TEMPORARY AGENCY WORK AND WORKER WELL-BEING AT RESTAURANTS – INSIGHTS INTO SOCALLY SUSTAINABLE WORK
NIKO CAJANDER

TEMPORARY AGENCY WORK AND WORKER WELL-BEING AT RESTAURANTS – INSIGHTS INTO SOCIO-ENVIRONMENTALLY SUSTAINABLE WORK

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**Abstract**

Depending on the perspective, the introduction of temporary agency work (TAW) to a restaurant work environment can be grounded in real necessity or involve various questionable motives. Research has highlighted a wide range of challenges, and the general understanding is that, at present, these challenges have not been properly addressed. In part, this is explained by the complexity of the temporary agency employment relationship, which is important when discussing well-being at work, working conditions and the responsibilities and occupational safety and health of agency workers. Currently, agency work poses significant challenges to the human resource management (HRM) of restaurants as well as social responsibility. Meeting these challenges requires adapting to an ever-changing work environment and climate. Unfortunately, the restaurant industry is accustomed to poorly functioning operating models, and the HRM of the entire industry can be considered underdeveloped and ill-suited to current challenges.

The objective of this thesis was to holistically examine the undesirable characteristics hindering the emergence of sustainable working in multiemployer restaurant work environments involving TAW, corporate social responsibility (CSR) and well-being at work. To achieve this objective, the research problem was approached through four different articles. The articles examine the research objective from the perspective of workers, agencies, and user companies, which are the restaurants involved in TAW. Also, a trade union and a pension insurer offered perspectives. The study adopted an approach of mixed methods, using interviews and an e-survey to collect data.

Each of the actors of TAW had its own agendas, driven mostly by economic pursuits. Beyond economic factors, other incentives are needed for all actors. They are most easily found between the user company and the employee, as they are inextricably linked. A holistic, wider perspective on well-being at work, which extends beyond work-related factors, is needed to improve well-being at work and workers’ general life situations and satisfaction. In this holistic view, employers need to take into account the cultural and socioeconomic factors in restaurants, differences in relations with temporary agencies and actual workplaces of the workers and the differences in attitudes of various worker groups.

**Keywords:** corporate social responsibility, non-standard work, occupational safety and health, restaurants, temporary agency work, well-being at work

Tämän tutkimuksen tavoitteena oli tunnistaa yhteisen työpaikan jaettuja ravintolatyöympäristöissä vallitsevat haasteet, jotka liittyvät vuokrattyöhön, vastuullisuuteen ja työhyvinvointiin. Lisäksi tavoitteena oli löytää ratkaisuja näihin tunnistettuihin haasteisiin. Tavoitteen saavuttamiseksi tutkimusongelmaa lähestettiin neljässä eri artikkelissä, joissa aihetta käsitellään vuokrattyöntekijöiden, henkilöstöpalveluryritysten ja vuokrattyön käyttäjäryritysten e li ravintoloiden näkökulmasta. Lisäksi näkemystä aiheeseen toivat ammattiliitot ja eläkevakuutusyhtiö. Tiedonkeruumenetelminä käytettiin haastatteluja ja sähköistä kyselyä, joita käsiteltiin monimutkaisemman tutkimuksen keinoin.


Asiasanat: epätyypillinen työ, ravintolat, työhyvinvointi, työterveys, työturvallisuus, vuokrattyö, yritysvastuu
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Oulu, 3 October 2022

Niko Cajander
# Abbreviations and key definitions

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<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Definition</th>
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<tr>
<td>CSR</td>
<td>Corporate social responsibility. <code>A concept whereby companies integrate social and environmental concerns in their business operations and in their interaction with their stakeholders on a voluntary basis. It also concerns actions by companies over and above their legal obligations towards society and the environment.</code> (EUR-Lex, 2012)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HPWP</td>
<td>High-performance work practices. <code>Management techniques that supposedly increase the overall performance and/or effectiveness of the organization by making better use of the skills of employees and improving their commitment to the organization. Typically, such techniques would include teamworking, functional flexibility, empowerment, employee development, appraisal, counselling, and performance-related pay. The term HPWP is particularly associated with research undertaken by bundles theorists. The problem is that different theorists do not agree upon the precise bundle of human resource practices that is supposed to account for better organizational performance. To some extent, this is reflected in the range of terms that different researchers use to label their bundles of practices, for example, high commitment management, high involvement management, high performance work systems, high performance management, and human capital enhancing HR systems.</code> (Oxford university press, 2022)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HRM</td>
<td>Human resource management. HRM is a broad concept that refers to the activities associated with the management of people working for organisations. Those activities are not merely associated with the management of workers, but also with managing other stakeholders, such as consultants, subcontractors, and trade unions. HRM processes include the selection, recruitment and induction of workers and provide them with necessary training and career development opportunities, evaluate the performance of workers, define proper compensation, and provide benefits, motivate workers, maintain good relations with workers and ensure workers’ occupational safety and health measures in compliance with the labour laws of the country. However, as work is increasingly being done by workers who work on contracts other than traditional employment contracts, HRM processes and measures need to be extended to cover those workers. (Kramar, 2014; Michael, 2019)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NSE</td>
<td>Non-standard employment. <code>Non-standard employment is an umbrella term for different employment arrangements that deviate from standard employment.</code></td>
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They include temporary employment; part-time and on-call work; temporary agency work and other multiparty employment relationships; as well as disguised employment and dependent self-employment.’ (Eurofound, 2021)

OSH
Occupational safety and health (Also OHS or HS)
‘Measures and strategies designed to prevent, control, reduce or eliminate occupational hazards and risks. Occupational and industrial accidents are all caused by preventable factors which could be eliminated by implementing already known and available measures and methods.’ (Alli, 2008)

SME
Small and medium sized enterprises
‘An enterprise is any entity engaged in an economic activity, irrespective of its legal form. This includes self-employed persons and family businesses engaged in craft or other activities, and partnerships or associations regularly engaged in an economic activity. Staff headcount and financial ceilings determine enterprise categories. The category of micro, small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) is made up of enterprises which employ fewer than 250 persons and which have an annual turnover not exceeding EUR 50 million, and/or an annual balance sheet total not exceeding EUR 43 million. Within the SME category, a small enterprise is defined as an enterprise which employs fewer than 50 persons and whose annual turnover and/or annual balance sheet total does not exceed EUR 10 million. Within the SME category, a microenterprise is defined as an enterprise which employs fewer than 10 persons and whose annual turnover and/or annual balance sheet total does not exceed EUR 2 million.’ (EUR-Lex, 2003)

TAW
Temporary agency work (agency work)
‘A worker with a contract of employment or an employment relationship with a temporary work agency with a view to being assigned to a user undertaking to work temporarily under its supervision and direction.’ (European Commission, 2018)
List of original publications

This dissertation is based on the following publications, which are referred to throughout the text by their Roman numerals:


The author of this thesis was the primary author of all four original articles belonging to this thesis. All the articles underwent a double-blind review process. For Articles I and II, the primary author formulated the research problem and research questions, conducted literature reviews, collected the material, conducted the analysis, formulated results, and made conclusions based on the results. For both articles, the second author cross-checked the results based on the collected material and participated in the article writing. For Articles III and IV, the primary author formulated the research problem and research questions, conducted literature reviews, conducted the analysis, formulated results, and made the conclusions based on the results. Material collection was conducted together with the third and fourth authors of Article IV as well as for Article III. Cross-checking of the results based on the collected material was also conducted for Article III by the second and third authors and for Article IV by the second, third, and fourth authors. All other authors participated in reviewing and commenting on the manuscript.
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1 Introduction

1.1 Background and research environment

Even the smallest restaurants can be diverse from their personnel perspective, employing a wide variety of professionals, including chefs, bartenders, managers, porters, waiters, and entertainers, which may work on different contract types. The main products sold by restaurants are food items and drinks. However, service experiences can also be considered products of the restaurant, which are dependent on the interactions and cocreation between workers and customers (Madera et al., 2017). Therefore, friendly, timely and professional service significantly affects the demand for the products sold by the restaurant (Bujisic et al., 2017; Nel et al., 2018). In customer service-oriented businesses such as restaurants, frontline workers play an important role in contributing to the successful outcome, as the minor aspects of interaction with the customers, such as faked friendliness, insincerity or an inauthentic smile, can undermine the trust that is under construction between a customer and a worker (Grandey et al., 2005). To cope in this very competitive field, restaurants need to gain an advantage by using resources better than competitors and by improving the products and performance of their workers (Amelia & Garg, 2016; Jogaratnam, 2017). Restaurant work includes various tasks, many of which today are carried out by an external service provider, such as a temporary work agency (TWA) (Almost & Spence Laschinger, 2002; Article I; Gonzalez et al., 2011).

Management of restaurants is typically organized to have an order of precedence and hierarchical organizational system, like any other working environment. At the top is the owner, also known as the restaurateur, who runs everyday business, although many modern restaurants are run by hired professional managers. Other managerial positions under the top manager vary depending on the type and size of the restaurant, for example, shift managers and chefs (Enz, 2004; Kiefer, 2002; Parsa et al., 2005).

Even though large commercial actors, such as chains, seem to dominate the restaurant industry, the majority of restaurants are small, privately owned businesses. For example, in the European Union (EU), nine out of ten companies in this industry are privately owned and by their employee amount are small and medium-sized enterprises (SME) (FoodDrinkEurope, 2017). The business sector of the restaurant and hospitality industries is significant in any country and grew
before the COVID-19 pandemic. The annual employment of the sector in Europe grew by 2.9% over the period of 2000–2010, whereas total employment grew by only 0.7% (Ernst & Young, 2013). With a slightly different timeframe between 1995 and 2016, Finland’s workforce of the sector increased by 43% (Eurostat, 2014). In 2018, the Finnish Hospitality Association (MaRa) predicted that approximately 30,000 new jobs would be created within the sector by 2025 (MaRa, 2018). Another side of the growing demand for labour is an emerging labour shortage; as of 2016, only 2% of these businesses reported experiencing a shortage of the professional workforce, which the following year jumped to 19%. At the end of 2018, the reported shortage rate was 31% (Confederation of Finnish Industries, 2018). A fast growth rate creates challenges for the sector and its human resource management (HRM) processes and practices. However, all these events occurred before the COVID-19 pandemic, and the final effects of the pandemic have yet to be seen.

A multiemployer workplace (also known as a shared workplace) features one employer as the primary authority, plus more than one employer or more than one self-employed worker, gig worker or agency worker operating in the worksite, whether simultaneously or successively (Kekkonen et al., 2019; Kekkonen & Rajala, 2017; Nenonen & Vasara, 2013). Using externalised service providers, such as temporary work agencies, makes a restaurant a multiemployer workplace. To be efficient, a genuinely multiemployer workplace must include more than just working in proximity to others and working with the same equipment. Communication and collaboration are core factors in ensuring the successful sharing of information, guidance, and occupational instructions (Nenonen & Vasara, 2013). Trust and respect are essential foundations for working collaboratively in a multiemployer workplace, while communication, coordination and team dynamics must all function at a high level (Almost & Spence Laschinger, 2002; Lindeke & Sieckert, 2005; Spence Laschinger et al., 2001). Collaboration is further needed in workers’ participation in decision making with managers, increasing workers’ job satisfaction and well-being, and reducing turnover (Almost & Spence Laschinger, 2002; Nenonen & Vasara, 2013; Reiman & Väyrynen, 2018). Time is also a determining factor in multiemployer workplaces, as workers are in each workplace for a limited time. When one worker leaves, that work task will be staffed by someone else rather than remaining empty (Jounila et al., 2020). This temporal dimension is particularly evident in hotels and fast-food restaurants that are open around the clock.
HRM practices in the restaurant industry are considered to be underdeveloped, unprofessional and inferior when compared to other industries (Koys & DeCotiis, 2015). The following HRM concepts are considered essential processes in the restaurant industry: benefit practices, compensation of labour input, honest and supportive feedback, open flow of information, performance appraisal and public recognition and the opportunity for career advancement as well as support for worker professional development. Also, worker retention and adequate staffing should be emphasised (Delaney & Huselid, 1996; Madera et al., 2017; Murphy et al., 2018). The HRM processes used in the management of temporary agency workers face many challenges (Winkler & Mahmood, 2018).

The branding and naming of previously presented HRM concepts have been diverse, such as high-performing human resource management or high-performance work practices (HPWP) (Alasoini, 2012; Murphy et al., 2018). Whatever they are called, they work together, reinforcing one another to increase their working effectiveness (Murphy et al., 2018). The practices can be classified by the impact they have on the skills of the workers and their capabilities, motivation, and commitment and how the work is organised and structured (Davidson, 2011; Delaney & Huselid, 1996). One such classification is social capital, which is linked to employee performance and increases if used correctly (Jogaratnam, 2017; Murphy et al., 2018). Social capital is beneficial for nurturing as it is not easily copied by competitors and thus brings a good competitive advantage (Huselid, 1995). Nevertheless, there is a need to pay greater attention to long-term goals, social sustainability and the long-term development of social capital (Macke & Genari, 2019), because investments in social capital reduce worker turnover and increase corporate reputation, financial performance and productivity (Huselid, 1995). Efficient HRM processes and practices as well as well-being at work are associated with better service quality, customer satisfaction and customer loyalty, which are important contributors to successful and profitable restaurant businesses (Madera et al., 2017).

Introducing temporary agency work (TAW) in a restaurant work environment can be risky for a restaurant’s success, as agency work poses significant challenges to the HRM of restaurants. The potential risk comes into play when restaurant managers need to manage the organisational and reputational damage that can occur due to the presence of uncommitted, insecure, and possibly incompetent agency workers (Article I; Burgess & Connell, 2006). Also, the risk comes in the form of responsibility transfer because managers of restaurants often regard the management of agency workers as an agency responsibility, not the restaurant’s
To minimise the drawbacks, restaurant managers may differentiate their HRM for the distinct worker groups, their own workers receiving greater investment and loyalty (Burgess & Connell, 2006; Schmidt et al., 2018).

