Pragmatic restaurant tipping in star-rated hotels in Kenya

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ABSTRACT: Tipping can be traced to Tudor England in the sixteenth century. This act transformed into a custom, spreading to many countries. However, tipping is observed differently from one country to the other and thus is not homogeneous from a global perspective. The act of tipping is thought to be motivated by various predictors, which were studied and are thought to influence peoples' tipping behaviour. They include gender, income level, religion, nationality, hospitality exposure, alcohol consumption and the weather conditions of the day. The study applied a cross-sectional survey design and was carried out in Kenya during from December 2019 to February 2020 in eight star-rated hotels. A questionnaire was applied in this study. The study has results showing that data is distributed close to the mean values. Further, the study results show that the independent variable explains 78.4% of the variability in the tipping practice. Thus the variable of "Patronage frequency" gave the strongest significant and unique contribution in explaining the dependent variable ($B = 0.515$, Sig. $= 0.000$, $t = 15.363$). However, religion gave the weakest unique and non-significant contribution ($B = 0.013$, Sig. $= 0.770$, $t = 0.293$). For hotel restaurants to achieve high levels of tipping, there is a need to adjust these predictors depending on the effect of each on the outcome variable. Thus, the study established a significant relationship between the determinants of tipping and the tipping practices in the sampled star-rated hotels in Kenya.

KEYWORDS: alcohol consumption, behavior, hospitality exposure, income level, nationality, religion, weather

Introduction

Tipping is thought to have originated from Tudor England in the sixteenth century, where patrons in coffee houses were expected to offer incentives, which were mainly coins, to food servers (Brewster, 2015; Lynn, 2015; 2016; Wiles, 2015; McKenzie, 2016; Jacobs, 2017; Jahan, 2018). However, during these ancient times, tips formed the only compensation that food servers received for their service (Lynn, 2006a; 2006b; Gumbihi, 2016). Nonetheless, formal wages and salaries were introduced in 1760 and thus tipping ended. However, the act of tipping bounced back and is still in practice in some countries of the world (Lynn & McCall, 2000). A further attempt for the second time to end tipping in the 1900s failed. It bounced back and is practised to this day (Azer, 2010).

Tipping transformed into a custom, spreading to many countries of the world (Lynn, 2017; Gössling et al., 2020; Were et al., 2020). However, the practice of tipping is observed differently from one country to the other and thus is not homogeneous from a global perspective. Russia, Romania, Slovenia and Lithuania endorse the norm of 5% to 10% for tipping, and the same is conventional in Argentina, Austria,

Turkey and India. In other countries such as Cuba, Uruguay, Bulgaria, Columbia, Slovakia and Estonia, a 10% tip is observed, while it varies between 10% and 15% for Canada, Mexico, Chile, Poland, Ukraine, Egypt, Armenia and Serbia (Melia, 2011; Abukhalifeh & Som, 2012; Whaley et al., 2014; Lynn & Brewster, 2015; Jacobs, 2017). However, some countries such as Japan, South Korea, Georgia, Spain, Peru, Thailand and Kazakhstan believe that tipping is an abuse and considered unusual because it is unacceptable (Wiles, 2015).

The tipping exercise is thought to be motivated by various factors which are thought to constitute variables that influence peoples' tipping behaviour (Jahan, 2018). Accordingly, Jahan (2018) categorised this behaviour range into organisational, interpersonal and on the basis of the product. For the purpose of this study, organisational and interpersonal behaviours include gender, income level, religion, nationality, hospitality exposure, alcohol consumption and the weather conditions of the day. Thus, these formed the predictor variables, while tipping formed the outcome variable for the study.

For a long time, the act of tipping has been a mystery as it is not clear what the motivation behind the tipping behaviour of hotel restaurant clients is. Some scholars have alluded to the

idea that the organisational and interpersonal behaviours listed above may explain the differences in the tipping pattern in hotel restaurants. Nonetheless, few studies have been carried out to investigate the effects of these organisational and interpersonal factors on the tipping behaviour of hotel restaurant clientele. This study addressed the effect of these factors on the tipping patterns of hotel restaurant clientele in Kenya.

