What Works at Work? Towards an Integrative Model Examining Workplace Campaign Strategies

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Abstract

Many United States employees are regularly asked to give charitable donations through work. The techniques used to solicit workplace donations vary. Drawing on a nationally representative survey, the study used a sample of donor responses to examine the effectiveness of several widely used campaign strategies—donor choice, company matching, public recognition, and solicitation support. The theoretical framework built on workplace research by Barman (2007) and established charitable giving mechanisms (Bekkers and Wiepking 2011a, 2011b). The research question was, Do workplace campaign strategies lead employees to participate and to make (larger) donations in the workplace? The positive outcomes of the strategies, aside from donor choice, were limited, suggesting that "tried and true" workplace fundraising strategies warrant additional scrutiny. The findings are meaningful to campaign managers seeking to identify approaches that generate workplace giving. For researchers, the results confirm growing attention to the importance of purpose-based giving in comparison with community-based giving.

Introduction

The workplace is a social environment in which employees are asked to behave philanthropically . Under the umbrella of "workplace giving," employees make donations—with employer endorsement, often in the form of a campaign—for charitable purposes. Workplace giving campaigns, organized efforts which provide employees with tools to facilitate philanthropy, are a regular part of occupational life across all sectors domestically and abroad (Barman 2006; Haski-Leventhal 2013).

Partly due to the variety of workplace giving methods within an even more diverse system of organizations, documentation of workplace giving is somewhat limited. Workplace donations are thought to be sizeable, but the most recent national analysis of *how* sizeable took place when Giving USA (2007) reported a workplace total of $4.2 billion. The United Way alone now raises approximately $3.5–$4.0 billion annually (Hrywna 2015).

Workplace giving may be at a turning point, making it more important to understand employee responses to workplace campaigning. Many in the United States work part-time and on a contractual basis, possibly influencing workers' desire to participate in employer-led philanthropic efforts. Moreover, convenient tools now allow individuals to "emulate" payroll giving through automatic deductions from bank accounts and credit cards. Ample online platforms provide venues to deploy one's own fundraising campaign and to participate in others' private initiatives (for example, Donorschoose.org and Fundly.org) and technology now makes it eaiser for for smaller companies to participate in formal workplace campaigns. The newest generation of workers (millennials) is expressing strong interest in workplace giving participation (The Millennial Impact Project 2015). If organizations hope to continue to receive

substantial gifts through the workplace, it is imperative to understand what "works" in the workplace.

Drawing on a nationally representative survey, this study relied on a sample of donor responses to several widely used campaign strategies—donor choice, company matching, public recognition, and solicitation support. The theoretical framework built on workplace research by Barman (2007) and literature about charitable giving mechanisms (Bekkers and Wiepking 2011a, 2011b). The research question was, Do workplace campaign strategies lead employees to participate and to make (larger) donations in the workplace? While the existing, limited literature on workplace giving includes some assessment of campaign strategies—typically focused on a single organization or industry—we based our empirical analyses of these factors on a national survey and contextualize the findings with theory.

Contextualizing Workplace Strategies: An Integrative Model

Scholars provide several multilevel framing approaches to organize the myriad dynamics of philanthropic giving (Bekkers and Wiepking 2011a) and workplace giving (Barman 2007; Nesbit, Christensen, and Gossett 2012). The Bekkers and Wiepking meta-analysis names eight mechanisms that influence philanthropic giving: awareness of need, altruism, values, solicitation, reputation, efficacy, costs and benefits, and psychological benefits. Locus matters and Bekkers and Wiepking categorize the mechanisms to be *within*, *between*, or *outside* potential donors. Workplace and federated giving scholars similarly identify *micro*, *meso/dyadic*, *and macro* dynamics (Barman 2007; Nesbit et al. 2012). We draw upon the similarities of *within-micro*, *between-meso*, and *outside-macro* to position workplace campaigning in broader notions of giving (see Figure 1).

Micro/Within Dynamics

The *microlevel* perspective focuses *within* an individual, and specifically on characteristics and traits—for example, demographic attributes that may correlate with philanthropic giving behavior (Barman 2007). Age is typically significant in giving, but workplace results are mixed, with only select studies finding significance (Agypt, Christensen, and Nesbit 2012; Bekkers and Wiepking 2011b; Borden, Shaker, and Kienker 2014; Haski-Levanthal 2013; Osili, Hirt, and Raghavan 2011). A higher level of education is generally positively correlated to U.S. philanthropic giving (Bekkers and Wiepking 2011b), but Osili and colleagues (2011) found workplace donors to be less likely to have bachelor's degrees than nonworkplace donors. Findings on gender in philanthropic giving are mixed (Bekkers and Wiepking 2011a). One workplace study found that women were more likely to participate than men (Carman 2004). Other workplace giving studies found race/ethnicity to be significant (Borden et al. 2014; Knight 2004), not necessarily in alignment with the general US giving. For example, Knight's (2004) university-based study noted that Black employees were more likely to donate than Caucasian employees. A higher level of religious involvement is another common correlate to philanthropic giving, but most workplace giving studies lack the data to address this characteristic. One university-based study, however, didn't find religious involvement to be significant (Nesbit et al. 2012) while a larger national study (Osili et al. 2011) determined that workplace donors attend religious service more frequently.

This discussion of micro-within dynamics indicates, first, little consensus in the workplace regarding even commonly studied characteristics of philanthropic givers, and second, that workplace giving may vary in several regards from nonworkplace giving, perhaps because of a mediating effect from the workplace environment (Shaker et al. 2014).

Meso/Dyadic/Between Dynamics

Meso- or *dyadic-level* dynamics focus on the exchange and relationships between the employer and the employee. Explorations of the "relational" or *between*-based aspect of individual and organizational interaction found length of service and salary (mirroring findings about household income) to be positively correlated with giving propensity. Likewise, position type was often significant, though not always in the same way (Agypt et al. 2012; Bekkers and Wiepking 2007; Borden et al. 2014; Knight 2004; Romney-Alexander 2001; Shaker et al. 2014). Moving up the multilevel continuum, mesolevel, or dyadic ties include the reciprocity between donors and nonprofits—including organizations' solicitation approaches and related donor experiences (Barman 2007; Nesbit et al. 2012). One can argue that the employer is an intervening or mesolevel actor that "translates" the nonprofits' charitable requests for employees and determines how the giving campaign will function. The organizational context where the campaign "host" company is, is likely an "actor" that constrains the campaign.

