

Social Norms and Recognition in Social Fundraising Campaigns: The Moderating Role of Self-Construal

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Abstract

Developing effective solicitation campaigns has become a priority for nonprofit organizations to raise funds. To do so, they have begun to introduce social information and recognition mechanisms in their campaigns to encourage donations, yet our current understanding of the effectiveness of these interventions is limited. This study intends to contribute to a better understanding of the effectiveness of these campaigns by investigating the role played by social norms, recognition, and their interplay in charitable giving. In addition, the study also investigates the extent to which these effects are moderated by self-construal, an important individual psychological trait. This empirical investigation conducted an experimental design between subjects on a sample of 261 participants. A two-stage correction approach was used to estimate two dependent variables. The effectiveness of social norms and recognition varies depending on the decision in play (whether to donate, or how much to donate) as well as on an individual's self-construal (independent or interdependent). Strategies that combine several of these mechanisms should take into account their objective, i.e. whether it is focused on boosting symbolic support or on incentivizing significant contributions. This paper contributes by demonstrating that the type of social norm and the type of recognition matter, as they produce significant different effects on both the donation decision and the donation amount.

Keywords: charitable giving, nonprofit organizations, social norms, recognition, self-construal

Introduction

Social and environmental problems are becoming increasingly visible in society, and nonprofit organizations have emerged as an indispensable player to tackle these problems and help those in need by providing numerous vital services. Fundraising has thus become a major challenge for nonprofit organizations (Fajardo, Townsend, and Bolander, 2018) and for society at large: “if society can devise effective mechanisms to induce more philanthropy, the social-welfare benefits would be quite substantial” (Charness and Holder, 2018, p.1). However, while individuals report having higher awareness of and sensitivity toward social issues (European Commission, 2017), their willingness to contribute through donating resources does not follow suit (European Fundraising Association, 2017). In addition, the substantial rise in the number of organizations competing in the nonprofit sector has also led to a greater interest in mitigating these effects through private contributions (Helmig and Thaler, 2010). Under such circumstances, practitioners have turned to marketing to encourage social attitudes and behaviors among individuals and have started to adopt a number of communication techniques (Anghelcev and Sar, 2014; Fajardo et al., 2018; Guidry, Waters, and Saxton, 2014). Understanding the underlying motivations that lead people to contribute is therefore one of the primary concerns in the literature to find the suitable marketing techniques that encourage contributions (Simpson, White, and Laran, 2017; Verhaert and Van den Poel, 2011).

Among the alternative marketing programs available to nonprofit organizations, two strategies have been increasingly adopted: one consisting of capitalizing on the persuasive power of social norms (White and Simpson, 2013); and the other recognizing the act of giving to those who offer some form of support to the cause (Fisher and Ackerman, 1998; Simpson et al., 2017). Table 1 offers a summary of research on these topics, including the main findings as well as their distinctive features. As the table shows, however, the results are not conclusive. For example, with regard to social norms, some studies demonstrate a strong positive influence on prosocial behavior (Cialdini et al., 1990; White and Simpson, 2013), but others fail to find a significant effect of some types of norms, such as social injunctive norms (White et al., 2009). Regarding recognition, Winterich, Aquino, Mittal, and Swartz (2013) find public recognition effective on volunteering behavior; and, supporting this, Kristofferson, White, and Peloza

(2014) conclude that social observability can encourage people to support a cause. However, Simpson et al. (2017) show that public recognition (as compared with more private forms of recognition) cannot be effective at motivating donations for some individuals.

Insert Table 1 about here

There are several reasons why some of these results may conflict with each other, leading to an inaccurate understanding of the effectiveness of these campaigns. First, some studies have failed to consider that there are different types of recognition (i.e., private vs. public recognition – Karlan and McConnell, 2014; Winterich et al., 2013) and different types of social norms (i.e., descriptive vs. injunctive – Agerström, Carlsson, Nicklasson, and Guntell, 2016; Croson, Handy, and Shang, 2010; Goldstein, Cialdini, and Griskevicius, 2008; Nolan et al., 2008; Lindersson, Guntell, Carlsson, and Agerström, 2019). These differences are important, as noted by Smith et al. (2012), affecting the very nature of the campaigns and carrying significant consequences for their effectiveness. Second, prior research has frequently studied these two strategies, recognition and social norms, separately. However, given that charities usually employ several activities at the same time, a joint approach is needed to properly understand whether different activities may have a reinforcing or, on the contrary, weakening effect on donations. Third, as noted by previous literature, donation decisions are multidimensional and there are several factors that differently may affect the decision of whether to donate at all and the subsequent decision of how much to donate (Fajardo et al., 2018; Forbes and Zampelli, 2011; Klinowski, 2015). However, some previous work does not differentiate between an individual's decision to make a donation and that of how much to donate. While related, both decisions are substantively different, and understanding the effectiveness of solicitation strategies on each of them is critical to visualize the ultimate impact of these strategies. Finally, the literature has widely recognized that individual differences among donors can strongly influence their reactions to solicitation campaigns (Anghelcev and Sar, 2014; Simpson et al., 2017; Smith et al., 2012). Thus, understanding the extent to which tactics such as those based on recognition or social norms are more or less effective at raising funding depending on specific individual traits becomes an important research theme (Simpson et al., 2017).

With the goal to improve our understanding of the effect of social norms and recognition on charitable giving, this study investigates the extent to which an individual's willingness to donate and the donation amount are influenced by (1) descriptive vs. injunctive social norms; (2) public vs. private recognition; and (3) their joint impact. Similarly, the study considers a central psychological trait, self-construal, reflecting the extent to which the self is viewed as being separate and distinct from others or interconnected with others (Singelis, 1994), and investigate its moderating role in the influence of social norms and recognition on charitable giving. In doing all this, the present paper contributes to the literature in several important ways. First, it is demonstrated that the type of social norm and the type of recognition matter, as they can produce significant different effects on both the donation decision and the donation amount. Second, the study shows that, when used together, recognition and social norms can operate in different ways. While some combinations can produce strong positive effects on charitable giving, others are ineffective or even produce negative results. Third, this study demonstrates that self-construal becomes a central psychological trait explaining the different reactions of donors to campaigns.

Conceptual framework

The present study considers charitable giving, the dependent variable, as multidimensional (Fajardo et al., 2018), contemplating both an individual's decision to make a donation and, if so, how much to donate. These decisions, while related, present significant differences such as in terms of the cost of thinking (decision about the donation amount is more costly; Gneezy et al., 2012). These differences also relate to aspects such as the perceived psychological involvement and risk in decision-making (Huh, Vosgerau, and Morewedge, 2014), which may explain previous findings about the lack of correspondence between willingness to contribute and donated amounts (Kristofferson et al., 2014; Lindersson et al., 2019; Simpson et al., 2017). This decision also implies that, while one individual shows a willingness to contribute, her or his decision about how much to donate may differ from that of another individual (Edwards and List, 2014). By considering these two decisions separately, this paper can improve our understanding of the potentially different role of social norms and recognition.

