## **Research Article**

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# A Study into the Relationship between Restaurant Tipping and Food Service Tangibility in Kisumu County, Kenya

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Abstract: Tipping is believed to have vast influence on restaurant food service tangibility, and thus, quality. This forms the basis of the assumption that foodservice clients are in a better position to reward and monitor the quality of restaurant food services. Nonetheless, the act of tipping has seriously been abused by food servers, hence compromising food service tangibles and thus quality. As a consequence, this is the origin of the observed service failures, not only within restaurant food service but also in the entire service industry. Therefore, the study sought to investigate the relationship between tipping and tangibility of restaurant foodservice. Cross tabulation, correlation as well as multiple regression was used in the analysis of data. The study found a weak significant association between tipping and food service tangibility (Pearson's R = 0.150, P-value > 0.05). However, multiple regression results indicate that restaurant tipping does not statistically significantly predicts the dependent variable – tangibility of food service (F = 45.619). Thus, at 95% confidence level, the study therefore concluded that there is no statistically significant relationship between restaurant tipping and tangibility of food service within the sampled hotels in Kisumu County, Kenya.

**Keywords:** Tipping; Tangibility; Rewards; Incentives; Social norm; Service quality

# **1** Introduction

Tipping, especially in the hospitality's food and beverage section is believed to have vast impacts on restaurant food service tangibility, which comprises one of the five dimensions of service quality in accordance to the SERVQUAL model (Parasuraman, Zeithmal & Berry, 1998). The other food service quality components include food service responsiveness, reliability, empathy and assurance, in addition to food service tangibility. Generally, the practice of tipping is assumed to give room for customers to provide incentives to food servers (Wang, 2010) besides rewarding excellent food service, but also as a social norm that must be adhered to for social approval (Lynn, 2015). As a result, this yields an assumption that foodservice clients are in a better position to reward and monitor the quality of restaurant food services. Nonetheless, restaurant tipping in its present state today has seriously been abused by food servers to the extent of compromising the foodservice tangibles and therefore service quality, and hence, the genesis of restaurant food service failures experienced within the global hospitality industry (Parasuraman et al., 1998).

Customer satisfaction and retention is a composite of an amalgam of various factors, both internal and external. However, the satisfaction and retention of customers is a product of service quality, and thus, a strategic goal of all organizations including hospitality food services. Gronroos presents a model suggesting that service quality consists of functional as well as technical quality dimensions (Gronroos, 2001). Parasuraman, Zeithmal and Berry (1998) on the other hand proposed the service quality model comprising of five dimensions; responsiveness, assurance, empathy, reliability and tangibility.

These two models have been applied in the study of service quality, although the SEVQUAL model has been proven to be the best in the study of service quality, and therefore chosen for this study. This later developed and currently is commonly referred to as Parasuraman SEVQUAL model (Parasuraman et al., 1998), which is

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vastly used in the study of service quality across the global services industry. Though these dimensions are found to be independent, research on their relative importance concerning studies on service quality, and thus, customer satisfaction and retention are of a recent origin. This study therefore focused on investigating the relationship between restaurant tipping and restaurant food service tangibility, and hence, quality.

# 2 Literature Review

## 2.1 Introduction

Tipping within the broad hospitality industry is believed to be occurring between the employer, the hospitality patrons and the hotel staff (O'Connor, 2008; Nemer, 2015). This three-party relationship provides a direct exchange between the front of the hotel staff and hospitality's restaurant customers, though, the food service staff are the sole beneficiaries in the relationship. The institution of tipping is common across the global service industry (Jeremy, Alecia & Martin, 2014) including hospitality's food and beverages. However, this is an extensive subject in itself, in which many gaps were identified, and therefore, sought to be filled by the study. Wang (2010) lays foundation of the hypothesis that tipping provides an avenue for foodservice clients to provide incentives to the foodservice staff. This may be deceptive, since it may as well be the basis of discontent among the front and back of the house employees, and therefore, yielding poor restaurant food service quality as a result of service failures. Yet, for the purpose of this study, tipping within the foodservice section was examined relative to the relationship between this variable with tangibility of restaurant food service quality.

