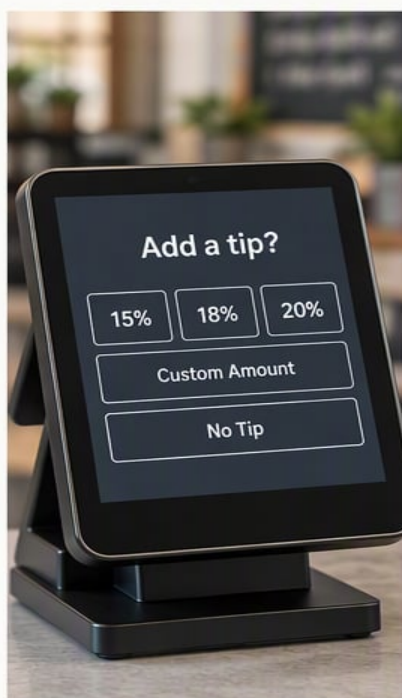


Service Gratuities and Tipping:

An Annotated Bibliography of My Work



Michael Lynn

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Introduction

I have studied service gratuities and tipping for over 45 years and authored (or co-authored) publications on that topic in the journals of such varied disciplines as behavioral economics, hospitality management, human resources, marketing, social psychology, and sociology. I also have numerous unpublished tipping papers (many of which appeared as reports, briefs, or tools from the Cornell Center for Hospitality Research). The following annotated bibliography is an effort to increase the visibility and accessibility of the published work to scholars outside the disciplines in which the work was published and of the unpublished work to all scholars.

This annotated bibliography is divided into publications and unpublished papers, each of which is arranged in reverse chronological order. The annotations of empirical work describe the sources of data, variables examined, and key findings of that work. The annotations of conceptual work and narrative reviews describe the scope and nature of the work's content. I constructed those annotations myself without any assistance from Artificial Intelligence.

Publications

Lynn, M. (2026). *The Psychology of Tipping: Scientific Insights for Services Customers, Workers, and Managers*. Springer. ISBN: 978-3-032-09532-9

This book reviews the existing academic literature, and reports new data and analyses, about tipping. Each of its chapters explain the importance of, and summarize what we know about, the answers to a different set of questions. Those sets of questions are:

1. Who cares about tipping? Why? What should they know?,
2. Why do, or don't, people tip?,
3. Who gives the best tips, and who gives worst?,
4. When do people tip more, and when less?,
5. How and why does tipping vary across geographic areas?,
6. Why do we tip some service occupations and not others?,
7. Who gets the best tips and who gets the worst?,
8. How can service workers get larger tips?,
9. Who does tipping benefit and who does it harm? How?,
10. What controversies arise from tipping? What should people know about them?,
11. How did tipping get where it is? How might it change going forward?

Lynn, M., Modak, V. and Gurjar, V. (2025). Do restaurant patrons tip less on weekends and (if so) why? A re-examination. *Journal of Foodservice Business Research*, DOI:10.1080/15378020.2025.2574914

Analyses of three different point-of-sale datasets from the US replicate previous findings that restaurant patrons tip less on weekends than on weekdays and that this effect persists after controlling for the greater restaurant busyness on weekends. Novel analyses suggest that the effect is not typically attributable to an increase in consumer cost consciousness caused by greater spending on weekend activities, but is partially attributable to a selection effect in which less generous tippers disproportionately dine out on weekends. Other predictors examined included bill size, income and the interaction of bill size with weekend.

Lynn, M. (2025). Measuring and predicting national differences in tipping customs: A critical review. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 131, 104343.

A critical, narrative review of research on the predictors of national tipping customs found that tipping prevalence and/or tip size increased with power distance, uncertainty avoidance, masculinity, extraversion, neuroticism, bribery, GINI, value placed on recognition and social esteem, nAchievement, nPower, monumentalism, duty motivation, religiosity, travel to the US, and tip size in neighboring countries. Tipping prevalence and/or tip size decreased with psychoticism, GDP per capita, political/civil rights, trust, tax rate/burden, and customary addition of service charges to the bill. Other predictors examined include individualism, human development index, government spending on welfare, nAffiliation, homicide rate, lie score, tourism from the US, Communist government, workers' rights, minimum wage, McDonalds per capita, internet usage per capita, proportion of all international trade occurring with the US.

Results support the idea that tipping customs vary with national characteristics likely to affect motivations for and against tipping and/or exposure to other pro-tipping cultures. However, numerous methodological problems undermine confidence in the theoretical processes underlying these effects. In addition, inconsistencies in findings raise questions about which effects are real and how generalizable they are. Measures of national customary tip sizes based on travel guides show weak convergent validity, so some of the inconsistencies may be attributable to weak measurement. Other potential sources of inconsistency are low statistical power and the effects of untested moderator variables. Better measures of national customary tip amounts based on worldwide surveys of national populations are needed as are larger sample sizes and more tests of moderation effects.

Lynn, M. (2025). How have US restaurant tips changed over time? *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 124, 103969.

Analyses of 64 tipping percentages from 56 academic papers on restaurant tipping found that tipping rates have increased over the past half century. This finding provides some evidence that tipping benefits tippers beyond helping them avoid social disapproval (Azar, 2004) and that tipping is used by consumers to compete for positional (zero-sum) benefits such as exceptional service and high status (Lynn, 2015).

Lynn, M. (2025). How did the Covid-19 pandemic affect restaurant tipping? *Journal of Foodservice Business Research*, 28(1), 18-37.

Analyses of three surveys of US consumers (combined $n = 7,752$) indicated that the Covid years 2021 and 2022 were associated with a decreased frequency or likelihood of restaurant tipping but an increased size of those tips left. Other individual level predictors examined included tipper age, sex, ethnicity, income, and education. State level predictors examined included search for tip norm info, charitableness, kindness, perceived health threat of COVID, and economic performance. The Covid effect on tipping was not moderated by many of these other factors as would be expected if it were due to enhanced social pressure, altruism, reciprocity, or cost considerations.

Lynn, M. (2024). The pro's and con's of working for tips. *Cornell Hospitality Quarterly*, 65(2), 266-275.

A qualitative review enumerates and discusses the major pros and cons of working for tips. The pros are that tipping (a) pays more per hour than most other jobs requiring comparable qualifications, (b) allows workers to hide much of that income from tax authorities, (c) gives workers unusual control over their own incomes, and (d) provides immediate feedback about job performance that can help workers get better and that is satisfying when they do well. The cons are that (a) tip income brings social pressure from co-workers to under-report that income, (b) tip income is less stable and certain than wages, (c) tipped wages are lower than regular minimum wages, (d) control over tips empowers some consumers to be abusive, and (e) managerial control over tip income is greater and easier to abuse than is managerial control over wages.

Lynn, M. (2023). Service sweethearting: An effective way to increase tips? *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 114: 103551.

Restaurant servers often comp (or fail to charge for) a portion of customers' food orders in to increase the tips those customers leave. Analyses of data from 600 US participants in an online hypothetical scenario study found that this tactic does result in larger absolute tip amounts. The effect was fully mediated by the comp's enhancement of the tipper's feelings of happiness, luckiness, and gratitude. These positive affective reactions to the comp enhanced tips even though the comp lowered the bill size upon which consumers based their tip amounts.

Lynn, M. (2023). Do tip percentages affect server job tenure or vice versa? Evidence from a panel dataset. *Compensation and Benefits Review*, 56(2), DOI-08863687221123214.

Analyses of POS data on 218,316 charge tips at seven CA, casual-dining restaurants in 2017 found that tip percentages were generally consistent across servers' running workday counts (in other words, across growing levels of server experience), but were slightly higher overall for those servers who ultimately stayed in the job for more workdays. These findings provide more compelling evidence of a potential tip percentage effect on server tenure than is provided by existing cross-sectional correlational data sets. However, the effect of servers' average tip percentages on their tenure was relatively small—accounting for only 5% of the variance in server tenure, as compared to 14% accounted for by servers' average dollar tips per day and 33% accounted for by servers' average number of daily checks. Compensation is important, but when it comes to restaurant waitstaff turnover, other things may matter more.

Lynn, M. (2022). State differences in tipping attitudes and behavior: Attributable to state differences in tipping motivations? *Review of Regional Studies*, 52(3), doi.org/10.52324/001c.66200

Cross-sectional analyses of state differences in tipping attitudes, motives, and behavior found that (i) extrinsic tipping motives decreased with the tip-credit and increased with collectivism, (ii) intrinsic tipping motives increased with kindness, and (iii) duty motives decreased with tightness and increased with collectivism. In analyses of different state-level outcomes, some (but not all) models found that (i) attitude toward tipping increased with extrinsic tipping motives and decreased with duty motives, (ii) search for tip norm info increased with costs of living and duty motives, (iii) tipping within the 15-20% norm increased with duty motives for tipping, and (iv) restaurant tip percentages decreased with extrinsic tipping motives and increased with costs of living and the tip-credit.

Lynn, M. (2022). How tip credits affect consumer tipping behavior. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 103: 103214.

Analyses of online survey data from 835 US respondents found that those from states with larger tip credits said they tip restaurant servers more and that this effect was serially mediated by perceptions of low server wages and altruistic tipping motives. Service quality increased and bill size decreased the effects of tip credits on tip percentages. These findings contribute to theory by supporting the role of altruistic motives in tipping and to practice by raising a cautionary, yellow flag to those contemplating reductions in the tip credit.

Lynn, M. & Ni, X. (2022). The effects of tip distribution policies: Servers' keeping vs sharing/pooling tips affects tippers' sentiments but not tip-giving. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 100: 103087.

Analyses of data from 601 US respondents to an online, hypothetical scenario experiment found that consumers (especially those intrinsically motivated to tip) preferred servers to keep their individual tips, rather than share or pool their tips with others, but that tip distribution policies had no effect on the tip amounts that people said they would leave. These findings suggest that: (i) altruistic and reciprocity motives for tipping are primarily directed toward service workers directly interacting with the consumer, (ii) consumers do not see the dilution of servers' tips under tip-sharing and tip-pooling (vs tip-keeping) as effecting the future-service or social-esteem that any given tip will buy, (iii) tip sharing and pooling may decrease customer satisfaction and repatronage, and (iv) there is little reason for policy makers to fear that tip-sharing and tip-pooling (vs tip-keeping) will adversely affect tip revenues.

