

THE IMPACT OF FRAMING ON DONATION BEHAVIOR: A RESEARCH AGENDA

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ABSTRACT

Purpose - Intense competition in today's world has forced nonprofit organizations to dwell into marketing practices to get more share of the individuals' donation budget in order to achieve their mission and objectives. The aim of this study is to understand how nonprofit organizations should frame their donation calls as part of their marketing strategy.

Methodology – This paper aims to provide the key literature on the donor and donation related factors which have an impact on donation behavior and sets a research agenda in order to explore the relationships between framing of the donation messages, religious orientation, mindset and donation behavior.

Findings- Subsequently, the paper posits several propositions for future empirical testing.

Conclusion- This paper intends to make theoretical and managerial contributions not only to donation literature but also to the message framing literature. This paper highlights the next step to examine the relationships proposed and provide empirical evidence for the relationships between the constructs of donation type, donation behavior, religious orientation and mindset.

Keywords: Donation, message framing, monetary donation, nonmonetary donation, nonprofit organization, religious orientation.

JEL Codes: M10, M14, M31

1. INTRODUCTION

Nonprofit organizations were not used to focus on marketing but in today's world there is intense competition to get the most out of the limited amount of funds available to them from individual donors, the government, corporations, and foundations (Bendapaudi et al., 1996; Gwin, 2000; Hassay and Peloza, 2007). This challenge has resulted in increasing interest in marketing by nonprofit sector (Clarke and Mount, 2001;) so that nonprofit organizations started to focus on understanding what motivates individuals and institutions to donate (Pope et al. 2009) and on message framing for donation calls since message framing is found to be an important factor in nonprofit organizations' marketing campaigns (Grau and Folse, 2007). Sixty eight percent of total charitable giving in the United States of America came from individuals (Giving USA, 2018). The rest consisted of donations by foundations, bequests and corporations. These figures indicate that individual donations are significant part of nonprofit organizations' income. Peltier et al. (2002) suggest that most nonprofit organizations have not gained full understanding of their donor behavior and what can be done to influence those behaviors. Thus, nonprofit organizations should improve their strategies to keep and get more share of the individuals' donation budgets.

Firstly, it is important to note that to donate is a behavioral decision (Correa et al. 2015). Willingness to donate is defined as the extent to which an individual shows readiness to volunteer or to donate money (DeVoe and Pfeffer,2007). Individuals who supply the nonprofit organization different types of resources are called donors / volunteers / supporters and are described as one of the marketing mix elements in nonprofit marketing (Barry, 1995). Sargeant (1999) claims that donors' willingness to donate is crucial and the resources they provide are important especially for the small nonprofit organization which is unable to accumulate resources alone. "Gift exchange between the individual and the corporate group is less frequently described and less perfectly understood than other types of giving" (Sherry, 1983, p.161). Therefore, we need a deeper understanding of the dynamics between donors and nonprofit organizations in donation behavior. Previous studies in donation domain have focused intensively on the extrinsic factors such as donors' age, gender, education, income, residency, race. (Sargeant et al.,2006). Intrinsic factors such as donors' belief, values, feelings, motivation and religion have been studied extensively as well (Bennett, 2003; Sargeant, 1999; Schlegelmilch et al., 1997). Despite the growing body of literature about donor related factors that have an impact on willingness to donate the findings are contradictory. Moreover, donation related factors have not been examined much. One of these factors is the communication of donation request to donors; i.e. how the donation call is framed. How the donation call is framed has an impact on donors' mindset; thus, influencing donation behavior (Liu and Aaker, 2008). The framing of the donation call may create different mental associations and influence how people interpret events. Sargeant et al. (2006) found that communication of nonprofit organizations was perceived as important by the donors. Marketing communications affect the donor's perception of the quality of the services provided by the organization and thus influence donation behavior (Peltier et al., 2002).