Several studies have been carried out by scholars: Lynn (2002–2017); Azer (2009, 2010); Wang & Lynn (2013); and Brewster (2009, 2013, 2015 & 2017). These researchers attempted to investigate the general subject of tipping in relation to service quality. However, majority of these studies' focus is on the relationship between service quality and tipping, which happens to be the reverse of this study. Consequently, these studies are limited to the Western world in addition to being region-specific. Besides, these studies focus on the wide-ranging subject of tipping in the larger service industry, thus the outcome may be generalized and therefore applied with caution, hence the need for studies in hospitality's food and beverage service. Further, studies carried out previously on this subject by Lynn (2002–2017), Azer (2009, 2010), Wang and Lynn (2013), and Brewster (2009, 2013, 2015 & 2017) might have had sampling biases as in almost all the studies, they focused on college students as the study population from which data that informed the results was collected.

# 2.2 Tipping

According to Lynn (2006), tipping is an interesting pecuniary behaviour, involving hospitality's service providers and clients, although the act is a common practice across the entire service industry. This is not only because it is widespread across the global services industry but because it is an expense that consumers are free to avoid (Lynn, 2006). This may be a good explanation of why the study by Lynn (2016) shows customer preference for tipping over service charges within the global hospitality business.

In some countries, especially the western world, the act of tipping is anchored on policies and therefore lead to the growth and development of the act into a generally acceptable norm (Bodvarson & Gibson, 2002; Wang, 2010; Wang & Lynn, 2013). However, this constitutes the origin of misunderstanding within the global services industry. Above and beyond, the entrance of service charge, which was to replace tipping, worsened the matter even further. Even though tipping is perceived to be so much finely tuned in the US, servers perceive it differently from one demographic population to the other, and thus, the need for an intensive investigation on the relationship between restaurant tipping and food service tangibility.

# 2.3 Indicators of Tipping

The available literature on the subject of tipping behaviOUr presents three reasons why tipping became apparent as articulated by Megan (2017), and Lynn and Sturman (2010). Thus, tipping is believed to have developed into a social norm. Consequently, tipping is viewed by the literature on this subject as an incentive for improved future service. Additionally, the act of tipping is considered aS a reward upon the perception of service performance (Megan, 2017; Lynn & Sturman, 2010).

### 2.3.1 Reward upon the perception of service of tipping.

Restaurant tipping refers to financial and sometimes non-financial gains or earnings for outstanding or excellent food and beverage service standards. The commercial justification of tipping is based on the grounds that it is an efficient means of not only monitoring but also rewarding service staff (Ali, Ryan & Hussein, 2016; Grandbois, 2016). Although, Donald, Nicole and Christopher (2015) as well as Janet, Brenda and Jones (2006) confirms that tipping encourages autonomy, individualism and competition in workplaces. Therefore, the results of the above could be staff burn-out, which will result into eventual deterioration of the foodservice quality.

In respect of service employee matters within the hotel set up, rewarding is an intensive and objective exercise that must focus on avoiding the possibilities of rewarding wrong behaviours (Tracy & Nathan, 2002). Tipping, on the other hand, allows rewarding food service staff without being subjected to any human resource performance scrutiny, which in essence breaks the very tenets of managerial roles and responsibilities but instead transfers these roles and responsibilities to customers. However, this study aims at finding out customer roles through tipping on the ultimate restaurant food service tangibility and hence quality.

## 2.3.2 Incentive for improved future service of tipping

Reciprocity theory (Bodvarson & Gibson, 2002) has been widely utilized by researchers to propose the underlying principle behind tipping in reference to the broad service industry. Thus, an assumption that tipping may be for purposes of 'soliciting' enhanced future service. According to this theory, food servers are more often provoked to 'repay', but in the form of food and beverage service quality, the financial and non-financial benefits received in the process of the previous food and beverage services to these clients. In other words, the relationship created between the client and employee is based on the tit-for-tat approach.

In reality, though the menu used as a sales tool (Lillicrap & Cousins, 2014) within hotel restaurants, is normally engineered based on specific food and beverage services provided, and therefore, with the objectives of achieving; the marketing policy, the catering policy as well as the financial policy (Lillicrap et al. 2014). These policies, in essence, are meant to cover all the cost-related issues, and therefore, tipping may just be but another cost that can be avoided by clients. Thus tipping may be considered an extra cost that restaurant management staff may not explain its importance. Furthermore, it is in the interest of management to offer not only food and beverage quality service but also ensure uniformity in quality of the service provision cycle, thus standardized restaurant food service in accordance to the total quality management (Liat, Mansori, Chuan & Imrie, 2017). Nonetheless, tipping as an incentive for improved or enhanced future service may be based on two indicators; as a source of employee income (Megan, 2017) and based on customer patronage.

