we sourcing locally fresh supply; we are supporting local farmers" (R5).*

It is clear that a restaurant's activity dictates that type of green practice to be adopted. Chain restaurants tend to focus on food donations because of their accumulated leftovers. Since such leftovers present no value to such restaurants, where most likely such waste can end up in landfills, restaurants take advantage of this by engaging in food charities, perhaps increasing their contributions to CSR activities. High end, upscale restaurants in this study favor offering local, and in some instances fresh, high-quality foods with limited quantities, which benefits in containing food waste, and since they aren't big consumers of plastic and portions are smaller, their green activities mainly focus on offering sustainable foods and minimization of waste generated. This clearly shows that restaurant activity is an important factor when deciding on the type of green practice to be implemented.

### **5.4.2 Restaurant location**

Even though studying restaurants in different locations wasn't a major focus in this research, yet as the research progressed further, it became evident that the location of the restaurant is another important factor. Therefore, the researcher investigated this further by interviewing restaurants in different locations. Nevertheless, during analysis, it became clear that restaurant location does, in fact, dictate the types of green practices implemented. This is because sometimes the geographic area, most likely due to environmental sensitivity, constrains restaurants and, therefore, calls for the adoption of certain green measures. Also, the community the restaurant situates in, can also enforce some green dimensions. The surrounding environmental scenario, in some way, acts as a trigger to implement environmental measures:

*"Whoever is living far away from its impact, won't feel it as much as"*  
(R11).

This means in some cases, being exposed to environmental harm, such as plastics flying off, ending up in the sea (marine litter) or accumulated as garbage on streets, can influence and drive the adoption of green activities. Many participants have argued that businesses, or on an even bigger scale, societies, tend to favor certain green measures, depending on their environmental context; what is deemed critical, from their own perspective and, therefore, requires immediate attention is acted upon. In the case of restaurants, this means that the surrounding location and, in some cases, the community, enforce the type of green practice to be adopted:

*"The general environment in the Red Sea region lacks any production processes. You feel people are really connected with the environment, the place is open and spacious, the sea...it isn't all blocks and buildings and all that" (R9).*

For example, in the Red Sea, the Gouna community specifically, a touristic area with high environmental sensitivity, the majority of green requirements are plastic related. Orascom for Hotels and Development, responsible for managing Gouna community, and in alignment with the Red Sea governorate, requires in most cases that restaurants segregate their garbage, in bins surrounding the outlet, where in turn, they are responsible for pick up and recycling:

*"Here they care about the rubbish to be collected in the right way, to recycle the waste" (R19).*

*"Orascom is the one responsible for the waste here" (R13).*

The Gouna community takes charge of transporting materials to certain places in the desert or mountains and recycles them, such as glass, plastic and metal. Of course, the community benefits from recycling or reselling certain items, which results in profit generation. Even though restaurants aren't obliged to separate their garbage, which the community does anyway, they are forced to pay a "service fee" (R8) for garbage management, as part of the restaurant's service charges. Nonetheless, participants have also spoken about how the Governor of the Red Sea has recently requested and decided that the whole community, not only hospitality businesses, are to operate with minimal amounts of plastics and, in particular, zero plastic bags. The main reason behind this is for the sake of preserving the marine environment, confirmed by one of the participants:

*"If we live by the sea, the issue will be different. Because each paper or plastic bag coming out of here probably, 10% of them will be thrown out in the ocean. Then this is a problem for me" (R11).*

Marine litter is a big issue, especially in areas that are environmentally sensitive. Protection of these waters is also important since it is considered a highly populated touristic area. The whole Gouna community cares about its image and wants to "Market itself to the world as an environmental-friendly location" (R8), which perfectly aligns with its tourism marketing goals to become a sustainable touristic destination. This translates into restaurants, as well as other businesses, being obliged to follow certain procedures i.e., the existence of legality which contributes to the greenness of the Gouna community:

*"In terms of Gouna, there are no barriers because it's life. We have rules we are abiding by. Someone paved the way. There's a difference..." (R8).*

Participants, especially ones in the Gouna region, have voiced their affirmations that there are rules for them to be followed, put in place by the community. Such tactics also, similar to ones of destination marketing organizations (DMOs), contribute to the overall promotion and marketing of a certain destination. Another example, pointed out by one participant located in Cairo, that situating in a certain community has forced that restaurant to ultimately manage their consumption:

*"For example, today here in Katameya Heights, the garbage is not a big issue, however, if we consume or waste a lot of water, they will give me a fine" (R15).*

The participant argues that they are only stringent about water consumption within their outlet due to the rules enforced by the community. In this scenario, the community chooses to enforce rules on a certain dimension of the environment, water preservation, which from their perspective, poses a significant problem. This parallels the argument made earlier, that in many cases, the issues that are critical, environmentally, are prioritized. Needless to say, the restaurant, however, ends up benefiting from reduced costs because of lower consumption. The above affirmations support that green criterion are in place, not just for environmental protection, but also for cost reductions, also achieved by avoiding penalties. Private managing entities within certain communities, for example like Orascom for Hotels and Development in the Gouna context, play a powerful role.

Although this argument is supported, a participant argues that sometimes the community can act as a barrier to implementing such practices:

*"If you want to do it, the mall won't let you do it. They won't let you have the bins for recyclables" (R6).*

In this case, the participant explains how having the recycling bins can cause disruption and problems at the mall. This includes "Logistical issues" (R10, R11, R16), where different companies/bodies would be responsible for pick-up or charity related issues meaning that people from the street (ideally poor people or ones that want to recycle such items but aren't licensed) can start to go through the bins hoping to get hold of something to resell for

profit. Yet, it is presumed that such issues can be easily managed by community heads.

### **5.4.3 Restaurant consumers**

It was pronounced throughout the interviews that in most cases, one of the factors affecting the application of green practices is the targeted consumer base. Although it was not explicitly expressed by the participants, however, it is obvious that restaurants applying the greenest measures target certain consumer profiles:

*"For example, a lot of people come here starting the age of 23 or 25 and up. I get a lot of foreigners, some are residents" (R9).*

*"Yes A & B mainly the bull-eyes ranging from the ages of 18-35" (R16).*

These consumer profiles include mostly either the lower age segment, ranging from 18-up to 35, a mix of locals and tourists, as well as, the higher social classes including A and B. Consumers of the lower age group, or ones ranging from 18-35 in particular, represent the younger generation. Participants often target such consumers possibly due to their higher exposure to social media, their better knowledge of the environment, from constant traveling to open spaces and locations outside the city, which are more pro the environment, or perhaps have had a chance to learn about sustainability issues. All these factors in the end make them a more suitable group of consumers for restaurants to market their green efforts. It is also presumed that such a generation can be better attracted through introducing newer concepts and ideologies:

*"There's research that says that millennials are not loyal to any brand. They are loyal to ideas, beliefs and values. They have very high self-awareness. This is how brands will survive" (R16).*

Foreigners or tourists are also another interesting group of consumers believed to be understanding of green management. Some resident foreigners are presumed to have better knowledge or background about the environment. To them, they feel that the restaurant is conscientious about the environment and are making efforts to protect it:

*"The perception of the guest here is "Oh, you aren't working with plastic!" They are happy. The foreign guests especially. They perceive it in a good way and believe the place is upgraded. They feel we are conservative and care about the environment" (R2).*

Tourists as well, who are from countries that could be supporting or giving attention to the environment, are sometimes targeted by restaurants implementing green practices. Tourists are believed to be concentrated in both touristic and non-touristic areas. Concerning consumers of higher social classes, presuming they have had better education, perhaps in foreign countries, have a higher probability of comprehending the restaurant's direction towards being more environmental-friendly. Although this could be common, however, one participant argued that their consumers, from A&B classes, rather complain about the paper straw:

*"I think it's the people who come to our restaurant and these are supposedly the educated class...they don't care! They keep yelling if they aren't served the plastic straw because they don't want the paper one" (R10).*



In the current context, it can be postulated that higher education is not a factor that can depict consumer green behaviors, but it is however, the quality of education that matters. It seems that a lot of people in Egypt, whether “highly educated” (R11) or not, are both not acknowledging or demanding green practices. The issue here is one that is related to the quality of education in Egypt, where sustainability topics are not fully and comprehensively integrated within educational curricula. Ali (2022) has stated that just in 2018 education in Egyptian schools has begun to include green concepts in their teachings. In addition, Abozaied (2018) found 10 out of 18 university academics are unfamiliar with the concept of sustainable development in their study about sustainable education in Egypt. Another reason why there are still consumers of higher classes not demanding green practices could be due to the inconvenience tied with using green products or not willing to “sacrifice their luxury” (R9). An example for this is the use of paper or wooden straw and cutlery, where both have a difference in functionality compared with plastic ones. Or when consumers would be forced to be seated within a non-conditioned area at certain times, to save energy. Such tactics disrupt their level of comfort, and some consumers wouldn’t be willing to make such sacrifices.

Choosing such groups to target, as mentioned above, is a smart tactic by restaurants trying to implement green practices. This is for two reasons. One, because such consumers will be the best channel to progress and populate the issue, where strategically, this means a gradual increase in demand for such green practices. Ultimately, when demand increases, the restaurant will respond positively to such requests. Two, their increased positive word of mouth will affect the restaurant’s image, thereby improving reputation, which is the dominant reason for adopting green practices initially. One restaurant, R16, even refers to their consumers as

“ambassadors”, claiming that such people act as promoters for their green activities. This is why tackling the right consumer base, who are seen as potentials for advocating green implementation and will respond positively, is critical to adopting green measures, as they are considered a major driver for this.

As argued above, green practices can’t be generalized for all restaurants. This means, there are mainly three factors that should be considered before deciding on the type of green practices to be adopted. These include restaurant activity, location and the targeted consumer profiles, which are of an internal and external nature. All these three aspects, collectively, will help restaurants in determining the most suitable and optimum green practices to be implemented for their context.

## **5.5 Theme two: Surrounding Green Institutional Environment**

In order for restaurants to go green in Egypt, participants argue certain external green elements must be present. Participants believe that obstacles hindering the adoption of green activities in their outlets include non-existent environmental laws and infrastructure, green supply chains and supportive tools. Almost all restaurants have agreed that greening their restaurants with the absence of such factors has been very challenging:

*“In order to apply something like that, it has to be applied universally...the application and applicants” (R4).*

*“We are not required to go green” (R2).*

*“Where are the green products that I can use?” (R14).*

The above quotes imply that green management needs to be applied, with all its aspects and by everyone; governments, businesses and people. This means that these stakeholders need to participate in achieving green adoption and to have supporting factors present, such as laws, infrastructure, green products, etc. When the external environment supports going green, this can be of help to restaurants in becoming more environmental-friendly and results in facilitating the adoption process. Since restaurants feel that dealing with the external environment is inevitable, they believe some actors should be responsible for greening their own processes (R1, R3, R7, R11), such as suppliers or the government. Therefore, it is incumbent that such stakeholders support environmental protection and provide the means for it, which will be discussed below. The external green environment entails green laws and infrastructure, green supply chains and supportive tools.

### ***5.5.1 Green laws and infrastructure***

Almost all participants spoke about the urgency of establishing and implementing green laws, a task solely assigned to the government. From their perspective, this by far deems to be the most critical aspect in the success of greening the restaurant industry. In addition, even though restaurants for example, in the Gouna area are obliged by the community, like other businesses, in coordination with the governorate, to reduce their plastic usage (Sayed, 2019), yet half of them still demand the government, especially the Ministry of Environment and Tourism, to play a more active role in developing and enforcing green laws. All participants agree it is a responsibility of the government, and hope for the enforcement of environmental regulations:

*"There must be laws that are stricter and clearer for all people. In order to control the society" (R15).*

*"The government must establish laws and actually enforce them" (R3).*

From the above quotes, it is clear that restaurants are requesting a more legalized environment, through certain policies, in order to resolve environmental issues. Participants have voiced that there need to be laws pertaining mainly to the use of plastics, waste management, water consumption and energy usage. Participants have spoken about how laws are needed, not only to be applied to restaurants, but to people in their individual lives as well, because presumably behaviors carried out personally are assumed to take place also in public scenarios. It also means the government needs to set some "Green regulations for all the relevant businesses restaurants deal with" (R13), most importantly recycling entities, suppliers and commercial entities in the community. It is clear that all restaurants are urging for, and in fact, strictly believe that governmental pressures, through law establishment, is necessary and perhaps the main factor for the successful implementation of green management. A few participants have also asserted that regular and fair auditing, inspections and control measures by governmental entities (R3, R5, R9, R16) are needed to ensure proper implementation and success in the long run. However, none of the restaurants have taken active steps to communicate such requests to regulatory bodies, such as the government or communities.

Throughout multiple interviews, it was clearly communicated that the current infrastructure in Egypt doesn't support a restaurant in going green. From their perspective, restaurants argue a green infrastructure is one that entails the development of official recycling processes and waste disposal, water desalination stations generating drinkable water, solar paneling,

environmentally safe transportation means, prohibition of smoking in enclosed areas, etc. (R3, R5, R8, R15, R17). Participants have confirmed the non-existence of such an infrastructure currently in Egypt, while others have expressed its importance:

*"You can't create your own eco system within the 4 walls" (R6).*

*"Provide the infrastructure for it, so business can go green if they want to, easily without breaking their head" (R10).*

The above quotes show how participants face difficulties in adopting green measures within their outlets, due to an inexistent, supporting infrastructure, which may include an official recycling process, eco-friendly materials, green loans, safe energy, etc. The provision of such aspects in the external environment would give room to abiding by any green laws, or even when voluntarily implementing green practices.

To be more specific, in terms of infrastructure, recycling is the most common and important to restaurants. In fact, participants had differing viewpoints about recycling in Egypt. Some asserted it doesn't exist in the country, while others confirm its existence, but in an unofficial way, where garbage men belonging to the 'garbage collectors' in the Zabaleen district, are responsible for pickup, and the disposal or recycling of such items. In fact, one participant confidently argues that "nothing goes to waste in Egypt" (R6), implying that recycling somehow takes place in Egypt, either by private or public entities.

There are restaurants though that have provided examples of private recycling businesses. Although these restaurants are aware of such businesses, they still argue about the constraints of cooperating with such private entities:

*"So, when we cooperate with a partner like NGOs or recycling companies, they can't pass by...we have in each neighborhood 1 store. In some cases, there are 2. But for them, transportation cost to go around to collect all this is challenging. For me, to do a central point to collect from, is also challenging" (R16).*

One of the most common problems when trying to engage in a recycling process with private entities seems to be purely logistics, which results in a cost burden for the restaurant. One participant even complains of the legal times recycling trucks are allowed to enter certain neighborhoods for collection. They spoke of how they would be willing to segregate their garbage, only if recycling companies can pass by daily to pick up such waste:

*"And these companies don't want to pass by every day. So, it's like, I can't keep garbage at the restaurant. If I mass garbage and I get a sudden inspection from MOH or MOT, it's not hygienic" (R10).*

From their arguments, it is apparent that such restaurants prefer to deal with private entities to collect their recyclable waste. This is perhaps due to restaurants dealing with known names or are more exposed to their work or cause. They feel they can entrust such waste to be taken care of by private entities, more than the unofficial public figures who just show up and take such waste. Restaurants also argued that it's not their responsibility to manage the recycling process, yet it should be managed by specialized entities, such as governments, NGOs or private businesses, with some level of supervision by the government.

### **5.5.2 Green supply chains**

One of the ways to go green in restaurants is to replace existing products with environmental-friendly ones to reduce environmental harm. Although it wasn't clearly explicitly articulated during interviews, meaning the term green supply chain was pronounced once or twice, yet it became evident from participant articulations that a restaurant's green supply chain is fundamentally relevant:

*"I want green to be outside before inside. Or the product I'm buying, is made correctly. Grown properly. Agriculturally and so. This is outside, in order to have it on the inside."* (R3).

The majority of restaurants have indicated their frustration about locating and using green materials, stressing the importance of supplier inclusion. These include organic produce, wooden or paper cups and utensils and environmental-friendly packaging:

*"I think there are other people who should focus on the process that's before me to make my work easier, which will help me in the future"* (R11).

This means restaurants demand that their suppliers make and provide them with green products, in order to allow for such a process to be feasible, where restaurants are able to source sustainable supply. They argue that the majority of "current suppliers for water and sodas are still using plastic" (R2), and this applies to a lot of other types of supply.

From the restaurants' perspectives, there are three main problems with alternative green products, mainly referring to packaging and organic foods, which are cost, availability and functionality (R3, R11, R14, R18). The increase in cost is one of the disadvantages behind purchasing green products:

*"Another challenge is coming from the supplier. Suppliers for these products are expensive. Recyclable things are expensive" (R16).*

The difference in price is an advocacy confirmed by almost all participants, claiming that going green is an expensive process. The difference in price, at some point, was not less than five or six times more than the normal product, according to several participants. The cost dilemma can be attributed to the supply-demand interplay, where the market scenario is simply described as operating without competition:

*"This concept, offering green products in restaurants, will only target a certain niche market; a very small segment of people who are attracted to these products" (R7).*

This presumably signals that demand is still in its infancy stage in terms of green products, where the price of green products prevents consumers from purchasing such items (Abdou, 2022). In this case, suppliers tend to increase their prices, since green products are not highly available. In addition, participants feel sometimes they are stuck when they want to operate with green products, because they face issues with "Availability" (R11) for certain items i.e., locally made. Another reason presented by participants explaining the high prices of such products is due to suppliers resorting to "Importing" (R14) such materials. This claim leads to the second



problem arising from the green product, which is the product being locally available. Multiple participants argue that frequently environmental-friendly substitutes aren't found, which is a common issue:

*"Suppliers have a problem and that is they import...take care some things can be held up in customs" (R14).*

*"The problem is that we don't manufacture this and to import it is very expensive" (R18).*

In this case, importing has two main issues; increased cost and delay in customs. This in turn causes problems for restaurants when dealing with suppliers of green products. The last issue arising from the use of green products is their functionality. Participants have complained about the quality of such materials:

*"At some point we got the paper ones but the quality here is so bad, that the food falls right out" (R5).*

The functionality of the available green products was stressed by several participants (R3, R11, R17). Many have argued that the quality of such products is quite poor, where for example there is leakage in packaging items. Another functionality issue brought up was related to the use of glass. Although glass is considered more environmentally-safe, however it is often not favored by restaurants for use because of its "Non-practicality" (R9) compared with plastic. This is because it is heavy, requires more space for storage, could be broken and is more expensive, which is sometimes imported as well.

Although this is the argument put forward by most participants, yet few restaurants that have taken an extra step by progressing in this issue. One participant speaks of investing in their suppliers:

*"For us no, we developed our suppliers to manufacture this line for us. So no, there isn't anyone specialized in this and the specialized ones are operating on a small scale and aren't sustainable at all. It was easier to approach someone who is big in the market for sustainability and tell them I want to do my things as recycled paper" (R16).*

It is evident from this quote that developing suppliers, or aiding them in innovating their products is a smart tactic in resolving the current supplier issues. It is also seen as one of the integral ways to achieve a restaurant's green objectives. This is one of the aspects of green supply chains; to deal with green suppliers. Collaborating with local farms is another aspect conveyed by few restaurants (R2, R7, R11, R20), which can help to facilitate and green the restaurant's distribution network. Proper distribution is assumed to have some advantages which include reducing a restaurant's carbon footprint, engaging in using local products minimizing costs and waste. One other restaurant (R15), after designing a central kitchen for distribution for all its branches, confirms its success and confirms minimizing food waste thereby reducing cost.

As mentioned before, some restaurants provide their cooking oils to be recycled. This is an example of how some restaurants are somehow involved in a green supply chain. R18 explains that the oil is picked up by a certain entity where it is taken to be refabricated. This process aligns with the concept of reverse logistics, which is a common tactic of supply chains.

The above claims show that firstly, suppliers are considered as an important stakeholder for the restaurant when it decides to go green. Secondly, green hospitality supply chains can also contribute to shaping customer satisfaction and loyalty as customers are becoming more sustainably aware of the businesses they interact with. This is understandable since customers are the main focus of any business and in the context of the sampled restaurants, it is evident that restaurants applying green measures, and one of their aims is to do so from a marketing perspective, hoping to sway and attract certain consumers with their environmental initiatives. Managing a restaurant's supply chain, with environmental considerations in mind, can help in increasing consumer demand for that restaurant's green activities. Yet, it can be postulated that most restaurants in Egypt still don't exercise effective green supply chain strategies due to lack of networking between supply chain members and poor knowledge about supply chains approach.

### ***5.5.3 Supportive tools***

Almost all restaurants have urged that they are in need of support in order to become more environmental-friendly. Restaurants have expressed this support to take the form of financial aid, the transfer of knowledge i.e., the required "Know-how for how to become a green restaurant" (R11), and appropriate/sufficient "industry representation" (R1).

There are very few restaurant owners who acknowledge that some green practices don't require high financial investment for implementation, such as managing food waste even through simple communication with customers and reducing water usage. However, the majority currently believes that in most cases, going green requires high-cost investments:

*"Going green is never attractive for the restaurant industry. It doesn't make financial sense" (R6).*

*"It's costing us more, so it's not a cost-efficient idea" (R18).*

Some owners, like the ones above, argue that going green needs to be balanced, from a financial perspective. This means that, from their perspective, the level of sales can't be sacrificed just to go green. They assert that bottom line, restaurants are a business i.e., an economic entity with profit objectives. This clearly shows that most restaurant owners are not aware that going green can be considered a strategy to cut costs, perhaps in the long-run. One of the reasons for this is the efforts directed towards managing consumption. It is argued in literature (Hu, 2015; Jang et al., 2015; Chiu and Hsieh, 2016; Iraldo et al., 2016; Jang et al., 2017; Namkung and Jang, 2013, 2017; Alonso-Almeida et al., 2018; Saleh and Elsaied, 2018; Baloglu et al., 2020; Cantele and Cassia, 2020) that adopting green practices does affect firm performance. Since there is absence of legal pressure, incentivizing green practices or the use of motivational tactics is necessary to trigger the adoption of such practices. Financial incentives can drive restaurant managers to adopt and act on their sustainable goals. Suggestions by restaurants for incentives are many with the dominant one being the "reduction of taxes" (R7). One participant sums it up as the following:

*"The nation to support financially. The support doesn't have to be money. The land is free. Taxes, whatever. Electricity and gas are free for the coming 5 years. Facilitation. The license doesn't take a year to be issued, but rather only 1.5 months" (R4).*

The above articulation clearly shows that governments can try to motivate firms, by granting certain aspects, helping them to become greener. It is evident that restaurant owners need to understand the advantages, financially or cost related, behind applying green activities. It seems that very few restaurant owners acknowledge this concept:

*"For financial planning, the impact of green is very important if I associate it with waste. Of course, in restaurants it's crucial because money wise, in the end, instead of making a penny, you make two"* (R15).

As per the literature, green management application is related to improved financial performance (Jang et al., 2017; Alonso-Almeida et al., 2018; Cantele and Cassia, 2020) where participants agree the government needs to promote the adoption of green management through the provision of such incentives.

Another issue spoken of in terms of support is sufficient industry representation. Restaurants in Egypt either belong to the neighboring district, which is the majority, or are considered touristic, meaning they are affiliated with the Ministry of Tourism. The former simply lack proper representation and feel that such privilege is only provided to touristic restaurants. However, touristic restaurants themselves, complain of the lack of support, although they are within the Ministry of Tourism's (MOT) umbrella:

*"Because we are associated with the MOT, they come and ask if there are any problems or anything. If there's anything to be resolved. But I'm not sure if they do actually resolve anything or not honestly"* (R3).

Within the MOT, restaurants are embedded within the Chamber of Touristic Establishments (COTE). Like the above affirmations, others have voiced similar claims of the support provided by such entity. It is argued that the COTE doesn't have much control and isn't so active due to its small number of participants (restaurants). In fact, a big reason why participants feel it isn't of great support is due to its weak power (R10, R19) Yet these same participants, although very few, have stated that it can aid in other restaurant issues, government-related, for example, electricity issues, taxes, customs or during times of COVID-19 for reopening, etc.:

*"Touristic establishments apply in the Chamber of Touristic Establishments in the MOT, and they sign the approval and reach out to customs. Then your materials can enter the country. Actually, this is a great arm of assistance" (R6).*

Restaurants hope that the MOT in general provides more guidance and be of higher assistance in terms of environmental protection. Restaurants have articulated their desire to do things correctly, from an environmental standpoint, but at the same time, requested more engagement and participation concerning such aspects. Since restaurants, touristic and not, feel a lack of support from the government, they have resorted to communicating with their industry counterparts; restaurants of similar types. This is a common strategy currently performed by many restaurants (R4, R12, R15, R18). Such establishments are either neighboring restaurants, or friends operating similar businesses in the food and beverage industry. Participants have claimed that seeking communication with such parties is a way to overcome the lack of networking between themselves and other relevant entities in the restaurant industry. To them, it is mainly a way of exchanging information and making some decisions collectively:

*"A lot of restaurants joined forces in terms of...marketing managers, other F&B chains and restaurants, we communicate all together, to move forward together"* (R12).

*"We do communicate together, myself with a few others in the mall"* (R17).

Further to this point, a few restaurants believe that these parties, or industry players, ones that are quite active and "dominant" (R18) in the industry, or just general collaboration with them, can trigger and act as a promoter for going green (R12). Such collaborations can lead to innovations in the industry. One participant, R18, called on a famous hospitality entrepreneur, owning four high end restaurants, to take the lead in going green, where they believe this will have a great impact and encourage others in the industry to follow.

Other restaurants hope to work with other restaurants with the aim of elevating the concept of green adoption in the restaurant industry, where their combined efforts can have huge positive effects on the industry.

## **5.6 Theme three: Trust towards Stakeholders**

Even though there were no specific questions targeting stakeholder trust nor the intention to inquire about this, multiple participants throughout the interviews have proclaimed that there is a lack of trust towards some external parties i.e., stakeholders. Rousseau et al. (1998, pg. 395) defines trust as "a psychological state characterized by the acceptance of vulnerability based on positive expectations about the intentions or behavior

of others". Participants have explained that, during their journey of trying to adopt some green practices, there are situations where they are in doubt of some of the stakeholder's actions, products or even intentions (R9, R10, R11).

Stakeholder trust is when a stakeholder trusts or ensures the focal organization will act in their best interests, since this stakeholder has already engaged with or provided the focal organization with a resource, such as capital, human-related etc. (Greenwood, 2007; Greenwood and Van Buren III, 2010). Trust between an organization and its stakeholders is founded on the ethical and moral treatment of such stakeholder groups (Greenwood and Van Buren III, 2010). However, in the context of these sampled restaurants in Egypt, the situation unfolds differently. It is in fact the restaurants i.e., owners and managers, that are having trust issues towards some stakeholders, in relevance to green management. One of the most common aspects some restaurants have highlighted is the authenticity of organic produce in Egypt:

*"I personally don't have trust in anything in Egypt. If anyone told me this is organic, I don't trust how honest this person is about the product being organic. Because as you know, the things you can't see its journey from the beginning, especially here in Egypt, are hard to believe in terms of originality" (R9).*

During the interviews, various restaurants have confirmed that they don't have any trust in the suppliers of organic products. The reason for this is that they don't feel that such products are "truly organic" (R2) or "fitting the organic criteria" (R11). Restaurants have expressed that they aren't comfortable depicting such items as organic in Egypt, where suppliers are



using the word 'organic' for business or marketing purposes, to increase their level of sales or as a selling point, hoping to tackle the niche market for organic items. From their perspective, restaurants believe that procuring such items would be a non-value adding business move. This is plainly because the majority of consumers in Egypt are still not demanding organic ingredients for their meals, which represent a very small segment in the market (Kamel and El Bilali, 2022). So, restaurants feel that engaging with such suppliers, whom they are skeptical of in the first place, would be useless and an added cost. Rather, such restaurants try to source local, fresh foods.

Other claims pertaining to trust have also been made. Trust in the recycling process carried out by potential recyclers is another advocacy that came up by one participant:

*"If I do it, and I know it will cost me more and it's going to be a more cumbersome thing to do, as well as trusting the other party to make sure it goes green, this is skeptical for me. If there's a way for me to know that I'll spend that money to be green and I know that the impact is going to be green, I will do it" (R10).*

Some participants have doubts about the existence of proper recycling methods in the country. They argue that they want to be convinced that when they invest in green products and do their part, they will be disposed of properly. In other words, they fear that when materials are collected from the restaurant, the responsible parties won't carry out recycling in an environmentally safe way and will rather resort to traditional means, which harm the environment. This is plainly stated by another participant confirming this idea:

*"So, they are still going to the landfill. So even though they are not plastic and are recyclable material, they are not being recycled" (R5).*  
*"A lot of garbage is being burnt" (R15).*

Recycling in Egypt is carried out either by private entities or the unofficial garbage collectors. It is probable that such concerns, similar to ones of organic foods, can be resolved once again through the proper integration and collaboration of supply chain members, with perhaps a focus on adopting a seamless supply chain approach. This can presumably reduce the suspicion felt by restaurant owners. The government as well can play a role in disseminating periodic updates about recycling procedures taking place in the country, especially ones by the garbage collectors, who are supervised and managed by the government.

Other participants have mentioned that they also have trust issues towards the media and NGOs. Concerning the media, participants state they don't trust or "believe" (R16) in them. This is because they feel the media is a business with perhaps hidden intentions:

*"If they have an incentive, they will do it. If not, they won't do it" (R10).*

Participants feel that if the government chooses to concentrate on the issue and give it rise, the media will be directed to give it attention. In Egypt, the media is governed and controlled by the government, so participants feel skeptical of its credibility (R6, R8, R10, R15, R16). For NGOs, even though one restaurant (R11) argues that dealing with NGOs is more legitimate than with the garbage collectors for waste handling, another states that

sometimes they preach for green management implementation with aims of obtaining attention and “labelling” (R11), more than genuinely caring about the environment.

Trust is crucial between entities, especially when dealing with stakeholders. It is also more significant in situations where the trustee is not under the control of the trustor. Trust is established if certain qualities are inherent in the other party, or trustee, as literature confirms, which include mainly ability, benevolence and integrity (Mayer et al., 1995), which represent elements of trustworthiness. Ability refers to competence, benevolence is putting the other party’s interest’s priority, while integrity means acting in a way the other party feels is correct or pertaining to certain norms.

It is probable that the low levels of trust and skepticism towards such stakeholders are resultant from restaurants ranking stakeholders low on trustworthiness, precisely on the above three dimensions. Stakeholder competency, for example like suppliers, can be perhaps achieved by ensuring the acquisition of certain certifications, ones relating to the production of organic foods. In terms of benevolence, pertaining to the above issue with the media, which requires some time to be developed, can be assessed whether a stakeholder acts in a way that benefits the restaurant; disclosing information in favor of helping the restaurant industry or businesses. Finally, integrity, once again relating to the suppliers’ case, can be ensured if auditing processes or supervision by certain entities, governmental or private, can be carried out. By deploying appropriate networking strategies, it is assumed to lead to improved coordination and ultimately information sharing. Other tactics that may contribute to higher trust, as mentioned earlier, would be focusing on facilitating and engaging with the restaurant’s supply chain actors, mainly suppliers. Restaurants didn’t have trust issues with customers, yet they have voiced that they don’t

have confidence in organic products. Collaborating, networking or even communicating with such suppliers may reduce such issues.

## **5.7 Theme four: Environmental Awareness of Society**

The lack of environmental awareness in the society, according to claims by restaurant owners, is prevalent in Egypt. Throughout the interviews, participants have stressed on this concept multiple times of how people in Egypt are generally not aware of environmental-related issues. By people, they have referred to governmental officials, consumers, suppliers and even themselves:

*"But I myself need awareness and training in what exactly I'm supposed to do" (R1).*

*"Let me know what the problem is, and tell me what the solutions are. But I need to know. So, give me, tell me what the problem is. I never studied environmental-anything; I have no idea. But to me as a restaurant owner, I see that I'm doing my best not to harm the environment" (R11).*

The above quotes signal that some restaurant owners are not educated about environmental management. Participants are admitting that in order for them to become green, they require that they themselves become more knowledgeable about the application of green activities. Even though restaurants require more education on how to be green, yet they argue that, in the end, their restaurants can't be classified as a major contributor to environmental harm, where focus should be on more detrimental businesses:

*"In the end the things that come out from here or the waste, it doesn't harm the environment. I'm not a factory digging in the ground or a cement factory producing smoke daily for 10 hours. In the end, they are just 2-3 restaurants" (R4).*

*"They have a lot of people who are harming the environment much more than myself. They should start with them" (R11).*

These claims also signal that restaurant owners in Egypt are in need of getting educated about environmental issues; on how their business processes and products impact the environment. They also require training on what needs to be changed and the appropriate or relevant strategies for doing that. Unsurprisingly, participants were also hesitant when asked about national initiatives or projects promoting environmental sustainability put forth by the government. Almost all participants doubted their existence, or were just simply unsure.

Although the country has taken major steps in the past 2-3 years to promote its environmental agenda, restaurant owners were not up to date on these issues. This can be attributed to the fact that there exists a major lack of networking, as mentioned earlier, between restaurants, or in this matter the hospitality sector, with other external entities, mainly the government and NGOs, as they are considered the main parties working towards achievement of major environmental goals.

Participants even stress that governmental entities specifically, the Ministry of Environment and Ministry of Tourism, along with environmentalists and NGOS, have to be more engaged and involved with restaurant businesses. They articulate that such entities, specifically the ministries, are supposed to

pay more attention to them to provide help in whatever is needed. In fact, such entities, which are embedded within the governmental body, are viewed as major stakeholders for becoming greener.

The problem with this “request” is that various participants have highlighted the lack of awareness of governmental personnel. So, although they are hopeful that governmental entities provide aid in terms of going green, they urge that those governmental personnel themselves as well need to be more educated about environmental issues. In fact, since this is a big problem, it has led to the current scenario where green or environmental management is seen as not an important aspect in the country:

*“The first thing is that it isn’t a priority in the governmental agenda and secondly, I see it’s about education. The majority of government officials are not aware, or they have much more important problems” (R16).*

Participants spoke about how the government doesn’t prioritize green management and this is due to two reasons. Firstly, because they are unaware of the importance of environmental management and its criticality for the nation. Secondly, according to participants, they might have other significant problems to deal with including education and health related issues among others:

*“The pressures that exist in normal day life prohibit people from thinking about the green concept, except for a certain class” (R7).*

These two reasons result in the nation not paying attention to the environment, as desired, therefore resulting in no one, on a governmental level, taking appropriate actions to tackle such issues. If governments were to give the environmental agenda attention, firms would likely be pressured

to adopt certain green measures. Green policies are considered not in place in Egypt, due to mainly lack of legality and an incomplete understanding of the problem.

It is assumed, according to participants' advocations, that if in Egypt there are appropriate green laws, a complete understanding of the environmental degradation the nation is contributing to, as well as benefits reaped from going green, the nation can start to direct many of its efforts and attract investors for resource acquisition to improving the situation. In terms of consumers, although some participants have mentioned that there are very few of them who are appreciative of a restaurant's green practices mainly the reduction of plastics. However, others still don't demand or even acknowledge such practices. Participants have pinpointed that the Ministry of Education is responsible for this gap in terms of societal awareness (R1, R13, R18). They argue that people should be taught about environmental issues or sustainability in general from an early age. They also asserted that educational curriculums in schools specifically are the reason why consumers now "aren't fully aware or cautious" (R4) when making environmentally-related decisions. And this in turn has led to the non-existent pro environmental behaviors in the country:

*"People's behavior is the deciding factor; whether you will be good or not" (R2).*

A society's environmental behavior, as articulated above, serve as a base for progressing forward in environmental issues. Such behaviors are mainly fostered through proper educational strategies. Participants even asserted that relevant educational topics, along with professional teachers and daily

physical acts of protecting the environment are key to building such behaviors.

Even though participants argued about the awareness deficiency in Egypt, proposals were put forward on how to improve this situation:

*"There must be awareness on TV. Educate people first about green. A lot of people don't understand what green is" (R3).*

*"Go on TV and talk about the environment, about green" (R7).*

In Egypt, or generally speaking, the media is a very important and impactful tool for a large segment of the society. Participants have called on the media for its advantages in influencing the society to foster green awareness. In fact, the media has advertised a recent campaign established by the Ministry of Environment called "Live Green" through certain channels including ads on TV, radio, billboards on the streets, as well as, on relevant social media accounts. Participants have mentioned the importance of social media and how it's their most common and direct way to communicate with their consumers. Suggestions also include any entities or people related to environmental protection, sustainability, health, etc. to take lead in speaking publicly about the importance of such issues:

*"We need people specialized in this to talk about it. Doctors...to say to reduce cholesterol you need to do this, so people don't get diabetes. Their sugar intake habits should change. These things...I think people who are academic and educated in this issue, due to their professions or related to the environment, as well as people who care and are affiliated with the health sector or doctors or people who are teaching*



*anything related to agriculture too. In the food & beverage industry”*  
(R9).

It is clear from the above arguments that, in general, environmental awareness is poor in Egypt. Participants have called on NGOs as well to contribute to raising environmental awareness. Raising environmental awareness of society is seen as a primary aspect in terms of adopting green measures. Raising awareness and improving environmental education is necessitated in order to proceed forward with the application of green practices which will gradually lead to higher demand for such an approach.

### **5.8 Theme five: Employee Management**

Many participants have spoken about the importance of employees when the firm is trying to go green. Almost all restaurants have agreed that employee management is a critical aspect; one that has a major contribution to the success of implementing green practices. In fact, it can be postulated that employees fulfil a major role for the restaurant business:

*“Actually, employees are the most important stakeholder because they are responsible for the implementation”* (R10).

This quote clearly shows the significance of employee engagement in green management adoption. Employees are critical, not only because they carry out processes, but also due to their participation in the consumption of some restaurant resources, contributing to harm caused by the restaurant. This means managing them accordingly is crucial. In fact, participants have highlighted some issues concerning employees, which from their perspective, act as a burden for the restaurant when aiming to become more

environmental-friendly. Some of the mentioned problems include education, awareness and culture as well as resistance to change, which altogether affect the employee's performance:

*"The biggest challenge I have is having to deal with the level of employees that are present in the restaurant, because it is very difficult. You are really going against all tides" (R15).*

Education is a key aspect, as articulated previously, for the adoption of green activities. Participants feel the educational level of most employees is not high. They argue that most employees, due to their non-continuation of education or poor education, are weak performers (R7, R10, R10).

Therefore, the level of education undoubtedly, as explained earlier, has an effect on one's level of perception and embodiment of certain values. One participant (R16) even highlights that, employees should have certain minimal values, and they, through management and training, can then gradually work on shaping them.

As put forward earlier and related to the educational issue, the lack of awareness is another problem participants speak of. The lack of awareness about the need and importance of carrying out environmental protection processes results in non-existent culture or a lifestyle that promotes environmental behaviors:

*"To them it is non-sense and they say "you are saying non-sense and we don't really care". Zero awareness because around 70% of these people haven't continued their education or are thinking about other things, or feel it's luxury and silly. They don't have this awareness" (R14).*

Awareness of environmental issues is believed to be a very important aspect relevant to overall employee performance (R5, R6). Awareness, along with education, ultimately translates into behaviors or general culture.

Participants argue that changing mentalities or teaching behaviors are a complex issue, unlike technical aspects. Since the problem lies within the boundaries of culture and behaviors, participants believe that change won't possibly be sustained over time or will take extra efforts to tackle.

Resistance to change is another factor hindering the execution of green practices. Restaurants have mentioned that in many instances, employees are reluctant to adapt to new ways of carrying out their work:

*"To them, it could be not functional and usually operations oppose any new ideas as they are scared this new thing could be a hassle to them, especially in delivery and takeaway" (R14).*

Resisting change in process execution is voiced by some participants (R1, R7, R10), where they believe that it is caused by fear of non-practicality or more effort required by the employee to carry out tasks in the 'new' requested manner. This is where and why opposition by the employee takes place.

Although the above show restaurant concerns about employees, there have been proposals put forward on how to tackle such employee issues including appropriate training, high morale and motivation (R6, R15), and most importantly believing in the environmental concept.

Participants (R4, R5, R12) have recommended the need for training employees on how to better perform their environmentally related tasks. Training can be in the form of workshops pertaining to education about the general protection of the environment, as well as, operational workshops

about how to best carry out their work; process optimization. This includes using the right type of packaging, how to carry out recycling related processes, reducing the consumption of water and energy, etc.

The second proposal to improving employee performance is ensuring high employee morale as well as motivation by the use of incentives. Few restaurateurs have stressed on how vital it is for employees to feel they are emotionally comfortable and financially satisfied:

*"They have to feel they are part of the place they are working at. And to love their work in order to feel comfortable so they become productive. They must take their right, financially. They will become careless and maybe ruin equipment. This is important. Labor must be emotionally comfortable. In order to preserve the place" (R13).*

Other participants have expressed similar claims on how employees need to feel this level of satisfaction if the restaurant desires a certain level of performance outcome. Few participants have pinpointed the importance of employee satisfaction, from a financial perspective:

*"They have to be treated well, paid well and motivated. Any savings...they need to see it directly in their pockets. I say that give it to the employees so when they are busy, they know this will add more money to their pockets. I think every penny you save by reducing your foot print is probably in the best interest of staff because you have extra cash so you can give raises" (R6).*

It can be argued that the use of incentives, specifically financial ones, will lead to both improved morale, which in turn will affect employee

performance. This is a common practice, yet it can be applied also to the achievement of a restaurant's environmental objectives. Since employees will be urged to aim for environmental protection while carrying out their tasks, an appropriate strategy would be to focus on offering rewards or use of incentives for accomplishing such objectives relevant to the environment. Lastly, yet very critical, is employees' belief in the concept of environmental preservation. Multiple participants have spoken about how employees need to have faith when it comes to conducting green practices:

*"Not just educated, they must believe. When they believe in it, the execution will be very different" (R16).*

It should be noted though, that an employee's mentality and beliefs are majorly affected by the management's mindset and approach. This means that, in most cases, unless management is also believing in the environmental concept and implementing appropriate strategies to promote it forward, employees will still lack this mentality (R8, R17). Similar to the concept of 'belief', some participants (R3, R15) have also mentioned that employees should be in alignment with and educated about the restaurant's vision and desired message. This can help in shaping employees' performance, in terms of how they carry out their tasks.

Moreover, employees are an important stakeholder not only because they contribute to a restaurant's overall performance, but also since they are considered the main channel of communication with consumers. Employees are expected in some situations to even educate and advise the consumer about their consumption decisions. This means that employees can be a decisive factor when considering green management efficacy and can be used as a tool as well to further promote positive environmental behaviors:

*"If I have amazing ideas, but I don't have the right people whom can communicate such things in the proper way, then I'm not doing anything" (R1).*

From the above claims, it is clear that restaurants need to initially try to select appropriate personnel; ones who believe in and value the environment. If this is not the case, then intensive training and education are required. This shows that managers/employees are paramount stakeholders when it comes to achieving environmental targets. Also, communicating environmental, green messages to guests can help in shaping their perspectives, which may lead to altering their attitudes and behaviors, thereby resulting in the reduction of environmental harm.