Theoretical underpinnings

Academia and practice lack a theory that may be applied to explain the act of tipping (Lynn, 2015). This suggests that tipping has remained a mystery to many scholars in the multidisciplinary fields that have attempted to carry out investigations on the topic. According to Lynn (2015), restaurant consumers pay as little as they are willing or able to in tips when patronising and therefore buying hotel services. Thus, when buying food and beverages in restaurants, many patrons often pay more than legally required, including tips and service charges. The explanation and the motivations for this tipping practice remain unclear (Lynn, 2015). Thus ,for this study, reciprocity theory was applied since this theory fits well with the explanation for the relationship between the tipper and the tipped.

Reciprocity is an ancient concept found in the Hammurabi Code of ancient Babylonia comprising 282 laws and standards (Falk & Fischbacher, 2006). According to Seltzer (2016), reciprocity is a social norm of responding to a constructive action with another constructive action. Reciprocity therefore amounts to rewarding kind actions of excellent food service through tipping (Seltzer, 2016). Thus in the context of tipping, there is a symbiotic relationship between the food server and the restaurant clientele.

In this context, the fairness in the restaurant tipping motivation is recorded between the tipped (food server) and the tipper. Thus, according to this theory, the food server and the restaurant patron exhibit a symbiotic relationship. The patron is obligated by the social norms to show gratitude for the services received, and this is through tipping. In relation to tipping, Falk and Fischbacher (2006) and Seltzer (2016) found evidence of a collective reciprocity norm obligating people to pay for the favours others do for them.

Determinants of tipping

Our study sought to investigate the determinants of restaurant tipping. So, for the purposes of this study, the studied determinants of tipping included nationality, patronage frequency, gender, income, religion, hospitality experience, alcohol consumption and weather.

Nationality
People across the globe are categorised in accordance to a series of collective physical or social qualities into categories generally viewed as distinct by society. However, there are some social traits that are common across borders, especially among citizens of neighbouring countries. In some regions, individuals from the same social setting are only separated by geographical boundaries, but with similar cultural as well as social ties. It is, however, difficult to distinguish the specific nationality of an individual on the basis of these common traits which in some cases may be common across borders of neighbouring countries.

Nonetheless, Asians, blacks and Hispanics are widely perceived to be poor tippers (Lynn & Thomas-Haysbert, 2003; Lynn & Williams, 2012; Lynn et al., 2012; Lynn, 2014). Thus, an assumption that clients from these ethnic backgrounds either give small tips or completely fail to tip, irrespective of food service quality. However, studies on this subject are biased towards the US restaurant industry which is probably not the same in other nations of the world. Further, the world has become a global village and thus such ethnic norms are no longer practised as a result of acculturation (Were et al., 2020). Following weaknesses in such studies in the United States, the study results should be applied with caution in the context of Kenyan hotel tipping behaviour.

Even so, the results of a study by Kruger and Saayman (2016) carried out on the tipping ability of black South Africans overturned the perception that black restaurant diners are poor tippers. From their study, the results show that this restaurant clientele market segment cannot be regarded as bad tippers (ibid.). The study provides a basis that contradicts the results of studies carried out by Lynn and Thomas-Haysbert (2003), Lynn and Williams (2012), Lynn et al. (2012), and Lynn (2014). This could be explained on the basis of dynamism of national, regional, racial and continental cultures relative to acculturation, diffusion and adaptation, which as a result has contributed to the general, globally witnessed assimilation, cultural heterogeneity, multiculturalism and polyethnicity (Were et. al., 2017).

Religion
According to Lynn and Katz (2013), religion is perceived to influence hospitality restaurant clienteles' willingness to give tips on the basis of an individual's religious faith and beliefs. Religion is thought to determine whether one gives or fails to give tips and the magnitude of the tip as well. The world comprises people who subscribe to different religions (Lynn & Katz, 2013). It is the doctrines of these religions that are thought to influence individual tipping patterns and the magnitude of the tip (Palmer & Brian, 2013).