## 2.3.3 Social Norm

These are explicit or implicit rules specifying what behaviours, character, and beliefs are acceptable within a society or a group (Milos, Youngsoo & Matt, 2013). Further, Wang (2010) records that tipping started as a sign of gratitude and status, gradually became an incentive, and finally developed into a norm of behaving in a socially and globally acceptable manner. Besides, Azer (2007) cited tipping as a social norm, but which takes place with the intentions of avoiding feelings of unfairness and embarrassment. Study findings within this broad field suggest that tipping decisions are influenced by various social norms (Lynn et al., 2015; Jeremy et al., 2014; Sum & Ala' a Nimer, 2012 and Melia, 2011).

It is, however, important to mention that the tipping norm is observed differently across various countries and regions of the world. According to Jacobs (2017), Russia, Romania, Slovenia and Lithuania uphold the norm of 5%–10% tips whereas the same is conventional in Argentina, Austria, Turkey and India. Table 1 below is a summary of the tipping norms among various countries across the world (Margalioth et al., 2010; Jacobs 2017; Lynn et al., 2015; Jeremy et al., 2014; Ala' a Nimer et al., 2012).

On the whole, the norm of tipping in hospitality may be explained based on bill size as well as miscellaneous factors, which include alcohol consumption and weather (Lynn, 2012).

## 2.4 Restaurant Food Service Quality

Gronroos (2001) presents quality in two dimensions; functional and technical quality. Thus, quality in this context of Gronroos (2001) comprises two components, technical quality **that** consists of sociability, valence and waiting time – and functional quality, which refers to what was delivered (Rauch, Collins, Nale & Barr, 2015). Technical quality, however, is also referred to as outcome quality,

COUNTRY	RESTAURANT TIP	COUNTRY	RESTAURANT TIP
Armenia	10%	Japan	Tipping is perceived as insulting
Australia	10% in fine restaurants only	Kenya	5% if no service charge
Austria	5% above the service charge	Morocco	Leave loose change
Belgium	10% if no service charge	New Zealand	None
Canada	15%	Norway	10% if no service charge
Chile	10% in addition to the service charge	Oman	None
China	3% in major cities	Poland	10%
Denmark	None	Portugal	10–15% if no service charge
Egypt	5–10% + service charge	Saudi Arabia	10-15%
England	10% if no service charge	South Africa	10% if no service charge
France	5-10%	South Korea	None
Guatemala	10% in addition to the service charge	Spain	7–10% in addition to the service charge
Holland	5-10%	Spain	7–10% in addition to the service charge
Sweden	10% if no service charge	United States	15-20%
India	10% if no service		
Ireland	10-15%		

#### Table 1: A summary of world tipping norm

and this is what customers are left with after the consumption of services (Gronroos, 2001). Faizan, Kashif, Rupam and Hyeon-Mo (2016), Yu and Ramanathan (2012), and Tamwatin, Trimetsoontorn and Fongsuwan (2015) affirm that technical quality attributes of the food service staff in relation to service quality is scanty in literature, having been ignored by researchers across all fields in the world.

On the other hand, though, Parasuraman, Zeithmal and Berry (1998) were interested in the study of service quality, and therefore, are the engine behind the SERVQUAL model used in the study of service quality. Concerning the available scholarly definitions under the SERVQUAL model, service quality refers to consumers' opinions of the overall peculiarity and pre-eminence of restaurant services (Parasuraman, Zeithmal & Berry, 1998). Thus, Nemer (2015) posits that service quality has largely remained an important subject of research across the globe, involving the broad service sector as well as with a concentration on the general hospitality services. However, Lillicrap et al. (2014), Davies, Ioannis and Alcott (2008), and Foskett and Patricia (2011) submit that food services are highly variable, thus the need for managers to have a concern over standardized quality not only in a particular restaurant set up but also across the entire but similar category of the hospitality organizations. According to Parasuraman et al. (1998), the SERVQUAL model comprises five dimensions: tangibility, reliability, responsiveness, assurance and empathy presented as shown in Figure 1 below.

For the purpose of this study, an investigation into the relationship between tipping and Parasuraman's service tangibility dimension (Parasuraman et al., 1998) was carried out. Thus, tipping formed the independent variable while service tangibility formed the dependent variable of the study.

