

SAVING A DOG'S LIFE OVER A REFUGEE – THE CHARITY MARKETING FLAW

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ABSTRACT

There is a reported decrease in public interest and engagement in charity work, with many academics blaming the use of charity appeals that use the emotions guilt and pity to drive donations. Even though the approach is heavily criticized, this technique is still prominent in advertisements. With UK citizens being statistically more likely to donate to save a dog's life over a refugee's life, understanding how emotions may impact charitable giving may help non-profits in their marketing appeals for this important social issue. Consequently, this study examines the underlying motivations of individuals to engage in public service motivated acts through public service motivation theory (PSM) in order to impact charitable donations. Furthermore, we draw upon emotions of hope and happiness to see if it will influence the relation. Using a vignette survey based on Stanford's 1997 public good game experiment, 328 respondents had the option to spend money on a dog rescue charity, a Syrian refugee charity and then decide amongst the two which to donate to. The study found a positive relation between PSM and monetary giving. However, the relations differed with individual PSM dimensions were taken into account across the two beneficiaries. Furthermore, when emotions were included in the moderation tests, results were contrary to what was expected. These findings suggest non-profit marketers target audiences with high levels of PSM, but that hope and happiness may not be effective emotions to generate donations.

KEY WORDS

Public Service Motivation, Charitable Giving, Emotions, Hope, Happiness

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INTRODUCTION

Charities Aid Foundation (2017) reported that UK citizens are statistically more likely to donate to save a dog's life over a refugee's life. In the past, charities such as Syrian Refugee non-profits has focused on using pity in their marketing to drive donations (Hudson et al. 2015). While numerous academics criticizing the use of shocking and upsetting images, many charities continue to follow this approach (Pewes and Stuart 2007; Cameron and Haanstra 2008; Choulirarki 2006). Negative emotional marketing can severely harm the public view of the situation (Hudson et al. 2015) and have the potential to dishearten the audience thus decreasing the number of donations that individuals give in the future (Tallon and McGregor; Seu and Orgad 2017). Hudson et al. (2015) compared traditional pity-based charity campaign to one which produced feelings of hope and happiness. Findings suggest positive campaigns can improve viewer's perception on the situation and increase the likelihood viewers will donate again. However, it is unclear how positive emotions impact an individual's motivations to donate.

Prior to exploring how emotions may influence potential donors, it is important to first understand the relation between motivations and charitable giving. While there are many volunteer studies that explore understanding motivations such as policy motivation, affiliation to the cause, characteristics of the beneficiary organization, influencing others and personal rewards (Mainardes et al 2017), this study seeks to understand if the beneficiary itself impacts motivation to donate. Public Service Motivation theory (PSM) measures the rational, normative and affective motivations to engage in service that helps others and society (Perry and Hondeghem, 2008). PSM studies have been linked to charitable giving and volunteering (Houston 2006; Piatek 2016). Belle's (2013) study paved the way in showing a significant relation between contact with human beneficiaries and behavior by public service motivated individuals. Esteve et al. (2016) found evidence linking PSM to prosocial behavior such as donating funds when they conducted a public goods game where certain control groups knew the beneficiaries. PSM studies have also found evidence connecting individuals with high levels of emotionality, empathy and help-seeking) (van Witteloostuijn et al. 2017). This could indicate positive emotions may be prominent amongst public service motivated individuals.

Therefore, this study examines the question if volunteer motivations differs when donations to animals (dogs) opposed to humans (refugees). By understanding the different motivational drivers, we contribute twofold to literature. First, this research further expands Coursey et al.'s (2011) study that sought to understand how PSM would influence volunteering in different domains such as human services, education and religion. Secondly, we begin the academic conversation about how different motivations relate to beneficiaries. Esteve et al. (2015) investigated the PSM impact on monetary donations, looking into how levels of PSM impacted an individual's willingness to donate to dog charities. However, the study used mostly students as a participant, whereas, this study suggests observing the UK population as a whole. While Belle (2013) did look at how PSM impacted the relationship of Italian nurses when they had met the human beneficiary, it is entirely possible that motivations can be different when the beneficiaries are not human. Secondly, by addressing how emotions may impact the relation between motivation and charitable giving, we are able to answer Hudson et al.'s (2015) call for further research into emotions. This study provides empirical evidence about how non-profits can use the emotions hope and happiness in their advertisements. A multitude of scholarly academics have looked into how negative emotions such as guilt and pity influence fundraising (e.g. Basil et al. 2006; Huber et al. 2010), but we focus instead on positive emotions. Furthermore, this study is relevant to practitioner because it provides non-profit marketing managers a better understanding of how to utilize individual motivations to donate in order to tailor donation appeals. The findings of this study has the potential to increase the success of a donation appeal in an increasingly competitive sector. Considering how different characteristics and emotions, such as hope and happiness, impact this behavior, non-profits can gain a deeper understanding of the audience the donation appeal should be targeting.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Charitable Giving

Charitable giving is the act of giving money, time or items of value to a charitable organization – the behavior enhances the welfare of those in need by providing aid or benefit with little or no reward in return (Bendapudi et al. 1996). Although charitable giving takes many forms, the following study will focus purely on monetary donations to charities.