Lynn, M. (2021). The effects of injunctive and descriptive tipping norms on tipping behavior and motives. *Journal of Behavioral and Experimental Economics*, 95: 101786.

Analyses of data from 2,547 participants in a hypothetical scenario experiment examined the effects on tipping of both descriptive and injunctive tipping norms as well as their interactions with one another and with tipping motives. Stronger injunctive tipping norms increased the likelihood of tipping counterworkers and (at least sometimes) the size of tips given to them. Stronger injunctive norms also decreased the positive effect of extrinsic motives on tipping likelihood. In contrast, local descriptive tipping norms had small if any main effects on the tipping of counterworkers, probably because they decreased respondents' perceptions that the worker deserved more tips, that their tips would be noticed, and that their tips would encourage others to tip at the same time that they increased respondents' feelings of being pressured to tip. Stronger descriptive tipping norms did increase the effects of duty motives and decrease the effects of intrinsic and extrinsic motives. These and other findings in this study demonstrate the complex nature of normative influences on tipping as well as the need for more research on those influences.

Lynn, M. (2021). *The effects of occupational characteristics on the motives underlying tipping of different occupations. Journal of Behavioral and Experimental Economics*, 95: 101783.

Multi-level analyses of online survey data from 1,168 US respondents (combined with secondary data on the characteristics of 108 service occupations) found that (i) reciprocity, altruism and duty motives for tipping all predict tipping likelihood more strongly for occupations characterized by workers who are lower status, who are less wealthy than their customers, and who handle their customers' payment of the bill, (ii) reciprocity and duty (but not altruism) motives for tipping predict tipping likelihood more strongly for occupations characterized by more important server-customer relationships, (iii) reciprocity and altruism (but not duty) motives for tipping predict tipping likelihood more strongly for occupations characterized by workers who are less happy while working than are their customers, and (iv) reciprocity (but not altruism or duty) motives for tipping predict tipping likelihood more strongly for occupations characterized by higher service customization and by higher customer monitoring advantage. These findings support the idea that occupational differences in the receipt of tips are attributable to occupational characteristics that enhance or undermine one or more of the motivations for tipping.

Lynn, M. (2021). Did the Covid-19 pandemic dampen Americans' tipping for food services? Insights from two studies. *Compensation and Benefits Review*, 53(3), 130-143.

Analyses of a Texas pizza delivery driver's tip records and of nationwide Square payment data for quick- and full-service restaurants during the COVID pandemic found that the pandemic increased the average tip-per-order given to a pizza delivery driver as well as the average tip percentage given for many transactions at quick- and full-service restaurants. They also found that the pandemic decreased the average tip percentage for face-to-face transactions at full-service restaurants but only by a modest 1 to 2 percentage points. The findings suggest that the tipping model remains a viable means of employee compensation even during periods of public health and economic crises if the nature of the services provided does not change substantially.

Alexander, D., Boone, C. & Lynn, M. (2021). The effects of tip recommendations on customer tipping, satisfaction, re-patronage and spending. *Management Science*, 67(1), 146-165.

A field experiment involving 94,571 orders from 24,637 customers of an app-based laundry pick-up, cleaning, and delivery service examined the effects of various randomly assigned tip recommendations on consumers' tip amounts, satisfaction ratings, frequency of return, and bill size. In general, tip recommendations affected tip amounts, but not customer satisfaction, patronage frequency, or bill size, which implies that neither the pro-

cesses underlying the tip-recommendation effects on tipping nor consumer tipping itself affect these other consumer outcomes. More specifically, suggesting larger tip amounts (also known as (aka) ask size) and suggesting percentage versus dollar tip amounts (aka percentage ask) both increased the size of nonzero tips, average tip amounts (including tips of zero), and the variability in tip amounts. At the same time, a larger ask size decreased the likelihood of leaving a tip, though the positive impact on nonzero tip size was large enough to outweigh the negative impact on tip likelihood, resulting in higher tip amounts overall. Suggesting a larger range of tip amounts and suggesting round versus non-round tip amounts had no consistent or reliable effects on any of the tipping measures.

Lynn, M. (2021). The effects of the big five personality traits on tipping attitudes, motives and behaviors. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 92: 102722.

Analyses of online survey data from 393 US respondents revealed numerous direct and indirect (through tipping motives) Big Five personality trait effects on tipping attitudes and behavior. For example, Agreeableness, Conscientiousness and Openness affected tipping likelihood and tip sizes through its enhancement of intrinsic tipping motives. Also, the effects of Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, Extraversion, and Neuroticism on leaving sub-normative or normative restaurant tips were independent of the traits' relationships with self-reported tipping motives. However, the sizes of these and other personality effects were small, so there is little to be gained from using customer's personalities to predict their tipping behavior. Other examined predictors of tipping motives and behavior included respondents' experience working for tips, age, sex, education, income, race (White y/n), religion (Christian y/n), and political beliefs (Conservative y/n).

Frank, D.G. & Lynn, M. (2020). Shattering the illusion of the self-earned tip: The effect of a restaurant magician on co-workers' tips. *Journal of Behavioral and Experimental Economics*, 87: 101560.

Two natural field experiments involving 270 and 225 dining parties (respectively) from one restaurant in NY revealed that: (i) servers got larger tips when a restaurant magician performed at their customers' tables, and (ii) the magician (but not the servers) got substantially more in tips when he gave customers a souvenir card. The latter findings imply that the size of tips customers gave the magician had no impact on the size of tips they gave their server. Other predictors examined included party size and per-person bill size.

Lynn, M. (2020). The effects of minimum wages on tipping: A state-level analysis. *Compensation & Benefits Review*, 52 (3), 98-108.

Analyses of state differences in minimum wages and tip percentages found that (1) states with higher regular minimum wages have lower average tip percentages in coffee shops and higher average tip percentages in restaurants (after controlling for tipped minimum wages and cost-of-living) and (2) states with higher tipped minimum wages have lower average tip percentages in restaurants and higher average tip percentages in coffee shops (after controlling for regular minimum wages and cost of living). These findings support the idea that paying tipped workers higher wages decreases the tip percentages those workers receive. Other state-level predictors examined included median age, median household income, percent non-Hispanic White, GINI, cost of living, and unemployment rate.

Lynn, M. & Kwortnik, R. (2020). Tipping policy effects on customer satisfaction: An informative failure to replicate. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 86: 102448.

Analysis of 7,177 online reviews (posted from March 1, 2012 to May 1, 2014) indicates that Royal Caribbean's abandonment of tipping on March 1, 2013 had no reliable effect on its customers' ratings of either the overall cruise experience or the cruise service/staff. This finding stands in opposition to previous studies which reported that customer satisfaction and service ratings fell after organizations abandoned voluntary tipping policies in contexts where tipping is normative. Since tipping is no longer common in the cruise industry, the failure to replicate suggests that earlier effects were probably caused by people's subjective preference for the tipping policies they were used to in those contexts rather than by tipping's actual effects on service delivery.

Lynn, M. & Brewster, Z. (2020). The tipping behavior and motives of U.S travelers abroad: Affected by host nations' tipping norms? *Journal of Travel Research*, 59(6), 993-1007.

Analyses of data from 1,697 US participants in an online, hypothetical scenario experiment found that tipping by US tourists follows the tipping norms of the visited nations and increases with future service, reciprocity, and altruism motives for tipping as well as with favorable attitudes toward the custom. National tipping norms did not moderate the effects of tipping motives but did moderate the effects of respondents' attitude toward tipping. Specifically, the likelihood that tourists would tip increased with their positivity toward the practice, but significantly less so when tipping was customary and expected in the host country.

Lynn, M. (2019). Predictors of occupational differences in tipping. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*.81, 221-228.

Examination of the occupation-level relationships among descriptors of 108 service occupations found that U.S. consumers are more likely to tip occupations to the extent that: the server-customer relationship is important, the server is subordinate to the customer, the server-customer interaction is brief, the customer can monitor server efforts more easily than can managers, the service is customized, the customer is wealthier than the server, and the server handles the bill.

Lynn, M. (2018). How motivations for tipping vary with occupational differences in descriptive tipping norms. *Journal of Behavioral and Experimental Economics*, 77, 1-10.

Analyses of online survey data from 625 US respondents about their tipping motives and likelihood of tipping each of 21 service occupations (controlling for SD response style and attitude toward tipping) found that: (i) future-service motives are positively related to likelihood of tipping only rarely tipped occupations, (ii) social-esteem motives are negatively related to the likelihood of tipping rarely and occasionally (but not often) tipped occupations, (iii) duty motives are positively related to likelihood of tipping only often tipped occupations, (iv) reciprocity motives are positively related to likelihood of tipping only occasionally and often (but not rarely) tipped occupations, and (v) altruism motives are positively related to likelihood of tipping all occupations, but especially occasionally tipped ones. Additional analyses found that few of the occupation-level relationships between descriptive tipping norms (i.e., perceived frequency of others tipping) and the impact of tipping motives in this study were attributable to the confounding effects of occupational characteristics previously shown to predict tipping likelihood.

Lynn, M. (2018). The effects of tipping on consumers' satisfaction with restaurants. *Journal of Consumer Affairs*, 52 (3), 746-755.

In 2015, Joe's Crab Shack tested a no-tipping policy (introduced at staggered times) at 18 of its 131 restaurants in the United States. In May 2016, the company returned to tipping at 14 of the 18 test restaurants. Analyses of 2,654 online ratings of treatment and control restaurants (posted between September 2014 and September 2016) found that (i) ratings of the dining experience, (ii) review references to tipping, (iii) review references to the server or service, and (iv) review references to price were all reliably higher when the rated restaurants operated under a tipping system than when they operated under a no-tipping, service-inclusive pricing system. Review references to food or atmosphere were unrelated to tipping policy. These effects were robust to inclusion of source of review, date of review, and restaurant dummies as control variables. Review references to service and pricing were negatively related to ratings and controlling for these references diminished the effect of tipping policy making it non-significant. These findings suggest that displeasure with service and prices under the no-tipping policy mediated its negative effects on overall consumer satisfaction.