To overcome the challenges of TAW, researchers need to establish a partition that takes into account the characteristics of temporary agency employment relationships and agency workers’ equal treatment. In this way, the diversity of TAW can be considered to a fuller extent (Imhof & Andresen, 2018; van Rossenberg et al., 2018). Regarding occupational safety and health (OSH) matters, the practices, processes, and practical arrangements of OSH in TAW have been critically debated, and various academics, such as Lippel et al. (2011) and Vanroelen (2019), have highlighted the challenges of TAW in an OSH context. The challenges are not limited to practices, processes, and arrangements, but corporate social responsibility (CSR) also plays a part in it. In some of the worst cases reported by Lippel et al. (2011) and Strauss-Raats (2019), the user company intentionally neglected or circumvented protective legislation for TAW. Temporary or agency workers have suffered more disadvantages than full-time workers and have had less support from co-workers and exerted less influence on work-related decisions (Akkerman et al., 2020; Macke & Genari, 2019). This has been known for years since the beginning of the 2000s, though it seems that not much improvement has been achieved (Forde & Slater, 2005, 2016; Knox, 2018). Moreover, in TAW, companies have identified new ways to evade CSR and avoid regulations (Forde & Slater, 2016; Fostervold et al., 2018; Knox, 2018). To address these shortcomings, Balliester and Elsheikhi (2018), Hanvold et al. (2019) and Rasmussen et al. (2019) presented a call for sociotechnical, system-level approaches that increase understanding of the reasons behind inadequate CSR and OSH performance in TAW. A system-level approach means that organisational and HRM practices are considered a whole rather than individual practices (Alasoini, 2012). Also, Rasmussen et al. (2019) have called for Nordic studies addressing the precariousness of non-standard employment (NSE). Further research has also called for the social and human dimensions of sustainability, CSR, and work-related factors, which have received less research attention (Gaudencio et al., 2020; Hakanen et al., 2019; Robinson et al., 2019). Research needs to be targeted at issues of the challenges of TAW about CSR, for example, examining the insecurities concerning job security and the relationship of job requirements and how commitment to work affects productivity (Burgess & Connell, 2006).
1.2 Objectives and key concepts

The objective of this thesis was to holistically examine the undesirable characteristics that hinder the emergence of sustainable working conditions in multiemployer restaurant work environments concerning TAW, CSR, and well-being at work. In the holistic examination, first the leadership was considered (Article I), then the impact of the features of the employment relationship and commitment and well-being at work (Article II), occupational safety and health as part of CSR (Article III), and the relationships and power relations between the actor groups engaged in CSR (Article IV). A further objective was to consider the diverse roles of different actors and stakeholders who contributed to socially sustainable work in this context. New knowledge is to be acquired in response to the research calls stated in Chapter 1, and the knowledge can be applied to the management of restaurants to increase understanding of the responsibilities of all actors and stakeholders in this context.

This thesis is positioned in multiple fields of research, all of which fall under the umbrella of industrial engineering and management (IEM) (Blanchard & Fabrycky, 2005). Human Factors, which is an inseparable part of IEM (Dul et al., 2012; Launis & Lehtelä, 2011; Salvendy, 2007), is the main discipline, which is augmented by views from psychology and other social sciences from the viewpoint of CSR (ergonomics and work science are often used as synonyms; Karwowski, 2005). Economics also plays a minor part in discussing productivity from the perspective of well-being in the TAW context.

The focus of the thesis is on multiemployer restaurants, the different actors involved in the operation of restaurants and their collaboration. Following the stakeholder definitions by Dul et al. (2012), in this thesis, actors are defined as those who are part of a TAW and affect its performance and success. Stakeholders are others outside of triangular employment (temporary agency, user company and the worker) who affect or participate in the operations of the restaurant. These include influencers, such as trade unions, pension insurers, suppliers, customers and so on. Stakeholders, such as government bureaus and courts, affect the operations of restaurants by setting rules to follow, so they are decision-makers.

Other concepts that need to be given definitions in this thesis are the concepts of ‘employee’ and ‘worker’. The definition of an employee is “A person who works in the service of another (the employer) subject to a contract for hire, where the employer controls the conditions of work performance” (YourDictionary, 2021). In turn, a worker is defined simply as “one who does labour” (Official Statistics of
This thesis is about TAW, so it is more precise to use the term ‘worker’ instead of ‘employee’ because ‘workers’ are those working in restaurants regardless of their contract status or even without one, in the case of people working under a commercial contract. ‘Employee’ refers to the specific people under employment contracts, and in cases of TAW and the management of employees in the restaurants, it depends on their contract, not the workplace.

This thesis consists of four articles, which contribute both individually and conjointly to answer the four research questions. Article I focused on drawing an in-depth picture of how leadership deficiencies hinder the well-being of all workers (incl. TAW) performing restaurant work and was consulted to answer the first research question (RQ1) of this thesis (see Table 1). Article II considered the features of the employment relationship and working and how these affected the commitment and well-being of workers in answer to the second research question (RQ2). Article III considered the third research question (RQ3) from the perspective of agency workers’ OSH as part of CSR in multiemployer restaurants. Article IV covered the fourth research question (RQ4) by examining the CSR relations of the actors and stakeholders involved in TAW in restaurants. Research questions 1–4 are summarised in Table 1.

### Table 1. The research questions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>RQ</th>
<th>Research question</th>
<th>Article</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>RQ1</td>
<td>How do leadership deficiencies hinder the well-being of all workers in restaurant work?</td>
<td>I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RQ2</td>
<td>How do the features of the employment relationship and working affect the mutual commitment and well-being of workers?</td>
<td>II</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RQ3</td>
<td>How do the occupational safety and health related issues of agency work emerge in multiemployer restaurants?</td>
<td>III</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RQ4</td>
<td>How is CSR realised in temporary agency work in the restaurant context from the perspective of the actors?</td>
<td>IV</td>
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### 1.3 Research process and dissertation structure

The research was conducted for the most part during the years 2019–2021. However, part of the material concerning Article I was collected as early as 2010. This allowed for a long-term follow-up study in Article I, which was an inductive qualitative study. Other research methods included a quantitative e-survey study
for Article II and a deductive qualitative interview study for Articles III and IV. The most suitable research method was chosen in consultation with the co-authors for each article, so the conducted research was not limited to one method. Therefore, overall, this thesis can be thought of as a mixed-method study (Anguera et al., 2018; Fetters, 2019).

To achieve the research objectives, the research problem was approached through four multidisciplinary, multifaceted articles. The examination started from the perspective of one case restaurant, its long-term development, and the challenges to workers, including agency workers’ well-being (Article I). The study then advanced the perspectives of individual workers and agency workers by comparing the commitment and job requirements of full-time workers and temporary agency workers (Article II). Article III examined the organisational perspective of restaurants/managers and workers (also agency workers) from the perspective of agencies and influencer stakeholders, such as labour unions and pension insurers, while examining occupational safety and health-related issues. Article IV examined the views of agencies and influencer stakeholders on CSR in the context of agency work in restaurants. The progress of the research process can be seen in Figure 1.

Fig. 1. Illustration of the perspective and progress of the dissertation.
2 Theoretical review

In this chapter, an overview of the essential theory for this thesis is presented, starting with the most general concept, non-standard employment and proceeding to temporary agency work as central to NSE. Next, well-being and productivity, including job requirements and commitment to work, are reviewed, and lastly, CSR, including OSH as a component, is reviewed.

2.1 Non-standard employment

The terms ‘atypical work’, ‘non-standard employment (NSE)’, ‘part-time work’ and ‘temporary work’ are used in a variety of circumstances and regarding different forms of work with varying features. Temporary work lasts only for the time defined by the work contract, and there is no specific agreement on the continuation of the work. Temporary work is also done by outside workers, who are often left out of the organisation’s inner circle of workers (Håkansson & Isidorsson, 2012). Temporary working arrangements are defined by multiple work relationships and assignments, with weak bonds among the involved organisations and workers (Galais & Moser, 2009). Part-time work means the employment of the worker is shorter on daily working hours or the worker comes to work only part of the month or week. Atypical work includes workers with on-call contracts, often called ‘zero-hour contracts’, with no defined work hours and fixed-term employment. In addition, it contains multiple- and self-employed workers, casual and seasonal workers, job sharing and platform workers. Also, the work of unpaid spouses or family members in family-run enterprises and homeworkers are also counted among atypical work assignments or NSE (De Cuyper et al., 2008; Eurofound, 2017; Felfè et al., 2008; Imhof & Andresen, 2018; Pirani, 2017; Saluy et al., 2019).

These diverse terms are often used interchangeably, which makes comparison with previous studies and results difficult (De Cuyper et al., 2008; Imhof & Andresen, 2018). The content and duration of work contracts are not the only characteristics that define the diversity of temporary work. In one of the most used meanings, ‘temporary work’ refers to rented workers that the temporary work agencies mediate, the temporary agency work (TAW) or agency work (Imhof & Andresen, 2018). The confusion and overlap of the terms ‘temporary work’ and ‘part-time work’, mentioned before, also apply in the case of TAW, as they commonly appear simultaneously and substituting for each other.
NSE is focused on specific age groups, regions and professions and is a prominent phenomenon in cities and restaurants (OSF, 2018). According to Finland’s official statistics, 38,000 workers worked temporarily in 2013, which is 1.7% of the country’s entire workforce. Since 2013, the number of temporary workers has risen by 12,600 (OSF, 2018), making it 2.26%. The growth of temporary agency work seems to have leveled off in recent years, as in 2021 temporary agency workers counted about 2.3% of all workforce (OSF, 2021b). It is noteworthy to mention that in temporary agency work, the number of workplace accidents is large, their frequency is high, and they have risen hand in hand with the increase of the TAW (Finnish Workers’ Compensation Center, 2022). In 2017, more than half of all temporary workers were 20–29 years of age, while 20% were 30–39 years of age (OSF, 2017). Temporary work seems to be centralised towards city living young workers beginning their careers and young workers who are also students (OSF, 2015).

A great deal of part-time and temporary work is done in restaurants in Finland and Europe in general, and these types of work are on the rise (Pyöriä & Ojala, 2016). In Finland the share of temporary agency workers in restaurant and hospitality industry was 6% in 2021 (OSF, 2021b), which is above of the overall share of TAW in general (2.3%). In case of part-time work, as many as two-fifths of the workers in the restaurant and hospitality industry were part-time workers in 2018 (OSF, 2018). Nearly 70% of the workers in the Finnish restaurant and hospitality industry worked part-time because full-time employment was simply unavailable (Kauhanen, 2017). It is estimated that in the restaurant and hospitality sector in Finland, 11 million work hours were contributed by temporary workers in 2015, which would total about 6,000 full-time jobs (Visit Finland, 2018). At the European level, 33% of the workers in the sector were working part-time, while about 20% of the overall economy of workers were working part-time (Hotrec, 2018). It is also good to mention that in some other business sectors than restaurants the labour market position of those working in non-standard manner can be quite different (Finnish Workers’ Compensation Center, 2022; OSF, 2021b).

2.1.1 Temporary agency work

Temporary agency work (also agency work) is a rented or mediated workforce arrangement that is characterised by a triangular work relationship and contract between three actors: an employment relationship is formed between the worker and the temporary work agency (TWA), a management relationship is formed
between the worker and the user company, and a business relationship is formed between the user company and the TWA (Håkansson & Isidorsson, 2016; Hünefeld et al., 2020; Imhof & Andresen, 2018; Sobral et al., 2021). The business relationship between the TWA and the user company works in such a way that the user company buys labour from the TWA temporarily and occasionally, usually to fill jobs during labour shortages or in response to short-term pressure to lower the costs of labour (Burgess & Connell, 2006; Forde & Slater, 2005).

On average, agency jobs are usually of lower quality than regular jobs and are often supportive work, which can partly explain why agency workers often receive lower wages than permanent workers, which is not due to their lack of know-how or skills (Forde & Slater, 2005). The management relationships in TAW easily result in overlap. Workers must follow the instructions and expectations of two employers, consequently obscuring employment conditions and hampering compliance with the employment contract (Johnstone & Quinlan, 2006). These relationships are important when discussing agency workers’ working conditions, responsibilities and occupational safety and health (OSH) (Håkansson & Isidorsson, 2016). Table 2 presents a summary that is a depiction of the actors and their relationships based on the model presented by Håkansson and Isidorsson (2016). Also, the model contains the competitive relationships of actors with other actors of the same type.

Table 2. Model of actors and relationships in TAW (Håkansson & Isidorsson, 2016).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Actor</th>
<th>Temporary agency worker</th>
<th>Temporary work agency</th>
<th>User company</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Temporary agency worker</td>
<td>Competitive relationship with other workers</td>
<td>Employment relationship</td>
<td>Management relationship</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Temporary work agency</td>
<td>Employment relationship</td>
<td>Competitive relationship with other agencies</td>
<td>Business relationship</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>User company</td>
<td>Management relationship</td>
<td>Business relationship</td>
<td>Competitive relationship with other users</td>
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2.1.2 Actors in TAW

User companies often use agency work as a flexible buffer of workers that can be adjusted quickly to adapt to rapidly changing situations. This has led to agency work being criticised for bringing instability to employment relationships by giving the agency and the user company all the power at the expense of workers. A
frequently used argument for the good control of workers on work assignments is the emphasis on flexibility, although this looks quite different from the perspectives of workers and agencies (Forde & Slater, 2005; Koutsimpogiorgos et al., 2020; Kost et al., 2020; Maroukis, 2016; Robinson et al., 2019). Therefore, the validity of the argument that agency work meets the real demand for flexibility from workers has been questioned many times. For example, in Britain, the average share of unsatisfied agency workers was 50% in 2005 (Forde & Slater, 2005), and a small-scale, regional study in Finland identified even higher figures (Cajander & Reiman, 2020).

