

**AN EXAMINATION OF DIGITAL NATIVITY, GENERATION, AND GENDER  
IN ONLINE GIVING**

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By  
William Daniel Young  
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Committee Members:

Dr. Richard Lancioni (Chair), MSCM  
Dr. C. Anthony DiBenedetto, MSCM  
Dr. Eric Eisenstein, MSCM

## **ABSTRACT**

This dissertation is a compilation of three essays that examine the differences in self-reported altruism, parents' altruism, and impulse online giving to nonprofit organizations in three different contexts -- digital nativity, generation, and gender. In our current economy, nonprofit organizations have been forced to support their missions with less resources; the amount of funding that these organizations receive from corporations, governments, and individuals has decreased while the number of nonprofit organizations has increased. Developing the next generation of donors is of paramount importance for these organizations' survival. Charitable giving has been of great interest to marketing academics because of its importance in understanding the relationships between nonprofit organizations and their customers. The concept of motivation is vital to researchers because authors have long queried about why a donor decides to give money to a charity as opposed to saving, investing, or consuming discretionary goods with these dollars. The first study in this paper was exploratory in nature; in this study, I researched differences in preferred site attributes and time viewing sites by digital nativity, as well as changes in donation behavior after the viewing the site. The second study investigates differences in altruism based on digital nativity, generation, and gender. The third and final study investigates differences in perceptions of parents' altruism based on digital nativity, generation, and gender.

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## CHAPTER 1

### AN OVERVIEW OF CHARITABLE GIVING

#### Introduction to Charitable Giving

Charitable giving has been an important franchise in America for many years and for a number of reasons. Many Americans depend on nonprofit organizations to provide critical services to their families. In extant literature, charitable giving has often been studied because of its psychological context. Charitable giving has intrigued marketing academics because of the question of how and why people give to nonprofits (Wispe, 1978) even though, for many Americans, giving is an important aspect of their everyday lives. When the first nonprofit organizations were created in the 1700s, they provided a number of critical services to fields such as art, education, and social services (Hawks, 1997). In 2012, nonprofits continue to provide much needed funding to citizens and organizations that could not function without help. One of the key research concerns that marketing academics have had with charitable giving is in the area of motivation. In researching the motivation to donate, a number of variables have been cited as reasons for this behavior. Some of the areas have been researched include the attitudes displayed towards charities (Webb, Green, & Brashear, 2000), involvement (Chiang, 2003), altruism (Piliavin and Chang, 1990), characteristics of donors to nonprofits (Pessemier, Beamon, & Hanssen, 1977), certain religious aims (Hoge, 1995), and size of donation requests (Reingen, 1978). Studies have also focused on personal characteristics and the norms of donors. For example, wealthy donors may see charitable giving as an obligation of their superior position in society (Ostrower, 1995). Moral norms and guilt were also found to be related to intentions to give to charities (Moore, Bearden, & Teal, 1985). In a special issue of *The Journal of Business Research* focused on non-profits, Bennett and

Sargeant (1999) stressed the need for more studies on individual donors, particularly in developing a comprehensive model of donor behavior, which why this topic piqued my interest. Over the last several years, research into nonprofit marketing has grown in interest because of a number of factors, many of which were explored in a 2005 article by Venable, Rose, Bush, and Gilbert. Because of global economic conditions, there has been a steady reduction in government funding to the nonprofit sector (Venable, Rose, Bush, & Gilbert, 2005). These reductions force nonprofit organizations to finance their operations through donations from the public and from grants by corporate America (Bendapudi, Singh, & Bendapudi, 1996). Secondly, the number of nonprofit organizations in the United States has greatly increased. There are more than 1.5 million nonprofit organizations in the United States today, compared with approximately 12,000 similar organizations in 1940 (Boris, 1999). Also, personal giving has not kept pace with the increased number of nonprofit organizations (Sargeant, 1999). This has led to an increase in competition for donations; consumers have had to make difficult decisions in choosing between organizations that they care about. Lastly, Venable et al. (2005) stated that the new generation of donors expects the nonprofit sector to act the same way commercial businesses do and be held accountable for the effectiveness of its operations and services (Blum, 2002). After my initial search of academic literature regarding nonprofit giving, I found a lack of literature that focused on the antecedents to making donation decisions and which consumer targets made the most sense to pursue. James Andreoni (2006) stated that the aspects of charitable giving are an important area of academic research; I believe that more research must be done in this area. With the use of the internet, the paradigms that have existed for nonprofits to solicit, receive, and

distribute donations have changed substantially. In particular, little is known about the nature and determinants of impulsive donation decisions taken by browsers of charity websites.

As the competition for donation dollars has increased, nonprofits need to identify new sources of funding through enhanced segmentation. Despite the abundance of consumer research supporting the relationship between attitudes and behavior, little is known about individuals' charitable attitudes (Webb, Green, & Brashear, 2000). The use of more comprehensive segmentation and targeting seems to be an appropriate step to better understand these relationships. Businesses have long used segmentation to identify and target markets to enhance the impact of the marketing mix and these same procedures can assist non-profit decision makers to improve their marketing strategies in the areas of promotion, positioning, pricing, and distribution (Schlegelmilch, Diamantopoulous, & Love, 1992). A small number of researchers (Schlegelmilch, 1998; Harvey, 1990) have attempted to identify demographic, socioeconomic, and psychographic variables that influence charitable giving and differentiate donors from non-donors, but this has proven to be a difficult task (Webb et al., 2000). The heterogeneity of the donating public, the different charitable organizations, and the types of gifts (i.e. cash, real estate, etc.) contribute to the difficulty of differentiating those who give from those who do not. Researchers need to develop accurate measures of charitable giving attitudes to predict donation behavior (Ranganathan & Henley, 2008). Policymakers need reliable measures of attitudes to aid them in making decisions about the allocation of governmental resources to charities. Practitioners need these measures to develop appropriate marketing strategies to attract and retain donors (Ranganathan & Henley, 2008). Therefore,

discovering variables that influence charitable giving behavior is of paramount importance to researchers.

As mentioned above, a key focus of both scholarly and practical interest has been the donation behavior of consumers. The organizations that can effectively solicit donations from individuals, as well as generate revenue from the sales of products and services, will best be able to address their missions. Until recently, most of the explanation of this motivation has centered on the exchange paradigm; simply, consumers donate in order to get something in return. I will discuss this theory and others below.

In this dissertation, I will research the donation attitudes in three different contexts – digital nativity, generation, and gender. Prensky (2001), in a seminal article coined the phrases “digital natives” and “digital immigrants” to characterize the differences in motivation between two generational cohorts. Digital natives are those individuals who have grown up with the internet as a primary source of information. They have spent their entire academic existence with computers, cell phones, and other tools of the digital age (pp. 1-2). This segment also uses the internet at a high rate and makes this medium an important part of their purchase decisions (Heaney, 2007). An important behavioral trend is that, once an individual has made the decision to donate, there is a high probability that the person will make subsequent donations (Sargeant, 1999). Therefore, encouraging donors to give at younger ages greatly helps nonprofits develop donations in the future. Today’s average college graduate has spent over 20,000 hours watching television, 10,000 hours playing video games, and only 5,000 hours reading. Because of this stark contrast to other generations, digital native students think

and process information differently than their predecessors. Dr. Bruce Berry of the Baylor College of Medicine has even gone so far as to say that these different experiences lead to different brain structures (Prensky, 2001). The digital immigrant is a person who was not born into the digital world but has become adopted many of the aspects of new technology (Prensky, 2001). This type of person may look to the internet for information second as opposed first or may read a manual for a program as opposed to assuming that it will teach him how to use it. It may be said that these individuals are learning a new language at a later stage of life that goes into a different part of the brain than a “native”. Prensky (2001) states that while these digital immigrants learn to adapt to this new digital age, they always retain some psychological marker to the past; they were socialized differently than younger people and these new experiences go into a different part of the brain. There has been no research done explicitly on the donation behavior based on digital nativity. The first study in this paper will be an exploratory study looking to identify differences in web site preferences, viewing time, and effects of web site introduction between these two groups. I chose an exploratory study because of the lack of information on the donation behavior of these two groups. The second study will build on the findings of the exploratory study and will research differences in altruism based on digital nativity, generation, and gender. There have been a number of articles written about the different generations in our society. The generations that have had the most empirical review have been Traditionalists, Baby Boomers, Generation X, and Generation Y. Lieber (2010) provides a decent summary of the differences between the four generations. Traditionalists are those individuals who are currently 67-90 years old. This group witnessed World War II, the Great Depression, and the Koran War. They



tend to have a great respect for authority and follow the rules. Baby Boomers are between 49-66 years old. This group witnessed the Civil Rights Movement, Vietnam, and Woodstock. They are typically known for being high achievers who crave external recognition. Generation Xers are those individuals who are currently 31-48 years old. They have been influenced by the creation of music television (MTV), the fall of the Berlin Wall, and the *Challenger* disaster. This generation typically questions corporate morals and values and tends to rebel against structure. Finally, Generation Ys are those individuals under the age of 30. This generation has been called many names: millenials, the recession generation, nexters, and echo boomers. They have been influenced to 9/11, school violence, reality television, and the internet. Generation Y tends to want to create their own rules, to be very self-confident, and to be somewhat self-absorbed (Lieber, 2010). Each of the seminal moments in the lives of these generational cohorts may potentially have an effect on their levels of altruism and proclivity to give to nonprofits. Charities need to understand and appreciate these moments to create marketing messages that potentially utilize imbedded feelings and behaviors. Differences in gender have certainly been the most studied construct of the three; I will describe that research later in this dissertation. The third and final study will draw on the previous research on intergenerational values transfer to determine if perceived parents' altruism is correlated with self-reported altruism and to determine if there are differences in perceived parents' altruism based on digital nativity, generation, and gender. The issue of determining altruism characteristics for potential donors is highly relevant for fundraising managers consequent to the growing size of each generation and the large rise in online giving known to have occurred in recent times.

This is a trend that parallels the increase in both online shopping and general consumer involvement with the internet that has taken place and will continue in the future. At the managerial level, this research will add to contemporary knowledge of the effectiveness of different attributes of online charitable sites. The theoretical value of this work lies in its application to a fresh domain of various hypotheses derived from pre-existing academic literature on impulsive behavior and altruism. Everyone acts impulsively on occasion and that behavior is more common among internet users than consumers in physical environments. To the extent that overlaps exist between the stimuli that trigger impulsive online donations (layout of website, mission, stories, etc.) and those that are likely to induce ad hoc gifts via other media (Bennett, 2009), the implications of this work becomes very important.

#### Empirical Studies Concerning Charitable Giving

In the field of marketing, charitable giving has been studied in a number of different contexts. The use of commercial marketing concepts for nonprofit organizations and research on donor behavior has been in literature for more than forty years (e.g., Arnett, German, & Hunt, 2003; Burnett & Wood, 1988; Kotler & Levy, 1969; Mindak & Bybee, 1971). Also, much of the research in relationship marketing, branding and brand personality, has focused on commercial firms (Venable et al., 2005). Arnett et al. (2003) stated that “much of the research on relationship marketing success has examined relationships that (1) are primarily economic in nature, (2) involved business-to-business marketing, and (3) involved for-profit firms”. In Venable et al. (2005), the authors outlined how nonprofit organizations have aggressively used strategies such as market segmentation (Harvey, 1990), relationship and database marketing (Arnett et al., 2003;

Nichols, 1995; Peltier, Schibrowsky, & Schultz, 2002), branding (Nucifora, 1998; Tapp, 1996; Wray, 1994), and distinctive and positive image development through the use of employees and volunteers (Grounds & Harkness, 1998). While these strategic issues have great importance to nonprofit researchers and employees, there has been a lack of research done on how individuals initially decide to become involved with nonprofits. More specifically, what attracts different generations to give to nonprofits? Venable and co-authors were able to differentiate specific brand personalities that drove supporters to specific nonprofits. However, in my stream of research, I will focus, not on the brand personality of the nonprofit itself, but specific attributes of the nonprofit's web presence that drives donors (especially first time donors) to give.

#### Charitable Giving Theory In Literature

A number of authors (Buzzell, 1970; Fox & Kotler, 1980; Lovelock & Weinberg, 1984; Kotler & Andreasean, 1987; Fraser, Hite, & Sauer, 1988; Varadarajan & Menon, 1988; Guy & Patton, 1989) have demonstrated the utility of marketing to nonprofit researchers and, even though literature in this field of study has begun to increase, it is still very new. Kotler and Levy's (1969) updating of the marketing concept to include businesses other than for-profit organizations was one of the first attempts to understand the translation of commercial business practices to nonprofit organizations. In 1978, Robertson and Bellenger touched on the viability of charitable giving in research on mail surveys. They found that the response rate for mail surveys increased when the incentive promised to individuals for returning the questionnaire was a charitable donation (Robertson & Bellenger, 1978). They encountered lower response rates when the same cash reward was offered to the individual personally upon returning the questionnaire or

when no cash incentive was involved. This gave credence to the theory that people are humanitarian in nature. The most well-known paper in the literature that examines the effects of organization specific factors on donations at the organizational level is Weisbrod and Dominguez (1986), which models donations to a particular nonprofit as a function of the organization-specific factors of price, advertising and quality. However, the research that I will be conducting is on individual giving. Burnett and Wood (1988) and Guy and Patton (1989) made the first real attempts to develop composite models of giving behavior. Burnett and Wood (1988) drew on a greater body of literature than Guy and Patton (1989); however, neither study emphasized the determinants of processing impacting on how the decision to select between charitable alternatives might be derived. Milne and Gordon (1993) noted that donors are becoming more and more discriminating in their donating behavior because of the diverse combinations of stimuli to which they are exposed to (Schmittlein & Peterson, 1994). This is especially pertinent to online behavior because, instead of the simple competition between nonprofits, there exists all of the psychological noise of the online environment (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2009).

The main area in which marketing academics have focused their research in the area of charitable giving has been in the area of motivation. In 1981, Yavas, Riecken and Parameswaran did studies that proved that socioeconomic variables were more valuable than organization-specific attitudes or personality variables in differentiating donors from non-donors. In 1993, Yavas, Riecken and Babakus discovered that the risk associated with donating money and time to a nonprofit had effect bearing on the money and time donation behaviors of individuals. However, the results indicated that the prediction of donation behavior could be improved by considering both perceived risk in combination

with demographic variables. Similar results were found in a 1994 article by these same authors who concluded, that while risk perception could not entirely explain donation behavior, it does have some effect on an individual's decision to donate. A number of other constructs have been found to affect charitable giving and they are outlined below.

### *Gender*

Gender has been shown to be a key determinant of charitable giving behavior. Studies have shown that gender roles affect the amount of money donated by individuals to charitable organizations (Louie & Obermiller, 2000). Specifically, individuals gave lower amounts of money to the same charity, when information about individuals within the charitable organization reinforced a negative stereotype for the gender of the donating individual. For example, men may give lower amounts of money to a nonprofit that addresses spousal abuse. Studies have also shown that evaluations by respondents were more positive for causes related to a specific disaster rather than a charity dealing with an ongoing cause. Studies have shown that Baby Boomers and women want precise explanations of how their money will be used and what it will be spent on (Braus, 1994). In addition women appear to base donations based on emotion as opposed to rationality. Studies have suggested that temporarily created social norms influence giving by men significantly more than by women (Croson , Handy, & Jen, 2010)

### *Social Class*

Social class and income are also important determinants of charitable behavior. A number of studies have researched the differences between consumers in different socioeconomic groups. Traditionally, studies have shown professional people tend to become more involved in their charitable giving (Amato, 1985), which would make sense

based on having the discretionary income to do so. Interestingly, the poor and extremely wealthy give a much higher proportion of their income than the middle class (Silver, 1980). While it would make sense that economic downturns would constrain both the desire and ability to give, it appears to constrain the lower income citizens rather than those towards the top of the social scale (Galaradi, 1989). Various authors have found giving as income elastic. Although, not only will the amounts given vary as one moves from one social class to another, but the rationale for giving will change as well (Mears 1992). Radley and Kennedy (1992) identified that the lower socio-economic groups see the needy as a group to be pitied because of their station in life. Because of this finding, marketing messages stressing the gift of a small donation are likely to be effective. Conversely, the higher socio-economic groups give not only to help suffering, but also for the longer term change in the recipient's situation. Support is based on the need to create a change in a social structure and marketing messages could reflect this mission (Radley & Kennedy, 1992). This theme of involvement seems to be of importance to particularly high net worth individuals. There have been numerous studies that illustrated how and why high net worth individuals become involved in charitable giving. In Boris' 1987 study, interviews with wealthy philanthropists identified that "virtually every major philosophical current is reflected in the motives of donors" (Boris, 1987). Also, those living in small town settings are more willing to exhibit helping behaviors than those who live in metropolitan areas (Latane & Nida, 1981). A number of studies have highlighted that the self-confident are more likely to help than other categories of individual (Berkowitz & Daniels, 1962). There is also evidence that intrinsically motivated people do more for charity than self-centered, external reward seekers

(Reykowski, 1982). Therefore, it seems clear that the individual characteristics of the prospective donor will have a considerable impact on their giving behavior. Some of those individual characteristics will be discussed in this dissertation. A number of studies suggest that social norms may also be an issue. Many donors will take into account what is normative for the group before making a donation (Blake, Rosenbaum, & Duryea, 1955; Bryan & Test, 1967; Clark & Word, 1972; Macaulay, 1970). The latter concept of group is of particular significance since individuals perceive themselves as members of some groups, but not others (Hogg & Abrams, 1988). Since it was identified earlier that individuals would tend to support others they perceive to be similar to themselves, the perception of group membership is important for nonprofits to understand and exploit in their solicitation activity. Studies have shown that donations to NCAA Athletic teams went up immediately after a championship (Daughtrey & Stotlar, 2001), which would show that donors like to be associated with winners. The pressure to conform to the norms of behavior expected by various social groups has been explored in a number of studies resulting in a type of group incentive where no individual incentive could previously be identified (Ireland & Johnson 1970; Keating, Pitts, & Appel, 1981; Olson 1971; Tullock, 1966).

