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THE IMPACT OF PUBLIC SERVICE MOTIVATION ON FUNDRAISING - THE EMOTIONAL CHARITY MARKETING FLAW

ABSTRACT

Many academics criticize charity appeals that focus on negative emotions to drive donations. With UK citizens being statistically more likely to donate to save a dog's life over a refugee's life, understanding how emotions impact charitable giving may help non-profits match their marketing appeals to motivations of the donor. Consequently, this study examines the underlying motivations of individuals through public service motivation theory and investigates if it leads to donations when beneficiaries are dogs or refugees. Furthermore, we draw upon positive emotions to see if they influence the relation between motivation and donations. Using a vignette web-based survey, 328 respondents had the option to spend money on a dog rescue charity, a Syrian refugee charity or decide to withhold donations entirely. The study found a positive relation between public service motivation and monetary giving. However, the relations differed when individual public service motivation dimensions were taken into account across the two beneficiaries. When positive 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 public service motivation, but that positive emotions may not be effective in generating donations.

Keywords: Public service motivation, charitable giving, emotions, happiness, hope

1. Introduction

Charities Aid Foundation¹ reports UK citizens are statistically more likely to donate to save a dog's life over a refugee's life. Given the refugee crisis in Europe, the need for funding is vital. Charities such as Syrian Refugee use pity in their marketing appeals to drive donations (Hudson et al., 2015). Yet, academics criticize using shocking and upsetting

images (Plewes, Stuart, 2007). Negative emotional marketing has the potential to dishearten the audience- thus decreasing the number of donations (Tallon, McGregor, 2014). When comparing traditional pity-based charity campaigns to ones which produced feelings of hope and happiness, Hudson et al. (2015) discovered positive campaigns can improve viewers' perception on the situation and increase the likelihood they will donate.

However, prior to exploring how emotions may influence potential donors, it is important to first understand if individuals have diverse responses between motivations and charitable giving. While there are many volunteer studies that explore understanding motivations such as affiliation to the cause and personal rewards (Mainardes et al., 2017), this study seeks to understand if different forms of motivations impact donations. Public Service Motivation theory (PSM) measures the rational, normative and affective based motivations to engage in service that helps others and society (Perry, Hondeghem, 2008). PSM studies have been linked to charitable giving and volunteering (Houston, 2006; Piatak, 2016). 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.

Hence, this study examines the question if volunteer motivations differs when donations are to animal or human beneficiaries. By understanding the different motivational drivers, we contribute threefold to literature. First, this research expands Coursey et al.'s (2011) study that sought to understand if PSM would influence volunteering in different charitable domains. Secondly, we contribute to the emerging academic conversation about how different PSM dimensions relate to beneficiaries. Belle (2013) looked at how PSM impacted the relationship of Italian nurses when they had met the human beneficiary, but it is possible that motivations differ when the beneficiaries are not human. Thirdly, 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 benefits practitioners by providing empirical evidence about how they should use emotions and motivations in their advertisements for donation appeals.

2. Literature review and hypotheses

2.1 Charitable Giving

Charitable giving is the act of giving money, time or items of value to a charitable organization (Bendapudi et al., 1996). Although charitable giving takes many forms, the following study will focus purely on monetary donations.

NCVO² reports that in the UK donating to children and young people's charities was the most popular choice, overtaking donations to medical research—the most popular cause in 2014. The same research found that while women are more likely to donate (43%), men are likely to contribute in significant larger quantities. Charities Aid Foundation³ found that individuals age 45-64 were most likely to donate to charity and that this age group was the most likely to donate to animals. YouGov⁴ replicated this finding amongst females age 40-54. As UK individuals were more likely to donate to animal charities over aid charities, this highlights a discrepancy between causes.

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.

2.2 Public Service Motivation

PSM is defined as those motives that are "intended to do good for others and shape the well-being of society" (Perry, Hondeghem, 2008: 3). PSM motives (rational, norm-based and affective) are underpinned by six dimensions (Perry, 1996). Rational motives are individual utility goals which may be based on personal identification and include a drive to influence and participate in public policy making and are represented by the dimension attraction to policy making (Breitsohl, Ruhle, 2013). 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 and 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) and are reflected in the dimensions compassion and self-sacrifice.