The nature of the workplace and the campaign may therefore be relevant in campaign success. For example, Osili and colleagues (2011) discovered that workplace giving incidence increased as the company/organization size increased and that certain industries (for example, finance) had higher participation rates. Another perspective comes from literature regarding intraorganizational workplace campaigning. Shaker (2013), examining how universities raise money from employees, found that smaller institutions tended toward higher rates of participation but more modest individual gift amounts. Shaker and colleagues' (2014) higher education congruent case study determined that campaign deployment did not necessarily lead to better rates of participation or higher giving levels.

Macro/Outside Dynamics

Barman's (2007) work proposes that neither the microlevel nor the meso/dyadic ties perspectives fully articulate the environment in which a gift is requested and a gift is given. Barman joins Bekkers and Wiepking (2011a) in suggesting that *outside* mechanisms are important and that scholars should consider the organizational or community environment. This *macrolevel* perspective posits that organizations and donors are embedded in a contextual setting that can constrain (and facilitate) their actions. The workplace provides a perspective to consider how a particular actor/entity (in this case, the employer) and the correlated campaign strategies may relate to giving. The workplace is a lens for exploring the environmental consequences in a bounded setting. One prominent example is Barman's (2007) research documenting the social shift from communities of place (for example, United Way giving) to communities of purpose (for example, donor choice models) for workplace giving.

Some scholarly analysis arguably spans the micro-, meso-, macrocontinuum. A few studies address aspects of social role, mobilization context, social exchange, and organizational identification and commitment (Agypt et al. 2012; Borden et al. 2014). However, these lack specific attention to the complexity of campaign deployment with organizational strategies and sanctions. An increasing number of scholars discuss individual- or microlevel attributes that drive workplace giving—most drawing on the interest in (and availability of data about) individual-level drivers of philanthropy. Again, some scholarship focuses on macrolevel drivers of giving (see Barman 2007) and some uses meso/dyadic attributes (Nesbit et al. 2012). Our purpose is to contextualize and analyze campaign strategies and recognize that these largely reflect meso/dyadic-level dynamics. In Figure 1, a visualization places these strategies primarily at the meso/dyadic level to reflect the employee's relationship to their workplace. The model recognizes, however, overlap with other levels. Donor choice, for example, facilitates several of

the community (macro) attributes documented by Barman's (2007) notions about shifting social norms in giving.

- FIGURE 1 -

Workplace Campaign Strategy Literature

The following subsections review the literature about the four campaign strategies of interest and establish the study hypotheses.

Donor Choice

Donors prefer to be able to direct charitable funds to their chosen purposes and organizations (Bennett 2003). Workplace donor choice, which enables employee discretion in choosing the object(s) of their charitable gifts, is increasingly common. A campaign strategy that focuses on donor choice energizes macro- and meso/dyadic-based giving dynamics (see Figure 1). By offering increased choices, the employer facilitates broader social preferences for purpose-based giving and, specifically, facilitates more favorable meso/dyadic employee-employer relationships by accommodating employee preferences.

As recently as the 1990s only 10 percent of United Ways made choice available in their campaigns (Barman 2008). Qualitative (Byrne 2005; Knight 2004) and quantitative research (Haski-Leventhal 2013; Lund 1998; Romney-Alexander 2002) now discuss donor choice as a motivating determinant of workplace giving. One study focused on University of Washington's and Washington State's Combined Federal Campaigns (Krishnamurthy 2002). When the campaign added more charities, contributions increased without dimishing support for the original organizations. A survey of fundraising personnel ($N = 164$) showed a pattern among university faculty who prioritized restricted gifts to academics and scholarships—suggesting choice was preferred (March 2005). Barman (2007) found that purpose-based giving was

increasingly attractive compared to place-based giving, implying that donors preferred to select

from a range of charitable purposes. Another study by Barman (2008) of United Way

organizations (*N*= 337) concluded that younger and more-educated populations expected greater

availability of donor choice, suggesting a generational and educational trajectory. Shaker (2013)

discovered that university faculty who were major donors gave almost exclusively for

specialized purposes, again implying the value of donor choice. The recent evidence suggests

that workplace donor choice is overwhelmingly popular and an expected option.

> Hypothesis 1: Offering employees a choice of charitable beneficiaries will increase gift
> amounts in the workplace.

Company Matching

Incentivizing a gift from one individual or entity with a gift from another (a match) is a

common fundraising tactic (Sanders, Smith, and Norton 2013). The premise is that the

prospective donor will give or give more because their gift will be magnified. In our model (see

Figure 1), matching strategies are viewed as examples of meso/dyadic-level dynamics.

Employers and campaign managers seek to influence employees' donative behavior through

matching.

Evidence shows that a match significantly affects donating and donation amounts

(Karlan, List, and Shafir 2011). In one example, donors liked to generate matching support for

charity; however, increases in the match ratio only minimally affected donations (Eckel and

Grossman 2008). A consequence of matching programs may be that donors give less because

they count the match contribution as a replacement for their own gift (see Meier 2007). Sanders

and colleagues (2013) hypothesized that matches may be more relevant to those who give at

higher levels. The magnitude of the match, the purpose of the donation, and the request timing

might also be relevant.

