



INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL OF ACADEMIC RESEARCH IN BUSINESS & SOCIAL SCIENCES



Workplace Monitoring: The Moderating Roles of Aesthetic Labour Attributes towards Employees' Performance in a Fast-food Restaurant

Mohd Harith Akmal A. Mohd Puat, Mohamad Jeffri Bin Ahmad, Fadzilah Mohd Shariff

To Link this Article: <http://dx.doi.org/10.6007/IJARBSS/v12-i11/15644> DOI:10.6007/IJARBSS/v12-i11/15644

Received: 08 September 2022, **Revised:** 12 October 2022, **Accepted:** 24 October 2022

Published Online: 11 November 2022

In-Text Citation: (Puat et al., 2022)

To Cite this Article: Puat, M. H. A. A. M., Ahmad, M. J. Bin, & Shariff, F. M. (2022). Workplace Monitoring: The Moderating Roles of Aesthetic Labour Attributes towards Employees' Performance in a Fast-food Restaurant. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences*, 12(11), 1092 – 1106.

Copyright: © 2022 The Author(s)

Published by Human Resource Management Academic Research Society (www.hrmars.com)

This article is published under the Creative Commons Attribution (CC BY 4.0) license. Anyone may reproduce, distribute, translate and create derivative works of this article (for both commercial and non-commercial purposes), subject to full attribution to the original publication and authors. The full terms of this license may be seen at: <http://creativecommons.org/licences/by/4.0/legalcode>

Vol. 12, No. 11, 2022, Pg. 1092 – 1106

<http://hrmars.com/index.php/pages/detail/IJARBSS>

JOURNAL HOMEPAGE

Full Terms & Conditions of access and use can be found at
<http://hrmars.com/index.php/pages/detail/publication-ethics>



INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL OF ACADEMIC RESEARCH IN BUSINESS & SOCIAL SCIENCES



www.hrmar.com

ISSN: 2222-6990

Workplace Monitoring: The Moderating Roles of Aesthetic Labour Attributes towards Employees' Performance in a Fast-food Restaurant

Mohd Harith Akmal A. Mohd Puat, Mohamad Jeffri Bin Ahmad,
Fadzilah Mohd Shariff

Universiti Teknologi MARA, Faculty of Hotel and Tourism Management, 42300 Selangor,
Malaysia

Corresponding Author's Email: fshariff@uitm.edu.my

Abstract

Front-line employees in the hospitality industry are considered as the source of service differentiation. Workplace monitoring encourages decision-making and awakens predictions about employees' future actions, skills, and their suitability for employment. Monitoring proponents contend that it is a good way to ensure that goods and services are of high quality. Despite many discoveries on the workplace monitoring in the hospitality industry, study on the aesthetic labour attributes specifically in fast-food restaurants is still under explored. Hence, the objective of this current study is to examine the effect of workplace monitoring and the moderating role of aesthetic labour towards employee performance in the fast-food restaurant. This study adopted a non-probability purposive sampling design and data was collected via questionnaires personally administered to frontline employees from selected fast-food restaurant's outlets. To test the proposed hypotheses, a correlational research design was used, and a causal-comparative design was adopted. The results showed that workplace monitoring has a positive influence on employee performance in the fast-food restaurant. Additionally, aesthetic labour significantly moderates the relationship between workplace monitoring and employee performance. The findings suggested that in any realistic environment, aesthetic labour cannot be perceived and examined on its own, and the organization must monitor the workplace to identify the state of the employees.

Keywords: Workplace Monitoring, Aesthetic Labour, Fast-food industry, Frontline Employees

Introduction

Monitoring productivity has been practiced for more than 40 years. The rise of remote working in various sectors and countries has coincided with a significant increase in the use of monitoring tools by businesses seeking to keep track of their workers' time and productivity. As a result of monitoring, principals and employees' interests are aligned, reducing, and eventually eliminating inconsistency and errors (Holder et al., 2021). A reliable way to ensure that goods and services are of high quality is by monitoring them. Studies have shown that

monitored workers perform better on simple, straightforward performance tasks because increased social exposure motivates them to work harder. Monitoring also protects companies from civil responsibility, according to proponents. During internal audits, monitoring can be used as a proactive risk-management tool and as evidence in court.

According to research on performance monitoring, monitoring may be defined differently depending on who you ask. Performance monitoring has gained popularity because of technological innovations that enhance an organization's or supervisor's ability to monitor employees' behaviour and performance. Monitoring is a common method for gathering, storing, and analysing data about employees' performance and behaviour at work (Ravid et al., 2019). Employee reactions to monitoring matter because organizations have a strong stake in maintaining both employee motivation and well-being. Performance monitoring and how it is conducted influence the amount of effort employees devote to different tasks (Brewer, 1995).