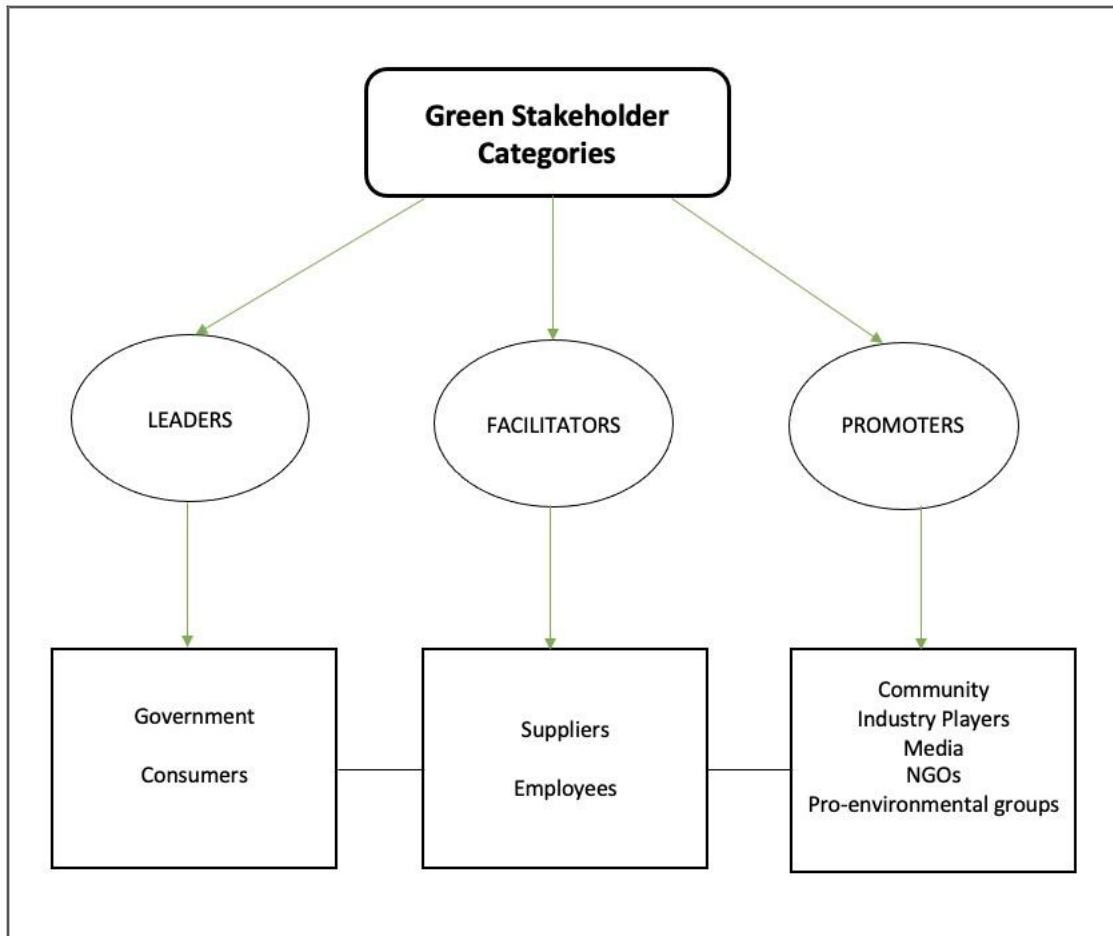
## **5.9 Theme six: Green Stakeholder Categorization**

The research initially intended to inquire about the stakeholder groups relevant to the greening of the restaurant industry. All participants have depicted similar stakeholder groups, which in their opinion, can aid the restaurant in becoming more environmental-friendly. This has been already put forth by earlier discussions in this chapter. However, even though participants agree about the relevance of such groups, it is evident from their claims that such stakeholders don't all play the same role. For example, the government and customers are seen as dominant stakeholders:

*"What will make us bring on change is either the government or the customer. If either of these oblige me to do it, I will oblige the supplier to offer me such things. It won't be any other way" (R10).*

The above quote implies that, according to participants, stakeholders serve different purposes and hence, can be categorized into three different groups. For these restaurants and according to their perceptions, the arrangement and therefore categorization of stakeholders are outlined in a specific way. From the claims made in this study, it is argued that stakeholder groups are mapped out differently according to restaurants in Egypt and, therefore, can be portrayed using a specific layout, as shown in Figure 5.2

**Figure 5.2 Green stakeholder categorization**



From participant perspectives and according to their postulations, restaurants foresee and desire stakeholder engagement according to how each of these stakeholder groups can contribute to the adoption of green practices in this specific industry.

Governments and consumers can be referred to as stakeholder leaders for their ability to effectively influence restaurants in adopting green measures:

*"If we get customer complaints about straws, then this is a push from our clientele to do something. They are invested in the environment and*



*they are invested in us, supporting you. I think you can't ignore this part" (R5).*

*"The consumer can resist any non-green product. This will force organizations, whether they like it or not, to become green" (R7).*

They are seen as ones to "lead" the way or drive implementation. It is only pressure from such groups that can result in a restaurant altering its processes or products to be more environmental-friendly. This coincides with the concept of stakeholder influence, where certain stakeholder groups have the ability to affect organizational behaviors. In this categorization, theories of saliency can be applicable. Simply, governments are considered entities of power, exercising coercive and utilitarian power, in relation to institutional and resource dependence theories. This means that, besides pressure to adopt green policies, governments also have the power to allocate certain resources, helping restaurants to be more environmental-friendly.

Consumers, on the other hand, when they demand green practices, would acquire a status of legitimacy, where restaurants are presumed to be inclined to respond. It can be argued then, that when each of these groups exercise such attributes, ultimately, they will gain urgency. This means, either separately or combined, claims by both the government and consumer, will result in restaurants firmly, promptly and actively responding to such claims. These restaurants will be motivated or mostly forced to do so to avoid punishment and to improve their image.

Suppliers and employees represent the second category of stakeholders and can be named as stakeholder facilitators, where they are viewed as groups that can operationally help the restaurant in performing and achieving their green activities. Such groups, on the contrary, can be persuaded and

perhaps pushed by restaurants to coincide with their green measures. In fact, restaurants can be stakeholders themselves, in the network model of stakeholders, especially in the case of suppliers, in becoming more green:

*"For us no, we developed our suppliers making them manufacture this line for us...It was easier to approach someone who is big in the market for sustainability and tell them I want to do my things as recycled paper" (R16).*

Restaurants can use their utilitarian power over their employees for not meeting green targets. In terms of suppliers, when there is high demand and laws pertaining to green production, they will automatically shift to become more green for example by offering environmental-friendly packaging or organic foods. In addition, restaurants, as argued earlier, can engage in developing their suppliers where they can guide them in producing green products. Employees are implementers. This means that they are responsible to carry out tasks in a certain way and achieve the restaurant's green targets. This can be achieved by proper training and use of incentives as put forth in the earlier discussion. These two groups contribute in making the implementation of green activities smoother and are considered means for operation, especially that restaurants can exercise certain measures to ensure their responsiveness and participation.

The rest of the stakeholder groups, namely media, community, competitors, NGOs and environmentalists or pro environmental groups will be stakeholder promoters, where they are seen as supportive to the overall green management application in restaurants, each fulfilling a certain role:

*"In terms of awareness, media must have a role in this" (R8).*

*"Some campaigns by NGOs could help" (R18).*

Such groups can provide additional aid, according to their specialty, where their contribution will further progress green management adoption in the restaurant industry through appropriate endorsement. Pro environmental groups, including mainly environmental scientists or recycling entities, can contribute in improving environmental education, as well as NGOs. Recycling entities, public or private, are ones that pick-up waste including paper, plastic, cans and oil and will be in charge of waste management, beyond the restaurant's control. The community, as argued earlier, is also vital to a firm, where it can enforce additional policies, possibly ones pivotal to the surrounding context, for enhancing the green environment. They can be seen as acquiring more of a supervisory role; to presumably direct and set further boundaries for restaurants in terms of environmental degradation.

## **5.10 Chapter summary**

This chapter discusses the generated themes and findings from the IDIs. A total of six themes have been presented, with the existence of a few sub-themes. It can be concluded from this chapter that restaurants sampled in this study face challenges when adopting green practices in their outlets. Participants have also put forth suggestions of how the different identified stakeholders can help in overcoming some of these challenges, allowing for better facilitation of applying some of green practices. To be more precise, it is clear that the decision to adopt which green practices is dependent on certain restaurant factors, such as type, location and customer market. However, on an external level, restaurants call for stakeholders' action, such

as the government, to establish green laws and engage in the provision of incentives.

In addition, suppliers are to provide authentic and reasonably priced organic foods, while NGOs can promote societal environmental awareness, including restaurants themselves, in terms of the know-how to go green. Internally, restaurants put emphasis on their employees, arguing their importance in achieving environmental goals. Employee education, training, incentives and beliefs were conveyed as influential and contributing aspects. Networking with other restaurants or stakeholders and designing more sustainable supply chains can help in reducing issues of trust felt by restaurants towards other stakeholders.

In order to fully meet the research aim and objectives, another tool for data collection was used in this study, which is the focus group discussion. Therefore, the purpose of the next chapter will present and discuss the findings from this stage of data collection.

## **Chapter 6 - Research Findings: Focus Group Discussion**

### **6.1 Introduction**

In order to meet research objectives and in addition to the in-depth interviews (IDIs), a focus group discussion (FGD) was planned and organized. Therefore, the purpose of this chapter is to introduce the profiles of participating stakeholders, how thematic analysis was carried out, including the presentation of the thematic map, followed by a detailed discussion of the generated themes.

### **6.2 FGD Participants**

The choice of stakeholders to attend the discussion was based on the list identified during the first stage of analysis (see Table 4.8). The researcher opted for a comprehensive list of stakeholders to participate in the discussion to gain as much insight as possible. Table 6.1 shows the positions of the stakeholders who have attended the discussion.

**Table 6.1 Stakeholders' Profiles**

<b>Stakeholder Group</b>	<b>Representatives</b>
<i>Government</i>	Legal Consultant for Minister of Environment (GE1) Head of Sustainable Development-Ministry of Environment (GE2) Environmental Tourism Consultant to Minister of Environment (GE3) Head of Chamber of Touristic Establishments-Ministry of Tourism (GT1) General Manager of Chamber of Touristic Establishments-Ministry of Tourism (GT2)
<i>Consumer</i>	Assistant Lecturer-AASTMT (C1) Doctor in Supply Chain Management-AASTMT (C2)
<i>Supplier</i>	Co-Founder-Wooden Straws (S1) Sales Manager New Cairo-Carton Packaging (S2) Sales Area Manager- Carton Packaging (S3)
<i>Employee</i>	Marketing department (E)
<i>NGOs</i>	Co-Director (NGO)
<i>Community</i>	Project Manager-Environmental biodiversity (Com)
<i>Pro-environmental groups</i>	Commercial Director-Start-up reselling food leftovers (P)
<i>Restaurants</i>	Marketing Manager-chain restaurants (R1) Owner-independent restaurant (R2)

One focus group discussion took place, which lasted 3.5 hours, where 16 participants were present; a total of 10 males and 6 females, all from Egypt. As shown in the above table in some cases, there was more than one participant representing a specific stakeholder group. For example, in terms of suppliers, a total of three participants took part in the discussion, one person representing a business, which manufactures wooden straws, and the

two others from another company that provides eco-packaging. The reason for recruiting more than one participant to represent a stakeholder group was to have more views on the topics to be discussed. In other words, having the opportunity to elicit more perspectives is seen as something valuable, which contributes to a richer discussion. It is important to note that two restaurant managers/owners also took part in the discussion, which was initially intended and earlier discussed in the methodology chapter. In specific, R2 is a restaurant owner, but they also engage in managing the restaurant and serving the customers.

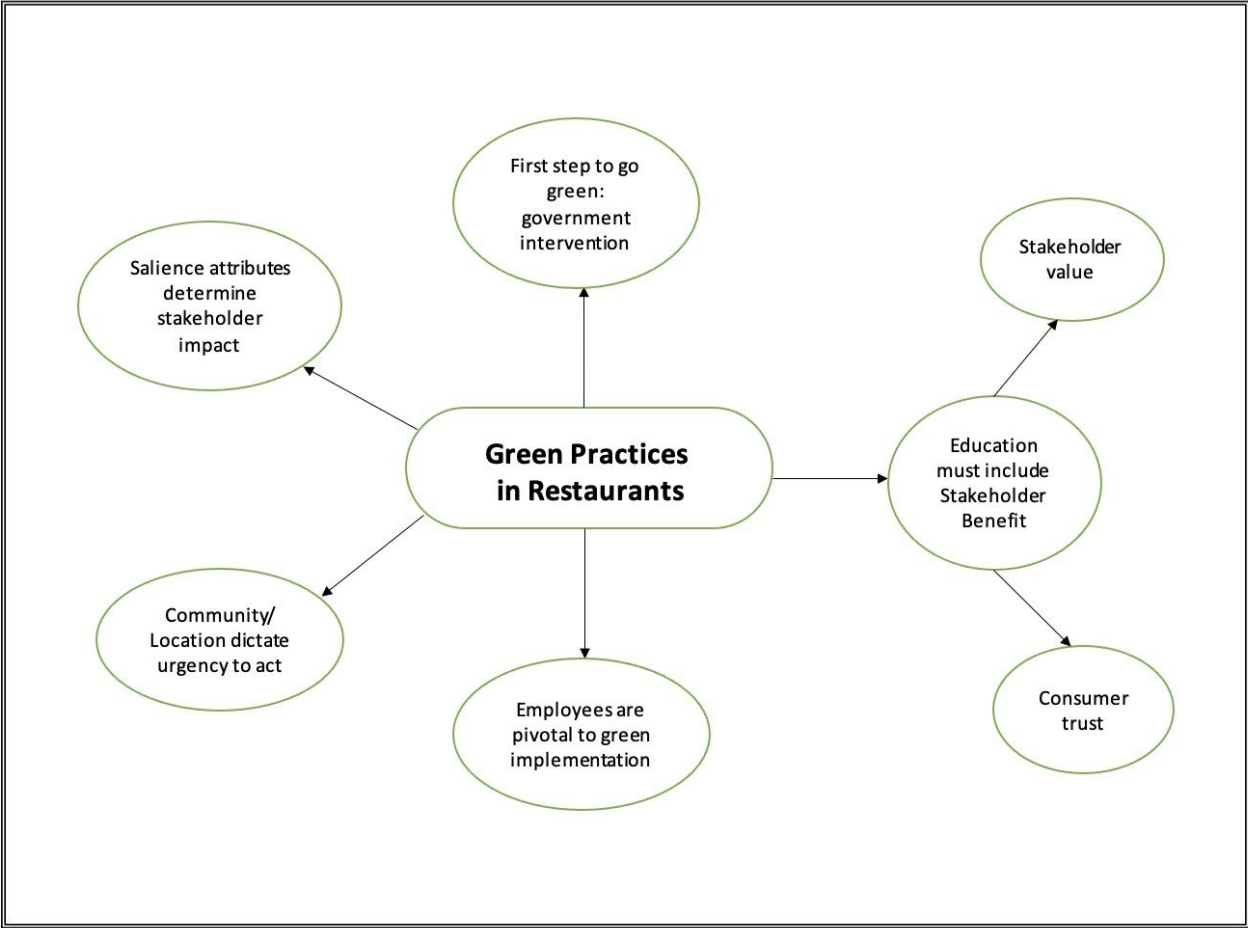
### 6.3 Emergent Themes and Thematic Map

After conducting data analysis, where the process was fully detailed and presented in the previous chapter, the thematic approach has resulted in the generation of a total of 5 themes, with relevant subthemes. Table 6.2 lists these themes and subthemes, while Figure 6.1 represents the thematic map generated from the data.

**Table 6.2 Emergent Themes from IDIs**

<b>Theme</b>	<b>Sub-theme</b>
1. First step to go green: government intervention	N/A
2. Employees are pivotal to green implementation	N/A
3. Environmental education must include stakeholder value	3.1 Stakeholder Benefit 3.2 Consumer Trust
4. Community/Location dictate urgency to act	N/A
5. Salience attributes help determine stakeholder impact	N/A

**Figure 6.1 FGD thematic map**



**6.4 Theme one: First step to go green: government intervention**

One of the main objectives of the focus group discussion was to elicit stakeholders’ perspectives on the important stakeholders for greening the restaurant industry and the demanded roles for each. During the discussion, all stakeholders have confirmed and urged the significance of the government’s green adoption and what is expected of it. This aligns with earlier findings from the in-depth interviews (see section 5.5.1). It is obvious that participants feel the government is a critical stakeholder, where their adoption of environmental dimensions serve as a basic foundation.



It is crucial that governments must initially pave the way to achieving environmental sustainability, where it is seen as consequential. To be more specific, participants have voiced that in order for the restaurant industry to thrive in its environmental agenda, the government needs to play an active, leading role. Even stakeholders present at the discussion representing the government, confirm that the Egyptian government is weak in this area and urge their involvement, which would serve as a positive step. GE2 articulates that the government has not been able to “prioritize the environment in the last decades” and GT1 states “Currently the government needs to take more strict actions”.

Concerning the government’s role, participants communicated that there are several aspects, such as green law establishment with relevant inspection mechanisms, infrastructure and granting of incentives that the government should focus on. All participants urged that the government needs to support the implementation of a greener environment, since it is very difficult to convince stakeholders to go green while the infrastructure and resources available do not correspond with this. For example, R2 explained how “it is futile” to encourage consumers to be more environmental-friendly while there’s still garbage sometimes thrown onto the streets. In fact, C2 confirmed this, where they argued that engaging in waste management, recycling in specific, is not possible “because services are not there”. This clearly shows that there’s a deficiency in the domestic waste management process, although a Waste Management Law No. 202 in 2020 was established to reuse, recycle, safe disposal and overall reduction of multiple types of waste including municipal, industrial, agricultural, demolition and construction waste (UN Environment Programme, n.d.).

Several recommendations were put forth by participants on how governments can be actively engaged, where governmental officials have agreed to and are encouraging such concepts. For example, the most common and urgent request was legality; the development of laws pertaining to the environment:

*"We need to start with government support. The government must take the decision to implement laws and that no licensing to be granted to manufacturers/suppliers unless they use biodegradable materials" (S2).*

*"Some people will not do anything unless they are forced by law. Awareness will take up to 10 years but with laws, 1 year" (P1).*

The above quotes clearly explain that government force is critical and serves as a basic, foundational step. Other participants, such as C1 and S3, assure that implementing regulations will make a huge difference, which is generally agreed upon by the rest of the participants as well. The above extraction as well suggests that awareness, although an important tool, yet it can be a slow, time-consuming method, where regulations are believed to have quicker effects. Participants have also mentioned that the government not only establishes appropriate policies, yet, it must carry out supervision or monitoring of such implementation, meaning it becomes obligatory. Some participants including C1, P, S2 and S3 favored enforcing penalties, such as enforcing taxes for plastic production, since the government is seen as an influential entity, capable of exercising its power. Suppliers, in specific, demanded this, since they feel they are viewed equally as plastic manufacturers, with no extra benefits for being green and at the same time using much more expensive materials. They communicated that they need to feel distinguished. Others, namely R1, believes green implementation is

already challenging, so it is better to grant incentives for businesses that adopt green criteria within their operations. This supports earlier findings, where restaurants demand incentives for going green. In fact, the provision of incentives was confirmed during the discussion:

*"There's a new article in the Egyptian solid waste management law that is currently being proposed with policies granting incentives for both the public & private sectors going green, including tax exemptions. Such incentives will definitely lead to prosperity in Egypt"* (GE1).

This statement, referring to the new law article mentioned above, shows that the Egyptian government is starting to not only acknowledge the importance of green management, but to provide tools for encouraging businesses for its adoption. Generally, all stakeholders agreed that any entity applying green measures should be offered an incentive for its proactive engagement in environmental aspects.

Government influence was a prominent concept during the focus group discussion. In fact, all participants have agreed that the government is one, in fact the only one, that needs to lead in the application of green activities:

*"The government must be leading this, and we follow"* (R1).

*"The government is the main entity in this issue"* (S3).

The government is seen by participants as a chief stakeholder. This also aligns with previous findings of the research, where restaurants believe the government is a leader for environmental implementation. This also signifies, which was claimed during the discussion, that the government is

one that displays stakeholder salience attributes of power, legitimacy and urgency:

*"I think the government has power and legitimacy" (C1).*

*"The government has power and enforcing laws will force others to comply" (Com).*

In Egypt, the government has the power to enforce certain regulations, if it chooses to. Once it has decided to implement a certain law or regulation, it ultimately acquires urgency, where businesses or even stakeholders would have to adhere to. Although S1 argued that the government doesn't possess urgency concerning this matter, since there are no green laws at the moment, requiring any entity to respond to such requests. Yet others (S2, C2, P, NGO), with indirect claims, implied that law establishment along with supervision would lead to others abiding, as argued above. This clearly refers to the acquisition of urgency.

In terms of legitimacy, although stated above, it seems participants imply that the power to enforce laws ultimately acquires the attribute of legitimacy. In other words, once the government has undertaken an environmental approach and put into effect relevant policies, it can be considered a legitimate stakeholder with urgent claims. Urgent claims lead to other stakeholders' action, including suppliers, retailers (restaurants), customers, media, etc. Conclusively, this shows that government influence, through action, can have high impact, resulting in major progress for greening the restaurant industry.

Government collaboration with other stakeholders is another issue that was explored during the discussion. Although the government, as articulated

earlier, is seen as a superior stakeholder in Egypt for promoting a greener restaurant industry, yet participants only conveyed that the government currently and popularly engages with mainly NGOs, ones with environmental causes. This affirmation parallels earlier findings, where networking between the relevant stakeholders is minimal to none. The reason for this may perhaps be due to governmental personnel initially lacking adequate knowledge concerning the environment.

### **6.5 Theme two: Employees are pivotal to green implementation**

During the focus group discussion, stakeholders have detailed and put great emphasis on the importance of employees in restaurants. Earlier analysis of interviews with restaurateurs has affirmed that employee management is a critical aspect for green implementation in the restaurant industry. To be more specific, participants including government, customers, suppliers, NGOs, employees, both management and the front-line owner (R2), agree that employees can advance green implementation:

*"Employees are ambassadors...they do represent the restaurant and we consider them to be very important to the business."* (R1).

*"They are able to determine the success of the place"* (NGO).

Participants strongly have confidence in employees as being promoters of green application. The reason for this is majorly due to the highly inevitable interaction between employees and restaurant consumers, taking place daily. Even though, as stated earlier, employee contribution is undisputed, participants (R1, S1, S3, P, C1) also argue that it is only effective under certain conditions, where employees are aware, trained, and provided with incentives:

*"If knowledge and training are higher, employees can transfer you to another level" (S2).*

An important aspect to be kept in mind, portrayed by S3, is that restaurants indeed have power over employees. However, during the IDIs (see section 4.8), most restaurant operators have urged that their staff was posing an obstacle for green adoption, in terms of their education and attitude. For example, restaurants can force certain policies to be followed by their employees. In case of employees not abiding by this, restaurants can engage in penalizing them. This clearly translates into restaurants, as an entity, maybe considered a stakeholder itself, from the perspective of other stakeholders, who have the ability to acquire salience attributes as well.

In terms of environmental awareness, stakeholders have voiced that restaurant employees require a sufficient amount of knowledge in order for them to engage in creating change. Progressing a restaurant's green targets necessitates that those employees are educated, from an environmental perspective:

*"They need to be aware/educated about how the environment is affected. They also need an incentive, mainly financial" (P).*

*"They must be taught and trained on environmental aspects in order to perform as expected" (S3).*

Awareness or education, mainly to be carried out by restaurants for their staff, generally refers to the same thing; to have the correct and proper amount of knowledge about environmental topics, including waste, energy

and water management, disposables & their harm, eco-friendly packaging, sustainable foods, etc.

Although awareness is very important, employee training is just as vital, and considered complementary. Participants mentioned that employees should be trained on how to carry out their tasks efficiently with minimum use of resources, features of eco-friendly products and how to use, and most importantly, marketing all this to the consumer:

*"Employees need training in order to help restaurants in going green"*  
(S2).

The idea of incentives has been already argued earlier. Employees, like other stakeholders, must be given incentives for their environmental performance or when meeting related targets:

*"I tell them, the branch that will sell the most recyclable cups will be given an extra 1000 pounds like tips"* (R1).

*"Any person engaging in green activities these days needs an incentive"* (S1).

The above quote is an example of how restaurant management can encourage employees to achieve green targets by provision of financial rewards. All three previous aspects, namely awareness, training and incentives, can lead to employees being capable of not only facilitating green application, but also heightening the success of its outcomes. This holds true, once again, due to the employee-consumer interaction within restaurant outlets. Employees have the ability, due to the nature of their relationship with restaurant consumers, to engage in inducing change:

*"Employees can convince consumers to use anything. They are actually responsible for retaining consumers" (C2).*

*"...they deal and engage with the consumer continuously...employees can help direct the consumer; they are quite critical" (GT2).*

Such an argument matches earlier postulations from interview findings (see section 4.8), that employees are considered of critical importance when going green in restaurants. This is attributed to the nature of the relationship between consumers and employees i.e., the high interaction between these stakeholders.

In order to ensure that employees are capable of fulfilling such roles, education and training need to be carried out by management. R1 has mentioned also that restaurant management should aim to instill environmental values in their employees, where they assert that employees perform better and are more encouraged when they actually "believe" in environmental protection. If employees are on the same page as management, it can be greatly presumed that they are able to transfer such behaviors to consumers, as put forth and agreed by (R1, C1, S1, E, GT2).

Surprisingly, with all above claims of how employees are proclaimed as valuable stakeholders, yet most participating stakeholders did not allocate them any salience attributes. In fact, S1 is convinced they lack all three attributes. Nevertheless, not because employees have not acquired any of the salience attributes, they are not important. It is obvious from participant articulations that employee contribution towards the environment is of undeniable importance. For example, although they don't possess power for example, to punish or possess certain resources, yet they can be considered "powerful" in terms of bringing about change, both in terms of operations



and in influencing consumer preferences and perhaps altering their mindset, in terms of the environment. In other words, they can significantly engage in influencing and persuading consumers.

### **6.6 Theme three: Education must include stakeholder benefit**

As already identified in earlier stages of analysis from restaurant interviews, environmental awareness is poor in Egypt and even amongst stakeholders. During the focus group discussion, all stakeholders spoke about the current deficiency regarding environmental knowledge. One of the points made during the discussion is that a clear understanding of green management and what it entails is required:

*"Education or 'know-how' is important. The concept of going green is different between stakeholders" (E).*

*"What are green practices? Each restaurant will have a different definition" (NGO).*

*"We need to teach people what initially what green is" (R2).*

The above quote shows that the general topics within green management need to be identified, tailored and communicated appropriately to stakeholders. This can also imply that given the nature of each stakeholder and their business or background, green may in fact be viewed differently, depending on one's context or business interest. In other words, in some scenarios, going green is about reducing plastics, managing water consumption or providing fresh, healthy foods. This matches initial postulations by the researcher (see section 5.4), where the choice of which

green practices to adopt differs, is not universal and can help shape the role each stakeholder needs to fulfill.

In terms of education, participants have voiced it should pertain to topics such as environmental protection, use of resources, aims of campaigns, eco products, etc. Although such matters are of great importance, yet health benefits needed to be embedded within environmental messages, specifically to consumers:

*"You need to integrate the safety or health of an individual when speaking about the environment; they are connected. We even have a motto called "environmental health" (GE2).*

*"We are working on awareness campaigns currently using ways that people can understand. For example, we speak about the benefit of the substitute and how plastic is dangerous and they themselves will be harmed at a later stage, since the whole ecosystem is affected, and we are part of that eco-system" (GE3).*

The above articulations by governmental stakeholders suggest that in Egypt, in order for environmental messages to be understood or even heard, they must be designed in a way to include the health dimension. During the discussion, other stakeholders, such as S1 and R2 also assured that the environmental agenda must incorporate the benefits accrued from a health perspective. For example, R2 recommended education should be about how one's health can be improved through consuming healthy cooked meals using fresh and properly grown ingredients; sustainable foods. Such meals would require healthy grown ingredients for example:

*"One won't change until they feel there's a personal benefit. I need to link it with something important for them" (R2).*

*"Society needs the right message. For example, the farmer will change their mentality when they feel they are directly affected. Their crops, their animals..." (Com).*

The above quotations show that environmental messages targeted at society should be framed around health. Generally, participants have recommended that stakeholders should try to engage in raising awareness to their staff or customers, namely suppliers, businesses such as the food leftover business and even restaurants. Also, However, stakeholders have assigned this greater role to the media. Participants have emphasized that media needs to take on the task of generally educating the society. Even one of the government representatives declared their need, in the Ministry of Environment, of the media to aid in raising awareness:

*"We wish people in the media to collaborate. Important people or entertainers to take part. Talk to people about the environment, what they eat, receipts/paper...if people know long it takes to grow a tree? Some things can't be compensated" (GE2).*

The concept of education and its effect on green implementation is important. The above quote suggests that one way to do this is through celebrity endorsement, which is a common marketing/advertising tactic. Important entertainment figures, such as singers, athletes, actors or famous people in general to support and promote the concept of environmental protection. In addition to the above articulations, during the focus group discussion, it was pronounced by suppliers and consumers that green

practices are seen as complementary to a restaurant's main offering, which are good food and service:

*"Any place people go to is because of its good food and not because it's eco-friendly. The most important thing for a client is food & service. I complete this concept. If the food is bad, they won't go, even if it's environmental-friendly" (S1).*

*"When I go to a restaurant, I first think about the food, not its packaging" (C1).*

The above participants see that any green practices adopted currently by restaurants are considered as peripheral. This shows that still most consumers in Egypt do not yet evaluate their choice of restaurant based on its environmental stance. Reasons attributed to this are majorly due to the limited number of establishments implementing green criteria, the low level of awareness, meaning they don't acknowledge for example the benefit of consuming sustainable foods, and the cost of green products, as highlighted earlier (section 4.5.2). C2 advocates that the application of green practices is viewed as a "bonus" provided by that restaurant.

### **6.6.1 Stakeholder value**

Since the objective of stakeholder theory is creating higher value, the researcher inquired about stakeholder value or benefits accrued when restaurants decide to adopt green measures. Communicating such benefits to each stakeholder must be part of the awareness-raising process. In other words, in addition to educating stakeholders about environmental protection and the means to do this, there should be focus also on how each stakeholder group can benefit from green adoption. It is believed that when

stakeholders learn there's an advantage for them when restaurants go green, for example such as health benefits for consumers, this might ultimately encourage them to be more active in going green:

*"We must teach the consumer something, like healthy foods, so they feel they have benefited and that they can apply it personally. This is why sick people with diseases for example come to me because they know my food won't make them sicker."* (R2).

Stakeholder value is presumed to be shaped around personal benefits, such as improved health, or encompassing greater business value, for example improved and higher supplier sales of eco-packaging/non-plastic materials. For consumers, eating healthy sustainable foods can, in some cases, improve their health. This can be through the reduction of certain diseases or simply living a healthy lifestyle. In the case of businesses specifically, such as eco-friendly suppliers, the inability to engage in environmental preservation may lead to business losses or even discontinuity. In general, participants have agreed that green management not only protects and improves the environment, but it also has social and economic benefits.

Each stakeholder group was pondering about how they would benefit from restaurants adopting green measures. For example, suppliers, from a business perspective, put forth that initially prices would decrease as demand increases, they would be able to do business in bigger markets, therefore, increased revenues and exposure of their product will result in feedback leading to innovations. On a personal level, S2 suggested that they would feel secure that they and their family are consuming environmental-friendly products and avoiding harmful ones. Also, the reduction of plastic would result in improved environmental protection for future generations.

Consumers in the discussion believe, on the other hand, that firstly their environmental values are acknowledged by other entities. This means that their goals would align with restaurants adopting green criteria and therefore would feel proud to dine at such an outlet:

*"It's an incentive for me to eat there" (C2).*

The participating consumers have expressed that the existence of green restaurants would reduce the struggle consumers who value the environment, when searching for eco food services. In this case, consumers would be able to promote the place, presumably through word of mouth. On social terms, it was indicated as follows:

*"People will have the same goals. There will be higher demand for this place. A unified goal will lead to support from the institution (restaurant). This will be considered as small steps towards turning into a green economy. Not just NGOs and consumers. Restaurants as well. Others will learn & be encouraged to follow" (C1).*

From the above quote, it can be seen that if restaurants engage in environmental protection, this will have multiple benefits. For example, increased demand will require higher supply, meaning suppliers have a market and a green economy needs relevant governmental action. This corresponds with the benefit believed to be acquired by the government when restaurants go green, which is full legal compliance with the national legislation. Industry players as well i.e., other restaurants may feel persuaded to go green themselves. In fact, during the discussion, one restaurant mentioned this:

*"If we are a group of restaurants with the same goals, we will be powerful enough to influence the industry and carry out awareness"*  
(R2).

This idea parallels interview findings (see section 5.5.3), where the researcher postulated that few restaurants network with industry players for exchange of information and, in some instances, engage in brainstorming and problem-solving industry related issues.

The participant (COM) representing the community has justified that when restaurants do try to go green, the advantages are threefold; social, economic and environmental. Socially, there will be a market for local suppliers, meaning more profit, which benefits the economy as well, or better yet, ones located geographically near the restaurant. They go on to mention that the adoption of such practices by restaurants will also "increase awareness in some areas about national local culture and heritage" (COM). For example, this can include how foods can alternatively be better prepared, from a health perspective or the management of resources including water and energy.

In other words, restaurants can reduce their electricity usage during certain hours or allocate certain amounts of water to be used, adhering to earlier traditions of this specific community. Such examples will result in preserving the community and its rich resources. It should be noted that procuring from nearby suppliers lowers pollution from transportation for example. Concerning the economy, as stated above, there will be less use of resources which translates into more profit and perhaps can be advantageous to business partners. For the environmental dimension, clearly, the optimization of resource use, such as water and energy, will reduce impact,

therefore achieving environmental protection. Managing restaurant waste, as well, has its benefits. It is proposed that awareness, as well once again, will be heightened, where chances of improving the environment are expected to be higher.

NGOs, as described by the representative stakeholder, are seen to be served differently from this act; restaurants going green. They articulate that such movement validates their initiatives:

*"When the number of restaurants going green increases, it reinforces the awareness narrative we carry out. It becomes more realistic"*  
(NGO).

The above extraction shows that the adoption of environmental criteria in restaurants increases credibility for such organizations. In other words, NGOs will be able to provide businesses with real life examples, as case studies, to support their campaigns, and environmental causes. They feel it creates more rationale as they are preaching and raising awareness about environmental topics. Also, the existence of eco-friendly supply, due to higher demand, will make environmental targets more achievable. Last but not least, when restaurants adopt green measures, employees who are trained and educated on such concepts, would benefit in the sense that they feel they have contributed to achieving environmental sustainability:

*"I think employees who have this environmental sense and support this...working at a place that acknowledges and tries to achieve environmental protection is something that makes us feel that we are at the right place and somehow, we speak the same language"* (E).



From the above, employees who are pro-environmental preservation feel that working at a place where their values correlate with management, is validating. It was expressed that a sense of comfort is felt by employees because management is opting to carry out operations in a way where everyone will benefit in the long run, with minimal damage, either from a health or environmental perspective. Also, for them, working in such an environment gives them encouragement and acts as a trigger to promote and enhance the restaurant's green adoption.

When restaurants implement green criteria in their outlets, this has tremendous positive effects. All stakeholders are seen to benefit from different dimensions, whether personally or from a business perspective, as well as improvement on economic, social and environmental levels.

### **6.6.2. Consumer trust**

During the discussion, issues of trust and customer skepticism were brought up once more. In earlier stages of the analysis (see section 4.6), lack of trust emerged as one of the main issues apparent among restaurants towards stakeholders, namely the government, suppliers and NGOs. However, during the focus group discussion, participants have argued that end users (consumers), in addition to customers, feel skeptical about green products or are questionable about the use of food leftovers. The following extraction expresses this:

*"Everyone asks 'how will I benefit or save money'? the customer has low awareness and there's always conspiracy around 'why are you doing all this? selling for half price, surely something is wrong with it'.*

*They don't consider that the restaurant is trying to reduce waste & think about the environment" (P).*

The above quote is very indicative; firstly, they think about the benefit acquired from this or "what's in it for me?". This clearly refers to the importance of communicating and validating stakeholder benefit, as explained above. Secondly, it explicitly shows that customers lack the adequate level of environmental education, to the extent that they are doubting the intentions of the business operators as well as their work. Customers feel that if a percentage of profit is somehow sacrificed, then there's a hidden agenda. The business operator declared that they use their social media accounts to educate customers by posting certain messages. For example, on their mobile application, there are flashing messages including "save the environment, have an impact" and "buy or donate".

Another stakeholder, a supplier (S1) specifically, has also mentioned that sometimes clients at upscale restaurants complain about the wooden straw and believe the wooden product is reused. They go on to explain that such consumers feel the restaurant has no credibility, which results in restaurants lowering their purchased volumes. This in turn causes a rise in the price of the product. They go on to mention the following:

*"Yes, I am trying to build a brand, but I'm trying to teach you to use my product because it is better than plastic. the problem is that we didn't carry out any awareness about the product or what happens to it" (S1).*

The participating customers in the discussion perceive suppliers maybe doing this for the image. This is something that has also been discussed before

with restaurant management, about how some restaurant participants question the intentions of other stakeholders (see section 5.6). This concept is restressed; there's a lack of trust towards some stakeholder products, processes or even intentions. As mentioned above, such obstacles may somehow be reduced by simply improving awareness.

A good step has been taken last year, where decisions have been made to modify curriculums in schools starting grade 4 (aged 9), to integrate environmental topics including environmental importance and protection. This includes how the environment is impacted and possible ways to preserve the country's natural resources. Gazette Staff (2021) write that both ministries of environment and education are co-operating to introduce environmental protection into schools, in order to raise awareness.

#### **6.7 Theme four: Community/Location dictate urgency to act**

From the analysis of interviews with restaurant management (see section 5.4), it was interpreted that green practices are contextually based, where even different types of restaurants i.e., upscale vs. quick service restaurants, for example, applied different practices. During the focus group discussion, this was precisely affirmed, where it was clear that green practices are not universal, and are in fact, differently perceived by stakeholders according to importance. To be more concise, perhaps green practices are traditional in that they aim to minimize waste and optimize efficiency. However, stakeholders put emphasis, and therefore, prioritize green practices differently, where they pay attention and implement ones that would serve to resolve or manage critical issues in their surrounding environment:

*"Sometimes there's no rule for identifying what's important. It depends on location and what's happening at that time there" (S2).  
"Restaurants in rural areas have different problems than ones in the city" (NGO).*

It is evident from the above quotes that location is one of the decisive factors. Location, which in stakeholder terms, refers or can be considered to encompass community, decides which environmental problems require immediate attention and, therefore, strategies as solutions. In most cases, the result is the imposing of certain green measures in a given context:

*"Just like the Zamalek community... there are initiatives to eliminate plastic bags because of the Nile" (R1).*

This shows that issues of concern requiring attention, which can be referred to urgency, in a certain context leading to action. Critically deciding on salience attributes for each stakeholder by participants was found to be a bit challenging. Yet, when it came to rating the community, it was allotted, without hesitation, the three salience attributes of power, legitimacy and urgency:

*"Community has all three. The policymaker, the location and the people around me" (S1).*

The participant, from the above quote, rated the community as having all three attributes, which other participants have not argued against, yet, not all have agreed with either. The policymaker refers to the governor and the community developers. Location dictates crucial problems and the people refer to mainly any stakeholder existent within that community "boundary",

such as consumers, suppliers, NGOs, etc. Although it can be interpreted that attributes may not be existent altogether at the same time, as claimed above, yet, pressing issues trigger the development of the other two attributes. In other words, urgency is dominant in a community context, thereby driving power and legitimacy:

*"Critical issues in the community lead to power. So, it's like, we can't keep on doing this anymore, because we can't afford the damage"*  
(R1).

Even though the participant refers only to urgency and power, yet it can be postulated that when these attributes are combined, legitimacy is a given. In other words, legitimacy in this context seems to be perceived as the weakest of all three attributes. For example, once a stakeholder has urgent claims and the power to force others to meet their demands, legitimacy is trivial. This can be supported by earlier articulations from interviews, where a certain restaurant affirmed that the managing company for a certain community set regulations for water management. Water usage in that specific community is a major issue, where community heads require efficient water management. If the restaurant fails to abide by this, a fine is given. This shows that urgency and power are superior and far more "leading" than legitimacy. Regardless how these claims of water management are viewed, whether they parallel to society norms or not, which in the case of Egypt is still not something acknowledged, other stakeholders have to follow. Even if the restaurant is not convinced or sees it as not customary, they are forced to apply such policies. This shows that legitimacy is inferior, most likely in cases where urgency and power are exercised.

As claimed earlier by the NGO, that location is a decisive factor, they have also asserted that NGO influence varies according to geographic location:

*"NGOs in rural communities or the countryside have higher influence than local districts, unlike in civilized areas"* (NGO).

NGOs, considered the link between society and the formal sector, are seen to perhaps facilitate change creation, mainly in terms of waste management. According to the NGO stakeholder (NGO), they have collaborated before with the local unit in Dahshour to manage garbage disposal, since it was seen as a concerning problem i.e., urgency. The local unit, an entity within the governmental umbrella, possesses power, resulting in giving NGOs some level of legitimacy to act. In return, restaurants located there, to avoid any tensions, have had to follow certain guidelines on where to dispose of their garbage.

## **6.8 Theme five: Salience attributes determine stakeholder impact**

During the focus group discussion, the concept of stakeholder salience was deduced, with the aim of gaining greater understanding, in the form of the three common attributes of power, legitimacy and urgency. Stakeholder salience, an articulation of stakeholder theory, was presented by Mitchell et al. (1997), where the authors critically argued salience attributes can be used for managing stakeholder prioritization. At first, participating stakeholders were debating on how to evaluate each stakeholder group; which attributes are possessed by each stakeholder. It was considered an obscure process initially, however, after further explanations of these attributes, it became easier to vet participant articulations and descriptions

of stakeholder salience attributes. At this point, it was clear that salience theory irrefutably determines stakeholder impact, and therefore is not a technique used for stakeholder prioritization in this given context. An explanation for this may be contextual, where in Egypt, stakeholders are currently not at a position to pressure restaurants to go green, indicating that this method does not help to evidencing stakeholder prioritization. In fact, there are several interesting claims that need to be addressed. In addition to salience attributes predicting stakeholder influence, analysis shows that there may be stakeholders who lack salience attributes yet are very important for the focal entity, which is presented later in this section. Another point to be highlighted is that salience attributes perhaps exist on a continuum, where negative levels of an attribute are possible. Salience attributes, a major argument made during the focus group discussion, can shift from one stakeholder to another. All these claims will be explained next in detail.

During the discussion, participants were debating about salience attributes accounted to all stakeholders. It was noticed that as participants were deciding on which attributes fit each stakeholder group, their evaluative process was according to stakeholder influence or role. In other words, participants allocated salience attributes according to assumptions on how each stakeholder can direct or sway the adoption of green practices in Egypt. For example, the participating NGO (NGO) explained how they would acquire legitimacy, once the local unit who assumes power, decides to tackle waste management in a certain area. In such a scenario, the restaurant and other service providers in that specific area were forced to place their garbage in a certain location. Therefore, the legitimacy of the NGO was able to influence the implementation of waste management. Also, restaurants present in the focus group discussion did not categorize stakeholders for

prioritization purposes. In fact, they did evaluate stakeholders according to how they, from their perspective, can aid in achieving environmental objectives. In other words, they were considering stakeholder roles and how that would affect the green transition and the resultant positive effects on restaurants.

Mitchel et al. (1997) hold that the existence of salience attributes represents stakeholder importance, with more attributes meaning higher salience. Yet the researcher argues that some stakeholders, although with no acquired attributes, on the contrary, are extremely important for the focal organization i.e., restaurants. The researcher argues that there is a dichotomy between salience attributes and the importance of stakeholder engagement. The simplest example of this are employees, who are seen as “ambassadors” to restaurant operations, when going green. Employees represent a major stakeholder, with restaurants affirming this, during both stages of data collection. Without employees’ engagement, which needs to be fostered by restaurant management through training and incentives and is seen as very influential, a restaurant would not be able to achieve or even implement any green targets.