The agencies also offer other services to the user companies, which range from recruitment and training to payroll management (Burgess & Connell, 2006; Forde & Slater, 2016). To improve the availability of the workforce and reduce the risks associated with labour market challenges and market uncertainty, agencies and user companies often enter long-term partnership relationships with each other (Burgess & Connell, 2006; Forde & Slater, 2016).

Agency workers have dual relationships with their employers, including employment and management. The employment relationship is with the agency and it includes relevant employment conditions and job security. The management relationship is with the user company, which includes job features and instructions for everyday working requirements (Håkansson & Isidorsson, 2016; Hünefeld et al., 2020).

Those who work through an agency have less control over their work conditions than permanent workers and have no guaranteed or fixed workplace, and they must work for varying user companies as ordered (Håkansson & Isidorsson, 2016; Hünefeld et al., 2020). This leads to inequality and partition among different types of workers, unfavourable agency workers due to their contingent employment status and weak labour market position and the more fortunate permanent workers (Felfe et al., 2008; Kauhanen & Nätti, 2015; McNamara et al., 2011). Agency workers usually think of themselves as the employees of the user company, so unwillingness to be an agency worker is expected (Galais & Moser, 2009). Also, in many European countries, agency workers are poorly protected. Many court rulings and laws have ruled that the user company should hire agency workers as permanent workers after continuous employment has lasted for a predetermined time (European Commission, 2018). In practice, many agency workers work indefinitely and not merely for temporary needs through an agency, so the rules and regulations do not seem to follow or be enforced (Håkansson & Isidorsson, 2016; Maroukis, 2016).
2.2 Well-being at work in restaurant work

There are many definitions of well-being presented in many disciplines (Schulte & Vainio, 2010). A good generalisation is that well-being at work is a concept that comprises workers’ quality of life, including the workers’ health and work-related organisational, environmental, and psychosocial factors (Chari et al., 2018). Well-being at work includes both the absence of negative and the presence of positive. The negative aspect includes circumstances such as illnesses, stress and experienced failures, and the positive aspects include, for instance, quality of job, overall life situation of workers and experiences of success (Anttonen & Räsänen, 2009; Chari et al., 2018; Reiman & Väyrynen, 2018; Schulte & Vainio, 2010).

Restaurant work and working environments are associated with various ergonomic risks and hazards; if not properly managed, they may greatly affect workers’ well-being (Pehkonen et al., 2009). The most prominent ergonomic risks include heavy lifting, repetitive movements and constant prolonged standing or leaning forward (Laperrière et al., 2017; Nanyan & Ben Charrada, 2018). Generally, OSH research has focused on these workers’ physical exposures to various workplace risks and hazards, but lately, the research has expanded to include the area of worker well-being, or the ability of workers to cope with everyday stress and challenges and work productively (Adams, 2019; Chari et al., 2018; Reiman & Väyrynen, 2018). Because well-being is bound closely to workers’ health, workers who are in good mental, physical and emotional health are more likely to perform better at work than workers who are not (Adams, 2019). At the organisational level, a good workplace culture, conditions and functional working environment have been associated with increasing job satisfaction, worker attraction, work commitment, engagement and motivation and reducing turnover, thus having a direct link to well-being and productivity (Adams, 2019; Warrick, 2017).

Unfortunately, when there are human interactions between individuals, many are not necessarily positive or desired. Bullying and other types of harassment are threats to well-being at work that have been acknowledged as part of restaurant work (Ariza-Montes et al., 2017). Sometimes, this behaviour is even accepted, creating a stereotypical poor view of the working environment of restaurants. Bullying and harassment can also adversely affect the image and reputation of the entire restaurant industry and have negative effects on the well-being of workers, which can lead to absenteeism, lower work satisfaction and commitment to work, until finally, burnout of workers increases their desire to leave (Ariza-Montes et al., 2017; Mathisen et al., 2008; Ram, 2018). Conflicts, inflamed relationships, and
decreased work motivation has direct link to workers reduced productivity. These issues may cause as much as 65% decrease in productivity. Also, conflict mediation takes up to 24–42% of managers’ working time (Syvänen, et al., 2015).

2.2.1 Holistic well-being as part of sustainability and productivity

As for any company, the long-term sustainability and productivity of a restaurant require that the well-being of workers is maintained, and social capital developed. These must remain uncompromised by economic development and pursuit (Higgins-Desbiolles et al., 2017; Macke & Genari, 2019). However, difficulties in holistically reconciling long-term and short-term economic and social issues from the viewpoints of both the worker and the company have been identified, and these are often seen as contradictory (Macke & Genari, 2019). Unfortunately, at the company level, most often the focus is on the company’s reputation, brand image and economic sustainability while minimising the social dimension, including well-being at work (López-Pérez et al., 2017; Robinson et al., 2019). This happens regardless, even though social concerns strongly affect the performance of the company, and these concerns should be extended to cover all interactions with all stakeholders to ensure successful cooperation (Dellve & Eriksson, 2017; Fostervold et al., 2018; Hakanen et al., 2019). Social sustainability at the individual worker level includes promoting working conditions that foster the development of positive long-term economic, physical, and social effects for employees (Dellve & Eriksson, 2017; Fostervold et al., 2018; Macke & Genari, 2019). One threat to sustainable work, especially in a TAW context in restaurants, is the practice of using and discarding agency workers if there is a constant supply of incoming workers (Fostervold et al., 2018). In the future, if sustainability and continuance of work are not fostered, all work will be less stable and more difficult for workers to obtain and maintain (Fostervold et al., 2018; Knox, 2018).

Managers are considered the primary resource due to their task-related education and experience, which are needed to make optimal use of intangible organisational resources, such as social capital, to provide possibilities when effectively utilised and facilitated for productivity improvements and the development of competitive advantage (Jogaratnam, 2016, 2017). Managers can also inadvertently create unhealthy working cultures and poor outcomes. A manager who is not a good fit for a working environment is not a good leader, makes bad decisions, damages or dismantles the working culture and lowers the performance and productivity of the restaurant (Warrick, 2015). Sentimental and
personal factors often define the decision-making processes of individual workers (Marlow et al., 2005). Therefore, in many cases, workers’ commitment to restaurants is based on personal loyalty to the manager or the owner. In these restaurants, organisation and loyalty structures are formed around the personalities of their managers or owners, and the success of the restaurant is highly dependent upon the actions, intentions and plans of the managers. To ensure the productivity of the restaurant, managers must listen to and take bad news seriously to improve the functions of the restaurant; here, open communication is the key factor (Dekker, 2016). There are always influential workers who can either positively or negatively affect the working environment and culture of a restaurant in a significant way. It is important to notice and select these individuals for the right positions to reinforce the working culture and productivity (Warrick, 2017; Yucheng & Frenkel, 2018). Also, the personal interactions between the workers of the restaurants and customers are an essential factor in productivity; if positive, these interactions may lead to a good working environment that is not stressful. On the customer side, it increases customer trust, satisfaction and loyalty (Bujisic et al., 2017; Nel et al., 2018). Moreover, workers who are well-motivated and have well-being pay attention to what kind of image they project of themselves and of the restaurant to customers (Grandey et al., 2005).

2.2.2 Job requirements as determinants of well-being at work

Job requirements comprise several parts. These are work demands, role expectations and control at work, which refer to characteristics of work that require the worker to make continual emotional, cognitive, physical, psychological, social and organisational efforts (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). In practice, high work demands mean workers having to work too fast and too hard, having excessive work tasks, not enough time or having conflicting demands; in other words, they are overworked (Lindström et al., 1997). The strain experienced by a worker is expected to be high when work demands are high and worker control over work is low. The model of these dimensions is called the ‘demand control model’ presented by Karasek Jr. (1979). According to this model, work-related stress can be an issue in customer service-oriented industries, such as restaurants, because workers often experience contradictory demands from managers and customers (Oneill & Davis, 2011). Therefore, understanding the roles within a restaurant, as in any work organisation, is vital because it allows the worker to bring the necessary tacit knowledge and other organisational resources to bear on coping with stress. Roles
and tacit knowledge develop in cooperation and constant feedback with other workers of the restaurant and are valuable means for strengthening the productivity and sustainability of the restaurant or any organisation (Campbell, 2016).

A worker cannot act according to expectations if the roles are not clearly understood or defined. This leads to role ambiguity, role overload or role conflict. To some degree, these are inevitable in service jobs due to the close contact of workers with customers, managers and the rest of the work community (Ackfeldt & Malhotra, 2013). Role ambiguity is the difficulty workers have in evaluating different behaviours concerning the expectations, goals, job-related information, performance and, over an extended period, even the content and relevance of their jobs (Campbell, 2016; Salmon, 2013). Workers whose roles are ambiguous may be hesitant to act, and thus, they are likely to feel incapable of functioning in the restaurant or organisation in a meaningful and productive way (Bakar & Salleh, 2015; Campbell, 2016; Salmon, 2013). Role overload happens when workers face excessive demands, pressures or responsibilities to quickly complete tasks that are beyond their control to do so (Campbell, 2016). In this way, role overload is quite closely related to work-related exhaustion, which will subsequently be viewed.

Role conflict is a situation in which a worker must deal with many conflicting roles simultaneously. This can lead to several unfortunate consequences, such as weak job commitment, performance and satisfaction and a willingness to leave (Bakar & Salleh, 2015). Like any organisation, restaurants need a clear structure to lessen workers’ role problems. Workers also need to feel that they can control situations and their environment in the workplace. This highlights the importance of control at work, that is, control over work, including location, scheduling and tasks. Control at work is an important factor in workers’ perceptions of stressors, regardless of the actual magnitude of the stressors. Experiencing low control at work is associated with various strains: anxiety, frustration and stress, which in extreme cases can lead to physical symptoms such as headaches and stomach problems (Spector, 2002). Besides controlling their work, each worker needs to control themselves to work successfully or at least satisfactorily. Self-control problems may lead to slacking and workers not working with their full abilities (Kaur et al., 2015).

Work-related exhaustion occurs when the resources of workers are insufficient to meet the demands of the work or when the expectations of workers regarding the work environment and its opportunities are not met. This creates an imbalance between the worker and the work environment. As time passes, prolonged work-related stressors affect the well-being of the workers and lead to exhaustion, fatigue,
negative emotions, tension and other mental health issues. These also negatively influence the work commitment, service quality and productivity of the workers (Ackfeldt & Malhotra, 2013; Bakar & Salleh, 2015; Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Maslach et al., 2001; Varca, 1999). The relationship between work-related stressors and work exhaustion has been studied extensively, and the results support the view that work exhaustion is a response to overwork and work-related stressors (Maslach et al., 2001; Varca, 1999).

2.2.3 Importance of a mutual commitment to work

The definition of organisational commitment is the bond that workers feel towards their organisation and a willingness to maintain its membership. Workers committed to their organisation fit in, understand and accept the goals of the organisation and are willing to make considerable efforts on its behalf (Felfe et al., 2008; Meyer & Allen, 1997). The mutual commitment of the organisation and the worker, good working conditions and workplace culture affect job satisfaction, motivation and turnover of workers. In turn, this provides a competitive advantage for the restaurant or any organisation in the form of improved productivity and better worker attraction, and it manifests through better service quality and customer loyalty and satisfaction (Albao, 2018; Article I; Felfe et al., 2008; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Meyer & Maltin, 2010; Warrick, 2017).

The mutual commitment of the worker and the workplace can be understood as a psychological contract between the employer and the employee (Rousseau, 1989). The commitment issues of agency workers are the concern of the user company because it pays the costs of worker turnover and its negative effects on productivity, sustainability and impaired customer service (Felfe et al., 2008; Waldman et al., 2015). If mutual commitment is weak, the contribution of agency workers to the long-term development of a restaurant or any organisation may remain slight and consequently imperil productivity (McDonald & Makin, 2000; Waldman et al., 2015). Also, outgoing workers take much tacit knowledge about the restaurant or any organisation with them. It is a time-consuming process to transfer tacit knowledge to a replacement worker, so knowledge retention and mentoring systems are important (Felfe et al., 2008; King & Tang, 2020).
2.3 Corporate social responsibility

CSR is globally understood and defined as a strategic initiative that seeks to take into account the economic, environmental and social dimensions of the functions of organisations with the aim of achieving sustainable development (López-Pérez et al., 2017). Socially responsible business practices and sustainable development management have been identified as important elements of successful company performance, yet research in this area is still immature in many ways (López-Pérez et al., 2017; Malik, 2015; Rodriguez-Gomez et al., 2020). At the company level, interests are often slanted, as some companies view socially responsible acts, including well-being at work, as an unnecessary burden because of the costs and the complex and indirect nature of the potential benefits. As a result, companies focus on economic and environmental sustainability, corporate reputation and brand image (López-Pérez et al., 2017; Robinson et al., 2019). Of course, social issues within the company should also be considered and lead to the adoption of a CSR outlook that covers all interactions with stakeholders (Dellve & Eriksson, 2017; Fostervold et al., 2018; Hakanen et al., 2019). Taking care of CSR in a sustainable way at the individual level involves working conditions that promote long-term social, developmental, economic and physical effects for workers (Dellve & Eriksson, 2017; Fostervold et al., 2018; Macke & Genari, 2019). Figure 2 offers a useful concept for understanding CSR based on the model originally presented by Carroll (1991) and further supplemented by López-Pérez et al. (2017). It encompasses the four areas of CSR: economic, ethical, legal and philanthropic. It has been proposed that these components have always existed to some extent, but ethical and philanthropic responsibilities are the latest to have drawn significant attention (Carroll, 1991; López-Pérez et al., 2017).
2.3.1 CSR in TAW

TAW has established its position in many business branches, and many new agency entrepreneurs have started business in the industry, not all of whom intend to act responsibly (Forde & Slater, 2005, 2016; Knox, 2018). An expanding market easily attracts irresponsible actors in the hope of making big profits (Knox, 2018), while many narratives present the expansion of contingent agency work as a positive evolution for both employers and workers (Robinson et al., 2019). Nevertheless, there are threats to CSR and the sustainability of work, especially in the context of TAW, one being the practice of abusing and discarding workers if there is a deep supply of new workers (Fostervold et al., 2018). In the future, if sustainability is not taken care of, all work will be more difficult to obtain and maintain and will be less stable (Fostervold et al., 2018; Knox, 2018). For this reason, it has been debated whether agency contracting will in fact make it easier to obtain full-time employment (Chambel & Sobral, 2019). However, in this pursuit, it is easy for workers to be left in a harmful position in many ways. TAW has been criticised for delegating the decision-making power between a worker and an employer to an intermediary, the agency (Felfe et al., 2008). Many researchers from various countries have reported greater unfair treatment and situations for people working in TAW compared to permanent and full-time workers (Akkerman et al., 2020; Article II; Håkansson & Isidorsson, 2016; Kauhanen & Nähti, 2015; Maroukis,
The arguments for and against CRS outcomes in TAW are of many kinds, reflecting numerous viewpoints.

