
**Nonprofit Donor Relationship Management –
An Evaluation of Blood Donor Relationship Marketing Strategies**

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Dissertation

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Vorwort

Die vorliegende kumulative Dissertation entstand während meiner Promotionszeit als wissenschaftliche Mitarbeiterin an der Professur für BWL, insb. Management von Öffentlichen, Privaten und Nonprofit-Organisationen an der Universität Hamburg. Meine Motivation zur Promotion im Themenbereich des Nonprofit Management begründet sich in meinem langjährigen sozialen Engagement. Die Auseinandersetzung mit dem Blutspendemanagement erfolgte letztlich mit Beginn der Promotionszeit an der Professur. Während dieser Zeit erhielt ich einen tieferen Einblick in das Nonprofit Management und Marketing insbesondere von Blutspendeorganisationen mit all seinen Facetten. Dabei war ich immer wieder fasziniert, was Menschen bewegt, unabhängig von der Form als Geld-, Zeit- oder Blutspende, sich sozial zu engagieren. Neben dem besseren Verständnis für das soziale Engagement, lernte ich auch mehr über mich und mein eigenes soziales Engagement.

Wie jeden anderen hat auch mich die Promotionszeit vor gewisse Herausforderungen gestellt. Mit jeder Seite dieser Dissertation, die verschriftlicht wurde, durfte ich jedoch zugleich eine persönlich bereichernde Erfahrung erleben. Eine so tief gehende Auseinandersetzung mit einem Themengebiet bedarf Durchhaltevermögen und die Fähigkeit der stetigen Motivation, die nicht zuletzt durch eine Vielzahl an Personen aufrechterhalten wurde. Das Gefühl, welches man während der Erstellung einer Dissertation erlebt, beschreibt James Salter für mich besonders gut:

*„Irgendwann wird einem klar, dass alles ein Traum ist
und nur geschriebene Dinge die Möglichkeit haben, Wirklichkeit zu sein“
(2013; einleitendes Wort zu seinem Roman „Alles, was ist“).*

Somit gilt mein Dank all jenen Personen, die mich während dieser Zeit des Träumens bis hin zur Verwirklichung in Form dieser Dissertation begleitet haben. Mein herzlichster und erster Dank gebührt meiner Doktormutter Frau Prof. Dr. Silke Boenigk. Durch ihre intensive Betreuung sowie Förderung hat sie maßgeblich zum Erfolg dieser Dissertation beigetragen. Sie stand mir während der gesamten Promotionszeit zur Seite und ermöglichte mir, durch die Teilnahme an Konferenzen und Kolloquien, konstruktives Feedback zu erhalten und ein gut verknüpftes internationales Netzwerk aufzubauen. Mein Dank gilt außerdem Herrn Prof. Dr. Thorsten Teichert für seine Bereitschaft das Zweitgutachten meiner Dissertation sowie Herrn Prof. Dr. Dirk Ulrich Gilbert für seine Bereitschaft den Vorsitz der Prüfungskommission zu übernehmen.

Bedanken möchte ich mich auch für die großzügige finanzielle und inhaltliche Unterstützung des DRK-Blutspendedienst Nord-Ost. Insbesondere gilt dies Herrn Wolfgang Rüstig, für seine fachlichen Beiträge und den intensiven Austausch während der Hamburger Foren sowie Frau Dr. Sigrun Leipnitz, Frau Annett Smolka und Frau Cornelia Kruse für die Unterstützung bei der Umsetzung der Dissertationsprojekte. In diesem Zuge möchte ich mich auch bei allen Mitarbeiterinnen und Mitarbeitern des DRK-Blutspendedienst Nord-Ost bedanken, die mir einen umfangreichen Einblick in die Praxis

gewährt haben. Allen Mitgliedern der Forschungskoooperation Gesundheitsmarketing, aber insbesondere Herrn Prof. Dr. Michel Clement, meinem Mentor während der Promotionszeit, und Frau Martha Wegner möchte ich für die zahlreichen Feedbacks und die gemeinsame Zeit auf Workshops und Konferenzen danken.

Ein weiterer Dank gilt den Wissenschaftlerinnen und Wissenschaftlern mit denen ich die Ehre hatte, gemeinsame Projekte zu verwirklichen. Ohne sie wäre die Umsetzung dieser Dissertation unmöglich gewesen. Neben Frau Prof. Dr. Silke Boenigk danke ich hierfür Herrn Prof. Dr. Wim de Kort, Herrn Dr. Jurgen Willems und Frau Dr. Sigrun Leipnitz, aber auch allen Mitgliedern der Alliance of Blood Operators (ABO) Donor Engagement and Relationship Group (DERG).

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Ein ganz besonderer Dank geht an meine Familie, insbesondere meine Eltern, Annegret und Ulrich Sundermann, und meinen Bruder, Peter Sundermann sowie an meine engsten Freunde. Nur durch ihr Vertrauen in mich und ihre anhaltende Unterstützung besonders in Zeiten des Zweifels führten letztendlich zum Gelingen dieser Dissertation.

Larissa M. Sundermann

1. Synopse

Forschung zum Donor Relationship Management von Nonprofit Organisationen

Ende der 1960er Jahre leiteten Kotler/Levy (1969) ein Umdenken im Bereich der Marketingforschung ein. Seither erhält das Management von Beziehungen (hier: Donor Relationship Management [DRM]) eine wachsende Aufmerksamkeit (z. B. Payne/Frow 2005). Der Marketingfokus liegt nicht länger nur auf Transaktionen zwischen Organisationen und Spendern, sondern auf dem Aufbau einer Beziehung (z. B. McCort 1994; Morgan/Hunt 1994; MacMillan et al. 2005; Jones/Shandiz 2015). Forschung und Praxis sind sich einig, dass ein gutes DRM dazu beiträgt, die Spendenden nach der Rekrutierung langfristig zu binden (z. B. Arnett/German/Hunt 2003). Die vorliegende Dissertation nimmt dabei eine ‚breite und strategische‘ Sichtweise ein, die sich auf das Management von Beziehungen stützt, mit dem Ziel, dem Spendenden einen Wert zu verschaffen (Payne/Frow 2005), eine möglichst langfristige Beziehung zu den Spendenden aufzubauen und die Position im Markt gegen Konkurrenten zu sichern (McCort 1994).

Obwohl die Prinzipien des DRM längst hin bekannt sind, verharren viele Nonprofit Organisationen (NPO) in der Akquise von neuen Spendenden und vergessen, dass Anreize für eine erste Spende nicht ausreichen, um langfristig agieren zu können und erfolgreich zu sein (McCort 1994). Nur wenn Spendende langfristig an die Organisation gebunden werden, können regelmäßig Spenden fließen und Vorteile für beide, die NPO und den Spendenden entstehen (Arnett/German/Hunt 2003).

Die Vorteile für die NPO liegen dabei auf der Hand. Neben ökonomischen Vorteilen, wie steigenden Spendenzahlen und niedrigere Marketingkosten (Benett/Barkensjo 2005; MacMillan et al. 2005), bieten langfristige Beziehungen auch Vorteile durch das Verhalten langfristiger Spendender. Besonders zufriedene Spendende neigen dazu die NPO durch Mund-zu-Mund Kommunikation (hier: Word-of-Mouth [WOM]) zu empfehlen und bieten zusätzlich soziale Unterstützung (McCort 1994; Anderson 1998).

Langfristige Beziehungen bieten außerdem die Möglichkeit Spendende und ihre Bedürfnisse besser zu verstehen und das DRM der NPO an Veränderungen der Erwartungen der Spendenden anzupassen (Benett/Barkensjo 2005; Jones/Shandiz 2015). Somit bietet das DRM auch dem Spendenden Vorteile. Neben Vertrauensvorteilen erhält der Spendende vor allem soziale Vorteile durch die Beziehung zur NPO. Dabei sind Vertrauensvorteile mitunter die Wichtigsten, da sie Risiken der Spendenden reduzieren und sich Erwartungen der Spendenden leichter erfüllen lassen (Morgan/Hunt 1994; MacMillan et al. 2005; Jones/Shandiz 2015). Soziale Vorteile entstehen dem Spendenden durch die Interaktion mit der NPO. Die NPO wird Teil des sozialen Systems der Spendenden (McCort 1994; Arnett/German/Hunt 2003).

Ein DRM ist daher vor allem für NPO aus dem Blutspendebereich wichtig. Dies zeigt sich insbesondere durch Veränderungen auf dem Blutspendenmarkt. Hier wird aufgrund der alternden

Gesellschaft und des stetigen medizinischen Fortschritts eine Verschiebung von Nachfrage und Angebot an Blutprodukten erwartet (Seifried et al. 2011): Ein wachsender Bedarf steht einer sinkenden Anzahl Blutspendender gegenüber (Greinacher/Fendrich/Hoffmann 2010). Darum ist es für Blutspendedienste besonders wichtig, Erstspendende zum erneuten Spenden zu motivieren (France et al. 2015). Blutspendedienste stehen somit vor den zentralen Herausforderungen (1) neue Blutspendende aus dem Kreis der Nichtspendenden zu rekrutieren und (2) zu binden sowie (3) die Spendenbereitschaft der bestehenden Blutspendenden zu erhöhen. Dies dient der (zukünftigen) Sicherung der Versorgung der Bevölkerung mit Blutprodukten.

Diese Herausforderungen, die global für fast alle Blutspendedienste gelten, werden in Deutschland durch einen steigenden Wettbewerbsdruck weiter verschärft. Um die Blutspendenden konkurrieren hier NPO (z. B. DRK-Blutspendedienste), mit öffentlichen (z. B. Krankenhäuser) und privaten Organisationen (z. B. Haema). Bis heute führte diese Wettbewerbssituation zu einem Rückgang der Marktanteile der DRK-Blutspendedienste um 6,8 Prozent (Paul-Ehrlich-Institut 2016). Dieser Rückgang kann unter anderem durch die finanzielle Entschädigung, die einige Blutspendedienste anbieten, erklärt werden (z. B. Haema AG 2016). NPO, wie die DRK-Blutspendedienste, verzichten hingegen auf eine monetäre Entschädigung (DRK-Blutspendedienste 2015) und suchen nach anderen Ansätzen, um Blutspendende zu rekrutieren und zu binden.

Hier bietet das DRM ein breites Spektrum von Relationship Marketing (RM)-Strategien, um (potenzielle) Blutspendende gezielt anzusprechen und eine möglichst langfristige Beziehung zu ihnen aufzubauen (McCort 1994; Burnett 2002). RM-Strategien ermöglichen dies, indem sie Unsicherheiten reduzieren und die Loyalität der Blutspendenden gegenüber der NPO erhöhen (Buttle 1998). Die Blutspendenden sollen sich als Teil der Organisation verstehen, die maßgeblich zur Sicherung des Bedarfs der Bevölkerung an Blutprodukten beiträgt (McCort 1994).

Neben der Sicherung der Position auf dem Markt ist die langfristige Bindung von Spendenden auch aufgrund des begrenzten Marketingbudgets von NPO von zentraler Bedeutung. Die Rekrutierung potenzieller Blutspendenden ist mit deutlich höheren Marketingkosten verbunden als deren Bindung (Bennett/Barkersjo 2005). Zusätzlich sind Spenden von loyalen Blutspendenden besser absehbar und bieten somit einen besseren Planungshintergrund als die der Erstspendenden (Devine et al. 2007). Auch gelten sie als sicherer, da sie bereits auf übertragbare Krankheiten getestet wurden (Devine et al. 2007). Langfristige Bindungen führen mithin zu der Möglichkeit, die knappen Ressourcen besser einzusetzen, die Kosten für RM zu senken und sicherere Produkte anzubieten.

