

Running Head: Motives for Tipping

Individual Differences in Self-Attributed Motives for Tipping:  
Antecedents, Consequences, and Implications

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*International Journal of Hospitality Management* (forthcoming)

## ABSTRACT

This study examines individual differences in self-attributed motives for tipping. The findings indicate that: (i) individual differences in various intrinsic motives load on one factor while individual differences in various self-presentational motives load on another factor, (ii) more people claim to tip for intrinsic reasons than for self-presentational reasons, (iii) the self-attributed motives for tipping appear to be largely similar across demographic lines, (iv) individual differences in self-attributed motives for tipping are rooted in more general dispositional tendencies toward conformity and feelings of gratitude, and (v) intrinsic motives for tipping are associated with larger restaurant percentage tips and greater likelihood of non-restaurant tipping, and (vi) self-presentational motives for tipping are associated with smaller restaurant percentage tips. The theoretical and practical implications of these findings are discussed along with directions for future research.

Individual Differences in Self-Attributed Motives for Tipping:  
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Consumers around the world routinely leave voluntary sums of money (tips) for workers in the service industry who have served them. Among those workers commonly tipped are bartenders, casino croupiers, concierges, delivery drivers, doormen, exotic dancers, hair cutters, musicians, parking valets, porters, taxicab drivers, tour guides, and waiters/waitresses (Star, 1988). Although the amounts given by a single customer to any one worker are typically modest, the total amount tipped to all workers is substantial with one estimate placing annual tips in the United States and Canada alone at over \$40 billion (Azar, 2008). Tipping is a worthwhile topic of study because it is both theoretically interesting and practically important.

From a theoretical perspective, tipping is interesting because it differs from most other economic exchanges. Typically, the prices of goods and services are set by the seller and consumers must pay that price in order to receive the good or service. Given numerous desires and limited resources, consumers seek to pay the lowest price possible for the things they buy. Tipping is an exception to these general rules because tips represent consumer determined prices for services and voluntary payments that increase the costs of services already received (Lynn, Zinkhan and Harris, 1993). These unusual characteristics raise questions about why consumers leave tips and what factors influence their tipping behavior.

From a practical perspective, tipping affects the experiences of consumers (Mills and Riehle, 1987), the incomes and motivation of service workers (Kwortnik, Lynn and Ross, 2009; Lynn, 2002), and ultimately the performance and profitability of service businesses (Lynn and Withiam, 2008; Schwartz, 1997). A better understanding of the determinants of tipping would

inform servers' efforts to increase their incomes (Lynn, 2004), managers' efforts to train and motivate their service employees (Azar, 2004a; Lynn, 2005), and executives' efforts to set optimal tipping policies (Azar, 2003; Lynn, 2008).

Due to its theoretical interest and practical importance, scholars in several disciplines have studied tipping and there is now a substantial body of empirical research on this topic in the economics and psychology as well as hospitality management literatures (for a review, see Lynn, 2006). This existing research has largely focused on situational determinants of tip size (e.g., Conlin, Lynn and O'Donoghue, 2003) with a few studies focusing on the effects of consumer demographic (e.g., Lynn and Thomas-Haysbert, 2003) and personality (e.g., Lynn, 2008) characteristics. Very little research has examined the determinants and consequences of individual differences in consumers' motivations or reasons for tipping and the two studies on this topic that do exist have features that limit their contributions. In a study primarily concerned with personality effects on tipping, Lynn (2008) examined the correlations with restaurant tip size of several attitude/belief statements that had motivational components. However, almost all of those statements confounded motivations with claims about typical tip size – e.g., “I tip generously, because the servers depend on tips for their livelihood.” In a study with cleaner measures of motivation, Azar (2009) found that U.S. consumers who tip to conform with social norms and to express their gratitude for service leave larger tips than do other consumers. He also found that tipping to avoid feelings of guilt and embarrassment, as well as negative server reactions and poor future service had little effect on tip size. However, his motivational measures were only binomial and, therefore, not very sensitive. In addition, he examined only seven motivations or reasons for tipping and did not assess many individual or group differences in

those motivations. Thus, there is clear need for more research to examine the antecedents and consequences of consumers' motivations or reasons for tipping.

