



Employment condition differences based on gender: A case of adventure tourism employees in Gauteng, South Africa

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Abstract

Previous studies show evidence of gender discrepancies in tourism employment, usually to the disadvantage of the women. The tourism industry is notorious for having unfavourable employment conditions, ranging from long working hours, part time or seasonal employment and low-skill jobs. This study sought to find if men and women employed within the adventure tourism industry experienced these conditions based on their gender. The research adopted a quantitative methodology to enable statistical representation of findings. Data was collected by means of a self-completion survey which was published online and also handed out to adventure tourism employees in Gauteng. STATA-V13 was the statistical package used to analyse findings of the study. An Exploratory Factor Analysis and fisher's exact tests were conducted. The EFA clustered 8 factors, namely; Intrinsic factors, extrinsic factors, labour relations, health and safety, employment relations, remuneration, physical equipment and basic conditions. The surprising finding was that adventure tourism employees in Gauteng did not experience varying employment conditions because of their gender. Owing to a paucity in literature, sources used for secondary data were extracted from the wider tourism and hospitality industry, while primary data was collected from adventure tourism employees.

Keywords: gender, woman empowerment, adventure, tourism, employment conditions, South Africa

Introduction

In many industries, including the tourism and hospitality industry, employees of different genders in are not faced with the same employment conditions (Lub, Bijvank, Bal, Blomme & Schalk, 2012:553). Moghadam (2015:367) cites that not only are women more prone to be employed in low-paying jobs, but are also subjected to part-time and temporary work. Thus the status of women in the tourism and hospitality industry has been a concern among both management practitioners as well as academics (Pinar, Mccuddy, Birkan, & Kozak, 2011:73).



Alonso-Almeida (2012:344) cites that in Morocco, North Africa, despite government efforts to use tourism as a poverty alleviation tool, women are still not prominent in entrepreneurial activity and are most likely to be employed under men who hold superior positions. A study conducted on the Numbi Community (which resides near the Pretoriuskop Rest Camp in the Kruger National Park) that in this community, a huge part of which is employed within the protected area, men have higher salaries than women (Spenceley & Goodwin, H. 2007:262). This is concurrent with Small, Harris, Wilson & Ateljevic, (2011:25) who cited that although the number of women in the labour market continues to grow, they are still under paid and underrepresented in high-earning jobs when compared to men.

De Beer (2011:2) states that the South African adventure tourism industry is one of the fastest growing industries and contributes to employment opportunities. With this in mind, the importance of human capital in the adventure tourism industry cannot be over emphasised, as employees are essential to the successful delivery of good quality services (Baum, 2007:1). However, according to De Beer, Rogerson and Rogerson (2014:1), there is a general lack of research that has investigated the core issues affecting the employees who drive the tourism industry, hence employment conditions in adventure tourism are scarcely researched.

Researchers have alluded to the fact that tourism can contribute to efforts of poverty alleviation (Gartner & Cukier, 2012:1). However, the potential of tourism to play part in to promoting gender equality and empower women has received minimal attention (Ferguson, 2011:1). Alonso-Almeida (2013:2) reveals that the employment conditions of females are not the same as males. Based on these findings, it was of interest to researcher to investigate if there were such differences in the adventure tourism industry in Gauteng.

According to Burger and Woolard (2005:454), since 1994, the labour market in South Africa has been fundamentally reformed through the introduction of a range of laws primarily aimed at protecting all workers. South African labour law is concerned with the attainment of fairness not only for both the employers and employees, but for employees of different genders as well (Vettori, 2012b:101). A number of acts were passed to ensure this fairness.

Booyesen (2007:47) underlines that first attempts to achieve greater social justice and equality and to redress past unfair discrimination in employment were the result of the Labour Relations Act of 1995, which took effect in 1996. This was followed by the Basic Conditions of Employment Act (BCEA) of 1997 (amended in 2004) and subsequently, by the Skills Development Act of 1998. Under these laws, employment relations in South Africa have undergone major changes since the emergence of democracy (Horwitz, 2005:26). It was of interest to the researcher to find if the employment conditions of adventure tourism industry were in line with these laws.

Employment conditions in tourism

Research shows that employment conditions often differ among men and women (Bobbitt-Zeher, 2011:2). Previous studies have documented gender disparities in wages as well as managerial positions (England 2010:1). The Republic of South Africa established legislation, such as the Employment Equity Act and the Basic Conditions of Employment Act, both of 1998, to counter gender based disparities in the workplace. Despite this legislation, gender discrimination continues to bar progress, specifically for women in the country (Hansen, 2012:21).

In adventure tourism globally, like the rest of the tourism industry, human resource studies are poorly conceptualized (Baum & Szivas, 2008:2). Similarly, little research has been done on the adventure tourism industry in South Africa (Govindasamy, 2013:50). It should then be noted that owing to limited literature resources, the information presented in this article will be



inclusive of research pertaining to employment conditions within the tourism and hospitality industry globally.