One of the main needs of human beings is to be in line with social norms and to belong to social groups, since these represent a fundamental role in the formation of a social identity (Brewer and Gardner, 1996). Social norms can become a potentially powerful driver of behavior (David and Rundle-Thiele, 2019) and, therefore, of charitable giving (Agerström et al., 2016; Goldstein et al., 2008; Lindersson et al., 2019; White et al., 2009). This study distinguishes between two types of social norms, descriptive and injunctive, and test their main effects on donations. As Cialdini et al. (1990, p. 1015) define, a descriptive norm is one that “describes what is typical or normal, what most people do”, while an injunctive norm refers to “rules or beliefs as to what constitutes morally approved or disapproved conduct”. Each norm represents separate sources of motivation and, therefore, can have different influences on behavior (Smith et al., 2012).

Another important need motivating human behavior is to achieve a positive self-image (White and Peloza, 2009). Individuals seek recognition because they need praise that reinforce their altruistic actions (Fisher and Ackerman, 1998), maintain their status (Karlan and McConnell, 2014) and social rewards, which include “emotional satisfaction, spiritual values and the sharing of humanitarian ideas” (Arnett et al., 2003, p. 90). Recognition, or the expression of appreciation by others about the act of giving toward those who offer some form of support to the cause (Fisher and Ackerman, 1998), is expected to become another important driver of charitable giving (Croson and Shang, 2008). Fisher and Ackerman (1998, p. 264) distinguish between two types of recognition: private and public. Private recognition refers to those situations when only the organization and the donor know the expression of appreciation, while public recognition occurs “when the donor’s donation decision will be made known to others” (Simpson et al., 2017, p. 1258). Given the distinguishing features of whether the acknowledgment is made public or not, they can potentially have different effects on charitable giving.

In addition, the paper also examines the joint impact between social norms and recognition. Given that some of these strategies may rely on related underlying mechanisms, such as social pressure, it is unclear how they may work together in influencing charitable giving. Previous work notes that descriptive norms contribute to the formation of an individual’s social identity and induce them to act in line with social groups (Terry, Hogg, and White, 1999; White et al., 2009). Other studies indicate that public

recognition is also a mechanism which exerts pressure because of its high level of social observability (Kristofferson et al., 2014; Simpson et al., 2017). Our study tries to identify the combinations of social norms and recognition that, acting through social pressure, motivate or, on the contrary, discourage individual donations.

Finally, our model acknowledges that one of the reasons why individuals behave very differently when exposed to a similar campaign resides in their latent personality and psychological characteristics (Anghelcev and Sar, 2014). Within the context of charitable giving, self-construal can be central to understanding individual heterogeneity (Allen, Eilert, and Peloza, 2018; Simpson et al., 2017). The key is where people put their focus, whether on their own interests – independent self-construal – or on the interests of others – interdependent self-construal (Singelis, 1994). The present study proposes that self-construal will moderate the relationships between social norms and recognition and the donation behaviors studied. Figure 1 provides a graphical representation of the proposed conceptual model.

Insert Figure 1 about here

Hypothesis development

Social norms and charitable giving

Descriptive norms indicate the predominant behavior in a group of people (Cialdini et al., 1990). They can also produce a feeling of social pressure (White et al., 2009), since by accepting these norms and acting according to them, the individual will perform desirable behaviors adjusting to others' expectations (Deutsch and Gerard, 1955). These effects can be very powerful in awakening people's motivation to help, leading them to contribute to social welfare and resulting in a positive personal feeling for it (Croson and Shang, 2008; Woodyard and Grable, 2014). Previous complementary findings note the positive effect on the predisposition of individuals to donate when they are exposed to the donation behavior of others or other types of social information (Hysenbelli, Rubaltelli, and Rumiati, 2013; Klinowski, 2015; Shang and Croson, 2009;). Thus, it is expected that solicitations to contribute to a social fundraising campaign, which include descriptive norms, will positively influence the individual's intention to donate.

However, the effects of these norms on donation amount may not be as clear and evident. The earlier literature also suggests a variety of impacts depending on how knowing others' contributions are perceived and interpreted by individuals (Andreoni, 1990; Becker, 1974; Jackson, 2016; Martin and Randal, 2008; Shang and Croson, 2009). The use of descriptive norms can lead individuals to adapt to social information and perform behaviors similar to those observed or known in reference groups of people (Hysenbelli et al., 2013; Jackson, 2016; Shang and Croson, 2009). Nevertheless, counterproductive effects could also be found using descriptive norms (Andreoni, 1990; Becker, 1974). The use of descriptive norms can also raise questions about whether there is really a need to give, since knowing about the contributions of others can make potential donors feel that their contribution is not as necessary (Klinowski, 2015). In addition, if the suggested amount is considered high, it could have negative effects on donations, leading to a crowding out effect (Clotfelter, 1985; Soule and Madrigal, 2015), where people may believe that the costs are being covered by the high contributions of others. They could infer that other people's contributions may suffice to support the cause and therefore tend to contribute lower amounts. Even if the suggested amount is low, people who would have donated a higher amount may be tempted to donate a lower amount, adjusting to the proposed donation, or even donating smaller amounts (Goswami and Urminsky, 2016). Based on these latter assumptions, it could be expected that the impact of solicitations, which include descriptive norms, will be predominantly negative on the amount donated.

H1a. Descriptive norms will positively influence the decision to donate.

H1b. Descriptive norms will negatively influence the donation amount.

Injunctive norms indicate through rules or beliefs what should or should not be done (Cialdini et al., 1990). They are also likely to guide people by facilitating the decision-making process, helping them to reduce situations of uncertainty. These norms allow organizations to make suggestions that may be perceived as appropriate (Edwards and List, 2014), bringing security as they help individuals to distinguish between a good and a bad action. Previous literature acknowledges the strength of these norms on behavior (Brennan et al., 2016) and supports the idea, showing a positive influence of injunctive norms on sustainable behavior (Cialdini et al., 1990; White et al., 2009; White and Simpson

2013). Solicitations which include injunctive norms are expected to motivate individuals to donate. Arguing in line with Soule and Madrigal's (2015), through injunctive norms individuals can feel the need to 'do the right thing', leading them to conform strictly to these norms. In addition, when it is the organization that suggests a particular behavior (as an adequate behavior that should be done), individuals may take this request as important and necessary (Soule and Madrigal, 2015), as well as feeling the need to act correctly (Cialdini and Trost, 1998). Thus, when encountering a suggested amount to donate, framed as an injunctive norm, individuals will more likely follow the rule, guiding their subsequent behavior.

H2a. Injunctive norms will positively influence the decision to donate.

H2b. Injunctive norms will positively influence the donation amount.

