# Workplace Giving: Employee Attitudes, Perceptions and Behavior 

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Employee Attitudes, Perceptions and Behavior

Working Paper No. 9


University of San Francisco
College of Professional Studies


Workplace Giving: Employee Attitudes, Perceptions and Behavior

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Findings Compiled by Cathie J. Witty, Ph.D.

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\section*{EXECUTIVE SUMMARY}

The W. Alexander Gerbode Foundation funded this study of employee attitudes about charitable fundraising and giving in the workplace by the Institute for Nonprofit Organization Management at the University of San Francisco. This study is significant for several reasons. First, while the overall charitable behavior of Americans has been documented in several recent national surveys, the changing workplace fundraising scene remains largely unexplored. Second, the San Francisco Bay Area is an ideal laboratory for a study of workplace giving that analyzes ethnic differences along with other variables related to charitable attitudes and behavior since the Bay Area has some of the fastest growing minority populations in the country. The Asian population increased \(45 \%\) between 1980 to 1985, while the number of Blacks increased by \(11 \%\) and Hispanics by \(20 \%\) during the same time period.

California led the nation in minority population growth during the first half of the decade and is now home to one-third of all Hispanics and Asians in the United States, new federal estimates show... (McLeod, 1989, pg A2) .

Third, annual workplace fundraising campaigns conducted by local charities reach and affect millions of Americans each year. While these campaigns create ideal opportunities for local charities to educate donors and elicit funds for the community, they also shape peoples' attitudes about charity as well. This research looks at workplace campaigns through the employee's eyes and analyzes both the positive and negative impact of workplace fundraising. By looking squarely at the workplace campaign from this perspective, it is possible to address a broad range of issues of interest to employees, campaign managers, department heads, and CEO's alike.

Historically, workplace campaigns have been conducted by local chapters of the United Way of America for the benefit of local member organizations. Increasingly, however, the traditional United Way workplace campaign is being challenged by alternative charitable federations and independent funds seeking access to potential donors in private and public workplaces.

As nonprofit organizations of all types and sizes have re-vitalized their public fundraising efforts in response to a decade of government cutbacks, workplace fundraising has become a more competitive and aggressive enterprise. Since charities can reach potential donors during workplace campaigns and payroll deduction has been documented as a popular donation vehicle among donors, many charitable groups and federations, in addition to United Way, see the workplace as a major fundraising arena.

United Way workplace campaigns alone raise over \(\$ 2\) billion annually. The cost of payroll deduction fundraising is low, employers encourage participation, and employees have been shown to make a larger donation when contributions are deducted from their pay. Thus, competition between United Way and various alternative funds will continue to be a major issue in philanthropy and nonprofit management since workplace campaigns represent a potentially, lucrative source of revenue.

While there is substantial controversy relating to workplace fundraising, there is no systematic information on employee's perceptions of workplace fundraising campaigns. The goal of this research is to outline employee attitudes about workplace giving, motivations for giving, preferences in allocations, and the level of giving; further, the study explores the demographic dimensions of these variables. Drawing on questions developed in earlier philanthropic studies and cognizant of the debate over the nature of open campaigns (United Way and other charities) and closed (exclusively United Way) workplace campaigns, this research explores the characteristics and behavior of workplace campaign donors in both types of campaigns. The project was also designed to expand our general understanding of why employees do not donate to the annual workplace campaign and what changes in strategies might produce more effective workplace campaigns, regardless of the setting or number of charitable options.

The four major research questions which guided this research and structured the analysis can be summarized as follows:

1 What is the overall charitable behavior of employees in the sample?

2 What factors influence giving through the workplace campaign?

3 What are the similarities and differences in workplace giving in the public and private sectors?

4 What are the characteristics and attitudes of non-donors?

Employees in both public, municipal and private, corporate organizations were asked a series of questions about their motivations for giving or lack of giving, their attitudes toward charitable giving, and their giving behavior during the charitable workplace campaign recently completed in their workplace (1988).

The survey consisted of a two-page self-administered questionnaire which was mailed to a total of 2,500 employees in the San Francisco Bay Area. Five worksites were selected
on the basis of location and willingness to participate; five hundred employees at each worksite were then randomly selected to receive the questionnaire. There were two municipal governments and three large corporate worksites -- one large bank, a wholesale distributor, and a supermarket chain. Of the original 2,500 questionnaires, 548 were returned for a \(22 \%\) response rate. Over half of the responses, 61.5\%, came from the private sector while \(38.5 \%\) of the public sector employees completed the survey. The response rate varied dramatically between worksites, ranging between \(41 \%\) and \(13 \%\) at the private worksites, and \(25 \%\) and \(16 \%\) at the two public worksites.

\section*{HIGHLIGHTS}

The major findings from the extensive analysis can be summarized as follows:

The majority of employees (76\%) make some type of contribution to the annual workplace campaign. However, only 60\% of all public employees participate in the workplace campaign, compared to \(85 \%\) of the corporate employees surveyed for this report.

While workplace donations are more frequent among private sector employees, charitable support in the form of volunteer activity and attendance at fundraisers is equally important to employees in both sectors.

Public employees exhibit a stronger preference for donating most of their charitable funds outside of work than do private sector employees.

Almost half the respondents reported that their workplace donations were equal to or greater than contributions they make outside of work.

Increasing the number of charitable organizations that employees can choose to donate to will not necessarily increase the level or amount of workplace giving.

Blacks had the highest level of giving among those employees who reported giving most of their charitable dollars through the workplace.

In the public sector ethnic minorities, and especially Blacks, participate in workplace campaigns at a significantly higher rate than Whites.

Blacks have the lowest average income, but contributed the second highest annual gift during their workplace campaign.

In addition to personal beliefs about the value of giving, all employees rank the availability of donor
option as an important motivation for workplace giving. All groups rank donor option as more important than the convenience of a charity federation.

Although there was no association between civic involvement and campaign participation, civic involvement is directly associated with larger levels of giving in the workplace.

The average gift of fairly active employees is 64\% higher than that of non-active employees; the average gift of employees who volunteer is \(76 \%\) higher than the average gift of the employee who did no volunteer work at all.

The majority of non-donors say they do not give because the group they wish to support is not included among the workplace choices. Interestingly, the public employees who had a large number of charities to choose from in an "open" campaign, were more likely to say they wanted more choice among participating workplace charities. More choice seems to beget a greater interest in choice.

Blacks say they don't participate because no one asked them directly; Hispanics and Asians cite low income as their main reason for not giving.

One-third of employees feel they do not give as much to charity as they should. Blacks, in particular, feel that they could be giving much more to charity than they currently do.

The majority of respondents (78\%) thought the level of social need had increased over the past ten years.

Significantly more women than men indicated an interest in sunnorting health and human services.

At the highest income bracket, there is a strong tendency for large numbers of women to serve on boards of directors.

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\section*{WORKPLACE GIVING: EMPLOYEE ATTITUDES.}

\section*{PERCEPTIONS, AND BEHAVIOR}

\section*{BACKGROUND}

Private philanthropy has a long and varied history throughout American culture. Although philanthropy is frequently perceived as the support of worthy causes and "good works" by wealthy donors and volunteers, the profile of individual philanthropists is more diverse than this narrow definition implies. People of all ages, incomes, and ethnic groups support a variety of local and national charitable organizations. Giving USA, a periodic review of national philanthropic trends, recently noted that:
individuals donated an estimated \(\$ 76.82\) billion to charitable organizations and causes in 1987, up 6.65 percent from the previous year - notwithstanding the stock market plummet of October 19th and the new tax law restrictions on charitable deductions. The estimated \(\$ 76.82\) billion accounted for the overwhelming portion of total giving 82 percent. Individuals have consistently provided around four-fifths of total giving, a trend first measured statistically more than thirty years ago... (AAFRC, 1988, pg. 23).

In buying raffle tickets from the local youth club, volunteering to bring food to the home-bound, responding to a fundraising letter with a check, putting money in the collection plate, or supporting the local ballet, Americans give generously of their time and money in support of a variety of social issues. Individuals receive numerous requests for charitable donations each year from large national organizations and local, community programs; opportunities to allocate individual charitable dollars abound.

Since a substantial number of households has two wage earners, many Americans also have direct experience with the fundraising efforts of the annual charitable campaigns conducted at their workplace. These campaigns create additional opportunities for local charities to educate donors, elicit funds and encourage individual philanthropic donations to the community. Historically, workplace campaigns have been conducted by local chapters of the United Way of America for the benefit of local member organizations. Although United Way primarily supports organizations in the health and human service areas, consistent donors report that United Way's reputation and
established campaign history, the ease of payroll deductions, and the range of choice allowed through donor option are all factors that motivate them to support local community issues with United Way donations (Yankelovich, Skelly and White, 1986).

Increasingly, the traditional United Way workplace campaign is being challenged by alternative charitable federations and independent funds seeking access to potential donors in private and public workplaces (Blumenthal, 1988; Gitlin, 1987; NCRP, 1987, 1988a). Significant changes in government policies over the past ten years have increased the service demands on nonprofit agencies and simultaneously reduced government support for those vital services. Cutbacks sent shock waves through those areas where nonprofit organizations (NPOs) are particularly active: social services, institutional care, health services, education and research, health care, arts and culture (Abrahamson and Salamon, 1986). In 1982, these five service areas accounted for "nearly 70 percent of the agencies and ... almost 80 percent of total sector expenditures" in the San Francisco Bay Area (Harder, Kimmich and Salamon, 1985, pg. 18). The policy changes implemented by NPOs as a reaction to these economic realities, therefore, affect a substantial amount of revenue and a large number of organizations. New, more aggressive fundraising policies were one of a number of strategies employed by struggling NPOs (Salamon, 1984).

Since charities can educate a large number of potential donors during workplace campaigns and payroll deduction has been documented as a popular donation vehicle among donors, alternative funds see workplace fundraising as a major potential market for increased revenue from individual donations (Saasta, 1979). This strategy coincides with a growing sentiment among a number of nonprofit service and advocacy organizations that United Way cannot remedy all the social problems that concern Americans since issues such as toxic waste, acid rain or civil rights fall outside the human service sector (Curtis and Woods, 1987; Gitlin, 1987; NCRP, 1988b; Polivy, 1982).

Compared to United Way's approximate \(\$ 2\) billion annual corporate campaign effort, the current financial impact of alternative funds is relatively small. In 1986 alternative funds raised \(\$ 100\) million nationally through private workplace campaigns; 90\% of that amount was raised through direct access campaigns rather than donor option (NCRP, 1988). The primary source of these workplace contributions has been the federal government's Combined Federal Campaign.
"More than half of CFC total dollars goes to non-United Way charities: \(\$ 67\) million out of the \(\$ 130\) million raised in \(1985 "\) (NCRP, 1987).

In 1987, alternative funds won a major victory in their struggle to open major workplace campaigns by permanently opening the CFC to advocacy and nontraditional charities and including payroll deductions as a form of alternative giving by the nation's federal employees (NCRP, 1988a,b).

Recent studies suggest that federated campaigns such as United Way's are growing less popular than they were in the past, especially among large employers. In their survey of 255 firms (minimum sales of \(\$ 25\) million), Yankelovich, Skelly and White (1982) found that only \(17 \%\) of all corporate contributions went to the United Way, while \(83 \%\) was donated directly to charitable organizations. The Conference Board reports similar patterns among companies they surveyed in 1980 and 1982; 17\% of the contributions went through federated drives in 1980, and only 14\% in 1982 (Troy, 1984).

Ironically, the first charitable federation, United Way, was created by business and community leaders to simplify charitable giving in the workplace. As competitors have noted:

> Unification is the essential characteristic of the 2,300 local United Ways...This makes business people happy. It was the proliferation of such campaigns - and the disruption of office routine they were causing - that led a group of Cleveland businessmen to form the earliest modern predecessor of United Way in 1913. (Saasta, \(1979)\).

With the proliferation of Community and War Chests and mobilization of donors and volunteers preceeding World war I, business leaders felt it would be more efficient to eliminate continual charitable appeals by multiple organizations. Groups of charities (federations), they argued, would be more visible and could campaign more effectively. This consolidation effort combined local charities and community chest organizations under the United Crusade umbrella; these organizations later became local chapters of the United Way of America.

United Way's success and growth, however, spawned problems typical of large bureaucratic organizations. Rose-Ackerman (1980) posits that the declining popularity of traditional charitable federations to donor disillusionment with the way federations such as the United Way allocate their charitable dollars; donors want to know that their donation went to the needy rather than professional campaign managers. The author argues that in excluding some controversial agencies from membership and defending their exclusive access to corporate payroll deductions, United Way created a public perception
of heavy-handed, monopoly tactics which runs counter to people's perception of a charitable organization.

Not surprisingly, the local United Way of the Bay Area (UWBA) sees the situation somewhat differently and summarizes their steadily declining "market share" in corporate contributions over the past ten years as a function of several strategic factors: their middleman role between donors and agencies, the absence of emotion in workplace donor's motivation, the proliferation of alternative charities, the growth of corporate contributions staff, and a \(10 \%\) limit on costs which eliminates more expensive fundraising methods (UWBA, 1987). While some studies argue that open workplace campaigns shared with alternative funds will increase charitable contributions across the board, local United Way organizations believe that such optimistic predictions are premature and untested (Gitlin, 1987; Polivy, 1982).

It is clear that competition between United Way and various alternative funds will continue to be a major issue in philanthropy and nonprofit management because workplace campaigns represent a lucrative source of revenue (Melillo, 1989a,b). Nationwide, giving to social service agencies consistently accounted for nearly \(11 \%\) of all philanthropic dollars in 1985 and 1987 (AAFRC 1986, 1988). United Way workplace campaigns raise nearly \(\$ 2\) billion annually. The cost of payroll deduction fundraising is low, employers encourage participation, and employees have been shown to make a larger donation when contributions are deducted from their pay (Curtis and Wood, 1987; Saasta, 1979; United Way, 1987). Furthermore, with corporate giving on the decline, individual donors currently represent a more reliable and generous source of charitable dollars (AAFRC, 1986, 1988; Cox, 1988; Maita, 1988; NCIB, 1988).

Although workplace fundraising is a growing area of controversy, the few studies in this area have explored employer's attitudes to open campaigns (Polivy, 1982; Stodgel, 1987); there is no systematic information on employees' perceptions of the workplace fundraising campaign or its place in their overall charitable behavior. While local United Way chapters and other charitable organizations conduct internal evaluations of campaign strategies and responses, these reports are primarily in-house management tools not readily available to donors, funders, or the general public.

There are several recent national studies which have explored the general reasons people make charitable donations. One recent work, The Charitable Behavior of Americans, indicates that typical large donors ( \(\$ 500+\) annually) give because the "group was worthy, helped the poor and needy... [the gift] was deductible from salary" or they had "some type of personal experience" with the
organization and its work (Yankelovich, Skelly and White, 1986, pg. 23). While workplace donations were documented as part of the overall charitable profile of individuals in this national survey, people's attitudes toward workplace giving were not directly explored. Other factors such as motivations for giving, perceptions of social need, levels of volunteer activity, and the demographic characteristics of givers were explored in some detail; these findings will provide valuable comparative information for similar data on the personal dimensions of individual workplace giving gathered during this research.