Employers have long used monitoring to ensure compliance and proper utilization of organizational resources. Monitoring aids the employer (principal) in reducing information asymmetry with the employee (agent), increasing trust, and ensuring organizational goals are met. Monitoring, according to the employer, "simplifies phenomena by regulating them, not allowing randomness, but reducing the array of possible trajectories". Research on monitoring has predominantly focused on its effects on employee well-being, finding a negative link (Ravid et al., 2019; Stanton, 2000). These have argued that the risk of personal information being exposed outweighs any possible benefits to employers from data collection on work-related conduct, as tracked workers often express feelings of discrimination and personal violation. Another reason against monitoring is that it negatively affects workers' affective, emotional, and physiological well-being (Ball, 2010). Monitoring has resulted in legal battles between public employees, who defend their right to post on social media or keep their content private, and public organizations, which are punishing misbehaviour or violating organizational policies (Jacobson and Tufts, 2012). Furthermore, frequent, and intrusive monitoring activities reduce perceived workplace autonomy and increase paranoia about organizational control. Employees who believe they are being monitored unfairly are more likely to report lower job satisfaction, increased stress, and increased workloads (Young, 2010). Monitored employees are more likely to be absent and leave, with some studies indicating that it is the most significant predictor of turnover. In some cases, a procurement officer from Johor admits that problems like incomplete and abandoned projects keep recurring because of the relevant authority's poor monitoring and auditing services. Problematic contractors and poor monitoring and auditing officers are found to be contributing factors in this scenario (Shu Hui et al., 2011). Monitoring in the workplace poses a slew of ethical and societal concerns (McParland, 2019). However, before we can fully address many of these challenges, we need to understand why management chose to use monitoring technologies in the first place. Although many reports emphasize the risks to employees, it makes sense to assume that management may have valid reasons to monitor their employees.

In an interview conducted recently, a manager at McDonald's outlet in Bukit Rahman Putra, Malaysia says there are issues arising from employee performance. The front-line employee takes a considerable amount of time to complete the guest order, which causes a long waiting line at the counter during working hours. Employees were also found to sneak out food and smoke. Given the scope of such multi-facility production networks, designing, controlling, and managing food service operations is difficult and requires multidisciplinary perspectives and competencies. In the food service sector, several decisions are required to be made. The

determination of employee behaviour, the allocation of manpower resources, their tasks on the restaurant layout, and related working cycles are all part of the long-term strategic design of a service. Short-term operational decisions entail regular sequencing of processing lots and strive for continuous improvement in the efficiency of the food production process. An invasive monitoring system has since been found to contribute to elevated levels of tension and decreased prevalence of certain physical conditions, such as carpal tunnel syndrome (Privacy Rights, 2001). On the palm side of their hand, the carpal tunnel is a tiny conduit enclosed by bones and ligaments. Numbness, tingling, and weakness in the hand and arm can occur when frontline employees are pressured to be monitored by the organization which can affect their performance at work (Genova et al., 2020).

Monitoring can have a detrimental effect on efficiency. Research has shown evidence of a correlation between monitoring and psychological and physical health issues, elevated stress, high pain, excessive anxiety, exhaustion, and frustration (Hartman, 1998). According to Zainon et al (2020), poor employee performance causes negative conflicts between employees and managers. Individual employees are dissatisfied, and they do not understand their scope of work or what is expected of them, resulting in conflicts. As a result, the organization's performance suffers as a result.

Therefore, this paper aims to fill a gap in the literature. It does this by developing a scale to assess the degree to which aesthetic labour influences the relationship between staff monitoring and workplace performance.

Literature Review

Workplace Monitoring on Work Performance

Monitoring has taken many forms over the years, including direct supervision of work by superiors, the keeping of records and files about employees' work lives, the use of timetables and work schedules, and, more recently, the use of timetables and work schedules in organizations to assess work performance (Oyedeji et al., 2019). Monitoring can help workers make informed decisions. Also, monitoring in the workplace can encourage decision-making and inform predictions about the future behaviour of workers, their skills or qualities, and their job fitness (Mateescu and Nguyen, 2019).

Electric monitoring is viewed as a strategic tool for tying up loose ends. It affects employee motivation, work performance, and, as a result, productivity (Giddens, 2010). Companies can increase their performance thanks to technological advancements. Employees may connect with others much more efficiently and effectively using e-mail and the Internet, both internally and publicly. They can also save time by using computers to manage a huge number of commercial transactions. However, as advanced technology has become more widely available, a new challenge in human resource management has emerged: the conflict between employees and employers over workplace electronic surveillance. Jensen (2020) suggests that simply increasing the importance of monitoring may improve performance on task dimensions that are not directly compensated. Employee monitoring can be viewed as a motivator for good work performance, promotion, and a raise in compensation (Reaves, 2014). Work performance is described as an employee's timely, effective, and efficient accomplishment of mutually agreed-upon tasks as outlined by management (Tinofirel, 2011). Work performance is the lifeblood of any organization; it is the organization's soul. According to Oyedeji et al (2019), work performance is critical to the efficiency and success of an

