EFFECTS OF GENDER ON EMPLOYEE PAY AND RETENTION IN FIVE STAR HOTELS IN NAIROBI COUNTY

BY

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DECLARATION

Declaration by the student

This thesis is my original work and has not been presented for Master of Science degree in hospitality management or any degree in any other institution of learning and that all sources of information have been acknowledged by means of references.

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this thesis to my dear mother Ann Wanjiku for her selfless support and passion for education. I am eternally grateful.

ABSTRACT

Labor turnover have proven to be a global crises, especially in the hospitality industry. Generally, majority of hotels are grappling with employee retention that is a resultant of employee turnover. While many studies have been conducted with a view of understanding employee retention in hotels, the debate on the effects of gender on pay and retention among hotels is not exhaustive. This study aimed at establishing the effects of gender on pay gap and employee retention among five-star hotels in Nairobi County. Specifically, the study sought; To assess the pay gap between male and female employees in five star hotels in Nairobi, To determine the effects of gender on employee pay in five-star hotels in Nairobi, To identify job characteristics and social-demographic factors that influence employee pay and retention in five-star hotels in Nairobi and to determine the effects of gender on employee retention in five star hotels in Nairobi. The study adopted a quantitative approach with a cross-sectional research design. The target population of the study was 392 employees from five star hotels in Nairobi County. Multistage sampling technique was employed to draw 197 respondents. Data collected using self-administered questionnaires was analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistics in SPSS. Mean difference and independent sample t- was used to assess the employee pay gap between male and female employees. General linear modeling (GLM) Univariate ANOVA was used to test the main effects of independent variable on dependent variables for the second, third and fourth objectives. The wage mean between male and female employees did significantly different at p=.040 and male employees had a lower wage mean of 2.80 than the female employees who reported a wage mean of 3.58. Gender had a significant effect on employee pay F (16.815, 1) = 4.42, P=.038 and the effect size partial Eta squared = .039. The job characteristics and demographic factors that influenced employee pay were the level of education (F=12.707, P=.000), position held (F=8.253,P=.001), department(F=3.210, P=.010), age group(F=4.230, P=.018), and number of years worked in the hotel(F=2.655, P=.053). The job characteristics and demographic factors that significantly influenced employee retention were gender (F=3.603, P=.051), department (F=4.722, P=.001) and number of hours worked (F=3.518, P=.034) .Gender also had a significant effect on employee retention (F=3.603, P=.051).In addition, pairwise comparisons showed that female earned significantly higher salaries than male employees (MD= 78, p=0.04) and female employees have higher retention rates than male employees (MD= 6.89, p=0.05). This study concluded that gender has a significant effect on employee pay and retention, where female employee earned more pay than male and were more likely to be retained. The outcomes of the study are to point at key areas to focus on when addressing the high employee turnover and improve employee retention in respect to gender. The study findings therefore will inform the hospitality human resource managers and academicians on gender issues and employee retention in the hospitality industry.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

AMO – Ability, Motivation and Opportunity

ANOVA – Analysis Of Variance

CEDAW - Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination Against Women

EMM – Estimated Margin of Means

ERR - Employee Retention Rate

ETR- Employee Turnover Rate

ER - Employee retention

GLM – General Linear Modeling

HR – Human Resource

HTC – Human Capital Theory

ILO - International Labor Organization

KAHC -Kenya Association of Hotel Keepers

LGBTQI- Lesbian Gay Bisexual Transgender Queer Intersex

KTF – Kenya Tourism Federation

MUERC – Maseno University Ethical Review Committee

NCCC - Nairobi County Chamber of Commerce

RTE- Registered Tourism Enterprise

TRA –Tourism Regulatory Authority

TRAR –Tourism Regulatory Authority Regulatory

UN – United Nations

UNDP - United Nations Development Programme

DEFINITION OF TERMS

Androgyny - Blending of feminine and masculine attributes in the same individual.

Confidence interval – Refers to a range of values that likely would contain an unknown population parameter. It is used to express the degree of uncertainty associated with a sample statistic.

Confidence level –Refers to the percentage of probability, or certainty, that the *confidence interval* would contain the true population parameter when you draw a random sample many times. That is the percentage of probability, or certainty, that the *confidence interval* would contain the true population parameter when you draw a random sample many times.

Custom model - A model that represent ***some*** (specific to the study) possible combinations of the levels of the categorical predictors, a model that specify a number of variables and interactions of interest to a specific study

Effect size - An effect size is a measure of how important a difference is; it is a statistical concept that measures the strength of the relationship between two variables on a numeric scale.

Employee Retention - Employees remaining on the job for a long time and not willing to quit for other job opportunities in the job market.

Estimated Marginal Means - Indicate the mean response for each factor, adjusted for any other variables in the model.

Full factorial model - A model that represent ***all*** possible combinations of the levels of the categorical predictors

Gender: Refers to the attitudes, feelings, and behaviors that a given culture associates with a person's biological sex.

Gender inequality- refers to unequal treatment or perceptions of individuals wholly or partly due to their gender.

Gender stereotyping- refers to the practice of ascribing to an individual woman or man specific attributes, characteristics, or roles by reason only of her or his membership in the social group of women or men.

Gender pay gap - Wages and benefits difference between male and female

Hospitality industry- A range of businesses in the service industry which include hotels, bars and restaurants

Independent sample t-test - A parametric that compares the means of two *independent* groups in order to determine whether there is statistical evidence that the associated population means are significantly different.

Kenya's Vision 2030- Kenya's development program whose objective is to help transform Kenya into industrialized middle-income country

Labor market-The supply and demand of labor

Lack of fit test – A test that indicates whether the custom model agrees with the general (full factorial) model

Leadership-This is the authority or the management of an organization.

Levene's test – This is a statistical procedure for testing equality of variances between two or more sample populations. Levene's test is also referred to as homoscedasticity or homogeneity of variances

Organizational Culture-How things are done in an organization and how employees are expected to fit into the organization. The shared values, beliefs and assumption that exist among employees within a company that help guide and coordinate behavior.

Mean difference – also referred to as difference in means. It is a standard statistic that measures the absolute difference between the mean values in two groups.

Motivation-The morale to work towards the achievement of a certain objective

Pair wise comparisons - Pairwise comparisons refer to a statistical method that is used to evaluate relationships between pairs of means when doing group comparisons. Generally is any process of *comparing* entities in pairs to judge which of each entity is preferred, or has a greater amount of some quantitative property, or whether or not the two entities are identical

Parameter estimates – Are outputs used to show the effect of each predictor, they are therefore useful for quantifying the effect of each model term.

Partial eta- The percentage of the total variance in the dependent variable accounted for by the variance between groups (categories) formed by the dependent variable

Partial eta squared - An estimate of effect size reported in conjunction with analysis of variance (ANOVA) and generalized linear model (GLM) analyses.

Pay- Wages and benefits in terms of salaries, rewards, overtime and bonuses

Pay gap – Wages and benefits difference between groups

Post hoc test – Multiple tests carried out after the results are analysed

Satisfaction-This refers to the degree of contentment at the workplace.

Test between subjects – This is an analysis of variance table where each term in the model, plus the model as whole, is tested for its ability to account for variation in the dependent variable

Turnover-This refers to the tendency of employees leaving their job for another.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

This chapter describes the background of the study, statement of the problem, the objectives of the study, research question and the hypotheses. It also highlights the significance and justification of the study, the scope and limitations, study assumptions, and the conceptual framework

1.2 Background of the Study

The hospitality industry is one of the successful industries because of the remarkable contribution to the economy, in Kenya and globally. The hospitality services are majorly customer service oriented, as a result, the industry capitalizes heavily on human resources. These have resulted to the industry having higher amount of human capital invested than it is in other industries (Kuria, Wanderi, & Ondigi, 2012). The hospitality industry is one of the service sectors with a notably large and rapid growth rate with an average of 55.5% of female labor force globally and up to 70%, who are engaged in diverse roles such as stewards, cooks, front office personnel, hostesses, and even at all levels of management (Baum, 2013). Women and especially the African women have been known to play a negligible role as far as economic development is concerned and that it is not only until very recent that some acknowledgement has been given on the contribution of women to economic growth. Such improvements have been highlighted by the CERT Employment Survey (2001) in Ireland showed the male/female ratio in employment to be 48 percent/52 percent.

At managerial level, the survey showed that women account for over 40 percent of the total employed. They hold 42 percent of management positions (52 percent in hotels and 33 percent in restaurants). However, this situation has not been completely addressed especially in the hospitality industry where the trend appears to be the same. This is in spite of the view that women appear to be suitable for this industry due to their hospitable nature and most of the work of the work tends to be similar to household chores. Male employees have dominated the hospitality industry although there have been some considerable gains in the levels of female participation. It is mainly through properly laid down policies and rules that women participation can be increased. Some countries have taken proactive measures to increase the number of females in the workplace. (Koome, Kipruto, kibe, & kiama, 2013).

Gender inequality is where by women and men are deemed unequal legally, economically, socially, and culturally. It takes many different forms, based on the economic, social and cultural parameters. When gender inequality is spoken of, it is women who are disadvantaged compared to man in the same situation (Lorber & Judith, 2010). Labor force participation and employment ratios, Unemployment rates, Job segregation, and Gender wage differentials are some examples of gender inequalities indicators. Income is listed as perhaps among one of the most basic indicators of gender inequality. The fifth edition of the global gender gap report concluded that no country in the world has achieved equality. The highest ranking countries include Iceland, Finland and Norway which have a little over 80% whereas Yemen ranks the lowest with around 46% of its gender gap. Notably, in as much as the global wage growth is relatively low since 2008, the gender wage gap remains unacceptably high whereby women still earn 20 per cent less than men.

Employee retention is defined as the efforts made by an organization to come up with plans to support and keep the employees working in the organization for longer that the competitors. Human resource management practices play pivotal role in employee's retention and better quality work (Agyeman & Ponniah, 2014). Labour turnover is estimated at 68% in five star rated hotels, (Wanderi & Ondigi, 2011) that mean that retention can be estimated at 32% in the same five star hotels in Nairobi. Several studies have focused on the relationship and effects of the different social demographic factors and retention. (Joanna Swaffield (2000), Agyeman, C. M., & Ponniah, V. M. (2014), Osipova, M. (2014) this study picked on some job characteristics and social demographic factors that were common in most studies, run custom models in order to identify the specific factors that had a significant effect on employee pay and retention.

From this background, it is clear that the hospitality industry engage a relatively high number of female employees than most industries. The industry is also a faced with employee retention as major challenge and gender issues particularly gender pay gap is reviewed. The reviewed literature indicated several gaps in knowledge which the study sought to bridge. First, a similar study was carried out by Juan Antonio Campos-Soriabut in Spain on gender wage inequality and labor mobility in the hospitality sector. There is limited literature of the situation in the hospitality industry in Kenya particularly in five star hotels in Nairobi County. Secondly several studies (Fleming, 2015, Bullon, 2009, Santos & Varejao, 2006, Thrane, 2008, Wyatt, 2016, and Skalpe & Ole, 2007) have shown the reality of gender based pay differential in the hospitality industry however, in the hospitality industry in Kenya particularly in hotels little is known about the issue, there seems to be a gap in knowledge which this study hopes to bridge. The literature review also identified a number of factors that influence employee pay and retention; the study

identified a gap in knowledge of the contribution of gender among other factors to employee pay and retention and sought to bridge this gap.

1.3 Statement of the Problem

The hospitality industry is listed among the industries with high employee turnover rate therefore hotels are still grappling with employee retention. This has led to many studies being conducted with a view of understanding employee retention in hotels. The hospitality industry is considered a feminine industry, with relatively high female labor participation engaged in diverse roles. Gender inequality remains an issue within labor markets globally and a debate that has engaged academics for many years. When gender inequality is spoken of, it is women who are disadvantaged compared to man in the same situation and women continue to earn less than men in same jobs in the hospitality ventures. Generally, income is listed among one of the most basic indicators of gender inequality, studies have confirmed that gender- based pay differential is a reality in the hospitality industry. However there is little information on whether the gender pay gap is a reality, and if it has any relationship with the poor retention rates in hotels. The factors attributed to employee retention are well spelt out in the extant literature; however, there is a gap in knowledge on the contribution of gender to employee retention in the hospitality industry, particularly among five-star hotels in Nairobi County. Therefore the study sought to explore gender issues particularly the relationship between gender, employee pay, and employee retention in five star hotels in Nairobi County.

1.4 General Objective

The general objective of this study is to investigate effects of gender on employee pay and employee retention in five star hotels in Nairobi County.

1.4.1 Specific Objectives

The following objectives guided the study:

1. To assess the pay gap between male and female employees in five star hotels in Nairobi
2. To determine the effects of gender on employee pay in five-star hotels in Nairobi
3. To identify job characteristics and social-demographic factors that influence employee pay and retention in five-star hotels in Nairobi
4. To determine the effects of gender on employee retention in five star hotels in Nairobi

1.4.2 Research Question

The study was guided by one research question as stated below;

1. What is the pay gap between male and female employees in five star hotels in Nairobi?

1.4.3 Hypotheses

Further, the research study was guided by the following four hypotheses;

H_{01} Gender does not have an effect on employee pay in five-star hotels in Nairobi

H_{02} Job characteristics and social-demographic factors do not influence employee pay and employee retention in five-star hotels in Nairobi

H_{03} Gender does not have an effect on employee retention in five star hotels in Nairobi.

1.5 Justification of the Study

The study was carried out in Nairobi because the county plays host to the largest number of five star hotels in Kenya hence the county with the estimated highest number of five star employees, with relatively high wages and allowances as compared to other counties. This study sought to interrogate perceived gender- based inconsistencies and how they relate to the low employee retention rate in the hospitality industry. The outcomes of the study are to point at key areas to focus on when addressing the high employee turnover and improve employee retention in respect to gender. The study findings will inform the hospitality human resource managers and academicians on gender issues and employee retention in the hospitality industry.

1.6 Significance of the Study

The general objective of this study is to investigate effects of gender on employee pay and retention in five star hotels in Nairobi County. The study was aimed at pointing out the key factors that have significant effect employee pay and retention. The study finding will therefore be beneficial to the employers and managers the results will inform sound human resources planning, better handling of gender issues and employee retention strategies in the hospitality industry. For scholars and future researchers, the results will be used to further the available body of knowledge and theories explaining the relationship between gender employee pay and employee retention in the hospitality industry. To the general hospitality industry players to study will demystify gender pay gap intricacies and perceptions.

1.7 Assumptions of the Study

The study anchored on the following assumptions;

(i) All the targeted respondents in this study were truthful in their responses and knowledgeable about the topic of study.

(ii) All the five star hotels in Nairobi pay at least the minimum wage of ksh.14,000

(iii)All the respondents would willingly and timely respond.

1.8 Scope of the study

The study scope was hotel employees in all cadres, in Nairobi five star hotels in order to allow pay variance. The study focused on job characteristics, work hours, employment terms and department as the specific factors loading to job characteristics, and gender, age, education level, experience, and marital status as the social demographics factors.

1.9 Conceptual Framework

A conceptual model explains graphically or in narrative form the main things to be studied in terms of the key factors, constructs or variables and the presumed relationship among them. Based on literature review, the conceptual framework in Figure 1.1 is designed to present relationships among study variables.

In this study, gender is the main and independent study variable which was defined as either male or female. Employee pay was the first dependent variable which was employee pay where factors that loaded to it were salaries and wages, team rewards, individual rewards, overtime, and bonuses. Employee retention is the second dependent variable which was measured by the overall retention rate. The study further included control variables which included job

characteristics and social demographic characteristics whereby, factors that loaded to job characteristics were department, management level, work hours, and employment terms. The factors that loaded to social demographic characteristics were age, education and work experience, and marital status.

