Differences in Tipping between Thailand and the United Kingdom

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Abstract

This research compares tipping norms between the United Kingdom and Thailand among customers and employees. The research studies the differences of tipping norms, the causes of tipping and the various amounts of tipping between cultures. A literature review revealed the role of social norms and culture in tipping as well as causes for these differences. The research was conducted by surveying Thai and UK consumers (n = 400) and interviewing restaurant employees (n = 6). The results showed that tipping was a social norm in both cultures but was stronger for British customers and employees. The results to a certain extent contradict existing studies. Research into tipping as a social norm requires further investigation to understand its cultural basis.

1. Introduction

1.1 Research Background

This research studies the differences in tipping norms between the United Kingdom and Thailand. Tipping refers to the voluntary, non-obligatory offering of money or gifts to service in different circumstances (Azar, 2004). Tipping is complex and obscure but very strong. Tipping is a social norm that varies between cultures, some cultures have very high level of tipping, while others forbid it because of social norms or legal constraints (Saunders & Lynn, 2010). Tipping norms are known to change rapidly due to contact with other

cultures (Morris, et al., 2015). Furthermore, there are a variety of possible explanations for tipping (Azar, 2004; Azar, 2009). As a historic explanation, the tip began in the 16th century in England and spread around the world in the 20th century (Azar, 2004). An economic explanation for tipping is that it is intended to improve the service quality, although as Azar (2009) points out that tips do not create enough incentive to improve service. Therefore, the questions why people tip and how tipping norms are established are interesting to study.

The reason for conducting this study is to compare tipping norms between cultures and to understand the differences between both countries. Thai and British tipping norms are different. For example, British culture has more of a custom of reward tipping in restaurants but uses less price tipping (Arfin, 2016; Males, 2015). In contrast, Thailand has a low level of reward tipping, although price tipping is common (Trip Advisor, 2017). The study uses Hofstede, et al.'s (2010) framework of cultural dimensions to understand the ways that Thai and British culture are similar and different, as well as examines the result of differences in tipping norms.

1.2 Research Objectives

The aim of this research is compares tipping norms between the United Kingdom and Thailand. The objectives of the study include:

1.   Understanding the role of culture in tipping norms

2.   Finding similarities and differences in British and Thai customer attitudes to tipping. (Quantitative research)

3.   Finding similarities and differences in British and Thai employee tipping preferences. (Qualitative research)

2. Literature Review

2.1 Tipping

2.1.1 Definition of tipping

Tipping is a voluntary offer of money or sometimes gifts from a customer before or after service which is undertaken in the belief that it will improve the service outcomes or motivate the employee to provide better service (Azar, 2004). Tipping is believed to begin in the coffee houses in 16th century in England (Azar, 2004). However, the origin is uncertain. In the 1910s in the United States, it was common for employees in many professions to work for tips (Azar, 2004). Today, tipping is common around the world, although social norms regarding who should be tipped, how, and how much differ (Lynn, et al., 1993). The amount of the tip and when it is paid have no fixed rules, although there are strong social norms that influence the individual practice of tipping (Saunders & Lynn, 2010). In fact, studies have shown that attempts to guide tipping can be counterproductive. For example, tipping guidelines can be counterproductive, reducing tips for excellent service and poor service (Karniouchina, et al., 2008).

2.1.2 Types of tipping

There are several different types of tipping which are structured in different ways and which may have different economic motivations (Star, 1988). For tipping, customers choose whether and how much to tip. However, service charges are based on the employee or employer's preferences and it is difficult for the customer to avoid (Star, 1988). Star (1988) identifies six different types of tipping which occur in different situations.

These types of tipping include:

•   Reward tipping: Reward tipping is the most common and usually the highest value tipping practice. Reward tipping occurs in service environments such as restaurants where the customer determines the tip based on their satisfaction of service and it usually determined as a percentage of the bill.

•   Price tipping: Price tipping is gratitude or tipping for reciprocity. Customers tip to show appreciation. An example of price tipping is tipping the bellman in a hotel, set amount per bag to deliver the guest's bags to their rooms. This tip may be offered before or after the service. The amount of a price tip is usually customary because there is no bill for services.