organization. It validates the type of job behaviour displayed in the workplace. It acts as a catalyst for the organization's aims and objectives to be met. Most organizations have good commercial reasons to monitor employees in the workplace, including as analyzing worker productivity, protecting company assets from theft, and verifying compliance with workplace laws. Alternatively, as evidenced by De Jong and Dirks (2012), monitoring may reduce worker performance if workers interpret it as manager distrust or, more broadly, as a risk to their safety, if it suffocates employees' intrinsic task motivations (Ranganathan and Benson, 2016). Paynter (2006) found that a significant number of subjects related to the rights of employees and employers should be considered in further studies which are a considerable issue concerns building trust between employers and employees at work. Monitoring can change the dynamics of power between employees and employers, as an imbalance of access to worker information will reduce the ability of negotiation. Monitoring raised employee privacy concerns. Thus, employers need to strike a balance between monitoring benefits and intruding employee privacy costs (Jackson et al., 2009). The majority of employees believe that electronic monitoring violates their rights, particularly their right to privacy, according to a 2004 American Management Survey (Friedman and Reed, 2007). Employees, according to Lease and Gordon (2005), do not believe that employers have an unrestricted right to invade their privacy, or, to put it another way, "employees generally believe that it is illegal and unethical for employers to intrude into employees' "zone of privacy," regardless of how they define it." Nevertheless, the use of emerging technologies to track workplace activities raises concerns that employees' privacy rights are vulnerable, and balancing employer protection rights with employee privacy issues is becoming more difficult (Mathis & Jackson, 2000).

By improving organizational efficiency, employers may support electronic monitoring and eliminate bureaucracy. These include reforming all processes, identifying high-quality employees, overcoming problems, expressing your vision across the company, challenging your workers, being honest and having integrity, and considering your customers as strategic partners (Moss, 2006). Organizations must develop systematic monitoring to prevent behavioural agency costs since agents are self-serving and may shirk to avoid work (Bhave, 2014). Monitoring systems, however, can be used to assemble, process, and provide performance reviews on the work of employees that can assist managers with plans for performance improvement and employee growth (Robbins & Coulter, 1999). Based on the above, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H¹: Workplace monitoring positively influences the work performance.

Trust and Privacy on Work Performance

The ability to depend on others with the assumption that they will act or plan to act safely is known as trust (Conchie et al., 2006, Conchie and Donald, 2009, Luria, 2010, Rousseau et al., 1998). Although there are many different definitions of trust, it generally refers to "relying on" something (Lee, 2004), having good faith for confidence and confiding words and actions (Laschinger et al., 2001), and the confidence gained because of consistent and positive attitudes based on respect and kindness (Taylor, 1989). Trust is the expectation that employees will not be harmed by the actions of other employees, and that they will, in fact, benefit from them (Bijlsma, 2003). The quality of knowledge sharing, the feasibility of solutions, and the willingness of all involved parties to overcome conflicts are all harmed by a lack of confidence (Stoel and Muhanna, 2012). Trust is a perception that has a positive impact on the social agent and is conceived under ambiguous circumstances (Vollan, 2011).

The feeling of trust is described as "the feeling that the trustee is willing to accept the trustee's weakness" (Baer et al., 2015; Lau et al., 2014). Thus, managers know that they need workers to behave positively without tracking their actions, leaving management open to criticism. Trust can be built through activities such as emphasizing trust during new-hire inductions, assigning employees responsibility for their own attendance, and allowing employees to use company laptops and other equipment on a personal basis (Eberl et al., 2012; Kotler, 2021). While trust and fairness are critical to any psychological contract (Guest, 2004), workplace surveillance poses a significant danger to employers' previously perceived trustworthiness and fairness, as they now can use employee performance data against them.

According to Martin and Freeman (2003), electronic monitoring can increase the lack of trust that may exist between employees and employers/management. Electronic monitoring, they claimed, promotes a "paternalistic" bond between bosses and employees. Companies' gains in productivity may be offset by a loss of engagement, empowerment, and trust. This is especially true if there is a lack of transparency about monitoring behaviour and how the gathered data is used. Indeed, recent Australian research (Martin et al., 2016) found that attitudes toward workplace monitoring play a key role in determining whether surveillance systems and practices result in counterproductive work practices. Successful human relationships as well as successful organizations depend on a trust-based environment (Moye, 2006). Salamon and Robinson (2008) examined the feeling of trusted employees as a collective concept. They found that the mutual affection of trusted employees would improve the performance of their employment through perceived accountability. Similarly, research shows that the level of trust employees have in their managers has an impact on job performance (Ferrin and Dirks, 2003; Innocenti et al., 2011; Tyler, 2003). Managers cannot afford to disregard the impact of trust on employee attitudes and subsequent contributions to the organization, according to (Boxall and Purcell, 2011). Managerial behaviour, as Whitener et al (1998) point out, has a significant impact on the building of trust in the workplace. Based on the above, the following hypothesis is proposed:

According to Moore (2021), privacy can be defined in descriptive or normative terms; it can be viewed as a mere condition or as a moral demand that others refrain from specific behaviours. Privacy can be defined in descriptive or normative terms; it can be viewed as a mere condition or as a moral demand that others refrain from specific behaviours. Furthermore, some people see privacy as a derived concept based on more fundamental rights like liberty and property. Previous studies have shown that when such monitoring extends beyond the realm of work-related performance, employees often perceive it as an invasion of privacy (Alder and Ambrose, 2005) and a source of mistrust (Holland et al., 2016). Employees are more likely to take defensive measures in response, such as unionization (York and Carty, 2006) or contract renegotiation (Kelly and Herbert, 2004). Bies (1996) believed that in the digital era, privacy will become increasingly vital since people's control over information eventually dwindles. Employees, predictably, believe their right to privacy is in jeopardy, and they have taken legal action to protect it. This has resulted in a slew of lawsuits involving infringements ranging from the use of biometric data (Kelly & Hays, 2018), to the protection of their information (The HR Specialist, 2018), to employers' concerns about employees "liking" unsavoury content on social media after work hours and on their personal devices (Hyman, 2017), and to a no-fault policy (Kelly & Hays, 2018).

Organizations, on the other hand, have the right to collect data on their employees. Workplace privacy is relevant because it is connected to the performance of the employee. Organizations require information about their employees' ability, motivation, and performance throughout the employment relationship (Culnan, Smith, & Bies, 1994). Organizations should also have information about their employees' integrity and put in place mechanisms to prevent counterproductive, unethical, and/or illegal work behaviour (e.g., taking excessive work breaks, falsifying safety records, and stealing from the organization or customers (Stone-Romero and Stone, 2007). Organizations claim ownership of information about employees in the workplace, but employees may disagree with ownership of their privacy by the organization (Lee and Kleiner, 2003; Townsend and Bennett, 2003). People who are more motivated and high-performing tolerate monitoring more readily than those who are less driven and low-performing (Urbaczewski and Jessup, 2002). However, performance improves at the expense of employee job satisfaction and health (Urbaczewski & Jessup, 2002). Aside from personal concerns about work performance, job satisfaction, and health, more serious issues identified because of monitoring will have an impact on the entire company and management. Based on the above, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H^{1a}: Employees' trust positively influences their performance at work.

H^{1b}: Employee privacy positively affects work performance.

Moderating Role of Aesthetic Labour on Work Performance

Aesthetic labour is one of the ways to improve service quality. Relatedly, it has gained ground, especially in the hospitality industry. In a neoliberal era, where there is a significant shift from manufacturing labour to more information and knowledge-based industries, aesthetics is becoming increasingly essential (Adkins and Lury, 2012). Organizational expectations for workers' appearance, style, and interactional habits are referred to as "aesthetic labour" (Lipton, 2021). These expectations, both formal and informal, have an impact on who is hired for occupations and how people are expected to dress and behave at work. The idea of aesthetic labour (Nickson and Warhust, 2001; Witz et al., 2003) emphasizes the stylization of workplace performances as well as the production and valorisation of modalities of workplace embodiment. The expression "dress to impress" refers to a contemplation of what it means to look stylish, and it entails layers of visual and emotional effort. While these concepts are separate, it is useful to explore the links between emotions and aesthetics in this context (Lipton, 2021). It is necessary to monitor the workplace in order to identify the health of workers, since aesthetically pleasing work cannot be seen or examined on its own. The aesthetic labour literature also shows that physically attractive job applicants are more employable (Gatta, 2011), and this study shows that applicants with prestigious accents have significantly better job prospects. Therefore, aesthetic labour can be a moderating role between workplace monitoring and employee performance as they influence the employee's performance.

Keeping up appearances and performing for others in public requires us to make sacrifices in private (Goffman, 1973). Considering beauty worth and moral judgement are often related in people's thinking (Kuipers et al., 2019), co-workers may be interested in each other's physical appearances in ways that extend beyond commercial concerns. For aesthetic labourers, this private sacrifice involves working on the body and consuming the brand to provide a convincing performance (Entwistle and Wissinger, 2006; Hancock, 2013; Leslie, 2002;

Pettinger, 2004, 2005; Williams and Connell, 2010; Witz et al., 2003). Performing aesthetic labour can involve 'constraining obligations' (Goffman & Bolton, 2005) that result in 'a measure of disaffection from and resistance against role expectations' (Goffman, 1961). Aesthetic labour emphasizes the employee's physical appearance in addition to the importance placed on feelings and attitudes in emotional labour (Hochschild, 2003). The physical body, along with its affective and interactive potentials, is converted into economic capital that is used for 'organizational reproduction,' according to scholars (Nickson, Warhurst, Cullen & Watt, 2003; Witz, Warhurst & Nickson, 2003). There will be stress added to each employee when aesthetically pleasing labor is implemented, which will cause them to hide their true feelings. Especially when they are employed in the hospitality industry. Even though the customer is angry or upset, the front line must smile all the time. When employees cannot express their true feelings, they will feel the pressure as there are obstacles in their minds they have to control. Thus, decreasing performance in the organization occurs when employees are unable to perform well on their assigned tasks. Based on the above, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H²: Aesthetic labour moderates the effects of workplace monitoring on work performance.