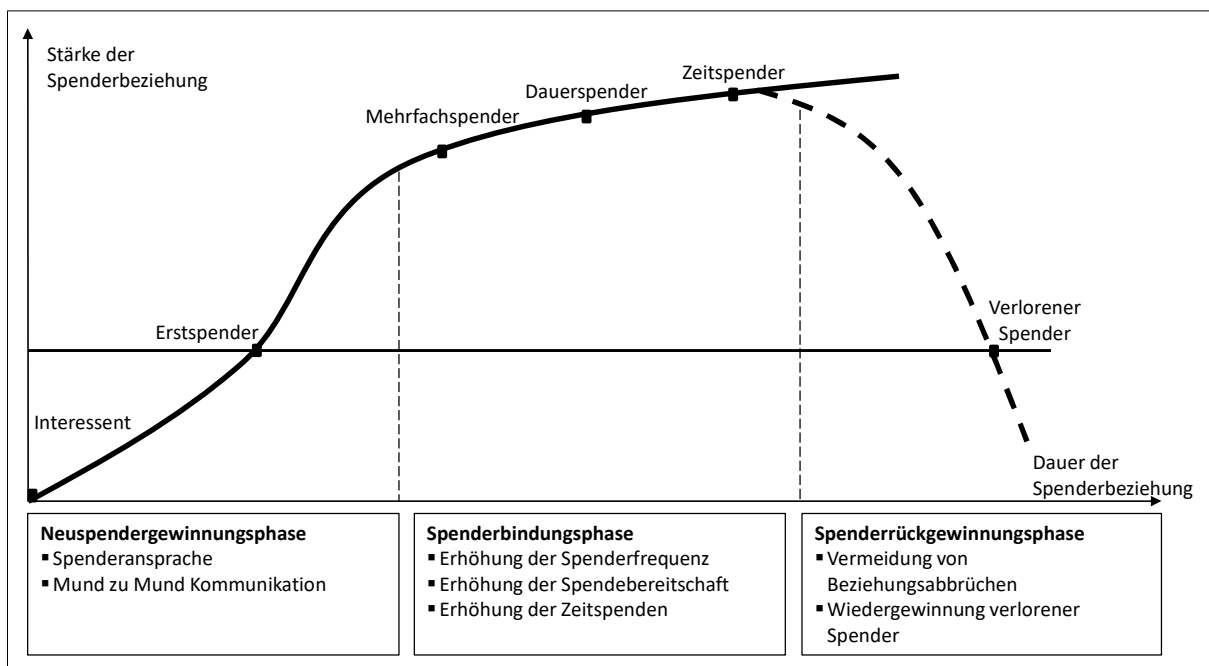
NPO müssen somit geeignete Marketingstrategien entwickeln, die zum einen Blutspendende von ihrem Leistungsspektrum überzeugen und zur erfolgreichen Rekrutierung beitragen und zum anderen die gewonnenen Blutspendenden binden und helfen, eine langfristige Beziehung zu ihnen aufzubauen (McCort 1994). Dies trägt insgesamt zur notwendigen Effektivitätssteigerung des DRM bei NPO bei. Dabei setzen NPO vermehrt auf Strategien, die von privaten Organisationen bereits genutzt

werden. So lässt sich ein Trend beobachten, der weg von traditionellen hin zu spezifischeren Marketingstrategien führt. Es bleibt jedoch fraglich, inwieweit die im Forprofit-Bereich genutzten Marketingstrategien auf NPO, wie die DRK-Blutspendendienste, übertragbar sind, insbesondere da Blutspendende eine andere Motivationsstruktur aufweisen als die Kundschaft einer privaten Organisation (Bekkers/Wiepking 2011).

Forschungshintergrund und Ziele der Dissertation

Nach Helmig/Boenigk (2012) ist es essenziell, jede RM-Strategie an den Bedürfnissen der jeweiligen Spendenden auszurichten. Eines der wichtigsten Konzepte begründet hier der Spenderlebenszyklus (Abbildung 1). Dieser beschreibt die Beziehung eines Spendenden zur NPO und ihre Veränderung im Zeitablauf (Bruhn 2005). Der idealtypische Verlauf setzt die Stärke zur Dauer der Beziehung in Relation. So lassen sich drei Phasen, die Gewinnungs-, Bindungs-, und Rückgewinnungsphase, unterscheiden (Helmig/Boenigk 2012).

Abbildung 1. Der Spenderlebenszyklus (Helmig/Boenigk 2012: S. 187)



Zahlreiche Studien befassen sich bereits mit der Analyse und Identifikation von Motiv- und Einflussfaktoren (z. B. Bekkers/Wiepking 2011; Boenigk/Leipnitz/Scherhag 2013) sowie der Segmentierung von Blutspendenden (z. B. Zhou/Poon/Yu 2012; Shehu et al. 2015), um die Bedürfnisse der verschiedenen Gruppen in der jeweiligen Phase besser zu verstehen und gezieltere RM-Maßnahmen abzuleiten. Trotz der Erkenntnisse, die diese Studien liefern, fehlt es jedoch an aktionsbasierter

Forschung. Dies bedeutet, dass zwar bereits Ansätze zur Etablierung gezielter Marketingmaßnahmen entwickelt, diese bisher jedoch nicht umfangreich getestet wurden.

Die in dieser Dissertation betrachteten Strategien folgen dem DRM und sollen die Anzahl der Blutspendenden stabilisieren sowie einen Wettbewerbsvorteil von NPO, wie den DRK-Blutspendediensten, gegenüber der Konkurrenz schaffen (Newman/Pyne 1997; Reid/Wood 2008; Carter et al. 2011). Sie ist somit der Phase der Gewinnung und der Bindung zuzuordnen. Vor diesem Hintergrund ist die vorliegende Dissertation darauf ausgerichtet verschiedene RM-Maßnahmen, denen eine hohe Relevanz im Forprofit-Bereich zugeschrieben wird, auf NPO zu übertragen. Das erste Ziel besteht daher in einer Verbesserung der Rekrutierung von potenziellen Blutspendenden (*Kapitel 2*) und ist in der Gewinnungsphase des Spenderlebenszyklus einzuordnen. Es soll besonders auf die Bedürfnisse der (potenziellen) Spendenden eingegangen werden, um so den Aufbau einer Spendenbeziehung zu ermöglichen (Bruhn 2005). Das zweite Ziel ist die Stärkung der Bindung von Blutspendenden (*Kapitel 3*) und ist der Spenderbindungsphase zuzuweisen. Diese Phase ist besonders zur Aufrechterhaltung einer loyalen Spenderbasis wichtig, da sie zu einer Entwicklung und Ausweitung der Beziehung und somit zu erneuten Spenden führen kann (Bennett/Barkensjo 2005). Der Spendenden erfährt eine höhere Zufriedenheit und entwickelt ein höheres Vertrauen (Helmig/Boenigk 2012). Das dritte Ziel dieser Dissertation verfolgt eine nachhaltige Bindung der Blutspendenden. Hierzu wird der Einfluss verschiedener gesellschaftlicher Veränderungen auf die Bindung von Blutspendenden untersucht (*Kapitel 4*). Dies dient der Analyse der sich verändernden Bedürfnisse und Erwartungen von Spendern, um die Bindung der Spendenden an die NPO nachhaltig zu festigen. Anschließend sollen Handlungsempfehlungen für die Rekrutierung und Bindung von Spendenden zur Verbesserung des DRM von NPO abgeleitet werden.

Überblick über die Dissertationsprojekte

Der vorliegende Abschnitt gibt zunächst einen Überblick über die im Rahmen dieser Dissertation behandelten Forschungsarbeiten und nimmt eine Einordnung in die Gesamtzielsetzung vor. Abbildung 2 gibt den Zusammenhang der Einzelarbeiten sowie die jeweilige Zielsetzung, Methodik, Datengrundlage sowie zentrale Ergebnisse wieder.

Da ein DRM erst nach der Rekrutierung implementiert werden kann, befasst sich das erste Forschungsziel dieser Dissertation (*Kapitel 2*) mit der Verbesserung der Rekrutierung potenzieller Blutspendender. Dabei wird das differenzierte Marketing, ein in der Forprofit-Literatur häufig verwendetes Instrument, für NPO angewendet und analysiert. Wie Reutterer et al. (2006: S. 43) in ihrer Studie bereits betonten: „An important aspect of [donor] relationship management is the targeting of [donor] segments with tailored promotional activities.“ Basierend auf den Erfahrungen des DRK-Blutspendedienst Nord-Ost und theoretischen Grundlagen verschiedener wissenschaftlicher Artikel (z. B. Gillespie/Hillyer 2002; Walker 2002; Lemmens et al. 2005; Zhou/Poon/Yu 2012) wurden zwei

Zielgruppen potenzieller Blutspendender definiert, eine technikliebende und eine gesundheitsaffine, und zwei differenzierte Kampagnen, eine Unterhaltungs- und eine Gesundheits-, sowie eine undifferenzierte Kampagne entwickelt. Die drei Marketing-Kampagnen wurden anschließend in einem Online-Experiment mit 838 potenziellen Blutspendenden getestet. Gemessen wurde der Effekt der Kampagnen auf drei Marketing-Outcomes (Bewusstsein, Intention und Verhaltensnachbildung), welche mittels linearer Regressionen analysiert wurden. Die Ergebnisse lieferten keinen Hinweis darauf, dass differenziertes Marketing die Marketing-Outcomes erhöht und somit effektiver potenzielle Blutspendende gewonnen werden können. Gleichwohl konnte eine Gruppe von potenziellen Blutspendenden aufgedeckt werden, die unabhängig von der Marketing-Kampagne, signifikant höhere Marketing-Outcomes aufwies. Dies führt zu dem Schluss, dass NPO, wie die DRK-Blutspendedienste, ihre RM-Strategien auf diese Gruppe ausrichten sollten, um die Spenderrekrutierung zu verbessern.

Nachdem potenzielle Spendende das erste Mal gespendet haben, können RM-Strategien eingesetzt werden, um die Bindung an die NPO zu verstärken (*Kapitel 3*). Daher werden zwei RM-Maßnahmen zur Bindung von Spendenden betrachtet und im Rahmen des zweiten Forschungsziels behandelt. Das erste Forschungsprojekt des 3. Kapitels untersucht die Effekte der Erhöhung der Frequenz von Direct Mailings auf die Wahrscheinlichkeit für eine Zweitspende. Bereits in vorherigen Studien wurde gezeigt, dass die Optimierung von Direct Marketingstrategien zu einer Bindung des Spendenden an die NPO führen kann (z. B. Ownby et al. 1999; Schreiber et al. 2005; Kheiri/Alibergi 2015).

Obwohl sich der Trend weg von Direct Mailings hin zu interaktiveren Marketingansätzen bewegt, sind Direct Mailings immer noch ein anerkanntes und erfolgreiches Mittel und die am häufigsten genutzte Marketingmaßnahme zur Bindung von Spendenden (Feld et al. 2013; Direct Marketing Association 2015). Die Forschung fokussiert sich daher vor allem auf die Optimierung von Direct Mailings im Bereich der Spendersegmentierung (z. B. Rupp/Kern/Helmig 2014) und der Inhalts- und Designanpassung (Feld et al. 2013). Eine weitere Möglichkeit bietet die Optimierung der Frequenz von Direct Mailings (z. B. Elsner/Kraft/Huchzermeier 2004; Gönül/Ter Hofstede 2006; Van Diepen/Donkers/Franses 2009). Dies scheint besonders relevant, da Spendende mit einer wachsenden Anzahl an Direct Mailings konfrontiert werden (Feld et al. 2013). Bisherige Studien nutzen hauptsächlich natürliche Daten von Organisationen oder Befragungsdaten, auf deren Grundlage die Frequenz über einen längeren Zeitraum optimiert wurde (z. B. Eastlick/Feinberg/Trappey 1993; Elsner/Kraft/Huchzermeier 2004; Gönül/Ter Hofstede 2006). Die Übertragung auf NPO und insbesondere auf Blutspendedienste gestaltet sich somit schwierig. Aus diesem Grund befasst sich diese Studie mit der Frage, ob durch den gezielten Einsatz eines Reminder Direct Mailings (Doppelmailing), welches eine Woche nach dem regulären Direct Mailing verschickt wurde, die Blutspendenrate am Tag eines spezifischen Blutspendeevents erhöht werden kann. In einem Feldexperiment mit 396 Erstspendenden des DRK-Blutspendedienst Nord-Ost, erhielten 203 Erstspendende das Doppelmailing.