Tourism is undoubtedly an important generator of jobs (Ladkin, 2011:1; Sharpley & Vass, 2006:2). Internationally, the tourism industry offers a highly fragmented economic activity and a range of direct and indirect employment opportunities (Obadić & Marić, 2009:2; Bowitz & Ibenholt, 2009:2; Goodwin, 2007:5). The international tourism industry directly provides approximately 3% of global employment, or 192 million jobs, the equivalent of 1 in every 12 formal sector jobs (Ladkin, 2011:1). Employment issues in the tourism industry are being examined by a growing number of tourism researchers (De Beer; 2011:9). Liu and Wall (2006), Ladkin (2011), Baum (2007), Lundmark (2006) and Janta (2011) are a few published researchers who have investigated the issue of tourism employment. Studies reveal that tourism employment, including adventure-tourism employment, are often to be low-paid, low-skilled, monotonous, highly-pressurised, part-time and seasonal, not family friendly, as well as involve poor working conditions and possess poor management and career structures (Janta, 2011:3).

In light of these findings, the purpose of this study is to determine if similar differences in employment conditions can be noted among the adventure tourism employees in Gauteng. The researcher sought to find if the general unpleasant pre-noted employment conditions such as part time employment with long working hours and low salaries, varied according to gender among adventure tourism employees in Gauteng

Theory on employment conditions

Employment conditions is a concept which refers to the wide range of factors that contribute to the overall working environment (Baum, 2007:124). Kleynhans, Markham, Meyer, Van Aswegen & Pilbeam (2007:4) further state that these are the conditions under which people work and include their safety and their comfort as well as the attitudes of managers and their treatment of employees.

Internationally, there are theories that have been developed to evaluate employment conditions. One such theory is Herzberg's two-factor theory. Herzberg proposed a two-factor theory to assess how employees relate to their work (Robbins, Odendaal & Roodt, 2009:133). For this study, Herzberg's two-factor theory was chosen because it has been used by a number of academics and is effective in assessing employee motivation, job satisfaction and employment conditions (Tan & Waheed, 2011:75). No studies that used Herzberg's theory for adventure tourism could be found; however, studies by Worlu and Chidozie (2012) and Hyun and Oh (2011) examined Herzberg's theory and found it effective.

Lundberg, Gudmundson and Andersson (2009:891) highlight that Herzberg's influential need theory of the 1960s, the two-factor theory, suggests that humans have two different sets of needs, and the different elements of their employment satisfies or dissatisfies these needs. These are labelled as hygiene factors and motivators (Furnham, Eracleous & Chamorro-Premuzic, 2009:767). According to the Herzberg theory, employment conditions (encompassing physical working conditions, policy, remuneration and job security) fall under hygiene factors (Robbins, Odendaal & Roodt, 2009:133). Hygiene factors comprise the physiological, safety and love needs from Maslow's hierarchy of needs (Dartey-Baah & Amoako, 2011:3). These are factors that are not directly related to the job but the conditions that surround doing the job. Hygiene factors contribute to employee dissatisfaction if they are not met (Bassett-Jones & Lloyd, 2005:933).

Motivator factors relate directly to the job content; they are intrinsic to the job itself and comprise the employees' physiological need for growth and recognition (Wong & Heng,

2009:88). Dartey-Baah and Amoako (2011:2) cite that the absence of motivator factors does not prove highly dissatisfying, but the presence of these factors build strong levels of motivation that result in good job performance. Motivator factors are also called satisfiers, and these factors include achievement, recognition, advancement, the work itself, the possibility of personal growth and responsibility (Wong & Heng, 2009:88).

Many academics have used Herzberg’s two-factor theory to assess motivation and satisfaction among employees across different industries, including tourism (Hyun & Oh, 2011:108). Dartey-Baah and Amoako (2011:1) argue that Herzberg’s two-factor theory remains influential and forms the basis of good motivational practices in organisations today.

Gender discrepancies in South African employment

Globally, poverty has always been ore more prevalent among women than men Tucker and Boonabaana (2012:438). The well documented evidence of gender discrimination in employment, ranging from the prospect of finding work to salaries and promotion opportunities, could further perpetuate this (Kave & Kilic 2010: 289). This resulted in calls for gender equality to be integrated into intervention to reduce poverty and enhance development (Chant 2007, 67). South Africa takes interest in this, in effort to perform well in line with the third millennium development goal, which focuses on gender equality and the empowerment of women (STATSSA 2011:1). Although South Africa prides itself in having a 45% female representation in parliament, on the ground gender discrimination practices and stereotypes still persist (Statssa 2011: 7). A study by Statistics South Africa in 2011 revealed the following findings in this regard.