It is evident that there is still a need for research that examines the impact of framing of the donation; i.e. donation type; on donation behavior and its interaction with one of the intrinsic factors; i.e. religious orientation. Religious people feel more inclined to give back (Women's Philanthropy Institute, 2014). As 84% of the world's population has some form of religious beliefs (PEW, 2012), it is important to understand how religiosity influences individuals to engage in donation behavior. This paper aims to summarize the donor and donation related factors and sets a research agenda in order to explore the relationship between framing of the donation request, religious orientation, mindset and donation behavior.

The following section reviews the relevant literature by focusing on extrinsic and intrinsic factors affecting donation behavior. Then some propositions are offered in order to set a research agenda for future empirical testing regarding the relationships between donation types, message framing and religious orientation. The final section concludes with a discussion about the potential contribution of this research agenda to the donation field.

2. FACTORS AFFECTING DONATION BEHAVIOR

2.1. Extrinsic factors related to the donor

Major extrinsic factors in donation include age, gender, social class, race (Sargeant et al., 2006). However, the findings of previous studies on extrinsic factors are not consistent.

Although it is found that age is positively correlated with volunteering (Bussell and Forbes, 2002; Radley and Kennedy, 1995), there is differing results. Some earlier research indicates that the amount of monetary donations increases with age but declines after the age of 65 (Danko and Stanley, 1986). Some others demonstrate that volunteering peaks at the age of 40 (Herzog et al., 1989; Menchik and Weisbrod, 1987) and declines in older ages (Table 1.).

While certain studies suggest that women, whether single or married, will donate more frequently than single or married men (Andreoni et al., 2001; Lee and Chang, 2007; Mesch et al., 2011; Women's Philanthropy Institute, 2010), others find no relationship regarding gender and donation (Belfield and Beney, 2000; Bryant et al., 2003). Nowell and Tinkler (1994) assert that, all other things being equal, women made higher contributions to charities. Similarly, Newman (1996) finds that women are more likely than men to donate when they see an urgent need. There is no significant gender difference in the case of risky financial situations, however, when there is no financial risk women are more willing to donate (Eckel and Grossman, 2000). Women donate more money because of their demonstrated tendencies to be more altruistic and empathetic than men (Dufwenberg and Muren, 2006; Eckel and Grossman, 1998; Simmons and Emanuele, 2007). Chrenka et al. (2003) who looked only at single men and women who headed households demonstrate that women tend to be more generous with their contribution. Married couples are proven to donate more than singles (Mesch et al., 2011; Lee and Chang, 2007) (Table 1.).

Education has been found to be one of the most reliable predictors of donation behavior (McPherson and Rotolo, 1996; Sundeen and Raskoff, 1994). Chrenka et al. (2003) has found that individuals with greater than a high school degree are more likely to make donations than those with less education. Scheepers and Grotenhuis (2005) findings support to the fact that people who are highly educated are more likely to be involved in donation. Highly educated people have been found to be more altruistic (Yen, 2002) and donate more (Andreoni et al., 2003). Again, since highly educated people are more aware of societal problems and are more altruistic, they volunteer more (Yen, 2002). Research by Kitchen and Dalton (1990) finds that as the level of education increases man's worldview expands, and so does his empathy. Eisenberg and Miller (1987) show evidence that the more empathic people are, the more they donate (Table 1.).

Much research has identified a positive correlation between an individual's income and his/her level of donation (Kitchen and Dalton, 1990; Lee and Chang 2007). The rich donate more (Repoport, 1988). Individuals with higher income and individuals who perceived themselves as generous donate more (Schlegelmilch et al.,1997). Carroll et al. (2005) elicit that the upper middle class is more likely to donate. Those who more cautiously save money and those who worry about their finances are less likely to donate (Wiepking and Breeze, 2012). Above mentioned factors are studied in combination as well. Unmarried and educated people with medium income level are more likely to give charities as compared to the other groups (Hoge and Yang, 1994). The findings of Bryant et al.'s (2003) study show that white people, married people, people with high income, old age, high education have high probability of donating and volunteering than others. Carroll et al. (2005) state that people residing in capital and main area are more likely to donate. Rural citizens (those living a certain distance from the urban area) are in general less educated and have lower income, hence are less likely to donate (Arcury and Christianson, 1993) (Table 1.).