Lynn, M. & Brewster, Z. (2018). A within-restaurant analysis of changes in customer satisfaction following the introduction of service inclusive pricing or automatic service charges. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*. 70, 9-15.

The effects of tipping policy on customer satisfaction were examined in analyses of 9,467 online ratings posted between September 2014 and September 2016 of 41 independent US restaurants that changed from voluntary tipping to a service charge or service-inclusive pricing policy at some point during that time frame. Results showed progressively smaller but still reliable negative effects on restaurant ratings of service-charges at low, medium, and high price restaurants. It also produced significant negative effects of service-inclusive-menu pricing at low and medium, but not high price restaurants. These findings indicate that restaurants at all price tiers should expect the elimination of tipping to reduce online customer ratings. The only exception is expensive restaurants replacing tipping with service-inclusive-menu-pricing.

Lynn, M. (2018). Are published techniques for increasing service gratuities/tips effective? P-curving and r-indexing the evidence. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 69, 65-74.

P-curving and r-indexing were used to assess the evidential value and replicability of the published experimental literature on ways to increase tips. Significantly right-skewed full and half p-curves indicated that the literature is more than a collection of Type 1 errors – it provides evidence of real effects. Moreover, those real effects were scattered across both replicated and non-replicated effects as well as across the work of each of the major contributors to this literature. An overall r-index of 0.55 indicated that over half of the reported effects would likely be replicated if the studies were repeated. More research is needed to ascertain the reliability of specific effects – especially those reported by Gueguen, because lower power makes his effects less replicable than others in the literature. Nevertheless, readers can be reasonably confident that most of the techniques for increasing tips in this literature will work.

Wang, S. & Lynn, M. (2017). The effects of service charges versus service-included pricing on deal perception. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 41 (2), 246-254.

Five hundred US participants in an online, hypothetical scenario experiment rated menu prices with an automatic percentage service gratuity as better deals than equivalent service-included prices when the service component of price was below the standard 15% tipping rate. However, the reverse was true when the service component of price was above 15%. Furthermore, a move from percentage service gratuity toward dollar service gratuity impeded participants' menu price judgment. These findings provide some insights regarding which pricing alternative to tipping should be implemented if and when restaurateurs decide to abandon voluntary tipping.

Lynn, M. (2017). Does tipping help to attract and retain better service workers? *Journal of Foodservice Business Research*, 20 (1), 82-89.

A survey of several hundred restaurant servers in the United States found that servers' attitudes toward working for tips and average tip sizes were weakly ($r's < .2$) related to their service orientation, job satisfaction, intended job-tenure, and occupational-tenure. Servers' attitudes toward working for tips and average tip sizes had larger but still modest correlations ($r's < .4$) with perceived service effect on tips and job satisfaction. These findings suggest that tipping does not substantially help to attract and retain more service-oriented workers.

Lynn, M. (2017). Should U.S. restaurants abandon tipping? A review of the issues and evidence. *Psychosociological Issues in Human Resource Management*, 5 (1), 120-159.

A narrative review of the tipping literature examined the following questions: (i) does tipping under (or over) pay servers?, (ii) does tipping help (or hurt) efforts to attract and retain good workers?, (iii) does tipping increase (or decrease) customer satisfaction with service?, (iv) does tipping increase demand by reducing the costs of eating out or perceptions of restaurant expensiveness?, and (v) does tipping increase (or decrease) the costs of doing business? Findings suggest that the biggest reason for restaurateurs to replace tipping is that it takes revenue away from them in the form of lower prices and gives it to servers in the form of excessively high tip income. The biggest reason for restaurateurs to keep tipping is that it allows them to reduce menu prices, which increases demand. Thus, restaurateurs' decisions to keep voluntary tipping or not should ultimately depend on the relative strengths of these benefits.

Lynn, M. (2016). Motivations for tipping: How they differ across more and less frequently tipped services. *Journal of Behavioral and Experimental Economics*, 65, 38-48.

Analyses of survey data from 356 U.S. consumers found that the average frequency with which an occupation is tipped reliably affects motivations for tipping members of that occupation such that (i) people reporting stronger service/esteem motives for tipping are more likely to tip rarely or occasionally tipped occupations, but not frequently tipped occupations, (ii) people reporting stronger altruistic motives for tipping are more likely to tip all occupations, but especially those that others tip only occasionally, and (iii) people reporting a stronger duty motive for tipping are more likely to tip frequently tipped occupations, but not rarely or occasionally tipped occupations. It also found that people reporting stronger reciprocity motives for tipping are not more likely to tip any occupation other than bartenders, but surprisingly are even less likely than others to tip rarely tipped occupations.

Lynn, M., Giebelhausen, M., Garcia, S., Li, Y. & Patumanon, I. (2016). Clothing color and tipping: An attempted replication and extension. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 40 (4), 516-524.

Analyses of data from 1,075 US participants in an online, hypothetical-scenario, restaurant-tipping experiment found that subjects tipped the servers less (not more) when those servers wore a red shirt than when they wore a white or black one. Furthermore, female subjects (but not male subjects) perceived a red-shirted waiter as less attractive and a red-shirted waitress as more attractive than the same server wearing a white or black shirt. Finally, male (but not female) customers tipped waitresses significantly more than waiters. These findings chal-

lenge the generalizability of previous research findings (from France) that waitresses got more and larger tips from male (but not female) customers when wearing a red shirt.

Lynn, M. (2016). Why are we more likely to tip some occupations than others? Theory, evidence, and implications. *Journal of Economic Psychology*, 54, 134-150.

Multivariate analyses of occupation scores derived from online ratings of 122 service occupations found that U.S. consumers are more likely to tip occupations for which (i) workers' performances can be more easily evaluated by consumers than by managers, (ii) workers provide customized service, (iii) workers' income, skill and needed judgment are low, and (iv) workers are less happy than customers during the service encounter, and (v) customers are less likely to encountering the same service provider on multiple service occasions. Public visibility of the service encounter also increases the likelihood an occupation will be tipped, but only when the occupation is commonly tipped. Occupations with greater likelihood of physical contact between server and customer and those with greater frequency of customer patronage are not more likely than other occupations to be tipped.

Lynn, M. & Kwortnik, R.J. (2015). The effects of tipping policies on customer satisfaction: A test from the cruise industry. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 51, 15-18.

Analyses of 1,284 online ratings of Carnivale Cruises posted between October 1999 and July 2004 examined the effects of Carnival's tipping policy change in the early 2000s on its customers' evaluations of their cruise experience. Results indicated that (after controlling for ship and review date) Carnival's guests rated their cruise more positively when they sailed under a voluntary-tipping policy than when automatic service charges were added to their onboard bills. However, this effect was small and can probably be mitigated, so it need not deter cruise firms from replacing voluntary tipping with service charges.

Lynn, M. & Starbuck, M. (2015). National differences in in tipping customs: The effects of national attitudes toward tipping and sensitivities to duty and social pressure. *Journal of Behavioral and Experimental Economics*, 57, 158-166.

Multi-variate, full information maximum likelihood analyses of secondary, nation-level data found that tipping prevalence was positively related to national attitude toward tipping, sensitivity to duty, sensitivity to social pressure, and neuroticism (but not to national extraversion or psychoticism). Customary restaurant tip size was (i) positively related to national attitude toward tipping, sensitivity to duty, and neuroticism, (ii) negatively related to national sensitivity to social pressure and psychoticism, and (iii) unrelated to national extraversion. Sobel-tests indicated that national extraversion had an indirect positive effect on tipping prevalence through national attitude toward tipping and, surprisingly, that national psychoticism had an indirect positive effect on both tipping prevalence and customary tip size through national sensitivity to duty.

Brewster, Z., Brauer, J.R. & Lynn, M. (2015). Economic motivations and moral controls regulating discrimination against black and Hispanic diners. *The Sociological Quarterly*, 56 (3), 506-538.

Ordinal logistic regression models of survey data collected from a sample of 872 U.S. restaurant servers found that those who consider blacks or Hispanics poor tippers and Whites good tippers are also more likely to report withholding effort from their black and Hispanic patrons. However, servers with strong moral restraints are less likely to withhold effort from black and Hispanic diners and their withholding of effort is less strongly impacted by perceptions of who are good and bad tippers. Other predictors examined included servers' sex and age, tendency to make negative/derogatory comments about customers, general discrimination tendencies, restaurant expensiveness, and survey engagement.

Lynn, M. (2015). Negative perceptions of Christian tippers: How widespread are they? *Journal of Foodservice Business Research*, 18 (2), 163-170.

An online survey of 704 restaurant waiters and waitresses found that many servers across the United States perceive Christians as bad tippers. This perception was stronger in southern states of the US, but did not reliably vary across servers' age, sex, race, marital status, or restaurant work history.

Lynn, M. (2015). Explanations for service gratuities and tipping: Evidence from individual differences in tipping motivations and tendencies. *Journal of Behavioral and Experimental Economics*, 55, 65-71.

Analyses of data from 534 US respondents to an online survey indicated that self-reported individual differences in avoidance, altruism, reward, future-service, esteem, and duty motives for tipping predict the likelihood of tipping, uncertainty about the general likelihood of tipping, and/or tip sizes among those who tip. Results also indicate that the effects of future-service and duty motives on tipping likelihood vary across service occupations and that duty motives have opposite effects on the likelihood of tipping and on the size of tip left by those who do tip – increasing the former while decreasing the latter. Finally, results indicate that reward, altruistic, and esteem motives for tipping are positively related to attitude toward tipping while avoidance and duty motives for tipping are negatively related to attitude toward tipping. Other predictors examined include age, sex, education, income, race and religion.

Lynn, M. (2015). Service gratuities and tipping: A motivational framework. *Journal of Economic Psychology*, 46, 74-88.

