



THE TIPPING CONSEQUENCE ON HOSPITALITY'S RESTAURANT FOOD AND BEVERAGE SERVICE RESPONSIVENESS IN KISUMU COUNTY - KENYA

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Abstract

Purpose of study: The purpose of this study was to investigate the tipping consequence of restaurant food service responsiveness.

Methodology: The study employed a descriptive survey approach within Kisumu County in Kenya, with a focus on classified hotel restaurant (dependent). A simple random sampling methodology was applied in the selection of restaurant clients, with a sample size of 384 respondents.

Main Findings: According to the study, tipping was found to have an effect on foodservice responsiveness ($P < 0.05$), and thus a clear indication that foodservice responsiveness is dependent on tipping within classified dependent restaurants in Kisumu County, Kenya.

Limitations: The study captured dependent restaurants in star-rated hotels within Kisumu County. Therefore, the results of the study may be applied with caution outside the scope of the study.

Social Implications: Since its inception, tipping has been thought of as an incentive towards quality food service provision, hence customer satisfaction and retention. However, tipping has had a negative influence on foodservice responsiveness and therefore a compromise on food service quality, customer satisfaction and retention.

Originality: There is insufficient literature on the topic, although with a handful on the relationship between service quality and tipping. This study will, therefore, fill the gap and used as a benchmark for other studies within not only the hospitality industry but the entire service industry. As a result, the study will be utilized both in policy and practice.

Keywords: *Tipping, Service Quality, Customer satisfaction, Food Service, Service Failure.*

INTRODUCTION

Tipping from a global perspective may be traced back from the Roman times or since coins were used to compensate for services (Azer, 2010). In fact, Nusrat (2018) records that tipping within the broad service industry began in the mid ages when lords chose to give their servants a few extra coins as tokens of gratitude and thereafter evolved into a norm which currently is at 15 – 20% of the total restaurant bill (Lynn & Brewster, 2015). This is indeed a clear indication of tipping having developed and fully in practice today across the world not only in the hospitality industry but the entire services industry. However, the act has been undergoing rapid evolution and spreading to regions and countries with little or even no knowledge of the tipping norm and practice, even though the tipping act varies considerably across the world (Jacobs, 2017; Jeremy, et. al., 2014; Ala' a Nimer, et. al., 2012).

From the summary of the tipping pattern across the world, it may be witnessed that the act of tipping is not uniformly observed and practiced across all the nations of the world. However, the tipping phenomenon is common among citizens of some countries who subscribe to specific restaurant tipping norms that dictate the nature, amount and way of the tip (Lynn, 2015). Bigler & Hoas, (2016); Margalioth, Sapriti, & Coloma, (2010), review the current tipping patterns and therefore identifies Netherlands, Sweden, Belgium, France, Switzerland, Italy and other European and African countries as the most probable zones where the act of tipping is predominantly practiced. However, the tipping act is hardly practiced in Australia, China, Denmark, Japan and Iceland (Lynn, 2015; Bigler & Hoas, 2016; Margalioth, Sapriti, & Coloma, 2010).

It should be noted though that countries with higher minimum wages do not promote the act of tipping, as it is not only commonly practiced but also allowed (Jahan, 2018). The league of these nations include; Australia which experiences lack of tipping because the minimum wage across all cadres within the country is average, while some countries; Japan, South Korea, Georgia, Spain, Peru, Thailand and Kazakhstan (Jahan, 2018) believes that tipping is a slur to the food and beverage service staff and therefore view tipping as a very unfamiliar exercise (Wiles, 2015).

In Africa however, very little has been published (Megan, 2017) with a particular focus on South Africa (Kruger & Saayman, 2016), Zimbabwe, (Charity & Kazembe, 2014) and Egypt (Jacobs, 2017; Lynn & Brewster, 2015; Jeremy, Alecia & Martin, 2014; Ala' a Nimer, Abukhalifeh & Puad Mat, 2012; Jahan, 2018). However, the literature on tipping within the African country perspective is only slightly elaborative on Egypt, speculated to be practicing a 10%-15% tip (Jahan, 2018). Still, currently there lacks sufficient literature detailing the tipping act across the other African countries

as very little in terms of research has been independently carried out, even though optional tipping, as well as service charge, is allowed in the majority of the countries (Clotildah, 2014).