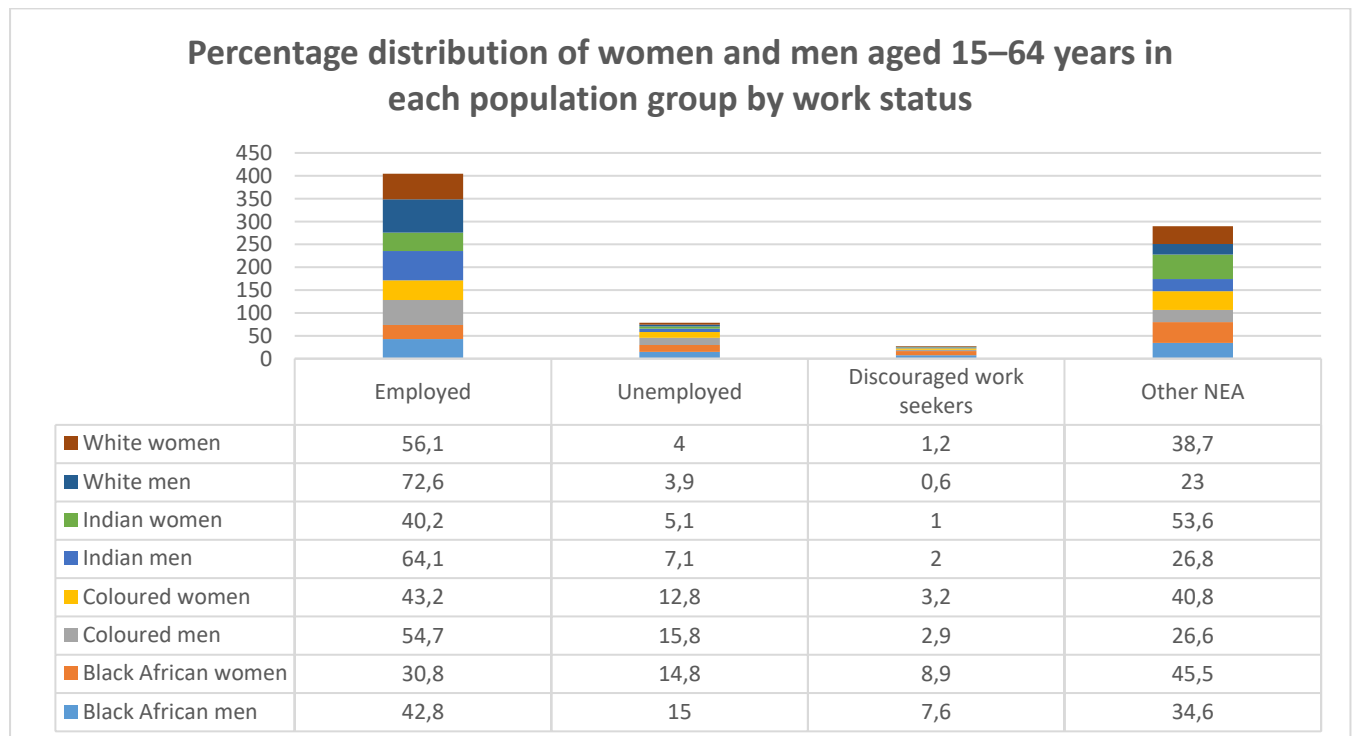


Figure 1.1: Percentage distribution of women and men aged 15–64 years in each population group by work status
Source: Adapted from Statistics South Africa (2011)

Statistics South Africa regards employed people as the people aged 15–64 years who did at least one hour of economic work a week prior to participating in the survey, as well as those

who were absent from work but had employment to return to. Unemployed people are regarded as those aged 15–64 years who did not do economic work during the seven days before the survey interview, but who actively looked for work or tried to start a business in the four weeks preceding the survey interview and were available for work. Those who are neither employed nor unemployed are classified as not economically active (NEA). This category includes both discouraged work-seekers and other NEA. Discouraged work-seekers are those who were not employed during the seven days before the survey interview, wanted work, were available to work/start a business, but did not take active steps to find work during the last four weeks, provided the main reason given for not seeking work was any of the following: no jobs available in the area; unable to find work requiring his/her skills; or lost hope of finding any kind of work.

Figure 1.1 reveals that within each population group, a smaller proportion of women than men are employed and a larger proportion of women than men are not economically active. The same study further went to investigate if, granted the above finding that there are less employed women than men in South Africa, what were the further gender discrepancies among those who were employed, if any. Figure 1.2 illustrates the findings.