### *Psychographics*

There have been a number of studies that discuss psychographics (or lifestyles) as they relate to donation behavior. In one study, the authors discussed prosocials, who are individuals who like cooperation and competition and, relative to individualists and competitors, reported to engage in a greater number of donations, especially donations to organizations aimed at helping the poor and the ill (Van Lange, Bekkers, Schuyt, & Vugt,

2007). Research also suggests that charitable donations reflect national values. One of America's core values is humanitarianism (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2009), so it would follow that, as a nation, Americans are more likely to donate. When donating to charitable causes, studies have shown that people do not value lives consistently. Money is often concentrated on a single victim even though more people would be helped if resources were dispersed or spent protecting future victims. Also, when thinking deliberately, people discount sympathy towards identifiable victims but fail to generate sympathy toward statistical victims (Small, Lowenstein, & Slovic, 2007). For example, the plea for one named child in Africa who needs clothes and food tends to garner more support than a plea where 1,000,000 children in Africa are without clothes and food.

#### *Method of Solicitation*

Results also indicated that, with respect to solicitation, direct mail was the most preferred method, followed by personal interviews, with the least preferred method being by telephone. However, this research was conducted before the widespread use of the internet. Direct mailings were found to result in irritation, but this irritation affects neither stated nor actual donating behavior (van Diepen et al., 2009). While scales designed to measure consumer attitudes toward donating to charity have yielded mixed results in the past, Webb, Green and, Brasher (2000) have made considerable progress within the area by developing and testing scales to measure both consumer attitudes toward the act of helping others and toward charitable organizations. As an alternative, Louie and Obermiller (2000) contend that as social desirability pressures may be obscuring results, peer interpretation research techniques may be needed in order to fully expose the factors that influence the donation behavior of individuals.



### *Contribution Framing*

Studies conducted by Chang (2008) showed a number of insightful revelations on contribution framing, as it relates to charitable giving. For example, he found that it was more effective to bundle frivolous products with a cause than practical products when the donations was framed in absolute dollar terms (as opposed to percentages). He also discovered the effects of donation framing were insignificant when the donation magnitude was high. If donation magnitude is held constant, a donation framed in dollar amounts is more effective in percentages than for low-priced products. So, in all of his studies, he proved that the framing of the donation can be as important as the amount of donation (Chang, 2008).

### *The Economic and Social Model of Exchange*

The literature discusses how one of the basic tenets of social exchange is that we must give something in order to receive something. This basic concept is at the heart of the understanding of social interaction and has been present in marketing and sociology literature. Kotler and Levy (1969) and Bagozzi (1975) have argued that most human dealings are a form of market exchange. However, Belk and Coon (1993) questioned whether the motivation behind gift giving can always be understood as this rudimentary form of exchange. They assert that both the models of social exchange and economic theories are similar in that something is given by an individual in order to receive another benefit. By viewing the models in this fashion, exchange is considered fundamental to understanding gift giving. Upon receiving a gift, an obligation is felt by the recipient of that gift to reciprocate with a gift or alternatively an individual gives to receive something else in return; this benefit might be status, a feeling of well-being, or a simple “Thank

You”. The difference between these two theories lies in the value placed upon that which is given and that which is received (Belk & Coon, 1993). According to the economic model of exchange, the value of the transaction is determined by its market value. In contrast, within the social model of exchange, the value of that which is given and received is symbolic; it is determined by the parties in the exchange (Belk & Coon, 1993). Therefore, during those times when the economic model of exchange is in operation, the receiver of a gift desires to reciprocate with a gift of similar financial worth. In comparison, the social model of exchange asserts that the receiver of a gift will desire to reciprocate with a gift of similar symbolic worth and the motivation behind such giving is considered to be egoistic (Belk & Coon, 1993). The model assumes that each individual involved in the exchange is trying to maximize an outcome. In contrast, gifts acquired within the social exchange model are not spontaneous; rather they are acquired as a purposeful act leading towards a goal.

### *Agapic Giving*

In more contemporary research, academics have introduced the concept of agapic, or unselfish, behavior to explain some of the aspects of donation (Pitt, Keating, Bruwer, Mugolo-Poore, & de Bussy, 2001). Belk and Coon (1993) found evidence for a concept they termed “non-exchange gift giving” which provided evidence that gift giving can be something other than a strict form of exchange. The authors described the concept of agapic (or selfless giving) and stated that it is a necessary addition to the exchange models of gift giving which have dominated the available literature (Belk & Coon, 1993). Belk and Coon (1993) stated that charitable giving can be something other than a form of exchange and could be understood through the application of a model based on the agapic

love paradigm. One of the deviations from the usual exchange model is that gifts given within the agapic love paradigm are considered to be pure, means that they are given without an expectation of receiving something in return, which would be the definition of unselfish (Pitt et al., 1986). Also, these gifts are also given without considering the cost of the gift; if the cost of the gift was considered, it would imply that the economic model of exchange was in effect (Mills & Clark, 1982). It is the sentiment of the gift that is important and this overpowers the gift's economic worth. Also, the gift does not bind either the giver or the receiver of the gift (Carrier, 1992). Thus, gifts given within the agapic love paradigm are both unbinding and pure (Belk & Coon, 1993). Gifts within this paradigm are acquired spontaneously. They are acquired when something arises that might please the receiver. As such, the choice of gifts within the agapic model is considered emotional, which is in contrast with the social exchange model (Belk & Coon, 1993). The individual who is giving the gift does so without considering any benefit that may occur in return (Belk & Coon, 1993). Therefore, gifts given within the social exchange model are considered to be binding and those within the agapic model non-binding. To summarize, a lack of reciprocal obligation characterizes the agapic model, while the symbolic model of exchange is based on reciprocity (Belk & Coon, 1993).

*Altruism, A.H.O., and A.C.O.*

Many scholars have debated about the definition of altruism or even if it is possible to define it (Piliavin & Chang, 1990). Some define altruism as a cognitive activity to help others (Brewer, 2003). Altruism is defined by Frydman, Lednic, Hofmans, and Molinier (1995) as an attitude, as a motive by Sober (1990), as a helping behavior by Schwartz (1970), and as a desire to improve another's condition

(Karylowski, 1982). Batson (1991) defined altruism as “a motivational state with the ultimate goal of increasing another’s welfare.” In the case of online donations, this motivational state might be triggered by the first-world donors’ feelings of responsibility for the plight of third-world recipients and a sense of moral obligation to help, particularly when the effort is so minimal (Eller, 2008). But from the way altruism is conceived and defined in literature, some authors find it to be similar to AHO. Webb et al. (2000) defines Attitude towards Helping Others (AHO) as “global and relatively enduring evaluations with regard to helping or assisting other people”. Webb et al. (2000), who created the scale to measure AHO, does not differentiate it from altruism. They view altruism as a helping motive but also point out that attitudes are embedded in cognitive structures including beliefs, values and other attitudes. The extant marketing literature indicates the importance of differentiating between the attitude towards helping others (AHO) and the attitude towards charitable organizations (ACO) and a few studies examined attitudes toward charitable giving (Pessemier, Beamon, Hanssen, 1977; Burnkrant & Page 1982; McIntyre, Barnett, Harris, Shanteau, Skowronski, & Klassen, 1986) and attitudes toward charitable organizations (Schlegelmilch, 1998; Harvey, 1990).

### *ePhilanthropy*

With the advent of the internet, charitable giving can be done much more effectively through “e-Philanthropy” (Jillbert 2003). In Jillbert’s article, the author compared traditional charity with e-philanthropy, finding that the traditional method was primarily characterized by wealthy donors who donate money through large, centralized organizations. These organizations tend to have broad, humanitarian goals so the wealthy donor feels assured that their dollars will address the most pressing concerns. However,

the result of this method of giving is impersonal aid, which benefits people the donors never meet. In contrast, ePhilanthropy can potentially use the participation of every demographic group, investing not only money, but also time and skills. The donation happens directly with people in need and is characterized by personal projects, with direct feedback (Jillbert, 2003). This leads itself to altruistic behavior that is online and global, as opposed to simply offline and local. Also, a donor's personal experiences and engagement on a local level may have a direct effect on philanthropic acts on a global level, rendering them more likely to happen (Eller, 2008). Research in intergroup contact theory have shown that contact between different groups of people can reduce prejudice, improve intergroup relations, and promote helping behavior if it is qualified by the conditions of equality of status and friendship potential (Batson, 1991). The number of contacts (in terms of quantity), on the other hand, often has no effects or sometimes even detrimental effects for intergroup relations (Eller & Abrams, 2004).

#### *Conspicuous Donation Behavior*

One trend that has captivated multiple generations (and especially digital native consumers) has been the use of silicone-gel wrist bands to show support charitable causes. One of the strongest media campaigns was Lance Armstrong's Livestrong wristbands. Previous research findings show that individuals donate because of intrinsic reasons such as to enhance self-esteem, reap public gratification and gain satisfaction and fulfillment through meeting one's obligations (Dawson, 1988; Guy & Patton, 1989; Bruce, 1994; Hibbert & Horne, 1996). According to Sherry (1983), some donors may have agonistic intentions, where the donor attempts to maximize personal satisfaction. On this latter point, the notion that an individuals' donation behavior is based more on an

agonistic approach, builds upon West's (2004) view that modern compassion is about feeling good, but not doing good, which would indicate a move from altruism to being selfish. West (2004) describes this type of behavior as "conspicuous compassion". Grace and Griffin (2006) define conspicuous donation behavior (CDB) as "an individual's show of support to charitable causes through the purchase of merchandise that is overtly displayed on the individual's person or possessions" (Grace & Griffin, 2006). West's (2004) research on conspicuous compassion builds from Veblen's (1912) theory of conspicuous consumption which promotes the visible consumption of goods as a mechanism to enhance one's social standing. This visible display of compassion can be seen as a way to enhance one's own image in the minds of others (West, 2004). This concept is important to research in this paper because of the opportunity to use this concept for behavioral prediction in relation to donation behavior. For example, as is the case with conspicuous consumption (Chung & Fischer, 2001; Piacentini & Mailer, 2004; Prendergast & Wong, 2003; Wong & Ahuvia, 1998), some individuals may lean towards this type of conspicuous behavior when donating (Grace & Griffin, 2006). The use of items like the Livestrong bands combats this problem. One area of opportunity for nonprofits would be to discover the profiles of those who prefer conspicuous donation means as opposed to those who do not. This would lead nonprofit organizations to achieve more efficiency in the targeting of their donation appeals.

### *Consumer Skepticism*

Lately, one of the major issues that nonprofit organizations are dealing with is consumers' distrust of marketing practice. In many ways, this skepticism is good because it helps consumers protect themselves from fraudulent and misleading claims (Mohr,

Eroglu, & Ellen, 1998). Furthermore, consumer skepticism can help prevent marketers from engaging in potentially deceptive practices (Mohr et al., 1998). In general, consumers tend to be less skeptical about an innovative marketing practice since they do not readily identify the persuasive intent, which is one of the reasons my first study in online giving was conducted. As a new tactic becomes widespread and its marketing goal becomes obvious, consumers are likely to become skeptical depending on the marketer and the message formulation (Forehand & Grier, 2003). Research has been done concerning the evaluation of products that are easily described on online, which a contribution to a nonprofit could be described. This research shows that uncertainty about the product has a stronger effect on premium in price than uncertainty about the seller (Dimoka, Hong, & Pavlou, 2012). However, this research was done in the commercial context with used cars as opposed to nonprofit donations. The issue of the perceived effectiveness and efficiency of the organization attempting to solicit support has been a major issue in research with respect to charitable giving. Glaser (1994) discovered that the variable “an adequate amount spent per program” was the most important factor in the decision by individuals to contribute to charitable organizations. In his sample, the donors seemed to have a good idea about the ratio of what should be spent on administrative expenses versus the amounts given to recipients. Warwick (1994) identified that donors expect that the ratio between administration and fundraising costs and so-called charitable expenditure would be 20:80. It is interesting to note that despite this expectation, most donors believe that the actual ratio is closer to 50:50, without having the charity’s income statement to back up that figure. Studies have shown that found that 60 percent was a significant threshold; charities that spent at least 60 percent

of their donations on charitable programs achieved much higher levels of donation (Harvey & McCrohan, 1988). Steinberg (1986) suggests that this is something of an anomaly since fundraising costs in particular are sunk and should therefore not enter into a donor's decision to support a given charity. Studies of the United Way have shown that perceived mismanagement by charity administrators and trustees can also negatively impact donations, although it remains unclear how donors draw these conclusions (Baily & Bruce, 1992). The reality is that the public and the media need a better understanding of what the costs of the charity are (Greenlee & Gordon, 1997).

### *Involvement*

The concept of impulse online giving also builds on the literature on involvement, which has a rich history in academia. The current literature on involvement states that highly involved individuals look for more information, use more criteria, consider fewer alternatives, and elaborate more on relevant information (Petty, Cacioppo, & Schumann, 1983). While some literature would make a reader believe that digital natives consumers are selfish and perhaps not interested in charitable giving, high involvement can happen when an issue has personal relevance (Zaichkowsky, 1985). Literature also suggests that donors carefully scrutinize message elements and use their knowledge of the merits of the issue in making judgments of the validity of an appeal (Petty, Cacioppo, & Schumann, 1983). Depending on the level of involvement, Petty, Cacioppo, and Schumann (1983) propose a central and a peripheral route to persuasion and attitude formation. One or the other will work best depending on the elaboration likelihood of the message. When the individual is highly involved with the communication situation, message elaborations are more likely to occur. However, cause involvement is not always high for all individuals.



However, people are often preoccupied with different aspects of their lives, which may lead to low cause involvement as a more effective route to eliciting a response (Petty, Cacioppo, & Schumann, 1983).

### *Impulsive Behavior*

Engel and Blackwell (1982) characterized impulsive behavior as taking an action before recognizing the problem itself. Rook (1987) and Rook and Fisher (1995) saw overpowering emotions as the main impetus for impulsive buying. Often, Rook (1987) and Rook and Fisher (1995) have alleged that impulsive decisions to act are dominated by a hedonic or affective component. For example, Bayley and Nancarrow (1998) defined a category of impulsive action wherein the individual submits to impulse and thereafter greatly enjoys the emotions associated with giving in. Other research into impulsive behavior has concluded that it can be influenced by mood, situation, emotion, specific stimuli and by social influences such as the attitudes of family or valued peers (Kanuk & Schiffman, 2000). By offering a simple decision making heuristic, it presents a rational response to complex situations with heavy information overload (Hausman, 2000). A useful summary of the core elements of impulsive behavior is perhaps that suggested by Piron (1991), who concluded that it contained four main components: absence of planning, exposure to a stimulus, on-the-spot decision making, and an emotional or cognitive reaction. Online impulsive charity donations are not pre-planned, they often emanate from virtual scenarios that contain stimuli which encourage on-the-spot donation decisions, and the stimuli in question typically give rise to emotional or cognitive reactions. Past research in the consumer behavior field has identified a number of factors that might encourage or inhibit impulsive buying, and presumably therefore

impulsive giving, as follows. One factor is personal impulsiveness. Someone who is high on this measure would probably donate more impulsively than others (Zhou et al., 2007). Another factor would be subjective norms, which involve judgments of whether important people in an individual's life will approve or disapprove of a certain action (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). According to Bennett (2009), if a person believes that his or her close friends and family would approve of the individual giving to a charity, then the person will be more likely to make an impulsive donation.

Another factor is emotional uplift, which is based on studies have concluded that impulsive behavior has a hedonistic component and specifically that impulsive actions provide hedonistic rewards (Hausman, 2000). Another factor is prior knowledge of the issue. The matters dealt with by charitable organizations are complex, so a poor preexisting knowledge of a particular issue might discourage impulse giving (Hausman, 2000). Browsers might feel ill-prepared to undertake the cognitive task of deciding whether to donate to a particular organization on the basis of inadequate information, leading to withdrawal from the website (Hausman, 2000). Despite the fact that impulsive purchases are known to account for a substantial proportion of all goods sold, it is known that some individuals regard impulsive buying as immature, risky, irrational, and a sign that the person making the purchase lacks self-control (Hausman, 2000). To the extent that people regard impulsive behavior in a negative light they are likely to avoid acting in this manner, because they do not want to identify themselves with immaturity and/or irrationality. Such individuals need to be convinced that an impulsive action is appropriate and fully justified in certain circumstances (Rook & Fisher, 1995).

### *Trust in the Organization*

A browser's propensity to yield to an impulsive desire to donate to a charity might be strengthened by the person's trust in the charity, which in turn might depend on the organization's size and perceived reputation (Bennett & Gabriel, 2000).

### *Involvement with Charitable Giving*

Strong feelings of personal involvement with charity giving could also enhance an individual's propensity to give impulsively. Bennett and Gabriel (2000) identified a category of charity donors who psychologically were highly involved in the act of giving to charity. Strong involvement with charitable giving can make a person scrutinize a charity's website more intensely (Martin, 1998). This means that the people who regard the act of giving to charities as being personally relevant, important, interesting and necessary (Bennett & Gabriel, 2000) may be more likely to donate impulsively than others as their feelings of involvement are likely to be stimulated by making an on-the-spot gift.