This theoretical/review paper suggests that tipping is primarily motivated by desires to help servers, reward service, gain or keep preferential service in the future, gain or keep social esteem, and fulfill an obligation/duty while tipping is constrained by desires to save money for other uses and to avoid creating or strengthening status and power differences between customers and servers. It argues that this motivational framework offers plausible explanations for: (1) why people tip, (2) how tipping norms came into existence and evolve over time, (3) why tipping varies across individuals and situations, (4) why tipping is more common for some occupations than others, and (5) why tipping varies across nations and it finds support for these arguments in the existing tipping literature.

Lynn, M. & Brewster, Z. (2015). Racial and ethnic differences in tipping: The role of perceived descriptive and injunctive tipping norms. *Cornell Hospitality Quarterly*, 56 (1), 68-79.

A racially and ethnically diverse sample of 763 US respondents to an online survey were asked how much they would tip in a hypothetical dining scenario, how much their best friend would tip, and how much the average person in their area would tip, as well as what the smallest tip a server in their area would consider satisfactory. Analyses of these data indicated that Asians and Blacks (but not Hispanics) tip less than Whites and that perceived injunctive, local-descriptive, and distal-descriptive tipping norms mediate racial and ethnic differences in tipping. Covariates included age, sex, education, income, and experience working for tips.

Brewster, Z. & Lynn, M. (2014). Black-White earnings gap among restaurant servers: A replication, extension, and exploration of consumer racial discrimination in tipping. *Sociological Inquiry*, 84(4), 545-569.

Analyses of data derived from a survey of 394 customers departing a restaurant in the US found that both white and black restaurant customers discriminate against black servers by tipping them less than their white co-workers. No evidence was found that this black tip penalty is the result of differences in the perceived service skills displayed by black and white servers. Covariates included customers' atmosphere and food ratings, customer age, sex, and patronage frequency, dining part and bill sizes, and server sex.

Lynn, M. (2014). The contribution of norm familiarity to race differences in tipping: A replication and extension. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 38(3), 414-425.

Analyses of data from 703 US respondents to a web-based survey found that (i) Blacks and Hispanics tipped a smaller percentage of the bill than Whites, (ii) awareness of the 15% to 20% tipping norm partially mediated Black-White and Hispanic-White differences in restaurant tip size and (iii) norm awareness predicted restaurant tip size for Blacks, Hispanics, and Whites alike. Covariates included bill size, customer age, sex, education, and income.

Lynn, M. & Wang, S. (2013). The indirect effects of tipping policies on patronage intentions through perceived expensiveness, fairness and quality. *Journal of Economic Psychology*, 39, 62-71.

An online experiment involving 495 participants from the US examined the impact of a hypothetical restaurant's tipping policy (voluntary tipping vs 15% automatic gratuity vs service inclusive pricing with no tipping) on the perceived expensiveness, food quality, and service quality of the restaurant, the perceived fairness of its tipping policy, and the likelihood of patronizing the restaurant. Tipping policies had no direct effects on likelihood of patronage, but the no tipping policy (compared to the voluntary tipping policy) did have an indirect negative effect through perceived expensiveness, perceived tipping policy fairness, and expected service quality. The indirect effect of the automatic gratuity policy (compared to the voluntary tipping policy) through perceived policy fairness was significantly negative, but the indirect effects through perceived expensiveness, expected food quality, and expected service quality were not significant.

Lynn, M. & Katz, B. (2013). Are Christian/religious people poor tippers? *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 43, 928-935.

Analyses of data from 1,600 US respondents to a web-based survey found that Jews and those with no religion tipped more than Christians and members of other religions, but that the vast majority of Christians tipped at or above the normative 15% of bill size. Worship frequency also significantly interacted with service quality such that the tips of those who frequently worship vary with service quality less than the tips of those who worship less frequently. In addition, older people, Whites, unmarried people, higher income people, and residents of the northeast all claimed to tip more than their counterparts with tips from the elderly and residents of the northeast (but not other groups) varying with service quality more than those of their counterparts.

Lynn, M. (2013). A comparison of Asians', Hispanics' and Whites' restaurant tipping. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 43, 834-839.

Analyses of data from 1,274 respondents to a large US restaurant chain's online customer satisfaction survey found that Hispanics but not Asians tipped less on average than Whites after controlling for bill size, the customer's own ratings of service, meal, and atmosphere quality, weekend, and meal period. Bill size and service quality both affected tips similarly across racial/ethnic groups.

Lynn, M., Flynn, S.M. & Helion, C. (2013). Do consumers prefer round prices? Evidence from pay-what-you-want decisions and self-pumped gasoline purchases. *Journal of Economic Psychology*, 36, 96-102.

A study (one of three reported in this paper) examined 9,384 charge receipts from a NY restaurant and found that tippers left: (i) five-dollar, whole-dollar (.00 ending), and half-dollar (.50 ending) tip amounts at above chance levels, (ii) a round, whole-dollar tip amount significantly more often when the dollar digit of the tip was 0 or 5 than when it was not, (iii) a round, whole-dollar tip amount significantly more often when the bill was a round, whole-dollar amount than when it was not, and (iv) an unrounded tip amount that summed to a round, whole-dollar amount when added to the bill at substantially above chance levels. Results suggest that consumers prefer round tips and bill totals.

Lynn, M., Pugh, C.C. & Williams, J. (2012). Black-White differences in tipping: Moderated by socio-economic status. *Cornell Hospitality Quarterly*, 53 (4), 286-294.

Two studies – a survey about restaurant tipping (n = 1,005) and a naturalistic observation of delivery tipping (n = 1000) – found that higher socioeconomic status reduced differences between black and white patrons in stiffing and flat tipping, but increased black–white differences in the amount tipped by those who did tip. No other predictors were examined.

Lynn, M. & Williams, J. (2012). Black-White differences in beliefs about the U.S. restaurant tipping norm: Moderated by socio-economic status? *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 31, 1033-1035.

A re-analysis of two national telephone surveys (combined n = 1,754) found that black–white differences in awareness that it is customary to tip a percentage of the bill declined as socio-economic status increased. However, black–white differences in awareness that it is customary to tip 15–20 percent in restaurants was unrelated to socio-economic status.

Lynn, M., Jabbour, P. & Kim, W.G. (2012). Who uses tips as a reward for service and when? An examination of potential moderators of the service-tipping relationship. *Journal of Economic Psychology*, 33, 90-103.

Two studies– one a US student diary study (n = 466 dining occasions of 122 subjects) and the other an internet survey of US respondents (n = 864) -- examined potential moderators of the service-tipping relationship. Analyses found that the service–tipping relationship was robust across meal type, day of week, sex and race of server as well as customers' alcohol consumption, education, income, race, worship frequency, and hospitality work experience. However, it was (i) stronger for male customers than for female ones in one study and the reverse in the other, (ii) stronger for independents than for Republicans, and (iii) stronger for parties with large bills than for parties with smaller bills. Furthermore, bad service decreased the tips of older consumers more, and unusually good service increased the tips of older consumers less, than the tips of younger consumers. Additional findings were that tips increased with time at the table, experience working for tips, customer age, and customer identification as White while decreasing with the product of bill size and time at the table. Overall tip amounts did not significantly differ across customer conscientiousness, agreeableness, sex, education, income, worship frequency, or political party identification.

Lynn, M. (2011). Race differences in tipping: Testing the role of norm familiarity. *Cornell Hospitality Quarterly*, 52 (1), 73-80.

Analysis of data from 831 US respondents to an online survey found that tipping norm awareness mediates Black-White differences in restaurant tip type, restaurant tip percentages, and the stiffing of hair cutters and pizza delivery drivers. However, because there are no race differences in the awareness of tipping customs for certain service providers, it does not mediate race effects on the stiffing of bartenders, parking valets, or taxicab drivers. Nor does norm awareness moderate Black-White differences in restaurant tipping. Covariates were age, education and income.

Lynn, M., Kwortnik, R. & Sturman, M. (2011). Voluntary tipping and the selective attraction and retention of service workers in the United States: An application of the ASA Model. *International Journal of Human Resources Management*, 22 (9), 1887-1901.

Analyses of data from a survey of 337 US restaurant servers found that servers with a stronger service attitude liked tip-based pay more, reported getting larger tips (compared to their co-workers), and had longer tenure as a server. The service-attitude effect on attraction to tip-based pay was greater the stronger the servers' perceptions that tip income is contingent on service quality. Furthermore, relative tip income and attraction to tip-based pay each predicted tenure as a server after controlling for the other and for service attitude (whose effects on tenure were diminished and non-significant when these other variables were controlled for). These findings support the idea that tipping-based pay helps to attract and retain more service-oriented workers.

Lynn, M. & Sturman, M.C. (2010). Tipping and service quality: A within-subjects analysis. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research*, 34 (2), 269-275.

Hierarchical linear modeling of US student diary data (275 dining experiences of 51 subjects) found that within-subjects tip percentage increased with service ratings and alcohol consumption and decreased with personal contribution to bill size. Group size, group bill size, number of courses, dessert consumption, and meal time had no significant within subjects effects. Significant level-two random effects for service quality indicated that participants differed reliably in their use of tips a reward for good service. Participants' coefficients for service quality were significantly, positively correlated with their average tip percentages, meaning that the more people varied their tip percentages with service quality, the larger the tip percentages they left on average. The within subjects effect of service rules out stable dispositional differences between tippers (such as differences in dispositional gratitude, extraversion, friendliness, generosity, etc.) as potential confounds of the correlation between service ratings and tip sizes. Thus, this study contributes to the tipping literature by increasing the evidence that service has a positive, causal impact on tip sizes.

Saunders, S.G. & Lynn, M. (2010). Why tip? An empirical test of motivations for tipping car guards. *Journal of Economic Psychology*, 31 (1), 106-113.

Analysis of consumer survey data from 530 South Africans found that the likelihood of tipping car guards increased with rated service quality, positive attitudes toward car guards, social norms (car guard tipping among friends), and availability of cash while it decreased with rainy weather. Tip size given to car guards increased with service quality, helping motives, positive attitude toward tipping car guards, on weekends, and at locations other than shopping centers. Social norms increased tip size more in the presence of others. Other predictors examined included attitude toward tipping in general; consumer age, sex, and income; car guard race and national origin; time of day; and frequency of parking in that location. These findings support the ideas that tipping is motivated by desires to reward good service, help service workers, and gain social approval.