Independent Variables **Dependent variables**

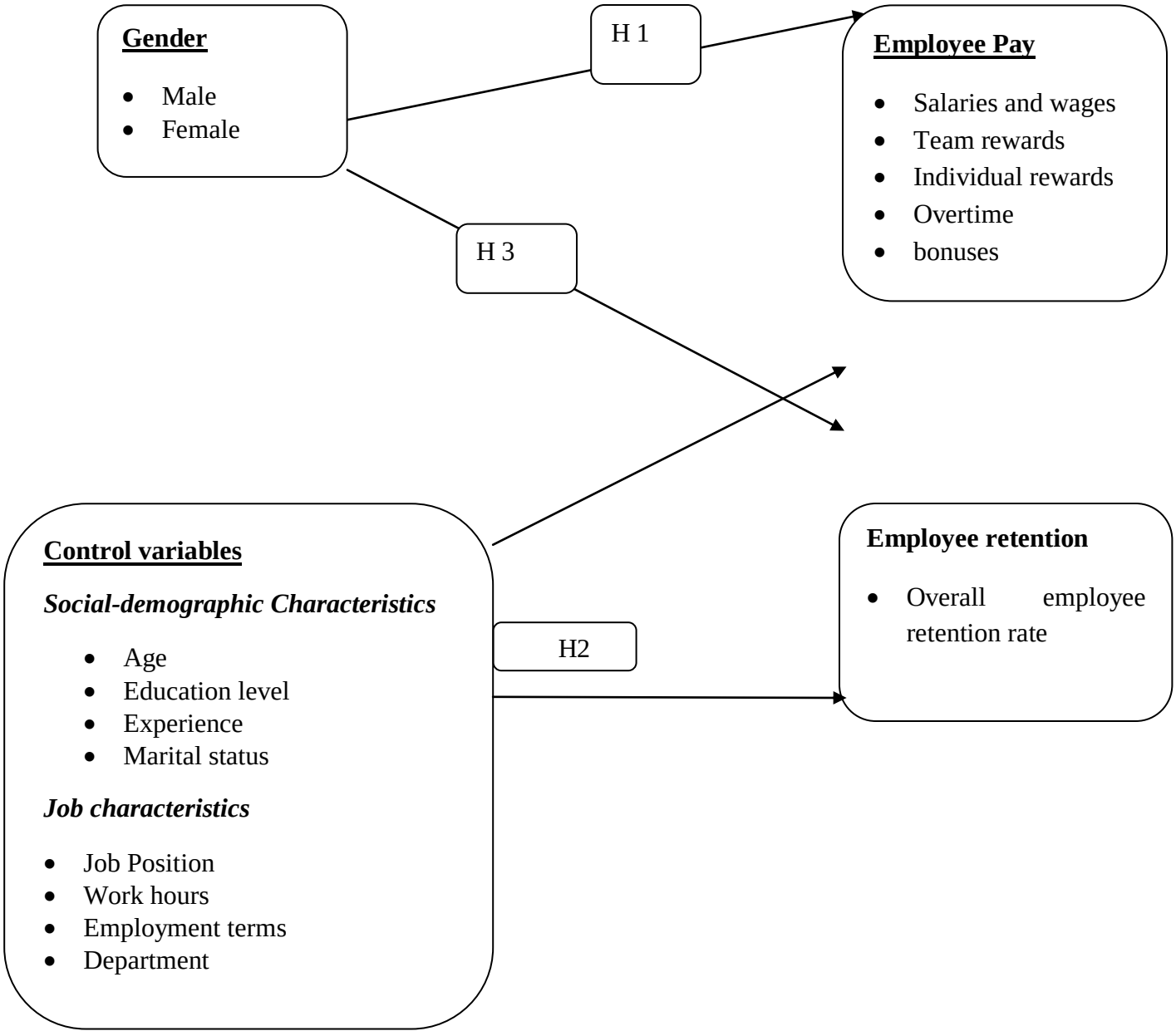

Figure 1.1 Conceptual framework

Source: Author(2019)

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter reviewed literature from other researchers on gender, employee pay, and retention. This chapter also critiqued and summarized the reviewed literature outlining a summary of the knowledge gaps for consideration and further investigation.

2.2 Gender

The Longman dictionary of Contemporary English (1992) describes gender as the fact of being either male or female, whereas the term imbalance refers to not being equal. However, Hesse-Biber & Carger (2000) views gender as being determined socially; it is the societal meaning assigned to male and female. The few gender issues that have been addressed in the hospitality industry include gender inequality (Lorber & Judith, 2010), gender discrimination and segregation (Campos-Soria, García-Pozo, & Sánchez-Ollero, 2018), gender pyramid, gender role stereotyping, and gender pay gap (Blau & Kahn, 2017). Top in the list of gender issues is gender pay gap which is the average difference between a man's and a woman's aggregate wages or salaries, is the gap that is left when all other factors that may contribute to lower yearly earnings for women are adjusted for. The links between equality of opportunity and treatment for women and men in quality jobs, workforce development, training opportunities and employment in the hotel industry is a subject that has been explored somewhat at national or local levels. However, there is less information regarding gender equality provisions and major international companies in a regional/global context (Baum, 2013). Globally, different gender issues in hospitality industry have been analyzed for example patterns analysis of occupational segregation by gender

in the hospitality industry in Andalusia, Spain (Campos-Soria, García-Pozo, & Sánchez-Ollero, 2018) In the tourism industry, Kinnaird & Hall (1994), Wilkinson & Pratiwi (1995), and Sinclair (1997) establish the conceptual framework for analyzing gender issues in tourism. These authors noted the scarce literature on gender wage differences in the tourism industry, despite the fact that tourism is an important source of employment in some countries. While to my knowledge there are scarce empirical studies on gender issues in the hospitality industry in Kenya. To be particular, gender, employee pay, pay gap, employee retention and their relationship in five star hotels in Nairobi County.

Tourism other than being an important foreign exchange earner in Kenya is a means of employment for its citizens. It is therefore vital to evaluate gender participation especially with the growing global advocacy of women to participate in formal employment among other economic activities. (Koome, Kipruto, kibe, & kiama, 2013) Gender gap studies using micro data are plentiful for both developed and developing countries, though data limitations make cross-country comparisons difficult. Wage and earning indicators tend to be developed based on country- (or region-) specific criteria that are not always comparable. For example, Blau and Kahn (2003) conducted a study looking for international comparison in gender pay gap, but their sample is limited mostly to developed economies. Weichselbaumer and Winter-Ebmer (2005) use meta-analysis to generalize the results from more than 260 country studies. Akiko contributed to the literature by augmenting wage data compiled by the International Labour Organization (ILO) to create a data set of 53 economies during 1995–2011. Taking advantage of the panel aspects of the data, they modeled a cross-country gender wage gap differences by both micro and macro-level factors. (Hagiwara, CamingueRomance, & Zveglich, 2018)

One of the gender studies carried out in the hospitality industry investigated gender diversity and the status of women in the hospitality industry in Turkey. The study explored the potential relationships between employees' gender and four other demographic variables, including employees' job position in the hospitality industry, the department in which they are employed, and their education level and age. The study also examined employees' beliefs regarding both the recruitment of men and women and the earning potential of men and women within the hospitality industry (Pinar, McCuddya, Birkanb, & Kozakc, 2016)

2.2.1 Gender pay gap

Pay or wage differences are widespread, but some wage differences or pay gaps arise when individuals are paid in a discriminatory manner. Such discrimination may have their roots in race, gender, religion or just intuition. When wage is discrimination is on the basis of gender, then the term gender wage gap comes to play. Gender pay gap which is the average difference between a man's and a woman's aggregate wages or salaries, is the gap that is left when all other factors that may contribute to lower yearly earnings for women are adjusted for. The gender wage gap is a measure of what women are paid relative to men. It is commonly calculated by dividing women's wages by men's wages, and this ratio is often expressed as a percent, or in dollar terms. This tells us how much a woman is paid for each dollar paid to a man. (Gould, Schieder, & Geier, 2016)

The initial step in exploring the gender pay gap is to simply compare the pay for women and men, which happens to be the first objective of the study. Female employees are reasonably disadvantaged in terms of earnings meaning, wage gap exists in favor of male employees (Arbache, Kolev, & Piak, 2010). Gender pay or wage and benefits gap is an important indicator

of the personal and economic well-being, and can be used to indicate and inform on the progress of women in the labor market. It is noted that a major and consistent impact on the gap in earning based on gender is as a result of the data set type used. For example, when compared to a sample of the population randomly, when a sample of entrants in the labor market is analyzed, the gender wage gap seems to be lower. Similarly, the wage gap is notably low in the public sector and when a slim occupation is studied. Of interest, the gender wage gap is relatively high, using a sample with low-prestige jobs, also termed as blue-collar jobs and notably low for prestigious jobs that are usually for college graduates and academic jobs as compared to happen in an all-inclusive occupation sample. According to Becker's household specialization model (1991), the wage gap is highest for married employees and significantly lower for the unmarried employees. Whereas the gender wage gap is smaller among minority workers (Weichselbaumer & Winter-Ebmer, 2005).

Juan analyzed from a gender perspective the reasons for the discrepancy between actual and required levels of education, and the resulting differences in returns to education, using a human capital mobility framework; and based on an explicitly theoretical approach, decomposed the gender wage gap and draw attention to the effects of educational mismatch, occupational segregation (distinguishing between horizontal and vertical segregation), and internal and external labor mobility on the gender wage difference. He finally assessed the relative impact of educational mismatch, labor mobility, and horizontal and vertical segregation on the gender wage difference in the hospitality industry in Spain. (Campos-Soria, García-Pozo, & Sánchez-Ollero, 2018) Sampling research participants on anonymous online platforms produced gender pay inequities, independent of demographics or type of task. While exact cause of the inequity was not clear, the online sampling environment produced similar gender pay inequities as those

observed in other more traditional labor markets, after controlling for relevant covariates. (Litmat, Robinson, & Watson, 2020)

Lack of progress in closing the wage gap should add urgency to the ongoing efforts to improve women's employment status in the hospitality industry. The hospitality industry has several organizations intended to assist in advancing women, such as the Network of Executive Women in Hospitality; Women Chefs & Restaurateurs; the Women's Foodservice Forum; and the American Hotel & Lodging Association Women in Lodging. Additionally, such firms as Marriott, Accor, Wyndham, and Carlson Hotels have launched their own efforts to promote women. Additionally, although none of the hospitality companies in the Fortune 500 have had women CEOs, other prominent players such as Carlson Rezidor, Denihan, Fairmont, and Four Seasons have all had women in the position of CEO or president. Despite these positive signs of progress, research continue to demonstrate that in addition to the wage gap, women face a variety of other barriers to their advancement. Among these barriers is the lack of a clear promotional ladder for women, a limited number of role models, and a certain level of inflexibility in job assignments. One indication of that situation is that women make up 52.4 percent of the labor force in Fortune 500 hospitality companies, but only 15.5 percent of executive officers. (Fleming, 2015)

Repeated studies have found gender-based inconsistencies in the way the industry evaluates, compensates, and supports its employees, often resulting in barriers to the advancement of women. Direct pay discrimination is illegal in many countries, and institutionalized discrimination is a major global concern for human resources in general. It is evident that there exist some gender inequalities and discrepancies within the hospitality industry as aforementioned, however a gap in knowledge of the reality of gender pay gap in hotels in Kenya.

The study therefore sought to explore the reality of gender pay particularly in five star hotels in Nairobi County, and the gender it favors.

2.2.2 International Gender Pay Gap Overview

Data from the World Economic Forum in 2015 that evaluated the gender pay gap in 145 countries, whereby the evaluations took into account factors such as educational attainment, opportunity and economic participation, health and survival, as well as political empowerment scores. The gender pay gap has been explained by different factors such as occupation and industry category have been shown historically to be the greatest contributors to the gender wage gap (Fleming, 2015). Several researchers in their studies both globally have established the evidence of gender wage gap (Francine Blau, Lawrence M Kahn, Campos-Soria, Jane Kakubo, Donna BobbitZeher, OlkaObadic, and Erastus Kaifa). For example the ratio of women's to men's earnings was estimated to range from 40 percent in Kenya (Mariara, 2003), to 70 percent in Cameroon (Lachaud 1997), 80 percent in Botswana (Siphambe & Bakwena, 2001), and 90 percent in Burkina Faso (Lachaud 1997).

In the hospitality industry the gender wage gap is particularly low and the gap changes across the wage distribution. a large part of the gender wage gap in hospitality is not explained by worker or company characteristics. The segregation of women into worse-paid jobs and gender discrimination (or unobserved characteristics) seem to be the main sources of the gender wage gap. (Xisco & Sard, 2020) A study on Gender pay discrimination in the hospitality industry in South Africa concluded that women entering hospitality companies must be accorded more opportunities for upward movement into top executive positions which, for many decades, have been the preserve of men. More aggressive efforts are needed to overcome the lack of

transformation, diversity and gender discrimination which exists in the hospitality industry. (Vettori & Nicolaides, 2019)

The fifth edition of the global gender gap report concluded that no country in the world has achieved equality. The highest ranking countries include Iceland, Finland and Norway which have a little over 80% whereas Yemen ranks the lowest with around 46% of its gender gap. From the same report, in as much as the global wage growth is relatively low since 2008, the gender wage gap remains unacceptably high whereby women still earn 20 per cent less than men. The gender pay gap is likely to continue into the future owing to the fact that evidence indicate that the difference has slowed down in the recent years. In as much as gender discrimination particularly against women has been on the decline, fragments of the said, discrimination are still being manifested. The bulk of this decline, however, was due to better labor market endowments of women. The 260 published estimates show that the unexplained component of the gap has not declined over time. (Weichselbaumer & Winter-Ebmer, 2005).

The process of closing the gender pay gap has slowed substantially and women could earn less than men for the next 150 years because of discrimination and ineffective government policies (Appleton, Hoddinott, & Krishnan, 2017). Very few studies have taken the challenge of conducting a meta-analysis of past studies that estimate the effect of gender-based discrimination on women in the workforce. Particularly, three peer-reviewed journal articles (Jarrell & Stanley, 2004; Stanley & Jarrell, 1998; Weichselbaumer & Winter-Ebmer, 2005) conducted meta-analyses of the gender pay gap in the workforce. Astrid attributes a number of factors to gender pay gap including pre-labor market factors, such as field of study or experience as well as occupation, "family gap" the work interruption after childbirth, which leads to wage losses through human capital depreciation and detachment from work, workplace discrimination which

causes the discriminated-against group (here, women) to have short-run equilibrium wage rates that are just low enough to compensate for the employer's distaste. Gender differences in job search and job mobility is another contributory factor to the gender wage gap. Evidence suggests that another important explanation of the gender wage gap is that women are sorted into less well-paid jobs. (Kunze, 2017)

This gender pay gap has been attributed to numerous systemic causes such as the industry, level of performance, work experience, labor market, negotiation ability, occupation, job scale, academic qualification, among others. Wage differences for same work may the confines of teams or sectors within a company, departments, or branches of an industry. Similar work is compared in terms of the minimum skills or education needed to execute a task properly. Principally, men and women undertaking same jobs or tasks should be enumerated with as much equity as possibly. That means that the type of contract, working duration, should not be used as a pretext for unequal rewards. To date, in the Kenyan hospitality industry, there is very lean literature on gender pay gaps in five star hotels and its effect on employee retention. This study addresses the gap in literature by reviewing past studies to identify factors that significantly affect the gender pay gap as well analyzing the relationship among gender, employee pay and retention.

2.2.3 The Gender Gap in Kenya

Kenya was placed 57th in terms of the Global Gender Gaps study of wage equality, above the United States and only one below Switzerland, while Kenya is not one of the lowest performers; it has a long way to go in tackling the socio-cultural, political and economic barriers that prevent gender equity in everyday life. When it comes to employment, Kenyan women face a double

tragedy on the one hand women are less likely to be employed than men. On the other, employed women are likely to earn less than men. On average women earn 67 per cent of the salary of men in other words, a third less. Although this difference is large, Kenya ranks better compared to the rest of the world, because women's pay generally lags far behind that of men, even in some of the world's most developed countries. A study on wage determination and gender wage gap in Kenya 2003 indicates that the largest component of the unexplained wage gap in all sectors springs from male advantage. The ratio of women's to men's earnings was estimated from 40 percent up in Kenya (Mariara, 2003).

Kenya's Constitution Entrenches Gender Inequality which include the right to equal opportunities in political, social, and economic activities for men and women in the Bill of Rights section, as well as equal rights to inherit and own property. Kenya's existing constitution largely dates from its independence from the United Kingdom (U.K.) in 1963. It asserts—in Articles 70 and 82(1)—that there should be no discrimination before the law in the treatment of different persons. The impact of these constitutional provisions can be seen in some of Kenya's key laws that go to the heart of gender inequality. The Ministry of Trade and Industry has developed Kenya's first Private Sector Development Strategy (PSDS). The PSDS document sets out the government's medium-term priorities to enable private sector–led growth in Kenya, and it recognizes gender as a "crosscutting issue" that must be integrated within the government policies.

The Kenyan government has institutionalized its commitment to addressing gender inequalities by creating a National Commission on Gender and Development and a Ministry of Gender, Sports, Culture and Social Services in 2004, as well as initiating Gender Desks in various ministries. Given the increasing amount of research that demonstrates the importance of reducing

gender inequalities for economic growth and poverty reduction, these are steps in a positive direction. Kenya is today also one of only two African countries with an active local chapter of the Organization of Women in International Trade (OWIT) in the private sector. Indeed, encouragement from OWIT promoted the creation of the Gender Unit in the Ministry of Trade and Industry. Although Kenya has committed to gender equality through international law and is party to many key international conventions on the status of women, including the important Convention for the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW), this has not translated into domestic law. (Ellis, Cutura, Dione, Gillson, Manuel, & Thongori, 2007)

Kenyan women are making a large (although frequently "invisible") economic contribution, particularly in agriculture and the informal business sector, while men tend to dominate in the formal sector. More than 75 percent of women live in rural areas (ILO 2004), where they dominate the agricultural sector (floriculture, tea, coffee, vegetables, cereals, poultry, mangos, and oranges). Women in Kenya are also "time-poor" because of their dual roles in the household economy and the labor market. On average, women work longer hours (12.9 hours) compared with those of men (8.2 hours), yet they earn less because more of these hours are not remunerated .The World Bank's Country Assistance Strategy recognizes that "women are more likely than men to be poor and (more) vulnerable to adverse shocks than men" according to World Bank 2004. In Kenya, 54 percent of rural and 63 percent of urban women and girls live below the poverty line (Ellis, Cutura, Dione, Gillson, Manuel, & Thongori, 2007).