Another national survey conducted by Independent Sector, Giving and Volunteering in the United States, similarly found that worthy causes with high quality programs that help the needy motivate the majority of individual donors. The authors also concluded that the fact "that so many respondents found their own charitable organizations to support indicates that there is an enormous capacity to give among Americans" (Hodgkinson and Weitzman, 1988, pg. 25).

Along ethnic dimensions, the charitable behavior of Blacks in the workplace has been recently explored by Carson (1987). Carson has also explored interest in social issues, motivations, and size of donation among blacks in a variety of settings and these findings will provide valuable comparative data for this study (Carson, 1988, 1989).

\section*{Research Goals}

While national studies have found that being personally asked to give is consistently an important factor in stimulating charitable giving, people are also motivated to give by a variety of other factors. The goal of this research is to outline employee attitudes about workplace giving, motivations for giving, preferences in allocations, the level of giving and explore the demographic dimensions of charitable behavior in the workplace.

Since the employers in this study were not randomly selected, the fact that open campaigns are synonymous with public worksites and closed campaigns are synonymous with corporate worksites is a descriptive rather than a statistical association. While the participating worksites are not representative, employees were selected at random and their responses provide valuable descriptive insights into their reactions to workplace campaigns. The closed/corporate and open/public dichotomy in this sample is typical of workplace campaigns in the San Francisco Bay Area and elsewhere; as noted earlier, United Way retains a strong, exclusive presence in corporate campaigns, but the Combined Federal Campaign and other public employers have been receptive to open, combined campaigns. Cross-sector data were not subjected to statistical tests of
significance, however, since the populations in each group were too small for such tests to be valid. Public and private in the context of this study are synonymous with governmental and corporate; this usage deviates slightly from broader definitions of these terms commonly seen in the literature, but specifically reflects the worksites used to draw the study sample.

Drawing on questions developed in earlier philanthropic studies and cognizant of the debate over the nature of open and closed workplace campaigns, this research explores the characteristics and behavior of workplace campaign donors in both types of campaigns. The project was also designed to expand our general understanding of why employees do not donate to the annual workplace campaign and what changes in strategies might produce more effective workplace campaigns, regardless of the setting or number of charitable options.

It must be noted that the United Way of the Bay Area, which ran exclusive campaigns in the three corporate employers included in the study, is an exception to many of the general criticisms leveled at local United Way chapters by alternative funds. In assessing the openness of United Ways to admission of non-traditional, controversial service agencies, for example, a Yale study found that the UWBA has been historically responsive to donor and community pressure both to admit agencies administered by and serving minorities and to provide services to large numbers of minority and underserved populations (Polivy, 1982). The United Way campaign experience of corporate employees in this study, therefore, will reflect interaction with one of the more responsive United Way chapters in the country.

The major research questions which guided this research and structure the analysis can be summarized as follows:

1 What is the general charitable behavior of employees in the sample?
general charitable interests
types of support
demographics charitable support index general giving versus workplace giving

In order to look at workplace giving in the broader context of an individual's overall attitudes and interests in charity, analysis begins by providing general information on how all respondents perceive the level of social need in their communities and the range of social issues they are interested in supporting.

Moving from interests to actual charitable support behaviors, the discussion analyzes the variety of ways
employees support charitable organizations. The survey asked employees what other activities, in addition to workplace donations, they engage in to help people in need. Answers to this question generated a charitable support index which measures employees' relative participation in charity-related activity.

\section*{2 What factors influence giving through the workplace campaign?}
```

civic involvement and volunteering
motivations for giving through the workplace
campaign
designating donations and number of choices
among target charities
demographics
length of time with employer
level of workplace giving:

- demographics
- length of time with employer
- civic involvement
- perception of social need

```

The relationship between gender, age, income, ethnicity and workplace giving is one of the central concerns of this research. Very little analytical work has explored the charitable behavior of ethnic groups, despite the fact that minority populations are growing rapidly in many areas of the country (Barton, 1989; Tonai, 1988; Petrovich, 1988). In the San Francisco Bay Area (SFBA) Hispanic and Asian populations are the two fastest growing groups in the region (McLeod, 1989). Tonai found that Asian Americans give generously to health issues and federated campaigns; this study will explore ethnic giving in some detail. It is also hypothesized that age and income will have a direct relation to rate of participation in the campaign as well as the amount of the average gift. Such a finding would mirror previous studies which found positive correlations between increased age and charitable giving in national samples of donors (Yankelovich, Skelly and White, 1986; Hodgkinson and Weitzman, 1988). It is also hypothesized, following the work of Carson (1988, 1989), that ethnic groups, particularly Blacks, will show strong rates of participation and high levels of giving through the workplace campaign. Data on other ethnic groups is sparse and comparisons in this study are the first to look at four major ethnic groups in some detail. Tonai's (1988) work, however, suggests that Asian Americans will not participate or give heavily to work-oriented solicitations.

In order to expand comparative analysis of workplace donors vis à vis other donors, the study explores employees' perception of social need, self-reported civic involvement and volunteer activity. Since previous studies conclude that
volunteer activity is positively associated with larger charitable donations, this study initially hypothesized that a similar positive association would be found among workplace donors. It was further posited that people who volunteer and have higher levels of civic involvement would participate in their workplace campaigns at higher rates than other employees.

As employment patterns change, it is now typical for an individual to have an average of six or seven employers in a lifetime. Length of time with employer was therefore included as an independent variable in this research. It is hypothesized that length of time with an employer will positively affect workplace donations, independent of income level.

The study explores the motivations employees have for making a donation through the workplace campaign. Employees were asked to rank the importance of various factors and these data were then analyzed to see what, if any, differences occur between ethnic groups, men and women, and public and private sector employees.

During the workplace campaign, employees can donate to a charitable federation and allow the federation to allocate the money to member agencies, or use donor option to designate which specific organization(s) should receive their donation. A major research goal is to assess the relative importance of this designation choice to employee donors and analyze these preferences by demographics, sector, and level of civic involvement and volunteer activity.

Related to the question of choice in designating funds, this project also seeks to understand the factors that influence employees to give to a specific organization. Analysis focuses on reasons employees give for donating to a particular organization and analyzes the responses in relation to demographic variables and level of giving.

Since competition for the workplace charitable dollar promises to remain keen, an in-depth look at the dimensions of actual workplace giving should shed some light on future campaign strategies for all involved charities. Analysis discusses 1988 workplace donations in relation to demographic variables, employee's interests and perceptions of social need, the level of giving, and employee volunteering and other civic activity.

What are the similarities and differences in workplace giving in the public and private sectors?

\author{
rate of participation time with employer \\ allocation preferences \\ civic involvement \\ ethnicity \\ level of giving \\ types of campaigns
}

As previously noted, open and closed campaigns tend to be synonymous with the public and private sector in the San Francisco Bay Area and many other locations. Although employers participated voluntarily and were not randomly selected, one reason to compare giving in the two sectors is to examine the effect of more or less choice on actual individual giving behavior. Public sector employees in this survey could choose among several federated organizations in their workplace campaign, while private sector employees selected from United way member organizations only.

The impact of increased choice on employee giving has been the subject of serious debate among charitable federations. Preliminary evidence (Gitlin, 1987; Polivy, 1982) suggests that employees give more money to more organizations, including the United Way, when they have more charitable organizations to choose from in the campaign. This research seeks to contribute to our understanding of the role of choice by comparing the giving behavior of employees in the public sector to those in the private sector. Does more choice in workplace campaigns increase, decrease, or have no effect on workplace donations? Theoretically, if a larger array of choices produces expanded giving, public sector employees in this study should participate in campaigns at a higher rate and make larger average contributions than corporate employees. Employee attitudes toward the number and range of choices in workplace charities are also of particular interest. Do employees want a variety of charities to select from, do they want to designate to a specific group, or are they happy giving to a federation that decides how funds are allocated?

When comparing individual giving in these two sectors, however, it is critical to recognize that the charity campaigns differ along a number of other factors. They are organized differently, have varying levels of company support, and have different types of charitable options (i.e. matching funds). In our sample, both public sector worksites had open, combined charities campaigns; one of the municipal governments had five participating federations, and the other had six. In contrast, at the three private sector worksites, United Way was the only participating federation. 1 As a result, public sector employees in the survey sample have more organizations, including non-health
and human service agencies, to choose from in their campaign. In addition to the United Way's member agencies, employees in the public sector could choose to give to the Environmental Federation, Combined Health Appeal, Progressive Way, Bay Area Black United Fund, and the International Service Agencies.

\section*{4 What are the characteristics and attitudes of non-donors?}
demographic differences more effective workplace campaigns

Finally, the study wanted to analyze non-donors and understand their reasons for NOT participating in workplace fundraising campaigns. Presumably, a clearer picture of non-donors will provide valuable clues on how future campaign strategies could be made more effective. Discussion includes practical suggestions on how workplace campaigns could be re-oriented to be more effective and presents employee data on factors that they feel could persuade them to give for the first time or give more than they already do.

\section*{METHODOLOGY}

The survey consisted of a two-page self-administered questionnaire which was mailed to a total of 2,500 employees in the San Francisco Bay Area. Five worksites were selected on the basis of location and willingness to participate; five hundred employees at each worksite were then randomly selected to receive the questionnaire. \({ }^{2}\) There were two municipal governments and three large corporate worksites -- one large bank, a wholesale distributor, and a supermarket chain. In order to assure anonymity, worksites are not identified by name in this report. The survey was mailed shortly after the 1988 worksite campaigns were completed. The survey was sent to employees through inter-office mail at the municipal governments and at one of the corporate worksites; the U.S. postal service was used for two of the corporate worksites where use of inter-office mail was not possible. Employee confidentiality was ensured by identifying respondents only by worksite location.

The questionnaire was pre-tested at one worksite; personal interviews were also conducted with five employees at each location after the questionnaire was returned to check question clarity and validity. The interview responses did not differ significantly from the overall data analyzed in this report. Additional data on the campaign was obtained through in-depth interviews with campaign coordinators at each site. At one of the worksites, training sessions for donor representatives and the "kick-off" of the charity campaign were observed. These supplemental observations and
interviews provided valuable insight into the style and organization of the various fundraising campaigns.

\section*{SURVEY SAMPLE}

Of the original 2,500 questionnaires, 548 were returned for a \(22 \%\) response rate. \({ }^{3}\) This sample size is large enough to ensure that statistically significant associations in the aggregate sample are reliable and have a level of confidence subject to minimum error of only plus/minus 5\% (minimum sample \(=400\) ); relationships in the subsector analysis do not fall within these guidelines since populations fall below this number. Tests of significance were not applied to this analysis and statistical limitations are noted during the sector analysis. Over half of the responses, 61.5\%, came from the private sector while \(38.5 \%\) of the public sector employees completed the survey. The response rate varied dramatically between worksites, ranging between \(41 \%\) and \(13 \%\) at the private worksites, and at \(25 \%\) and \(16 \%\) at the two public worksites. The variation in response rate was undoubtedly influenced by the method of survey distribution; the higher rates of response were found where the survey was distributed at work through
inter-office mail. The lowest numbers of respondents came from two corporate worksites where the survey was sent directly to the homes of employees through the U.S. mail.

The majority of respondents in the study were White (65\%), followed by Asian (12\%), Black (12\%), and Hispanic (7\%) populations. Public sector labor statistics show the ethnic composition of the local workforce as White 65\%, Black 10\%, Asian 10\% and Hispanic 11\% (EDD, 1985). Private employers could not provide complementary demographic information on their workforce. While voluntary participation by selected employers means the sample is not strictly representative, these figures indicate that the study sample closely mirrors the documented ethnic composition of the labor force in the San Francisco Bay Area.

Public sector worksites have a much higher percentage of ethnic minorities and had a slightly lower average income level than private sector worksites; this distribution was anticipated and led to inclusion of municipal employees in the original design so that ethnic groups would be adequately represented. Blacks, Hispanics, and Asians made up \(46 \%\) of the public employee respondents and only \(22 \%\) of the private employees. Furthermore, minority employees in the public sector sample contained equal numbers of men and women, while in the private sector, the majority of ethnic minorities (69\%) were women. Private sector employees were slightly younger; the sample had more women, and \(5 \%\) more part-time employees than the public sector (See Appendix, Table 22 for more demographic data).

\section*{DATA ANALYSIS}

\section*{ATTITUDES. PERCEPTIONS AND GENERAL CHARITABLE BEHAVIOR OF THE TOTAL SAMPLE}

\section*{Perceptions of Social Need, Issues}

To analyze general perceptions of the need for charitable contributions, the survey asked employees to assess the current level of social need in their communities compared with the level of need ten years ago. The overwhelming majority of the respondents ( \(78 \%\) ) thought the level of need had increased in the past ten years. Another \(12 \%\) said need had stayed about the same, and only \(5 \%\) said need had decreased; only \(4 \%\) of the respondents were unsure about changes in the level of social need in their communities. There was no significant difference between public and private sector employees or ethnic groups in their evaluations of increasing social need. However, gender did influence perception of social need at a statistically significant level. Women (83\%) were more likely than men (74\%) to report increased need in their communities ( \(\mathrm{p}=<.0057\); see Appendix, Table 23).

The survey also explored social issues that were of interest to Bay Area employees. Employees were given a list of thirteen social issues and asked to indicate which of these they would be inclined to support through charitable donations, either at work or elsewhere (Table 1). Public sector employees show a higher degree of interest in supporting minority issues than private employees, and less interest in donating to AIDS related research and services, health and human service, medical research, and public television/radio. This relationship is explained, perhaps, by the large percentage of minority workers in the public worksites surveyed. Otherwise, health and human services consistently rank first as an area of charitable concern, followed by medical research, religion, and environmental protection. It should be noted that these figures only represent areas of interest; they do not tell us anything about the degree of interest or whether employees actually made any donations to these issues. However, the data do suggest which groups of employees are likely to be prospective donors in specific areas.

\section*{TABLE 1}

\section*{INTEREST IN SOCIAL ISSUES}
" If you have money to donate, which types of issues are you most likely to support, either at work or elsewhere?"
\begin{tabular}{lcccc}
\multicolumn{1}{c}{ SOCIAL ISSUE } & PUBLIC & PRIVATE & TOTAL \\
1. Health and human services & \(53 \%\) & \(71 \%\) & \(64 \%\) \\
\begin{tabular}{l} 
2. Medical research \\
(heart, cancer, diabetes)
\end{tabular} & \(54 \%\) & \(60 \%\) & \(57 \%\) \\
3. Religious organizations & \(38 \%\) & \(35 \%\) & \(37 \%\) \\
4. Environmental protection & \(35 \%\) & \(31 \%\) & \(32 \%\) \\
5. Minority issues & \(25 \%\) & \(16 \%\) & \(20 \%\) \\
6. AIDS research/services & \(19 \%\) & \(31 \%\) & \(26 \%\) \\
7. Education & \(21 \%\) & \(23 \%\) & \(22 \%\) \\
8. International aid & \(21 \%\) & \(20 \%\) & \(20 \%\) \\
9. Cultural/arts organizations & \(14 \%\) & \(15 \%\) & \(14 \%\) \\
10. Public television/radio & \(13 \%\) & \(20 \%\) & \(18 \%\) \\
11. World peace & \(12 \%\) & \(13 \%\) & \(13 \%\) \\
12. Immigrant services & \(6 \%\) & \(5 \%\) & \(5 \%\) \\
13. Other & \(9 \%\) & \(10 \%\) & \(10 \%\) \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

\section*{Ethnicity}

Figures 1.1, 1.2, and 1.3 show differences in charitable interests among members of different ethnic groups in the overall sample; frequencies run from high to low across the three charts. Blacks show the greatest interest in the areas of health and human services (76\%), minority issues (68\%), medical research (52\%), and religious organizations (45\%). Hispanics show a similar range of interests, although we find a higher percentage of Hispanics than Blacks interested in donating to AIDS related issues (26\%) and to public television or radio (16\%). Asians show greatest interest in supporting health and human services (70\%) and medical research (66\%), as well as religious organizations (36\%), but include international aid (31\%)
among their high interest issues. Whites differ from minority groups in that they show the highest percentage of individuals interested in supporting environmental and AIDS-related issues ( \(35 \%\) and \(28 \%\) respectively), as well as public television/radio (23\%), and cultural or arts organizations (17\%).