A policy of company matching donations—that is, when organizational donations/funds are offered as an incentive for employee donations—was the most important self-reported reason for giving among high-level (71 percent) and low-level donors (61 percent; albeit only minimally statistically significant) in one large Australian study (Haski-Leventhal 2013). It follows that donors and nondonors may respond differently to matching offers. In Shaker's (2013) qualitative study of major university donors, the respondents valued the availability of a match, noting an effect on gift timing, size, and nature. In another study, alumni of a business school reported that employer matching of their charitable contributions could influence their gift size (Okunade and Berl 1997). Likewise, millennials and their managers self-reported a higher likelihood of participation if their gifts were matched (The Millennial Impact Project 2015). Noting the particular relationship between employees and employers, employees may especially appreciate the ability to direct company matching funds to their chosen charitable purpose.

> Hypothesis 2: A policy of companies' matching employee gifts will relate positively to the likelihood of giving and the gift amount in the workplace.

Public Recognition

Giving campaigns often allow public donor identification (Andreoni and Petrie 2004). Publicity may relate to giving decisions (either positively or negatively), as may other social pressures (Silverman, Robertson, Middlebrook, and Drabman 1984; Smith and McSweeny 2007). Our model (see Figure 1) incorporates public recognition strategies as examples of meso/dyadic-level dynamics where employers/campaign managers seek to influence employee giving by facilitating recognition opportunities.

A few workplace studies assess the relative value of public recognition—that is, the publicizing donor names within the organization—though they tend to be qualitative, limited in scope, or both. Within the university context where the gifts were for internal needs, descriptive

studies of campaigns (Byrne 2005; Cardon 2009; Gray and Hohnstreiter 2012) emphasized various forms of recognition, from celebratory events to attention for participating units, as an impetus for giving. In other cases, the purpose for recognition was broader and discussed in organizational terms as, for example, an avenue for encouraging other potential donors (Knight 2004; Shaker 2013). Millennial workplace donors, meanwhile, reported an interest in public recognition and incentives, such as competitions (The Millennial Impact Project 2015). Positive responses to public recognition most often centered upon group experiences associated with giving.

A Chinese study directly examined the roles of public recognition and associated pressures on workplace giving (Du, Zhao, and Zhang 2014). This research indicated that donating was (in some situations) "rarely voluntary," and indeed obligatory. Pressure in the form of releasing lists of donors and donation amounts was negatively correlated with intentions to donate; the research did not examine the effect on donation amounts. This "flip side" of public recognition—when employees wanted to publicize their participation for fear of negative consequences—has parallels within the American workplace. Nesbit and colleagues' (2012) university-based study reported that some individuals said that they donated as a form of self-defense. Individual-level, public recognition, rather than group-centered recognition, generally garnered a negative response in the workplace research.

In this study, public recognition is derived from self-reported data; how important is public recognition to the respondent's workplace giving? Extending the literature, we predict that the role of public recognition might actually be negatively related to workplace giving.

> Hypothesis 3: The role of public recognition as a motivation for giving within the workplace will negatively relate to likelihood of giving and gift amount.

Solicitation Support

Demonstrating giving through public recognition may be intertwined with donors'

responses to gift solicitation. "Solicitation"—or the very act of being asked to give and how one

is asked—is an integral to the giving decision (Bekkers and Wiepking 2011a). An example of a

meso/dyadic-level dynamic is where employers, campaign managers, or peers seek to influence

employee giving behavior by leveraging different means of solicitation.

Lund's (1998) survey of United Way participants indicated a positive perception of

volunteer leaders among those who contributed to the campaign. Likewise, use of "departmental

representatives" was deemed a good strategy by the donor majority in a small qualitative portion

of a larger university-based study (Knight 2004). In 2015's The Millennial Impact Project tudy,

the millennial participants reported that both supervisors and coworkers influenced their giving,

although coworkers more substantially so. March (2005), in a study of higher education

fundraisers, discovered a perception that participation was most likely with solicitation by

campaign supporters—peers, department chairs, the campaign chair—or by the university

president. In the Chinese context, Du and colleagues (2014) noted that campaigns organized by

peers rather than supervisors resulted in a higher intention to participate (and a perception of a

lower degree of pressure). In a mail survey to over 200 faculty donors, "peer pressure" was one

of the lowest rated forms of motivation (Holland 1997). Perhaps not surprisingly, given

stereotypes about fundraising personnel, Holland's (1997) participants said that neither phone

calls nor visits from "professional fundraisers" were important in their gift decisions. When

donors spoke about "professional fundraisers" and "peer pressure" versus questions framed in

less leading language, differences of opinion emerged, explaining to some degree variation

between study findings. In the present analysis, a question asked whether solicitation by an

employer or by a friend/associate were major motivators, minor motivators, or nonmotivators. In that context we hypothesized positive outcomes.

> Hypothesis 4: Solitication by the employer or a friend/associate will positively relate to likelihood of giving and gift amount in the workplace.

Methodology

The existing research provides important, if limited, insights from which we sought to develop an understanding of workplace giving characteristics within the campaign context. We hoped to advance both scholars' and practitioners' understanding of campaign strategy effectiveness in relation to donor choice, company matching, public recognition, and solicitation support.

Data

The data were drawn from a nationally representative survey on workplace giving administered in late 2008 by Knowledge Networks, a survey company that maintains a nationally representative panel. The survey was given to currently employed, full-time workers ages twenty-five and above and had a response rate of 71 percent. While the full sample was approximately 6,000 respondents, our analysis focused on those whose workplaces offered giving. This sample was 1,858 respondents. Respondents were asked about the presence of a workplace campaign, whether and how much they donated in the previous twelve months, and about select characteristics of their workplace campaign. The questionnaire included items about nonworkplace giving in the format of the *Philanthropy Panel Study* (see Panel Study of Income Dynamics [PSID] 2016). While some years old, the data are a source for other research (Osili et al. 2011) and offer insights into US workplace giving habits not available elsewhere.

Measures

Our dependent variable of interest was employee giving to their workplace campaigns. We examined incidence of giving and logged amounts of giving through the workplace using questions asked directly of the respondents (see Appendix A).[1] Respondents were asked if they had donated (separate questions for workplace and nonworkplace) and, if they had, how much. For the ordinary least squares (OLS) analysis, the gift amount was put into logarithmic form, a common transformation used to help limit any undue influence of outlier values.