Lynn, M. & McCall, M. (2009). Techniques for increasing tips: How generalizable are they? *Cornell Hospitality Quarterly*, 50, 198-208.

Analyses of internet survey data from 1,066 current or former restaurant servers in the United States found that many servers fail to regularly tell jokes or stories, squat next to tables, call customers by name, touch customers, upsell, smile, complement customers, predict good weather, write "thank you" on checks, draw on checks, wear flair, introduce themselves, and repeat orders. That is a mistake on their part because servers who

more frequently engaged in each of these behaviors reported getting larger tips relative to those of coworkers. Telling jokes or stories, squatting next to table, calling customers by name, upselling, smiling, and introducing themselves each made unique contributions to predicting comparative tips after controlling for the other behaviors. All these effects controlled for server experience, sex, age, race, and status as a current or former server as well as restaurant price and geographic location. The positive effect of an index combining all the behaviors was stronger for former than for current servers but was not significantly moderated by servers' region of the US, average bill size, tenure as a server, age, sex, or race. These findings support the effectiveness of the behaviors at increasing tips for a variety of different servers working at many different restaurants.

Lynn, M. (2009). Individual differences in self-attributed motives for tipping: Antecedents, consequences, and implications. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 28, 432-438.

A web-based survey of 831 US consumers found that: (i) individual differences in self-attributed motives for tipping loaded on two factors – intrinsic and self-presentational motives, (ii) more people claimed to tip for intrinsic reasons than for self-presentational reasons, (iii) motives for tipping did vary by age, race and education but the differences were small, (iv) individual differences in self-attributed motives for tipping were rooted in more general dispositional tendencies toward conformity and feelings of gratitude, (v) intrinsic motives for tipping were associated with larger restaurant percentage tips and greater likelihood of non-restaurant tipping, and (vi) self-presentational motives for tipping were associated with smaller restaurant percentage tips.

Kwortnik, R.J., Lynn, M. & Ross, W.T. (2009). Buyer monitoring: A means to insure personalized service. *Journal of Marketing Research*, XLVI, 573-583.

Four studies examined the effects of voluntary tipping on service quality. A preliminary study of secondary data found that service ratings were higher for 54 cruise ships with voluntary tipping than for the 16 cruise ships with no tipping after statistically controlling for factors potentially related to service ratings, such as the ratio of passengers to crew, the ratio of ship size to passengers, ship dress code, and price category. Study 1 compared Zagata ratings of 107 Miami Beach restaurants with different tipping policies and found that restaurants with voluntary tipping had higher average service ratings than restaurants with service charges. Study 2 surveyed 1,189 current restaurant servers in the US about their (i) perceptions that tips depended on service, (ii) service behaviors, (iii) tips relative to those of coworkers, and (iv) place of employment. Analyses found that perceived service-tip contingency predicted positive service behaviors even after controlling for restaurant expensiveness and servers relative tips. Study 3 had 469 current or former restaurant servers complete an online,

hypothetical survey experiment where they were asked about their sales motivation and behaviors as well as their customer-oriented service motivation and behaviors under voluntary tipping, service charge, or wages only compensation policies. Analyses found that customer-oriented service motivation and behavior were both significantly higher under the voluntary tipping condition than under the service charge and the wages-only condition. Sales-oriented service motivation and behavior were significantly higher under the voluntary tipping than under the wages-only condition, but were comparable across the voluntary tipping and service charge conditions. These findings support the idea that tipping positively affects workers' motivation to perform service-enhancing behaviors and customers' perceptions of service.

Lynn, M. (2009). Determinants and consequences of female attractiveness and sexiness: Realistic tests with restaurant waitresses. *Archives of Sexual Behavior*, 38, 737-745.

Analyses of survey data from 432 US waitresses found that waitresses in their 30's and those with large breasts, blond hair, and/or slender bodies received larger average tip percentages than their counterparts without these characteristics. Waitresses' average tip percentages were not significantly related to their waist-to-hip ratios.

Lynn, M. & Withiam, G. (2008). Tipping and its alternatives: Business considerations and directions for research. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 22 (4), 328-336.

The purpose of this paper is to outline the business issues surrounding tipping and its alternatives, to summarize what we know about those issues, and to identify questions in need of further research. It argues that voluntary tipping, service charges, and service-inclusive pricing offer different sets of costs and benefits, so that no one policy is always the best. The principal benefits to service firms of voluntary tipping are that it lowers nominal prices, increases profits through price discrimination, motivates up-selling and service, attracts talented workers, and lowers FICA tax payments. However, tipping also motivates discrimination in service delivery, gives servers surplus income that could go the firms' bottom line, increases the risk of income tax audits, and opens firms up to adverse impact lawsuits.

Lynn, M., et. al. (2008). Consumer racial discrimination in tipping: A replication and extension. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 38, 1045-1060.

Analyses of data from a survey of 140 customers of a US restaurant examined the effects of server race, customer race, and their interaction on restaurant tips while statistically controlling for customers' perceptions of service quality and other variables. The findings indicate that consumers of both races discriminated against Black service providers by tipping them less than White service providers. Furthermore, this server race effect on tipping was moderated by perceived service quality and dining party size. Covariates included service, food and atmosphere ratings, bill size, dining frequency, customer sex, server sex, and the interaction of customer and server sex.

Lynn, M. (2008). Personality effects on tipping attitudes, self-reported behaviors and customs: A multi-level inquiry. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 44, 989-999.

Two studies assessed the effects of personality on and tipping customs and behavior. Study 1 examined secondary data about 27 nations and found that national extraversion and psychoticism, but not neuroticism, are related to customary tip sizes. Study 2 examined survey data from 366 US respondents with the following key findings. First, extraverts more than introverts liked server attention/interaction, expressed a tendency to tip to impress others, liked and supported tipping, and tipped waiters/waitresses a larger percentage of the bill. Second, neurotics more than emotionally stable people believed that servers dislike serving others and expressed concern about server misbehavior but did not differ from emotionally stable people in seeing tipping as a guarantee of good treatment from servers, liking/ supporting tipping, or leaving large percentage tips. Third, psychotics did not differ from tenderhearted people in enjoyment of helping servers via tipping, liking/supporting tipping, or leaving large percentage tips. These individual-level findings are largely inconsistent with Lynn's previous explanations for national personality effects on tipping customs.

Leodoro, G. & Lynn, M. (2007). The effect of server posture on the tips of Whites and Blacks. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 7 (2), 201-209.

A field experiment in a US restaurant examined the effects on tips left by Black and White patrons of having a White waitress sit down or lean over at the table during the service encounter. Significant patron race and server posture X patron race effects were obtained. Blacks tipped less than Whites and sitting at the table significantly increased the tips left by White patrons while marginally significantly decreasing the tips left by Black patrons.

Lynn, M. (2006). Race differences in restaurant tipping: A literature review and discussion of practical implications. *Journal of Foodservice Business Research*, 9(4), 99-113.

A narrative review of research on race differences in tipping found that (1) Blacks leave smaller average restaurant tips than do Whites, (2) Black-White differences in tipping persist after controlling for socio-economic status, (3) Blacks tip less than Whites even when provided comparable levels of service, (4) Blacks tip less than Whites even when the server is black, and (5) Blacks are less likely than Whites to know that it is customary/expected to tip 15 to 20% of the bill size in U.S. restaurants. These findings support the need to educate Blacks about the 15 to 20% tipping norm.

Lynn, M. (2006). Geo-demographic differences in knowledge about the restaurant tipping norm. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 36 (3), 740-750.

Analyses of data from a national telephone survey of 1,028 respondents in the US found that knowledge about the restaurant tipping norm is greater among people who are White, in their 40 s to 60 s, highly educated, wealthy, living in metropolitan areas, and living in the Northeast than among their counterparts. There were no sex differences in norm knowledge. These findings support the idea that differential familiarity with tipping norms may underlie many geodemographic differences in tipping behavior.

Lynn, M. (2006). Tipping in restaurants and around the globe: An Interdisciplinary review. Chapter 31, pp. 626-643. In Morris Altman (Ed.) *Handbook of Contemporary Behavioral Economics: Foundations and Developments*, M.E. Sharpe Publishers.

This qualitative review of the tipping literature is divided into four sections. The first two sections provide more detail about the phenomenon of tipping by summarizing and discussing the results of empirical research on the determinants and predictors of restaurant tipping and of national differences in tipping customs, respectively. Then economic theories about tipping are reviewed in light of the previously summarized empirical literature. Finally, the public welfare and policy issues raised by tipping are discussed.

Lynn, M. (2005). Increasing servers' tips: What managers can do and why they should do it. *Journal of Foodservice Business Research*, 8 (4), 89-98.

This paper suggests that restaurant executives and managers can and should increase their servers' tip incomes by teaching and encouraging the servers to engage in behaviors experimentally proven to increase tip sizes – namely (1) introduce themselves by name (2) squat down next to the table when introducing themselves (3) wear big, open-mouthed smiles on their faces (4) wear unusual ornaments or items of clothing (5) entertain customers with jokes or puzzles (6) practice suggestive selling (7) repeat customers' orders back to them (8) touch customers briefly on the arm or shoulder (9) forecast good weather (10) write "Thank You" on the check (11) draw pictures on the check (12) use tip trays embossed with credit card logos (13) call customers by name, and (14) give customers after dinner candies. Executives and managers of encouraging these behaviors by should be rewarded with increased sales, greater customer satisfaction, and lower-labor costs due to reduced server turnover.

Lynn, M. (2004). Black-White differences in tipping various service providers. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 34 (11), 2261-2271.

Analyses of data from a random-digit-dial telephone survey of respondents in the US revealed 4 general patterns in the tipping behaviors of 83 Blacks and 811 Whites. First, Blacks were more likely than Whites to stiff commonly encountered service providers, but not less commonly encountered ones. Second, Blacks were more likely than Whites to leave flat tip amounts to service providers who are commonly tipped a percentage of the bill, but not to service providers who are more rarely tipped a percentage of the bill. Third, Black percentage tippers reported leaving a smaller average percentage of the bill than White percentage tippers across many ser-

vice contexts. Finally, Black flat tippers reported leaving larger average dollar tips than White flat tippers across many service contexts.