Recognition and charitable giving

Recognizing publicly the contribution made to a social cause is a way of rewarding individuals for their voluntary contribution, since they do not receive any other type of compensation for it (Fisher and Ackerman 1998). Public recognition can also be a relevant mechanism to show desired behaviors, as individuals have a natural motivation to improve their self-image and their social status (Karlan and McConnell, 2014), showing an altruistic image to others (Fisher and Ackerman, 1998). Therefore, being publicly recognized for contributing to a social cause could be a very attractive element that encourages donations. However, in some cases, people present their support for a social cause motivated by the exclusive interest of showing an altruistic image of themselves (Burroughs et al., 2013). But, in line with the study of Kristofferson et al. (2014), once this self-image has been satisfied (deciding to donate), they will have no reason to continue supporting the cause in a meaningful way (donating less significant amounts). White and Peloza (2009), on the other hand, find that those demonstrating concern for their public image contributed more economically in those situations where the benefits of the aid were highlighted. This may be attributed to the concern for self-image shown to others and the motivation to adjust to their expectations, as suggested by Deutsch and Gerard (1955). Thus, the effect of solicitations which contain public recognition in their messages seems more ambiguous on the donation amount.

H3a. Public recognition will positively influence the decision to donate.

H3b. Public recognition has an indeterminate influence on the donation amount.

Private recognition becomes a reinforcement for the performed behavior to help others, satisfying the need to feel good about oneself (Croson and Shang, 2008). This recognition, with the emphasis on providing individual benefits, can thus be considered as a relevant component in the human objective of maintaining coherence between the individual's values and actions (Festinger, 1957), since does not imply social pressure. Thus, individuals can act according to their own interest, increasing their feeling of well-being by contributing to a good cause (Burroughs et al., 2013). Private recognition can also increase the internal motivation to perform prosocial behaviors that ultimately can encourage individuals to provide greater economic contributions (Simpson et al., 2017; White and Peloza, 2009). Supporting this, Kristofferson et al. (2014) found that initial support of a social cause in a context of low social observability (i.e., in private) leads the person to give more significant subsequent support.

H4a. Private recognition will positively influence the decision to donate.

H4b. Private recognition will positively influence the donation amount.

Interaction effects of social norms and recognition

Previously, it was predicted that solicitations with descriptive norms and those with public recognition would lead to increases in the intention to donate. However, if both mechanisms are considered together, their joint effect can deteriorate due to imposing an excessive level of social pressure. Descriptive norms that contribute to the formation of an individual's social identity (White et al., 2009) introduce social pressure to follow the guidelines established by social groups (Terry et al., 1999). Similarly, public recognition also exerts social pressure by having people's behavior observed/known by others (Simpson et al., 2017). Considering descriptive norms and public recognition together can lead people to feel that they are contributing for materialistic motives (Burroughs et al., 2013), with the goal of showing others their behavior or of achieving recognition, and not for more altruistic reasons (Fisher and Ackerman, 1998). This may discourage individuals who will demonstrate less intention to donate and lower amounts. On the other hand, using injunctive norms and private recognition together can be beneficial,

as individuals can feel that they are acting according to their own volition and values (Festinger, 1957). By suggesting morally approved conduct, injunctive norms help individuals learn what the right thing to do is (Cialdini et al., 1990); and through private recognition, individuals' behavior is reinforced (Festinger, 1957). For this reason, using solicitations with injunctive norms and private recognition together will further encourage people to react positively, showing greater intentions to donate and donating higher amounts.

H5a. There is a negative joint effect between descriptive norms and public recognition of their impact on the decision to donate and the donation amount.

H5b. There is a positive joint effect between injunctive norms and private recognition of their impact on the decision to donate and the donation amount.

The moderating role of self-construal

Previous research highlight that the degree to which people conform to social influence may depend on each individual's own intrinsic motivation (Lee and Woodliffe, 2010; Yakobovitch and Grinstein, 2016). The effectiveness of introducing social norms and recognition in solicitation campaigns may vary depending on the individuals' motives for engaging in responsible behavior (Allen et al., 2018; Lee and Woodliffe, 2010) and their personal characteristics. A relevant personal aspect to consider in this study is the degree to which a person feels more or less connected to others and the demonstrated ability to empathize with them; that is, self-construal (Singelis, 1994). Then, when people show a high degree of interdependence in relation to others (interdependent self-construal), their concern for helping others is greater than if they are more independent, where the interest is focused on their own goals (Singelis, 1994). In line with Verhaert and Van den Poel (2011), it is expected that when individuals are other oriented, they want to increase the welfare of others. Therefore, is more likely to act by helping regardless of whether others are helping or not, and, thus, that the impact of social influence may be diminished. However, interdependent individuals may take an organization more seriously when the request to help others is suggested by the organization itself (i.e., an injunctive norm recommending a correct behavior), since it can transmit a greater sense of need (Soule and Madrigal, 2015).

H6a. The influence of descriptive norms on the decision to donate and the donation amount is weaker when interdependent self-construal dominates.

H6b. The influence of injunctive norms on the decision to donate and the donation amount is stronger when interdependent self-construal dominates.

The motivation of people to donate in public can be due to the desire to present a positive self-image to others (White and Peloza, 2009). However, it may also be due to the need to motivate others to donate (Karlan and McConnell, 2014) and to communicate the relevance of supporting the cause (Kristofferson et al., 2014). These authors suggest this effect when people are highly connected to the cause, a feeling related to the “level of affective involvement and identification an individual has with a social cause’s mission and goal” (p.1161). Therefore, when individuals show high interdependent self-construal and, thus, an individual feels involvement with others’ problems, they may respond more strongly when the behavior is publicly recognized. In line with this, it is expected just the opposite effect when recognition is private, as this type of recognition limits the ability to show others their intrinsic support for the cause.

H6c. The influence of public recognition on the decision to donate and the donation amount is stronger when interdependent self-construal dominates.

H6d. The influence of private recognition on the decision to donate and the donation amount is weaker when interdependent self-construal dominates.

Method

Stimuli and procedure

To test the proposed framework and its related hypotheses, this study used a 3 (social norm: descriptive, injunctive, no norm) x 3 (recognition: public, private, no recognition) between-subjects experimental design. First, participants were given information about the campaign, as well as the request for collaboration in a paper format. All of them were informed that the (fictitious) nongovernmental organization (NGO) For a Healthy World! wanted to raise funds to help alleviate the effects of a disease affecting children in Vanuatu, a region located in the South Pacific ocean, through a new campaign

named “Health, Vanuatu”. Despite the known hypothetical nature of the campaign, participants were asked to treat such a request as if it were real, in order to obtain reliable responses. It should be noted that, to guarantee anonymity and avoid bias in the information provided to other participants, they were also required not to share the information that each one visualized in their request.

To achieve the level of manipulation in the central variables of this study, the procedure was as follows. For solicitations which contained social norms, participants read “Other donors, on average, make an individual contribution for this type of cause of €20”^a. Participants in the injunctive norm condition read “From For a Healthy World! we consider that an adequate economic contribution for this type of cause would be €20”. A control condition was included, in which participants were not exposed to any recommended amount of money. Following Fisher and Ackerman (1998), solicitations that included recognition were manipulated as follows. Participants in the public recognition condition read “We want to thank our donors for their collaboration and for this reason we periodically publish on our website and official Facebook page the names of those who have made an economic contribution to any of the causes”. Participants in the private recognition condition read “We want to thank our donors for their collaboration and for this reason all those who have made an economic contribution to any of the causes are sent by e-mail a certificate recognizing their participation as a donor in the organization”. A control condition was included, in which participants were not exposed to any message of recognition.