## 2.5 Tangibility of service

Since hotels' food and beverage services are tangible, hospitality restaurant customers derive their perception of restaurant food service quality by comparing the tangibles associated with these services within the food and beverage service areas. According to Panda and Das (2014), tangibles may be defined as the aspects of food service that can be felt without actually purchasing the service. These include over and above the visible aspects of the service that are employed by hospitality restaurant food and beverage businesses to improve external customer satisfaction.

Al Rousan (2011) on the other hand defines tangibles as the service dimension making a product or service practical and utilizable for customers; of course in addition to the other four dimensions that together constitute



Figure 1: SERVQUAL management framework (Parasuraman et al., 1998)

the SERVQUAL model (Parasuraman et al., 1998). This study, therefore, investigated the relationship between restaurant tipping on food service quality concerning: cleanliness of the service environment, employees' general appearance, tools and equipment used in the food and beverage sections, the appearance of the food service areas and the quality of food offers (Parasuraman et al., 1998), which formed the various variables comprising the foodservice tangibles.

# 3 Methodology

The study employed a cross-sectional survey approach with an emphasis on descriptive research survey design, which is concerned with describing situations based on responses by the participants through interviews and examining their relationships (Jackson, 2009). Gall, Gall and Borg (2007) confirm that many scientific disciplines, especially social sciences and psychology use a descriptive research survey design method to obtain a general overview of the subject, and therefore, perfectly fits in its application for this study. Further, this design enabled the study to draw definitive conclusions with caution on the topic and was chosen for its appropriateness finding to yield accurate information (Kothari, 2010) on the relationship between tipping restaurant service tangibility.

The area of study under investigation was Kisumu County, whose borders follow those of the original Kisumu district (Kisumu County, 2013) in the Western parts of Kenya. For the purpose 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) as well as purposive sampling for the selection of general managers and food and beverage managers as they were better placed to give information based on the relationship between tipping and tangibility of service. These methods ensured all the respondents of the population had the same chance of selection, which minimized biases (Mugenda & Mugenda, 1999).

Further, a questionnaire was used to collect data from respondents on the relationship between tipping and tangibility of food services through the drop and pick technique. The questionnaire comprised three sections; section one that covered the demographic factors, section two that covered the independent variable tipping and the third section that covered the dependent variable tangibility. The questionnaire consisted of a series of questions and other prompts to gather information (Kothari, 2010) and was administered to 384 sampled restaurant clients within the hotels in Kisumu County.

The reliability of the four constructs of the questionnaire was tested and achieved a Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha of > 0.70, which was within the recommended limits (Jackson, 2009) as shown by the results of the study in Table 2 below.

#### Table 2: Reliability Statistics

Construct	Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
Reward upon the perception of service	0.903	2
Incentives for improved future service	0.839	2
Social Norm	0.890	3
Tangibility of Service	0.907	3

# **4 Results**

The study sought to investigate the nationality of the respondents. Data was collected from the respondents in relation to the countries of origin for the participants and transformed into respective continents for ease of presentation. Data was thereafter analysed and the results were presented, as shown in Figure 2 below.



Figure 2: Respondents Nationality

The study gave results showing Africans constituted the majority of respondents (73.3%), followed by respondents from Europe (12.6%), America (8.7%), Asia (5.0) and lastly Australia (0.4%), in descending order.

Further, the study sought to investigate the relationship between tipping and foodservice tangibility. Respondents were requested to indicate whether they gave out tips to the food service staff or not, and a cross-tabulation was run against tangibility. The results of this investigation are presented as shown in Table 3.

The study results show that 106 (38.3%) respondents indicated they strongly agree that there is a relationship between tipping and tangibility of food service, out of which, 74 (26.7%) respondents were found to have given out tips to the food service staff, while 32 (11.6%) respondents had not given out any tips. On the contrary, however, 8 (2.9%) respondents indicated they strongly disagree and disagree that there is a relationship between tipping and tangibility of food service. Overall, 244 (88.1%) respondents indicated that there is a relationship between tipping and tangibility of food service, while 14 (05.0%) respondents were found to disagree that there is a relationship between tipping and tangibility of disagree that there is a relationship between tipping and tangibility of food service, while 14 (05.0%) respondents were found to disagree that there is a relationship between tipping and tangibility of disagree that there is a relationship between tipping and tangibility of disagree that there is a relationship between tipping and tangibility of food service that there is a relationship between tipping and tangibility of disagree that there is a relationship between tipping and tangibility of disagree that there is a relationship between tipping and tangibility of disagree that there is a relationship between tipping and tangibility of disagree that there is a relationship between tipping and tangibility of disagree that there is a relationship between tipping and tangibility.