We conditioned the analyses on whether the respondent reported availability of a workplace giving campaign of any sort for continuity (between workplace or nonworkplace giving). For our independent variables of interest, we included whether the campaign offered observed opportunities to aid in and/or incentivize giving. These included donor choice and donor matching. The donor choice question was asked only of respondents who reported giving through the workplace and could not be used to test incidence. We included additional variables for possible influences: whether the employer or a coworker requesting gifts would be a motivating factor in the giving decision, and whether public recognition for giving influenced the respondents. For robustness, we completed several analyses split by gender, age (see Appendix B), and industry of employment (Appendix C and Appendix D).

The industry splits are presented in the appendix as a sample of the differences that emerged. These analyses recognize that giving strategies like donor choice and matching may not be randomly distributed across companies/industries nor equally influential across key demographics like age and gender, suggesting a study limitation.

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[1] In some instances we also examined incidence of nonworkplace giving for comparison and context.

For hypothesis 1, the question examining thedonor choice was, "Did you have the option to direct all or a portion of your workplace campaign donation to a specific nonprofit organization or cause in the past twelve months?"

For hypothesis 2, the question examining the availability of employer matching began, "To your knowledge, what types of charitable giving is your employer involved in?" and offered "Matching employee donations to charities" as one choice. These first two questions were asked in a yes/no format.

For hypothesis 3, the question examining public recognition began, "When you make donations to a workplace campaign, how important is it to you that the workplace campaign organization . . . " One of the provided options was "Give public recognition for my donation." The format of the question asked respondents to indicate whether this was very unimportant, somewhat unimportant, neutral, somewhat important, or very important.

For hypothesis 4, the question examining solicitation support began, "Indicate whether the following is a major motivation, minor motivation, or no motivation at all when you give to nonprofit organizations:" and included among the subheads: "Being asked by your employer" and "Being asked by a friend or associate," which were used in this analysis. Respondents were asked whether each was a major reason, minor reason, or no reason. To be clear, the question and response options assumed that respondents had had this experience and could cite it as a major reason, minor reason, or no reason.

For the analysis, we operationalized all the questions as binary variables, though nonbinary variants were tested for robustness with no significant differences in the results. Fordetail, including coding/recoding, please see Appendix A.

Analysis and Results

Table 1 presents descriptive information about the study sample. The percentage of people who reported charitable gifts is higher than that shown in other surveys, such as the Philanthropy Panel Study, which reported a 64.2 percent incidence of giving during roughly the same time period (PSID 2016). We attribute this to the inclusion of only employed individuals, a population that tends to give more frequently than the unemployed (PSID 2016).

-- TABLE 1 --

Separate analyses, probit and OLS regressions, were elected over a single tobit because the donor choice variable was asked only of those who reported giving through the workplace. The methods also underscore the two-part nature of giving: the decision to give (probit) and, if affirmative, how much to give (OLS). For all regression models, the weights included with the survey data were used.

While OLS is typically the standard analysis, a basic binary (yes/no) analysis, like probit, was useful in this study because different factors may influence the decision to give in comparison with decision of how much to give. Importantly, these influences do not necessarily operate in the same direction. If a factor induces a small gift from someone who otherwise would not donate, this factor could present as positive in the probit but negative in the OLS. If only one of these analyses were completed, this effect may not have been captured. Our standard controls included microlevel factors: age, income, education, and gender, which are discussed in the next section.

Microlevel, Demographic Results

We began with the probit analyses for context, examining factors that shaped whether the employees gave (Table 2, probit marginal effects reported). Educational level is not significant in participation in workplace giving, though it is externally. Respondents making $100,000-

$149,000 (omitted category is below $50,000) were more likely to give at work *and* outside of work. Age was significant in both contexts and gender was not significant in either. In the OLS analyses, in the workplace, being better paid and more highly educated were positive and significantly correlated with larger gifts (Table 3). Age was also significant in gift amounts while gender was not.

-- TABLE 2 --

-- TABLE 3 --

Meso/dyadic-level and Macrolevel Results

We examined the meso/dyadic-level (donor choice, matching, recognition, solicitation support) and macrolevel (donor choice) dynamics.

Hypothesis 1: Donor Choice

As predicted, donor choice was positively correlated with the amount given through the workplace (Table 3). This finding confirmed our first hypothesis. Holding all other variables constant, the presence of donor choice increased workplace donations by $58 for those already donating through the workplace.[2] Indeed, donor choice emerged as the key driver for gift amounts.

Hypothesis 2: Company Matching

The presence of company matching donations was found to be positive and significant on its own in giving incidence and amount (Tables 2 and 3). Holding all other variables constant, the presence of company matching increased the incidence of workplace giving by almost 8 percent. This suggested some support for our second hypothesis. However, when considered with a donor choice dummy variable (available only for the OLS model and presented in Table 3), company

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[2] The value is the difference between two expected values, calculated from the regression results while holding all other variables at means. This calculation is reproduced for all significant findings.

matching had only a slightly positive effect on the gift amount, which was not statistically significant.

Hypothesis 3: Public Recognition

The employee's response to public recognition had a nonsignificant but negative effect on giving in the workplace in incidence and amount (Tables 2 and 3). We draw from this little conclusive support for the hypothesis. The preference for public recognition may have been considered a socially undesirable response, perhaps leading respondents to view recognition negatively and to be less likely to respond positively. This may have led to an underestimation of recognition's effects.

Related to this, we also recognize that our nonfindings may be attributed to the limitations of the available data to more precisely differentiate between (1) how important respondents' self-reported preference was for public recognition for their donation and (2) how bestowed public recognition actually influences workplace giving. The preferential versus observational distinction is a potentially important one that deserves future attention.

