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Consumers Incentivizing Employees, "Let Me Give You a Tip"

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Abstract

This study aims to examine tip predictors in restaurants alongside tip amounts during and post-COVID-19 era. A face-to-face cross-sectional survey was carried out to obtain data from restaurant customers on several tip predictors. A probit model and limited dependent-variable technique are used in verifying the effect of each determinant on tipping behaviors. While examining tip predictors in study 1, results show that good service quality, religious background, education level, income level, financial social status, gender, and the effect of COVID-19 on service quality positively and significantly affect consumers' tipping behaviours. However, results of consumer tip amounts revealed that consumers' monthly income, holidays, weekends, and month ends positively affect consumers' tip amounts. These findings imply that though there are many factors affecting people to tip, tip amounts increase during month end when workers have received their wages, during weekends when people spend more time dining out, and during holidays when family responsibilities such as meeting school needs have reduced. This study is therefore unique as it examines the effect of COVID-19 on consumers' jobs and service quality. Likewise, works are scanty in the context of this study and the theoretical background of consumer tipping behaviours is thus elaborated hereafter.

Keywords Tipping behaviour, tip predictors, restaurant consumers, COVID-19, service quality

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Introduction

Tracing the origin of individual tipping behaviors, it is evident that tipping is a social norm that is intended to motivate the tip receiver. According to Azar (2010), it is a means of compensating for good service quality received by consumers. To Were et al. (2021), it is an incentive to servers for services delivered to consumers. However, tipping patterns and tip amounts in some developed economies such as the USA range from 10 to 20 percent today, with many service workers earning high incomes from tips on a daily basis (Azar, 2020). In Africa, scholarly works on the subject of tipping are scanty, such that particular focus has been given to some African countries, while others are unexploited regarding the tipping phenomenon. For instance, South Africa (Kruger & Saayman, 2016, Saunders & Lynn, 2010), Egypt (Jahan, 2018), Zimbabwe (Charity & Kazembe, 2014), Kenya (Were et al., 2021; Were & Miricho, 2020), and Wung & Nanfosso (2023) in Cameroon. In Africa and the context of this study, slogans such as *"keep the change"* are often heard from consumers in restaurants referring to a tip s/he has offered. However, the main motive behind tipping is due to good services being delivered by service providers to consumers (Saunders & Lynn, 2010, Lynn, 2016). Also, tipping is spurred by the desire to adhere to certain social behaviors and avoid embarrassment from peers and servers if one does not tip (hereafter as stiff) or maintain a certain social status (see Saunders & Lynn, 2010; Azar, 2020). Bluvstein & Raghubir (2021) reveal that tipping is equally influenced by the desire to impress others or show off. Other scholars document how tipping is a good social norm that is credible for expanding business profits and growth. This is because tips are used as a control check mechanism by managers to check service quality delivery in other places (see Azar, 2011; Ben-Zion et al., 1977). That is, when consumers tip, managers attribute such gestures to mean that a consumer is satisfied with service quality. But when consumers stiff, such is understood to be that service quality was poor (Azar, 2011). This study examines most of these tip predictors while including the recent health crisis of COVID-19 and consumers' expectations when they tip to empirically test which factors motivate people to tip (i.e., study 1) and what amount (i.e., study 2) they leave as a tip in restaurants.

This study makes two main contributions; it elaborates the tipping literature into an unexploited African context where little is known about the social norm of tipping, especially in restaurants; second, it follows an empirical strategy that only a few works have attempted i.e., a binary probability strategy to investigate the determinants that motivate people to tip and a limited dependent-variable technique to resolve biases in the sample (Conlisk (2022)). The nuance of using these techniques is that they not only observe the factors that affect consumer tipping behaviors and tip amounts but equally resolve biases in sample selection when part of a sample is observed. Besides, the COVID-19 had tremendous effects on the restaurant industry. For instance, workers became temporally unemployed due to the inadequate ability of some restaurants to upgrade to high standards of service deliveries, and even those that did lay off some workers became cyclically unemployed. Also, the turnover in most restaurants dropped due to a fall in consumers' patronage and this affected business profitability causing entrepreneurs and restaurants to incur high costs. During and after the COVID-19 pandemic, we expected restaurant patrons to drop or completely stop being hospitable by stiffing but Conlisk (2022) and Lynn (2023) found that the likelihood of patrons' tipping instead increased in developed economies. The willingness and ability to tip in an African context especially during and after a crisis such as the COVID-19 pandemic has not been examined. This paper therefore has two main objectives to explore. 1)to empirically examine the factors that influence people to tip in African restaurants, especially during economic hardship, and 2) to empirically investigate the tip amounts consumers are willing and able to offer as tips to restaurant workers. The rest of the paper is structured as follows. Apart from the introductory section, section two is directed toward a brief review of existing

works, section three reveals the methodological framework, and the fourth section looks at the empirical analyses and discussions while terminating with a conclusion, implication, and way forward in section five.