### *Gender in Impulsivity*

Some prior research into impulsive behavior has found that men tend to behave more impulsively than women (Dittmar et al., 1996; Hausman, 2000). The justification sometimes offered for this is that men are allegedly more task-oriented (Zhou et al., 2007). To the extent that males are in fact more likely to donate impulsively, some authors believe that males represent a more attractive target audience than women for online fundraisers who wish to maximize impulsive online donations (Bennett, 2009).

### *Presentation and Web Layout*

The research in online consumer behavior has shown that certain attributes can deter or incite impulsive purchasing (Zhou et al., 2007). Marketers are researching if the strategy used by retail stores to motivate impulsive spending, like the candy in the checkout aisle of the grocery store, can be done with online giving. The use of disagreeable words and pictures allow a donor to feel like they are helping a person in need (NFG, 2006). Conversely, an information-rich story that contains strong rationales of why a donor should give might lead to an impulse donation. By definition, impulsive donors do not clicking on a website with the express desire to give; however, there is a concern that a web page that contains a lot of information can create information overload. NFG (2006) suggests that the emotional appeals coupled with an easy online donation system were the most viable for soliciting impulse gifts. Also, according to Lee and Benbasat (2003), the donation button on the website should be easy to find and be unique from other elements of the screen. The button should be near a message which states that help is needed immediately (Zhou et al, 2007). My study is different from the studies above in that I am looking at specific websites and cataloguing behavior.

### *Demographics and Psychographics of Impulse Online Donors*

In his research on impulsive, online giving, Bennett (2009) discovered a number of findings relating to impulsive, online donors. The donors in his sample tended to be in early middle age, financially well-off and to have known someone who had been in the situation that the charity addressed which, in Bennett's article, was hospice care. The impulsive donations accounted for about 15 percent of the charity's total online income and the use of an emotively orientated home page increased the volume of impulsive

donations by 31 percent. This supported the view by NFG (2006) that emotively charged web pages have a greater chance of procuring impulsive donations (Bennett, 2009). The profile of a typical impulsive giver within Bennett's set of respondents involves individuals who are naturally impulsive but do not think that there is anything wrong with impulsive behavior. They are also individuals who experience an emotional uplift when donating and feel a sense of personal involvement with charity giving. But the most important finding from Bennett's research was the discovery that it is possible for fundraisers to discriminate between website designs that are more or less likely to stimulate impulsive giving. By varying how information is presented on the web page, impulsive behavior could be initiated or deterred. There are also guidelines that can be followed to set up the virtual environment to solicit gifts. By ensuring the website is set up to downplay negative perceptions about the site, the nonprofit puts itself in the best position to receive impulse donations. Also, emailing people who are known to have given to other charities in the past may be a worthwhile exercise to solicit donations (Bennett, 2009). Another learning of the study is that emotive messages need to be highlighted on nonprofit web pages to maximize levels of donations. It is important that online givers do not feel guilty about participating in internet giving, so they must be persuaded that these impulsive decisions save time. This may be achieved by emphasizing the trustworthy nature of the nonprofit by showing pictures of its work. Bennett's study contributed to what is presently known about impulsive behavior by examining the phenomenon in a context (i.e. impulsive online charity giving) not previously investigated by researchers in the field. However, his study did not address

specific how different cohorts, generations, and genders influenced the different components of giving behavior.

### Overview of Studies

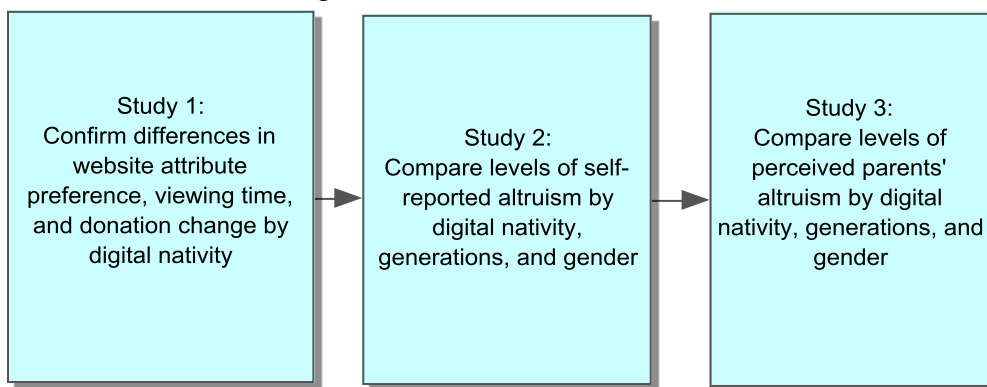
Overall, the research question of this dissertation is the following: How do the personal characteristics of donors, in the form of digital nativity, generations, and gender, affect self-reported altruism, perceived parents' altruism, and response to online donation appeals? I believe that this research can adequately be conducted for a number of reasons. First, I was able to obtain more than 200 responses to an online survey, which should give me a sample size large enough for both quantitative and qualitative analysis. Second, I believe that this research problem has adequately guided my data collection and analysis. Finally, I believe that the research questions and hypotheses that I have developed provide focus to the research problem and can be used as starting points for future research. The scope of this dissertation was restricted to U.S. citizens, even though even of these groups can exist internationally or use the internet. The scope was restricted due to data availability and the infeasibility of doing an in-depth global analysis.

The three studies in this dissertation focus on differences in online behavior, levels of altruism, and perceived parents' altruism for digital natives, generations, and gender. The first study is exploratory in nature and builds on Bennett's (2009) research by examining six nonprofit websites and showing three discoveries: that there are differences in preferred attributes of the sites between digital natives and digital immigrants; that there are differences in the amount of time that digital natives and digital immigrants spent on the websites; and showing the websites altered donation behavior

after the respondents gave an initial donation based upon reviewing the mission statements of the six nonprofits. The second chapter builds upon the discoveries of the first chapter and compares altruism scores between digital natives and immigrants, generations, and gender. The third study compares the self-reported altruism of the respondents to their perceptions of their parents' altruism and looks for differences in perceptions of parents' altruism between digital natives and immigrants, generations, and gender.

As noted earlier in this chapter, the research concerning online giving was sparse until the Bennett article. The concepts of altruism and perceived parents' altruism have never been research across digital nativity and generations. While altruism and gender have been researched in past literature, it has never been researched through the lens of digital nativity. This dissertation looks to extend current research and to improve marketing communications of nonprofit marketing managers in the field. Figure 1.1 provides an overview of the research studies presented in this dissertation:

Figure 1.1 – Overview of Studies



These three studies follow the literature stream of impulse online giving, web layout research, altruism, and intergenerational values transfer. First, the exploratory

study examines differences that digital natives and digital immigrants exhibit in website attribute preference, viewing time, and changes in donation behavior. Once differences between digital natives and immigrants are identified, we seek to explain why those differences exist in study 2, which examines differences in altruism. These differences are investigated in digital nativity, as well as with generations and gender. Study 3 takes an additional step in investigating whether there is a correlation between self-reported altruism and perceived parents' altruism. Then, I compare parents' altruism by digital nativity, generations, and gender.



## CHAPTER 2

### IS ONLINE DONATION BEHAVIOR THE SAME FOR ALL COHORTS? AN EXPLORATORY STUDY

#### Introduction

Over the last several years, the internet has become an important medium for nonprofits to promote their missions. In the nonprofit world, executive directors and their boards must try to garner scarce financial resources to have their stories heard by the largest possible audience. Part of the role of today's nonprofit marketer is to create an online environment that welcomes in the user, so that they feel as comfortable as possible in making a donation. This feeling would have a great deal to do with trust as a way to promote a long-term relationship (Doney & Cannon, 1997; Dwyer, Schurr, & Oh, 1987; Ganesan, 1994). The concept of trust is important in online nonprofit marketing because today's donors rely on the information from the internet to make decisions about where to donate their hard-earned money. The internet also helps donors to be more loyal online (Shankar, Smith, & Rangaswamy, 2003) because of its interactivity and ease of transaction. Much of the extant literature has indicated that companies need to develop a fuller understanding of how donor trust is cultivated and affects online behavior (Bart, Shankar, Sultan, & Urban, 2005). In this study, I attempt to research some of these issues. In the article by Bart et al. (2005), the authors researched the drivers and role of online trust in consumer websites. This was a seminal article, in that it stratified trust in different industries and identified the attributes of websites that were likely to be effective in marketing to them. My study adds to this stream of literature because I am researching nonprofit websites while all the sites that Bart et al. researched were for-profit websites (Bart et al., 2005). The question presents itself: what would be the effect

of similar questioning for non-profit websites in which the donor does not receive a tangible good but instead receives a “good feeling”?

The design of the nonprofit web site is a crucial part of the marketing plan and is important in creating trust (Benbasat, Gefen, & Pavlou, 2008; Urban, Sultan, & Qualls, 2000). In reviewing these designs, the donor can see which features the webmaster has emphasized in the architecture of the site. For example, some sites provide a beautiful layout with easy navigation. Other sites make it a point to give the potential donor as much information as possible to consider before making a donation. There have been a number of studies in extant literature that have focused on the concept of trust in internet marketing (Urban Sultan, & Qualls, 2000), have discovered determinants of trust online (Belanger, Hiller, & Smith, 2002; Shankar, Urban, & Sultan, 2002; Yoon, 2002), and have addressed online trust characteristics in specific for-profit industries (Bart, Shankar, Sultan, & Urban, 2005). However, no one has done an empirical study of the effect of web characteristics on nonprofit websites.

#### Empirical Literature

There is a large body of literature (Bart, Shankar, Sultan, & Urban, 2005; Belanger, Hiller, & Smith, 2002; Shankar, Urban, & Sultan, 2002; Yoon, 2002) that serves as a basis for my research. One of the central themes in this research will be in the area of online trust. A broad framework of antecedents to online trust has already been created (Shankar, Urban, & Sultan, 2002). Fogg, Marshall, Kameda, Solomon, Rangnekar, Boyd, and Brown (2001) also investigated the attributes of web sites that led to credibility. However, I believe that this is the first study that looks at nonprofit websites and their subtle differences in terms of “exchange”. Extant literature is full of

examples that teach marketers to design a website with attributes that make it easy to obtain something tangible. However, it may take different cues to attract someone to donor to a site in which they receive nothing in return.

This study complements a number of the empirical works that has already been done. For example, this study adds to Yoon (2002) in that it surveys a more diverse group of respondents. Yoon's work was a study of college students' perceptions in Korea. This study investigates the responses of donors from all generations and ethnicities. This study complements the Shankar, Urban, and Sultan (2002) study in that I am looking at several website attributes in an empirical fashion. Their research was purely conceptual. I am also focusing on the donor's standpoint whereas they were concerned with stakeholders. This study expands on the Belanger, Hiller, and Smith (2002) study in that they are only considering web privacy and security, whereas I am looking at several additional areas. Finally, this work builds upon the Bart, Shankar, Sultan, and Urban study (2005) in that it focuses on nonprofit websites instead of commercial websites.

#### *Research on Online Trust*

One of the components of the acceptance of web sites is trust. In terms of defining "trust", one of the most accepted definitions comes from Rousseau et al. (1998): "trust is a psychological state comprising the intention to accept vulnerability based on positive expectations of the intentions or behaviors of another" (p. 395). Relationship marketing has been the target of a majority of the extant literature on trust (Doney & Cannon 1997; Dwyer, Schurr, & Oh 1987; Ganesan 1994; Ganesan & Hess 1997). Typically, trust is built over a period of time, during which the buyer of a product or

service observes the honesty and reliability of a sales professional (Doney & Cannon, 1997; Dwyer, Schurr, & Oh 1987; Ganesan 1994) and then makes decisions about whether or not to trust this individual. This study differs from the previous research in two ways. First, this study focuses on online trust in a web site, which has its own attributes and intricacies. The interaction of the “customer” can be comparable to the interaction with a website and the consumers can develop trust based on their interaction with the site. If those interactions are positive, the perceptions of that site can be positive (Bart et. al., 2005). Secondly, no one at this point has researched the effects of the trust in online, nonprofit websites. As I have mentioned before, the main difference is that the concept of exchange is different in that the donor typically does not receive anything tangible for giving to the site. Previous research has determined that brand strength, navigation, advice, order fulfillment and privacy are important drivers for online trust (Bart et. al., 2005); however, the authors did not segment their sample from the National Family Opinion’s online panel by digital nativity and generation.

#### *Donor Characteristics with Respect to Online Trust*

One of the most important needs in this study is to research the characteristics that lead to website trust. Those characteristics are the familiarity with the website (Yoon, 2002), the donor’s online expertise (Bart et. al., 2005), the donor’s internet shopping experience (Novak, Hoffman, & Yung, 2000), culture (Benbasat, Gefen, & Pavlou, 2008), and online entertainment and chat experience (Ganesan, 1994). My research questions deal with the fact that digital natives and donors in younger generations may be more likely to donate online because of living their entire life in the internet age. They are predisposed to trusting offerings online as these have been present for their entire

academic life. Extant literature has confirmed that trust affects behavioral intent (Yoon, 2002), the impact on online traffic (Pan, Shankar, & Ratchford, 2002), and the prices that people will pay for goods (Ratchford, Pan, & Shankar, 2003). Through this research, I am seeking to discover how trust and online confidence translates into the online, giving environment.

### Methodology

My pilot was an exploratory study that looked to identify measures that could be used as scales to assess trust, online confidence, and altruism. As mentioned previously, the intention to give money may be changed right up to the moment of purchase (Philips & Bradshaw, 1993; Baumeister & Sommer, 1997) so emotional elements and psychological urges to contribute are important to factor in. Engel and Blackwell (1982) described impulsive behavior as those things that we do without the recognition of a problem before we take action. Another important construct is that of subjective norms (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). Many people trust members of their family and close friends and, thus, tend to value their opinions when making decisions (Smith, 2003), but the question exists: does that affect digital native donors in the same way? According to Bennett (2009), if a person believes that his or her close friends and family would approve of the individual giving to a charity then the person will be more likely to make an impulsive donation.

The different appeals in a nonprofit site can be framed cognitively or affectively, and may or may not be designed to create impulsive donations. When a donor is shown an emotive appeal about an unpleasant situation, it gives the donor a way to lessen feelings of guilt by making an instant donation. Also, for some donors, a convincing

written debate on a subject on a nonprofit website may give reasons of why a person should give could induce an impulse donation (NFG, 2006). In Bennett's (2009) research, the profile of a typical impulsive giver involves the following: individuals who are naturally impulsive but does not perceive impulsive behavior as undesirable, those who experience an emotional uplift when donating, and who feels a sense of personal involvement with charity giving. My study examines the cues that inspire donors to give to nonprofit websites. First, to examine whether there will be a difference in which type of stimuli will affect impulse, online giving of digital natives and digital immigrants. This is important because the current literature (Bennett, 2009) only discovered that emotive appeals, on the whole, affected impulse giving more than specific cues. Because of the questions surrounding these different groups, the following research questions are offered:

#### *Research Questions*

- 1) Are there differences in trust in the selected websites between digital natives and digital immigrants?
- 2) Are there differences in the reasons that digital natives give to the selected nonprofit websites compared to digital immigrants?
- 3) Are there differences in the amounts of time digital natives spend on viewing the selected nonprofit websites compared to digital immigrants?
- 4) Will donation behavior change after being given the opportunity to view the selected nonprofit websites, even if the donor knows the mission of the organizations?

5) If donor behavior changed after having the opportunity to view the selected websites, what contributed to those changes?

6) Do digital natives and digital immigrants in this study have different feelings towards online donating?

### *Pilot Study*

I developed measures of trust and online confidence, along with preferred attributes of nonprofit websites during an initial pilot study that was conducted in October 2011. This pilot was conducted to help identify specific web site characteristics that could affect respondents' behavior in viewing and donating to a web site. The mixed method study included both quantitative and qualitative components comprising an assessment of 15 different websites. The study was executed using Qualtrics® survey software. The websites were chosen at random from Vandelay Design's list of the "40 Best Nonprofit Websites". From the list, I simply chose 15 sites without viewing them. Respondents were asked to examine nonprofit web pages, after which they would answer a series of 25 questions about each web site; four of these questions were qualitative. A stratified random sample was used by dividing up the total populations of community email listservs into homogeneous subgroups – white men, white women, non-white men, and non-white women. Each person was placed exclusively into one group. I took a simple random sample from each of these strata. This method was employed to improve the representation of the sample and to reduce sampling error. To control for expert bias and to ensure closer representation to the average donor, the email banks used were checked to ensure there was no inclusion of respondents from the information technology, website development, or online marketing fields. 400 surveys were initially

sent out, with 100 respondents in each stratum, and a total of 168 of the surveys were completed. This 42% response rate for the online surveys is not uncommon in a review of the literature as a meta-analysis by Manfreda et al. (2008) had discovered that the response rate for online surveys is typically 11% lower than for mail surveys. Recent research has shown that even giving incentives tends not improve this response rate in online surveys (Groves et al., 2000; Groves et al., 2004). The questions about the sites were general questions around the respondents' familiarity with the charity, the allure of the page, the perceived trustworthiness of the page, what they liked and disliked about the page, and how much and how often they would consider donating to the nonprofit. The organizations' websites that were used are shown in Table 2.1:

Table 2.1. Websites in Pilot

The Memphis Zoo
Family Life Network
Custodial Abuse
Common Good Radio
Take the Walk
Glocal Adventures
Here's Life Mission Africa
Housing Works
Heifer International
United Way
American Red Cross
Dalit Freedom Network
YWCA
YMCA
Susan G. Komen Breast Cancer Walk



### *Trust Scale*

On the basis of this process of quantitative and qualitative research, I was able to create a trust scale that was adapted from Bhattacharjee’s (2002) trust scale. This scale had been cited in 642 different works of empirical literature. Adjustments were made to the scale by (1) replacing the word Amazon—the company that Bhattacharjee was researching—with “this organization” and (2) changing the word “customer” to “donor”. After making these adjustments, this measurement was tested for each the websites and found to have a Cronbach’s alpha above .70 in each case. Cronbach alphas are shown below in Table 2.2:

Table 2.2. Cronbach Alphas of Trust Measure

<b>Website</b>	<b>Cronbach’s alpha (Trust Measure)</b>
www.custodialabuse.org	0.88
www.dalitfreedomnetwork.org	0.87
www.unicef.org	0.95
www.stjude.org	0.96
www.gofundme.org	0.89
www.redcross.org	0.95

### *Online Confidence*

A measure of online confidence was developed based on Kau, Tang, and Ghose’s (2003) “attitude towards online shopping”, scales with the replacement of the word “buy” with the words “donate” or “give”, as Bennett (2009) did with this scale. The items relate to the convenience and time saving qualities of the internet rather than to deeper issues; this made it are as relevant to online donating as the original was to online buying. This questionnaire is based on a similar impulse, online questionnaire done by Bennett (2009). However, in this questionnaire, I removed references to hospice care. This scale was

meant to reflect the feelings of the respondent on the efficacy and efficiency of using the online platform compared to offline platforms. In the pilot study, this measurement was found to have a Cronbach's alpha of .71.