Hypothesis 4: Solicitation Support

We examined campaign "asks" by using two variables that allowed the respondent to list encouragement from either (1) the employer or (2) an associate or friend as a motivating factor in the gift decision. We called these solicitation support variables. The employer solicitiation support variable held a strong *positive* significance for whether an individual donated (a 9.1 percent increase; Table 2). It had a negative (though nonsignificant) effect on the amount donated (Table 3). Being asked by a friend/associate did not motivate workplace participation and had a significant negative effect on gift amount. This signaled mostly negative, though inconclusive, findings for the fourth hypothesis. Employer encouragement may have moved

neutral individuals to donate, but these individuals did not seem to donate as much as those who did not need encouragement to give. Meanwhile, peer influence did not have the desired effects. Workplace relationships, therefore, were connected to donations in a complex manner.

Discussion

Bekkers and Wiepking's (2011a) review of philanthropic mechanisms suggests that locus matters. They propose that giving mechanisms can be categorized as *within*, *outside*, or *between* potential donors. Past workplace and federated giving scholars have offered similar, parallel logic in noting *micro-, meso/dyadic*, and *macro*dynamics that influence workplace giving (Barman 2007; Nesbit et al. 2012). Much of the workplace research, indeed much of the general philanthropy research, has largely focused on the "within" mechanisms. In one workplace study, microlevel or "within" individual conditions were found to be more relevant than the presence of a campaign (a mesolevel construction intended to encourage donations) in predicting giving (Shaker et al. 2014). Our research engaged specific meso/dyadic-level campaign strategies to assist researchers and practitioners with the dynamics of workplace giving within the broad framework of philanthropic understanding.

The *first* hypothesis explored how a strategy of donor choice related to the gift amount. Donor choice positively related to the extent of giving, demonstrating the promise of combined macro- *and* meso/dyadic-based campaign strategies.

Tying our research to extant literature, donor choice is a strategy that may best reflect an "awareness of need" mechanism (Bekkers and Wiepking 2011a). Barman's (2006) work evidenced shifting social understanding of needs as donors increasingly prioritized purpose-based giving over place-based giving. Our nationwide study largely compliments Barman's site-specific work about San Francisco and Chicago. A strategy of offering donor choice reflects an

accommodation of shifting preferences towards purpose-based giving and, therefore, could explain its strong effect on campaign giving. Donor choice (and promotion of its availability) appears to be an effective tool for increasing workplace donation amounts.

The *second* hypothesis examined the relationship between company matching and workplace giving. We found that company matching may be related to an individual's decision to give at work, but company matching has little positive impact on the amount given. This may be particularly true when other strategies are present. In other words, when tested alongside donor choice, matching lost its significance in giving amount. Future research is needed to better distinguish competing/substitution effects of strategies upon one another.

General philanthropic mechanisms like "efficacy"—that is, the total magnitude of the gift that can be amplified through employer matching—and "costs" (Bekkers and Wiepking 2011a) may be slightly less important in the workplace giving context. Perhaps the ability to make gifts through payroll deduction, removing them before compensation is received, eases the burden of the fiscal "cost" of workplace philanthropy. One could also conjecture that the presence of a mediating body, such as the employer and/or a workplace giving federation, might reduce worker concerns regarding efficacy. Ultimately, this finding may limit the impact of meso/dyadic-level driven workplace tactics.

The *third* hypothesis centered on the effect of an employee's preference for public recognition as a motivation for giving in the workplace. We found no significant relationship between workplace giving and a self-reported preference for public recognition.

The *fourth* hypothesis explored how campaign solicitation support related to workplace giving. We measured this by examining how the employers' encouragement motivated the incidence and extent of giving. We found the perception of solicitation support from employers

to be significantly positive in giving likelihood but (nonsignificantly) negative in workplace gift amounts . Peer asks were not a motivating factor in giving decisions. Perhaps then, employer encouragement is a good strategy for participation goals but less so for reaching fiscal goals within campaigns. The question of how best to support a campaign "solicitation" strategy/mechanism with coworker volunteers is nuanced and heavily overshadowed by considerations of relational workplace dynamics (Bekkers and Wiepking 2011a). The meso/dyadic-level campaign strategy was of some, but limited, benefit in this case.

This study has limitations. First, the data were cross-sectional and self-reported. The former condition limits our ability to make statements about causality and the latter prevents us from ruling out the possibility of same-source bias. Second, while we examined four major campaign strategies, this was certainly not an exhaustive list. Further, while we examined donor choice in relation to giving amount, due to survey construction we could not examine the role of donor choice in whether someone gave at work. Finally, no explicit measures of fully macrolevel variables appeared to influence workplace giving. This indicates the possibility of at least one source of omitted variable bias. We recommend Barman's (2007) research to those with particular interests at the macrolevel but must rely on future analyses to fully incorporate micro-, meso/dyadic-, *and* macrolevel variables.

Conclusion

The purpose of this paper was to contextualize and integrate workplace campaign strategies within a broader model of giving. We also sought to provide empirical evidence regarding the effectiveness of several campaign strategies: donor choice, donor matching, public recognition, and solicitation support. We largely conceptualized these strategies as meso/dyadic-level dynamics (see Barman 2007; Nesbit et al. 2012). We relied on the literature to develop

hypotheses. Using a representative, national sample of workers, we tested these hypotheses in models that also included microlevel demographic controls. The results are summarized in an expanded Figure 2, which illustrates how we conceptualized and operationalized workplace giving strategies as well as the microlevel individual controls.

- FIGURE 2 -

The analysis leads to the conclusion that, after controlling for microlevel dynamics like individual demographics, meso/dydadic-level campaign approaches matter in varying degrees. We identified donor choice as a key strategy to encourage giving in the workplace. The importance of gift matching is less clear. Additionally, public recognition is an area in which to tread lightly given inconclusive findings. Finally, experimenting with campaign solicitors can be a tricky proposition.

When thinking about "next-generation" employee donors, evidence suggests that our findings may not hold. For example, many of our results did not align with survey information that highlighted millennial perspectives on workplace giving (Achieve 2015). This supports the value of a deeper investigation of workplace behavioral data around questions of age and responsibility in order to generate more multifaceted findings.