The study reported below addresses the need for more research on individual differences in the motivations or reasons for tipping. Given the paucity of research on this topic, a broad, exploratory approach was used in preference to more focused hypothesis development and testing. A perusal of the academic and popular literatures on tipping along with conversations with tippers revealed numerous hypothesized motives or reasons for tipping. Fourteen of these motives are the subject of this inquiry. An internet survey of members of a commercial consumer panel is used to examine: (1) the self-rated importance of these different motivations or reasons for tipping, (2) demographic and personality differences in these self-attributed motivations, and (3) the relationships between individual differences in these self-attributed motivations and tipping behavior. A diagram of the variables and relationships examined in this study is presented in Figure 1.

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Insert Figure 1 about here

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## METHOD

### Sample

African American and Caucasian members of the Zoomerang.com consumer panel were asked via e-mail to complete a brief web-based survey about tipping norms and habits. Members of the panel had volunteered to receive e-mail invitations to participate in on-line surveys in

exchange for points that could be redeemed for prizes. I paid the company operating the panel for 100 black respondents with no college education, 100 black respondents with some college education, 100 white respondents with no college education, and 100 white respondents with some college education. The company sent out invitations (10, 729 in all) in waves until all these target numbers were reached, which occurred after 831 people responded giving a response rate of 7.75 percent. Respondents ranged in age from 17 to 86 years with a mean age of 43 years and a standard deviation of 16.2 years. Sixty eight percent were female, 52 percent were white, and 44 percent were black. With respect to education, 3 percent never completed high school, 24 percent just completed high school, 8 percent attended trade or technical school, 37 percent had some college but no degree, 20 percent had a college degree, and 8 percent had post graduate education. With respect to income, 10 percent earned under \$15,000 a year, 8 percent earned \$15,000 to less than \$20,000, 7 percent earned \$20,000 to less than \$25,000, 10 percent earned \$25,000 to less than \$30,000, 14 percent earned \$30,000 to less than \$40,000, 13 percent earned \$40,000 to less than \$50,000, 19 percent earned \$50,000 to less than \$75,000, 11 percent earned \$75,000 to less than \$100,000, and 8 percent earned \$100,000 or more. This sample is not representative of the U.S. population, but the purpose of the current study is to examine relationships between variables more than to describe the U.S. population and this sample is well suited for that purpose because it is very heterogeneous.

### Survey Questions

Among other things, participants were asked about their tipping habits and motives for tipping, their dispositional levels of gratitude and of susceptibility to normative and

informational influence, and their demographic characteristics. More details about these questions are provided below.

Restaurant tipping. Following Lynn and Haysbert-Thomas (2003: Study 1), participants were asked: “How much do you usually tip restaurant waiters and waitresses who give you good service?” The response options were: “Nothing;” “\$1-2;” “\$3 or more;” “less than 10% of the bill;” “10-15% of the bill;” “15-20% of the bill;” “more than 20% of the bill;” and “not applicable (I never eat at restaurants).” These responses were used to create three variables – tip type (dollar = 1, percent = 2), dollar tip size (\$1-2 = 1, \$3 or more = 2), and percentage tip size (less than 10% = 1, 10-15% = 2, 15-20% = 3, and more than 20% = 4).

Non-restaurant tipping. Participants were asked: “How often do you tip the following service providers when they serve you?” The list of service providers included bartenders, hair cutters, hotel maids, luggage handlers at hotels or airports, parking valets, pizza delivery drivers, and taxi drivers. The response options were: “1 - always/usually tip;” “2 – sometimes tip;” “3 – don’t tip;” and “4 – don’t use this service.” If a participant used at least three of the service providers, his or her responses were averaged across all those service providers used and multiplied times negative one to provide an index of the likelihood of non-restaurant tipping.

Motives for tipping. Participants were asked: How strongly do you agree or disagree with the following statements about your reasons/motives for tipping?” Responses were made on a seven point Likert scale (with 1 labeled “Strongly disagree,” 4 labeled “Neutral,” and 7 labeled “Strongly Agree”). The statements rated were:

1. “I tip in order to follow social norms.”
2. “I tip in order to reward good service.”

3. "I tip in order to get good service from the server in the future."
4. "I tip in order to make a good impression on the server."
5. "I tip in order to make a good impression on other people who may be looking."
6. "I tip in order to help the server make a living."
7. "I tip in order to support the custom of tipping."
8. "I tip in order to feel satisfaction from doing what is right."
9. "I tip in order to express my generosity."
10. "I tip in order to avoid making the server angry or upset."
11. "I tip in order to avoid appearing poor or cheap."
12. "I tip in order to avoid feeling guilty."
13. "I tip in order to reduce the server's envy of me."
14. "I tip in order to improve the public image of my gender or racial/ethnic group."