Table 1: A summary of the world tipping norm

COUNTRY	RESTAURANT TIP	COUNTRY	RESTAURANT TIP
Argentina	10%	Italy	10% in addition to service charge
Armenia	10%	Japan	Tipping is perceived as insulting
Australia	10% in fine restaurants only	Kenya	5% if no service charge
Belgium	10% if no service charge	Morocco	Leave loose change
Brunei	None	Norway	10% if no service charge
Canada	15%	Paraguay	10%
China	3% in major cities	Poland	10%
Colombia	10%	Portugal	10-15% if no service charge
Denmark	None	Saudi Arabia	10-15%
Egypt	5-10% + service charge	Singapore	None
England	10% if no service charge	South Africa	10% if no service charge
France	5-10%	Sweden	10% if no service charge
Greece	5-10% in addition to service charge	Taiwan	10% if no service charge
Guatemala	10% in addition to service charge	Tanzania	10%
Holland	5-10%	Thailand	None
India	10% if no service	United States	15-20%
Ireland	10-15%	Vietnam	None
Israel	12-15% if no service charge	Wales	10% if no service charge

Service quality, on the other hand, has become a household terminology within the general strategic hospitality management arena. It is indeed true that evaluating what hospitality restaurant clientele think about their restaurant food and beverage sales and service experience is a difficult challenge for hospitality practitioners striving to achieve restaurant food service quality. Nevertheless, an emphasis on Phillip Crosby's zero defects (Conie, Sparks & Kandapully, 2013) can never be avoided by hospitality restaurant management personnel if without any doubt they are committed to achieving customer loyalty through customer satisfaction and retention, and thus brand loyalty. Namasiyayam & Hinkin (2003) found out that offering goods and service is not enough itself alone but customers must be provided with experience, what may be referred to as food service quality within hospitality's restaurant operations.

Since the inception of tipping, it was meant to be a motivation for excellent restaurant food service (Musaba, Musaba & Hoabeb, 2014). Until then, it remains the greatest challenge to hospitality's food and beverage service managers as a result of the discriminatory service quality effects, and thus compromises restaurant food and beverage service. It may, therefore, be concluded that restaurant tipping remains to be the greatest contributor to restaurant food service failures, although there is the need to provide data and scientific proof of the same. However, from this school of thought, tipping may be considered either the sole direct cause or maybe the current enormous contributor to the witnessed poor restaurant food service quality hence the reason for the service failures experienced within restaurant foodservice operations. Thus the purpose of this study was to investigate the effect of tipping on restaurant food service responsiveness and hence quality. This is contrary to the hospitality organizations' obligation and commitment toward total quality management (Liat, Mansori, Chuan & Imrie, 2017), through quality food delivery and service.

LITERATURE SURVEY

Tipping is an interesting commercial behavior within the entire global services industry, having attracted economists (Lynn, 2006) as well as general academicians in the fields of psychology, and lately hospitality management. This is not only on the basis of the importance and widespread nature of the tipping phenomenon but also as employee compensation and/ or incentive (Wang & Lynn, 2013) for quality restaurant food and beverage service.

Kotler, Bowen, and Makens (2010) in their extensive study propose a service culture with an emphasis on serving and satisfying the customer, hence accentuating the concept of providing quality restaurant food service at all times. Nevertheless, this service culture is seldom adhered to by the hotel's restaurant businesses as a result of the act of tipping that has brought about not only selective but also discriminative quality in the service provision of food and beverages to hospitality's restaurant clients. As a result, therefore, the selective and discriminative food service that is a product of the act of tipping directly contributes to the poor food service quality, which ultimately results in customer dissatisfaction, lack of retention and therefore reduced profitability.

Furthermore, studies on this topic by Charity & Kazembe, (2014) as well as Donald, Nicole & Christopher (2015) found out that tipping is thought to encourage autonomy, individualism, and competition in the various hospitality foodservice

workplaces. This is out of the staffs' concerted efforts and struggles to earn satisfactorily from tips. However, this is in disregard of service quality and thus guest satisfaction and retention. These vices identified by [Charity & Kazembe, \(2014\)](#) and [Donald, Nicole & Christopher \(2015\)](#) negatively affect teamwork and thus productivity of the restaurants' food and beverage personnel, thus contributing to poor food service quality.