In 2015, research showed that in the UK, donating to children and young people's charities was the most popular choice of cause, overtaking donations to medical research– the most popular cause in 2014 (UK Civil Society Almanac 2017). The same research found women are more likely to donate over men, with 43% of women reporting they had donated in the past 12 months in comparison to 38% of men. However, the study found that men are likely to donate in more significant quantities than women. Charities Aid Foundation (2016) found that individuals age 45-64 were most likely to donate to charity. Additionally, this age group was the most likely to donate to animals and overseas charities with animal charities were the 3rd most popular cause to donate to in 2015 (Charities Aid Foundation 2016). YouGov (2018) further replicated this finding amongst females age 40-54. Even though UK individuals were more likely to donate to animal charities over overseas aid charities- overseas aid charities receive the second highest average donation amount, at an average of £22 per donation (Charities Aid Foundation 2016). This highlights a discrepancy between the level of donation and value of donations received by either cause.

In 2015, 11% of all UK donations were to overseas aid and disaster relief which included funding schools in India, earthquake aid in Haiti and medical aid in Syria and 8% of all donations went to animal charities (Charities Aid Foundation 2016). While at first glance, it appears that overseas aid received 3% more income than animal charities; however, this category includes a huge range of charities, different causes and disasters. Although a more significant percentage of income was received by overseas aid and disaster relief, animals are a significantly more popular cause to donate thus raising the issue that UK individuals are statistically more likely to donate to save a dog's life over refugees.

Some scholars might argue that individuals who are empathic opposed to those with avoidant attachment (discomfort at getting closer to others) would be more likely to donate, but Richman et al. (2015) found that individuals with avoidant attachment tendencies did not affect whether one donated to charities that benefited humans or animals. This suggests that there are motives beside empathy that may impact charitable behaviors.

Public Service Motivation

PSM is defined as those motives and actions that are “intended to do good for others and shape the well-being of society” (Perry and Hondeghem 2008, p. 3). Perry (1996) states PSM consists of three motives: rational, norm-based and affective which are underpinned by six dimensions. Rational motives are individual utility goals which may be based on personal identification and could include a drive to influence and participate in public policy making (Breitsohl and Ruhle 2017). For example, those driven by rational motives may be more inclined to seek out opportunities to facilitate change. Norm-based motives describe concern for social equity and sense of duty toward the public's interest and the government (Mann 2006). Those driven by norm-based motives may be more likely to start petitions and demand action by the government. Norm-based motives consist of dimensions: social justice, commitment to public interest and civic duty. Lastly, affective motives refer to the willingness to aid others and often include empathy and prosocial desire (Taylor 2007). Those driven by affective motives could be more inclined to volunteer to help the elderly or the sick (Costello et al. 2017).

Multiple researchers have found a significant relation between an individual's level of PSM and the amount of time they spent volunteering (e.g. Clerkin et al. 2009; Coursey et al. 2011; Walton et al. 2015; Lee and Brudney 2015; Lee and Jeong 2015; Piatak 2016; Clerkin and Fotheringham 2017). Those with high levels of PSM act on a commitment to public good rather than self-interest (Walton et al. 2015). Individuals with high levels of PSM are often portrayed as having a calling or sense of duty (Pattakos 2004; Perry 1996). Thus, it is not surprising studies have found that those with high levels of PSM are more likely to volunteer and are found in higher numbers in Government and non-profit work (Clerkin et al. 2009; Esteve et al. 2015). While there are limited amounts of research on PSM directly impacting monetary donations, Houston (2006), Esteve et al. (2015) and Piatek

(2016) found evidence linking PSM to monetary donations. Given the empirical evidence presented above it is suggested that if one is willing to volunteer their time that they might equally be willing to volunteer other assets such as money.

H1- Public Service Motivation will lead to charitable giving.

Some scholars suggest that the PSM dimensions may also play a significant role in further understanding motives to donate or volunteer (Costello et al. 2017). When one looks at PSM studies at a dimensional level, there were varying degrees of insights. Studies have found that middle-aged women (Anderfuhren-Biget 2012) and those growing up in religious households (Charbonneau and Van Ryzin 2016) typically score highest in compassion. Lee and Brudney (2015) found self-sacrifice significantly related to volunteering amongst individuals who worked for non-profit organizations. And, Clerkin and Fotheringham (2017) found civic duty and self-sacrifice were related to formal volunteering, while compassion was significantly related to informal volunteering. With a varying degree of difference amongst the studies, it is suggested to explore how each of the dimensions may lead to different insights.

H2- Different Public Service Motivation dimensions will lead to charitable giving.

Emotions

Hope

Snyder et al. (1991) defines hope as a state of motivational positivity that derives a sense success. Hudson et al. (2016) found that creating a positive campaign which generates the emotion hope increases the audience's likeliness to donate. Hope and lack of hope in charitable campaigns can have a significant impact on the viewers desire to learn more about a particular issue. Indeed, Plewes and Stuart (2007) discovered that charity campaigns which make an individual feel negative emotion such as sadness and guilt, triggers a sense of hopelessness and shut off a viewer's desires to help. Charity organizations have attempted to move away from 'negative' appeals in the past (Chouliaraki 2006; Dogra 2012). Creating a positive campaign which generates feelings of hope may not be enough. Harrison (2010) postulates a hopefully image in a campaign can still contribute to the absence of the voice of the people living in the developing world. Positive campaigns can continue to empathize the difference between north and south, othering the beneficiaries, often across racial lines (Harrison 2010; Dogra 2012). The use of hope within a charity campaign needs to be constructed with caution to ensure not to include the harmful portrayal that negative campaigns have been criticized for (Manzo 2008; Dogra 2012).