Susceptibility to interpersonal influence. Participants were asked to complete Bearden, Netemeyer and Teel's (1989) measures of consumer susceptibility to normative and informational influence scales. These scales involved statement such as "It is important that others like the products and brands that I buy." (normative) and "I often consult other people to help choose the best alternative available from a product class" (informational). Responses to these statements were made on a seven point Likert scale. The eight item susceptibility to normative influence scale and the four item susceptibility to informational influence scales had coefficient-alphas of .96 and .75 respectively.

Dispositional gratitude. Participants were asked to complete McCullough, Emmons, and Tsang's (2002) measure of the grateful disposition. This scale involves statements such as "I

have so much in life to be thankful for” and “I am grateful to a wide variety of people.”

Responses to these statements were made using a seven point Likert scale. This six item scale had a coefficient-alpha of .86.

Demographic characteristics. Participants were asked to provide information about their age (in years), sex (M = 1, F = 2), race (White = 1, Black = 2, Asian = 3, Hispanic = 4, Other = 5), education (using a seven point ordinal scale from 1 = “8<sup>th</sup> grade or less” to 7 = “Post-graduate”), and income (using a nine point ordinal scale from 1 = “under \$15,000” to 9 = “\$100,000 or more”). Almost all respondents indicated that they were either White or Black, but 3 respondents failed to answer the race question and 33 fell into one or more of several different other ethnic groups. The sample sizes for those other racial categories were too small to be meaningful, so all respondents not White or Black were given missing values on this variable in order to keep its interpretation clean and simple.

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Insert Table 1 about here

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## RESULTS

### Relative Importance and Inter-relationships of Motives for Tipping

The percentage of respondents agreeing that each of the fourteen motives helped to explain their tipping behavior is presented in Table 1. Five motives – to reward service, help the server, insure future service, feel satisfaction from doing the right thing, and expressing generosity – were endorsed by more than half the sample. The remaining motives are

acknowledged as influential by a much smaller percentage of the sample. Nevertheless, every motive was perceived as influencing the behavior of at least eight percent of the sample. A factor analysis of these motives using generalized least squares extraction resulted in two factors with eigen values greater than one that together explained 59 percent of the variance in the 14 motives. The pattern matrix from a Promax rotation of these factors is presented in Table 2. The first factor consists of motives that have to do either with avoiding feelings of guilt or with concerns about the social and impression management implications of tipping. Accordingly, it is labeled “self-presentational motives.” The second factor seems more heterogeneous, but with the exception of future service, all items loading highly on it deal with internal motives for tipping. Therefore, it is labeled “intrinsic motives.” Indices of the self-presentational and intrinsic motives were created by averaging all the items loading above .5 on each factor -- with the exception of future service, which was omitted from the intrinsic motives index. A t-test of the difference between these indices proved significantly different from zero ( $t(828) = 34.37, p < .001$ ). Thus, it is clear from the data that more people claim to tip because they want to than because they feel some social pressure to tip.

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Insert Table 2 about here

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### Antecedents of Motives for Tipping

In order to explore the antecedents of motives for tipping, the motivational indices were each separately regressed on demographic and personality variables. In addition, since the factors underlying these indices accounted for only 59 percent of the variance in the 14 motivations

measured, a multivariate analysis of all 14 motivations was also conducted with accompanying univariate analyses used to interpret the significant multivariate effects (see Table 3). Overall, the findings suggest that individual differences in self-attributed motives for tipping are rooted in more general dispositional tendencies toward conformity and feelings of gratitude, but are relatively unaffected by demographics. Particularly noteworthy specific findings include the following:

- Older consumers were less likely than younger ones to claim that they tip to express generosity and to impress the server and others. They also had lower scores on the self-presentational motive index than did younger consumers. Although these effects were modest in size, they are consistent with research demonstrating that social conformity declines with age (Costanzo and Shaw, 1966; Pasupathi, 1999).
- Blacks are less likely than Whites to claim they tip to avoid appearing poor/cheap and to impress others, but are more likely to claim they tip to improve their groups' image. The race difference in group impression management motivation may reflect many Blacks' response to the widespread perception among servers that Blacks tip less than Whites (Caudill, 2004).
- Sex, education and income had no reliable effects on motivation for tipping. Given non-significant multivariate effects of these variables, their effects on a few individual motivations should be interpreted as Type I errors.
- Consumers high in susceptibility to normative influence agree more strongly than others that both self-presentational motives and intrinsic motives underlie their tipping. In fact, they agree more strongly that almost every motive underlies their tipping. The only

exceptions are the motives to help servers and ensure future service, which are unaffected by susceptibility to normative influence, and the motive to reward good service, which is actually weaker among those high in susceptibility to normative influence. The negative effect on motivation to reward service is surprising and difficult to explain, but the other findings make sense. Almost by definition, consumer susceptibility to normative influence should be related to self-presentational motives as well as the motives to follow norms, support customs, and do the right thing.