#### *Attributes of Preferred Websites*

A portion of my pilot was a qualitative study of the attributes that respondents preferred in the sites they chose to donate to. For each of the 15 pilot websites, I asked the question, "What did you like most about this site?" in an open-ended fashion. The respondents gave a variety of answers, which were then coded and stratified into six themes: the layout/colors/graphics/pictures; the ease of navigation; information/stories/mission statement; donations options; nothing; and other. These themes were then checked with a Cohen's kappa correlation using an MBA student from a nearby northeastern University. The Cohen's kappa is a measure of inter-rater agreement for qualitative research. The Cohen's kappa was .80, which is substantial agreement. These six attributes will be used in the exploratory study that follows in this study.

#### *Most Popular and Least Popular Websites*

In the pilot study, we also calculated which of the 15 websites were the most well-known and the least well-known based on the mean averages of the Likert question, "This is a well-known charity". The websites Custodial Abuse, The Dalit Freedom Network, and Go Fund Me came out to be the least well-known sites and UNICEF, St. Jude Children's Hospital, and Red Cross were identified as the best known nonprofits. These will be the 6 websites that are researched in the exploratory study.

## Exploratory Analysis, Qualitative Research, and Questionnaire

The questionnaire to investigate the research questions put forth in this study has a series of open-ended and closed-ended measures of the constructs. I used a comprehensive set of characteristics of attractive site features from the pilot study, which is a divergence from previous studies. For example, previous research focused on the concepts of brand strength (Saxton, 1995; Wray, 1994), relationship appeal (Aune & Basil, 1994; Roloff, 1987; Roloff, Janiszewski, McGrath, Burns, & Manrai, 1988), and emotiveness (Page & Mapstone, 2010). As before, a stratified random sample was used by dividing up the total populations of the email banks into homogeneous subgroups – white men, white women, non-white men, and non-white women. Each person was placed exclusively into one group. I then took a simple random sample from each of these strata. This method was once again employed to improve the representation of the sample and to reduce sampling error. To control for expert bias and to ensure closer representation to the average donor, the email banks used were checked to ensure there was no inclusion of respondents from the information technology, website development, or online marketing fields. The survey design was set up as a comparison group, quasi-experimental design, in that I was comparing different groups' responses in a deliberate fashion. There was no overlap between the pilot survey group and this group. The survey was administered in just one stage, sending out overtures to take the survey during a period of 48 hours. In this questionnaire deployment, I sent the survey to 409 email addresses, of which 210 came back as completed surveys. This 51.3% response rate is commensurate with the expected response rate of many large online surveys (Manfreda et al., 2008). I investigated six websites which, from the pilot test, were determined to be

the three most well-known sites and the three least well-known sites. These six charities—Custodial Abuse, The Dalit Freedom Network, UNICEF, St. Jude Children’s Research Hospital, Go Fund Me, and Red Cross—cover a wide spectrum of charitable giving concerns, from child abuse to aid for children to international relief. I believe that by focusing on both the well-known and least well-known sites, it will counteract some of the bias of researching individual sites. Table 2.3 shows the sites that were considered:

Table 2.3. Website Descriptions

Custodial Abuse	<a href="http://www.custodialabuse.org">www.custodialabuse.org</a>	Promote childrens’ health, happiness and opportunities
Dalit Freedom Network	<a href="http://www.dalitfreedomnetwork.org">www.dalitfreedomnetwork.org</a>	Human rights for the Dalit people in India
UNICEF	<a href="http://www.unicef.org">www.unicef.org</a>	Protection of childrens’ rights
St. Jude Children’s Research Hospital	<a href="http://www.stjude.org">www.stjude.org</a>	Advance cures and prevention for pediatric catastrophic illnesses
Go Fund Me	<a href="http://www.gofundme.org">www.gofundme.org</a>	Personal fundraising websites
Red Cross	<a href="http://www.redcross.org">www.redcross.org</a>	Emergency response organization

Each respondent was initially asked to read the mission statements of the six charities and make a decision about what percentage of a \$10,000 donation they would like to donate to each cause. After this initial donation, they were told that they would have the opportunity to view the web pages of each of the charities for more background into their work. The respondents were not required to view the web pages. After

viewing those pages, they were then asked again about what percentage of \$10,000 they would give to the sites. They were then asked 14 questions pertaining to trust and donation behavior. The respondents were also told that their personal information would be kept confidential, as that procedure is important in both theory and practice (Pavlou, 2011). The last component of the survey entailed 37 additional demographic and psychographic questions that will be covered in Chapters 3 and 4.

#### *Model Formulation and Estimation*

My analysis in this exploratory study consists of 1) running a one-way ANOVA to determine differences in digital nativity with respect to trust, 2) running a cross tabulation between level of digital nativity and reasons for donating to the site 3) running a cross tabulation between level of digital nativity and length of time viewing the site, 4) running t-tests on giving before and after the introduction of the website to see if there were changes in donation after having the opportunity to view the sites, 5) running a cross tabulation between the change in the significantly impacted sites and the main reasons that respondents would change their donations, and 6) running a one-way ANOVA to determine differences in digital nativity with respect to online confidence. To investigate differences in digital nativity with respect to trust, I utilized the one-way ANOVA analysis function in SPSS statistical analysis software. To compare the level of digital nativity to the preferred attribute for donating to the nonprofit website, I conducted cross tabulations using the Qualtrics® software program. To compare the level of digital nativity with time viewing the site, I conducted cross- tabulations using the Qualtrics® software program. To determine if there were different reasons why different generations were giving to the websites, I conducted t-tests in SPSS statistical software to see if the

two groups—digital natives and digital immigrants—were significantly different from each other. To determine if there was a difference in giving before and after the introduction of the websites of the nonprofits, I conducted t-tests on group means via SPSS and viewed means tables. Finally, to investigate differences in group means of digital natives and digital immigrants with respect to online confidence, a one-way ANOVA was used via SPSS.

## Results and Discussion

### *Data Analysis*

First after the reviewing the frequencies involved in giving by age, some contrasts are extremely evident. As Table 2.1 illustrates, donation responses are grouped by generation. Because Generation Y respondents are digital natives, I have grouped them together in the chart. Because all Generation X, Baby Boomers and Traditionalists generation are digital immigrants, I have grouped them together. This chart provides a cumulative percentage of how much was given to each website. For example, 43.7% of Generation Y donated \$0 to Custodial Abuse. The website that had the highest percentage of Generation Y donate \$0 was Go Fund Me, in which 69.8% of Generation Y donors \$0, or 0% of their money. The website that had the lowest percentage of \$0 donations was Red Cross at 13.5%. Also, 92.1% of Generation Y donors donated between 0% and 20% of their available funds to Custodial Abuse and 100% of Generation Y donors donated between 0% and 60% of their available donations to Custodial Abuse. The St. Jude Children’s hospital had the lowest percentage of \$0 donations for both Generation X and Baby Boomers with 5.3% and 4.9% respectively while Go Fund Me had the highest percentage of \$0 donations with both cohorts with

63.2% and 82.9% respectively. The traditionalists only had 4 respondents so they were excluded from the analysis.

### *Differences in Trust based on Digital Nativity*

In reviewing differences in trust from the selected websites, a number of interesting findings were discovered. A one-way ANOVA was conducted to determine if the group means of trust between digital natives and digital immigrants was statistically different. Only Custodial Abuse,  $F(1, 207) = 8.929, p = .003$ , and UNICEF,  $F(1, 200) = 6.136, p = .014$ , were shown to have statistically significant differences between digital natives and digital immigrants. Levene's statistics and Welch tests were run in the analysis to confirm homogeneity of variances. For each of these cases, digital natives exhibited more trust than digital immigrants. While the other four websites did not show significant differences in group means, digital immigrants exhibited higher trust levels for every site. This would confirm extant literature that states that digital natives may be more familiar to the online environment (Prensky, 2001); this may indicate that they trust this environment more as well. See Table 2.4 below for the ANOVA table used in this analysis:

Table 2.4. ANOVA for Trust based on Nativity

Websites	Digital Native Mean	Digital Immigrant Mean	F	p value
Custodial Abuse	3.56	3.28	8.93	0.003
Dalit Freedom Network	3.72	3.57	2.71	0.101
Go Fund Me	3.18	3.02	1.18	0.279
Red Cross	4.63	4.47	2.75	0.099
St. Jude's Children's Research Hospital	4.52	4.47	0.13	0.721
UNICEF	4.42	4.17	6.14	0.014

*Differences in Digital Nativity and Preferred Attributes in Websites*

I ran cross tabulations in Qualtrics® to investigate differences in which components of the websites different generations favored, as seen in Table 2.5 below:

Table 2.5. Cross tabulation of Digital Nativity by Preferred Attribute

Site	Chi-Square	DF	p value
Custodial Abuse	18.64	6	0.00
Dalit Freedom Network	7.5	6	0.28
Go Fund Me	11.76	6	0.07
Red Cross	11.8	6	0.07
St. Jude Children's Research Hospital	11.25	6	0.08
UNICEF	12.95	6	0.04

The respondents were asked what they liked most about the six websites they viewed and given a list of attributes: The layout/colors/graphics/pictures; the ease of



navigation; information/stories/mission statement/ donation options; nothing; or other. After conducting the cross tabulation, I can see that two of the websites—Custodial Abuse and UNICEF—showed a significant difference between digital natives and digital immigrants and what they liked about the sites ( $p < .05$ ). Another interesting finding is that three of the other four sites are marginally significant as well. While this does not represent a majority of the sites, it does show that in some cases, certain site attributes are preferred by different cohorts.

Also, for each site, more digital natives indicated that their decision of whether or not to donate to the nonprofits was affected by who the nonprofit affiliates themselves with. For digital immigrants, in all cases except for one – Go Fund Me – a greater number of the respondents indicated that the main reason they would give to the nonprofit would be the mission of the organization, compared to the natives. Go Fund Me is the nonprofit that did not focus on one mission but on enterprising philanthropists who want to create websites to raise money, which may be the impetus behind this difference.

To further research on these differences, I calculated a test of proportions z-test of the stated preferences in the websites that were found to be significantly different. The z-test represents the test of two proportions, which determines whether the difference between two proportions is significant. This test is appropriate when simple random sampling is used for each population, the samples are independent, and each sample has at least five trials. Each of the following z-tests is done with a significance level of 0.05.

In running the test of two proportions on the each of the results of the cross-tabulations, Table 2.6 shows the following:

Table 2.6. Preferred Attributes by Digital Nativity

<b>Custodial Abuse</b>	<b>Z-Value</b>	<b>Are proportions different?</b>
Layout	2.3186	Yes
Ease of Navigation	7.0223	Yes
Information and Stories	0.4757	No
Donation Options	1.403	No*
Other	0.7055	No*
<b>UNICEF</b>	<b>Z-Value</b>	<b>Are proportions different?</b>
Layout	3.2497	Yes
Ease of Navigation	1.9977	Yes
Information and Stories	1.1592	No
Donation Options	14.5374	No*
Other	3.0432	No*
* = Did not have five trials		

The table shows the two websites that were found to be significantly different between digital natives and digital immigrants. I removed the respondents who selected “Nothing” from the calculations and subtracted that amount from the total respondents. The table shows that, in the Custodial Abuse website and the UNICEF website, there were significant differences in proportion between the digital natives and digital immigrants in their preference for the layout of the website and the ease of navigation. These measures were ascertained using the qualitative questions in the pilot survey. For Custodial Abuse, 44% of digital immigrants stated that the layout of the site was what they liked most versus 36% of digital natives, which was found to be a significant difference in proportions. Conversely, 29% of digital natives stated that the ease of navigation of the site was what they liked most versus 19% of digital immigrants, which was also found to be a significant difference in proportions. For UNICEF, 16% of digital

immigrants stated that the layout of the site was what they liked most versus 21% of digital natives, which was found to be a significant difference in proportions.

Conversely, 21% of digital natives stated that the ease of navigation of the site was what they liked most versus 17% of digital immigrants, which was also found to be a significant difference in proportions.

*Differences in Digital Nativity in Website Viewing*

Previously in this work, I discussed the differences between digital natives and digital immigrants. In this part of the study, I looked to determine differences between the two groups with regard to how long they viewed the websites presented.

Respondents to the survey were asked how long they viewed the website and given choices of the following answers: “Not at all”; “Took a quick glance”; “Spent a short amount of time on the site”; “Spent a good amount of time on the site”; and “Spent a considerable amount of time on the site”. I conducted a series of Pearson’s chi-squared tests. The cross tabulation feature using the Qualtrics® software is seen in Table 2.7 below:

Table 2.7. Differences in Digital Nativity and Website Viewing

<b>Site</b>	<b>Chi-Square</b>	<b>DF</b>	<b>p value</b>
Custodial Abuse	11.13	4	0.03
Dalit Freedom Network	4.95	4	0.29
Go Fund Me	3.21	4	0.52
Red Cross	1.55	4	0.82
St. Jude Children’s Research Hospital	9.8	4	0.04
UNICEF	11.32	4	0.05

In reviewing the results of the analysis, I found a number of discoveries. First, Custodial Abuse,  $\chi^2(4, N = 248) = 11.13, p = .03$ ; St. Jude Children's Hospital,  $\chi^2(4, N = 248) = 9.80, p = .04$ ; and UNICEF,  $\chi^2(4, N = 248) = 11.32, p = .05$ , were found to have significant p-values. For these three sites, the fraction of respondents falling into each of the time cells differs between digital natives and digital immigrants. For future research, each of these organizations spends time helping children, which may have been one of the drivers of the time spend viewing the site. There may be pictures that some groups find compelling on the site that are more emotional than others. Secondly, in all websites except for UNICEF, more digital immigrants chose to not view the site than digital natives.

In each of our three sites in which the fraction of digital natives and digital immigrant were deemed to have answered significantly differently from each other, we are able to determine a number of interesting findings in the test of two proportions, which is in Table 2.8:

Table 2.8. Test of Two Proportions – Time Spent on Site

<b>Custodial Abuse</b>	<b>Z-Value</b>	<b>Are proportions significantly different?</b>
Not at all	1.7887	No
Took a quick glance	8.3846	Yes
Short Amount of Time	1.0966	No
Good Amount of Time	4.8264	No*
Considerable Amount of Time	N/A	N/A*

<b>UNICEF</b>	<b>Z-Value</b>	<b>Are proportions significantly different?</b>
Not at all	0.2748	No
Took a quick glance	2.7622	Yes
Short Amount of Time	2.2113	Yes
Good Amount of Time	1.2666	No
Considerable Amount of Time	3.4184	No*

<b>St. Jude Children’s Research Hospital</b>	<b>Z-Value</b>	<b>Are proportions significantly different?</b>
Not at all	0.8758	No
Took a quick glance	3.3702	Yes
Short Amount of Time	4.0843	Yes
Good Amount of Time	4.06	Yes
Considerable Amount of Time	6.2158	No*
* = Did not have five trials		

Across all three sites, there was a difference between the proportions of respondents who answered took a quick glance. The proportion of digital natives in each of the sites was greater in the “Took a quick glance” category. For two of the three sites, there was a statistically significant difference in proportions in the “Good Amount of Time” (both) and “Short Amount of Time” (digital immigrants). For Custodial Abuse,

39% of digital natives stated that they took a quick glance versus 23% of digital immigrants, which was found to be a significant difference in proportions. For UNICEF, 42% of digital natives stated that they took a quick look versus 35% of digital immigrants; 41% of digital immigrants stated that they spent a short amount of time on the site versus 33% of the digital natives. Both of these were found to be a significant difference in proportions. For St Jude Children’s Research Hospital, 40% of digital natives stated that they took a quick look at the site versus 32% of digital immigrants. 46% of digital immigrants stated that they spent a short amount of time on the site versus 29% of digital natives. 13% of digital natives stated that they spent a good amount of time on the site versus 8% of digital immigrants. As before, each of these findings was deemed to be a significant difference in proportions based on the sample size. Each of these findings shows a clear potential difference in how different cohorts view websites.