Die Ergebnisse der hierarchischen binären logistischen Regression zeigten keine Unterschiede zwischen dem Doppeldmailing und dem regulären Direct Mailing. Damit legen die Ergebnisse der Studie nahe, dass es ausreichend ist, lediglich ein Direct Mailing zwei Wochen vor dem spezifischen Blutspendeevent an Blutspendende zu verschicken. Jedoch konnte im Einklang mit früherer Forschung eine Beziehung von Alter und Geschlecht mit der Zweitspendenrate bestätigt werden. Die Ergebnisse dieser Studie bieten somit einen Ansatz für NPO, ihr RM zu optimieren und Kosten zu reduzieren.

Das zweite Forschungsprojekt des 3. Kapitels befasst sich mit dem Einfluss von WOM, den Empfehlungen von Spendenden, auf die langfristige Bindung des geworbenen Spendenden an die NPO. Besonders Forprofit-Forschungen legen nahe, dass WOM-geworbene Spendende im Vergleich zu anderen Spendenden einen höheren Wert aufweisen (z. B. Villanueva/Yoo/Hanssens 2008; Schumann et al. 2010; Schmitt/Skiera/Van den Bulte 2011). Da im Nonprofit-Bereich die Bindung zur NPO im Vordergrund steht, soll der Einfluss von WOM auf verschiedene in der Literatur identifizierte Beziehungsfaktoren untersucht werden. Insgesamt wurden 702 Blutspendende der DRK-Blutspendedienste Nord-Ost und Baden-Württemberg-Hessen aus den Jahren 2015 und 2016 befragt, da bei diesen Spendenden die Bindung nicht durch zahlreiche Interaktionen mit der Organisation bereits im Vorfeld beeinflusst wurde. Anhand eines Strukturgleichungsmodells wurde der Einfluss von WOM auf Beziehungsvariablen Bindung, Vertrauen, Zufriedenheit und Identifikation sowie der Loyalität als Beziehungsergebnis gemessen. Eine Erweiterung des Modells wurde durch zwei Mediatoren vorgenommen: dem Einfluss der sozialen Gruppe in der sich der Spendende befindet sowie der moralischen Akzeptanz gegenüber WOM-Belohnungen für Empfehlungen. Die Ergebnisse zeigen, dass WOM einen positiven Einfluss auf drei Beziehungsfaktoren (Bindung, Zufriedenheit und Identifikation) sowie auf die Loyalität hat. Auch der positive Mediationseffekt der sozialen Referenzgruppe auf die drei Beziehungsfaktoren sowie der moralischen Akzeptanz von WOM-Belohnungen auf die Beziehungsfaktoren Bindung und Identifikation, unterstützen die abgeleiteten Hypothesen. Zusätzlich legen die Ergebnisse nahe, dass es keinen Unterschied macht, ob die WOM-geworbenen Spendenden von einem aktiven Spendenden zu ihrer ersten Spende begleitet wurden (aktives WOM). Dies zeigt die Relevanz von WOM auf die Beziehung eines Spendenden zur NPO auch auf lange Sicht. Für Manager von NPO bedeutet dies, dass neue Strategien zur Stimulierung von WOM stärker etabliert werden sollten. Zudem ist wichtig, dass nur moralisch akzeptierte WOM-Belohnungen für den werbenden Spendenden eingesetzt werden, um die Beziehung der NPO zum WOM-geworbenen Spendenden nicht zu gefährden.

Abbildung 2. Forschungsdesign und Einordnung der Dissertationsprojekte

Kapitel 2. Spenderrekrutierung	
Under Blood Pressure – Differentiated versus Undifferentiated Marketing to Increase Blood Donations (Boenigk/Sundermann/Willems)	
<p>Zielsetzung:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Nachweis, dass differenziertes Marketing die Gewinnung potenzieller Blutspendender im Vergleich zu undifferenziertem Marketing positiv beeinflusst. <p>Methode:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Online Experiment; lineare Regressionsanalyse <p>Daten:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> N = 838 potenzielle Spendende 	<p>Ergebnisse:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Keine Hinweise auf Verbesserung der Gewinnung von Erstspendenden durch differenziertes Marketing. Optimierung der Maßnahmen zur Erstspendenden-Gewinnung unter Berücksichtigung verschiedener Aspekte, wie z. B. Wochenendtermine, Informationen in Tageszeitungen, Terminvereinbarung, notwendig.
Donor Relationship Management	
Kapitel 3. Möglichkeiten der Spenderbindung	
<p style="text-align: center;">Catch Them If You Can: The Effects of Reminder Direct Mailing on the Return Rate of First-Time Donors (Sundermann/Leipnitz)</p> <p>Zielsetzung:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Nachweis, dass ein Doppeldmailing (Erhöhung der Frequenz), die Zweitspendenrate von Erstspendenden erhöht. <p>Methode:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Feldexperiment; hierarchische logistische Regressionsanalyse <p>Daten:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> N = 396 Erstspendende 	<p style="text-align: center;">Share Experiences: The Effects of Receiving Word-of-mouth Effects on Long-term Donor Relationships (Sundermann)</p> <p>Zielsetzung:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Nachweis, dass durch Word-of-Mouth die langfristige Bindung an eine Nonprofit Organisation erhöht wird. <p>Methode:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Online Erhebung; Strukturgleichungsmodell mit PLS <p>Daten:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> N = 702 Spendende
<p>Ergebnisse:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Keine Hinweise, dass ein Doppeldmailing die Zweitspendenrate erhöht. Es kann gezeigt werden, dass Alter und Geschlecht einen Einfluss auf die Zweitspendenrate haben. 	<p>Ergebnisse:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Positiver Effekt von Word-of-Mouth auf drei Beziehungsfaktoren. Insgesamt wird die Loyalität der Spendenden erhöht. Die soziale Gruppe und moralische Akzeptanz wirken als Mediator zwischen Word-of-Mouth und Beziehungsfaktoren.
Kapitel 4. Herausforderungen der Spenderbindung	
The “Donor of the Future Project” – First Results and Further Research Domains (Boenigk/Sundermann/de Kort)	
<p>Zielsetzung:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Aufdecken von Länderunterschieden bzgl. des Einflusses von globalen Trends auf das Blutspendeverhalten von Spendenden und Ableitung von zukünftig relevanten Forschungsfeldern. <p>Methode:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Online Befragung; Varianzanalysen (ANOVA) mit Ryan-Einot-Welsch-F (REGWF) post hoc Test <p>Daten:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> N = 7.663 (aktive) Spendende von acht Blutspendediensten aus sechs Ländern 	<p>Ergebnisse:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Verschiedene Prioritäten in den einzelnen Trends können aufgedeckt werden. Größere Unterschiede insbesondere bei technologischen Entwicklungen, aber auch bei Belohnungen (Incentives) für Spenden. Blutspendende aus England und Australien wollen per SMS informiert werden, in den anderen Ländern werden E-Mails präferiert. In Deutschland und den USA stehen Blutspendende Belohnungen positiver gegenüber.

Um auch langfristig die Bindung der Spendenden an die NPO zu sichern und weiterhin ihre Bedürfnisse zu erfüllen, ist es notwendig, dass NPO ihr DRM an sich verändernde Bedingungen anpassen. In Kapitel 4 werden daher globale Veränderungen beleuchtet, die das Spendenverhalten nachhaltig beeinflussen können. Hier wird dem dritten Forschungsziel Rechnung getragen. Da sich Nonprofit Blutspendedienste weltweit dieser globalen Veränderungen bewusst sind (z. B. Glynn et al. 2002; Mathew et al. 2007; Carter et al. 2011), hat die Alliance of Blood Operators (ABO) (ABO 2014)

eine ihrer Arbeitsgruppen, die Donor Engagement and Relationship Group (DERG), damit beauftragt, die Auswirkungen globaler Veränderungen auf das zukünftige Blutspendenverhalten zu untersuchen. In einem ersten Schritt identifizierte die DERG fünf globale Einflüsse, die hauptsächlich für Veränderungen auf dem Blutspendenmarkt verantwortlich sind: (1) den demografischen Wandel, (2) technische Entwicklungen, (3) Gesundheitsinnovationen, (4) gesellschaftliche Aspekte bzgl. der Einstellung und des Verhaltens, sowie (5) politische, wirtschaftliche und Umweltveränderungen. In einem zweiten Schritt wurde ein Fragebogen entwickelt, um (aktive) Blutspendende im Alter zwischen 17 und 50 Jahren zur Wirkung dieser Veränderungen auf ihr Blutspendeverhalten zu befragen. Insgesamt nahmen 7.663 (aktive) Blutspendende von acht Nonprofit Blutspendediensten aus sechs Ländern teil. Die Ergebnisse zeigen einige Übereinstimmungen, aber auch länderspezifische Unterschiede. Ein für alle Nonprofit Blutspendedienste weltweit geltender Lösungsansatz existiert nicht. Die Studie zeigt jedoch Ansatzpunkte für ein verbessertes DRM und zukünftige Forschung.

Beitrag zu Wissenschaft und Praxis

Insgesamt leistet diese Dissertation einen Beitrag zur Nonprofit Forschung und zur Weiterentwicklung der DRM-Literatur. Die Evaluierung verschiedener RM-Maßnahmen aus dem Forprofit-Bereich und die empirischen Belege dieser Dissertation bereichern diese. Zusätzlich bieten die Ergebnisse Managern von NPO Ansatzpunkte zur Verbesserung ihres bisherigen DRM.

Es wurden neue Ansätze zur Rekrutierung und Bindung von Spendenden evaluiert. Die empirischen Studien leisten somit einen Beitrag zur Weiterentwicklung von bisherigem Nonprofit DRM, aber auch zur Übertragung von vielversprechenden RM-Maßnahmen aus dem Forprofit-Bereich. Hier bedarf es einer tiefergehenden Betrachtung, obwohl die Ergebnisse der empirischen Studien das vorhandene Wissen zu DRM erweitern. Besonders da differenziertes Marketing (*Kapitel 2*) und die Erhöhung der Frequenz von Direct Mailings (*Kapitel 3*) nicht den hypothetisch hergeleiteten Effekt zeigten, sollten Nonprofit Manager weitere Ansätze zur Verbesserung des DRM auch aus dem Forprofit-Bereich analysieren.

Die ersten beiden Forschungsprojekte zeigen klar, dass es Spendende gibt, die besonders gut rekrutiert und gebunden werden können. Diese (potenziellen) Spendenden neigen eher dazu eine Spendenkarriere aufzunehmen und auch langfristig zu spenden. Anhand der getesteten RM-Maßnahmen konnten einige Eigenschaften von (potenziellen) Spendenden und ihren Bedürfnissen präsentiert werden. Diese (potenziellen) Spendenden werden einerseits durch sozio-demografische Merkmale beschrieben, aber auch durch ihre Bedürfnisse mögliche Spendenevents betreffend. So zeigte sich, dass Männer und Personen mit zunehmendem Alter spendenbereiter sind, und dass Blutspendenevents vermehrt an Wochenenden angeboten beziehungsweise Terminvereinbarungen ermöglicht werden sollten. Die Ergebnisse ermöglichen Nonprofit Managern diese Spendenden anzusprechen und zeigen

auf, welche Gruppen von (potenziellen) Spendenden noch nicht durch die getesteten RM-Strategien angesprochen und gebunden werden können.

Als Konsequenz empfiehlt diese Dissertation Managern von NPO, weitere Informationen über ihre Spendenden zu sammeln und vielversprechende Spendende zu identifizieren, die die eingangs beschriebene Nachfrage-Angebot-Lücke schließen können. Das differenzierte Marketing kann immer noch eine erfolgsversprechende RM-Strategie darstellen, um bereits gewonnene Spendende und ihre Bedürfnisse gezielter anzusprechen. Nonprofit Manager sollten jedoch insbesondere in Anbetracht des begrenzten Marketingbudgets vorgehen und die positiven und negativen Effekte einer Übertragung von RM-Strategien und Maßnahmen aus dem Forprofit-Bereich gegeneinander abwägen.