However, it is not just a matter of the campaign using messages of hope to influence charitable giving. Some scholars suggest that if an individual is already hopeful, that it will help them overcome their own emotional burdens by making donations (Jensen 2015). Indeed, when it came to making donations such as organs, Walker and Sque (2016) suggest that when donors have a sense of hope that it can balance feelings of despair. This positivity is not limited to the immediate future though. Baumsteiger (2017) conducted an experiment which asked participants to write either present time or the future and discovered that hopeful individuals who wrote about the future also reported a higher likelihood of volunteering if asked. This suggested that asking hopeful individuals to imagine a positive future could influence charitable giving. PSM studies suggest that the affective motives are ground in emotion (Brewer et al. 2000). Therefore, the individual's sense of hope may strengthen the relation between their motivation and charitable giving.

H3- Hope moderates the relation between Public Service Motivation and charitable giving

Happiness

Veenhoven (2017, p.13) defined happiness as "degree to which a person enjoys his or her present life-as-a-whole". However, he argues that it further consists of inner qualities such as the enjoyment of life and life ability of a person and outer qualities such as the livability of environment and usefulness of life. This suggests that while the individual may have control of internal factors that they may view outer qualities as dependent on chance and how life turned out. Studies that focus on happiness as enjoyment have proven that they are strongly linked with generosity and donating (Aknin et al. 2013).

Generosity is said to have the potential to increase life satisfaction (Chancellor et al. 2018). Giving and donating has been suggested to increase an individual a sense of moral satisfaction (Kahneman and Knetsch, 1992). Akinin et al. (2011) suggests that the level of happiness people reap from pro-social spending depends on the level of intimacy and the strength of the relationship the giver and receiver have. Their study found that those who gave to close family or friends reaped higher levels of happiness in comparison to those who gave to associates. This suggests that donating to a stranger in another country may not give the individual the positive rewards in which donation to a close family member would.

In addition to generosity producing happiness, happy people are more likely to donate (Anik et al. 2009). Wang and Graddy (2008) note that this is likely a result of happy people being more capable emotionally of helping others and fostering charitable giving due to holding more optimistic personalities. van Witteloostuijn et al. (2017) suggests that individuals who have personalities that are agreeable and are calm are more likely to engage in helping behavior. While there is a distinct difference between being easy-going and calm, it could be a proxy for happiness as the latter is often related to being easy going opposed to other core personality traits. Together these arguments lead to the following:

H4 – Happiness moderates the relation between Public Service Motivation and charitable giving.

Based on literature review the conceptual model is depicted in Figure 1.

[Insert Figure 1 here]

METHODS

To test our hypothesis, a quasi-experimental, vignette web-based survey was sent out in 2018 to an eclectic assortment of 54 UK based Facebook groups ranging from UK Ancient Cathedrals, Churches, Abbeys and Priors to Skint mums need funds (preloved UK selling). These groups were targeted due to the variety of active interest and hobbies. This was done with the intention of having a broad range of UK participants from different socio-economic backgrounds and age groups participating in the study. Out of the 54 groups, 19 groups core focus was on refugees, and 11 group's core focus were dogs. This enabled representation on both sides of the argument, in addition to getting outsiders perspectives. There were 480 initial responses, but after checking for unengaged responses and ensuring that no respondents took it multiple times (survey setting allowed for only 1 IP address attempt), we were left with a total of 328 validated responses. The final population consisted of 81.4% females, 51.5% unmarried, 59.4% university educated and 43% employed in the private sector. The age ranged from 17 to 75 with generation Z consisting of 29.9% of the responses. The sample had a rich history of donating to a charity in the past 12 months (82.3%) with 53% reporting volunteering in the past four months.

Because this was a cross-sectional survey consisting of self-reported data, the authors sought to minimize common method bias (CMB) in the survey design. Following suggestions by Podsakoff et al. (2013), items measuring the independent (IV) and dependent (DV) variables were separated with a marker variable.

Measurement of main variables

The DV consisted of four different advertisements and six different scenarios. The adverts contained a variety of images, such as young dog, old dogs, refugee children and families of refugees, to observe if there is a bias towards a particular cause and control for the potential impact an image can have on donations (figure 2). Participants were given a hypothetical amount of money and were asked how much they would donate (up to 10 pounds) to a young dog or refugee children and later (up to 20 pounds) for older dogs and refugee families. Both situations also allowed for an opportunity to split their money between a dog charity and a refugee charity.

[Insert Figure 2 here]

In order to measure our independent variable, PSM, we used Kim's (2011) 12-item scale using a 5-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree). We also included Perry's (1996) original scale measuring social justice. Kim had removed it from his revalidation of the PSM scales

because it was contrary to the Asian context; yet, as many non-profits focus on concepts of social justice, we decided to include it. Similar to Kim (2011) we conducted a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to confirm the model. One item each was deleted from the attraction to policy making and self-sacrificing dimension respectively due to cross loading, and one item was deleted from the social justice dimension due to low reliability. The remaining standardized coefficients ranged from .889 to .533 thus meeting the acceptable level of .5 or higher (Hair et al. 2010). The CFA results confirmed the five-factor structure [(CMIN/DF = 2.183, comparative fit index (CFI) = 0.942; Tucker–Lewis Index (TLI) = 0.926; root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) = 0.060] (Byrne 2009). PSM had a Cronbach alpha of .891.