In the context of Bekkers and Wiepking's (2011a) mechanisms, "awareness of need" (donor choice) and "solicitation" (solicitation support) stand out as prime candidates for attention in the workplace. Many of the same general philanthropic mechanisms are present in the workplace. Yet, future research is needed to determine just how different (or similar) workplace motivators are to nonworkplace factors. Research could enhance campaign planning and anticipate changes in employee responses to workplace solicitation given shifts in technology, worker-employer relations, and social norms. Ensuing research begs for refinement and testing

through application and experimentation. Few workplace-specific studies quantifiably examine employee responses to specific campaign strategies. This study was an early step in this direction. Opportunity is ample for further empirical and generalizable approaches to examining campaign tactics.

Future researchers would be wise to explore the kinds of choices employees want and how those choices should be presented. Workplace trends are moving well ahead with a growing range of options for employees and employers. These tendencies could be leveraged based on research to make workplace giving more supportive and effective. Barman (2007) proposes that the macrolevel concerns—or context in which nonprofits and fundraisers must function—are fundamental elements that deserve attention. Potential donors experience the workplace as a "distinct area of social space, in which all the relevant actors are influenced by the overall structure" (Swedberg 2006, 6), making structural concerns highly pertinent. There appears to be an industry-specific component (see Appendix B and C), leaving open the possibility that certain industries (or sectors) are more or less likely to attract those interested in workplace giving and to encourage community involvement/support—a notion that has been explored in relation to volunteerism and employees (Ariza-Montes, Roldán-Salgueiro, and Leal-Rodríguez 2015; Lee and Brudney 2015)—or are possibly more likely to implement specific strategies. In the future, workplace fundraising campaign implementation and testing will be valuable for determining site-specific determinants of philanthropic behavior. Dicerning what works at work is a fertile arena for continued philanthropic research.

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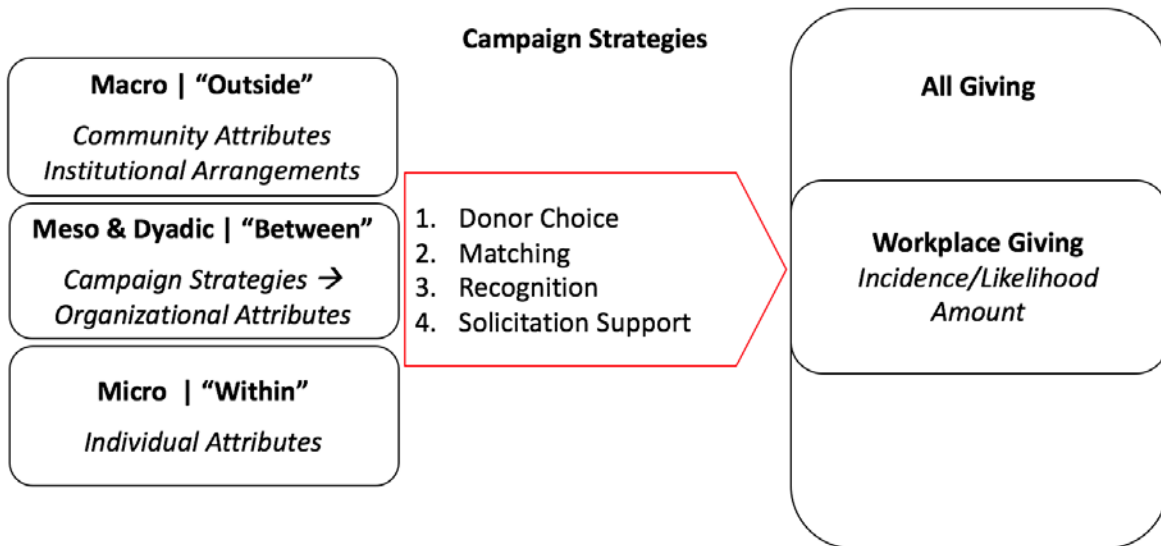
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Figure 1. Integrating campaign strategies in a model of workplace giving
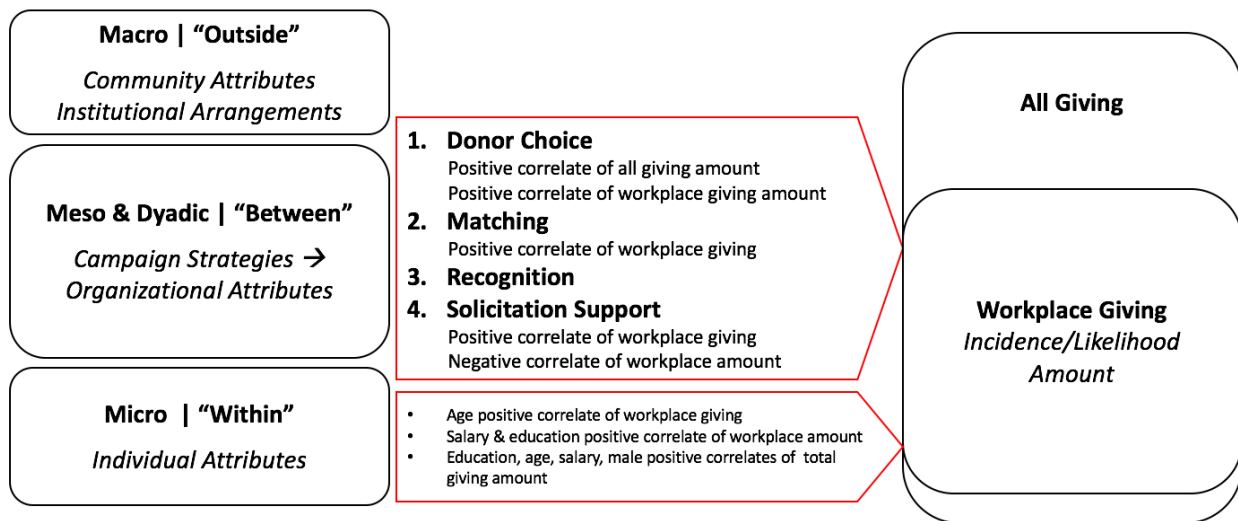
Figure 2. Findings in an integrated model of giving