•   Tipping in advance: Tipping in advance is a non-customary practice that some customers use to attempt to improve the service level. By providing a tip before the service, the customers like to show trust in the employee and demonstrate that they will not try to cheat the employee. Because this type of tipping allows the employee to cheat the customer such as not providing the expected service level, it is not commonly used in most situations.

•   Bribery tipping: Bribery tipping is similar to tipping in advance, customers tip before service to receive the expected service. However, tipping in advance does not harm others whereas bribery tipping harms others. An example of bribery tipping is tipping the servers to get a table in an overbooked restaurant, which makes other customers wait longer.

•   Holiday tipping: This type of tip is offered to workers on occasions and holidays as a gift of appreciation for service received. For instance, tips for newspaper boys during Christmas or New Year.

•   Gift tipping: A gift given in places where monetary gifts are inappropriate or illegal. For example, patients give chocolate, fruit or flowers in appreciation to doctors. (Star, 1988)

2.1.3 Motivations for tipping

Studies have identified a range of motivations for tipping, some of which contradict to the economic motivation of wanting to encourage good service levels. One of the most common motivations for tipping is the existence of social norms surrounding the practice (Lynn & McCall, 2016). Lynn and McCall (2016) found that social expectations for tipping were the most common reason that individuals engaged in tipping behavior. For example, a study on tipping of car guards in South Africa showed that social approval through visible following of social norms was a major motivator for tipping (Saunders & Lynn, 2010). The study also found other motivations such as a desire to reward good service and a desire to help the workers who are often very poor and tip-dependent (Saunders & Lynn, 2010).

Social norms in tipping emerge when tipping is perceived as generous and individuals receive positive benefits from tipping such as enhanced social esteem (Azar, 2004). For example, a study of Louisiana residents found that tipping was largely determined by social norms and the situations when they tipped. Both of these reasons affected the amount tipped (Lin, 2007). Respondents to this study reported that they would feel guilty if they did not tip and felt peaceful when they did tip (Lin, 2007). However, another study has found that when asked about tipping, many customers stated intrinsic motives rather than self-representational motives for choosing to tip (Lynn, 2009). This means that motivations like gratitude, wanting to show appreciation to the server or wanting to help the server were more common than self-presentation motivations like social status (Lynn, 2009).

Tipping behavior varies depending on the situation and the interaction between customer and employee (Seiter, 2007). For example, employees who give compliment to customers on their choice of order receive higher tips than who do not (Seiter, 2007). Genuine, authentic smiles and friendliness can increase tips, although this is not the case when friendliness is perceived as fake (Bujisic, et al., 2014). Server attractiveness and customer mood are factors which affect the size of the tip customers leave (Lynn & McCall,

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2016). Customer's personality characteristics like extraversion and psychoticism influence the tipping behavior (Lynn, 2008).

Interestingly, a factor that does not appear to influence tipping is the level of service received (Azar, 2009). Azar's (2009) study showed that while many customers viewed tipping as a means of ensuring service quality, their tipping strategies were not designed to reward good service in practice.

2.2 Cultural Differences

2.2.1 Cultural differences in tipping norms

Culture is viewed as the set of norms, beliefs and practices that are shared by a group of people, commonly living in the same area and sharing language, religion, government and other customs (Hofstede, et al., 2010). Tipping behaviors and norms are known to vary between cultures, including who should be tipped, the amount tipped, and when or where the tip should be given (Lynn, 2006). At one extreme are countries like Japan, where tipping is not only not required but may also be considered insulting. At the other extreme are countries like the United States where tipping is expected and where economic structures and employment law are designed around the expectation of customer tips (Lynn, 2006). However, most countries fall between these two extremes.

There have several studies that compared tipping practices and motivations between countries which have found that there are some shared motivations and some difference. One study on tipping that used Hofstede's cultural dimensions framework uncovered several relationships between the two generally (Lynn, et al., 1993). The authors found that countries with higher power distance, lower uncertainty avoidance, lower individualism, and higher masculinity had higher tipping rates (Lynn, et al., 1993). There may also be other

motivations. Cross-cultural study examined tipping behaviors and service professions in 15

countries to understand the role of status in tipping behaviors (Lynn, 1997). The authors

found that the greater emphasis on status in the culture, the higher amount was the norm. This

suggested a cultural motivation for status as a main difference in tipping between cultures.