- Consumers who are highly susceptible to informational influence tip to reward service and to help the server more than do others. These two motives are the most common justifications for tipping, so it makes sense that they would particularly appeal to people who look to others for information about the best course of action.
- Consumers with grateful dispositions claim to tip for all the intrinsic motives more than do less grateful consumers. In addition, the former group tips to ensure future service, follow norms, and impress the server more than the latter group and they tip to reduce server envy less. These findings are generally consistent with other research indicating that gratitude is positively related to positive affect and pro-social behavior and negatively related to envy and materialism (McCullough, Emmons and Tsang, 2002).

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Insert Table 3 about here

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### Consequences of Motives for Tipping

In order to explore the behavioral effects of motives for tipping and their potential role as moderators of demographic and personality effects on tipping, tip type, size of restaurant dollar tip, size of restaurant percentage tip, and likelihood of non-restaurant tipping were each regressed on the demographic, personality, and motivation variables. Since tip type and size of restaurant dollar tip were binomial variables, they were analyzed using binomial logistic regression (see Table 4). Size of restaurant percentage tip and likelihood of non-restaurant tipping were analyzed using ordinary least squares regression (see Table 5). For each dependent measure, three models were estimated – one with demographic and personality variables alone as predictors, one adding the motivational indices, and one replacing the motivational indices with the 14 individual motives. Note that although many of the individual motives for tipping were positively correlated, collinearity was not a major problem because the variance inflation factor (VIF) was less than 4.0 and the tolerance exceeded .27 for every motive in the OLS regressions. A common cutoff for VIF is 10 and for tolerance is .10 (Hair, et. al., 1995), so the current values were well within acceptable levels. Tables 4 and 5 present the full results of these analyses, but the key findings are the following:

- Intrinsic motives are associated with larger restaurant percentage tips and greater likelihood of non-restaurant tipping, while self-presentational motives are associated with smaller restaurant percentage tips.
- Consumers who tip to impress the server leave larger restaurant percentage tips after controlling for the other motives. This effect is surprising given the negative effect of self-presentational motives on the size of restaurant percentage tips described previously.

Clearly that negative effect is carried by the other self-presentational motives. One question raised by these findings is whether the other self-presentational motives suppress the positive effect of motivation to impress the server. The answer appears to be “yes,” because the zero-order correlation between motivation to impress the server and size of percentage tip is very small and non-significant ( $r = .04$ ,  $n = 583$ , n.s.).

- Motivation to help the server has stronger effects on tipping behavior than do the other individual motives. It is associated with a greater likelihood of percentage tipping in restaurants, larger restaurant percentage tips, and a greater likelihood of non-restaurant tipping.
- Personality traits had few reliable effects on tipping behavior. However, a grateful disposition was associated with a greater likelihood of non-restaurant tipping and this effect was sizably reduced after controlling for motivation, so the intrinsic motives associated with a grateful disposition appear to mediate the effects of that disposition on non-restaurant tipping.
- Previously shown demographic effects on tipping (see Lynn & Thomas-Haysbert, 2003) were replicated – i.e., more educated, wealthier, and white consumers based restaurant tips on bill size more than others and younger, more educated, wealthier, and white consumers left larger restaurant percentage tips. These demographic effects on tipping behavior were not sizably diminished after statistically controlling for motivation, so tipping motives do not appear to mediate these effects.

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Insert Tables 4 and 5 about here

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## DISCUSSION

This examination of the potential antecedents and consequences of fourteen different motives or reasons for tipping produced many different results. However, the big picture findings are that:

- individual differences in various intrinsic motives load on one factor while individual differences in various self-presentational motives load on another factor,
- more people claim to tip for intrinsic reasons than for self-presentational reasons,
- the self-attributed motives for tipping appear to be largely similar across demographic lines (at least within the United States),
- individual differences in self-attributed motives for tipping are rooted in more general dispositional tendencies toward conformity and feelings of gratitude,
- intrinsic motives for tipping are associated with larger restaurant percentage tips and greater likelihood of non-restaurant tipping, and
- self-presentational motives for tipping are associated with smaller restaurant percentage tips.