Figure 1.1

INTERESTIN ISSUES
BY ETHNIC GROUP


Note: scale is not \(100 \%\)

Figure 1.2

INTEREST IN ISSUES BY ETHNIC GROUP


Note: scale is not \(100 \%\)

\section*{Figure 1.3}

INTEREST IN ISSUES
BY ETHNIC GROUP


Note: change in scale to give perspective to the lower range.

\section*{Gender}

On the whole, men and women in the total sample share similar areas of interest in social issues. However, there are a few noteworthy differences. Nearly \(25 \%\) more women than men indicated an interest in supporting health and human services ( \(75 \%\) versus \(52 \%\) for men). Women also showed greater interest in supporting AIDS research and services (33\% compared to 20\% for men); gender differences on these two issues are significant (see Appendix, Table 24). Fewer women indicated an interest in supporting environmental issues (29\% compared to 35\% for men), but this was not a statistically significant difference. While world peace does not prove to be a female interest at a statistically significant level ( \(\mathrm{p}=<.09\) ) in this study, there is nevertheless a strong tendency for women to be more interested in peace than men.

\section*{Age}

Figure 2.1 shows the relationships between interest in certain social issues and age. Interest in supporting AIDS issues and environmental protection is highest among employees under 30 and decreases among older employees. Conversely, as Figure 2.2 indicates, interest in supporting public television/radio and religion appear to increase with age. However, the only statistically significant association found was between interest in supporting AIDS issues and age. \({ }^{4}\) The other associations, while suggestive, did not prove to be statistically significant.

\section*{Figure 2.1}

INTEREST IN ISSUES
BY AGE GROUP


Note: scale is not \(100 \%\)

Figure 2.2

INTEREST IN ISSUES
BY AGE GROUP


Note: scale is not \(100 \%\)

Forms of Support
In addition to gaining some insights into the social issues that interest Bay Area employees, the survey explored the various ways employees support charitable organizations. Table 2 shows the percentage of employees who reported participating in the following ten categories of charitable support either at work or elsewhere.

\section*{FORMS OF CHARITABIE SUPPCRT}
"During the past year, did you support any charitable groups in any of the following ways?"
\begin{tabular}{llcc} 
& Total & Public & Private \\
1. Purchased a raffle ticket. & \(66 \%\) & \(69 \%\) & \(64 \%\) \\
2. Responded to a personal \\
solicitation from a group \\
or agency.
\end{tabular}

The data show that raffle tickets and direct personal solicitations rank as the most frequent forms of individual support to service groups. Payroll deduction ranks as the third most frequent type of support for the aggregate sample, but comparing the public and private sectors, payroll deductions are much more frequent among private sector employees. This higher rate of payroll deduction, combined with making a single donation or check at work (item 7), indicates that workplace donations are substantially more frequent among private sector employees in this sample. Volunteering and attending fundraisers appear to be equally relevant to employees in both sectors.

\section*{Charitable Index}

A charitable index was created from this data (Table 3); the score is equal to the number of ways an employee supported charitable groups in 1988. For example, if an employee participated in payroll deduction, bought a raffle ticket,
and attended an awards dinner, he or she would have a charitable support score of "3".

TABLE 3

\section*{CHARITABIE SUPRORT INDEX}
\begin{tabular}{cc} 
Cumulative Support Score & \begin{tabular}{c} 
Percentage of \\
\\
\\
\hline
\end{tabular} \\
\hline & \\
1 & \(1 \%\) \\
2 & \(13 \%\) \\
3 & \(17 \%\) \\
4 & \(25 \%\) \\
5 & \(20 \%\) \\
6 & \(11 \%\) \\
7 & \(8 \%\) \\
8 & \(3 \%\) \\
9 & \(2 \%\) \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

The average score for the total sample was 3.45 ; that is, on the average, employees support charitable groups with at least three different types of activity. Men and women have similar average scores ( 3.5 and 3.4 respectively). The average scores of different ethnic groups also do not vary significantly \((2.8\) for Hispanics, 3.1 for Asians, 3.3 for Blacks, and 3.6 for Whites). \({ }^{\text {b }}\) However, as Figure 3 indicates, the number of ways an individual contributes to charitable groups, the charitable support index, does increase in direct relation to household income.

Figure 3
CHARITABLE SUPPORT INDEX BY HOUSEHOLD INCOME

AVERAGE SCORE


X \(_{\$ 15-29,000}\) \(\$ 30-44,000\)
\(\square\) \$45-59,000
Willl \(\$ 60-74,000\)
\(\#\) \#75-89,000
\$90,000

While there is a slight dip in the average charitable support score for individuals in the \(\$ 75,000\) to \(\$ 89,000\) income bracket, the data clearly show a pattern of higher index scores as household income increases. It should be noted that this score only measures the frequency of different types of support, not the content or intensity; we do not know, for example, if an individual has bought one raffle ticket or 100.

To analyze the demographic dimensions of total employee support for charities in their communities, the 10 support items from Table 2 were collapsed into four categories: (1) Workplace Donations; (2) Volunteering; (3) Board Service; and (4) Other Donations. Item "10" (other) was omitted from further analysis. Table 4 shows the percentages of positive responses for the aggregate sample. (See Appendix, Table 25 for more information on volunteering and ethnicity).

TABLE 4

\section*{VARIOUS TYPES OF CHARITABLE SUPPORT}
\begin{tabular}{lc} 
Types of Support & \begin{tabular}{l} 
Positive \\
Responses
\end{tabular} \\
\hline \begin{tabular}{l} 
Other \\
response to a personal solicitation, \\
raffle ticket, attended a fundraiser, \\
attended an awards dinner
\end{tabular} & \(79 \%\) \\
\begin{tabular}{l} 
Workplace donation \\
payroll deduction \\
single check at work)
\end{tabular} & \(76 \%\) \\
\begin{tabular}{l} 
Volunteered/provided
\end{tabular} & \\
\hline Served free service. & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Workplace donations are almost as frequent as other, non-workplace donations. In one worksite, raffle tickets were sold as part of a workplace charity campaign; it is possible, therefore, that the percentage of employees making workplace donations (76\%) might be slightly higher than this figure indicates. Volunteering, board service, and other donations (non-workplace activities) were then analyzed in relation to income, gender and ethnicity.

\section*{Income}

A significant relationship is found between board service and income. \({ }^{6}\) The higher the income, the more likely it is that an employee serves on a board of directors. With few
exceptions, overall charitable support is more frequent among employees in the upper income brackets. Figures 4, 5, and 6 show the percentage of involvement in volunteering, board service, and non-workplace donations among employees of different income brackets.

Figure 4

\section*{VOLUNTEERING BY INCOME}


Note: scale not equal to \(100 \%\)

Figure 5


Note: scale not equal to \(100 \%\)

\section*{Figure 6}


\section*{Gender}

Men and women support charitable organizations in very similar ways. The most obvious difference is that more men serve on boards (12\%) than women (7\%). This may be due to men's higher average income. There is no statistically significant relationship between board service and gender; there is, however, a strong tendency in the highest income bracket ( \(\$ 90,000\) or more) for a greater number of women (35\% versus \(26 \%\) ) to serve on boards. \({ }^{7}\)

\section*{Ethnicity}

Whites reported the highest rate of volunteer activity (36\%), followed by Asians (32\%), Hispanics (29\%), and Blacks (26\%). Similarly, with regard to board service, Whites show the highest rate (11\%), followed by Blacks (8\%), Asians (8\%), and Hispanics (5\%).

Finally, in the area of non-workplace donations, ethnic minorities (Blacks, Hispanics, and Asians) report a slightly lower rate, between \(76 \%\) and \(71 \%\), compared to \(82 \%\) of the Whites who reported making at least one of these types of donations. Differences in rates of charitable support may be due to differences in income since ethnic minorities have lower average incomes than Whites. In the aggregate sample, Whites reported an annual average household income of \(\$ 45,000\) to \(\$ 59,000\), while Blacks, Hispanics, and Asians reported an average of \(\$ 30,000\) to \(\$ 44,000\) per year. While there is a tendency for Asians and Whites to have similar
percentages (21\%) of donations outside the workplace, income itself does not prove to be a statistically significant variable (see Appendix, Table 26).

\section*{General Giving Versus Workplace Giving}

The study wanted to know what kind of employees make most of their charitable contributions through the workplace. The data for the total sample show that \(31 \%\) of the respondents claimed they made most, but not necessarily all, of their charitable donations at work. Table 5 shows a higher percentage of ethnic minority employees than whites among this group of workplace donors.

TABLE 5
1988 CHARITABLE DONATIONS
MAJORITY OF ALLOCATIONS MADE AT WORK BY ETHNIC GROUP
\begin{tabular}{lrrr} 
& TOTAL & PUBLIC & PRIVATE \\
BLACKS & \(36 \%\) & \(30 \%\) & \(53 \% *\) \\
ASIANS & \(28 \%\) & \(13 \%\) & \(48 \% *\) \\
WHITES & \(28 \%\) & \(9 \%\) & \(36 \%\)
\end{tabular}

Data for these groups are based on less than \(10 \%\) of the sample due to the small number of minorities in corporate worksites. Hispanics are omitted due to low numbers.

Blacks had the highest proportion of donors who reported giving most of their charitable dollars through the workplace. Whites, on the other hand, showed a slightly stronger tendency than other ethnic groups to donate most of their funds outside of work.

Another significant difference among ethnic groups emerges when we look at whether employees feel that they are giving to their full capacity. Table 6 shows that Blacks are relatively evenly split between yes (43\%) and no (40\%), while the majority of Hispanics, Asians and Whites show a clear tendency to feel they are giving enough. Forty percent of the Black employees feel they could be giving more, whereas only \(29 \%\) of the Hispanics, \(25 \%\) of the Asians, and \(30 \%\) of the Whites feel they could give more.

TABLE 6
ASSESSMENT OF "GIVING ENOUGH" TO CHARITY BY ETHNIC GROUP
"All in all, are you giving as much money to charity as you think you should be giving?"
\begin{tabular}{lrrrrl} 
& BLACK & HISEANIC & ASIAN & WHITE \\
YES & 42.86 & 55.26 & 49.23 & 58.02 \\
\cline { 2 - 6 } NO & 39.68 & 28.95 & 24.62 & 30.03 \\
\cline { 2 - 6 } NOT SURE & 17.46 & 15.79 & 26.15 & 11.95 \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Clearly, minority groups are a potential source of increased giving in the workplace if the appropriate strategies and incentives are put in place. By allowing groups representing social interests that are important to employees, workplace campaigns might also find a higher rate of response and higher level of giving. These data indicate that identifying employees who volunteer and involving them in the campaign might also be useful in improving employee's perceptions of the workplace campaign.

\section*{WORKPLACE GIVING}

Giving money to charity is a common practice among Bay Area employees; only \(3 \%\) of the respondents indicated that they made absolutely no charitable contributions in 1988. The data do not tell us the exact percentage of the employee's overall giving that goes to the workplace. However, the data do show that workplace giving represents a sizable part of the employee's annual charitable contributions; \(47 \%\) of all respondents said that their workplace donations were either equal to or greater than the contributions they made outside of work. There is still a great deal of untapped potential for increasing workplace giving.

Three-quarters (76\%) of all respondents indicated that they participated in their annual workplace charity campaign in some way. This figure is based on responses that indicated support for some charitable organization through either payroll deduction, writing a single check, or making a cash donation at work.

\section*{Rates of Campaign Participation:}

\section*{Civic Involvement and Volunteering}

This study explored the relationship between individual involvement in civic activity, perception of social need, and participation in workplace campaigns. Employees were asked to indicate how many hours they volunteered in 1988 and to rate their degree of involvement in civic activity. Data for the total sample are shown in Table 7.

The combined data do not show higher participation rates in workplace giving among those who describe themselves as active in civic activities; in fact, those who are not active in their communities participate at the same or higher rates than those who are active in their communities.

TABLE 7

\section*{Campaign Participation (1988) Rates by Levels of Civic Involvement, Volunteering, and Perception of Social Need}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline Civic Involvement \({ }^{8}\) & \multicolumn{4}{|l|}{Rate of Participation} \\
\hline & Black & Hispanic & Asian & White \\
\hline Fairly active & 6\% & 20\% & 30\% & 8\% \\
\hline Somewhat active & 39\% & 30\% & 50\% & 38\% \\
\hline Not active at all & 44\% & 40\% & 10\% & 51\% \\
\hline \multirow[t]{2}{*}{Volunteering} & \multicolumn{4}{|c|}{Rate of Participation} \\
\hline & Black & Hispanic & Asian & White \\
\hline Volunteered in 1988 & 85\% & 89\% & 60\% & 81\% \\
\hline No volunteering in 1988 & 15\% & 11\% & 40\% & 198 \\
\hline \multirow[t]{2}{*}{Perception of Social Need} & \multicolumn{4}{|r|}{Rate of Participation} \\
\hline & Black & Hispanic & Asian & White \\
\hline Increased & 72\% & 60\% & 70\% & 81\% \\
\hline Same & 6\% & 20\% & 10\% & 10\% \\
\hline Decreased & 6\% & 0 & 0 & 48 \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Some response categories were omitted because of low numbers; figures are also rounded. Percentages will not add up to \(100 \%\)

Table 7 also shows a consistently high level of campaign participation among those who volunteer, except among Asian employees; ethnic differences are not significant ( \(p=<.14\) ). Participation rates are also higher among those who perceive social need as having increased in the past ten years; this relationship is not statistically significant either. Few employees gave estimates on the number of hours they had volunteered, making it difficult to assess whether the amount of volunteer time is associated with higher participation.

\section*{Gender}

Overall, the data show that women participate in workplace campaigns at a slightly higher rate (77\%) than men (74\%); the differences in rates are not statistically significant. Campaign participation is not directly linked to income, since women report a slightly lower average household income than men; women report an average household income of \(\$ 30,000\) to \(\$ 44,000\), while men report an average of \(\$ 45,000\) to \(\$ 59,000\).

\section*{Ethnicity}

Figure 7 shows the participation rates of different ethnic groups in the total sample. These data show that Blacks, Hispanics \({ }^{9}\), and Whites participate at very similar rates (76\%, 79\%, and 77\% respectively). This finding is significant because Blacks and Hispanics have lower average incomes than Whites; controlling for income, there is, however, no statistical association between participation and ethnicity (see Appendix, Table 25).