Lynn, M. (2004). Restaurant tips and service quality: A commentary on Bodvarsson, Luksetich and McDermott (2003). *Applied Economics Letters*, 11, 975-978.

Bodvarsson et al. (2003) argued that a non-recursive relationship between service and tipping has led researchers to underestimate the strength of the causal impact of service on tipping. They analyze a new dataset using 2SLS regression and find a much larger than typical service effect. This critical review of that paper pointed out that their argument is not logical because: (i) a positive feedback loop between service and tipping should over-estimate (not under-estimate) the causal impact of service on tips, (ii) tips cannot cause service in previous tests of the service-tipping relationship because those tests are cross-sectional and tips come after service has been delivered, and (iii) Bodvarsson's counter-argument to the preceding point -- ie, that actual tips are correlated with anticipated tips, which can and do affect service -- undermines the assumptions underlying their own 2SLS regressions. Bodvarsson's analyses were also criticized on the grounds that: (i) they produced an implausibly large coefficient for service, (ii) the key instruments might plausibly have a direct causal impact on tipping, and (iii) the key instruments did not explain unique variance in service quality, even when considered jointly. Finally, a re-analysis of the data using OLS regression found a much smaller and non-significant service coefficient that was in-line with previous research.

Lynn, M. (2004). Ethnic differences in tipping: A matter of familiarity with tipping norms. *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, 45 (1), 12-22.

Analyses of data from a random-digit-dial telephone survey of 1,024 respondents in the US (788 of whom were White and 99 of whom were Black) found Blacks were about half as likely as Whites to say that the customary restaurant tip in the United States is 15 to 20 percent of the bill (37.4 percent vs. 71.2 percent). Blacks were more likely than whites to say that: (i) they do not know the customary restaurant-tip amount in the United States, (ii) the customary restaurant-tip amount is less than 15 percent of the bill, and (iii) the customary restaurant-tip amount is a dollar amount rather than a percentage of the bill. These ethnic differences were statistically significant and remained at least marginally significant after controlling for the respondents' sex, age, education, income, household size, and metro-status. These findings suggest that one solution to the problems posed by differences in the groups' tipping is to publicize the 15 to 20 percent tipping norm in minority communities.

Lynn, M. & Lynn, A. (2004). National values and tipping customs: A replication and extension. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research*, 28, 356-364.

Analyses of secondary data about a sample of 45 nations found that: (i) customary restaurant tips were higher in countries with greater uncertainty avoidance and masculinity but were unrelated to national power distance and individualism, and (ii) customary taxi tips were higher in countries with greater individualism and masculinity but were unrelated to national power distance and uncertainty avoidance.

Lynn, M. & Thomas-Haysbert, C. (2003). Ethnic differences in tipping: Evidence, explanations and implications. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 33, 1747-1772. [Winner of the 2004 W. Bradford Wiley Memorial Research Award for the best hospitality research by a CHRIE member published the previous year.]

Two studies examined ethnic differences in tipping. Study one analyzed data from a random-digit-dial telephone survey of 1,005 respondents in the US (799 of whom were White and 91 of whom were Black) and found that Blacks were less likely than were Whites to describe their usual tips as a percentage of the bill. Furthermore, among those who did describe their usual tips as a percentage of the bill, Blacks reported leaving smaller tip percentages than did. Finally, among those who described their tips in dollar terms, Blacks were just as likely as Whites to report leaving \$3 or more. Black-White differences in percent tip were partially mediated by age, education, income, and household size but remained significant after controlling for all these partial mediators. Study two combined the raw data from five previous studies that collected race and tipping information - resulting in 1,837 observations (1,481 from White diners, 94 from Black diners, 149 from Asian diners, and 113 from Hispanic diners) from 28 Texas restaurants. Analyses of this data found that Whites tipped significantly more than did Blacks and Asians but not Hispanics. The Black-White difference in percent tip was partially mediated by frequency of restaurant patronage, but not by service quality, customer gender, dining-party size, or restaurant identity. The Asian-White difference in percent tip was mediated by service, dining party size, frequency of eating out, and restaurant identity. Moderation analyses found that: (i) bill size had a significantly larger effect on dollar tip amount for Whites than for Blacks, Asians and Hispanics, (ii) bill size had a weaker effect on tip percentages for Whites than for Hispanics (but not Asians or Blacks), (iii) service ratings had a smaller effect on tip percentages for Whites than for Asians and Hispanics (but not Blacks), and (iv) restaurant patronage frequency had a smaller effect on tip percentages for Whites than for Asians and Blacks (but not Hispanics).

Conlin, M., Lynn, M. & O'Donoghue, T. (2003). The norm of restaurant tipping. *Journal of Economic Behavior and Organization*, 52, 297-321.

Analyses of data from surveys of 1,393 dining parties exiting 39 restaurants in Houston, Texas found that tip percentages decreased with bill size, tipper age, and weekday x service speed. It increased with bill size squared, group size, alcohol consumption, service ratings, all restaurant patronage, particular restaurant patronage, female tips male (vs males and females tip same sex server), and service x group size. Other examined predictors having no significant effects included number of courses served, food ratings, tipper sex, server sex, male tips female, service x number of courses, service x tipper age, service x patronage frequency, and server and tipper sex congruence x tipper age. These findings suggest that tipping has elements of efficiency, but is not fully efficient.

Lynn, M. (2003). Tip levels and service: An update, extension and reconciliation. *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, 42, 139-148.

An update of my previous CQ articles on the tipping-service relationship reports that:

- tip percentages were weakly related service when service was measured using unbounded-write-in scales (which produce more normally distributed ratings), at 39 new restaurants, in Hong Kong as well as the US, and at the server and restaurant levels of analysis;
- tip percentages are negatively related to servers' thoughts of quitting and to restaurants' turnover rates (especially among restaurants with low sales volume); and
- research has found servers can earn larger tips by upselling, personalizing their appearance, entertaining customers, drawing pictures on the check, forecasting good weather, calling customers by name, and giving customers candy.

This evidence suggests that managers should train servers to engage in tested tip-enhancing actions but should not rely on tips to motivate good service or use tips to measure customer satisfaction, server performance, or restaurant performance.

Lynn, M. (2003). Restaurant tips and service quality: A weak relationship or just weak measurement? *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 22, 321-325.

Surveys of 397 patrons departing four restaurants in NY asked respondents to rate their service using either a semantic differential scale or an unbounded write-in scale as well as how much they tipped. The service indices derived from semantic differential and unbounded write-in scales had different distributions, but did not differ

in their relationship to tip percentages. The non-significant service by scale-type interaction suggests that the weak service–tipping relationship in the existing literature is not due to response biases associated with semantic differential scales. Other predictors examined in supplemental analyses included bill size, server’s sex, number of adults in the party, number of teens in the party, number of kids in the party, customer’s sex, customer patronage frequency, and ratings of the service, food and room.

Lynn, M. & Sturman, M. (2003). It’s simpler than it seems: An alternative explanation for the magnitude effect in tipping. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 22, 103-110.

Green, Myerson and Schneider (2003) replicated the negative relationship between tip percentages and bill size (the magnitude effect in tipping) in six different data sets. We tested different explanations for the magnitude effect in tipping using six simulations informed by those six data sets. Simulated individuals were coded as either percentage or flat tippers in proportion to their incidence by service context in a national survey. If the individual was a flat tipper, tip amounts were randomly drawn from a distribution of tip amounts whose mean, standard deviation and minimum equaled those in each of Green et al’s data sets. If the individual was a percent tipper, a percent tip was randomly drawn from a distribution of percent tips whose mean, standard deviation and minimum equaled those in Green et al’s data sets. Analyses of this simulated data produced results that closely followed the pattern of results reported by Green et al. We found positive significant intercepts and slopes for all six simulated samples when predicting tip amount, and significant positive intercepts and negative slopes for all six samples when predicting percent tip. Furthermore, we replicated Green et al.’s finding that the negative correlation between percent tip and bill size was larger for cabs and hair salons than for restaurants. Our simulation did not explicitly model any price sensitivity effect, increasing proportional sensitivity effect, mere-presence effect, or minimum tip effect, so these proposed explanations for the magnitude effect in tipping are not needed to produce the effect. All that is needed is existence of both flat and percentage tippers.

Lynn, M. (2002). Turnover’s relationships with sales, tips and service across restaurants in a chain. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 21, 443-447.

Restaurant level data was used to examine turnover’s relationships with sales, tips and service among 59 casual-dining restaurants from a chain in the United States. Turnover was negatively correlated with sales and service among high-volume restaurants but not among low-volume restaurants. Interestingly, the opposite pattern was observed for turnovers’ relationship with tip percentages—turnover was negatively correlated with tip percent-

ages among low-volume restaurants but not among high-volume restaurants. These results are consistent with income effects on turnover.

Strohmetz, D., Rind, B., Fisher, R. & Lynn, M. (2002). Sweetening the til: The use of candy to increase restaurant tipping. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 32, 300-309.

Two field experiments in the US examined the effect of giving candy to restaurant customers on their tipping behavior. Experiment 1 found that customers who received a small piece of chocolate along with the check tipped more than did customers who received no candy. Experiment 2 found that tips varied with the amount of the candy given to the customers as well as with the manner in which it was offered. Reciprocity is argued to be a stronger explanation for these findings than either impression management or a good mood effect.

Lynn, M. (2001). Restaurant tipping and service quality: A tenuous relationship. *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, 42, 14-20.

A managerial version of Lynn & McCall (2000a), which is described below.

Lynn, M. & Gregor, R. (2001). Tipping and service: The case of hotel bellmen. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 20, 299-303.

A field experiment in a NY hotel found that a bellman received significantly larger tips when he followed the hotel's full-service routine (i.e., showed the guest how to operate both the television and the thermostat, opened the drapes to expose the room's view, and offered to bring the guest ice from a machine down the corridor) than when he merely brought the luggage into the room and asked the guest if they needed anything else. This effect was not moderated by the guests' sex or age.

Lynn, M. (2000). National character and tipping customs: The needs for achievement, affiliation and power as predictors of the prevalence of tipping. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 19, 205-210.