Literature review

Tipping phenomenon rely on theories sourced from sociology, psychology, economics, and anthropology (Wung & Nanfosso, 2023; Saunders & Lynn, 2010; Conlisk, 2022). Ben-Zion et al. (1977) were the first economists to discuss tipping practices in addition to psychologists and sociologists (see Mkono, 2011; Thrane & Haugom, 2020). According to the *Adams Equity theory*, economic agents become very satisfied when they are aware that their relationships with servers are equitable. In the case of tipping, an agent "***A"*** requests the services of another agent "***B"***. Either by requesting food to be served and/or beverages. Agent "***B"***, who is the server delivers good quality services called inputs to agent ***"A".*** On the other hand, agent "***A"*** **(**i.e., the consumer) evaluates the services or attitudes of agent "***B"*** and decides to tip or stiff. Agent ***A's*** action is called output. To Adams (1965), inequality occurs between these agents when one agent's actions outweigh the other. For instance, when agent A leaves a greater amount of tips than the type of services s/he has received. Likewise, A may leave a tip or stiff when service quality is good and this still leads to poor customer-server relationships (Parrett, 2006). Therefore, this theory shows how a server provides input to the consumer and how the consumer evaluates the input and decides to tip when satisfied or stiff when the input is not good enough to deserve a tip. In summary, this theoretical foundation is given as follows:

Inputs [from servers – agent B] → Intermediary [influence on A from B's actions] → Output [tip/stiff] → tip amount

> *H1: Good service quality significantly and positively affects consumers' tipping behaviours i.e., service quality and tips are positively correlated*

One fundamental discourse in the tipping literature is that the act of tipping is not spurred by any form of expectation from the server/service occupation. Patrons that tip do so in expectation of better service in the future while not being given goods on credit in their next return. Moreover, Ben-Zion et al. (1977) and Saunders & Lynn (2010) provide a detailed theoretical argument on how the desire for better future service motivates consumers to tip. However, recent world health crises such as the COVID-19 pandemic, have disrupted the tipping interface. Some hospitality industries were temporarily closed down. People were advised by the Cameroon government and WHO to adhere to social distancing. This made dining out (in restaurants) and interacting or sitting close to each other a tremendous psychological issue. Wearing face masks and constant washing of hands pushed many service occupations to ameliorate their service delivery. Service quality and hygienic methods used by each specific restaurant were emotionally and psychologically questioned in the minds of consumers. People had to judge and consider many factors before visiting any public gathering. In the U.S., Lynn (2023) and Conlisk (2022) found a significantly positive effect of the COVID-19 pandemic on consumers' tipping behaviors during the health crisis. Inversely, to Ravula (2022), the COVID-19 pandemic led to a fall in consumer tipping behaviours in New York City. This caused my restaurant owners to request funding and assistance during post-COVID-19 to bounce back to market realities (Roe & Smith, 2023). The effect of the pandemic on service quality and consumers' income or source of income is missing in the context of a social norm such as tipping. The relationship between consumers and servers was threatened as social distancing, wearing of marks, and frequent washing of hands was obliged. Equity between agents A and B was questionable. Thus, we analyse and observe the effect of COVID-19 in two ways by arguing that the pandemic had two effects on consumers' ability and willingness to tip or stiff. First, consumers were constrained from maintaining social distancing and frequently watching their hands. This effect leads to very neat environments and better hygienic methods of cooking and serving/attending to the needs of consumers. Thus, this ameliorated service quality which might have positively influenced consumers' tipping habits. Second, COVID-19 had an indirect effect on consumer tipping behaviors that could lead to a decrease in tips or a complete stop in tipping. Many jobs and public places were short-down during the COVID-19 pandemic, and the rate of cyclical unemployment increased during this period leading to a decrease in consumer income. A fall in income affected the tipping habit of consumers. Thus, we hypothesize H2a and H2b below:

> *H2a: The COVID-19 negatively affected consumers' income, consequently led to a decrease in restaurant patrons tipping behaviors*
> *H2b: Due to COVID-19 counter-effect measures, service quality was ameliorated positively and significantly affected restaurant patrons tipping behaviors*