According to Palmer and Brian (2013), a Pastor Alois Bell, from the Christian Pentecostal faith, is widely used as a reference point. It is this pastor who indicated on a restaurant bill after crossing out the eighteen per cent gratuity, that he gives 10% to God as his tithe, and questioned why he is required to tip 18% (Palmer & Brian, 2013). From Pastor Alois Bell's perception, tipping should be any amount below 10% of the client's income, normally called the tithe. This is an indication that some Pentecostal Christians are most likely to estimate the amount of a tip based on the magnitude of their total tithe, and thus anything lower than the tithe. However, it remains unclear on the basis of estimating the tip amount by this group of clients.

In reality, there is a scarcity of literature available on the relation of other faiths (Islam, Buddhism, etc.) and restaurant tipping although there is scanty literature on Christianity in relation to restaurant tipping as well. Similarly, few studies have been carried out and documented in relation to Christianity and tipping in addition to these few studies being region-specific. Therefore, this cannot be used as the basis upon which conclusive resolutions could be made that Christians are poor tippers. For these reasons therefore, this study investigated the effect of religion on restaurant tipping.

Gender

Gender is an important characteristic that cannot be overlooked, especially in gastronomy in a restaurant operations business. Restaurant tipping is a social behaviour that customarily involves groups of the opposite gender or sex, and thus it may be affected by the principal forces of sexual attraction (Lynn & Simons, 2000).

According to Lynn and Simons (2000), Lynn (2006a; 2015; 2016), Lynn and Sturman (2010) and Nelson (2017), male patrons were found to tip more than female patrons, and therefore the perception that men leave larger tips than women, while waitresses receive larger tips than waiters. However, this assumption needs statistical backing through research in an attempt to assess the statistical significance of the relationship between gender and the tip amount.

Income

Net monthly income, together with other factors, determine an individuals' disposable income and, to an extent, whether they tip or not. Accordingly, Jahan (2018) argues that in countries where incomes are very low, restaurant tipping is perceived as a much esteemed act, and food and beverage service and other restaurant staff are thought to earn a lot more from tips than from salaries and wages. However, this might only be true if disposable income allows one to venture into the act of tipping.

However, Jahan's (2018) argument may not be true since tipping is also practised in many first world countries including the United States of America, United Kingdom, Ireland, Germany, Sweden, France, Italy, Hungary, Greece, Russia, Romania, Slovenia, Lithuania, Argentina, Austria, Turkey, India, Cuba, Uruguay, Bulgaria, Columbia, Slovakia, Estonia, Canada, Mexico, Chile, Poland, Ukraine, Armenia and Serbia (Melia, 2011; Abukhalifeh & Som, 2012; Whaley et al., 2014; Lynn & Brewster, 2015; Jacobs, 2017; Jahan, 2018). This therefore implies that tipping might not be on the basis of minimum income for the residents of any country, though it could be on the basis of other factors and thus the justification of this investigation.

Hospitality experience

Tipping has developed and spread across the world as a sign of gratitude, encouraging restaurant clients to behave in a socially acceptable manner (Wang, 2010). However, in some countries of the world, tipping is seldomly practised (Jahan, 2018). Currently, two main norms that dictate tipping behaviour are predominantly observed by the world population, with part of the population embracing the tipping norms, while others embrace the anti-tipping norms.

Travelling and the free interaction of citizens of the world leads to exposure to acculturation, assimilation and integration which directly influences tipping norms (Were et al., 2017). On a global level therefore hospitality experience may be categorised as local, national and international. As a result of restaurant clientele's exposure to extensive global hospitality tipping norms, they are bound to shift (Were et al., 2017.) from their original norms to the standardised globally acceptable norms of tipping practice.