Conceptual Framework

This study is designed to examine the effect of workplace monitoring and the moderating role of aesthetic labour on employee performance in a fast-food restaurant. A modified role theory (Biddle, 1979) was adopted. Based on the conceptual framework, there is an independent variable that is workplace monitoring, with two sub-dimensions proposed for the study which are trust and privacy. A moderating variable of aesthetic is associated with employees' performance at work. The following hypotheses was proposed:

H^{1a}: Employees' trust positively influences their performance at work.

H^{1b}: Employee privacy positively affects work performance.

H²: Aesthetic labour moderates the effects of workplace monitoring on work performance.

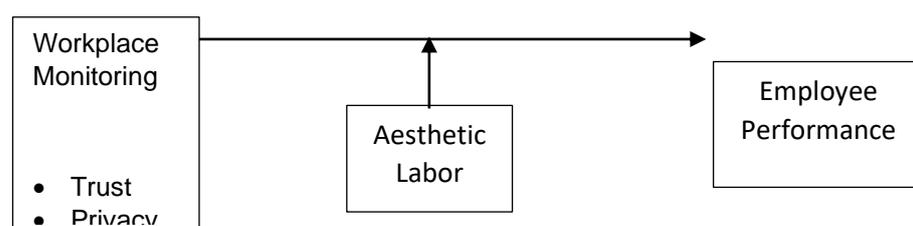


Figure 1: Study Framework

Research Methodology

The study adopts a quantitative research method to examine the effects workplace monitoring and the moderating role of aesthetic labour on employee performance in a fast-food restaurant in Klang Valley, Malaysia.

There were 19 fast-food outlets in the city of Shah Alam, Selangor Malaysia. As a sampling technique, convenience sampling was used. After a series of applications and approvals through fast-food outlets, questionnaires were distributed to 15 outlets. The questionnaire's respondents were full-time employees of fast-food outlets, such as counter service

employees, drive-through service employees, and kitchen crews. 200 questionnaires were distributed, and 190 valid questionnaires were retrieved, and the effective response rate was 95%.

A research instrument was developed based on a rigorous literature review. A pre-test study and item analysis were conducted to improve the research instrument for each construct and dimension. Likert's five-point scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) was eventually applied for scoring each question item. In the study by, a questionnaire containing 10 questions about aesthetic labour was adapted from Sizoo, Plank, Iskat et al. (2005). The Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) version 26 was employed for analysing the data. Table 1 depicts the sources from where the items have been adapted. The reliability test for all of the variables has been conducted to determine the reliability of the instrument.

Table 1

Reliability Test

Component	Cronbach's Alpha	Sources
Trust	0.919	Oz et al (1999)
Privacy	0.910	
Aesthetic Labor	0.864	Sizoo et al. (2005)
Performance	0.957	Koopmans et al (2012)

In the pre-test stage, an exploratory factor analysis was conducted. Ultimately all items were kept. The scale from Oz et al (1999) was used for work monitoring. The measurement included two dimensions (trust and privacy) and 21 question items in total. The scale of employee performance was referred to the study by Koopmans et al (2012), consisted of 7 items. All the questionnaire items were translated by bilingual native speakers of both languages to ensure accuracy and conceptual equivalence in both the Bahasa Malaysia and English versions.

Findings

Respondent Characteristics

In this study, 200 questionnaires were distributed, and 190 valid samples were collected. The sample was split equally by gender, with women accounting for 63.3% of respondents. Participants were 25 years old on average; 74% of respondents were Malay, Chinese and Indian, and 55.9% held a college degree or above.

Correlation Analysis

To answer the first research objective (1), we used Pearson correlation analysis, which examines the direct effects of workplace monitoring on employee performance. Based on Table 2, the result from Pearson Correlation (r) shows a large correlation between Trust and Employee Performance (r -value=0.629), indicating a strong relationship between these two variables. It appears that employee performance is directly related to trust.

Table 2

Result of Pearson Correlation

		Trust	Employee Performance
T	Pearson Correlation	1	.629**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	177	177
EP	Pearson Correlation	.629**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	177	177

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Based on Table 3, the result from Pearson Correlation (r) indicates a correlation between Privacy and Employee Performance (r -value=0.421 suggesting a strong relationship between these two variables. The result indicates that there is a direct effect between trust and privacy on employee performance.

Hypotheses Testing

The tests of binary hypotheses are created from an information theoretically based point of view and in an exact analogy with the asymptotically optimal channel-codes the asymptotic performance of optimal hypothesis testers is developed (Blahut, 1974). The researcher has applied multiple regression analyses in this study to adequately identify or respond to the research questions including various predictors and dependent variables. This means that two or more variables are predicted in the context of multiple regressions. In this study, this approach was applied to forecast a particular result based on a number of variables. It was therefore used to discover the variables that were the most accurate forecasts of the result. A specific independent variable can then be used to forecast a result when another variable's effects have been controlled.