2.3 Factors that influence employee pay

Given the range of potential influences on a country's male and female wage structure, it would seem practical to develop and apply a statistical technique which allows policy-makers to

identify the relative importance of different factors that contribute to the gender pay gap. The characteristics of men and women in the labor market differ with respect to the length of work experience, the level of education and skills, occupational status and sector of employment. Given that each of these characteristics has some association with the level of earnings, it is assumed appropriate to adjust the pay data so as to distinguish what proportion of the overall pay gap is due to differences in individual characteristics and what proportion is due to sex discrimination within the labor market. (Grimshaw & Rubery, 2002)

2.3.1 Social demographic factors

Social factors being the facts and experiences that influence individual's personality attitudes and lifestyle, affects preferences, behavior, and incentives. These social factors therefore are key factors to understand gender pay gap in labor force participation. These Social factors include among others; gender, education, family, social stratification, and social economic position. For example, Hesse views gender as being determined socially; it is the societal meaning assigned to male and female. Each society emphasizes particular roles that each sex should play, although there is wide latitude in acceptable behaviors for each gender (Hesse-Biber & Carger, 2000) Education is a another social demographic factor whereby Gender differences disadvantage women income wise on several educational measures. These education measures that bring about gender pay gap are in terms of choice of a college major, skills as measured by standardized tests, the level of education, as well as the choice of college attended. Occupation, field and industry whereby workers in female-dominated industries average 20 % less in annual earnings workers in male- dominated industries. This therefore suggests that the gender composition of fields should not be overlooked when explaining the gender pay gap (Zeher, 2007).The effects of family formation, is yet another social factor that contributes to the gender pay gap particularly

marriage and parenthood and their impact on participation in paid labor are implicated in gender income disparities. For example, women with children make 10 - % 15 percent less than do women without children. The penalty for having children is greater for married women than for unmarried women (Budig & Engalnd, 2001).

2.3.2 Job characteristics

Some of the job characteristics such as the industry and nature of work has been top in the list of factors that explain the gender wage gap. There however exists a gap in knowledge since the hospitality industry is generally considered a famine industry. Which should ideally translate to no gender gap in the industry, or if there is, then it should disadvantage men. However, the extant literature reveals that the gender wage gap is evident in the hospitality industry as well and unfortunately tends to disadvantage women just like in all other industries.

2.4 Pay gap between male and female employees

There is little dispute that a gender-based pay differential exists in the hospitality industry in many countries different studies have proved this, For example, a study of over 100,000 hospitality employees in Norway found that men were paid about 20 percent more than women between 1994 and 2002 (Thrane, 2008)A study of Norwegian tourism firms found a significant pay gap between male and female CEOs (Skalpe & Ole,, 2007). Another study, found that a somewhat smaller gap in a study in Spain's six tourism regions, but the gap between men and women still exceeded 6 percent in spite of Spain's minimum wage law, specifically at a mean of 12%. (Bullon, 2009). In Portugal's hospitality sector, a gap of 8.4 percent in salaries paid to men and women was found (Santos & Varejao, 2006). a study in 2007 by the United States General Accountability Office among full-time managers in thirteen industry sectors found that within

the hospitality and leisure sector, women's pay averaged 80 percent of that of men in most years between 2000 and 2007 (Fleming, 2015). Fleming found out that women still earn 25% less an hour, on average, which is likely to reflect the pay differentials in different hospitality industries, where more women are found working in the public sector.

Although, the gap between male and female pay for those working as publicans has narrowed by 9% since 2011 and the gap for restaurant managers has increased by 14%. The disparity for women working as hotel and accommodation managers amounts to almost £12,000 a year. The greatest disparity in earnings is between men and women working as cooks, with men earning on average £3,678 more, whereas men working as chefs earn £1,863 on average than female chefs. It is therefore evident that Women continue to earn less than men in equivalent jobs in the hospitality and tourism business, the gap between the sexes has been narrowing since 2011 and in some instances by considerable amounts. For instance, women working as chefs earned 15% less than men per annum in 2011, which is now down to 9% and the gap for those working as receptionists has narrowed by 17% between 2011 and 2015. (Wyatt, 2016).

research evidently reveals that, in several African countries, female worker are not likely to be engaged in paid jobs, and those who engage are concentrated disproportionately in informal employment and paid less than men in substantial measures. (Appleton, Hod- dinott, and Krishnan 1999; Bigsten and Horton 1997; Brilleau, Roubaud, and Torelli 2004; ECA 2005; Glick and Roubaud 2004; ILO 2002; Lachaud 1997).It is therefore evident that the gender pay gap is a reality most of the countries, however, in the hospitality industry in Kenya particularly in hotels little is known about the issue. Therefore this study seeks to investigate the situation specifically among five start hotels in Nairobi County, there seems to be a gap in knowledge which this study hopes to bridge.

2.5 Level of employee retention

Defined as the process of employee remaining on the job for a long time and not willing to quit for other job opportunities in the job market, employee retention been a vital managerial function to curb the rising turnover rates. Several studies (George,2015; Moncarz et al,2009; Kossivi et al,2016; Umamaheswari and Krishnan,2013) have identified compensation, leadership styles, work environment, work-life-balance among others as the common factors that affect retention.

As a human based industry, hospitality depends on humans as part of the product, in which, cannot be separated from the service process (Ghazali, 2010). Employee satisfaction and retention are very important challenges that face the success of the industry and, unfortunately, labor turnover crises have been emerging globally in the face of many businesses, including hospitality. In the hotel industry, low employee retention rates have been observed to interfere and disrupt the internalization of standards by the employees thus resulting to lower quality of service, reduced customer satisfaction and making an establishment less competitive. (Msengeti & Obwogi, 2015).

Human resources frequently comes up at the top of issues that concern hospitality industry executives and operators, as firms often struggle with finding and keeping talented employees and managers. At the same time, repeated studies have found gender-based inconsistencies in the way the industry evaluates, compensates, and supports its employees, often resulting in barriers to the advancement of women. Direct pay discrimination is illegal in many countries, and institutionalized discrimination is a major global concern for human resources in general.

According to Fleming, lack of progress in closing the wage gap should add urgency to the ongoing efforts to improve women's employment status in the hospitality industry. He points out,

the industry has several organizations intended to assist in advancing women, such as the Network of Executive Women in Hospitality; Women Chefs & Restaurateurs; the Women's Foodservice Forum; and the American Hotel & Lodging Association Women in Lodging. Additionally, such firms as Marriott, Accor, Wyndham, and Carlson Hotels have launched their own efforts to promote women. Additionally, although none of the hospitality companies in the Fortune 500 have had women CEOs, other prominent players such as Carlson Rezidor, Denihan, Fairmont, and Four Seasons have all had women in the position of CEO or president. Despite these positive signs of progress, research continue to demonstrate that in addition to the wage gap, women face a variety of other barriers to their advancement. Among these barriers is the lack of a clear promotional ladder for women, a limited number of role models, and a certain level of inflexibility in job assignments. One indication of that situation is that women make up 52.4 percent of the labor force in Fortune 500 hospitality companies, but only 15.5 percent of executive officers. Employee turnover is an endemic issue in hospitality industry, worldwide. High employee turnover rate increase costs and affects productivity negatively hence employee turnover is regarded as a negative factor that impacts quality of service, and mood of employee as well as profitability and other activities (Kim & Jogaratnam, 2010). Therefore, Sound human resource management particularly recruitment, retention and promotion of both genders for technical and managerial leadership positions will be necessary to meet the future skills and productivity requirements of the sector.

Employee retention is the efforts by any business or organization to develop strategies and initiatives that support current staff into remaining with the organization. Retention is “the ability to hold onto those employees you would want to keep for longer than your competition” (Johnson, 2000). Success or otherwise of an organization in retaining its employee’s is measured

in terms of Employee Retention Rate (ERR) or through assessment of the Employee Turnover Rate (ETR). High employee retention rate means that employee turnover rate has been low and vice versa. All organizations will therefore always seek and strive to maintain high rates of employee retention (ER) especially because of their key talents, thus maintaining low levels of staff turnover. Different researchers (Langford 2009 Robinson, Hooker, & Hayday, 2007) have measured turnover and retention in using varied variable. A straight forward formula for calculating employee turnover rate is dividing the average number of employees by the number of exiting employee the simply multiply by a hundred to get the percentage since it's a rate. Retention rate as dividing the number of employee retained by the total number of employees for given period of time then multiply by a hundred to get the percentage. (Allen, 2008)

$$\text{Turnover rate} = \frac{\text{Average number of employee}}{\text{Number of employees leaving}} \times 100$$

$$\text{Retention rate} = \frac{\text{Number of employee retained}}{\text{Total number of employees}} \times 100$$

2.6 Effects of gender on employee pay and retention

Today employees are looking for a career package, including a comfortable company culture, career path, diversity of responsibilities, and a work/life balance (Gorgdon, Shonin, Zangeneh, & Griffiths, 2014). One effective method employers utilize in order to keep employees happy and part of their organization is to provide growth opportunities where by an organization help employees increase their understanding of themselves and what they want from their careers and enhance their goal-setting efforts. The ability of an organization to retain its employees has two-fold implications. Organizations that retain their high performers are bound to be successful in

performance and at the same time avoid expenses that are incurred in advertisement of vacant positions, recruitment and selection, induction and training new employees that follow and employee lost (Okioga, 2012). Particularly in respect to the hospitality industry, in addition to the gendered presumptions, inequalities and stereotyping the demands in the hospitality organizations pushes its female employees especially managers to changes the way they work and hence many have subsequently opted out of the industry in favor of self-employment (Burgess & Henderson, 2007).

Another explanation to gender pay gap is the types of jobs and the setting in which they take place arguing that the differences in pay reflect the types of setting in which women tend to work. For example, cooks can be found across the whole sector, but it is a loose job term and can mean different things in different work contexts. Women tend to work as cooks in schools, which pay less compared to cooks in restaurants, where more men are found. This however contradicts the fact that social cultural factors such as gender role stereotyping leads to occupational overcrowding, devaluation of women's work and social closure. Occupational overcrowding would occur when women are forced into small set of occupations due to belief systems about what constitutes "appropriate" work for them. This in turn, results in there being far too many (female) workers for the jobs available and thus lower wages for that job category. Even if "women's occupations" are not overcrowded, several researchers have observed that occupations dominated by women generally have lower pay rates, due to the fact that work stereotypically associated with women is devalued. It is often argued that some fields are more highly compensated because they develop skills that are more valued in the labor market. Although the content of the field of study seems to have an important relationship with earnings inequality, the gender composition of the field appears to be much more salient. This

devaluation of majors associated with women is consistent with the finding of a general devaluation of jobs associated with women. And it appears that the lesser value assigned to majors in which women are more heavily concentrated continues to affect one's earnings even when young workers enter comparable occupations. (Zeher, 2007).

Stereotypes justify gender discrimination more broadly and reinforce and perpetuate historical and structural patterns of discrimination. Restaurants and hotels and restaurants have long struggled with the issue. As recently as the 1970s hospitality industry and trade unions maintained separate union locals and hiring halls for men and women. In large urban hotels unions and employers negotiated separate wage rates and working conditions for housekeepers and "hallmen". The hallmen who as the job title implied were always men, maintained a hotel lobby's restroom while housekeepers or maids (all women) cleaned toilets and made beds in a guest room. Until gender-segregated union locals were abolished separate wage and working conditions applied to banquet servers as well while in the travel industry airline flight attendants, many of whom were nurses, were forced to resign if they chose to marry or no longer fit into their uniforms. Today some employers are accused of keeping alive the double standard with one policy for men and a stricter one for women all in the name of promoting a brand image, women-only policy for food servers and issues relating to uniforms and alleged weight restrictions. For example, a case of two women who are being victimized, because they no longer fit an image the hotel allegedly wants to portray, that of attractive, slim women serving cocktails.

Due to family breaks, and other social demand, female employees are perceived to be less likely to be retained this is as a function of systematic literature review which indicated that women are often considered less valuable with regard to human capital than their male counterparts because they are more likely to face interrupted careers for the considerations of families and other issues

such as sexual harassment. (Nyanjom, 2013). As gender pay gap progress continues to be slow, organizations are feeling the effects on their ability to attract and retain key talent, according to a report from Hays Over a quarter (27%) of employers said they are aware of a gender pay gap in their organization and that this negatively affecting staff attraction and retention. The Hays Salary & Recruiting Trends 2020 guide found that, among employers who are aware of a gender pay gap 59% said it is negatively affecting their ability to attract talent, and 61% said it is negatively impacting staff retention. (Heyndyk, 2019)

2.7 Summary of the Literature Review

The general objective of the study was to investigate effects of gender on employee pay and employee retention in five star hotels in Nairobi County. The chapter therefore attempted to review literature from different studies related to gender issue in the hospitality and tourism industry. Top in the list of gender issues was gender inequalities, the review focused on gender pay gap in the hospitality industry globally, locally, and in the hotel industry in Kenya. There is a significant agreement that gender pay gap is a reality and it disadvantages female employees hospitality industry not exempted. A considerable amount of literature has been published on gender inequality especially on the factors affecting women career progression to executive levels. There is also extant literature explaining possible causes and contributions to gender pay gap. The chapter also attempted to review some social demographic and job characteristic factors that could influence gender disparity, employee pay and retention. Previous studies have focused on factors that affect female employees in other industries and other regions. This study focused on gender and its relation to employee retention, gender pay gap and its effect on employee pay and retention as well as the factors that influence employee pay and retention in the hospitality industry, particularly in the five star hotels in Nairobi County.

2.8 Gaps in knowledge

The general objective of this study was to investigate effects of gender on employee pay and employee retention in five star hotels in Nairobi County. There are studies carried out on the effects of gender on pay such as Gender wage inequality and labor mobility in the hospitality sector by Juan Antonio Campos-Soriabut in Spain. Gender inequality particularly gender pay gap and its effect on employee retention in five star hotels in Nairobi County Kenya has not been documented.

There is little dispute that a gender-based pay differential exists in the hospitality industry in many countries different studies have proved this, For example. (Fleming, 2015, Bullon, 2009, Santos & Varejao, 2006, Thrane, 2008, Wyatt, 2016, and Skalpe & Ole, 2007) In several African countries, female worker are not likely to be engaged in paid jobs, and those who engage are concentrated disproportionately in informal employment and paid less than men in substantial measures. (Appleton, Hod- dinott, and Krishnan 1999; Bigsten and Horton 1997; Brilleau, Roubaud, and Torelli 2004; ECA 2005; Glick and Roubaud 2004; ILO 2002; Lachaud 1997).It is therefore evident that the gender pay gap is a reality most of the countries, however, in the hospitality industry in Kenya particularly in hotels little is known about the issue, there seems to be a gap in knowledge which this study hopes to bridge. To investigate the situation specifically among five start hotels in Nairobi County, the first specific objective of the study was to assess the pay gap between male and female employees in five star hotels in Nairobi.

Studies on gender issues in hospitality industry include gender representation by Susan Flemming, Olka Obadic, Geoffrey Riungu Koome, Nehemia Kiprutto, Judy Kibe, and Frimar W. Kiama. Whose study was to examine the level of male and female employment in the hospitality industry in particular 5-star hotels. Specifically, to assess whether there is any significant

difference between the number of male and female employees working in the hospitality industry. Gender based career progression by Raymond T. Sparrowe and Kathleen M. Iverson Cracks in the glass ceiling? An empirical study of gender differences in income in the hospitality industry and Alice Mueni Nzioka who carried out a study on Hotel general managers' perception of factors related to women career progression in the hospitality industry at the coast region of Kenya. Another Gender issue in the hospitality industry is workplace sexual harassment on the basis of an employee's age, disability, gender, race, color, religion, and sexual orientation that was done by Advocate Stella Vettori in South Africa. Studies on gender pay gap in the hospitality industry include Astrid Kunze, Francine blu& Lawrence khan,Juan Antonio, Olka Obdiac, who illustrate the gender pay gap evidence in the hospitality but not in Kenya. Amanda Ellis Jozefina Cutura Nouma Dione Ian Gillson Clare Manuel and Judy Thongori in Gender and Economic Growth in Kenya; Unleashing the Power of Women confirm the reality of pay difference in the tourism industry. The study identified a gap in knowledge on the gender pay difference situation specifically in hospitality particularly 5 star hotels in Nairobi County. The literature review identified a number of factors that influence employee pay and retention. The study was however limited to specific job characteristics and social-demographic factors. It was noted that in as much as these factors are identified, the situation in five star hotels in Nairobi County is not well documented.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the methodology that was employed in the study. The sections include: the study area, research approach and design, population, sample size, and the sampling technique used, research instruments, measurement of variables, data collection procedures, data analysis and the ethical consideration.

3.2 Study Area

The study was carried out in Nairobi County which is the capital city of Kenya. It is home to stadiums, institutions, parks, museums, international conference center among other diverse features that attracts numerous tourists for various reasons. Therefore, according to TRA register of classified establishments for 2015-2018 in Kenya, the county plays host to the largest number of 5 star hotels in Kenya hence the county with the estimated highest number of five star employees. In addition, Kenya National Bureau of Standards (KNBS) reports that employees in urban areas are likely to earn up to 2.4% more than their colleagues in rural areas. Nairobi being the capital city of Kenya, it was expected that the wages and allowances would be relatively high as compared to other counties. In the light of that Nairobi was therefore considered the most suitable area to carry out the study.

3.3 Research Approach and Design,

The study adopted a quantitative research approach. This is an approach for testing objective theories by examining the relationship among variables. These variables, in turn, can be

measured, typically on instruments, so that numbered data can be analyzed using statistical procedures. The final written report has a set structure consisting of introduction, literature and theory, methods, results, and discussion. The purpose of the study was to investigate the effects of gender on pay gap and employee retention in 5 star hotels. The study therefore adopted of a cross-sectional survey design. This is a type of survey that is also known as status or one shot studies, which are suited to studies aimed at finding out the prevalence of an issue by taking a cross section of the population at one time. Cross-sectional survey studies are aimed at studying individuals' attitudes and believe at one point in time (Amanda 2003). This is considered the most suitable design since a cross section of the population was contacted only once and the perceived prevalence of the effects of gender pay gap on employee retention among 5-starhotels in Nairobi identified.