In the case of eco-suppliers at the moment, one of the participating suppliers (S1) believes they don’t possess any attributes. They are believed to have no power to force anything or even possess any important resource, no legitimacy, since they are marketing products not popularly demanded by society, and therefore, no urgency. On the other hand, R2 stated that eco-suppliers, who are very few now, have power over restaurants in terms of the prices they set. The following table shows the evaluations made for each stakeholder.



**Table 6.3 Evaluations of stakeholder salience**

<b>Stakeholder</b>	<b>Power</b>	<b>Legitimacy</b>	<b>Urgency</b>	<b>None</b>
Government	x	x	x	
Consumer	x		x	
Supplier	x			x
Employee				x
Community	x		x	
Pro environmental groups				x
Industry Players	x	x		x
NGO		x	x	
Media	x			

Governments obviously possess power and if exercised, will lead to urgency. Legitimacy will also be acquired because if the government adopts such an issue, society in time will begin to accept such norms, where they will become standard. Consumers, if the government applies its power, can become holders of power themselves, where they can actively request greener products and services and once again will have urgent claims. In the case of suppliers and industry players (including the restaurant), there were mixed evaluations. Concerning suppliers, in specific S1, they accorded themselves as having no salience attributes at the moment in order to influence the sale of their green products. On the other hand, R2 claimed that these suppliers have power since they control the prices of the eco-products they produce, since there are currently only few eco-suppliers in the country.

In terms of industry players, the participating employee (E) believed that if restaurants work collaboratively on progressing the adoption of green practices, they are perceived as powerful. Also, if governments employ the relevant green laws, restaurants (industry players) will be viewed as legitimate when they begin to implement environmental measures. Employees were not given any attributes; participants voiced that, although very important, yet they are paid to do as told and one of the ways to have them perform tasks as required is through the provision of incentives in addition to raising awareness. Communities are attributed power and urgency. This is because they constitute some sort of governmental personnel, such as governors and property managers or private businesses. At the moment, pro-environmental groups were also not given any attributes, due to their inability to be powerful and imposing legitimate claims.

NGOs, specifically articulated by the participating NGO (NGO), claimed that they can possess legitimacy and urgency, if supported by the community in a certain location. In other words, if the community enforces a certain regulation, it may acquire these two attributes, yet legitimacy more than urgency. Urgent claims are of timely importance, requiring immediate attention (Mitchell et al. 1997), where in this context, NGOs can rarely be urgent stakeholders. Participants including R1, C2, P, GE2, GT1 agreed that the media is a powerful stakeholder, yet it needs to be driven initially by another stakeholder. In other words, the media will not act as an initiator in the implementation of environmental measures.

Another interesting concept, put forth by a participant, is that salience attributes perhaps exist on a continuum, meaning they can be positive or negative, and exist in levels:

*"If the government doesn't enforce laws, that's negative power" (C1).  
"I think each stakeholder doesn't possess these attributes with the same intensity. I mean the government is definitely more powerful than communities or so. Urgency can be stronger for consumers than suppliers" (R2).*

This means that when rating a stakeholder, one can evaluate each attribute as either being positive, neutral or negative. For example, considering the government, when it doesn't enforce laws and chooses not to punish people for not abiding, it is then exercising negative power. Having neutral power refers to its ability and capacity, as an entity, to enforce regulations and penalize others for not following. In other words, neutral power is when the stakeholder possesses or is accorded the attribute. Finally, positive power is when the government does in fact exercise this power by passing laws and putting penalties into action. Therefore, the idea that salience attributes take the form of different levels, i.e., positive, neutral and negative means that if for example two stakeholders have power, even if it's positive power, it may not be with the same intensity. This means that one stakeholder can have a higher degree of power than another in the network of stakeholders. This can be applied to communities, as found in this study, where they are able to enforce minimal regulations over businesses within their geographic scope. However, if compared with the government, it is perceived as much less powerful. Another example would be communities having higher urgency than consumers. Communities can drive change, in certain locations, where consumers won't have the same degree of urgency.

Shifting attributes is another variation that was apparent during the discussion. It can be postulated that salience attributes of one stakeholder can be transferred to other stakeholders when certain actions are taken. Put

differently, it is believed that stakeholder salience attributes are interdependent and not independent. This strengthens the idea that stakeholders do exist in a network, and their attributes exist in an interplay. For example, when the government passes certain laws for the adoption of green management, it can shift some of its power, or in other words, trigger the power of green suppliers:

*"You will have power because there are few options for eco-products. Especially if there are minimal competitors. So, we must resort to you"*  
(R2).

This quote shows that suppliers will acquire power, since they will be possessing an important resource for restaurants and will have the ability to set certain prices. Eco-suppliers will have the upper hand and will be considered superior while non-eco suppliers, such as plastic producers, will be possessing negative legitimacy. Another example is when governments apply laws and suppliers are able to provide such materials, consumers can then acquire urgency. Consumers will be able to request and demand that restaurants provide greener options. It can be presumed governments and consumers can share urgency. This will lead to also industry players "becoming more legitimate" (R1).

Participants also spoke of the media, where one stakeholder mentioned the following:

*"The media can give someone legitimacy, yet it can't work on its own"*  
(S3).

Participants discussed that the media is a major influencer in the Egyptian society and due to this, as mentioned earlier, the Ministry of Environment is urging for its help in spreading awareness. However, it is believed that the media needs something to drive it, presumably urgent claims from the government, as it's seen as the most influential. Consequently, the media can then trigger the legitimacy of other stakeholders, when it publicizes the issue. If the media begins to advertise environmental protection and raise sufficient awareness, it will show that such an issue is becoming of some importance within society. As people become more familiarized with such topics, other stakeholders for example such as NGOs, suppliers, and restaurants will become more evident and begin to acquire legitimacy from the perspective of others in society.

The above arguments show that stakeholder salience attributes represent characteristics for understanding stakeholder influence or role for going green. It was also noticed that salience attributes can exist in degrees, with possible negative levels denoted to stakeholders. Additionally, attributes can be transferred from one stakeholder to another, according to certain actions. In other words, all these postulations lead to the fact that such stakeholders are likely to exist in a network, where salience attributes can shift from one stakeholder to another, and their intensity level can change (from positive to negative).

## **6.9 Chapter summary**

The purpose of this chapter was to present the themes emerging from the focus group discussion. A total of 5 major themes were discussed, which were representative of the data collected during this discussion. Some of the themes mirrored some earlier generated themes from the in-depth interviews, which include ones pertaining to government support and employee role in implementing green practices. Government support mainly included the establishment of laws and regulations, which are expected to be enforced onto restaurants and all stakeholders. In terms of employee role, it was put forth that they are an important stakeholder for progressing the adoption of green practices in restaurants. This can be achieved through education and training, as well as offering appropriate incentives.

There were also some issues that were reconfirmed during the focus group discussion, such as the need for awareness and location being a factor when considering adopting green practices. Yet, in terms of awareness, during the focus group discussion, it was evident that value must be embedded within environmental education and should be communicated accordingly to each stakeholder. Location, as has been introduced in the findings of the in-depth interviews, is seen as a significant variable, and is highly correlated with a specific community. They were both found to drive the urgency attribute.

Other new issues that have arose during the discussion pertaining to stakeholder salience, where it was found that it is a predictor of stakeholder impact and that salience attributes are transitory, where they may shift from one stakeholder to another, according to other stakeholder actions. The next chapter will combine both findings from the in-depth interviews and the focus group discussion to present an overall discussion.

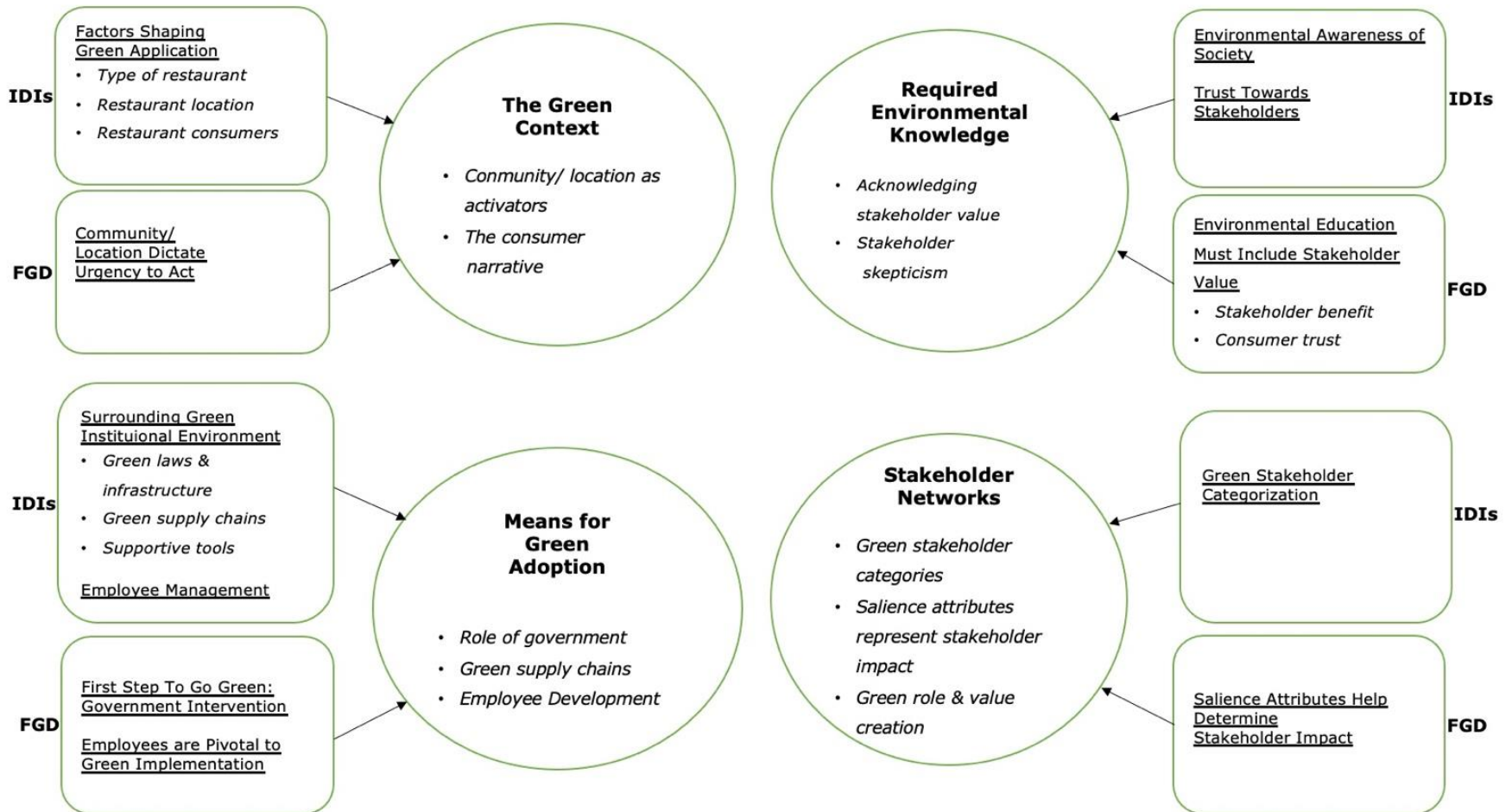
## **Chapter 7 - Discussion of Research Findings**

### **7.1 Introduction**

During both the interviews and focus group discussion, restaurants and stakeholders have listed, discussed and explained some challenges to green adoption and the possible roles stakeholder groups should play, including restaurants. Concerning analysis, the researcher chose a certain layout presumed to give a clearer picture of the research output. The findings of both the in-depth interviews and focus group discussion were presented in chapters 5 and 6 respectively. In turn, they were critically combined to present important and concrete research outcomes, in order to serve the purpose of this chapter. Figure 7.1 shows the themes that have emerged from each data collection tool i.e., the IDIs and FGD along with their combined and new discussion sections.

Within each section, there is expected to be an overlap, validation or even comparison between the different themes. The researcher believes this is a straightforward, rigorous technique allowing the reader to get a full picture of research outcomes. It should be noted though, that due to the nature of qualitative research, some concepts may be re-highlighted in different sections, yet presumably with varying perspectives or to give further support. The rest of the sections will be presenting discussions of the research findings.

**Figure 7.1 Links between generated themes & discussion chapter**





## 7.2 The Green Context

Green management is generally defined as performing business processes and delivering products/services in an environmentally safe way (Robinot and Giannelloni, 2010; DiPietro and Gregory; 2013), with focus on minimizing waste, reusing materials, the provision of sustainable foods and efficient resource management (Jang et al., 2011; Namkung and Jang, 2013; Kwok et al., 2016). The restaurants sampled in this research align with these concepts for environmental protection, which are embedded within the umbrella of green management discussed in literature (Han et al., 2009; Wang, 2016) and resembling the green indicators of restaurant management (Legrand et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2013; Kwok et al., 2016; Park et al., 2021).

To be more specific, some of the sampled restaurants adopt similar strategies for waste reduction in terms of food and water, plastic elimination, the reuse of certain items, as well as, communicating the benefits of environmental activities so i.e., green communication. Such perceptions of green management are similar to types of green practices in earlier studies namely food, environment and administration focused (Choi and Parsa, 2006; Hu, 2015; Kwok et al., 2016; Park et al., 2021). Also, restaurants tend to adopt green practices mainly due to cost savings, improved operational and financial performance (Perramon et al., 2014; Jang et al., 2017; Alonso-Almeida et al., 2018) and improved reputation/image and competitiveness, echoing the arguments made by Hu et al. (2010), Han et al. (2011), Tan and Yeap (2012), Bagur-Femenias et al. (2013), Jeong et al. (2014) and Baloglu et al. (2020).

It was clear from restaurant interviews, in fact an emergent theme, that green practices are not standard or universal for all restaurants. Such a finding parallels with articulations of Meager et al. (2021), where it was claimed that different restaurants in the UK adopted a variety of green practices, although there was no specified reason for this. However, in this study, it was discovered that the restaurants in Egypt applying green activities don't have the same characteristics. This means that there are aspects or factors that determine which green practices a restaurant chooses to adopt. In other words, restaurant type, location and consumer base are decisive of the green measures implemented within the restaurant outlet.

In terms of restaurant type, as put forth in the previous chapter, high-end restaurants were found to focus on preventing plate waste, which parallels with Tan et al. (2018), accomplished by training chefs in Malaysia on providing small portions. Sakaguchi et al. (2018), in US restaurants, as well as Dhir et al. (2020) have asserted that chefs can increase or on the contrary, limit food waste. Managing portion sizes in restaurants in Italy leads to minimizing the amount of food waste, as recommended by Tatano et al. (2017). Rady et al. (2021) argue that food waste in hotels in Hurghada can be managed through decreasing portion sizes, educating and rewarding consumers for taking leftovers and quantifying generated waste levels. In general, food waste in the hospitality industry is a one of the major issues contributing to environmental degradation (Massow and McAdams, 2015; Filimonau and De Coteau, 2019; Lang et al., 2020).

On the other hand, restaurants that are quick service (QSR) or are more casual, tend to focus on eliminating plastics and carrying out food donations. Also, it was found that QSRs heavily engage in green education and community development. The fact that restaurants of different types favor

certain green practices originally aligns with claims of Jang and Zheng (2020) for restaurants in the U.S. Yet, in this research, there were some variations from their findings. For example, although it can be agreed that upscale restaurants give more attention to managing their water and energy usage, yet they weren't the only type of restaurant to focus on employee training. In Egypt, the sampled QSRs, in specific, are very active in training their employees on environmental aspects. In fact, during the focus group discussion, it was a QSR restaurant that described employees as "ambassadors". More casual, quick service restaurants tend to engage in environmental green practices, for their heightened impact on the environment, such as using recyclable materials and green communication, corresponding with thoughts of Namkung and Jang (2013).

Also in this study, chain restaurants engaged in food donations the most, as a way to tackle their food waste (Salzberg, 2019), as previously stated by Pirani and Arafat (2016) and Miroso et al. (2018) for cafes in New Zealand. It is either distributed to poorer people in neighboring areas, as supported by Amato and Musella (2017) in Italy and Bharucha (2018) in Mumbai, or simply given to staff (Dhir et al., 2020). It was mentioned by few a restaurants that they tried initially to convince and encourage the consumer to take away their leftovers, aligning with Stockli et al. (2018), for consumers in a Swiss pizzeria. Another tactic is re-selling unsold or uneaten foods at lower prices, with the help of social organizations, same as the participating pro environmental group in the focus group discussion. This was also found by Perrigot et al. (2021). It is probable such a green practice is favored by chains, including QSR and casual restaurants, due to their higher levels of food leftovers than upscale restaurants.

Although these distinctions were found, it should be noted that restaurant types are not strict in adopting such practices. Different types of restaurants favor or appeal to different green activities, such as upscale opting for resource efficiency while QSRs put more emphasis on lowering their plastic usage. Yet, these restaurants can also choose to adopt other types of green practices, which may be uncommon for each group. For example, although upscale restaurants favor minimizing food waste through proper menu planning and training chefs, one upscale restaurant in specific was found to offer wooden straws. Minimization of plastics is more favored by the less luxurious style of restaurants. It can be argued that if the green activity is within the restaurant's green vision, affordable and can reap benefits, it will be adopted.

The green vision mirrors a restaurant's environmental goals. These include the reduction of plastics, the use of more eco-friendly packaging, sourcing more fresh and local ingredients, waste minimization and most importantly green education. In this case, having a green vision means making efforts in achieving the above practices, with the aim of becoming more environmental-friendly and having less impact on the environment. For example, the reduction of plastics and switching to more eco-materials, such as reusable table cloth, will help in reducing restaurant waste. Sourcing more locally means buying more fresh ingredients, developing local suppliers and reducing transportation pollution. Waste minimization strategies can help in managing food leftovers and food waste. Finally, green education is increasing environmental awareness; communicating the benefits of environmental protection to employees, consumers, suppliers and within communities and the importance of their engagement.

### ***7.2.1 Community/location as activators***

The second element in green adoption is restaurant location. This was put forth during the interviews with restaurants and reconfirmed during the focus group discussion as well, where some participants have agreed that certain communities, in specific locations, require restaurants to follow certain regulations. For example, restaurants located near the sea, namely in the Red Sea area, are obliged to mainly segregate their waste and not use plastic bags due to their closeness to the sea. It was also found that a restaurant in a certain community in Cairo has restrictions on water usage because the water bills are quite high. The idea that restaurants in certain locations “behave” differently was found during both stages of data collection where, for example, being located near the Red Sea, where plastics fly off causing marine litter, acts as a trigger for change. Communities in the Egyptian context i.e., this study, includes more stakeholder groups than just local residents, as portrayed in earlier stakeholder literature. These mainly include governors and/or private management entities of commercial and residential buildings or neighborhoods.

It should be noted that these restaurants focus on these green practices, not because they favor them, but because they are forced to operate this way by the community, which encompasses the governor, property managers and possibly residents, within which they are situated. Therefore, being exposed to certain environmental issues, in a specific context or location, drives communities to dictate which green practices need to be implemented.

The above arguments were further confirmed during the focus group discussion, where a theme named 'community/location dictate urgency' was developed. This stresses the fact that communities, in some instances, can have the power to trigger change within that specific community, through policy enforcement for restaurants, as put forth earlier (see section 5.4.2). It was pronounced by a restaurant during the discussion that environmental related problems occurring contextually in that specific location determine which green practice needs to be given attention. This translates into communities, as a stakeholder constituting private management companies along with governors i.e., the government, having the ability to induce environmental change for critical issues taking place in that specific community. This is related to the case of the restaurant located in Katameya Heights having to adhere to water usage and management policies.

Another example was given, where an NGO for environmental protection, namely combating the use of plastic bags, carries out initiatives in a certain community, located by the Nile. NGOs co-operate with mainly retailers, encouraging them to stop using plastic bags. Therefore, the urgency of issues in the environment, for example such as plastic bags flying off becoming litter in the Nile, is able to drive change resulting in stakeholders initiating action, meaning at times it could be a highly influential attribute. Pressure from external stakeholders to adopt environmental practices is common for hospitality enterprises, where it is highlighted that the community is an important tourism stakeholder in terms of sustainability, agreeing with Byrd (2007), Timur and Getz (2008) and Nicolaidis (2015).

Sanchez-Medina et al. (2016) even claim that communities highly influence hotels in Mexico to adopt environmental practices, through environmental NGOs. In fact, Gouna has taken the 'Green Globe Award' in 2014, and many

of the hotels located there have the 'Green Star Hotel' certification, which is designed to direct hotel operations towards environmental sustainability (ElGouna, 2021). Also, concerning restaurants, the community is the one providing the recycling bins and takes care of recycling in general. This leads to affirming that communities, which are presumed to be environmentally sensitive, can trigger the adoption of certain green practices, which are seen needed for preservation of the surrounding environment/context. It should be noted also that currently, 'ECO EGYPT' is a three-year project, aimed at promoting sustainable tourism in protected areas in Egypt, i.e., certain communities, supervised by the Ministry of Environment and United Nations (UNDP Egypt, 2020).

### ***7.2.2 The consumer narrative***

From restaurant data analysis, the researcher interpreted that those restaurants adopting the most measures tend to refer to their customer base. They began to discuss the consumers they are mainly targeting, leading the researcher to propose that those specific restaurants, in the end, are targeting a specific group. It was believed that consumers of such restaurants exist within a certain age segment, namely 18-35, are from social classes of A&B and include foreigners, either tourists or residents. Consumers are important in the greening of the restaurant industry, which is supported by the many green restaurant studies dedicated to profiling green consumers and understanding their behavioral intentions (Jeong et al., 2014; Jang et al., 2015; Chung, 2016; Kwok et al., 2016; Namkung and Jang, 2017; Yu et al., 2018; Han et al., 2019; Paco et al., 2019; Teng and Wu, 2019).

Concerning age, restaurants have claimed that younger people, specifically millennials, presumably are more concerned about the environment, CSR and issues alike (Jeong et al., 2014), especially ones who are health conscious or think about the consequences of their consumption decisions (Nicolau et al., 2020), than older generations. It is postulated that consumers with age segments ranging from 20-40, similar to claims by Hu (2015), Kwok et al. (2016) and Namkung and Jang (2017) in the US, are able to acknowledge and appreciate a restaurant's green practices.

During the focus group discussion, where two consumers participated, it was highlighted that consumers are an important stakeholder for green adoption in restaurants. This is supported by claims made earlier, confirming the rise of green consumerism in the restaurant industry (Martinez-Navalon et al., 2019; Cho and Yoo, 2021; Maynard et al., 2021). This is highly evident, because they represent a major stakeholder, where they engage in consuming green products and environmental-friendly services.

Although there was no arguing about the profile of consumers presented above, it was however clarified that more importantly, restaurants need to understand that consumers are types. This will allow restaurants to think about and, therefore, devise appropriate ways to sway such consumers, with aim to increase their participation in consuming green products/services, especially ones that are not educated or are unwilling to sacrifice their comforting habits. In other words, consumers who tend to use plastics for convenience, or be seated in an air-conditioned restaurant and so on. A major tactic mentioned during the focus group was resorting to use of promotions. Restaurants can also make use of their social media accounts as a means to reach consumers, rather than traditional media, especially if consumers trust that specific restaurant and have an intention to continue



dealing with them (Martinez-Navalon et al., 2019), to foster communication channels. Educating consumers on environmental practices can further drive green consumerism in hotels in the EU (Preziosi et al., 2019).

Generally, customers must know that they can play a role in supporting the environment, such as promoting and demanding the provision of green products and services or simply participating in environmental initiatives. In other words, customers should acknowledge that they can make a difference, simply by requesting more green products or engaging in the preservation of water usage within the restaurant. In turn, companies should devote great attention to adequately informing their consumers on how to achieve this (Baker et al., 2014). Restaurants can educate consumers on the harm of plastics, where for example, straws can be limited in their availability or to provide a meal where a percentage of ingredients are sustainably sourced. Incentives also, such as discounts, can be used as means of encouraging customers to spread awareness on social media accounts or when simply finishing their ordered foods.

### **7.3 Means for Green Adoption**

There were two emergent themes pertaining to the enablers of green adoption in restaurants, which were announced and stressed by restaurants and stakeholders. The first theme named "External green environment" was generated from the in-depth interviews and the second referred to "First step: government intervention" from the focus group discussion. During both discussions, there were various aspects demanded by restaurants and stakeholders, where they both believed without their existence, successful and effective implementation would fail. In other words, if such tools are not

provided or certain approaches not taken, sustaining green adoption would be very difficult, in some cases impossible. Such tools include pro-environmental regulations & infrastructures, green supply chains, incentives and the relevant 'know-how'. These will each be discussed in detail in the following sections.

### ***7.3.1 Role of government***

To start off, the most common and basic requirement put forth was government intervention. Participants have voiced how the government in Egypt must act in terms of adopting environmental dimensions, presuming a more active role. In fact, its significance and urgency was discussed in detail, since it is presumed to be the one stakeholder that can provide most of the demanded aspects. Examples of such aspects include the development of strict pro-environmental regulations and required infrastructure, provision of incentives and, in some cases, the required 'know-how' on environmental protection.

The first thing participants stressed was the establishment of green laws, or in other words, the acts of force, which is one of the recommendations by Mbasera (2015) for hotels in Africa and Saleem et al. (2020) for various industries in Pakistan, including food and beverage. Due to environmental awareness being very poor in Egypt currently, it is of critical necessity that governmental laws for environmental protection are established at this stage. For successful green adoption, the government should enforce laws for all levels of society and businesses, which are to be followed, where periodic inspections are expected.

Even in developed nations, such as Europe, North America and East Asia, governments tend to establish policies to achieve environmental-related targets (Chalak et al., 2018); this means they are required to be more pressuring with rigid laws (Weng et al., 2015). It should be noted that when laws are put into place, for effective outcomes, the use of penalties or form of punishment is a must, which was mentioned by most restaurants and all stakeholder groups. This correlates with findings of Seroka-Stolka and Fijorek (2020), where regulators, i.e., governments in Poland had the highest effect, from an external source, on companies adopting proactive environmental strategies in major industries, including the food sector. However, it is believed in this context, restaurants to a big extent will be displaying reactive behaviors, to avoid penalties, till environmental awareness is increased and they have access to required 'know-how', which will be further discussed in a later section.

The second thing of importance provided by the government is the complementary green infrastructure in the nation, similar to findings of Pérez-Pineda et al. (2017) for hotels in the Dominican Republic. During the interviews, it was evident that implementing green practices within restaurants outlets is challenging, without having the supportive infrastructure externally. The inexistence of such an environmental infrastructure also served as a discouragement to restaurants to adopt green practices. This was also communicated by suppliers during the focus group discussion. Both restaurants and suppliers felt that their efforts to implement green practices within their operations would not have a lasting effect, if the external surroundings are not supportive of a greener environment. This supports the concept of the government needing to initiate and foster a greener nation, prioritizing environmental protection.

One significant approach here would be the embedding of an operative and functional solid waste management system. This means, for example, an official process facilitating the collection and management of garbage, in a way which promotes the recycling of all types of waste. Enterprise (2020) confirms the inexistence of such an infrastructure, where the Egyptian government has not played its role to establish waste management processes. Perrigot et al. (2021) also find that the local government's power resides in the provision of infrastructure and facilities that complement and promote green waste management in France. Similarly, most restaurants, in this study faced such a challenge when they tried to segregate their garbage. The available recycling trucks or entities, which are minimal, offered to come for pickup only twice a week, which caused restaurants to mass garbage, leading to violations and, in most cases, having to pay fines when inspections took place by governmental personnel. Yet, LYNX Business Bulletin (2020) declared that the Egyptian government modified the Solid waste Management Law (#202) with the purpose of improving and enhancing recycling practices, where a regulatory authority will be developed to oversee such issues. The law aims to ban burning of waste or dumping in public areas. The law also states that companies should be responsible for recycling their consumed products, to try to increase the recyclability of used materials and perhaps plastic to be turned into packaging for fertilizers (Bakr, 2021).

Next was the provision of incentives or tools for encouraging green adoption, not only for restaurants, but for suppliers as well. Financial requirements or the burden of environmental costs have been discussed earlier in restaurant literature (Kasim and Ismail, 2012; Iaquinto, 2014; Perramon et al., 2014; Cantele and Cassia, 2020; Chevallier-Chantepie and Batt, 2021; Meager et al., 2021) in the US, Taiwanese and Italian contexts. The availability of

financial resources acts as a motivator for adopting green practices in restaurants in the US, as found by Raab et al. (2018) and is highlighted by Mbasera (2015) for adopting green practices in African hotels. Yet in this context, some of the business owners currently implementing green practices were more interested in incentives as a form of recognition, as a reward for going green, and not for being able to bear the required costs. Restaurants and suppliers both demanded that governments need to acknowledge their environmental efforts, where they are distinguished from others not incorporating green targets.

Examples of such support include financial incentives (Chalak et al., 2018), in the form of tax exemptions (Kasim and Ismail, 2012; Salzberg et al., 2019; Shahzad et al., 2020) or reduction of utility bills as found by Baloglu et al. (2020) for restaurants in the US. Examples include reduced fees for the consumption of electricity or water, which are public services provided by the government. Ioannidis et al. (2021) have suggested hospitality businesses engaging in the efficient use of resources, can reduce the cost of such utility services. Govindan and Hasanagic (2018) even argue non-existent financial incentives provided by the government discourages organizations from striving towards a circular economy in their supply chains. Another example of financial incentives includes green loans for environmental projects with reduced interest payments. Of course, others who still don't implement such practices were urging for financial incentives in order to afford green products. Fortunately, an article by Takouleu (2021) highlights the development and provision of green loans by the Egyptian government, namely the Ministry of International Cooperation and the popular commercial private bank (CIB), to fund green projects, mainly ones related to the clean management of energy, water as well as the

construction of green buildings. This was confirmed by the legal consultant in the focus group discussion.

Lastly, participants in both stages recommended that the government engage with other stakeholders, such as NGOs most popularly, in raising environmental awareness (Chou et al., 2012). However, it is not seen as a major task of the government for multiple reasons. Firstly, it is believed that if the government adopts such an approach by passing relevant green laws, automatically the media and ministries concerned with environment related issues, such as Ministries of Environment, Tourism, Planning & Economic Development and Electricity & Renewable Energy will prioritize such an issue within their agendas. This means part of the actions they will take to follow the nation's initiative is to raise awareness about how environmental preservation can be carried out. Secondly, when laws are established with powerful inspection mechanisms, raising awareness is not of great importance. People will be obliged to follow rules, whether they are aware or not or even convinced. Lastly, during the focus group discussion, it was announced that some governmental personnel themselves need to be more educated on environmental issues.

All the above dimensions, namely laws, infrastructure, incentives and raising awareness, are seen as very important and have been discussed by earlier authors when adopting green practices (Chou et al., 2012; Tan et al., 2018). Therefore, without such consistent governmental force and support, adoption of green practices in general would fail and progress will be at a minimal in the country. The government as a stakeholder is seen as a starting base, a vital one indeed (Poulston and Yiu, 2011) for quicker progress. Governments are considered powerful, through legislation, which can affect firms' adoption of environmental practices (Mitchell et al., 1997;

Teng et al., 2015). Although other stakeholders are also important and have different roles to fulfil, yet without government participation, all other efforts by the other stakeholders would have very low positive effects. This supports the idea that governments must lead the issue of green adoption, similar to recommendations by Kasim and Ismail (2012) in Malaysia and Saleem et al. (2020) in Pakistan for corporate environmentalism. In addition, Perrigot et al. (2021) argues that government power is essential in terms of waste management for fast food chains in France.

It must be noted though that Egypt is currently working on reducing its environmental impacts by prioritizing climate change, offering electric buses, working towards production of renewable energy and managing plastic bag production and consumption (Farouk, 2020). All these aspects are part of Egypt's Sustainable Development Strategy (SDS): Egypt Vision 2030, aimed at improving the economic, social and environmental situation by 2030 (Egypt Vision 2030, n.d.). The Egypt Vision 2030 will allow Egypt to progress in sustainable development through multiple avenues and can help in overcoming some of the current challenges in this study, namely infrastructure, provision of aiding tools, including financial and raising awareness. In the case of restaurants, there will be restrictions on the use of single use plastics. Businesses, including restaurants, may be encouraged to use more sources of renewable energy. The provision of green loans, where the Central Bank of Egypt has introduced sustainable financing (Ali, 2022), can help businesses including restaurants to invest in efficient machinery or build solar paneling rooftops.

### **7.3.2 Green supply chains**

From the interview data, it was found that there's a need for adopting supply chain approaches, specifically integrating environmental measures.

Restaurants have spoken of multiple issues, resulting in barriers preventing their ability, to a big extent, to adopt green measures. These issues are mainly shaped around sourcing green supply and engaging in the process of reverse logistics. However, during the focus group discussion, more attention was directed towards the problems of obtaining greener products. From this, it can be reasoned that supply chains strategies integrated with environmental thinking, as defined by Srivastava (2007), are not yet adopted. This is due to multiple reasons, mainly low consumer demand for greener options, aligning with findings of Kasim and Ismail (2012), which is considered still weak in Egypt. Consumers can be either end consumers such as restaurant customers, or retailers i.e., restaurants in this case.

Low levels of demand at the bottom of the chain, in terms of green products or even services, affect output at the top of the chain. Such effects include suppliers not opting to produce green products or others discouraged from importing such materials. Of course, importing in this case, doesn't align with the objectives of greener supply chains, since increased transportation leads to more pollution. It was also discovered during the IDIs that the required machinery for production presumably is still not available in the country. Other reasons include lack of networking between supply chain members and poor knowledge about supply chain approaches, agreeing with Tumpa et al. (2019) in developing contexts, in addition to low environmental awareness and required resources, similar to claims by Rassiah et al. (2022) in their case about hotels in Malaysia.



It has been mentioned during both the interviews and the focus group discussion that a restaurant works with its suppliers to develop the green product needed, according to certain specifications. This is referred to as supplier development and contradicts the findings of Raab et al. (2018), where authors claim casual restaurants in the US adopt sustainability measures due to pressure from their suppliers, which is currently not the case in this research. The reason for this can be due to suppliers being more environmentally proactive in the US, as maybe other stakeholders as well. Assisting suppliers to achieve environmental goals and co-designing a green product are tactics of greener supply chains, also known as environmental collaboration (Large and Thomsen, 2011; Paulraj, 2011; Wu and Barnes, 2016; Foo et al., 2018), leading to improved environmental performance of restaurants, as found by Chiu and Hsieh (2016) in Taiwan. This, in fact, takes place currently and was explained by a restaurant from the sample, during the interviews.

Fostering a green or an environmentally designed supply chain can most likely have major positive effects for the restaurant such as reduced environmental impacts, agreeing with Cankaya and Sezen (2018) for manufacturing firms in Turkey. Also, using a green supply chain approach can help improve business performance, as found in UK food retails (Ali et al., 2017), where the authors argue such practices are highly driven by internal factors such as employee support and senior management commitment. Filimonau et al. (2019) claim that educated and dedicated suppliers can overcome logistical issues with food waste, thereby improving a restaurant's environmental situation in Bulgaria. This means that if restaurants in Egypt are able to invest in the relationships with their suppliers, they may be able to tackle the problems related to reverse logistics, where they have faced obstacles with getting rid of their waste.

The research by Wang et al. (2013) incorporates concepts of green supply chains, including cooking, menu design, packaging, storage and post-treatment, in developing green indicators for restaurants in Taiwan. Restaurants can also benefit from adopting a sustainable supply chain, which may help in affecting consumers' perspectives, where Xu and Gursoy (2015) argue that economic, environmental and social dimensions of sustainable chains affect consumer satisfaction for hotels in the US. Other advantages include improved marketing, reduced costs and the resolving of environmental issues (De Oliveira et al., 2018).

In addition, Shin and Cho (2022) claim that restaurants in South Korea, who deal with green suppliers, can help in increasing pro environmental behaviors within their outlets. This means that there may be other stakeholders that would benefit from adopting greener supply chains. If businesses contribute to environmental protection, for example, by procuring local supplies and recycling products, this can be advantageous for other stakeholders. These can include surely the government, community, NGOs and consumers. Engaging in green supply chains can help in meeting consumer requests, from an environmental perspective (Wang et al., 2018), contain costs by being more efficient and tackle environmental issues (de Oliveira et al., 2018). In addition, Chevallier-Chantepie and Batt (2021) assert that engaging in sustainable purchasing in French cafes and restaurants can reduce environmental harm, as well as improve relationships with consumers and suppliers.

One of the tactics restaurants in Egypt can adopt to foster a greener supply chain, is to source or work with nearby suppliers. This will reduce the generated carbon footprint as well as the restaurant's transportation costs. The closeness of a supplier to a restaurant can also decrease the amount of

wasted food. Another recommendation, given that some restaurants network with others in the industry, especially neighboring ones, can aim to share warehousing space or carry out agreements with local recyclers to pick up their waste. This can be advantageous for both stakeholders (restaurants and recyclers). Since recycling infrastructure is officially non-existent at the moment, business deals can be made, where recyclers would be motivated to pick up such waste, due to its large amount. At the downstream level, consumers for example can simply be educated or given simple benefits if they don't waste their food.

### ***7.3.3 Employee development***

From analysis of interview data, it was evident that employee management is a critical issue for green adoption in restaurants. In addition, this concept was revisited during the focus group discussion; the importance of employees in implementing green measures. Employees are seen as one of the significant factors for the successful implementation of green practices, agreeing with the findings of Wang (2016), where the author claims employees committed to performing green activities help in becoming a green restaurant. There are a number of reasons for this. The first is that employees, front-line specifically, interact with consumers daily. This means they are considered as means to transfer green values, messages and behaviors adopted by management, through consumer education, which was confirmed during both stages of data collection. Communicating such concepts to consumers, including restaurants efforts, may affect consumer perceptions positively (Line et al., 2016), where Chen and Jai (2018) confirm this for university cafes in the US for reducing food waste.

For example, as some restaurants have put forth during the interviews, employees can for example educate consumers on the harm of using plastic straws when they do request one. Employees can also teach consumers to help the restaurant in reducing its generated organic waste, where consumers may be advised on ordered quantities. Furthermore, Tuan (2021) advocates that customer engagement is important for a hotel's green development in Vietnam, which can be greatly fostered through the establishment of a concrete relationship between them and hotel employees. This puts emphasis on the criticality of the relationship between these two stakeholder groups.

Secondly, because on an operational level, they are to a big extent responsible for the final product delivered to consumers, such as portion sizes or the way a meal is packaged. Employees need to be aware of how to optimize the use of restaurant products, to minimize waste. Also, employees themselves consume restaurant resources, where if they are not guided, they may contribute to additional environmental harm. These issues can be tackled through training, which is seen as vital, provision of incentives, as well as instilling environmental behaviors and values agreeing with Dhir et al. (2020) and Marx-Pienaar et al. (2020) for food waste management, where the latter study focuses on South African restaurants.

Essentially, employee training should constitute multiple topics, which was found to be an obstacle when adopting green measures in hotels in the Red Sea, as mentioned by Eldemerdash and Mohamed (2013). Firstly, they need to be taught how to carry out their tasks in an efficient way. Examples include how to use water efficiently, especially in the kitchen, how to potentially reduce waste, both solid and organic, and how all this negatively impact on the environment. Also, how they use restaurant equipment should

be highlighted, to reduce environmental harm. They also need to be trained in how to influence consumers to be more environmental-friendly as well as consume greener products and services, as stated in the above paragraphs. It is employees who will engage in educating consumers on the importance of the environment. This was put forth by Perrigot et al. (2020) for chains in France, claiming that employees have enormous influence, due to high interaction, in terms of influencing consumers, from an educational perspective. Training should include communicating and teaching restaurant/top management goals and values concerning the environment, which can ultimately contribute to the achievement of such goals.

Appropriate training about an organization's sustainability goals heightens employees' participation and management of environmental tasks and can help in reducing restaurant waste (Filimonau et al., 2019). In addition, Abuelhassan and Elsayed (2020) claim that employee green training can positively affect environmental performance in hotels in Egypt, which was earlier advocated by Wang (2016), for restaurant employees in Taiwan. This also supports claims by Raub and Martin-Rios (2018), where the authors argue that employees in hospitality businesses are highly influential in the adoption of some sustainable development goals initiatives. These studies show that employee training should constitute the environmental goals of the restaurant, which can foster employee environmental performance.

Some restaurants, during both the interviews and focus group discussion, have stressed that employees need to believe in the environmental "story". This means top management should not only teach employees about environmental topics, but focus must be given to foster and induce environmental-related behaviors. These few restaurants who advocated this point do engage in employee environmental education by communicating the

importance of environmental protection and the use of incentives. Jang et al. (2017) confirm that top management environmental values, through exercising leadership, do shape a restaurant's environmental commitments. This means that leadership can be a better approach to changing attitudes, rather than just teaching employees what to do. Baloglu et al. (2020) even argue that one of the reason managers in US casual restaurants choose to implement sustainable practices is to satisfy their employees. Furthermore, employees with environmental values, in most cases, demonstrate pro environmental behaviors (Chou, 2014). Such behaviors can be heightened for example, by applying food-focused attributes, as found by Oshua et al. (2022) for restaurants in Nigeria. Also, customer pressure, as argued by Cho and Yoo (2021) can positively influence US employees' voluntary green creative behaviors in restaurants.

If employees are concerned about the environment, with the existence of green human resource management (GHRM), performance can be heightened, as in the case for hotel employees in Pakistan (Umrani et al., 2020). In fact, the authors confirm that GHRM helps shape hotel employee environmental behaviors while positively affecting environmental performance. When a restaurant's environmental goals match with an employee's environmental values, it is believed to improve employee engagement in that restaurant's green practices (Dumont et al., 2017). Green training, involvement in environmental tasks and bonuses awarded for meeting environmental targets, are all tactics that can foster employees' green behaviors (Pham et al., 2019). Few restaurants in this study do this, where employees for example, are shown how optimized packaging, educating consumers on avoiding the use of straws and reduced energy bills due to resource management result in lower waste and sometimes, financial compensation.

Restaurants should also highlight how an employee's tasks contribute to environmental protection, which can encourage them to work harder towards the attainment of such goals, as put forth by Grobelna (2019) and claimed by Ababneh (2021) for hotel employees in Jordan. Although in this context, financial rewards were presented as a means of encouragement, as stated in the above paragraph. In the end, employees must be taught how to perform green practices in restaurant in order to achieve sustainability in restaurant, agreeing with Wang (2016). The researcher concurs with Freeman et al. (2021), where the authors claim that human resources are vital and perhaps more essential than other types of resources, for the achievement of sustainability goals. This can be supported by findings in this research, where participants have stressed the importance of employee engagement in green management. How employees carry out their tasks can have a major effect on the success of implementing green measures. Farmaki (2019) also asserts that employees can either be supportive or obstructive in terms of accomplishing CSR practices in the hotel industry.

It should be highlighted that if top management doesn't incorporate environmental targets within their agendas, they will not be able to train and educate employees accordingly. Top management commitment is vital, although not all participating restaurants aligned with this, which was due to the obstacles they believe hinder the adoption of green practices. Top management commitment creates lower-level management engagement, agreeing with Raab et al. (2018), which should ultimately lead to the development of employees. Meager et al. (2020) also argue that both a restaurant's managerial mindset towards the environment as well as employees, can act as barriers to the adoption of GSCM practices in the UK. It is presumed that motivation, positive attitudes and engagement of top management in large enterprises, as well as owners in SMEs, towards

environmental protection, are some of the key factors in fostering proactive behaviors, as in the case for SMEs in Sweden (Jansson et al., 2017).