Analyses of secondary data about 25 nations found that tipping was more prevalent in countries characterized by strong needs for achievement and power (but not affiliation) than in countries where these needs are weaker.

Lynn, M. (2000). The relationship between tipping and service quality: A comment on Bodvarsson and Gibson's article. *Social Science Journal*, 37, 131-135.

Bodvarsson and Gibson (1999) claimed that existing cross-sectional, correlational research under-estimated the effects of service quality on tipping because natural variability in service is low, treatment of ordinal scales as though they were interval violates statistical assumptions, and the meaning of service ratings is not comparable across persons. They reported a hypothetical scenario experiment that found much larger effects. My critical review of this article argued that: (i) the absolute difference in mean tip size at different levels of service quality provides a measure of effect size that is independent of variability in service ratings and it shows that service quality has only modest effects on tipping, (ii) the effect of low variability in service ratings on the size of the correlation between tip size and service quality cannot legitimately be called a bias if the ratings accurately reflect consumers' perceptions of service quality, (iii) the absence systematic differences in the variability of tip size at different levels of rated service quality supports a weak effect of service on tipping, (iv) the rating scales used in many existing studies were interval scale and correlational analyses are robust to monotonic transformations of data in any event, (v) service rating scales whose endpoints are labeled "poor" and "excellent" have as much shared meaning in our culture as do manipulations of service labeled as "poor," "satisfactory," and "very good," and (vi) role playing experiments are suspect because people are often poor at predicting and explaining their own behavior.

Lynn, M. (2000). National personality and tipping customs. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 28, 395-404.

Analyses of secondary data about 19 nations found that the number of tipped professions increased with national levels of extraversion and neuroticism and decreased with national levels of psychoticism.

Lynn, M. & McCall, M. (2000a). Gratitude and gratuity: A meta-analysis of research on the service-tipping relationship. *Journal of Socio-Economics*, 29, 203-214.

A meta-analysis of seven published and six unpublished studies involving 2,547 dining parties at 20 different restaurants found a statistically significant, positive relationship between tip size and evaluations of service. The relationship was not moderated by patronage frequency and it remained significant after statistically controlling for patronage frequency and food evaluations. These findings are inconsistent with explanations based on

the confounding effects of customer mood and patronage frequency as well as with an explanation based on the reverse-causality effect of server favoritism toward big tipppers. The results are consistent with the idea that consumers use tips to reward waiters and waitresses for services rendered. Although statistically significant, the average relationship between tip size and service evaluations was quite small —accounting for less than two percent of the variability in bill-adjusted tips. The weakness of this relationship belies many consumers' beliefs that their primary motivation for tipping is to reward servers for good service. It also raises questions about the efficacy of tipping as an incentive for delivering good service and about the validity of tip size as a measure of server performance.

Lynn, M. & Simons, T. (2000). Predictors of male and female servers' average tip earnings. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 30, 241-252.

Data on 51 servers at a Texas restaurant was compiled from restaurant records, server surveys, and judges ratings of server photos. Server-level analyses of these data found that servers earned larger average sales-adjusted tips if they claimed to be better service providers, were physically attractive, and were high self-monitors. Although no interactions were significant, separate analyses for waiters and waitresses found that physical attractiveness was a better predictor of waitresses' average tips than of waiters' average tips (partial $r = .40$ vs. $.02$) and that self-rated service was a better predictor of waiters' average tips than of waitresses' average tips (partial $r = .49$ vs. $.19$). Server experience, gender and friendliness had no reliable main effects on tip income.

Lynn, M., Le, J. & Sherwyn, D. (1998). Reach out and touch your customer. *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, 39, 60-65.

A field experiment in a Texas restaurant found that a waiter received larger tip percentages when he touched customers on the arm or shoulder. Duration of the touch did not affect tips. The touch effect was significantly stronger among younger than older consumers but was evident for both groups. It was not moderated by customer sex. Other predictors examined were customer race, payment method, and separate checks.

Lynn, M. (1997). Tipping customs and status seeking: A cross-country study. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 16, 221-224.

Analyses of secondary data on 20 nations found that tipping is more prevalent in countries the greater the value their citizens place on social recognition (n = 15) and social esteem (n = 13).

Lynn, M. (1996). Seven ways to increase your servers' tips. *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, 37 (June), 24-29.

Describes experimental research on tipping that has found servers earn larger tips when they introduce themselves by name, squat down next to the table, flash sincere smiles, touch their customers, use tip trays with credit-card insignia, write "thank you" on the backs of checks, and (for many servers) draw a happy face on the backs of checks. Argues that restaurant managers should teach and encourage these behaviors in order to increase server income and, thus, reduce server turnover.

Lynn, M. & Graves, J. (1996). Restaurant tipping: An incentive/reward for service? *Hospitality Research Journal*, 20, 1-14.

Two studies examined the effects of service on tipping. Study one surveyed 169 customers leaving two Texas restaurants and found that tip amounts were positively related to customers ratings of the service but not to the number of courses served. Co-variables included bill size, group size, alcohol consumption, food ratings, server sex, patronage frequency, customer sex, customer age, and customer ethnicity. Study two had a Missouri waitress record data on 173 of the tables she waited on and found that customers who voiced praise for some aspect of the dining experience tipped more than those who did not. Co-variables included bill size, group size, alcohol consumption, number of courses, separate checks, customer friendliness, and customer sex.

Lynn, M. (1994). Neuroticism and the prevalence of tipping: A cross-country study. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 17, 137-138.

Analyses of secondary data on national tipping prevalence and national personality (n = 15) found that tipping is more prevalent in those countries with higher neuroticism scores. This finding is taken as providing some support for an anthropological theory that tipping evolved as an institutionalized means of reducing service workers' envy of their customers.

Lynn, M., Zinkhan, G. & Harris, J. (1993). Consumer tipping: A cross-country study. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 20, 478-488.

Analyses of secondary data on national tipping prevalence and national values among 29 countries found that tipping is more prevalent in those countries with higher tolerance of status and power differences, greater uncertainty avoidance, lower individualism, and greater masculinity. These findings support the idea that cross-country differences in the prevalence of tipping reflect differences in the value placed on tipping's consequences.

Lynn, M. & Mynier, K. (1993). The effects of server posture on restaurant tipping. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 23, 678-685.

Two naturalistic field experiments (n 's = 270 and 148) found that restaurant servers in Texas got larger absolute and percentage tips when they squatted down next to the table than when they remained standing throughout their service encounters with a table. In study one, squatting increased absolute tips more the larger the bill size. In study two, squatting increased absolute tips more on weekdays than on weekends, but the squatting effect was not moderated by bill size, patronage frequency or payment method. Additional analyses of study two found that tips increased with bill size and payment with credit but did not significantly vary with group size, patronage frequency or weekday (vs weekend).

Lynn, M. & Bond, C.F. (1992). Conceptual meaning and spuriousness in ratio correlations: The case of restaurant tipping. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 22, 327-341.

The authors argue that use of ratio variables (like percent tip) can introduce spuriousness into analyses when the relationship between the numerator and denominator of the ratio has a non-zero intercept. Consistent with this argument, a reanalysis of Lynn and Latane (1984) found a positive intercept in the relationship between tip amount and bill size. This intercept produced negative relationships of percent tip with bill size and dining party size, even though tips increased at a constant rate with bill size and dining party size had no significant effect on residual (bill adjusted) tip amounts. Furthermore, a simulation that randomly paired one dining party's tip amounts with another party's bill and group size (thus rendering the data psychologically meaningless) also resulted in a positive intercept in the tip-bill relationship and spurious negative correlations of percent tip with both bill and group size.

Lynn, M. & Grassman, A. (1990). Restaurant tipping: An examination of three “rational” explanations. *Journal of Economic Psychology*, 11, 169-181.

A study in which 106 customers departing a Missouri restaurant were interviewed about their dining experience and tipping behavior found that tips increased with bill size, patronage frequency, the product of bill size and patronage frequency, and customers service evaluations. Tipping was not significantly related to the product of service quality and patronage frequency, dining party size, number of courses, alcohol consumption, or food ratings. These results are consistent with the use of tips to buy social approval and equitable relationships but not with the use of tips to buy future service.

Lynn, M. (1988). The effects of alcohol consumption on restaurant tipping. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 14, 87-91.

A study involving a server's records of 207 dining parties at an Ohio restaurant found that percent tip increased with alcohol consumption and menu (vs buffet) service and decreased with bill size, the presence of children in the party, and party use of a promotional discount. Tip percentages were not significantly related to dining party size, service quality, customer gender, or payment method. Number of alcoholic drinks was positively related to residual (bill adjusted) tips but not to percent tip.

Lynn, M. & Latane, B. (1984). The psychology of restaurant tipping. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 14, 551-563.

Two studies examined the predictors of restaurant tipping. One study involving exit surveys of 169 dining parties at a breakfast house in Ohio found that percentage tips increased with customer being male and decreased with dining party size and per-person bill size. A second study involving server records of 206 dining parties at a dinner house in Ohio found that percentage tips increased with customer being male, payment by cash, and waitpersons' efforts. In at least one of the studies, tip percentage were unrelated to the size of the bill, dining party size, separate checks among the dining party, service quality, waitperson's gender, restaurant's atmosphere, or restaurant's food.

Unpublished Papers

Lynn, M. (2026). Voluntary pricing in the hospitality industry: An exploration of the economic preferences underlying tipping and other voluntary payments. Unpublished manuscript under review at *International Journal of Hospitality Management*.

A survey of 502 US consumers explored the economic preferences underlying tipping and other voluntary payments in the hospitality industry. Results indicated that: (i) individuals who tip more service providers also tip larger amounts and make larger Choose-Your-Own- Price (CYOP) and Pay-What-You-Want (PWYW) payments, (ii) implicit and explicit altruism positively affect tipping likelihood, tip size, CYOP, and PWYW decisions, (iii) implicit (but not explicit) reciprocity values positively affect tipping likelihood, tip size, CYOP, and PWYW decisions, (iv) trust positively affected tipping likelihood, CYOP, and PWYW (but not tip size) decisions, (v) implicit (but not explicit) impatience positively affects tipping likelihood but not other voluntary payments, (vi) individual differences in risk-taking, negative reciprocity, and postponement of pain had very few effects on voluntary payments. Available upon request to Mike Lynn at wml3@cornell.edu.