[Janet, Brenda & Jones \(2006\)](#) on the other hand concedes that tipping is inequitable across the front and back-of-the-house staff, as staff working 'back-of-the-house' report extreme displeasure as a result of them not directly drawing neither tangible financial nor material benefits from tips as compared to the "front-of-the-house" employees. Hospitality's food service personnel become accustomed to tips and therefore would decline on responsibility positions, ([Janet, Brenda & Jones, 2006](#)), which ultimately bogs down managerial efforts and resources employed in the development of human capital through succession planning in mind for the organization.

Kenya Union of Domestic, Hotels, Educational Institutions, Hospitals, and Allied Workers (KUDHEIHA) subscribers are beneficiaries of mandatory monthly service charge which was initially introduced as a substitute to voluntary tipping in the hospitality industry, and so tipping was to be abolished and thus may not be indispensable as service charge is included in the final restaurant bills ([Margalioth et. al., 2010; Mohd Salehudin et. al., 2011](#)). Tipping, therefore, is suggestive of double charging since food and beverage service staff earn service charge, also levied on the guests' restaurant bills while on the other hand the same guests are expected to give out tips.

Hence, according to [Lynn, \(2015\)](#) and [Wang & Lynn, \(2013\)](#), it is reported that tipping increases the costs of eating out at restaurants by 5% to 15%, and thus restaurant guest turn over, cash inflow and food and beverage sales targets may neither be maximized nor realized in the long run. All the same, this might not be the case for business class clients who are less concerned with the cost of the foodservice but focuses more on the quality. It, therefore, calls for an extensive examination of the tipping impetus on foodservice quality by hospitality's restaurant practitioners in relation to the overall influence on the cost of the menu, customer satisfaction and retention and thus business profitability. This is with the general aim of not only reducing the burden of increased costs of eating out but also minimize the negative effects on restaurants' food service quality. Thus with all these observed issues as a result of tipping in relation to food service quality, the purpose of this study was to examine the tipping impetus on foodservice quality within the hospitality's restaurant business.

A number of studies trying to explain the theory of tipping have appeared in psychology and economics ([Lynn & Sturman, 2010](#)), but with a minimal focus on general hospitality management. Numerous scholars have tried to utilize the proposed theories, models and principles in related studies in relation to the effect of tipping as well as various interactions between these variables and restaurant food service quality in hospitality services operation ([Lynn, 2006](#)). Thus, three validations are proposed on why hospitality's food and beverage service recipients tip including; incentives/reward for outstanding or superior service attempts to buy improved/enhanced future service as well as a social norm of the tipping behavior ([Megan, 2017](#)).

Incentive/ Reward

The practical explanation of the tipping behavior is based on the precincts that it is an effective means of monitoring and rewarding hospitality's food service staff, ([Ali, Ryan & Hussein, 2016; Grandbois, 2016](#)). According to [Lynn et al., \(2012\)](#), the act of tipping is related to food service customer evaluation of the restaurant dining experience, hence anticipated to foster food and beverage service quality, thus eliminating and/ or minimizing service failures. As a result, it is believed that this is the origin of customer satisfaction, retention and hence brand loyalty.

However, hospitality services, including restaurant food and beverage services are highly personalized thus intangibility nature ([Lillicrap & Cousins, 2014](#)) of the entire hospitality operations services. It, therefore, leads to the assumption that customers are in a much better position than managers to evaluate and reward food and beverage service staff, even though, there is no clarity on what specific concepts and guidelines the customer evaluates restaurant food service quality and how s(he) is supposed to rate and compare the same in relation to organizational standards, which may also not be in the clear view of the foodservice customers, specifically applied for employee rewarding purposes. With these, among other unmentioned gaps in the tipping service responsiveness and hence quality relationship, there is a need for further intensive investigations into the topic.

[Lynn, Jabbour & Kim, \(2012\); Charity & Kazembe, \(2014\); Bigler & Hoaas, \(2016\)](#) and [Lynn \(2015\)](#) emphasizes that fiscal as well as non-fiscal benefits in terms of tips affect hospitality services employee motivation, and therefore ratifies previous study findings that tips do increase with customers' perception of food and beverage service quality and therefore one of the active and effective measures used by foodservice clientele and managers alike to ensure restaurant food service quality, customer attraction, satisfaction and retention. It is on this basis that it forms the core economic pillar for effective restaurant business viability, soundness and sustainability.