According to social presence theory, some social beings are particularly interested in being noticed when they are carrying out certain actions (see the theoretical background of Were et al. (2021a)). For instance, a server may put in more effort when the manager or supervisor is around to be noticed likewise consumers may tip when in the presence of peers/colleagues, family members, or fiancé/fiancée (hereafter as a partner) to maintain a certain social status. Meanwhile, others may openly request or ask for tips or assistance (Roe & Smith, 2023; Ryu et al., 2023). Thrane & Haugom (2020) and Parrett (2006) found these motives valid in the contexts of the taxi and restaurant sector of developed economies. Man's utility does not only end with what s/he consumers but equally the extent to which s/he is known in society. Therefore, the utility function of a consumer extends to people around them, how well and respectful one is known for, and how distinguished s/he is in society before others. This means that the social status and financial well-being of an individual in the eyes of servers and third parties give a

certain satisfaction to that consumer (Greenberg, 2014). Most related works have discussed and empirically tested how consumers in the restaurant industry are mainly tipped because they want to conform to a social norm and avoid embarrassment from others (Saunders & Lynn, 2010). This reveals that tipping is not only grounded in economic theoretical insight but equally in social psychological theories. Thus, people may tip more when others (hereafter as third party) are around and stiff when alone. According to Schwer & Daneshvary (2000), those who tip more in beauty salons are the poor while the likelihood of the rich to tip is low. Artuğer & Çetinsöz (2013) disagreed with Schwer & Daneshvary by empirically revealing that they are those in the rich social class who tips more in high-ranked hotels. This evokes the following assumptions:

H3: The desire to maintain a certain social status with waiters/waitresses by avoiding embarrassment (social approval) positively and significantly influences restaurant patrons to increase their tip amounts
H4a: Those in the rich social class have a positive and significant ability to tip more in restaurants
H4b: Those in the poor social class have the ability to reduce their tip amounts in restaurants

Lynn & Katz (2013) examine the effect of religion on consumers tipping behaviours and conclude that Christians are less likely to tip compared to non-Christians who tip more and Parrett (2006) experimented with the degree of tipping between males and females and found that male consumers in restaurants tend to tip more than female clients. Thus, the willingness and ability to tip is one aspect of tipping scenarios but the amount given as a tip is another dimension neglected by many scholarly works. Moreover, Lynn (2016) empirically found that black consumers tip less than white consumers in the restaurant industry in the U.S. However, this racial factor is argued and proven wrong by Saayman (2014) in that tipping is not a well-known phenomenon for blacks – Africans – and still requires adequate pluralization. To this author, blacks may tip less than whites because their income levels are far below that of whites and because they are discriminated against in service delivery in the context of Lynn (2016) analyses. This means that tipping determinants actually depend/vary on the context in which they are being observed. Nonetheless, we analysed this determinant in terms of ethnicity (English or French speaking) given the bilingual nature of the study context and in terms of nationality (national or foreign). In hospitality experiences, Were et al. (2021) found no relationship between tipping and hospitality exposure, i.e., between traveling and exposure to tipping behaviors in other countries. These authors clearly prove that man's religious affiliation triggers them to tip or not most often. In tipping – religiosity – Palmer & Brian's (2013) investigations are often referred to, and Pastor Alois Bell's perceptions are referenced. This pastor was seen as cancelling out 18% of the tips on a restaurant menu. After thorough consideration, this Pastor questioned why he should offer 10% as a title to God and 18% in a restaurant. For him, consumers should pay any amount or percentage less than 10% as tips. In addition, the method of tip calculation and its mechanism of action remain unclear and not universal. Truthfully, consumer religion, Islam, Buddhism, Christianity, etc., have been neglected in most tipping literature and are rarely spoken. This indicator was used in this study to better explain its contributions to tipping scenes. Hence, for the purpose of this study, we hypothesize the following:

H5: A consumers' religious background positively and significantly influences his/her tipping behaviour
H6: Restaurants clients tipping behaviors are influenced by certain future expectations such as better future treatments