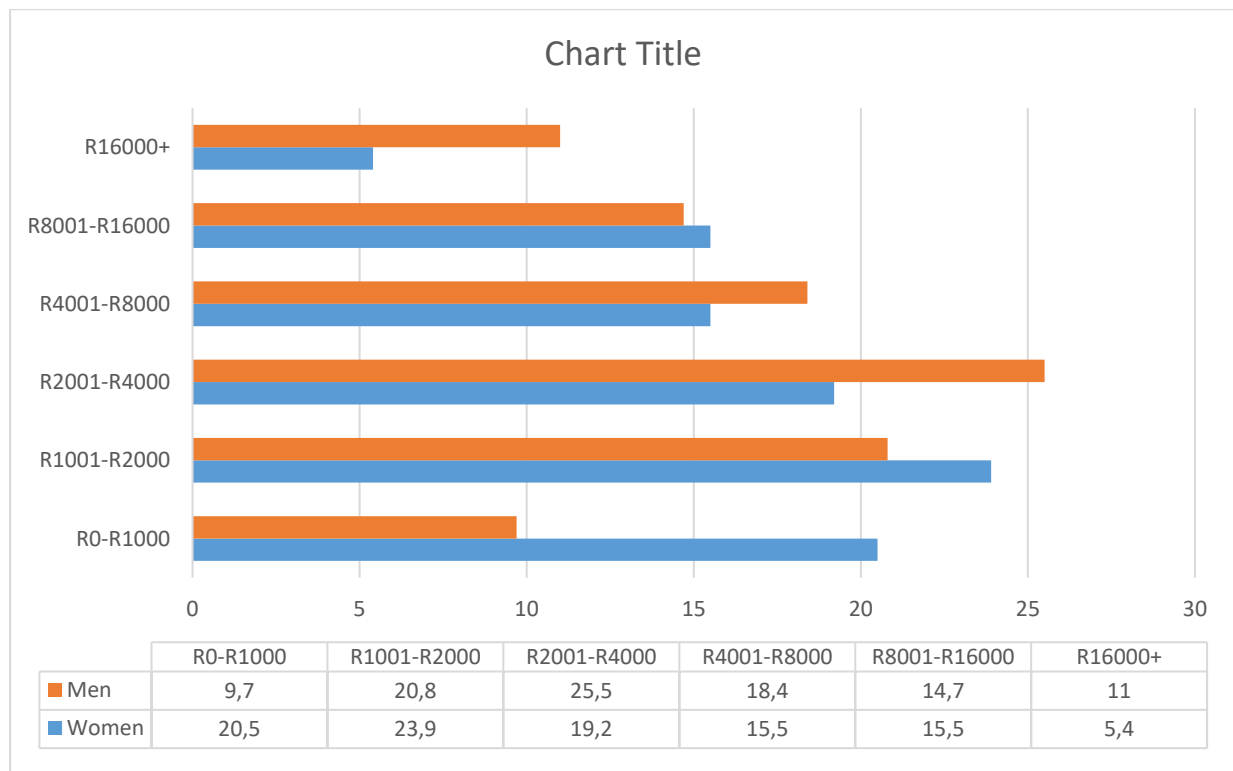


Figure 1.2: Percentage distribution of employed women and men aged 15–64 years by Earnings
Source: Statistics South Africa (2011)

Statistics South Africa (2011) found that women are more likely than men to be found in the lower earning employment categories. The proportion of women who earned R1 000 or less per month was double the proportion of men who earned at this level. A further 23,9% of women and 20,8% of men earn between R1 000 and R2 000 per month. In contrast, men are more likely than women to be found in the top earning categories. The proportion of men is about twice that of women among those who earn R16 000 or more per month.



Given that this section has evaluated gender discrepancies that exist in the employment status of men and women in South Africa, the following section seeks to investigate how the status of women employment is specifically in the tourism industry.

Gender and tourism employment

According to Cave and Kilic (2010:1), a number of studies have considered the role of women in the workplace, but there is less research on the position of women specifically in tourism employment. In the tourism industry, the percentage of employed women is high, but they occupy predominantly unskilled, low-paid jobs (Cave & Kilic, 2010:2). The tourism industry also segregates women into areas of employment that commercialise their perceived domestic skills and “feminine” characteristics (Muñoz-Bullón, 2009:3).

The argument that tourism is a highly gendered industry is long standing among tourism scholars (Ferguson, 2011:1). According to Alonso-Almeida (2013:2), the tourism industry predominantly employs women, and is frequently praised for employing a high percentage of women, although it is infamous for not promoting these women to management positions (Cave & Kilic, 2010:1). Alonso-Almeida (2013:2) also argues that tourism perpetuates prevailing gender norms and of reinforcing gender discrepancies and stereotypes. Research has identified a clear segmentation of men’s and women’s work in tourism, showing how the majority of women’s work is concentrated in seasonal, part-time and low-paid activities such as retail, hospitality and cleaning (Ferguson, 2009:13). This therefore suggests that tourism employment could have detrimental effects on efforts to enhance gender equality and women’s empowerment, and possibly aggravate gender inequalities in the workplace (Ferguson, 2011:6).

Internationally, approximately 70% of employees in tourism are women, but only about 40% are found at managerial levels (Meyer, 2012:13). Muñoz-Bullón (2009:2) cites that research studies internationally provide evidence of gender wage differences in tourism employment. One such study was conducted by Thrane (2008:2) who cites that is a well-established, global fact that men tend to receive higher earnings than women on average. Dennis (2007:17) suggests that the better paid, higher status and more skilled jobs in tourism and hospitality tend to be filled by men. Women have historically been available for employment not only of lower average wages than men, but also part-time work (Blau & Kahn, 2007:1; Cave & Kilic, 2010:5). Thus, women are more likely to accept lower-level tourism employment than men, in terms of salaries, status and job stability (Cave & Kilic, 2010:5). The new democratic South Africa established gender discrimination and equal pay legislation, such as the Employment Equity Act, 1998 and the Basic Conditions of Employment Act, 1998 but despite this legislation, gender discrimination continues to bar progress, specifically for women in the country (Hansen, 2012:21).

A study by Statistics South Africa (2011) reveals gender disparities in the earnings of employed women and men. Findings of this study illustrate that women are more likely than men to be found in the lower earning categories of employment. The proportion of women who earned R1 000 or less per month was double the proportion of men who earned at this level. According to Statistics South Africa (2011), 23,9% of women and 20,8% of men earn between R1 000 and R2 000 per month. In contrast, men are more likely than women to be found in the top earning categories. The proportion of men earning R16 000 or more per month is about twice that of women (Statistics South Africa, 2011). According to Martin and Barnard (2013:1), the South African female labour force has been growing with the help of equity legislation and improved access to education and work opportunities. However, progress with gender transformation and equity in the South African workplace remains unsatisfactory (Martin & Barnard, 2013:1). Statistics from the Commission for Employment Equity Report (2013:2014) reveal that females constituted 29.9% of senior management in 2013, with 70% of senior management in South Africa representing male employees.