Unter Kosten-Nutzen-Aspekten ist eine weitergehende Analyse von RM-Strategien aus dem Forprofit-Bereich weiterhin wünschenswert. Ein Rückgriff auf das Potenzial der bereits bestehenden Spendendenbasis erscheint hier lohnend. Ein guter Ansatz bieten Strategien zur Stimulierung von WOM. Der untersuchte Effekt von WOM zeigt eine vielversprechende Möglichkeit zur Bindung von Spendenden. Jedoch fehlt es an hinreichenden Erkenntnissen welche Art von RM-Strategie zur Stimulierung von WOM führen kann. Die Ergebnisse des dritten Forschungsprojekts (*Kapitel 3*) lassen lediglich darauf schließen, dass nicht alle WOM-Belohnungen moralisch akzeptiert werden und einen negativen Effekt auf die Beziehung zur NPO forcieren könnten. NPO sollten somit auf die weitere Evaluation von WOM-Strategien und WOM-Belohnungen zur Stimulation von WOM setzen. Dies ist auch vor dem Hintergrund der positiven Effekte auf WOM-sendende und WOM-empfangende Spendende relevant (Sweeney/Soutar/Mazzarol 2008; v. Wagenheim/Bayón 2007). Hier zeigt sich die Möglichkeit einer wechselseitigen Steigerung der Bindung an eine NPO durch den Einsatz von WOM. WOM bietet somit eine nachhaltige Lösung zur Bindung von Spendenden, was langfristig zu einer Stabilisierung der Spendendenbasis führen kann.

Des Weiteren werden in dieser Dissertation zukünftige Entwicklungen auf dem Spendenmarkt näher betrachtet und ihre Auswirkungen auf das Spendenverhalten und somit auf die Bindung zur NPO diskutiert (*Kapitel 4*). Manager von NPO sollten mit Blick auf zukünftige Trends die Anpassung wichtiger Komponenten der bisherigen DRM-Strategien nicht außer Acht lassen. Die Ergebnisse belegen, dass sich NPO nicht vor den Entwicklungen verschließen, sondern aktiv die Etablierung geeigneter RM-Maßnahmen vorantreiben sollten, um einem Verlust Spendender entgegenzuwirken und die Bindung an die NPO zu erhöhen. Indem NPO zukünftige Entwicklungen der Bedürfnisse von Spendenden evaluieren und umsetzen, wird eine langfristige Beziehung zur NPO erst ermöglicht. Hier ist es notwendig geeignete Kommunikationswege zu analysieren, um die größtmögliche Akzeptanz der Spendenden zu erreichen und negativen Auswirkungen der Veränderungen des DRM entgegenzuwirken. Des Weiteren fördert die Evaluierung zukünftiger Entwicklungen die Integration verschiedener Mechanismen zur Anpassung des DRM, was folglich die Akzeptanz und Etablierung von Innovationen in NPO generell erleichtern könnte.

Durch die aktionsbasierte Forschung können Ansätze zur Optimierung des bisherigen RM-Strategien aufgezeigt werden. Hierzu wurden verschiedene methodische Ansätze gewählt. Die Ergebnisse dieser Dissertation basieren somit auf vier unabhängigen Datensätzen, die mittels zweier Befragungen, einem Online Experiment und einem Feldexperiment erhoben wurden. Dies ist insbesondere relevant, da die Studien durch Marketingmanager und Experten von NPO begleitet wurden. Die objektiv gesammelten Daten ermöglichen Nonprofit Managern auf Ergebnisse mit einer hohen Erklärungskraft zurückzugreifen, um ihre RM-Maßnahmen zu evaluieren.

Des Weiteren wurden verschiedene Ansätze zur Analyse der gesammelten Spendendaten aufgezeigt. Neben gängigen Analysemethoden, wie der Regressionsanalyse oder Varianzanalyse, wurde auch die Erweiterung eines bereits etablierten Strukturgleichungsmodells im dritten Forschungsprojekt vorgenommen (*Kapitel 3*). Besonders das erste Forschungsprojekt dieser Dissertation (*Kapitel 2*) trägt jedoch zur Etablierung einer Methode zur zielgruppen-spezifischen Analyse mittels linearer Dummy-Regression und Interaktionseffekten bei. Diese Art der zielgruppen-spezifischen Analyse wurde zu diesem Zweck bisher nicht durchgeführt. Anders als in bisherigen Studien zu differenziertem Marketing, die meist auf beobachtbare Differenzierungsmerkmale, wie den ethnischen Hintergrund, zurückgriffen (z. B. Aaker/Burmbaugh/Grier 2000; Butt/de Run 2011), erlaubt der genutzte Ansatz der linearen Regressionsanalyse mit Dummy-Variablen und Interaktionseffekten hingegen, die differenzierten Kampagnen auch bezogen auf Verhaltensvariablen zu analysieren.

Ansätze für zukünftige Forschung

Obwohl die Ergebnisse Ansätze zur Etablierung und Verbesserung verschiedener RM-Maßnahmen bieten, unterliegt auch diese Dissertation einigen Limitationen, die Hinweise für zukünftige Forschung im Nonprofit DRM liefern.

Insgesamt nehmen die vier Forschungsprojekte dieser Dissertation eine eher statische Betrachtung und Analyse der RM-Maßnahmen und der Beziehung von Spendenden zur NPO vor. Da sich Spendende jedoch über den Spenderlebenszyklus verändern und ihre Bedürfnisse und Erwartungen anhand ihrer Erfahrungen anpassen (Helmig/Boenigk 2012), sollten dynamischere Ansätze zur Verbesserung des DRM von NPO abgestrebt werden. Eine gute Möglichkeit bieten hier Längsschnittstudien, mit deren Hilfe die nachhaltige Wirkung von RM-Maßnahmen evaluiert werden können. So können Erkenntnisse und Veränderungen über den Zeitablauf besser verstanden und Konsequenzen abgeleitet werden, was zu einer nachhaltigen Stärkung des DRM führen kann.

Des Weiteren liegt der Fokus der vier aktionsbasierten Forschungsprojekte lediglich auf der Etablierung und Verbesserung der Beziehung zwischen einer NPO und ihren Spendenden. Jedoch ist diese Betrachtungsweise eine, die weitere die Beziehung beeinflussen Faktoren vernachlässigt. Es erscheint mitunter lohnenswert den Schritt weg von eher marktbezogenem RM-Ansätzen hin zu netzwerkbasierten RM-Ansätzen zu wagen (Möller 2010).

Ein erster Schritt in die netzwerkbasierenden RM-Ansätze bieten sogenannte ‚Relationship Bonds‘ (McCort 1994; Zeithaml/Bitner/Gremler 2013). Eine Stufe der ‚Relationship Bonds‘ stellen ‚Social Bonds‘ dar. Sie sollen eine langfristige Beziehung sichern, indem Spendende durch soziale und interpersonelle Anreize angesprochen werden. Spendende werden als Individuen verstanden, deren Bedürfnisse durch die NPO verstanden und adressiert werden (Jones/Shandiz 2015). Hier spielen insbesondere andere Spendende bei der Bindung von Spendenden eine übergeordnete Rolle. Durch die Bildung von ‚Social Bonds‘ wird der Spendende zwar nicht für immer an die NPO gebunden, jedoch wird es für konkurrierende Organisationen schwieriger diese Bindung nachzuahmen oder zu lösen (Jones/Shandiz 2015; Zeithaml/Bitner/Gremler 2013).

Wie bereits durch die ‚Relationship Bonds‘ angedeutet, zeichnen sich netzwerkbasierte Ansätze eher durch eine hohe Beziehungskomplexität und eine niedrige Substituierbarkeit aus (Möller 2010). Im Vergleich zu marktbezogenen RM-Ansätzen, beziehen sie nicht nur die Verbindung zwischen einer NPO und den Spendenden mit ein, sondern betrachten auch weitere diese Beziehung betreffende Verbindungen (z. B. Mitarbeitende, andere Spendende, Bekannte des Spendenden, u.a.m.) (McCort 1994; Möller 2010). Die zukünftige Forschung sollte die Rolle dieser ‚Relationship Bonds‘ auch in ihrer Wechselwirkung in einem Netzwerk von Beziehungen weiter analysieren. So könnten für NPO zukünftige RM-Strategien mit einem Fokus auf eine individuellere Umgangsweise mit Spendenden entwickelt werden. Auch können sie weitere Erkenntnisse liefern, wie sich Strukturen in Beziehungen ändern und welchen Einfluss einzelne Teile eines Beziehungsnetzwerks auf die Bindung an eine NPO ausüben.

Um die Wechselwirkung der einzelnen Parteien des Netzwerkes besser zu verstehen, bieten sich Mehrebenenanalysen an (z. B. Bliese/Chan/Ployhart 2007). Bereits Jacobucci und Ostrom (1996: S. 53) sagten: „We find strong support of a relationship paradigm in considering marketing phenomena in the context of commercial dyads, but different ‘levels’ of relational dyads are characterized by different relational dimensions.“ Mit Hilfe von Mehrebenenanalysen können hierarchisch strukturierte Daten analysiert und wechselseitige Einflussprozess zwischen einem Spendenden und einer Gruppe verstanden werden (Castro 2002). So können Kontexteffekte aufgedeckt und in die Handlungsempfehlungen einbezogen werden. Nonprofit Marketingmanager können durch das genauere Bild, welches die Mehrebenenanalyse aufzeigt, direkte DRM Verbesserungen ableiten (z. B. Wieseke et al. 2008).

Insgesamt wird in dieser Dissertation immer wieder auf Kosten-Nutzen-Aspekte hingewiesen. Da der Fokus der Dissertation auf der Evaluation aktionsbasierter Forschung und den Effekten verschiedener RM-Maßnahmen lag, sollten die finanziellen Aspekte der Umsetzung von RM-Strategien aus dem Forprofit-Bereich in der zukünftigen Forschung mehr Beachtung finden.

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2. Spenderrekrutierung – Der erste Schritt zum Donor Relationship Management

Under Blood Pressure – Differentiated versus Undifferentiated Marketing to Increase Blood Donations

Abstract

Despite strong evidence in current marketing theory and practice that a differentiated marketing approach increases recruitment success, blood services worldwide often use undifferentiated marketing strategies to address new blood donors. Relying on the assumption that differentiated marketing is highly promising; the authors developed an online experiment among 838 participants who had not donated blood during the past ten years. The experiment tested the effects of a differentiated in comparison to an undifferentiated blood donor marketing campaign on three marketing outcomes: (1) awareness, (2) intention, and (3) behavioral enactment. Surprisingly and in contrast with most marketing studies in the for-profit context, the results of the blood donation experiment suggest that differentiated marketing is not more effective than undifferentiated marketing. This finding has important implications for the marketing recruitment strategies and actions of blood donor services.

Keywords *differentiated marketing, target groups, blood donor recruitment, blood donor management, experiment*

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1 Introduction

Differentiated marketing, first introduced in the end of the 1960s by Kotler and Levy (1969), is a ubiquitous concept for researchers from all marketing fields. Until then, the common used marketing approach was an undifferentiated one, where all different stakeholder segments are addressed equally. Over time, researchers as well as managers recognized that an equal treatment for all stakeholders might not be the most effective strategy to address all stakeholders. In the for-profit context, many organizations differentiated their stakeholders by using purchase history data, online information or other easy accessible information (e.g., Cui et al. 2015; Jank and Kannan 2006). For example, Reutterer et al. (2006) used a dynamic two-stage approach. They first segmented stakeholders on a behavioral basis, and subsequently selected a targeted marketing campaign to address these sub-segments. They provided evidence that a differentiated loyalty program was more effective and efficient to retain stakeholders. Another study by Aaker et al. (2000) used 18 actual print advertisements to examine the effect of targeted marketing on members of the target and non-target group. Their results provide evidence, that favorable target market effects were stronger in the underlying target group and unfavorable non-target market effects in the non-target group accordingly. In this line, Butt and de Run (2011) determined whether a Malay advertisement (with a Muslim-themed design) more effectively addressed the Malay ethnic group and a Chinese advertisement (with symbols of the Chinese New Year celebration) the Chinese ethnic group. Their results showed that the strength of ethnic identity and self-reference affected the response to the used advertisement. Nevertheless, those studies are isolated cases, which examine the developed differentiated marketing campaigns in sub-segments. Most studies only segment and identify target groups based on loyalty and behavior (Peltier and Schribrowsky 1997; Prinzie and Van den Poel 2005).