*Differences in Giving After Seeing Sites*

I used the means tabling feature in Qualtrics® to determine differences in giving before and after the introduction of the websites. As previously stated, the respondents initially were given only the mission statement of the organization to read before making a decision about giving. After that initial gift, respondents had the opportunity to view the websites of the organization. Table 2.9 shows the initial donation table:

Table 2.9. Initial Donations

<b>Custodial Abuse</b>	<b>Dalit Freedom Network</b>	<b>UNICEF</b>	<b>St. Jude’s</b>	<b>Go Fund Me</b>	<b>Red Cross</b>
Mean	Mean	Mean	Mean	Mean	Mean
11.14	7.11	16.54	33.05	4.78	24.59

The table represents percentages of \$10,000. For example, the Custodial Abuse average donation was 11.16% of \$10,000, or \$1,116. After the opportunity to view the websites, this means changed to:

Table 2.10. Donations after Introduction of Website

<b>Custodial Abuse</b>	<b>Dalit Freedom Network</b>	<b>UNICEF</b>	<b>St. Jude's</b>	<b>Go Fund Me</b>	<b>Red Cross</b>
Mean	Mean	Mean	Mean	Mean	Mean
9.14	8.77	16.23	31.14	3.79	27.21

Table 2.10 illustrates that average donations to Custodial Abuse, UNICEF, St. Jude's, and Go Fund Me went down, while donations to The Dalit Freedom Network and The Red Cross increased, relatively. The websites that had a decrease in donating are captured in red while the sites that increased as captured in green. A paired-samples t-test indicated that scores were significantly lower for Custodial Abuse before viewing the site ( $M = 11.14$ ,  $SD = 12.24$ ) than after ( $M = 9.15$ ,  $SD = 11.73$ ),  $t(208) = 2.887$ ,  $p = .004$ ,  $d = .04$ ; the paired-samples t-test also indicated that scores were significantly higher for Dalit Freedom Network before viewing the site ( $M = 7.11$ ,  $SD = 9.89$ ) than after ( $M = 8.77$ ,  $SD = 11.54$ ),  $t(208) = -2.39$ ,  $p = .018$ ,  $d = .12$ , and for Red Cross before viewing the site ( $M = 24.59$ ,  $SD = 22.77$ ) than after ( $M = 27.21$ ,  $SD = 23.69$ ),  $t(208) = -2.740$ ,  $p = .007$ ,  $d = .06$ . Those website names are shown in gray in Table 2.8. Custodial Abuse and The Dalit Freedom Network were two of the lesser known charities from our pilot study while Red Cross was one of the more well-known charities. Both organizations assist people internationally; the visuals of the website and the ability to assist people globally may have had an impact on the respondents. While I do not have any formal hypotheses

in this exploratory study on differences between digital natives and digital immigrants in nonprofit website behavior, my results show a number of differences.

In order to create a better understanding of why these three nonprofits' average donation amounts changed significantly, I created cross tabulations to investigate which attributes of websites had changed from the first collection before viewing the websites to the second collection of donations after viewing the sites. The results of this investigation are below for each of the sites that changed significantly. Table 2.11 shows a synopsis of the percentage changes by website and digital nativity:



Table 2.11. Website Change Percentages

Websites That Significantly Changed	Change		Digital Natives	Digital Immigrants	Total
Custodial Abuse	No Change	Count	41	66	107
		% Change	38.30%	61.70%	100%
	Increase	Count	32	33	65
		% Change	49.20%	50.80%	100%
	Decrease	Count	26	9	35
		% Change	74.30%	25.70%	100%
Dalit Freedom Network	No Change	Count	39	63	102
		% Change	38.24%	61.76%	100%
	Increase	Count	24	17	41
		% Change	58.54%	41.46%	100%
	Decrease	Count	35	28	63
		% Change	55.56%	44.44%	100%
Red Cross	No Change	Count	43	56	99
		% Change	43.43%	56.57%	100%
	Increase	Count	20	22	42
		% Change	47.62%	52.38%	100%
	Decrease	Count	36	32	68
		% Change	52.94%	47.06%	100%

Custodial Abuse website. For each of these websites, “Mission Statement” was the only donation attribute that respondents would have gotten to experience twice; once at the very beginning of the survey and also on the websites. This may have a confounding effect on the results. For Custodial Abuse, I cross tabulated the change in the site with responses with the question, “What is the main reason that you would want to donate to this nonprofit?” An interesting finding with these reasons is related to the areas of mission and affiliation. There is a relationship between the change in donation to

Custodial Abuse and the main reason to give to the site,  $\chi^2(12, N = 206) = 31.28, p = .002$ . For these respondents, 50% of them referenced Mission as the main reason that would want to donate while “Who the nonprofit affiliates themselves with” garnered 4.6%. For those respondents who increased their giving to Custodial Abuse after having the opportunity to view the site, 60% of them referenced the mission as the main reason to give while affiliation was 10.8% of the reason. For those who decreased their giving to Custodial Abuse after having the opportunity to view the site, 71.4% of them referenced Mission as the main reason to give while affiliation was 22.9% of the reason. When reviewing these results, factoring in differences between digital natives and digital immigrants, the results were also interesting. There is a marginal relationship between digital natives,  $\chi^2(8, N = 99) = 13.78, p = .088$ , and digital immigrants,  $\chi^2(12, N = 107) = 19.87, p = .070$ , the change in donation to the site.

There was almost an equal number (i.e., 49.20% compared to 50.80%) of digital native and digital immigrant respondents who increased their donations to this website. However, there was a 38.3% - 61.7% difference between those who had no change in donations (more digital immigrants did not change their donation behavior) and there was a 74.3% - 25.7% difference between those decreased their giving to the site (more digital natives decreased their giving). This would seem to support the literature that reports that the digital natives would be more impacted by the web presence because they were more likely to be negatively impacted by the website. The digital immigrants were more likely to not do anything once they were exposed to the site.

Some digital natives may have decided to give less to the sites because they are more astute in looking through the website and seeing things that they did not like or

agree with. The digital immigrants were not as affected by the viewing of the website because they were more interested in the missions of the nonprofits.

Dalit Freedom Network website. For the Dalit Freedom Network site, I cross tabulated the responses about change with the question, “What is the main reason that you would want to donate to this nonprofit?” The areas of mission and affiliation of the nonprofit also showed significance in this case. Because the mission statement of each nonprofit was given before each question about giving, that would have a confounding effect on these results, as I mentioned previously. There is a relationship between the change in donation to Dalit Freedom Network and the main reason to give to the site,  $\chi^2(12, N = 206) = 43.63, p = .000$ . For these respondents, 35 of them referenced Mission as the main reason that would want to donate while “Who the nonprofit affiliates themselves with” garnered 12. For those respondents who increased their giving to Dalit Freedom Network after having the opportunity to view the site, 21 of them referenced the Mission as the main reason to give while four of them referenced affiliation as the reason. For those who decreased their giving to Dalit Freedom Network after having the opportunity to view the site, 49 of them referenced Mission as the main reason to give while six of them referenced affiliation.

When reviewing these results, factoring in differences between digital natives and digital immigrants, the results were also interesting. There is a relationship between the change in donation to Dalit Freedom Network and the main reason to give to the site for digital natives,  $\chi^2(10, N = 98) = 18.91, p = .041$ , and a marginal relationship for digital immigrants,  $\chi^2(8, N = 91) = 14.76, p = .064$ . In this case, I could see that the affiliations the nonprofit creates with its donors continues to have an impact on donation behavior.

Of the respondents who indicated that affiliation was the main reason that they would donate to this charity, 53% of them chose not to change their donation, 13% increased their donation, and 33% of them chose to reduce their donation. Again, with the exception of the mission and “I would not choose to donate to this nonprofit”, the only other specific reason that stood out was the affiliation question. For those digital immigrants who indicated that who the nonprofit affiliates itself with was the main reason that they would donate to this charity, 57% of them chose to maintain their current level of contribution, 29% chose to increase their contribution, and 14% chose to decrease their contribution. In comparing digital natives to digital immigrants, it can be seen that approximately the same number of both groups chose to maintain their contribution; however, 13% of natives increased their contribution versus 29% of immigrants. 33% of immigrants chose to decrease their contribution compared to 14% of immigrants.

Red Cross website. There was not an association between the change in donation to the Red Cross and the main reasons that the respondent would want to donate,  $\chi^2(12, N = 209) = 18.38, p = .105$ .

#### Measure of Attitude towards Online Giving

For the final research question, I investigate if there are significant differences between digital natives and immigrants in online confidence. A series of nine, 5-point Likert scale questions that inquired about a person’s attitude towards online giving was used and piloted in this study. This scale was modified from Kau et al.’s (2003) “attitude towards online shopping”, scales with the replacement of the word “buy” with the words ‘donate’ or ‘give’, as Bennett did with this scale (Bennett, 2009). The scale measured

from 1=Strongly Disagree to 5=Strongly Agree. After the initial running of Cronbach's alpha, the measure yielded .70.

From the results of my analysis, I had the results of 99 digital natives and 110 digital immigrants. The average mean altruism score for digital immigrants was 3.76 (SD = .05) while the average mean score for digital natives was 3.82 (SD = .04).

Immediately, this draws attention to the fact that, even though digital immigrants did not have the internet for their academic life, they have become much more comfortable with the online environment to the extent that their average scores were higher than the digital natives. Levene's test indicated heterogeneity of variances,  $F(1, 207) = 6.8, p = .010$  and, in reviewing the ANOVA Table 2.12, there is not a significant difference between the average mean altruism scores of digital natives and digital immigrants in online confidence,  $F(1, 207) = .731, p = .394$ . This result would seem to contradict many of the articles written that seem to purport that digital natives have more confidence online than immigrants.

Table 2.12. ANOVA Table for Digital Nativity in Online Confidence

	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>F</b>	<b><i>p</i> value</b>
Digital Natives	99	3.7643	0.73	0.394
Digital Immigrants	110	3.8212		
Total	209	3.7943		

This result may be influenced by the fact that this was an online survey; therefore, any digital immigrant taking the survey must have a minimal knowledge of the use of the internet. However, it does lead to questions about the real differences between these two

cohorts. Study #2 delves into one of the questions that may address this discrepancy – altruism by cohort, generation and gender.

## CHAPTER 3

### EXPLORING THE DIFFERENCE IN ALTRUISM BETWEEN DIGITAL NATIVITY, GENERATIONS, AND GENDER

#### Introduction

My research into online giving to nonprofit organizations has led to questions regarding the thought processes of different groups of donors as they use the online environment. One of the basic concepts present in the desire to donate is altruism, which is described as a motivational state which serves to increase another person's welfare (Batson, 1991). Previously in this work, altruism has been considered a cognitive activity to help others (Brewer, 2003). Altruism can be anything from an attitude (Frydman, Lednic, Hofmans, & Molinier, 1995), to a motive (Sober, 1990), to a helping behavior (Schwartz, 1970), or a desire to improve another's condition (Karylowski, 1982). The literature on altruism, as it pertains to digital nativity, generation, and gender, is varied with research on gender certainly having the most volume of work written on it. In the following paragraphs, I explore the extant literature on each of the contexts.

#### Digital Nativity and Altruism

To this point, there has been no empirical literature written about a donor's level of digital nativity and his or her level of altruism. There have been studies that have attempted to model differences between total and perfect altruism; however, those studies were largely theoretical and not meant for practical marketing usage (Fels & Zeckhauser, 2008). The concepts of digital natives and digital immigrants have been outlined previously in Chapter 2, with regard to the attributes of each group.

## Generations and Altruism

A majority of the extant literature regarding generational differences in altruism does not refer to the specific demographic cohorts that I am writing about (e.g. Generation Y, Generation X, Baby Boomers, Traditionalists), but generations in the sense of the next person who has to accomplish a task. For example, research has explored events in corporate America in which overlapping generations in corporations affect memory and communication (Lagunoff & Matsui, 2004). Research has also explored altruism in the context of public policy, especially with regard to the environment (Popp, 2001). Popp's (2001) research touched on the concept of self-interest and the interest of future generations. However, to this point there has been no scholarly literature on researching demographic cohorts and whether they have different levels of altruism.

## Gender and Altruism

The concept of gender and altruism has been discussed in a number of contexts in scholarly literature. Research by Kamas, Preston and Baum (2008) researched how decisions are made by different genders. In their research, they examine altruistic behavior decisions and when they are made individually versus jointly. The evidence that they uncovered has shown that increasing women's participation in the typically male spheres of decision making could lead to more altruistic economic behavior (Kamas, Preston & Baum, 2008). Some of the extant research has focused on the psychological differences between men and women based on nurturing. For example, Eswaran and Kotwal (2004) explored how parents develop preferences for how they treat their children based their own altruism. The results point to greater altruism in females (Eswaran & Kotwal, 2004). In a seminal article by Bakan (1966), the author discusses



the two dimensions of communion and agency. Women tend to be more emotionally expressive while men are more dominant (Newport, 2001; Spence & Buckner, 2000). These are two concepts in prosocial behavior, which is an important concept in understanding how people form social bonds; the bonds that Brewer and Gardner researched can create tight links between people or subsequently link individuals to organizations and groups (Brewer & Gardner, 1996). This distinction between relational interdependence and collective interdependence directly corresponds to the dimensions of gender stereotypes (Gardner & Gabriel, 2004). The stereotypically warm qualities of women would lead to the belief that they have a propensity of bonding with others in close relationships. The competitive nature of men leads to a learned social context in which they are consistently driven to improve their position in society (Baumeister & Sommer, 1997; Gardner & Gabriel, 2004). The origin of these beliefs may manifested from the division of labor, which is based on men's and women's physical attributes and social structure, in which sex is mediated by social expectations (Eagly, 2009). Each of these studies utilizes the dictator games model but did not utilize a survey with a validated scale.

A study by Kidder and Parks (2001) shows that gender roles are important for the perception, categorization, and consequences of organizational citizenship behaviors. Kidder and Parks (2001) state that altruism, courtesy, sportsmanship, and civic virtues are related to the stereotypes that we associate with gender. Other studies have indicated that sex was a determinant of message evaluations in advertisements. One study in particular stated that females would respond more favorably to the help-others appeal and males to the help-self appeal (Brunel & Nelson, 2000). Heilman and Chen (2005) discovered that

altruistic behavior at work would improve a man's evaluations and recommendations, but holding back altruistic behavior would lessen the favorability of women's evaluations and recommendations (Heilman & Chen, 2005). One study even indicates that people in America are only altruistic towards their children when they are poorer than them but not if their children are richer (Derin-Güre, 2012). Overall, gender and altruism have been researched in a multitude of ways. However, there has been no extant research that has looked specifically at cohorts and the differences in gender within the cohort.

### Hypotheses Development

As I have discussed in this work previously, there are a number of differences between digital natives and digital immigrants. Extant research by psychologists has shown that those who grow up in different cultures do not just think about different things, but they have completely different ways of thinking. Their thought processes are affected by the environment in which they are raised and the culture that they have been immersed in (Luria, 1963). One of these ways of thinking may be related to the level of altruism that respondents in both cohorts will have. Digital natives have grown up in a culture that makes them more digitally connected than any other (Nielsen, 2009a, 2009c; OfCom, 2010) and an environment with immediate connectivity to causes around the world. This immersion affects their interests and the way they learn compared to other generations and demographic groups (O'Brien, 2008; Palfry & Gasser, 2008; Prensky, 2009; Toledo, 2007). This group may not have learned altruistic behavior directly from their relatives as past generations have. Potentially, much of their learning of altruism may come from television, video games, or another form of media. In the case of college students, they are experiencing a major change in their lives which can potentially impact

many of their emotional responses and skill set for a lifetime (Page & Mapstone, 2010). Digital immigrants have their own life experiences that were developed before the advent of the internet. Since it has been established that there are specific mental, emotional, and physical differences between digital natives and digital immigrants (Prensky, 2009), and because their histories have led to different life experiences that may lead them to value different facets of life (Page & Mapstone, 2010), the following hypothesis is offered:

**H1: The average altruism score for digital immigrants will be significantly greater than the average altruism score for digital natives.**

Building on the assertions from the hypothesis above, one could also assume that different generations might have the same differences in altruism based on digital nativity and manner in which they were raised. There has not been an empirical study conducted with regard to differences in altruism between generations at this point. There has been work done on the differences in work values between Generation Y, Generation X, and Baby Boomers, and significant differences were observed particularly with Generation Y. This generation needed creative challenges to work effectively, which can be difficult when watching the bottom line (Cogin, 2012). In studies of workplace motivation, Generation Y shows different levels of importance and happiness to responsibilities, compensation, work environment, advancement potential, and free time than Generation X and Baby Boomers (Barford & Hester, 2011). Research has also shown that Generation Y can be very impatient and constantly in need of assurance and feedback (Beekman, 2011) which may affect some of the patience that being altruistic requires. Since the existing research on the different generations has indicated that there are

differences in thought processes, motivations, work ethic, and focus, the following hypothesis is offered:

**H2: The average altruism score will be significantly greater for Baby Boomers than the average altruism score for Generation Y.**

The extant literature on gender and altruism has been more developed than studies on digital nativity and generation. There have been a number of studies that have discussed how gender affects altruistic behavior. Some of this research has focused on the differences in altruism when decisions are made individually by different genders as opposed to by two partners jointly (Kamas, Preston, & Baum, 2008). Other studies have traced differences in altruism to the different ways that males and females have been reared by their parents and the amount of attention that they received as children (Eswaran & Kotwal, 2004). Many of the articles written about the differences in altruism between men and women were born in the seminal article by David Bakan (1966) that discussed the difference between the principles of communion and agency. Women had been shown to focus more on communion, or bringing other people together, while men focused on agency, or transactions in personal interactions (Bakan, 1966). One moderator that had not been discussed in the literature is the difference between digital native men and digital native women. While all of the extant literature has shown that altruism between men and women will vary, my studies would seem to indicate that digital natives almost form their own autonomous “race, religion, and gender”. This may be due to fact that these younger people have grown up in the first era in American history in which women and minorities have been consistently told that they are as good as anyone and can do anything.