The theoretical and practical implications of these findings are discussed below along with directions for future research.

The fact that the intrinsic motives for tipping load on one factor while the self-presentational motivations for tipping load on another suggests that individual differences in motivation for tipping is ultimately rooted in more general dispositions. Gratitude was positively

correlated with the intrinsic motives for tipping while susceptibility to normative influence was positively correlated with self-presentational motives for tipping (and, to a lesser extent, with intrinsic motives), so dispositional tendencies toward conformity and gratitude appear to underlie individual differences in these self-attributed motives. However, other more general personality traits may also underlie motivations for tipping and one direction for future research is to identify and test other relevant personality traits' effects on tipping motives.

The fact that more people claim to tip for intrinsic reasons than for self-presentational reasons should not be uncritically accepted at face value, because people may not be fully aware of their motives (Nisbett and Wilson, 1977) and may be unwilling to publicly admit to some of those motives they are aware of (Schlenker, 1980). Certainly, previous research finding only a weak service-tipping relationship (Lynn, 2001, 2003) undermines the apparent implication of the current findings that rewarding service is the strongest/most important motive for tipping. However, the large number of other reasons that respondents give for tipping does help to explain why the service-tipping relationship is weak. Moreover, the correlations of various self-attributed motives with demographic and personality traits are consistent with expectations and with other research on those traits, which suggests that there is some validity to the self-attributed motives for tipping. Given that indication of validity, the very large percentage of respondents claiming to tip for positive, intrinsic reasons coupled with the very small percentages of respondents claiming to tip for negative or avoidance motives (i.e, to avoid guilt, upsetting the server, appearing poor/cheap, a negative group image, and server envy) does suggest that the psychological utility of tipping to tippers is positive. Consistent with this conclusion, Azar (2004b) argues that tipping norms can only be sustained if consumers derive

some positive utility from leaving tips. Further supporting this conclusion are surveys of consumers, which consistently find that more people like and support tipping than dislike it (see Lynn 2008 for a review). Together, these analyses and findings suggests that corporate executives should think twice before abandoning pro-tipping policies as some restaurateurs and many cruise lines have recently done (Engle, 2005; Shaw, 2005).

A positive utility of tipping to tippers also has public policy implications because it supports the possibility that tipping enhances social welfare. Azar (2005) argued that tipping improves social welfare, but Lynn (2006) disagreed. He argued that tipping may exist despite having an overall negative effect on social welfare because a small percentage of consumers who derive positive utility from tipping create social pressures that compel a much larger percentage of consumers who would not otherwise do so to tip in order to avoid negative comparisons with those intrinsic tippers. By suggesting that most tippers derive some positive utility from tipping, the results of the current study undermine Lynn's argument and support that of Azar. While the current findings support the possibility that tipping enhances social welfare, they do not guarantee it because there may be alternatives to tipping that give consumers even more utility and/or other hidden costs of tipping that reverse its utility to society when taken into account. Further research and analyses are needed before firm conclusions about the social welfare implications of tipping are possible. Nevertheless, the current findings lend weight to the welfare enhancing side of the ledger and suggest that public policy makers, as well as hospitality executives, should think twice before prohibiting or discouraging tipping.

The fact that intrinsic motives lead to larger restaurant percentage tips and greater likelihood of non-restaurant tipping while self-presentational motives lead to smaller restaurant

percentage tips (together with the fact that more people claim to tip for intrinsic reasons than for self-presentational reasons), suggests that priming or reminding people of their desires to reward good service, help servers, do the right thing, and express their generosity is likely to increase tips more than priming their self-presentational desires. In particular, motives to help the server were strongly positively related to tipping behavior, so servers should prime consumers' desires to help them out by mentioning that they have children, are going to school, or other things that imply need and deservingness. Although future experimental research should be conducted to test the effectiveness of these actions, the current findings suggest that they will activate widespread motives that are associated with giving large percentage tip amounts in restaurants and with a greater likelihood of leaving tips in non-restaurant settings. Thus, they should increase servers tip incomes.