2.2. Intrinsic factors related to the donor

Intrinsic factors in donation include religion, empathy, motivation and emotions (Sargeant et. al, 2006) and social norms (Radley and Kennedy, 1995). Radley and Kennedy (1995) note that the decision to donate and how much to donate may be affected by social norms. What organizations to support and how much to donate may be totally based on what is normative for the given group (Macaulay, 1970). Becker (1974) suggests that donation behavior can be motivated by a desire to receive social acclaim. Individuals may contribute to an organization because it enables them to signal their wealth in a socially acceptable way (Glazer and Konrad, 1996). Winterich and Zhang (2014) find that power distance as affecting perceptions of responsibility for giving: people living in high power distance cultures do not perceive that they are responsible for helping others because they accept social inequality. People might derive greater emotional rewards from helping close others rather than strangers or acquaintances. In a donation context, those identified as part of an in-group are more likely to receive help than those identified as members of the out-group (Dovidio, 1984; Flippen et al., 1996; Platow et al., 1999). The emotional benefits of donating are greater when an individual is giving to those with whom he or she has strong (vs. weak) social ties (Anik et al., 2009). The role of social connections is considered important in fundraising. Enhanced social connection can increase the trust of the people which lead to more efficient outcomes and influence individuals to make donation (List and Price, 2009) (Table 1.).

Donor motivation has an impact on donation behavior and can be altruistic as well as hedonic. Leeds (1963) defines altruistic behavior as an end in itself, not directed at gain, whereas Sherry (1983) defines it as the donor's "attempt to maximize the pleasure of the recipient" (p. 160). The emphasis is not on "self" but on the intention to please the exchange partner. Smith (1980) suggests a range of donor behavior on a continuum that he terms as "developmental process" from hedonic to altruistic which increases the degree of internalization of attitude. Sober (1988) identifies 'vernacular altruism', the pure motive of benefiting others. To qualify as a vernacular altruistic act, the giver must consciously formulate the intention to benefit the other and the act must be motivated mainly out of consideration of another's needs rather than one's own. Giving money to an organization may or may not fit in this definition depending on the donor's intent. Sargeant et al. (2006) categorize the benefits the donors may get as 'demonstrable' (donors are seeking recognition), 'emotional' (donors are seeking to "feel good"), and 'familial' (assist the need of a loved one through their support) where each category of benefits is related to a selfish reason. Donors may have a mixture of altruistic and egoistic motivations; identifying with the recipient is an egoistic act, while the desire to remain anonymous is altruistic. "Socially conscious consumer" is another term which is closely related to altruism but with an awareness of societal needs. This mixture of altruistic and egoistic motivations, referred to as "warm-glow" giving by Andreoni (1989) (Table 1.).

It is a common thought that the desire for giving stems from religion, as most major religions are centered around a mission of "helping others" (Yao, 2015). Approximately 84% of the world's population has some form of religious beliefs (PEW, 2012), so, it is important to understand how religiosity influences individuals to engage in charitable behaviors. Most religious organizations emphasize the importance of altruistic acts, and for this reason it frequently has been suggested that a positive relationship should

exist between religiousness and helping (Annis, 1976; Batson, 1976; Batson and Gray, 1981; Benson et al., 1980; Bernt, 1989; Hunsberger and Platonow, 1986). For instance, Carabain and Bekkers (2012) investigate the differences in behavior between people belonging to three major religions: Islam, Christianity and Hinduism. Results show that donation behavior varies depending upon the religion; Muslims engage relatively more in donation whereas Hindus engage less. Individuals considering religion to be important to them are more likely to donate (Schlegelmilch et al., 1997). It is generally shown and agreed upon that religion contributes positively to donations (Women’s Philanthropy Institute, 2014). Eckel and Grossman (2004) have explained about the responsiveness of giving to secular causes by religious and nonreligious people. The results indicate not much difference between the responses of religious and nonreligious people in pattern of giving. Reitsma et al. (2006) study has shown that people who are church visitors and people who are serious about religious activities are more willing to donate. These research findings suggest that religious people may have different priorities which lead to the concept of intrinsic and extrinsic religious orientation (Table 1.).