In summary, since employee development is proved to be crucial, according to the study findings, the restaurant must pay close attention to this stakeholder group. Essentially, employees need to be educated and trained on environmental aspects. This can be carried out with the help of representatives from the Ministry of Environment or environmental NGOs. Staff can be given training on the main concepts and managers or top management can then resort to consultation services to further apply green measures within operations. Green suppliers can also aid in this task, since employees need to deal with some green products to deliver the final product to the customer. Alongside training and development, financial benefits are important to promote green adoption, where employees will be further encouraged to engage in implementing environmental practices.

#### **7.4 Required Environmental Knowledge**

As previously put forth in earlier chapters, education concerning the environment is very poor in Egypt, where one of the purposes of the Ministry of Environment's 'Live Green' campaign was launched in 2020 (Ahram Online, 2020). During the interviews, it was clear that one of the main challenges, from the perspectives of all stakeholders, for green implementation, is the lack of sufficient environmental knowledge. This was one of the themes generated from the in-depth interviews and re-highlighted during the focus group discussion between the various stakeholders. It was stated that generally and among all stakeholders, there's deficiency in education concerning the environment, which is one of the reasons found by



Howes et al. (2017), in their review about policy implementation for environmental sustainability, resulting in failure to adopt environmental regulations. In other words, society, including restaurants themselves, and the majority of stakeholder groups, are not knowledgeable about the environment and its issues.

To be more specific about these stakeholder groups, it was put forth in this study that there are government personnel, consumers, suppliers, employees and even communities lacking this type of education. Low environmental awareness is a common barrier for hospitality businesses trying to adopt green measures, where in Malaysia both Kasim and Ismail (2012) claim communities and consumers have low awareness while Tan et al. (2018) advocate managers and employees lack this type of awareness. Perez-Pineda et al. (2017) also advocate a similar case for hotels in the Dominican Republic, particularly weak societal environmental awareness. Soliman (2020) also argues that kitchen staff in hotel restaurants in Alexandria have low awareness, in terms of food waste, and make no effort to calculate the generated amounts, recommending a sustainability training program. Yet, this was not a major challenge for hospitality businesses in other more economically advanced nations (Alonso and Ogle, 2010; Dipietro et al., 2013; Iraldo et al., 2017).

Besides employee awareness or lack of training, deficient consumer education was also cited as a reason for high food waste in both independent and chain hotels in Hurghada (Rady et al. 2021). These studies confirm that environmental awareness among various stakeholders is still at low levels. One of the ways to overcome this is for each stakeholder to take part in raising awareness, either through simple campaigns within their communities, on social media and inside their companies to their staff and

consumers (if relevant). Incorporating awareness with an incentive, even if minimal, would be much more effective. Either small discounts, rewards or even the provision of a simple service.

During the restaurant in-depth interviews, the researcher was able to understand that there are business owners/managers who are aware of the basic principles of green management, where Baul et al. (2021) claim restaurant owners in Bangladesh are aware of waste environmental hazards. In terms of the ones who are aware, there are restaurants that implement a few green practices and others that don't, due to certain obstacles. The researcher also noticed there are restaurants who are still not aware and don't have the required knowledge concerning the importance of the environment or how to go about protecting it. Lack of awareness among restaurants, or even hospitality enterprises is somehow common. This is similar to findings of Lang et al. (2020) and Gao al. (2021), about restaurants' awareness of food waste management in China. Regardless of their level of knowledge concerning green practices, there are a number of restaurants that still believe their environmental impact is contained, in comparison with other bigger, more polluting businesses. Therefore, they tend to hold other industries more responsible for environmental degradation, aligning with thoughts of Kasim and Ismail (2012) and Iraldo et al. (2017).

The low level of awareness among restaurants, or even stakeholders, in Egypt can be attributed to few reasons. Firstly, it has not been a prioritized objective for the country until recently, where governments, businesses and even other stakeholders were not including environmental measures within their agendas. This is simply supported by, for example, the non-existent required media intervention, to educate society about the importance of

environmental protection. Next, it is believed that educational systems in Egypt, whether schools or higher education, were not incorporating sustainability dimensions within teachings or degrees. Therefore, the problem lies within the quality of education, to incorporate sustainability curricula, and not the level of education. This supports earlier findings of Hu (2015) and Kwok et al. (2016), where the educational level was not a factor in determining green restaurant consumer profiles in the US, yet different from DiPietro et al. (2013) in the US as well and Hu et al. (2010) in Taiwan. Even concerning restaurant employees, both Yucedag et al. (2018) and Lang et al. (2020) find higher educational levels reflect some environmental awareness, in Turkey and China respectively.

Nevertheless, the nation has started to take action to tackle such issues. The Ministry of Environment in 2020 has launched a 3-year campaign named 'Live Green', as part of the nation's 'National Sustainability Development Strategy-Egypt 2030'. The campaign is aimed at raising environmental awareness (Ahram Online, 2020) to all society i.e., stakeholders, with a special focus on youth. Its purpose is to educate citizens on environmental protection, resource preservation, waste management, plastic minimization, pollution and other environmental issues ("Go Green Initiative", n.d.). There are several prominent aspects tackled within the campaign, where some are specifically designed for educational institutions. Firstly, the Ministry of Environment in collaboration with the Ministry of Education have stressed the importance of incorporating sustainability criteria into school teachings (Bakr, 2020).

Also, another proposal was put forth by the researcher and signed by both Ministries of Environment and Higher Education in 2021 (see Appendix 8), for the establishment of green awareness campaigns inside national

universities. Its aim is to teach students about the importance of the environment and resource preservation, as well as, fostering environmental-friendly behaviors on campus. For example, a private university in Egypt has started to implement this campaign within its branches, by bringing academics, industry practitioners and NGOs to speak to students about environmental issues (AASTMT Latest News, n.d.). The university has also started promoting the use of eco-friendly alternatives to plastic, providing a recycling machine on campus and collaborating with neighboring corporations to further develop, not just the campus but the community.

In addition, other variables presented in earlier studies, such as demographics of restaurant owners and employees, the size and type of restaurant affecting environmental awareness, did not seem relevant in this study. This parallels with thoughts of Baul et al. (2021) in their study about restaurant waste in Bangladesh, where for example, restaurant size is not a determinant of a restaurant's environmental awareness.

During the interviews, it was obvious that some restaurants need the 'know-how' for going green. This was clearly validated during the focus group, where it was noticed that other stakeholders also needed the required expertise for adopting green measures. These included suppliers, as well as managers and board of directors within ministry departments. It is evident that restaurants in Egypt implementing green criteria not only have some basic environmental knowledge, but clearly acknowledge the benefits of going green. Owners and/or management of such restaurants grasp the advantages of applying environmental measures to their operations, agreeing with Perramon et al. (2014) for restaurants in Spain. It was communicated during the interviews that implementing green practices is a value-adding process, where some practices lead to cost-savings, while

others improve the restaurant's marketing standpoint, as mentioned by Baloglu et al. (2020) and Lee et al. (2020) for restaurants in the U.S. This parallels to the advocations by Jones et al. (2014) and Kim et al. (2016), claiming that green processes lead to value creation for hospitality enterprises, with goals of improving business operations are of same importance as ones of environmental protection.

#### ***7.4.1 Acknowledging stakeholder value***

Environmental awareness can be a big contributor to changing behaviors (Han et al., 2011; Hesselbarth and Schaltegger, 2014; Horisch et al., 2014; Gao et al., 2016), or in other words, trigger pro-environmental actions. This was assertively validated during the focus group discussion by the participating stakeholders and not debated. However, if stakeholders are to take action and fulfill their expected roles, the value a stakeholder would acquire in return must be explicitly highlighted. In other words, the benefits a stakeholder group would reap from going green have to be communicated, which is equally or perhaps far more important than educating them on what harms the environment or how to protect it. At least, education should be shaped around portraying the value embedded within green practices, particularly for each stakeholder or group of stakeholders.

Stakeholders or businesses, in this specific context, are not aware of how carrying out operations in a more environmental-friendly way can be advantageous for them in the long run (Iraldo et al., 2017). This is not entirely a new concept, since it is directly related to the outcomes and end goals of stakeholder theory, where value creation is its main essence (Freeman, 2010; Harrison et al., 2015; Boaventura et al., 2020). It should be noted that communicating such values will foster stakeholder action,

which will greatly aid restaurants in overcoming their initial challenges to green adoption.

One of the main topics discussed in the focus group discussion was the value acquired by each stakeholder when green practices are implemented. During the discussion, each stakeholder brainstormed the possible benefits they would acquire if restaurants started adopting green practices. It should be noted that, as some stakeholders were expressing the advantages of going green, they were highlighting how the whole network of stakeholders would be benefiting, not just themselves. This strongly supports the concept of stakeholders existing in a network, as articulated by Rowley (1997), where it is believed that the focal company, or the restaurant in this matter, is also a stakeholder, where they acquire benefits in the network as well. This ideology contrasts with Freeman's postulation (2010), who articulates that it is management's job, according to their position in the center, and responsibility to create and distribute value to stakeholders. This is in some cases, for example, is based on a stakeholder's power (Mitchell et al., 1997; Neville et al., 2011), power and legitimacy (Boesso and Kumar, 2009), or even strategic importance (Boaventura et al., 2020). Such studies were conducted in both developed (Boesso and Kumar, 2009) and developing (Boaventura et al., 2020) contexts.

Even though during the in-depth interviews restaurants did not admit to being fully responsible for going green, yet some restaurants have taken steps to implement few green practices, such as waste reduction, water management, green education and provision of sustainable food. Others are not aware of the damage they could be causing or how to resolve such issues. There are examples of restaurants, as well, who have thought of adopting environmental measures, yet are relying mainly on the government

and the media to provide the required tools, such as awareness, incentives and environmental infrastructure. Therefore, the researcher argues that value creation, in terms of restaurant green management in Egypt, should be a duty of all stakeholders and towards one another in the network and not solely a task to be burdened by firm's (restaurant) management. When value creation is shaped this way and a task attributed to all stakeholders, all these network stakeholders will ultimately reap some sort of benefit, either directly or indirectly.

For example, according to this study's findings, it was articulated that sourcing local, fresh food has multiple benefits including less transportation pollution, developing local suppliers and offering healthy meals. In turn, governments, community, suppliers and customers would gain from such an action. In addition, if restaurants offer more green products or "sustainable services" (C2) to consumers who are pro the environment, consumers will be able to support such outlets. This benefits such restaurants in promoting and implementing their green activities. Another example is donating food to poorer communities or people, either by the restaurant itself or through social enterprises, as articulated in this study. This can help in reducing food insecurity and the restaurant engaging in both environmental and social development.

In the most general sense, governments, specifically ones who are concerned with issues of sustainability, have a very direct benefit from restaurant businesses going green. In very straight forward terms, these governments would be feeling eager about such enterprises following preliminary environmental regulations or, in most cases, taking lead in environmental protection, especially when laws are still not fully established. Ahmed (2021) writes that a developing a greener economy in Egypt can help

reduce food loss. Restaurants in this specific example, can help in contributing to this goal by donating their leftovers and uneaten foods. Some restaurants in this study have confirmed they already do this, either themselves or resorting to social NGOs.

From a business perspective, suppliers expressed that when restaurants start demanding greener options, the prices of such products would decrease, therefore, leading to increased sales and their ability to reach more markets. They also put forth that, by growing in such markets, they would be able to have access to more feedback, where this could lead to improved product innovations. From a personal perspective, the benefit would be resting assure that their families and children (the future generation) are consuming healthy products, specifically plastic-free, which will also have environmental advantages.

Consumers, of course from a personal, health dimension automatically would feel safer as they are offered greener, healthier options, and would be able to afford greener products. They also expressed restaurants that apply green practices, which align with their own environmental values, act as a trigger or motivation for them to go dine at such places. In other words, consumers who care for the environment and its sustainability in general, and value a healthier lifestyle, can connect or identify themselves with such outlets and their consumers as well. The existence of such restaurants would also reduce their struggle when searching for healthier options and a greener environment. It should be noted that all stakeholder groups mentioned in this study can be considered consumers as well, who can benefit on a personal level, in terms of consuming healthier options.



Restaurants, including front-line employees, can sway consumers by carrying out consistent communication and education about green activities, which may result in these stakeholders reaping few benefits (Iraldo et al., 2017). Restaurants would benefit from a marketing perspective, waste reduction and resource efficiency (Tan and Yeap, 2012; Jeong et al., 2014; Kim et al., 2017; Fieschi and Pretato, 2018; Baloglu et al., 2020; Cantele and Cassia, 2020). Employees may perhaps be rewarded, most likely from a financial perspective, for contributing to the achievement of the restaurant's green goals.

Employees believe working with others in the restaurant who value the environment and its protection, translates into a sense of encouragement and validates their work efforts at such entities. Green human resource strategies applied within the firm, along with environmental values, can contribute to positive employee green performance and creativity in hotels in Dubai, as argued by Al-Hawari et al. (2021). They also believe that their engagement in and contribution to lowering environmental harm is something that pleases them. It should be noted that only employees who are pro the environment can acquire such benefits. This is where employee management and the role of top management become important, as argued earlier.

The community is perhaps seen as the one that can benefit from green adoption on multiple levels, including social, environmental and economic. For example, procuring green products locally from within the community contributes to all three dimensions. Investing in local, nearby supply lowers transportation and helps develop businesses of community sellers. This is seen to benefit suppliers. It also promotes the use of greener products. Another example is the efficient use of certain resources will have

environmental benefits, where communities will be further protected and sustained. In addition, it can also be highlighted that governments, consumers and perhaps other stakeholder groups, such as NGOs and restaurants, will be affected by such actions, further supporting the stakeholder network concept.

NGOs have a purpose and that is promoting their cause, mainly through awareness raising, agreeing with Lin et al. (2019), by provision of environmental workshops or establishment of campaigns. Once again, when a restaurant or any stakeholder begins to adopt environmental measures within their operations, they are likely to deal with other stakeholders who are also environmentally conscious, such as suppliers, industry players, communities or even NGOs themselves, such as the example given earlier about food donations. When such cases take place, NGOs believe their sense of purpose is validated, which supports their work and acts. It gives them more credibility to promote their cause, when trying to educate and aid other businesses in becoming more environmental-friendly. Ibrahim et al. (2023) even stress the importance of engaging with NGOs, to be better updated on critical environmental aspects & issues.

The stakeholder value creation framework proposed by Freudenreich et al. (2020) maps the mutual benefits between the focal company and categorized stakeholders, for example, such as societal groups which include governments, media, communities, etc. However, the researcher considers it a rigid model, since it depicts dyadic interactions between the focal firm and its categorized stakeholders, where value is created and delivered for those only entailed in this dyadic transaction. This study argues, however, that such action between sets of stakeholders, including the restaurant or focal firm, can have benefits for other stakeholders, directly or indirectly.

Therefore, it is believed that, according to the analysis of this research, the framework should eliminate the boundaries, which are portrayed using bold lines in the figure between stakeholder groups. For example, when focal firms receive financing from financiers, not only do shareholders gain dividends, as portrayed in the diagram, but consumers for example will also benefit, when the focal firm is able to afford greener products & services, which can be offered consistently and sustainably. Restaurants can also join suppliers in green product development. Suppliers in turn will benefit from the added market and promotion of their products. The government, as well, will benefit because businesses will be engaging in environmental protection and so on.

This concept applies to other parts of the framework as well. This means stakeholders are believed to highly engage with each other when value is explicitly announced and acknowledged, and not when salience attributes are present as argued by Boesso and Kumar (2009). This promotes the concept of stakeholder cultures, referring to how the organization manages its stakeholder relations, as described by Jones et al. (2007). Yet the researcher proposes a slight variation in this approach, as argued earlier in this section, that it is not the manager's duty solely as stressed by Mitchell et al. (1997), claiming all organizational interests can be satisfied by means of managerial attention and subsequent influence, in terms of stakeholders. It is however the responsibility and duty of all stakeholders towards each other in the network to initially identify stakeholder groups, as put forth by Tashman and Raelin (2013), highlight how value will be created and acquired, ultimately resulting in all network entities influencing each other collectively. This can help in avoiding egoist, opportunistic behaviors among all stakeholders, not just managers. Self-interested behaviors are common

among managers and can affect how they interact and deal with stakeholders (Boesso and Kumar, 2016).

Within this context and from analysis, the researcher believes that institutional pressures may not be relevant. Although governments, for example, can pressure other stakeholders to abide by their regulations, yet, influence theories proposed by Frooman (1999), through resource control in the network, can be more applicable with positive effects. Influence strategies will be revisited in a later section, namely stakeholder networks.

#### ***7.4.2 Stakeholder skepticism***

During the interviews, it was discovered that some restaurants are unable to have full trust in a few of the stakeholders' intentions or how they carry out their business processes. This is different from what is articulated in literature and termed as stakeholder trust. Greenwood and Van Buren III (2010) explain that stakeholders, after providing a resource, expect and trust the organization to prioritize delivering benefits back to that stakeholder. In this context however, it was found that restaurants are the ones lacking trust in a few stakeholders. For example, it was mentioned that there is some skepticism about locally produced organic products, whether they are actually organic i.e., authentic and produced according to such standards, aligning with findings of Meager et al. (2020), claiming suppliers of ethical foods may deceive UK independent restaurants in order to make sales. In fact, trust towards organic food consumption has been discussed previously in literature, specifically in European contexts (von Meyer-Hofer et al., 2015), Thailand (Nuttavuthisit and Thogersen, 2017), Bangladesh (Ashraf et al., 2018) and Spain (Vega-Zamora et al., 2019).

It should be noted that improving supply chain processes, such as working cooperatively with green suppliers, can be one of the ways to reduce such skepticism, where restaurants can have better visibility and knowledge of the product, agreeing with Ladwein and Romero (2021). The authors urge producers of organic foods to work closely with retailers, which can lead to fostering organic food consumption among consumers in France. Ultimately, having trust in the manufacturers of organic foods can contribute to consumers' trust building as put forth by Ayyub et al. (2018), in their case of organic consumption of consumers in China. Displaying information about or communicating organic food benefits to end consumers can also be another strategy for increasing trust. In specific, communicating certain messages to consumers as suggested by Vega-Zamora et al. (2019) by public authorities, chefs, doctors and producer unions to build such trust.

In this study context, restaurants can resort to their social media accounts to raise awareness and in addition to granting rewards for consuming organic products. They can also use their menus to advertise organic ingredients and display informative messages, while chefs can interact with consumers in dining areas to speak about organic ingredients. One restaurant has mentioned that once a month, they help organic and local suppliers display their produce in the restaurant dining area. Consumers take part in this event by speaking with suppliers and purchasing products to take home. The restaurant also on that day uses some of these ingredients to cook organic meals. This concept can be applied by other restaurants as well, where it is believed that all three stakeholders can benefit from such an initiative. In addition, public authorities can facilitate awareness initiatives where such doctors can educate the benefits of consuming organic food. Suppliers can also offer incentives to restaurants, mainly a reduction in price, if they are to contract with them for procuring their organic food. This

tactic can reduce the skepticism restaurants feel towards the extremely high prices of organic products.

Another example was ambiguity about private or public entities to carry out proper recycling of restaurant segregated waste. In other words, these restaurants are fearful that such entities, including the government, will not be managing such waste in an environmental-friendly way, especially that recycling methods and equipment are hardly existent in the country, where Salem et al. (2022) claim the nation is struggling in its waste management efforts. The authors cite that Egypt's municipal solid waste in 2016 was comprised of 56% organic and 13% plastic, where in total, 83.5% is left in open dumps and only 2.5% is recycled. Therefore, it is highly probable that most waste in these open dumps will end up being burnt (Milik, 2021). Meager et al. (2020) also find restaurants in the UK are reluctant to engage in GSCM practices for their inability to trust in the recycling process.

Restaurants also mentioned that there is little trust in NGOs as well, who are concerned with recycling; it was felt that such entities are looking for branding and reputation and not for ultimate environmental protection. The solution to this would be more collaboration between these two stakeholders. Most restaurants, in this study, did not engage in waste segregation or recycling. They throw their garbage and are not concerned with what happens to it. However, if NGOs can give workshops to such restaurants and perhaps, on a monthly basis, as part of raising awareness as well, to invite an employee from that restaurant to take part in the recycling process.

It is apparent that the above trust issues translate into restaurants feeling such stakeholders are lacking integrity in their business processes. In this

study, there were no trust issues arising from stakeholders towards restaurants. Perhaps the only stakeholder that has voice this concern was the consumer, with the wooden straws. It was mentioned that restaurant consumers fear that the restaurant may be reusing these straws. Concerning other stakeholders, there was no skepticism because in this specific scenario, it is the restaurant that has initially taken the initiative to go green, which is currently a costly process. Stakeholders see it is a sound, ethical decision.

Integrity is one of the pillars of trustworthiness towards organizations (Mayer et al., 1995) and refers to one's honesty, straightforwardness and morality. According to Pirson and Malhotra (2011), integrity issues are most prominent in relationships that are of "shallow" nature. It is expected that most restaurants in this study are currently not actively engaged with such stakeholders, namely environmental NGOs and organic suppliers. From the data analysis, it is clear that they rarely deal with them, so restaurants understandably question their motivations. One way to overcome this is to co-operate with a single supplier for example, as the case with one restaurant in this study. They have made explicit agreements with an organic supplier and make frequent visits to the farm where this produce grows. This allows for more transparency and assures that the buyer (restaurant) is purchasing an authentic product and avoids any skepticism towards the supplier.

Another trust issue was put forth by the pro environmental groups, represented by an entity that provides a service to resell or donate food leftovers, elaborated in this study that some of their users feel that they themselves have a hidden agenda. In other words, their consumers (other organizations and end consumers) are unsure about the concept of

redistributing food because its price has been cut down to half. In this case, the pro environmental stakeholder is required to carry out a lot of awareness to their customers. They need to teach their buyers that such foods alternatively will be thrown away and not consumed. Engaging in such a service will allow buyers to acquire foods at discounted prices, either for their own personal consumption or to donate. Donating such foods will help in overcoming food insecurity issues and contributing to social development by feeding poorer people. The pro environmental group only allows food to be sold which has been cooked earlier that day but is unsold until later that night. This food would not be available the next day.

Trust is an important aspect to be embedded and shared among stakeholders, where it helps to overcome or resolve situations of ambiguity, due to lack of sufficient information required for action or decision-making (Hobbs and Goddard, 2015; Khare and Pandey, 2017; Cantele and Cassia, 2020; Ladwein and Romero, 2021). Power (2015) advocates that transparent reporting as well as preventing the delivery of misleading information to all stakeholders are both needed to foster ethical tourism. Yet, trust in organizational literature refers to the ability of stakeholders to trust the focal organization to prioritize their interests (Crane, 2020). It is argued that lack of trust exists among different stakeholders towards some of the actions of other stakeholders. This is evident for example, with the consumer example, fearing to use wooden straws or purchasing leftovers. However, in this context, trust is majorly felt by many stakeholders, namely restaurants towards NGOs, governments and organic suppliers.

Nevertheless, it is proposed that issues of trust can be mainly overcome or reduced when the right information is communicated and highlighted. The “right” information refers to the benefit acquired by the non-trusting



stakeholder, as a result of another stakeholder's action; the one whose actions are questioned. Cantele and Cassia (2020) argue that in general, restaurants in Italy are unsure about how much they can save if they adopt green measures. Another general solution to overcome trust issues is to establish effective networking and communication channels between all stakeholders, where all shared information is credible. All stakeholders participating in the green value creation network must communicate frequently and effectively.

Stakeholders must continuously share information that is accurate, clear and of sufficient degree (Schnackenberg and Tomlinson, 2016), allowing for more transparency of a stakeholder's process, ultimately leading to trust building. Also, working collaboratively on certain tasks, for example such as the restaurant in this study developing their suppliers and jointly designing the production of eco-packaging. Also, fostering the development of simple alliances whenever possible, similar to the case of the restaurant and their organic supplier. The media as a stakeholder, has an impacting role and can contribute to reducing such skepticism by aiming to transmit accurate information, relating to one of the three dimensions of the information transparency scheme (Schnackenberg and Tomlinson, 2016). Such information, in addition to heightening environmental knowledge, needs to incorporate local examples of collaborative engagement between stakeholders.

Environmental awareness is a big issue in Egypt, among all stakeholders including restaurants. Raising such awareness should be a task that every stakeholder engages in, if they can, to the immediate entities they deal with. Yet, this is mainly a common task of NGOs, as found by Hoque et al. (2016) for pollution prevention in Bangladesh. The majority of SMEs in a study by

Harangozo and Zilahy (2015) believe that NGOs can mainly participate in raising consumer awareness for achieving a business' sustainability dimensions. Educating stakeholders must also entail the consequences of neglecting environmental protection, which may lead not only to the inability of gaining any value, but on the contrary, to disasters, personal and on the professional level. This is proposed by Teng et al. (2015) in their study of the hotel industry in Taiwan, where they found that society is ignoring and not engaging in environmental protection due to not knowing the harmful consequences.

Education must also include the benefits acquired, on all levels if applicable. Raising education, from this perspective, is presumed to increase stakeholder trust towards others' actions and motives. This is plausible because when a stakeholder is aware of the value they would gain from another stakeholder's action, skepticism is bound to be at a minimum. Besides serving as an encouragement for other restaurants to go green, yet perhaps on the long run, the rest of the industry can be encouraged to follow in competitor tracks in terms of environmental protection (Saleem et al., 2020), related to the concepts of mimetic isomorphism, in order to conform with the newly set societal standards (Dai et al., 2018). Weng et al. (2015) find that competitor pressures enhance green innovation practices for service firms in Taiwan. The importance of industry players was raised during the restaurant interviews, which can have similar influence effects

## **7.5 Stakeholders Networks**

One of the main objectives of the research was to determine the stakeholder groups restaurants need when going green and understanding the roles of each. Simply by stating this, it can be argued that such stakeholder groups,

along with the restaurant exist in a network. From the above discussion, particularly in the section about stakeholder value (7.4.1), it is doubtful that stakeholders exist in a network. As explained earlier, most stakeholder actions directed towards green adoption would ultimately increase network value, where benefits will be delivered to multiple groups in this network.

From the in-depth interviews, it was discovered that although stakeholders do in fact exist in a network, yet currently it is not very strong or active. This is mainly due to the minimal or sometimes non-existent collaboration between the stakeholder groups, which is another reason leading to lack of trust. However, during the focus group discussion, it was put forth that some stakeholder groups are actively engaging with one another, but overall, the network is not operating effectively.

Examples of such groups include the government and NGOs for raising awareness or restaurants and suppliers, to develop greener options. Also, pro-environmental groups try to encourage customers, such as restaurants or end consumers, to use their services. Restaurants as well, collaborate with NGOs for food donations or community development, especially when carrying out green related events, such as beach cleanups. Communities, which constitute governmental authorities, such as governors and some businesses or property managers, collaborate to progress environmental sustainability, such as plastic reduction or water preservation. One way to reduce the dispersion in the network, with the aim of progressing its effectiveness, is to initially agree on the responsibilities and roles of each stakeholder. This needs to be done collectively, where all stakeholders need to participate in such a process, along with evaluating stakeholder salience.

### ***7.5.1 Green stakeholder categories***

During the in-depth interviews, restaurants outlined important stakeholders for green adoption. When a stakeholder group was mentioned, restaurants would also explain how this group can aid them in achieving their environmental targets. Stakeholders' inclusion in achieving sustainability has been introduced before in literature, however, there was no depiction of what or how such stakeholders would play each of their roles. From analysis of restaurant interviews, a green stakeholder categorization was presented. There are three categories, each including a set of stakeholders. It should be noted that the order of presenting these categories is irrelevant to their importance. This means, according to participant articulations and analysis, no one category is more important than the other. The three categories are considered complementary and help to depict roles or influence of stakeholders in the network.

The first category, 'Leaders', initially included the government and consumer, as they were seen as the top stakeholders to lead this process. During the focus group discussion, participants agreed that the government possesses the required power to lead this process, specifically through law enforcement, infrastructure and incentives. However, alterations were made by participants, arguing that consumers currently in Egypt were not at a position, unlike the government, to progressively drive green adoption. Governments are seen as ones that can trigger change in Egypt, in terms of implementing green practices, and this is why it was argued earlier that their intervention is of critical importance. Even though during the interviews consumers were believed to be directive in terms of restaurants adopting green measures, yet during the focus group discussion, it was clearly articulated that they have not yet acquired this status.

Although consumers of green restaurants can be described using some characteristics including age, social class and some being foreigners, however they are not powerful enough at this stage to influence restaurants in adopting green practices. The participating consumers have explained that due to the inconsistency of available green products and services, it is very difficult for them to be driving such an issue here in Egypt. Alongside low awareness, this results in consumers not regularly demanding any green products or services. Examples were given that vegetarian options were available during a fasting month once a year, or that recycling, in any sort of way, is not provided or facilitated throughout restaurants and the nation in general.

It was clearly mentioned that when consumers do choose to dine at a restaurant applying any green practices, it's because that restaurant has already satisfied the consumers' expectations in terms of food quality. Engaging in environmental practices or initiatives are perceived as secondary. Therefore, these examples lead the researcher to believe that consumers currently belong in the 'Promoters' category, where they can be used as a tool to market a restaurant's green practices, possibly through the use of incentives. This can be facilitated through intense education and marketing (Jang et al., 2015; Albus and Ro, 2017), either through social media platforms or physically at their outlets, about green management and its benefits. Restaurants can also engage in developing appropriate communication strategies with their customers about the green practices deployed, where messages designed around benefits, relating to concepts of value creation, and outcomes can be more influential than simply marketing green product attributes (Xu and Jeong, 2019).

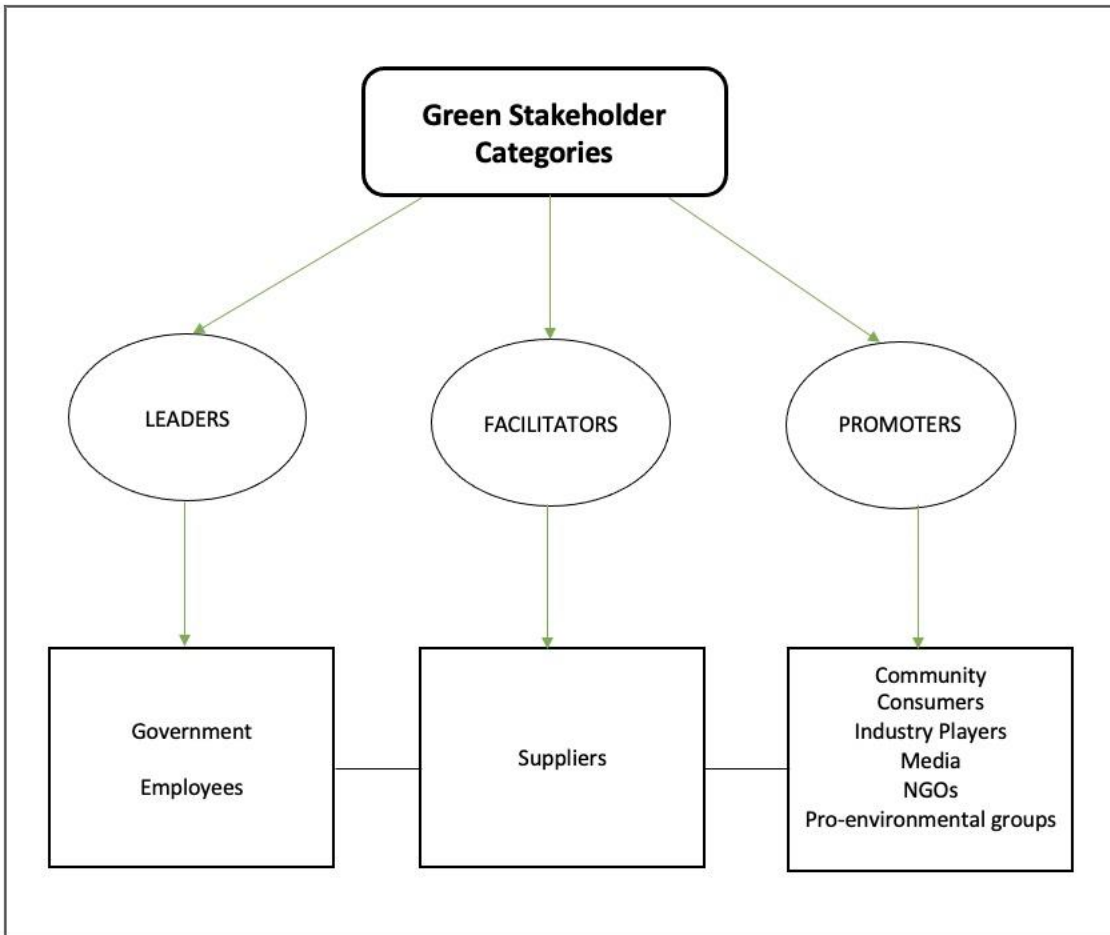
The next category, named 'Facilitators', included suppliers and employees. These two stakeholder groups are believed to help restaurants, on an operational level, in performing or realizing their environmental objectives. Once again, in terms of suppliers, greener supply chains, as articulated earlier, can be a very helpful approach in achieving or implementing green practices, such as acquiring sustainable foods, using eco-packaging, and reducing carbon footprint. The provision of green products/materials from suppliers is very important for restaurants that aim to reduce their environmental impact. Employees, as well, are seen as another stakeholder to facilitate the green adoption process. According to data collection and analysis, restaurants and other stakeholders have placed great importance on employee participation. It is validated that employee management through education, training and encouragement, is critical to restaurants applying green measures. In fact, as a result of this, the researcher felt that employees are to be placed in the 'Leaders' category, along with the government, instead of consumers.

The last category, named 'Promoters', includes the rest of stakeholders namely community, media, industry players, pro-environmental groups and NGOs. During the focus group discussion, few participants debated about the insertion of community and NGOs in this category. Basically, they argued that in some situations, communities and NGOs can play a more active, powerful role, than just promoting the adoption of green practices. Yet, the researcher still believes that NGOs, for example, can currently only help in progressing the adoption of green practices, such as aiding restaurants in combating food waste, as recommended by Dhir et al. (2020). Concerning communities, in some locations they can influence the implementation of a few environmental practices, only however through the aid of the governor, which represents the government. For example, they can in fact trigger

change for certain environmental problems, such as water management or plastic reduction. Although communities may enforce minimal regulations, which is a result of an agreement between private management companies with district governors, they can't be considered 'Leaders' yet. This is because not all communities are currently active in leading change, on the contrary, they might oppose or cause some tensions. A restaurant has spoken about their inability to bring recycling bins to place their segregated garbage because it was rejected by the mall managers. A solution here would be the collaboration of neighboring restaurants in this specific mall with community heads and the NGOs who will pick up and deal with the waste.

Following the modifications made to this categorization, the following figure depicts the final organization of stakeholders into their related categories.

**Figure 7.2 Green stakeholder categories-modified**



***7.5.2 Salience attributes represent stakeholder impact***

One of the main aspects discussed during the focus group discussion was to elicit participant perspectives on stakeholder salience theory. Initially, there was some debate among participants, as they were giving much thought to the attributes some stakeholders possess. There were also instances where no opinion was given at all. However, during the discussion, followed by interpretation, it was very clear that salience attributes, in this context, are mainly a means of determining the impact of a stakeholder. In other words,



such attributes, in most cases, can help in evaluating or portraying a stakeholder's influence in the network of stakeholders, and not for stakeholder identification as argued by Neville et al. (2011) or prioritization, as originally claimed by Mitchell et al. (1997). However, it should be noted that a stakeholder may still be very crucial, despite them being accorded any attributes. This holds true for employees for example, who in this study, were found to hold no saliency attributes, yet their inclusion and engagement in green implementation and ultimate success is paramount. This supports the findings of Farmaki (2019), where employees and local authorities were accorded moderate saliency, yet were highly influential to a hotel's success. Therefore, this means as a stakeholder, they are vital and their engagement in green implementation is essentially required.

In terms of salience attributes, most stakeholder groups in this study were evaluated differently in comparison with earlier hospitality studies namely Farmaki (2019), ElShafei (2017, 2022) and Perrigot et al. (2020). Similar to ElShafei (2022), governments in the UAE are definitive stakeholders, possessing all three attributes. In terms of suppliers, there is a common perspective concerning their possession of power, aligning with Perrigot et al. (2020) for restaurants and cafes in France. There were some differences, when compared with the findings of Farmaki (2019). For example, the author claims communities are only urgent, while in this study it was found that in addition to urgency, they have some degree of power. The author also advocates employee legitimacy and urgency, while participants in this study attributed them no attributes. All these studies are conducted in developed nations and more importantly, articulations are based on the original foundation of stakeholder salience theory for stakeholder prioritization. Differences can be attributed to context, where in Egypt, stakeholders for green adoption are perceived in a different manner. Also,

evaluations of salience attributes, as perceived by participants, represent stakeholder impact, in terms of green implementation and not in any way related to prioritization.

The other concept that was discovered during the analysis was that salience attributes exist on a continuum, and not variables that either exist or not, as originally explained by Mitchell et al. (1997), which parallels with thoughts of Neville et al. (2011). For example, as explained in chapter 4, power can be either positive or negative. Positive power means that the stakeholder is exercising it correctly and appropriately in order to reach network goals. Negative power means they are using it in a way that harms other stakeholders in the network, who shouldn't be recipients of such behaviors. For example, using power to punish businesses that are not adhering to green rules or incentivizing green adoption is the positive use of power and would benefit the overall network. However, charging higher prices or not providing some resources to go green is referred to as negative power. Examples include suppliers' highly expensive organic products or governments not establishing awareness workshops or recognition to businesses adopting green criteria. Such scenarios can exist for the other attributes.

Also, salience attributes can either be shared by stakeholders, shifted to or transferred from one stakeholder to another in the network, based on certain actions by stakeholders. For example, when the government, who possess power, puts into effect green laws, ultimately this power can then be shared or shifted to perhaps suppliers. Suppliers will have the power and authorization then to produce and impose the sale of greener materials. This aligns with earlier arguments by Raab et al. (2018), claiming suppliers can influence restaurants in adopting green measures and connecting

restaurants with one another in the industry. Such a scenario will lead restaurants to acquire the status of legitimacy.

Consumers, at this point, who are pro the environment can have urgent claims, which would parallel with the newly set laws in favor of green implementation. Consumer's urgent claims towards restaurants to provide green products and services supports that restaurants are stakeholders themselves within this network of diverse stakeholders. Consumers who don't care about the environment can be swayed with provision of incentives in order to participate in this value creation network, since the overall legitimacy of going green will become more digested in society. Of course, these attributes can be used in a negative manner, where it is expected that effects on the rest of the network i.e., stakeholders, can be adverse. This resembles the concept of stakeholder benefits explained earlier (see section 6.4.1). Any stakeholder action can have either positive, rewarding effects or negative, harmful consequences, where all network actors are influenced.

This is also directly related to the arguments of Frooman (1999), where stakeholders can influence each other by adopting certain strategies. Both 'withholding' and 'usage' strategies can be applicable in this context. For example, stakeholders acquiring more power and/or urgency than others, can choose to exercise 'withhold' strategies with other stakeholders, to trigger their engagement. On the other hand, stakeholders who are seen having equal levels of attributes or are co-dependent as argued by the author, can consider 'usage' strategies, where resources are granted, but with conditions or to a limit. Yet, this requires careful thought, because once again, any action taken by any stakeholder will have effects on the rest of the network. Therefore, it is crucial that stakeholders realize their existence is in the form of a network, where their co-operation as a whole is

obligatory, to ensure positive outcomes. These presumptions can answer the questions put forth by Neville and Menguc (2006) of the possible outcomes of stakeholders collaborating with similar salience status. It was found that salience attributes highly shift between stakeholders, depending on a certain action, or are even shared. This will have positive outcomes on the whole network, not just the restaurant.

It was noticed during the focus group discussion that power and urgency are more relevant and applicable in this context than legitimacy, whether it is legitimacy of claims or stakeholders, as differentiated by Eesley and Lenox (2006). Stakeholders are mainly responsive either to other powerful stakeholders, such as the government, or urgent ones such as communities. Legitimacy in this study was found not to be of importance i.e., influential, or can be perceived as inherent automatically once power (positive) and urgency are existent. Notwithstanding, once power and urgency are put into effect throughout the network, businesses including restaurants, suppliers and even the media for example can be considered illegitimate if they choose not to adhere to powerful, urgent claims. Restaurants not providing green products or services as well as suppliers will be regarded as illegitimate. If the media chooses not to advertise, promote and educate society concerning the environment, it will also be regarded as illegitimate. Nevertheless, according to the analysis, the researcher proposes that along with power and urgency, which determine stakeholder influence in the network, an additional variable should be incorporated, named 'stakeholder accountability'. As mentioned, legitimacy is not an influential predictor in the Egyptian context, although with inclusion of accountability or responsibility, it can be incorporated and would help to shape a stakeholder's behavior. In other words, legitimate stakeholder behaviors can be monitored and nourished, which are presumed to circumvent failure of owning up to one's

(stakeholder) responsibility, avoiding illegitimate status. These findings are different from that of ElShafei (2017) for the adoption of sustainable water consumption in UAE hotels, where the author recommends hospitality managers should focus on urgent and legitimate claims, more important than giving attention to powerful stakeholders.

Also, ascribing responsibility to stakeholders, according to their roles and influence, can be an important criterion. Stakeholder accountability, which is seen as a transformative variable, would substantially increase stakeholders' commitment and dedication, including restaurants, towards the achievement of network environmental goals. This variable is seen as more appropriate in this context and has resulted as outcome from an approach recommended approach by Tashman and Raelin (2013) for determining stakeholder salience, a dialogue designed to take place between restaurants (firm) and stakeholders. It can be confirmed that such a technique has somehow resolved issues related to information misperception, opportunistic behaviors and conflicting claims as suggested by the authors. Specifically, in this study during the focus group, information about a business, its products and intensions were put forth explicitly. Discussing stakeholder roles and how they can contribute to value creation has reduced self-interested behaviors. At least, claims of business issues and such interests were highlighted openly, with the aim of reaching solutions collectively. In addition, this approach has also nourished the opportunity for stakeholders to realize their collaboration is indeed possible, and would be of great value, especially when such a network was initially distorted.

## 7.6 Green role & Value Creation

Earlier stakeholder maps (Freeman, 1984; Fassin, 2009), in addition to stakeholder relationships portrayed in a network (Rowley, 1997) have been presented earlier in Chapter 3. Although all these previous articulations are paramount in stakeholder theory and have proposed significant advancements, yet firstly they stress that it is the firm's duty to handle or manage stakeholders through pressure. Settling and managing stakeholders' interests and relationships should not be a task of restaurant management solely, as originally argued by Mitchell et al. (1997), as well as for sustainability management (Horisch et al., 2014). In other words, it is constantly argued in the form of stakeholders being on one side, either independent or in form of allies, and the firm on its own on another side, particularly taking center position in graphical stakeholder depictions.

Secondly, salience attributes have been argued to define stakeholder prioritization (Mitchell et al., 1997), where the more attributes stakeholders possess, the more attention they are given by management.

In fact, interests, value acquired, accountability as well as influence through attributes/roles, should be discussed by all stakeholders collaboratively, as argued above in this section, in order to foster effective networks for value creation. Environmentally responsible leadership among stakeholders towards one another is presumed to progress goal attainment throughout the network. This aligns with findings of Jang et al. (2017) where the authors confirm that managers' environmental leadership had a direct effect on a restaurant's sustainability and indirectly through stakeholder engagement. This will also allow trust to flourish, since stakeholders will be

held responsible for fulfilling their roles, leading to cascading effects on the rest of the network between the various actors, agreeing with Crane (2020).