Methodology

A descriptive correlation design was used as proposed by Were et al. (2021b) since it yields accurate information on the study parameters. Data collection took place over a four-month period, from 8th January to 24th April 2023, in well renounced, popular, classic and local restaurants in Cameroon. A convenient sampling technique was used to make statistical inferences about the study population with accurate findings. This technique was deemed necessary because the sampling was performed face-to-face, and the legal permission of the restaurant managers was solicited to administer the questionnaire to the customers. As a filtering strategy, only consumers who had completed a meal or consumption of beverages within a restaurant were considered for the survey. Restaurants whose managers rejected the survey were immediately replaced with those who agreed. Thus, the drop-off-pick-up technique was better exploited. But the restaurants were randomized. The survey items were sourced from existing works (Artuğer & Çetinsöz, 2013; Azar, 2020; Conlisk, 2022; Greenberg, 2014; Jahan, 2018; Wung & Nanfosso, 2023; Lynn, 2023; Saunders & Lynn, 2010). The first section of the questionnaire was made of tipping predictors measured on a five-point Likert scale of 1-strongly disagree to 5-strongly agree. Service quality was measured with a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1- very poor to 5- very good. The second part captured the amount tipped by consumers and some socioeconomic and demographic characteristics of respondents such as gender, monthly income, and social class. The appendix indicates how each measure was constructed. Using Fisher's (1935) formula for sample size calculation, we obtained 1361 respondents, which makes the accuracy of the data strong enough for econometric and statistical analysis. This sample was observed in two ways regarding the objectives of the paper i.e., for study 1 and study 2.

Study 1: Tip predictors and measurements

To evaluate the tipping behaviors of restaurants patrons, they were asked the question; *"have you tipped the waiter/waitress?"* This means that in study 1, both those who said they tip and those who stiff (making use of all 1361 sample) were included in the analyses. This made the dependent variable (i.e., tip) to be binary (1=yes and 0=no). Due to the binary nature of this indicator, Bliss (1934), Jahan (2018) and Wooldridge (2015) proposed a binary response model susceptible of analysing the tip

behaviours of consumers i.e., the univariate probit model. Thus, equation 1 is used to examine the tipping behaviours of restaurants patron

$$Tip_i = \lambda_0 + \lambda_{ij} SQ_{ij} + \lambda_{ij} SA_{ij} + \lambda_{ij} ER_{ij} + \lambda_{ij} RB_{ij} + \lambda_{ij} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \omega_{ij} + \theta_{ij} \quad (1)$$

This model is suitable since it assumes that conditional probabilities are linear in parameters. Four main categories of interest variables exist i.e., service quality (SQ), social approval (SA), expected return (ER) and religious background (RB) are examined following the algorithm proposed by Mitchell (2020) and presented at the appendix. $\sum_{j=1}^{n} \omega_{ij}$ denotes the controls included in the estimations, and θ_{ij} is the error term coefficient. The results gotten from the estimations of equation (1) are presented in Table 2.

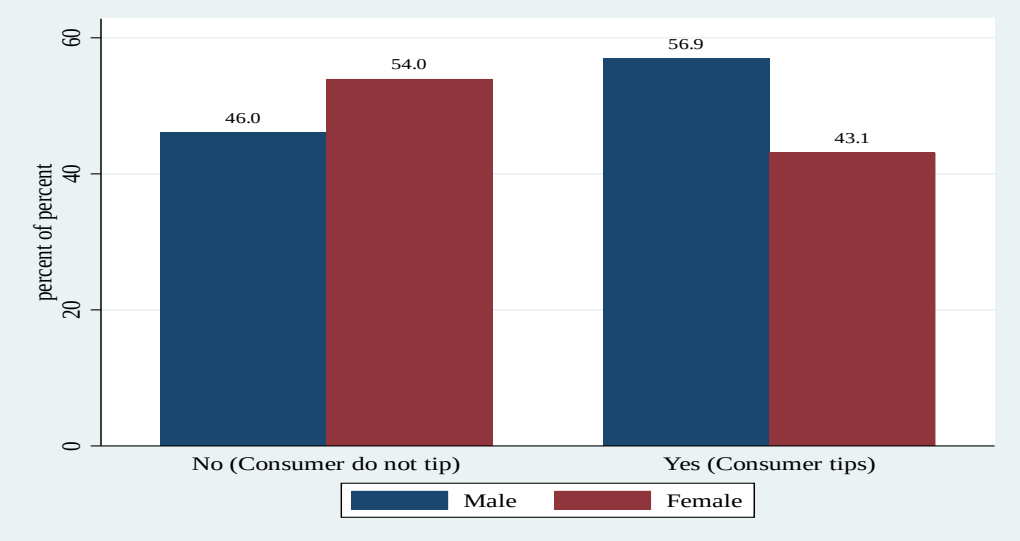

Figure 1: Consumer tipping behaviours in restaurants

Study 2: Restaurant patron tip amounts

Since study 1 aimed at realizing the first objective, study 2 is aimed at investigating the tip amounts of those who tip. This means that consumers who responded "*no*" to the question of *"have you tipped the waiter/waitress?"* were exempted from the second study. Therefore, only those who leave a non-zero tip were analysed in this second study and according to descriptive statistics, the sample size used is 696 restaurant patrons. According to Schwer & Daneshvary (2000) working solely on those who tip creates a sample bias and the best modelling approach to correct such biases is by making use of a limited dependent-variable technique called Truncated Tobit. The dependent variable here is the tip amount which is continuous in nature. Hence, we propose a linear equation (2) which is tested and presented in Table 3.