Allport and Ross (1967) intrinsic-extrinsic model of multidimensional religiousness has been used in the investigation of religiosity and altruism. Intrinsic religiousness applies to individuals who internalize their religion and maintain a devout, consistent and wholly invested orientation. Extrinsic religiousness, on the other hand, describes individuals who attend church for external reasons, such as becoming casually involved, seeking social rewards. Compared to extrinsically oriented believers, intrinsically oriented people are more empathetic toward others (Watson et al., 1984), score higher on self-reported altruism (Chau et al., 1990), and are more charitable (Hunsberger and Platonow, 1986). Studies reveal that feeling empathy for the person in need is an important motivator of helping (Aderman and Berkowitz, 1970; Coke et. al., 1978; Harris and Huang, 1973; Krebs, 1975; Mehrabian and Epstein, 1972) (Table 1.)

Religion/helpfulness studies have identified two types of help: spontaneous and nonspontaneous (Batson and Ventis, 1982; Benson et al.,1980; Bernt, 1989; Hunsberger and Platonow, 1986). Spontaneous helping measures assess those behaviors which are of an unplanned nature. This form of help might include stopping to aid an accident victim, responding to an immediate request for help or giving support to an indigent person. Nonspontaneous help, on the other hand addresses behaviors that are planned, many of which might involve volunteer work. Individuals who adopt an intrinsic religious orientation prefer nonspontaneous helping opportunities, while those who adopt a quest approach prefer spontaneous helping behaviors. As discussed, there is a traditional proposition that being religious makes people more generous. However, Sablosky (2014) criticizes these studies of not providing serious evidence for that traditional assumption based on methodological issues.

Table 1: Summary of the Major Studies on Donor Related Factors Affecting Donation Behavior

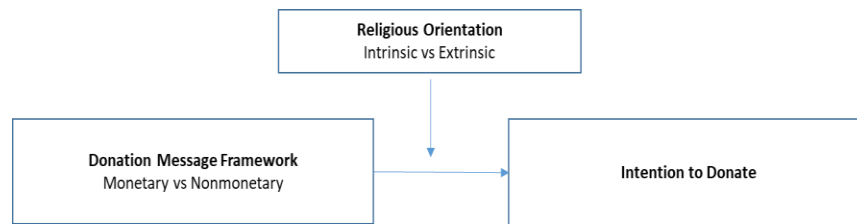
Factors	Supporting Literature	Result
Extrinsic Factors		
Age	Bussell and Forbes (2002); Radley and Kennedy (1995); Danko and Stanley (1986); Herzog et al. (1989); Menchik and Weisbrod (1987).	The literature is not consistent on the relationship between age and donation behavior.
Gender	Andreoni et al. (2001); Lee and Chang (2007); Mesch et al. (2011); Women’s Philanthropy Institute (2010); Belfield and Beney (2000); Bryant et al. (2003); Nowell and Tinkler (1994); Dufwenberg and Muren (2006); Eckel and Grossman (1998); Simmons and Emanuele (2007); Chrenka et al. (2003).	The literature is not consistent on the relationship between gender and donation behavior.
Education	McPherson and Rotolo (1996); Sundeen and Raskoff (1994); Chrenka et al. (2003); Scheepers and Grotenhuis (2005); Yen (2002); Andreoni et al. (2003); Kitchen and Dalton (1990); Eisenberg and Miller (1987).	Education has been found to be one of the most reliable predictors of donation behavior. Findings suggest people who are highly educated are more likely to be involved in donation
Income	Kitchen and Dalton (1990), Lee and Chang (2007); Repoport (1988); Schlegelmilch et al. (1997); Carroll et al. (2005); Wiepking and Breeze (2012).	Most of the research findings indicate a positive correlation between an individual’s income and his/her level of donation.