Further, in order to find out the relation between tipping and food service tangibility, a correlation analysis was also computed and the results were presented as shown in Table 4.

From the correlation analysis, the study gave a weak Pearson's R (0.150). Further, the study found a positive significant correlation between tipping and food service tangibility (P > 0.05). There is a clear indication of dependence of the dependent variable – tangibility of service – and hence, food service quality on restaurant tipping.

For the purpose of establishing the relationship between hospitality's tipping and tangibility of restaurant food service, and thus making of a decision on whether

Table 3: Respondents' cross-tabulation on tipping behaviour and tangibility of service

		TANGIBILITY					
		Strongly Agree	ee Agree Neither Agree nor Disagree Disagree Strongly Disagree				Total
Tipped	N	74	86	6	6	2	174
	Yes	26.7%	31.0%	2.2%	2.2%	0.7%	62.8%
		32	52	13	1	5	103
	No	11.6%	18.8%	4.7%	0.4%	1.8%	37.2%
		106	138	19	7	7	277
Total		38.3%	49.8%	6.9%	2.5%	2.5%	100.0%

to accept or fail to accept the null hypothesis, a multiple regression analysis was applied on tipping and tangibility. The multiple regression analysis, on the other hand, was run after an initial analysis was conducted to eliminate any violation of the assumptions of multivariate normality, homoscedasticity, linearity, auto-correlation, and multicollinearity. The multiple regression yielded the model summary Table 5, Coefficient's Table 6 and ANOVA Table 7. The model summary from the multiple regression between tipping and food service tangibility gave results of R-value = 0.578 and R-Square value = 0.334.

On other hand, the multiple regression Coefficient's table between tipping and food service tangibility gave P values (Sig.) for Rewards = 0.000, Incentives = 0.425 and Norms = 0.096, respectively.

Finally, the multiple regression ANOVA table between tipping and food service tangibility gave results of F value

#### Table 4: Respondents Correlation on tipping and tangibility of service

		Value	Asymp. Std. Error <sup>a</sup>	Approx. T <sup>b</sup>	Approx. Sig.
Interval by Interval	Pearson's R	0.150	0.060	2.517	0.012 <sup>c</sup>
Ordinal by Ordinal	Spearman Correlation	0.151	0.060	2.527	0.012 <sup>c</sup>
N of Valid Cases		277			

### Table 5: Respondents Multiple regression Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	0.578ª	0.334	0.327	0.70936

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

#### Table 6: Respondents Multiple regression Coefficients table

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	т	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B	
	В	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
(Constant)	0.668	0.122		5.484	0.000	0.428	0.908
Rewards	0.434	0.057	0.487	7.616	0.000	0.322	0.546
Incentives	0.053	0.066	0.055	0.799	0.425	-0.078	0.184
Norms	0.082	0.049	0.101	1.669	0.096	-0.015	0.178

a. Dependent Variable: TANGIBILITY

Table 7: Respondents Multiple regression ANOVA table

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	68.865	3	22.955	45.619	0.000 <sup>b</sup>
	Residual	137.373	273	0.503		
	Total	206.238	276			

a. Dependent Variable: TANGIBILITY

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

= 45.619 and the general multiple regression output of P-value (Sig.) = 0.000.

# **5** Discussion

The nationality of respondents was investigated by the study. From the study results, Africans comprised 73.29%, European 12.64%, Americans 8.66%, Asians 5.06% and Australians 0.36%. Africans comprised the majority of the respondents and thus a clear indication of the rising numbers in the Africans towards the concerted efforts to improve domestic tourism within the continent. However, the Europeans, who are known to have colonized Africa, formed the second most majority. Nonetheless, respondents of Australian origin comprised the least (0.36%) of the study population. For marketing purposes, there is need for intensive marketing efforts by the Kenya Tourism Board, more specifically towards increasing tourist influx from this region.

The study also sought to find out the correlation between tipping (rewards upon the perception of service, incentives for improved future service and social norms) and food service tangibility and thus a correlation analysis was applied. The study gave a Pearson's Correlation (R) of 0.150. Thus because of these results, the study shows there is a weak positive correlation (Pearson's R = 0.150) between tipping and tangibility of restaurant food service. However, the study yielded P-value > 0.05, and hence, concluded at 95% confidence level, there is a significant association between tipping and tangibility of restaurant food service within restaurants of the sampled hotels. This implies that restaurant tipping within hotels, either for purposes of rewarding superior service, incentives for improved/enhanced future service or as a social norm do directly impact the cleanliness of the service environment, employees' general appearance, tools and equipment used in the food and beverage sections, the appearance of the food service areas and the quality of food offers.