However, hospitality restaurant tipping behavior is not wholesomely and globally accepted and therefore partially as well as seldomly practiced in some countries in the world such as New Zealand and Britain ([Ala' Nimer, Abukhalifeh & Puad Mat, 2012](#)). This is the genesis of far-reaching doubts cast, specifically on the proposed incentives for improved food service quality function of tipping within the hospitality's restaurant operations. Moreover, food service quality is

problematic in the estimation, as quality may mean differently to different people and therefore a function directly involving hospitality organizations management team to define the term quality based on the company's strategic objectives, mission, and vision as well as core values as stipulated within the organizations SOPs.

Enhanced Future Service

Researchers on this subject matter have engaged the application of reciprocity theory to spell out the reasoning behind tipping as attempts to buy enhanced or improved future service ([Bodvarson & Gibson, 2002](#)). According to reciprocity theory, it is considered a behavioral action and reaction act between the restaurant employee and clients to perceived kindness from each side of the relationship. [Folk and Fishbacher \(2006\)](#) in their work attempted to established proof of a universal reciprocity custom compelling people to pay the favors others do for them. Further, there seems to exist a connection in the relationship between tipping, reciprocity theory as well as the tit-for-tat strategy. This strategy proposes the general assumption that the association between restaurant food service quality and tipping should be strong for regular than non-regular restaurant customers ([Lynn, 2010](#)). This strategy has extensively been used by scholars to attempt in explaining the tipping phenomenon as an attempt to buy enhanced future restaurant food service within the hospitality service operations ([Megan, 2017](#)).

Increased competition, on the other hand, has unearthed a myriad of challenges among many hospitality organizations in building and maintaining customer brand loyalty. However, [Carev \(2008\)](#) cements the argument that by raising food service quality, hotel restaurants gradually raise guests' expectations through the creation of positive client service quality perceptions. This is indeed an important hospitality management strategic tool that may contribute to customer loyalty and make it more difficult and costly for the competitors to please them, thus an elimination of restaurant brand switching ([Chakraborty, 2017](#)). However, given the seasonal nature of the hospitality industry ([Kotler, Bowel & Makens, 2010](#); [Lillicrap & Cousins, 2014](#)), overdependence on tips and service charges has become a norm ([Concern Tourism, 2013](#)) especially within the less developed countries of the world, with the variability nature of restaurant food service ([Lillicrap & Cousins, 2014](#)) preserves tipping from the assumptions that it is an act of buying enhanced future service since the chances of the not only meeting but also being given similar food service quality is insignificant.

Social Norm

The social norm is an explicit or implicit rule specifying what behaviors are acceptable within society. In an attempt to shed more light on the origin of the tipping custom, [Wang \(2010\)](#) records that it started as a sign of gratitude and status, became an incentive or reward upon the perception of service, and finally a norm. Today, the acceptable norm in the United States dictates that tipping should be 15%-20% of the actual bill ([Bigler et al., 2016](#)). In relation to psychology research, individuals do not want to risk social disapproval and therefore will opt to fulfill the norm of tipping ([Margalioth, Sapriti & Coloma, 2010](#)).

The custom of tipping varies across countries in development ([Mohd et al. 2011](#)), nonetheless is evolving rapidly ([Ala' Nimer, Abukhalifeh & Puad Mat, 2012](#)) to a lesser extent in; Belgium, France, Italy, the Netherlands, Norway and Sweden and hardly ever practiced in Australia, China, Denmark, Japan and Iceland ([Bigler et al. 2016](#)). Tipping growth in many nations of the world may be attributed to; increasing numbers of travelers from countries where tipping is the norm, bringing back the custom by the local travelers overseas, and the rapid expansion of the global hospitality industry which is increasingly internationalized ([Mohd et al. 2011](#)). However, there is minimal literature within our knowledge on the relationship between tipping as a norm in the hospitality's food & beverage service and service responsiveness thus quality.