3.4 Target Population

There are 10 five-star hotels in Nairobi County (see Appendix I). The study population initially consisted of lower cadre hotel employees drawn from all the five-star hotels in Nairobi County. However during Pilot testing it was discovered that lower cadre employees' salaries were regulated and most of them fell in the Minimum Wage 2019 (see Appendix II). The study scope was therefore extended to all cadres of hotel employees so as to allow pay variance. A recommended staff to room ratio of 1:3 (Kali, 2017) was used to estimate the number of staff per hotel. This ratio however, results in some fractions at some instances which were rounded up. For example, in Hotel A 200 rooms divided by 3, should be estimated 66.666, this is therefore rounded up to 67 employees. Based on this, the population was therefore estimated to be 392 from the 8 hotels.

Table 1: Estimated number of employees in the 5 star hotels

5-star hotel	Number of rooms	Estimated number of staffs using ratio of 1:3
Hotel A	200	67
Hotel B	45	15
Hotel C	156	52
Hotel D	170	57
Hotel E	137	46
Hotel F	217	72
Hotel H	101	34
Hotel J	148	49
TOTAL		**392**

3.5 Sample Size

From the population of 392, a sample of 197 respondents is determined using Yamane (1967) formula.

$$n = \frac{N}{1+N(e)^2} \quad (1)$$

n = sample size
N = population
e = level of precision/ confidence level (95%)

A sample size of 197 was arrived at after using the same Yamane (1979) formula as shown below

$$197 = \frac{392}{1+392(0.05)^2} \quad (2)$$

3.6 Sampling Techniques

The study adopted multistage sampling which consisted of stratified, proportionate and simple random sampling. The population was first divided into 8 strata based on the number of hotels (see Table 2). Followed by Proportionate sampling technique which was employed to draw representative sample from each hotel using the formula 3 then samples proportionate to each hotel strata were randomly selected using simple random samplings. This allowed members in each stratum equal opportunity to be selected hence prevented bias. This sampling technique was preferred because the stratification allowed the researcher to make comparisons among the attitudes of the employees in the different hotels towards gender pay gap, the proportionate sampling was employed to ensure that none of the stratums was over sampled or under represented.

$$Actual\ Sample\ = \frac{Population\ Strata}{Estimated\ \ Population} \times Min. Sample\ Size\ for\ the\ Study \quad (3)$$

Proportionate sampling resulted into a new sample size of 198, an increase from the minimum target sample size of 197 see Table 2). This difference can be explained by the fact that during computation of proportionate samples, there were decimals that were rounded up. For instance, using the formula, 34 employees out of 67 were considered from hotel A up from the 33.6709183673 since they are human beings.

Table 2: Sample from each hotel proportionate to the estimated number of employees per hotel

Hotel Strata (5-Star Hotel)	No of rooms	Estimated no. of staff (1:3 ratio)	Proportionate respondents
Hotel A	200	67	34
Hotel B	45	15	8
Hotel C	156	52	26
Hotel D	170	57	29
Hotel E	137	46	23
Hotel F	217	72	36
Hotel H	101	34	17
Hotel J	148	49	25
TOTAL		**392**	**198**

3.7 Research Instruments

The main data collection instrument used in the study to collect data was self-administered questionnaires. Self-administered questionnaires were used because they save on costs, and the respondents answered the questions at their own pace and time, further this self-administered questionnaires provides a greater sense of respondents' anonymity as well as minimize the chance of introduction of biasness. The questionnaire consisted of both open and closed ended questions.

3.7.1 Questionnaire Development

The survey instrument for this study was developed by the researcher using information from the literature. The questionnaire was structured into 6 parts, (see appendix 1). The first part focused on general information of the respondents such as the age, gender, level of education, the department they work in, length of service and position held. The second part focused on the

respondents' opinion on the job characteristics, and social demographic factors that influence wage and benefits pay gap. The third part focused on the respondent's opinion on gender equity, in terms of pay, wage and benefit which encompassed salaries, overtime, bonuses, team as well as personal rewards. The fourth part focused on obtaining the respondents opinion on the level of employee retention. The final part focused on collecting information and perceptions on the effects of gender on employee pay gap.

3.7.2 Variable Measurement

The study had three study variables namely gender, employee pay, employee retention, and control variables. Gender was the independent variable which was measured by either male or female attributes. Wages and benefits was the first dependent variable which was measured by wage and salaries, overtime, bonuses, team as well as personal rewards. Retention was the second dependent variable which was measured by the number of years that employees have stayed in the particular hotel where anyone who stayed more than 3 years in the same hotel were considered retained, the overall retention rate. Control variables are other variables that are closely related to gender and have an effect on wages and benefits and employee retention. Therefore social demographic factors and job characteristics factors formed the control variable of the study. Social demographic factors were measured by age, education level, experience, and marital status. Whereas job characteristic factors were measured by the department, management level, work hours, the terms of employment, then further added work experience (number of years worked in the industry).

3.7.3 Pilot study

This study used self-administered questionnaires as the main research instrument. To assess the suitability of the questionnaire instrument, a pilot study of 10 respondents from one of the target hotels were used. The 10 employees were then excluded in when carrying out the actual study after making the relevant changes to the instrument. After carrying out the pilot study a few changes were made to the questionnaire which includes; question 2 on age group where the options were reduced from 7 to 3, question 3 on marital status where the options were reduce from 6 to 3, question 4 on level of education the options were reduced from 9 to 4, question 7 on terms of employment where options were reduced from 4 to 2, question 8 on designation was deleted, question 9 on average working hours answers categorized into 3, and finally question 11 on service charge was deleted. These changes were effected on the basis of low distribution per group for questions 2, 3, 4, and 7. Question 8 was deleted because most of the respondents kept repeating the response as indicated in question 6. For question 9 there was minimum variation from 8 hours and therefore categorizing the responses was done to assist in analysis.

3.7.4 Validity of research Instruments

Validity is the concept of appropriateness and accuracy as applied to a research processor the ability of an instrument to measure what it is supposed to measure (kumar 2014).The study adopted face and content validity to measure the validity of the questionnaire. This was tested by the faculty members and supervisors. This was most preferred because it judges the ability of an instrument to measure what it is supposed to measure primarily based upon the logical link between the questions and the objectives of the study, it was therefore deemed easy to apply. In

addition, construct validity was used to ascertain the contribution of each construct (gender, job characteristics, and social-demographic factors) to the total variance (employee retention)

3.8 Data Collection Procedure

The researcher started by obtaining permission from Maseno University, and Maseno University Ethical Review Committee (MUERC) (see appendix vii). Thereafter, the researcher contacted hotels management via email to seek accessibility to the hotels and employees. After being granted access, the researcher sought for informed consent (see appendix iii) from the respondents, and went ahead to collect data whereby the self-administered questionnaires (see appendix ii) were distributed to all the 10 five star hotels A period of two months was allowed to ensure adequate time to fill the questionnaire satisfactorily and monthly reminders were sent. The researcher then collected the filled questionnaires personally. While some were prompt, others delayed up to 3 weeks later.

3.9 Data Analysis

Data collected was analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistics. Descriptive statistics was applied to describe the data, as well as to understand the demographic profiles of the respondents. For the first objective, mean difference followed by independent sample t- was used to assess the employee pay gap between male and female employees. Pairwise comparison was employed to test significant mean differences between male and female pay in five star hotels in Nairobi. Levene's test of homogeneity of variance was used to test the equality of error variance.

The second objective which was to determine the effect of gender on employee pay in five-star hotels in Nairobi (H_{01}), To achieve objective two, General linear modeling (GLM) Univariate ANOVA was used to test the main effects of independent variables on dependent variables. A

custom factorial model 1 (Table 10c) was used to determine the main effects (measured by partial ETA) and significance (measured by F-test at p, 0.05). Levene's test of homogeneity of variance was used to test the equality of error variance and Lack of fit test was used to determine the difference between custom model 1(Table 10c) as used for this study with the full factorial model.

The third objective was to identify job characteristics and social-demographic factors that influence employee pay and retention in five-star hotels in Nairobi (H_{02}). To achieve objective three, General linear modeling (GLM) Univariate ANOVA was used to test the main effects of independent variables on dependent variables. Custom factorial models 2 &3(Tables 11c and 12 c respectively) were used to determine the main effects (measured by partial ETA) and significance (measured by F-test at p, 0.05). Levene's test of homogeneity of variance was used to test the equality of error variance and Lack of fit test was used to determine the difference between custom models 2 &3(Tables 11c and 12 c respectively) as used for this study with the full factorial model.

The fourth objective which was to determine the effects of Gender on employee retention in five star hotels in Nairobi (H_{03}) General linear modeling (GLM) Univariate ANOVA was used to test the main effects of gender and control variables on employee retention. A custom factorial model (3) was used to determine the main effects (measured by partial ETA) and significance (measured by F-test at p, 0.05). Levene's test of homogeneity of variance was used to test the equality of error variance and Lack of fit test was used to determine the difference between custom model 3 (table 12c) as used for this study with the full factorial model.

In this study, Estimated Marginal Means were used to compare means of main effects to show if groups formed by the independent factors (Gender, Job characteristics or social-demographic characteristics) vary with respect to a dependent variables (employee pay and retention). The pairwise comparisons were reported and Bonferroni-adjusted t-test, was used to test pairwise comparisons of significant mean differences between the groups of each independent variable. The Pairwise comparison tables present shows whether there is a significant difference in estimated marginal means between the level in the first column and the level in the second column

3.10 Ethical Considerations

Upon approval by the school of graduate studies, the researcher sought clearance from Maseno University Ethical Review Committee (MUERC) before embarking on the research. To access various hotels targeted in this study, the researcher contacted the hotels management via email and sought permission to access the hotels and employees. The researcher thereafter informed the respondents on the nature and purpose of the study, and kind of information needed in order to get informed consent from the respondents before administering the questionnaire to the respondents. The researcher was also be keen to assure the respondents of utmost confidentiality of their responses and anonymity of the source of any data, observe objectivity in the research, as well as ensured that personal bias and opinion did not get in the way of the research and that all sides were be given a fair consideration. When reporting the findings, the researcher has tried to accurately represent what was actually observed or said by the respondents as well as ensure confidentiality by opting not to use the actual hotel names.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the study findings and discussions in relation to the study objectives. The chapter is organized into three sections where by section one contains the research response rate, section two contains the descriptive statistics to describe the general demographic characteristics of the respondents, wages, and employee retention, and section three inferential statistics for each of the specific objective whereby, mean difference and independent sample T-test was used to address objective one and GLM ANOVA was used to address the subsequent objectives two, three, four and five.

4.2 Response rate

The study population consisted of the estimated 392 hotel employees from the 8 five-star hotels in Nairobi County according to Tourism Regulatory Authority (TRA) 2018. Out of which a sample of 198 employees drawn from each hotel proportionately was determined, of which only 112 employees responded, making up for 57% response rate. This response rate was considered adequate for the study since it was above 50% as recommended by Mugenda (2003).

4.3 Descriptive statistics

Descriptive statistics is the term given to the analysis of data that helps describe, show or summarize data in a meaningful way. Descriptive statistics are used to describe the basic features of the data in a study, providing simple summaries about the sample. In this study, the descriptive statistics applied to describe the data, as well as to understand the demographic

profiles of the study respondents include counts (frequency), percentage distributions, means, and standard deviations and presented in tables.

4.3.1 Social demographic characteristics

The respondents' social demographic characteristics were summarized in table 1 indicate that out of 112 valid cases, males were (N=60) 53.6% and females (N=52) 46.4%.

Table 3 Social demographic characteristics

		Gender					
		Male		**Female**		**Total**	
		60	**53.65**	**52**	**46.4**	**112**	**100**
		N	**N %**	**N**	**N %**	**N**	**N %**
Age Group	Below 29 Years	22	51.2%	21	48.8%	43	38.4%
	30 -41 Years	26	54.2%	22	45.8%	48	42.9%
	42 Years and above	12	57.1%	9	42.9%	21	18.8%
	Total	**60**	**53.6%**	**52**	**46.4%**	**112**	**100.0%**
Marital status	Single	20	50.0%	20	50.0%	40	35.7%
	Married	38	58.5%	27	41.5%	65	58.0%
	Others (separated/divorced/widowed)	2	28.6%	5	71.4%	7	6.3%
	Total	**60**	**53.6%**	**52**	**46.4%**	**112**	**100.0%**
Level of education	Certificate or less	23	62.2%	14	37.8%	37	33.0%
	Diploma	26	61.9%	16	38.1%	42	37.5%
	Degree and above	11	33.3%	22	66.7%	33	29.5%
	Other	0	.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%
	Total	**60**	**53.6%**	**52**	**46.4%**	**112**	**100.0%**
Years of industry experience	Under 5 years	24	51.1%	23	48.9%	47	42.3%
	6-10 years	20	62.5%	12	37.5%	32	28.8%
	11-15 years	10	45.5%	12	54.5%	22	19.8%
	16- 20 Years	5	50.0%	5	50.0%	10	9.0%
	Above 21 years	0	.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%
	Total	**59**	**53.2%**	**52**	**46.8%**	**111**	**100.0%**

Majority of the male respondents were above 42 years old 12(57.1%) whereas majority of the female were below 29 years of age 21(48.8%). Most of the employees both male and female were married 39 (53.5%) and 27 (41.5%) respectively. Male employees recorded a relatively low level of education compared to their female counterparts whereby 23 (62.2%) held certificate or less as compared to the female employees who were only 14 (37.8%) in the same category. On the flip side, 11(33.3%) had degrees and above, whereas 22(66%) female had degrees and above. Years of industry experience between male and female employees were almost at par except for on interval between 6-10years where male employees were 20(62.5%) as compared to female employees in the same interval who were only 12(37.5%). Interestingly, none of the respondents in either groups had years of industry experience above 21 years.

4.3.2 Job Characteristics

The job characteristics of the respondents were summarized in table 4. The table revealed that employees were fairly distributed among the departments with operations and administration topping the list with 26(23.2%), and maintenance with the least number of employees 10(8.9%). Notably, out of the 10 employees in maintenance department, 9(90%) were male while only 1(10%) was female. Front office and food and beverage service departments followed closely in a tie with 22(19.6%) with slightly more female than male employees in each 12(54.5%) and 10(45.5%) respectively. Housekeeping department came in third with a total of 19 (17%) employees out of whom a majority of 12(63.2%) were female and 7(36.8%) were male.

The results further indicates that 76(67.9%) of the respondents were team players with more male than female as team players 47(61.8%) and 29(38.2%) respectively. Most of the supervisory positions 25(22.3%) seemed to be assumed by a majority of female employees in

comparison to their male counterparts whereby male and female employees were 9(36.0%) and16(64.0%) respectively and 4(36.4%) male and 7(63.6%) female assistant supervisor positions which accounted for 11(9.8%).

Majority of the respondents 80(71.4%) indicated that they were on permanent employment terms with equal male and female employees 40(50%). However, 32 (28.6%) were engaged on contract terms with more male than female employees in this category 20(62.5%) and 12(37.5%) respectively.

Out of the 112 respondents, 50(45%) indicated that they had stayed in the hotel for less than 3 years, with 25(50%) male and female alike. The employees who stayed in the hotel for a period of between 4–6 years were 34 (30.6%) with slightly more men than women 19(55.9%) male and 15(44.1%) female. Those who stayed in the hotel for a period of between 7–10 years were 21 (18.9%) with more men than women 13(61.9%) male and 8(38.1%) female. Whereas, those who stayed in the hotel for a period of between 11–20 years were only 6 (5.4%) with a majority of female 4(66.7%) and few male 2(33.3%)

Table 4 Job Characteristics

		Gender					
		Male		Female		Total	
		Count	Row N %	Count	Row N %	Count	Table N %
Department	Housekeeping	7	36.8%	12	63.2%	19	17.0%
	Front Office	10	45.5%	12	54.5%	22	19.6%
	Maintenance	9	90.0%	1	10.0%	10	8.9%
	Food and Beverage Service	10	45.5%	12	54.5%	22	19.6%
	Operations and Administration	16	61.5%	10	38.5%	26	23.2%
	Food Production	8	61.5%	5	38.5%	13	11.6%
	Total	**60**	**53.6%**	**52**	**46.4%**	**112**	**100.0%**
Position held	Supervisor	9	36.0%	16	64.0%	25	22.3%
	Asst. Supervisor	4	36.4%	7	63.6%	11	9.8%
	Team player	47	61.8%	29	38.2%	76	67.9%
	Total	**60**	**53.6%**	**52**	**46.4%**	**112**	**100.0%**
Employment terms	Permanent	40	50.0%	40	50.0%	80	71.4%
	Contract	20	62.5%	12	37.5%	32	28.6%
	Total	**60**	**53.6%**	**52**	**46.4%**	**112**	**100.0%**
Length of stay in the hotel	Less than 3 year	25	50.0%	25	50.0%	50	45.0%
	4 –6 years	19	55.9%	15	44.1%	34	30.6%
	7 – 10 years	13	61.9%	8	38.1%	21	18.9%
	11 - 20 years	2	33.3%	4	66.7%	6	5.4%
	Over 20 years	0	.0%	0	.0%	0	.0%
	Total	**59**	**53.2%**	**52**	**46.8%**	**111**	**100.0%**
Average working hours	Less than 8 hours	3	60.0%	2	40.0%	5	4.5%
	8 Hours	40	47.6%	44	52.4%	84	75.0%
	More than 8 hours	17	73.9%	6	26.1%	23	20.5%
	Total	**60**	**53.6%**	**52**	**46.4%**	**112**	**100.0%**

Majority of the respondents 84(75.0%) indicated that they worked for 8 hours daily, with an almost equal rate of 40(47.6%) male and 44 (52.4%) female. Only 23(20.5%) worked for than 8 hours. Out of which interestingly, majority were male employees 17(73.9%) as compared to only 6(26.1%).