Participants and measures

A total of 318 Business and Management undergraduate students from a major European university were offered voluntary collaboration in the study. The final sample was composed of 261 participants, who correctly completed the questionnaire. The remainder of the questionnaires were removed, either because the respondent did not answer all questions in the questionnaire or did not correctly answer the control question about the fictitious nature of the nongovernmental organization (NGO) used in the study “Did you know about this NGO?”. Of the final sample, 62.7% were female, with a mean age of 20.80 years ($SD = 2.64$, range 18–49).

After reading the randomly assigned scenario, participants had to indicate whether they would be willing to donate (Yes/No). Those who responded positively to the above question were also required to indicate

the amount they would be willing to donate. We want to note that the participants were fully aware that it was a fictitious campaign, and their responses would be taken as hypothetical projections of donation behavior. Therefore, when we talk about intention to donate or donation amount, we refer to those predispositions to give and donation amounts observed in a hypothetical scenario. These measures of hypothetical decisions may be taken as good enough proxies for actual decisions (Sjåstad, 2019), given the predictive power these variables have for making inferences about actual future behavior, where the intentions are the most proximal determinant of behavior (Ajzen, 1991; Bekkers and Crutzen, 2007; Klinowski, 2015; Knowles, Hyde, and White, 2012). Participants were also presented with several questions to which they had to indicate on a 7-point Likert scale (1 = “Totally disagree”; 7 = “Totally agree”) their agreement or disagreement with different statements. To measure self-construal, the scale of Singelis (1994) was used^b. Participants also reported their tendency to develop prosocial behaviors – measured through the Donation Attitudes Scale (Goswami and Urminsky, 2016) adapted from the Helping Attitude Scale (Nickell, 1998) – and provided information about their past contributions in other similar campaigns. The scale used to measure the tendency to develop prosocial behaviors was found reliable ($\alpha = .771$). Finally, a set of sociodemographic characteristics such as gender, age and income were also collected.

Model specification

First, to test our hypotheses (H1 - H5) of the effects of social norms and recognition on the intention to donate we conducted a Chi-square analysis. We followed this test with a one-way ANOVA analysis to test the effects on the donation amount. Given that this study analyzes two decisions where one (amount) is conditioned to the other (intention to donate), a simultaneous modeling that takes into account the nature of this conditioned relationship is necessary. Because participants could indicate their intention to contribute or not, selection bias may occur. Therefore, we employed the Heckman's (1979) two-stage correction approach. The first stage model used a probit regression in which the dependent variable was the intention to donate (a dummy variable equal to 1 if participant i answered yes and 0 if participant i answered no). From this probit the estimated parameters were used to calculate the inverse Mills ratio (IMR), which is the ratio of the probability density function to the cumulative distribution function of a

distribution. IRM was then incorporated as an additional independent variable in the second stage model of truncated Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) estimation.

To achieve identification, in the first stage, we used affinity with the cause. To measure this aspect, we used the scale from the study of Kristofferson et al. (2014). Those participants who scored below the mean ($M = 3.83$, $SD = 1.25$, range 1–7) were classified as having low affinity with the cause and those who scored above the mean were classified as having high affinity. For the Intention to Donate model therefore we estimated the following first-stage model equation:

$$\begin{aligned}
 Intention_i = & \beta_0 + \beta_1 Desc_i + \beta_2 Inju_i + \beta_3 Publi + \beta_4 Priv_i + \beta_5 SelfConst_i \\
 & + \beta_6 Desc_i X Publi + \beta_7 Inju_i X Priv_i \\
 & + \beta_8 SelfConst_i X Desc_i + \beta_9 SelfConst_i X Inju_i \\
 & + \beta_{10} SelfConst_i X Publi + \beta_{11} SelfConst_i X Priv_i \\
 & + \beta_{12} Controls_i + \varepsilon_i
 \end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

where $Intention_i$ is the dependent variable; $Desc_i$ = descriptive norm; $Inju_i$ = injunctive norm; $Publi$ = public recognition; $Priv_i$ = private recognition; $SelfConst_i$ = self-construal for individual i (which take the value 1 if individual i has a high level of interdependent self-construal); $Desc_i X Publi$ and $Inju_i X Priv_i$ are the interactions between social norms and recognition; $SelfConst_i X Desc_i$, $SelfConst_i X Inju_i$, $SelfConst_i X Publi$ and $SelfConst_i X Priv_i$ are the interactions between self-construal and social norms (and recognition); $Controls_i$ is a vector of control variables including *Prosocial Behavior* _{i} (which take the value 1 if individual i has a high tendency to develop prosocial behaviors), *Past Behavior* _{i} (which take the value 1 if individual i has donated to a similar campaign in the past), *Affinity* _{i} (which take the value 1 if individual i has a high affinity with the cause), *Age* _{i} of individual i , *Gender* _{i} (which take the value 1 if individual i is female), and *Income* _{i} (natural log transformed) of individual i , respectively and ε_i is the error term.

The statistical significance of the IMR in the model indicates the existence of a sample selection bias, and the Heckman two-stage approach is believed to be an appropriate procedure (Heckman, 1979). Bellow, we estimated the following second-stage model equation:

$$\begin{aligned}
(Ln(Amount_i)) = & \beta_0 + \beta_1 Desc_i + \beta_2 Inju_i + \beta_3 Publ_i + \beta_4 Priv_i \\
& + \beta_5 SelfConst_i \\
& + \beta_6 Desc_i \times Publ_i + \beta_7 Inju_i \times Priv_i \\
& + \beta_8 SelfConst_i \times Desc_i + \beta_9 SelfConst_i \times Inju_i \\
& + \beta_{10} SelfConst_i \times Publ_i + \beta_{11} SelfConst_i \times Priv_i \\
& + \beta_{12} Controls_i + \beta_{13} (IMR_i) + \varepsilon_{it}
\end{aligned} \tag{2}$$

where $ln(Amount_i)$ is the dependent variable; parameters from β_1 to β_{11} are identical to those of the Intention to Donate model; $Controls_i$ includes all the control variables of the previous model except *Affinity*; IMR_i is the Inverse Mills Ratio from the first-stage selection model and ε_i is the error term.

Results

Manipulation checks

NGO's goal. With regard to the common information provided to all participants in the different conditions, no significant differences emerged either in the purpose of the NGO ($F(2,257) = 1,145$, $p = .320$) or the objective of the campaign ($F(2,256) = .097$, $p = .907$).

Messages with social norms. Participants were asked to indicate on a 7-point Likert scale (1 = “Totally disagree”; 7 = “Totally agree”) how much they believed the NGO was trying to incentivize donations through the contributions of previous donors (or through suggestion about adequate contributions). Participants who were exposed to descriptive (injunctive) norm scored higher on the corresponding item than individuals in the other two conditions $M_{Desc} = 4.95$, $M_{Inju} = 4.02$, $M_{NoNorm} = 2.58$; $SD = 1.786$, $F(2,255) = 42.619$, $p < .001$ ($M_{Inju} = 5.30$, $M_{Desc} = 4.07$, $M_{NoNorm} = 2.98$; $SD = 1.548$, $F(2,256) = 35.775$, $p < .001$).