However, there is no study that explained cultural reasons for the existence of social norms

surrounding tipping.

2.1.2 Cultural differences between the UK and Thailand

Cultural differences between countries can be categorized by using Hofstede, et al.'s (2010)

framework. This framework identifies six dimensions that vary between cultures (Hofstede,

et al., 2010). Although these dimensions do not always predict individual behavior, they can

categorize the differences between people as a group (Hofstede, et al., 2010). The four

original dimensions included power distance index (PDI), individualism versus collectivism

(IDV), masculinity versus femininity (MAS), and uncertainty avoidance (UAI) (Hofstede, et

al., 2010). Moreover, two additional dimensions have been identified which include long-

term orientation (LTO) and indulgence versus restraint (IND) (Hofstede Center, 2017a).

Figure 1 shows the comparison of the UK and Thailand on these dimensions. This

shows that compared to the UK, Thailand has a higher power distance, much lower

individualism, lower masculinity, higher uncertainty avoidance, lower long-term orientation

and lower indulgence (Hofstede Center, 2017b). Thus, in general Thais are likely to observe

hierarchies, more collectivist and value traditional female values like cooperation and try to

avoid uncertainty more than British people (Hofstede, et al., 2010).

Thailand
in comparison with United Kingdom

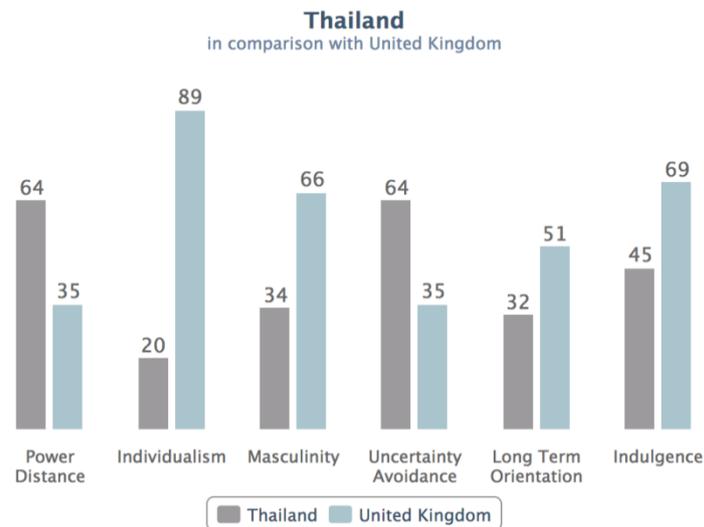|	Power Distance	Individualism	Masculinity	Uncertainty Avoidance	Long Term Orientation	Indulgence
Thailand	64	20	34	64	32	45
United Kingdom	35	89	66	35	51	69

Figure 1 Comparison of cultural dimensions of the UK and Thailand (Hofstede Center, 2017b)

2.2.3 Tipping norms in the UK and Thailand

Most discussions on tipping in the UK and Thailand focus on restaurant tipping. In the UK, it is most common to tip 10% to 15% of the bill in restaurants, although service charge is included in the bill (Males, 2015). Taxi drivers should be tipped similarly (Arfin, 2016). Price tipping for bellboys and tour guides is common (Arfin, 2016). In Thailand, tipping practices are very different. For example, restaurant tipping may range from only leaving the change to offering 5% to 10% in high-end restaurants (Trip Advisor, 2017). Small tips for bellhops and cleaners (around 50 cents) are common but massage providers receive larger tip (Trip Advisor, 2017). However, tipping is not required or expected in most cases and service charges are used to reward staff members instead. There is no academic literature that has formally compared tipping norms and preferences in the UK and Thailand.

Differences in tipping norms are particularly important in tourism where members of different cultures contact each other as tourists and hosts (Woodside, et al., 2011). Thus, comparing tipping between cultures provides insight into cultural contact and development of

cultural understanding. Furthermore, tipping practices are an example of changeable social norms which may be integrated into a culture or diffused to others through a process of cultural dynamics (Morris, et al., 2015).