Patronage frequency

According to Lynn (2010), regular clients are most likely to tip than first time or irregular patrons. However, it is possible that one could be a loyal and/or regular client but one's culture does not allow one to tip as a result of the norms against tipping. On the other hand, the reasoning behind this principle does not adequately cover first time clients who also tip. Thus, patronage frequency may not sufficiently explain the act of restaurant tipping. Conversely, due to increased global market competition, many hotels are facing challenges in building brand loyalty and retaining customers and this can undermine efforts by hotel managers to increase customer patronage frequency (Chakraborty & Bezborah, 2017).

Alcohol consumption

The ability of a client to give tips varies depending on levels of intoxication. These levels have been called green, yellow and red (Dahmer & Kahl, 2009). The red level of intoxication is characterised by the effect on a variety of anti-social and pro-social behaviours (Lynn, 1988). The literature on this subject presents two potential explanations for alcohol's effects on tipping ability, including that alcohol consumption improves people's moods (McCollan et al., 1980), which happens to be a positive consequence and thus may increase tipping behaviour (Isen & Levin, 1972). Nonetheless, alcohol is also known for decreasing people's ability to process information (Moskowitz & DePry, 1968; Miller et al., 1978) and thus, as a result, people under the influence of alcohol will give out tips not because they willingly desire to do so, but because of their mental disconnect. Thus from this school of thought, alcohol consumption may not be the best indicator of tipping.

Weather

Rind and Strohmetz (2001) carried out a study to investigate the effect of weather on tipping and found that in sunny weather, diners give larger tips — hence a suggestion that weather influences tipping behaviour. Nonetheless, Rind and Strohmetz's (2001) study was mainly on projections basing on future weather conditions and its effect on the ultimate tipping behaviour of restaurant clients. However, there is a need for a follow-up study to confirm whether what was projected is actually what ends up being practised or if there could be any variations from the anticipated trend.

Even so, the motivation behind weather and tipping behaviour was not clearly explained by Rind and Strohmetz (2001). Further, more tipping is assumed to take place during warm weather. However, even during warm weather conditions, there could be some deviations observed in the tipping pattern of restaurant clients, with some who would still not give tips. Moreover, this study results might not be representative of the population as Rind and Strohmetz's (2001) sampling captured independent midscale restaurants, which represents a small fraction of the restaurant business. In addition, the sampling design they applied does not sufficiently support why the study specifically focused on the independent midscale restaurants and the study population as well.

Methodology

This study employed a cross-sectional survey design which is concerned with examining variation across cases (Henn et al., 2009). Further, the study used a descriptive correlation research survey. According to Rindfleisch et al. (2008), cross-sectional research survey involves using different groups of people who differ in the variable of interest, which formed the dependent

variable of the study (tipping) but shared other characteristics. Consequently, descriptive correlation research design was instrumental in examining the variations in tipping of hospitality clientele in the sampled hotels, and was therefore chosen for its appropriateness in yielding accurate information (Kothari, 2010).

The study was carried out in Kenya over three months, from December 2019 to February 2020, with eight star-rated hotels. This represented 3.7% (215 classified hotels) of the population. The hotels were sampled from all the regions, with two hotels from the Nairobi region due to a higher concentration of hotels there. The probability sampling method was applied in the study. This sampling method ensured the application of a random selection of subjects which allowed us to make statistical inferences about the study population (Henn et al., 2009). Further, the sample size of the study was calculated using Fisher's formula (Fisher, 1935), thus yielding a relatively large sample size of 384 respondents with the intention of generating more accurate data (Mugenda & Mugenda, 1999; Henn et al., 2009).

Research instruments

A questionnaire was used to obtain data on the predictors of tipping (Henn et. al., 2009; Kothari, 2010). The questionnaire comprised closed and open-ended questions and had two sections. The first section, which formed the independent variable for the study, had the determinants of tipping: gender, nationality, income level, religion, hospitality experience, alcohol consumption, weather and patronage frequency. The second section represented the tipping practices, which formed the dependent variable of the study. A five-point Likert scale was used to measure respondents' attitudes by asking the extent to which they agree or disagree.