Food Service Quality

The definition of service quality by researchers is in close relationship with the concept of consumer-perceived quality ([Namasivayam & Hinkin, 2003](#)). According to [Namasivayam and Hinkin \(2003\)](#), customer perceived quality is in reference to the actions and reactions of the consumer that stimulates the responses of hospitality's restaurant food and beverage service staff to act appropriately towards the customers' ability to achieve a suitable meal experience. In day-to-day employee hospitality professional operational practice, customers in food and beverage sections of the hotel examine service quality ([Mohsin, 2011](#); [Nguyen Thu Ha, Phan Chi & Yoshiki, 2015](#); [Grandbois, 2016](#); [Ladhari, 2009](#)) and as such, they are motivated to impact positively on the foodservice quality depending on the individual customer satisfaction, ([Mukhles, 2016](#); [Musaba & Musaba, 2014](#); [Rauch, Collins, Nale & Barr, 2015](#); [Ali, Ryan & Hussein 2016](#); [Liat, Mansori & Chuan 2017](#));, hence an important factor for consideration in the context of increased business sustainability as a result of repeat customers, profitability and loyalty.

According to [Stephen, Kevia & Mike \(2011\)](#) as well as [Kandapully & Suhartanto \(2000\)](#), every hotel must pay the importance of prioritizing customer satisfaction by developing staff attitude and service potential. Service quality has become an important and compulsory ingredient in customer services management, and thus emphasized by service quality philosophies such as Kaizen, Total Quality Management, Six Sigma or usage of dynamic models ([Nadeliakova, Stefancova & Kudlac, 2017](#)). Customers are key players in the service quality management within food and beverage as they are considered to be in a better position to identify and reward specific service successes, but also shun on the observed service failures in the restaurant food and beverage service delivery cycle.

Service failures

When the restaurant food service delivery system fails, frontline service employees are required to respond to the complaints or dissatisfaction from restaurant customers. However, low percentage tipping may not only be used to eliminate, if not minimize restaurant food service failures (Lynn, 2015). Foodservice failure incidents are directly related to failures to the core food and beverage services such as the dining room, restaurant meal service, or the food and beverage production models. Irrespective of the restaurant class in terms of service levels, inevitable foodservice system failures occur for even the best of hospitality restaurants. In the restaurant's food and beverage service, examples of service system failures may include cold food, slow service, insect problems, dirty silverware and crockery. However, hospitality's restaurant clientele brings to the attention of both the foodservice staff and management of such restaurant service system failures through not only tipping but also the magnitude of the tip. This study was therefore guided by three objectives, which yielded three corresponding hypotheses.

HYPOTHESIS

The study was guided by the following objectives and corresponding hypotheses;

1. To investigate the relationship between rewards upon the perception of service and food service responsiveness.
HO₁: There is no statistically significant relationship between rewards upon the perception of service and food service responsiveness.
2. To establish the relationship between incentives for improved future service and food service responsiveness.
HO₂: There is no statistically significant relationship between incentives for improved future service and food service responsiveness.
3. To assess the relationship between the social norms of tipping and foodservice responsiveness.
HO₃: There is no statistically significant relationship between the social norms of tipping and foodservice responsiveness.

METHODOLOGY

The study employed a descriptive research survey design which is concerned with describing situations on the basis of respondents' responses and examining their relationships. According to Gall, Gall & Borg (2007), scientific disciplines, especially social sciences and psychology use a descriptive research survey design method to obtain a general overview of the subject, and therefore impeccably fit in its application within this study. Further, this design was chosen in relation to its ability and appropriateness, in fact, finding to yield accurate information on the relationship between tipping and restaurant service reliability.

The area of study under investigation was Kisumu County, the former administrative districts of Nyanza province in Western parts of the country. For purposes of this study, a census of all the star-rated hotels within Kisumu County was carried out. Simple random sampling was employed in the selection of clients since it yielded a sample that is representative of the population (Mugenda & Mugenda, 1999). This method ensured the inclusivity of all the respondents of the population hence minimized biases (Mugenda & Mugenda, 1999) in the process of respondent selection.

Further, a questionnaire was used to collect data from respondents on the relationship between tipping and reliability of food services. The questionnaire consisted of a series of questions and other prompts for the purpose of gathering information and was administered to 384 sampled restaurant clients within the selected hotels in Kisumu County.