$$Tip\ amount_i = \beta_0 + \beta_{ij} \sum_{j=1}^{n} X_{ij} + \varepsilon_{ij} \quad (2)$$

where β_0 is the constant term, $\sum_{j=1}^{n} X_{ij}$ is the sum of all predictors that affect consumers' tip amounts such as the period of time they tip, who they tip, third party presence, income level, social class, COVID-19 among others. ε_{ij} is the error margin and β_{ij} denote the coefficients of the parameters under study. Figure 1 represents the statistics of those who tip and those who stiff with respect to gender.

Results and discussion

Data description

In describing the sample, we realize that the works of Parrett (2006) and Wung & Nanfosso (2023) were accurate. There are more male consumers than female consumers in restaurants. Approximately 57% of the male participants against a 43% of the female participants agreed tipping (see Table 1). Whereas, 54% of the female population against a 46% of the male sample reported that they do not tip. Similarly, there is a symmetrically negative but strong relation between tipping and a few major variables. First, we explore the relationship between consumers' expectations of tipping and their actual tipping behaviour. This means that consumers have a mixed/despaired ideology on whether or not they tip because they expect better service qualities from servers. Second, there is a negative difference in tipping habits in restaurants between nationals and non-nationals of Cameroon according to the descriptive statistics. This is seen at the level of a highly large negatively skewed value (6.09). Nonetheless, statistics show that, regarding the financial social status of consumers, tipping is less prevalent within poor social groups. These results strongly contradict the findings of Schwer & Daneshvary (2000), who found that tipping is more likely to occur between consumers with low incomes in the beauty salon industry. Briefly, other variables in these descriptions have a normal skewedness with high kurtoses, as shown in Table 1. One other narrative to make about this statistical section is that two independent variables are observed; first, the willingness to tip/not is analysed, and the mean and standard deviations are clustered around each other ($\bar{X}$ = 0.517 and $\sigma = 0.5$). These analyses were possible with a univariate probability model, as presented in the subsequent section. Second, we examine the willingness and ability of consumers to tip with the amount that

they leave as a tip. This meant that those who did not tip were not included in the second part of the analyses. The statistical results show that 696 consumers actually leave a nonzero tip amount in restaurants, with the mean and standard deviation equally closely clustered around each other—no great disparities ($\bar{X}$ = 703.4 and $\sigma = 910.0$). This means that, within the sample of consumers who tip, the mean value is approximately 700FRCFA (approximately 1.15 USD as at the time of data collection).

Table 1: Definitions and descriptions of study variables

Variables	N(Obs)	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max	Skewedness	kurtosis
TIP	1361	0.517	0.500	0[no]	1[yes]	-0.066	1.004
Tip amount	696	703.4	910.0	50	10000	5.606	47.462
Service quality	1361	53.051	8.066	1[very poor]	5[very good]	-0.498	3.364
Social approval	1361	26.613	6.813	0	5.02	-0.110	2.291
Expected returns	1361	19.244	3.577	0	2.44	-0.635	3.266
Religious background	1361	30.622	6.046	0	6.54	-0.714	3.182
Effect of COVID-19 on SQ	1361	0.464	0.499	0[no]	1[yes]	0.146	1.021
Effect of COVI-19 on YT	1361	0.245	0.430	0[no]	1[yes]	1.183	2.400
Gender (male)	1361	0.517	0.500	0[female]	1[male]	-0.066	1.004
Never schooled	1361	0.512	0.500	0[no]	1[yes]	-0.049	1.002
Primary Education	1361	0.046	0.210	0[no]	1[yes]	4.319	19.652
Secondary Education	1361	0.056	0.230	0[no]	1[yes]	3.869	15.967
Higher Education	1361	0.046	0.210	0[no]	1[yes]	4.319	19.652
Unemployed	461	0.362	0.481	0[no]	1[yes]	.573	1.329
Student/Apprentice	461	0.356	0.479	0[no]	1[yes]	.603	1.363
Employed	461	0.282	0.450	0[no]	1[yes]	.969	1.939
Christian	1361	0.721	0.449	0[no]	1[yes]	-.984	1.969
Muslim	1361	0.159	0.366	0[no]	1[yes]	-1.84	0.690
Income	1361	1.050	0.583	0	1.946	-0.501	2.332
Social class (Rich)	1361	0.204	0.403	0[no]	1[yes]	1.467	3.152
Social class (Average)	1361	0.204	0.403	0[no]	1[yes]	1.467	3.152
Social class (Poor)	1361	0.583	0.493	0[no]	1[yes]	-0.335	1.112
Origin (National)	1361	0.975	0.156	0[no]	1[yes]	-6.087	38.055

Note: - SQ; service quality, YT; income and tip.