Hope was measured using Babyak et al. (1993) 12-item scales following a 5-Likert scale (1=definitely true and 5=definitely false). During the CFA, three items were removed due to low reliabilities. The CFA results confirmed the single structure [(CMIN/DF = 3.512, comparative fit index (CFI) = 0.952; Tucker–Lewis Index (TLI) = 0.925; root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) = 0.088] (Byrne 2009). Hope had a Cronbach alpha of .858.

Happiness was measured using and adjusted 2-items from Lyubomirsky and Lepper (1999) on a 7-point Likert scale of (1= extremely happy person and 7= extremely unhappy person). Happiness had a Cronbach alpha of .895.

Control variables

Volunteer literature has identified several key socio-demographic variables thought to influence volunteering behavior. Consequently, respondents were asked for their biological gender (male = 0, female = 1) as volunteer studies have shown gender differs across volunteer domains (Wilson 2012). Age was measured based on their current age when taking the survey. It was then made into a dummy variable for generation Z which was the largest percentage of the responses (0= no, 1= yes). Marital status was also taken into consideration (0= no, 1= yes) as well as being employed (0= no, 1= yes). A dummy variable of different employment sectors was made in order to control for working in the private sector. Finally volunteering in the past four months and donating money in the past 12 months was also controlled (0= no, 1= yes). Table 1 presents the descriptive statistics.

[Insert Table 1 here]

FINDINGS

This study uses ordinary least squares regression for hypothesis 1. For moderation test, Hayes (2017) Process was used to mean-center variables and correct for heteroscedasticity- consistent standard errors. Conditioning effects of PSM on charitable giving at values of hope was done through mean and +/- standard deviation from mean. Finally, moderation is followed up with simple slopes plotting and Johnson-Neyman test.

Hypothesis 1 expects PSM to influence charitable donations. PSM proved to be a good predictor when donating to children refugees (B= 2.125, $p < .001$, Model 2, table 2), family refugees (B= 4.625, $p < .001$, Model 4, table 2). When presented with the option of giving money to children vs young dogs or families vs old dogs, PSM remained a good predictor (model 3 and 6). However, PSM was not a good predictor of donating to dogs (B= .010, $p = .982$, model 1) nor older dogs (B= .779, $p = .346$, Model 5) suggesting the beneficiary acts as a potential driver when looking at PSM and charitable giving. The model comparing donations between children and young dogs, accounted for the largest amount of variance- 20.4%.

[Insert Table 2 here]

Hypothesis 2 expects PSM dimensions to influence charitable donations. Self-sacrifice proved to be a good predictor when donating to young dogs (B=.645, $p < .10$, model 1, table 3) and old dogs (B=1.781, $p < .01$, model 5, table 3). Social justice proved to a good predictor anytime it involved donating to refugees (children B=1.084, $p < .05$, model 2, table 3, children vs dogs B=.710, $p < .10$, model 3; families B=3.673, $p < .05$, model 4; families vs. old dogs B=2.533, $p < .010$, model 6). Finally, compassion also proved to be a good predictor when donating to families (children B=.770, $p < .10$, model 2, table 3, children vs dogs B=.996, $p < .05$, model 3; families B=2.390, $p < .10$, model 4). The

model comparing donations between children and young dogs, accounted for the largest amount of variance- 21.8%.

[Insert Table 3 here]

Hypothesis 3 expects hope to moderate the relation between PSM and charitable donations. All findings are in Table 4, but only results that show significant interaction effect or conditional effects discussed. While the interaction effect (PSM x Hope) was not significant when donating to children refugees ($B = -.272$, $p = .783$, model 2, table 4), the conditional effect (figure 3) of PSM on charitable giving to children refugees at the value of hope was significant at low levels ($B = 2.312$, $p < .5$), moderate (average) levels ($B = 2.145$, $p < .001$) and high levels ($B = 1.972$, $p < .01$). Additionally, the Johnson-Neyman significance region showed that the relationship between PSM and charitable giving for children refugees was significant when hope was at the value 1.0736 (percentage below = 94.812 and percentage above = 5.183) and value $-.826$ (percentage below = 7.317 and percentage above = 92.683). The same findings were replicated with donating to children vs dogs (model 3), families (model 4) and families vs. old dogs (model 6).

[Insert Table 4 and Figure 3 here]

Hypothesis 4 expects happiness to moderate the relation between PSM and charitable donations. Findings are presented in Table 5, but only results that show significant interaction effect or conditional effects discussed. The interaction effect (PSM x Happiness) was not significant when donating to children refugees ($B = -.024$, $p = .900$, model 2, table 5), the conditional effect (figure 4) of PSM on charitable giving to children refugees at the value of happiness was significant at low levels ($B = 2.162$, $p < .01$, moderate (average) levels ($B = 2.1163$, $p < .001$) and high levels ($B = 2.071$, $p < .001$). However, there are no statistical significance transition points within the observed range of the moderator when exploring the Johnson-Neyman significance region. The same findings were replicated with donating to children vs dogs (model 3), families (model 4) and families vs. old dogs (model 6).