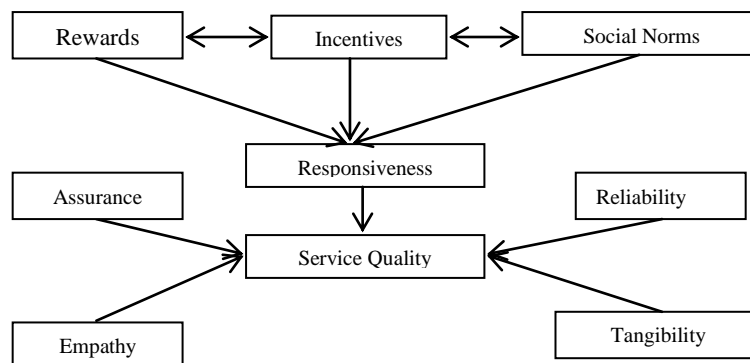


Figure 1: Proposed study model

For proper conceptualization of the topic under review, the researcher proposed a study model in figure 1 above.

LIMITATIONS

This study was carried out in classified hotel restaurants within Kisumu County in Kenya. However, independent commercial, casual as well as welfare restaurants were not covered by the study. The study concentrated within Kisumu

County as a result of the cost implications as well as the time needed in covering a much more expansive study area. Thus, the generalization of the study results should be with caution outside the study area.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

Respondents were requested to indicate their responses on the effect of restaurant tipping on hospitality's food services responsiveness. The collected data was analyzed using SPSS version 20 and presented as in the following tables;

Table 2: Respondents tipping effect on foodservice responsiveness

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly Agree	97	35.0	35.0
Agree	149	53.8	88.8
Neither Agree nor Disagree	16	5.8	94.6
Disagree	9	3.2	97.8
Strongly Disagree	6	2.2	100.0
Total	277	100.0	

On a Likert scale of five, where 1=strongly agree, 2=agree, 3=neither agree nor disagree, 4=disagree and 5=strongly disagree was used. The study results show that 147 respondents (53.8%) indicated they agree that tipping has a positive effect on foodservice responsiveness, 97 respondents (35.0%) indicated they strongly agree and 16 respondents (5.8%) indicated they neither agree nor disagree. However, on the other hand, 9 respondents (3.2%) were found to have indicated that they disagree that tipping has a positive effect on foodservice responsiveness while 6 respondents (2.2%) were found to have indicated they strongly disagree that tipping has a positive effect on foodservice responsiveness. In general, therefore, 249 respondents (88.8%) indicated they agree tipping has a positive effect on foodservice responsiveness while 25 respondents (5.4%) indicated that they disagree that tipping has a positive effect on foodservice responsiveness.

The study also sought to establish the association between respondents tipping behavior and restaurant food service responsiveness. On a Likert scale of 1-5, where 1=strongly agree, 2=agree, 3=neither agree nor disagree, 4=disagree and 5=strongly disagree, cross-tabulation was carried on the two study variables and the results shown in the table below;

Table 3: Respondents Cross-tabulation between tipping behavior and foodservice responsiveness

TIPPING	Responsiveness					Total
	1	2	3	4	5	
1	32	17	3	0	0	52
2	45	99	4	0	0	148
3	17	29	5	6	2	59
4	2	4	3	2	2	13
5	1	0	1	1	2	5
Total	97	149	16	9	6	277

The study results show that 148 respondents agree that tipping has an effect on foodservice responsiveness, 59 respondents neither agree nor disagree, while 52 respondents strongly agree that tipping has an effect on foodservice responsiveness. On the other hand, though, 13 respondents indicated they disagree that tipping has an effect on foodservice responsiveness while 5 respondents indicated they strongly disagree that tipping has an effect on foodservice responsiveness. The study, therefore, found out that majority respondents (200) indicated they agree tipping has an effect on foodservice responsiveness while 18 respondents indicated they disagree that tipping has an effect on foodservice responsiveness.

For purposes of making generalized inferences on the results in table 3 above, a Pearson correlation analysis was carried out and the results are shown as presented on respondents' correlation on tipping behavior and foodservice responsiveness as shown in table 4. The study results gave a person's r value (correlation coefficient) of 0.449. This is a moderate positive correlation between respondents tipping behavior and foodservice responsiveness. Further, the study results gave a significance value = 0.000, which is less than 0.05 ($P < 0.05$). From this study results, there is a weak positive correlation between tipping and foodservice responsiveness. Thus, the study concluded that there is a weak positive and significant correlation between tipping and restaurant food service responsiveness among hospitality restaurant clients within Kisumu County, in Kenya.