4.3.3 Employee pay

The respondents wages and benefits were summarized in table 5 indicate that out of 112 valid cases, 30 (26.8%) employees earned an average monthly basic pay of between 14000 –17000. Out of the 30, 18(60.0%) were male while 12 (40.0%) were female. On the contrary, only 10(8.9%) earned more than 38000. Notably, 7(70%) of these employees were female as compared to only 3(30%) of their male counterparts in the same pay category.

21(48.8%) and 22 (51.2%) male and female respectively disagreed that they were satisfied with their salaries and wages totalling to a majority of 43(39.1%). On the other hand very few employees 6(5.5%) males 4(66.7%) and 2(33.3%) females strongly agreed to being satisfied with their salaries and wages.

On overtime payment satisfaction, a relatively fair distribution among the responses was observed most of the respondents 42(38.2%) consisting of 19 (45.2%) male and 23 (54.8%) female respectively strongly disagreed with over time payment satisfaction. While the least number of employees 11 (10.0%) with a twist of only 3(27.3%) male and 8(72.7%) female agreeing to being satisfied with overtime payment.

Finally, on bonuses payment satisfaction, a relatively fair distribution among the responses was observed also with those who somehow agreed to being satisfied with bonuses payment topping the list with 31(28.2%) consisting of 18 (58.1%) male and 13 (41.9%) female respondents. Whereas the group the least number of employees 10 (9.1%) with 6(60.0%) male and 4(40.0%) female strongly agreed to being satisfied with the bonuses they were paid.

Table 5 Employee Pay descriptive

		Gender					
		Male		Female		Total	
		Count	Row N %	Count	Row N %	Count	Table N %
Average Monthly Basic Pay	14, 000-17,000	18	60.0%	12	40.0%	30	26.8%
	18,000- 21,000	13	65.0%	7	35.0%	20	17.9%
	22,000 – 25,000	13	56.5%	10	43.5%	23	20.5%
	26,000- 29,000	5	45.5%	6	54.5%	11	9.8%
	30,000 -33,000	4	57.1%	3	42.9%	7	6.3%
	34,000 - 37,000	4	36.4%	7	63.6%	11	9.8%
	More than 38,000	3	30.0%	7	70.0%	10	8.9%
	Total	**60**	**53.6%**	**52**	**46.4%**	**112**	**100.0%**
Salaries and wages satisfaction	Strongly Disagree	6	46.2%	7	53.8%	13	11.8%
	Disagree	21	48.8%	22	51.2%	43	39.1%
	Somehow Agree	12	60.0%	8	40.0%	20	18.2%
	Agree	16	57.1%	12	42.9%	28	25.5%
	Strongly Agree	4	66.7%	2	33.3%	6	5.5%
	Total	**59**	**53.6%**	**51**	**46.4%**	**110**	**100.0%**
Overtime payment satisfaction	Strongly Disagree	19	45.2%	23	54.8%	42	38.2%
	Disagree	17	60.7%	11	39.3%	28	25.5%
	Somehow Agree	12	75.0%	4	25.0%	16	14.5%
	Agree	3	27.3%	8	72.7%	11	10.0%
	Strongly Agree	8	61.5%	5	38.5%	13	11.8%
	Total	**59**	**53.6%**	**51**	**46.4%**	**110**	**100.0%**
Bonuses payment satisfaction	Strongly Disagree	13	54.2%	11	45.8%	24	21.8%
	Disagree	12	50.0%	12	50.0%	24	21.8%
	Somehow Agree	18	58.1%	13	41.9%	31	28.2%
	Agree	10	47.6%	11	52.4%	21	19.1%
	Strongly Agree	6	60.0%	4	40.0%	10	9.1%
	Total	**59**	**53.6%**	**51**	**46.4%**	**110**	**100.0%**
Team rewards provided satisfaction	Strongly Disagree	8	72.7%	3	27.3%	11	10.0%
	Disagree	10	58.8%	7	41.2%	17	15.5%
	Somehow Agree	14	48.3%	15	51.7%	29	26.4%
	Agree	18	46.2%	21	53.8%	39	35.5%
	Strongly Agree	9	64.3%	5	35.7%	14	12.7%
	Total	**59**	**53.6%**	**51**	**46.4%**	**110**	**100.0%**
Personal and individual rewards given on merit satisfaction	Strongly Disagree	18	60.0%	12	40.0%	30	27.3%
	Disagree	16	51.6%	15	48.4%	31	28.2%
	Somehow Agree	9	56.3%	7	43.8%	16	14.5%
	Agree	10	47.6%	11	52.4%	21	19.1%
	Strongly Agree	6	50.0%	6	50.0%	12	10.9%
	Total	**59**	**53.6%**	**51**	**46.4%**	**110**	**100.0%**

4.3.4 Perception on Wages and benefits mean statistics

Table 6 shows the wages and benefits mean difference between male and female employees.

Table 6 Wages and benefits Mean

	Gender											
	Male				Female				Total			
	Min	**Max**	**Mm**	**S.D**	**Min**	**Max**	**Mm**	**S.D**	**Min**	**Max**	**Mm**	**S.D**
Average Monthly Basic Pay	1.00	7.00	2.80	1.78	1.00	7.00	3.58	2.13	1.00	7.00	3.16	1.98
Salaries and wages satisfaction	1.00	5.00	2.85	1.14	1.00	5.00	2.61	1.11	1.00	5.00	2.74	1.13
Overtime payment satisfaction	1.00	5.00	2.39	1.35	1.00	5.00	2.24	1.42	1.00	5.00	2.32	1.38
Bonuses payment satisfaction	1.00	5.00	2.73	1.27	1.00	5.00	2.71	1.25	1.00	5.00	2.72	1.26
Team rewards provided satisfaction	1.00	5.00	3.17	1.28	1.00	5.00	3.35	1.04	1.00	5.00	3.25	1.17
Personal and individual rewards given on merit satisfaction	1.00	5.00	2.49	1.36	1.00	5.00	2.69	1.36	1.00	5.00	2.58	1.36

Average monthly basic pay recorded a total mean of 3.16, with female employees exhibiting a higher mean of 3.58 as compared to the male employees who had a mean of 2.80. Satisfaction of salaries and wages had a total mean of 2.74 with male employees having a mean of 2.85 higher than the female employees who had a mean of 2.61. Satisfaction of overtime payment recorded a total mean of 2.32, with male employees exhibiting a higher mean of 2.39 as compared to the female employees who had a mean of 2.24. Satisfaction of bonuses paid recorded a total mean of 2.72, with male employees exhibiting a higher mean of 2.73 as compared to the female employees who had a mean of 2.71.Satisfaction of team rewards provided recorded a total mean of 3.25, with female employees exhibiting a higher mean of 3.35 as compared to the male employees who had a mean of 3.17.Personal and individual rewards given on merit satisfaction

recorded a total mean of 2.58, with female employees exhibiting a higher mean of 2.69 as compared to the male employees who had a mean of 2.49.

4.3.5 Employee retention

A summary describing the employee's retention percentage for all the factors included in the different models is seen in table 7. On gender, female employees indicated a higher mean (84%) than the male employees, meaning that the female employees were retained more than the male employees. This result could be attributed to the fact that female in this particular study were also more educated, held supervisory positions and were older as compared to the male employees. This result resonates with Nyanjom whose study revealed that eemployee's positions and length of employment traditionally determine wages in most companies and translates to the employees retaining longer (Nyanjom, 2013). They however contradicts finding that female employees are of less value due to family breaks. Out of the 112 respondents, 48 were between 30-41 years and retained at 82%, those below 29 years were the list retained at 79%, and 21 employees above 42 years were retained more than all the cage categories at 84%.

While all the categories in marital status indicated an almost equal distribution in retention, the level of education agrees with and at the same time contradicts the extant literature since the employees with certificates or less are retained at (83%) which resonates with other researchers who have pointed out that the less educated tend to stay longer in hotels. Interestingly, the employees with degree and above according to this study were retained more (84%) than any other group. This contradicts the opinion of literature that suggests that the more people are educated the harder it is to retain due to more employment opportunities.

Departments had a total of 81% with maintenance department leading in employee retention (94%) as compared to the food and beverage department (71%) as the department that least retained their employees

Table 7 Employee retention descriptive

		Percentage of employees retained	
		Mean	Total N
Gender	Male	79%	60
	Female	84%	52
	Total	81%	112
Age Group	Below 29 Years	79%	43
	30 -41 Years	82%	48
	42 Years and above	84%	21
	Total	81%	112
Marital status	Single	82%	40
	Married	81%	65
	Others	82%	7
	Total	81%	112
Level of education	Certificate or less	83%	37
	Diploma	77%	42
	Degree and above	84%	33
	Other	.	0
	Total	81%	112
Department	Housekeeping	77%	19
	Front Office	84%	22
	Maintenance	94%	10
	Food and Beverage Service	71%	22
	Operations and Administration	87%	26
	Food Production	78%	13
	Total	81%	112
Position held	Supervisor	80%	25
	Asst. Supervisor	78%	11
	Team player	82%	76
	Total	81%	112
Employment terms	Permanent	82%	80
	Contract	79%	32
	Total	81%	112
Years of industry experience	Under 5 years	78%	47
	6-10 years	84%	32
	11-15 years	82%	22
	16- 20 Years	88%	10
	Total	81%	111
Length of stay in the hotel	Less than 3 year	80%	50
	4 –6 years	80%	34
	7 – 10 years	85%	21
	11 - 20 years	85%	6
	Over 20 years	.	0
	Total	81%	111
Average working hours	Less than 8 hours	93%	5
	8 Hours	82%	84
	More than 8 hours	74%	23
	Total	81%	112

Position held had a total of 81% fairly distributed among supervisors, assistant supervisors and team players at 80%, 78% and 82% respectively the statistic therefore indicate that the team players were retained more than any other position held categories

The study showed that permanent employees were retained more than those on contract terms, since those on permanent employment terms had a retention percentage of 82% and those on contract terms had a retention percentage of 79%.

The employees who had worked in the industry for a period of between 16–20 years had the highest retention percentage (88%) compared to the other groups. The employees with the least industry experience 5 years and below recorded the retention percentage as well (78%). While for experience in that particular hotel, retention percentages were evenly distributed across all the categories. Those who worked for less than 8 hours were only 5 but most retained (93%)

4.3.6 Retention mean

Out of the 112 responses, the total mean of the number of employees in each section was estimated at 10, with male (9) female slightly higher (10). Number of employees who left had an estimated mean of 2, with each group recording a mean of 2. Similarly, the number of employees who joined the section in that year had an estimated mean of 1, with both male and female employees recording a mean of 1. In the previous year, the total mean of the number of employees in each section was estimated at 11, with male (10) female slightly higher (11).

Therefore, number of employees retained in the section had a total mean of (9) which means the mean total retention rate is estimated at 81%. Male employees with a mean number of employees per section estimated at 7 and 79% mean retention rate. Female employees with a mean number of employees per section estimated at 10 and 84% mean retention rate.

Table 8 Retention mean statistics

	Gender								
	Male			Female			Total		
	Mean	SD	Total N	Mean	SD	Total N	Mean	SD	Total N
Number of employees in the section	9	10	60	12	11	52	10	11	112
Number of employees who left the section in the last one year	2	2	60	2	2	52	2	2	112
Number of employees that joined the section in the year	1	2	60	1	2	52	1	2	112
Number of employees the section in last year	10	10	60	12	11	52	11	11	112
Number of employees retained in the section	7	8	60	10	10	52	9	9	112
Percentage of employees retained	79%	20%	60	84%	13%	52	81%	18%	112

4.4 Hypotheses testing

The general objective of this study was to investigate the effects of gender on pay gap and employee retention in five star hotels in Nairobi County. To achieve the general and specific objectives, the study had one research question and three hypotheses for each objective.

1. What is the pay gap between male and female employees in five star hotels in Nairobi?
2. H_{01} Gender does not have an effect on employee pay in five-star hotels in Nairobi
3. H_{02} Job characteristics and social-demographic factors do not influence employee pay in five-star hotels in Nairobi
4. H_{03} Gender does not have an effect on employee retention in five star hotels in Nairobi

To achieve objective one, Mean difference and independent sample t-test were used to address the research question and to test if the wages means between male and female are significantly different. Levine's test for equality of variance was used to test the assumption that error variance between the two groups (male and female) was equal.

To address objectives two, three and four, Null hypotheses H_{01}, H_{02} and H_{03} were formulated respectively. In order to achieve objective 2, objective 3 and objective 4, main effect custom factorial models (Model 1, 2 and 3) in GLM ANOVA were specified.

Levene's test for equality of variance was used to test the assumption that error variance between the groups was equal. *Lack of fit tests* was reported to test the difference between custom model and the full factorial model. *Tests of between subjects effects* was reported whereby *F statistics* was used to either accept or reject the hypotheses based on the strength of the *significance level (p Values)*. The significance level also reported the significance of each independent variable in the model. In addition measure *the effect size,* partial eta Squared (ETA) was reported. Whereby, partial eta-squared indicates maximum effect when it is 1.0. No effect is indicated when partial eta-square is 0.0. That is, the closer to 0.0, the less the variable is contributing to the model.

For models 1, 2 and 3, *Estimated Marginal Means* were used to compare means of main effects to show if groups formed by the independent factors (Gender, Job characteristics or social-demographic characteristics) vary with respect to a dependent variables (employee pay and retention). *The pairwise comparisons* were reported (in Appendices) and Bonferroni-adjusted t-test was used to test pairwise comparisons of significant mean differences between the groups of each independent variable. The Pairwise comparison tables shows whether there is a significant

difference in estimated marginal means between the level in the first column (I) and the level in the second column (J).

4.4.1 Gender pay gap

The first study objective was to assess the pay gap between male and female employees in five star hotels in Nairobi. Mean difference and independent sample t-test were used to address the research question "what is the pay gap between male and female employees in five star hotels in Nairobi?" To ascertain the significance of the mean difference, independent sample t-test was carried out to test equality of wages means between male and female. Further, Levine's test for equality of variance was used to test the assumption that error variance between the two groups (male and female) was equal. Table 9 indicated that homogeneity of variance was violated at F=4.242, P=.042. Therefore test for equality of mean statistics with equal variances not assumed was reported (MD=-78, t=-2.1, p=0.04). Table 9 indicates that male employees had a lower wage mean of 2.80 than the female employees who reported a wage mean of 3.58. The independent sample t-test results in table 9 indicated that the wage mean difference-78 between male and female employees did significantly different at p=.040.

Table 9 Gender pay gap Independent sample T test

Group Statistics

	Gender	**N**	**Mean**	**Std. Deviation**	**Std. Error Mean**
Average Monthly Basic Pay	Male	60	2.80	1.78	.23
	Female	52	3.58	2.12	.29

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	**Sig.**	**t**	**df**	Sig. (2-tailed)	**Mean Difference**	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Average Monthly Basic Pay	Equal variances assumed	4.24	.042	-2.10	110	**.038**	**-.78**	.36	-1.50	-.044
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.07	99.9	**.040**	**-.78**	.37	-1.51	-.034

This objective primarily sought to explore if there exists a difference between male and female employees' remuneration and other benefits. The results revealed that, the male employees recorded a lower average monthly basic pay than female employees. The average difference

between a man's and a woman's aggregate wages or salaries, when all other factors that may contribute to lower earnings for one gender are adjusted for is referred to as the gender pay gap. This study found that male earn significantly lower than females contrary to previous studies. Numerous studies globally and locally (Arbache, Kolev, & Piak, 2010, Francine Blau, Lawrence M Kahn, Jane Kakubo, Donna BobbitZeher, OlkaObadic, and Erastus Kaifa, Mariara, 2003, Lachaud 1997, Siphambe & Bakwena, 2001) have shown that the wage gap exists in favor of males, with different percentages ranging from 66 -89 % based on a number of factors.

The results of this study therefore resonate with other studies that indicate the reality of gender pay gap. However, the study disputes the suggestion that gender pay gap favours male employees. It also contradicts the extant literature that denotes that pay gap is anchored solely on gender, as it could be explained by numerous other factors. In this study for instance the pay gap was explained by the level of education, positions held, work experience, department, overtime, and the age of the respondents. This is because out of the respondents 66.7% female employees had attained degree and above, meaning female employees were more educated than male employees. Secondly most of the female respondents in the study were supervisors and assistant supervisors (64%, and 63%) respectively, which means they earned something extra. it was further observed that the longest serving employees were also female which could again explain the pay gap. As for the department, most of the respondent departments indicated an almost equal percentage for both genders except the maintenance department in which 90% of the staff were males and 10% females. This further explains the gender pay gap favouring the female employees in that most of the maintenance staff are technical hands on personnel with lower levels qualifications. Both genders in almost equal measures seemed dissatisfied with their pay. Bonuses fairly satisfied both genders, since its predetermined and interestingly more female are

satisfied with the overtime payment than male employees, even though they are fewer in overtime. Therefore, while the research findings support the reviewed literature that there exists a difference between male and female employees, the results however indicate that the difference is not entirely favorable to male employees only. Given different circumstances the gender pay gap can be in favor of the female employees as well.