This study has focused on self-attributed or conscious motivations for tipping. That focus is appropriate because conscious motives are strong predictors of deliberate choices between consciously considered alternatives (McClelland, Koestner and Weinberger, 1989) and decisions about whether or not and how much to tip often fall into that category. However, decisions about tipping also have a spontaneous, non-conscious component as evidenced by the impact on tipping of factors like how sunny it is (Cunningham, 1979) or whether or not the server touches the customer (Crusco and Wetzel, 1984), which are unlikely to affect conscious deliberations about how much to tip. Spontaneous, operant behaviors are more strongly affected by implicit, often unconscious motives than by conscious, self-attributed motives (McClelland, Koestner and Weinberger, 1989). Thus, researchers should also examine the effects of implicit and

unconscious motives on tipping. Hopefully, this study will motivate hospitality scholars to give more attention to this and related issues regarding tipping.

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Table 1. Participants' level of agreement that motives underlie their own tipping.

Motive	Sample Size	Percent Agreeing	Mean	Standard Deviation
Reward service	828	83.7%	5.91 <sup>a</sup>	1.45
Help server	820	72.0%	5.29 <sup>b</sup>	1.64
Insure future service	822	60.8%	4.95 <sup>c</sup>	1.73
Satisfaction from doing right	824	53.5%	4.61 <sup>d</sup>	1.81
Express generosity	821	50.8%	4.57 <sup>d</sup>	1.82
Support custom of tipping	824	39.2%	4.07 <sup>e</sup>	1.86
Follow social norms	825	35.8%	3.93 <sup>f</sup>	1.81
Impress the server	821	26.8%	3.55 <sup>g</sup>	1.80
Avoid guilt	816	19.6%	2.98 <sup>h</sup>	1.83
Avoid upsetting server	817	18.5%	2.94 <sup>h</sup>	1.77
Avoid appearing poor/cheap	818	18.1%	2.91 <sup>h</sup>	1.79
Impress other people	823	13.7%	2.76 <sup>i</sup>	1.71
Improve groups' image	822	12.3%	2.51 <sup>j</sup>	1.79
Reduce servers' envy	817	8.1%	2.30 <sup>k</sup>	1.61

Note: Means with different superscripts are significantly different from one another at the .01 level. Means with the same superscript are not significantly different at the .05 level.

Table 2. Pattern matrix from a factor analysis of motives for tipping.

Motive	Factor 1:	Factor 2:
	Self-Presentational Motives	Intrinsic Motives
Reward service	-.33	<b>.62</b>
Help server	-.14	<b>.74</b>
Insure future service	.07	.60
Satisfaction from doing right	.05	<b>.79</b>
Express generosity	.08	<b>.67</b>
Support custom of tipping	.25	<b>.62</b>
Follow social norms	.35	.30
Impress the server	<b>.55</b>	.31
Avoid guilt	<b>.82</b>	.00
Avoid upsetting server	<b>.81</b>	.02
Avoid appearing poor/cheap	<b>.87</b>	.01
Impress other people	<b>.73</b>	.05
Improve groups' image	<b>.75</b>	-.10
Reduce servers' envy	<b>.85</b>	-.20

Note: Items whose loadings are in bold were averaged to form an index of each factor. Future service was omitted from the index of factor 2 because it is not an intrinsic motive.

Table 3. Regression analyses predicting motives from demographic and personality variables.

Dependent Variable	R <sup>2</sup>	Intercept	Age	Sex (M<F)	Race (W<B)	Education	Income	Normative Influence	Informational Influence	Gratitude
Self-presentational motive index <sup>a</sup>	.40	2.22***	-.01*	-.11	-.10	-.05	-.01	.60***	.04	.003
Intrinsic motive index <sup>a</sup>	.16	2.16***	-.004	.09	-.05	-.09*	.03	.18***	.07	.44***
All individual motives (multivariate) <sup>b</sup>		10.89***	3.08***	1.37	5.00***	1.60	1.28	18.29***	1.71*	7.12***
Reward service <sup>b</sup>	.18	3.98***	.00	.01	.01	-.04	.06**	-.21***	.15**	.30***
Help server <sup>b</sup>	.14	2.59***	.00	.09	-.13	-.08	.05	-.04	.13*	.45***
Future service <sup>b</sup>	.06	2.66***	.00	.20	-.26	-.08	.04	.07	.13	.31***
Doing right <sup>b</sup>	.11	1.40*	-.00	.26	-.08	-.12*	.01	.29***	.05	.47***
Express generosity <sup>b</sup>	.12	2.29***	-.02***	.02	.12	-.15**	.04	.29***	.03	.47***
Support custom <sup>b</sup>	.13	.86	-.01	.12	.01	-.04	-.03	.48***	-.01	.47***
Follow norms <sup>b</sup>	.08	2.06**	-.00	-.15	-.23	.04	.05	.33***	.08	.21**
Impress the server <sup>b</sup>	.17	2.56***	-.01**	-.27	-.10	-.06	-.01	.46***	.11	.19**
Avoid guilt <sup>b</sup>	.23	2.68***	-.01*	.04	-.22	-.03	-.00	.58***	.02	-.04
Avoid upset server <sup>b</sup>	.25	2.45***	-.01*	.07	-.23	-.02	-.02	.57***	.05	-.03
Avoid looking poor/cheap <sup>b</sup>	.26	2.37***	-.01	-.02	-.31*	-.03	-.01	.63***	.03	.01
Impress others <sup>b</sup>	.31	2.20***	-.01*	-.18	-.38**	-.02	-.02	.61***	.09	.04
Group image <sup>b</sup>	.31	.79	.00	-.08	.58***	-.04	-.01	.66***	.00	-.05
Reduce server's envy <sup>b</sup>	.41	2.26***	.00	-.13	.06	-.11***	.01	.72***	-.08	-.13*