3. Research Methodology

This research used a mixed methods research design which was chosen because mixed methods is ideal for representing different perspectives and populations, and answering research questions from different viewpoints (Creswell, 2014). This was necessary for this research, since different perspectives from employee and customer were needed.

3.1 Quantitative Research

Quantitative research was used to survey restaurant customers to understand tipping norms and practices (Objective 2). The quantitative research was conducted using a survey strategy where the research variables are measured but not controlled (Cooper & Schindler, 2014). This was appropriate because consumer norms and values are not likely to yield to experimentation which is the other main strategy. A questionnaire was used to collect data. Questionnaires which are self-reporting instruments that measure standardized data are efficient and effective data collection instruments for quantitative studies (Cooper & Schindler, 2014).

The population was consumers in the UK and in Thailand. The size of these populations is infinite and a standard table of sample size calculations suggests that the appropriate sample size is at least 384 members (Krejcie & Morgan, 1970). The sample was split between the two groups, n = 200 for Thai consumers and n = 200 for British consumers. The sample was selected using convenience sampling which is common for consumer research and cross-cultural research (Cooper & Schindler, 2014).

The data was collected using a combination of online and offline collection approaches. To collect online samples, an announcement and description of the study was placed in several Thai and British online forums with participants directed to a Google-based survey. To collect offline samples, the researcher selected participants from large shopping centers in Thailand and the UK.

Data analysis was conducted by SPSS. The analysis process began with descriptive statistics which describe the sample and trends in the responses. Independent samples t-tests were used to determine whether there were significant differences between Thai and British. The results of the t-tests were assessed at $p < 0.05$ (Cooper & Schindler, 2014).

3.2 Qualitative Research

The qualitative research focused on the employee perspective on tipping norms and preferences between UK and Thailand (Objective 3). Qualitative research is ideal for examining in-depth perspectives and issues (Creswell, 2007).

The target population of this research is employees in the UK and Thailand. There is no strict rule for determining sample size for qualitative studies, it is determined using available resources, availability of participants and the amount of information that can be obtained from each interview (Creswell, 2007). For this research, a sample size of 6 restaurant employees was selected. Like the consumer survey, this group was divided into two groups, for British (n = 3) and Thai (n = 3). Participants were purposively sampled to make sure they had tipped service experience.

Data was collected using interviews where the same questions are asked to each participant but they are allowed freedom to respond (Cooper & Schindler, 2014). This approach was chosen to make sure that key items on the interview guide were responded to.

Following of the interviews, the data was analyzed using content analysis where the content of the text rather than its specific form (such as words or phrases) is analyzed (Creswell, 2007).

4. Results and Discussion

4.1 Quantitative Results (Questionnaires)

Demographic information was collected from all participants (Table 1). The group was divided to Thai and British respondents (n = 200 each). There are slightly more female (n = 210) than male (n = 186) respondents and 4 respondents did not answer. Motivations for tipping varied. Most common reasons included following norms (n = 155) and satisfaction with the service (n = 145). Less common reasons included assisting the waiter (n = 50), expecting future service (n = 35) and feeling embarrassed if they do not tip (n = 15). Most participants felt positive about tipping (n = 253), although many participants felt indifferent (n = 147). When not giving a tip, it was more common to feel indifferent (n = 315) than negative (n = 82). Almost all participants say that service quality influence to visit in future (n = 387). Further analysis is discussed in more detail below.

4.1.1 Preference for tips or service charges

The majority of respondents (n = 310) preferred to tip whereas a smaller group (n = 90) preferred a service charge. The cross-tabulation (Table 2) shows that there are similar distributions for Thai and UK preferences. The chi-square outcome ($\chi2 = 1.434$, p = 0.231) confirmed that this was not a significant difference. Therefore, both Thai and UK customers have similar preferences with most preferring to tip.

4.1.2 Amount tipped

Most of respondents tipped 5% to 10% (n = 260). It had higher ratio to tip less than 5% (n = 90) than tip more than 10% (n = 50). Thus, most respondents tipped 10% or less. The cross-tabulation (Table 3) shows that Thai customers are more likely to tip low, while UK customers are likely to tip high. The chi-square outcome ($\chi2 = 89.906$, $p = 0.000$) indicates that this is a significant difference. Thus, UK customers tip more than Thai customers.