\section*{Eigure 7}

1988 WORKPLACE CAMPAIGN

PARTICIPATION BY ETHNIC GROUP


Household Income
In general, employees with higher household incomes participate in the charity campaign at slightly higher rates. However, if one carefully examines the data in Figure 8 , the increase is not very substantial and is not statistically significant. 10

Figure 8 shows that individuals with an annual household income of \(\$ 15,000\) to \(\$ 29,000\) participate at the same or higher rate than those who earn between \(\$ 30,000\) and \(\$ 59,000\). Similarly, more employees with household incomes of \(\$ 60,000\) to \(\$ 74,000\) participate in the workplace campaign than do employees in the next highest income bracket. Thus, even though the data show that income has some positive association with participation in one's workplace campaign, other factors more potent than income clearly affect an employee's decision to participate in the campaign. (See Appendix, Table 27 for data on participation by occupation).

Figure 8
1988 WORKPLACE CAMPAIGN

PARTICIPATION BY HOUSEHOLD INCOME


\section*{Length of Time with Emplover}

As hypothesized, the number of years an employee has worked for her or his current employer is significantly associated with a higher rate of campaign participation independent of income. When controlled for income, there is still a significant association between length of time with one's employer and participation in the workplace campaign. 11

\section*{Motivations for Workplace Giving}

All donors were asked to rank a number of factors that influenced them to contribute through their workplace campaign. These factors covered a range of topics having to do with specific features of workplace campaigns (e.g. payroll deduction, convenience, employer matching funds) and personal beliefs about the general value of philanthropy. Tables 8.1 and 8.2 show how employees ranked these factors by gender and ethnicity.

TABIE 8.1

\section*{MOITVATIONS FOR GIVING AT WORK}

\section*{MALES}
"Which of the following factors motivated you to give through your workplace?"
\begin{tabular}{lr} 
& Mean rank score \\
Reason for Giving & TOIAL Black Hisp Asian White
\end{tabular}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline 1. Moral responsibility to help others. & 2.6 & 2.5 & 2.8 & 2.4 & 2.5 \\
\hline & & & & & \\
\hline 2. Donor Option lets me choose agency . & 2.3 & 2.4 & 2.1 & 2.3 & 2.1 \\
\hline 3. It makes me feel good. & 2.3 & 2.2 & 2.2 & 2.4 & 2.0 \\
\hline 4. Employer matches my contribution. * & 2.2 & 1.0 & 1.0 & 1.9 & 2.2 \\
\hline 5. Payroll deduction is easy/painless. & 1.9 & 2.0 & 1.7 & 1.1 & 1.8 \\
\hline 6. Give to umbrella organization, don't to worry about choosing specific programs. & 1.6 & 2.1 & 2.0 & 1.2 & 1.6 \\
\hline 7. Contribution was tax decuuctible. & 1.5 & 1.4 & 1.7 & 1.4 & 1.5 \\
\hline 8. More convenient to give at work. & 1.4 & 1.4 & . 9 & 1.3 & 1.3 \\
\hline 9. I was personally asked by someone. & 1.4 & . 7 & 1.7 & 1.6 & 1.3 \\
\hline 10. Co-workers or boss expect me to give. & 1.3 & 1.5 & . 8 & 1.3 & 1.3 \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

\section*{Ranking Code:}
\(5=\) extremely important, \(4=\) very important, 3= important,
\(2=\) not very important, \(1=\) not important
* Mean scores are for those corporate employees with matching funds as an option; total sample scores are for men and women of all ethnic groups

TABLE 8.2

\section*{MOTIVATIONS FOR GIVING AT WORK}

\section*{EEMALES}
"Which of the following factors motivated you to give through your workplace?"

Mean rank score
Reason for Giving TOTAL Black Hisp Asian White in Rank Order SAMPLE


\section*{Ranking Code:}
\(5=\) extremely important, \(4=\) very important, \(3=\) important, \(2=\) not very important, \(1=\) not important
* Mean scores are for those corporate employees with matching funds as an option. Total sample scores are for men and women of all ethnic groups.

The data show that moral responsibility (2.6) ranks first as a motivation for workplace giving among all employees, followed closely by the availability of donor option (2.3) and "it makes me feel good (2.3)." The fact that some corporate employers match employee contributions is an important factor to employees who have that option (2.2) and closes out the top four motivating factors given by employees in this study. This is the first indication that donor option is important to all types of employees, regardless of gender or ethnicity; more detailed analysis of the donor option variable follows. Pressure from co-workers, a complaint which surfaced in employee interviews as a negative experience, ranks very low (1.3) in the overall assessment, substantiating the employee complaint elicited in interviews that pressure is not a strong motivation for increasing or initiating employee donations.

\section*{Demographics}

Generally, there is no substantial difference in the way men, women and ethnic groups rank the importance of a sense of moral responsibility (Factor 1). All groups rank this as their primary motivation for giving in the workplace. However, a closely related factor, "it feels good" is ranked slightly more important by women (2.7) than by men (2.2); it is also ranked more important by Blacks (2.5) and Asians (2.6) than by Whites (2.1). Hispanics and Asian women are less likely to be motivated by pressure from co-workers.

More importantly, the mean scores in Tables 8.1 and 8.2 show that all groups rank donor option as more important to them than the convenience of an umbrella organization. However, donor option is slightly more important to Blacks and to women, than to Asians, Whites, or men.

The relationship between ethnicity and donor option is explored in a different way in Table 9. Looking at donor option as a motivation for workplace giving, \(58 \%\) of Black employees find it an important motivation, while only 50\% of the Hispanics, \(39 \%\) of the Asians, and \(46 \%\) of the Whites find it an important motivator.

TABIE 9
DONOR OPTION AS A MOIIVATION TO GIVE
\begin{tabular}{llllll} 
& Blacks & Hispanic & Asian & White \\
NOT IMPORTANT & 20.00 & 20.00 & 19.23 & 23.53 \\
\hline IMPORTANT & 57.78 & 50.00 & 38.46 & 46.02 \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
* Figures for Hispanics are less than \(10 \%\) of the sample. Chi-square \(=13.68, \mathrm{df}=20, \mathrm{p}=<.86\)

Additional data confirm the importance of donor option to employees. When asked directly, employees said they preferred to designate all or part of their workplace donations to specific organizations. Table 10 shows that this preference is strongest among minority groups, particularly Asian employees. Undesignated giving to "umbrella" organizations ranks highest among White employees. (See Appendix, Tables 28, 29 and 30 for supplemental donor option information.)

TABLE 10
PERCENTAGE BREAKDOWN OF PREFERRED FORM OF GIVING BY GENDER AND ETHNICITY
"Which form of giving do you prefer at your workplace campaign?"

TOTAL BLACKS HISPANICS ASIANS WHITES \(M / E \quad M / E \quad M / E \quad M / E\) *
\begin{tabular}{ll|llll} 
1. Federation & 21 & \(14 / 04\) & \(20 / 20\) & \(21 / 4\) & \(27 / 20\) \\
2. Specific & 41 & \(50 / 48\) & \(50 / 47\) & \(53 / 41\) & \(40 / 39\) \\
\begin{tabular}{lllll} 
program
\end{tabular} & 38 & \(36 / 48\) & \(30 / 33\) & \(26 / 46\) & \(33 / 41\) \\
3. Both & 38 & & & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
* \(\mathrm{M} / \mathrm{F}=\) Male/Female

Women and ethnic minorities generally prefer to designate all or part of their workplace contributions through donor option. Only \(12 \%\) of the women in the sample preferred to make undesignated donations to "umbrella" organizations (compared to \(21 \%\) of the men). Among ethnic groups, Blacks show the least interest in making undesignated donations.

Employees were also asked to indicate which factors influenced them to give to one organization over another. The two factors which received the highest number of responses were:
(1) knowing about the organization through friends, or
(2) having been directly affected by the issues the organization addresses.

This suggests that personal connections to a charity and its programs through friends and family are a stronger motivating factor than the brochures, presentations, or advertising used during the workplace charity campaign. These data consistently show that women and Blacks are more strongly motivated by donor option than other groups, although not significantly so. Age also did not emerge as a significant factor in shaping the employee's preferred form of giving. \({ }^{12}\)

Level of Giving in the Workplace

\section*{Income}

The annual average gift made by all donors in our sample ranged between \(\$ 100\) and \(\$ 199\). The combined data indicate that household income influences how much employees give through the workplace campaign, but is not, in itself, a predictive variable. Figure 12 shows a steady, gradual increase in level of giving as household income increases.

Figure 9


Gift Code: \(\begin{aligned} & 4=\$ 200-\$ 299 ; 3=\$ 100-\$ 199 ; \\ & 2= \\ & 2= \$ 0-\$ 99 ; 1= \\ & \$ 1-\$ 49 .\end{aligned}\)

\section*{Gender}

In all worksites, men make larger donations than women. This corroborates the earlier finding that income influences giving, since women have lower average incomes than men in both the public and private sectors. The average household income for men in this sample is between \(\$ 45,000\) and \(\$ 59,000\) per year, and for women from \(\$ 30,000\) to \(\$ 44,000\) per year.

\section*{Ethnicity}

Interestingly, when we compare the average workplace gift for each ethnic group, there are important differences that cannot be explained by income alone. \({ }^{13}\) Table 11 shows that Blacks have the lowest average income but contributed the second highest annual gift during the 1988 campaign (see Appendix, Table 31 for detailed frequency distributions).

TABLE 11

\section*{ANNUAL AVERAGE GIFT FOR 1988}
\begin{tabular}{lcc} 
Public & Annual Gift & Avg. Incame \\
\cline { 2 - 3 } Hispanics & 2.7 & 3.8 \\
Blacks & 2.2 & 3.1 \\
Whites & 2.0 & 3.9 \\
Asians & 1.3 & 3.5 \\
& & \\
& & \\
Private & & \\
& & \\
Whites & & \\
Annual Gift & & \\
Blacks & & \\
Asians & & \\
Hispanics & 2.4 & 4.2 \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\[
\begin{array}{lll}
\text { Income Code: } & 5=\$ 74-\$ 60,000 ; & 4=\$ 59-\$ 45,000 ; \\
3=\$ 44-\$ 30,000 ; & 2=\$ 29-\$ 15,000 .
\end{array}
\]

\section*{Civic Involvement}

One of the research goals was to determine the degree to which an employee's involvement in civic activity, volunteering, or perception of social need influenced size of donations to the workplace campaign. Table 12 shows there is a notable difference in the size of workplace donations between those who described themselves as active or somewhat active in their communities and those who were not active at all. Thus, although we found no relationship between civic involvement and participation in workplace campaigns, these data show that civic involvement seems to be associated with the size of the gift made in the workplace.

TABLE 12

\section*{LEVEL OF GIVING AND CIVIC ACTIVITY}

Civic Involvement
Fairly active
Somewhat active
Not active at all

Average Gift
3.6
2.9
2.3

Volunteering
Volunteered in \(1988 \quad 3.3\)
Did not volunteer in \(1988 \quad 2.5\)
```

Gift Code: 4= \$299 - \$200; 3= \$199 - \$100;
2= \$99-\$50; 1= \$49 - \$ 1

```

The data also indicate a significant difference in the size of the gift of those who volunteered in 1988 and those who did not. \({ }^{14}\)

The cumulative charitable index score provides another way to measure community service. Individuals with high index scores presumably are involved in numerous civic activities, either attending fundraisers, volunteering, serving on boards, or making cash donations. As expected, Figure 10 shows that the size of the workplace donation is higher among empioyees who have high cumulative scores on the charitable support index.

Figure 10


Gift Code: \(\begin{aligned} & 4=\$ 299-\$ 200 ; 3=\$ 199-\$ 100 ; \\ & 2=\$ 99-\$ 50 ; \\ & 1=\$ 49-\$ 1\end{aligned}\)

Perception of Social Need
Finally, in examining the effect of perceptions of social need on level of giving in the workplace, Table 13 shows that the average gift is smaller among those who feel that the level of social need has decreased in the past ten years. However, the largest gift is found among those who feel the level of need has stayed about the same, not among those who feel need has increased. \({ }^{15}\)

TABLE 13

\section*{LEVEL OF GIVING AND PERCEIVED SOCIAL NEED}

Perceived Social Need
Average Gift
1. Increased
2.8
2. Same
3.2
3. Decreased
2.1
4. Not sure
2.7

\section*{WORKPLACE GIVING BY SECTOR}

\section*{Rates of Campaign Participation}

Rates of employee participation vary significantly between the public and private sectors; only \(60 \%\) of public employees indicated that they participated in the campaign in some way, compared to \(85 \%\) of private employees (See Table 14). This sector difference in employee participation in workplace fundraising is an important finding that is influenced, at least in part, by the nature of the campaign organization in the two sectors. Details of these differences are discussed later.

Men and women in the private sector participate at \(86 \%\) and 85\% respectively, and in the public sector, men participate at a \(3 \%\) higher rate than women ( \(61 \%\) men; \(58 \%\) women).

TABLE 14

\section*{1988 Campaign Participation by Civic Involvemente Volunteering and Perception of Social Need}

Civic Involvement \({ }^{16} \quad\) Rate of Participation
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline & Total & Public & Private \\
\hline Fairly active & \(73 \%\) & 69\% & \(77 \%\) \\
\hline Somewhat active & 77\% & \(58 \%\) & \(88 \%\) \\
\hline Not active at all & 77\% & 59\% & 87\% \\
\hline \multirow[t]{2}{*}{Volunteering} & \multicolumn{3}{|r|}{Rate of Participation} \\
\hline & Total & Public & Private \\
\hline Volunteered in 1988 & 77\% & 64\% & 86\% \\
\hline Did not volunteer in 1988 & 72\% & 51\% & 85\% \\
\hline \multirow[t]{2}{*}{Perception of Social Need} & \multicolumn{3}{|r|}{Rate of Participation} \\
\hline & Total & Public & Private \\
\hline Increased & 77\% & 62\% & 87\% \\
\hline Same & 75\% & 60\% & 85\% \\
\hline Decreased & 59\% & 50\% & 63\% \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

The positive association between volunteering and donating in the workplace is stronger in the private sector than in the public sector, but not significantly so. This data
reinforces the earlier finding that Whites tend to volunteer at a higher rate than minorities; the predominance of Whites in the private worksites obviously influences these participation rates.

\section*{Length of Time with Emplover}

In the public sector, the rate of participation increases with the length of time an employee has worked with the employer; Table 15 shows a \(30 \%\) increase in the rate of participation among employees who have worked over 15 years, compared to those who have worked under one year. This association is not as strong among private sector employees; data show that participation is highest among employees who have been working for over 15 years, but the employees who have worked between 1 and 15 years actually participate less than those who have just started to work for their employer. These data suggest that new employees in the private sector have greater incentives for participating in the workplace campaign than public employees.

TABLE 15
1988 WORKPLACE CAMPAIGN
PARTICIPATION RATE \& LENGTH OF TIME WITH EMPLOYER
BY SECTOR
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline & \(\leq 1 \mathrm{Yr}\). & 1-5 Yrs. & 5-15 Yrs. & \(15+\mathrm{Yrs}\). \\
\hline PUBLIC & 44\% & 51\% & 62\% & 75\% \\
\hline PRIVATE & 86\% & 83\% & 84\% & 91\% \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Age
Table 16 shows that campaign participation increases with age in both sectors as well. Here, as in the previous table, we see that the relative increase in employee participation is larger in the public sector than in the private sector.