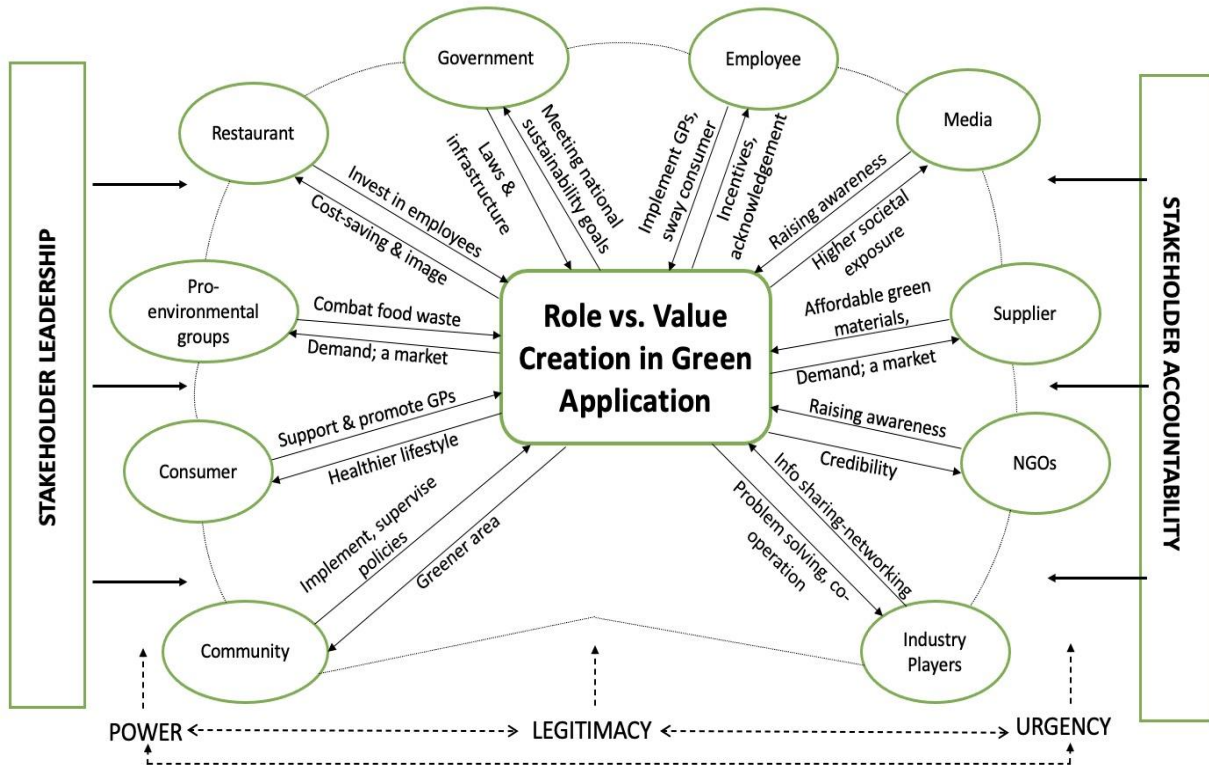
Restaurants as well in this context, are stakeholders in the dynamic network constituting stakeholder groups for implementing green measures in the restaurant industry. From this perspective, it should not only be the task of firm management to manage and direct the relationships between the various stakeholders. As a matter of fact, every stakeholder has a major role and perhaps other minor roles, to be played in this specific network, where each stakeholder group should be held responsible for their behavior and resulting impact on such a network. This correlates with the concept of interdependent value-creation (Schneider and Sachs, 2015).

However, according to the findings of this research, which is context-based (Egypt), the research proposes several variations to the above. It can be argued that since stakeholders exist in a network (Rowley, 1997) including the restaurant, means that the focal firm or the restaurant in this matter shouldn't acquire the position of a central entity. Restaurants are considered a stakeholder, from the perspective of other stakeholders in the network, where they (restaurants) have certain interests and obligations as well. Different from the above articulations also, restaurants should not be the only stakeholder assigned the duty of satisfying all other stakeholder's needs and managing their claims, as has been presented in the above maps. Given this proposal, what should be, however, placed in the center<sub>7</sub> is the value creation process and not an entity i.e., stakeholder. In this specific example, the value creation process would be green implementation. Within this network of value creation, the researcher recommends the inclusion and exercise of stakeholder accountability and leadership throughout the whole network and for each of the stakeholders.

In terms of salience attributes, such attributes are a means of highlighting the type of impact a stakeholder can have in this given network. As argued in this chapter, salience attributes exist on a continuum, meaning there are levels of intensity for each. In fact, when a stakeholder in the network does a certain action, their acquired attributes may shift to another stakeholder or shared; they are transitory. In fact, a stakeholder may not possess any of the salience attributes, yet can still be important and have tremendous impact within the network, such as employees, which was highlighted earlier in chapters 5 and 6. The following representation helps in showing these proposed variations:



**Figure 7.3 Role vs. Value Creation in Green Application**



The following can be explicated from the above Figure:

1. The value-creation network consists of 10 distinguished stakeholder groups, including the restaurant, for green implementation in Egyptian restaurants.
2. It is not necessary that all stakeholders are directly connected; on the contrary, each stakeholder has a certain major role to fulfill (as depicted in the figure), according to the stakeholder's competency in this given network, which should be clearly known to all others. This can be interpreted by analogy, with each stakeholder possessing an important piece in a jigsaw puzzle, agreeing with articulations of Haleem et al. (2022) where each stakeholder is unique in how they are influential in terms of sustainability, yet the research argues such

influence is within the network and not towards the organization as argued by the authors.

3. In order for each stakeholder to play their role actively, they must understand the value they will acquire back from contributing to the overall unified value-adding process. Steps 2 and 3 both need to be initially discussed, negotiated and finally agreed upon by all stakeholders collectively to reach a consensus on roles and value delivered.
4. When each stakeholder fulfills their role in the network, other stakeholders will benefit as well. For example, when the media carries out awareness, the result is having a more aware, sustainable society. This will benefit the government, where some of the national sustainability goals can be met. The community will be better preserving its natural resources. NGOs can further relate to such awareness campaigns as part of their workshops. The same concept of the “ripple effect” of benefits applies with other stakeholder roles all over the network.
5. Each stakeholder must be held responsible for carrying out their role, namely through ‘stakeholder accountability’. This is a necessity to avoid any defects in the value-creation network, where failing to achieve one’s task will have a ripple effect on the rest of the network, where all parties are bound to suffer. Value delivered to each stakeholder at this stage can be at stake.
6. Impact of each role, in most cases, can be further understood or shaped by reference to salience attributes. The existence of power, legitimacy or urgency can be used as a reference for stakeholder impact within the network. Powerful stakeholders are highly impactful, such as governments, similar to arguments of (Goodman et al., 2017; Saito and Ruhanen, 2017; Marques et al., 2019; Perrigot et al., 2020),

where they initiate actions and can result in triggering the establishment of other powerful, legitimate and urgent stakeholder influences.

7. This value-creation network can be further refined or presumably flourish through stakeholder leadership, which should be a task for all stakeholders and assigned to their role. Leadership activities, or roles namely expert and facilitator (Voegtlin et al., 2020) need to be tailored to environmental preservation. According to the authors, expert leaders are concerned with efficiency related to goal attainment, while facilitating leaders deal with encouragement of employees. Yet, in this context, encouragement is essential to motivate all active stakeholders in the network.
8. Salience attributes exist within the network, shift in intensity, are of a dynamic nature and, in some cases, lead to the creation of an attribute for another stakeholder. This means they are not fixed attributes and need to be monitored, in order to effectively assess stakeholder responsibility towards the network.
9. This network layout of value creation facilitates overcoming the challenges initially faced by Egyptian restaurants, where each stakeholder will carry out a specific task contributing to the overall elevation of green implementation.
10. When all the value creation network beings operating according to the above aspects, skepticism will be reduced, where trust will begin to gradually thrive between stakeholders. This requires maintaining effective communication channels, where a portal connecting network members can be suitable, similar to the concept of the web portal proposed by the researcher to the Ministry of Environment in Egypt (see Appendix 9).

According to the above, there are some variations compared with this study's earlier conceptual framework (see Figure 3.5) presented in chapter 3. Firstly, the number of stakeholders important for greening the Egyptian restaurant industry are a total of nine groups. This means due to the study findings five additional groups were put forth by participants as vital for facilitating the adoption of green practices. In terms of the outlined challenges in adopting green measures, stakeholder engagement is confirmed, however, the process of implementing green practices revolves around value creation. Furthermore, it was realized that the restaurant itself is a stakeholder and is in fact included in the network, along with other stakeholders. In other words, all nine groups and the restaurant are seen to have roles to fulfil in the green value creation network. This means restaurants as well, have an influence on the application of green practices. In other words, according to research analysis, each stakeholder has a role to fulfill in the value creation green network, where the concepts of stakeholder accountability and leadership are put forth. Saliency attributes are dynamic, and in a continuous state of shifting between all stakeholders in the network, including the restaurant.

## **7.7 Management recommendations**

This research is set out to understand how restaurants in Egypt can overcome green management barriers to become more environmentally conscious and reduce their environmental impact, through the help of certain stakeholders. According to the findings of this research, the following are a list of recommendations restaurant management should consider to reduce such challenges:

1. Restaurants need to acknowledge that are certain factors that are somehow decisive of the type of green practices to be implemented. These include restaurant type, location and targeted consumers. Chain restaurants tend to engage in using eco-friendly packaging and green education, while upscale outlets invest in energy efficient machinery and serving small portions. Casual restaurants try to minimize food waste by managing their leftovers. In terms of location, situating in certain communities shape the green practices to be adopted. Some communities dictate certain environmental measures to be followed, such as water management or waste segregation. Finally, restaurants need to be aware of the consumer profile they are targeting. For example, some consumers need to be further educated on green management and its importance, others require promotional tactics to motivate their participation in fostering a greener environment.
2. Employees are a critical asset. They can highly influence the successful achievement of green adoption. This is because they are responsible for dealing with company resources as well as their daily interaction with restaurant consumers. Therefore, it is necessitated that they are educated on various environmental management topics, as well as trained on how to best carry out their tasks efficiently, with minimum resources. Educating and training employees will not only help in optimizing the use of restaurant resources and saving costs, but will also be able to influence restaurant consumers through their knowledge. Employee environmental awareness will allow them as a stakeholder to teach consumers for example, about the importance of reducing food waste or using eco-friendly packaging, and perhaps exercise leadership tactics to motivate consumers to engage in green application. Management, therefore, can also resort to educational and training workshops for their employees, provided by external entities.

Furthermore, these employees must be compensated for their involvement in and contribution to achieving green targets, through financial reward or non-monetary benefits, such as company recognition.

3. From the previous points, it is clear consumers are part of the green process. When consumers become more aware and educated about green products and services, restaurants should try to engage them in promoting the application of green practices. Consumers can take their food leftovers, bring back materials for recycling or simply reviewing and recommending such outlets on social media. When consumers carry out such tasks, they can be rewarded through discounted meals.
4. In order to acquire materials with lower environmental impact and offer consumers greener products, restaurants must deal with suppliers providing such products. Since the existence of such suppliers currently is not common, restaurants are therefore encouraged to be more proactive. This means teaching suppliers about the importance of green sourcing and collaboratively designing and producing such products. This is referred to as supplier development and will also highly strengthen the relationship between restaurants and their suppliers. Once again restaurants can adopt leadership tactics to encourage suppliers to co-operate, such as agreement to source solely from them or return recyclable products. Such actions will allow for a greener supply chain approach, which can benefit all chain actors.
5. Industry players can satisfy a vital aspect; joint decision-making. Restaurants are highly advised to communicate with other restaurants, where they can collectively discuss and engage in problem solving to benefit the industry, from an environmental perspective. For example,

restaurants can agree to host an event or participate in an initiative that promotes the adoption of green management.

6. Restaurants are encouraged to establish networking channels with other external stakeholders, such as governments, NGOs and environmental businesses, such as ones combating food waste. Engaging with governments, namely Ministries of Environment and Tourism, can lead to the establishment of policies in time. In other words, when the industry deals with such governmental entities, they can negotiate setting green regulations and plan how to put them into effect, where both can ultimately benefit from such a co-operation. Working with NGOs will facilitate the application of some green practices, such as increasing environmental awareness in a certain community, recycling waste or donations. Dealing with environmental entities can also allow for the management of food leftovers, whether in form of charity or re-selling for reduced prices.

## **7.8 Chapter Summary**

This chapter is able to present a discussion of the findings relevant to academic literature. Firstly, restaurants in this study implement green practices including waste reduction, using more sustainable materials, water management and green education, based on their type, location and targeted consumers. Different types of restaurants I.e., fine dining vs. More casual or QSR restaurants, don't concentrate equally on the same green practices. In terms of location, communities are found to possess urgency and therefore drive and, in some cases, force the implementation of green practices. Consumers with certain characteristics were also found to be more appealing to green practices, in specific ones that are aged between 20 and

40. In terms of facilitating the adoption of green activities, the government had a role of establishing laws, establishing a greener infrastructure as well as providing incentives and the know-how. Engaging in raising awareness was also cited.

Greener supply chains, specifically high collaboration with suppliers of eco-packaging or organic foods, were also evident. Employee management was found to be of high significance to the success of applying green measures within restaurants, due to their ability to utilize resources, minimize waste and highly influence consumers. Awareness concerning environmental protection, including the application of green activities, is generally deficient among all actors in society, namely the identified stakeholders and is a task that most stakeholders can engage in with stakeholders they directly deal with. More importantly, communication and validation of the value delivered, as part of environmental education, is crucial among stakeholders.

Stakeholders were found to be existent in a network. A green stakeholder categorization scheme, which groups stakeholders, was also presented. Salience attributes were found to be means of evaluating the impact of stakeholders, can shift from one stakeholder to another, and exist on a continuum. Collaboration and better engagement between network stakeholders in general can reduce trust issues, heighten awareness and facilitate the achievement of environmental goals, such as co-operating with suppliers to provide sustainable foods and NGOs to promote waste management. The next chapter will present the main conclusions, including theoretical and practical contributions, of this research study.



## Chapter 8 - Conclusion

### 8.1 Introduction

This chapter presents a conclusion for this research study. Section 8.2 discusses how research objectives were met. Section 8.3 highlights the theoretical contributions from research findings, followed by section 8.4 outlining the practical implications. Limitations are presented in section 8.5, concluding the chapter with scope of further research in section 8.6.

### 8.2 Meeting research objectives

The aim of this research is to explore the challenges faced by restaurants in Egypt when adopting environmental practices and depict the important stakeholder groups and their relevant roles, using salience attributes. In order to meet this aim, there are three main objectives where next, each will be linked to the findings of the study. It is believed that all three objectives have been met.

**Objective 1:** *To explore the barriers faced by restaurant operators in adopting green measures in Egypt.*

One of the main issues that has been tackled in the in-depth interviews with restaurants in the first stage of data collection concerns barriers. In other words, the researcher has explicitly questioned restaurateurs on the challenges they face as they implement green practices. In the interview guide (see Appendix 2), this was a direct question. It was always followed by

a deeper exploration and elaboration on the different obstacles found by these operators in adopting green measures. From the findings, which were presented in chapter 4, several challenges have been posed. These include the weak or lack of governmental support, relevant environmental infrastructure, green materials i.e., greener supply chains, employee engagement and environmental education.

In terms of government support, the establishment of laws to regulate environmental protection, provision of the required infrastructure such as a formal recycling system and the provision of some incentives, either financial rewards, tax exemptions or recognition have been voiced. Another major obstacle found by restaurants was the ability to access greener materials that are both available by suppliers and affordable. Many restaurants have complained about the insufficient supply of eco-materials, that are of low quality in many instances and overly priced. These aspects clearly link to the tactics of green supply chains, which are still not fully developed in Egypt. Next comes employee management, which was also stressed by many participants. It was communicated that although employees are a major obstacle in facilitating the implementation of green criteria, yet they are considered one of the main determinants in the success of green adoption. Since they are ones that actually carry out restaurant operations, their education, training and mindset are of crucial importance. Finally, the low level of environmental awareness perhaps by all parties or society in general was also put forth. It should be noted, as stated earlier, that these barriers were identified during the in-depth interviews. Yet, they were once again reaffirmed during the focus group discussion, in particular by the 2 participating restaurants.

**Objective 2:** *To determine the stakeholder groups in addition to their evaluative salience attributes, relevant in the greening of the Egyptian restaurant industry.*

Similar to the above objective, determining the important stakeholder groups in the restaurant industry, from an environmental perspective, was another aspect explicitly inquired about. During the in-depth interviews, the researcher has asked restaurants to list the different stakeholders they see as critical to the successful adoption of green practices to their operations. As a result, a list of 9 stakeholders was provided, which includes the government, supplier, consumer, employee, media, pro-environmental groups, NGOs, community and industry players. Not all restaurants however have voiced all 9 stakeholders. For example, almost all restaurants have confirmed stakeholders to be governments, consumers, employees, suppliers, community and NGOs. The rest of the stakeholders were mentioned by many restaurants, but not all of them. This list of stakeholders was crucial to the design of the focus group discussion, where it was used to decide to have all stakeholders participate.

This objective, specifically stakeholder salience evaluation, has also been discussed in the focus group discussion. In the discussion, participating stakeholders were asked to engage in evaluating the list of identified stakeholders according to stakeholder salience theory, specifically the three attributes of power, legitimacy and urgency. Participants were asked to rate each stakeholder, using the 3 attributes, in order to determine, from their perspectives, how such groups can be prioritized. It was found that governments and the media possess power, and in some instances, this applies to suppliers, once the government establishes and applies its green laws. Communities mainly dominate the urgency attribute and can drive legitimacy for NGOs in that certain community. Also, legitimacy was found to

be attributed to industry players when they apply green practices, through the government's power to set environmental regulations. Although employees' importance has been confirmed during both stages of data collection, they were not allocated any of the 3 attributes.

**Objective 3:** *To understand the roles and impact of such stakeholders within the restaurant industry in Egypt.*

This objective is one that has been explored in both stages of data collection, especially in more depth, during the focus group discussion. During the in-depth interviews, restaurants were asked about the role of each of the stakeholders they had previously identified. For the government, restaurants have firmly spoken about how it needs to have a more serious, proactive role. This role includes, once again, establishment of green laws with appropriate inspection mechanisms, development of a greener infrastructure to facilitate green adoption, initiating campaigns to raise awareness and the concept of incentives. In fact, during the focus group discussion, other stakeholders have advocated that in Egypt, the government must initiate and lead the implementation of green measures, through practicing the above aspects. In terms of suppliers, restaurants have spoken about the difficulty they face when trying to procure greener materials. As has been articulated in objective number 1, restaurants are requesting the availability of more suppliers of greener products, that are affordable with good quality.

In terms of consumers, restaurants only hoped they would support green products/services and reject others that harm the environment, which is closely tied to the issue of awareness and behavior. In terms of employees, restaurants wish they are more patient and not resisting change in carrying out their tasks in a more efficient manner, although some of them confirm

this needs some tactics from management themselves to encourage such behaviors. Other stakeholders were assigned other roles. For example, media and NGOs mainly have a duty to raise awareness for environmental protection through talk shows on TV or campaigns. Communities are seen as ones that can be implementers of governmental laws and try themselves to be proactive in bringing about change. Pro-environmental groups, such as reselling leftover foods or surpluses, can focus on combating issues of wasted food. Industry players serve as a means of networking with others in the restaurant industry. In other words, restaurants communicating with one another helps them in discussing, informing and sometimes resolving relevant issues in the industry.

Following such interpretations, a green stakeholder categorization model was presented initially in chapter 5 (see Figure 5.2). The model highlights places stakeholders into three main groups which include 'leaders', 'facilitators' and 'promoters'. Following interpretations from the in-depth interviews, 'leaders' including the government and consumers, are seen to lead green adoption in Egypt. The government is mainly responsible for establishing laws and developing the appropriate know-how while consumers can lead by only demanding green products and services. The next category, 'facilitators', include suppliers and employees. Such a category is responsible for facilitating green adoption, where suppliers provide the required materials and employees to operationally implement green activities. Lastly, 'promoters', include the rest of stakeholders including the community, media, industry players, NGOs and pro-environmental groups. These groups are seen to further promote and activate green management implementation through awareness, additional policies or green measures and workshops.

However, after the focus group discussion, two alterations were made, with the newer model presented in chapter 7 (see Figure 7.2). Consumers were found to be 'promoters', and not yet considered 'leaders' in the greening of the restaurant industry in Egypt due to the lack of existing green products and services. Currently, they can only help in progressing green activities through their green consumption or supporting green establishments. Also, employees joined the government as they were found to be 'leaders' and not 'facilitators' of green adoption. Employees are vital to green implementation in restaurants and therefore, the importance of their engagement and participation places them in the 'leaders' category.

**Objective 4:** *To develop a new conceptual framework, depicting the implementation of restaurant green practices using a stakeholder value perspective.*

In order to develop a new conceptual framework, it was required initially for the study to be able to meet the first three objectives. In other words, the new conceptual model provided in chapter 7 (see Figure 7.2) depicts the initial concepts intended to be further explored, in order to present a green restaurant framework. Specifically, these concepts include restaurant challenges in green adoption, stakeholder identification, evaluation of stakeholder attributes and the exploration of stakeholders' roles and impact in green application.

For objective number 1, the research has shown that green adoption barriers include lack of legality, non-green infrastructure, inexistence of green products i.e., weak green supply chains, low awareness, difficulty of employee engagement and trust issues.

In terms of objective number 2, 9 stakeholder groups were identified including governments, consumers, employees, suppliers, NGOs, communities, pro-environmental groups, industry players and the media. For salience attributes, it was clear that such attributes are not fixed and can be shared or transferred to other stakeholders through certain actions. For example, when governments, seen as possessors of power, put into effect green laws, this forces suppliers and restaurants to become more green. This power can shift to suppliers because they are the ones responsible for the provisioning of green materials. This will also allow restaurants to be more legitimate by time because it will become a societal norm. Consumers can also acquire urgency status, more strictly demanding greener products and services.

Objective number 3 highlights how each stakeholder needs to fulfill a certain role in order for the restaurant industry to become more green. Such roles can help the restaurant industry in overcoming its green challenges. For example, governments can establish environmental laws, whereby restaurants will be forced to abide and therefore apply green activities. Suppliers will need to produce and provide greener materials. Environmental awareness will be improved and consumers will begin to demand more green products and services. Also, a green stakeholder categorization model was presented.

According to these outcomes, objective number 4 was met by the development of the Figure 7.2 Role vs. Value Creation in Green Application. This conceptual model shows that stakeholders and restaurants in their network work towards green value creation. Each stakeholder is held accountable for a certain role to be fulfilled as well as receiving a certain benefit from their participation in such a process. Stakeholder leadership can

further promote and improve the success of the green value network. Saliency attributes are shown to exist within the network among stakeholders. The nature of such attributes is considered dynamic and of transitory status; shifting and shared among stakeholder groups.

### **8.3 Research originality**

Working towards a sustainable environment in the hospitality industry is becoming necessary and important more than ever. This is due to the industry's overly use of resources and waste generation. Restaurants are no exception and indeed highly contribute to environmental degradation, yet have been neglected as a sector, compared with hotels, in the green hospitality academic literature. Specifically, the majority of restaurants in Egypt, accounting for around 38,000 establishments, lack a framework to become more environmental-friendly. Therefore, this research was set out to further understand the challenges restaurants in Egypt face in adopting green measures and how relevant stakeholders can help restaurants overcome such barriers, in order facilitate and progress the implementation of green practices. A stakeholder approach was adopted, specifically stakeholder saliency, in exploring the greening of the Egyptian restaurant industry.

Alajami (2020) states that research uniqueness and novelty contribute to research originality. The author explains that uniqueness in research refers to how the research is conducted i.e., the research process and type of data collected, while novelty is the degree of newness of research questions and subsequent outcomes. Specifically, Sigala (2021, pg.605) writes originality "...should reflect a novel and/or original research idea that can advance our knowledge by studying new phenomena and/or studying existing



phenomena in new ways/ approaches". Alajami (2020) further claims that originality can be achieved through multiple ways, including (pg.5) "proposing a new mechanism distinct from existing techniques on an issue".

According to such advocations, this research has achieved originality for the following reasons. Firstly, the researcher has followed a rigorous and scientific research process to conduct their study, including literature critiquing, methodological design, data analysis and conclusions. Next, from a theoretical perspective, stakeholder salience theory was used as a lens to further explore the application of green practices in Egyptian restaurants. In addition, a new technique for stakeholder salience evaluation was adopted in this study, which was originally suggested by Tashman and Raelin (2013). Applying stakeholder salience attributes in the Egyptian restaurant industry for further understanding stakeholder roles reflects a unique approach which has yielded novel outcomes. In other words, the research is considered significant in that it has been able to provide theoretical contributions specifically to stakeholder theory, and practical implications, with two major proposals submitted to the Ministry of Environment. Each of these will be discussed next in greater detail.

#### **8.4 Theoretical contributions**

This study is set out to highlight the different challenges faced by restaurant operators in adopting green measures in Egypt, as well as further understanding the roles various stakeholder groups can play. From the findings, this study offers few contributions to the existing body of knowledge. Even though these contributions have been discussed in earlier chapters, they are explicitly detailed here. Corley and Gioia (2011, pg. 15)

write “the idea of contribution rests largely on the ability to provide original insight into a phenomenon by advancing knowledge in a way that is deemed to have utility or usefulness for some purpose”. The authors explain that a contribution to theory is founded on two concepts; originality and utility. Originality is either progressing existing knowledge forward (incremental) or providing new and surprising facts (revelatory). Utility refers to whether the contribution is scientifically (theoretically) or practically (managerially) useful. Nicholson et al. (2018) further elaborate on the concept of originality, where they outline the three types of incremental contributions or “gap spotting” as either neglect (under-researched), confusion (lack of consensus) or new context spotting (presenting new uses of an existing theory). They also present revelatory contributions as either combining theoretical lens from different disciplines or challenging existing assumptions.

In terms of green application in restaurants, this study is able to expand on existing research by outlining the pertinent stakeholder groups, within a developing country context, namely Egypt. As articulated earlier in chapter 2, namely Table 2.10, some of the previous studies on green restaurants, carried out in different contexts, pinpoint or indirectly imply the relevant stakeholder groups namely government, suppliers, customers and employees. Yet, there was no agreement or specific mapping of the significant stakeholder groups that can aid restaurants in Egypt and how they can progress this industry in terms of its environmental agenda. According to the findings of this research, in addition to suppliers, customers and employees, it was found that governments, NGOs, competitors/industry players, pro-environmental groups, media and community are also of critical importance, each with a unique task to carry out. It is evident that each of

these groups are all significant for their distinctive role in promoting the implementation of green activities in Egyptian restaurants.

Considering the stakeholder salience theory, this is the first study in Egypt to empirically explore the green restaurant industry through salience attributes. According Figure 6.2, one of the main findings of this research is that stakeholder salience attributes were found to be dynamic variables, can be shared between stakeholders and are not of the same intensity. These salience attributes are used to determine stakeholder impact in a given value network. Another finding is considering the focal organization (restaurant) as a stakeholder itself and belongs with the rest of the stakeholders in the value creation network. It is removed from the center of the graphical representations of earlier stakeholder and network maps (Freeman 1984; Rowley, 1997; Fassin, 2009) where the researcher claims and supports that all stakeholders equally have roles in creating value and at the same time, are held responsible to fulfill such roles, through stakeholder accountability. Stakeholder leadership in addition is another variable that helps to shape and foster positive stakeholder engagement in the network. According to these findings, a theoretical contribution to stakeholder salience theory is considered one that is of 'new context' spotting (Nicholson et al., 2018), within the umbrella of incremental contributions. These findings represent a new way of using the stakeholder salience theory. Specifically, the study findings highlight that such attributes are used to determine and evaluate stakeholder impact within the value creation network.

## **8.5 Practical and managerial implications**

Shaped by research findings and analysis, two main proposals, developed by the researcher, have been designed and submitted to the Ministry of Environment.

Since environmental awareness was one of the main obstacles found during data collection, the first proposal was designed by the researcher to establish awareness campaigns inside Egyptian universities. The proposal highlighted the urgent need for raising environmental awareness and education, which will ultimately lead to changed behaviors; fostering greener lifestyles. Also, it was designed to take place inside university campuses in order to target students; younger people in the society. Young people are often very creative, have fresh ideas and are considered change makers. The proposed strategies for implementation included integrating sustainability topics within teachings, expert sessions by academics and industry practitioners related to the environment, competitions, recycling and use of environmental-friendly materials on the campus. The proposal was accepted by the Minister of Environment in December 2020 and sent to the Ministry of Higher Education for approval. In February 2021, a letter from the Minister of Higher Education was sent to the Minister of Environment, authorizing the campaign. A translated copy of this document in English can be found in Appendix 8. Following this document, several meetings have taken place with attendance by ministry officials and representatives from 2 major universities in Egypt. An online meeting to “kick off” the campaign took place mid-December 2021, where the Minister of Environment gave a speech about the importance of environmental protection and the role students can play in transforming Egypt to be

greener. Officially, by February 2022, both universities have started embedding some of the aspects suggested earlier in the original proposal.

The second proposal submitted to the Minister of Environment was related to the establishment of a web portal. One of the main findings that has emerged during analysis is the lack of networking between the different stakeholders. Confirming Rowley's (1997) ideas of social networking, it was found that these stakeholders, found in this study, do exist in a network. However, the lack of networking, is hindering the adoption or progress of green implementation in Egypt. Therefore, the researcher has designed a blueprint for a proposed online web portal (see Appendix 9). The portal was designed to offer contacts for environmental consultation and experts, list of pro green suppliers and communities, keep stakeholders updated with ministry efforts, post research papers related to the environment and green management.

The web portal also had another major advantage, and that is requesting users, either individuals or businesses, to take a simple quiz about their lifestyles or operations to determine environmental impact. The main outcome of this feature, which would be very beneficial to the ministry and the country, is the ability to build a statistical base. These figures can be used at a future time for benchmarking purposes. The portal is designed in such a way where users create an account detailing all their data, where incentives are to be given according to any initiatives or tasks they carry out. For example, if a business decides to take a quiz or posts a suggestion about how to resolve a certain issue, they can be rewarded by the ministry. It should be noted that establishment of this web portal would provide an opportunity for merging academic research with the practical world.

For managers of restaurants, in specific, there are important implications to be outlined. The first issue that needs to be acknowledged is deciding which green practices to adopt depends on 3 aspects; restaurant type, location and consumer base. Restaurants should choose to implement green criteria according to these factors. In other words, QSRs tend to focus on reducing their plastic usage as well as participating in community activities to raise awareness of green education. On the other hand, casual and more upscale restaurants focus on reducing food wastes and in some cases, invest in efficient machinery. In terms of location, the place where the restaurant is situated may dictate which green practice needs to be implemented. Geographically, either because it is an environmentally sensitive area, for example if located near the sea, or situated in a certain community, which enforces certain regulations upon the restaurant. Finally, the restaurant should be aware of the consumers they are targeting, as they are of different types and preferences, which may require different strategies to deal with.

Next, restaurant management should know of the most important asset they possess when it comes to green implementation. This simply refers to their employees, specifically, operational and front-line ones. Employee management, found to be poor in this study, yet it is one of the main findings in this research, which has been discussed during both stages of data collection. As mentioned earlier, since employees are the ones who carry out the tasks and interact daily with the consumer, their engagement and management are significantly critical. Restaurants need to invest in their employees by educating and training them on how to perform their jobs in an environmental-friendly way, efficiently, and how to preserve natural resources, within their work scope. In addition, they should be rewarded and compensated when meeting environmental targets. This will in turn lead to

changed behaviors and presumably, a changed mentality, where these employees will begin valuing environmental protection. It is expected that such behavioral changes to have positive impacts on the consumers. Employees can and are assumed to have the ability to influence restaurant consumers in considering, and by time, perhaps investing in green products, as well as, supporting green services.

Also, restaurants should try to work closely with suppliers of eco products. They could work together on designing the green product and most importantly, to have the supplier take back, exercising reverse logistics, their used materials for remanufacturing. These concepts simply align with the pillars of green supply chains.

Finally, there exists an opportunity to collaboratively work and engage with other stakeholders, such as NGOs, communities, governments, pro-environmental groups and industry players, as depicted in figure 6.2. For example, initiatives can be carried out within a certain community, with help from NGOs, to raise awareness or do cleanups, as some local restaurants have done already. Restaurants should resort to industry players, their counterparts, in the industry to share information and network with one another. Ideas can be generated and perhaps they can engage in organizing simple initiatives. Contacts can be made with pro-environmental groups, such as startups combating food waste in the industry, to reduce leftovers, which can either be distributed or even sold for half price. Finally, although it might not be an easy task, governments can be approached, preferably when joining other stakeholders, to submit recommendations, request support for event facilitation or promoting ideas further. It should be noted that, once other stakeholders see it is beneficial to work with the restaurant

on applying green practices, it is presumed they will be more encouraged to co-operate.

## **8.6 Limitations of the research**

This study has set out to understand restaurant challenges in adopting green practices and how relevant stakeholder groups can help the industry become more environmental-friendly. Although the research has been able to meet such objectives, yet the following are several limitations to be considered. Firstly, the research did not inquire about participant perceptions in terms of the definitions of the salience attributes. The purpose of the research was to understand how they evaluate such stakeholders according to these attributes. Next, due to the nature of qualitative research, the findings of this study are specific to the Egyptian context. Therefore, outcomes of the research can't be generalized. Secondly, in terms of the sample, the study only focused on local restaurants that are not affiliated with any hotel or international chains.

From a methodological perspective, the researcher was able to carry out a single focus group discussion. Reasons for this are, firstly, that it was difficult to arrange an interview meeting with a large number of people, who are not research oriented. Approaching people and trying to get them to participate was a difficult task, meaning it was challenging to carry out another discussion. This has been discussed earlier in chapter 4. Also, for COVID-19 purposes, there were some restrictions at the time still hindering physical meetings. Another limitation was the inability to invite a media representative to participate as a stakeholder in the focus group discussion.



The is mainly due to the documents and time required for obtaining certain authorizations as well as political reasons.

## **8.7 Future research**

According to the findings of this research, there is ultimately more room for future research in the greening of the restaurant industry. Initially, other theoretical bases, besides stakeholder theory, can be used as a lens to explore how environmental practices can be adopted in this specific industry. Salience attributes, as found to be determinants of stakeholder impact, can be further tested using quantitative methods and in different hospitality sectors. Future research also can help in confirming whether stakeholder obligation, through leadership, can result in value-creation for the implementation of green practices, using concepts from figure 6.2. A further exploration of how to implement greener supply chains in the Egyptian context can be advantageous and to have more insight, in terms of its relevance to environmental protection.

An interesting stream of research can also carry out a cross country comparison within their hospitality sectors, perhaps between developed and developing nations. In terms of employee management, studies can aim to understand how certain human resource practices, in specific green human resource management, can affect the adoption of green practices in the hospitality sector. A special focus can be given to front-line employees, through a focus group discussion, on how they can contribute to the successful adoption of green practices. Finally, other research may focus on a different sample of restaurants, such as hotel restaurants or international

chains, or restaurants located in Egypt's country side, which may require a different perspective and approach to adopting environmental measures.

## References

Ababneh, O. (2021). How do green HRM practices affect employees' green behaviors? The role of employee engagement and personality attributes. *Journal of Environmental Planning and Management*, 64(7), 1204-1226, DOI:10.1080/09640568.2020.1814708

Abbas, T. and Hussien, F. (2021). The effects of green supply chain management practices on firm performance: Empirical evidence from restaurants in Egypt. *Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 21(3), 358-373. DOI: 10.1177/14673584211011717

Abdou, S. (2022). The Relationship Between Green Marketing and Consumers' Buying Behavior Towards Green Products. A Field Study on Organic Food Industries in Egypt. *Scientific Journal for Research and Commercial Studies*, 36(2), 57-107.

Aboshady, A. (2019). Zooba is officially making the world a better place. Identity. <https://identity-mag.com/zooba-officially-going-100-plastic-free/>

Abou Gendy, A. (2013). Challenges Facing Official Statistics in Egypt. *Proceedings 59th ISI World Statistics Congress*, 2112-2117.

Abou Kamar, M. (2017). Food Waste in Three-Star Hotels in Egypt: Quantification and Potential for Reduction. *International Journal of Heritage, Tourism and Hospitality*, 11(2/2).

Abozaied, H. (2018). Perceptions of education for sustainable development in Egypt: Prospective changes in teaching practices [Master's Thesis, the

American University in Cairo]. AUC Knowledge Fountain.  
<https://fount.aucegypt.edu/etds/501>

Abu Zaid (2021). Egypt set to exceed 215,000 hotel rooms by end of 2021. ARAB NEWS. Retrieved from  
<https://www.arabnews.com/node/1811656/business-economy>

Abuelhassan, A. and Elsayed, Y. (2020). The impact of employee green training on hotel environmental performance in the Egyptian hotels. *International Journal on Recent Trends in Business and Tourism*, 4(1), 24-33.

Acampora, A., Lucchetti, M., Merli, R., Ali, F. (2022). The theoretical development and research methodology in green hotels research: A systematic literature review. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, 51, 512–528. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhtm.2022.05.007>

Acharya, A., Prakash, A., Saxena, P. and Nigam, A. (2013). Sampling: Why and How of it? *Indian Journal of Medical Specialties*, 4(2), 330-333. DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.7713/ijms.2013.0032>

Agle, B., Mitchell, R., Sonnenfeld, A. (1999). Who Matters to CEOs? An Investigation of Stakeholder Attributes and Saliency, Corporate Performance, and CEO Values. *The Academy of Management Journal*, 42(5), 507-525.

Ahmed, I. (2021). Green Economy Policies and Sustainable Development in Egypt. The Egyptian Cabinet, Information and Decision Support Center. [https://idsc.gov.eg/Upload/DocumentLibrary/Attachment\\_A/5903/13-](https://idsc.gov.eg/Upload/DocumentLibrary/Attachment_A/5903/13-)

Green%20Economy%20Policies%20and%20Sustainable%20Development%  
20in%20Egypt.pdf

Ahram Online (2020, January 27). Egypt's 'Live Green' initiative reflects the state's commitment to environmental issues: Minister.

[https://english.ahram.org.eg/NewsContent/1/64/362323/Egypt/Politics-  
/Egypts-Live-Green-initiative-reflects-the-states-c.aspx](https://english.ahram.org.eg/NewsContent/1/64/362323/Egypt/Politics-/Egypts-Live-Green-initiative-reflects-the-states-c.aspx)

Ajzen, I. (1991). The theory of planned behavior. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 50(2), 179-211.

[https://doi.org/10.1016/0749-5978\(91\)90020-T](https://doi.org/10.1016/0749-5978(91)90020-T)

Alajami, A. (2020). Beyond originality in scientific research: Considering relations among originality, novelty, and ecological thinking. *Thinking Skills and Creativity*, 38, 1-6. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tsc.2020.100723>

Albus, H. and Ro, H. (2017). CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY: THE EFFECT OF GREEN PRACTICES IN A SERVICE RECOVERY. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 41 (1), 41 –65. DOI: 10.1177/1096348013515915

Al-Hawari, M., Quratulain, S., Melhem, S. (2021). How and when frontline employees' environmental values influence their green creativity? Examining the role of perceived work meaningfulness and green HRM practices. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 310, 1-9.

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2021.127598>

Ali, A. (2022). Green Finance Helps Egyptian Industries Save Energy and Reduce Emissions. <https://al-fanarmedia.org/2022/10/green-finance-helps-egyptian-industries-save-energy-and-reduce-emissions/>

Ali, I. (2022). Is the New Egyptian Curriculum Green? Egyptian Center for Strategic Studies International. <https://en.ecss.com.eg/3272/>

Ali, M. (2017). Stakeholder Saliency for Stakeholder Firms: An Attempt to Reframe an Important Heuristic Device. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 144, 153–168.

Alonso-Almeida, M., Bagur-Femenias, L., Llach, J., Perramon, J. (2018). Sustainability in small tourist businesses: the link between initiatives and performance. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 21 (1), 1–20.  
<https://doi.org/10.1080/13683500.2015.1066764>.

Alonso, A. and Ogle, A. (2010). Tourism and hospitality small and medium enterprises and environmental sustainability. *Management Research Review*, 33 (8), 818-826, <https://doi.org/10.1108/01409171011065626>

Al-Shaer, H. and Zaman, M. (2018). Credibility of sustainability reports: The contribution of audit committees. *Journal of supply chain management*, 27(7), 973-986. <https://doi.org/10.1002/bse.2046>

Amato, M. and Musella, M. (2017). Quantification of food waste within food service in the historic centre of Naples: A case study. *Quality Access Success*, 18 (S2), 22-28.

Arda, O., Montabon, F., Tatoglu, E., Golgeci, I., Zaim, S. (2021). Toward a holistic understanding of sustainability in corporations: Resource-based view

of sustainable supply chain management. *Supply Chain Management*. DOI 10.1108/SCM-08-2021-0385.

Ashraf, M., Hou, F., Kim, W., Ahmad, W., Ashraf, R. (2019). Modeling tourists' visiting intentions toward eco-friendly destinations: Implications for sustainable tourism operators. *Business Strategy and Environment*, 29(1), 54-71. <https://doi.org/10.1002/bse.2350>

Ashraf, M., Joarder, M., Ratan, S. (2018). Consumers' anti-consumption behavior toward organic food purchase: an analysis using SEM. *British Food Journal*, 121(1), 104-122. DOI 10.1108/BFJ-02-2018-0072

Ayad, N. (2014). Can Offensive Advertising Strategies Survive The Perceptions of The Millennial Muslims In Egypt? [Doctoral Thesis, London School of Commerce].

Ayyub, S., Wang, X., Asif, M. Ayyub, R. (2018). Antecedents of Trust in Organic Foods: The Mediating Role of Food Related Personality Traits. *Sustainability*, 10, 1-17. doi:10.3390/su10103597.

Azam, M. (2016). Does environmental degradation shackle economic growth? A panel data investigation on 11 Asian countries. *Renewable and Sustainable Energy Reviews*, 65, 175182.  
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.rser.2016.06.087>

Backman, K. and Kyngas, H. (1999). Challenges of the grounded theory approach to a novice researcher. *Nursing and Health Sciences*, 1(3), 147-153. doi: 10.1046/j.1442-2018.1999.00019.x.

Bagur-Femenias, L.; Llach, J.; Alonso-Almeida, M.M. (2013). Is the adoption of environmental practice a strategic decision for small service companies?

An empirical approach. *Management Decision*, 51 (1), 41–62. doi: 10.1108/00251741311291300.

Baker, M., Davis, E., Weaver, P. (2013). Eco-friendly Attitudes, Barriers to Participation, and Differences in Behavior at Green Hotels. *Cornell Hospitality Quarterly*, 55(1), 88-99. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1938965513504483>

Bakr, M. (2020, January 28). Egypt marked its first National Environment Day on 27 January. Retrieved from <https://english.ahram.org.eg/NewsContent/50/1201/362474/AIAhram-Weekly/Egypt/Go-green,-stay-green.aspx>.

Bakr, M. (2021, April 1). New charter: Reconceptualising plastic waste in Egypt. Retrieved from <https://english.ahram.org.eg/NewsContent/50/1201/408211/AIAhram-Weekly/Egypt/New-charter-Reconceptualising-plastic-waste-in-Egy.aspx>

Baldwin, C., Wilberforce, N., Kapur, A. (2011). Restaurant and food service life cycle assessment and development of a sustainability standard. *International Journal of Life Cycle Assessment*, 16, 40-49. DOI 10.1007/s11367-010-0234.