In recent years, many European countries and organisations, mainly labour unions, have sought to put into effect regulatory restrictions on the conditions for the use of agency work (Alsos & Evans, 2018; Buchanan et al., 2013; Johnstone & Quinlan, 2006). These measures have had only limited effects, and agency workers are still susceptible to exploitation, such as fewer overtime entitlements, lower salaries and employment relationships that exist outside labour laws (Alsos & Evans, 2018; Cotton, 2015; Forde & Slater, 2016; Johnstone & Quinlan, 2006; Knox, 2018). As a result of these shortcomings, the authorities of many countries have enacted new regulatory measures; however, once again, their implementation, effects and enforcement are questionable (Alsos & Evans, 2018; Johnstone & Quinlan, 2006; Knox, 2018). CSR in TAW is constantly evolving and not necessarily in a good direction. For example, Forde and Slater (2016) have underlined the challenging nature of the constantly changing and increasingly complicated contract arrangements between user companies and agencies, the changing role of agencies in salary setting and the changing regulatory environment. In the most recent developments in the circumvention of regulations, user companies have been criticised for attempting to avoid paying employee benefits (e.g. sick leave, superannuation and annual leave) by hiring workers under commercial contracts rather than as employees (Forde & Slater, 2016; Knox, 2018). Furthermore, agencies and user companies frequently try to avoid investing in personnel training by using sham contracts (Forde & Slater, 2016; Knox, 2018).

2.3.2 OSH as part of CSR in TAW

In responsible companies, OSH processes and practices are often dealt with as part of larger CSR processes through which safety and health issues are widely considered, including in areas reaching beyond the immediate boundaries of the workplace and workforce (Ruiz-Frutos et al., 2019). However, the precariousness of TAW involves many kinds of issues, such as the accumulation of an unstable and uncertain continuity that is more harmful than a single threat (Pyörälä et al., 2021). Among other demands, OSH and working conditions regularly place intricate demands on agency workers and companies using their services (Hopkins, 2017; Hünefeld et al., 2020). From the OSH management perspective, this should not be so complicated, because hazards in the workplace always need to be evaluated and managed through precise risk management processes (Väyrynen et al., 2015).
Companies must follow statutory laws and regulations wherever they operate. Sometimes, companies have OSH practices and processes that surpass the legally required minimums. This way of taking care of OSH is not limited to compliance, and companies often acknowledge OSH as a part of their CSR, seeing the potential long-term gain that attentiveness to OSH may provide from the perspectives of productivity, economics and reputation (Garben, 2019). For example, partly as a sign of responsibility but also to gain economic benefit and reputation, a company might pay for additional medical attention to an injured worker to ensure a faster return to work (Grimani et al., 2018).

Basically, the aim of OSH is a safe and healthy work environment in which well-functioning work communities and individuals can perform their tasks without fear of accidents and work-related illnesses. Taking advantage of a variety of defined processes and related actions is a central part of OSH management (Alli, 2008; International Organization for Standardization, 2018). A risk management process is one of such, and it includes hazard identification, risk evaluation and risk mitigation. Risk management processes, if used correctly, are sufficiently sensitive to identify the risks for possible vulnerable groups within the workforce, such as young and inexperienced workers (Hanvold et al., 2019; Zacharatos et al., 2005).

At any rate, OSH risk management processes have proved to be inadequate given the fragmented nature of TAW (Kreshpaj et al., 2022; Vanroelen, 2019). In TAW, OSH is viewed from many perspectives and by various stakeholders. When the user company is planning to acquire an agency worker, it must define the professional requirements and special features of the work in sufficient detail and inform the agency of them; the agency must then inform the agency worker of these matters and ensure that the worker has the appropriate experience, skills and overall competence for the work to be done. The user company must confirm that the agency worker is familiar with the work and conditions and is informed about existing OSH practices and about co-operation arrangements in the workplace (Kjellén & Albrechtsen, 2017; Lippel et al., 2011).

From the restaurant management perspective, OSH in TAW is a challenge, as agency workers and other NSE workers tend to have higher accident and illness rates than permanent workers (Amuedo-Dorantes, 2002; Garben, 2019), which they often neglect to report (Kreshpaj et al., 2022). By having better working conditions and more control, agency workers would be no likelier to have accidents at work and suffer work-related illnesses than permanent workers because the most important factor in work-related injuries and illnesses is working conditions, not education or experience (Amuedo-Dorantes, 2002; Garben, 2019). In a restaurant
context, Bush et al. (2009) suggested paying more attention to the OSH training of managers to improve their ability to influence working conditions, while in the same context, Gaydos et al. (2011) emphasised learning from accidents in order not to repeat them. López-Pérez et al. (2017) and Stekelorum (2020) found evidence strengthening the view that the smaller a company is, the less clearly it sees the links between CSR and poor outcomes. Once again, the importance of competent management appears. Some things are harder for managers to influence, such as the connection between occupational exposure to common illnesses (Jayaraman et al., 2011).
3 Methods and material

This thesis applies mixed-method-based research (Anguera et al., 2018) to four articles in which restaurant work was studied from different perspectives and sources and with different data collecting and analysis methods. Both quantitative and qualitative methods were used in the articles. The selected methods are used frequently in human factors, HRM and organisational research, and they have been used successfully and reported in earlier studies (Anguera et al., 2018; Hignett & McDermott, 2015; Maykut & Morehouse, 1994; Strauss-Raats, 2019). A detailed overview of the articles and the key concepts, data and methods used is presented below in Figure 3.
3.1 Follow-up study of restaurant workers

Article I was a qualitative interview study. It focused on leadership as part of HRM and approached it from the perspective of high-performance work practices in an SME restaurant in Finland. The study was conducted in two phases: the first in
2010 and the second in 2018. During the first phase, the purpose was to focus on the challenges that affected well-being at the individual and organisational levels within the case restaurant. During the second phase, the interviewees from the first phase, who had continued their restaurant careers, were re-interviewed to discuss the challenges identified in Phase 1, after several years of working in other restaurants, more objectively and considering the development, trends and the role of workers in the restaurant industry in Finland.

In both phases, data were collected through semi-structured theme interviews, which provide a balance between structure and openness and allow interviewees to add aspects they consider important (Gillham, 2005). The interview length varied between 20 and 40 minutes during both phases. The data analysis method used was the continuous comparison method (Maykut & Morehouse, 1994), which used an inductive approach (Azungah, 2018). When using this method, the material was searched for units of significance, that is, words, sentences or paragraphs essential to the research questions, and then these units were named to create categorisation, and then the process was repeated. Finally, the categories were combined in a relevant way to obtain a common piece of explanatory material.

The interviews were recorded and transcribed, and notes were taken during the interviews to support the analysis. Although material collection was based on personal interviews, it is worth mentioning that the researcher – who conducted the interviews – was also working in the case restaurant during the time of the first interviews, but not anymore in 2018. Therefore, the first phase possesses certain characteristics of action research, as the researcher was familiar with the interviewees and the working atmosphere and conditions (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000). Accordingly, the first phase can be defined as empirical research using versatile and multifaceted information to study current events and workers within a particular environment (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000).

In the second phase, after eight years had passed, the following interview questions were asked: In the situation of 2010, what should have been done to ensure that work practices had worked properly and efficiently? How are these practices now working in the interviewees’ current workplaces?

From the original 10, five were interviewed again; all were male, aged 30–45 years. These workers were chosen due to their suitability and availability, as they were those who had continued their careers within the restaurant industry. Since the first phase in 2010, they had worked in many restaurants, held various positions and completed some advanced training, such as management courses that did not lead to any specific degree. Four interviewees had achieved managerial positions,
and one had continued his career in a restaurant different from the original case restaurant as an hourly employee without any plans to advance to manager status. The interviewees had 14 to 23 years of work experience, all gained in different restaurants (four were bars and one also had food service). All their current workplaces were smaller (less than eight employees) than the case restaurant in 2010.

3.2 E-survey study of restaurant workers

The objective of Article II was to compare the work demands, role expectations and control at work of full-time workers and temporary agency workers with both groups’ work commitments. Also, the article examined temporary agency workers’ relations to their workplaces and agencies. Karasek’s (1979) ‘demand control model’, supplemented by Allen and Meyer’s (1990, 1996) organisational commitment theory, was used as the framework for this article. Article II was quantitative in nature because it was based on statistical methods used to investigate the determinants of worker commitment modes.

An e-survey (n = 138) was designed to meet the objectives of Article II. The aim of the e-survey was to obtain answers from both agency workers and regular full-time workers. A link to the e-survey, open to all restaurant workers in Finland, was published on the Facebook page of Shaker, a professional magazine of the restaurant industry. The link was also sent as an email to restaurant workers with a valid agency contract and who had given permission to send an email to them. PAM, the major labour trade union for private service industries in Finland, carried out this mailing operation. It was difficult to estimate the quantity of responses because agency workers in the restaurant industry are usually very passive in responding, and there was no defined pool of respondents, as the total number of agency workers in restaurants is impossible to estimate accurately. The e-survey was based on the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) (Allen & Meyer, 1990) and Questionnaire for Psychological and Social Factors at Work (QPS Nordic) questionnaires (Lindström et al., 1997; Lindström, 1997). Both focus on psychological and social factors at work. Nordic QPS has been used by many organisations. The OCQ is also well documented and considered reliable, and its Cronbach’s alpha values are between 0.82 and 0.93 (Kanning & Hill, 2013). Using both questionnaires, different features of work commitment were measured. QPS Nordic was also used to measure job requirements and job strain, which were combined and examined in comparison with work commitment modes.
The e-survey included 54 questions. The first three questions elicited the respondents' personal information: age, gender and place of residence. The following nine were related to forms of work: working hours/week, type of primary workplace, the type of employment, reasons for working temporarily and other specifics. The following were 20 questions applied from QPS Nordic on job requirements, including work demands, role expectations and control at work. After the QPS Nordic section, there were 22 questions from the OCQ to gauge the commitment of the workers. The SPSS software program was used to calculate and compare the key figures. Mean scores of commitment types and job requirements were examined for worker groups and later a correlation matrix was generated.

3.3 Worker, manager and expert interviews

Articles III and IV share some similarities and common methods. Research in both articles used restaurants as a basis. However, additional material was collected from other sources and used for both articles to highlight issues related to their topics. The five restaurants in this study were all similar (pubs, gastropubs, and a lunch diner), employing a total of 49 permanent workers and an estimated 21 agency workers and additional TAW experts constituted the basis of these qualitative studies. The studied restaurants were privately owned, had operated for over 10 years and had both food and alcohol service. The restaurants were small by worker count (between eight and 20) and had a light organisational structure, with a top manager, two shift managers and five to 17 permanent full-time workers. Also, the number of agency workers varied by week, ranging from zero to six. These restaurants were selected for study because of their long operating times, their regular utilisation of TAW and they can be considered typical restaurants in terms of the nature of their operations.

The objective of Article III was to explore the realisation of OSH in multiemployer restaurants. The focus was on TAW as a central form of nonstandard employment (NSE). Work system theory, a sociotechnical concept that is well rooted in human factors and ergonomics research, provides a suitable framework for system-level considerations of OSH from both the organisational and individual perspectives (Carayon et al., 2015; Golubovskaya et al., 2017; Haro & Kleiner, 2008). Work system theory is a multidisciplinary study of systems and subsystems, in which they function together and in relation to one another within a larger, more complex system. The idea is that the whole is greater than the sum of its parts, and the objective is to manage positive change in organisations by improving the
quality and health of the working lives of workers (Kleiner, 2006; Murphy et al., 2014).

The objective of Article IV was to examine the realisation of CSR in TAW in the restaurant context from social and economic sustainability perspectives. The pressure-disorganisation-regulatory failure (PDR) model offers a holistic framework for this examination. According to Bohle et al. (2015), the elements of PDR help develop practical interventions and policies to improve work outcomes. This model has already been proven to be suitable for a TAW context by Strauss-Raats (2019) and for restaurant context by Bohle et al. (2017).