[Insert Table 5, figure 4 here]

DISCUSSION

This paper aimed to answer the question if public service motivation leads to charitable giving. The intent was twofold. First, we integrated different types of beneficiaries to see if it would influence different relations between motivation and behavior. Second, we explored how positive emotions may influence the relationship between PSM and charitable giving. Thus, we contribute to the debate surrounding non-profit marketing focusing on emotional drivers in advertisements. We found evidence that PSM as an aggregate is associated with charitable giving, but only when the beneficiaries are human (or refugees in our study). These findings are similar to Belle's (2013) study that found PSM influenced behavior when the individual had contact with human beneficiaries. However, it is noted that we tested humans versus dogs and did not control for meeting the beneficiaries.

On the other hand, the PSM dimensions performed differently when taking beneficiaries into account. For example, affective motive self-sacrifice was significantly related to donating to dogs. Yet, Anderfuhren et al. (2014) found that self-sacrifice was more prominent in individuals who had an interest in the environment. Brenya et al.'s (2017) study highlighted self-sacrifice was related to society's interest over the individuals. This would have suggested that self-sacrifice should have been related to refugees opposed to dogs. Conversely, the other affective motive -compassion- was significantly related to donating to refugees. One would think that donating to dogs would be an act of compassion due to empathy. However, similar to Anderfuhren et al.'s (2014) study that found compassion was highest amongst those working in the welfare sector, there is a clear connection between having compassion and wanting to help others. This suggests that affective motives while clearly divided between the two beneficiaries are related to how the individual perceives the societal importance of the issue (Breitsohl and Ehrig 2016).

Norm-based motive social justice was only significantly related to charitable giving when the beneficiary was human (refugees in our case). These findings clearly support Piatak's (2016) findings linking social justice to volunteering amongst university students. Word and Carpenter (2013, p. 319) argue that "social justice helps improve the welfare of underserved populations". However, the other norm-based motive commitment to public interest was not significantly related to charitable giving regardless of beneficiary. This is direct contrast with Piatak's (2016) findings that showed individuals with high levels of commitment to public interest were 1.3 times more likely to donate to a charity than an individuals' other PSM dimensions. This suggests that the social values and norms of that social actions are considered proper may be odds in the UK sample.

Researchers have previously found a strong link between altruism, donation and happiness (Anik et al. 2009). However, this study found the emotions hope and happiness had no significant relationship with charitable giving or PSM. Although, conditional effects did show that there is a correlation between an increased amount of donations regardless of the level of hope or happiness when PSM increases. This suggests that the motivational traits of the individual may not be influenced by the emotional state. Coursey and Pandey (2007) had asked participants to consider how they handled their feelings when related to compassion and found that the control of one's emotions does not imply greater or lesser compassion. Additionally, it could be the affective modes which are grounded in emotional responses crowd out other emotions (Taylor 2007). This implies that non-profit advertisements may prefer to focus on the motivational traits related to emotions opposed to appealing to a state of happiness or hopefulness.

Finally, another area of interest relates to our findings concerning the control variables. For example, being female was related to donating to dogs, but gender was not otherwise related to charitable donations. Women have been found to express greater positive attitudes towards animals, and are more likely to donate to dogs than their male counterparts (Liebe and Jahnke 2017). Wilson (2012) states that while volunteer studies identify gender impacts labor in different domains, it may be due to societal roles and expectations. In the case of donating to dogs, those who had not reported volunteering in the past four months were significantly more likely to engage in charitable giving. Kim (2014) argues that volunteering time is more altruistic and donating money is more egoistic based. Therefore, it is possible that those donating money to dogs could fulfil an ego-based need. Perhaps most ironically, there was no significant relations with reporting having donated in the past 12 months and choosing to donate in the experiment despite the percentage of the respondent who had reported in engaging in such activities. In fact, despite the money being hypothetical and at no loss to the individuals, some respondents still decided to keep the "donation" for themselves. This could relate to Kim's (2014) observations about helped or needy beneficiaries. In the case of our advertisement mock-ups, both implicitly suggested the beneficiaries needed help. Finally, being a member of generation Z meant they were more likely to donate to refugees. This is similar to Cavallero's (2013) discussion about millennials engaging in more social justice oriented actions.

As with all research, this study is not without limitations. One area that should be taken into consideration involves donating money without consequences. Although the study used a tried and verified quasi-experimental design, the experiment did not require participants to use their own money. Due to this, there is a potential that participants would respond differently in real life. Esteve et al. (2016) argues in research following a similar design, while the causal direction between PSM and charitable giving cannot be made, there is empirical evidence supporting the conclusion that those individuals with higher levels of PSM contribute larger amounts of money to different beneficiaries. Therefore, future research could include having non-profit fundraisers follow up donations with a survey that measures PSM and compares it to the amount of actual money donated.

CONCLUSION

In summary, through our findings we were able to provide empirical support about PSM impacting charitable giving. We also demonstrated that although positive emotions do not strengthen or weaken the relationship between PSM and donations, those individuals with high PSM are significantly more likely to donate larger amounts of money. This study has practical implications for non-profit marketers who want to understand how to encourage public service motivated individuals to engage in

charitable giving. Advertisements could capitalize on the PSM dimensional motives of the individuals. Messages highlighting a sense of social justice and/or compassion may be effective for charities focusing on refugees, while messages focusing on self-sacrifice could help charities raising money for dogs. By understanding how affective and norms-based motives lead to different donation behaviors, non-profit marketers focusing on various beneficiaries may have an advantage when engaging in fundraising activities.