TABLE 16
1988 WORKPLACE CAMPAIGN
PARTICIPATION RATE BY AGE AND SECTOR
\begin{tabular}{lcccc} 
& \(\leq 31\) Yrs. & & \(31-50\) Yrs. & \(51+\) Yrs. \\
PUBLIC & \(55 \%\) & \(61 \%\) & \(62 \%\) \\
PRIVATE & \(82 \%\) & \(87 \%\) & \(88 \%\)
\end{tabular}

\section*{Civic Involvement}

If we compare the public and private sectors, however, we see that civic involvement appears to be associated with workplace participation in the public sector, but not in the private sector. Among public employees there is a sizeable gap (10\%) between the rate of participation in workplace giving among those who describe themselves as fairly active and those who say they are not active at all. The gap in participation rates is much smaller (1\%) in the private sector between those who are not active at all and those who say they are somewhat active. There are no significant differences in this pattern among different ethnic groups.

Ethnicity
Table 17 shows that in the public sector, ethnic minorities, especially Blacks, participate at a significantly higher rate than Whites; 35\% more Blacks participated in the 1988 campaign than did Whites. This is not the case in the private sector, where minorities represent a smaller proportion of the sample. In the private sector, \(13 \%\) more Whites than Blacks participated in workplace campaigns.

TABLE 17

\section*{1988 Campaign}

Sector Participation by Ethnic Group
\begin{tabular}{lcccc} 
& Blacks & Hispanics & Asians & Whites \\
PUBLIC & \(78 \%\) & \(58 \%\) & & \(45 \%\) \\
PRIVATE & \(72 \%\) & \(88 \%\) & \(86 \%\) & \(42 \%\) \\
& & \(85 \%\)
\end{tabular}

\section*{Designated Giving}

In comparing the reasons for designated giving by public and private sector employees, some differences are worth noting (Table 18). More private than public employees claimed that brochures and multi-media presentations during the campaign influenced them to give to a specific group.

TABLE 18

\section*{REASONS FOR GIVING TO A SPECIFIC ORGANIZATION} BY SECTOR

\author{
Total Public Private
}
1. I know about the organization through friends and believe it performs a worthwhile service. 50\% 49\% 50\%
2. I, or someone close to me, has been personally affected by the issues addressed by the organization.
\(44 \% \quad 48 \%\) \(42 \%\)
3. The administrative overhead to run the organization is low. 23\% 15\% 27\%
4. A presentation I saw curing the campaign convinced me. 22\% 8\% 30\%
5. Brochures I saw in the campaign convinced me. 19\% 13\% 22\%
6. I am or have been active as a volunteer in that organization. \(16 \% \quad 14 \% \quad 18 \%\)
7. I saw a television ad/ program. 13\% 9 \(9 \% \quad 15 \%\)
8. I read about it in a newspaper/ magazine.

These findings suggest that the advertising techniques and informational materials in the private sector campaigns are more effective than those used in the public sector. Although we did not observe each worksite campaign, interviews with campaign coordinators suggest that the
private sector campaigns devote greater time and resources to planning the workplace campaign and designing campaign materials.

First, the corporate worksites had more presentations during which videos were shown or representatives from the agencies came to speak with employees about the work they do; employees were strongly encouraged to attend these meetings. Such presentations are not as common in the public worksites. Second, the brochures at corporate worksites tended to be more personalized, specifically targeted to employees, and were of higher quality than those found in municipal government campaigns. At one of the corporate worksites, the employer worked directly with United Way to produce an in-house video specifically for their charity campaign. These multiple factors undoubtedly make the brochures and presentations a more persuasive factor in corporate campaigns.

Figures 11 and 12 reveal that public employees exhibit a stronger preference for donating most of their funds outside of work than do private sector employees. Almost two-thirds of public employees made most of their charitable donations in 1988 outside of the workplace charity campaign. Private sector employees in the sample show equal numbers of employees who contributed primarily the workplace campaign (40\%).

\section*{MAJORITY OF ALLOCATIONS PUBLIC EMPLOYEES}


Figure 12

\section*{MAJORITY OF ALLOCATIONS \\ PRIVATE EMPLOYEES}

41.0\% outside

The allocation preference of Whites varied substantially between the public and private sectors; \(71 \%\) of Whites in the public sector said they donated most of their funds outside of work, compared to only \(43 \%\) of Whites in the private sector.

\section*{Level of Giving}

The average size of donations varied significantly between the public and private sectors: in the public sector, the average gift was \(\$ 50\) to \(\$ 99\), while in the private sector, it was twice as much, \(\$ 100\) to \(\$ 199\).

The data also show that the longer an employee works for his or her employer, the larger the annual gift (Table 19), regardless of sector. As noted in the discussion of the total sample, this may be due to workplace loyalty, intensity of workplace campaign, or donation decisions made early in one's career.

TABLE 19

\section*{ANNUAL AVERAGE GIFT BY YEARS WITH EMPLOYER}
\begin{tabular}{lcccc} 
& \(\leq 1\) Yre & & \(1-5\) Yrs. & \\
& & & \(5-15\) Yrs. & \(15+\) Yrs. \\
PUBLIC & 1.3 & 1.6 & & 1.8 \\
PRIVATE & 2.1 & 2.9 & 3.3 & 3.5
\end{tabular}

Gift code: \(4=\$ 299-\$ 200 ; 3=\$ 199-\$ 100 ;\)
\(2=\$ 99-50 ; \quad 1=\$ 49-\$ 1\).

\section*{Types of Campaigns}

Campaigns in the public and private sectors differed not only in the range of choice available to donors, but also in campaign organization. First, two of the three private employers have a policy of matching employee contributions; this factor is often noted by employees as an incentive for giving at work. Matching funds are not customary among municipal government employers. Second, private employers in this study have a community relations coordinator or manager specifically hired to handle the organization of the charity campaign along with other community relations duties. Since this person runs the campaign each year, he or she benefits from past experience and implements campaign changes guided by prior experience. Typically, campaign coordinators receive bonuses or some other form of recognition for a job well done. Running an effective campaign with a high rate of participation is an integral part of the coordinator's job and campaign success is taken into account during evaluation and promotion reviews.

By contrast, the public sector campaign coordinators in this study changed each year. One of the consequences is that prior experience is not accumulated or passed on to the new coordinator year to year. The task of coordinator is
typically given to a high level manager who must perform campaign coordinating tasks in addition to regular job duties. Release time for these duties is at the discretion of the coordinator's supervisor and often is not possible. Running the annual campaign, while described as a "valuable" experience by public sector coordinators, is not necessarily tied to the individual's job expertise or evaluation. An effective performance as campaign coordinator is, therefore, not necessarily taken into account during an annual review. Coordinators and their assistants also do not receive bonuses or other financial incentives for running a successful campaign.

In addition, based on observations and interviews with campaign coordinators at each worksite, public sector campaigns generally have fewer funds and staff support than private sector campaigns. Although it should be noted that much of the labor involved in charity campaigns in the private sector (i.e. charity picnics, bake sales, and other fundraising events) is often donated by employees, private employers often "chipin" to the charity drive by providing raffle prizes or release time for employees. Such employer support is not as prevalent in the public sector where budgetary crises make discretionary funds scarce. In short, the private sector charity campaigns examined in this study all had greater funds and organizational resources than the campaigns in the public sector. Thus, in comparing the giving behavior and attitudes of public and private sector employees, the different range of participating charities as well as the different organization and resources of the campaigns must be taken into account.

\section*{Characteristics and Attitudes of Non-Donors}

One-quarter (24\%) of the respondents did not participate in their 1988 workplace charity campaign; these employees were asked why they did not participate. Table 20 shows that the two most important reasons were a preference to give outside of the work setting and a lack of income.
"If you have never given in the workplace, or didn't give in 1988, which of the following BEST summarizes your reasons?"

Total Public Private
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline 1. I prefer to give to groups outside of my work setting. & 36\% & 38\% & 33\% \\
\hline 2. I don't have enough extra income. & 21\% & 14\% & 29\% \\
\hline 3. I prefer to give to religious organizations. & 18\% & 23\% & 12\% \\
\hline 4. I don't find any groups I wish to support. & 17\% & 21\% & 13\% \\
\hline 5. The group I wish to support is not included in my workplace campaign. & 13\% & 15\% & 11\% \\
\hline 6. I don't like my boss or co-workers to know how much I give. & 13\% & 9\% & 18\% \\
\hline 7. No one asked me. & 11\% & 10\%. & 12\% \\
\hline 8. I prefer to volunteer my time. & \(9 \%\) & \(9 \%\) & 10\% \\
\hline 9. I prefer to spend my money in other ways. & 6\% & \(10 \%\) & 10\% \\
\hline 10. I prefer to give to higher education. & 7\% & 3\% & 5\% \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

When we compare employees in the different sectors, we find that they do not always have the same reasons for not participating in the workplace campaign. Lack of income, for example, is a more frequent response among private sector non-donors than public sector non-donors. The data also suggest that public sector non-participants may be choosing to give their money to religious organizations more
often than private sector employees. A preference for religious donations received a \(23 \%\) response rate in the public sector, compared to \(12 \%\) in the private sector.

On the other hand, twice as many private sector employees said they didn't give because they didn't want fellow employees or their employer to know how much they gave. This suggests that some corporate non-donors feel that their participation would not be kept sufficiently confidential. It is also noteworthy that more public sector non-donors say they do not give because the group they wish to support is not included in the campaign; this is not a statistically significant association, however. This is true even though these employees have more organizations to choose from in the workplace campaign than do private sector employees.

Demographic Differences among Non-Donors
Reasons for not giving to the workplace campaign vary in some respects between men and women, different age groups, and ethnic groups. Men and women both cite a preference for giving outside of work as their primary reason for not giving at work, but twice as many women indicated that income was a deciding factor for their decision not to participate. Among employees under 30 years old, \(42 \%\) cite low income as their main reason for not contributing, while income is a much less important factor for older employees. Employees between 31 and 50 years of age give their preference for giving outside of work as the most important reason for not participating; employees over 50 cite both a preference for giving outside of work and giving to religious organizations as their primary reasons.

Minority employees differed in their reasons for choosing not to participate in the campaign. The most frequent reason given by Blacks was the fact that no one directly asked them to participate. For both Hispanics and Asians, the most frequent reason not to give was low income. For all ethnic groups, a preference for giving outside of the workplace was among their top three reasons for choosing not to participate; however, this reason was much more frequent among Whites. (See Appendix, Tables 32 and 33 for detailed demographic data on non-donors).

Employees were also asked to write-in any additional reasons they might have for not participating in the workplace campaign. Numerous employees stated that pressure to give at work made them resistant to participate in the campaign. One 32 year old employee in the private sector reported that he feels pressure to give from his boss, but his donation is "minimal." Explaining his feelings, he stated that "If you tell your boss you don't want to give, he gets upset and makes working here harder on you. If you give
outside, it shouldn't matter or affect work. Being pressured by a boss to give to charity so that getting 100\% of employees to give gets him a bonus is rotten!"

Complaints of being pressured were not restricted to the private sector. A few public sector employees also expressed some resentment about pressure to give, but were generally less vehement. One 31 year old professional said, "I don't like to feel compelled to give through an employer's payroll deduction plan or through any companywide solicitation." This view was echoed by another employee who noted that "The fund raising has become so competitive within each department. Maybe this way we can raise more money, but I don't feel I have any obligation to make my group look good on the list. I prefer to give money outside of my workplace."

Aside from the negative impact of departmental pressure, some employees simply prefer to keep their charitable giving separate from the workplace. As one 47 year old administrative assistant said, "It is a very private affair, and I like to keep my work and private life separate."

Many non-donors said they did not give because they doubted the sincerity and efficacy of charitable organizations. In the words of one employee, "I feel that too many charities are rip-offs." Or, as another employee put it, "I am skeptical of the use of my money for its intended purpose." Several employees said they preferred to give to an organization outside of the workplace because they knew it well and were confident that the money they gave was well spent. With workplace donations, some employees worry that their donations go to administrative costs rather than directly to the needy. One 38 year old public employee who gives outside of work wrote, "I felt more of my dollars would go to my cause rather than to administrative costs through payroll."

\section*{More Effective Campaigns}

An issue of great interest to all charitable organizations involves encouraging larger donations or a higher rate of participation in workplace campaigns. Nearly one-third ( \(30 \%\) ) of our respondents indicated that they do not give as much to charity as they should, and another \(15 \%\) were unsure if they gave as much as they should. This suggests that the workplace campaign has not maximized its full potential for rate of participation and the level of giving.

Employees who did not donate or felt they didn't give to their potential were asked what factors might persuade them to give more or to give for the first time. A total of 237 people responded. Table 21 shows the percentage breakdown of these responses.

\section*{FACTORS RELEVANT TO INCREASING DONATIONS}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline & Total & Public & Private \\
\hline 1. More information on local charities. & 42\% & 39\% & 45\% \\
\hline 2. More choices of organizations. & 26\% & 26\% & 26\% \\
\hline 3. A more personal approach. & 16\% & 19\% & 14\% \\
\hline 4. Other & 35\% & 36\% & 35\% \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

A total of 54 respondents explained what they meant by "other." Over half said that a pay raise would persuade them to give more. This comment was made by employees from various occupational levels, professionals, managers, and administrative assistants. These responses seem to confirm the earlier finding on the strong relationship between level of giving and household income.

In addition to a pay raise, individuals indicated several other factors which they believed might influence them to give more:

Several respondents said they might give more if they had more specific information on how their donations were spent. This response was voiced by both public and private sector employees. Some individuals said they would appreciate follow-up information after having made a donation.

Related to the concern for more information was a desire to have some assurance that the money they donated was going directly to the needy. As one older manager put it, "I don't like my money going to any middle man." More information on how charity dollars are spent and the purpose and level of administrative overhead might help allay employee suspicions about the judicious use of their charitable dollars.

One way to disseminate information is through pre-campaign meetings or presentations. However, campaign coordinators reported that bringing employees together for presentations or organizing agency visits during work hours is often difficult. Given this problem, one employee suggested that federations and other charitable agencies could take advantage of in-house employee newsletters to write short articles providing information about the work they do, how dollars are spent, and functions of administrative overhead.

Individuals in both sectors said they would give more if they could designate their funds to a specific organization because as one employee put it, "[the] umbrella organization gives to causes I don't believe in." Another employee with a United Way campaign said she might participate if she could give to the prevention of child abuse.

Both of these comments suggest that information on donor option may not be uniformly communicated, since individuals in both the combined and United Way campaigns can designate their funds to specific services and are not compelled to give to organizations they do not wish to support. Only a few respondents in the private sector said that they wanted other organizations besides United Way to choose from in their charity campaign.

Some individuals in the public sector said they would give more if they could give to religious organizations. Conversely, one employee in the private sector said she did not give to United Way because it included what she believed to be religious groups.

Several employees said they might give more if they had more information on whether all or part of their contributions were tax deductible.

A few employees said that they might give more if they were not pressured. Said one 46 year old salesperson, "I would most likely give more if not expected to give."