The minimum and maximum tip amounts declared by consumers are between 50FCFA (0.082 USD) and 10000FCFA (16.46USD). All other variables remain coherent with the previous declarations of closely clustered means and standard deviations throughout the analyses, as shown in Table 1. Second, we examine the willingness and ability of consumers tipping alongside the amount that they leave as a tip. The statistical results show that 696 consumers actually leave a nonzero tip amount in restaurants, with the mean and standard deviation equally closely clustered around each other—no great disparities ($\bar{X}$ = 703.4 and $\sigma = 910.0$). This means that, within the sample of consumers who tip, the mean value is approximately 700FRCFA(1.15USD). The minimum and maximum tip amounts declared by consumers are between 50FCFA (0.82USD) and 10000FCFA (16.46USD). All the other variables remain coherent with the previous declarations of closely clustered means and standard deviations throughout the analyses.

Study 1 results and discussion: factors influencing consumers' tipping behaviors

A symmetric analysis of restaurants showed that restaurant patrons' tipping behaviors are influenced by several factors, as seen in Table 2 below.

Table 2: Contextualized factors influencing restaurant tipping

Variables	Dependent variable: Tip				
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Service quality	0.008(0.002)***	0.005(0.002)***			
Social approval	-0.002(0.002)		0.002(0.002)		
Expected returns	-0.013(0.005)***			-0.002(0.004)	
Religious background	0.006(0.003)**				0.004(0.002)*
Gender (ref. female)		0.080(0.028)***	0.083(0.028)***	0.085(0.028)***	0.082(0.027)***
Higher education (ref. secondary)		0.128(0.029)***	0.124(0.029)***	0.122(0.028)***	0.128(0.028)***
Not been to school (ref. secondary)		0.106(0.059)*	0.101(0.060)*	0.103(0.060)*	0.102(0.060)*
Monthly income		0.032(0.025)	0.028(0.025)	0.028(0.025)	0.028(0.025)
Rich social class (ref. average)		0.139(0.035)***	0.142(0.034)***	0.145(0.034)***	0.144(0.035)***
Poor social class (ref. average)		-0.059(0.036)*	-0.064(0.036)*	-0.067(0.035)*	-0.054(0.036)
Effect of COVID-19 on SQ		0.173(0.029)***	0.169(0.029)***	0.172(0.029)***	0.171(0.029)***
Effect of COVI-19 on YT		-0.141(0.036)***	-0.154(0.036)***	-0.156(0.036)***	-0.150(0.036)***
Religion (ref. non-Christian)		0.0788(0.032)**	0.073(0.032)**	0.068(0.032)**	0.073(0.032)**
French native (ref. English)		-0.110(0.032)***	-0.120(0.031)***	-0.123(0.031)***	-0.109(0.032)***
Foreigner (ref. Cameroonian)		-0.185(0.084)**	-0.192(0.082)**	-0.196(0.081)**	-0.199(0.080)**
Observations	1,361	1,361	1,361	1,361	1,361
ll	-899.6	-833.7	-836.6	-837.1	-835.5
ll_0	-911.6	-911.6	-911.6	-911.6	-911.6
df_m	0.0132	0.0855	0.0823	0.0817	0.0834
chi2	24.04	155.8	150.0	149.0	152.1
r2_p	-899.6	-833.7	-836.6	-837.1	-835.5
pbar	0.608	0.608	0.608	0.608	0.608
xbar	0.277	0.308	0.307	0.307	0.307

Note: - Standard errors in parentheses, *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1 stands for significant levels of 1%, 5% and 10% respectively, SQ is service quality and YT is income and tips.