Causes of gender segregation in tourism employment

Certain characteristics of tourism employment contribute to the gender segregation that's evident in the sector (Campos-Soria, Marchante-Mera & Ropero-García, 2011:92). Tourism employers want cheap workers, and historically, women are more available for lower paying employment than men, partly because men are the breadwinners in traditional family structures (Costa, Carvalho & Breda, 2011:43). Research studies suggest that even if a woman were to be promoted to a position in management, she might not necessarily be paid what a man in the same position would (Skalpe, 2007:846).

Some tourism jobs have sexuality and other attributes related to gender within their specifications (MONTERO, 2012:20). The hospitality industry has a cliché of requiring "the right personality" for certain jobs, this is often used synonymously with sexual attractiveness (Campos-Soria, Marchante-Mera & Ropero-García, 2011:92). Furthermore, the patriarchal system also contributes to stereotypes as to which gender should perform which jobs (Campos-Soria, Marchante-Mera & Ropero-García, 2011:92; Hossain, 2012:1). Society has been socialised to associate women with roles that involve caring and nurturing others, such as cleaning and serving food (Eagly, 2013:9; Campos-Soria, Marchante-Mera & Ropero-García, 2011:92). Women's aspirations to be promoted to leadership roles become difficult to attain because of these assumptions of what their traditional roles should be (Schaap et al., 2008:89). In the global tourism and hospitality industry, these difficulties deter women from advancing their professional careers out of fear that it might interfere with their private and social lives (Kara, Uysal and Magnini, 2011:4).

Research Methodology

The research was quantitative in nature. According to Bryman and Cramer (2011:358), quantitative research emphasizes the importance of quantifying data in collection and analysis phases, while Jennings (2010:22) explains that quantitative research abstracts data into statistical representations. The study utilised both primary and secondary data. Primary data refers to data that will be created during the course of the study by means of an empirical survey (Vanderstoep & Johnston, 2009:152), and secondary data refers to data that was not created for the current study but is available from other studies and other literature (Flick, 2011:253).

Since the research design is a survey, the epistemology of this study is known as positivism, which means that a researcher has used quantitative and law-like sciences to create new knowledge and analyse data (Robert, 2010:27). The study used statistics to analyse this data (Flick, 2011:11). According to Maedche (2012:105) ontology is the research position/stance a researcher takes when following positivism. Bryman (2012:312), argues that a positivist stance is objective and only looks at facts and not respondents' subjective feelings.

Maree (2011:8) describes a population as a group consisting of all the sampling units relevant to the research question. Vanderstoep and Johnston (2009:26) simplify it as the universe of people to which the study could be generalised. In this study, a sample therefore refers to a subset of the population consisting of a predetermined number of units for inclusion in the study according to specific rules (Maree, 2011:8; Flick, 2011:253). This study's unit of analysis were the adventure tourism employees in the Gauteng province, South Africa.

The population for this study consisted of adventure tourism employees who are currently employed within the adventure tourism industry in Gauteng. The researcher made attempts to obtain the size of the population but to no avail. These attempts included internet searches and consultation with the national Department of Tourism. Conclusion was drawn that there



seems to exist no database of all the adventure tourism employees in the Gauteng province, therefore the population number

According to Bryman (2012: 715) sampling is the systematic process of finding people to act as respondents to participate in a particular research study. Convenience sampling was chosen for this study because it minimised time and costs of conducting the study (Altinay & Alexandros, 2008:90). Jennings (2010:139) and Altinay and Paraskevas (2008:95) explain that convenience sampling is also known as haphazard sampling or accidental sampling. Convenience sampling means the researcher selected participants for the study based on their convenient accessibility. In view of the population of all adventure tourism companies in Gauteng, the researcher chose to include any employees of the adventure tourism companies associated with the Adventure Recreation Association (ARA) willing to participate in this specific study. The sample size of the study was 138.

The study research instrument or questionnaire was constructed by the researcher based on Herzberg two-factor theory and De Beers study of employee conditions of adventure guides. De Beer (2011) analysed employment conditions in the South African tourism industry, focusing on tour guides. The questionnaire from De Beer was then adapted for adventure tourism employees in general to suit this study. Questionnaires are one of a range of ways of collecting data, usually by posing direct or indirect questions (Gillham, 2007:3). According to Flick (2011:252), a questionnaire is defined as a list of questions posed to the respondents, either written or orally. A questionnaire is therefore a medium of communication between the researcher and the respondents (Brace, 2008:4). Closed questions give respondents options of predetermined answers to choose from, while open-ended questions provide respondents space on the questionnaire for them to express their thoughts (Jennings, 2010:252).

The questionnaire was designed primarily to ascertain the employment conditions of adventure tourism employees in Gauteng. The questionnaire was divided into three sections:

Section 1: The demographic characteristics of the respondents

This section of the questionnaire enquired about personal details of the respondent such as age, gender, and education. The aim of this section was to provide a demographic profile of the respondents to see if various demographic groups experience different employment conditions in adventure tourism in Gauteng.