\section*{CONCLUSIONS}

\section*{OVERALL CHARITABLE BEHAVIOR}

\section*{Interest in Social Issues}

These data show that most employees are interested in supporting health and human services (53\%) and medical research (54\%). Although this research does not document actual amounts given in specific areas, the findings are consistent with national reports on the interests supported by large donors. Yankelovich, Skelly and White (1986) found that 60\% of all large donors ( \(\$ 500+\) ) supported social welfare organizations, 64\% supported the United Way, and \(63 \%\) gave to hospitals and other medical research and service facilities. In earlier studies, only education received larger average donations ( \(\$ 260\) ) than health ( \(\$ 170\) ), social welfare ( \(\$ 150\) ), or United Way organizations (\$210) (Yankelovich et al., 1986, pgs. 19-20).

Asians show a strong interest in international affairs; this interest remains largely untapped through workplace campaigns, except in the public worksites where the International Services Agencies (ISA) was a competitive charity. Blacks' interest in minority issues and religion reflect other donor profiles (Hodgkinson and Weitzman, 1988) and give further credence to Carson's (1987) arguments that Blacks take a more active role in the management of workplace fundraising (see also NCRP, 1989).

This survey found, as did other studies, that giving to religion was relatively high on all employees' lists of interests (AAFRC, 1988; Hodgkinson and Weitzman, 1988); over one-third of all employees said they would support religious organizations if they had money to donate, ranking religion third on the charitable interest scale.

Unlike other studies, environmental protection followed closely in fourth place with an overall interest rate of 35\%; the long-standing work of the Sierra Club and the more recent impact of the Environmental Federation undoubtedly is reflected in these rates. National studies show small amounts given to environmental groups by the majority of large donors, but a low overall interest and average donation (\$40) nationwide (Yankelovich et al, 1986, pg. 19). This same study found that \(42 \%\) of all respondents reported pledging a dollar amount to their church or synagogue, which is consistent with the level of interest in religious organizations (38\%) revealed in these data. Except for younger men's significant interest in AIDS-related issues, gender does not seem to play a major
role in affiliation with social issues. This male interest in AIDS is undoubtedly a reflection of the concern inherent in the large gay male population in the San Francisco Bay Area.

\section*{Types of Charitable Support}

The vast majority of employees surveyed (97\%) made some type of charitable contribution during the year in question (1988). Nearly half of these employees (47\%) made the bulk of these contributions through the workplace campaign.

Purchase of raffle tickets (66\%) and donations in response to personal solicitations ( \(60 \%\) ) were the most common types of individual support for service organizations; payroll deduction (56\%) ranked a close third. Payroll deductions and other forms of workplace giving were substantially more frequent among private employees in this study. Public employees as a group preferred to make the bulk of their personal donations outside the workplace.

Blacks give at the highest rate among those who report donation most of their charitable dollars in the workplace. Despite this finding, Blacks are more likely than any of the minority groups surveyed to feel that they do not give enough to charity and ought to be doing more. Whites had a slightly higher tendency to donate most of their funds outside the workplace. These tendencies, however, were strongly affected by type of workplace; \(71 \%\) of whites in the public sector said they donated most of their funds outside of work, compared to only \(43 \%\) of Whites in the private sector. There is clearly a strong incentive to give to private workplace campaigns which for Whites, at least, negatively influences the rest of their non-work related giving.

Overall, employees engaged in at least three different types of charitable support activity in the course of a year; this support level increases with the level of household income. A strong relationship was also found between income and service on a board of directors; furthermore, at the upper income levels ( \(\$ 90,000+\) ) there was also an increase in the number of women (35\% versus \(26 \%\) for men) serving on boards. Income was found to be an important influence on overall charitable support, but was not, by itself, a sufficient predictor of the rate or level of workplace giving.

\section*{WORKPLACE GIVING}

\section*{Demographics}

Three quarters (76\%) of all respondents participated in their annual workplace charity campaign. Rates vary significantly between sectors, with \(60 \%\) of public employees participating, compared to \(85 \%\) of private employees. Although employees with higher household incomes participate at slightly higher rates, there is no significant correlation between income and campaign participation. Women participate in workplace campaigns at a slightly higher rate than men, confirming the finding that participation is not directly linked to income. Women report a lower average household income than men ( \(\$ 30-44,000\) compared to \(\$ 45-59,000\) ). Similar to previous studies, there is a significant relationship between the level of campaign participation and the age of the employee; older workers participate at higher rates than younger workers.

This study provides the first systematic data on participation in workplace campaigns by ethnic groups. Hodgkinson and Weitzman (1988) included ethnicity as a variable in their recent Independent Sector study of religious giving in the United States, but ethnicity is just beginning to receive the serious attention it deserves in philanthropic studies.

Data on campaign participation and level of giving show important differences in the behavior of ethnic groups. One of the most significant findings of this study is that Blacks give at a proportionally higher rate than other ethnic groups. In both public and private sector campaigns, Blacks give the second largest gift although they have the lowest average household income. Additionally, more Blacks than any other group reported that they made most of their 1988 donations in the workplace. Blacks are clearly very interested in workplace giving and represent a largely untapped philanthropic resource. This finding suggests that more attention should be paid to the interests of this and other minority groups in incorporating them more directly into the workplace campaign.

The data also show that Blacks have the highest rate of campaign participation relative to other ethnic groups in the combined campaigns of the public sector. Blacks in the public sector have a roughly \(35 \%\) higher rate of participation than Whites (18\% higher than the average). In the private sector, Blacks have the lowest rate of participation, \(13 \%\) lower than the average. The private sector corporate campaigns are clearly not creating as strong a connection to Black concerns as the public sector campaigns.

Contrary to what Tonai's (1988) work would suggest, this high participation pattern is not found among Asians, who constituted \(12 \%\) of the respondents. Asians have overall participation rates roughly equivalent to that of Whites ( \(42 \%\) and \(45 \%\) respectively); they have lower rates of participation than Blacks in the public sector and higher rates than Blacks in the private sector. It is difficult to explain these differences; however, it is possible that greater choice of minority-focused organizations may be more important in motivating Blacks to participate in workplace fundraising than it is to Whites or Asians. The low number of Hispanic respondents make it difficult to compare their behavior with that of other ethnic groups.

The findings in this study strongly support the work of Emmett Carson who recently found that although fewer Blacks hold jobs with payroll deduction options, Blacks (69\%) participate in workplace campaigns at a higher rate than Whites (59\%) (Carson, 1987; NCRP, 1989). Although Blacks have been shown to contribute heavily to religious organizations, there is mounting evidence that Blacks also strongly support community organizations through workplace campaigns with a broad range of choice among charities.

There are, then, three plausible explanations for this disparity in the workplace participation rates among ethnic groups. First, the different nature of the charity campaigns in the two sectors might influence high Black participation in the public sector. Although the research did not identify the specific organizations employees support with their workplace donations, it is possible that more Blacks participate in the combined public campaigns because of the presence of the Bay Area Black United Fund and other federations like the Progressive Way which specifically serve minority communities. Data on interest in charitable issues support the assumption that a significant percentage of ethnic minority employees show a strong interest in donating to minority services.

Second, it is possible that the greater presence of Blacks in the public sector workforce, particularly in top level administrative positions, encourages minority employees to participate. In the opinion of the campaign coordinators of the five worksites, the involvement of top-level managers is an important factor in convincing employees to take part in the campaign. In one of the two public worksites studied, the campaign coordinator was Black. Thus, the leadership role played by Blacks in this charity campaign may have stimulated the high rate of Black participation in that campaign; the participation rate for Blacks was \(20 \%\) higher than the average. Black managerial campaign involvement was not present in any other worksite.

Finally, related to the greater presence of minorities in leadership positions in the public sector, minorities have a higher average income in the public sector. This may stimulate higher rates of Black participation in the public sector since campaign participation tends to increase with higher incomes.

Ethnicity is clearly an important element in workplace in the future of workplace giving behavior. The data are clear in their implication that ethnic differences in interests, motivations, and giving patterns outside the workplace have a direct impact on the importance of the workplace campaign in individual employee's lives. Campaigns should make a concerted effort to involve more minority employees in the campaign effort at all occupational levels; minority management involvement in workplace solicitation could create important gains in donations to service organizations important to minority employees.

\section*{Choice Among Charitable Organizations}

Because of the different nature of public and private campaigns in this study, these data do not unequivocally resolve the question of how combined charity campaigns are associated with higher or lower levels of giving in the workplace. When asked what could persuade them to give more at work, the majority of respondents said they might give more if they had more choices of organizations. At first glance, this suggests that the availability of greater choice is critically important to employees as a motivation for workplace giving.

However, the data also show higher rates of campaign participation and higher levels of giving among employees in the exclusive United Way campaigns in the private sector. For reasons more likely related to campaign organization rather than choice per se, there is greater employee participation in the corporate workplace campaigns where employees had fewer choices of organizations to choose from.

Furthermore, data on the average annual gift shows that average gifts are higher in the private sector across all ethnic groups. In the workplace, private employees give more and give more often than public sector employees. These differences do not correlate directly with differences in income; there is more than income impinging on the decision to make a workplace donation.

Thus, the data show that, while important, the number of charities open for contributions during a campaign is not the only factor influencing participation rates among public and private sector employees; it is also probably not the critical variable. First, campaign organization
differs substantially in the public and private sectors and this undoubtedly has an effect on the participation rate. The private corporations in this study allocate greater resources and attention to the annual charity campaign. The task of organizing the campaign is one of the major responsibilities of the community relations department and there is a genuine commitment on the part of top-level executives to a high rate of employee participation. All the campaign coordinators stressed that support from top-level executives is an essential component in motivating employees to participate. The close relationship that some of the corporate executives have with United Way, often sitting on United Way boards, may also be a factor in fostering a commitment to success in the annual charity campaign.

In contrast, one of the public sector campaigns studied here suffers from a consistent lack of financial and staff support. One indicator of the negative impact which this has on the campaign is demonstrated by the fact that the rate of participation was \(8 \%\) lower in that campaign than in the other public sector campaign. According to the 1988 campaign coordinator's office, organizational and staffing problems are perpetual, major obstacles in organizing an effective campaign.

Second, two of the three private employers have a policy of matching employee donations, whereas neither of the public employers match employee funds. Our data show that private sector employees rank matching funds as an important incentive for participating in the workplace campaign. For all the above reasons, it is impossible to precisely determine the extent to which the different rate of employee participation in public and private sector workplace fundraising is due to the availability of choice rather than other factors related to campaign organization.

As previously noted, the ethnic composition of the workforce has a marked effect on the interests and charitable behavior expressed in the workplace. As the population in metropolitan areas such as the San Francisco Bay Area shifts toward larger proportions of ethnic minorities, native and immigrant, these demographic factors will become increasingly important to the continued success of workplace campaigns.

While the number of charitable choices may not be the key variable in campaign participation, the data clearly show that choice in the form of donor option, the ability to designate specific organization(s) within a charitable federation, is ranked as an important motivation for workplace giving by all employees. This is especially true for women and Blacks. Thus, the availability of choice as reflected in specific designation of donations is clearly
an important positive influence on the decision to participate in workplace giving. The relative range of choice seems less important to potential workplace donors than the presence of some degree of latitude in channelling donations to specific groups, regardless of the total number of options available.

Therefore, increasing the number of charitable organizations that employees can choose to donate to will not necessarily increase the level or amount of giving in the workplace. Public employees with the most variety and number of choices among charitable federations stated that they still wanted more choice; given the preference in this group for giving to religion, one possible explanation for this finding is that public employees would like religious groups included among the campaign choices. While private employees have limited choices (health and human services) they do not express a desire for greater choice. However, both groups of employees indicated a strong preference for choice in designating a specific target organization for their donation.

\section*{Volunteering and Civic Involvement}

The ground-breaking national survey by Yankelovich, Skelly and White (1986) found that giving "increases among those who are involved as volunteers, and giving generally increases as the amount of volunteer time increases" (Yankelovich et al, 1986, p. 27). The data in this survey of Bay Area employees found an interesting difference between level of civic involvement in general and volunteering in particular. The findings do not show higher rates of participation in workplace giving among those who describe themselves as active in civic affairs; in fact, those who are not active at all participate at the same or higher rate than those who reported active community involvement.

However, the data show a significant increase in campaign participation among those who reported having volunteered during the previous year; this increase was also directly correlated with the perception that social need had increased in the past ten years. This association between volunteering and donating in the workplace is stronger in the public sector than in the private sector.

Furthermore, there was a significant difference in the amount of workplace donations between those who described themselves as fairly or somewhat active in civic affairs ( \(\$ 100-\$ 200\) ) and those who were not active at all ( \(\$ 50-\$ 60\) ). The average gift of fairly active employees is \(64 \%\) higher than non-active employees; the average gift of employees who volunteer is \(76 \%\) higher than the average gift of the employee who did no volunteer work at all.

These findings are consistent with earlier work which shows no clear relationship between giving and income, but a strong association between giving and volunteer activity (Hodgkinson and Weitzman, 1988; Yankelovich et al., 1986). Clearly these patterns among donors in general hold true for the workplace campaign donor as well.

Since findings indicate that the level and rate of giving are directly affected by factors such as civic involvement, volunteering, and ethnicity as well as income, one might argue that the organization of the campaign and the involvement of top level managers in the campaign effort may be the critical element in overall campaign success regardless of the type of campaign (open or closed). A well organized campaign could reach people for a variety of personal issues, regardless of income level.

Data indicate that educating current and potential donors, encouraging volunteer activity (especially in the workplace campaign), encouraging free use of donor option, and encompassing a variety of social concerns with a range of charitable options could produce significant improvements in overall campaign participation. At the very least, these changes would go a long way toward improving employees' attitudes about the annual campaign process and their personal connection to its outcome.

Length of Time with Employer
The data show that the longer an employee has worked for his or her employer, the more likely he or she will participate in workplace fundraising. When adjusted for income, this relationship continues to hold true, indicating that loyalty to the employer or quality and intensity of the campaign are clearly involved in the decision to participate. However, this statistical correlation is probably not significant in practice; an employee's decision on how she or he will respond to the workplace campaign is probably established early and occurs habitually each year.

\section*{Characteristics of Non-donors}

While men and women say they do not give in the workplace because they prefer to give outside work, twice as many women indicated that income was a crucial factor in their decision not to participate in the workplace campaign. Younger employees also cite low income as the main reason they choose not to give, those 31 to 50 say they prefer to give outside the workplace, and employees over 50 prefer to give outside work and to religious organizations.

Blacks say they don't participate because no one asked them directly; Hispanics and Asians cite low income as their
main reason for not giving. For Blacks, at least, this suggests that a different, more personal approach might generate a larger response to the annual workplace charity drive. General knowledge of the internal, personal family alliances among many ethnic populations also indicates that a more personal approach would generally be more effective among many ethnic groups, particularly among men, who are the traditional and symbolic heads of households and extended family networks.

Non-donors also do not like to feel pressured to give to the campaign, although this factor was expressed in stronger terms by private sector employees. Pressure ranked last in the mean scores associated with motivations for workplace giving, strengthening the folk wisdom that peer or authority pressure is not an effective or highly appreciated motivating technique during workplace campaigns.

\section*{Campaign Improvement}

Most employees believe they should be doing more in their communities in terms of volunteer activity and general civic involvement. Since \(72 \%\) of the sample were doing the same amount of volunteer work or less than they had done previously, it is clear that the potential for volunteer activity outside the workplace, and subsequent impacts on the charitable campaigns, has not been fully developed.