The R Square value explained how much the variation was explained in the dependent variable. The output results suggest that the values of R^2 were 0,465 and that the dimensions of the independent variable, trust, and privacy, are explainable in 46,5% of variations in job monitoring.

The value of ANOVA was well above 0. With a p -value of 0.000, this showed a major regression. Less than 0.001. The result can be read as $F(2, 174) = 25,699$, $p < 0.01$, $R^2 = 0.465$. Overall, regression analyses were statistically significant when the four (4) variables were grouped, predicting employee performance as the dependent variable.

The coefficient analyses illustrate how each variable has become a major performance predictor. Based on the results, the trust p -value (p -value=0,001) was less than 0,05, indicating that it was a significant predictor of the employee's performance. To explain the hypothesis test, H1a: There is a positive relationship between trust and employee performance was confirmed.

Data protection value, on the other hand, is 0.325, which is greater than 0.05, and this is an effective indicator of employee performance. Therefore, it shows that H1b: There is a positive relationship between privacy and employee performance was supported by the results.

A moderation regression analysis of aesthetic labour, trust, and employee performance shows a p-value of 0.225, indicating a level of moderation greater than 0.05. The results did not support H2a: Aesthetic labour moderates the relationship between trust and employee performance. This was not confirmed by the results. The regression analysis between aesthetic variables, privacy, and employee performance, on the other hand, results in a p-value of 0.000, which means there is no moderation if the p-value is less than 0.05. Aesthetic work does have an impact on privacy. As a result, H2b: Aesthetic labour moderates the relationship between privacy and employee performance is not supported by the results.

Conclusion

The findings from this study provide a relationship between workplace monitoring and employee performance. In addition to using a different methodology, this study included participants from the foodservice industry in Malaysia as well. An employee's performance is the most meaningful factor in evaluating the effectiveness of monitoring. Therefore, a better performance indicator may be the monitoring of employees in the work environment. Although employees can accept being monitored during work hours, it may impact on their ability to perform effectively on the job. Individuals may be discouraged, uncomfortable, or prevented from being their normal selves in their workplace. It may happen because employers invade their employees' privacy and trust. As a result, monitoring in the workplace will lead to better results in terms of employee performance.

As a performance indicator of whether workplace monitoring is effective, employee performance is the most meaningful factor. Additionally, this study showed that trust and privacy have the most impact on employee performance. We can assume that workers are comfortable with workplace monitoring and that it enhances their performance.

Aesthetic labour variables do not play a significant role in employee trust in the monitoring process. Apparently, aesthetic labour does not interfere with the relationship between trust and employee performance. The aspect of "maintaining figures" refers to the work caused by employees' efforts to maintain their figures. According to Tyler and Abbott (1998), flight attendants must constantly invest effort and time in maintaining their figures, particularly when on a diet to maintain the ideal weight specified by the company. Aesthetic labor also has an impact on the relationship between privacy and employee performance, because most employees don't mind being monitored and are not bothered by it.

As a result, aesthetic work is partially supportive of employee performance. The management of a foodservice organization should consider employee monitoring, aesthetic labour and intercultural sensitivity as key components of training programs. The decision to incorporate such elements into monitoring programs will result in positive employee outcomes (e.g., employee satisfaction, commitment, trust, and improved working ethics and performance). In line with this study, these positive outcomes may lead to increased organizational competitiveness in the foodservice industries (Fadzilah, 2013).

Acknowledgement

This study appreciates Muhammad Uzair Fauzi, Wan Nurul Izzati Wan Ahmad Yusof and Nur Syabilla Mohamed Naushad efforts during the data collection. This study is also supported by

Visibility Research Grant (VRGS) Universiti Teknologi MARA: 600-TNCPI 5/3/DDF (FPHP) (010/2022).