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Table 1: Demographic statistics and correlations

	Means, Standard Deviations, Correlations																
	Mean	S.D.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1 PSM	3.78	.565															
2 Hope	2.16	.635	-.072														
3 Happy	2.77	1.893	.029	.423**													
4 Donate dog up to £10	3.31	4.057	-.036	-.082	.008												
5 Donate kids up to £10	6.26	4.295	.343**	.035	-.006	.094											
6 Donate to dogs £10 vs children	2.22	3.259	-.103	-.051	.019	.677**	-.148**										
7 Donate families up to £20	12.69	13.190	.280**	-.059	.099	-.005	.493**	-.129*									
8 Donate old dogs up to £20	5.66	7.569	.010	-.093	.001	.784**	.114*	.615**	.071								
9 Donate old dogs vs families £20	3.92	5.808	-.054	-.025	.051	.600**	-.178**	.793**	-.120*	.695**							
10 Gender	.81	.390	.215**	.061	.037	.143**	.104	.167**	.086	.098	.119*						
11 Gen Z	.30	.458	-.040	.006	.110*	.034	.006	.053	-.046	.015	-.013	.133*					
12 Married	.48	.501	-.089	-.101	.149**	.034	-.071	.044	-.041	.038	.013	.134*	-.473**				
13 Private Sector	1.87	.929	.204**	.016	.074	-.098	.096	-.132*	.061	-.087	-.054	.125*	-.200**	.068			
14 University	.59	.493	.129*	-.003	.094	-.080	.201**	.241**	.179**	-.104	.176**	.110*	-.374**	.055	.180**		
15 Volunteered past four months	.54	.499	.294**	.026	.009	-.088	.193**	-.134*	.014	-.108	-.121*	.106	-.035	.008	.182**	.055	
16 Donated money past 12 months	.82	.382	.268**	.023	-.002	-.060	.125*	-.031	.104	.001	.024	.128*	-.134*	.034	.071	.100	.114*

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 2: Regressions for PSM

	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4		Model 5		Model 6	
	Donate to dogs up to £10		Donate to children up to £10		Donate to children vs. dogs up to £10		Donate to families up to £20		Donate to old dogs up to £20		Donate to families vs. old dogs up to £20	
	coeff	s.e.	coeff	s.e.	coeff	s.e.	coeff	s.e.	coeff	s.e.	coeff	s.e.
(Constant)	2.604	1.711	-3.865*	1.704	-5.248***	1.571	-13.883**	5.398	2.137	3.201	-11.196***	3.082
Gender	1.850**	.594	.266	.591	-.326	.545	.743	1.873	2.268*	1.111	.493	1.070
Gen Z	.147	.606	.814	.604	1.224*	.557	.363	1.912	-.248	1.134	2.130†	1.092
Married	.232	.514	-.177	.512	.226	.472	-.567	1.622	.484	.962	.732	.926
Education	-.570	.495	1.641***	.493	2.136***	.455	4.016*	1.562	-1.672†	.926	4.349***	.892
Private sector	.714	.469	.055	.468	-.209	.431	.215	1.481	1.368	.879	.062	.846
Volunteered past 4 months	-.720	.464	0.845†	.463	.424	.427	-2.080	1.466	-1.890*	.869	.065	.837
Donated in past 12 months	-.615	.608	.333	.605	.834	.558	.850	1.918	-.024	1.137	.818	1.095
PSM	-.010	.441	2.125***	.439	2.287***	.405	6.371***	1.393	.779	.826	4.625***	.795
R2	.051		0.160		0.209		0.104		.045		0.200	
Adj. R2	.025		0.139		0.189		0.084		.021		0.180	
F-test (df)	2.161(8) p<.05		7.614(8) p<.001		10.509(8)P<.001		4.747(8) p<.001		1.898(8) p<.1		9.996(8) p<.001	

Observation = 328

Note p<.1†, p<.05*, p<.05*, p<.01**, p<.001***

Gender (0=male, 1=female) Genz (0=no, 1=yes) Private Sector (0=no, 1=yes) Volunteered (0=no, 1=yes) Married (0=no, 1=yes) University educated (0=no, 1=yes) Donated (0=no, 1=yes)

Table 3: Regressions for Individual PSM Dimensions

	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4		Model 5		Model 6	
	Donate to dogs up to £10		Donate to children up to £10		Donate to children vs. dogs up to £10		Donate to families up to £20		Donate to old dogs up to £20		Donate to families vs. old dogs up to £20	
	coeff	s.e.	coeff	s.e.	coeff	s.e.	coeff	s.e.	coeff	s.e.	coeff	s.e.
(Constant)	3.365†	1.780	-3.036†	1.774	-4.86**	1.641	-10.80†	5.604	4.811	3.319	-9.905**	3.211
Gender	1.991***	.598	0.175	.596	-0.458	.551	0.397	1.882	2.425*	1.115	0.366	1.078
Gen Z	.106	.607	.779	.605	1.178*	.560	.240	1.911	-.422	1.132	2.137†	1.095
Married	.307	.521	-.230	.519	.125	.480	-.753	1.639	.572	.971	.725	.939
Education	-.433	.497	1.713***	.495	2.124***	.458	4.262**	1.564	-1.391	.927	4.470***	.896
Private sector	.641	.475	-.072	.474	-.243	.438	-.209	1.496	1.314	.886	-.134	.857
Volunteered past 4 months	-0.864†	.466	0.828†	.465	.474	.430	-2.115	1.469	-2.101*	.870	.053	.842
Donated in past 12 months	-.617	.608	.261	.606	.771	.561	.600	1.915	-.048	1.134	.745	1.097
Attraction to Policy making	.329	.329	-.133	.328	-.212	.304	-.844	1.037	-.365	.614	-.130	.594
Commitment to public interest	-.736	.455	-.256	.454	.339	.419	-.970	1.433	-.902	.849	-.058	.821
Compassion	-.412	.454	0.770†	.452	0.996*	.419	2.390†	1.429	-.621	.847	1.222	.819
Self-sacrifice	0.645†	.357	.525	.356	.413	.329	1.621	1.124	1.781**	.666	.832	.644
Social justice	.003	.465	1.084*	.464	0.710†	.429	3.673*	1.465	.382	.868	2.533**	.839
R2	.70		.175		.218		0.128		.071		.214	
Adj. R2	.034		.144		.189		.094		.035		.184	
F-test (df)	1.974(12) p<.05		5.576(12) p<.001		7.333(12) p<.001		3.843(12) p<.001		1.991(12) p<.05		7.193(12) p<.001	