The findings of this study indicate that many employees, regardless of sector or type of campaign, would like to have more information on charities and the work they do. One-quarter ( \(26 \%\) ) of non-donors say they might give more at work if they had greater choices in the charitable organizations. Non-donors also report that income is the single most important factor in limiting their participation in the workplace campaign. However, the data suggest that participation is not significantly associated with household income. Apart from income, the data point to a number of other factors as potentially effective in persuading employees to give more in the workplace.

Some insight into possible persuasive changes can be gained by examining the responses employees gave to questions on what motivated them to give at work or to choose a specific organization. The data show that the most important factor influencing employees to give to an organization is having some personal acquaintance with the organization, either through friends or through some direct family experience. This finding mirrors the conclusions of earlier research (Independent Sector, 1988; Yankelovich et al, 1986) and highlights the importance of volunteering as a component of any strategy to increase employee donations.

Volunteering provides the individual with the personal "hands-on" understanding of agencies and the people they serve. Furthermore, many employees voiced a certain amount of suspicion about how agencies spend their donations and said that they might give more if they knew more about how their money was being spent. Here, too, volunteering could actually increase donations by providing employees with direct information on how organizations operate and how they spend their money. These data on the potential positive impact of volunteering on workplace giving are further substantiated by findings on the rate of participation and level of giving. There is a direct, positive correlation between volunteering and the size of the workplace donation.

Data from this study indicate that many forms of workplace campaign can be effective; future success, however, will undoubtedly rest on the ability of employers and charitable organizations to work collaboratively and constructively on the most effective type of campaigns for specific workforces. Clearly ethnicity, length of time with employer, personal interests and perceptions of social need, volunteer and personal experience with charities, and the structure of the campaign all affect individual giving in the workplace. While this study provides some initial guidelines for future strategic planning in the area of workplace philanthropy, it is hoped that this is the first of many other inquiries into the personal and cultural nature of charitable behavior in the workplace and in general.

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It should be noted that the United Way donor option plan allows employees to designate their funds to any non-member agency which qualifies as a 501 (c) (3); however, it must be a health or human service agency.

\section*{2}

Names of employees were selected through one of two methods: (1) systematic sampling, by which one employee was randomly selected out of the total pool of employees, and thereafter, every Nth person was drawn from the total number of employees; (2) names were drawn from the total list of employees according to one of the last four digits of the social security number. Only the last digits were used since the first three digits indicate geographical origin of the employee. The method of selection worked as follows: for example, all employees with the number " 5 " as the seventh digit in their social security number were selected to participate in the survey. The qualifying numbers were randomly selected, and in most cases, more than one number was used to draw the sample of 500 .

3 All figures listed in this report have been rounded to the nearest whole number.

4
Chi-square \(=10.30, \mathrm{df}=2, \mathrm{p}=<.0058\)

5
Chi-square \(=37.35, \mathrm{df}=45, \mathrm{p}=<.79\)
\[
\text { Chi-square }=40.50, \text { df }=6, p=<.0000
\]

7
\[
\text { Chi-square }=.13, \text { df }=1, p=<.72
\]

8 The category "very active" has been omitted because only \(6 \%\) of the respondents fell into this category; therefore, this data may not be reliable. Furthermore, conclusions from these findings should be drawn cautiously, since some respondents may have included their volunteer activity when answering this question. See questionnaire, questions 27 and 28.

9 Data for Hispanics are drawn from a small number of respondents (only \(7 \%\) of the total sample) and therefore may not be representative
\[
10
\]
\[
\text { Chi-square }=11.06, \mathrm{df}=10, \mathrm{p}=<.35
\]
\[
\text { Chi-square }=16.32, \mathrm{df}=8, \mathrm{p}=<.038
\]

12 Donor option \(x\) ethnicity: Chi-square \(=13.68\), \(\alpha f=20, \quad p=<.86\)
Donor option \(x\) income: Chi-square \(=13.56\), df= 24, \(\mathrm{p}=<1.14\)
Donor option x age: Chi-square \(=6.44, \mathrm{df}=8, \mathrm{p}=<.59\)

13 Given the low numbers of ethnic minority employees in the private sector this data should be considered suggestive only.

14 Chi-square \(=28.42, d f=8, p=<.0004\)

15 Reliability of data for comparison is questionable since very small numbers of people fall into the categories of "same" (11\%) and "decreased" (3.76\%).

16 The category "very active" has been onitted because only \(6 \%\) of the respondents fell into this category, therefore this data may not be reliable.

\section*{APPENDIX}

TABLE 22

\section*{DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE OF SURVEY SAMPLE}
\begin{tabular}{lccc} 
AGE & PUBLIC & PRIVATE & TOTAL \\
\(<30 \mathrm{yrs}\). & \(10 \%\) & \(23 \%\) & \(18 \%\) \\
\(31-50 \mathrm{yrs}\). & \(71 \%\) & \(65 \%\) & \(67 \%\) \\
\(>50 \mathrm{yrs}\). & \(19 \%\) & \(12 \%\) & \(15 \%\)
\end{tabular}

\section*{GENDER}
\begin{tabular}{llll} 
Men & \(63 \%\) & \(42 \%\) & \(50 \%\) \\
Women & \(37 \%\) & \(58 \%\) & \(50 \%\)
\end{tabular}

\section*{ETHNICITY}
\begin{tabular}{lrrr} 
Whites & \(50 \%\) & \(75 \%\) & \(65 \%\) \\
Asians & \(18 \%\) & \(9 \%\) & \(12 \%\) \\
Blacks & \(22 \%\) & \(5 \%\) & \(12 \%\) \\
Hispanics & \(6 \%\) & \(8 \%\) & \(7 \%\) \\
Other & \(4 \%\) & \(3 \%\) & \(3 \%\)
\end{tabular}

\section*{ANNUAL HOUSEHOLD INCOME}
\begin{tabular}{lrrr}
\(<\$ 15,000\) & \(6 \%\) & \(3 \%\) & \(4 \%\) \\
\(\$ 15-29,000\) & \(17 \%\) & \(23 \%\) & \(21 \%\) \\
\(\$ 30-44,000\) & \(30 \%\) & \(23 \%\) & \(26 \%\) \\
\(\$ 45-59,000\) & \(22 \%\) & \(20 \%\) & \(21 \%\) \\
\(\$ 60-74,000\) & \(16 \%\) & \(10 \%\) & \(12 \%\) \\
\(\$ 75-89,000\) & \(5 \%\) & \(8 \%\) & \(7 \%\) \\
\(\$ 90,000+\) & \(5 \%\) & \(14 \%\) & \(10 \%\)
\end{tabular}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline OCCUPATION & PUBLIC & PRIVATE & TOTAL \\
\hline executive/division head & 4\% & 10\% & 7\% \\
\hline professional staff & 21\% & 19\% & 20\% \\
\hline manager & 21\% & 23\% & 22\% \\
\hline administrative assistant & 15\% & 31\% & 24\% \\
\hline sales & 0\% & 8\% & 5\% \\
\hline protective services & 21\% & 0\% & 8\% \\
\hline skilled craft & 7\% & 3\% & 5\% \\
\hline service worker & \(4 \%\) & 5\% & 5\% \\
\hline technical & 6\% & 1\% & 3\% \\
\hline \multicolumn{4}{|l|}{EMPLOYMENT CATEGORY} \\
\hline Full-time & 95\% & 90\% & 92\% \\
\hline Part-time & 5\% & 10\% & 8\% \\
\hline \multicolumn{4}{|l|}{YEARS WITH CURRENT EMPLOYER} \\
\hline 1 year or less & 12\% & 11\% & 11\% \\
\hline 1.1 to 5 yrs. & 24\% & 29\% & 26\% \\
\hline 5.1 to 15 yrs . & 32\% & 39\% & 35\% \\
\hline Over 15 years & 32\% & \(21 \%\) & 24\% \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

\section*{TABLE 23}

\section*{PERCEPTIONS OF SOCIAL NEED BY GENDER}

Social Need
Gender
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline & \[
\begin{gathered}
\text { Female } \\
219
\end{gathered}
\] & Male
\[
198
\] & \\
\hline Increased & & & 417 \\
\hline & 52.52 & 47.48 & 78.24 \\
\hline & 82.64 & 73.88 & \\
\hline Same & 23 & 42 & 65 \\
\hline & & & \\
\hline & 35.38 & 64.62 & 12.20 \\
\hline & 8.68 & 15.67 & \\
\hline Decreased & 8 & 19 & 27 \\
\hline & - & & \\
\hline & 29.63 & 70.37 & 5.07 \\
\hline & 3.02 & 7.09 & \\
\hline Not Sure & 15 & 9 & 24 \\
\hline Not Sure & 15 & 9 & 24 \\
\hline & 62.50 & 37.50 & 4.50 \\
\hline & 5.66 & 3.36 & \\
\hline & \[
\begin{gathered}
265 \\
49.72
\end{gathered}
\] & \[
\begin{gathered}
268 \\
50.28
\end{gathered}
\] & 533 \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Cell contents: Frequency/row percent/column percent. Chi-square \(=12.58, \mathrm{df}=3, \mathrm{p}=<.0057\)

\section*{TABLE 24}

\section*{INTEREST IN SOCIAL ISSUES BY GENDER}

Independent Groups T-Test
Dependent Variable Female Male Separate Variances
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \multicolumn{6}{|c|}{N \(=269\) / 270} \\
\hline Environment & Mean & 0.294 & 0.352 & \[
\begin{aligned}
& \mathrm{T} \\
& \mathrm{P}
\end{aligned}
\] & \[
\begin{aligned}
& -1.44 \\
& 0.1492
\end{aligned}
\] \\
\hline AIDS & Mean & 0.327 & 0.196 & \[
\begin{aligned}
& \mathrm{T} \\
& \mathrm{P}
\end{aligned}
\] & \[
\begin{aligned}
& 3.49 \\
& 0.0005^{*}
\end{aligned}
\] \\
\hline \begin{tabular}{l}
Medical \\
Research
\end{tabular} & Mean & 0.558 & 0.589 & \[
\begin{aligned}
& \mathrm{T} \\
& \mathrm{P}
\end{aligned}
\] & \[
\begin{aligned}
& -0.73 \\
& 0.4640
\end{aligned}
\] \\
\hline Health/Human Services & Mean & 0.747 & 0.522 & \[
\begin{aligned}
& \mathrm{T} \\
& \mathrm{P}
\end{aligned}
\] & \[
\begin{aligned}
& 5.57 \\
& 0.0000 \text { * }
\end{aligned}
\] \\
\hline Minority & \begin{tabular}{l}
Mean \\
Mean
\end{tabular} & 0.208 & 0.178 & \[
\begin{aligned}
& \mathrm{T} \\
& \mathrm{P}
\end{aligned}
\] & \[
\begin{aligned}
& 0.89 \\
& 0.3721
\end{aligned}
\] \\
\hline Immigrant & Mean & 0.059 & 0.048 & \[
\begin{aligned}
& \mathrm{T} \\
& \mathrm{P}
\end{aligned}
\] & \[
\begin{aligned}
& 0.58 \\
& 0.5608
\end{aligned}
\] \\
\hline World Peace & Mean & 0.152 & 0.104 & \[
\begin{aligned}
& \mathrm{T} \\
& \mathrm{P}
\end{aligned}
\] & \[
\begin{aligned}
& 1.69 \\
& 0.0910 \quad \text { ** }
\end{aligned}
\] \\
\hline \begin{tabular}{l}
International \\
Aid
\end{tabular} & Mean & 0.208 & 0.200 & \[
\begin{aligned}
& \mathrm{T} \\
& \mathrm{P}
\end{aligned}
\] & \[
\begin{aligned}
& 0.24 \\
& 0.8142
\end{aligned}
\] \\
\hline Culture/Arts & Mean & 0.160 & 0.130 & \[
\begin{aligned}
& \mathrm{T} \\
& \mathrm{P}
\end{aligned}
\] & \[
\begin{aligned}
& 1.00 \\
& 0.3197
\end{aligned}
\] \\
\hline \[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Public T.V./ } \\
& \text { Radio }
\end{aligned}
\] & Mean & 0.197 & 0.156 & \[
\begin{aligned}
& \mathrm{T} \\
& \mathrm{P}
\end{aligned}
\] & \[
\begin{aligned}
& 1.26 \\
& 0.2073
\end{aligned}
\] \\
\hline Education & Mean & 0.245 & 0.207 & \[
\begin{aligned}
& \mathrm{T} \\
& \mathrm{P}
\end{aligned}
\] & \[
\begin{aligned}
& 1.05 \\
& 0.2934
\end{aligned}
\] \\
\hline Religion & Mean & 0.379 & 0.356 & \[
\begin{aligned}
& \mathrm{T} \\
& \mathrm{P}
\end{aligned}
\] & \[
\begin{aligned}
& 0.57 \\
& 0.5703
\end{aligned}
\] \\
\hline Other & Mean & 0.104 & 0.085 & \[
\begin{aligned}
& \mathrm{T} \\
& \mathrm{P}
\end{aligned}
\] & \[
\begin{aligned}
& 0.75 \\
& 0.4544
\end{aligned}
\] \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
** \(F\) Test of equal variances rejected at alpha of 0.05 . * Statistically significant differences.

TABLE 25
VOLUNTEER CATEGORIES BY ETHNICITY
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline Category & Black & Hispanic & Asian & White & \\
\hline Frequency & 12 & 10 & 13 & 69 & \\
\hline Hrs./Year & & & & & \\
\hline 1-50 hrs. & 11.43 & 9.52 & 12.38 & 65.71 & 47.95 \\
\hline & 48.00 & 71.43 & 61.90 & 44.52 & \\
\hline 51-100 hrs. & 6 & 1 & 2 & 39 & 22.37 \\
\hline & 12.24 & 2.04 & 4.08 & 79.59 & \\
\hline & 24.00 & 7.14 & 9.52 & 25.16 & \\
\hline 101-200 hrs. & 4 & 2 & 3 & 22 & 14.61 \\
\hline & 12.50 & 6.25 & 9.38 & 68.75 & \\
\hline & 16.00 & 14.29 & 14.29 & 14.19 & \\
\hline 201-500 hrs. & 0 & 1 & 3 & 19 & 10.50 \\
\hline & 00.00 & 4.35 & 13.04 & 82.61 & \\
\hline & 00.00 & 7.14 & 14.29 & 12.26 & \\
\hline Over \(500 \mathrm{hrs}\). & 3 & 0 & 0 & 6 & 4.57 \\
\hline & 30.00 & 00.00 & 00.00 & 60.00 & \\
\hline & 12.00 & 00.00 & 00.00 & 3.87 & \\
\hline & 25 & 14 & 21 & 155 & \\
\hline & 11.42 & 6.39 & 9.59 & 70.78 & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Cell contents = frequency, row percent, column percent. Row percent totals include an "other" category and thus represent percent totals for the entire sample.