Baloglu, S., Raab, C., Malek, K. Organizational Motivations for Green Practices in Casual Restaurants. *International Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Administration*, 1-20. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15256480.2020.1746216>

Bandsuch, M., Pate, L., Thies, J. (2008). Rebuilding Stakeholder Trust in Business: An Examination of Principle-Centered Leadership and Organizational Transparency in Corporate Governance. *Business and Society Review*, 113(1), 99-127.



Barney, J. (1991). Firm resources and sustained competitive advantage. *Journal of Management*, 17 (1), 99–120.

Barrutia, J. and Echebarria, c. (2015). Resource-based view of sustainability engagement. *Global Environmental Change*, 70-82.  
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.gloenvcha.2015.06.009>

Baul, T., Sarker, A., Nath, T. (2021). Restaurants' waste in Chittagong city, Bangladesh: Current management, awareness on environmental hazard and perception towards potential uses. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 292,  
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2021.126073>

Berger, R. (2013). Now I see it, now I don't: researcher's position and reflexivity in qualitative research. *Qualitative Research*, 15(2), 141-278.  
<https://doi-org.libaccess.hud.ac.uk/10.1177/1468794112468475>

Bernard, H. (2000). *Social Research Methods: Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches*. Sage, Thousand Oaks, CA.

Berndt, A. (2020). Sampling Methods. *Journal of Human Lactation*, 36(2), 224-226. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0890334420906850>

Bertaux, Daniel (1981). From the life-history approach to the transformation of sociological practice. In Daniel Bertaux (Ed.), *Biography and society: The life history approach in the social sciences* (pp.29-45). Sage.

Bharucha, J. (2018). Tackling the challenges of reducing and managing food waste in Mumbai restaurants. *British Food Journal*, 120 (3), 639-649.  
<https://doi.org/10.1108/bfj-06-2017-0324>.

Boaventura, J., Bosse, D., Cunha de Mascena, K., Sarturi, G. (2020). Value distribution to stakeholders: The influence of stakeholder power and strategic importance in public firms. *Long Range Planning*, 53, 1-18. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lrp.2019.05.003>

Bocken, N., Short, S., Rana, P., Evans, S. (2013). A value mapping tool for sustainable business modelling. *Corporate Governance*, 13(5), 482-497. DOI 10.1108/CG-06-2013-0078

Boesso, G. and Kumar, K. (2009). An investigation of stakeholder prioritization and engagement: who or what really counts. *Journal of Accounting & Organizational Change*, 5(1), 62-80. DOI 10.1108/18325910910932214

Boesso, G. and Kumar, K. (2016). Examining the association between stakeholder culture, stakeholder salience and stakeholder engagement activities. An empirical study. *Management Decision* 54(4), 815-831. DOI 10.1108/MD-06-2015-0245

Bogdan, R. and Biklin, S. (1998). Qualitative research for education: An introduction to theory and methods. (3<sup>rd</sup> ed.) Boston: Allyn and Bacon

Brand, V. (2008). Empirical business ethics research and paradigm analysis. *Journal of business ethics*, 86, 429-449. DOI 10.1007/s10551-008-9856-3

Braun, V. and Clarke, V. (2006). Using thematic analysis in psychology. *Qualitative Research in Psychology*, 3(2), 77-101. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1191/1478088706qp0630a>.

Braun, V. and Clarke, V. (2012). Thematic analysis: handbook of research methods in psychology (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.) American Psychological Association.

Breckenridge, J. and Jones, D. (2009). Demystifying Theoretical Sampling in Grounded Theory Research. *Grounded Theory Review*, 2(8), 1-14.

Brenner, S. (1993). The Stakeholder theory of the firm and organizational decision making. *Proceedings of the International Association for Business and Society*, 4, 405-416. [10.5840/iabsproc1993431](https://doi.org/10.5840/iabsproc1993431)

Brinkmann, S. (2014). Unstructured and semi structured interviewing. Chapter in. *The Oxford Handbook of Qualitative Research* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.) Oxford press university.

Brown, J., Buchholtz, A., Dunn, P. (2016). Moral Salience and the Role of Goodwill in Firm-Stakeholder Trust Repair. *Business Ethics Quarterly* 26(2), 181-199. DOI: [10.1017/beq.2016.27](https://doi.org/10.1017/beq.2016.27)

Bryman, A. (1988). *Doing research in organizations*. (1<sup>st</sup> ed.) Routledge.

Bundy, J., Shropshire, C., Buchholtz, A. (2014). Strategic Cognition and Issue Salience: Toward an Explanation of Firm Responsiveness to Stakeholder Concerns. *Academy of Management Review*, 38(3), 352-376. <https://www.jstor.org/stable/43700495>

Burck, C. (2005). Comparing qualitative research methodologies for systemic research: the use of grounded theory, discourse analysis and narrative analysis. *Journal of Family Therapy* 27(3), 237-262. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-6427.2005.00314.x>.

Butina, M. (2015). A Narrative Approach to Qualitative Inquiry. *American Society for Clinical Laboratory Science*, 28(3), 190-196. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.29074/ascls.28.3.190>.

Butler, A., Copnell, B. and Hall (2018). The development of theoretical sampling in practice. *Collegian*, 25(5), 561-566  
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.colegn.2018.01.002>

Byrd, E. (2007). Stakeholders in sustainable tourism development and their roles: applying stakeholder theory to sustainable tourism development. *Tourism Review*, 62 (2), 6-13. <https://doi.org/10.1108/16605370780000309>

Campbell, J., DiPietro, B., Remar, D. (2014). Local foods in a university setting: Price consciousness, product involvement, price/quality inference and consumer's willingness-to-pay. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 42, 39-49. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2014.05.014>

Canhoto, A. and Wei, L. (2021). Stakeholders of the world, unite!: Hospitality in the time of COVID-19. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 95, 1-12. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2021.102922>

Cankaya, S. and Sezen, B. (2018). Effects of green supply chain management practices on sustainability performance. *Journal of Manufacturing Technology Management*, 30(1), 99-121. DOI 10.1108/JMTM-03-2018-0099

Cantele, S. and Cassia, F. (2020). Sustainability implementation in restaurants: A comprehensive model of drivers, barriers, and

competitiveness-mediated effects on firm performance. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 87, 102510  
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2020.102510>

Carless, D. (2010) Who the hell was that? Stories, bodies and actions in the world. *Qualitative Research in Psychology*, 7(4), 332-344. DOI:  
<https://doi.org/10.1080/14780880902951435>.

Carless, D. and Douglas, K. (2017). Narrative research. *The Journal of Positive Psychology*, 12(3), 307-308. DOI:  
<https://doi.org/10.1080/17439760.2016.1262611>

Carroll, A. (1989). *Business and Society: Ethics and Stakeholder Management*. Cincinnati: South-Western Publishing Company

Cavazos, R., Taylor, K., Eary, R., Doty, S. (2023). Institutional and Individual Effects of Greenwashing on Food Waste. *Sustainability*, 15, 1-22.  
<https://doi.org/10.3390/su15010221>

Chalak, A., Abou-Daher, C., Chaaban, J., Abiad, M.G. (2016). The global economic and regulatory determinants of household food waste generation: A cross-country analysis. *Waste Management*, 48, 418–422.  
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.wasman.2015.11.040>

Chan, E., Hsu, C. (2016). Environmental Management Research in Hospitality. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 28 (5), 886-923.  
[doi.org/10.1108/IJCHM-02-2015-0076](https://doi.org/10.1108/IJCHM-02-2015-0076)

Charmaz, K. (2014). *Constructing Grounded Theory*. Los Angeles: Sage.

Strauss, A., & Corbin, J. (1998). *Basics of Qualitative Research: Techniques and Procedures for Developing Grounded Theory*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.

Chauhan, C., Dhir, A., Akram, M., Salo, J. (2021). Food loss and waste in food supply chains. A systematic literature review and framework development approach. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 295, 1-14.

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2021.126438>

Chen, C., Lee, W., Chang, Y., Cheng, C. (2017). The strategy for enhancing consumer intention to dine at green restaurants: three-phase decision-making model. *Total Quality Management & Business Excellence*, 28, 614-632. DOI:10.1080/14783363.2015.1104245

Chen, H. and Jai, T. (2018). Waste less, enjoy more: forming a messaging campaign and reducing food waste in restaurants. *Journal of Quality Assurance in Hospitality & Tourism*, 19 (4), 495-520, DOI: 10.1080/1528008X.2018.1483282

Chevallier-Chantepie, A. and Batt, P. (2021). Sustainable Purchasing of Fresh Food by Restaurants and Cafes in France. *Agronomy*, 11, 1-13.

<https://doi.org/10.3390/agronomy11112357>.

Christ, K. and Burritt, R. (2017). Material flow cost accounting for food waste in the restaurant industry. *British Food Journal*, 119(3), 600-612. DOI 10.1108/BFJ-07-2016-0318

Chiu, J. and Hsieh, C. (2016). The Impact of Restaurants' Green Supply Chain Practices on Firm Performance. *Sustainability*, 8 (42), 1-14. doi:10.3390/su8010042

Cho, M. and Yoo, J. (2021). Customer pressure and restaurant employee green creative behavior: serial mediation effects of restaurant ethical standards and employee green passion. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 33 (12), 4505-4525. DOI 10.1108/IJCHM-06-2021-0697.

Choi, G. and Parsa, H. (2006). Green Practices II. *Journal of Foodservice Business Research*, 9 (4), 41-63. doi: 10.1300/j369v09n04\_04.

Chou, C. (2014). Hotels' environmental policies and employee personal environmental beliefs: Interactions and outcomes. *Tourism Management*, 40, 436-446. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2013.08.001>

Chou, C., Chen, K., Wang, Y. (2012). Green practices in the restaurant industry from an innovation adoption perspective: evidence from Taiwan. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 31(3), 703-711.

Chou, S., Horng, J., Liu, C., Gan, B. (2018). Explicating restaurant performance: The nature and foundations of sustainable service and organizational environment. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 72, 56-66. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2018.01.004>

Chou, S., Horng, J., Liu, C., Huang, Y., Chung, Y. (2016). Expert Concepts of Sustainable Service Innovation in Restaurants in Taiwan. *Sustainability*, 8, 1-19. doi:10.3390/su808073

Chung, K. (2016). Exploring Customers' Post-Dining Behavioral Intentions Toward Green Restaurants: An Application Of Theory Of Planned Behavior. *International Journal of Organizational Innovation*, 9 (1), 119-134.

Clarkson, M. (1995). A stakeholder framework for analyzing and evaluating corporate social performance. *Academy of Management Review*, 20, 92-117.

Cohen, L. and Manion, L. (1994), *Research Methods in Education*, Routledge.

Conaty, F. (2021). Abduction as a Methodological Approach to Case Study Research in Management Accounting — An Illustrative Case. *Accounting, Finance, & Governance Review*, 27(1), 1-14. DOI:10.52399/001c.22171

Conaty, F. and Robbins, G. (2021). A stakeholder salience perspective on performance and management control systems in non-profit organisations. *Critical Perspectives on Accounting*, 80, 1-17.  
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cpa.2018.07.001>

Connelly, L. (2010). What is Phenomenology? *Medsurg Nursing*, 19(2), pg. 127.

Cording, M., Harrison, J., Hoskisson, R., Jonsen K. (2014). Walking The Talk: A Multistakeholder Exploration of Organizational Authenticity, Employee Productivity and Post-Merger Performance. *The Academy of Management Perspectives*, 28(1), 38-56. <http://dx.doi.org/10.5465/amp.2013.0002>

Corley, K. and Gioia, D. (2011). BUILDING THEORY ABOUT THEORY BUILDING: WHAT CONSTITUTES A THEORETICAL CONTRIBUTION? *The Academy of Management Review*, 36(1), 12-32.



Cornell, B. and Shapiro, A. (1987). Corporate stakeholders and corporate finance. *Financial Management*, 16, 5-14.

Cotae, A. and Bacali, L. (2017). The influence of national culture on business organizations' commitment to environment sustainability in the European Union. *Review of Applied Socio-Economic Research*, 14(2), 19-29.

Crane, B. (2020). Revisiting Who, When, and Why Stakeholders Matter: Trust and Stakeholder Connectedness. *Business & Society*, 59(2), 263-286. [ps://doi.org/10.1177/0007650318756983](https://doi.org/10.1177/0007650318756983)

Creswell, Y. (2013). Qualitative inquiry & research design: choosing among five approaches. (3<sup>rd</sup> ed.) Sage publications inc.

Crotty, M. (1998). [The Foundations of Social Research: Meaning and Perspective in the Research Process](#). (1<sup>st</sup> ed.) Sage publications, Inc.

Cuellar, A. and Webber, M. (2010). Wasted food, wasted energy: The Embedded energy in food waste in the United States. *Environmental Science and Technology*, 44(16), 6464-6469.

Dai, J., Chan, H., Yee, R. (2018). Examining moderating effect of organizational culture on the relationship between market pressure and corporate environmental strategy. *Industrial Marketing Management*, 74, 227-236. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.indmarman.2018.05.003>.

Damian, I., Navarro, E., Ruiz, F. (2022). Stakeholders' perception of the sustainability of a tourism destination: a methodological framework to find

out relationships and similarity of opinions. *Tourism review*, 77(2), 515-531.  
DOI 10.1108/TR-07-2020-0292

Dangelico, R. (2016). Green Product Innovation: Where we are and Where we are Going. *Business Strategy and the Environment*, 25, 560–576.  
<https://doi.org/10.1002/bse.1886>

Darby, J., Fugate, B., Murray, J. (2019). Interpretive research. A complementary approach to seeking knowledge in supply chain management. *The International Journal of Logistics Management*, 30(2), 395-413. DOI 10.1108/IJLM-07-2018-0187

Darcy, C., Hill, J., McCabe, T., McGovern, P. A consideration of organisational sustainability in the SME context: A resource-based view and composite model. *European Journal of Training and Development*, 38(5), 398-414. DOI 10.1108/EJTD-10-2013-0108

De Luque, M., Washburn, N., Waldman, D. and House, R. (2008). Unrequited profit: How stakeholder and economic values relate to subordinate perceptions of leadership and firm performance. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 53, 626-654.

De Oliveira, G. and Rabechini Jr, R. (2019). Stakeholder management influence on trust in a project: A quantitative study. *International Journal of Project Management*, 37, 131-144.  
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijproman.2018.11.001>

De Oliveira, U., Espindola, L., da Silva, I., da Silva, I., Rocha, H. (2018). A systematic literature review on green supply chain management:

Research implications and future perspectives. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 187, 537-561. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2018.03.083>

Delmas, M.A. and Burbano, V.C. (2011). The drivers of greenwashing. *California Management Review*, 54(1), pg. 64-87, doi: 10.1525/cm.2011.54.1.64.

Denzin, N. and Lincoln, Y. (2018). The SAGE handbook of qualitative research. Sage Publications, Inc.

DeSantis, L. and Ugarriza, D. (2000). The Concept of Theme as Used in Qualitative Nursing Research. *Western Journal of Nursing Research*, 22(3), 351-372.

Dewald, B., Bruin, B. and Jang, Y. (2014). US consumer attitudes towards "green" restaurants. *Anatolia*, 25(2), 171-180, DOI:10.1080/13032917.2013.839457

Dhir, A., Talwar, S., Kaur, P., Malibari, A. (2020). Food Waste in Hospitality and Food Services: A Systematic Literature Review and Framework Development Approach. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 270, 1-16.

DiMaggio, P. and Powell, W. (1983). The Iron Cage Revisited: Institutional Isomorphism and Collective Rationality in Organizational Fields. *American Sociological Review*, 48(2), 147-160 <https://doi.org/10.2307/2095101>

DiPietro, R., Cao, Y. and Partlow, C. (2013). Green Practices in Upscale Foodservice Operations-Customer Perceptions and Purchase Intentions. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 25(5), 779-796. doi: 10.1108/IJCHM-May-2012-0082.

DiPietro, R. and Gregory, S. (2013). A Comparative Study of Customer Perceptions Regarding Green Restaurant Practices: Fast Food vs. Upscale Casual. *Hospitality Review*, 30(1), 1-22.

Donaldson, T. and Preston, L. (1995). The stakeholder theory of the corporation: Concepts, evidence and implications. *Academy of Management Review*, 20(1), 65-91.

Dornyei, Z. (2007). Research methods in applied linguistics. New York, Oxford University Press

Dumont, J., Shen, J., Deng, X. (2016). Effects of Green HRM Practices on Employee Workplace Green Behavior: The Role of Psychological Green Climate and Employee Green Values. *Human Resource Management*, 56(4), 613-627. <https://doi.org/10.1002/hrm.21792>

Easterby-Smith, M., Thorpe, R., Jackson, P. (2012). Management research (4<sup>th</sup> ed.) Sage publications, Inc.

Eesley, C. and Lenox, M. (2006). Firm responses to secondary stakeholder action. *Strategic Management Journal*, 27, 765-781.  
<https://www.jstor.org/stable/20142373>

Egypt Statistics. *Egypt in Figures, Tourism*.  
[https://www.capmas.gov.eg/Pages/StaticPages.aspx?page\\_id=5035](https://www.capmas.gov.eg/Pages/StaticPages.aspx?page_id=5035)

Eid, R., Agag, G., Shehawy, Y. (2021). UNDERSTANDING GUESTS' INTENTION TO VISIT GREEN HOTELS. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 45(3), 494-528. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1096348020947800>

Eisenhardt, K., Graebner, M., Sonenshein, S. (2016). Grand challenges and inductive methods: Rigor without rigor mortis. *Academy of Management Journal*, 59, 1113-1123.

Eldemerdash, J. and Mohamed, L. (2013). Exploring Obstacles of Employing Environmental Practices: The Case of Egyptian Green Hotels. *Journal of Human Resources in Hospitality & Tourism*, 12(3), 243-258. DOI: 10.1080/15332845.2013.769140

Eldemerdash, J. (2019). Millennials' Viewpoints about Sustainable Hotels' Practices in Egypt: Promoting Responsible Consumerism. *International Journal of Humanities and Social Sciences*, 13(5).

Eldief, M. and Font, X. (2012). DETERMINANTS OF ENVIRONMENTAL MANAGEMENT IN THE RED SEA HOTELS: PERSONAL AND ORGANIZATIONAL VALUES AND CONTEXTUAL VARIABLES. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 36 (1), 115-137 DOI: 10.1177/1096348010388657.

Elshaer, A. (2022). Restaurants' Response to COVID-19 Pandemic: The Realm of Egyptian Independent Restaurants. *Journal of Quality Assurance in Hospitality & Tourism*, 23(3), 716-747. DOI: 10.1080/1528008X.2021.1911732

Elshafei, R. (2017). Evaluating the role of environmental concern, risk perception and stakeholder salience in driving sustainable water consumption within sustainability project initiatives in the UAE hospitality sector. Doctoral thesis, The British University in Dubai.

Elshafei, R. (2022). Managers' risk perception and the adoption of sustainable consumption strategies in the hospitality sector: the moderating role of stakeholder salience attributes. *Smart and Sustainable Built Environment*, 11(1), pg. 1-18. DOI 10.1108/SASBE-03-2020-0024.

Enterprise (2020). Where did things go wrong with Egypt's waste management? <https://enterprise.press/stories/2020/07/08/where-did-things-go-wrong-with-egypts-waste-management-18499/>

Etikan, I., Sulaiman, A. and Alkassim, R. (2015). Comparison of Snowball Sampling and Sequential Sampling Technique. *Biometrics & Biostatistics International Journal*, 3(1), 1-2. DOI: 10.15406/bbij.2015.03.00055.

Euromonitor International (2018). Full Service Restaurants in Egypt. <https://www.euromonitor.com/consumer-foodservice-in-egypt/report>

European Commission (n.d.) Food Safety. [https://food.ec.europa.eu/safety/food-waste/eu-actions-against-food-waste\\_en#:~:text=Commission%20will%20propose%3A-,legally%20binding%20targets%20to%20reduce%20food%20waste%20across%20the%20EU,'best%20before'%20dates](https://food.ec.europa.eu/safety/food-waste/eu-actions-against-food-waste_en#:~:text=Commission%20will%20propose%3A-,legally%20binding%20targets%20to%20reduce%20food%20waste%20across%20the%20EU,'best%20before'%20dates)

Farmaki, A. (2019). Corporate social responsibility in hotels: a stakeholder approach. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management* 31 (6), 2297-2320. DOI 10.1108/IJCHM-03-2018-0199

Farouk, M. (2020). With a knock on the door, Egypt aims to turn families greener. Retrieved from <https://www.reuters.com/article/us-egypt-women-climate-change-idUSKBN1ZU2EB>.

Farrokhi, F., and Mahmoudi-Hamidabad, A. (2012). Rethinking convenience sampling: Defining quality criteria. *Theory & Practice in Language Studies*, 2(4), 784-792. <https://doi.org/10.4304/tpls.2.4.784-792>

Fassin, Y. (2009). The Stakeholder Model Refined. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 84, 113-135. DOI 10.1007/s10551-008-9677-4

Fassin, Y. (2012). Stakeholder Management, Reciprocity and Stakeholder Responsibility. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 109, 83-96  
DOI 10.1007/s10551-012-1381-8

Fassin, Y. (2000). The Stakeholder Model Refined. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 84, 113-135. DOI 10.1007/s10551-008-9677-4

Fieschi, M. and Pretato, U. (2018). Role of compostable tableware in food service and waste management. *A life cycle assessment study. Waste Management*, 73, 14-25. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.wasman.2017.11.036>

Filimonau, V. and De Coteau, D. (2019). Food Waste Management in Hospitality Operations: A critical review. *Tourism Management*, 71, 234-245. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2018.10.009>

Filimonau, V., Fidan, H., Alexieva, I., Dragoev, S., Marinova, D. (2019). Restaurant food waste and the determinants of its effective management in Bulgaria: An exploratory case study of restaurants in Plovdiv. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, 32, 1-11. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tmp.2019.100577>

Flick, U. (2014). *The SAGE handbook of qualitative data analysis*. Sage Publications, Inc.

Fliaster, A. and Kolloch, M. (2017). Implementation of green innovations – The impact of stakeholders and their network relations. *R&D Management*, 47(5), 689-700. <https://doi.org/10.1111/radm.12257>.

Fletcher, A. (2017). Applying critical realism in qualitative research: methodology meets method. *International Journal of Social research Methodology*, 20(2), 181-194.  
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/13645579.2016.1144401>.

Fobbe, L. and Hilletoft, P. (2021). The role of stakeholder interaction in sustainable business models. A systematic literature review. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 327, 1-13.  
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2021.129510>

Foerstl, K., Azadegan, A., Leppelt, T., Hartmann, E. (2015). Drivers of Supplier Sustainability: Moving Beyond Compliance to Commitment. *Journal of Supply Chain Management*, 51(1), 67-92.  
<https://doi.org/10.1111/jscm.12067>

Foo, P., Lee, V., Tan, G., Ooi, K. (2018). A gateway to realizing sustainability performance via green supply chain management practices: A PLS-ANN approach. *Expert Systems with Applications*, 107, 1-14.  
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eswa.2018.04.013>

Freeman, E. (1984). *Strategic Management: A Stakeholder Approach*. Boston: Pitman, 1994.

Freeman, E. (2010). Managing for Stakeholders: Trade-offs or Value Creation. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 9(6), 7-9



DOI 10.1007/s10551-011-0935-5

Freeman, E., Dmytriyev, D., Phillips, R. (2021). Stakeholder Theory and the Resource-Based View of the Firm. *Journal of Management*, 47 (7), 1757-1770. DOI: 10.1177/0149206321993576

Freeman, R., Harrison, J., Wicks, A. (2007). *Managing for Stakeholders; Survival, Reputation and Success*. 6-7. Yale University Press. New Haven & London.

Freeman, E. and Evan, W. (1990). Corporate governance: A stakeholder interpretation. *Journal of Behavioral Economics*, 19, 337-359.

Freeman, R. and McVea, J. (2001). A stakeholder approach to strategic management. In *The Blackwell Handbook of Strategic Management*; Hitt, M., Freeman, R.E., Harrison, J., Eds.; Wiley-Blackwell: Oxford, UK. 189–207.

Freeman, E. and Reed, D. (1983). Stockholders and Stakeholders: A New Perspective on Corporate Governance. *California Management Review*, 25(3), 88-106, <https://doi.org/10.2307/41165018>

Freudenreich, B., Florian Ludeke-Freund, F., Schaltegger, S. (2020). Stakeholder Theory Perspective on Business Models: Value Creation for Sustainability. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 166, 3-18. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-019-04112-z>

Frooman, J. (1999). *Stakeholder Influence Strategies*. *Academy of Management*, 24(2), 191-205.

Frynas, J. Yamahaki, C. (2016) Corporate social responsibility: review and roadmap of theoretical perspectives. *Business Ethics: A European Review*, 25(3), 258-285. <https://doi.org/10.1111/beer.12115>

Galletta, A. (2013). Mastering the Semi-structured Interview and Beyond. From Research Design to Analysis and Publication. New York University Press. New York and London.

Gao, S., Bao, J., Li, R., Liu, X., Wu, C. (2021). Drivers and reduction solutions of food waste in the Chinese food service business. *Sustainable Production and Consumption*, 26, 77-88.  
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.spc.2020.09.013>

Gao, Y., Mattila, A., Lee, S. (2016). A Meta-Analysis of Behavioral Intentions for Environment-Friendly Initiatives in Hospitality Research. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 54, 107-115.doi:  
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2016.01.010>

Garnett, T. (2011). Where are the best opportunities for reducing greenhouse gas emissions in the food system (including the food chain)? *Food policy*, 36, 1, S23-S32.

Garriga, E. (2014). Beyond stakeholder utility function: Stakeholder capability in the value creation process. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 120, 489-507.

Gauthier, J. (2013). Institutional Theory and Corporate Sustainability: Determinant Versus Interactive Approaches. *Organization Management Journal*, 2, 86-96. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15416518.2013.801741>.

Gazette Staff (2021). Environment, education ministries to introduce environmental concepts school curricula. The Egyptian Gazette.  
<https://egyptian-gazette.com/egypt/environment-education-ministries-to-introduce-environmental-concepts-school-curricula/>

Geertz, C. (1973), *Interpretation of Cultures*, Basic Books, New York, NY.

Gilg, A., Barr, S., Ford, N. (2005). Green consumption or sustainable lifestyles? Identifying the sustainable consumer. *Futures*, 37, 481-504.  
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.futures.2004.10.016>

Gill, S. (2020). Qualitative Sampling Methods. *Journal of Human Lactation*, 36(4) 579–581. DOI: 10.1177/0890334420949218

Giovannoni, E. and Fabietti, G. (2014). What is sustainability? A review of concepts and its applicability. Department of Business and Law, University of Siena, Siena, Italy Integrated Reporting, DOI 10.1007/978- 3-319-02168-3\_2.

Glover, J., Champion, D., Daniels, K., Dainty, A. (2014). An Institutional Theory perspective on sustainable practices across the dairy supply chain. *International Journal of Production Economics*, 152, 102-111.  
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijpe.2013.12.027>

Goldkuhl, G. (2012). Pragmatism vs interpretivism in qualitative information systems research. *European Journal of Information Systems*, 21(2), 135-146. DOI:[10.1057/ejis.2011.54](https://doi.org/10.1057/ejis.2011.54)

Goodman, J., Korsunova, A. and Halme, M. (2017). Our collaborative future: activities and roles of stakeholders in sustainability-oriented innovation.

*Business Strategy and the Environment*, 26(6), 731-753.

<https://doi.org/10.1002/bse.1941>

Gossling, S., Garrod, B., Aall, C., Hille, J., Peeters, P. (2011). Food management in tourism: reducing tourism's carbon 'foodprint'. *Tourism Management*. 32 (3), 534-543.

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2010.04.006>.

Gouda, E. (2012). Problems that Impede Sustainable Tourism Development in Egypt. *International Journal of Economics and Management Engineering*, 6 (11), 2800-2807.

Govindan, K. and Hasanagic, M. (2018). A systematic review on drivers, barriers, and practices towards circular economy: a supply chain perspective. *International Journal of Production Research*, 56, 278-311. DOI: 10.1080/00207543.2017.1402141

Graneheim, U.H. and Lundman, B. (2004). Qualitative content analysis in nursing research: concepts, procedures and measures to achieve trustworthiness. *Nurse Education Today*, 24(2), 105-112.

<http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.nedt.2003.10.001>.

Gray, R. (2010). Is accounting for sustainability actually accounting for sustainability ... and how would we know? An exploration of narratives of organisations and the planet. *Accounting, Organizations and Society*, 35(1), 47-62. doi:10.1016/j.aos.2009.04.006.

Green Gouna. Retrieved August 10, 2021, from ElGouna website:

[www.elgouna.com](http://www.elgouna.com)

GREENPEACE (n.d.). Greenwash: what is it and how not to fall for it.  
<https://www.greenpeace.org.uk/news/what-is-greenwashing/#:~:text=Greenwashing%20is%20a%20PR%20tactic,meaningfully%20reducing%20its%20environmental%20impact.>

Green Restaurant Association. *Certification Standards*.  
<https://www.dinegreen.com/certification-standards>

Green Star Hotel. (n.d.). <https://www.greenstarhotel.org>

Greenview. (2018). *Green Lodging Trends Report 2018*. Greenview.  
[https://greenview.sg/wp-content/uploads/2021/09/2018-Green-Lodging-Trends-Report\\_updated-02112019.pdf](https://greenview.sg/wp-content/uploads/2021/09/2018-Green-Lodging-Trends-Report_updated-02112019.pdf)

Greenwood, M. (2007). Stakeholder Engagement: Beyond the Myth of Corporate Responsibility. *Journal of Business Ethics* 74(4), 315–327. DOI 10.1007/s10551-007-9509-y.

Greenwood, M. and Van Buren III, H. (2010). Trust and Stakeholder Theory: Trustworthiness in the Organisation–Stakeholder Relationship. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 95, 425-438. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-010-0414-4>.

Grobelna, A. 2019. Effects of Individual and Job Characteristics on Hotel Contact Employees' Work Engagement and Their Performance Outcomes: A Case Study from Poland. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management* 31 (1), 349-369. doi:10.1108/IJCHM-08-2017-0501.

Guba, E. G. (Ed.). (1990). *The paradigm dialog*. Sage Publications, Inc.

Guba, E. G., & Lincoln, Y. S. (1994). Competing paradigms in qualitative research. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research*. Sage Publications, Inc.

Guest Author (2021, March). Fast Food Goes Green. Greener ideal.  
<https://greenerideal.com/news/business/0808-fast-food-goes-green/>

Gupta, A. and Gupta, N. (2021). Environment Practices Mediating the Environmental Compliance and firm Performance: An Institutional Theory Perspective from Emerging Economies. *Global Journal of Flexible Systems Management*, 22, 157–178.

Habib, M, Pathik, B., Maryam, H. (2014). *Research methodology- contemporary practices: guidelines for academic researchers*. (1st ed.) Cambridge scholars publishing.

Haden, S., Oyler J., Humphreys, J. (2009). Historical, practical, and theoretical perspectives on green management. An exploratory analysis *Management Decision*, 47(7), 1041-1055. DOI 10.1108/00251740910978287

Haksever, C., Chaganti, R., Cook, R. (2004). A Model of Value Creation: Strategic View. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 49, 291-305.

Haleem, F., Farooq, S., Cheng, Y., Waehrens, B. (2022). Sustainable Management Practices and Stakeholder Pressure: A Systematic Literature Review. *Sustainability*, 14, 1-23. <https://doi.org/10.3390/su14041967>

Hamidu, A., Ibrahim, M., Daneji, B. (2014). EXPLORING THE ROLES OF STAKEHOLDER ENGAGEMENT AND STAKEHOLDER MANAGEMENT IN CSR

PRACTICE. *Australian Journal of Business and Management Research*, 4(5), 1-8.

Han, H. (2015). Travelers' pro-environmental behavior in a green lodging context: converging value-belief-norm theory and the theory of planned behavior. *Tourism Management*, 47, 164-177.

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2014.09.014>

Han, H. (2020). Theory of green purchase behavior (TGPB): A new theory for sustainable consumption of green hotel and green restaurant products. *Business Strategy and Environment*, 29, 2815-2828. DOI: 10.1002/bse.2545

Han, H., Hsu, L., Lee, J. (2009). Empirical investigation of the roles of attitudes toward green behaviors, overall image, gender, and age in hotel customers' eco-friendly decision-making process. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 28(4), 519-528, <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2009.02.004>.

Han, H., Hsu, L., Lee, J., Sheu, C. (2011) Are lodging customers ready to go green? An examination of attitudes, demographics, and eco-friendly intentions. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 30, 345-355.

Han, H., Hwang, J., Lee, M., Kim, J. (2019). Word-of-mouth, buying, and sacrifice intentions for eco-cruises: Exploring the function of norm activation and value-attitude-behavior. *Tourism Management*, 70, 430-443. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2018.09.006>

Harangozo, G. and Zilahy, G. (2015). Cooperation between business and non-governmental organizations to promote sustainable development.

*Journal of Cleaner Production*, 89, 18-31.

<http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2014.10.092>

Harrison, J., Freeman, R., de Abreu, M. (2015). Stakeholder Theory As an Ethical Approach to Effective Management: applying the theory to multiple contexts. *Review of Business Management*, 17(55), 858-869.

DOI:10.7819/rbgn.v17i55.2647

Hennink, M. (2014). Focus group discussions: understanding qualitative research. Oxford University Press.

Henriques, C., and Sadowsky, P. (1999). The Relationship Between Environmental Commitment and Managerial Perceptions of Stakeholder Importance. *Academy of Management Journal*, 41(1), 89-99.

DOI:[10.5465/256876](https://doi.org/10.5465/256876)

Hill, C. and Jones, T. (1992). Stakeholder-agency theory. *Journal of Management Studies*, 29(2), 131-154. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-6486.1992.tb00657.x>

Hillman, A. and Keim, G. (2001). SHAREHOLDER VALUE, STAKEHOLDER MANAGEMENT, AND SOCIAL ISSUES: WHAT'S THE BOTTOM LINE? *Strategic Management Journal*, 22, 125-139.

Hobbs, J. and Goddard, E. (2015). Consumers and Trust. *Food Policy*, 52, 71-74. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.foodpol.2014.10.017>.

Hoque, A., Clarke, A., Huang, L. (2016). Lack of Stakeholder Influence on Pollution Prevention. *Organization & Environment*, 29 (3), 367-385.



Horisch, J., Freeman, R., Schaltegger, S. (2014). Applying Stakeholder Theory in Sustainability Management: Links, Similarities, Dissimilarities, and a Conceptual Framework. *Organization & Environment*, 27(4), 328-346. DOI: 10.1177/1086026614535786

Horisch, J., Johnson, M. P., Schaltegger, S. (2014). Implementation of sustainability management and company size: A knowledge-based view. *Business Strategy and the Environment*. Advance online publication. doi:10.1002/bse.1844.

Hornig, J., Liu, C., Chou, S., Tsai, C., Chung, Y. (2017). From innovation to sustainability: Sustainability innovations of eco-friendly hotels in Taiwan. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 63, 44-52.

Hornig, J., Wang, C., Liu, C., Chou, S., Tsai, C. (2016). The role of sustainable service innovation in crafting the vision of the hospitality industry. *Sustainability* 8(3), 223–231.

Howes, M., Wortly, L., Potts, R., Howes, A., Neumann, S., Davidson, J., Smith, T., Nunn, P. (2017). Environmental Sustainability: A Case of Policy Implementation Failure. *Sustainability*, 9, 1-17. doi:10.3390/su902016

Hu, H., Parsa, H., & Self, J. (2010). The Dynamics of Green Restaurant Patronage. *Cornell Hospitality Quarterly*, 51(3), 344-362. doi: 10.1177/1938965510370564.

Hu, L. (2015). Green Attributes for Restaurants: What Really Matters to Consumers? (Master Thesis). The Collins College of Hospitality Management

Hu, M., Horng, J., Teng, C., Chiou, W., & Yen, C. (2014). Fueling Green Dining Intention: The Self-Completion Theory Perspective. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, 19(7), 793–808.

doi:10.1080/10941665.2013.806941

Hu, M., Horng, J., Teng, C., Chou, S., (2013). A criteria model of restaurant energy conservation and carbon reduction in Taiwan. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 21(5), 765-779.

Hu, X., Lovelock, B., Ying, T., Mager, S. (2019). Stakeholder Collaboration on Policymaking for Sustainable Water Management in Singapore's Hotel Sector: A Network Analysis. *Sustainability*, 11,1-19,

doi:10.3390/su11082360

Hudson, L.A. and Ozanne, J.L. (1988), "Alternative ways of seeking knowledge in consumer research", *Journal of Consumer Research*, 4(1), 508-521.

Hwang, K. and Lee, B. (2019), Pride, mindfulness, public self-awareness, affective satisfaction, and customer citizenship behaviour among green restaurant customers. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 83, 169–179. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2019.05.009>

Hyde, K. (2000), "Recognising deductive processes in qualitative research". *Qualitative Market Research*, 3(2), 82-90. <https://doi-org.libaccess.hud.ac.uk/10.1108/13522750010322089>

Iaquinto, A. (2014). Sustainable Practices among Independently Owned Restaurants in Japan. *Journal of Foodservice Business Research*, 17(2), 147-159, DOI: 10.1080/15378020.2014.902656

Ibrahim, M., Kimbu, A., Ribeiro, A., (2023). Recontextualising the determinants of external CSR in the services industry: A cross-cultural study. *Tourism Management*, 95, 1-14.

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2022.104690>

Ioannidis, A., Chalvatzis, K., Leonidou, L., Feng, Z. (2021). Applying the reduce, reuse, and recycle principle in the hospitality sector: Its antecedents and performance implications. *Business Strategy and Environment*, 30, 3394-3410. DOI: 10.1002/bse.2809

Iraldo, F., Testa, F., Lanzini, P., Battaglia, M. (2017). Greening Competitiveness for Hotels and Restaurants. *Journal of Small Business and Enterprise Development*, 24(3), 607-628. Doi:10.1108/JSBED-12-2016-0211

Jacobs, G. and Klosse, P. (2016) Sustainable restaurants: A research agenda. *Research in Hospitality Management*, 6(1), 33-36. DOI: 10.2989/RHM.2016.6.1.4.1292

Jahansoozi, J. (2006). Organization-stakeholder relationships: exploring trust and transparency. *Journal of Management Development*, 25(10), 942-955. DOI 10.1108/02621710610708577

Jang, Y., Kim, W., Bonn, M. (2011). Generation Y consumers' selection attributes and behavioral intentions concerning green restaurants. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 30, 803-811. doi:10.1016/j.ijhm.

Jang, Y., Kim, W., Lee, H. (2015). Coffee shop consumers' emotional attachment and loyalty to green stores: The moderating role of green consciousness. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 44, 146-156.

Jang, Y. and Zheng, T. (2020): Assessment of the environmental sustainability of restaurants in the U.S.: The effects of restaurant characteristics on environmental sustainability performance. *Journal of Foodservice Business Research*. DOI: 10.1080/15378020.2019.1691416

Jang, Y., Zheng, T., Bosselman, R. (2017). Top managers' environmental values, leadership, and stakeholder engagement in promoting environmental sustainability in the restaurant industry. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 63, 101-111. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2017.03.005> 0278-4319.

Jansson, J., Nilsson, J., Modig, F., Vall, G. (2017). Commitment to Sustainability in Small and Medium-Sized Enterprises: The Influence of Strategic Orientations and Management Values. *Business Strategy and the Environment*, 26, 69-83. DOI: 10.1002/bse.190.

Jawahar, I. and McLaughlin, G. (2001). Toward a descriptive stakeholder theory: an organizational life cycle approach. *Academy of management*, 26(3), 397-414.

Jeng, M. and Yeh, T. (2016). The effect of consumer values on the brand position of green restaurants by means-end chain and laddering interviews. *Service Business*, 10, 223-238. DOI 10.1007/s11628-015-0266-1.

Jeong, E., and Jang, S. (2010). Effects of Restaurant Green Practices: Which Practices are Important and Effective? Caesars Hospitality Research Summit. Retrieved from <http://digitalscholarship.unlv.edu/hhrc/2010/june2010/13>

Jeong, E., Jang, S., Day, J., & Ha, S. (2014). The impact of eco-friendly practices on green image and customer attitudes: An investigation in a café setting. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 41, 10-20. doi: 10.1016/j.ijhm.2014.03.002.

Jiang, W., Wang, L., Zhou, K. (2023). Green Practices and Customer Evaluations of the Service Experience: The Moderating Roles of External Environmental Factors and Firm Characteristics. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 183, 237-253. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-022-05044-x>

Johnson, P. and Clark, M. (2006) 'Editors' introduction: Mapping the terrain: An overview of business and management research methodologies', in P. Johnson and M. Clark (eds.) *Business and Management Research Methodologies*, Sage, London, pp. xxv – lv.

Jonas, J., Boha, J., Sorhammar, D., Moeslein, K. (2018). Stakeholder engagement in intra- and inter-organizational innovation. Exploring antecedents of engagement in service ecosystems. *Journal of Service Management*, 29(3), 399-421. DOI 10.1108/JOSM-09-2016-0239

Jones, P., Hillier, D. and Comfort, D. (2014). Sustainability in the global hotel industry. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, Vol. 26(1), 5-17. <https://doi.org/10.1108/IJCHM-10-2012-0180>

Jones, T., Felps, W., Bigley, G. (2007). Ethical Theory and Stakeholder-Related Decisions: The Role of Stakeholder Culture. *Academy of*

*Management Review*, 32(1), 137-155.  
<https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.2007.23463924>

Jonsson, N. and Yacobucci, I. (2019). A more sustainable society through stakeholder salience: Furthering stakeholder theory by exploring identification and prioritization processes with a focus on intraorganizational perceptions in an SME.

Joshua, J., Jin, Y., Ogunmokun, O., Ikhida, J. (2022). Hospitality for sustainability: employee eco-anxiety and employee green behaviors in green restaurants. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 31(6). 1-17. DOI: 10.1080/09669582.2022.2043877

Joyce, T. (2021, February). The best eco-friendly restaurants in the World. Conde Nast Traveller. <https://www.cntraveller.com/gallery/best-eco-friendly-restaurants-world>

Juliao, J., Gaspar, M., Tjahjono, B., Rocha, S. (2018). Exploring Circular Economy in the Hospitality Industry. International Conference on Innovation, Engineering and Entrepreneurship, 953-960.  
[https://link.springer.com/chapter/10.1007/978-3-319-91334-6\\_131](https://link.springer.com/chapter/10.1007/978-3-319-91334-6_131)

Kamel, I. and Bilali, H. (2022). Sustainability transition to organic agriculture through the lens of the multi-level perspective: case of Egypt. *Organic Agriculture* ,12, 191–212. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s13165-022-00391-5>.

Kang, K., Stein, L., Heo, C., Lee, S. (2012). Consumers' willingness to pay for green initiatives of the hotel industry. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 31(2), 564–572. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2011.08.001>

Kapiriri, L. and Razavi, S. (2021). Salient stakeholders: Using the salience stakeholder model to assess stakeholders' influence in healthcare priority setting. *Health Policy Open*, 2, 1-7.