First, service quality remains a very strong determinant of individual tipping behaviors, as a 0.8% change in the service quality offered positively affects tipping behaviors (i.e., H1 affirmed). Similarly, the results show that people's tipping is not based on keeping or gaining social approval from tippees (tip receivers) or any third party (i.e., H3 negated). This is demonstrated in Table 2, as social approval reduces tip behaviors but not significantly. Here, there is a very weak contribution of social approval to tipping behaviour, as a percent change in people's perspective on tipping to maintain social approval reduces tipping by 0.02

points. Likewise, individuals tipping because they expected certain actions from servers, service occupation and/or the third party had a negatively significant effect on tipping behaviors. As shown in Table 2, if people's expectations change by a percentage, they will have a 1.3% effect on tipping behaviors. The results show that a percentage change will lead to a 1.3% drop in tipping behaviors if individuals' expectations change by a percentage (H5 negated). Religious background equally indicates strong correlations and impacts on individual tipping behaviors (H6 affirmed). As an individual's religious background (faith) increases by a percentage, his/her tipping habit equally increases by 0.6 points. These results are the same as the findings of Parrett (2006) and Lynn (2016), who noted that an individual's religion plays a great role in tipping habits. Interestingly, as a customer's social class group changes, his/her tipping also changes. In the case of rich and poor people, rich people tend to tip more than poor people in restaurants. A percentage of the changes in service quality, social approval, expected returns, and religious background in the rich social class group will lead to 13.90%, 14.20%, 14.50%, and 14.4%, respectively, probability changes in tipping behaviors. This aligns with Parrett (2006) in that men tip more than women do, while female servers receive tips more than men do. However, Schwer & Daneshvary (2000) shows that people with low incomes tend to tip more than people in a high-income group.

Study 2 results and discussions: consumer tip amounts

Previous works have shown that the socioeconomic and demographic characteristics of an individual influence his/her tip size (Jahan, 2018). Table 3 consistently shows that the amount tip by male consumers decreases across each model employed. Similarly, it is evident that people tip more during ordinary days (daily basis) and especially during holidays. Results demonstrate that tip amounts increase at a positive and statistically significant level daily compared to holiday amounts. Looking at the Tobit truncation estimations in Table 3, we realize a positive increase in individual tip amounts with little variation in significance during holidays. This finding is consistent with the findings of Greenberg (2014) about tipping newspaper boys during holidays. Just as Cunningham (1979) and Flynn & Greenberg (2012) empirically tested consumer tipping behaviors regarding situational factors such as weather, rainy or sunny days, consumer/server moods, and peer behaviors, our restaurant analysis focused on a few situational factors. As such, a fall in consumer income caused by the COVID-19 outbreak negatively affects the amount tipped by consumers in restaurants (i.e., H2a affirmed). This means that, due to the outbreak of COVID-19, several scenarios can be put forth that led to a decrease in consumer tip amounts. However, these findings align with those of Ravula (2022), who had earlier documented that COVID-19 has a negative effect on consumer tipping behaviors in New York City. Conversely, Table 3 shows that the effect of COVID-19 on service quality in restaurant increases clients' tips (i.e., affirming H2b) due to better hygienic quality services during the pandemic. This means that, due to the outbreak of COVID-19, individual tipping behaviors increased at a significant standard of 4.6, affirming that people tip more when service quality is good and satisfactory (Ben-Zion et al., 1977; Hoaas & Bigler, 2012; Lynn & Sturman, 2010). The statement that during the COVID-19 pandemic, service quality was good is due to several factors; for instance, during the COVID-19 pandemic, better hygienic measures were taken not only by the state to keep everywhere clean but also by managers of service occupations such as restaurants. Also, during this period, they were social distancing, and crowding and noise were limited in public places.