References

- Abidin, C. (2020). Mapping Internet celebrity on TikTok: Exploring attention economies and visibility labours. *Cultural Science Journal*, 12(1), 77-103. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.5334/csci.140>
- Asdecker, B. (2022). Travel-Related Influencer Content on Instagram: How Social Media Fuels Wanderlust and How to Mitigate the Effect. *Sustainability*, 14(2), 855. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.3390/su14020855>
- Balaban, D., & Mustatea, M. (2019). Users' perspective on the credibility of social media influencers in Romania and Germany. *Romanian Journal of Communication and Public Relations*, 21(1), 31-46. ISSN: 1454-8100.
- Belanche, D., Flavián, M., & Ibáñez-Sánchez, S. (2020). Followers' reactions to influencers' Instagram posts. *Spanish Journal of Marketing-ESIC*. DOI: 10.1108/SJME-11-2019-0100.
- Chan, J. (2021). *Domestic Tourism as a Pathway to Revive the Tourism Industry and Business Post the COVID-19 Pandemic* (No. DP-2021-25).
- Constine, J. (2018). Instagram hits 1 billion monthly users, up from 800M in September. *Tech Crunch*, 20. (accessed 23 December 2021).
- Das, S. S., & Tiwari, A. K. (2021). Understanding international and domestic travel intention of Indian travellers during COVID-19 using a Bayesian approach. *Tourism Recreation Research*, 46(2), 228-244. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1080/02508281.2020.1830341>
- Department of Statistics Malaysia. (2021). Performance of domestic tourism by State, 2020. Retrieved December 12, 2021, from <https://www.dosm.gov.my/v1/index.php?r=column>.
- Distel, V., Egger, R., Petrovic, U., Phan, V. L., & Wiesinger, S. (2022, January). The Usage of Emoji in Tourism-Related Instagram Posts: Suggestions from a Marketing Perspective. In *ENTER22 e-Tourism Conference* (pp. 134-145). Springer, Cham. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-94751-4_13.
- Djafarova, E., & Trofimenko, O. (2019). 'Instafamous'—credibility and self-presentation of micro-celebrities on social media. *Information, communication & society*, 22(10), 1432-1446. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1080/1369118X.2018.1438491>.
- Femenia-Serra, F., Gretzel, U., & Alzua-Sorzabal, A. (2022). Instagram travel influencers in# quarantine: Communicative practices and roles during COVID-19. *Tourism Management*, 89, 104454. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2021.104454>.
- Gaber, H. R., Wright, L. T., & Kooli, K. (2019). Consumer attitudes towards Instagram advertisements in Egypt: The role of the perceived advertising value and personalization. *Cogent Business & Management*, 6(1), 1618431. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1080/23311975.2019.1618431>.
- Gossling, S., Hanna, P., Higham, J., Cohen, S., & Hopkins, D. (2019). Can we fly less? Evaluating the 'necessity' of air travel. *Journal of Air Transport Management*, 81, 101722. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jairtraman.2019.101722>
- Grave, J. F. (2017). Exploring the perception of influencers vs. Traditional celebrities: Are social media stars a new type of endorser?. In *Proceedings of the 8th international conference on Social Media & Society* (pp. 1-5). DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1145/3097286.3097322>
- Gumpo, C. I., Madinga, N. W., Maziriri, E. T., & Chuchu, T. (2020). Examining the usage of

- Instagram as a source of information for young consumers when determining tourist destinations. *South African Journal of Information Management*, 22(1), 1-11. ISSN: 1560-683X.
- Han, J., & Chen, H. (2021). Millennial social media users' intention to travel: the moderating role of social media influencer following behavior. *International Hospitality Review*. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1108/IHR-11-2020-0069>.
- Haenlein, M., Anadol, E., Farnsworth, T., Hugo, H., Hunichen, J., & Welte, D. (2020). Navigating the New Era of Influencer Marketing: How to be Successful on Instagram, TikTok, & Co. *California management review*, 63(1), 5-25. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1177/0008125620958166>
- Hunter, W. C., Chung, N., Gretzel, U., & Koo, C. (2015). Constructivist research in smart tourism. *Asia Pacific Journal of Information Systems*, 25(1), 103-118. DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.14329/apjis.2015.25.1.103>.
- Hwang, K., & Zhang, Q. (2018). Influence of parasocial relationship between digital celebrities and their followers on followers' purchase and electronic word-of-mouth intentions, and persuasion knowledge. *Computers in Human Behavior*, 87, 155-173. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chb.2018.05.029>.
- Jamil, R. A., & Hassan, S. R. ul. (2018). Influence of celebrity endorsement on consumer purchase intention for existing products: a comparative study. *Journal of Management Info*, 1(4), 1-8. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.31580/jmi.v4i1.18>
- Jang, W., Kim, J., Kim, S., & Chun, J. W. (2021). The role of engagement in travel influencer marketing: The perspectives of dual process theory and the source credibility model. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 24(17), 2416-2420. DOI: 10.1080/13683500.2020.1845126.
- Jaya, I., Trisna, P. G. I., & Prianthara, I. B. T. (2020, April). Role of social media influencers in tourism destination image: How does digital marketing affect purchase intention. In *3rd International Conference on Vocational Higher Education (ICVHE 2018), Batam, Indonesia, August* (pp. 2-4).
- Jun, S., & Yi, J. (2020). What makes followers loyal? The role of influencer interactivity in building influencer brand equity. *Journal of Product & Brand Management*. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1108/JPBM-02-2019-2280>
- Khalid, U., Okafor, L. E., & Shafiullah, M. (2020). The effects of economic and financial crises on international tourist flows: A cross-country analysis. *Journal of Travel Research*, 59(2), 315-334. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1177/0047287519834360>.
- Kim, M. J., Lee, C. K., & Jung, T. (2020). Exploring consumer behavior in virtual reality tourism using an extended stimulus-organism-response model. *Journal of travel research*, 59(1), 69-89. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1177/0047287518818915>.
- KPMG Malaysia. (2020), Get Ready for a Post-MCO Reset, April 2020. home.kpmg/my/en/home/media/press-releases/2020/05/get-ready-for-apost-mco-reset.html (accessed 23 December 2021).
- Lee, S., & Kim, E. (2020). Influencer marketing on Instagram: How sponsorship disclosure, influencer credibility, and brand credibility impact the effectiveness of Instagram promotional post. *Journal of Global Fashion Marketing*, 11(3), 232-249. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1080/20932685.2020.1752766>.
- Lou, C., & Yuan, S. (2019). Influencer marketing: how message value and credibility affect consumer trust of branded content on social media. *Journal of Interactive Advertising*, 19(1), 58-73. DOI: 10.1080/15252019.2018.1533501.