Researchers have found a significant relation between an individual's level of PSM and the amount of time they spent volunteering (e.g. Coursey et al., 2011; Lee, Brudney, 2015; Piatak, 2016; Clerkin, Fotheringham, 2017; Homberg, Costello, 2019). Those with high levels of PSM act on a commitment to public good rather than self-interest (Walton et al., 2017). While there are limited amounts of research on PSM directly impacting monetary donations, Houston (2006), Esteve et al. (2016) 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 the PSM dimensions themselves may 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 are varying degrees of insights. Studies have found middle-aged women (Anderfuhren-Biget, 2012) and those growing up in religious households (Charbonneau, 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 these difference amongst the studies, it is suggested to explore if the dimensions may lead to different levels of charitable giving.

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

2.3 Emotions

Snyder et al. (1991) defined hope as a state of motivational positivity that derives a sense of success. Hudson et al. (2015) found that creating a positive campaign which generated hope increased the audience's likeliness to donate. Hope and lack of hope in charitable campaigns could have an impact on the viewers' desire to learn more about an 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 shuts off the desires to help.

However, it is not just a matter of the campaign using messages of hope to influence charitable giving. Some scholars suggest if an individual is already hopeful, that it will help them overcome their own emotional burdens by making donations (Jensen, 2016). Walker and Sque (2016) suggest that when organ donors have a sense of hope that it can balance feelings of despair. In one study, hopeful individuals reported a higher likelihood of volunteering if asked (Baumsteiger, 2017). PSM studies suggest 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.

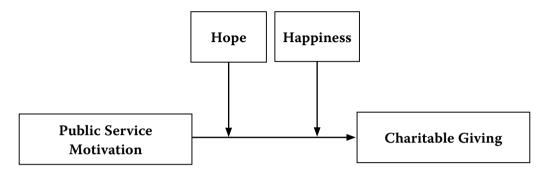
H3 - Hope moderates the relation between Public Service Motivation and charitable giving.

Veenhoven (2017: 13) defined happiness as "the degree to which a person enjoys his or her present life-as-a-whole". However, he adds it consists of inner qualities, i.e. enjoyment of life and life ability of a person, and outer qualities such as the livability of environment and usefulness of life. This implies that while the individual may have control of internal factors, they may view outer qualities as dependent on chance and how life turns out. Studies that focus on happiness as enjoyment have proven that they are strongly linked with generosity and donating (Aknin et al., 2011). 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. Therefore, donating to a stranger in another country may not give the donor such a positive reward as donating within the family.

In addition to generosity producing happiness, happy people are more likely to donate (Anik et al., 2011). Wang and Graddy (2008) note that this is likely a result of happy people being more emotionally capable of helping others and fostering charitable giving due to optimistic personalities. van Witteloostuijin et al. (2017) suggest that individuals who have agreeable personalities and are calm are more likely to engage in helping behavior. While there's a 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 the literature, the conceptual model is depicted in Figure 1.

Figure 1 Conceptual Model



Source: Authors

3. Methodology

3.1 Sample characteristics

To test our hypothesis, a vignette web-based survey was sent out in 2018 to 54 UK-based Facebook groups ranging from UK Ancient Cathedrals, Churches, Abbeys and Priories to Skint mums need funds. Groups with a variety of interests and hobbies were targeted with the intention of having a broad range of UK participants from different socio-economic backgrounds and age groups. Of the 54 groups, 19 groups focused on refugees and 11 groups focused on dogs. This enabled representation on both sides of the argument, in addition to getting outsiders perspectives. It also allowed for us to isolate if those with a history of interest in either areas had specific motivations in common. After checking for unengaged responses and ensuring no duplication of respondents (survey setting allowed for only one IP address attempt), we had 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. Ages 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.

3.2 Measurement of main variables

As this was a cross-sectional survey consisting of self-reported data, we 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.

The DV consisted of four different advertisements and six different scenarios (Figure 2). The adverts contained a variety of images of dogs and refugees to observe if there was a bias towards a particular cause and control for the potential impact an image can have on donations. Participants were given a hypothetical amount of money and were asked how much they would donate. Scenarios included the opportunity to split their money between a dog charity and a refugee charity or withhold donation.