Observation = 328

Note p<.1†, p<.05*, p<.05**, p<.01**, p<.001***

Gender (0=male, 1=female) Genz (0=no, 1=yes) Private Sector (0=no, 1=yes) Volunteered (0=no, 1=yes) Married (0=no, 1=yes) University educated (0=no, 1=yes) Donated (0=no, 1=yes)

Table 4: Regression model for PSM and model coefficients for hope as a moderator

	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4		Model 5		Model 6	
	Donate to dogs up to £10		Donate to children up to £10		Donate to children vs. dogs up to £10		Donate to families up to £20		Donate to old dogs up to £20		Donate to families vs. old dogs up to £20	
	coeff	s.e.	coeff	s.e.	coeff	s.e.	coeff	s.e.	coeff	s.e.	coeff	s.e.
(Constant)	2.523**	0.907	4.167***	0.912	3.414***	0.823	10.116***	2.799	5.089**	1.746	6.366***	1.615
Hope	-0.525	.374	.326	.395	0.384	0.38	-0.9173	1.358	-1.016	0.704	0.6763	0.789
PSM	-.137	.584	2.145***	.582	2.340***	0.576	6.120***	1.72	0.715	1.064	4.821***	1.109
PSM X Hope	-.298	.924	-.272	.989	-0.0768	1.021	-0.8736	2.868	0.831	1.667	0.7336	2.003
Gender	1.919***	.546	0.207	.656	-0.3848	0.605	0.838	1.335	2.451*	1.038	0.4271	1.189
Gen Z	.103	.627	.830	.592	1.248*	0.554	0.2853	1.848	-0.3	1.188	2.189*	1.085
Married	.123	.537	-.116	.566	0.3006	0.528	-0.7429	2.109	0.288	1.024	0.8617	1.022
Education	-.585	.530	1.652***	.508	2.147***	0.475	3.994***	1.053	-1.705†	1.018	4.365***	0.924
Private sector	.678	.481	.088	.482	-0.1764	0.452	0.1677	1.092	1.2639	0.901	0.094	0.898
Volunteered past 4 months	-.664	.506	0.842†	.508	0.4043	0.467	-1.9636	1.957	-1.881*	0.946	-0.027	0.932
Donated in past 12 months	-.568	.676	0.319	.636	0.8096	0.588	0.9374	1.249	0.022	1.247	0.751	1.129
R2	.059		.163		.212		0.109		.055		0.204	
F-test (df)	2.119(10) p<.05		6.509(10) p<.001		8.830(10) p<.001		6.6851(10) p<.001		1.836(10) p<.05		8.319(10) p<.001	

Observation= 328

Note p<.1†, p<.05*, p<.05**, p<.01**, p<.001***

Gender (0=male, 1=female) Genz (0=no, 1=yes) Private Sector (0=no, 1=yes) Volunteered (0=no, 1=yes) Married (0=no, 1=yes) University educated (0=no, 1=yes) Donated (0=no, 1=yes)

Table 5: Regression model for PSM and model coefficients for happiness as a moderator

	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4		Model 5		Model 6	
	Donate to dogs up to £10		Donate to children up to £10		Donate to children vs. dogs up to £10		Donate to families up to £20		Donate to old dogs up to £20		Donate to families vs. old dogs up to £20	
	coeff	s.e.	coeff	s.e.	coeff	s.e.	coeff	s.e.	coeff	s.e.	coeff	s.e.
(Constant)	2.591**	0.899	4.138***	0.927	3.398***	0.838	10.289***	2.952	5.101**	1.724	6.282***	1.617
Happiness	0.037	0.121	-0.110	0.123	0.002	0.111	0.567	0.567	0.089	0.225	0.007	0.225
PSM	-0.008	0.581	2.116***	0.520	2.288***	0.525	6.419***	1.898	0.787	1.126	4.626***	1.071
PSM X Happiness	-0.174	0.219	-0.024	0.192	0.047	0.181	1.093	1.186	0.116	0.411	0.149	0.388
Gender	1.848***	0.539	0.291	0.661	-0.328	0.610	0.579	1.260	2.244*	1.038	0.487	1.189
Gen Z	0.092	0.622	0.869	0.598	1.232*	0.548	0.268	1.825	-0.274	1.168	2.156*	1.089
Married	0.238	0.522	-0.222	0.542	0.230	0.499	-0.283	1.672	0.526	1.002	0.742	0.972
Education	-0.590	0.528	1.697***	0.510	2.135***	0.474	3.735***	1.044	-1.717†	1.017	4.346***	0.927
Private sector	0.733	0.482	0.017	0.485	-0.210	0.455	0.372	1.038	1.395	0.904	0.059	0.902
Volunteered past 4 months	-0.734	0.510	0.843†	0.501	0.427	0.464	-1.996	2.010	-1.881*	0.976	0.077	0.936
Donated in past 12 months	-0.608	0.661	0.334	0.627	0.832	0.585	0.803	1.210	-0.029	1.245	0.812	1.127
R2	.054		.163		.209		0.121		.046		0.201	
F-test (df)	1.956(10) p<.05		6.771(10) p<.001		9.175(10) p<.001		5.4291(10) p<.001		1.428(10) p=.166		8.258(10) p<.001	