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.hpopen.2021.100048>

Kapoor, P.S., Balaji, M.S. and Jiang, Y. (2021). Effectiveness of sustainability communication on social media: role of message appeal and message source. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, Vol. 33(3), pg. 949-972. DOI 10.1108/IJCHM-09-2020-0974

Karatas-Ozkan, M. and Murphy, W. (2010) Critical Theorist, Postmodernist and Social Constructionist Paradigms in Organizational Analysis: A Paradigmatic Review of Organizational Learning Literature. *International Journal of Management Reviews*, 12, 453–465 (2010) DOI: 10.1111/j.1468-2370.2009.00273.x

Kasim, A. and Ismail, A. (2012). Environmentally Friendly Practices Among Restaurants: Drivers and Barriers to Change. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism* 20(4), 551-570.doi: 10.1080/09669582.2011.621540

Katajajuuri, J., Silvennoinen, K., Hartikainen, H., Heikkila, L., Reinikainen, A. (2014). Food waste in the Finnish food chain. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 73, 322-329.

Kaur, P., Talwar, S., Madanaguli, A., Srivastava, S., Dhir, A. (2022). Corporate social responsibility (CSR) and hospitality sector: Charting new frontiers for restaurant businesses. *Journal of Business Research*, 144, 1234-1248. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2022.01.067>

Kennedy, B. and Thornberg, R. (2018). Deduction, Induction, and Abduction. Uwe Flick, *Qualitative Data Collection*, 49-64.

[https://books.google.com.eg/books?hl=en&lr=&id=X0VBDwAAQBAJ&oi=fnd&pg=PA49&dq=deduction+vs+induction+approach+&ots=AW9g5p6ux6&sig=MYxT6JtPezgiEXgidJjhOIm\\_H4&redir\\_esc=y#v=onepage&q=deduction%20vs%20induction%20approach&f=false](https://books.google.com.eg/books?hl=en&lr=&id=X0VBDwAAQBAJ&oi=fnd&pg=PA49&dq=deduction+vs+induction+approach+&ots=AW9g5p6ux6&sig=MYxT6JtPezgiEXgidJjhOIm_H4&redir_esc=y#v=onepage&q=deduction%20vs%20induction%20approach&f=false)

Khare, A. and Pandey, S. (2017). Role of green self-identity and peer influence in fostering trust towards organic food retailers. *International Journal of Retail & Distribution Management*, 45(9), 969-990.

Khurram, S. and Pestre, F. (2017). Rethinking the salience of not-for-profit and for-profit stakeholders of a firm. *Society and Business Review* 12(2), 136-151. DOI:[10.1108/SBR-09-2016-0051](https://doi.org/10.1108/SBR-09-2016-0051)

Kim, S., Lee, K. and Fairhurst, A. (2017). The review of “green” research in hospitality, 2000-2014-Current trends and future research directions. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 29 (1), 226-247. doi: 10.1108/IJCHM-11-2014-0562.

Kim Y. and Han, H. (2010) Intention to pay conventional-hotel prices at a green hotel – a modification of the theory of planned behavior. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 18(8), 997-1014.

<https://doi.org/10.1080/09669582.2010.490300>

Klemensits, P. (2019). Economic Development or Environmental Protection? The Dilemmas of the Developing Countries through the Case of the Philippines. *European Journal of Sustainable Development*, 8(1) Doi: 10.14207/ejsd.2019.v8n1p281

Krauss, S. (2005). Research Paradigms and Meaning Making: A Primer *The Qualitative Report*, 10(4). DOI:10.46743/2160-3715/2005.1831



Kwok, L. and Huang, Y. (2019). Green attributes of restaurants: Do consumers, owners, and managers think alike? *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, *83*, 28-32.

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2019.03.011>

Kwok, L., Huang, Y., Hu, L. (2016). Green attributes of restaurants: What really matters to consumers? *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, *55*, 107-117. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2016.03.002>

Ladwein, R. and Romero, A. (2021). The role of trust in the relationship between consumers, producers and retailers of organic food: A sector-based approach. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, *60*, 1-9.

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jretconser.2021.102508>

Lankoski, L., Smith, N., Wassenhove, L. (2016). Stakeholder Judgments of Value. *Business Ethics Quarterly*, *26*(2), 227-256. DOI: 10.1017/beq.2016.28

Lang, L., Wang, Y., Xingpeng, C., Zhang, Z., Yang, N., Bing, X. (2020). Awareness of food waste recycling in restaurants: evidence from China. *Resources, Conservation and Recycling*, *161*, 104949.

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.resconrec.2020.104949>

Laplume, A., Sonpar, K., Litz, R. (2008). Stakeholder Theory: Reviewing a Theory That Moves Us. *Journal of Management* *34*(6), 1152-1189  
DOI:[10.1177/0149206308324322](https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206308324322).

Large, R. and Thomsen, C. (2011). Drivers of green supply management performance: Evidence from Germany. *Journal of Purchasing & Supply Management*, 17, 176–184. doi:10.1016/j.pursup.2011.04.006

Lee, M., Kang, H., Choi, H., Olds, D. (2020). Managerial Attitudes towards Green Practices in Educational Restaurant Operations: An Importance-Performance Analysis, *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Education*, 32(3), 142-155, DOI: 10.1080/10963758.2019.1655437.

Legrand, W., Sloan, P., Simons-Kaufmann, C., Fleischer, C. (2010). A review of restaurant sustainable indicators. *Advances in Hospitality and Leisure*, 6, 167–183. doi:10.1108/ S1745-3542(2010)0000006013.

Li, D., Cao, C., Zhang, L., Chen, X., Ren, S. and Zhao, Y. (2017). Effects of corporate environmental responsibility on financial performance: the moderating role of government regulation and organizational slack. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 166, 1323-1334.

Lim, W. Creativity and sustainability in hospitality and tourism. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, 18, 161–167  
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.tmp.2016.02.001>

Lin, X., McKenna, B., Ho, C., Shen, G. (2019). Stakeholders' influence strategies on social responsibility implementation in construction projects. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 235, 348-358.  
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2019.06.253>

Line, N., Hanks, L., Zhang, L. (2016). Sustainability communication: The effect of message construals on consumers' attitudes towards green restaurants. *International Journal of Hospitality Management* 57, 143–151

<http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2016.07.001>.

Llach, H., Perramon, J., Alonso-Almeida, M., Bagur-Femenias, L. (2013). Joint impact of quality and environmental practices on firm performance in small service businesses: an empirical study of restaurants. *Journal of cleaner Production*, 44, 96-104.

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2012.10.046>

Locke, E. (2007). The Case for Inductive Theory Building. *Journal of Management*, 33(6), 867-890. DOI: 10.1177/0149206307307636

Loknath, Y. and Azeem, B. (2017). Green Management – Concept and Strategies. National Conference on Marketing and Sustainable Development, 688-702. <file:///Users/nadaelabd/Downloads/MSD4-6111-Done.pdf>.

Lopez-Fernandez, O. and Molina-Azorin, J. (2011). The use of mixed methods research in the field of behavioural sciences. *Quality and Quantity*, 45, 1459-1472. DOI 10.1007/s11135-011-9543-9

Lorenzini, B. (1994). The green restaurant, part II: Systems and service. *Restaurant Institution*, 104, 119–136.

Lu, L. and Gursoy, D. (2017). Does offering an organic food menu help restaurants excel in competition? An examination of diners' decision-making. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 63, 72-81.

<http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2017.03.004>

Ludeke-Freund, F. and Dembek, K. (2017). Sustainable business model research and practice: Emerging field or passing fancy? *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 168(1), 1668-1678.

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2017.08.093>

Lumina Intelligence (n.d.). UK Restaurant Market: Trends and Opportunities 2021. <https://www.lumina-intelligence.com/blog/foodservice/uk-restaurant-market-trends-and-opportunities-2021/>

LYNX Business Bulletin (2020). Egypt's Waste Management Law. Retrieved from <http://www.lynxegypt.com/assets/pdfs/Waste-Management-Law.pdf>

Mack, L. (2010). The philosophical underpinnings of educational research. *Polyglossia*, 19. Retrieved from [http://en.apu.ac.jp/rcaps/uploads/fckeditor/publications/polyglossia/Polyglossia\\_V19\\_Lindsay.pdf](http://en.apu.ac.jp/rcaps/uploads/fckeditor/publications/polyglossia/Polyglossia_V19_Lindsay.pdf)

Mackenzie, N. and Knipe, S. (2006). Research dilemmas: paradigms, methods and methodology. *Issues in Educational Research*, 16.

Madanaguli, A., Dhir, A., Kaur, P., Srivastava, S. & Gurmeet, G. (2022). Environmental sustainability in restaurants. A systematic review and future research agenda on restaurant adoption of green practices. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism*, 22, 303-330, DOI: [10.1080/15022250.2022.2134203](https://doi.org/10.1080/15022250.2022.2134203)

Magdy, S. (2020). How Are Egyptian Restaurants Dealing With The Coronavirus? Cairo. <https://www.thisiscairo.com/en/3916/how-are-egyptian-restaurants-dealing-with-the-coronavirus>

Magness, V. (2008). Who are the Stakeholders Now? An Empirical Examination of the Mitchell, Agle, and Wood Theory of Stakeholder Salience. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 83, 177–192.

Maguire, M. and Delahunt, B. (2017). Doing a Thematic Analysis: A Practical, Step-by-Step Guide for Learning and Teaching Scholars. *All Ireland Journal of Higher Education*, 9(3), 3351-33514.

Majeed, S. and Kim, W. (2023). A reflection of greenwashing practices in the hospitality industry: a scoping review. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 35(3), pg. 1125-1146  
DOI 10.1108/IJCHM-04-2022-0495

Manaktola, K. and Jauhari, V. (2007). Exploring consumer attitude and behaviour towards green practices in the lodging industry in India. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 19(5), 364-377. DOI 10.1108/09596110710757534

Marques, P., Bernardo, M., Presas, P., Simon, A. (2020). Corporate social responsibility in a local subsidiary: internal and external stakeholders' power. *EuroMed Journal of Business*, 15(3), 377-393. <https://doi.org/10.1108/EMJB-01-2019-0013>

Martens, M. (2005). Research methods in education and psychology: integrating diversity with quantitative and qualitative approaches (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.), Sage publications, Inc.

Martinez-Navalon, J., Gelashvili, V., Debasa, F. (2019). The Impact of Restaurant Social Media on Environmental Sustainability: An Empirical Study. *Sustainability*, 11, 1-24. doi:10.3390/su11216105

Martini, U. and Buffa, F. (2015). Local networks, stakeholder dynamics and sustainability in tourism. Opportunities and limits in the light of stakeholder theory and SNA. *Italian Journal of Management*, 33(96), 113-130.

Marx-Pienaar, N., Rand, G.D., Fisher, H., Viljoen, A., 2020. The South African quick service restaurant industry and the wasteful company it keeps. *International Journal of Sustainable Development Planning*, 15, 57-68. <https://doi.org/10.2495/sdp-v15-n1-57-68,01>

Mason, M. (2010). Sample Size and Saturation in PhD Studies Using Qualitative Interviews. *Forum Qualitative Sozialforschung / Forum: Qualitative Social Research*, 11(3). <https://doi.org/10.17169/fqs-11.3.1428>

Massow, M. V. and McAdams, B. (2015). Table scraps: An evaluation of plate waste in restaurants. *Journal of Foodservice Business Research*, 18, 437-453.

Matuleviciene, J. and Stravinskiene, J. (2015). Identifying the Factors of Stakeholder Trust: A Theoretical Study. *Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 213, 599-604. doi: 10.1016/j.sbspro.2015.11.456

Mayer, R., Davis, J., Schoorman, F. (1995). An Integrative Model of Organizational Trust. *Academy of Management*, 20 (3), 709-734.

Maynard, D., Zandonadi, R., Nakano, E., Raposo, A., Botelho, R. (2021). Green Restaurants ASSESSment (GRASS): A Tool for Evaluation and Classification of Restaurants Considering Sustainability Indicators. *Sustainability*, 13(19), 1-12. <https://doi.org/10.3390/su131910928>

Mbasera, M. (2015). *A green management framework for hotels: A case of two African countries*. [Doctoral Thesis, North West University].

[https://repository.nwu.ac.za/bitstream/handle/10394/14151/Mbasera\\_M.pdf;sequence=1](https://repository.nwu.ac.za/bitstream/handle/10394/14151/Mbasera_M.pdf;sequence=1)

McAdams, B., Von Massow, M., Gallant, M., Hayhoe, M.-A. (2019). A cross industry evaluation of food waste in restaurants. *Journal of Foodservice Business Research*. 22 (5), 449-466.

<https://doi.org/10.1080/15378020.2019.1637220>.

McDonalds (n.d.). Our plan for change. <https://www.mcdonalds.com/gb/en-gb/our-plan-for-change/planet-positive.html>

Meager, S., Kumar, V., Ekren, B., Paddeu, D. (2021). Exploring the Drivers and Barriers to Green Supply Chain Management Implementation: A study of Independent UK Restaurants. *Procedia Manufacturing*, 51, 1642-1649. DOI: 10. 016/j.promfg.2020.10.229

Meixell, M. and Luoma, P. (2015). Stakeholder pressure in sustainable supply chain management A systematic review. *International Journal of Physical Distribution & Logistics Management*, 45 (1/2), 69-89. DOI 10.1108/IJPDLM-05-2013-0155

Merli, R., Preziosi, M., Acampora, A., Lucchetti, M. C., Ali, F. (2019). The impact of green practices in coastal tourism: An empirical investigation on an eco-labelled beach club. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 77, 471-481. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2018.08.011>

Merriam, S. and Tisdell, E. (2016). *Qualitative Research. A Guide to Design and Implementation* (4<sup>th</sup> ed.). John Wiley & Sons.

Mensah, J. (2019) Sustainable development: Meaning, history, principles, pillars, and implications for human action: Literature review. *Cogent Social Sciences*, 5(1), 1-21, DOI: 10.1080/23311886.2019.1653531.

Mensah, J. and Enu-Kwesi, F. (2018). Implication of environmental sanitation management in the catchment area of Benya Lagoon, Ghana. *Journal of Integrative Environmental Sciences*. Doi:10.1080/1943815x.2018.1554591.

Mihalic, T., Zabkar, V., Cvelbar, L. (2012). A hotel sustainability business model: evidence from Slovenia. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 20(5), 701-719. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09669582.2011.632092>

Miles, M. and Covin, J. (2000). Environmental Marketing: A Source of Reputational, Competitive, and Financial Advantage. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 23(3), 299-311.

Miles, M. and Huberman, A. (1994). *Qualitative data analysis*. (2<sup>nd</sup> ed) Sage publications, Inc.

Miles, S. (2017). Stakeholder Theory Classification: A Theoretical and Empirical Evaluation of Definitions. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 142, 437-459.

Milik, S. (2021). Assessment of solid waste management in Egypt during the last decade in light of the partnership between the Egyptian government and the private sector (master thesis, the American University in Cairo).



Miragaia, D., Ferreira, J., Carreira, A. (2014). DO STAKEHOLDERS MATTER IN STRATEGIC DECISION MAKING OF A SPORTS ORGANIZATION? *Revista de Administracao de Empresas*, 54(6), 647-658.

<http://dx.doi.org/10.1590/S0034-759020140605>

Mirosa, M., Liu, Y., Mirosa, R. (2018). Consumers' behaviors and attitudes toward doggy bags: identifying barriers and benefits to promoting behavior change. *Journal of Food Production Market*, 24 (5), 563-590.

<https://doi.org/10.1080/10454446.2018.1472699>.

Mitchell, R., Agle, B., Wood, D. (1997). [Toward a Theory of Stakeholder Identification and Salience: Defining the Principle of who and What Really Counts](#). *Academy of Management Review*, 22(4), 853-886.

Moen, T. (2006). Reflections on the Narrative Research Approach. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, 5(4), 56-69.

<https://doi.org/10.1177/160940690600500405>.

Molina-Collado, A., Santos-Vijande, M., Gomez-Rico, M., Madera, J. (2022). Sustainability in hospitality and tourism: a review of key research topics from 1994 to 2020. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 34(8), 3029-3064. DOI:10.1108/IJCHM-10-2021-1305

Moliner, M., Monferrer, D., Estrada, M., Rodriguez, R. (2019). Environmental Sustainability and the Hospitality Customer Experience: A Study in Tourist Accommodation. *Sustainability*, 11(19), 1-15. doi:10.3390/su11195279

Montiel, I. and Delgado-Ceballos, J. (2014). Defining and Measuring Corporate Sustainability: Are We There Yet? *Organization and Environment*, 27(2), 113-139. <https://doi.org/10.1177/108602661452641>

Morse, J. M. (2008) "What's your favourite colour?" Reporting Irrelevant Demographics in Qualitative Research. *Qualitative Health Research, 18*, 299-300.

Morse, J. and Clark, L. (2019). The Nuances of Grounded Theory Sampling and the Pivotal Role of Theoretical Sampling. Antony Bryant and Kathy

Moosa, A. and He, F. (2021). Impact of environmental management practices on corporate sustainability: evidence from the Maldives hospitality industry. *International Journal of Emerging Markets*. DOI 10.1108/IJOEM-06-2020-0700

Moustakas, C. (1994). Phenomenological Research Methods. Sage publications, Inc.

Mukucha, P., Mushanyuri, B., Jaravaza, D. (2021). Green Sourcing: Effects on Supplier Performance Metrics in Fast Food Restaurants in Frontier Markets. *Logistics, supply chain, sustainability and global challenges, 12*(1), 47-59 doi: 10.2478/jlst-2021-0004

Myung, E., McClaren, A., & Li, L. (2012). Environmentally Related Research in Scholarly Hospitality Journals: Current Status and Future Opportunities. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 31*(4), 1264-1275. doi: 10.1016/j.ijhm.2012.03.006.

Namkung, Y., & Jang, S. (2013). Effects of restaurant green practices on brand equity formation: Do green practices really matter? *International*

*Journal of Hospitality Management*, 33, 85-95. doi:  
10.1016/j.ijhm.2012.06.006.

Namkung, Y. and Jang, S. (2017). Are Consumers Willing to Pay more for Green Practices at Restaurants? *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 41 (3), 329-356. doi: 10.1177/1096348014525632.

Neville, B., Bell, S., Whitwell, G. (2011). Stakeholder Salience Revisited: Refining, Redefining, and Refueling an Underdeveloped Conceptual Tool *Journal of Business Ethics*, 102 (3), 357-378

Neville, B. and Menguc, B. (2006). Stakeholder Multiplicity: Toward an Understanding of the Interactions between Stakeholders. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 66 (4), 377-391.

Nguyen, T. (2019). *Selection of Research Paradigms in English Language Teaching: Personal Reflections and Future Directions* [Paper Presentation]. The Second Annual International Conference on Language and Literature, KnE Social Sciences, 1-19. DOI 10.18502/kss.v3i19.4826.

Nicholson, J., LaPlaca, P., Al-Abdin, A., Breese, R., Khan, Z. (2018). What do introduction sections tell us about the intent of scholarly work: A contribution on contributions. *Industrial Marketing Management*, 73, 206-219. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.indmarman.2018.02.014>

Nicolaides, A. (2015). Tourism Stakeholder Theory in practice: instrumental business grounds, fundamental normative demands or a descriptive application? *African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure*, 4 (2), 1-27.

Nicolau, J., Hernandez-Maskivker, G., Guix, M. (2020). Millennials' willingness to pay for green restaurants. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 90, 1-25. DOI: 10.1016/j.ijhm.2020.102601

Nogueira, S. and Pinho, S. (2015). Stakeholder Network Integrated Analysis: The Specific Case of Rural Tourism in the Portuguese Peneda-Gerês National Park. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 17, 325-336.

Nola, R. and Sankey, H. (2007). Theories of Scientific Method: An Introduction. Taylor and Francis.  
<https://ebookcentral.proquest.com/lib/hud/reader.action?docID=1900198>

Nurani, L. (2008). CRITICAL REVIEW OF ETHNOGRAPHIC APPROACH. *Critical Review of Ethnographic Approach*, 14(7), 441-447.

Nuttavuthisit, K., and Thogersen, J. (2015). The importance of consumer trust for the emergence of a market for green products: The case of organic food. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 1-15. doi:10.1007/s10551-015-2690-5

Ozturk, I., Al-Mulali, U., Saboori, B. (2016). Investigating the environmental Kuznets curve hypothesis: the role of tourism and ecological footprint. *Environmental Science and Pollution Research*, 23(2), 1916-1928.

Paco, A., Shiel, C., Alves, H. (2019). A New Model for Testing Green Consumer Behavior. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 207, 998-1006.  
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2018.10.105>

Parent, M. and Deephouse, D. (2007). A Case Study of Stakeholder Identification and Prioritization by Managers. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 75(1), pg. 1-23. DOI 10.1007/s10551-007-9533-y

Park, E., Kim, W., Kwon, J. (2021). Understanding the relationship between green restaurant certification programs and a green restaurant image: the case of TripAdvisor reviews. *Kybernetes*, 50(6), 1689-1703. DOI 10.1108/K-02-2020-0112

Park, E., Kwon, J., Chae, B., Kim, S. (2021). What Are the Salient and Memorable Green-Restaurant Attributes? Capturing Customer Perceptions From User-Generated Content. *Sage Open*, 1-13.

<https://doi.org/10.1177/21582440211031546>

Patton M.Q. (1990) *Qualitative Evaluation and Research Methods* 2nd edn. Sage, Newbury Park, California.

Paulraj, A. (2011). Understanding the Relationships Between Internal Resources and Capabilities, Sustainable Supply Management and Organizational Sustainability. *Journal of Supply Chain Management*, 19-37.

Pava, M.L. and Krausz, J. (1997). Criteria for evaluating the legitimacy of corporate social responsibility". *Journal of Business Ethics*, 16(3), pg. 337-347.

Perez-Pineda, F., Alcaraz, J., Colon. (2017). Creating sustainable value in the hospitality industry: a (critical) multi-stakeholder study in the Dominican Republic. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 25 (11), 1633-1649, DOI: 10.1080/09669582.2017.1297451

Perramon, J., Alonso-Almeida, M., Llach, J. and Bagur-Femenías, L. (2014). Green practices in restaurants: Impact on firm performance. *Operations Management Research*, 7, 2-12. doi: 10.1007/s12063-014-0084-y.

Perrigot, R., Watson, A., Dada, O. (2021). Sustainability and green practices: the role of stakeholder power in fast-food franchise chains. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 33(10), 3442-3464. DOI 10.1108/IJCHM-02-2021-0269

Peter, J. (1992). Realism or Relativism for Marketing Theory and Research: A Comment on Hunt's "Scientific Realism". *Journal of Marketing*, 56(2), pg.72-79.

Pham, N., Tuckov, Z., Jabbour, C. (2019). Greening the hospitality industry: How do green human resource management practices influence organizational citizenship behavior in hotels? A mixed-methods study. *Tourism Management*, 72, 386-399.  
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2018.12.008>

Pfeffer, J. and Salancik, G. (1978). The external control of organizations: a resource dependence perspective. Harper & Row. New York, London.

Phillips, D. (1987). Philosophy, science, and social inquiry: Contemporary methodological controversies in social science and related applied fields of research. Oxford: Pergamon Press.

Phillips, R. and Reichart, J. (2000). The Environment as a Stakeholder? A Fairness-Based Approach. *Journal of Business Ethics* 23(2), 185-197.  
DOI:10.1023/A:1006041929249

Pirani, S. and Arafat, H. (2014). Solid waste management in the hospitality industry: A review. *Journal of Environmental Management*, 146, 320-336.  
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jenvman.2014.07.038>

Pirson, M. and Malhotra, D. (2011). Foundations of Organizational Trust: What Matters to Different Stakeholders? *Organization Science*, 22 (4), 1087-1104. DOI:10.1287/orsc.1100.0581

Post, J., Preston, L., Sachs, S. (2002). Managing the Extended Enterprise: The New Stakeholder View. *California Management Review*, 45(1), 6-28. <https://doi.org/10.2307/41166151>

Poulston, J., Yiu, A. (2011). Profit or principles: Why do restaurants serve organic food? *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 30(1), 184-191. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2010.04.004>

Power, S. (2015). An applied ethics analysis of best practice tourism entrepreneurs (Doctoral Thesis, University of Surrey).

Prasad, B. (2008). Content analysis. *Research methods for social work*, 5, 1-20. <http://www.css.ac.in/download/deviprasad/content%20analysis.%20a%20method%20of%20social%20science%20research.pdf>

Presenza, A. and Cipollina, M. (2010). Analysing tourism stakeholders networks. *Tourism Review*, 65(4), 17-30. DOI 10.1108/16605371011093845.

Preziosi, M., Tourais, P., Acampora, A., Videira, N., Merli, R. (2019). The role of environmental practices and communication on guest loyalty: Examining EU-Ecolabel in Portuguese hotels. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 237, 1-13. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2019.117659>

Principato, L., Pratesi, C., Secondi, L. (2018). Towards Zero Waste: an Exploratory Study on Restaurant managers. *International Journal of*

*Hospitality Management*, 74, 130-137.

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2018.02.022>

Prud'homme, B. and Raymond, L. (2013). Sustainable development practices in the hospitality industry: An empirical study of their impact on customer satisfaction and intentions. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 34, 116-126. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2013.03.003>

Raab, C., Baloglu, S., Chen, Y. (2018). Restaurant Managers' Adoption of Sustainable Practices: An Application of Institutional Theory and Theory of Planned Behavior. *Journal of Foodservice Business Research*, 21(2), 154-171, DOI: 10.1080/15378020.2017.1364591

Rady, A., Dawood A., Abo Taleb, M., Adel, M. (2021). Food Waste in Hotel Restaurants: Causes, Reducing Practices and Barriers. *Minia Journal of Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 12(1), 135-155.

Raharjo, K. (2019). The Role of Green Management in Creating Sustainability Performance on the Small and Medium Enterprises. Management of Environmental Quality: *An International Journal*, 30, 557-577. <https://doi.org/10.1108/MEQ-03-2018-0053>

Rahman, I., Park, J., Chi, C. (2015). Consequences of "greenwashing": consumers' reactions to hotels' green initiatives. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 27(6), pg. 1054-1081.

DOI 10.1108/IJCHM-04-2014-0202

[Rassiah, P.](#), [Mohd Nasir, N.](#), [Khan, G.](#) and [Munir, S.](#) (2022). Stakeholder salience and environmental stewardship among hotels in



Malaysia. *Sustainability Accounting, Management and Policy Journal*, 13(5), 1201-1228. <https://doi.org/10.1108/SAMPJ-06-2021-0221>

Raub, S. and Martin-Rios, C. (2019). "Think sustainable, act local" a stakeholder-filter-model for translating SDGs into sustainability initiatives with local impact. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 31(6), 2428-2447. DOI 10.1108/IJCHM-06-2018-0453

Rehman, A. and Alharthi, K. (2016). An Introduction to Research Paradigms. *International Journal of Educational Investigations*, 3(8), 51-59.

Reichertz, J. (2013). Induction, deduction, abduction. In U. Flick (Ed.), *The SAGE handbook of qualitative data analysis* (123-136). SAGE.

Report Linker (n.d.). Hospitality Global Market Report 2022. [https://www.reportlinker.com/p06193682/Hospitality-Global-Market-Report.html?utm\\_source=GNW](https://www.reportlinker.com/p06193682/Hospitality-Global-Market-Report.html?utm_source=GNW)

Reypens, C., Lievens, A., Blazevic, V. (2016). Leveraging value in multi-stakeholder innovation networks: A process framework for value co-creation and capture. *Industrial Marketing Management*, 56, 40-50. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.indmarman.2016.03.005>

Riva, F., Magrizos, S., Rabiou, M., Rubel, B., Rizomyliotis, I. (2022). Green consumerism, green perceived value, and restaurant revisit intention: Millennials' sustainable consumption with moderating effect of green perceived quality. *Business Strategy Environment*, 1-13. DOI: 10.1002/bse.3048

Roa, P., Singh, A., O'Castillo, O., Intal Jr., P., Sajid, A. (). A metric for corporate environmental indicators ... for small and medium enterprises in the Philippines. *Business Strategy and the Environment*, 18(1), 14-31  
<https://doi.org/10.1002/bse.555>

Robinot, E. and Giannelloni, F. (2010). Do hotels' "green" attributes contribute to customer satisfaction? *Journal of Services Marketing*, 24(2), 157-169. [DOI 10.1108/08876041011031127]

Romani, L., Barmeyer, C., Primecz, H., Pilhofer, K. (2018) Cross-Cultural Management Studies: State of the Field in the Four Research Paradigms. *International Studies of Management & Organization*, 48(3), 247-263, DOI:10.1080/00208825.2018.1480918

Rosignoli, F. and Lionzo, A. (2018). Network impact on business models for sustainability: Case study in the energy sector. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 182, 694-704. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2018.02.015>

Rousseau, D., Sitkin, S., Burt, R., Camerer, C. (1998). Not so Different After All: A Cross-Discipline View of Trust. *Academy of Management Review*, 23 (3), 393-404.

Rowley, T. (1997). Moving Beyond Dyadic Ties: A Network Theory of Stakeholder Influences. *Academy of Management Review*, 22 (4), 887-910.

Rowley, T. (2017). The Power of and in Stakeholder Networks. *Business and Society*, 360(1), 101-122.

Rowley, T. and Moldoveanu, M. (2003). When will stakeholder groups act? An interest-and identity-based model of stakeholder group mobilisation. *Academy of Management Review*, 28(2), pg. 204-219.

Roxas, F., Rivera, J., Gutierrez, E. (2020). Mapping stakeholders' roles in governing sustainable tourism destinations. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, 45, 387-398.

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhtm.2020.09.005>

Ryan, G. and Bernard, H. (2003). Techniques to identify themes. *Field Methods*, 15(1), 85-109. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/1525822X02239569>.

Saad, H. and Raslan A. (2017). Menu Sustainability in the Egyptian Upscale and Fine Dining Restaurants: Descriptive Approach. *International Journal of Heritage, Tourism and Hospitality*, 11(1), 262-276. DOI:

[10.21608/IJHTH.2017.30196](https://doi.org/10.21608/IJHTH.2017.30196)

Saito, H. and Ruhanen, L. (2017). Power in tourism stakeholder collaborations: Power types and power holders. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, 31, 189-196.

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhtm.2017.01.001>

Sakaguchi, L., Pak, N., Potts, M. (2018). Tackling the issue of food waste in restaurants: Options for measurement method, reduction and behavioral change. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 180, 430-436.

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2017.12.136>

Sakshi, Shashi, Cerchione, R., Bansa, H. (2020). Measuring the impact of sustainability policy and practices in tourism and hospitality industry.

*Business Strategy and Environment*, 29, 1109-1126. 2019DOI:

10.1002/bse.2420

Saleem, F., Gopinath, C., Khattak, A., Qureshi, S., Allui, A., Adeel, A. (2020). Corporate Environmentalism: An Emerging Economy Perspective. *Sustainability*, 12, 1-17. doi:10.3390/su12156225

Saleh, A. and Elsaied, M. (2018). Green Practices in Quick Service Restaurants: Dimensions and Obstacles. *JFBE*, 7, 659-672. DOI:10.13140/RG.2.2.25822.89929

Salem, I., Elbaz, A., Elkhwesky, Z., Ghazi, K. (2021). The COVID-19 pandemic: The mitigating role of government and hotel support of hotel employees in Egypt. *Tourism Management*, 85, 1-15. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2021.104305>

Salem, I., Elkhwesky, Z., Ramkissoon, H. (2021). A content analysis for government's and hotels' response to COVID-19 pandemic in Egypt. *Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 22(1), 42-59. DOI: 10.1177/14673584211002614

Salem, M., Abd El-Halim, **H.**, **Refky, A.**, Ibrahim Ahmed Nassar, I. (2020). Potential of waste to energy conversion in Egypt. *Journal of Electrical and Computer Engineering*, 1-17. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2022/7265553>

Salzberg, A., Gough, M., Suen, I-Shian (2019). Sustainable innovation behavior in restaurants, *Journal of Foodservice Business Research*, 22 (2), 167-190, DOI:10.1080/15378020.2019.1592655

Sanchez-Medina, P., Diaz-Pichardo, R., Cruz-Bautista, M. (2016). Stakeholder Influence on the Implementation of Environmental Management Practices in the Hotel Industry. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 18(4), 387-398. DOI:10.1002/jtr.2056

Santana, A. (2020). Three Elements of Stakeholder Legitimacy. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 105, 257-265. DOI 10.1007/s10551-011-0966-y

Sarmiento, C. and Hanandeh, A. (2018). Customers' perceptions and expectations of environmentally sustainable restaurant and the development of green index: The case of the Gold Coast, Australia. *Sustainable Production and Consumption*, 15, 16-24. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.spc.2018.04.001>

Saunders, M., Lewis, P., Thornhill, A. (2019). Research methods for business students (8<sup>th</sup> ed.) Pearson Education Limited.

Savage, G., Nix, T., Whitehead, C., Blair, J. (1991). Strategies for assessing and managing organizational stakeholders. *Academy of Management Executive*, 5, 61-75.

Savino, M. and Shafiq, M. (2018). An extensive study to assess the sustainability drivers of production performances using a resource-based view and contingency analysis. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 204, 744-752. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2018.08.191>

Sayed, N. (2019). Plastic ban in the Red Sea. <https://english.ahram.org.eg/News/337694.aspx>

Schaltegger, S. (2014). Educating change agents for sustainability: Learnings from the first sustainability management master of business administration. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 62, 24-36.

[Schaltegger](#), S., Horisch, J., [Freeman](#), E. (2017). Business Cases for Sustainability: A Stakeholder Theory Perspective. *Organization & Environment*, 2(3) 191-212. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1086026617722882>

Scharp, K. and Sanders, M. (2019). What is a theme? Teaching thematic analysis in qualitative communication research methods. *Communication Teacher*, 33(2), 117-121. DOI: 10.1080/17404622.2018.1536794.

Schnackenberg, A., and Tomlinson, E. (2016). Organizational transparency: A new perspective on managing trust in organization-stakeholder relationships. *Journal of Management*, 42, 1784-1810.

Schneider, T. and Sachs, S. (2017). The Impact of Stakeholder Identities on Value Creation in Issue-Based Stakeholder Networks. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 144, 41-57. DOI 10.1007/s10551-015-2845-4.

Schostak, J. (2006). Interviewing and representation in qualitative research. (1<sup>st</sup> ed.) Open university press.

Schubert, F., Kandampully, J., Solnet, D., Kralj, A. (2010). Exploring Consumer Perceptions of Green Restaurants in the US. *Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 10(4), 286-300. doi:10.1057/thr.2010.17.

Sciarelli, M. and Tani, M. (2013). Network Approach and Stakeholder Management. *Business Systems Review*, 2(2), 175-190.

Seele, P. and Gatti, L. (2017). Greenwashing Revisited: In Search of a Typology and Accusation-Based Definition Incorporating Legitimacy Strategies. *Business Strategy and the Environment Business Strategy and the Environment*, 26, 239-252.

DOI: 10.1002/bse.1912

Sekaran, U. and Bougie, R. (2009). Research methods for business students: A skill building approach (5<sup>th</sup> ed.) John Wiley & Sons.

Seroka-Stolka, O. and Fijorek, K. (2020). Enhancing corporate sustainable development: Proactive environmental strategy, stakeholder pressure and the moderating effect of firm size. *Business Strategy Environment*, 2, 2338-2354. DOI: 10.1002/bse.2506

Shahzad, M., Qu, Y., Zafar, A., Ding, X., Rehman, S. (2020). Translating stakeholders' pressure into environmental practices-The mediating role of knowledge management. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 275, 1-11. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2020.124163>

Shaik, C. (n.d.). *6 Fast Food Chains Seeking to Lower Their Environmental Footprint (Complete 2022 List)*. Impactful Ninja. <https://impactful.ninja/fast-food-chains-seeking-to-lower-their-environmental-footprint/>

Sharma, G. (2017). Pros and cons of different sampling techniques. *International Journal of Applied Research*, 3(7), 749-752.

Sharma, T., Chen, J., Liu, W. (2020). Eco-innovation in hospitality research (1998-2018): a systematic review. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 32(2), 913-933. DOI 10.1108/IJCHM-01-2019-0002

Shen, Y. (2017). Consumption Intentions toward green restaurants: Application of theory of planned behavior and altruism. *International Journal of Management, Economics and Social Sciences*, 6(3), 121-143.

Shin, S. and Cho, M. (2022). Green Supply Chain Management Implemented by Suppliers as Drivers for SMEs Environmental Growth with a Focus on the Restaurant Industry. *Sustainability*, 14, 1-17.

<https://doi.org/10.3390/su14063515>

Shin, Y., Lm, J., Jung, S., Severt, K. (2018). Motivations behind Consumers' Organic Menu Choices: The Role of Environmental Concern, Social Value, and Health Consciousness. *Journal of Quality Assurance in Hospitality & Tourism*, 20(1), 107-122. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1528008X.2018.1483288>

Sigala, M. (2021). In search of originality and contribution in tourism research: An editor's reflections and suggestions. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, 48, 604-608.

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhtm.2021.08.010>

Silva, S., Nuzum, A., Schaltegger, S. (2019). Stakeholder expectations on sustainability performance measurement and assessment. A systematic literature review. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 217, 204-215.

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2019.01.203>

Silverman, D. (2005). Doing qualitative research. (5<sup>th</sup> ed.) Sage publications, Inc.

Singjai, K., Winata, L., Kummer, T. (2018). Green initiatives and their competitive advantage for the hotel industry in developing countries. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 75, 131-143.

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2018.03.007>

Sobaih, A., Elshaer, I., Hasanein, A., Abdelaziz, A. (2021). Responses to COVID-19: The role of performance in the relationship between small hospitality enterprises' resilience and sustainable tourism development.



*International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 94, 1-11.

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2020.102824>

Sobaih, A. and Jones E. (2015). Bridging the hospitality and tourism university–industry research gap in developing countries: The case of Egypt. *Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 15(3), 161–177. DOI: 10.1177/1467358415578188

Soliman, S. (2020). Food Waste Management: Exploratory Study of Egyptians chefs. *Journal of Association of Arab Universities for Tourism and Hospitality*, 18(3), 177-198.

Song, F., Montabon, F., Xu, Y. (2018). The impact of national culture on corporate adoption of environmental management practices and their effectiveness. *International Journal of Production Economics*, 205, 313-328. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijpe.2018.09.020>

Srivastava, S. (2007). Green supply-chain management: A state-of- the-art literature review. *International Journal of Management Reviews*, 9(1), 53-80. doi: 10.1111/j.1468-2370.2007.00202.x

Stemler, S. (2001). An overview of content analysis. *Practical Assessment, Research, and Evaluation*, 7(17). DOI: <https://doi.org/10.7275/z6fm-2e34>

Stockli, S., Dorn, M., Liechti, S. (2018). Normative prompts reduce consumer food waste in restaurants. *Waste Management*, 77, 532-536 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.wasman.2018.04.047>

Strand, R., Freeman, E., Hockerts, K. (2015). Corporate social responsibility and sustainability in Scandinavia: an overview. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 127, 1-15. DOI:[10.1007/s10551-014-2224-6](https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-014-2224-6)

Stringam, B. and Partlow, G. (2015). A profile of the hospitality industry. Business Expert Press, New York.

<https://ebookcentral.proquest.com/lib/hud/reader.action?docID=4388930>

Su, W. and E. Tsang. (2015). Product Diversification and Financial Performance: The Moderating Role of Secondary Stakeholders. *Academy of Management Journal*, 58(4), 1128-1148.

<https://www.jstor.org/stable/43589387>

Suarez-Cebador, M., Rubio-Romero, J., Pinto-Contreiras, J., Gemar, G. (2018). A model to measure sustainable development in the hotel industry: A comparative study. *Corporate Social Responsibility and Environmental Management*, 25(3), 1-11. DOI: 10.1002/csr.1489

Suchman, M. (1995). Managing Legitimacy: Strategic and Institutional Approaches. *The Academy of Management Review*, 20(3), pg. 571-610.

Svendsen, A. and Laberge, M. (2005). Convening Stakeholder Networks. A new way of thinking, being and engaging. *The Journal of Corporate Citizenship*, 19, 91-104.

Svensson, G. and Wagner, B. (2012). Business sustainability and e-footprints on earth's life and ecosystems – generic models. *European Business Review*, 24(6), pg. 543-552.

Swanson, R. and Holton III, E. (2005). *Research in Organizations. Foundations and Methods of Inquiry*. Berrett-Koehler Publishers, Inc. USA.

Szuchnicki, A. (2009). Examining the influence of restaurant green practices on customer return intention. [Master of Science Thesis, University of Nevada].

<https://digitalscholarship.unlv.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1161&context=thesesdissertations>

Takouleu, J. (2021). Egypt: IFC underwrites 1<sup>st</sup> private sector green bond. Retrieved from <https://www.afrik21.africa/en/egypt-ifc-underwrites-1st-private-sector-green-bond/>.

Tan, B., Lau, T., Yong, G., Khan, N., Nguyen, T. (2018). A qualitative study of green practices adoption for restaurants in Malaysia. *Social Responsibility Journal*. <https://doi.org/10.1108/SRJ-07-2017-0119>.

Tan, B. and Yeap, P. (2012). What Drives Green Restaurant Patronage Intention? *International Journal of Business and Management*, 7(2), 215-223.

Tashman, P. and Raelin, J. (2013). Who and What Really Matters to the Firm: Moving Stakeholder Salience beyond Managerial Perceptions. *Business Ethics Quarterly*, 23 (4), 591- 616.

Tatàno, F., Caramiello, C., Paolini, T., & Tripolone, L. (2017). Generation and collection of restaurant waste: Characterization and evaluation at a case study in Italy. *Waste Management*, 61, 423-442.

Teng, C., Horng, J., Hu., I-Chen (2015). Environmental Management Decisions: The Stakeholder Perspective. *International Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Administration*, 16(1), 78-98, DOI: 10.1080/15256480.2015.991991

Teng, Y. and Wu, K. (2019). Sustainability Development in Hospitality: The Effect of Perceived Value on Customers' Green Restaurant Behavioral Intention. *Sustainability*, 11, 1-13. doi:10.3390/su11071987

The Arab Republic of Egypt Presidency. (n.d.). Go Green Initiative. <https://www.presidency.eg/EN/%D8%A7%D9%84%D8%B1%D8%A6%D8%A7%D8%B3%D8%A9/%D9%85%D8%A8%D8%A7%D8%AF%D8%B1%D8%A9-%D8%A7%D8%AA%D8%AD%D8%B6%D8%B1-%D9%84%D9%84%D8%A3%D8%AE%D8%B6%D8%B1/>

Timur, S. and Getz, D. (2008). A network perspective on managing stakeholders for sustainable urban tourism. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 20(4), 445-461. <https://doi.org/10.1108/09596110810873543>.

Thomas, A., Scandurra, G. and Carfora, A. (2022). Adoption of green innovations by SMEs: an investigation about the influence of stakeholders. *European Journal of Innovation Management*, 25(6), 44-63. <https://doi.org/10.1108/EJIM-07-2020-0292>

Thompson, J., Wartick, S., Smith, H. (1991). Integrating corporate social performance and stakeholder management: Implications for a research agenda in small business. *Research in Corporate Social Performance and Policy*, 12, 207-230.

Tommasetti, A., Singer, P., Troisi, O., Maione, g. (2018). Extended Theory of Planned Behavior (ETPB): Investigating Customers' Perception of Restaurants' Sustainability by Testing a Structural Equation Model. *Sustainability*, 10(7), 1-21. <https://doi.org/10.3390/su10072580>

Tracy, S. J. (2013). *Qualitative research methods: collecting evidence, crafting analysis, communicating impact* (1<sup>st</sup> ed). John Wiley & Sons.