Table 1. Summary statistics of study variables (selected sample, workplace giving available only)

VARIABLES	Mean (% in category)	*SD*	Min	Max
Income				
Up to $49,999	29.8%		0	1
$50,000 to $99,999	47.6%		0	1
$100,000 to $149,999	15.4%		0	1
$150,000 to $174,999	3.5%		0	1
$175,000 or more	3.8%		0	1
Female	50.5%		0	1
Age				
22–47	59.5%		0	1
48–66	38.7%		0	1
67+	1.9%		0	1
Education [Bachelor's or higher]	49.3%			
Gave to charity (nonworkplace)	86.5%		0	1
Gave to charity (workplace)	64.0%		0	1
Donor choice is offered*	78.4%		0	1
Donor matching is offered	38.7%		0	1
Public recognition is important	3.7%		0	1
Solitication support: Employer asking is a motivator	49.6%		0	1
Solicitation support: Friend/Associate asking is a motivator	72.3%		0	1
Amount given (OLS donor-only sample; total giving)	$1,340	$2,834	1	$41,500
Amount given (OLS donor-only sample; workplace)	$227	$541	1	$10,000
Observations	1,858			

* Was asked only of those who gave through the workplace

Table 2. Demographic and campaign strategy effects on employee participation in charitable giving (probit marginal effects)

VARIABLES	Nonworkplace Giving	Workplace Giving
Income [Below $50,000 omitted]		
$50,000 to $99,999	0.0399	0.0489
	(0.0345)	(0.0433)
$100,000 to $149,999	0.140***	0.155***
	(0.0312)	(0.0498)
$150,000 to $174,999	0.0856	0.0300
	(0.0581)	(0.0867)
$175,000 and up	0.128***	0.0334
	(0.0485)	(0.0849)
Education [Bachelor's or higher]	0.0462*	0.0407
	(0.0260)	(0.0353)
Age [22–47 omitted]		
48–66	0.0469*	0.113***
	(0.0241)	(0.0330)
67+	-0.0210	0.0315
	(0.0829)	(0.0980)
Female	0.0328	-0.0186
	(0.0268)	(0.0345)
Donor matching is offered	0.0324	0.0774**
	(0.0271)	(0.0353)
Public recognition is important	-0.0717	-0.145
	(0.0773)	(0.0991)
Solicitation support: Employer asking is a motivator	-0.0208	0.0851**
	(0.0280)	(0.0360)
Solicitation support: Friend/Associate asking is a motivator	0.0299	0.0106
	(0.0263)	(0.0380)
Pseudo R-squared	0.052	0.033
Observations	1,848	1,848

All respondents who had workplace giving offered and answered all relevant questions included here.
Coefficients are marginal effects form
Robust standard errors in parentheses
*** $p < 0.01$, ** $p < 0.05$, * $p < 0.1$

Table 3. Demographic and campaign strategy effects on employee charitable gift amount among donors (OLS)

VARIABLES	Workplace Giving, Donors Only, No Donor Choice Variable (Log)	Workplace Giving, Donors Only, With Donor Choice Variable (Log)
Income [up to $49,999 omitted]		
$50,000 to $99,999	0.471***	0.534***
	(0.137)	(0.147)
$100,000 to $149,999	0.926***	0.810***
	(0.159)	(0.168)
$150,000 to $174,999	1.021***	1.133***
	(0.233)	(0.244)
$175,000 and up	1.325***	1.178***
	(0.266)	(0.283)
Education [Bachelor's or higher]	0.502***	0.444***
	(0.121)	(0.124)
Age [22–47 omitted]		
48–66	0.232**	0.0927
	(0.117)	(0.123)
67+	-0.148	-0.261
	(0.217)	(0.220)
Female	-0.0853	-0.151
	(0.121)	(0.128)
Donor choice is offered		0.717***
		(0.125)
Donor matching is offered	0.232**	0.121
	(0.114)	(0.120)
Public recognition is important	0.0398	-0.00654
	(0.508)	(0.539)
Solicitation support: Employer asking is a motivator	-0.0546	-0.124
	(0.126)	(0.131)
Solicitation support: Friend/Associate asking is a motivator	-0.250*	-0.239
	(0.140)	(0.149)
Constant	3.602***	3.310***
	(0.211)	(0.227)
R-squared	0.148	0.172
Observations	1,084	1,084

Only respondents who gave through the workplace giving and answered all relevant questions included here.
Robust standard errors in parentheses
*** $p < 0.01$, ** $p < 0.05$, * $p < 0.1$

APPENDIX

Table A. Survey questions and coding strategy

Question	Original Format	Modified Format
Did you have the option to direct all or a portion of your workplace campaign donation to a specific nonprofit organization or cause in the past 12 months?	Yes = 1 No = 2 Don't know = 3	Yes = 1 No = 0 Don't know = missing
To your knowledge, what types of charitable giving is your employer involved in? Matching employee donations to charities	Yes = 1 No = 0	Yes = 1 No = 0
When you make donations to a workplace campaign, how important is it to you that the workplace campaign organization Give public recognition for my donation	Very Unimportant = 1 Somewhat Unimportant = 2 Neutral/No Opinion = 3 Somewhat Important = 4 Very Important = 5	Very Important = 1 Very Unimportant / Somewhat Unimportant / Neutral / Somewhat Important = 0 (Note: Other formats tested for robustness, no significant changes)
Indicate whether the following is a major motivation, minor motivation, or no motivation at all when you give to nonprofit organizations: Being asked by your employer Being asked by a friend or associate	Major Motivation = 1 Minor Motivation = 2 No Motivation at All = 3	Major/Minor Motivation = 1 No Motivation at All = 0 (Note: Other formats tested for robustness, no significant changes)

* None of the questions had a "check all that apply" option

Table B. Demographic and campaign strategy effects on employee participation in charitable giving and amounts, with industry effects (probit marginal effects; OLS with donors only)