Messages with recognition. On the other hand, participants who were exposed to public (private) recognition scored higher on the corresponding item than individuals in the other two conditions $M_{\text{Publ}} = 6.01$, $M_{\text{Priv}} = 2.21$, $M_{\text{NoRec}} = 2.92$; $SD = 1.450$, $F(2,257) = 119.528$, $p < .001$ ($M_{\text{Priv}} = 6.36$, $M_{\text{Publ}} = 3.26$, $M_{\text{NoRec}} = 3.85$; $SD = 1.194$, $F(2,258) = 63.071$, $p < .001$).

Model-free evidence

A total of 174 participants (66.7%) were willing to donate to the campaign, and the average donation amount was €15.20 ($SD = 10.33$, range 1–50). For the donation decision, 70% of participants were willing to donate when they were exposed to solicitations which included the descriptive norm, 74% in those with the injunctive norm, and 55% in those with no norm – control condition, considering that the differences were significant ($\chi^2(2, N = 261) = 7.33$; $p < .05$). However, participants showed a similar intention to donate ($\chi^2(2, N=261) = .987$, $p = .61$) regardless of whether they received public (66%), private (64%), or no recognition – control condition (71%). A one-way ANOVA was conducted to test the effects of each condition on donation amount. This study found no strong differences between social norms ($F(2, 171) = 1.598$, $p = .21$) or between different recognitions in the donation amount $F(2, 171) = .128$; $p = .88$).

A Chi-square analysis revealed significant differences between different scenarios on the intention to donate ($\chi^2(8, N = 261) = 17.14$, $p < .05$). When solicitations used descriptive norms in their messages and recognizing privately individuals, they seemed to lead to greater intentions to donate (82.1%). Conversely, solicitations that did not include any suggestion of previously donations or appropriate amounts for contribute (no norm) and considered private recognition after the donation of individuals, led to lower intentions to donate (42.9%). Another one-way ANOVA revealed no significant differences among groups on the donation amount ($F(8, 165) = .92$, $p = .502$). Table 2 displays the descriptive statistics related to the different hypothetical scenarios used.

Insert Table 2 about here

Hypotheses testing

To test the proposed hypotheses, a set of four models for each dependent variable were estimated. First, we estimated a model including only the control variables (Model 1). Then, we added in Model 2 the main effects of the central variables of the study (i.e., social norms, recognition, and self-construal). Model 3 includes the interaction effects between social norms and recognition. Finally, Model 4 is the full model contemplating all main effects and interactions, including the moderating influence of self-construal. The results of the two-step models are shown in Table 3.

Insert Table 3 about here

Intention to Donate Model

Since it is the model with the greatest explanatory power ($\text{Pseudo-R}^2 = .180$) and contains all the variables and effects proposed, we used model M4 to describe the results obtained on the intention to donate. The findings suggest that both the descriptive norms ($\beta = 1.014, p < .05$) and injunctive norms ($\beta = .631, p < .10$) have a positive effect on intentions, thus supporting our hypotheses H1a and H2a. No significant effects, however, emerged for recognition, thus failing to support H3a and H4a. Regarding the interaction effects between social norms and recognition, as was expected, the results indicated that the intention to donate decreases when participants are exposed to descriptive norms and public recognition in the same message ($\beta = -.859, p < .10$), supporting H5a. On the other hand, while indicating an effect in the expected direction, the impact of injunctive norms and private recognition was not statistically significant, thus failing to support H5b. However, this fourth model also reveals another marginally significant interaction effect. The joint influence of descriptive norms and private recognition led participants to have higher intentions to donate ($\beta = .674, p < .10$). Concerning the moderating role of self-construal, as predicted, the results showed that the positive effect of descriptive norms on the intention to donate is smaller for interdependent individuals ($\beta = -.797, p < .10$), in support of H6a, though no other moderating effect showed significance. Some control variables also showed to have greater and positive impact on intentions to donate. Participants who showed to be pro-socially oriented

($\beta = .429$, $p < .05$), those who had made previous contributions to other campaigns ($\beta = .437$, $p < .05$) and those with higher levels of affinity with the cause ($\beta = .592$, $p < .01$) indicated greater intentions.

Donation Amount Model

For the donation amount, a different pattern of results can be observed, which highlights the importance of treating these two decisions (whether to donate or not, and how much to donate) as separate processes (Forbes and Zampelli, 2011; Fajardo et al., 2018). We also turned to model M4 to describe the results obtained, since it contains all the variables and effects proposed as well as indicates the greatest explanatory power ($R^2 = .188$). The findings suggested that, despite their positive effect, injunctive norms do not significantly influence the donation amount, thus failing to support H2b. Nevertheless, as predicted, descriptive norms have a negative influence since participants indicated that they would donate lower amounts when they were exposed to such norms ($\beta = -.934$, $p < .01$), in support of H1b. The donation amount, however, does not vary with the type of recognition provided, thus failing to support hypotheses H3b and H4b. With regard to interaction effects between social norms and recognition, two significant parameters were found. The sign for the interaction effect between descriptive norms and public recognition was negative, showing that individuals would donate smaller amounts when these norms and recognition acted together in the same message ($\beta = -.726$, $p < .05$), thus supporting hypothesis H5a. As in the Intention to Donate model, again the findings showed a positive interaction effect between descriptive norms and private recognition ($\beta = .180$, $p < .10$), where participants indicated that they would donate greater amounts when these mechanisms operated together in the same message. On the other hand, the sign for the interaction effect between injunctive norms and private recognition was positive and in the expected direction, but it did not reach significance. However, this interaction showed significant and positive impact in model M3. When participants were exposed to injunctive norms and private recognition, they showed that they would donate greater amounts under the influence of both mechanisms together ($\beta = .165$, $p < .10$), in support of hypothesis H5b. Regarding the moderating influence of self-construal, as expected, the impact of descriptive norms on donation amount is more negative for interdependent individuals ($\beta = -.231$, $p < .10$), in support of H6a. No other significant moderating effects emerged from the results, thus failing to support hypotheses H6b, H6c

and H6d. Finally, some control variables were found to have greater influence on the donation amount. Those participants who had made previous contributions to other campaigns ($\beta = -.413$, $p < .01$) and those who were female ($\beta = -.217$, $p < .10$) indicate that they would donate lower amounts. On the other hand, the age of participants indicated positive influence on amounts participants would donate ($\beta = .049$, $p < .05$). The parameter of inverse Mills ratio (IMR) was negative and significant in all models.

Discussion

Developing effective solicitation campaigns is thus at the heart of all successful of all those socially responsible behaviors and contributions provided by individuals or citizens. Gaining a proper understanding of how to do this is now considered a relevant issue for practitioners in nonprofit organizations and an important research theme in academia (Anghelcev and Sar, 2014; Guidry et al., 2014). This study investigates separately two central dimensions of charitable giving: the donation decision and the donation amount, since they involve two different processes (Fajardo et al., 2018). The results demonstrate that the effectiveness of marketing campaigns can vary significantly depending on the type of response they want to elicit. This study shows that social norms are effective at increasing people's willingness to donate. However, they are not so effective at increasing the amount donated. In fact, descriptive norms can have a negative impact on donation amounts.