Intrinsic Factors		
Social norms	Radley and Kennedy (1995); Macaulay (1970); Becker (1974); Glazer and Konrad (1996); Winterich and Zhang (2014); Dovidio (1984); Flippen et al. (1996); Platow et al. (1999); (Anik et al. (2011); List and Price (2009).	Many of donation decisions are influenced by social norms.
Motivation	Leeds (1963); Sherry (1983) Smith (1980); Sober (1988); Sargeant et al. (2006); Andreoni (1989).	Donors may have altruistic, egoistic or a mixture of altruistic and egoistic motivations. It is difficult to empirically measure the true effect one’s motivation has on donating.
Religion	Yao (2015); PEW (2012); Annis (1976); Batson (1976); Batson and Gray (1981); Benson et al. (1980); Bernt (1989); Hunsberger and Platonow (1986); Women’s Philanthropy Institute (2014); Reitsma et al. (2006); Allport and Ross (1967); Watson et al. (1984); Chau et al. (1990); Hunsberger and Platonow (1986).	It is generally shown and agreed upon that religion contributes positively to donations. However, compared to extrinsically oriented believers, intrinsically oriented people are more empathetic toward others and are more charitable.

Among donor related factors religious orientation and its interaction with donation type and donation behavior is the focal point of the propositions in this research agenda.

Although there is a traditional proposition that being religious makes people more generous the degree may differ depending on individual’s religious orientation. Thus, religious orientation and its interaction between framing of the donation message and donation behavior deserves special attention (Figure 1).

Figure 1: Conceptual Model



The next section focuses on the framing effect in donation behavior and how mindset is triggered.

2.3. FRAMING EFFECT IN DONATON BEHAVIOR

Peltier et al. (2002) suggest that marketing communications affect the donor’s perception of the quality of the services provided by the organization. Framing of the nonprofit organization’s need call as a tool for communication has an impact on donation behavior. Framing is one of the communication strategies used to influence consumer perceptions, judgments and decisions about a particular issue. Tversky and Kahneman (1981) use the term “decision frame” to refer to the decision-maker’s conception of the acts, outcomes, and contingencies associated with a particular choice. It is often possible to frame a given decision problem in more than one way. Although there is extensive research about framing effects in the literature there have been only a few studies mentioned below which are designed to test framing effects in the context of donation.

Schibrowsky and Peltier (1995) studied the framing effect of the donation amount and have found that donation amount is influenced by the scale offered That is, most donors use the lowest value on the scale as the benchmark against which they judge the appropriateness of their intended contribution. A donor evaluates his/her intended contribution by comparing it against this lowest suggested amount. Gourville’s (1998) study was about reframing of a transaction from an aggregate expense to a series of small daily or ongoing expenses (“pennies-a-day” strategy). Similar to “pennies-a-day” transaction framing study, temporal framing is also proved to work in the charitable context (Chandran and Menon, 2004). Statistics that objectively refer to the same data (such as number of children dying due to poverty) can be framed differently in terms of time frame such as every year, every

month, every day or even every minute. Chandran and Menon (2004) have shown that every day framing has a positive effect on donation decision because it makes risks appear more proximal and concrete than every year framing, resulting in increased risk perceptions, intentions to execute precautionary behavior, and anxiety about the hazard. When a statistic about a hazard is presented in a day frame, the risk is perceived as more proximal and concrete than when presented in a year frame, thus enhancing the effectiveness of a message focused on negative consequences. Based on the work of Chandran and Menon (2004) framing the child poverty issue as '30,000 children die each day due to poverty' (UNICEF 2005) will be more likely to encourage donation than other alternative temporal framings.