4.5 Model 1 Effects of gender on employee pay

Objective two was to determine the effect of gender on employee wages and benefits in five-star hotels in Nairobi, to address this objective, *null hypothesis 1* stated that Gender does not have an effect on employee wages and benefits in five-star hotels in Nairobi. In order to achieve objective 2, main effect custom factorial model in GLM ANOVA was specified.

4.5.1 Model 1 results

For the second objective, Levine's test for equality of variance was used to test the assumption that error variance between the groups was equal. Table 10a indicated that homogeneity of variance was violated at F=4.242, P=.042.

Table 10a Model 1 Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances

Dependent Variable: Average Monthly Basic Pay

F	df1	df2	Sig.
4.242	1	110	.042

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

Table 10a Model 1 Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances

Dependent Variable: Average Monthly Basic Pay

F	df1	df2	Sig.
4.242	1	110	.042

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a. Design: Intercept + Q1Gender

Lack of it test as reported in table 10b below for model 1 could not be computed since the factorial custom model selected had gender as the only factor.

Table 10b Model 1 Lack of Fit Tests

Dependent Variable: Average Monthly Basic Pay

Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Lack of Fit	.000	0	.	.	.	.000
Pure Error	418.292	110	3.803			

The results in table 10c shows that the corrected model is significant F (16.815, 1) = 4.42, P=.038 and the effect size partial Eta squared = .039, meaning gender explains about 4% of variance in average monthly basic pay.

The pair wise comparison statistics in table 13a in Appendix VII indicate that female earned significantly higher salaries than male employees (MD= 78, p=0.04).

Table 10c Model 1Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: Average Monthly Basic Pay

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	16.815[a]	1	16.815	4.422	.038	.039
Intercept	1132.815	1	1132.815	297.901	.000	.730
Q1Gender	16.815	1	16.815	4.422	.038	.039
Error	418.292	110	3.803			
Total	1554.000	112				
Corrected Total	435.107	111				

a. R Squared = .039 (Adjusted R Squared = .030)

4.5.2 Effects of gender on employee pay

The second objective was to determine the effect of gender on employee pay in five-star hotels in Nairobi. The results indicate that there is a significant difference between male and female employees pay explaining about 4% variance in employee pay and female employees earned significantly higher salaries than male employees. The study results therefore disputes the reviewed literature that suggests that the general devaluation of jobs associated with women which continues to affect one's earnings even when young workers enter comparable occupations. (Zeher, 2007). The results generally agree with some researchers such as Weichselbaumer & Winter-Ebmer (2005), Blau & Kahn (2000), Appleton, Hoddinott, & Krishnan (2017) that cite gender as a contributing factor to the wages and benefits.

4.6 Model 2: Effects of Socio demographic and job characteristics on employee pay

Objective 3 was to identify job characteristics and social-demographic factors that influence employee wages and benefits in five-star hotels in Nairobi. The researcher stated ***the null hypothesis 2*** that Job characteristics and social-demographic factors do not influence employee pay in five-star hotels in Nairobi. In order to achieve objective 3, main effect custom factorial model (Model 2) in GLM ANOVA was specified.

4.6.1 Model 2 results

Levene's test for equality of variance was used to test the assumption that error variance between the groups was equal. Table 11a indicated that assumption of homogeneity of variance was not violated at F=3.201, P=.095.

Table 11a Model 2: Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances

Dependent Variable: Average Monthly Basic Pay

F	df1	df2	Sig.
3.201	105	5	.095

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a. Design: Intercept + Q1Gender + Q2agegroup + Q3Marital + Q4Education + Q5Department + Q6Position + Q15Hotelworkyears + Q7Employment + Q9Hours

Table 11b indicates *lack of fit test* F (85, 5) =7.354, P =.016. This indicates that lack of fit test is significantly different from the full factorial model.

Table 11b Model 2 Lack of Fit Tests

Dependent Variable: Average Monthly Basic Pay

Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Lack of Fit	125.018	85	1.471	7.354	.016	.992
Pure Error	1.000	5	.200			

Further the table 11c shows that the corrected model is significant F (294.216, 20) = 10.506, P =.000 and the effect size, partial Eta squared = .70 meaning that gender, age group, marital status, level of education, department, position held, number of years worked in the hotel, terms of employment and number of hours worked explains about 70% of the variance in average monthly basic pay among the sample.

Table 11c Model 2 Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: Average Monthly Basic Pay

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	294.216[a]	20	14.711	10.506	.000	.700
Intercept	243.865	1	243.865	174.165	.000	.659
Q1Gender	3.591	1	3.591	2.565	.113	.028
Q2agegroup	**11.847**	**2**	**5.923**	**4.230**	**.018**	**.086**
Q3Marital	3.268	2	1.634	1.167	.316	.025
Q4Education	**35.583**	**2**	**17.792**	**12.707**	**.000**	**.220**
Q5Department	**22.476**	**5**	**4.495**	**3.210**	**.010**	**.151**
Q6Position	**23.111**	**2**	**11.556**	**8.253**	**.001**	**.155**
Q15Hotelworkyears	**11.154**	**3**	**3.718**	**2.655**	**.053**	**.081**
Q7Employment	.467	1	.467	.333	.565	.004
Q9Hours	3.837	2	1.918	1.370	.259	.030
Error	126.018	90	1.400			
Total	1505.000	111				
Corrected Total	420.234	110				

a. R Squared = .700 (Adjusted R Squared = .633)

The table 11c also shows that the level of education at 22% significantly predicts employee pay (F=12.707, P=.000), position held at 15.5% predicts employee pay (F=8.253,P=.001), department at 15.1% predicts employee pay (F=3.210, P=.010), age group at 8.6% significantly predicts employee pay (F=4.230, P=.018), and number of years worked in the hotel at 8.1% significantly predicts employee pay (F=2.655, P=.053), consecutively are the social demographic and job characteristic factors that significantly influence the average monthly basic

pay. Whereas terms of employment (.004), marital status (.025), gender (.028) and number of hours worked (.030) do not influence the average monthly basic pay in this model

The Pairwise comparison tables (Refer to APPENDIX VII: Tables 13a to 13f) shows whether there is a significant difference in estimated marginal means between groups of independent variables using Bonferroni-adjusted t-test. Pairwise comparison statistics in table 13b indicate that employees aged 42 years and above earned significantly higher pay than those below 29 years (MD= 1.57, p=0.01). Therefore pairwise comparison statistics in table 10c indicate that degree holders and above earned significantly higher pay than employees with diploma (MD= 1.147, p=0.04) and employees with certificate or less (MD= 2.204, p=0.00). Pairwise comparison statistics in table 13d indicate that employees in Food and Beverage Service (MD= 1.05, p=0.05) and Food Production departments (MD= 1.24, p=0.05) significantly higher pay than those in housekeeping department. Furthermore, employees in Food production earned significantly higher pay than those in Front office department (MD= 1.24, p=0.05). Pairwise comparison statistics in table 13e indicate that supervisors earned significantly higher pay than team players (MD= 1.46, p=0.01). Pairwise comparison statistics in table 13f indicate that employees who had stayed in a hotel between 7-10 years earned significantly higher pay than employees who had stayed 3 years or less (MD= 1.13, p=0.05).

The results showed that about 70% of the variance in average monthly basic pay among the samples was explained by gender, age group, marital status, level of education, department, position held, number of years worked in the hotel, terms of employment and number of hours worked however, Interestingly, gender (F=2.565, P=.113), when combined with these other social demographic factor does not significantly influence the average monthly basic pay in this model and only accounts for about 3%(.028) out of the 70% variance explained in pay. Gender

alone does not explain the difference in average monthly basic pay when given that it explain about 3% only controlling for other factors. However, in as much as gender as a stand-alone factor (see section 4.5) has a small contribution to the difference in employee pay as per the study findings, other factors such as education, position held, and the department significantly explained the difference in employee pay. The findings are supported on the strength of the study respondents' demographics that show that more female employees were more educated, were in management positions, older, and more experienced than their male counter parts.

4.6.2 Job characteristics and social-demographic factors that influence employee pay

Objective three was to identify job characteristics and social-demographic factors that influence employee pay in five-star hotels in Nairobi. The results showed that out of all the social demographic and job characteristic factors involved in this study, the level of education, held position, department, age group, and number of years worked in the hotel, had a significant influence on employee pay.

For the level of education as a socio-demographic factor that influence employee pay, the study results revealed that from the pool of respondents, female employees tend to earn more than male employees, it was also noted that the female respondents were equally more educated than the male respondents and this difference in level of education therefore explains the observed pay gap. This can be attributed to the fact that education level and number of years worked as well as the age group can be the basis of the position held and this automatically determines the earnings.

For the job position held as a job characteristic factor that influence employee pay, the study results revealed that Supervisory and assistant supervisory positions in this study were taken up

by female employees. This can be attributed to the level of education and length of service. Since female employees held leadership positions, it therefore further explains the difference in pay. This observation contradicts Fleming's position that Despite these positive signs of progress, research continue to demonstrate that in addition to the wage gap, women face a variety of other barriers to their advancement. Among these barriers is the lack of a clear promotional ladder for women, a limited number of role models, and a certain level of inflexibility in job assignments. One indication of that situation is that women make up 52.4 percent of the labor force in Fortune 500 hospitality companies, but only 15.5 percent of executive officers.

For department as a job characteristic factor that significantly influence employees pay the department explained about 15 out of 70% of the variance in average monthly basic pay. With operations and administration, F&B service and housekeeping top in the list. In these three, operations and administration, and F&B service had more male employees than female. This observation tend to agree with the extant literature that suggests that gender Occupational Segregation as an aspect whereby, the society has, for a long time, created demarcations in the job space by clearly defining jobs and employment for men and women. Jobs suitable for men were considered tasking, demanding and 'masculine'. They also happened to pay substantially higher than the 'feminine' jobs that were less tasking and demanding, hence suitable for women. Gender occupational segregation brought about gender roles, stereotypes and socialization that prepare men and women for gender-based jobs and consequently gender-based pay. Social stratification and social economic positioning emanates from gender-based pay.

For age as a socio-demographic factor that significantly influence employees pay the results showed that more male employees were older than the female employees. However, female employees were more educated than male employees, implying that in as much as the hotels

retained more male employees, they are keen to employ a more educated population and this explains the difference in pay.

For experience as a socio-demographic factor that significantly influence employees pay the length of stay is closely related to the pay and the results showed that more female employees 66.7% served longer than men which explain the difference in pay. Finally, it was noted that once gender is combined with job characteristics and social demographic factors, its significance in influencing employee pay reduces even further.

4.7 Model 3: Effects of Gender, socio demographic and job characteristics on employee retention

Objective four was to determine the effect of gender on employee retention in five-star hotels in Nairobi, to address this objective, ***the null hypothesis 3*** stated that Gender does not have an effect on employee retention in five-star hotels in Nairobi. In order to achieve objective 4, main effect custom factorial model **(Model 3)** in GLM ANOVA was specified.

4.7.1 Model 3 results

Levene's test for equality of variance was used to test the assumption that error variance between the groups was equal. Table 12a indicated that assumption of homogeneity of variance was not violated at F=.429, P=.939.

Table 12a Model 3 Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances

Dependent Variable: Percentage of employees retained

F	df1	df2	Sig.
.429	105	5	.939

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a. Design: Intercept + Q1Gender + age group + Q3Marital + Q4Education + Q5Department + Q6Position + Q7Employment + Q15Hotelworkyears + Q9Hours

Table 12b lack of fit test statistics F (85, 2) =.270, P =.920 indicate model 2 does not significantly differ from the full factorial model.

Table 12b Model 3 Lack of Fit Tests

Dependent Variable: Percentage of employees retained

Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Lack of Fit	20746.817	85	244.080	.270	.971	.920
Pure Error	1805.556	2	902.778			

Table 12c results shows that corrected model is significant F (10820.043, 21) =1.988, P=.014 and the effect size, partial Eta squared =.324 this means that pay, gender, age group, marital

status, level of education, department, position held, terms of employment, number of years worked in the hotel, and number of hours worked explains about 32% of the percentage of employees retained. The specific factors that significantly affected the employee retention were Gender (F=3.603, P=.051) at 4%, department (F=4.722, P=.001) at 21%, and number of hours worked (F=3.518, P=.034) at 8%. On the other hand the level of education, position held, age group, number of years worked in the hotel, terms of employment, and marital status, do not influence the average employee retention in this model.

The Pairwise comparison tables (Refer APPENDIX VII: Tables 13g and 13i) shows whether there is a significant difference in estimated marginal means between groups of independent variables using Bonferroni-adjusted t-test. Pairwise comparison statistics in table 13h indicate that employees in Food and Beverage Service have significantly lower retention rates than employees in Front Office (MD= -18.80, p=0.05), Maintenance (MD= -27.52, p=0.02), and Operations and Administration (MD= -20.52, p=0.02). Pairwise comparison statistics in table 13i indicate that employees who worked 8 hours have higher retention rates than employees who worked more than 8 hours (MD=11.41 , p=0.04)

Table 12c Model 3 Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: Percentage of employees retained

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	10820.043[a]	21	515.240	1.988	.014	.324
Intercept	34240.454	1	34240.454	132.089	.000	.603
Q1Gender	**934.055**	**1**	**934.055**	**3.603**	**.051**	**.040**
Age group	72.007	2	36.004	.139	.871	.003
Q3Marital	475.788	2	237.894	.918	.403	.021
Q4Education	841.778	2	420.889	1.624	.203	.036
Q5Department	**6120.761**	**5**	**1224.152**	**4.722**	**.001**	**.213**
Q6Position	62.590	2	31.295	.121	.886	.003
Q7Employment	130.702	1	130.702	.504	.480	.006
Q15Hotelworkyears	234.412	3	78.137	.301	.824	.010
Q9Hours	**1823.672**	**2**	**911.836**	**3.518**	**.034**	**.075**
Error	22552.373	87	259.223			
Total	753582.618	109				
Corrected Total	33372.416	108				

a. R Squared = .324 (Adjusted R Squared = .161)

4.7.2 Effects of gender on employee retention

Objective four was to determine the effect of gender on employee retention in five-star hotels in Nairobi. The results in table 12c indicate that gender had a significant effect on employee retention (F=3.603, P=.051) at 4%, From the results, it is important to note that in as much as gender significantly affect employee retention, it only accounts for 4% the least percentage when loaded with the rest of the factors in the custom factorial model. The table further shows the specific job characteristics and social demographic factors that significantly affect the employee retention are department (F=4.722, P=.001) at 21%, and number of hours worked (F=3.518, P=.034) 8%. Pairwise comparison statistics in table 10g indicate that Female employees have higher retention rates than male employees (MD= 6.89, p=0.05). This could be explained by fact

that according to this study, they are more educated, therefore hold higher positions, and they earn more.

The study results revealed that most female were more educated, older and held supervisory positions, which can be linked to long service and could be explains the relation between gender and retention. This observation however disputes Fleming's suggestion (Fleming, 2015) that there is lack of a clear promotional ladder for women, a limited number of role models, and a certain level of inflexibility in job assignments. One indication of that situation is that women make up 52.4 percent of the labor force in Fortune 500 hospitality companies, but only 15.5 percent of executive officers. It was also noted that F&B service department had the highest turnover rates, although this department had a majority of female employees 56%, it equally had a high percentage of male employee compared to other departments, and female employees were more in other departments such as operations and administrative departments collectively.

The results of this study indicate that department and number of hours worked that significantly affect the employee retention. The department that an employee works in contributes greatly to the employees' retention it was noted from the study that F&B service department had had the highest turnover rate, and most of the sedentary departments with operations and administrative positions retained their staff more. This could be explained by the fact that most of such positions require higher education levels and more experience. As for the number of hours worked as the other job characteristic that had a significant influence to retention, it is was evident that the employees who worked less than 8 hours seemed to be retained more than those who worked for more than 8 hours. This observation could be attributed to the fact that the normal hotel work schedule should not be extended to more than 8 hours.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents a summary of the study findings, highlights the study conclusions objective by objective and provides recommendations as informed by the study results.

The hospitality industry is listed among the industries with high employee turnover rate and this has led to many studies being conducted with a view of understanding employee retention in hotels. The factors attributed to employee retention are well spelt out in the extant literature, however, there is a gap in knowledge on the contribution of gender to pay gap and employee retention in the hospitality industry, particularly among five-star hotels in Nairobi County. The purpose of this study was to investigate the effects of gender on employee pay gap and employee retention in five star hotels in Nairobi County. The specific objectives were to: To assess the pay gap between male and female employees in five star hotels in Nairobi, To determine the effects of gender on employee pay in five-star hotels in Nairobi, To identify job characteristics and social-demographic factors that influence employee pay in five-star hotels in Nairobi, To determine the effects of gender on employee retention in five star hotels in Nairobi and To identify job characteristics and social-demographic factors that influence employee retention in five-star hotels in Nairobi

The study population consisted of estimated 392 hotel employees from eight five star hotels in Nairobi County. Yamane (1967) formula was used to calculate a sample of 197 employees. Multi stage sampling was engaged to sample 198 respondents, out of whom 112(57%) completed the self-administered questionnaires. Data was analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistics.