Note: For the uni-variate analyses, unstandardized regression coefficients (B) are reported. For the multi-variate analysis, values of F (14, 611) are reported.

<sup>a</sup> N = 688, <sup>b</sup> N = 633, \*p ≤ .05, \*\* p ≤ .01, \*\*\*p ≤ .001

Table 4. Binomial logistic regression coefficients predicting tipping behavior from demographic, personality, and motivation variables.

	Tip Type			Dollar Tip Size		
	(Dollar tip = 1, Percentage tip = 2)			(\$1-2 = 1, \$3 or more = 2)		
	Model 1 (n = 661)	Model 2 (n = 661)	Model 3 (n = 607)	Model 1 (n = 165)	Model 2 (n = 165)	Model 3 (n = 154)
Intercept	-2.75**	-2.86**	-2.78*	-3.31*	-3.11*	-2.35
Age	.02**	.02**	.03**	-.03*	-.03*	-.05
Sex (M < F)	.11	.07	.04	.75*	.61	.29
Race (W < B)	-1.33***	-1.34***	-1.64***	.46	.54	.39
Education	.47***	.48***	.46***	.20	.19	.17
Income	.22***	.22***	.25***	.13	.13	.19
Normative Influence	-.11	-.08	.12	.08	.16	.27
Informational Influence	.20	.20	.18	.12	.11	-.09
Gratitude	.17	.11	.08	.25	.10	.39
Self-presentational motives		-.10			-.24	
Intrinsic motives		.15			.29	
Reward service			.01			-.20
Help server			.20*			-.05
Future service			.10			.31
Doing right			.06			-.54*
Express generosity			-.23**			.41
Support custom			.12			.63**
Follow norms			-.01			-.03
Impress the server			-.10			-.19
Avoid guilt			.22			.25
Avoid upset server			.08			.35
Avoid appear poor/cheap			-.05			-.28
Impress others			-.22*			-.17
Group image			.20*			-.05
Reduce server's envy			-.42**			-.56

\*p ≤ .05, \*\* p ≤ .01, \*\*\*p ≤ .001

Table 5. Ordinary least squares regression coefficients predicting tipping behavior from demographic, personality, and motivation variables.

	Restaurant Percentage Tip Size (<10% = 1, 10-15% = 2, 15-20% = 3, >20% = 4)			Likelihood of Non-restaurant Tipping (don't tip=1, sometimes tip=2, always/usually tip = 3)		
	Model 1 (n = 500)	Model 2 (n = 500)	Model 3 (n = 456)	Model 1 (n = 654)	Model 2 (n = 654)	Model 3 (n = 600)
	Intercept	15.66***	15.55***	14.98***	-2.42***	-2.58***
Age	-.01*	-.02	-.02	.003*	.004**	.003
Sex (M < F)	-.35	-.38	-.25	.11*	.10*	.12*
Race (W < B)	-2.24***	-2.32***	-2.42***	-.25***	-.25***	-.25***
Education	.34**	.37**	.35**	.04*	.04**	.04*
Income	.21**	.20**	.21**	.04***	.04***	.04***
Normative Influence	-.23	-.06	.08	-.01	-.02	.01
Informational Influence	.26	.27*	.24	.03	.03	.01
Gratitude	.24	.12	.12	.07***	.04	.03
Self-presentational motives		-.38**			-.01	
Intrinsic motives		.30*			.08***	
Reward service			.16			.01
Help server			.31*			.07***
Future service			-.16			.03*
Doing right			.01			.001
Express generosity			-.17			-.03*
Support custom			.08			.02
Follow norms			-.08			
Impress the server			.33**			.01
Avoid guilt			-.06			-.01
Avoid upset server			-.01			-.03
Avoid appear poor/cheap			-.18			-.01
Impress others			-.16			.000
Group image			-.04			.003
Reduce server envy			-.09			.01
R <sup>2</sup>	.16	.19	.22	.17	.18	.23