Table 4: Respondents correlation on tipping behavior and foodservice responsiveness

	Value	Asymp. Std. Error ^a	Approx. T ^b	Approx. Sig.
Pearson's R	.449	.065	8.338	.000 ^c
Spearman Correlation	.335	.062	5.886	.000 ^c
N of Valid Cases	277			

To find out the relationship between tipping and restaurant food service responsiveness, a multiple regression analysis was carried out. Prior to the regression analysis, the initial diagnostic was conducted to eliminate any violations of the assumptions of linearity, multicollinearity, homoscedasticity, and independence of observations. The study results were presented as shown below;

Table 5: Respondents Multiple Linear regression model summaries

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.523 ^a	.273	.265	.72174

a. Predictors: (Constant), NORMS, REWARDS, INCENTIVES

The study gave a multiple regression summary with a multiple correlation coefficient value = 0.523. A value of 0.523 (R-value) indicates a good level of prediction of the dependent variable (food service responsiveness). Further, the multiple model summary gave a coefficient of determination - R square value (R^2) = 0.273. This means that the study independent variable tipping explains 27.3% of the variability of the dependent variable – foodservice responsiveness.

Furthermore, the study gave a multiple linear regression ANOVA which yielded the F ratio for purposes of testing whether the overall regression model is a good fit for the data. The ANOVA table of results was presented as below;

Table 6: Respondents Multiple Linear regression ANOVA table

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	f	Sig.
Regression	53.480	3	17.827	34.222	.000 ^b
Residual	142.209	273	.521		
Total	195.690	277			

a. Dependent Variable: RESPONSIVENESS2

b. Predictors: (Constant), NORMS, REWARDS, INCENTIVES

The study yielded an F value (2, 273) = 34.222 with a Significance (P value) = 0.000. Thus, the results show that $P < 0.05$; hence the regression model is a good fit for the data.

Finally, the study yielded a regression Coefficients table from which the unstandardized coefficient values of all the independent variables as well as significance were captured as presented in the table below;

Table 7: Respondents Multiple Linear Regression Coefficients table

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	.779	.124		6.285	.000
Rewards	.325	.058	.374	5.600	.000
Incentives	.150	.068	.159	2.222	.027
Norms	.047	.050	.060	.954	.341

a. Dependent Variable: RESPONSIVENESS

The study results show unstandardized coefficient (B) values of; Rewards upon the perception of foodservice quality = 0.325, Incentives for improved future service = 0.150 and the social norms of tipping = 0.047. Further, the study results gave significance (P) values of; rewards upon perception of service = 0.000 (= P value < 0.05), incentives for improved future service = 0.027 (= P value < 0.05) and the social norms of tipping = 0.341 (= P value > 0.05). Thus, the coefficients are statistically significantly different to zero for rewards upon the perception of service (P = 0.000 value < 0.05) as well as incentives for improved future service (P value = 0.027 < 0.05). On the other hand, though, the coefficients are not statistically significantly different to zero for the social norms of tipping (P value = 0.341 > 0.05). From this result, the study concluded that there is a statistically significant relationship between rewards upon the perception of service and food service responsiveness (P < 0.05), there is a statistically significant relationship between incentives for improved future service and food service responsiveness (P < 0.05), while there is no statistically significant relationship between the social norms of tipping and foodservice responsiveness (P > 0.05).

However, the general regression significance value on the relationship between tipping and foodservice responsiveness gave a value (P) of 0.000. Since the P value is less than 0.05 (P < 0.05), the study concluded at 95% confidence level that there is a statistically significant relationship between restaurant tipping and foodservice responsiveness.

CONCLUSION

The study results show that the majority of respondents agree that tipping has an effect on foodservice responsiveness. Further, the study found a weak, positive correlation between tipping and foodservice responsiveness meaning that there is a weak association between tipping and foodservice responsiveness. However, to investigate the effect of tipping on foodservice responsiveness, the study employed multiple linear regression and the study found a statistically significant

relationship between tipping and foodservice responsiveness ($P < 0.05$), thus tipping directly affects food service responsiveness in classified hotel restaurants within Kisumu County, Kenya.

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