However, by serving more than one target group, differentiated marketing can maximize the effectiveness of organizational offerings (Kotler and Levy 1969). Thus, the need to identify profitable segments (target groups) before developing the right differentiated marketing strategy is necessary (Lee and Kotler 2016). By using differentiated marketing campaigns, only those segments should be addressed, which are profitable and make sense given the organization's objectives (Kotler and Keller 2006). Differentiated marketing, in this context, can only be effective if organizations develop differentiated marketing campaigns in line with the needs and preferences of the underlying target groups (Lee and Kotler 2016). Hence, these organizations are able to target their stakeholders by learning from the past.

Especially for nonprofit organizations, which normally have a diverse set of stakeholders, differentiated marketing seems to be an alternative tool to address specific subgroups. All these groups need a different appeal and message content rather than one general appeal. Nonprofit organizations can address those target groups, which show the greatest size, are ready for action, are easy to reach and/or best matches the organization's mission (Lee and Kotler 2016).

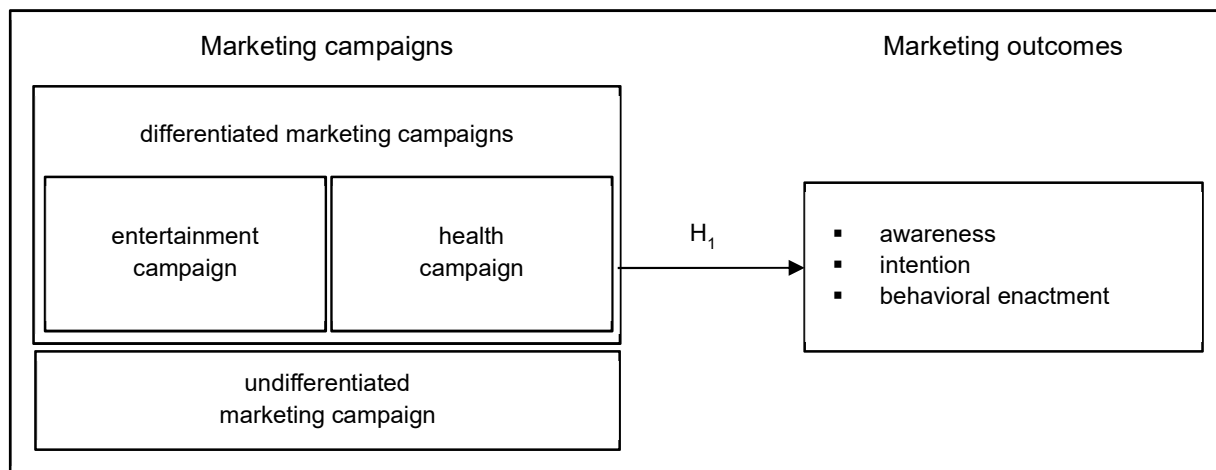
However, differentiated marketing is only a recommendation in the field of nonprofit research, especially in the blood donation context, rather than an applied strategy. Moreover, research focusing on differentiation further stated that differentiated marketing increases the recruitment success of organizations by creating appeals that precisely match the preferences of segments (Dibb and Simkin 2010; Kotler and Levy 1986; Manickam 2014). For example, the German Red Cross Blood Donor Service North-East (GRC) realized that, to date, only a few blood services segment their targets and that commonly used marketing approaches mostly are undifferentiated. However, marketing campaigns, whether differentiated or not, attract attention from potential blood donors. Surprisingly, research focusing on the blood donor market strongly recommended using differentiated marketing to increase blood donations more effectively (e.g. Zhou et al. 2012; Shehu et al. 2015), but do not analyze the effectiveness of differentiated marketing campaigns in a next step. For example, Zhou et al. (2012) examined the social values, lifestyles, and attitudes of Chinese blood donors and identified three major blood donor segments. The authors concluded their research by recommending the usage of specific types of advertising appeals and slogans that blood services might use to address the three identified segments. Another study by Shehu et al. (2015) identified four segments of blood donors and recommend using targeting strategies to address the identified segments. Summing up, these studies only recommend that managers implement different campaigns for each identified segment (Veldhuizen et al. 2013; ***). As mentioned previously, empirical tests of the effectiveness of differentiated marketing, especially in a blood donation context, are lacking. Therefore, our experiment compares a differentiated with an undifferentiated campaign to close this research gap. This study targets sub-segments of potential blood donors and does not influence prosocial behavior as a first purpose. Furthermore, we follow the appeal of Peltier and Schribrowsky (1997) to develop sub-segment focused marketing campaigns instead of using an umbrella marketing campaign to appeal everyone in the target audience. Thus, the research aim of this study is to verify if the already mentioned approach of differentiated marketing is a promising one in the blood donation context. Furthermore, we clarify the effects of differentiated marketing in the target group as well as in the non-target group. Therefore, we are able to provide evidence for the positive (negative) effects of (wrong) targeting. We contribute to marketing theory by critically questioning the applicability of differentiated marketing in nonprofit research, particularly in blood donor research. Furthermore, this study contributes to nonprofit management by identifying opportunities to reduce costs by improving marketing performances.

In the next section, we develop our conceptual framework and derive the underlying research hypothesis, after which we provide an overview of the experimental design and the campaigns. The results reveal several relevant findings with implications for theory and practice, and some limitations and inspirations for further research.

2 Conceptual Framework and Hypothesis

As has been shown, differentiated marketing might increase the recruitment success of blood services by creating appeals better matching the preferences of target groups of potential blood donors (Dibb and Simkin 2010; Kotler and Levy 1986). Hereinafter, we define differentiated marketing as follows: Differentiated marketing includes the development of different marketing campaigns for specific target groups, which enables the nonprofit organization to address these target groups related to their behavioral preferences. Anyhow, it remains unclear how differentiated marketing affects the target group and the non-target group. Thus, we analyze the effect of differentiated marketing on three marketing outcomes. Furthermore, it is questionable if differentiated marketing, especially under cost-benefit aspects, is worth its investment. In our conceptual framework (Figure 1), we distinguish between two promising types of differentiated marketing campaigns—entertainment and health—and an undifferentiated one, and test if differentiated marketing is better addressing potential blood donors.

Figure 1. Conceptual Framework



Since differentiated marketing and its effectiveness have been well documented and discussed by a large body of prior research, we do not repeat the theoretical backgrounds to corroborate our conceptual framework (e.g., Aaker et al. 2000; Butt and de Run 2011; Cui et al. 2015; Jank and Kannan 2006; Kotler and Keller 2006; Kotler and Levy 1969; Lee and Kotler 2016; Manickam 2014; Reutterer et al. 2006). We argue that differentiated marketing is a common concept, which does not require further theoretical argumentations. Thus, we argue:

Hypothesis 1: Differentiated (blood donor) marketing campaigns are more effective than undifferentiated (blood donor) marketing campaigns.

3 Research Methodology

3.1 Research Design and Study Context

With a between-subjects experiment designed to recruit potential blood donors in Germany, we test whether differentiated marketing works in controlled conditions. The experimental structure was identical for all three campaigns. The focus was on potential donors, because prior research shows that blood donors develop their motivations during their donor career (e.g., France et al. 2014). External factors, such as additional values, mostly motivate potential donors, whereas active donors become intrinsically motivated during their career (e.g., Guiddi et al. 2015). Therefore, we required participants to fulfill three main criteria. First, all participants were between 18 and 69 years of age. Second, to identify new donors, participants indicated if they had donated blood in the past 10 years (yes/no). Only those participants who answered “no” were considered. Because many potential donors are not able to donate blood, we also asked if they were unable to donate blood for a reason (e.g., medication) (yes/no).

Participants who met all the criteria for potential blood donors—appropriate age, no previous blood donation, but an ability to donate—then ranked their actual willingness to donate blood on a seven-point scale (1 = “low,” 7 = “high”). Afterward, they received a direct mailing, as further elaborated subsequently.

As we know from prior research, not all potential donors are alike, and blood services can identify target groups of potential donors that best match their requirements (e.g., ***). The two campaigns developed for this study should appeal to two target groups that represent a substantial proportion of the potential donor base (Lemmens et al. 2005; Müller-Steinhardt et al. 2012) and are based on experiences and observation of the GRC. Evidence for the two target groups is given also by prior research (e.g., Zhou et al. 2012). In line with the experiences of the GRC and other studies, we specified important characteristics of the target groups (i.e., age, Internet behavior, and health awareness) (e.g., Shehu et al. 2015; Buente and Robbin 2008; Ory et al. 2003). In a balanced random design, each participant saw one of the three experimental conditions: one of the two differentiated campaigns or the undifferentiated version (Figure 2).

Figure 2. Three Experimental Conditions



Note: During the experiment participants received the campaigns originally in German.

In the first condition, potential donors were offered an entertainment campaign. This campaign was designed for a technophile target group of young potential blood donors (e.g., Lemmens et al. 2005; Zhou et al. 2012). Their age ranges between 25 and 44 years and interested in online communication (e.g., Buente and Robbin 2008). This target group is a promising source of new donors. Young people with higher education level also indicate a greater likelihood of donating again during a one-year period (Schreiber et al. 2005). They often encounter donation events at their university or workplace, which should improve their awareness (Lemmens et al. 2005). Considering their affinity for new technology, we designed the campaign to be more modern, offering benefits such as an iPad and free Internet access to keep participants connected even as they donate. An eye-catching, colorful image in the campaign underlined its entertainment factor, stimulating the visual imagery process (Babin and Burns 1997), in combination with thematic aphorisms, such as “blood donation with entertainment factor.”

The second condition was a health campaign, customized for the target group of older potential blood donors (55–69 years; Moschis 2003). This group is active and interested in promoting their health (Walker 2002; Zhou et al. 2012). Moreover, older people suffer fewer complications while donating and are more likely to become frequent donors (Müller-Steinhardt et al. 2012). Thus, donations by this group tend to be more reliable; they offer a nearly untapped resource for recruitment (Gillespie and Hillyer 2002). Furthermore, demographic change has led to steady growth of older age groups, increasing the number of people represented in this target group (Walker 2002). To address its needs, this campaign cited health information (e.g., Ory et al. 2003). Specifically, the campaign offered a cholesterol health check, which prior studies cite as an effective incentive (e.g., Goette et al. 2009). To emphasize the health factor, the campaign also featured a picture of active people participating in sports and relevant thematic aphorisms, such as “blood donation with health factors.”

The third condition, which did not include a special offer, served as the undifferentiated campaign and was not designed for any particular group. It had an informative character and enumerated facts about blood donations. The structure was similar to that of the other two conditions. However, because pictures in this context generally serve to stimulate visual imagery processes (Babin and Bruns 1997), we did not include any, to keep the general campaign as neutral as possible.

3.2 Manipulation Check

To increase the external validity, we developed the campaigns with three marketing specialists from the GRC. The campaigns were adjusted in response to their extensive feedback, to make them as similar to actual campaigns as possible. In addition, we conducted a manipulation check, a necessary step because our experiment is valid only if the differentiated campaigns accurately address the underlying target group by using an appeal according to their preferences. We followed prior research on differentiated marketing by testing for the overall perception of target group distinctiveness (e.g., Aaker et al. 2000; Butt and de Run 2011) and not for single elements. After receiving all three campaigns, participants indicated the extent to which they focused on distinct target groups (e.g., “How

different are the shown campaigns in your opinion?” [1 = “weakly” to 7 = “strongly”]). Pretest participants then assigned each campaign according to socio-demographic, psychographic, and behavioral criteria, such as “Which of the three campaigns have been designed for young blood donors?” (1–3 or none). Most participants (87.8 percent) believed that the marketing campaigns had been developed for different targets, with a high degree of differentiation ($M = 5.14$; $SD = 1.216$). The entertainment campaign was specifically associated with a younger group (86.7 percent) that is innovative and interested in technology (80.0 percent). The health campaign matched with an older group (74.4 percent) that adopts an active, nutritional lifestyle (89.9 percent). In addition, 73.3 percent of respondents verified that the general campaign was not designed for any special target group. Therefore, the differentiated campaigns appeared sufficiently related to the desired targeted groups.