Observation= 328

Note p<.1†, p<.05*, p<0.05*, p<.01**, p<.001***

Gender (0=male, 1=female) Genz (0=no, 1=yes) Private Sector (0=no, 1=yes) Volunteered (0=no, 1=yes) Married (0=no, 1=yes) University educated (0=no, 1=yes) Donated (0=no, 1=yes)

Figure 1: Conceptual Model

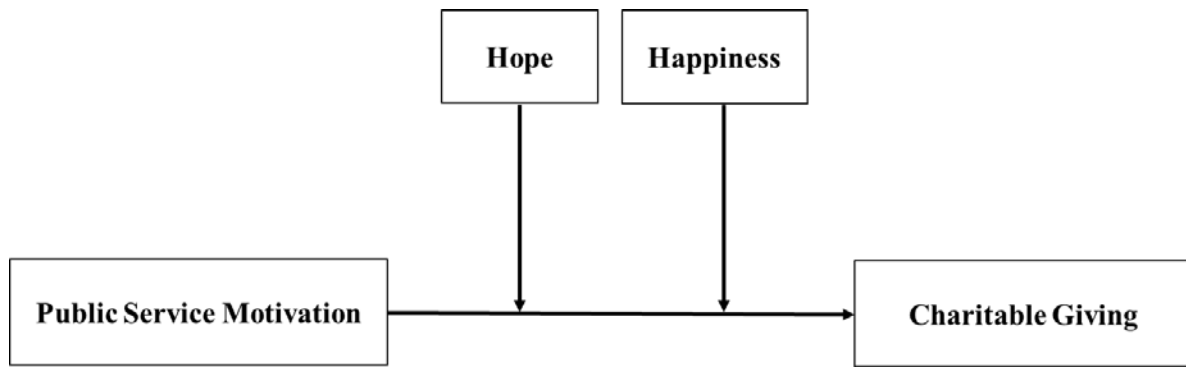


Figure 2- vignette adverts



Figure 3- Simple Slopes (PSM and Hope)

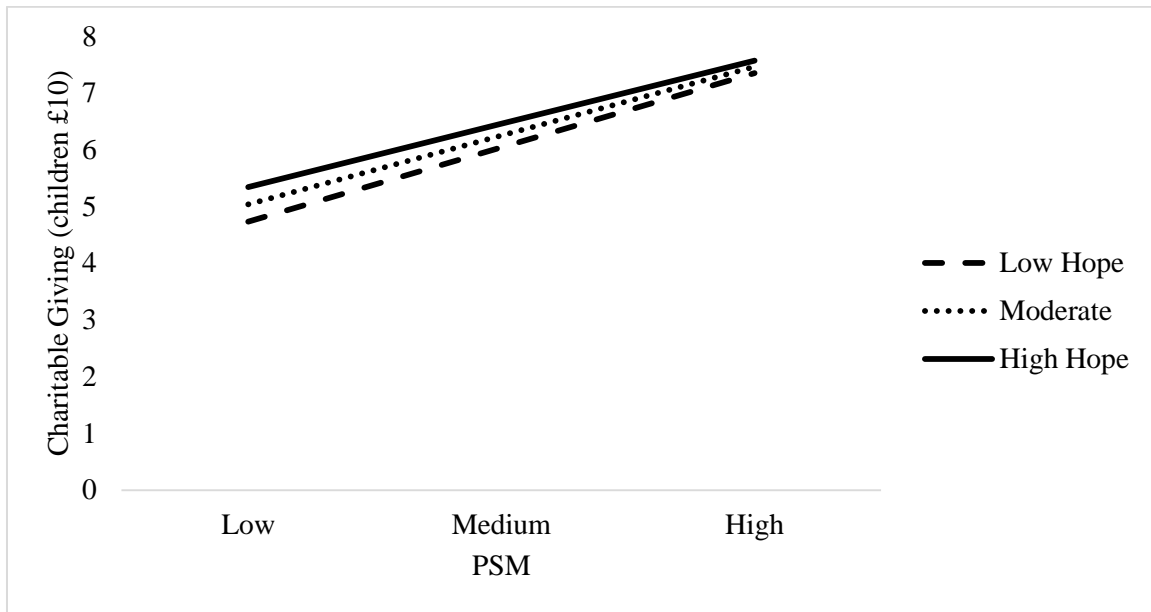


Figure 4- Simple Slopes (PSM and Happiness)