Results

The study sought to investigate the distribution of data on the eight determinants of tipping and thus descriptive statistics was applied in the analysis of data. The results are presented in Table 1.

The study gave the mean and standard deviation values for the eight predictors: weather (2.47, 1.196), alcohol (2.42, 1.169), hospitality exposure (1.39, 0.688), income level (2.08, 0.802), patronage frequency (2.04, 0.934), gender (1.39, 0.488) and religion (1.29, 0.599), here in descending order or value.

To establish the relationship between the determinants of

tipping and the tipping practice, a multiple regression analysis was applied and the results are presented in Tables 2, 3 and 4.

The study findings yielded the model summary which gave a multiple correlation $R = 0.886$ and coefficient of determination $R^2 = 0.784$. Further, the multiple regression analysis on the determinants of tipping and the tipping practice yielded an ANOVA table. The study finding on the multiple regression analysis on the determinants of tipping and the tipping practice was summarised and is presented in Table 3.

The study gave results showing an F value of 121.883 and a significance (Sig.) of 0.000 at the degree of freedom of 8 (df = 8). Finally, the multiple regression analysis on the determinants of tipping and the tipping exercise yielded a coefficients summary presented in Table 4.

TABLE 1: Descriptive statistics on tipping antecedents ($N = 277$)

Variable	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. deviation
Religion	1	3	1.29	0.599
Gender	1	2	1.39	0.488
Income	1	3	2.08	0.802
Hospitality exposure	1	3	2.29	0.688
Alcohol	1	5	2.42	1.169
Weather	1	5	2.47	1.196
Nationality	1	5	1.58	1.072
Patronage frequency	1	5	2.04	0.934

TABLE 2: Multiple regression model summary

Model	R	R^2	Adjusted R^2	Std. error of the estimate
1	0.886*	0.784	0.778	0.401

Note: *Predictors: (Constant), weather, nationality, gender, income, religion, hospitality experience, patronage frequency, alcohol

TABLE 3: Multiple regression ANOVA

Model		Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	156.632	8	19.579	121.883	0.000**
	Residual	43.051	268	0.161		
	Total	199.682	276			

Note: Dependent Variable: Tipping
**Predictors: (Constant), weather, nationality, gender, income, religion, hospitality experience, patronage frequency, alcohol

TABLE 4: Multiple regression coefficients (Dependent variable: tipping)

Model	Unstandardised coefficients		Standardised coefficients	t-value	Sig.	Collinearity statistics	
	B	Std. error	Beta			Tolerance	Value inflation factor
1 (Constant)	0.823	0.146		5.632	0.000		
Nationality	−0.024	0.025	−0.030	−0.968	0.334	0.842	1.187
Religion	0.013	0.043	0.009	0.293	0.770	0.864	1.158
Gender	−0.126	0.050	−0.072	−2.512	0.013	0.978	1.022
Income	−0.047	0.034	−0.044	−1.404	0.161	0.801	1.248
Hos-experience	−0.066	0.039	−0.054	−1.685	0.093	0.796	1.256
Patronage	0.515	0.034	0.566	15.363	0.000	0.594	1.685
Alcohol	0.111	0.037	0.153	2.996	0.003	0.308	3.243
Weather	0.192	0.034	0.270	5.653	0.000	0.353	2.836

The coefficients table gives different significance levels (Sig.), *B* values and *t*-values for the eight ingredients that constitute the determinants of tipping: weather, alcohol consumption, hospitality exposure, income level, patronage frequency, gender and religion.

Discussion

The study was carried out on a total of 384 respondents, out of which only 277 responses were collected, recording a response rate of 72.14%. According to Jackson (2009), Kothari (2010), O'Leary (2014) and Stehlik-Barry and Babinec (2017), over 60% response rates are acceptable for survey studies like this one. Thus the achieved response rate of 72.14% for this study is within an acceptable range.