Extant literature on digital natives routinely discussed how this cohort has differences in how they learn, have specific search patterns, and do not tolerate delays (Prensky, 2001, 2009). Overall, this group perceives concepts differently as they have grown up in a different time than digital immigrants. Digital immigrants would have grown up during a time where altruism involved holding the door for someone, extending a kind gesture to a stranger, or thoroughly researching a charity to donate to. Digital natives have grown up in a world where all women do not appreciate their doors being held for them, where one “does not talk to strangers”, and where one is willing to give money quickly and electronically to something online. While the altruistic, humanitarian aspects of the world can be advertised online, many of the evil things that happen around the world are advertised more. Younger people are constantly being told to be careful for fear of being swindled or hurt.

Since the existing research on gender has illustrated a difference stemming from the rearing of different sexes and, because digital natives have indicated that they have their own distinct way of thinking based upon the context in which they have been raised, the following hypothesis is offered:

**H3a: The average altruism score will be greater for digital immigrants than for digital natives.**

**H3b: There will be an interaction with gender, such that the difference will be larger for men than women**

## Methodology

### *Subjects, Design, and Procedure*

A bank of email addresses of local community members in the northeastern part of the United States were used to send out a survey to respondents. The total population included college students, seasoned professionals, middle-class taxpayers, upper-class taxpayers, and civic leaders. A stratified random sample was used by dividing up the total populations of the email banks into homogeneous subgroups – white men, white women, non-white men, and non-white women. Each person was placed exclusively into one group. I then took a simple random sample from each of these strata. This method was employed to improve the representation of the sample and to reduce sampling error. To control for expert bias and to ensure closer representation to the average donor, the email banks used were checked to ensure there was no inclusion of respondents from the information technology, website development, or online marketing fields.

A drawing for a 42-inch flat-screen was held for the first 150 respondents to incentivize them to participate in the drawing quickly. The respondents who desired to participate in the drawing included their email address in the survey for identification. I clearly disclosed to the respondents that their information would be kept confidential and only used the purpose of the drawing. Of the 409 email addresses to which the surveys were sent, 210 returned surveys were usable for this study, resulting in the response rate of 51.3%, which I deemed to be adequate. For Hypothesis 1, a 2 (Digital Nativity – Digital Native/Digital Immigrant) X 1 (Level of Altruism – Altruism Scale) between-subjects factorial design was employed. For Hypothesis 2, a 3 (Generation – Baby Boomer/Generation X/Generation Y) X 1 (Level of Altruism – Altruism Scale) between-

subjects factorial design was employed. For Hypothesis 3, a 2 (Gender – Male/Female) X 2 (Digital Nativity – Digital Native/Digital Immigrant) between-subjects factorial design was employed. All subjects in the study were asked a series of questions about nonprofit websites before and after viewing the websites. There were then are a number of demographic and psychographic questions. They also filled out a validated scale for self-reported altruism.

### Measures

There have been numerous approaches to measuring altruism in the extant literature. Empirical studies have used confirmatory factor analysis, hierarchical linear modeling, multiple regression analysis, and analysis of variance, as shown by the Table 3.1 below:

Table 3.1. Statistical Procedures in Extant Literature

<b>Statistical Procedure</b>	<b>Works Used</b>	<b>Advantages</b>
Confirmatory Factor Analysis	Anderson and Gerbing, 1988	The entire measurement model resulting from the confirmatory analysis is incorporated into the structural analysis
Hierarchical Linear Modeling	Hoffman, 1997; Moss and Barbuto, 2010	Allows researchers to examine data from two levels
Multiple Regression Analysis	Rayner, Lawton, and Williams, 2012	Good results can be obtained from relatively small data sets; uses data very efficiently
ANOVA	Jacobson, 2011; Krysiak, 2009; Park and Troisi, 2011	Ability to compare means

In the case of both Chapters 3 and 4, it is clear that the use of the analysis of variance (ANOVA) would make the most sense for my analyses, as I am attempting to do a simple comparison of means between groups.

#### *Independent Variables*

Digital natives, Digital immigrants, Generation, and Gender are independent variables in this study. Digital Nativity was self-reported in the survey by the question, “Have you personally had access to the Internet for your entire academic life (i.e since the age of 6)?” The generation was identified by the question regarding the respondent’s age, which was operationalized as “Under 30”, “31-48”, “49-66”, “67 and over” to represent the generational categories of Generation Y, Generation X, Baby Boomer, and Traditionalists, respectively. Only 3 Traditionalists completed the survey, so this generation was excluded from statistical analysis. Gender was also self-reported by the respondent simply indicating whether they are male or female. None of the subjects engaged in a different task from one another.

#### *Dependent Variables*

The dependent variable in the study is a validated scale of self-reported altruism (SRA). This scale assesses altruistic personality by asking respondents to rate on a five-point scale (1=Never to 5=Very often) how often they had performed twenty altruistic acts. The validity of the scale has been confirmed by statistically significant positive correlations being found with peer ratings and measures of comparable traits (Rushton, Chrisjohn, & Fekken, 1981) and the SRA scale is widely used as an altruism index (Bressan, Colarelli, & Cavalieri, 2009). The self-reported altruism scale was based upon Rushton, Chrisjohn, and Fekken’s (1981) survey on altruism, which has been cited 296



times in empirical literature. The average of these items was employed as an indicator of altruism. The Cronbach's alpha was .84. To test my hypothesis, I will employ the following measures: descriptive statistics, one-way ANOVA, two-way ANOVA, the Levene statistic, and the Welch test

### Hypothesis Tests

#### *Descriptive Statistics*

Below, Table 3.2 shows the total number of respondents in the analysis of Digital Native and Digital immigrants:

Table 3.2. Descriptive Statistics of Digital Nativity

<b>Cohort</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percent</b>
Digital Natives	99	47.4
Digital Immigrants	110	52.6
<b>Total</b>		100.00

There were 209 total valid responses. The digital natives represented 47.4% of the sample, or 99 respondents, while the digital immigrants represented 52.6% of the sample, or 110 respondents. The 209 respondents were deemed to be sufficient for an analysis of this complexity. The data was collected through Qualtrics®, an online survey tool used by many local universities in the northeastern section of the United States. As previously mentioned, all of the responses were self-reported using this online software tool over a one week period and the data was collected from local email banks of Universities, social groups, and community groups. Below, Table 3.3, shows the total number of respondents who were in different generational classes:

Table 3.3. Descriptive Statistics of Generation

<b>Generation</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percent</b>
Generation Y	126	60.3
Generation X	38	18.2
Baby Boomers	41	19.6
Traditionalists	4	1.9
<b>Total</b>	209	100.00

Out of the aforementioned 209 valid responses, Generation Y made up the largest group in the sample with 60.3% of the respondents. Generation X was 18.2% of the respondents, Baby Boomers were 19.6 percent of the population, and Traditionalists were 1.9% of the population. Because the Traditionalists represents such a small amount of the data set, they were not included factored into the hypotheses. This is not a large surprise in that a majority of this generation is using the internet for research, shopping and banking, as opposed to doing online surveys (Jones & Fox, 2009). The self-reported altruism survey is included in Appendix 2. The altruism continuous variable was calculated using SPSS and taking the average of twenty individual questions about altruism, comparing the responses of digital natives and digital immigrants.

#### Data Analysis

With the scores from the altruism scale (Rushton et al., 1981), a one –way ANOVA was conducted to determine whether there were any significant differences in the means of digital natives and digital immigrants with respect to altruism. To fully comply with the procedure for running the ANOVA, certain assumptions need to be verified. Those assumptions are: the existence of two independent variables, which are the digital natives and the digital immigrants; the existence of a continuous dependent variable, which is the altruism scale; the dependent variable is normally distributed; and

homogeneity of variances and independence of cases. Hence, I will employ the Levene statistic, ANOVA, and Welch test, if needed, to test Hypothesis 1. See Table 3.4 below for descriptive statistics:

Table 3.4. Descriptive Statistics of Altruism

<b>Cohort</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>SD</b>
Digital Native	99	2.81	0.52
Digital Immigrant	110	3.07	0.44
Total	209	2.95	0.50

From the descriptive statistics, the average altruism score for the respondents in the study was 2.95 (SD = 0.50). The digital natives had a mean altruism score of 2.81 (SD = 0.52) while the digital immigrants had a mean altruism score of 3.07 (SD = 0.44).

The Levene test statistics is an appropriate test to employ, as it determines the equality of different samples. In essence, this test assesses the assumption that the variances of the populations of digital natives and digital immigrants are equal. The ANOVA will be employed to assess if there is a statistically significant difference between the group means of the digital immigrants and digital natives. Hence, these methods will be used to test Hypothesis 1, 2, and 3. Table 3.5 highlights the ANOVA performed on the data:

Table 3.5. ANOVA for Altruism by Digital Nativity

	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>F</b>	<b><i>p</i> value</b>
Digital Natives	99	2.81	15.154	0.00
Digital Immigrants	110	3.07		
Total	209	2.95		

In testing altruism by digital nativity, Levene’s test for homogeneity of variances was found to not be significant,  $F(1, 207) = 2.614, p = .11$ . The analysis of variance showed that there was a statistically significant difference between the group means of digital natives and digital immigrants,  $F(1,207) = 15.154, p = .00$ .

To investigate the second hypothesis that there is a significant difference in altruism between generations, review Tables 3.6 and 3.7, which are the descriptive statistic and the ANOVA table for this analysis:

Table 3.6. Descriptive Statistics for Altruism by Generation

<b>Generation</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>SD</b>
Generation Y	126	2.84	0.52
Generation X	38	3.00	0.37
Baby Boomers	41	3.19	0.41
Traditionalists	4	3.26	0.63
Total	209	2.95	0.50

From the descriptive statistics, the average altruism score for Generation Y respondents was the lowest of the group at 2.84 (SD = 0.52) followed by Generation X at 3.00 (SD = 0.37), Baby Boomers at 3.19 (SD = 0.41), and Traditionalists at 3.26 (SD = 0.63). While Traditionalists cannot truly be considered, the scores of the four

respondents does show the trend of increasing levels of altruism as the respondents got older.

Table 3.7. ANOVA for Altruism by Generation

	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>F</b>	<b><i>p</i> value</b>
Generation Y	126	2.84	6.572	0.00
Generation X	38	3.00		
Baby Boomers	41	3.19		
Traditionalists	4	3.26		
Total	209	2.95		

Levene’s test for homogeneity of variances was found to be significant,  $F(3, 205) = 2.913, p = .04$ . This initial test would indicate that the variances are heterogeneous. There are significant differences between the groups by using the Welch test even if there was a violation of the assumption of homogeneity of variances. This may occur if sample sizes in cells are not equivalent See Table 3.8 for Welch test:

Table 3.8 – Welch Test for Altruism by Generation

	<b>Statistic</b>	<b>df1</b>	<b>df2</b>	<b><i>p</i> value</b>
Welch	6.490	3	13.992	.006

There is a statistically significant difference between generations as seen by the Welch test even though there is a violation of the assumption of homogeneity reported by the Levene’s statistic. Utilizing the Welch test, there is a statistically significant difference between the groups ( $p$  value < 0.05).

To examine the difference between Generation Y and Baby Boomers, I used planned contrasts in the ANOVA analysis to test pair-wise comparisons, as opposed to

post-hoc tests. Table 3.9 highlights the planned contrast table, which shows a significant difference between the self-reported altruism score of Generation Y and Baby Boomers,  $t(205) = 4.138, p = .00$ :

Table 3.9. Planned Contrast Test – Generation Y vs. Baby Boomers

	<b>Contrast</b>	<b>Value of Contrast</b>	<b>t</b>	<b>df</b>	<b>p value</b>
Assume equal variances	1	.3559	4.138	205	.000
Does not assume equal variances	1	.3559	4.482	84.502	.000

In investigating hypotheses 3a and 3b, the Levene’s test for homogeneity of variances was found to not be significant,  $F(3, 204) = 1.241, p = .296$ . The results of the two-way ANOVA are below in Table 3.10:

Table 3.10. ANOVA – Interaction Effect

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	P-value
Corrected Model	4.495 <sup>a</sup>	3	1.498	6.537	.000
Intercept	1701.207	1	1701.207	7422.702	.000
Gender	.002	1	.002	.008	.928
DN_DI	4.163	1	4.163	18.166	.000
Gender * DN_DI	.841	1	.841	3.670	.057
Error	46.755	204	.229		
Total	1853.828	208			
Corrected Total	51.249	207			

A two-way ANOVA was conducted to examine the effect of gender and digital nativity on altruism. Levene’s test for equality of error variances was found to not be

significant which indicated heterogeneity of variances,  $F(3, 204) = 1.241, p = .296$ .

There was a marginally significant interaction between the effects of gender and digital nativity on altruism,  $F(1, 204) = 3.670, p = .057$ . This indicates that gender and digital nativity vary with each other; however, that variation is not strong. There was also a significant difference in altruism between digital natives and digital immigrants,  $F(1, 204) = 18.166, p = .000$ , but there was not a significant difference in altruism between men and women,  $F(1, 204) = .008, p = .928$ .

Digital immigrants have higher average levels of altruism for both men (3.15 and 2.73) and women (2.85 and 3.01). However, the digital native women and digital immigrant women are much closer in average altruism. This difference in altruism is not true for all digital natives and all digital immigrants. This study shows that gender plays a role in level of altruism.

The results of the test of between subjects' effects and the charts support the third hypothesis. It is clearly shown that levels of altruism are greater for digital natives than digital immigrants and that it is more pronounced for men than for women.

### Discussion

As indicated by Table 3.11, all three hypotheses were supported in this research study:

Table 3.11. Summary of Results - Study 2

<b>Hypothesis</b>	<b>Supported?</b>
<b>Hypothesis 1: The average altruism score for digital immigrants will be significantly greater than the average altruism score for digital natives.</b>	Yes
<b>Hypothesis 2: The average altruism score will be significantly greater for Baby Boomers than the average altruism score for Generation Y.</b>	Yes
<b>H3a: The average altruism score will be greater for digital immigrants than for digital natives.</b>	Yes
<b>H3b: There will be an interaction with gender, such that the difference will be larger for men than women</b>	Marginal Yes

There were a number of conclusions that come from this study. First, there are significant differences in altruism between those who have grown up with the internet for an entire academic career and those who have not. This is helpful to marketing practitioners who work with nonprofit agencies on the creation of their marketing messages. They must investigate new ways to reach out to these donors in order to capture their interest and perhaps tap into other interests and media that is comfortable to the new generation of donors. Another interesting finding is that the study tends to confirm some of the extant literature on the differences between Generation Y and Baby Boomers, in this context, with regard to altruism. Equally as interesting is the fact that



those differences to not extend into Generation X, perhaps because a number of the Generation X respondents may have been close to the age cut-off points of the other two generations which, because of the specific question in the survey, is impossible to ascertain. Based on the extant literature on digital natives, it was a fair assumption that this group's men and women would be much similar with regard to altruism, as well as other measures. The finding that digital immigrants have higher levels of altruism is an extension of the extant literature, as well as the finding that the difference is more pronounced for men than for women. This is important to marketing managers who work with nonprofits because it gives the opportunity to create marketing messages emphasizing different traits based upon nativity and gender that are more targeted; this could reduce advertising expenditures.

## CHAPTER 4

### WILL PERCEIVED PARENTS' ALTRUISM BE DIFFERENT BASED ON DIGITAL NATIVITY, GENERATION, AND GENDER?

#### Introduction

Research into altruism as it relates to digital nativity, generation, and gender must include a reference to the genesis of this altruism. Most humans develop their tendencies from their parents or guardians. It would follow that altruism has a great chance of being learned from parents and guardians as well. Studies have shown that children's values and attitudes are greatly influenced by the teachings of their parents. This is especially true in the studies that have focused on the views of the marketplace (Heckler, Childers, & Arunachalam, 1989; Moore & Berchmans, 1996; Moore, Wilkie, & Lutz, 2002). The extent and degree to which this parental influence occurs has become an important research topic in this area. While some inroads to understanding intergenerational attitude transfer have been made, academia is still looking for more empirical research in this area (Moore, Wilkie, & Lutz, 2002). In this study, I am attempting to discover if there exists a transfer of intergenerational altruism from parents to children and whether or not there are significant differences in perceived parental altruism between (1) digital natives and digital immigrants, (2) different generations, and (3) different genders.

The concept of intergenerational influence refers to the transfer of parents' attitudes, beliefs, and values on to their children (Heckler et al., 1989). My research builds on the field of consumer socialization. This process can be defined as the process through which young people gain consumptive-related attitudes, beliefs, and values (Ward, 1974). Looking at consumptive behavior, most studies have focused on the mother as the main socialization influence (Moschis, 1985; Xu, Shim, Lotz, & Almeida,

2004). The children's culture, mass media, and friends were also seen as being influential on in their socialization (John, 1999; Moschis, 1985). However, a majority of this research did not touch on intergenerational effects over the later stages of a child's life (Viswanathan, Childers, & Moore, 2000) or how this behavior translated into charitable giving. One study by Woodson, Childers, and Winn (1976) researched intergenerational brand preference after the age of 20; however, that study specifically focused on fathers' preferences for auto insurance. Moore and Lutz were involved in two studies which investigated brand preference in low- and high-visibility products for mothers and daughters which showed some agreement as well (Moore and Lutz, 1988; Moore, Wilkie, & Lutz, 2002). In the area of innovation and opinion leadership, Arndt (1971) found that different generations overwhelmingly agreed on these factors. In Mandrik, Fern and Bao (2005), the authors determined that specific dyads within the family had brand preference agreement. While these studies do focus on agreement in consumptive practices of parents and children, they do not touch upon altruistic behavior. This leads me into Study 3.