Material for both articles was collected through the same semi-structured theme interviews, with questions based on the CWEQ-II, in January–February 2021. However, the research group decided to apply the questionnaire in an interview format for three reasons, as suggested by Gillham (2005): the survey form would not likely produce answers in the detail needed for this study, using open-ended interviews offered flexibility and there was an opportunity to add refining questions if necessary. The interviews were recorded and transcribed. On average, the interviews lasted 60 minutes. Written notes were also taken during the interviews to support the analysis. The interviewees of both articles have been introduced before in Figure 3. In all, 20 people were interviewed for Article III and 29 people were interviewed for Article IV. One to two researchers participated in the interviews, and four of the expert interviews were group interviews in which two or three experts participated.

The topics of the Conditions for Work Effectiveness Questionnaire-II (CWEQ-II) (Almost & Spence Laschinger, 2002; Spence Laschinger et al., 2000, 2001) are well compatible with both the work system theory for Article III (Carayon et al., 2015; Kleiner, 2004, 2006) and the Pressures–disorganisation–regulatory failure (PDR) model for Article IV (Bohle et al., 2015; Bohle et al., 2017; Strauss-Raats, 2019), which were used as frameworks in the articles. Therefore, CWEQ-II was chosen for its application and for use in this study. In addition to CWEQ-II, questions were asked about the utilisation of TAW and its development.

The CWEQ-II measures access to different structures of opportunity, which include the possibility for mobility and learning within the organisation, getting the informal and formal knowledge needed to work productively, receiving guidance and feedback from superiors, peers or subordinates and having the equipment, materials, supplies, time and financial means required to do the work. The CWEQ-II also measures the power structure of the organisation in the two dimensions of informal and formal power. Informal power is derived from social relationships and
the development of communication with superiors, peers, subordinates and outside parties. Formal power is derived from job characteristics such as adaptability, creativity, decision making and flexibility (Almost & Spence Laschinger, 2002; Kanter, 1977, 1993; Spence Laschinger et al., 2001).

Each interview was analysed by NVivo software within the organisational work system framework in Article III (Carayon et al., 2015; Kleiner, 2004, 2006) and the PDR model in Article IV (Bohle et al., 2015; Bohle et al., 2017; Strauss-Raats, 2019; Underhill & Quinlan, 2011), first from the organisational perspective and then from the individual agency worker perspective. The method used for analysing the interview material was directed content analysis, which is a deductive approach that uses a framework as the basis for the coding process (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000; Hsieh & Shannon, 2005; Jackson & Bazeley, 2019). The work system theory arising from the human factors literature in Article III (Carayon et al., 2015; Kleiner, 2004, 2006) and the PDR model in Article IV (Bohle et al., 2015; Bohle et al., 2017; Strauss-Raats, 2019) were used as the basis for identifying the key concepts for the initial coding categories and their relationships. Next, the data were analysed using predetermined coding categories. Exploring TAW within these frameworks enabled a multi-faceted analysis covering the economic and social sides of OSH, CSR and sustainability.
4 Results

This chapter presents the key results of the four original articles in this thesis. Some of the findings from the articles were left out in this compilation part but are discussed in the articles. Article I focused on drawing an in-depth picture of how leadership deficiencies hinder the well-being of workers in restaurant work and contributed to RQ1. Article II considered the type of employment relationship that affects the commitment and well-being of workers with employers, answering RQ2. Article III considered RQ3 from the perspective of the OSH of agency workers in multiemployer restaurants. Finally, Article IV covered RQ4 by examining the CSR of the actors and stakeholders involved in TAW in restaurants.

4.1 Leadership deficiencies hindering the well-being of workers in restaurant work

Article I presented insights into a restaurant with severe challenges regarding well-being at work and even led to workers considering quitting as an option. To achieve a more general understanding of the challenges, the interviewees were reinterviewed years later when they were not working in that particular restaurant anymore but were still working in the restaurant business. The identified challenges related to deficiencies in leadership and unclear hierarchical structures, inadequate employee appreciation and collaboration and unclear flow of information. Deficiencies and their content can be seen in Table 3.

Table 3. Deficiencies hindering well-being at work.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1. Leadership problems and unclear hierarchical structure</th>
<th>2. Inadequate employee appreciation and collaboration</th>
<th>3. Unclear flow of information</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Leaders not knowing what is going on</td>
<td>Constantly changing temporary agency workers</td>
<td>Indirect information in the form of gossip and rumours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-proclaimed bosses</td>
<td>Cleaning after others</td>
<td>No one knows what is going on</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ineffective planning and execution to improve well-being at work</td>
<td>Exclusion of some members of the community</td>
<td>Negative feedback presented</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Absence of real leaders</td>
<td>Not being appreciated</td>
<td>Using threatening expressions and tones of voice</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Multiple bosses, Resistance to change, Employees’ negative attitudes toward leadership
The interviews revealed that the restaurant manager had physically and mentally drifted too far from the work community, abandoning and weakening contact with it and its activities. This has led to a situation in which the restaurant manager was considered incapable of managing the everyday activities of the work community, paying attention to the work conditions of the restaurant or being aware of or addressing its problems. Due to this neglect and absence of present leadership, there was simultaneously a situation in which some of the workers had abandoned their roles and had started passing on their work tasks to others, sometimes even by threatening expressions and tones of voice. Members of this ‘special group’ were personal friends of the restaurant manager. Very negative attitudes prevailed towards leadership and this so-called special group of workers. All changes proposed by other workers required the restaurant manager’s approval, so reforms were left unexecuted. This was due to the resistance to change of the manager and the special group.

Having to clean up after others or being responsible for others’ tasks caused notable frustration. All kinds of workers (incl. TAW) did not appreciate their work because no one else did. All kinds of workers were often ignored and seldom shown appreciation or respect. Many workers felt insulted by being excluded from the work community by some of its members. It was considered vital that all types of bullying and harassment cease, and everyone be treated appropriately and fairly. Unfortunately, some individuals within the work community, mainly the special group, lacked the necessary discretion to meet these goals.

Information often went through detours, and the concerned workers usually received it too late, if at all, for example, from a customer rather than the manager. Necessary information and feedback arrived at workers indirectly, such as in the form of rumours and gossip. When the manager gave feedback directly, it was nearly always negative and was presented through shouting or name-calling. In many cases, information and feedback did not even arrive at the correct individuals, so nobody knew what was going on.

4.2 Type of work contract as a determinant in the commitment relationship of workers and restaurant employers

The heterogeneity of workers in restaurants is characterised by a third-party involvement in the working relationship, as the term temporary agency work is an umbrella term comprising a wide variety of nonstandard employment forms, such as agency work. Based on the findings of the e-survey in Article II, four worker
groups were identified. Regular full-time workers (n = 22), as the first group, had an employment contract with the restaurant. Their contracts were valid indefinitely and they worked directly for the restaurant. The temporary agency workers (n = 67) worked only temporarily and occasionally and had a fixed-term contract arrangement that featured a triangular work relationship consisting of the temporary work agency and the end-user company. In the third group, the regular temporary agency workers worked indefinitely alongside regular full-time workers at the end-user company, but their salaries were paid by the temporary work agency. In this study, one-third of the respondents (n = 24) fell into this group of all temporary agency workers. Other atypical workers (n = 13) formed the fourth group, which did not fit into any other categories. They were mainly self-employed gig workers, such as performers or cleaners.

The mean score presented in Table 4 was calculated (scale from 1 to 5) for the commitment to indicate the overall commitment level of the worker groups concerning their workplaces. Mean scores were also calculated for work demands, role expectations and control at work. The scale used range from 1 to 5. In the case of work demands and role expectations, a high value indicated high demands and high role expectations, representing a bad outcome for the worker; in the case of control at work, a high value indicated a high degree of control at work, representing a good outcome. Table 4 presents a summary of the worker groups’ scores. Overall, regular full-time workers had the highest level of commitment to work. Also, they perceived their control at work to be higher when compared to others. Concerning work demands, temporary agency workers of both kinds experienced work demands as higher than regular full-time workers and other atypical workers. From the role expectations perspective, temporary agency workers of both kinds experienced role expectations as higher than others.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Worker Group</th>
<th>Mean score of Commitment</th>
<th>Work Demands mean score</th>
<th>Role Expectations mean score</th>
<th>Control at Work mean score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Regular full-time workers</td>
<td>3.212</td>
<td>3.280</td>
<td>2.381</td>
<td>3.588</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Temporary agency workers</td>
<td>2.789</td>
<td>3.358</td>
<td>2.856</td>
<td>2.690</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regular temporary agency workers</td>
<td>2.961</td>
<td>3.326</td>
<td>2.860</td>
<td>2.600</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other atypical workers</td>
<td>2.809</td>
<td>3.178</td>
<td>2.650</td>
<td>2.859</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Control at work indicates that the most prominent commitment is at a high level, while high work demands, and role expectations indicate the opposite. Work demands and role expectations paired with each other indicate an opposing force to control at work. These conclusions were achieved by using correlation analysis of the data to examine the relations between groups of workers’ commitments and job requirements.

4.3 OSH Issues of agency workers in multiemployer restaurants

Article III examined OSH from the work system perspective, with the result that the complexity of OSH management in multiemployer restaurants was unmistakable. Despite the national regulations in Finland that guide OSH and the welfare system supplementing the social security net of workers, the article showed that agency workers, in many ways, remained in a more disadvantaged position than full-time workers. Furthermore, many kinds of hazards and risks were seen to weaken the OSH of agency workers. Also, the cultural factors prevailing in restaurant work were seen to have an indirect impact on OSH by keeping social relationships superficial and subject to unspoken rules, thus limiting their nature and depth.

The working environments and work tasks carried out in typical restaurants by the nature of their operations, were considered quite simple by the interviewees. In principle, this was seen as a positive element enabling proper OSH management. Even so, restaurants were also seen as customer-oriented and labour-intensive, which were considered to bring certain challenges from the OSH perspective.

Frontline restaurant workers are in constant contact with customers while required to restrict their behaviour to a particular professional manner, often causing discomfort, especially when a customer’s behaviour becomes aggravated. The OSH management perspective was also emphasised to include issues of psychosocial discomfort. The agency workers were considered as often less experienced than the permanent workers, and agency workers’ abilities to confront a challenging customer were considered insufficient. Due to these conditions, it was proposed to develop measures at the organisational level to protect agency workers in these situations. The examples given for such measures were not working alone, a porter being available and the use of a ‘panic button’. Another way suggested to transfer challenges on the individual level to the organisational level was to make use of technology to reduce both the workload of workers and OSH risks. An automated crushed ice maker was mentioned as a good example of
a technological device that had enabled a shift from a time- and labour-intensive manual operation to an automatic time-saving process that was also considered positive from the perspective of improved well-being.

As shown in Article III, TAW was seen as reflecting a broader trend of the diminishing influence of workers over their own affairs and increasing precariousness and contingent work. Furthermore, the job opportunities and OSH risks of restaurant workers are closely related to the socio-cultural conditions of the workers’ lives. Against this background, OSH issues came to the fore. Restaurants as user companies were seen as unintentionally or intentionally neglecting their responsibilities regarding OSH in TAW. Also, it was considered that, in some cases, they had inadequately communicated the concerns of agency workers to the agency, which is the agency worker’s actual employer. The agencies were considered to have the greatest power in defining the working relationship and conditions and, in turn, restaurants were considered to have less power and options in influencing the agencies. Last in the power hierarchy were agency workers, who were considered to have decreased influence on their affairs and ambiguous legal protection. Table 5 summarises the OSH challenges identified from the perspectives of the agency workers and the restaurants as user companies. These two actors were often considered to be on the frontline, facing the consequences of these issues. Often, the role of the agencies was considered quite narrow in this context. However, from an economic cost perspective, their role was considered broader, as, for example, the costs related to occupational accidents and sick leaves were understood as being borne by the agency as the actual employer.

Table 5. OSH issue effects on agency workers and restaurants (Article III).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Issue</th>
<th>Agency worker</th>
<th>User company</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Challenging customers</td>
<td>Experienced strain, stress, and threats of violence</td>
<td>Brings risks to the workplace for all employees and increases the need for external security services</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Socially demanding work</td>
<td>Influence of work extends beyond work hours, making it difficult to recover from work</td>
<td>Psychosocial burdens are not identified, leading to the risk of developing a ‘culture of silence’ in the restaurant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inadequate OSH skills and knowledge of agency workers</td>
<td>Vulnerability to various OSH risks</td>
<td>Insufficiently skilled workers in the workplace increase the possibilities of different incidents</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Issue</td>
<td>Agency worker</td>
<td>User company</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Insufficient OSH management processes and reward systems</td>
<td>Agency workers do not care or do not know how to report confronted OSH risks</td>
<td>Insufficient preparedness for possible OSH risks in the workplace</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Insufficient communication among the stakeholders of the OSH issues</td>
<td>Agency workers unaware of the OSH risks in the workplace</td>
<td>Uncertainty about whether all workers are aware of the OSH risks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Obscurity of contracts</td>
<td>Stressfully being constantly available for job offers and little power to negotiate the jobs offered or have an influence on OSH matters</td>
<td>Unable to select the most suitable, competent, and able-bodied agency worker</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physically demanding tasks</td>
<td>Experienced physical strain and stress</td>
<td>Effects minimal, as the user company can replace the agency workers based on their contracts</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When interpreting the findings presented in Article III, it should be noted that the research took place simultaneously with the COVID-19 pandemic. This generated many special issues related to OSH, as the interviewees emphasised the impact of the pandemic on the processes and operations of the restaurants, as well as government restrictions and regulations, which were seen to have been targeted at the restaurant sector excessively, exclusively and unfairly. Even then, the managers were seen as paying close attention to all restrictions and regulations and abided by them in their restaurants. In this special situation, managers tried to relieve workers’ uncertainty about the continuance of work and increase their motivation and coping ability by finding and using flexible work solutions that, in practice, also improved OSH. In a sense, managers thought that their role had grown in balancing the work-life of their workers, as they had had to pay more attention to ensuring the well-being and health of their own personnel, but also concerning other stakeholders, including agency workers and customers. The results showed no expectations of the situation returning to normal any time soon. The attitude among both workers and managers was that the situation was the ‘new normal’ and the development of processes to adapt was well underway.