3.3 Measurement

After viewing one of the three campaigns, participants answered a short questionnaire (Appendix I), which first featured the dependent variables. Awareness was measured with three items from previous studies (Lemmens et al. 2005). We determined intentions with two adopted items (Armitage and Conner 2001; Godin et al. 2005) and measured participants’ behavioral enactment following Armitage and Conner’s (2001) approach: “Imagine there is a mobile blood donation event next month at a school close to your apartment. You remember receiving a marketing campaign some days ago. Now you are considering whether to go to donate blood at this date. Please indicate whether you would donate blood in this situation or not.” Participants had no opportunity to donate in our experimental situation, so this theoretical scenario provided indications of behavior (Armitage and Conner 2001). Participants ranked their willingness to donate blood on a scale from 1 (“low”) to 7 (“high”).

To identify the needs of the target groups, we included questions about their behavioral preferences during a possible blood donation event. The participants also evaluated the campaign they saw (d’Astous and Jacob 2002) and indicated how well their daily lifestyle was reflected (Rijsdijk et al. 2007). One question asked about their general opinion of campaigns. To determine the particularities of the derived target groups, further questions asked for the participants’ Internet usage behaviors (Buente and Robbin 2008; Kalmus et al. 2011) and health awareness (Walker et al. 1986; Zhou et al. 2012). By combining these target group criteria with specific marketing campaigns, we can analyze various interaction effects and test the hypothesized effects of a differentiated marketing strategy for particular target groups, as well as the potential effects of wrong targeting (differentiated marketing campaign addressing the wrong target group). Finally, we included socio-demographic questions.

Pretests: To the best of our knowledge, no prior nonprofit research has examined whether differentiated marketing works better than undifferentiated marketing for different target groups. Therefore, we verified our experiment with two pretests ($N = 127$ and 180), which revealed several main insights. First, we found a very low initial incidence rate. Second, we determined that it would be more

efficient to test separate target group criteria, rather than reconstruct full segments. Testing delineated segments creates two main problems: Few respondents can be attributed clearly to particular segments, and grouping individuals before confronting them with a marketing campaign might lead to a strong influence on their expectations about the conditions, which makes it difficult to ensure independence between the grouping and the conditions. Therefore, we decided to focus only on the main characteristics of the two target groups, as described previously.

3.4 Data Collection

The online experiment in cooperation with an online panel provider was conducted in March 2015. Of 1,924 potential participants, 860 respondents fulfilled the described criteria, equivalent to a response rate of 44.7 percent. To ensure high sample quality, we eliminated 22 participants with incomplete answers. The final sample of 838 potential blood donors is representative of the German potential blood donor base (see Table 1) (Socio-Economic Panel [SOEP] 2011).

Participants were nearly evenly split by gender, with 410 (48.9 percent) men and 428 (51.1 percent) women. Ages ranged from 18 to 69 years, resulting in a mean age of 44.29 years. The sample distribution also corresponded closely with the regional distribution of the potential blood donor population in Germany.

Furthermore, our sample consisted mainly of respondents with secondary school (21.3 percent) or secondary vocational education (51.4 percent). Many participants were employed full-time (47.2 percent) and were married or in a registered partnership (48.3 percent). The vast majority were born in Germany (95.7 percent).

3.5 Analytical Approach

To test our hypothesis that a differentiated campaign is more effective relative to an undifferentiated campaign, we derived three linear regressions with dummy variables and interaction effects (Table 2). Each of the three models compared the differentiated entertainment and health campaign with the undifferentiated one, represented by the intercept b_0 (i.e., reference category). To verify if differentiation works for the subgroups in the sample, we also test if the combination of a specific campaign with the target group characteristics exerts a significantly stronger effect on dependent variables. Positive interaction effects for the appropriate combinations would support the respective hypothesis. By measuring the effects for mismatched combinations, we gain insight into the (negative) effects of wrong targeting.

Table 1. Sample Characteristics (N=838)

	Category	N	SOEP 2011	
			%	%
<i>Gender</i>	Male	410	48.9	50.0
	Female	428	51.1	50.0
<i>Age</i>	18-24	108	12.9	12.5
	25-34	117	14.0	14.3
	35-44	178	21.2	21.0
	45-54	195	23.3	24.4
	55-69	240	28.6	27.8
<i>Federal state</i>	Baden-Wuerttemberg	101	12.1	12.0
	Bavaria	141	16.8	15.7
	Berlin	34	4.1	3.9
	Brandenburg	33	3.9	3.6
	Bremen	8	1.0	0.8
	Hamburg	16	1.9	1.6
	Hesse	58	6.9	7.1
	Mecklenburg-Vorpommern	12	1.4	2.0
	Lower Saxony	75	8.9	8.5
	North Rhine Westphalia	179	21.4	21.5
	Rhineland-Palatinate	48	5.7	5.2
	Saarland	9	1.1	1.2
	Saxony	55	6.6	6.7
	Saxony-Anhalt	27	3.2	3.6
Schleswig-Holstein	17	2.0	2.5	
Thuringia	25	3.0	3.8	
<i>Education</i>	Without school leaving qualification	9	1.1	
	Still in education	16	1.9	
	Completed school education	178	21.3	
	Completed vocational training	430	51.4	
	University degree	164	19.6	
	Additional qualification in executive training	14	1.7	
	Doctorate/PhD	10	1.2	
	Others	10	1.2	
	Prefer not to say	6	0.7	
<i>Employment/Life situation</i>	Full-time employed	395	47.2	
	Part-time employed	133	15.9	
	Marginally employed	13	1.6	
	Federal voluntary service	1	0.1	
	Inability to work	8	1.0	
	Unemployed	49	5.9	
	Pupil	15	1.8	
	Trainee/Apprentice	9	1.1	
	Student	36	4.3	
	Parental leave	9	1.1	
	House-wife/husband	53	6.3	
	Partial retirement	3	0.4	
	Retirement	91	10.9	
	Others	14	1.7	
Prefer not to say	8	1.0		
<i>Born in Germany</i>	Yes	801	95.7	
	No	32	3.8	
	Prefer not to say	4	0.5	
<i>Family status</i>	Single	305	36.4	
	Married/registered partnership	404	48.3	
	Widowed/registered partner died	16	1.9	
	Divorced/registered partnership repealed	96	11.5	
	Prefer not to say	16	1.9	
<i>Money Donations(past 10 years)</i>	Yes	458	54.7	
	No	380	45.3	
<i>Time Donations(past 10 years)</i>	Yes	197	23.5	
	No	641	76.5	

The coefficients of the interaction terms b_{11} , b_{12} , b_{17} , and b_{18} are of central interest to support our hypothesis. These interaction effects measure the combination of the entertainment campaign with the target group characteristics (social media/Internet use behavior and frequent Internet use behavior); the health campaign with the target group characteristics (healthy lifestyle factor and sporty lifestyle factor), respectively. We expect these coefficients to be significant and positive, in comparison with the values for the undifferentiated campaign. If the coefficients of the interaction terms b_{13} , b_{14} , b_{15} , and b_{16} are significantly negative (positive), it would suggest a negative (positive) effect of wrong targeting. These interaction effects measure, respectively, the combination of the entertainment campaign with the characteristics of the health-oriented target group (healthy lifestyle factor and sporty lifestyle factor), the health campaign with the characteristics of the technophile target group (social media/Internet use behavior and frequent Internet use behavior).

3.6 Results

The analysis started with descriptive statistics, including the mean values and standard deviations (see Appendix I). The dependent variables show a mean value of 3.96 (SD = 1.664) for awareness, a mean value of 3.38 (SD = 1.824) for intention, and a mean value of 3.87 (SD = 1.781) for behavioral enactment. For the further analyses, we tested the internal consistency of the reflective factors, which showed acceptable Cronbach's alpha values, ranging from .65 to .97 (Hair et al. 2010). To form the scale composites, we calculated the average values.

We calculated three linear regressions to test for three marketing outcomes. The first linear regression tested the effect of the differentiated campaigns on awareness, the second on intention, and the third on behavioral enactment. The adjusted R-square values for the three models show that 23.9 percent, 52.5 percent, and 38.0 percent of the variance of the dependent variable is explained by the independent variables, taking into account the number of independent variables included in the regressions.

Hypothesis testing: Differentiated versus Undifferentiated Marketing Campaign

None of the linear regressions revealed significant results related to the main interaction effects. The coefficients of the interaction terms b_{11} , b_{12} , b_{17} , and b_{18} indicated no significant effects of the differentiated marketing campaigns, neither of the entertainment nor of the health campaign, in comparison with the undifferentiated one. Furthermore, we found no confirmation that wrong targeting led to further effects. The coefficients of the interaction terms b_{13} , b_{14} , b_{15} , and b_{16} indicated no significant effect. These results indicated that we must reject our hypothesis. The differentiated marketing campaigns showed no significant effect on the dependent variables compared with an undifferentiated marketing campaign, nor any effects of wrong targeting.

Table 2. Results of the Linear Regression Models (Ordinary Least Squares)

Dependent Variable		Awareness				Intention			Behavioral enactment		
Parameter	Effect	VIF	Beta	T	Sig.	Beta	T	Sig.	Beta	T	Sig.
b0	General campaign (constant)		-.054	-1.238	n.s.	-.038	-.961	n.s.	-.013	-.294	n.s.
b1	Entertainment campaign	1.382	.081	2.288	*	.024	.863	n.s.	.020	.623	n.s.
b2	Health campaign	1.388	.006	.162	n.s.	.039	1.403	n.s.	.007	.827	n.s.
Influencing factors											
b3	Internet use behavior (social media)	5.185	-.046	-.677	n.s.	.009	.170	n.s.	.110	1.776	n.s.
b4	Internet use behavior (frequent)	5.741	-.058	-.800	n.s.	-.017	-.303	n.s.	-.077	-1.182	n.s.
b5	Health awareness (healthy lifestyle)	4.287	-.035	-.556	n.s.	.021	.432	n.s.	.020	.355	n.s.
b6	Health awareness (sporty lifestyle)	3.984	.112	1.858	n.s.	.034	.709	n.s.	-.073	-1.351	n.s.
b7	Preference for information	6.301	.189	2.494	*	.318	5.327	***	.306	4.475	***
b8	Preference for leisure time	7.349	.171	2.095	*	.336	5.209	***	.207	2.805	***
b9	Preference for working time	4.981	.112	1.658	n.s.	.091	1.713	n.s.	.031	.505	n.s.
b10	Preference for easy access	6.487	.053	.693	n.s.	.157	2.580	**	.257	3.703	**
Main Interaction effects¹											
b11	Entertainment campaign × Internet (social media) use behavior	3.153	.094	1.761	n.s.	.042	1.003	n.s.	-.038	-.787	n.s.
b12	Entertainment campaign × Internet (frequent) use behavior	3.515	.046	.810	n.s.	.056	1.252	n.s.	.044	.854	n.s.
b13	Entertainment campaign × Health awareness (healthy lifestyle)	2.725	.084	1.695	n.s.	.012	.302	n.s.	.001	.022	n.s.
b14	Entertainment campaign × Health awareness (sporty lifestyle)	2.646	-.067	-1.370	n.s.	-.017	-.046	n.s.	.047	1.069	n.s.
b15	Health campaign × Internet (social media) use behavior	3.441	.026	.473	n.s.	.031	.707	n.s.	-.011	-.225	n.s.
b16	Health campaign × Internet (frequent) use behavior	3.795	.059	1.008	n.s.	.032	.680	n.s.	.034	.650	n.s.
b17	Health campaign × Health awareness (healthy lifestyle)	3.050	-.018	-.337	n.s.	-.064	-1.548	n.s.	-.045	-.957	n.s.
b18	Health campaign × Health awareness (sporty lifestyle)	2.851	-.016	-.307	n.s.	.046	1.135	n.s.	.050	1.092	n.s.
Additional Interaction effects											
b19	Entertainment campaign × Preference for information	3.851	.003	.042	n.s.	.032	.692	n.s.	.020	.380	n.s.
b20	Entertainment campaign × Preference for leisure time	4.877	.009	.131	n.s.	-.007	-.131	n.s.	.023	.387	n.s.
b21	Entertainment campaign × Preference for working time	3.388	-.033	-.588	n.s.	-.024	-.555	n.s.	-.030	-.600	n.s.
b22	Entertainment campaign × Preference for easy access	4.067	-.023	-.375	n.s.	-.087	-1.805	n.s.	-.095	-1.729	n.s.
b23	Health campaign × Preference for information	4.010	.095	1.570	n.s.	-.014	-.297	n.s.	.040	.730	n.s.
b24	Health campaign × Preference for leisure time	5.059	.010	.150	n.s.	-.003	-.056	n.s.	.018	.302	n.s.
b25	Health campaign × Preference for information	3.245	-.077	-1.416	n.s.	-.031	-.713	n.s.	-.038	-.765	n.s.
b26	Health campaign × Preference for easy access	4.248	.038	.607	n.s.	-.050	-1.015	n.s.	-.110	-1.952	n.s.
adjusted R ²				.239			.525			.380	
F-Value				11.116	***		36.628	***		20.742	***
Significance level: ***p< .001; **p< .01; *p< .05; n.s.=not significant											
Standardized coefficients are reported											

¹ Note: Beside target group particularities such as Internet use behaviors and health awareness factors, age was intended to characterize the target groups. By including age as an additional variable into the linear regression models each of the three adjusted R² declines. The quality of the regression models deteriorates and age contributes no additional information. Thus, we dropped age from further analysis.