4.1.3 Frequency of tipping

Most respondents always tipped (n = 280), although a large group rarely tipped (n = 115). Thai customers tipped rarely, while most UK customers always tipped, according to the cross-tabulation (Table 4). The chi-square test ($\chi2 = 49.541$, $p = 0.000$) confirms that this is a significant difference. Thus, UK customers are more likely to always tip than Thai customers.

4.1.4 Tipping after bad service

Most participants would not tip if they got bad service (n = 365), although a small number would still tip for bad service (n = 35). The reason for tipping was follow social norms (n = 24). The cross-tabulation (Table 5) showed that UK customers were more likely to tip for bad service than Thai customers. The chi-square test ($\chi2 = 7.045$, $p = 0.008$) confirmed that this was a significant difference.

4.1.5 Tipping and service charges combined

Most participants do not tip if they have to pay service charges (n = 265), although a large group will tip (n = 135). According to the cross-tabulation (Table 6), UK consumers were more likely than Thai consumers to tip even they had to pay service charged. The chi-square test showed that this was a significant difference ($\chi2 = 6.988$, $p = 0.008$).

4.2 Qualitative Results (Employee Interviews)

The qualitative interviews with Thai (n = 3) and British (n = 3) restaurant employees showed differences in their own preferences for tips or service charges in perception of tipping norms.

4.2.1 Preference for tips or service charges

The British employees usually preferred tips to service charges because it was money they received immediately and they did not always trust management to pass service charges on. For example,

"Our restaurant has a service charge, but the money doesn't come to us. Management says they spend it on training, but we never get training so I am not so sure about that. I would rather have tips." (UK1)

"I prefer tips so I know what I'm earning. We still share our tips with the kitchen, but I need the money to eat and its' better if I have it right away." (UK2)

"I would rather have tips. You never know where service charges end up, and the company doesn't have to give them to us." (UK3)

In contrast, Thai employees usually preferred service charges because of improved benefits and welfare.

"I would rather have the service charge, which allows my employer to give me better benefits and welfare programs." (TH1)

"I got a scholarship from my employer, from a fund the company maintains out of our service charges. I think that long-term benefits are better than the cash from tips." (TH2)

"Tips are good because it's money that's available to me right away, instead of having to wait for my pay. However, the service charge means that I get a bigger salary overall, which is better for my family." (TH3)

To sum up, the British employees clearly do not trust their employers to use the service charges to benefit them but instead expect they will be used by the company for its own needs. In comparison, the Thai employees feel that enhanced benefits come from service charges and prefer them to tips.

4.2.2 Perceptions of tipping norms

British participants all agreed that there was a strong tipping norm in the UK and 10% or higher tips were expected. For example,

"I usually get at least 10% in tips. If I don't get that much I think I did something wrong." (UK1)

They also stated that most people tipped because it was socially expected. For example,

"Sometimes people complain but leave a tip anyway. I think it's because it's just what you do." (UK2)

In Thailand, tips are less common.

"Sometimes we get bigger tips, but mostly it's just the leftover change. I never really expect a tip." (TH1)

"When I worked at a smaller café, I almost never got tips. I work at a high-end restaurant that has a lot of international customers now so I am used to tips, but we don't expect it." (TH2)

Thai respondents also felt that the tips meant something more than social obligation.

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"The last time I got a big tip, it was from a regular customer who knew it was my birthday. I don't think people feel like they have to tip us." (TH3)

These responses show that there are perceived differences in the tipping norms between Thailand and the UK.

4.3 Discussion

Analysis of the questionnaire showed that Thai and British consumers preferred tipping to service charges. However, British consumers tipped higher amount and more frequently than Thai consumers. Furthermore, they were more likely to tip for bad service and tip even when they have to pay service charge, although these differences were smaller. The qualitative interviews showed difference in preference between service charges and tips for Thai and British employees. British employees prefer tips while Thai employees prefer service charges.