Agarwal, A. and Lynn, M. (2026). The effects of tip suggestion presence and sequencing on tipping behaviour. Unpublished manuscript under review at *International Journal of Hospitality Management*.

A field experiment randomly assigned 1,004 customers of an airport parking and shuttle service in Texas to one of three digital tip interfaces: ascending suggestions (\$3→\$5→\$10→Custom Tip), descending suggestions (\$10→\$5→\$3→Custom Tip), or a custom-only entry field. Customers in the custom-only condition tipped significantly more than those in the other two conditions, while the ascending and descending conditions did not differ from each other. Riders in the two suggestion conditions were roughly twice as likely to tip exactly \$3 as customers in the custom only condition, suggesting that the preset options made the smallest suggested amount (\$3) acceptable and more likely to be given. Available upon request to Mike Lynn at wml3@cornell.edu.

Lynn, M. (2025). Operational Characteristics that Support Tipping. *Cornell Hospitality Brief*, Vol. 25, No. 2.

Synopsis of: Lynn, M. (2019). Predictors of occupational differences in tipping. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*. 81, 221-228, which is described above. Available at <https://ecommons.cornell.edu/entities/publication/5b83502f-200e-4c1b-8f73-e3daaf6a68d4>

Lynn, M. (2016). The Business Case for (and Against) Restaurant Tipping. *Cornell Hospitality Report*, Vol. 16, No. 4.

Early version of: Lynn, M. (2017). Should U.S. restaurants abandon tipping? A review of the issues and evidence. *Psychosociological Issues in Human Resource Management*, 5 (1), 120-159, which is described above. Available at <https://ecommons.cornell.edu/entities/publication/e8ab698a-095a-4907-9d29-beb2063850b7>

Lynn, M. & Boone, C. (2015). Have Minimum Wage Increases Hurt the Restaurant Industry? The Evidence Says No! *Cornell Hospitality Report*, Vol. 15, No.22.

Analyses of yearly (from 1995 to 2014) state-level data found that increases in the tipped minimum wage increased wages in full-service restaurants (FSRs) but did not reliably impact FSR employment or numbers. This effect is felt in the same year as the minimum wage increase with no lagged effects being reliable. The analyses statistically controlled for percentage change in total employment, wages or establishments across all industries (selected to match the dependent variable) as well as year, state, and census-division-specific year effects. Available at <https://ecommons.cornell.edu/entities/publication/b00f2cc0-313e-4e49-88cd-1a4dbe52a8c2>

Lynn, M., & Dixon, M. (2014). How efficient is tipping at pricing restaurant services? A state level analysis. Unpublished manuscript, Cornell University.

Cross-sectional analysis of secondary state-level data found that average tip percentages in the states of the US declined with state tipped minimum wages and increased with state income per capita but were not reliably affected by state unemployment rate, state sale tax rate, or state number of restaurants per capita. These findings suggest that tipping does not price restaurant services in a fully efficient manner. Available upon request to Mike Lynn at wml3@cornell.edu.

Lynn, M. & Ukhov, A. (2013). Tips Predict Restaurant Sales. *Cornell Hospitality Report*, Vol. 13, No. 8.

An analysis of seven years of monthly charge sales and tip data from a multi-regional restaurant chain in the United States found that percent tip predicted related sales in the following month. Available at <https://ecommons.cornell.edu/entities/publication/28236689-2978-4612-b4cd-bf2170ced9f3>

Lynn, M. (2011). MegaTips 2: Twenty Tested Techniques to Increase Your Tips. *CHR Tool*, Vol. 2, No. 1.

This CHR Tool updates *MegaTips*. It provides a narrative review of studies finding that servers can increase their tips if they: (1) Look your best, (2) Wear something unusual, (3) Introduce yourself by name, (4) Squat down next to the table, (5) Stand physically close to the customer, (6) Touch the customer. (7) Smile, (8) Compliment the customers' food choices, (9) Repeat the order back to the customer, (10) Build the check with suggestive selling, (11) Entertain the customer, (12) Forecast good weather, (13) Write "Thank You" on the check, (14) Write a patriotic message on the check, (15) Draw a picture on the check, (16) Call the customer by name, (17) Use tip trays with credit card insignia, (18) Give the customer candy, (19) Provide tipping guidelines, and (20) Play songs with pro-social lyrics. Available at <https://ecommons.cornell.edu/entities/publication/aaa79631-eff5-43eb-96ac-473e4ffa561>

Wang, S. & Lynn, M. (2010). The Impact of Prix Fixe Menu Price Formats on Guests' Deal Perception. *Cornell Hospitality Report*, Vol. 10, No. 15.

Early version of: Wang, S. & Lynn, M. (2017). The effects of service charges versus service-included pricing on deal perception. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 41 (2), 246-254, which is described above. Available at <https://ecommons.cornell.edu/entities/publication/a1904a55-f3ac-43a0-8a14-4f4414eee272>

Wang, S. & Lynn, M. (2007). The Effects on Perceived Restaurant Expensiveness of Tipping and Its Alternatives. *Cornell Hospitality Report*, Vol. 7, No.3.

An online, within-subjects, hypothetical-scenario experiment found that 318 participants rated restaurants with tipping or automatic gratuity policies as less expensive than restaurants that built the costs of service into menu prices. Furthermore, participants ordered more expensive meals when automatic gratuities were added to the bill than when the costs of service were built into menu prices. Available at <https://ecommons.cornell.edu/entities/publication/b395bbcc-eac8-4010-a35a-c91c409f774a>

Lynn, M. (2006). Tipping and Its Alternatives: A comparison of Tipping, Service Charges and Service-Inclusive Pricing. *Cornell Hospitality Report*, Vol. 6, No. 5.

Early version of: Lynn, M. & Withiam, G. (2008). Tipping and its alternatives: Business considerations and directions for research. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 22 (4), 328-336, which is described above. Available at <https://ecommons.cornell.edu/entities/publication/b7373d26-028c-489b-b14a-8a54eab764e2>

Lynn, M. (2006). Race Differences in Tipping: Questions and Answers for the Restaurant Industry. *Cornell Hospitality Report*, Vol. 6, No. 1.

Early version of: Lynn, M. (2006). Race differences in restaurant tipping: A literature review and discussion of practical implications. *Journal of Foodservice Business Research*, 9(4), 99-113, which is described above. Available at <https://ecommons.cornell.edu/entities/publication/b0124593-e503-4545-89e8-282076aba5af>

Lynn, M. (2004). Increasing Servers' Tips: What Managers Can Do and Why They Should Do It. *Cornell Hospitality Report*, Vol. 4, No. 5.

Early version of: Lynn, M. (2005). Increasing servers' tips: What managers can do and why they should do it. *Journal of Foodservice Business Research*, 8 (4), 89-98, which is described above. Available at <https://ecommons.cornell.edu/entities/publication/562a5b23-1d94-46c7-aa72-cddfb3b89fd7>

Lynn, M. (2004). Mega Tips: Scientifically Tested Ways to Increase Your Tips. *CHR Tool*.

This CHR Tool provides a narrative review of studies finding that servers can increase their tips if they: (1) Wear something unusual, (2) Introduce yourself by name, (3) Squat next to the table, (4) Repeat customers' orders, (5) Smile at customers, (6) Sell, sell, sell, (8) Touch customers, (9) Entertain customers, (10) Forecast good weather, (11) Write "Thank You" on checks, (12) Draw pictures on the check, (13) Use tip trays with credit card insignia, and (14) Give customers candy. Available at <https://ecommons.cornell.edu/entities/publication/bd2c135b-24df-4c6c-a058-f4715f16df27>

Lynn, M., & McCall, M. (2000b). Beyond gratitude and gratuity: A meta-analytic review of the predictors of restaurant tipping. Unpublished manuscript, Cornell University.

A meta-analysis of 36 restaurant tipping studies found that tips increase with bill size, bill size squared, patronage frequency, the product of bill size and patronage frequency, server attractiveness, customer sex (M), server sex (F), service quality, number of server trips to the table, number of items served, product of patronage frequency and number of server trips, sunshine, after dinner candies, server giving name to customer, server touching customer, server squatting next to the table, customer race (W), payment with credit, presence of credit insignia, and evaluation of meal price. Other predictors examined include alcohol consumption, number of courses served, and separate checks. Server sex, meal-time, and restaurant expensiveness were examined as predictors of effect size heterogeneity. Findings suggest that tipping is predominantly affected by social expectations, server attractiveness, server friendliness and customer mood. Service quality and cost considerations appear to have only weak effects on tipping. Available at <https://ecommons.cornell.edu/entities/publication/57430a62-b47e-479a-9772-9ff7b5c29f9c>

Lynn, M., & Lynn, A. (1990). Frequency of restaurant patronage and compliance with the fifteen percent tipping norm. Unpublished manuscript, University of Houston.

Analyses of an Ohio waitresses' records about 248 weeknight dining parties she served found that regular patrons' tipped more after controlling for bill size than did non-regular patrons ($x = \$.23$ vs $\$ -.03$) and their tips were more dependent on bill size (tip = $\$.08 + 17.6\%$ of bill; $R^2 = .74$) than were the tips of non-regular patrons (tip = $\$.21 + 11.3\%$ of bill; $R^2 = .58$). Adding group size and one vs multiple checks to this model did not significantly improve the prediction of tip amount [incremental $R^2 = .005$; pr 's = .08 and .07; F 's (1,242) = 1.7 and 1.1]. Available upon request to Mike Lynn at wml3@cornell.edu.

Lynn, M. (1983). The Psychology of Restaurant Tipping. Masters Thesis, Dept. of Psychology, Ohio State University, Columbus, OH.

Early version of Lynn, M. & Latane, B. (1984). The psychology of restaurant tipping. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 14, 551563, which is described above. Available at https://etd.ohiolink.edu/acprod/odb_etd/etd/r/1501/10?clear=10&p10_accession_num=osu1250098072