More detailed information about the results in the confines of the organisational work system framework perspective, including its subsystems like the personnel subsystem, the organisational design and the external, internal and
technological subsystems, with the quotations of interviewees is presented in Article III.

4.4 Realisation of corporate social responsibility in temporary agency work

Article IV examined CSR in the restaurant industry and in TAW by identifying challenges, potential areas for improvement and strengths from the perspectives of the workers, agencies and the user companies in this triangular work relationship. The study showed indications that the actors were not always sufficiently aware of all the rules and regulations or knew them but neglected to follow them, thus failing to follow the principles of CSR. Opposite and contradictory views were very common.

The interviews deepened the understanding of the interactions between the three actors and their increasingly intricate contract arrangements. ‘Worker pools’, as one such, were seen as taking convergent partnerships even further. Considering the views of the agencies in the results, the aim of partnerships and worker pools was seen to ensure profits and the continuity of business relationships by tying the user company ever closer to the agency. A clear challenge from the CSR perspective is whether this trend weakens the position of the worker and whether this is intended. The deficiency of CSR rose in the results, which were highlighted by the agency workers concerning these pools. The issue was related to the lack of regulatory coverage and a situation in which the user company and agency were owned by the same business entity or chain. In this situation of simultaneous (or joint) ownership, the owner runs both companies, including the activities between them. The owner handles the payment of wages and other legislation related to the worker doing the actual work, using either of the companies to do it, depending on the most favourable situation for the owner. This practice brings difficulty to the interpretation of collective agreements and worker rights by forming a kind of “grey area” concerning the companies involved.

It can be seen from the interviews that the CSR issues from the perspective of the agencies and the user companies seem to be overwhelmingly concentrated on economic incentives. This can be interpreted as natural given the competitive and profit-driven nature of the restaurant and TAW business. However, as highlighted in the interviews, the social side of CSR should not be forgotten, as restaurant work requires much interaction between people and is highly labour-intensive. Social matters were especially emphasised in the interview material, considering the
implementation of OSH and ambiguous work arrangements. Concerning OSH matters, issues such as communication and the awareness of employer responsibilities were highlighted, whereas ambiguous work arrangements were critically discussed with a focus on the uncertainties from the regulatory point of view, the complex nature of flexibility and the difficulties faced by new or agency workers when entering work communities.

The interviews revealed that there were actors in user companies and agencies that did not aim for good CSR while also making active attempts to circumvent the rules and regulations for their own gain. This activity hampers responsible user companies and responsible agencies in the maintenance of their responsible conduct and intensifies and distorts competition. Challenges and their relationships with the actors of TAW were also examined. These can be seen in Figure 4, which summarizes the afore mentioned challenges and relationships relating to different TAW actors in restaurants in the CSR context.

Fig. 4. Challenges and relationships relating to different TAW actors in restaurants in the CSR context. (Reprinted under CC BY 4.0 license from Article IV © 2022 Authors).

The challenges that reciprocally are associated to all involved actors are poor communication processes, unfair demands for flexibility, insufficient induction and training and work community inclusiveness, which are situated in the center of the Figure 4. Poor knowledge of workers’ rights often is associated with formation of unilateral work agreements and the negative effects of such agreements are left to be borne by the worker. Poor governmental control is associated with the formation of unilateral agreements and then worker entering them. In some cases, an agency
can dictate the whole content of an agreement with the worker, making it unilateral. Also, poor governmental control is associated with worker pools and joint ownership arrangements, making possible to abuse them. These two challenges are associated with both, the agencies and user companies, and in some cases are linked together. It must be pointed out that worker pools can also be used in responsible and productive ways. Unequally or irresponsibly organised OSH arrangements are associated with agencies, user companies, and finally affect workers and temporary agency workers.
5 Discussion

In this mixed method study, restaurant work and the implementation of OSH, CSR and well-being at work in the context of TAW were examined from a sociotechnical system perspective to better understand the reasons behind the deficiencies of TAW in restaurants. The sociotechnical human factors approach (e.g. Dul et al., 2012; International Labour Organization [ILO], 2021a) used in this thesis allows for examining these disadvantages and deficiencies from the perspectives of both individuals (restaurant agency workers) and the entire triangular relationship between the actors of TAW.

As previously pointed out in various studies (e.g. Lippel et al., 2011; Vanroelen, 2019; Strauss-Raats, 2019) and by different influencers and decision-makers (Eurofound, 2017b; ILO, 2021b; Ministry of Economic Affairs and Employment in Finland, 2017), there is still much room for improvement in the restaurant industry on OSH matters, practices and processes and the practical arrangements of OSH in TAW and how vulnerable agency workers still are in comparison. Because of this challenge, which seems to be valid all over the world, it is evident that new research is needed to understand the underlying reasons. Such studies will bring new content to the ongoing discussion on CSR in TAW. As shown in this thesis, the area of social sustainability lacks a sufficiently deep and comprehensive examination, although there are certain indications of the dominance of economic pressures.

5.1 Identified deficiencies on the well-being of workers and TAW in restaurants

According to the results of Article I, the restaurant in focus was troubled by many deficiencies and undesirable challenging factors, which were centred on the incompetence of top management and supplemented by unclear hierarchical structures and an unclear flow of information. Additional challenges were caused by a small group of workers who had taken privileges that they believed were their due. It was clear that this small group of workers was very disruptive to the working processes, practices and work community of the restaurant. The situation was a risk for the overall motivation, productivity and well-being of the other workers. Furthermore, the interviews revealed how negatively the company’s reputation had been affected. The dominant position of the special group crystallised the importance of the equal participation of all workers in the restaurant’s operations.
Alasoini (2012) emphasised the importance of the direct equal participation of all workers, which did not happen in this case. In the restaurant industry, such situations can lead directly to poor performance, which, as Bohle et al. (2017) agreed, can be considered common and requires a holistic understanding of all potential factors that contribute to the poor level of well-being at work. Also, as Pehkonen et al. (2009) and Syvänen et al. (2015) pointed out, dealing with such an unbalanced work environment requires an understanding of the possible lack of time or poor motivation of some workers or managers. Otherwise, the situation may easily devolve into ‘blaming the worker’, in which the blame is easily misdirected even to well-performing workers. Such disruptive conflicts within work communities in the hospitality sector in general have been pointed out in other studies (e.g. Ariza-Montes et al., 2017). In the second round of interviews years later, which looked back at the restaurant in focus in Article I, the interviewees emphasised that such conflicts must be solved because bad attitudes are contagious and have the potential to ruin the whole work community in terms of well-being and productivity.

When managing well-being at work in restaurants, it should be kept in mind that the workers are diverse and work with different contracts and statuses, as discussed in Article II. There was a strong indication of differences between the groups of surveyed temporary workers. The most committed were the groups of workers closest to the position of permanent full-time work. Salary and security from continuing the work relationship were identified as the main reasons for work commitment, as shown in Article II. Of the two types of temporary agency workers, neither was satisfied with acting as supplementary workers. This confirmed the results of Hünefeld et al. (2020), who showed that the job satisfaction of temporary agency workers was less than that of full-time workers, but the relation was neither consistent nor explained in detail. However, the variances found in this study within the temporary agency worker groups can explain this inconsistent relationship. When job requirements were also considered regarding the levels of commitment among different worker groups, significant differences between the worker groups emerged. Job requirements affect every commitment type among worker groups differently. Adding to the results of this study, Escortell et al. (2020) found that even the incomplete combination of dimensions, such as intellectual stimulation, highly individualised consideration and an idealised influence, were sufficient to increase job satisfaction and then commitment of full-time workers. At the same time, however, temporary agency workers need all dimensions combined to have high job satisfaction and commitment. The less a temporary agency worker was in
contact with a temporary agency, the less committed the worker felt to the agency. The conclusions of Article II, combined with the results of studies by Burrni and Pedaci (2014) and Chambel and Sobral (2019), indicate that no commitment is expected in one way or another between the workers and the agencies. Furthermore, workers from every TAW group valued their immediate workplaces more than the agency that had listed them.

Article III focused on the complex nature of OSH and several deficiencies arising in multiemployer work environments where TAW is regularly used. Different kinds of traditional risks and hazards associated with the type of work were also found, which threatened the safety and health of the workers but also showed that at an individual level, agency workers are often in a more vulnerable position than permanent workers regarding OSH matters. Other threats to restaurant workers’ health were associated with work opportunities that were closely related to the socio-cultural conditions prevailing in workers’ lives (night living, alcohol consumption and the nature of multiemployer environment problems related to triangular employment). Article III highlighted that sustainable management of OSH is likely to require an understanding of the cultural, psychosocial, and socio-economic elements that affect the work community. If left unchecked, the consequences can be manifold, affecting not only an individual’s mental and physical health but also the work community. Similar, but not as comprehensive, results from this viewpoint were found in the research of Hünfeld et al. (2020), who examined job satisfaction and mental health among agency workers. The findings of this study supplement the results of Golubovskaya’s team (2017), who studied the challenges that confront frontline workers from the perspective of emotional strain. They are in constant contact with customers and need to restrict their behaviour in a professional way, often causing psychosocial discomfort. Article III emphasised that psychosocial discomfort must also be considered from the OSH management perspective.

TAW reflects a broader trend of precariousness, increasingly contingent work and lack of influence on workers’ own affairs (Bertolini, 2020; Rasmussen et al., 2019). Articles III and IV concluded that in terms of influencing the agencies that have the most influence on defining the employment relationship, both user companies (restaurants) and workers have limited opportunities. Balliester and Elsheikh (2018) concur in highlighting the reduced legal protections and decreased bargaining power of agency workers. Article III considered these circumstances from the OSH perspective and observed that they functioned as determinants of employment choices and possibilities for agency workers and therefore had an
effect on their work-life balance, as well as on holistic well-being. Also, user companies and agencies often intentionally or unintentionally neglect their OSH responsibilities. This was also demonstrated in Article IV. Defective communication channels influence the communication processes of the involved actors, increasing the uncertainty of OSH and its operating models. These findings supplement the results of Kauhanen and Nätty (2015), who studied the partition of disfavoured agency workers from the more fortunate permanent workers.

However, it is possible to overcome the challenges to OSH arising from the work environment and social environment of restaurants because restaurants are rather simple working environments, as are the work tasks performed in them. At the same time, restaurants are also customer-oriented and labour-intensive, which can make the involved tasks difficult. Also, as pointed out in Article I, the leadership and challenges associated with the need to overcome the prevailing cultural factors of restaurant work that affect OSH also limit the nature of interactions. Furthermore, as presented in Article III, these ensure that relationships operate under unspoken rules and remain superficial. These deficient cultural factors could be called a ‘culture of silence’. Responsible managers must try to influence these factors. Articles II, III and IV discussed the participation and commitment of workers in restaurant work as being limited by socioeconomic factors. Therefore, many workers search for more secure, better-paying jobs, and this is especially the case for agency workers. This means the remaining workers are less experienced, trained and motivated, and they might not be properly aware of the issues of OSH, responsibility and sustainability. Because agency workers are often less experienced and their abilities to confront a challenging customer are lacking compared with the restaurant’s own workers, agency workers need organisational-level steps to ensure their OSH in these situations (porter availability, not working alone, ‘panic button’ to bring security on site).

Due to the time when this study took place, the challenging situation of the COVID-19 pandemic came up constantly, even though attention was not directed, especially to it. Managers tried to cope with the challenging situation by relieving the uncertainty of workers and increasing their motivation, well-being at work and the ability to cope by finding flexible work processes that lowered the risks to their health and increased job security. The importance of managers’ knowledge and skills in special situations, such as the pandemic, was emphasised by Giousmpasoglou et al. (2021). As a conclusion of the assessment of the situation and the results of Giousmpasoglou et al. (2021), the role of the manager has grown in the work-life balance of the workers, and managers have been required to go to
great lengths to ensure the OSH and well-being of their staff and even other stakeholders, such as suppliers, other operators in multiemployer workplaces and the customers.

5.2 Actors and stakeholders influencing CSR in TAW

There was evidence in Articles III and IV that some of the agencies as well as other actors involved in TAW were not sufficiently aware of the existing regulations or knew them but chose to act against them, thus failing to follow the core principles of CSR to secure and develop the well-being of staff and other stakeholders. When the realisation of CSR in TAW was examined from the agency and user company’s points of view, it seemed they had been overwhelmed by economic incentives and related pressure. This is not surprising. For instance, Bohle et al. (2017) discussed the dominance of economic incentives in the competitive and profit-driven restaurant business. Similarly, Strauss-Raats (2019) found little evidence of any actors of TAW being unaware of their obligations, but the pursuit of economic gain overruled the application of this knowledge. Similar instances were found in Articles III and IV that economic pursuit seems to be the main reason for not complying with the principles of CSR.

Going further from the studies of Bohle et al. (2017) and Strauss-Raats (2019), Articles III and IV point out that, often in TAW, economic incentives dictate operational models. Furthermore, the individuals responsible for making decisions are often alienated from the reality of everyday operations, leaving them slow to react and indifferent towards workers. Therefore, the social points of restaurant and agency businesses should not be ignored. Social issues stood out, especially regarding temporary work arrangements and OSH implementation. Issues such as communication matters and the awareness of responsibilities were highlighted, whereas work arrangements were critically discussed based on the uncertainties from the regulatory point of view, the complex nature of flexibility and challenges of new workers entering work communities. Similar challenges, which arose from the results of Article III, were also present from the perspective of well-being at work in Article I.