Figure 2 Vignette Adverts









Source: Authors

The IV, PSM, used Kim's (2011) 12-item scale using a 5-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree). We included Perry's (1996) original variable 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. Consequently, we conducted a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to

confirm the model. A few items were deleted due to cross-loading or low reliability. The remaining standardized coefficients ranged from .889 to .533 thus meeting acceptable standards (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 approxima-

tion (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; CFI = 0.952; TLI = 0.925; RM-SEA = 0.088] (Byrne, 2009). Hope had a Cronbach alpha of .858.

Happiness was measured using an 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.

3.3 Control variables

Volunteer literature has identified several key sociodemographic variables thought to influence volunteering behavior. Consequently, respondents were asked for their biological gender (male = 0, female = 1) as it differs across volunteer domains (Wilson, 2012). Age was measured based on their current age and was then made into a dummy variable for generation Z which had the largest percentage of the responses (0 = no, 1 = ves). Marital status (0 = no, 1 = ves)no, 1 = yes) and being employed (0 = no, 1 = yes) were also measured. 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 were also controlled (0 = no, 1 =yes). Table 1 presents the descriptive statistics.

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 Нарру	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). Source: Authors' calculations

4. Empirical results and discussion

This study uses ordinary least squares regression for hypothesis 1 and 2. For the moderation test, data was mean-centered and corrected for heteroscedasticity - consistent standard errors (Hayes, 2018). 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 a good predictor when donating to refugees (children B = 2.125, p<.001, Model 2, Table 2; families B = 4.625, p<.001, Model 4, Table 2). However, PSM was not a good predictor of donating to young dogs (B = .010, p = .982, model 1) nor older dogs (B = .779, p = .346, Model 5) suggesting the beneficiary does act as a potential driver.

Table 2 Regressions for PSM

	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Mode	Model 4		Model 5		l 6
	Dona dogs t £1	ıp to	Donat childre to £	n up	Donat childre dogs u £10	n vs. p to	Donat families £20	up to	Dona old do to £	gs up	Donate families v dogs up t	s. old
	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)]	><.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<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)

Source: Authors' calculations

Hypothesis 2 expects PSM dimensions to influence charitable donations. Self-sacrifice proved to be a good predictor when donating to dogs (young B = .645, p<.10, model 1; old 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 refugees (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).

Table 3 Regressions for Individual PSM Dimensions

	Mode	el 1	Mod	el 2	Mode	el 3	Mod	el 4	Mode	el 5	Mode	el 6
	Donat dogs u £10	p to	Donat children	up to	Donat childre dogs u £10	n vs. p to	Donat familio to £	es up	Donat old dog to £2	gs up	Donat familie old dog to £2	s vs. gs up
	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	2)	1.991(12 p<.05)	7.193(12) p<.001	

Observation = 328

Source: Authors' calculations

Hypothesis 3 expects hope to moderate the relation between PSM and charitable donations. All findings are in Table 4, but only results showing significant interaction effect or conditional effects are discussed. While the interaction effect (PSM \times 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 refuges at the value of hope was significant at low levels (B = 2.312, p<.5), mod-

erate (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 (%< = 94.812 and %> = 5.183) and value -.826 (%< = 7.317 and %> = 92.683). The findings were replicated with donating to children vs dogs (model 3), families (model 4) and families vs. old dogs (model 6).

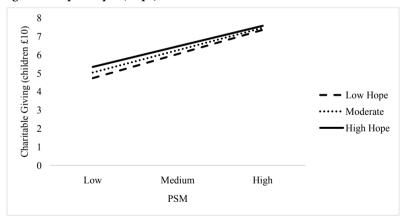
Table 4 Regression model for PSM and model coefficients for hope as a moderator

	Mode	el 1	Mode	el 2	Mode	el 3	Mode	14	Mod	el 5	Mode	el 6
	Donat dogs u £10	p to	Donat childre to £	n up	Donat childre dogs up	en vs.	Donate families £20	up to	Donate dogs u	ıp to	Donat families dogs up	vs. old
	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)	7 119(10) nz 05 1		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

Source: Authors' calculations

Figure 3 Simple Slopes (Hope)



Source: Authors' calculations

Hypothesis 4 expects happiness to moderate the relation between PSM and charitable donations. The interaction effect (PSM x Happiness) was not significant when donating to children refugees (B = -.024, p = .900, model 2, table 5), but the conditional effect (figure 4) of PSM on charitable giving to children refuges at the

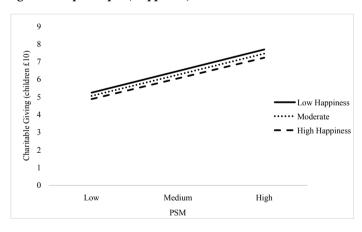
value of happiness was significant at low levels (B = 2.162, p<.01, moderate (average) levels (B = 2.1163, p<.001) and high levels (B = 2.071, p<.001). However, there are no statistical significance transition points within the observed range of the moderator when exploring the Johnson-Neyman significance region.