Altruistic versus egoistic value framing tactics have also been used in promoting charitable donations. A charitable message can be framed through 'help others' (altruistic value) messages (e.g. 'The donation will grant you a great feeling of selflessness') or 'help self' (egoistic value) ones (e.g. 'The donation will grant you a great feeling of self-satisfaction') (Brunel and Nelson, 2000; Nelson et al., 2006). Episodic framing is more persuasive compared to thematic framing in the donation decision. An episodic frame would focus on an individual, whereas a thematic frame would focus on the issue. Vivid information attracts more attention than abstract propositions, and hence increases persuasion (Nisbett and Ross, 1980; Frey and Eagly, 1993). Vivid presentations are examined through stories depicting a person in need in the charitable context. People become more mentally and emotionally engaged when they process information about specific individuals than when they process information about abstract targets (Sherman et al., 1999). People contribute more to a nonprofit organization when the contributions are framed to benefit a family that has already been selected from a list than when told that a family will be selected from the same list (Small and Loewenstein, 2003). The audience tends to be more interested in and influenced by case stories with anecdotal evidence than abstract information with statistical evidence (Taylor and Thompson, 1982). Kogut and Ritov (2005) report that people have a greater willingness to help identified victims than anonymous ones, since identified victims evoking increase arousal and a greater tendency to donate.

2.3.1. DONATION TYPE

Framing effect of the donation type deserves special attention as few research has been conducted to study framing effect of donation type; so called as monetary vs nonmonetary donation.

A recent study by Gershon and Cryder (2016) demonstrate that people evaluate corporations more favorably when they donate goods rather than money, while the opposite pattern holds true for individual donors. Consumers value authentic motives for corporate donations, and view donations of goods (vs. money) as fundamentally more authentically motivated. Corporate monetary donations are perceived as strategic and less authentically motivated than equivalent donations of goods. Corporations receive less credit for donating money than for donating equivalent goods and benefit less in terms of purchase intent.

A significant interaction was found between donation type and brand image. When the company was described as having a low-warmth image, people rated the company more favorably for donations of goods (vs. money). When the company was described as high in warmth there was no difference in charitable credit rating based on donation type (Gershon and Cryder, 2016).

2.3.2 INDIVIDUAL MINDSET IN DONATION BEHAVIOR

Donation type has an impact on the donors' mindset. Research by Liu and Aaker (2008) reveals that asking individuals to think about "how much time they would like to donate" (versus "how much money they would like to donate") to a nonprofit organization increases the amount that they ultimately donate. Different mindsets are activated by time versus money. People are more generous when they are first primed with a concept that makes them feel personally engaged in a cause (donating time; volunteering) than when they are primed with a concept that distances them from the cause (donating money). Considering spending time with a cause activates emotional thoughts about giving. How interested are you to volunteer" (a time-ask), versus, "how interested are you to donate money" (a money-ask), activate distinct mindsets, due to the different mental associations of these concepts. As a result, a nonprofit organization request is more successful when the donor is first approached with a time-ask, rather than a money-ask. Because spending time is inherently a personal action, thinking about time activates thoughts of personal emotions and goals; on the other hand, because money is a major accounting unit, thinking about money activates associations of economic value and exchanges. Thus, answering a question about time activates an emotional mindset in which people interpret events based on their emotional meaning, whereas answering a question about money activates a transactional mindset in which people evaluate the utility of events. Thinking about time activates goals of emotional well-being, whereas thinking about money suppresses such goals by activating goals of economic utility (Brendl et al, 2003). Emotions are often considered to be critical in determining the willingness to donate (Small and Verrochi, 2009). As a result, considering donating

time leads the individual to focus on the emotional implications of helping others, thereby bring the nonprofit organization closer to the self. Asking of time reduces psychological distance to the nonprofit organization, and increases subsequent actual donations; on the other hand, a money-ask highlights the exchange nature of a donation, thereby distances the donor from the nonprofit organization and thus decreases actual donations.