From the study results, weather, alcohol consumption, nationality, income level and patronage frequency were measured at minimum and maximum values of 1 and 5, hospitality exposure and religion at 1 and 3. The study yielded the mean and standard deviation values for weather (2.47, 1.196), alcohol (2.42, 1.169), hospitality exposure (1.39, 0.688), income level (2.08, 0.802), patronage frequency (2.04, 0.934), gender (1.39, 0.488) and religion (1.29, 0.599). The study results therefore depict that weather gave the highest mean, while religion gave the lowest mean among the eight predictors under investigation. However, the study results show that data distribution is near the means for all the determinants of tipping under investigation.

To find out the relationship between each of the eight determinants of tipping and the tipping act, a multiple regression analysis was applied. However, before undertaking the regression analysis, it was important to meet the preconditions for regression if the variables were correlated (Jackson, 2009; Kothari, 2010; O'Leary, 2014; Stehlik-Barry & Babinec, 2017). To test the correlation between the study variables, multicollinearity tests were applied. From the study results, the variables under test gave variance inflation factor (VIF) values between ≥ 1 and ≤ 10, which implies that there was no multicollinearity (Jackson, 2009; Kothari, 2010; O'Leary, 2014; Stehlik-Barry & Babinec, 2017). Further, the study gave tolerance values >0.100 <1.00 for all the study constructs. This implies that there was no multicollinearity (Jackson, 2009; O'Leary, 2014; Kothari, 2010; Pallant, 2010; Stehlik-Barry & Babinec, 2017).

Further, the study findings on the relationship between the determinants of tipping and the tipping practice yielded the model summary which gave a multiple correlation R = 0.886. This indicates a high, positive and good level of prediction of the relationship between the determinants of tipping and the tipping practice. Further, the results generated the coefficient of determination $R^2 = 0.784$, which shows the proportion of variance (78.4%) in the dependent variable — determinants of tipping — that can be explained by the independent variable — the tipping practice. Thus, from the multiple regression output, the independent variable — determinants of tipping (weather, alcohol consumption, hospitality exposure, income level, patronage frequency, gender and religion) explains 78.4% of the variability in the tipping practice. This is therefore a clear indication that the tipping practice is mainly dependent on the determinants of tipping in the sampled star-rated hotels in Kenya.

The ANOVA table gave an *F* value of 121.883 and a significance level (Sig.) of 0.000 at the degree of freedom of 8 (df = 8). Thus from these results, the study established a significant relationship ($p < 0.05$) between the determinants of tipping and the tipping practice in the sampled star-rated hotels.

The coefficients table results, on the other hand, gave results which imply that patronage frequency (0.515), weather (0.192), gender (0.126), alcohol consumption (0.111), income level (0.047), nationality (0.024), religion (0.013) and hospitality exposure −0.066) gave a unique contribution to the tipping exercise in the order presented. Thus patronage frequency (0.515) gave the strongest unique contribution in explaining tipping, while hospitality exposure (−0.066) gave the weakest unique contribution among the eight determinants of tipping. Thus in view of the study results, a change in patronage frequency, weather, gender, alcohol consumption, income level, nationality and religion would lead to a corresponding increase in the tipping exercise. Nonetheless, hospitality exposure yielded a negative value (-0.066), which implies that this predictor variable has the weakest negative contribution to the tipping exercise. Thus, an increase in hospitality exposure would result in a corresponding decline in the tipping exercise

Further, the study results indicate that patronage frequency generated a significant value (0.000), weather (0.000), gender (0.013) and alcohol consumption (0.003) ($p < 0.05$). Thus, the study results show that these (patronage frequency, weather, gender and alcohol consumption) have a significant unique contribution to the tipping exercise in the sampled star-rated hotels in Kenya ($p < 0.05$).

However, the results of the study show that hospitality exposure ($p = 0093$), income level ($p = 0.161$), nationality ($p = 0.334$) and religion ($p = 0.770$) do not make any significant unique contribution to the dependent variable. Thus, there is no significant relationship between these predictor variables and tipping in the sampled star-rated hotels in Kenya.