- Muda, M., & Hamzah, M. I. (2021). Should I suggest this YouTube clip? The impact of UGC source credibility on eWOM and purchase intention. *Journal of Research in Interactive Marketing*. DOI: 10.1108/JRIM-04-2020-0072.
- Malaysia Communication and Multimedia Commission (MCMC), M. (2020). Internet Users Survey 2020 1 - Suruhanjaya Komunikasi dan ... Retrieved December 23, 2021, from <https://www.mcmc.gov.my/skmmgovmy/media/General/pdf/IUS-2020-Report.pdf>.
- Mohsin, M. *10 Social Media Statistics You Need to Know in 2020*, 2020. Retrieved from <https://www.oberlo.com/blog/social-media-marketing-statistics>. (Accessed 20 Nov 2020).
- Mena, P., Barbe, D., & Chan-Olmsted, S. (2020). Misinformation on Instagram: The impact of trusted endorsements on message credibility. *Social Media+ Society*, 6(2), 2056305120935102. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1177/2056305120935102>
- Nascimento, J. D. N. P. D. (2019). *Understanding the role of influencers' credibility in social media and its impact on consumers' purchase intentions* (Doctoral dissertation). CATÓLICA Lisbon School of Business and Economics, Portugal.
- Razak, R. A., & Mansor, N. A. (2021). Instagram Influencers in Social Media-Induced Tourism: Rethinking Tourist Trust Towards Tourism Destination. In *Impact of New Media in Tourism* (pp. 135-144). IGI Global. Asdecker, B. (2022). Travel-Related Influencer Content on Instagram: How Social Media. DOI: 10.4018/978-1-7998-7095-1.ch009
- Sheldon, P., & Bryant, K. (2016). Instagram: Motives for its use and relationship to narcissism and contextual age. *Computers in human Behavior*, 58, 89-97. DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.chb.2015.12.059>.
- Statista Research Department (2022, February 11). Instagram: number of global users 2019-2023. Retrieved December 15, 2021, from <https://www.statista.com/statistics/183585/instagram-number-of-global-users/>.
- Taillon, B. J., Mueller, S. M., Kowalczyk, C. M., & Jones, D. N. (2020). Understanding the relationships between social media influencers and their followers: the moderating role of closeness. *Journal of Product & Brand Management*. DOI: 10.1108/JPBM-03-2019-2292.
- Tobias-Mamina, R. J., Kempen, E., Chinomona, R., & Sly, M. (2020). The influence of instagram advertising on destination visit intention. *African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure*, 9(3), 274-287. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.46222/ajhtl.19770720-18>.
- Tourism Malaysia. (2020). Malaysia Tourism Statistics in Brief. Retrieved December 23, 2021, from <https://www.tourism.gov.my/statistics>.
- Weismueller, J., Harrigan, P., Wang, S., & Soutar, G. N. (2020). Influencer endorsements: How advertising disclosure and source credibility affect consumer purchase intention on social media. *Australasian marketing journal*, 28(4), 160-170. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ausmj.2020.03.002>
- World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) World Tourism Barometer (English version). (2018). Retrieved December 23, 2021, from <https://www.e-unwto.org/toc/wtobarometereng/16/3>.
- World Travel & Tourism Council (WTTC). (2020). Retrieved December 23, 2021, News Article from <https://wtcc.org/News-Article/WTTC-now-estimates-over-100-million-jobs-losses-in-the-Travel->
- Xu, X., & Pratt, S. (2018). Social media influencers as endorsers to promote travel destinations:

- an application of self-congruence theory to the Chinese Generation Y. *Journal of travel & tourism marketing*, 35(7), 958-972. DOI: 10.1080/10548408.2018.1468851.
- Yilmazdogan, O. C., Dogan, R. S., & Altintas, E. (2021). The impact of the source credibility of Instagram influencers on travel intention: The mediating role of parasocial interaction. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 27(3), 299-313. DOI: 10.1177/1356766721995973.
- Zeljko, D., Jakovic, B., & Strugar, I. (2018). New Methods of Online Advertising: Social Media Influencers. *Annals of DAAAM & Proceedings*, 29. DOI: 10.2507/29th.daaam.proceedings.006
- Zhang, H., Xu, F., Leung, H. H., & Cai, L. A. (2016). The influence of destination-country image on prospective tourists' visit intention: Testing three competing models. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, 21(7), 811-835. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1080/10941665.2015.1075566>