### Hypothesis Development

Studies have shown that children's values and attitudes are greatly influenced by the teachings of the modeling of their parents' behaviors. This is especially true in the studies that have focused on the views of the marketplace (Heckler, Childers, & Arunachalam, 1989; Moore & Berchmans, 1996; Moore, Wilkie, & Lutz, 2002). The concept of intergenerational influence refers to the transfer of parents' attitudes, beliefs, and values on to their children (Heckler et al., 1989). My research builds on the field of consumer socialization. This process can be defined as the process through which young

people gain consumptive-related attitudes, beliefs, and values (Ward, 1974). Looking at consumptive behavior, most studies have focused on the mother as the main socialization influence (Moschis, 1985; Xu, Shim, Lotz, & Almeida, 2004). The children's culture, mass media, and friends were also seen as being influential on in their socialization (John,1999; Moschis, 1985). Since the extant literature does present compelling arguments that socialization between children and their parents has been present in the formation of children's attitudes, beliefs and morals, the following hypothesis is offered.

**H4: There is a significant correlation between self-reported altruism and perceived parents' altruism**

Extant research done by some psychologists has shown that those who grow up in different cultures do not just think about different things, but they have completely different ways of thinking. Their thought processes are affected by the environment in which they are raised and the culture that they have been immersed in (Luria, 1963). One of these ways of thinking may be related to the level of altruism that respondents in both cohorts will have.

The most senior generation in the study would be the Traditionalists, whose perceptions of parents' altruism were formed in the early part of the 20<sup>th</sup> century. These were children of the Great Depression and World Wars and they were socialized through hardships and scarcity. In most cases, their parents would have had to make very difficult sacrifices personally. This group tends to value family, patriotism, and be loyal and self-sacrificing (Eisner, 2005). The children of Traditionalists, or Baby Boomers, were raised in the 1950s and 1960s to feel extremely ambitious, safe, and prosperous. This group was usually received a great deal of their parents' attention and that focus

allowed them to develop the confidence to believe anything was possible (Francis-Smith, 2004; Johns, 2003). This group's perception of their parents' altruism may be affected by the fact that their parents sacrificed so much for them to be successful. The children of Baby Boomers, or Generation X, watched a group of parents who were very fast-paced and had a hard time finding a work-life balance as they existed within a sink-or-swim environment (Martin & Tulgan, 2004). This group typically lacked the social skills of their parents because of being latchkey kids. Also, because of a new global economy, they also experienced the downsizing of American businesses, became more distrustful of corporate America, and became more committed to achieving the work-life balance that their parents typically could not achieve (Eisner, 2005). Generation X's perceptions of parents' altruism are most likely conceived within the context of a young person watching their parent struggle with the forces of trying to succeed in stressful times and trying to find a way to give back at the same time. Generation Y has been said to have some of the attributes of Traditionalists (Sujansky, 2004), in that they tend to have a strong sense of morality, family values, patriotism, and gregariousness (Eisner, 2005). Since the extant literature does present compelling arguments that upbringing of the different generations has been substantially different and, as these familial differences overlap the cut-off points for digital natives and digital immigrants and those "titles" do not impact the shared life experiences of the respective generations, the following two hypotheses are offered:

**H5: The average PPA score for digital natives will be significantly greater than the average PPA score for digital immigrants.**

**H6: The average PPA score for Generation Y will be significantly greater than the average PPA score for Baby Boomers.**

With regard to differences in gender and perceived parents' altruism, there have been a number of studies that have investigated gender with regard to intergenerational influence and relationships. The concept of intergenerational influence refers to the transfer of parents' attitudes, beliefs, and values on to their children (Heckler et al., 1989). My research builds on the field of consumer socialization. This process can be defined as the process through which young people gain consumptive-related attitudes, beliefs, and values (Ward, 1974). Looking at consumptive behavior, most studies have focused on the mother as the main socialization influence (Moschis, 1985; Xu, Shim, Lotz, & Almeida, 2004). The children's culture, mass media, and friends were also seen as being influential on in their socialization (John, 1999; Moschis, 1985). However, a majority of this research did not touch on intergenerational effects over the later stages of a child's life (Viswanathan et al., 2000) or how this behavior translated into charitable giving. One study by Woodson, Childers, and Winn (1976) researched intergenerational brand preference after the age of 20; however, that study specifically focused on fathers' preferences for auto insurance. Moore and Lutz were involved in two studies which investigated brand preference in low- and high-visibility products for mothers and daughters which showed some agreement as well (Moore & Lutz, 1988; Moore, Wilkie, & Lutz, 2002).

In the area of innovation and opinion leadership, Arndt (1971) found that different generations agreed on these factors. In many of these studies, the authors were looking at the similarities between mothers and daughters and the level of agreement between the

two groups. In a majority of the studies, the authors were looking for simple agreement between the child and parent as the indicator of influence (Mandrik, Fern, & Bao, 2005; Francis & Burns, 1992; Moore & Lutz, 1988). Woodson et al. (1976) indicated that some matching of purchasing behavior of family pairs could occur purely by chance. In their 2005 article, Mandrik, Fern, and Bao tested for the existence of intergenerational effects on specific items to ascertain brand preferences partially because children may be influenced by parents with regard to price and quality relationships, but not completely adopt a parent's viewpoint. Eswaran and Kotwal (2004) discussed how gender differences in parental altruism can stem from that fact that female fertility is constrained while male fertility can be relatively unconstrained. These authors concluded that our male and female preferences for altruism are shaped early on towards your children. Since the extant literature does present compelling arguments that different genders' upbringing and nurturing can influence perceptions of altruism and preference, the following hypothesis are offered:

**H7: The average PPA score for women will be significantly greater than the average PPA score for digital men.**

#### Methodology

##### *Subjects, Design, and Procedure*

A majority of the consumer-socialization studies in extant literature have focused on a broad context (Moschis, 1988) as opposed to a specific one like online giving. This methodology was the exact same as in Study 2. For Hypothesis 4, a Pearson's product-moment correlation is used. For Hypothesis 5, a 2 (Digital Nativity – Digital Native/Digital Immigrant) X 1 (Level of Perceived Parents' Altruism – Parents' Altruism

Scale) between-subjects factorial design was employed. For Hypothesis 6, a 3 (Generation – Baby Boomer/Generation X/Generation Y) X 1 (Level of Perceived Parents’ Altruism – Parents’ Altruism Scale) between-subjects factorial design was employed. For Hypothesis 7, a 2 (Gender – Male/Female) X 1 (Level of Perceived Parent’s Altruism – Parents’ Altruism Scale) between-subjects factorial design was employed. All subjects in the study were asked the same series of questions about nonprofit websites as in Study 2.

### Measures

At the writing of this dissertation, parental altruism had not been discussed in the extant, peer reviewed literature. A scale was developed and piloted that measures parental altruism and it was validated in the pilot and Study 1. For this study, analysis of variance (ANOVA) would be the most appropriate measure as I am comparing group means.

### *Independent Variables*

The independent variables were the same as in Study 2.

### *Dependent Variables*

The dependent variables in the study are two validated scales of self-reported altruism and perceived parent’s altruism. The self-reported altruism scale was based on the validated scale from Chapter 2. The perceived parents’ altruism scale was piloted tested in the pretest and found to be reliable.

### Data Analysis

In regards to perceived parents’ altruism, there were no existing measures available in extant literature. I developed a scale of parents’ altruism, which I pilot tested



in the first study in Chapter 2. This scale was proven reliable with an inter-item reliability (Cronbach’s alpha) of .707. A Cronbach’s alpha of greater than .7 has been found to be reliable in a large number of studies in multiple countries (Madlock & Booth-Butterfield, 2012; Raza, Zia, Naqvi, & Ali, 2012; Hartog & Belschak, 2012).

Similar to Chapter 3, I am using the ANOVA in this study for the simplicity of the calculation and for the hypothesis that I am putting forward. For this study, I will employ the following measures: descriptive statistics, one-way ANOVA, the Levene statistic, and the Welch test. For Hypothesis 4, I am incorporating the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient to show the measure of the strength and direction of association that exists between respondents’ self-reported altruism and perceived parents’ altruism. With the Pearson correlation, the degree of relationship could be either positive or negative and the maximum number could be either +1 or -1 while a zero correlation indicates that no relationship exists.

### Hypothesis Tests

#### *Descriptive Statistics*

Table 4.1 below shows the descriptive statistics of the Pearson correlation:

Table 4.1. Descriptive Statistics for Altruism and Parents’ Altruism

	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean (M)</b>	<b>Standard Deviation (SD)</b>
Self-Reported Altruism	209	2.95	0.50
Perceived Parents' Altruism	209	3.50	0.88

There were a total of 209 respondents who completed this portion of the survey. The self-reported altruism scale was a validated scale based on Rushton, Chrisjohn, and Fekken's (1981) survey on altruism. The Cronbach's alpha was .84. It was a Likert scale that went from 1=Never to 5=Very Often. The mean score of the self-reported altruism scale was 2.95 (SD = .50). Perceived parents' altruism was validated in the pilot study. The Cronbach's alpha was .707. This was the average of 3 questions on altruism averaged to one measure. See Appendix 3 to view the scale. This was also a Likert scale that went from 1=Strongly Disagree to 5=Strongly Agree. The mean score of the parents' altruism scale was 3.50 (SD = .88). This correlation is put in place to measure the direction and strength of self-reported altruism and perceived parents' altruism. H4 dealt with the extent to which self-reported and parents' altruism are correlated. The Pearson product-moment correlation was run to determine the relationship between the respondents' self-reported altruism and their perceived parents' altruism. There was a positive correlation between self-reported altruism and perceived parents' altruism. This would be considered a moderately small effect,  $r(209) = .207, p = .003$ . Thus, H4 is supported.

#### Digital Nativity and Perceived Parents' Altruism

H5 predicts that there will be a significant difference between digital natives and digital immigrants in perceived parents' altruism. Levene's Statistic was used to investigate the homogeneity of variances between digital natives and digital immigrants. An ANOVA was administered to test this hypothesis with digital nativity as the independent variable and perceived parents' altruism as the dependent variable. A Welch

test was administered as a robust test of equality of means. Refer to Table 4.2 for descriptive statistics:

Table 4.2. Descriptive Statistics for Digital Nativity and Parents' Altruism

	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean (M)</b>	<b>Standard Deviation (SD)</b>
Digital Natives	98	3.63	0.77
Digital Immigrants	109	3.40	0.89
Total	207	3.51	0.84

From the descriptive statistics, the table shows 98 respondents who are digital natives and 109 respondents who are digital immigrants. The average perceived parents' altruism (PPA) score is 3.51 (SD = 0.84). The digital natives' average PPA score is 3.63 (SD = 0.77) while digital immigrants' average PPA score is 3.40 (SD = 0.89). This illustrates that digital natives scored their parents higher in PPA than digital immigrants. Levene's test indicates heterogeneity of variances,  $F(1, 205) = 2.202, p = .139$ . Analysis of variance shows a statistically significant difference between the group means of digital natives and digital immigrants,  $F(1,205) = 4.010, p = .047$ . Thus, the null hypothesis is rejected and H5 is supported, as seen in Table 4.3 for these findings:

Table 4.3. ANOVA for Digital Nativity and Parents' Altruism

	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>p value</b>
Digital Natives	98	3.63	4.01	0.047
Digital Immigrants	109	3.40		
Total	207	3.51		

H6 predicts that there is a significant difference between the generations and perceived parent's altruism. Levene's test indicates homogeneity of variances,  $F(3, 203) = 1.607, p = .189$ . Analysis of variance shows that generations and PPA are not significantly different,  $F(3, 203) = 1.704, p = 0.167$ ; thus H0 is supported, as seen in Table 4.4:

Table 4.4. ANOVA for Generations and Parents' Altruism

	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>p value</b>
Generation Y	125	3.61	1.704	0.17
Generation X	38	3.30		
Baby Boomers	40	3.40		
Traditionalists	4	3.42		
Total	207	3.51		

H7 predicts that there is a statistically significant difference between gender and perceived parents' altruism. Levene's test indicates homogeneity of variances,  $F(1, 204) = 2.871, p = .092$ . Analysis of variance shows a statistically significant difference between the group means of men and women,  $F(1, 204) = 5.789, p = .02$ . Thus, the null hypothesis is rejected. H7 is supported, as seen in Table 4.5:

Table 4.5. ANOVA for Gender and Parents' Altruism

	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>p value</b>
Men	84	3.35	5.789	0.02
Women	122	3.63		
Total	205	3.51		

### Discussion and Conclusions

Based on the findings of this study, Table 4.6 is offered to review the hypotheses:

Table 4.6. Summary of Results – Study 3

Hypothesis	Supported?
<b>Hypothesis 4: There is a significant correlation between self-reported altruism and perceived parent’s altruism</b>	Yes (moderately small effect)
<b>Hypothesis 5: The average PPA score for digital natives will be significantly greater than the average PPA score for digital immigrants.</b>	Yes
<b>Hypothesis 6: The average PPA score for Generation Y will be significantly greater than the average PPA score for Baby Boomers.</b>	No
<b>Hypothesis 7: The average PPA score for women will be significantly greater than the average PPA score for men.</b>	Yes

Of the four hypotheses proposed in the study, two hypotheses were confirmed and two were rejected. The results obtained from the second hypothesis indicate that there is a significant relationship between digital nativity and perceived parents’ altruism. Digital natives perceived their parents to be more altruistic than their digital immigrant counterparts. This may be a factor of all of the different ways to give in the computer age; it would be much easier for their parents to donate in a variety of fashions. It also may be a statement on the generation that their parents grew up in. The results obtained from the fourth hypothesis indicate that there is a significant relationship between gender and perceived parents’ altruism. Women perceive their parents to be more altruistic than their male counterparts. This may be a factor of women being closer with their mothers and it reaffirms the research on daughters knowing about their mothers’ marketplace orientations (Mandrik, Fern & Bao, 2005). One interesting findings was that generation did not show a statistically significant difference with respect to perceived parents’ altruism, although digital nativity was significant. Perhaps this highlights the fact that,

for previous generations, charitable giving was more a formal, solemn event. In online giving, there is no formality to the event. This difference seems to exist across the digital dividing line.

## CHAPTER 5

### CONCLUDING DISCUSSION

#### *Summary of Findings*

The considerable body of work on online effectiveness, altruism, and intergenerational values transfer has led to a number of meaningful insights for researchers. This research extends those findings into the contexts of online giving, digital nativity, and generation. It has been well-documented that there is a great degree of interest each of these concepts (Bart et. al., 2005; Bennett, 2009). There seem to be some key differences in attraction to nonprofit websites, altruism across the different context, and perceived parents' altruism across contexts from this research. The first exploratory study addressed six research questions. The first question sought to discover differences in digital nativity with respect to trust. In the websites for Custodial Abuse and Red Cross, digital natives showed significantly more trust than digital immigrants. For the second research question, I researched if there were differences in the reasons that digital natives gave to websites compared to digital immigrants. I was able to determine that Custodial Abuse, Dalit Freedom Network, and UNICEF showed significantly different results between digital natives and immigrants. After calculating z-scores on those significant results, I found that the proportions were significantly different for "Who the Nonprofit affiliates themselves with" for all three sites. In each case, digital natives were more concerned about the nonprofits' chosen affiliations. This is an interesting finding for marketing managers because this informs them, if they are going to try to solicit donations from digital natives, to spend a good deal of time analyzing who their spokespeople are. Also, with regard to affiliation, it would seem as though digital

immigrants are more susceptible to learning about these nonprofits from friends. For example, I have giving to nonprofits recently, not because of their mission, but because my friends were affiliated with those causes or were affected by the causes. This dynamic may be especially strong with digital natives, as they have grown up more dependent on the online environment. In the next research question, I explored concerned whether digital natives and digital immigrants spent different amounts of time viewing the nonprofit websites. In reviewing the cross tabulations from Qualtrics®, I was able to determine that there was a significant difference in the amount of time viewing Custodial Abuse, UNICEF, and St. Jude Children’s Research Hospital. When reviewing the tests of two proportions, I made several determinations. First, there were significant differences in the proportion of digital native viewers compared to digital immigrant viewers who took a quick glance at the site. Second, the proportion of digital natives who took the quick glance was significantly higher than immigrants. With UNICEF, there were significant differences in the proportion of digital native viewers compared to digital immigrant viewers who took a quick glance at the site and spent a short amount of time on the site. The proportion of digital natives who took the quick glance and spent a short amount of time was significantly higher than immigrants. With St. Jude Children’s Hospital, there were significant differences in the proportion of digital native viewers compared to digital immigrant viewers who took a quick glance at the site, spent a short amount of time, and spent a good amount of time on the site. The proportion of digital natives who took the quick glance and spent a good amount of time was significantly higher than immigrants. The proportion of digital immigrants who spent a short amount of time was significantly higher than natives. By understanding



which groups spend different amounts of time reviewing the sites, it informs marketing managers of the strength of the stimulus that they need to include on the site. My next research question inquired about whether donation behavior would change after having the opportunity to view the websites, even though the respondents were able to view the mission statement before making the initial donation. Once again, there was a significant change in donation behavior for three of the websites – Custodial Abuse, Dalit Freedom Network, and the Red Cross. In reviewing these three sites, I investigated each respondent of these three sites to see whose donation stayed the same, whose donation increased, and whose donation decreased; then, I investigated the main reasons that respondents wanted to give to the sites to see if I could determine reasons for the increase or decrease. For both Custodial Abuse and Dalit Freedom Network, there was a relationship between the change in donation and reasons that the respondent would give to the site. In both cases, who the nonprofit was affiliated with seemed to make a difference. For the Red Cross, there was not a significant difference between the “amounts” of change between those who did not change their donation, those whose donation went up, and those whose donation went down. For the final research question in Chapter 1, I examined if digital natives and digital immigrants have different levels of online confidence towards online donating by running a one-way ANOVA. The results of the ANOVA showed that there was not a significant difference in the feelings of confidence in donating online between digital natives and digital immigrants. This may be a result of the fact that the survey was delivered online; therefore, whoever finished the survey would have some computer acumen. However, it does indicate that the

average respondent in the sample were relatively similar in their comfort level in donating online.