Section 2: Herzberg two-factor theory

This section presented questions based on the Herzberg two factor theory. The purpose of this section was to determine if the adventure tourism employees' employment conditions are aligned to Herzberg's hygiene and motivational factors. The scale was developed in the late 1959 and Herzberg's sample were accountants and engineers (Herzberg, 1968:71-86), and since its developed it has been validated and used in different research settings (Maleka, 2015: 393). Other study revealed that the Herzberg motivational factors can be classified as intrinsic factors and hygiene factors as extrinsic factors (Spector 2012: 215).

Section 3: Labour Legislation

This section was based on South Africa's labour laws (i.e. SDA, LRA, BCEA & OHSA). The aim was to determine if the employment conditions in the adventure tourism industry are in line with the laws set in place to regulate employment in the country. A Likert scale of 5 was used, where 1= strongly disagree 2= disagree, 3= neutral, 4= agree and 5= strongly agree.

The last question respondents were asked to make comments and it was an open-ended question. The narratives from this question were converged with the quantitative data. Converging data enhances the data credibility and ensures consistency of the study results and this technique is known as triangulation (Yin, 2014: 241). Prior to conducting descriptive and inferential statistics, data was coded in Excel and analysed using STATA V13 statistical



software. According to Cleves (2008:3) STATA is a general-purpose statistical software package with capabilities including factor analysis and Fisher's test. Descriptive statistics and inferential statistics (EFA and Fisher's exact tests) were conducted and will be explained in detail below.

Factor analysis was the first inferential statistics conducted, and it helped the researcher to cluster employment conditions factors dominating the adventure tourism industry in Gauteng. A factor analysis as a statistical technique used to cluster large numbers of variables to establish into factor (Bryman, 2012:711; Hair, Wolfigbarger, Oritinau & Bush., 2010:590; McDaniel & Gates, 2013:560). Bartlett's test of sphericity and Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) were used to eliminate factors below 0.40. The Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) clustered 8 factors, namely; Intrinsic factors, extrinsic factors, labour relations, health and safety, employment relations, remuneration, physical equipment and basic conditions.

Secondly, Fisher's exact tests were conducted. Cooper and Schidndler (2006: 505) states that fisher's exact test is used to determine the significant differences between variables. The researcher followed this procedure as suggested by Rosner (2010:178) to determine the difference in employment conditions between male and female adventure tourism employees. To ensure face validity of the study, the study was piloted among 48 respondents. Face validity "means that a measure appears to assess what is designed to assess" (Spector, 2012: 34). Content validity is as almost similar to face validity, however, to achieve it the researcher takes the research instrument to expert who will determine whether the items are related to the factors (Maree, 2011:217). Prior to the data collection, the instrument was presented at the Department's Committee for Research and innovation (DRIC) of the tourism management department at the Tshwane University of Technology (TUT) and was also approved by the Ethical Committee (Reference: FREC 2014 FR/05/013-MS).

Construct validity is defined as the usage of "adequate definitions" and measuring the appropriate variables (Creswell, 2014:177) and it was achieved by conducting a factor analysis (Maree, 2011: 217). The items that converged into factors are indicated in Table 1 together with the Cronbach Alpha values.

Presentation of findings

Table 1.1 Cronbach alphas

Factor items	Items Cronbach's alphas	Overall Alpha	Level of reliability
Intrinsic factors			
The work that I do motivates me to achieve more	0.9170	0.92	High reliability
The company celebrates my career-related achievements	0.9195		
I still have career milestones I want to achieve within this company	0.9140		
The company rewards good performance	0.9183		
My job is compatible with my experience.	0.9205		
The company has given me a fair amount of responsibilities.	0.9140		
I get clear communication regarding my duties.	0.9224		
I enjoy the work that I do.	0.9174		
I have a meal break of 1 hour after 5 hours of work.	0.9215		
The company has effective training strategies.	0.9204		
Extrinsic factors			
I have sufficient time to accomplish my work load.	0.9133	0.91	High reliability
There is a sense of a team spirit among employees.	0.9030		
I am fully aware of my company's policies.	0.9062		
All staff members are expected to equally abide by company policies.	0.8970		
My immediate Supervisor treats staff fairly.	0.8910		



My immediate supervisor gives positive feedback to staff.	0.8871		
My salary is fair	0.9093		
Labour relations			
The company recognises my skills	0.8808	0.89	Moderate reliability
The employers respect the right to freedom of association.	0.8797		
I have freedom to join a trade union of my choice.	0.8802		
The company respects employee's right to participate in a legal strike.	0.8807		
The company has fair grievance procedures.	0.8766		
The company has disciplinary procedures.	0.8873		
Health and safety			
My office furniture is in good condition	0.8149	0.83	Moderate reliability
The ventilation in my work place is sufficient.	0.7801		
The fire extinguisher is visible	0.7659		
The emergency procedures are clear	0.8004		
Employment relations			
The company has effective training strategies.	0.6040	0.77	Acceptable reliability
My work is positively influenced by the companies training programs.	0.6210		
I work 45 hours or less in a week.	0.8665		
Remuneration			
My company has clear policies regarding salaries.	0.6797	0.76	Acceptable reliability
I have an opportunity to negotiate my salary with my employer.	0.7218		
I have a formal written contract with my employer.	0.7428		
My contract clearly states the date on which my salary is to be paid.	0.6851		
Physical equipment			
The available equipment works properly.		0.64	Acceptable reliability
There is access to hygienic restrooms.			
Basic conditions			
I am compensated for overtime.		0.64	Acceptable reliability
I get double pay for working on a public holiday.			Acceptable reliability