Research in the literature about monetary vs nonmonetary framing of the donation is limited to how the corporations are perceived. Research about individual giving behavior is limited to money vs time (nonmonetary). There is a gap in the literature about individual giving behavior which examines monetary vs nonmonetary donation in terms of goods (rather than time).

3. RESEARCH PROPOSITIONS

Asking for time (i.e. a nonmonetary request) leads the individual to focus on the emotional implications of helping others, thereby increases subsequent actual donations (Brendl et al., 2003). Asking for goods is a nonmonetary donation request as time. So, we assume that asking for goods as nonmonetary donation would increase donations as well. Therefore, we posit that:

P1 *Individuals are more likely to donate when they receive nonmonetary (i.e. goods) donation requests compared to monetary donation requests.*

Findings show that intrinsically religious believers are more empathetic compared to extrinsically oriented believers. (Watson et al., 1984). Thus, we propose that:

P2 a) *Intrinsically religious individuals are more likely to donate compared to extrinsically religious individuals when they receive nonmonetary donation requests.*

P2 b) *Extrinsically religious individuals are more likely to donate compared to intrinsically religious individuals when they receive monetary donation requests.*

Previous studies show that monetary donation requests are perceived as strategic thus trigger rational mindset (Gershon and Cryder, 2016) whereas asking for time (nonmonetary donation) triggers emotional mindset (Liu and Aaker, 2008). People give more when under an emotional mindset rather than a transactional mindset (Liu and Aaker, 2008). We need a closer look at how donation type influences mindset for intrinsic and extrinsic religious individuals. Accordingly, the following proposition is addressed to be explored:

P3 a) *Nonmonetary donation request triggers emotional mindset more than monetary donation request thus causes intrinsically religious individuals to donate more compared to extrinsically religious individuals.*

P3 b) *Monetary donation request triggers rational mindset more than nonmonetary donation request thus causing extrinsically religious individuals to donate more compared to intrinsically religious individuals.*

3. CONCLUSION

Intense competition in the today's world has forced nonprofit organizations to introduce marketing to get more share of the individual's donation budget. In this paper the donor and donation related factors that have an impact on donation behavior have been summarized. The aim is to understand how nonprofit organizations should frame their donation call to influence donation behavior. This study has discussed the constructs of donation type, donation behavior, religious orientation and situation specific thinking style. This paper intends to make theoretical and managerial contributions not only to donation literature but also to the message framing literature.

The next step is to examine the relationships proposed above which will provide empirical evidence for the relationship between the constructs of donation type, donation behavior, religious orientation and mindset. We believe that further empirical testing of the propositions above could be a starting point for nonprofit organization senior management to formulate the appropriate fundraising strategy. The findings of an empirical study would provide better understanding to nonprofit organizations about their individual contributors' conception associated with a particular donation request; i.e. their thinking styles and how their religious orientation interacts with the donation request.

If our propositions are supported by empirical research the practical implications for nonprofit organizations could be to design their donation calls to trigger emotional mindset; i.e. they will frame their donation calls by asking for a nonmonetary contribution. Nonprofit organizations rely on donations in order to pursue their charitable initiatives. Traditional fundraising asks individuals or

organizations to make a monetary contribution. If our proposition is supported monetary requests should be avoided as they trigger rational mindset in both religious orientations. In addition to traditional fundraising nonprofit organizations form partnerships with for-profit organizations in which their consumers buy products and part of the purchase price is donated to the nonprofit organization. Such partnerships should be designed with caution as they may trigger rational mindset and decrease donations as well. Based on the results of the empirical research nonprofit organizations can make best use of their marketing budget and formulate the appropriate fundraising strategy by targeting the right audience. Knowing what demographic group they are trying to reach will determine every aspect of their campaign, including the platforms, messages, and language they use to communicate. They may tailor their messages and calls to action.

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