Further results: Beyond these findings pertaining to our hypothesis, the three linear regressions reveal some noteworthy side effects. In the first model, the entertainment campaign had a slightly significant effect on awareness compared with the undifferentiated campaign ($b_1 = .081, p < .05$). The entertainment campaign thus increased the awareness of respondents in general, regardless of their target group affiliation. We also found several statistically significant factors. Respondents who wanted to receive information ($b_7 = .189, p < .05$) and those who wanted to donate during leisure times ($b_8 = .171, p < .05$) showed more positive awareness.

In the second linear regression, we again found significant results for respondents who preferred to receive information ($b_7 = .318, p < .001$) and making donations during their leisure time ($b_8 = .336, p < .001$). Those respondents indicated a higher level of intention. Respondents who preferred easy access ($b_{10} = .157, p < .01$), revealed higher levels of intentions.

Similar results emerged from the third linear regression. Again, respondents who preferred more information ($b_7 = .306, p < .001$), leisure time ($b_8 = .207, p < .001$), and easy access ($b_{10} = .257, p < .01$) revealed significantly higher levels of behavioral enactment.

4 Discussion

4.1 General Discussion and Conclusion

Our research deviates from previous studies that recommend the use of differentiated marketing campaigns for different targets (e.g., Shehu et al. 2015). We sought to examine whether the recruitment of potential donors is more effective by using differentiated campaigns that reflect the particularities of the underlying target groups, rather than undifferentiated campaigns. By specifying these effects, our study makes three main contributions.

First, we have measured the influences of two differentiated and one general campaign on the marketing outcomes. The differentiated campaigns targeted different groups, because prior studies suggested that potential donors differ in their behavioral preferences (Martín-Santana and Beerli-Palacio 2008). The results show that the differentiated campaigns had no significant effect. That is, they did not increase recruitment success among the target groups, relative to the effects of an undifferentiated campaign. Nor do the results suggest if a particular target group can be addressed most effectively. Thus, the notion of appealing to potential donors according to their behavioral preferences requires caution.

Second, we elaborate on the characteristics of potential donors and verify the existence of a group, who are, in general, more likely to donate, regardless of the received marketing campaign. This group seeks information, prefers donating during leisure time, and favors easy access to the donation event. These findings are in line with previous studies that recommend addressing people who have never donated before with substantial information about donations (Godin et al. 2005). Furthermore, this study suggests that this group of potential donors is ready to donate. We suggest more effective

communication of certain measures to build a relationship. By developing marketing strategies that fulfill needs and expectations of potential donors, thereby delivering value, the satisfaction and positioning of the organization will be improved (García et al. 2013). Blood donation marketing strategies should implement these dimensions to increase the chances of success.

Third, we reveal the effects of differentiated marketing by examining differences in the target and non-target groups of potential donors, compared with the effects of undifferentiated marketing on these groups. Our results indicate that wrong targeting in this context does not have negative consequences (e.g., Aaker et al. 2000).

Differentiated marketing for potential donors does not necessarily result in overall recruitment success; wrong targeting does not entail negative consequences. The best approach to recruit potential donors appears to be to determine which marketing strategy achieves the best response rate. A promising approach would be to create an especially motivating marketing strategy for the overall donor base, to reach all kinds of donors.

4.2 Management Implications

Our research does not support the prevailing managerial belief that differentiated marketing is beneficial for increasing recruitment success (e.g., Shehu et al. 2015; Zhou et al. 2012) nor to be more effective than undifferentiated marketing. Instead, we find that blood services do not need to invest in differentiated marketing to recruit new donors. The costs associated with deploying a differentiation strategy will not result in substantial increases in recruitment success. Relative to the average costs of developing differentiated campaigns, blood services cannot obtain increased value for their money by using segmentation. More differentiated marketing will not be successful enough to be worth its investment. Blood services still need to invest in marketing efforts; it is just that they should invest in gaining a broader understanding of what a successful marketing strategy should look like.

Our results also uncover a group of potential blood donors who are more likely to give blood, which in turn suggests some effective enhancements for the management of events. One possible approach is to implement an active solicitation strategy. Frequently, blood donors do not seek opportunities to donate; rather, they more typically react to requests of blood services. Therefore, initial quality of the request plays a major role, starting by establishing and promoting awareness of the concern (Bekkers and Wiepking 2011). Our findings indicate that this group wants information by newspaper; therefore, blood services should increase the frequency of advertising in this traditional medium. By addressing this group more frequently, blood services can build relationships with them. In addition, the arrangement of even more frequent events, especially on weekends and in the evening, appears promising. A means for donors to make appointments is recommended, which enables blood services to guarantee easier access. Finally, confirming donors' decision to donate blood with recognition and appreciation after donating (Godin et al. 2005) by sending follow-ups or telephone calls seems useful.

By implementing strategies that feature these approaches, blood services are more likely to reach at least some of this group of promising donors, leading to increasing recruitment success.

4.3 Limitations and Further Research

To the best of our knowledge, this study is the first comparing differentiated campaigns with an undifferentiated one to evaluate the effectiveness of using differentiated marketing to address target groups. Some limitations should be noted to delineate opportunities for further research. First, this study focused on two target groups, derived on observations of the GRC, which are supported on a theoretical basis. These potential donors were assigned to a target group according to three characteristics (i.e., age, Internet use behavior, and health awareness). Segmentation studies show that several other target groups and subgroups exist (Wedel and Kamakura 2002). In addition, psychological characteristics (e.g., motives), could be used to describe targets more precisely (e.g., Beerli-Palacio and Martín-Santana 2015; Rupp et al. 2014). The motivational factor of differentiated marketing can still be a valuable tool to activate multiple motives of target groups (Manickam 2014). Further research should consider this factor when testing for differentiated marketing. Knowledge about how differentiated marketing activates motives is a valuable approach to develop a more efficient marketing strategy. We recommend a stepwise approach to examine the effect of differentiated marketing, initiated by a broader segmentation and then moving to more finely differentiated campaigns. The effect of differentiated marketing then could be tested directly across the underlying target groups. The current study also used variants of an overall campaign structure to ensure the same conditions for all recipients and fit the experimental design (see Figure 1). Further research might analyze different marketing tools for the different targets.

Second, the generalization of our results to other target groups requires some caution; we only measured the effects of the differentiated marketing campaigns in the German blood donor market. Prior studies show that (non-)donors in different countries exhibit diverse behaviors, motives, and needs (Martín-Santana and Beerli-Palacio 2008). Further research could consider these to validate our results.

Third, we examined the effect of our differentiated campaigns on potential blood donors. Prior studies document the existence of diverse active segments (e.g., Shehu et al. 2015; Zhou et al. 2012), which express more diverse opinions about donations than non-donors (Godin et al. 2005). Additional research should analyze the effect of differentiated marketing designed especially for active donor targets, because blood services might cover their demand by increasing donation frequency among this active base (Schreiber et al. 2003).

Fourth, we only measured the effect of the campaigns on three marketing outcomes: awareness, intentions, and behavioral enactment. Further studies should examine whether the potential donors actually undertake their first blood donation afterwards; or test the effects in a field experiment.

Appendix I. Measurement

Online questionnaire			
	I have donated blood in the past ten years. (yes/no)		
	I am not allowed to donate blood for some reason (e.g., medication, health, etc.).	N= 860	
	(yes/no) After plausibility checks: Exclusion of 22 data files	N= 838	
Start of the questionnaire: General opinion on the blood donations (Measured on a seven-point Likert-scale from 1= I completely disagree to 7= I complete agree.)			
		α	M SD
Willingness to donate blood (before)			
	My actual willingness to donate blood is... (1= low to 7= high)		3.65 1.864
Blood donation awareness (Lemmens et al. 2005)		0.759	
	I have never really thought of giving blood. ¹		4.46 2.158
	I have given some thoughts to give blood.		4.42 2.015
	I have already intensively sought information on donating blood.		3.01 1.897
Intention to donate blood (Armitage and Conner 2001; Godin et al. 2005)		0.884	
	I intend to give blood during the next six months.		3.03 1.826
	I intend to give blood in the future.		3.72 2.022
Behavioral enactment (Armitage and Conner 2001)		0.729	
	I will surely donate blood in this situation.		3.36 1.858
	I will surely not donate blood in this situation. ¹		4.38 2.148
Willingness to donate blood (after)			
	My actual willingness to donate blood is... (1= low to 7= high)		3.71 1.860
Behavioral preferences during a blood donation			
	I would like to		
Information	get information about blood drive dates in my local newspaper.	0.953	3.59 1.970
	get information about a special blood donation event in my local newspaper.		3.64 1.958
Leisure time	donate blood on the weekends.	0.792	3.50 1.927
	donate blood in the evening.		3.26 1.855
	Most likely I would donate blood in my leisure time.		2.80 1.923
Working time	donate blood during working hours directly at my workspace.	0.788	3.92 1.971
	It would be important to me to integrate a blood donation into my every day working life.		3.27 2.032
Easy Access	set an appointment for my blood donation.	0.651	3.59 1.970
	A good accessibility of the blood drive by public transportation would be very important for donating blood.		3.56 2.106
Compatibility of the marketing campaign (Rijsdijk et al. 2007)			
	The content of the marketing campaign		
	matches my way of living	0.969	3.64 1.709
	matches the way I do things.		3.66 1.715
	suits me well.		3.60 1.756
Evaluation of the marketing campaign (d'Astous and Jacob 2002)			
	This marketing campaign		
	pleases me.	0.929	4.41 1.746
	incites me to donate blood.		4.12 1.842
	gives a good image to the blood service.		4.58 1.745
Internet use behavior (Buente and Robbin 2008; Kalmus et al. 2011)			
	I regularly use the Internet		
Social media	to keep in touch with friends and acquaintances in social networks (e.g., Facebook, Twitter).	0.692	4.21 2.333
	to upload photos or pictures.		3.28 2.024
Frequent	to be entertained (e.g., listen to music, watch movies, play games).	0.867	4.12 2.061
	to express my opinion in forums on topics I consider important.		2.93 1.784
	to participate in forums, blogs, and surveys.		3.23 1.917
	to share music, movies, and programs.		2.59 1.744
	to upload videos (e.g., YouTube).		2.47 1.792
	to watch online TV or listen to the radio.		3.26 2.039
	to comment on articles in online newspapers or information portals.		2.96 1.960
	to participate in gaming environments (e.g., World of Warcraft, etc.).		2.33 1.854
Health awareness (Walker et al. 1986; Zhou, Poon, and Yu 2012)			
	I regularly ...		
Healthy lifestyle	check my cholesterol level.	0.876	2.65 1.965
	I am getting regularly checked by the doctor.		3.75 2.140
	I enjoy reading articles about health and lifestyle.		3.59 1.859
	check my blood pressure.		3.24 2.057
	seek health information.		3.19 1.859
	check my body weight.		4.27 2.080
	check my pulse.		2.76 1.901

2. Spenderrekrutierung – Der erste Schritt zum Donor Relationship Management

Sporty lifestyle	go to the gym.	0.679	2.40	1.898
	practice sport.		3.60	2.227
<hr/> I pay attention to a healthy and balanced diet.			4.34	1.742

M = Mean; SD = Standard deviation; α = Cronbach's alpha.