Trochim, W.M.K. (2006). Research methods knowledge base. Retrieved on January 25, 2010 from <http://www.socialresearchmethods.net>

Trotter, R. (2012). Qualitative research sample design and sample size: Resolving and unresolved issues and inferential imperatives. *Preventive medicine*, 55(5), 398-400. <https://doi-org.libaccess.hud.ac.uk/10.1016/j.ypmed.2012.07.003>

Tuan, L. (2021). Disentangling green service innovative behavior among hospitality employees: The role of customer green involvement. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 99, 1-14. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2021.103045>

Tumpa, T., Ali, S., Rahman, Md., Paul, S., Chowdhury, P., Khan, S. (2019). Barriers to green supply chain management: An emerging economy context. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 236, 1-12. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2019.117617>.

Umrani, W., Channa, N., Yousaf, A., Ahmed, U., Pahi, M., Ramayah, T. (2020). Greening the workforce to achieve environmental performance in

hotel industry: A serial mediation model. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, 44, 50-60. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhtm.2020.05.007>

UNDP Egypt (2020). Bringing-to-light: "ECO EGYPT"- Egypt's Hidden Gems. <https://www.eg.undp.org/content/egypt/en/home/stories/2020/bringing-to-light--eco-egypt---egypts-hidden-gems.html>.

United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs. (n.d.). *Sustainable Development*. <https://sdgs.un.org/goals>

United Nations Climate Change (n.d.). conference of the Parties (COP). [https://unfccc.int/process/bodies/supreme-bodies/conference-of-the-parties-cop?gclid=CjwKCAiA68ebBhB-EiwALVC-NjPY9rs\\_vmT8OYc26dHeWy4djXhNzWym57ZDF0tHv6vmmARtrqBugRoCFSkQAvD\\_BwE](https://unfccc.int/process/bodies/supreme-bodies/conference-of-the-parties-cop?gclid=CjwKCAiA68ebBhB-EiwALVC-NjPY9rs_vmT8OYc26dHeWy4djXhNzWym57ZDF0tHv6vmmARtrqBugRoCFSkQAvD_BwE)

UN environment programme (n.d.) *Waste Management Law No. 202 of 2020*. <https://leap.unep.org/countries/eg/national-legislation/waste-management-law-no202-2020>

Upward, A. and Jones, P. (2016). An Ontology for Strongly Sustainable Business Models: Defining an Enterprise Framework Compatible With Natural and Social Science. *Organization & Environment*, 29(1), 97-123. <https://doi-org.libaccess.hud.ac.uk/10.1177/1086026615592933>

Vaismoradi, M., Jones, J., Turunen, H., Snelgrove, S. (2016). Theme development in qualitative content analysis and thematic analysis. *Journal of Nursing Education and Practice*, 6(5), 100-110.

Vaismoradi, M., Turunen, H., Bondas, T. (2013). Content analysis and thematic analysis: Implications for conducting a qualitative descriptive study. *Nursing and Health Sciences*, 15, 398–405. doi: 10.1111/nhs.12048

Vallet, A., Locatelli, B., Barnaud, C., Makowski, D., Conde, Y., Levrel, H. (2020). Power asymmetries in social networks of ecosystem services governance. *Environmental Science & Policy*, 114, 329-340.  
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envsci.2020.08.020>

Vega-Zamora, M., Torres-Ruiz, F., Parras-Rosa, M. (2019). Towards sustainable consumption: Keys to communication for improving trust in organic foods. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 216, 511-519.  
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2018.12.129>

Vehovar, V., Toepoel, V. and Steinmetz, S. (2016). Non-probability Sampling in Wolf, C., Joye, D., Smith, T. and Fu, Y. (Eds.), *The Sage Handbook of Survey Methodology*, 329-345, Sage Publications.

Verma, V. and Chandra, B. (2018). Sustainability and customers' hotel choice behaviour: a choice-based conjoint analysis approach. *Environment, Development and Sustainability*, 20, 1347–1363  
<https://doi.org/10.1007/s10668-017-9944-6>

Vilchez, V., Darnall, N., Correa, J. (2017). Stakeholder influences on the design of firms' environmental practices. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 142, 3370-3381.  
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2016.10.129>

Voegtlin, C., Frisch, C., Walther, A., Schwab, P. (2020). Theoretical Development and Empirical Examination of a Three-Roles Model of Responsible Leadership. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 167, 411-431.  
<https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-019-04155-2>

Von Meyer-Höfer, M., Nitzko, S., Spiller, A. (2015). Is there an expectation gap? Consumers' expectations towards organic: An exploratory survey in mature and emerging European organic food markets. *British Food Journal*, 117(5), 1527-1546. doi:10.1108/BFJ-07-2014-0252

Vracheva, V. and Mason, R. (2015). Creating Firm Value through Stakeholder Management and Regulation. *Journal of Managerial Issue*, 27(1/4), 120-140.

Wang, Y. (2016). Modeling predictors of restaurant employees' green behavior: Comparison of six attitude-behavior models. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 58, 66-81.

Wang, Y., Chen, S., Lee, Y., Tsai, C. (2013). Developing green management standards for restaurants: An application of green supply chain management. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 34, 263-273. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2013.04.001>

Wang, Z., Wang, Q., Zhang, S., Zhao, X. (2018). Effects of customer and cost drivers on green supply chain management practices and environmental performance. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 189, 673-682. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2018.04.071>

Watson, A. and Till, K. (2010). Ethnography and Participant Observation. Delyser, D., Herbert, S., Aitken, S., Crang, M., McDowell, M. *Qualitative Geography*, 121-137. [https://books.google.com.eg/books?hl=en&lr=&id=pvAqzyZhQ24C&oi=fnd&pg=PA121&dq=ethnographic+approach+participant+observation&ots=XZyoPuIqa&sig=N2RSm92zhCumOWKSMNoTs2nhGbI&redir\\_esc=y#v=onepage&q=ethnographic%20approach%20participant%20observation&f=false](https://books.google.com.eg/books?hl=en&lr=&id=pvAqzyZhQ24C&oi=fnd&pg=PA121&dq=ethnographic+approach+participant+observation&ots=XZyoPuIqa&sig=N2RSm92zhCumOWKSMNoTs2nhGbI&redir_esc=y#v=onepage&q=ethnographic%20approach%20participant%20observation&f=false)



Welter, K. (2012). Sustainability in the Restaurant Industry: A Cape Town Study. Stellenbosch University. <http://scholar.sun.ac.za>

Weng, H., Chen, J., Chen, P. (2015). Effects of Green Innovation on Environmental and Corporate Performance: A Stakeholder Perspective. *Sustainability*, 7, 4997-5026. <https://doi.org/10.3390/su7054997>

Wetherell, M. and Still, A. (1998). Realism and Relativism. Sapsford, R., Still, A., Wetherell, A., Miell, D., Stevens, R. *Theory and Social Psychology*, 99-114-. The Open University.

[https://books.google.com.eg/books?hl=en&lr=&id=UytgfhiI-yEC&oi=fnd&pg=PA1&dq=+1998+Theory+and+Social+Psychology+sapsford&ots=CQeIGThfbz&sig=kIB1CV6\\_hrDaJIwxt63Psv0zV9Q&redir\\_esc=y#v=onepage&q=1998%20Theory%20and%20Social%20Psychology%20sapsford&f=false](https://books.google.com.eg/books?hl=en&lr=&id=UytgfhiI-yEC&oi=fnd&pg=PA1&dq=+1998+Theory+and+Social+Psychology+sapsford&ots=CQeIGThfbz&sig=kIB1CV6_hrDaJIwxt63Psv0zV9Q&redir_esc=y#v=onepage&q=1998%20Theory%20and%20Social%20Psychology%20sapsford&f=false)

Wilkinson, S. (2004). Focus Groups. In G.M. Breakwell (Eds), *Doing Social Psychology Research* (344-376).

<https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/pdf/10.1002/9780470776278#page=352>

Willing, C. (2014). Interpretation and Analysis in The Sage handbook of Qualitative data analysis. Sage publications, Inc.

Woiceshyn, J. and Daellenbach, U. (2018). Evaluating inductive vs deductive research in management studies Implications for authors, editors, and reviewers. *Qualitative Research in Organizations and Management*, 13(2), 183-195. DOI 10.1108/QROM-06-2017-1538

World Bank. (n.d.). *Egypt, Arab Rep.* <https://data.worldbank.org/country/EG>

World Bank. (n.d.). *Overview*.

<https://www.worldbank.org/en/country/egypt/overview>

WorldData (2022). Egypt.

<https://www.worlddata.info/africa/egypt/index.php>

Wu, C. and Barnes, D. (2016). Partner selection in green supply chains using PSO – a practical approach. *Production Planning & Control*, 27(13), 1041-1061. DOI: 10.1080/09537287.2016.1177233

Wu, H., Cheng, C., Ai, C. (2021). What drives green experiential loyalty towards green restaurants?. *Tourism Review*, 76(5), 1084-1103. <https://doi.org/10.1108/TR-02-2019-0079>

Wu, K., Huang, D., Teng, Y. (2013). Environmental Concerns, Attitudes and Behavior Intention toward Patronize Green Restaurant. *Life science journal*, 10(3) 2329-2340.

Xu, X. and Gursoy, D. (2015). A Conceptual Framework of Sustainable Hospitality Supply Chain Management. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management*, 24(3), 229-259. DOI: 10.1080/19368623.2014.909691.

Xu, Y. and Jeong, E. (2019). The effect of message framings and green practices on customers' attitudes and behavior intentions toward green restaurants. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 31 (6), 2270-2296. DOI 10.1108/IJCHM-05-2018-0386

Yi, S., Li, X., Jai, T. (2018). Hotel guests' perception of best green practices: A content analysis of online reviews. *Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 18, 191-202. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1467358416637251>

Yilmaz, K. (2013). Comparison of Quantitative and Qualitative Research Traditions: epistemological, theoretical, and methodological differences. *European Journal of Education, 48*(2), 311-325. DOI:[10.1111/ejed.12014](https://doi.org/10.1111/ejed.12014)

Yin, R. (2018). *Case Study Research and Applications: design and methods*. (6<sup>th</sup> ed.) Sage publications, Inc.

Yu, S., Luo, M., Zhu, D. (2018). The Effect of Quality Attributes on Visiting Consumers' Patronage Intentions of Green Restaurants. *Sustainability, 10*, 1-14. doi:[10.3390/su1004118](https://doi.org/10.3390/su1004118).

Yucedag, C., Kaya, L., Cetin, M. (2018). Identifying and assessing environmental awareness of hotel and restaurant employees' attitudes in the Amasra District of Bartin. *Environmental Monitoring and Assessment, 190* (60), 1-8. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10661-017-6456-7>

Zaineldine, A. (2020). Aiming to Revive Travel Despite COVID-19 Woes, Egypt is Resuming Flights on July 1. Egyptian Streets. <https://egyptianstreets.com/2020/06/15/aiming-to-revive-travel-despite-covid-19-woes-egypt-is-resuming-flights-on-july-1/>

Zakhary, N. (2013). Science, technology and innovation in Egypt. Available at: [https://royalsociety.org/ /media/RoyalSociety\\_Content/policy/projects/atlas-islamic-world/Atlas\\_Egypt.pdf](https://royalsociety.org/media/RoyalSociety_Content/policy/projects/atlas-islamic-world/Atlas_Egypt.pdf) (accessed 18 June 2013).

Zhang, H., Ainn, Q., Iram, B., Haq, J., Mark, B., (2022). Does Greenwashing Influence the Green Product Experience in Emerging Hospitality Markets

Post-COVID-19? Sustainability, 14(19), 1-16. <https://doi.org/10.3390/su141912313>

Zhou, Y., Pan, M., Zhou, D., Xue, L. (2018). Stakeholder Risk and Trust Perceptions in the Diffusion of Green Manufacturing Technologies: Evidence From China. *Journal of Environment & Development*, 27(1), 46-73. DOI: 10.1177/1070496517733497.

## Appendix 1 - Ethical form approved from University of Huddersfield

### The University Of Huddersfield Business School Research Ethics Committee

#### Reviewer Proforma

<b>Project Title:</b>	Green practices in restaurants: a case from a developing country perspective (Egypt).
<b>Name of researcher (s):</b>	Nada Mahmoud Mahmoud Elabd
<b>Supervisor (where appropriate):</b>	Samir Dani
<b>Reviewer name</b>	Kae Reynolds
<b>Date sent to reviewer</b>	31/08/18
<b>Target date for review</b>	14/09/18

<b>Issue</b>	<b>Advice / Comments to applicant</b>
<b>Aim / objectives of the study</b>	-
<b>Research methodology</b>	Perhaps a note about how you intend to analyze the data
<b>Permissions for study?</b>	-
<b>Participants</b>	Please make an explicit statement about the vulnerability (e.g. lack thereof) of participants/study population
<b>Access to participants</b>	-
<b>How will your data be recorded and stored?</b>	Please indicate how you intend to record and store digital data and audio data securely to ensure confidentiality.

<b>Confidentiality</b>	-
<b>Anonymity</b>	-
<b>Could the research induce psychological stress or anxiety, cause harm or negative consequences for the participants (beyond the risks encountered in normal life).</b>	-
<b>Retrospective applications</b>	Yes
<b>Supporting documents (e.g. questionnaire, interview schedule, letters etc)</b>	Yes
<b>Other comments</b>	I assume the right to withdraw as stated here has been discussed with the supervisor. If this is the recommended path it's fine. Otherwise I suggest reviewing this aspect with the supervisor.

**OVERALL RESPONSE**

<b>APPROVE</b>	
<b>APPROVE SUBJECT TO RECOMMENDATIONS [please specify]</b>	✓ because this is a PhD student I recommend the comments above to increase awareness of these aspects of ethical approval as part of the learning process.
<b>APPROVE SUBJECT TO CONDITIONS [please specify]</b>	
<b>FURTHER INFORMATION REQUIRED [please specify]</b>	
<b>REJECT [please specify reasons]</b>	

**Reviewer name**  
**Date 18/09/2018**



**Please send review to Business  
Committee, Alex Thompson (alex.thompson@hud.ac.uk).**

**School Research Ethics**

## Appendix 2 - In-depth Interviews Consent form

### PhD Research Interview Consent Form

#### STUDY AIMS

**AIM:** The aim of this research is to identify the various stakeholder groups which are relevant to the green restaurant industry, to determine how such groups can influence the adoption of green practices within restaurant activities and to highlight the challenges faced by restaurateurs when implementing environmental practices.

**UNIVERSITY:** University of Huddersfield

**DEPARTMENT:** Logistics, Marketing, Hospitality, & Analytics

**MAIN SUPERVISOR:** Professor Samir Dani

**SECOND SUPERVISOR:** Dr Adam Dennett

**RESEARCH TOPIC:** Green Practices in Restaurants: A Case from a Developing Country Perspective

#### RESEARCH QUESTIONS:

- Q1. What are the challenges of implementing environmental sustainability within green restaurants in the developing world?
- Q2. Who are the main stakeholders in the greening of the restaurant industry in a developing country?
- Q3. How can the relevant stakeholders influence the adoption of sustainable measures?

#### Company:

Contact type:		Site:	
Visit <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Phone <input type="checkbox"/>		Contact Date:	
Contact Name:		Today's Date:	
Interviewer/Coder:	Nada ElAbd	Written By:	

I hereby give my consent for Nada ElAbd, PhD researcher in Huddersfield Business School, University of Huddersfield to interview me for the purpose of her PhD research work whose aims are provided above.

I understand that data derived from this interview will be completely anonymised in any writeup or publication, and will not be used for any commercial purposes.

I understand that I have the right to withdraw from the study until the point that the data has been analysed and anonymised.

I understand that all personal data collected will be securely stored at the University of Huddersfield until the outcome of the PhD process and then destroyed. The anonymised data will be securely stored until 5 years after the PhD process.

If you are satisfied that you understand the information and are happy to take part in this project, please provide consent by signing below.

Signature of Participant	Signature of Researcher:
Name:	Name:
Date:	Date:

(one copy to be retained by Participant / one copy to be retained by Researcher)



### **Appendix 3 - In-depth Interview Guide**

First of all, I would like to thank you for agreeing to sit with me for this interview & allowing me to ask you some questions; I really appreciate it. The main aim of my research is to understand the importance of green practices in restaurant. In specific, the objectives of this research are to:

1. To understand how green restaurants are established.
2. To outline the challenges that might be faced by non-green restaurants in order to become green.
3. To identify the important stakeholders in the green restaurant industry.
4. To find out how can such stakeholders influence the adoption of green practices.

I hope by the end of this interview I am able to better understand these issues. So, I am here today to listen to your perspective; your story. That is why I might sometimes ask for details or from time-to-time re-tell what you have said just to ensure my understanding. Of course, there is no right or wrong answer; again, it's all your opinion. The interview is confidential, just between you & me, and the reporting of the data will be completely anonymous. I will need to record our interview for data analysis purposes because I will not remember everything when we are finished (consent form). The interview will take around 1hr or 1.5hrs so if you need to take a break at any time during the interview, please let me know. If there is any question that might cause a problem and you prefer not to answer it, please let me know and we can skip it. Do you have any questions for me before we start?

*GREEN PRACTICES IN RESTAURANTS: AN EXPLORATION OF THE EGYPTIAN CONTEXT THROUGH A STAKEHOLDER APPROACH*

- ◆ Restaurant Name:
- ◆ Name of interviewee:
- ◆ Date of Interview:
- ◆ Time of interview:
- ◆ Position:
- ◆ Gender:
- ◆ Number of years in the company:
- ◆ Restaurant size (seating):
- ◆ Type of Food served (breakfast, lunch, dinner):
- ◆ Cuisine:
- ◆ Years in business:
- ◆ No. of employees:
- ◆ Ownership/Type: If chain: how many branches?
- ◆ Targeted class:
- ◆ Geographic location:

*INTRODUCTORY PART*

MAIN QUESTION	PROBE
1. Could you please tell me about your restaurant? A brief history	How did you start your business?
2. Can you walk me through the legal process of opening a new restaurant?	What are exact required legal steps to open a new restaurant (licenses)?
3. Is there a restaurant federation or association here in Egypt that is responsible for restaurant matters or issues?	Is there a representative party for restaurants in Egypt?
4. How can I get more information on restaurants in Egypt?	Are there any sources available to obtain more information about restaurants in Egypt?

## IMPORTANCE OF GREEN MANAGEMENT

MAIN QUESTION	PROBE
1. The concept of green management is relatively new. What do you understand by green management or practices?	What does the term green management mean to you?
2. Can you please elaborate on the keywords in the explanation you have given?	Can you please explain the keywords given above?
3. Are you aware of any national initiatives (projects, NGOs, suppliers, etc.) promoting environmental sustainability?	Do you know of any initiatives in Egypt established for the purpose of protecting the environment?
4. What are some green initiatives that should be implemented nationally that are not being implemented at the moment?	Are there certain environmental-friendly practices, not existing now, that must be enforced on the national level?
5. Within the restaurant setting, how important is the concept of green management? If important ... why? If not important, why?	Is being green important for restaurants? If yes, why? If not, why?
6. Are there any sustainability practices being implemented specifically within the restaurant industry?	Are there any sustainability practices developed just for the restaurant industry?
7. If yes, what are they? If not, why do you think that is?	Why aren't there any green practices implemented for the restaurant industry?
8. Does your restaurant implement green practices? If not, do you intend to do this? when do you feel you can take this decision?	What are some things you do to preserve the environment? If none, why not? Would you think about this one day?

## GREEN RESTAURANTS

MAIN QUESTION	PROBE
1. What, in specific, are the green management practices implemented in your restaurant?	Can you tell me about the green activities applied in your restaurant?

2. What motivated you to implement the aforementioned practices?	What are the main reasons for implementing such practices?
3. Please tell me about the challenges and barriers you faced when implementing each of the above practices.	For each of the above practices, can we discuss how it was implemented?
4. Do you communicate any of these achievements to the public? If yes, how? Who is the most important entity? If no, why not? It's not important?	
5. How do the above-mentioned practices affect the performance of your restaurant?	How does (use an example from above) affect the restaurant's performance? Did it affect the restaurant performance positively or negatively? ...discuss the rest.
6. Are there certain indicators to measure this performance?	How does the restaurant measure such performance?

**STAKEHOLDERS**

MAIN QUESTION	PROBE
1. In your opinion, who are the main stakeholders that are important for enabling green practices in the restaurant industry?	From your perspective, who do you think can aid restaurants in becoming green? Entities or organizations.  *Suggest the government*
2. How do each of the previously identified entities influence the greening process? What can each stakeholder do?	For example (use 1 of the items above), what is their role in helping the restaurant become environmental-friendly? What can they do? What would you expect from them? ...discuss the rest.

**CLOSING**

1. Are there any other barriers you believe pose as an obstacle towards green adoption in restaurants?	Do you think there are any problems prohibiting restaurants from becoming green?
2. Is there anything else that you want to add in terms of green	

management practices in restaurants?	
3. Can you recommend any other green or non-green restaurants that I can speak with?	

## Appendix 4 - Focus Group Discussion Letter



The research titled Green Practices in Restaurants: A Case From A Developing Country Perspective (Egypt) is set out to understand the implementation of green practices in the restaurant industry in Egypt. In more detail, the main aim of the study is to explore the challenges restaurants face when they adopt environmental measures, who the relevant stakeholder groups are and their role in aiding the restaurant industry go green. An initial first stage of data collection took place with local restaurant owners/managers, both chains and independents, as well as upscale establishments and QSR.

Due to the objectives of the study and to be able to answer the research questions, a 2<sup>nd</sup> stage of data collection is required. However, this time a discussion with the relevant stakeholders is needed around the major issues that have emerged in the first phase. The focus group discussion is planned to incorporate important stakeholders to the restaurant industry. The discussion will be around 1-2 hours and including a maximum of 10 people; representing the different stakeholder groups. It is designed to elicit the opinions of such stakeholders concerning environmental-related issues which are of importance to the research. Its main purpose is to present the various perspectives put forward by the stakeholder groups.

For ethical considerations and confidentiality purposes, recording of focus group discussion will be kept in a secure place with a password. When data

is presented, names of participants will either be changed or coded in order to be anonymous. Participants will be required to sign a consent form confirming their participation in the discussion.

For more information please contact:

Nada ElAbd: 01119454545

## **Appendix 5 - Information Sheet for Focus Group Discussion**

### *GREEN PRACTICES IN RESTAURANTS: AN EXPLORATION OF THE EGYPTIAN CONTEXT THROUGH A STAKEHOLDER APPROACH*

#### **Why I have been approached?**

You have been asked to participate due to your background and involvement in environmental issues where it is believed to be of value adding to the focus group discussion.

#### **Do I have to take part?**

You can decide whether or not it is suitable to take part. If you do however, a consent form detailing your agreement to participant will need to be signed ahead. You are free to withdraw from the discussion at any point.

#### **What will I need to do?**

If you agree to take part in the research you will be asked to share your opinion, along with other members, about certain issues relevant to the research objectives. The discussion will last around 1-2 hours and will be recorded for analysis purposes. Confidentiality of participants is ensured through anonymous representation.

#### **Will my identity be disclosed?**



All data and discussions will be recorded, yet it will be displayed and reported using anonymity.

### **What will happen to the information?**

All information collected from you will be kept secure and locked with passwords only known by the researcher. Any names will be removed in order to ensure anonymity. If the research is to be published, names will be coded or changed, however, certain expressions or words maybe used to report findings.

### **Who can I contact for further information?**

If you would like any further information about the research, please contact me on:

Name: Nada ElAbd      Telephone: 01119454545

E-mail: nelabd1505@gmail.com

## Appendix 6 - Focus Group Discussion Consent form

### PARTICIPANT CONSENT FORM

**Title of Research Project:** Green Practices in Restaurants: A Case From A Developing Country Perspective (Egypt).

It is important that you fully read, understand and sign the consent form. Your contribution to this research is entirely voluntary and you are not obliged in any way to participate. For information about the research, please see the Participant Information Sheet, or contact the researcher.

If you are satisfied that you understand the information, please read and put a tick in the box for each statement.

I have been fully informed of the nature and aims of this study as outlined in the information sheet dated	<input type="checkbox"/>
I consent to taking part in this the study	<input type="checkbox"/>
I understand that I have the right to withdraw from the research at any time	<input type="checkbox"/>
I give permission for my words to be quoted (by use of pseudonym)	<input type="checkbox"/>
I understand that the information collected will be in kept secure conditions for a period of 5 years at the University of Huddersfield	<input type="checkbox"/>
I understand that no person other than the researcher/s and facilitator/s will have access to the information provided	<input type="checkbox"/>
I understand that my identity will be protected by the use of pseudonym in the report and that no written information that could lead to my being identified will be included in any report	<input type="checkbox"/>

If you are satisfied with this consent, and are happy to take part in the research, please print and sign below.

<b>Participant</b>	<b>Researcher</b>
<b>Signature:</b> _____ _____	<b>Signature:</b> _____ _____
<b>Print name:</b> _____ _____	<b>Print name:</b> _____ _____
<b>Date:</b> _____ _____	<b>Date:</b> _____ _____

One copy to be retained by the participant / one copy to be retained by the researcher.

## **Appendix 7 - Focus Group Discussion Guide**

### **VALIDATION**

(Introduce findings slide)

1. From your own perspective, what are your thoughts concerning these study findings derived from the restaurant interviews?
2. If you can add or modify any of these major findings, what would it be and your reason for this?

### **DISCUSSION**

3. Restaurants in Egypt mainly implement green practices for their marketability and improved company image. Restaurants adopting the most green practices tend to target certain consumer profiles, ranging from 18-35. Do you believe that some consumers in Egypt do in fact appeal to a restaurant's green practices? And there is potential for this? Would making such practices more visible and known, heighten consumer demand?

### **STAKEHOLDER THEORY**

(Introduce SH categorization slide)

4. What is your input concerning this SH layout in terms of expected roles?
5. Can it be categorized differently? How?
6. In your opinion, do you believe these stakeholder groups exist in a network and interact with one another on some level? Even from different categories? (IN THE RESTAURANT INDUSTRY).

7. How does this interaction (examples given in the previous question) affect the restaurant in going green?  
When can it be positive or when can it be negative?

## **STAKEHOLDER ATTRIBUTES**

(Introduce SH attributes slide)

1. We want to play a game where we need to evaluate/rate each SH group based on these 3 attributes. Let's take each 1 and rate them.  
Government, consumer, supplier, employee, NGOs, community, media, competitor, pro-environmental groups.
2. If we consider a SH having only 1 attribute. We agree SHs do interact (as you mentioned earlier). If 2 SHs come together, each with a 1 attribute for example:

**SH A has power**

**SH B has an urgent claim**

- 2.1 Do you believe this collaboration or alliance will result in the restaurant giving them high priority TO THEIR CLAIM?
- 2.2 Or sometimes, in certain situations, this collaboration is not able to gain high importance by the restaurant. For this specific example:

**Will lack of power of SH B affect total power? Result total power is insignificant**

**Will lack of urgency of SH A affect total urgency? Result total urgency is insignificant.**

- 2.3 In other words, under which conditions can this alliance have high/strong influence on the restaurant or low/weak influence?
3. Do you think that for developing nations, let's focus specifically for Egypt, this method of evaluation can be different? FOR EXAMPLE, like the earlier SH categorization? Or perhaps can you suggest another way we rate the importance of SHs?
  4. We have outlined how SH groups can help restaurants in becoming more environmental-friendly. In return, what is the value or benefit acquired by each SH when a restaurant goes green?

### **CLOSING**

1. Our discussion for today is coming to an end, however, I have 1 final question if you had one final recommendation or comment to restaurant businesses today wanting or trying to go green, what would it be?

## APPENDIX 8 - Green awareness campaign proposal



01022631604 info@trusttranslations.net  
01212379508 www.trusttranslations.net  
135 Mostafa Al Nahas St - Nasr City - Cairo - Egypt



Arab Republic of Egypt  
Ministry of Higher Education  
The Minister

Dr. Yasmeeen Fouaad/ Minister of Environment

### *Good Greetings,,,*

We present your Excellency with the sincere compliments and esteem. With reference to your letter No.36 dated 13/01/2021 regarding the proposal submitted by Dr. Nada Al Abd - Assistant Lecturer in Arab Academy for Science, Technology & Maritime Transport concerning the activation of the initiative to reduce the use of disposable plastic bags in the Egyptian universities as detailed in the aforementioned letter.

In this regard, we are honored to inform you that at the meeting held on 03/02/2021, the Supreme Council for Community Service and Environmental Development Affairs has approved to support the activation of the initiative to reduce the use of disposable plastic bags in the Egyptian universities, with the circular to the universities to take what they deem appropriate in order to activate the initiative. Furthermore, I have nominated Mr. Ahmed Farag Antar – Head of Central Administration for Student Services at the Ministry (Mobile No.01026081818) to coordinate with your esteemed Ministry in this regard.

Kindly consider the matter and take what your Excellency deems necessary. I take this opportunity to wish you success and good luck. I wish your esteemed Ministry more progress and prosperity.

### *Best Regards,,,*

Minister of Higher Education & Scientific Research  
*Dr. Khaled Abdelghaffar*  
/signed/

#### Seals:

- Ministry of Higher Education, Minister's Bureau, Reference No.3557, date: 22/02/2021.
- Ministry of Environment, Minister's Bureau, Reference No.9-51, date: 23/02/2021.

Signature  
23/02/2021

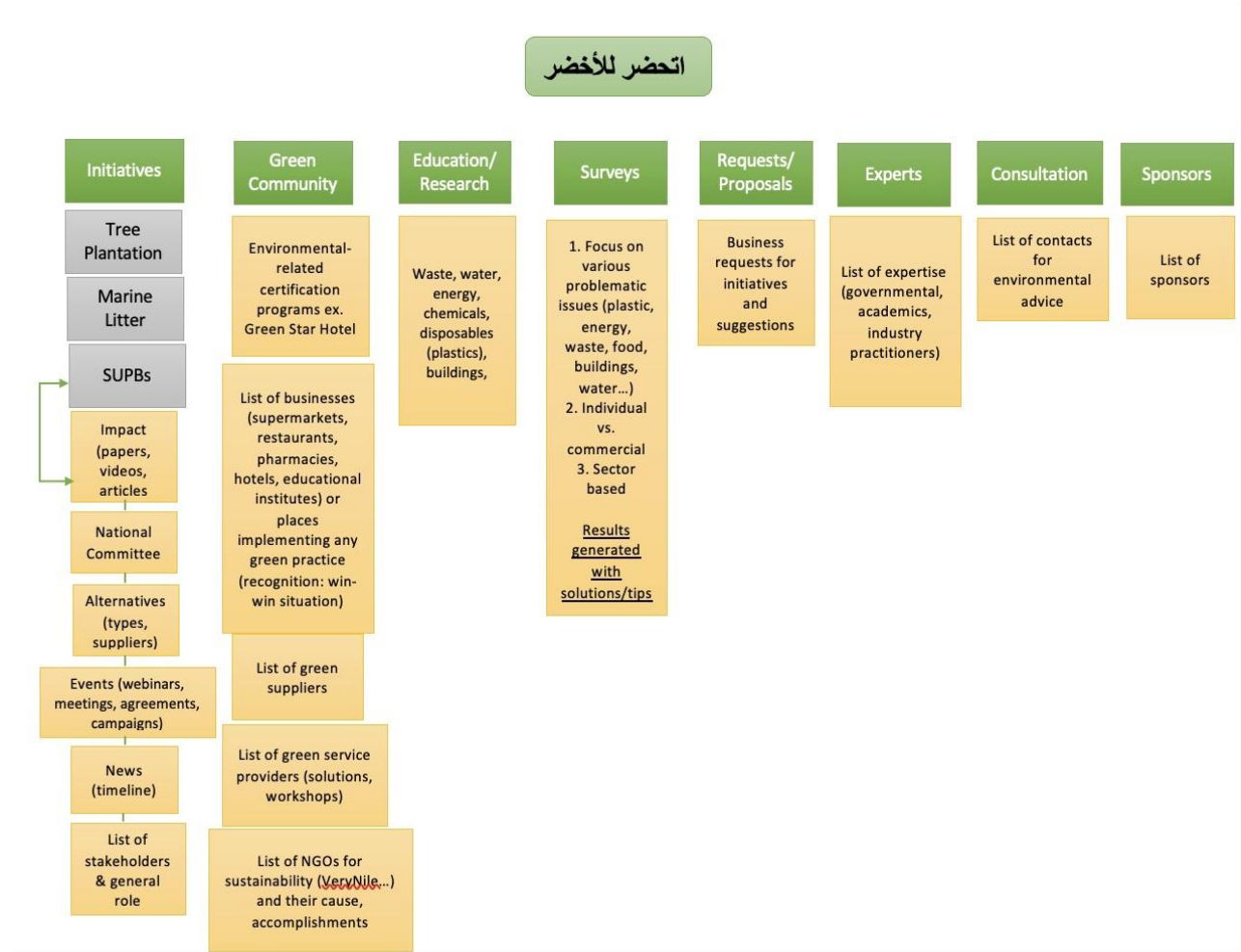
Signature  
24/02/2021

Signature  
25/02/2021



# APPENDIX 9 – Web Portal Design Proposal

## اتحضر للأخضر





# Appendix 10- Codes of IDIs

Code	Aroma	Altares	Cherchy	entay	Book in male	FUEgo	God	La casa	Martha's m	moral	OBVIOUS	OVIO	Puddle D	QAMVA	Smokwy	TBS	TIKKA	TURCIA	ZA	ZOOPA	
SSM	alman	alman	alman	alman	alman	alman	alman	alman	alman	alman	alman	alman	alman	alman	alman	alman	alman	alman	alman	alman	alman
Playing with																					
Goat	manera de ser - hacer cosas - hacer cosas - hacer cosas	manera de ser - hacer cosas - hacer cosas - hacer cosas	manera de ser - hacer cosas - hacer cosas - hacer cosas	manera de ser - hacer cosas - hacer cosas - hacer cosas	manera de ser - hacer cosas - hacer cosas - hacer cosas	manera de ser - hacer cosas - hacer cosas - hacer cosas	manera de ser - hacer cosas - hacer cosas - hacer cosas	manera de ser - hacer cosas - hacer cosas - hacer cosas	manera de ser - hacer cosas - hacer cosas - hacer cosas	manera de ser - hacer cosas - hacer cosas - hacer cosas	manera de ser - hacer cosas - hacer cosas - hacer cosas	manera de ser - hacer cosas - hacer cosas - hacer cosas	manera de ser - hacer cosas - hacer cosas - hacer cosas	manera de ser - hacer cosas - hacer cosas - hacer cosas	manera de ser - hacer cosas - hacer cosas - hacer cosas	manera de ser - hacer cosas - hacer cosas - hacer cosas	manera de ser - hacer cosas - hacer cosas - hacer cosas	manera de ser - hacer cosas - hacer cosas - hacer cosas	manera de ser - hacer cosas - hacer cosas - hacer cosas	manera de ser - hacer cosas - hacer cosas - hacer cosas	manera de ser - hacer cosas - hacer cosas - hacer cosas
Impier																					
Carriover	gait	gait	gait	gait	gait	gait	gait	gait	gait	gait	gait	gait	gait	gait	gait	gait	gait	gait	gait	gait	gait
Embajada	educacion	educacion	educacion	educacion	educacion	educacion	educacion	educacion	educacion	educacion	educacion	educacion	educacion	educacion	educacion	educacion	educacion	educacion	educacion	educacion	educacion
Fruta del mundo	NOVA	NOVA	NOVA	NOVA	NOVA	NOVA	NOVA	NOVA	NOVA	NOVA	NOVA	NOVA	NOVA	NOVA	NOVA	NOVA	NOVA	NOVA	NOVA	NOVA	NOVA
Alimentos	Alimentos	Alimentos	Alimentos	Alimentos	Alimentos	Alimentos	Alimentos	Alimentos	Alimentos	Alimentos	Alimentos	Alimentos	Alimentos	Alimentos	Alimentos	Alimentos	Alimentos	Alimentos	Alimentos	Alimentos	Alimentos
Alimentos Internos	Alimentos	Alimentos	Alimentos	Alimentos	Alimentos	Alimentos	Alimentos	Alimentos	Alimentos	Alimentos	Alimentos	Alimentos	Alimentos	Alimentos	Alimentos	Alimentos	Alimentos	Alimentos	Alimentos	Alimentos	Alimentos
GM repositor	repositor	repositor	repositor	repositor	repositor	repositor	repositor	repositor	repositor	repositor	repositor	repositor	repositor	repositor	repositor	repositor	repositor	repositor	repositor	repositor	repositor
GM	repositor	repositor	repositor	repositor	repositor	repositor	repositor	repositor	repositor	repositor	repositor	repositor	repositor	repositor	repositor	repositor	repositor	repositor	repositor	repositor	repositor
SH interaccion	interaccion	interaccion	interaccion	interaccion	interaccion	interaccion	interaccion	interaccion	interaccion	interaccion	interaccion	interaccion	interaccion	interaccion	interaccion	interaccion	interaccion	interaccion	interaccion	interaccion	interaccion
Empresas	Empresas	Empresas	Empresas	Empresas	Empresas	Empresas	Empresas	Empresas	Empresas	Empresas	Empresas	Empresas	Empresas	Empresas	Empresas	Empresas	Empresas	Empresas	Empresas	Empresas	Empresas

Codes	Aroma	Altuna	Chico/ky	Estery	E:M	Fuego	God	laScala	M.M	Mescal	Obvious	Ouro	P.D	Qhwa	Smoky	TBS	Tikka	Turca	ZA	Zooba
GM Impure M. redwax		agitated and dark brown white. If Nought when Sung into empty cub into	See on table before white product on every side of the cub into	Clear and white to be agitated agitated white to be agitated white to be agitated	Start purple in not stirred Many few minutes from surface purple brown purple brown purple brown	Very soft purple brown purple brown purple brown purple brown purple brown	Very soft purple brown purple brown purple brown purple brown purple brown	Very soft purple brown purple brown purple brown purple brown purple brown	Very soft purple brown purple brown purple brown purple brown purple brown	Very soft purple brown purple brown purple brown purple brown purple brown	Very soft purple brown purple brown purple brown purple brown purple brown	Very soft purple brown purple brown purple brown purple brown purple brown	Very soft purple brown purple brown purple brown purple brown purple brown	Very soft purple brown purple brown purple brown purple brown purple brown	Very soft purple brown purple brown purple brown purple brown purple brown	Very soft purple brown purple brown purple brown purple brown purple brown	Very soft purple brown purple brown purple brown purple brown purple brown	Very soft purple brown purple brown purple brown purple brown purple brown	Very soft purple brown purple brown purple brown purple brown purple brown	Very soft purple brown purple brown purple brown purple brown purple brown
Small	radiating along length and short	Carbon hole coming about 1/2 inch diameter	very porous be 1/2 inch (1/2 inch) not diameter	very porous be 1/2 inch (1/2 inch) not diameter																
Stability A. in redwax		NO no color in 1/2 inch	dark red no color in 1/2 inch	dark red no color in 1/2 inch																
Grass																				
Co. B. 2000																				
Whisper to go green																				
NGS																				
Media																				
Low cost																				
Signal																				
Es. 2000																				
Educational Answer																				

	Causal/Dmg	Uprate	Causal	Causal	Causal	Uprate	Fast Causal	Uprate	Causal	Uprate	Causal	Causal	Uprate	Causal	Uprate	OSR	Fast Causal	Causal	Uprate	Fast Causal	
	Aroma	Athens	Chargaby	FATERY	Fish w mail	FUGO	Gad	La seab	Mashio 3M	Mozcal	Oblivious	Ovio	Puddled	QAWA	Smoking	IBS	Taha	Tuncia	Zia imelia	ZCOBA	
Codes	Owner 160 15 400 I D	Owner 92 16 6 I D	Owner 26 15 26 I D	Owner 250 6 40 CH I D	Owner 150-100 5 25-30 I D	Owner 130 13 250 CH I D	Owner 130 18 12 I D	Owner 112 3 5 4 I D	Owner 150 100 15 100 I D	Owner 112 3 5 4 I D	Owner 150 100 15 100 I D	Owner 150 100 15 100 I D	Owner 150 100 15 100 I D	Owner 150 100 15 100 I D	Owner 150 100 15 100 I D	Owner 150 100 15 100 I D	Owner 150 100 15 100 I D	Owner 150 100 15 100 I D	Owner 150 100 15 100 I D	Owner 150 100 15 100 I D	Owner 150 100 15 100 I D
Problems	Owner looking Year has is of imp Cher and not Dase																				
Problems Health																					
Assembly																					
Support																					
After Care																					
Lead in																					
Lead Point																					
MST history																					
Bas position																					
COFE																					
Infocast																					
MOH																					
MOE																					
Gen Management																					
Recycling																					
CR																					
Head normal																					
Oil																					
Waste																					
Healthy hands																					
Righting																					
Revolvers																					
Packing																					
Lead wire																					
High wire																					
Joint																					
Waste for																					

# Appendix 11 – Codes of FGD

Env Awareness + education

- Need of Incentives by Govt
- laws + penalties <sup>work quicker</sup>
- supervision by Govt
- high cost discourages people
- Diff definitions of green depending on location
- Fast casual vs upscale supply volume
- Media w/ famous + imp people to raise awareness
- Integrate env of health
- Trust / skepticism by customer
- Conspiracy
- Benefit of going green
- Must feel benefit, something valuable being offered (real change)
- Consumer types
- Employee ambassador for piece
- Employee training / educated
- Consumer part of problem
- no sustainability in green services / products

Restaurant

- Must teach something give back
- Tailored messages
- Curriculum changes in school
- Govt support green env
- Govt incentives
- Employee leader (convince / retain consumer)
- Consumer not powerful or leader (promote for now)
- Consumer can drive urgency
- food food + make more imp than eco packaging
- Media educate
- Restaurant can influence supplier
- NGO role depends on community
- little Govt collaboration w/ staff
- Govt tra supplier, controlled communication
- Govt influence media
- Negative power
- Govt power
- Govt legitimacy
- Negative power
- negative influence on restaurant

Legitimacy from Govt

- NGO influence in rural areas
- NGO legitimacy
- Community includes consumers, policymakers ∴ paid + urgency + legitimacy attributes
- Salience → role attributes
- time + location factors
- Eco Supplier: trying to stay a business no attributes
- Employee most imp
- knowledgeable employee has high influence
- Employee no attributes
- Industry plays some games, high influence
- Media given power, legitimacy
- Media needs to be chosen
- Urgent issues lead to power in community
- Salience explains influence not prioritization
- Levels of attributes
- Caste need awareness
- Restaurant, supplier, env groups all part of common

Govt green economic, social, env benefits

1st

- Gov't laws + incentives

- Gov't force will lead to acquisition of 3 attributes
- Gov't drives other STTs action
- little collaboration b/w gov't + other STTs
- Gov't support green env.

- Employee significant SH for restaurant

- Importance of employee - customer relationship (awareness + retaining)

- Consumer types must be acknowledged for awareness

- Media (imp people + famous people) needed to promote green application through education

- Most STTs require education,

- Integrating <sup>concept</sup> env, w/ health

- Communicating SH benefit on reduce trust / skepticism  
Green has economic, social + env benefits

- Science attributes determine SH influence / role

- Attributes of STTs are levels, continuum.
- Attributes of LSH can lead to existence of another SH attribute (shifting)

- Community can exercise all 3 attributes

- location dictates urgency, driving power + legitimacy (what's happening now that's critical)

- NGO influence is higher in rural areas than urban communities

- GP differ depending on location

- Consumers care more about food + service

- No sustainability of green product services

- type of restaurant is decide in GP to be implemented

M pivotal

CANSON - CANSON

1st step  
① Gov't intervention

② Employees represent a pivotal SH

③ Community/location dictate urgency.  
∴ driving P + L.

④ Education includes the env + SH benefit  
helps in ↓ - Trust / skepticism  
↓ - Conspiracy  
Media

⑤ Science attributes explain SH impact

⑥ Food + service outweigh any GP