Generally, the organisational and functional points of TAW need more consideration. For example, communication and collaboration between different actors need to be improved. Unfortunately, it became evident that there were actors in user companies and agencies who did not pursue good CSR while also trying to bypass regulations for their own gain. Circumventing CSR intensifies and distorts
competition and leads to pressures that make it harder for responsible agencies and user companies to maintain their responsible and sustainable conduct. In relation to the previous research, Article IV supplements the findings that Forde and Slater (2016) presented in their comprehensive review. Particularly in this thesis, partnerships between user companies and agencies supplemented with their complex contract arrangements are criticised. As shown in Article IV, the development of partnerships is taken even further by so-called worker pools. In light of the views of the agencies in Article IV, the objective of these worker pools and other partnerships seems to be to bind the user company ever tighter to the agency to ensure economic profit and the continuity of these customer relationships. It can be speculated whether this development is also intended to weaken the position of the worker. This might represent one manifestation of new and emerging ways to avoid regulation in TAW (e.g. Knox, 2018).

Articles III and IV discuss the importance of the role of the authorities in relation to the three actors. It was seen how an impaired relationship results in a situation in which the most powerful actor of the relationship begins to behave strongly in pursuit of their self-interest, while simultaneously neglecting the OHS and well-being at work of the other actors. As a reflection on this, the position and role of the authority must be emphasised, as they are the stakeholders who can and should improve these regulatory relationships by developing legislation and overseeing its fulfilment, for example doing inspection visits. Authorities have oversight relationships with all three actors and regulation relationship with their mutual relationships. Regulatory relationship meaning that authorities regulate the relationships between the actors by defining the rules of the interaction, negating the possibility for abuse. The oversight relationship means the authority monitoring the actor and its compliance to set regulations. It should be noted that the resources for inspections are quite limited, as the estimated number of monitored workplaces in Finland is about 250,000 and OSH Administration in Finland did 20,500 inspections in the year 2021 (Occupational Safety and Health Administration in Finland, 2022), so more intense monitoring would require additional resources.

To supplement the triangular relationship concept of Håkansson and Isidorsson (2016), this study suggests adding a fourth actor to this complexity. As decision makers, government authorities should be positioned at the centre of the operating environment of TAW. The role of the authorities and related regulation and oversight relationships should be acknowledged, as summarised in Figure 5.
5.3 Key findings of the research questions

The objective of this thesis was to holistically examine the undesirable characteristics hindering the emergence of sustainable work in TAW in multiemployer restaurant work environments. In this holistic examination, leadership was first considered (Article I). Then, in Article II, the impact of the employment relationship on motivation and well-being at work was examined, while in Article III, a sociotechnical, system-level analysis was conducted to increase the understanding of the underlying reasons for insufficient OSH performance in TAW. Finally, in Article IV, the relationships between actor groups and authorities were examined from the CSR perspective. To meet the research objectives of this thesis, four RQs were presented. The key findings answering these RQs are summarised in Table 6.
Table 6. Summary of the key findings of this compilation thesis.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>RQ</th>
<th>Research question</th>
<th>Article</th>
<th>Key findings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>RQ1</td>
<td>How do leadership deficiencies hinder the well-being of all workers in restaurant work?</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>Well-being at work is a holistic combination of individual and work-related activities in which leadership plays a significant role as an enabler or works against the well-being of a restaurant.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RQ2</td>
<td>How does the employment relationship affect the mutual commitment and well-being of workers with restaurant employers?</td>
<td>II</td>
<td>Full-time workers are the most committed, and they expect reciprocity. Agency workers’ commitment varies depending on their role, and they consider the restaurant their real employer.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RQ3</td>
<td>How do the occupational safety and health-related issues of an agency work emerge in multiemployer restaurants?</td>
<td>III</td>
<td>The triangular employment relationship in TAW is a challenge from the OSH management perspective. Actors can either intentionally or unintentionally neglect their responsibilities concerning OSH. The role of the authorities should be highlighted.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RQ4</td>
<td>How is CSR realised in temporary agency work in the restaurant context from the perspectives of the actors?</td>
<td>IV</td>
<td>There is a wide variety in the competence and awareness of responsibilities among the actors in TAW, and their roles may be vague. Economic pressures are the driver behind regulatory avoidance.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Briefly, as a combined answer for further research objectives from all the articles, each of the actors of TAW has its own agendas, mostly driven by economic pursuits. In addition to economic factors, other incentives are needed for all actors. They are most easily found between the user company and the worker, as they are inextricably linked. Also, decision makers and influencers need to be included more deeply than before, as without deeper actor and stakeholder collaboration, it may not be realistically possible to come up with sustainable solutions that will benefit everyone over the long run. On well-being at work, a holistic and wider perspective that extends beyond work-related factors would be beneficial for workers’ well-being. When considered from this holistic perspective, employers should consider the cultural and socioeconomic factors in and around restaurants, differences in
relations with the temporary agency and actual workplaces of the workers and differences in the attitudes of different worker groups.

5.4 Practical contributions

This study contributes to existing modes of operation in the restaurant industry on several levels. Insights from this study can be used to help target, plan and apply measures to increase well-being at work, commitment to work and productivity of workers, as well as the sustainability and profitability of restaurants. The challenging nature and diversity of CSR and TAW in restaurants and constantly evolving strategies to avoid regulation while using TAW were also revealed in this study. This thesis shows the need to revise current regulations and policies to ensure that the principles of CSR are fulfilled from the perspective of employees’ well-being. Such actions require the co-operation of all the involved actors of TAW, agencies, user companies and representatives of the workers, which is of course complicated by all the power relationships existing between the actors.

At the workplace level, this study identified certain issues related to TAW and OSH. These findings should be acknowledged while seeking sustainable possibilities to improve OSH in TAW and other forms of NSE. Without depending on the form of work, the right to work safely should be considered a human right (ILO, 2009). As demonstrated in this thesis, agency workers are often in a more vulnerable position than others. Hence, the need for OSH development actions is evident. As shown in this thesis, user companies and agencies also have shortcomings in their HR practices, which they need to develop, preferably together with the workers, to enable sustainable TAW, well-being of workers and productivity. At the social level, this study shows that TAW defines employment choices and possibilities, as well as other life choices of workers and has an impact on both their OSH risks as well as health risks outside the work.

The dual perspective of well-being at work as a holistic combination of work-level and individual-level activities presented by Reiman and Väyrynen (2018) received much confirmation throughout this study. The dual perspective regarded in the articles of this thesis should also be considered within the context of TAW when considering the different worker groups and their various attitudes and relationships to commitment and job requirements. Consideration of these issues will help give direction to the use and magnitude of TAW. This kind of holistic viewpoint also greatly expands the results of Huertas-Valdivia et al. (2018), which emphasised the long-term employment potential during the hiring process and the
importance of assigning workers suitable responsibilities and compensating their work input fairly. In contrast to the results of Article I regarding Huertes-Valvidia et al.’s (2018) emphasising on traditional upward career development, the Article I presented gaining specific experience of the different functions of the restaurant and opportunities to promote one’s labour market value as ‘horizontal career development’.

5.4.1 Means to increase workers’ well-being in restaurant work

For this study to be useful, practical and relevant for everyday working life in restaurants where TAW is a constant practice, this chapter draws together the identified deficiencies and discusses corrective alternatives.

Article I discussed the importance of competent top management, as well as open communication inside the work community, as key features of the successful operation of any restaurant. As the restaurant in focus was small, it was considered good to maintain a low-hierarchy management structure to encourage open communication processes. Having all the members of the work community in proximity and available for face-to-face interactions was considered the most efficient way to share information and give and receive feedback. Sharing decision-making with many responsible persons within the work community was also considered an efficient solution for enhancing the speed of decision-making and sharing information.

Second, Article I discussed small and low-hierarchical unit sizes being more flexible when appointing work tasks and sharing responsibilities. It is important that the workers know what anyone else is doing at any moment, so any worker can fill in for any other worker at any moment if necessary. This also emerged in Article III when discussing agency workers. In contrast, small unit sizes brought challenges to career advancement due to limited opportunities and a low hierarchical structure. One way to overcome size limitations is for workers to gain additional expertise by learning many of the restaurant’s functions and tasks.

Third, personnel relations must be considered important. If a worker is not a good fit for the restaurant, the worker might inflame the whole restaurant and thus have a huge impact on the well-being of the entire work community. This point was considered in Articles I and III. To avoid any problems, it would be best for managers not to decide to hire new workers without consulting current employees.

Fourth, the responsibility of managers and mutual trust are vital factors for the success of any restaurant, as seen in the discussions in Article I from the restaurant
management perspective and in Article IV from the CSR perspective. Managers need to pay attention to relevant details and be concerned about the reputation of their restaurant and its performance beyond what is expected of them. They also need to care for and trust their workers and consider their fair treatment and well-being paramount to the success of their restaurant. Dedicated managers can choose their operating models and adjust them when necessary, making the operations of their restaurants flexible.

Fifth, workers could use their special talents for the restaurant outside working hours, for compensation, of course. Restaurant managers could support workers’ work-related hobbies, such as participating in drink-making contests. Another practical way to increase mutual involvement beyond work is for the restaurant and workers to agree upon certain opportunities for personnel discounts for restaurant products and thus broaden the perspective of workers by turning them into customers as well. However, this can lead to harmful effects, such as alcohol abuse; therefore, careful consideration is needed. All the extra-work activities support communality and can be an important factor in well-being at work. The effectiveness of this practice was presented in Articles I and III and is backed by social exchange theory (Rousseau, 1989). Thus, reciprocity in this arrangement may not be realised in TAW to a sufficient extent.

Sixth, well-working OSH arrangements that are better than the minimum required by law are evidence that the employer really cares about the well-being of the workers, which inspires reciprocity. Again, however, TAW is in a precarious position regarding this point, which was noted in Articles I, III and IV.

Seventh, temporary agencies could gain more influence and importance in the eyes of the temporary agency workers by taking better account of the attitudes and well-being of the workers and paying more attention to the relations with the workers and user-companies, as seen in Articles I, II, III and IV.

Eighth, Article II suggests that an idealistic way to increase the commitment and well-being of agency workers at work would be to regularise their employment relationships and then make their roles clearer and more sensible. Also, they should be given more control over their work. Sobral et al. (2021) advanced these goals by adding the importance of motivating workers but did not give any practical advice on how this could be done. This study corrects this shortcoming. However, there were indications in Articles III and IV that, often in practice, all these goals are forgotten. However, there are some advantages to using temporary and agency workers, mainly the opportunity to evaluate potential candidates for recruitment, and sometimes they bring new perspectives and knowhow, as deliberated in Article
I. Unfortunately, Articles III and IV showed that agency workers often fall outside the scope of the measures intended to increase well-being at work and sustainability.

Ninth, the cultural factors and socially intensiveness of restaurant work should be taken account and prevent the emerging ‘culture of silence’ as mentioned in the Article III. Supportive and open work culture helps TAW workers adapt to job in question, as noted in the Article I and commit better as discussed in the Article II.

Tenth and last, as highlighted in Articles I and III, in restaurant work, the line between free time and work is often blurred. Non-work and work-related factors have often been treated separately, as Schulte and Vainio (2010) and later Reiman and Väyrynen (2018) pointed out. This supposedly corresponds to the limited possibilities for employers to influence the actions of workers outside working hours and can easily be considered an intrusion of workers’ privacy. This work–leisure paradigm and the limits of the measures must be carefully considered, as discussed, for instance, by Lund and Hovden (2003) and Smith et al. (2022.)

5.5 Theoretical contributions and recommendations for future research

This thesis supplements existing knowledge on TAW from the perspective of a holistic mixed-methods approach. TAW is a very topical subject in current working life discussions, in practice (Confederation of Finnish Industries, 2018; Eurostat, 2014; MaRa, 2018) and in science (Akkerman et al., 2020; Imhof & Andresen, 2018; Strauss-Raats, 2019; Vanroelen, 2019). A mixed-methods approach combining qualitative and quantitative data allowed this area to be examined holistically. Imhof and Andresen (2018) and van Rossenberg et al. (2018) proposed in their reviews that future research be focused on one type of temporary work (in this thesis, agency work) at a time, as more research is needed on the features of temporary employment relationships, equal treatment of temporary and agency workers and the heterogeneity of temporary work. This restaurant-focused study is a direct answer to their proposal, and it took on this challenge and confirmed the heterogeneity of TAW and found many challenges in the treatment of agency workers. This thesis also sheds light on the diverse use of the term ‘temporary work’. Furthermore, this thesis adds new understanding of the roles of different key actors in this complex relationship between the employer, user company, worker and other stakeholders. This thesis recommends adding the role of authority to the triangular relationship model of Håkansson and Isidorsson (2016), as highlighted in Figure 5.
This thesis complements the existing literature mentioned above and suggests topics for further study as each article opens good possibilities, drawing from the subject at hand. Some of the topics concern rectifying the limitations of these articles. One of these is for more interviews to be conducted among workers and restaurants that vary in type and size. The poor starting situation in Article I suggests a potential future research topic: restaurants with problems related to employee well-being should not be analysed in isolation. It would be good to learn from the processes and practices of work communities in which well-being at work is high. This same principle can also be applied to OSH in restaurants and TAW; it would be beneficial to research the factors that have enabled the realisation and development of a well-performing OSH and, in this way, shift the focus of research away from problems to successes. Future research in this area could contribute to an ongoing debate on Safety I and II theory, which was presented by Hollnagel (2013, 2018).