VARIABLES	Nonworkplace Giving	Workplace Giving	Workplace Giving, Donors Only (Log)
Income [Below $50,000 omitted]			
$50,000 to $99,999	0.0380	0.0371	0.550***
	(0.0335)	(0.0420)	(0.148)
$100,000 to $149,999	0.139***	0.145***	0.819***
	(0.0303)	(0.0488)	(0.165)
$150,000 to $174,999	0.0874	0.0328	1.156***
	(0.0570)	(0.0849)	(0.244)
$175,000 and up	0.124**	0.00708	1.197***
	(0.0501)	(0.0871)	(0.285)
Education [Bachelor's or higher]	0.0596**	0.0643*	0.483***
	(0.0257)	(0.0347)	(0.131)
Age [22–47 omitted]			
48–66	0.0443*	0.119***	0.0904
	(0.0241)	(0.0327)	(0.126)
67+	-0.00372	0.0644	-0.243
	(0.0769)	(0.0924)	(0.222)
Female	0.0454*	0.00734	-0.114
	(0.0271)	(0.0349)	(0.151)
Industry [Health, Services, & Recreation omitted]			
Finance, Trade, Tech, & Management	0.00368	0.0716*	0.0604
	(0.0314)	(0.0383)	(0.147)
Primary & Secondary Industries	0.0801**	0.146***	0.212
	(0.0338)	(0.0513)	(0.207)
Donor choice is offered			0.716***
			(0.122)
Donor matching is offered	0.0228	0.0458	0.0595
	(0.0288)	(0.0367)	(0.120)
Public recognition is important	-0.0638	-0.130	0.0247
	(0.0745)	(0.0976)	(0.541)
Solicitation support: Employer asking is a motivator	-0.0205	0.0868**	-0.122
	(0.0271)	(0.0354)	(0.134)
Solicitation support: Friend/Associate asking is a motivator	0.0338	0.0231	-0.223
	(0.0251)	(0.0366)	(0.149)
Pseudo R-squared	0.064	0.042	0.177
Observations	1,841	1,841	1,077

In columns 1 & 2, all respondents who had workplace giving offered and answered all relevant questions were included. In column 3, only respondents who gave through the workplace giving and answered all relevant questions were included. Coefficients are marginal effects. Robust standard errors in parentheses
*** $p < 0.01$, ** $p < 0.05$, * $p < 0.1$

Table C. Marginal effects on giving incidence, split by industry (probit marginal effects)

VARIABLES	Workplace Giving Health Services Rec	Workplace Giving Finance, Trade, Tech, Management	Workplace Giving Primary & Secondary Ind
Income [Below $50,000 omitted]			
$50,000 to $99,999	0.0754	-0.0834	0.0848
	(0.0628)	(0.0595)	(0.0961)
$100,000 to $149,999	0.191**	0.0519	0.0973
	(0.0797)	(0.0682)	(0.107)
$150,000 to $174,999	0.0913	-0.0913	0.163
	(0.124)	(0.114)	(0.131)
$175,000 and up	0.166	-0.00105	-0.310*
	(0.129)	(0.0933)	(0.172)
Education [Bachelor's or higher]	0.110**	-0.0181	0.0711
	(0.0546)	(0.0511)	(0.0647)
Age [22–47 omitted]			
48–66	0.153***	0.0941**	0.0588
	(0.0530)	(0.0432)	(0.0696)
67+	-0.0100	0.170*	0.110
	(0.137)	(0.0980)	(0.195)
Female	-0.00226	-0.0102	0.0565
	(0.0547)	(0.0500)	(0.0756)
Donor matching is offered	-0.0845	0.111**	0.174***
	(0.0619)	(0.0481)	(0.0672)
Public recognition is important	-0.167	-0.0409	-0.134
	(0.133)	(0.144)	(0.162)
Solicitation support: Employer asking is a motivator	0.107*	0.0488	0.142**
	(0.0555)	(0.0505)	(0.0720)
Solicitation support: Friend/Associate asking is a motivator	0.0464	0.0579	-0.0579
	(0.0585)	(0.0536)	(0.0726)
Observations	751	781	309

All respondents who had workplace giving
   offered and answered all relevant
   questions included here. Columns split
   by industry classification.
Robust see form in parentheses
*** $p < 0.01$, ** $p < 0.05$, * $p < 0.1$

Table D. Effects on giving campaign characteristics (probit marginal effects)

VARIABLES	Workplace Giving Offered	Donor Matching Offered	Donor Choice Offered
Income [Below $50,000 omitted]			
$50k–$99k	0.0895***	0.0393	0.00881
	(0.0237)	(0.0338)	(0.0375)
$100k–$150k	0.0933***	0.0911**	0.0621
	(0.0308)	(0.0392)	(0.0401)
$150k–$175k	0.0748	0.212***	0.0178
	(0.0479)	(0.0656)	(0.0826)
$175k+	0.0567	0.175***	0.0420
	(0.0459)	(0.0585)	(0.0584)
Education (less than college omitted)			
Bachelor's or higher	0.125***	-0.00686	0.00429
	(0.0210)	(0.0283)	(0.0307)
Age [22–47 omitted]			
48–66	0.00708	-0.0425	0.0618**
	(0.0205)	(0.0267)	(0.0289)
67+	-0.213***	0.0357	0.0634
	(0.0572)	(0.0815)	(0.0707)
Female	0.0377*	0.0117	-0.0595*
	(0.0207)	(0.0279)	(0.0308)
Industry [Health, Services, & Recreation omitted]			
Finance, Trade, Tech, & Management	-0.0294	0.244***	-0.0671**
	(0.0221)	(0.0284)	(0.0322)
Primary & Secondary Industries	-0.0933***	0.314***	-0.0103
	(0.0308)	(0.0443)	(0.0458)
Observations	5,764	2,801	1,764

All respondents who had workplace giving offered and answered all
relevant questions included here. Robust standard errors in parentheses.
*** $p < 0.01$, ** $p < 0.05$, * $p < 0.1$