This study may also help expand current knowledge on the influence of social norms on charitable giving and the underlying motives for contributing (Lee and Woodliffe, 2010; Veludo-De Oliveira et al., 2017). As noted, the use of descriptive and injunctive norms in social fundraising solicitations are able to motivate individuals to contribute to the campaign. The reason for this finding lies in the human tendency to reproduce others' behavior (Griskevicius, Cantú, and Vugt, 2012) and in the need to adjust to their expectations and to construct a social identity (Goldstein et al., 2008), based on the identification with existing social groups. However, this occurs when the decision does not involve high risk or greater effort (Huh et al., 2014). In that case – how much to donate – social norms may not be so effective, and they even can backfire. The use of descriptive norms can raise questions about whether there is really

a need to give a large amount. Knowing about the contributions of others can make potential donors feel that their contribution is not as necessary or that the funds required are already being covered (Klinowski, 2015), leading to a crowding out effect (Clotfelter, 1985; Soule and Madrigal, 2015), where people could infer that other people's contributions may suffice to support the cause and therefore tend to contribute lower amounts. Even if the suggested amount is low, people who would have donated a higher amount may be tempted to donate a lower amount, adjusting to the proposed donation, or even donating smaller amounts (Goswami and Urminsky, 2016). This negative effect, nevertheless, can be reversed when descriptive norms are jointly considered with private recognition, a mechanism whose effect on prosocial behavior has been demonstrated in previous studies (Simpson et al., 2017; Winterich et al., 2013;).

In addition, the results align with preliminary evidence showing that the impact of recognition is not always very strong in fundraising contexts. For example, Winterich et al. (2013) find that recognition does not show enough influence in cases where individuals feel sufficiently motivated by the fact of contributing, according to their internal values and their own self. Other studies also describe different effects that social observability can have on donations, since, while some suggest the importance of public image and the positive impact on charitable giving (White and Peloza, 2009), others suggest the priority of superficially causing a good image, and therefore the detrimental effect this has on donations (Kristofferson et al., 2014).

However, this study found an interesting finding since it showed recognition could be effective when combined with social norms in solicitation campaigns. The positive effect of descriptive norms on the intention to donate is stronger when individuals are privately recognized. Similarly, the negative effect of descriptive norms on the donation amount is reduced when combined with private recognition. These results suggest that individuals are highly motivated to follow others' behaviors (Griskevicius et al., 2012), especially when it comes to good and correct behaviors. Moreover, the recognition through a private certificate makes people more motivated to develop this conduct (Kristofferson et al., 2014), perceiving that their contribution is necessary and important, and feeling free from social pressure, which can cause the individual to believe that they are acting under the influence of what other people

may think (Simpson et al., 2017). This study also demonstrates that when public recognition is combined with descriptive norms, individuals are motivated to donate lower amounts. This negative impact can be justified by basing on the deleterious influence of strong social pressure that can be present when both mechanisms operate together.

Finally, the extent to which individuals see themselves as connected or separated from others (Singelis, 1994) can indeed affect the effectiveness of marketing campaigns that use social norms in their message. Specifically, this study shows that descriptive norms are less effective at eliciting donations for interdependent individuals. Given their natural connection with others, these individuals show a greater propensity to care for others (Verhaert and Van den Poel, 2011). Thus, information about what others are doing may not be motivating.

Societal implications

This study has implications for nonprofit organizations, as they can carry out their social work through the participation and commitment of individuals, and for policy makers, whose efforts focus mainly on promoting the active participation of citizens as a tool for change towards the well-being of society.

One interesting takeaway from the study is that these institutions might consider in their programs the inclusion of messages which include social norms with the purpose of motivating prosocial behaviors such as recycling, energy conservation, responsible consumption, or any practice that benefits the welfare of society. The campaigns launched by the organization should include the actions or recommendations of other previous donors/participants in order to trigger the reproduction of these behaviors in new individuals. But the power of descriptive norms can be effective, especially when campaigns are focused on boosting symbolic support or achieving greater dissemination that touches a large number of audiences, such as those that can be provided through sharing content on social networks (Guidry et al., 2014) or wearing a pin (Kristofferson et al., 2014).

However, it is important to keep in mind that the monetary amount requested may determine the interest of people in donating. The results did show a negative effect of descriptive norms on the donation amount. Moreover, based on previous work (Soule and Madrigal, 2015), the organization must make

visible the need to raise money and provoke in donors a feeling of well-being when they participate in a fundraising campaign to curb a social problem. However, if the organization opts for a campaign that includes behaviors and donations from other groups or previous donors, it is recommended to incentivize contributions made through personal recognition in order for individuals to perceive that the organization is grateful for its donors' collaboration. These mechanisms may provide individuals a feeling that makes donors believe they are being recognized for their effort (Burroughs et al., 2013) by donation, and allows them to establish a connection with existing social groups who behave similarly.

Finally, it is important for the organization to know its donors well because the propensity of each individual to care about others and to act altruistically can provide a powerful signal to the organization on how to approach each donor and design effective campaigns that do not act negatively on their high intrinsic motivation (Winterich et al., 2013). Those who show high concern for social problems and who usually contribute to social causes should also be approached by the organization in a cautious way, recompensing their behavior with valuable recognition for them, which can reinforce their good attitudes and achieving future contributions. To do so, and given the growing use of social networks, charities may consider using the information available on these sites (e.g. profiles of individuals, content analysis or level of involvement). In this way, they will be able to carry out a better segmentation of their users and identify individuals with higher concerns for social problems or even with a high motivation to mobilize others on existing social platforms (Guidry et al., 2014).

Limitations and Further Research

This study also has several limitations that can promote the development of future research. First, the use of data from a sample of students. This may be adequate in charitable giving, since organizations can prefer not to use experiments with real donors because of fears that they may alter their behavior as well as causing inconvenience. On the other hand, hypothetical scenarios with a small sample are used in this study. Although hypothetical decisions may be taken as good enough proxies for actual decisions, further research would be necessary to examine whether the effects proposed in this study can be replicated with a larger and more representative sample in a real context. Given that an invented NGO was used in the experimental design, no distinction was made between regular and new donors.

However, the behavior of these two groups of donors can be very different, and future research may test whether the proposed effects remain the same across either group, or whether any differences exist.

Second, the present study includes one moderating variable in the model, self-construal. Although the scale used to measure it has been validated and widely used in previous studies (e.g., Allen et al., 2018; Escalas and Bettman, 2005; Simpson et al., 2017), as well as recommended for studies with student samples (Wang, 2000), the reliability analyses were not strong. A representative sample of potential donors could offer better results in the measurement of this variable. It would be also interesting to consider other related variables such as the individual's tendency for prosocial habits, a variable that proved to have a great influence on future donation behavior.

Third, although descriptive norms were proposed as those that reflect what other donors normally do, an additional perspective of its effect could be based on the theory of social identity and the theory of self-categorization. Both have been integrated in previous works whose objective is to obtain tools that allow to persuade and to involve the individuals in certain social behaviors (Summers and Summers, 2017). In line with previous research consistency and identification with social groups could lead to interesting findings about the acceptance of descriptive norms based on the group through whom the recommendations are made, and the degree of connection or identification that the individual presents to them (Escalas and Bettman, 2005).