Based on the findings of Article II and the pre-existing research on the links between well-being at work and productivity, it would be possible to examine and consider how to initiate a change to a more sustainable and responsible TAW. Working regularly through an agency, with a focus on its legitimacy and CSR, is worth a study of its own, as would be a study of the impact of agency workers and their turnover on productivity, sustainability and worker commitment and well-being at work of the user companies. From the CSR viewpoint, a more serious take on CSR is needed by all actors, especially by user companies and agencies, to rectify the complexity of the CSR challenges of TAW in restaurant work. Also, more research attention should be paid to the power relations of the actors and the role of the authorities. The readjustment of restaurants in response to the persistence of the pandemic and other crises has shone a light on the need to develop ‘new normal’ working processes that account for all the points of well-being at work, OSH and CSR. The new working processes would open completely new ways of working in restaurants and utilising TAW.

Ordinarily, temporary workers cannot match the requirements and performance of permanent employees, which is a clear challenge for productivity and warrants further research. At the same time there is seemingly contradictory situation of labour shortage (Ministry of Economic Affairs and Employment, 2022) and full-time employment for workers being difficult to obtain or being increasingly unavailable, while they are forced into other work forms, such as temporary agency work. This developmental trend was addressed by Imhof and Andresen (2018) and Escortell et al. (2020). Temporary agency work and other forms of NSE continue
to become more common to outsource staffing costs, challenges and responsibility. Deep and thorough research on the subject area would pave the way for many possibilities for development projects, such as talent retention and attraction studies.

5.6 Evaluation of the research

The underlying framework for a well-performed research study requires critical reflection and justification. Beyond this requirement, this thesis takes into account the necessities of mixed method research. While conducting the research, attention was paid to the technically correct implementation of the qualitative and quantitative components. Mixed methods research, like any research, must be linked to the research questions, be precise about the design of the study, be transparent and have a justification for the choice of methods used (Halcomb, 2019). Stenfors et al. (2020) gave the following criteria: credibility, dependability, confirmability, transferability and reflexivity, which were followed to recognise and evaluate some of the essential characteristics of the research. Because this thesis used a mixed-methods approach, triangulation criteria (Carter et al., 2014) were also considered in the evaluation of the study.

Credibility means that the research findings are trustworthy and plausible. There is a direct line and connection between base theory, research questions of the articles, data collection, analysis and results. The research process followed this line and at each stage, its relationship to others as well as the impact of its content on other contents were considered. The frameworks and theories used were evaluated and carefully selected to best fit the subjects of the study. Choosing the framework set the criteria for the sampling strategy, the volume and depth of data, the analysis steps taken and the form in which the results were presented. This also fulfilled the criterion of theory triangulation (Carter et al., 2014). Both quantitative and qualitative methods were used to ensure that the results represented information drawn from the original data and delivered a proper interpretation of the views of the participants. Other researchers revised the analysis, thus reducing potential biases related to subjectivism. These steps ensured that the criterion of investigator triangulation was fulfilled (Carter et al., 2014).

Dependability is the extent to which the study could be repeated under similar conditions. Many researchers have used these research methods and frameworks and proved them to be functional. As a methodological tool, applying the CWEQ-II as an interview instead of a questionnaire was a strength. This provided more information without the limitations of a survey, as the interviewees were able to
add important aspects. To increase reliability, the entire research team of each article cross-checked the results. However, another researcher could follow the same research path and procedural steps and possibly reach different conclusions. This is always a risk in research, especially in qualitative research. Each of the articles contains sufficient information to remake the research process, so there is less possibility of error and a greater chance for other researchers to reach the same results. This fulfilled the criterion of data source triangulation (Carter et al., 2014).

Confirmability is the assessment of whether there is a clear link or relationship between the findings and the data. The findings followed the path set by the frameworks and methods, and the results were established through detailed descriptions of the examined phenomena, while actual quotes from the text were used to elicit the essential content of the results. A significant number of recognisable sources were used to establish authenticity and credibility for the research, as well as the possibility for the research to be replicated. This fulfilled the criterion of method triangulation (Carter et al., 2014).

Transferability is the consideration of whether the findings can be transferred to another context, setting or group. Each of the articles described the subjects, context and environment in which the research was conducted and how it shaped or could possibly have had an effect on the results.

Reflexivity is the continual process of examining the stance of the researcher and the context of the research. Ethical considerations were important, and they were done for this research. The project, which centred mainly on Articles III and IV, was approved in fall 2020 by the Human Sciences Ethics Committee of the Helsinki Region Universities of Applied Sciences. The committee’s deliberations on Articles I and II were not considered necessary. While conducting the research, the principles of good research ethics were followed, based on the Finnish National Board on Research Integrity and the General Data Protection Regulation (TENK; EU, 2016/679). The ethics of this research were evaluated during the research process. One reason for this was the differences in the views of the participants and the deeper meanings and goals behind them. The research could not be altered to deliver just the most vocal review, but to find the hidden outcome to the fullest extent.

5.7 Limitations

When considering the results and analyses, it would be good to acknowledge the following aspects as limitations of this study. The first limiting factor in the
conducting of this study was that the subject evoked strong feelings among the actors and stakeholders and everyone was pushing their own point of view very strongly. Even then, the principle of neutrality was followed as closely as humanly possible. There are large and influential organisations behind both employers and workers, each trying to get their voices heard over the other. Employers involved in TAW wanted to present it in a positive light; therefore, all the challenges were neglected and belittled. The interest groups of the workers, in turn, tended to overestimate the challenges of TAW and focused only on the downsides, deflecting many of the positive aspects and possibilities of TAW. The public does not always know or want to use the relevant source criticality on the TAW presented by either side, which may explain why the problems faced by agency workers have not been addressed more effectively.

The second limiting factor was the ‘culture of silence’ that prevails in many restaurants. Many workers who were asked to participate in the surveys and interviews declined; only about one-fourth agreed. This also poses a challenge for evaluating representativeness, because the voices of different worker groups could be left unheard. Challenges also arose during the interviews. Workers were meticulous and guarded in their statements and hinted at much, but they did not say many things directly. They were concerned about their future work opportunities. This led to further limitations in the sample.

The third limiting factor was that participants had to be chosen based on their willingness to respond, and the sample was limited to agency workers who were currently working, and the number of viewed organisations was small. Also, male participants were slightly overrepresented. Particularly in Article I, all the interviewees in the second round of interviews were male. Nevertheless, for a study concerning the TAW of restaurants in Finland, the responses can be accepted as sufficient. This compares favourably with the European Working Conditions Survey (EWCS), which collected the responses of 28,042 workers from 30 European countries and received responses from only 380 agency workers, and that was all industries combined (Hakanen et al., 2019). Another limiting factor for the sample was that the restaurants in this study were all similar pubs, gastropubs and a lunch diner; fast food restaurants or cafeterias were not included. These limitations of the sample should be considered when generalising the results.

The fourth limiting point was locality, as the study was conducted in only one country, Finland. However, the themes (TAW, restaurant work and CSR) of this study are shared globally. Even then, it is important to acknowledge that Finland and other Nordic countries are welfare states, and the general supposition is that
these counties have less precarious and contingent labour markets and work conditions than other countries. They are also more inclusive and egalitarian, with strong labour unions and decent wages (Rasmussen et al., 2019), and all the key parties are thought to share values and principles (Alasoini, 2012). The nature of these factors should be considered when transferring results to another area or context.

The different types of workers were a central part of this study, but it may also be unsuitable to bundle all forms of hospitality and restaurant work, regardless of the type of work contract, and some partition is necessary. The division was revealed by an examination of the workers’ commitments. The reason for this could be the different kinds of work within restaurants. This view gained support after dividing the workers by their workplaces. Work in bars and nightclubs, plus porter duties (normative commitment alpha .693), are mainly performed at night, while food service and cafeteria work (normative commitment alpha .066) are performed during the day. Bar, nightclub and porter work are also faster paced, and more customers are constantly in proximity. Another reason, which was deduced from the results, is the influence of pandemic conditions. Neither normative commitment nor continuance commitment makes sense or functions immediately after entering a new organisation or just before leaving an old one (Solinger et al., 2008). During the research, workers might have feared layoffs and leaving their work due to the pandemic situation.

As the thesis was also a learning process and to create new knowledge, the author decided to use many different methods to gain diverse expertise. Other reasons for the selected methods were the author’s and other collaborating researchers’ preferences and experiences and the practical limitations on the use of the method, such as accessibility of research subjects, timeframe, geographical distance and subjects’ limited access to computers for remote operations.
6 Conclusions

It is clear by now that restaurant employers are separate from temporary work agencies, even those that are operated in a multiemployer manner, so it is not simple to establish and follow common processes for HRM (including OSH) that suit both. The processes followed by temporary work agencies and restaurants differ since their core functions are different. Interests over the quality of the work have less importance to the agency, which only provides workers to restaurants. If a restaurant is not satisfied with a worker, it can simply replace one worker with another. In this transaction, the agency will get its fee regardless of the outcome, and the expenses of reduced productivity and the possible mistakes of incompetent workers are, in the end, borne by the restaurant. This might have worked well in the past, but now there is labour shortage rising rapidly and the aftermath of the pandemic. Companies are trying to readjust to the situation by reforming their strategies and investments in HRM, which opens possibilities for positive development.

Permanent full-time workers have the best situation, as they are at the core of their work organisation. They have the best job security, pay, benefits, work tasks and control over their work. In the case of layoffs, they are also the last to leave. Full-time workers also feel able to control and complete their work successfully. This feeling of control affects their attitude towards their work and how seriously they take responsibilities appointed to them. It seems that reasonable work requirements and the effort given by workers are linked to the expectations of workers about their continuing work relationships. In other words, they invest in their work and, in turn, expect it to continue.

Agency and temporary workers can easily be replaced and therefore their situation is more precarious. Belonging to the fringes of working life, they take jobs as they come, relying on the sentiment, which came up frequently in the literature: ‘Temporary agency work is a steppingstone to work life.’ Often, that is a misplaced hope, and the precarious situation continues indefinitely. Temporary and agency workers are forced to work and live with this uncertainty, and they do not get the security of continuing work and a steady income in their lives. This uncertainty also affects workers’ plans for the future. The fact that most workers’ come to temporary or agency work involuntarily and would prefer full-time work are the main reasons not to commit to temporary or agency work. However, there are some workers whose life situation and attitude appear to be conditioned towards temporary or
agency work, but, as shown in this thesis and in Article II, those people are a minority.

Full-time work seems to be increasingly harder to obtain, while workers are compelled to pursue other types of work, such as agency work. This is surprising when taking account the labour shortage situation. This situation generates several challenges, because the poorer well-being of agency workers impairs their performance and therefore affects the profits and sustainability of the company directly and indirectly. All types of workers consider the key issues to be in their commitment to work, reciprocity with the employer, ability to control their work, a clear position at work and reasonable and clear expectations about their role in the work community. As expected, precariousness and contingency were strongly present in TAW, and agency workers were in weaker positions than full-time workers. Even though restaurants in Finland have a good basis for HRM and CSR activities, according to numerous previous studies from around the world, it seems that the situation is not much different in Finland than elsewhere but has different tones.

Both the agencies and any user company of TAW can easily ruin their reputation as respected entrepreneurs and trustworthy employers if they circumvent laws and regulations. This thesis shows that various opportunities exist for such behaviour when engaging TAW at a restaurant. Fortunately, the sham contracts mentioned in the literature were not found in the data of this thesis. The importance of a good employer image was understood by the responsible companies in this study, and most of the viewed restaurants and agencies followed this principle. A big challenge from the viewpoint of CSR is how financial gain and the well-being of workers, including temporary and agency workers, can be attended to simultaneously. Many of the identified challenges in this study seemed common to all the actors in TAW; however, when examined more deeply, the workers were usually in the weakest positions.

The challenges concerning TAW are wide and multidimensional, and there are many perspectives and determinants for solving them. A more serious take on CSR is needed by the actors, especially by user companies and agencies, to rectify the challenges related to TAW in restaurant work. At the workplace level, user companies and agencies also need to improve their HR practices to enable the sustainable and responsible use of TAW, preferably together with workers. Also, the government needs to take a more proactive role in correcting shortcomings in legislation and supervision concerning TAW because agencies and restaurant owners might be reluctant to make some changes. Unfortunately, authorities are
quite passive due the resource situation in regulating and monitoring TAW’s operating environment, or they lack the means to do so effectively. This all proves that most important thing would be acknowledging the need of development of cooperation between all actors.

One way to solve the challenges of TAW is to loosen the boundaries between the involved employers, which would mean taking a step back to traditional ways of employing and working. Another approach to the challenges is to improve the existing co-operation practices of user companies and agencies to develop better practices for restaurants and other user companies when utilising TAW, while increasing the CSR, well-being of workers and productivity. Managers wishing to increase workers’ well-being at work, commitment, company sustainability and productivity and lower worker turnover must make temporary or agency workers regular workers if there is a real and constant need for labour and consider the wishes of the workers for the continuance of work and fairness. Managers know their restaurants’ features, so they can take appropriate steps to increase the commitment of the workers by directing the measures affecting the job requirements for the targeted worker group. These measures rely on the expertise of the managers and depend on the specific circumstances of every restaurant. One possible measure is to decrease constant and disruptive worker mobility between tasks (job hopping) and give workers more control over their work. Including workers in decision-making about their work would be beneficial because workers know the actual factors and challenges of their job best.

A final conclusion of this study is that well-being at work is a combination of holistic work-level and individual activities; consequently, the boundary between work and leisure often blurs. However, non-work and work factors are dealt with separately. This study concluded that this is related to the limited opportunities for employers to influence the activities of workers outside of working hours. This leads further to the conclusion that well-being at work is part of a wider context and that measures to improve the well-being of workers extend not only to work-related factors but also to the general life satisfaction of workers, forming a dual perspective on well-being at work and productivity. This view should also be considered from the OSH and CSR perspectives and from the perspective of temporary and agency workers when considering the different worker groups and their different relations to job requirements and commitment.
References


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