\*p ≤ .05, \*\* p ≤ .01, \*\*\*p ≤ .001

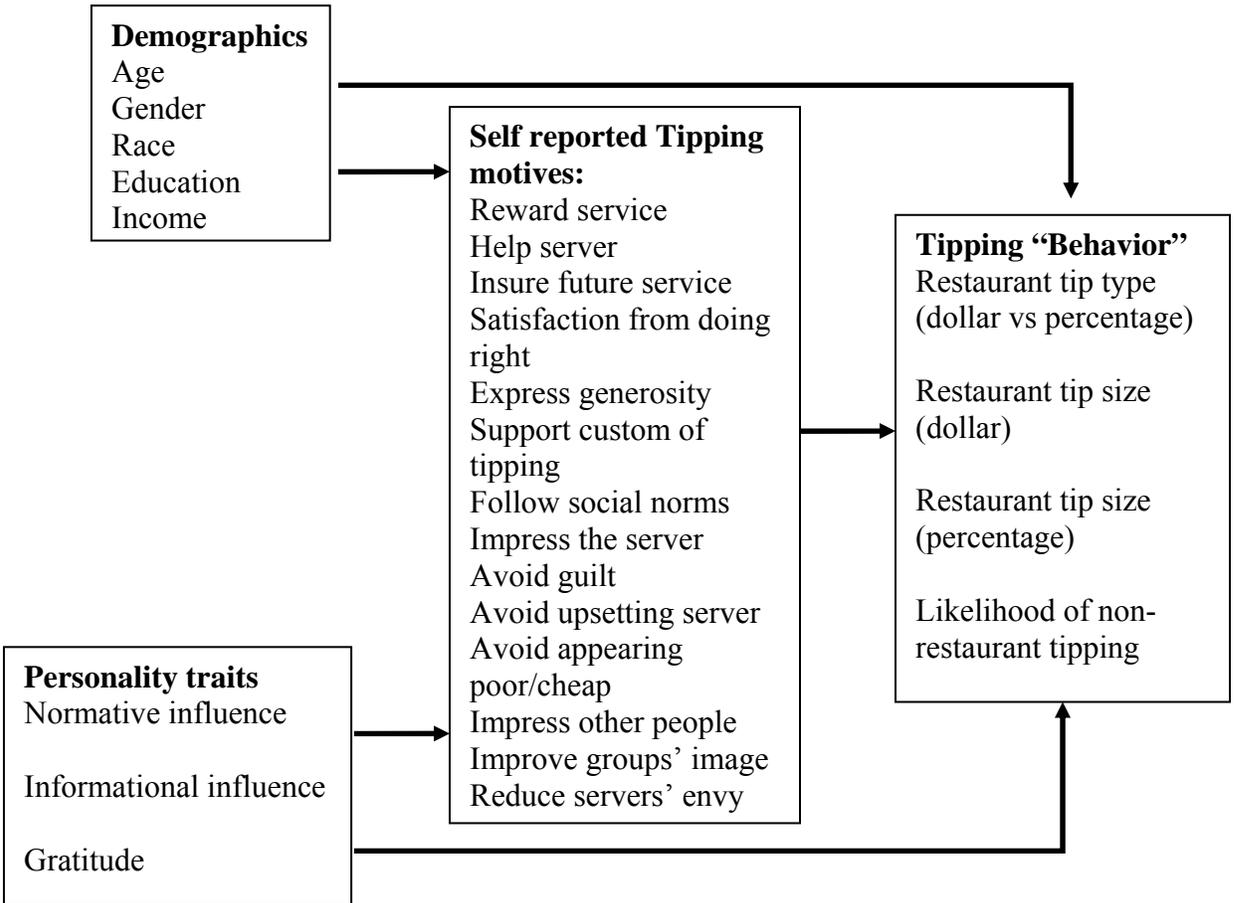


Figure 1. Diagram of the variables and relationships examined in this study.