The key implication of Chapter 1 dealt with website development and differentiation strategy relating to who the site or, specifically, pages in the site, as nonprofits would want to attract dollars from all donors) targets. For example, when marketing to digital natives, nonprofit web site designers should try to affiliate their brand with someone who natives admire whereas making a special focus on the mission may be more effective for digital immigrants. Also, advertising the nonprofit through social media channels may be more effective for natives, as they may be much more sensitive to which of their friends is affiliating themselves with a particular cause. Although I only studied six websites, I can reasonably generalize the implications to a larger body of site categories based on those attributes.

The second essay of this dissertation explains the differences in altruism between gender, generations, and digital natives and immigrants. Extant literature has been close to nonexistent with regard to altruism and digital nativity (Prensky, 2009), very sparse with regard to generation (Barford and Hester, 2011; Beekman, 2011; Cogin, 2012), and copious regarding altruism with respect to gender (Bakan, 1966; Eswaran and Kotwal, 2004; Kamas et al., 2008). However, authors have not researched the differences in altruism with regard to digital native women and men. The findings of this study indicate that there is a statistically significant difference between levels of altruism between digital natives and digital immigrants. This supported my hypothesis which was based upon the literature review. Extant literature has championed the fact that growing up in the digital age has impacted the values, skills, and abilities of digital natives and may

even have caused a change in the actual functioning of their brains (Prensky, 2009). This extends previous research because the extant research traditionally investigated digital natives individual preferences for digital media and consumption behavior (Prensky, 2009) while this research specifically investigated levels of altruism. My research into generational differences in altruism also showed that there was a significant difference in generation from the analysis of variance. Under closer inspection, I found that the difference lay with Generation Y and Baby Boomers. By running a Tukey HSD test, I could see that the average altruism score of a Generation Y respondent was .355 lower than the average altruism response of a Baby Boomer. This difference in altruism may be the result of differences in upbringing. Barford and Hester (2011) described in their studies of workforce motivation a portrait of Generation Y that ascribed different levels of importance and happiness to issues such as free time and responsibility. Beekman (2011) discussed how Generation Y can be very patient and need more reassurance. While Generation Y is beginning to develop some of the characteristics of the Traditionalists, perhaps they are not as patient to achieve those goals as their counterparts of the early 20<sup>th</sup> century. Finally, in addressing the third hypothesis of the second study, there was a marginally significant interaction between the effects of gender and digital nativity on altruism. There was also a significant difference in altruism between digital natives and digital immigrants, but there was not a significant difference in altruism between men and women. Digital immigrants had higher average levels of altruism for both men and women. However, the digital native women and digital immigrant women are much closer in average altruism. While the studies on communion

versus agency are still compelling (Bakan, 1966), it appears as though men are farther apart in measures of altruism than women are based on digital nativity.

The third study investigated perceived parent's altruism by digital natives and immigrants, generation, and gender. Concerning the correlation between the self-reported altruism of the respondents and their perceived parents' altruism, I determined that there not a very strong correlation at all. This is a very interesting finding in light of the intergenerational literature that promotes the translation of values from parent to child (Heckler et al., 1989). This led me to investigate how this finding differs based on the digital nativity, generation, and gender. Regarding perceived parents' altruism by digital nativity, there was a significant difference in the perceptions of parents' altruism between digital natives and digital immigrants. One reason for this discrepancy may be the differences in donation options that were available for the parents of the two groups or differences in upbringing. Digital natives' parents have the opportunity to give to any one of 1.5 million charities, many of which are online. This ease of donation may have an effect on those feelings of altruism. This makes the next finding that much more compelling. The data shows no significant difference between generations with regard to altruism. This begs the question – what is the major difference between digital nativity and generational difference in this instance? This presents an interesting conundrum for future research. Finally, there was a significant difference between perceived parents' altruism and gender, which primarily runs in concert with existing literature on intergenerational value transfer (Eswaran and Kotwal, 2004).

Table 5.1 offers a summary of the findings from the descriptive components of this dissertation:

Table 5.1. Summary of Hypotheses and Results – Studies 2 & 3

Hypothesis	Supported?
<b>STUDY #2</b>	
<b>Hypothesis 1: The average altruism score for digital immigrants will be significantly greater than the average altruism score for digital natives.</b>	Yes
<b>Hypothesis 2: The average altruism score will be significantly greater for Baby Boomers than the average altruism score for Generation Y.</b>	Yes
<b>Hypothesis 3a: The average altruism score will be greater for digital immigrants than for digital natives.</b> <b>Hypotheses 3b: There will be an interaction with gender, such that the difference will be larger for men than women</b>	Yes; Marginal Yes
<b>STUDY #3</b>	
<b>Hypothesis 4: There is a significant correlation between self-reported altruism and perceived parents' altruism</b>	No
<b>Hypothesis 5: The average PPA score for digital natives will be significantly greater than the average PPA score for digital immigrants.</b>	Yes
<b>Hypothesis 6: The average PPA score for Generation Y will be significantly greater than the average PPA score for Baby Boomers.</b>	No
<b>Hypothesis 7: The average PPA score for women will be significantly greater than the average PPA score for men.</b>	Yes

### Implications

Managers can use the results of dissertation to improve their communications with donors and refine their marketing messages. Study 1 has a number of implications for marketing managers, nonprofits executive directors, and web designers. First and foremost, it offers insight into the fact that nonprofit web site donors can be swayed by the same type stimuli that sway consumers of for-profit sites. Extant research has not adequately addressed this fact. In reviewing the preferred attributes, time viewing sites,

and the determinants of website giving, marketing managers can change their messages and cues to target different generations of donors based on those factors.

Study 2 reviews which groups on the study had different levels of altruism. This is an important concept from an advertising perspective because, if certain target groups are more altruistic than others, a marketing manager might want to adjust the appeals in an advertisement to donors. In their advertising, many nonprofits will put forth one marketing message or simply depend on their mission statement to bring in donations. Moreover, when the concept of advertising a charity to some in Generation Y is approached, it is usually done by simply putting pictures of younger people on advertisements. By understanding the levels of altruism of cohorts and generations, it allows marketing managers to focus on messages that specifically appeal to that cohort or generation. For example, if Baby Boomers are found to be more altruistic than Generation Y, advertising messages to them should touch more on the emotional feelings to donating whereas appeals to Generation Y might be more focused on who the nonprofit is affiliated with or potential giveaways for donating. The lack of a significant difference in altruism between digital native men and digital native women could present a cost reduction opportunity to nonprofit. Traditionally, advertisers might create two separate advertising campaigns or separate messages to appeal to men and women. This finding may signal that these potential donors will be affected by the same messages and only one campaign need be made.

Study 3 offers numerous insights as well. The finding that a donor's self-reported altruism is not highly correlated with perceived parents' altruism shows a potential generational rift between what respondents value versus what their parents

value. This is important in the messaging that goes out to potential donors; any messaging that assumes that the values and beliefs of the donor would naturally correspond to those of their parents may be false. Investigating the concept further, I did find that there was a statistically significant difference between the perceptions of parents' altruism between digital natives and digital immigrants. This may be a function of the ease of donation in the digital context versus the older methods of mail-in donations and fundraisers. Marketing managers can use this information to craft marketing messages that incorporate the parent-child relationship in different ways in the advertising. The finding that perceived parents' altruism was not significantly impacted by generation ran counter to the digital native finding and may indicate that differences between those raised in the online world have marked differences that are not captured by the generation measure. The finding that gender is a statistically significant driver of perceived parents' altruism is a very important piece of information for marketing managers. The advertisements that incorporate women and their parents doing altruistic activities together may be more effective than one with a man and his parents. So, marketing efforts that target women with respect to approaching their parents for giving may be more effective than marketing efforts directed towards men.

Overall, each of these implications could steer nonprofit marketing strategy for organizations. These organizations can make decisions on the specific cues in their advertising based on these differing levels of self-reported altruism, perceived parents' altruism, and responses to online appeals. For example, if digital immigrants are found to have higher self-reported altruism scores, then advertising towards this group may focus more on the positive feelings of giving while advertisements towards digital natives may

be focused more on who the nonprofit affiliates themselves with. In terms of gender, if women perceive their parents to be more altruistic, advertising that is directed towards women may include scenes of participating in altruistic activities with her parents.

### Limitations and Further Research

My dissertation has a number of limitations that further research can address. The first limitation stems from the fact that all three studies were written based on the same sample. In many cases, a three-study dissertation will have three independently drawn samples, which creates a larger pool of data to diffuse some of the bias and create better validity. This work should certainly be replicated with a larger sample size and three different samples, which would be a potential area of future research. Also, the studies should be replicated using other nonprofit websites. While these sites were specifically chosen because they were the three most popular and three least popular sites from the pilot study, they are not necessarily the most representative sites in the nonprofit world. Future research may conduct the analysis based on a larger number of sites in different nonprofit categories. Secondly, whereas online donation preference has a dynamic nature, this study is cross-sectional. Because it only looks at one moment in time, it may not be the most accurate representation of how donors will feel about these websites over their lifespan. Individuals are forced to make decisions in seconds that many donors make take weeks or months to decide in real time. An opportunity to conduct future research on donation and site preferences in a longitudinal study may provide some insight into how well-known nonprofits are able to cultivate donors for long periods of time. Third, the interaction between drivers of website preference and donation, such as between brand strength and amount of time spent on the website could be explored. This



was outside the purview of this research, but it certainly has merit for future consideration. Fourth, the introduction of more data on multidimensional measures of online trust and other variables, such as the off-line presence, could help to explore more antecedents of online trust. Fifth, the research could be extended through behavioral experiments that alter the specific web site drivers such as the logos and coloring of the nonprofit websites to see if the alleviation of the “brand” (for the strong brands) alters the donation amounts and trust. Future research could show popular nonprofits without the well-known logos to see if donors respond to the brand or the construction of the site. This would be an interesting take on the research as we could discover which brands are the strongest. Studies have shown that Coca-Cola is has the most brand equity of any global brand. It may be interesting to determine which nonprofit has the most brand equity as well. Sixth, a majority of the respondents in the survey were from the mid-Atlantic region of the United States and were well educated. If the survey was administered in different states and for different social class, the results may have differed. Seventh, my categorization of who is a digital native could be more refined. I used the question, “Have you had the internet for your entire academic life (i.e. since six years of age)?” as my cutoff between digital natives and digital immigrants. However, if a person came to this country in the third, fourth, or fifth grade, and learned the internet then, would they be a digital immigrant? In my future research, I will do a better job in defining this concept, as it is central to the paper. Also, the access to “screen time” on the computer would be an important factor in adaptation to the digital native lifestyle. In terms of how I conducted the analysis, I use ANOVA throughout. In future research, I would attempt to discover more variables that contribute to self-reported altruism and

perceived parents' altruism. For example, I ran a linear regression with self-reported altruism as the dependent variable and the five independent variables that I captured in my study, which were as follows: knowing anyone who has received aid from a nonprofit; digital nativity; age; gender; and household income. These five factors only explained 14.1% of the variation in self-reported altruism,  $R^2 = .141$ ,  $F(5, 103) = 3.378$ ,  $p = .01$ . Both age,  $\beta = .265$ ,  $p = .02$ , and knowing someone who has received aid,  $\beta = -.24$ ,  $p = .01$ , were found to have a significant impact in SRA score. For perceived parents' altruism, the linear regression model was marginally significant. The five factors only explained 8.9% of the variation,  $R^2 = .089$ ,  $F(5, 102) = 1.987$ ,  $p = .09$ . Only knowing someone who has received aid,  $\beta = -.209$ ,  $p = .04$ , had a significant impact on PPA score. Discovering the additional factors that describe the variance in these models could provide great insights. Also, in the exploratory study, the use of a multinomial logit analysis may have led to more robust statistics with regard to investigating the differences between the fraction of respondents falling into time cells for digital natives and digital immigrants. Future research should consider using more robust statistically methods. Finally, we discussed how affiliation has an impact on decisions to alter giving before and after viewing the web pages. However, future research may investigate what types of affiliation are the strongest. For example, affiliation could mean that your friends are advocates of the site or it could mean that a donor is interested in celebrity endorsements. That can be detailed more in future research. The morals and values of this particular part of the country may be different than other parts of the country. The same rationale could be used with generations in the study. Baby Boomers in the state of Delaware may be markedly different than Baby Boomers in California. Future research

may center on researching if the findings of this study can be translated to different regions of the United States or internationally. In regards to the scales that were used, the parents' altruism scale only used three questions. While the Cronbach's alpha of this measurement deemed it reliable, it may be advantageous to develop more thorough scales of parents' altruism in the future. In Study 2, my third hypothesis investigated differences in altruism between digital native men and digital native women. The amount of digital native men in the study dropped to 36 respondents as opposed to the 62 digital native female respondents. In running an ANOVA, the numbers of respondents should be approximately equal; this may negate some of the validity of this finding. Another area of opportunity may be investigating the correlation between self-reported altruism and perceived parents' altruism moderated by digital nativity. With regard to the correlation between self-reported altruism and perceived parents' altruism, I did not separate that by digital nativity

In the third study, there may be many other factors that influence the giving habits of children including financial status, marital status, having their own children, and life experience. Some critics warn that assumptions about that the skill and responsiveness of digital natives to digital technology is not backed by enough empirical evidence (Bennett, Maton, & Kervin, 2008). Hargittai (2010) profiled the skills of younger adults in a college setting and his findings did not support the contention that young adults are universally knowledgeable. In future research, a larger sample for each hypothesis may clear up much of the ambiguity of the findings. Also, further research should investigate the differences in perceived parents' altruism by digital nativity and generation. Most notably, does this have to do with specific components of the online environment?

Finally, I made the decision to classify by digital nativity, generation, and gender. I did not choose to classify by income, parents' income, geography, or online confidence which could have yielded different results in the analysis. Wealth could certainly be a factor in donor behavior and should be considered in the strategic planning of nonprofit organizations. For example, it is possible that a digital native from America could respond differently than one from Europe. Those classifications were outside of the purview of this review but may serve as the focus of additional research. Also, management utilization is limited, in that the exploratory simply explored six websites, which certainly does not encompass the entire universe of sites and characteristics. Self-reported altruism and perceived parents' altruism are only two of many variables that contribute to whether or not a donor will give to a website. Additional research on who is most likely to give and what should organization does to stimulate these donors is an obvious next stage of future research. While the studies do have a number of limitations and areas for future research, I do believe that they provide an excellent foundation for research in my field.

### Conclusion

This study empirically shows the influences of web site attributes and generational and cohort characteristics on trust and donation behavior. This research has shown that, while extant research has focused on altering site characteristics can affect purchase behavior in for-profit sites, it also has the ability to influence donation behavior as well. I have shown that three of the websites showed differences in how much time digital natives and digital immigrants viewed the sites. As I stated in the Limitations sections, the introduction of new websites could alter this result. However, it does prove

that there are certain sites that garner more attention from different cohorts. Also, digital immigrants chose to defer viewing the websites, which could be a commentary on their familiarity with the nonprofit or their inexperience and discomfort with looking through the website. I discovered that, similar to commercial sites, donation behavior could be altered by the web environment. Even though the respondent could read the mission of the organizations, some of them chose to alter their donation behavior after seeing the site. I also discovered that there could be differences attributes of sites that Digital natives favored compared to Digital immigrants. The same can be said about the main reason why certain cohorts would give to the site. I believe that this research could greatly influence the future of marketing with respect to giving. I look forward to conducting more research in the future on this area.

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Appendix A  
EMAIL COMMUNICATION

Dear <<>>,

Please consider completing this survey, which is a partial fulfillment for my dissertation research on online donating. As a caveat, if you work in the information technology, web site design, or marketing fields, please do not complete the survey as your experience may bias the survey results. Thank you for your commitment to education and our community.

Kind regards,

Dan Young

Ph.D. Candidate, Temple University

Appendix B  
SRA SCALE

1. I have helped to push a stranger's car out of the snow
2. I have given directions to a stranger
3. I have made change for a stranger
4. I have given money to charity
5. I have given money to a stranger who needed it (or asked me for it)
6. I have donated goods or clothes to charity
7. I have done volunteer work for charity
8. I have donated blood
9. I have helped carry a stranger's belongings (books, packages, etc.)
10. I have delayed an elevator and held the door open for a stranger
11. I have allowed someone to go ahead of me in a line (at a copier, in the supermarket, etc.)
12. I have given a stranger a ride in my car
13. I have pointed out a clerk's error (in a bank, at the supermarket) in undercharging me for an item
14. I have let a neighbor whom I didn't know too well borrow an item of some value to me (e.g., a dish, tools, etc.)
15. I have bought "charity" Christmas cards deliberately because I knew it was a good cause
16. I have helped a classmate who I did not know that well with a homework assignment when my knowledge was greater than his or hers

17. I have, before being asked, voluntarily looked after a neighbor's pets or children without being paid for it
18. I have offered to help a handicapped or elderly stranger across the street
19. I have offered my seat on a bus or train to a stranger who was standing
20. I have helped an acquaintance to move households

Appendix C  
PPA SCALE

1. My parents or guardians enjoyed giving money to charity while I was growing up
2. My parents or guardians enjoyed volunteering their time to help others while I was growing up
3. My parents or guardians would have said “to whom much is given, much is expected” while I was growing up