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

	Mode	el 1	Mode	el 2	Mod	el 3	Mode	el 4	Mod	lel 5	Mod	el 6
	Donate t	_	Donat children £10	up to	Dona childre dogs up	en vs.	Donat families £20	up to	Donate dogs up		Donat families dogs up	vs. old
	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
Source: Authors' calculations

Figure 4 Simple Slopes (Happiness)



Source: Authors' calculations

We found evidence that PSM as an aggregate is associated with charitable giving, but only when the beneficiaries are refugees. These findings are similar to Belle's (2013) study that found PSM influenced behavior when the individual had contact

with human beneficiaries. Contrarily, PSM dimensions performed differently when taking beneficiaries into account.

Self-sacrifice was significantly related to donating to dogs. Brenya et al. (2017) highlighted self-sacri-

fice as related to society's interest over the individuals. This would suggest self-sacrifice should have been related to refugees instead of dogs. Conversely, compassion was significantly related to donating to refugees. 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 suggest these affective motives, while clearly divided between the two beneficiaries, are related to how the individual perceives the societal importance of the issue (Breitsohl, Ehrig, 2017).

Social justice was only significantly related to charitable giving when the beneficiary were refugees. These findings clearly support Piatak's (2016) results linking social justice to volunteering amongst university students. Word and Carpenter (2013: 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. This suggests that the social values and norms of social actions that are considered proper may be at odds in the UK sample.

Researchers have previously found a strong link between altruism, donation and happiness (Anik et al., 2011). However, this study found hope and happiness did not influence the relationship between PSM and charitable giving. 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.

5. Conclusion

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.

Through our findings, we were able to provide empirical support about PSM impacting charitable giving. We also demonstrated positive emotions do not strengthen or weaken the relationship between PSM and donations, but 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 should 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 dog charities. 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.

Limitations and opportunities for future research

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, it 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) argue 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.

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Emma Best Iovce Costello

Utjecaj motivacije za javno dobro na dobrotvorno prikupljanje sredstava – nedostatak emocionalnog marketinga

Sažetak

Mnogi znanstvenici kritiziraju pozive na dobrotvorno prikupljanje sredstava koji se zasnivaju na negativnim emocijama kako bi se ljude potaklo na darivanje. Statistički gledano, građani Ujedinjene Kraljevine vjerojatnije će dati donaciju za spašavanje pasa nego za spašavanje života izbjeglica. Stoga je potrebno razumjeti kako emocije utječu na uplate u dobrotvorne svrhe jer to dobrotvornim organizacijama može pomoći da usklade svoje pozive s motivacijom darovatelja. U ovoj se studiji analiziraju motivacije pojedinaca pomoću teorije motivacije za javno dobro te se ispituje hoće li ta motivacija dovesti do donacija, ovisno o tome jesu li namijenjene psima ili izbjeglicama. Nadalje, uključili smo i pozitivne emocije kako bismo ispitali koliko utječu na odnos između motivacije i donacija. U internetskom vinjetnom upitniku 328 ispitanika moglo je potrošiti novac na udrugu koja se bavi spašavanjem pasa, udrugu koja pomaže sirijskim izbjeglicama ili odlučiti da nikome neće donirati novac. Rezultati pokazuju pozitivnu korelaciju između motivacije za javno dobro i novčanih priloga. Međutim, korelacije su se razlikovale kad smo uzeli u obzir dimenzije motivacije pojedinaca za javno dobro u odnosu na dvije vrste korisnika. Kad smo kao moderacijske varijable dodali pozitivne emocije, rezultati su bili suprotni od očekivanih. Na temelju rezultata može se zaključiti da se u marketingu dobrotvornih organizacija treba usmjeriti na publiku s visokom motivacijom za javno dobro, no čini se da pozitivne emocije ne potiču ljude na doniranje.

Ključne riječi: motivacija za javno dobro, dobrotvorni prilozi, emocije, sreća, nada