In order to determine if responses to the factors that emerged from the EFA differed according to gender, Fisher's exact tests were conducted per items on each factor. According to Rosner (2010:178) the level of significance for a Fisher's exact test is $\alpha = 0.05$, if the p -value of the Fisher exact test is greater than $\alpha = 0.05$, it was decided that the employment conditions do not differ significantly by gender, but if the p -value of the Fisher exact test is less than $\alpha = 0.05$, it was decided that the employment conditions differ significantly according to gender. The results are indicated in Table 1.2.

Table 1.2 Gender comparison on intrinsic factors

	Gender	Disagree	Agree	Neutral
Factor 1: Intrinsic Factors				
The work that I do motivates me to achieve more	Male	28%	54%	18%
	Females	32%	55%	13%
<i>Fisher's exact p = 0.807</i>				
The company celebrates my career-related achievements	Male	41%	26%	33%
	Female	39%	37%	24%
<i>Fisher's exact = 0.444</i>				
I still have career milestones I want to achieve within this company	Male	33%	41%	26%
	Female	26%	55%	19%
<i>Fisher's exact = 0.394</i>				
The company rewards good performance	Male	35%	32%	33%
	Female	32%	36%	32%
<i>Fisher's exact: p = 0.897</i>				
My job is compatible with my experience.	Male	13%	56%	31%
	Female	19%	47%	34%
<i>Fisher's exact: p = 0.678</i>				



The company has given me a fair amount of responsibilities.	Male	26%	46%	28%
	Female	26%	48%	26%
<i>Fisher's exact =</i>		1.000		
I get clear communication regarding my duties.	Male	13%	52%	35%
	Female	21%	58%	21%
<i>Fisher's exact =</i>		0.260		
I enjoy the work that I do.	Male	18%	67%	15%
	Female	18%	58%	24%
<i>Fisher's exact =</i>		0.599		
I have a meal break of 1 hour after 5 hours of work.	Male	51%	29%	20%
	Female	38%	38%	24%
<i>Fisher's exact =</i>		0.529		
The company has effective training strategies.	Male	16%	39%	45%
	Female	12%	73%	15%
<i>Fisher's exact =</i>		0.006		

Table 1.2 above depicts that for all the questions in factor 1 the p -value was above 0.05, with the exception of the last item (company training strategies) which loaded 0.006. This means that the proportion of responses to this factor do not differ significantly by gender. The said exception means for the item on company training strategies, responses differed significantly according to gender.

Table 1.3 Gender comparisons on extrinsic factors

	Gender	Disagree	Agree	Neutral
Factor 2: Extrinsic Factors				
I have sufficient time to accomplish my work load.	Male	22%	59%	19%
	Females	16%	71%	13%
<i>Fisher's exact =</i>		0.558		
There is a sense of a team spirit among employees.	Male	28%	50%	22%
	Female	29%	53%	18%
<i>Fisher's exact =</i>		0.922		
I am fully aware of my company's policies.	Male	22%	52%	26%
	Female	22%	63%	16%
<i>Fisher's exact =</i>		0.484		
All staff members are expected to equally abide by company policies.	Male	19%	59%	22%
	Female	18%	66%	16%
<i>Fisher's exact =</i>		0.758		
My immediate Supervisor treats staff fairly.	Male	32%	48%	20%
	Female	32%	63%	5%
<i>Fisher's exact =</i>		0.113		
My immediate supervisor gives positive feedback to staff.	Male	26%	50%	24%
	Female	18%	58%	24%
<i>Fisher's exact =</i>		0.692		
My salary is fair	Male	43%	31%	26%
	Female	47%	29%	24%
<i>Fisher's exact =</i>		0.892		

Table 1.3 above depicts that for all the questions in factor 2 the p -value was above 0.05. This means that the proportion of responses to this factor do not differ significantly by gender.

Table 1.4 Gender comparisons on labour relations factors

	Gender	Disagree	Agree	Neutral
Factor 3: Labour relations				
The company recognises my skills	Male	22%	51%	27%
	Females	18%	55%	27%
<i>Fisher's exact =</i>		0.913		
The employers respect the right to freedom of association.	Male	28%	35%	37%
	Female	33%	37%	30%
<i>Fisher's exact =</i>		0.849		
I have freedom to join a trade union of my choice.	Male	39%	20%	41%
	Female	40%	27%	33%
<i>Fisher's exact =</i>		0.743		



The company respects employee's right to participate in a legal strike.	Male	41%	20%	39%
	Female	33%	33%	33%
<i>Fisher's exact =</i>		0.451		
The company has fair grievance procedures.	Male	20%	43%	37%
	Female	15%	49%	36%
<i>Fisher's exact =</i>		0.800		
The company has disciplinary procedures.	Male	15%	58%	27%
	Female	15%	50%	35%
<i>Fisher's exact =</i>		0.794		

Table 1.4 above depicts that for all of the questions in factor 3 the p -value was above 0.05. This means that the proportion of responses to this factor do not differ significantly by gender.