Descriptive statistics was applied to describe the data, as well as to understand the demographic profiles of the respondents. Mean difference, Independent sample t test and General linear modeling (GLM) Univariate ANOVA was used to test the main effects of independent variables on dependent variables.

5.2 Summary of findings & conclusions

Objective one sought to assess the pay gap between male and female employees in five star hotels in Nairobi, The results of this study established the reality of gender pay gap. However, the study disputes the suggestion that gender pay gap favours male employees. It also contradicts the literature that denotes that pay gap is anchored solely on gender, as it could be explained by numerous other factors as the results indicated**.** The study concludes that in as much as pay gap is a reality in five star hotels in Nairobi County, female employees are advantaged. The pay gap in this study can be explained better by level of education, position, experience and other factors than gender.

Objective two sought to determine the effects of gender on employee pay in five-star hotels in Nairobi, This study established that although there is a significant difference between male and female employees pay, gender alone explains a relatively small percentage of pay variance. However, in as much as gender as stand-alone factor has a small contribution to the difference in employee pay as per the study findings, other factors such as education, position held, and the department significantly explained the difference in employee pay. For this objective, the null hypothesis $\mathbf{H}_{01}$ was stated that gender does not have an effect on employee pay in five-star hotels in Nairobi. From the study results, the researcher rejects the null hypothesis and accepts the alternative hypotheses that gender has an effect on employee pay. In conclusion, it is important

to note that yes gender had a significant effect on pay, but its contribution to the model was relatively small. Meaning that other factors (education, position held, and department) explain pay differences better.

Objective three sought to identify, the study results indicate that out of the social demographic and job characteristic factors used in this study, *the level of education, held position, department, age group, and number of years worked in the hotel,* had a significant influence on employee pay. For this objective, the null hypothesis $\mathbf{H_{02}}$ stated that job characteristics and social-demographic factors do not have an effect on employee pay in five-star hotels in Nairobi. From the study results, the researcher rejects the null hypotheses the level of education, held position, department, age group, and number of years worked in the hotel do not influence employee pay. Therefore, the researcher accepts the alternative hypotheses that the levels of education, held position, department, age group, and number of years worked in the hotel, have an effect on employee pay. For objective three the study therefore concludes that out of the many factors that are attributed to employee pay and retention, the level of education, held position, department, age group, and number of years worked in the hotel, are identified as the job characteristics and social-demographic factors that influence employee pay and in five-star hotels in Nairobi.

Objective four sought, to determine the effects of gender on employee retention in five star hotels in Nairobi. The study results showed that gender had a significant effect on employee retention. It was however evidently noted that in as much as gender significantly affect employee retention, it only accounts for a small percentage when compared with the rest of the factors that affect employee retention. The study results further showed that out of all the job characteristics and social demographic factors that were used in the study, department and the number of hours worked explained the variance in pay better. Therefore, department and number of hours worked

significantly affect the employee retention. For this objective, the null hypothesis $\mathbf{H_{03}}$ was stated that Gender does not have an effect on employee retention in five-star hotels in Nairobi. From the study results, the researcher rejects the null hypotheses the *gender, department and number of years worked in the hotel* do not influence employee retention. Therefore, the researcher accepts the alternative hypotheses that the gender, department, and number of years worked in the hotel, have an effect on employee retention. We can therefore conclude objective four, by stating that in as much gender is one of the factors that affect employee retention, its contribution to employee retention is relatively low as compared to other factors.

5.3 Recommendations

From the study results, the researcher recommends the following:

1. To all hotel employees, the he study recommends that hotel employees of either gender should focus more on continuous self-improvement to earn more.
2. For hotel human resource managers, gender role stereotyping should be avoided at all costs in the hotel and other industries since gender as an independent factor does not have an effect on pay as illustrated by objective two.
3. To the hotel management and employers, the findings in objective three was that education, job position held and experience are the major factors that influence pay therefore the study recommend that human resource management should encourage continuous staff development of both genders to close in the pay gap.
4. The human resource managers need to address the low retention rates in the F&B service department.

5.4 Limitations of the study

The study's major limitation was access due to the sensitive nature of the study. Two of the target hotels denied access therefore the study results cannot be generalized to include the two hotels. To the eight hotels that access was granted, this was mitigated by assuring the respondents anonymity and that the information collected was purely for academic purposes.

5.5 Suggestions for further studies

The literature review revealed that there is a severe lack of research that investigates the effects of gender on employee pay and retention in the hospitality industry. Thus, continuing research in this area is needed. From the study, the researcher suggests that the following areas of studies should be considered for further studies,

1. Future researchers can expand the scope of the study to other hotels other than only five star hotels in Nairobi.
2. Future researchers can use full factorial models in order to test for interacting effects of gender and other job characteristics and socio demographic variables on employee pay and retention.
3. Future studies can be considered on other factors (not gender)and employee retention, or gender and other factors (not retention)
4. Future studies may consider use of mixed methods approach due to conflicting findings in this area.

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APPENDICES

Appendix I: List of Star Rated Tourism Enterprises

TOURISM REGULATORY AUTHORITY

REGISTER OF CLASSIFIED ESTABLISHMENTS FOR THE PERIOD 2015 -2018 IN KENYA BY TRA CLASSIFICATION REGIONS

1. GREATER NAIROBI					
NO	ESTABLISHMENT	COUNTY	CAPACITY		RATING
			ROOMS	BEDS	
1.	Villa Rosa Kempinski	Nairobi	200	216	*****
2.	Hemingway's Nairobi	Nairobi	45	50	*****
3.	Sankara Nairobi	Nairobi	156	167	*****
4.	Fairmont The Norfolk	Nairobi	170	200	*****
5.	Tribe Hotel	Nairobi	137	154	*****
6.	The Sarova Stanley	Nairobi	217	440	*****
7.	Radisson Blu Hotel Nairobi	Nairobi	271	354	*****
8.	Dusit D2	Nairobi	101	122	*****
9.	Intercontinental Nairobi	Nairobi	326	372	*****
10.	The Boma Nairobi	Nairobi	148	178	*****
11.	Crowne Plaza	Nairobi	206	254	****
12.	Ole Sereni Hotel	Nairobi	134	206	****
13.	House of Waine	Nairobi	11	20	****
14.	Weston Hotel	Nairobi	120	154	****
15.	Southern Sun Mayfair Nairobi	Nairobi	171	212	****
16.	Fairview Hotel	Nairobi	127	133	****
17.	Sarova Panafric Hotel	Nairobi	162	324	****
18.	Silver Springs Hotel	Nairobi	160	180	****
19.	Hilton Nairobi Limited	Nairobi	287	334	****
20.	Nairobi Safari Club	Nairobi	146	186	****
21.	Windsor Golf Hotel and Country Club	Nairobi	130	205	****
22.	Carnivore Restaurant	Nairobi	0	0	****
23.	Amboseli Serena Lodge	Kajiado	92	184	****
24.	Amboseli Sopa Lodge	Kajiado	83	166	***
25.	Kibo Safaris Camp	Kajiado	60	120	***
26.	Maanzoni Lodge	Machakos	272	421	***
27.	The Clarion Hotel	Nairobi	62	67	***

Appendix II: Minimum Wage 2019

Occupation	Region	Minimum wage per hour (Ksh)	Minimum wage per day (Ksh)	Minimum wage per job (Monthly) (Ksh)
Machine attendants, Machine assistants, Saw mill sawyer, mass production machinists, Bakery workers, Bakery assistants and Shoe cutter,	Cities i.e. Nairobi, Kisumu and Mombasa	135.00	703.85	14650.90
	Municipal councils and town councils	119.55	659.25	13633.60
	Other areas	99.35	533.70	11050.35
Gardeners, Cleaners, General Workers, Children's ayah, House servants, Sweepers, Messengers, Day watchmen.	Cities	115.50	622.00	12926.55
	Municipal councils and town councils	105.60	571.45	11926.40
	Other areas	64.55	349.50	6896.15
Copy-typist, Car driver, Light vans drivers, Printing machine operators, Plywood machine operators, Sawmill dressers, Bakery machine operator, Shop assistants, Table hand bakers, Machine tool operators, Dough makers, Table hand confectioners,	Cities	157.05	838.40	17447.15
	Municipal councils and town councils	143.25	773.85	16102.75
	Other areas	118.25	639.55	13309.80

LATEST EPL 2018-19 SPORTS BUSINESS ENTERTAINMENT FACTS AND LIF

	Other areas	118.25	639.55	13309.80
Cashiers, Heavy commercial vehicle drivers, Salesmen-drivers	Cities	262.80	1404.30	29169.00
	Municipal councils and town councils	248.15	1321.35	27449.10
	Other areas	231.50	1237.10	25737.10
Storekeepers, Clerks, Pattern designers (draughts-men), Single hand oven men, Charge-hand bakers, Garment and dress cutters, receptionists, Telephone operators	Cities	179.35	957.20	19909.45
	Municipal councils and town councils	144.20	875.45	18201.95
	Other areas	139.35	744.00	15519.95
Crawler tractor drivers, Salesmen, Dryers	Cities	271.70	1161.70	24224.00
	Municipal councils and town councils	202.50	1087.60	22601.70
	Other areas	179.85	979.55	20398.55
Caretakers (buildings), saw doctors	Cities	241.20	1290.90	26807.25
	Municipal councils and town councils	224.55	1205.25	25031.70
	Other areas	208.50	1120.90	23319.15
Artisans Grade I	Cities	262.80	1404.30	29169.00
	Municipal councils and town councils	248.15	1231.35	27449.65
	Other areas	231.50	1237.10	25737.10
Artisans Grade II	Cities	217.70	1161.70	23699.10
	Municipal councils and town councils	202.50	1177.15	22601.70
	Other areas	180.05	979.15	20398.55
Artisans Grade III	Cities	195.30	1056.00	21942.35
	Municipal councils and town councils	179.60	971.25	20166.80
	Other areas	161.30	878.05	17948.15
Artisans Upgraded	Cities	157.05	839.00	17447.15
	Municipal councils and town councils	143.25	773.85	16102.75
	Other areas	161.30	639.55	13309.80
Night watchman	Cities	130.05	691.95	14420.90
	Municipal Council and town council	118.35	644.85	13369.50
	Other areas	75.85	396.85	8225.05
Jaiters, Cooks, Miners, Stone cutters, ogger line cutter, Turn boy	Cities	125.80	671.05	13960.80
	Municipal council and town council	107.05	593.40	12386.35
	Other areas	72.00	393.90	7967.95

Appendix III: Questionnaire Cover Letter

P.O. Box 333- 40105

MASENO, KENYA

Dear Sir/ Madam,

RE: COMPLETION OF RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE

My name is Faith a postgraduate student at Maseno University, department of Ecotourism Hotel and Institution Management. I am conducting a research on the effects of gender on employee pay gap and employee retention in five star hotels. Your hotel among other five star hotels was selected to take part in this study. The objective of this self-administered questionnaire is to obtain the views of hotel employee in order to help with completion of this research and eventually my studies.

The information provided will be treated with the highest level of confidentiality. The results arising from this study are for research purposes only to aid in preparation of my thesis, and the data collected will only be used for that sole purpose. There will be no identification of individual responses of employees from your hotel.

Your participation in filling the attached questionnaire will be highly appreciated. I look forward to receiving your responses.

For more information and clarification, kindly contact the researcher at Maseno University, Department of ECOHIM; P.O. Box 333 - 40105, MASENO; Cell Phone: 0722167889, or by e-mail at faithnungari@yahoo.com

Thank you for your sincere responses and the cooperation accorded.

Yours sincerely,

FAITH NUNGARI

Postgraduate Student, Department of ECOHIM, Maseno University

Attached: Questionnaire

Appendix IV: Questionnaires

Section A: Demographic characteristics
Please respond to the following questions by ticking in the spaces provided Section A

1. Gender:
   - **1.** Male [ ]
   - **2.** Female [ ]

2. Age group:
   - **1**) Below 29 Years [ ]
   - **2**) 30 – 41 Years [ ]
   - **3)** 42 Years and above [ ]

3. Marital status
   - **1)** Single [ ]
   - **2)** Married [ ]
   - **3)** Other (please, specify)_____

4. Highest level of education that you have completed.
   - **1)** Certificate or less [ ]
   - **2)** Diploma [ ]
   - **3)** Bachelor's Degree and above [ ]
   - **4)** Other (Please specify) _____

5. Department
   - **1)** Housekeeping [ ]
   - **2)** Front office [ ]
   - **3)** Maintenance [ ]
   - **4)** Food and beverage service [ ]
   - **5)** Operations [ ]
   - **6)** Food Production [ ]
   - **7)** Others (please specify) _____

6. What position do you hold in the department?
   - **1)** Supervisor [ ]
   - **2)** Asst. Supervisor [ ]
   - **3)** Team player [ ]
   - **4)** Other (please, specify) _____

7. Employment terms
   - **1)** Permanent [ ]
   - **2)** Contract [ ]
8. Average working hours per day
   - **1)** Less than 8 hours [ ]
   - **2)** 8 hours [ ]
   - **3)** More than 8 hours [ ]

Section B: Wages and Benefits

9. Kindly indicate your average monthly gross pay including house and commuter allowance **(Without Service Charge)(**Mark the appropriate box)
   - **1)** 14, 000-17,000 [ ]
   - **2)** 18,000- 21,000 [ ]
   - **3)** 22,000 – 25,000 [ ]
   - **4)** 26,000- 29,000 [ ]
   - **5)** 30,000 -33,000 [ ]
   - **6)** 34,000 - 37,000 [ ]
   - **7)** More than 38,000 [ ]

10. Do you think that women and in your hotel are getting paid equally for same job done?
    Yes [ ] No [ ]

    If no, what in your opinion is the reason (s)?

    _____

    _____

11. Using the scale of 1 -5 where 1 is, 2 is Disagree, 3 is Undecided, 4 is Agree and 5 is Strongly Disagree, please circle the value that nearly describe your opinion on Wage and benefits pay gap.

1. Strongly Disagree **1**	2. Disagree **2**	3. Somehow Agree **3**	4. Agree **4**	5.Strongly Disagree **5**					
Wage and benefits					**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
I am satisfied with my salaries and wages paid by my hotel									
I am satisfied that overtime is paid by my hotel									
I am happy that bonuses paid by my hotel									
I am happy with team rewards provided for achieving targets									
I am satisfied that personal and individual rewards are given on merit									

Section C: level of employee retention

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

1)	Under 5 years	[ ]
2)	6-10 years	[ ]
3)	11-15 years	[ ]
4)	16- 20 Years	[ ]
5)	Above 21 years	[ ]

13. How many years have you worked in this hotel?

1)	Less than 3 year	[ ]
2)	4 –6 years	[ ]
3)	7 – 10 years	[ ]
4)	11 - 20 years	[ ]
5)	Over 20 years	[ ]

14. How many employees are currently in your department/section_____

15. How many employees have left your department in the last one year_____

16. How many employees have joined your department this year_____

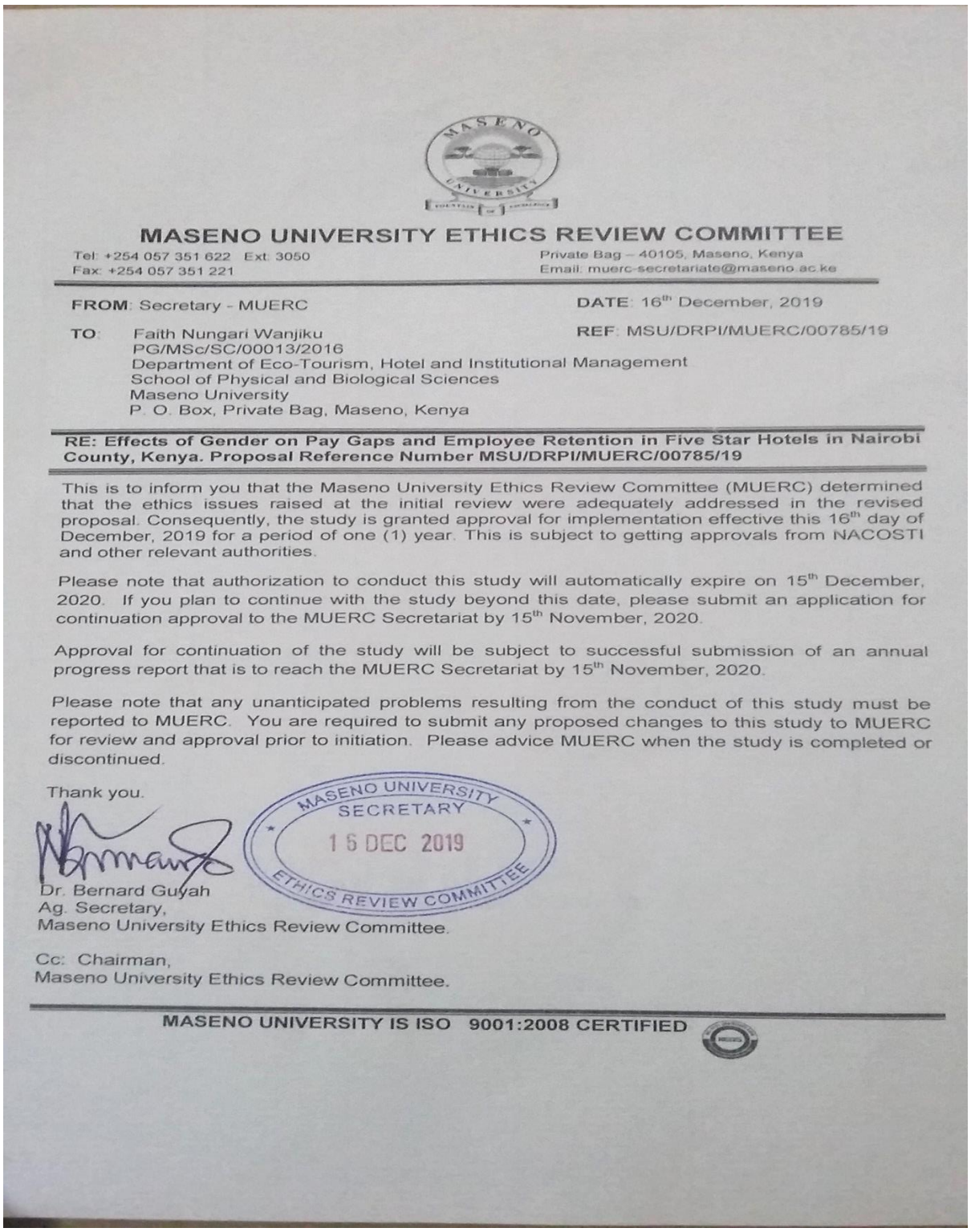
17. Kindly indicate the average number of years that most employees in your department serve/stay your organization _____

5.6 Appendix V: Consent Form

I participant number _____ confirm that I have read and understood the information provided by the researcher describing the study. I voluntarily agree to participate in filling the questionnaires within two weeks, and I am at liberty to withdraw from the study at any time without any penalty even after signing the consent letter. I certify that I have received a copy of the consent form.