Table 3: Restaurant tip amounts

Variables	Dependent Variable : Restaurant Tip Amount		
	Lower Limit	Upper Limit	Both Limits
	(1)	(2)	(3)
Gender (Male)	-32.31(25.14)	-1.021(0.540)*	-15.65(4.317)***
Monthly Income	-7.257(29.44)	1.437(0.534)***	21.70(2.902)***
When client tip most (seasons)			
Ordinary day	53.96(25.56)**	2.010(0.624)***	40.97(4.967)***
Holidays	-18.70(52.17)	1.258(0.916)	16.31(3.822)***
Month end	-26.11(31.00)	-0.422(0.655)	-7.726(5.037)
Week end	-21.85(29.15)	-0.141(0.633)	0.795(4.531)
Yearly	-1,073(0.012)	-0.947(2.382)	-58.31(5.658)***
During football games	-55.54(34.87)	0.313(0.699)	3.382(5.173)
Financial social class			
Rich	43.79(32.97)	-0.808(0.663)	-8.850(5.627)
Poor	-87.66(48.30)*	-1.455(0.762)*	-27.09(4.066)***
Those tipped			
Familiar servers	-71.55(40.92)*	0.628(0.901)	15.65(5.840)***
Unfamiliar servers	-55.55(41.59)	-0.139(1.037)	0.911(6.415)
Effect of COVID-19			
On service quality	-1.779(29.06)	1.312(0.628)**	26.85(4.570)***
On income and tip amount	-9.293(25.86)	0.526(0.607)	-0.999(3.752)
Non-COVID-19 effect on Service quality	-113.7(55.12)**	-1.617(0.682)**	-14.07(4.933)***
Presence of third parties			
Friends and/or Colleagues	-19.53(2,331)	21.13(56.33)	-78.71(307.4)**
Husband/Wife, Fiancé(e)	44.52(4,479)	33.79(86.84)***	39.14(1.077)***
Origin			
Foreigner	-700.6(648.7)	-0.877(3.851)	-28.53(9.777)***
French Native of Cameroon	-81.49(39.02)**	0.0498(0.591)	15.77(4.883)***
Sigma(σ)	4,250(671.8)***	647.0(18.23)***	2,441(54.92)***
Constant	57.67(9,428)	40.63(159.0)**	-16,216(1,238)***
Observations	628	630	467
chi2	—	70.66	1496***

Note: - Standard errors in parentheses, *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1 stands for 1%, 5% and 10% significant levels respectively.

These measures made the restaurant environment clean and quiet enough for consumers to quickly evaluate services, hence tipping more than otherwise (Ben-Zion et al., 1977; Lynn & Sturman, 2010; Hoaas & Bigler, 2012). Similarly, we measure the

effect of the presence of third parties tipping behaviours and tippers' tip amounts. The results show that consumers' tip amounts will increase if s/he is with a partner—husband, wife, fiancée, and/or fiancé—than when s/he is with colleagues or alone in restaurants. These findings are similar to those of Cunningham (1979), Flynn & Greenberg (2012), and Thrane & Haugom (2020) on situational factors that increase consumer tips, especially peer pressure. People tend to be more generous in the presence of others to be called generous people and/or to maintain a certain social status. Thus, prolonging the social presence and social psychological theories. As emphasized by Thrane & Haugom (2020), when comparing tip amounts across studies and countries and since consumers pay tips with actual monetary amounts, percentages may be faulty; thus, the use of actual tip amounts must be regressed with the independent variables. From the results of Table 3, H4a is not validated as the rich tip amounts are not significant across all models compared to the average income class. Thus, disagreeing with the findings of Artuğer & Çetinsöz (2013) that the rich tip more than the poor. However, H4b is validated as there is a significantly negative amount of 27.07 FRS in the poor's tip amounts compared to those in the average class. This means that the poor tend to reduce their tip amounts in restaurants and this may be attributed to economic hardship and financial difficulties. Thus, such findings do not align with those of Schwer & Daneshvary (2000) that the poor tip more than the rich. But rather, this study adheres to the fact that those who tip more are the average income earners.

Implications and conclusion

Human behaviors illuminate considerable memories in the minds of others. Why people behave in the way that they do, especially in terms of their consumption strategies, by spending beyond what they have planned is questionable. Tipping is a human behavior that has not received adequate attention in developing economies, especially in the context of this study. Relying on and inspired by varied theoretical backgrounds drawn from psychology, sociology, anthropology, and behavioural economics, theories of reciprocity, equity, social psychological theory and social presence theory, this study strengthens the theoretical background on understanding hospitality in the restaurant context of a developing country (see Adams (1965), Wung & Nanfosso (2023), Saunders & Lynn (2010), Conlisk (2022), Were et al.(2021a). We found that, consumer tipping behaviours are affected by good service quality, religious background, and financial status, the outbreak of events such as the COVID-19, and their level of education. Meanwhile, consumers' tip amounts are mainly influenced by; monthly income, when they tip during ordinary days and holiday periods, when they tip familiar waiter/waitresses than unfamiliar once, and certain shocks such as the effect of COVID-19 on service quality. Equally, when consumers tip while in the presence of their fiancé(e) and wife/husband, their tip amounts increase compared to when they are alone. The theoretical implication of this study therefore lies in its ability to observe the willingness and ability of patrons tipping behaviors in restaurants. It equally elongates the tipping literature to an African context where little is known and scholarly documented about tipping. Practically, the implication of the study is grounded on several aspects: first, it paves a way for practitioners and policy leaders to understand the positive and negative effects of COVID-19 on the restaurant sector and consumers as a whole. Thus, consumers' ability to continue tipping during and after the pandemic assisted restaurant workers financially while creating a friendly hospitality environment for consumers.

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