TABLE 26

\section*{INCOME AND NON-WORKPILACE DONATIONS}
\begin{tabular}{lccr}
\multicolumn{3}{c}{ Income Less than \(\$ 30,000\)} \\
Black & Hispanic & Asian & White \\
8.33 & 12.50 & 21.43 & 20.83 \\
\hline Chi-square \(=11.44, \mathrm{DF}=10, \mathrm{p}=<.3241\) \\
Income over \(\$ 60,000\) \\
12.50 20.00 & 60.00 & 25.93 \\
\hline Chi-square \(=6.64, \mathrm{df}=6, \mathrm{p}=<.3555\)
\end{tabular}

TABLE 27

\section*{RATE OF PARTICIPATION IN 1988 CAMPAIGN BY OCCUPATION}
\begin{tabular}{lrr} 
Qccupational group & Public & Private \\
Executive/division head & \(89 \%\) & \(94 \%\) \\
Manager & \(73 \%\) & \(92 \%\) \\
Professional & \(59 \%\) & \(79 \%\) \\
Technical & \(42 \%\) & \(\star\) \\
Administrative assistant & \(45 \%\) & \(85 \%\) \\
Skilled Craft & \(50 \%\) & \(*\) \\
Protective Services & \(63 \%\) & \(*\) \\
Sales & \(*\) & \(96 \%\) \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
* Figures not available if group was less than \(5 \%\) of the respondents.

TABLE 28
DONOR OPTION BY ETHNICITY
\begin{tabular}{lrcccc} 
Donor Option & Black & & Hispanic & Asian & White \\
is: & & Percentage & \\
Not Important & 17 & 14 & 13 & 18 \\
Not Very Important & 9 & 14 & 20 & 16 \\
Important & 20 & 24 & 27 & 21 \\
Very Important & 11 & 24 & 13 & 16 \\
Extremely Important & 43 & 24 & 27 & 29 \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Chi-square \(=13.68\), df \(=20, p=<.89\)
All figures rounded to nearest whole number.

TABLE 29
DONOR OPTION BY INCQME
Donor Option \(\leq 15\) \$15-29 \(\$ 30-44\) \$45-59 \(\$ 60-74\) \$75-89 \(\$ 90+\)
is:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \multirow[b]{2}{*}{Not Important} & \multicolumn{7}{|c|}{Percentage} \\
\hline & 33 & 13 & 20 & 13 & 16 & 29 & 25 \\
\hline \multicolumn{8}{|l|}{Not Very} \\
\hline Important & 0 & 17 & 15 & 16 & 12 & 24 & 15 \\
\hline Important & 0 & 19 & 21 & 21 & 28 & 24 & 15 \\
\hline Very Important & 33 & 15 & 14 & 16 & 19 & 5 & 18 \\
\hline \begin{tabular}{l}
Extremely \\
Important
\end{tabular} & 33 & 36 & 30 & 33 & 26 & 19 & 28 \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Chi-square \(=13.56\), df \(=24, p=<1.15\). All figures
rounded to nearest whole number.

TABLE: 30

\section*{DONOR OPTION BY AGE}
\begin{tabular}{lccc} 
Donor Option & Under 30 & 31-50 Yrs. & S1 + Yrs. \\
is: & & Percentage & \\
\cline { 2 - 4 } Not Important & 9 & 18 & 23 \\
Not Very Important & 19 & 15 & 12 \\
Important & 30 & 19 & 26 \\
Very Important & 14 & 17 & 12 \\
Extremely Important & 28 & 31 & 28 \\
\hline Chi-square \(=6.44\), df \(=8, p=<.60\) & \\
All numbers rounded to nearest whole number.
\end{tabular}

TABIE 31
TOIAL 1988 DONATIONS BY ETHNICITY
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \$ Amount & Black & \begin{tabular}{l}
Hispanic \\
Percent
\end{tabular} & \begin{tabular}{l}
Asian \\
ge
\end{tabular} & White \\
\hline 1-49 & 32 & 29 & 28 & 18 \\
\hline 50-99 & 19 & 19 & 16 & 11 \\
\hline 100-199 & 8 & 13 & 6 & 15 \\
\hline 200-299 & 3 & 11 & 3 & 8 \\
\hline 300-399 & 5 & 3 & 2 & 5 \\
\hline 400-499 & 2 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\
\hline 500-1000 & 2 & 0 & 0 & 5 \\
\hline \(1000+\) & 2 & 0 & 0 & 2 \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

\section*{TABLE 32}

\section*{REASONS FOR NOT GIVING IN THE WORKPLACE BY AGE AND GENDER}
"If you have never given in the workplace, or didn't give in 1988, which of the following BEST summarizes your reasons?"

AGE
GENDER
1. I prefer to give to groups outside of my work setting.
2. Not enough extra income. \(42 \%\) 18\% \(7 \%\)
3. I prefer to give to religious organizations.
\begin{tabular}{rrr|}
\(\leq 30\) & \(31-50\) & \(51+\) \\
\(24 \%\) & \(42 \%\) & \(30 \%\) \\
\(42 \%\) & \(18 \%\) & \(7 \%\)
\end{tabular}
4. I don't find any groups I wish to support.
\(13 \%\) 17\% 30\%
\(16 \%\) 19\% 15\%
5. The group I wish to support is not included in my workplace campaign.
6. I don't like my boss or co-workers to know how much I give. \(21 \%\)
7. No one asked me. \(18 \%\)
8. I prefer to volunteer my time.
5\% 11\% 7\%
9. I prefer to spend my money in other ways.

18\%
\(4 \% \quad 11 \%\)
10. I prefer to give to higher education.

WOMEN MEN

37\% 35\% 30\% 14\%

13\% 22\%

11\% 23\%

11\% 15\%

16\% 11\%
17\% 7\%
12\% 8\%

5\% 10\%

4\% 7\%

TABLE 33

\section*{REASONS FOR NOT GIVING IN THE WORKPLACE BY ETHNIC GROUP}
"If you have never given in the workplace, or didn't give in 1988, which of the following BEST summarizes your reasons?"

BLACKS HISPANICS ASIANS WHITES
1. Prefer to give to groups
outside work.
2. I don't have enough extra income.
\(18 \%\)

18\% 23\%

12\% 0\%

12\% 23\%
0\% 15\%
6. I don't like my boss or co-workers to know how much I give.
7. No one asked me.
8. I prefer to volunteer my time.
9. I prefer to spend my money in other ways.
10. I prefer to give to higher education.

18\%
31\%
\(31 \%\)

17\% 20\%
5. The group I wish to support is not incluced in my workplace campaign.

\(12 \% \quad 15 \% \quad 14 \% \quad 14 \%\)
24\%
8\%

0\%
\(6 \% \quad 15 \%\)

12\%
8\%
\(0 \%\)
\(6 \%\)

QUESTIONNAIRE

\title{
EMPLOYEE ATIITUDES TOWARD WORKPLACE FUNDRAISING
}

\section*{GENERAL GIVING}

In this section, we would like to ask a few questions about your interests and involvement in charity at work, church, and elsewhere.
1. In your opinion, has the general level of social need in the past ten years (Please check one.)
1.Increased.
2.Stayed about the same
3. \(\square\)decreased
4.Not sure
2. Some people earn only enough income to pay for necessities, while others have more to spend. Which of these statements BEST describes your situation?
1.
\(\square\) I only have enough money to pay for basic necessities
2.I have a small amount left over to spend on other things
3.I have a moderate amount left overI have a lot left overNot sure.
3. In general, when you make contributions, do you have some total amount which you feel you should give annually, or do you make decisions on each contribution?
1.Have a total in mind.
2.Make decision on merit or need
3. Mixed, do both
4.Not sure.
4. If you have money to donate, which types of issues are you most likely to support either at work or elsewhere? (Check all choices that apply):
1.Environmental protection
2.AIDS-related research and services.
3. Medical research for other diseases eye, heart, arthritis, diabetes, MS, cancer
4.Health care and human services (homelessness; services for the elderly or disabled; domestic violence: youth services; substance abuse hunger; literacy).
5.Minority programs and services.
6.Immigrant and refugee services
7.World peace.
8.International aid: food/medicine
9.
10.Culturaliarts organizations and activities

Pubic television radio
12.Religious organizations and activities.
13.Other (specify)
5. During the past year, did you support any charitable groups in any of the following ways? (Check all choices that apply):
1. \(\square\) Cash/check directly to a person soliciting for a program or group.
2.Donation in response to something in the mail.
3. Payroll deduction through work
4. Single donation at workBought a raffle ticket
6. \(\square\) Attended a fundraising event.
7. \(\square\) Served on a Board of Directors.
8. \(\square\) Attended an awards dinner/banquet
9. Volunteered, provided a free service
10. \(\square\) Other (specify)

\section*{WORKPLACE GIVING}

The following questions ask about fundraising in your workplace. Unless otherwise indicated, please refer only to your giving experience with your current employer.
6. Where did you make the majority of your charitable contributions in 1988 ?At my workplace campaign Outside of work. I give about the same amount outside of and at work Not sure.
5. \(\square\) I do not make any contributions.
7. Have you ever participated in your workplace campaign?
1. \(\square\) Yes.
2. \(\square\) No. (Skip to Question \#15.)
8. Did you participate in your workplace campaign in 1988 ?
```

1. \square Yes
2. Yes
```
```No. (Skip to Question \#10.)
```

9a. What was the total amount of money you gave in 1988 through your workplace campaign?

| 1. | \$1-\$49 | 5 | \$300-\$399 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2. | \$50-\$99 | 6. | \$400-\$499 |
| 3. | \$100-\$199 | 7. | \$500-\$1,000 |
| 4. | \$200-\$299 | 8 | \$1,000 + |

9b. To which organizations or groups did you give? (Please specity.)

1. $\qquad$
2. Which of the following factors motivated you to give through your workplace campaign? Please assign each option a number between 0 and 4 , according to how important they were to you

| $3 \text { = Veryimportant; }$ | $1 \text { = Not very important; }$ | $0=$ Not important at <br> N/A $=$ Not applicable. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| I was personally asked by someone. |  |  |
| It was more convenient to give at work than outside of work. |  |  |
| By giving through the workplace my employer matches my gift and doubles my contribution. |  |  |
| Payroll deduction made giving easy and painless. |  |  |
| I can give to an umbrella organization (like United Way) and don't have to worry about choosing a specific program to give to |  |  |
| nor Option lets me choose which program/agency to give to. |  |  |
| eel I have a responsibility to help others. |  |  |
| My co-workers and/or boss expect me to give. |  |  |
| makes me feel good. |  |  |
| My contribution | tax deductib |  |

11. Which of the following tactors describe why you chose to give to a particular organization at work? (Check all that apply):I saw a television advertisement/program
12. I read about it in a newspaper/magazine Brochures I saw during the campaign convinced me. $\square$ A presentation I saw during the campaign convinced me. or someone close to me, has been personally affected by the issues addressed by the organization.
6.know about the organization through friends and believe it performs a worthwhile service.
7.The amount of administrative overhead required to run the organization is low
8.I am or have been active as a volunteer in that organization.
13. Which form of giving do you preter at your workplace campaign? (Check only one):
1.Giving to a federated/umbrella organization and letting them decide how to allocate money to member groups
14. $\qquad$ Giving my money to a specific charity
15. Both
16. In the course of your entire working life, has your charitable giving at work
17. 
18. 
19. 
20. 

$\qquad$ ased. Decreased Varied from year to year.
$\qquad$ tayed about the same. (If so, skip to Question \#15)
14. If the amount you give at work has changed over the years, which of the following reasons BEST describes why: (Check only one.)

1. $\square$My income has increased.
2. $\square$


I feel a greater responsibility to give than I used to.
 My inancial obligations have increased and I have less money to give The amount I give varies according to how much extra income I have that year.
5. $\square$ Other (please specity)
15. If you have never given in your workplace, or didn't give in 1988, which of the following BEST summarizes your reasons? (Check as many as apply.)


## No one asked me.

2. $\square$ I don't have any extra income to give.
3. $\square$ I don't find any groups I wish to support.
4. $\square$ I prefer to give to groups outside of my work setting.
5. $\square$ I prefer to give to higher education.
6. $\square$ I preter to give to religious organizations.
7. $\square$ I would rather spend my money in other ways.
8. $\square$ I prefer to volunteer my time.
9. $\square$ I don't like my co-workers or boss knowing how much I give. The group I wish to support is not covered in my campaign. (Please specify):
10. $\square$ Other (specify):
11. If you don't give, or don't give as much as you feel you should, which of the following do you think would persuade you to make a larger donation? (Check as many as apply):
12. $\square$ A more personal approach during the campaign.
13. $\square$ More choices of services/organizations.
14. $\square$ More intormation on tocal charity organizations.
15. $\square$ Other (please specify):

To help interpret your responses to the previous questions, please answer the following:
17. What was your age at your last birthday?
18. Gender:

19. What is your ethnic background:

1. $\square$ Black.
2. $\square$ Hispanic.
3. $\square$ Asian.
4. $\square$ White
5. $\square$ American Indian.
6. $\square$ Other (please specify):
7. Highest grade completed in school:
8. $\square$ 8th grade or less.
9. $\square$ Some high school.
10. $\square$ High school grad.
11. $\square$ Some college.
12. $\square$ 2-yr. college grad.
13. $\square$ 4-yr. college grad.
14. $\square$ Postgraduate professional study.
15. Which of the following categories best describes your current occupation?Executive: vice president, appointing officer, bureau chief department head. or other senior administrative position.Prolessional staff: lawyer; psychologist; librarian; CPA; programmer; social worker.
16. $\square$ Manager: division head; supervisor.Administrative Assistant 'Clerical: secretary: clerk: bookkeeperSales: salesperson; marketing; advertising.Protective Services: police; fire.
7.Skilled Craft: mechanic: heavy equipment driver: carpenter; electrician.
17. Service Worker: janitor; security; food service. Technical: assembler; engineer.
18. Number of years working since you finished school:
19. How many employers have you had since you finished school: $\qquad$
20. Number of years with current employer:
21. Are you currently employed: 1. $\square$ part time 2. $\square$ full time
22. What is your annual household income?

| 1. $\square$ less than $\$ 15,000$ | 4. $\square \$ 45,000-\$ 59,000$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| 2. $\square \$ 15,000-\$ 29,000$ | 5. $\square \$ 60,000-\$ 74,000$ |
| 3. $\square \$ 30,000-\$ 44,000$ | 6. $\square \$ 75,000-\$ 89,000$ |
|  | 7. $\square \$ 90,000+$ |

27. How active are you in civic or charitable activities in your community or neighborhood? Are you:
28. $\square$ Very active.
29. $\square$ Fairly active.
30. $\square$ Somewhat active.
31. $\square$ Not active at all.
32. $\square$ Not sure.
33. In which, if any, of the following areas have you done some volunteer work in the past year? (By "volunteer work," we mean donating your time for no monetary pay.) Please estimate the total number of volunteer hours you donated in 1988.

34. Compared with three years ago, would you say you spend more, fewer, or about the same number of hours on volunteer work as you did three years ago?
35. $\square$ More.
36. $\square$ Fewer.
37. $\square$ Same.
38. $\square$ Don t know.
39. All in all, are you giving as much money to charity as you think you should be giving?
40. $\square$ Yes.
41. $\square$ No.
42. $\square$ Not sure.

## (Optional)

31. Would you be willing to have a personal $20-30$ minute interview to discuss these issues in more detail?
32. $\square$ Yes. If so. please print your name:

> Phone number where you can be reached:

Thank you for taking the time to fill out this survey. Please fold the survey so that our address on the back page shows. Tape it shut, and drop it into your nearest mailbox. Copies of the final report will be available from your personnel department next fall.