On the other hand, this study appears to reverse the connection between culture and tipping practices found by Lynn, et al. (1993). Those authors found that cultures with higher power distance, lower uncertainty, lower individualism and higher masculinity were more likely to tip heavily. In this study, Thai people follow most of those criteria compared to the British except for higher masculinity. In fact, Thailand has a very low level of masculinity (Hofstede Center, 2017b). The findings contradict Lynn's (1997) study which showed that status-seeking is connected to tipping behavior. Since status seeking is an aspect of power distance (Hofstede, et al., 2010), it would make sense for Thailand which has a higher PDI than the UK to also have a stronger tipping culture. This suggests that the masculinity-femininity index could be the main factor in tipping culture when considering the Hofstede framework. However, there are few studies that have used this framework to compare cultures' tipping practices. This cannot be confirmed and remains for future study.

Another interesting topic is the preference of tips to service charges for both Thai and British customers. This contradicts Thai employees' preferences—they would prefer service charges. This is consistent with the idea that tipping is a strong social norm that is mainly followed because of its normative significance (Azar, 2004; Azar, 2004; Azar, 2009; Lin, 2007; Lynn, 1997; Lynn & McCall, 2016; Lynn, et al., 1993; Azar, 2004). These studies have revealed that there is a strong social norm. They have also revealed that attempts to modify this norm such as suggested tipping guides is lowering tipping amounts while failing to change tipping preferences (Karniouchina, et al., 2008). Thus, both of these studies and others support the idea that tipping is a strong social norm even if tipping is various between countries. The strength of this social norm is shown by the number of people in this study who tip even service charges are included in the bill. Many customers will double-pay rather than stiffing.

Tipping behaviors in this study are consistent with the idea that tipping is a strong social norm in Thailand and the UK even if the specifics vary. Most people in both countries reported tipping routinely and it was most common for participants to tip 5% to 10%. Furthermore, nearly 10% of the sample indicated they would still tip even if they received poor service. Most participants stated that they tipped to follow social norms, although it was common to tip because they were satisfied with the service. This supports the most common motivations found in studies on motivations for tipping that they have intrinsic motivations (Lynn, 2009; Lynn & McCall, 2016). It contradicts other studies that have found an effect of social status (Lynn, 1997). This research supports the idea for both Thai and British consumers. The main motivations for tipping are intrinsic, follow social norms and relationship with the servers.

This study did not identify any situational factors in tipping such as customer mood, server attractiveness and authentic smiles which were found in other studies (Bujisic, et al.,

2014; Lynn, 2008; Lynn & McCall, 2016; Seiter, 2007). Thus, the study was not a full comparison of the factors involved in tipping. However, since these are individual factors rather than cultural factors, it was not the main point of the study. This remains for further study in the future.

5. Conclusion

This research was conducted to find the differences in social norms around tipping between Thailand and the United Kingdom. The objectives are to understand the role of culture in tipping practices, to find similarities and differences in Thai and British' tipping behavior and to find similarities and differences in the tipping preferences of Thai and British restaurant employees.

The first objective was accomplished through the literature review. This review revealed that tipping is a strong social norm and it is an economic justification (ensuring good service). Most customers engaged in tipping customarily and attempted to change these norms. Tipping norms vary around the world. Some authors recognize that high power distance, masculinity, collectivism, and uncertainty avoidance is high tipping cultures. However, broad comparisons of tipping based on cultural practices are unusual.

The second and third objectives were accomplished through a primary study. A quantitative survey of Thai and British consumers (n = 400) showed that most consumers preferred tips to service charges. However, Thai consumers tipped less frequently, lower amounts and were less likely to tip for bad service or when they had to pay service charges. Qualitative interviews showed that Thai servers preferred service charges, while British servers preferred tips. The social norm in tipping was stronger for British servers.

In conclusion, the UK have stronger tipping norm than Thailand. This is consistent with the cultures in the travel literature. However, it contradicts previous studies on cultural dimensions and tipping. The findings suggest that the masculinity-femininity index may be the main factor in tipping culture but it cannot be confirmed due to lack of research in this area.