A handful of scholars across the globe have carried out studies on these predictors of tipping in relation to the tipping exercise. Lynn (2010) found a relationship between hotel clientele's patronage frequency and tipping. Lynn (2010) established that tipping was stronger for regular than non-regular clients, thus in agreement with the results of this study.

Rind and Strohmetz (2001) carried out a study to investigate the effect of weather on tipping. According to the study results, they found that in sunny weather, diners give larger tips — hence, a suggestion that there is a relationship between weather and tipping behaviour. However, the study did not establish the motivation behind tipping as a result of the weather. Nonetheless, the study results from Rind and Strohmetz (2001) are in agreement with these study results.

According to the study results on gender by Lynn and Simons (2000), Lynn (2006a; 2006b; 2015; 2016), Lynn and Sturman (2010) and Nelson (2017), male patrons were found to tip more than female patrons, and therefore there is the perception that men leave larger tips than women, while waitresses receive larger tips than waiters. This suggests that a relationship was found between gender and the tipping exercise, and therefore in agreement with these study results.

In relation to alcohol's effects on tipping, two explanations were given by Moskowitz and DePry (1968), Miller et al. (1978) and McCollan et al. (1980), which include that alcohol improves people's moods and decreases people's ability to process information. From the results on alcohol consumption, a relationship was established between alcohol consumption and

the tipping exercise which is in agreement with these study results.

On the other hand, the study established no relationship between hospitality exposure and the tipping exercise. This means that whether extensively travelled or not, this has no relation with the tipping exercise. Maybe this could be explained on the basis of the social norms of tipping which demand that one participate for social approval, irrespective of the extensiveness of global hospitality exposure. Tipping is therefore practised as a sign of gratitude and allows restaurant clients to behave in a socially acceptable manner (Wang, 2010). However, in some countries, the act of tipping is seldomly practised and thus the hospitality exposure of citizens from these countries does not change their norms (Jahan, 2018).

A study by Jahan (2018) found that countries in which income for the residents is low, restaurant tipping is perceived as a much esteemed act. This implies that tipping should be extensively practised in the third world and developing countries such as Kenya as a result of low income level. However, this might not be true since tipping is highly esteemed in the United States of America (Lynn, 2015), one of the world's well-established economies. Nonetheless, the study established that there was no relationship between income level and the tipping practice, which is in disagreement with the results from previous studies.

Furthermore, Lynn and Thomas-Haysbert (2003), Lynn and Williams (2012), Lynn et al. (2012) and Lynn (2014) carried out studies on ethnicity and tipping behaviour. These studies established that Asians, blacks and Hispanics are widely perceived to be poor tippers. However, Kruger and Saayman (2016) carried out a counter study on the tipping ability of black South Africans and found that this restaurant clientele market segment cannot be regarded as bad tippers. Thus according to the Kruger and Saayman (2016) study, there was no relationship between nationality and the tipping act, which is in agreement with this study results.

Lynn and Katz (2013) carried out studies on religion and established that there was a relationship between religion and restaurant clienteles' willingness to give tips. In view of these study results, we are in disagreement with Lynn and Katz (2013).

Conclusion

The study established that the tipping act can be explained by the predictors of tipping by over 78%, while 22% of the tipping practice can be explained by other factors beyond the scope of this study. Thus, the tipping practice in hotel restaurants in Kenya is highly dependent on the predictors of tipping. Further, the study established a significant relationship between the predictors of tipping and the tipping practice, and therefore an indication of the effect of these predictors on the tipping practice. Moreover, patronage frequency gave the greatest contribution, while religion gave the least unique contribution and significance in the relationship between each of the predictor variables and restaurant clienteles' tipping practice. Thus, the tipping practice was found to be dependent on patronage frequency, weather, gender and alcohol consumption of respondents in the sampled star-rated hotels in Kenya.

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