Sign_____ Date_____

Appendix VI Ethical Clearance Certificate



MASENO UNIVERSITY ETHICS REVIEW COMMITTEE

Tel: +254 057 351 622 Ext: 3050
Fax: +254 057 351 221

Private Bag – 40105, Maseno, Kenya
Email: muerc-secretariate@maseno.ac.ke

FROM: Secretary - MUERC

DATE: 16th December, 2019

TO: Faith Nungari Wanjiku
PG/MSc/SC/00013/2016
Department of Eco-Tourism, Hotel and Institutional Management
School of Physical and Biological Sciences
Maseno University
P. O. Box, Private Bag, Maseno, Kenya

REF: MSU/DRPI/MUERC/00785/19

RE: Effects of Gender on Pay Gaps and Employee Retention in Five Star Hotels in Nairobi County, Kenya. Proposal Reference Number MSU/DRPI/MUERC/00785/19

This is to inform you that the Maseno University Ethics Review Committee (MUERC) determined that the ethics issues raised at the initial review were adequately addressed in the revised proposal. Consequently, the study is granted approval for implementation effective this 16th day of December, 2019 for a period of one (1) year. This is subject to getting approvals from NACOSTI and other relevant authorities.

Please note that authorization to conduct this study will automatically expire on 15th December, 2020. If you plan to continue with the study beyond this date, please submit an application for continuation approval to the MUERC Secretariat by 15th November, 2020.

Approval for continuation of the study will be subject to successful submission of an annual progress report that is to reach the MUERC Secretariat by 15th November, 2020.

Please note that any unanticipated problems resulting from the conduct of this study must be reported to MUERC. You are required to submit any proposed changes to this study to MUERC for review and approval prior to initiation. Please advice MUERC when the study is completed or discontinued.

Thank you.

MASENO UNIVERSITY SECRETARY 16 DEC 2019 ETHICS REVIEW COMMITTEE

Dr. Bernard Guyah
Ag. Secretary,
Maseno University Ethics Review Committee.

Cc: Chairman,
Maseno University Ethics Review Committee.

MASENO UNIVERSITY IS ISO 9001:2008 CERTIFIED

Appendix VII: Estimated Marginal Means Pairwise Comparisons

Model 1 Pairwise Comparison

Table 13a Gender Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable:Average Monthly Basic Pay

(I) Gender	(J) Gender	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[a]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[a]	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Male	Female	-.777*	.369	.038	-1.509	-.045
Female	Male	.777*	.369	.038	.045	1.509

Based on estimated marginal means

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

a. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Bonferroni.

Therefore pairwise comparison statistics in table 13a indicate that female earned significantly higher salaries than male employees (MD= 78, p=0.04).

Model 2 Pairwise Comparison

Table 13b Age Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable: Average Monthly Basic Pay

(I) Age Group	(J) Age Group	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[a]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[a]	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Below 29 Years	30 -41 Years	-.921	.399	.070	-1.895	.053
	42 Years and above	-1.526*	.527	.014	-2.812	-.240
30 -41 Years	Below 29 Years	.921	.399	.070	-.053	1.895
	42 Years and above	-.605	.360	.290	-1.484	.274
42 Years and above	Below 29 Years	1.526*	.527	.014	.240	2.812
	30 -41 Years	.605	.360	.290	-.274	1.484

Based on estimated marginal means

Table 13b Age Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable: Average Monthly Basic Pay						
					95% Confidence Interval for Difference[a]	
(I) Age Group	(J) Age Group	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[a]	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Below 29 Years	30 -41 Years	-.921	.399	.070	-1.895	.053
	42 Years and above	-1.526*	.527	.014	-2.812	-.240
30 -41 Years	Below 29 Years	.921	.399	.070	-.053	1.895
	42 Years and above	-.605	.360	.290	-1.484	.274
42 Years and above	Below 29 Years	1.526*	.527	.014	.240	2.812
	30 -41 Years	.605	.360	.290	-.274	1.484

Based on estimated marginal means

a. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Bonferroni.

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Therefore pairwise comparison statistics in table 13b indicate that employees aged 42 years and above earned significantly higher pay than those below 29 years (MD= 1.57, p=0.01).

Table 13c Level of education Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable:Average Monthly Basic Pay						
					95% Confidence Interval for Difference[a]	
(I) Level of education	(J) Level of education	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[a]	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Certificate or less	Diploma	-1.058*	.313	.003	-1.821	-.295
	Degree and above	-2.204*	.438	.000	-3.274	-1.135
Diploma	Certificate or less	1.058*	.313	.003	.295	1.821
	Degree and above	-1.147*	.348	.004	-1.995	-.298
Degree and above	Certificate or less	2.204*	.438	.000	1.135	3.274
	Diploma	1.147*	.348	.004	.298	1.995

Based on estimated marginal means

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

a. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Bonferroni.

Therefore pairwise comparison statistics in table 13c indicate that degree holders and above earned significantly higher pay than employees with diploma (MD= 1.147, p=0.04) and employees with certificate or less (MD= 2.204, p=0.00)

Table 13d Department Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable:Average Monthly Basic Pay

(I) Department	(J) Department	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[a]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[a]	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Housekeeping	Front Office	.007	.436	1.000	-1.309	1.322
	Maintenance	-1.013	.528	.873	-2.605	.579
	Food and Beverage Service	-1.050	.391	.051	-2.231	.131
	Operations and Administration	-.886	.394	.401	-2.073	.300
	Food Production	-1.236	.461	.051	-2.625	.154
Front Office	Housekeeping	-.007	.436	1.000	-1.322	1.309
	Maintenance	-1.019	.508	.717	-2.552	.513
	Food and Beverage Service	-1.057	.431	.242	-2.356	.243
	Operations and Administration	-.893	.371	.272	-2.012	.226
	Food Production	-1.242	.468	.045	-2.652	.168
Maintenance	Housekeeping	1.013	.528	.873	-.579	2.605
	Front Office	1.019	.508	.717	-.513	2.552
	Food and Beverage Service	-.037	.504	1.000	-1.557	1.482
	Operations and Administration	.126	.465	1.000	-1.276	1.529
	Food Production	-.223	.540	1.000	-1.852	1.407
Food and Beverage Service	Housekeeping	1.050	.391	.051	-.131	2.231
	Front Office	1.057	.431	.242	-.243	2.356
	Maintenance	.037	.504	1.000	-1.482	1.557
	Operations and Administration	.164	.376	1.000	-.970	1.298
	Food Production	-.186	.434	1.000	-1.494	1.122
Operations and Administration	Housekeeping	.886	.394	.401	-.300	2.073
	Front Office	.893	.371	.272	-.226	2.012
	Maintenance	-.126	.465	1.000	-1.529	1.276
	Food and Beverage Service	-.164	.376	1.000	-1.298	.970
	Food Production	-.349	.429	1.000	-1.643	.945
Food Production	Housekeeping	1.236	.461	.051	-.154	2.625
	Front Office	1.242	.468	.045	-.168	2.652
	Maintenance	.223	.540	1.000	-1.407	1.852
	Food and Beverage Service	.186	.434	1.000	-1.122	1.494
	Operations and Administration	.349	.429	1.000	-.945	1.643

Based on estimated marginal means

a. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Bonferroni.

Therefore pairwise comparison statistics in table 13d indicate that employees in Food and Beverage Service (MD= 1.05, p=0.05) and Food Production departments (MD= 1.24, p=0.05) significantly higher pay than those in housekeeping department. Furthermore, employees in Food production earned significantly higher pay than those in Front office department (MD= 1.24, p=0.05)

Table 13e Position Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable:Average Monthly Basic Pay						
(I) Position held	(J) Position held	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[a]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[a]	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Supervisor	Asst. Supervisor	.796	.463	.267	-.334	1.926
	Team player	1.456*	.359	.000	.579	2.332
Asst. Supervisor	Supervisor	-.796	.463	.267	-1.926	.334
	Team player	.660	.474	.502	-.496	1.816
Team player	Supervisor	-1.456*	.359	.000	-2.332	-.579
	Asst. Supervisor	-.660	.474	.502	-1.816	.496

Based on estimated marginal means

a. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Bonferroni.

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Pairwise comparison statistics in table 13e indicate that supervisors earned significantly higher pay than team players (MD= 1.46, p=0.01)

Table 13f Length of stay in the hotel Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable:Average Monthly Basic Pay

(I) Length of stay in the hotel	(J) Length of stay in the hotel	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[a]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[a]	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Less than 3 year	4 –6 years	-.561	.362	.748	-1.539	.416
	7 – 10 years	-1.129	.425	.051	-2.275	.016
	11 - 20 years	-.241	.632	1.000	-1.946	1.463
4 –6 years	Less than 3 year	.561	.362	.748	-.416	1.539
	7 – 10 years	-.568	.354	.676	-1.524	.388
	11 - 20 years	.320	.574	1.000	-1.227	1.868
7 – 10 years	Less than 3 year	1.129	.425	.051	-.016	2.275
	4 –6 years	.568	.354	.676	-.388	1.524
	11 - 20 years	.888	.579	.771	-.674	2.450
11 - 20 years	Less than 3 year	.241	.632	1.000	-1.463	1.946
	4 –6 years	-.320	.574	1.000	-1.868	1.227
	7 – 10 years	-.888	.579	.771	-2.450	.674

Based on estimated marginal means

a. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Bonferroni.

Pairwise comparison statistics in table 13f indicate that employees who had stayed in a hotel between 7-10 years earned significantly higher pay than employees who had stayed 3 years or less (MD= 1.13, p=0.05)

Model 3 Pairwise comparison

Table 13g Gender Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable:Percentage of employees employees retained

(I) Gender	(J) Gender	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[a]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[a]	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Male	Female	-6.891	3.630	.051	-14.107	.324
Female	Male	6.891	3.630	.051	-.324	14.107

Based on estimated marginal means

a. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Bonferroni.

Pairwise comparison statistics in table 13g indicate that female employees have higher retention rates than male employees (MD= 6.89, p=0.05)

Table 13h Department Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable: Percentage of employees retained						
					95% Confidence Interval for Difference[a]	
(I) Department	(J) Department	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[a]	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Housekeeping	Front Office	-12.012	5.973	.711	-30.042	6.018
	Maintenance	-20.740	7.337	.087	-42.885	1.405
	Food and Beverage Service	6.785	5.603	1.000	-10.129	23.698
	Operations and Administration	-13.739	5.509	.218	-30.368	2.890
	Food Production	-2.934	6.519	1.000	-22.612	16.744
Front Office	Housekeeping	12.012	5.973	.711	-6.018	30.042
	Maintenance	-8.728	7.086	1.000	-30.116	12.660
	Food and Beverage Service	18.796*	6.154	.045	.222	37.371
	Operations and Administration	-1.727	5.258	1.000	-17.600	14.145
	Food Production	9.078	6.660	1.000	-11.025	29.180
Maintenance	Housekeeping	20.740	7.337	.087	-1.405	42.885
	Front Office	8.728	7.086	1.000	-12.660	30.116
	Food and Beverage Service	27.525*	6.886	.002	6.739	48.311
	Operations and Administration	7.001	6.335	1.000	-12.121	26.123
	Food Production	17.806	7.371	.267	-4.442	40.054
Food and Beverage Service	Housekeeping	-6.785	5.603	1.000	-23.698	10.129
	Front Office	-18.796*	6.154	.045	-37.371	-.222
	Maintenance	-27.525*	6.886	.002	-48.311	-6.739
	Operations and Administration	-20.524*	5.161	.002	-36.101	-4.947
	Food Production	-9.719	5.953	1.000	-27.686	8.249
Operations and Administration	Housekeeping	13.739	5.509	.218	-2.890	30.368
	Front Office	1.727	5.258	1.000	-14.145	17.600
	Maintenance	-7.001	6.335	1.000	-26.123	12.121
	Food and Beverage Service	20.524*	5.161	.002	4.947	36.101
	Food Production	10.805	5.863	1.000	-6.892	28.502
Food Production	Housekeeping	2.934	6.519	1.000	-16.744	22.612
	Front Office	-9.078	6.660	1.000	-29.180	11.025
	Maintenance	-17.806	7.371	.267	-40.054	4.442
	Food and Beverage Service	9.719	5.953	1.000	-8.249	27.686
	Operations and Administration	-10.805	5.863	1.000	-28.502	6.892
Based on estimated marginal means						

Table 13h Department Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable: Percentage of employees retained						
					95% Confidence Interval for Difference[a]	
(I) Department	(J) Department	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[a]	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Housekeeping	Front Office	-12.012	5.973	.711	-30.042	6.018
	Maintenance	-20.740	7.337	.087	-42.885	1.405
	Food and Beverage Service	6.785	5.603	1.000	-10.129	23.698
	Operations and Administration	-13.739	5.509	.218	-30.368	2.890
	Food Production	-2.934	6.519	1.000	-22.612	16.744
Front Office	Housekeeping	12.012	5.973	.711	-6.018	30.042
	Maintenance	-8.728	7.086	1.000	-30.116	12.660
	Food and Beverage Service	18.796*	6.154	.045	.222	37.371
	Operations and Administration	-1.727	5.258	1.000	-17.600	14.145
	Food Production	9.078	6.660	1.000	-11.025	29.180
Maintenance	Housekeeping	20.740	7.337	.087	-1.405	42.885
	Front Office	8.728	7.086	1.000	-12.660	30.116
	Food and Beverage Service	27.525*	6.886	.002	6.739	48.311
	Operations and Administration	7.001	6.335	1.000	-12.121	26.123
	Food Production	17.806	7.371	.267	-4.442	40.054
Food and Beverage Service	Housekeeping	-6.785	5.603	1.000	-23.698	10.129
	Front Office	-18.796*	6.154	.045	-37.371	-.222
	Maintenance	-27.525*	6.886	.002	-48.311	-6.739
	Operations and Administration	-20.524*	5.161	.002	-36.101	-4.947
	Food Production	-9.719	5.953	1.000	-27.686	8.249
Operations and Administration	Housekeeping	13.739	5.509	.218	-2.890	30.368
	Front Office	1.727	5.258	1.000	-14.145	17.600
	Maintenance	-7.001	6.335	1.000	-26.123	12.121
	Food and Beverage Service	20.524*	5.161	.002	4.947	36.101
	Food Production	10.805	5.863	1.000	-6.892	28.502
Food Production	Housekeeping	2.934	6.519	1.000	-16.744	22.612
	Front Office	-9.078	6.660	1.000	-29.180	11.025
	Maintenance	-17.806	7.371	.267	-40.054	4.442
	Food and Beverage Service	9.719	5.953	1.000	-8.249	27.686
	Operations and Administration	-10.805	5.863	1.000	-28.502	6.892

Based on estimated marginal means

a. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Bonferroni.

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Pairwise comparison statistics in table 13h indicate that employees in Food and Beverage Service have significantly lower retention rates than employees in Front Office (MD= -18.80, p=0.05), Maintenance (MD= -27.52, p=0.02), and Operations and Administration (MD= -20.52, p=0.02)

Table 13i Working hours Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable: Percentage of employees retained

(I) Average working hours	(J) Average working hours	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[a]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[a]	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Less than 8 hours	8 Hours	1.118	8.774	1.000	-20.300	22.536
	More than 8 hours	12.528	9.072	.512	-9.617	34.674
8 Hours	Less than 8 hours	-1.118	8.774	1.000	-22.536	20.300
	More than 8 hours	11.410*	4.421	.035	.618	22.203
More than 8 hours	Less than 8 hours	-12.528	9.072	.512	-34.674	9.617
	8 Hours	-11.410*	4.421	.035	-22.203	-.618

Based on estimated marginal means

a. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Bonferroni.

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Pairwise comparison statistics in table 13i indicate that employees who worked 8 hours have higher retention rates than employees who worked more than 8 hours (MD=11.41 , p=0.04)