Conclusion

This study aimed to provide an improved understanding of the role of social norms and recognition in charitable giving by considering two important dimensions: the decision to donate, and the donation amount. The present study demonstrates that both descriptive and injunctive norms influence individuals and encourage them to participate in charitable giving. However, their effectiveness at increasing the amount is more limited. Providing individuals with recognition is not always an effective way of fundraising, unless it is combined with social norms (i.e., when descriptive norms and private recognition are used together, the intention to donate and the donated amount increase significantly). This finding extends previous research by providing novel insights into the interplay between these two mechanisms. Finally, this study emphasizes the importance of taking into account personal

psychological characteristics that can explain why different individuals may behave differently when exposed to the same marketing stimuli. Specifically, the present study demonstrates the moderating role played by self-construal, showing that interdependent individuals (those more connected to others) may not react positively to social norms and, thus, that organizations should refrain from using them to encourage charitable giving among these individuals.

Notes

- a. A specific amount to donate is suggested following the work of Karlan and McConnell (2014) and Edwards and List (2014), since asking for a specific amount to donate may involve less effort in decision making (Von Bergen and Miles, 2015) and so people may feel more motivated to donate. In order to determine an appropriate recommended amount, real NGOs were previously checked and the amounts that are usually proposed/received in similar campaigns. Most of them suggest amounts around €30. Given that the sample consisted of students, this amount was reduced to €20, given their lower purchasing power. Additionally, a pretest was conducted ($N = 18$) and the results revealed that €20 was an adequate amount to donate in a fundraising campaign (mean [M] = 16.11, standard deviation [SD] = 6.98, range = 10–30).
- b. Although the reliability analyses of the self-construal scale did not provide as satisfactory results ($\alpha_{interd} = .675$; $\alpha_{indep} = .589$), it was kept, given its wide validation in previous studies (Allen et al., 2018; Escalas and Bettman 2005; Simpson et al., 2017). Following Kacen and Lee (2002), the independent self-construal score was reversed and added to the interdependent score to create a self-construal index. Participants who scored below the mean ($M = 3.89$, $SD = .42$, range 2.63–5.25) were classified as independent and those who scored above the mean, as interdependent.

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Fig. 1 Conceptual Model

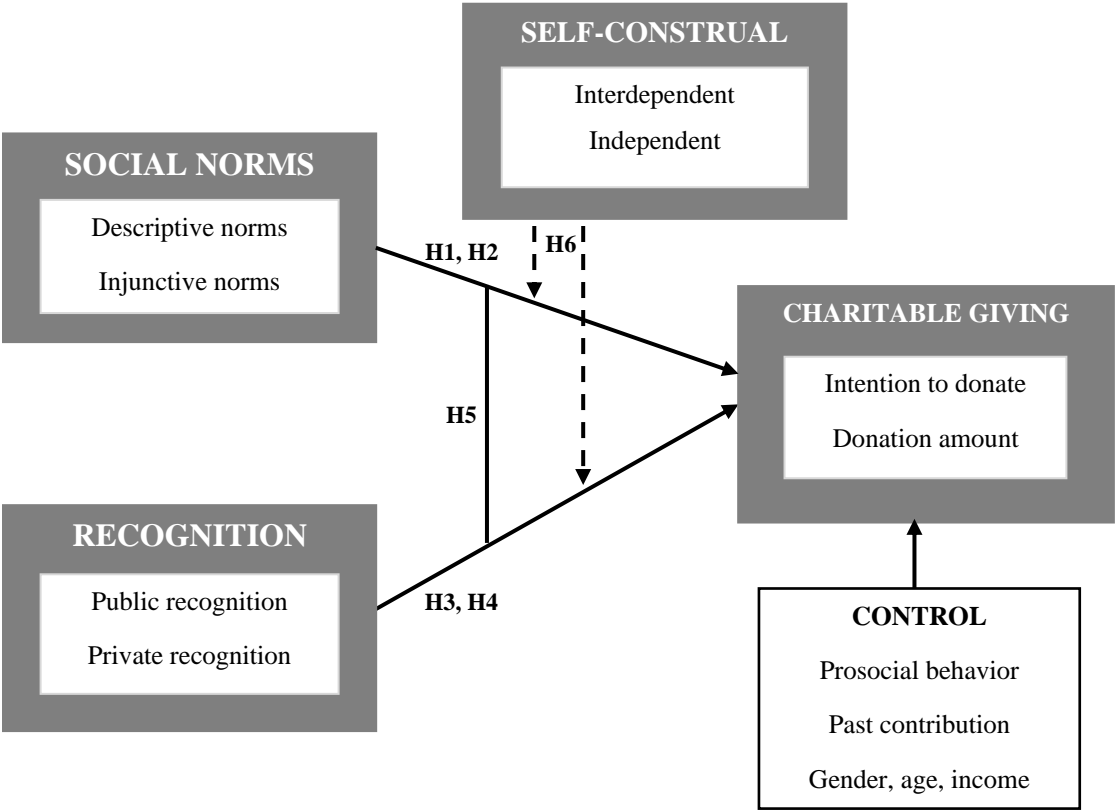


Table 1: Studies dealing with social norms and recognition and their effect on prosocial behavior

Study	Main Findings	Studied Behavior	Social Norms		Recognition		Interaction	Self-construal Moderation
			Desc	Inju	Publ	Priv		
Cialdini, Reno and Kallgren (1990)	Descriptive and injunctive norms have an impact on action, but the impact will depend on the state of the environment and on the confederate behavior.	Anti-littering	✓	✓				
Terry, Hogg and White (1999)	Subjective norms had no effect on behavioral intention, however the group norm showed a great effect mainly when people feel a high identification with the group.	Household recycling		✓				
Goldstein, Cialdini and Griskevicius (2008)	Descriptive norms (vs standard message) motivate people to engage themselves to the conservation of the environment, mainly when the norms refer to the behavior of others who were in the same place.	Environmental conservation	✓					
Nolan, Schultz, Cialdini, Goldstein and Griskevicius (2008)	Descriptive normative beliefs (vs other relevant beliefs) have the strongest effects on energy conservation behaviors.	Energy conservation	✓					
White, Smith, Terry, Greenslade and McKimmie (2009)	Descriptive and injunctive (personal) norms, perceived behavioral control and group norms (when there is strong identification with the group) predict intentions.	Household recycling	✓	✓				
Croson, Handy and Shang (2010).	Male and female giving react differently to the effect of descriptive norms. Self-focused mechanisms dominate relationship mechanisms in charitable giving. Male giving is significantly related to their beliefs about the descriptive social norm.	Donation amount	✓					

Notes: Desc. = Descriptive norms, Inju = Injunctive norms, Publ = Public recognition, Priv = Private recognition.