For the purpose of making inferences with precision, multiple regression analysis was applied in the analysis of the research data. The study yielded a model table, from which the study gave R Square value results of 0.334. From these results, the study results show a good level of prediction (R square = 0.334). Thus, this implies that 33.4% proportion of variance (R square = 0.334) in the dependent variable – tangibility of food service – can be explained by the independent variable – tipping.

Further, the coefficients table of the multiple regression gave different significance values for the three ingredients of the independent variable - tipping (rewards, incentives and norms). Thus, rewards upon the perception of service gave a significant value of 0.000. Incentives for improved future service 0.425, and lastly, social norms gave 0.096. Since significance level = p-value, rewards upon perception of service therefore gave a p-value = 0.000 < 0.05, incentives for improved future service = 0.425<sup>></sup> 0.05 and social norms = 0.096 <sup>></sup> 0.05. The study results, therefore, confirm that: there is no significant relationship between rewards upon perception of service of tipping and tangibility of foodservice quality (P < 0.05); there is a significant relationship between incentives for improved future service of tipping and tangibility of food service (P > 0.05); and finally, there is a significant relationship between the social norms of tipping and food service tangibility (P > 0.05). This implies that restaurant food service tangibility is not dependent on rewards upon perception of service of tipping. However, restaurant food service tangibility is dependent on incentives for improved future service as well as the social norms of tipping. Thus, among the three ingredients of tipping, the study found no significant relationship between rewards upon perception of service and tangibility of foodservice quality, but established relationships between incentives for improved future service as well as the social norms of tipping and tangibility of food service quality. This simply means that food service tangibility is determined by only two tipping ingredients; incentives for improved future service as well as the social norms of tipping.

Further, the multiple regression analysis yielded the ANOVA table from the results, with the F value at 45.619 and a significance of the regression model of 0.000 (Sig. = P = 0.000). From the study results, therefore, P = 0.000 < 0.05, thus showing there is no statistically significant relationship between tipping and tangibility of food service quality. This study results implies that restaurant food service tangibility is not dependent on tipping as there is no relationship between the two study variables. Thus, at 95% confidence level, the study, therefore, concluded that there is no statistically significant relationship between restaurant tipping and tangibility of foodservice in Kisumu County, Kenya.

In relation to other scholarly works, Studies have been carried out to investigate the relationship between service quality and tipping by Lynn (2002–2017), Azer (2009, 2010), Wang and Lynn (2013), and Brewster (2009, 2013, 2015 & 2017), while some were to find out the relationship between tipping and food service quality. The outcome showed agreement while there was disagreement in other studies, thus this study is in agreement with those studies

that failed to yield significant relationship between the broad subject of tipping and food service quality.

# 6 Conclusion

The study sought to establish the relationship between restaurant tipping and tangibility of restaurant food services in selected hotels within Kisumu County in Kenya. Tipping formed the independent variable of the study and was operationalized further into rewards upon the perception of service, incentives for improved/enhanced future service as well as the social norms. The study population constituted star rated hotels by Tourism Regulatory Authority within Kisumu County in Kenya, while the study sample constituted hotel restaurant clienteles. Data was collected using a questionnaire through self-administration. Data was thereafter coded and keyed into spreadsheets, further analysed using SPSS version 22 software. Frequency tables, cross tabulation, correlation as well as regression was applied in the analysis of data.

On the study preliminaries, an investigation was carried out on the respondents' nationality. The study gave results showing majority of the respondents comprised African nationalities from the African continent (73.3%). Further, the study results showed that second in numbers comprised respondents of Europeans origin, followed by Americans, Asians and lastly Australians. The cross tabulation between tipping and tangibility of foodservice tangibility established that 88.1% of respondents indicated there is a relationship between tipping and food service tangibility. Further, the resultant correlation found a positive significant correlation between tipping and tangibility of restaurant food service within the sampled hotel restaurants (P > 0.05). Thus, tangibility of foodservice quality is associated and therefore dependent on the act of restaurant tipping. However, a multiple regression analysis gave a p-value < 0.05, an indication that there is no statistically significant relationship between restaurant tipping and tangibility of foodservice. Thus, this is a confirmation of the lack of relationship between tipping and tangibility of food service within the sampled hotel restaurants in Kisumu County, Kenya.

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