Table 1.5 Gender comparisons on health and safety factors

	Gender	Disagree	Agree	Neutral
Factor 4: Health and safety				
My office furniture is in good condition	Male	27%	50%	23%
	Females	27%	52%	21%
<i>Fisher's exact =</i>		1.000		
The ventilation in my work place is sufficient.	Male	25%	60%	15%
	Female	30%	46%	24%
<i>Fisher's exact =</i>		0.363		
The fire extinguisher is visible.	Male	27%	56%	17%
	Female	27%	64%	9%
<i>Fisher's exact =</i>		0.723		
The emergency procedures are clear	Male	37%	51%	12%
	Female	15%	61%	24%
<i>Fisher's exact =</i>		0.073		

Table 1.5 above depicts that for all of the questions in factor 4 the p -value was above 0.05. This means that the proportion of responses to this factor do not differ significantly by gender.

Table 1.6 Gender comparisons on employment relations factors

	Gender	Disagree	Agree	Neutral
Factor 5: Employment relations				
The company has effective training strategies.	Male	14%	70%	16%
	Females	15%	73%	12%
<i>Fisher's exact =</i>		0.939		
My work is positively influenced by the companies training programs.	Male	20%	49%	31%
	Female	21%	58%	21%
<i>Fisher's exact =</i>		0.363		
I work 45 hours or less in a week.	Male	29%	49%	22%
	Female	38%	53%	9%
<i>Fisher's exact =</i>		0.276		

Table 1.6 above depicts that for all of the questions in factor 5 the p -value was above 0.05. This means that the proportion of responses to this factor do not differ significantly by gender.

Table 1.7 Gender comparisons on remuneration factors

	Gender	Disagree	Agree	Neutral
Factor 6: Remuneration				
My company has clear policies regarding salaries.	Male	44%	28%	28%
	Females	42%	32%	26%
<i>Fisher's exact =</i>		0.928		
I have an opportunity to negotiate my salary with my employer.	Male	61%	15%	24%
	Female	50%	13%	37%
<i>Fisher's exact =</i>		0.437		
I have a formal written contract with my employer.	Male	31%	62%	8%
	Female	44%	44%	12%
<i>Fisher's exact =</i>		0.346		
My contract clearly states the date on which my salary is to be paid.	Male	44%	44%	12%
	Female	35%	47%	18%



Fisher's exact = 0.652

Table 1.7 above depicts that for all of the questions in factor 5 the *p*-value was above 0.05. This means that the proportion of responses to these factors do not differ significantly by gender.

Table 1.8 Gender comparisons on remuneration factors

	Gender	Disagree	Agree	Neutral
Factor 7: Physical equipment				
The available equipment works properly.	Male	22%	61%	17%
	Females	18%	58%	24%
<i>Fisher's exact = 0.701</i>				
There is access to hygienic restrooms.	Male	22%	68%	10%
	Female	12%	79%	9%
<i>Fisher's exact = 0.503</i>				

Table 1.8 above depicts that for all of the questions in factor 7 the *p*-value was above 0.05. This means that the proportion of responses to these factors do not differ significantly by gender.

Table 1.9 Gender comparisons on basic conditions factors

	Gender	Disagree	Agree	Neutral
Factor 8: Basic conditions				
I am compensated for overtime.	Male	53%	29%	18%
	Females	53%	21%	26%
<i>Fisher's exact = 0.701</i>				
I get double pay for working on a public holiday.	Male	22%	68%	10%
	Female	12%	79%	9%
<i>Fisher's exact = 0.503</i>				

Table 1.9 above depicts that for all of the questions in factor 8 the *p*-value was above 0.05. This means that the proportion of responses to these factors do not differ significantly by gender.

Conclusion

Gender discrepancies have been widely researched in a number of industries, and Skalpe (2007:846) cites that evidence exists that suggests evidence of segregation against women in tourism employment, alluding to the fact that the majority of women are employed in subordinate posts, receiving lower levels of remuneration when compared to employees who are men. However, these previous studies note gender differences in the wider tourism and hospitality industry, there seemed to be a lack of studies to determine if the same applies to the adventure tourism sector, this study sought to close this gap by investigating employment condition differences based on gender in the adventure tourism industry in Gauteng, South Africa.

Findings of this study were that gender posed no significant difference in the responses to this study. This result contradicts what was found in previous studies such as the pre-noted England, (2010:1) and Hansen, (2012:21), where it was revealed that there were gender disparities in the employment conditions of men and women. It was particularly interesting to note that, contrary to what researchers such as Mun˜oz-Bullo´n (2009:639) previously found pertaining to gender in tourism employment, the respondents to this study highlighted no significant difference even in the remuneration between men and women. This means the employment conditions of adventure tourism employees in Gauteng do not differ significantly between men and women.



Based on these findings, it can thus be concluded that employment conditions in the tourism industry need not always differ according to gender, to the disadvantage of either men or women. The adventure tourism companies within the Gauteng province can then be commended for not discriminating among their employees based on gender. Recommendations for future studies would be to look at what is these companies are doing different to the rest of the industry where it was found that there were different employment conditions between the two genders.

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