Table 1: Studies dealing with social norms and recognition and their effect on prosocial behavior (Continued)

Study	Main Findings	Studied Behavior	Social Norms		Recognition		Interaction	Self-construal Moderation
			Desc	Inju	Publ	Priv		
Smith, Louis, Terry, Greenaway, Clarke and Cheng (2012)	When descriptive and injunctive norms are in conflict intentions to engage in pro-environmental behavior become weaker, an effect that manifests itself in both Western and non-Western contexts.	Pro-environmental behavior	✓	✓				
White and Simpson (2013)	Descriptive and injunctive norms are more effective when the collective level of self is activated, whereas individual level of self leads to greater effectiveness of descriptive norms and self-benefit on sustainable behavior.	Grasscycling	✓	✓				✓
Hysenbelli, Rubaltelli, and Rumiati (2013)	People are willing to donate more when others' contributions are high. High anchors are more effective when the information about others' donations reflects members of the ingroup rather than the outgroup.	Charitable giving and donation amount	✓					
Cotterill, John and Richardson, (2013)	Asking for a pledge and at the same time promising public recognition to everyone who donates a book made it more likely that a household would give books.	Book donation			✓			
Winterich, Aquino, Mittal and Swartz (2013)	Prosocial behavior is motivated by the symbolization of moral identity and recognition (public), mainly when the internalization of moral identity is high.	Volunteering			✓			
Karlan and McConnell (2014)	Public recognition is an important factor in the decision to donate, however, wanting to influence others to donate is not the main reason, but the desire for prestige.	Donation amount			✓			

Notes: Desc. = Descriptive norms, Inju = Injunctive norms, Publ = Public recognition, Priv = Private recognition.

Table 1: Studies dealing with social norms and recognition and their effect on prosocial behavior (Continued)

Study	Main Findings	Studied Behavior	Social Norms		Recognition		Interaction	Self-construal Moderation
			Desc	Inju	Publ	Priv		
Kristofferson, White and Peloza, (2014)	People who provide an initial act of public token support are less likely to provide subsequent support. The findings are reversed when there is a high value alignment between self and cause.	Charitable giving			✓			
Agerström, Carlsson, Nicklasson, and Guntell (2016)	Providing people with descriptive social norms increase charitable giving, where local norms can be reliably used to increase this behavior.	Charitable giving	✓					
Simpson, White and Laran (2017)	Public recognition decreases donations when people present a high independent self-construal (separate from others) compared to when donation is private.	Charitable giving and donation amount			✓	✓		✓
Allen, Eilert, and Peloza (2018)	Individuals with an interdependent construal are more likely to donate when they learn that few others are donating, whereas people with an independent construal are more likely to donate when they learn that a large number of others are donating.	Charitable giving	✓					✓
Lindersson, Guntell, Carlsson, and Agerström (2019)	Charitable giving intentions increase when people receive information about previously made donations (descriptive norms) compared with when no such information about previous donations is given.	Charitable giving and donation amount	✓					
The present study	Descriptive and injunctive norms motivate donations. Although recognition does not show strong influence, private recognition and its interaction with descriptive norms increase intentions and amounts donated. The power of descriptive norms diminishes when the interdependent self-construal predominates.	Charitable giving and donation amount	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓

Notes: Desc. = Descriptive norms, Inju = Injunctive norms, Publ = Public recognition, Priv = Private recognition.

Table 2: Descriptive statistics by treatment (Social norms and recognition)

Treatments	Intention to donate			Donation amount		
	N	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD
(1) Descriptive and Public	31	.55	.51	17	13.18	11.19
(2) Descriptive and Private	28	.82	.39	23	14.35	9.21
(3) Descriptive and no recognition	30	.73	.45	22	12.68	9.12
(4) Injunctive and Public	31	.81	.40	25	13.88	8.32
(5) Injunctive and Private	29	.66	.48	19	16.16	11.52
(6) Injunctive and no recognition	29	.76	.44	22	17.27	9.22
(7) No norm and Public	29	.62	.49	18	19.00	13.29
(8) No norm and Private	28	.43	.50	12	13.92	7.53
(9) No norm and no recognition	26	.62	.49	16	17.50	13.17
Total	261			174		

Table 3: Regression models based on the Heckman two-stage treatment effect model

Dependent variable N = 261	Intention to donate				Donation amount			
	Controls M1	Main effects M2	Interaction effects M3	Moderating effects M4	Controls M1	Main effects M2	Interaction effects M3	Moderating effects M4
Constant	.532(.687)	.092(.719)	.110(.748)	.018(.193)	2.611***(.414)	3.081***(.365)	3.273***(.479)	3.248***(.507)
Descriptive norms		.418*(.215)	.540(.385)	1.014**(.470)		-.497***(.149)	-.813***(.215)	-.934***(.308)
Injunctive norms		.618***(.222)	.538**(.270)	.631*(.343)		.410(.172)	-.435(.180)	.378(.251)
Public recognition		-.262(.219)	.001(.267)	-.017(.343)		.097(.129)	-.129(.149)	-.102(.206)
Private recognition		-.182(.226)	-.507(.361)	-.157(.435)		.106(.131)	.020(.258)	-.150(.285)
Descriptive * Public			-.774*(.466)	-.859*(.472)			-.717**(.295)	-.726**(.302)
Injunctive * Private			.320(.461)	.236(.467)			.165*(.339)	.067(.299)
Descriptive * Private			.630(.550)	.674*(.565)			.041(.295)	.180*(.341)
Self-construal		.164(.179)	.144(.181)	.554(.422)		-.165(.110)	-.159(.107)	-.264(.271)
Self-Const. * Descriptive				-.797*(.453)				-.231*(.308)
Self-Const. * Injunctive				-.018(.448)				-.101(.265)
Self-Const. * Public				.143(.445)				-.061(.251)
Self-Const. * Private				-.608(.466)				.304(.259)
Prosocial behavior	.299(.188)	.391**(.195)	.447**(.199)	.429**(.204)	-.135(.132)	-.201(.146)	-.242(.153)	-.209(.155)
Past experience	.370**(.180)	.401**(.185)	.401**(.188)	.437**(.192)	-.403***(.137)	-.441***(.142)	-.426***(.141)	-.413***(.147)
Age	-.041(.034)	-.036(.034)	-.038(.035)	-.047(.036)	.048**(.021)	.049**(.021)	.049**(.021)	.049**(.022)
Female	.003(.189)	.009(.193)	.016(.196)	.019(.201)	-.213*(.111)	-.219**(.111)	-.218*(.111)	-.217*(.113)
Income	.224(.194)	.293(.201)	.305(.204)	.301(.207)	-.175(.128)	-.225(.137)	-.217(.375)	-.195(.139)
Affinity Cause	.660***(.180)	.601(.187)	.584***(.189)	.592***(.193)				
Inverse Mills Ratio (IMR)					-1.241***(.328)	-1.416***(.365)	-1.551***(.375)	-1.487***(.375)
Model Fit	LR χ^2 (6) = 31.84	LR χ^2 (11) = 42.38	LR χ^2 (14) = 50.93	LR χ^2 (18) = 57.61				
Pseudo-R ²	.099	.133	.159	.180				
Prob > F					.003	.437	.166	.930
R ²					.113	.145	.180	.188

Notes: Standard errors in parentheses. Significant parameters. *** p < .01; ** p < .05; * p < .10.