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Table 1 Demographics and tipping behaviour

		Number	Percentage
Nationality	Thai	200	50
	British	200	50
Gender	Male	186	47
	Female	210	53
Preferences of compensation	Tip	310	77.5
	Service charge	90	22.5
Do you tip servers when getting good service?	Yes	370	92.5
	No	30	7.5
How much do you normally tip?	Less than 5%	90	22.5
	5-10%	260	65
	More than 10%	50	12.5
How often do you tip?	Rare	115	29.1
	Always	280	70.9
When do you tip?	Satisfy with the service	145	36.2
	Assisting waiter	50	12.5
	Expecting the future service	35	8.8
	Feeling embarrassing (if not give tip)	15	3.8
	Follow norm	155	38.8
How do you feel when giving a tip?	Feel in positive way	253	63.3
	Indifferent	147	36.8

How do you feel when not giving a tip?	Feel in negative way	82	20.5
	Indifferent	315	78.8
Do you still tip even when you get bad service such as servers talking to you impolitely?	Yes	35	8.8
	No	365	91.2
Why do you still tip even when you get bad service?	Follow norm	24	96
	Embarrassing	1	4
If you have to pay service charge, do you still tip?	Yes	135	33.8
	No	265	66.2
Does service quality influence your choice to visit in future?	Yes	387	96.8
	No	13	3.3

Table 2 Cross-tabulation for preference of tips or service charges

	Tip	Service charge	Total
Thai	160	40	200
UK	150	50	200
Total	310	90	400

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1.434[a]	1	.231		
Continuity Correction[b]	1.161	1	.281		
Likelihood Ratio	1.436	1	.231		
Fisher's Exact Test				.281	.141
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.430	1	.232		
N of Valid Cases	400				

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 45.00.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

Table 3 Cross-tabulation for amount tipped

	Less than 5%	5-10%	More than 10%	Total
Thai	80	115	5	200
UK	10	145	45	200
Total	90	260	50	400

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	89.906[a]	2	.000
Likelihood Ratio	102.252	2	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	88.748	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	400		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 25.00.

Table 4 Cross-tabulation for tipping frequency

	Rare	Always	Total
Thai	90	110	200
UK	25	170	195
Total	115	280	395

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	49.541[a]	1	.000		
Continuity Correction[b]	47.994	1	.000		
Likelihood Ratio	51.893	1	.000		
Fisher's Exact Test				.000	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	49.416	1	.000		
N of Valid Cases	395				

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 56.77.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

Table 5 Cross-tabulation for tipping behavior after poor service

	Yes	No	Total
Thai	10	190	200
UK	25	175	200
Total	35	365	400

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	7.045[a]	1	.008		
Continuity Correction[b]	6.137	1	.013		
Likelihood Ratio	7.258	1	.007		
Fisher's Exact Test				.012	.006
Linear-by-Linear Association	7.027	1	.008		
N of Valid Cases	400				

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 17.50.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

Table 6 Cross-tabulation for tipping along with service charges

	Yes	No	Total
Thai	55	145	200
UK	80	120	200
Total	135	265	400

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	6.988[a]	1	.008		
Continuity Correction[b]	6.440	1	.011		
Likelihood Ratio	7.018	1	.008		
Fisher's Exact Test				.011	.006
Linear-by-Linear Association	6.971	1	.008		
N of Valid Cases	400				

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 67.50.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

Questionnaires

1. Nationality

……Thai   ……British

2. Gender

……Male   …….Female

3. Preferences of compensation?

……. Tip   …….. Service Charge

4. Do you tip servers when getting good service? (If choose yes, skip to 7.)

…… Yes   …….. No

5. How much do you normally tip?

…… Less than 5%   …… 5-10%   …… More than 10%

6. How often do you tip?

…… Rare   …… Always

7. When do you tip?

…… Satisfy service   …… Assisting waiter

…… Expecting to future service

…… Embarrassing if not tip …… Follow norm

8. How do you feel when giving a tip?

…… Feel in positive way   …… Indifferent

9. How do you feel when not giving a tip?

…… Feel in negative way   …… Indifferent

10. Do you still tip even when you get bad service such as servers talking to you impolitely?

(If choose no, skip to 10.)

…… Yes   …… No

11. Why do you still tip even when you get bad service?

…… Follow norm   …… Embarrassing if not tip

12. If you have to pay service charge, do you still tip?

…… Yes   …… No

13. Does service quality influence your choice to visit in future?

…… Yes   …… No