¹Note: Due to the negative formulation, the scale of the item was reversed.

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3. Donor Relationship Management – Möglichkeiten der Spenderbindung

Catch Them If You Can: The Effect of Reminder Direct Mailings on the Return Rate of First-Time Donors

Abstract

Despite the relevance of interactive marketing strategies, most nonprofit organizations rely on a marketing mix, which main focus is still on direct marketing. Previous research shows, that by optimizing the mailing frequency organizations are able to highlight their direct mailing from other mailings donors receive nowadays. However, some organizations such as blood services struggle to convert the frequency recommendations of relevant studies into their marketing practice. As blood donation events occur irregular in many regions and blood donors are only able to donate a few times a year direct mailing strategies of blood services have to result in the desired success of blood donations within a short time frame. Thus and in contrast to existing research, this study examines a double mailing strategy in which a reminder direct mailing follows the regular invitation mailing a few days before a particular donation event. A field experiment with 396 donors of the German Red Cross Blood Donor Service North-East was conducted, whereof 203 received the double mailing. Hierarchical binary logistic regressions were used to analyze the data. Surprisingly, results do not reveal differences between the double mailing approach and the regular one. Thus, a single direct mailing approach to advertise an event is recommended, which leads in practice to considerable cost-savings.

Keywords *direct marketing, reminder direct mailing, frequency, nonprofit management, field experiment, hierarchical binary logistic regression*

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Introduction

Over the last decades one can observe a shifting trend in which traditional marketing strategies, such as direct marketing, are complemented or replaced by new interactive marketing strategies (e.g., Arnold & Trapp, 2001; Bacile, Ye, & Swilley, 2014; Hennig-Thurau et al., 2010; Pescher, Reichhart, & Spann, 2014; Sargeant, Jay, & Lee, 2006). However, direct marketing is still a key component of the marketing media mix (Feld et al., 2013). Most organizations rely on a combination of direct and interactive marketing (Direct Marketing Association [DMA], 2015), since direct mailings still generate a high response rate among existing stakeholders (e.g., Feld et al., 2013; van Diepen, Donkers, & Franses, 2009).

Especially for nonprofit organizations direct mailings build an important element of their fundraising activities (e.g., Bekkers & Crutzen, 2007; Bekkers & Wiepking, 2011; Feld et al., 2013). Although nonprofit organizations use increasing interactive marketing strategies to create awareness and to solicit donations (e.g., Waters & LeBlanc Feneley, 2013), relying on efficient and effective direct mailing strategies guarantees to raise sufficient funds to meet the organizations purpose.

Against this background, donors are confronted with a continuously growing direct mailing volume from diverse organizations (Diamond & Iyer, 2007; Feld et al., 2013). They all compete for the limited attention of the receiver (e.g., Lhoest-Snoeck, van Nierop, & Verhoef, 2014). However, since the marketing budget of nonprofit organizations is limited; they need to optimize their marketing performance (Bacile, Ye, & Swilley, 2014; Sargeant, Jay, & Lee, 2006; Thomas, Feng, & Krishnan, 2015). Therefore, an extensive body of academic literature examines how direct mailings could be developed even more successful in the nonprofit context. Besides the well documented approaches of segmenting and targeting of donors (e.g., Rupp, Kern, & Helmig, 2014) as well as the improvement of contents and design elements of direct mailings (e.g., Bekkers & Crutzen, 2007; Diamond & Iyer, 2007; Feld et al., 2013), another promising approach is the optimization of direct mailing frequencies (Schweidel & Knox, 2013; Van Diepen, Donkers, & Franses, 2009). Studies provide evidence that optimizing the frequency of direct mailings over a defined time period affects the retention success in general (e.g., Elsner, Krafft, & Huchzermeier, 2004; Piersma & Jonker, 2004). Moreover, the optimization of the frequency of direct mailings can lead to cost saving opportunities (Sargeant, 2001) and may strengthen the relationship between an organization and its stakeholder, since donors only receive those direct mailings they need to show the desired behavior (Schumann, Petty, & Clemons, 1990).

However, some organizations struggle to convert the frequency recommendations of previous studies into marketing practice. Their special constellations limit their possibilities to entirely use the optimized direct marketing strategies. One example exists in the blood donation market. Most blood services all over the world collect voluntary and non-remunerated blood donations to secure a constant supply of blood products for patients (Williamson & Devine, 2013). Thus, many blood services rely on

sending out direct mailings to invite blood donors to blood donation events. However, in many regions a blood donation event only takes place a few times a year (German Red Cross Blood Donor Service North-East [GRC], 2015a). Since most donors are only willing to travel a limited distance to join a blood donation event (e.g., Mews, 2013; Schreiber et al., 2006), blood services need to successfully invite blood donors from the area close to the particular event. Consequently, the spectrum to optimize the direct mailing frequency is restricted and needs to trigger donors successfully to give blood at the few blood donation events in their area.

In this special case, the retention of individuals that gave blood for the first time plays a vital role. Literature on blood donor behavior underlines that the time between the first and second donation is crucial to build a blood donor relationship (e.g., Kheiri & Alibergi, 2015; Schreiber et al., 2005). The opportunity to return quickly is important (Kasraian & Tavassoli, 2012) as research suggests that a higher frequency of blood donations in the first donation year increases the probability to become loyal (Schreiber et al., 2005) and with the third donation donors begin to identify themselves as regular blood donors (Callero & Piliavin, 1983).

Against this background, this study contributes to marketing theory and practice by extending the knowledge on effective direct mailing strategies for nonprofit organizations, especially in the blood donation context. Unlike previous studies that consider optimizing the frequency of direct mailings over a longer period, we analyze the effectiveness of a direct mailing strategy at a short timeframe of two weeks which aims to influence the desired donation behavior of first-time donors regarding a particular donation event. Thus, this study analyzes a regular direct mailing that invites blood donors to donate followed by a reminder mailing one week before the particular advertised blood donation event takes place. We aim to answer; (1) if a reminder direct mailing in addition to the regular direct mailing (double mailing) has a positive effect on the donation behavior of first-time blood donors and (2) whether an additional reminder direct mailing is more effective for a special group of first-time blood donors. To provide evidence, we conducted a field experiment. The sample comprises first-time blood donors of the GRC, which was a partner in conducting this experiment. Other organizations can rely on this case study when evaluating their common direct mailing strategy.

The study continues with an overview of prior research. Subsequently, we describe the experimental structure and method used to collect the data. We apply hierarchical binary logistic regression to analyze the data of the field experiment. After presenting relevant findings, implications for further research and marketing managers are given.

Prior Research on Reminder Direct Mailings

Although many nonprofit organizations are aware that sending out too many direct mailings may decrease donation amounts, the question how to optimize direct mailings is still not fully answered.

Literature from for-profit and nonprofit researchers indicates that the positive effects of an optimized frequency of direct mailings for organizations and for stakeholders outweigh (e.g., Jonker, Piersma, & Potharst, 2006). For example, by optimizing the frequency of direct mailings return rates of stakeholders can be increased (Elsner, Kraft, & Huchzermeier, 2004), distribution costs of the organization can be reduced (Gönül & Ter Hofstede, 2006), and the relationship between an organization and its stakeholder can be strengthened (Schumann, Petty, & Clemons, 1990). Other studies provide evidence that receiving too frequent direct mailings may even cause negative effects, such as defensive strategies or irritation (e.g., Diamond & Noble, 2001; van Diepen, Donkers, & Franses, 2009). However, there remain some gaps. Mainly, those studies base their findings on historical data provided by the participating organizations (e.g., Campell et al., 2001; Elsner, Kraft, & Huchzermeier, 2004; Gönül & Ter Hofstede, 2006) or use survey data collected by sending out questionnaires to stakeholders (e.g., Eastlick, Feinberg, & Trappey, 1993). In those studies direct mailing frequencies were analyzed over a time period of a minimum of one year, which do not investigate the effect of optimizing the frequency during a shorter timeframe for one particular donation event. Furthermore, those studies rely on data from the past and do not analyze optimized frequencies in a field experiment.

Another focus on optimizing the frequency of direct mailings relies on reminder mailings. Those reminders were sent out as follow-ups to remind the receiver that still an answer is missing. Several studies have tested the effect of those follow-up contacts on response rates to postal mail (e.g., de Rada, 2005; Heberlein & Baumgarther, 1978) or to email (e.g., Muños-Leiva et al., 2010) in a defined timeframe. However, most of those studies focused on survey response rates and do not test for an outcome, such as donations. Furthermore, their results are not unambiguous. While some found an effect of reminder mailings others could not confirm their hypotheses (e.g., Deutskens et al., 2004; Yammarino, Skinner, & Childers, 1991). Thus, these results are not easily transferable to a nonprofit context since most nonprofit organizations want their donors to act in a desired behavior, such as money or blood donations.

In nonprofit research reminder mailings have also been analyzed, but the conditions of those studies were diverse. For example, Royse (1999) tested the effect of additional mailings on subsequent donation rates of donors without clarifying the timeframe. The author does not find significant results between the groups. Huck and Rasul (2010) conducted a field experiment, sending out a reminder mailing for donors six weeks after the initial direct mailing. Their results suggested that sending out a reminder increases donation behavior positively. Another experimental study by Sonntag and Zizzo (2015) tested how the frequency of reminder emails affects the donation amount and probability of making a donation. They found no evidence that reminders increase donation amounts in the original sample. Only by looking at a restricted data set they found hints for a positive effect but they did not find differences between a weekly and a monthly reminder (Sonntag & Zizzo, 2015). Trier Damgaard and Gravert (2016) showed in their field experiment with a charity that reminders send out after one

week of the first direct mailing increase donations, but as a negative consequence reminders increase unsubscriptions from mailing lists.

In summary, the overview on previous literature indicates the necessity for additional research in three ways. First, more action based research is needed to motivate behavior under real conditions, such as field experiments. Historical or survey data is not able to depict the behavior when prompted. Second, research on a shorter timeframe to optimize the frequency of direct mailings to trigger a desired behavior is required. This is necessary to prevent nonprofit organizations from negative consequences if sending out direct mailings in a too short timeframe. Third, more insights about the possibility to motivate donors to donate at a particular donation event is needed. The described research only tries to motivate donations in general and to convince donors of a donation when needed appears to be more difficult. Consequently, our research addresses these three points.

Method

Study Design

To test if an additional reminder direct mailing increases the likability for a subsequent donation of first-time blood donors a field experiment was conducted between October and November 2014. Our sample consists of first-time blood donors of the GRC. Overall, 396 donors were identified from the data base, that donated blood for the first time less than one and a half-year before the experiment. Especially for first-time blood donors, the time between the first and second donation is a decisive factor. The probability to become an active blood donor increases for those who give once or twice during the first year (Schreiber et al., 2005). Wherein, after a period of 12 month of no donation the probability to become an active blood donor, and therewith, becoming loyal declines rapidly (Kheiri & Alibeigi, 2015).

All first-time blood donors were randomly assigned to one of two conditions, the control or experimental group. In the first condition, which corresponds to the common practice of the GRC, first-time blood donors only got one regular direct invitation mailing (control group; N = 193). In the second condition, first-time blood donors received two mailings: the regular direct mailing and an additional reminder direct mailing (double mailing) one week before the particular advertised blood donation event (experimental group; N = 203). Therefore, first-time blood donors in the experimental group received two direct mailings in a timeframe of two weeks, whereby the control group only received one. The regular direct mailing invited participants to donate blood at the next possible blood donation event. First-time blood donors in both conditions received it two weeks before the particular advertised blood donation event. Therein, only general information was given such as time, date, and place of the blood donation event.

In addition to this general information the reminder direct mailing includes an additional sentences (“Thank you for your first blood donation”) which is in line with prior research (e.g.,

Merchant, Ford, & Sargeant, 2010) and a paragraph, which defines the membership to a social group and reminds donors of the blood donation event. Otherwise sending an exact direct mailing a second time may have led to confusion of recipients. Consequently, the double mailing influences the return behavior by confronting first-time blood donors twice with the information to donate again within a timeframe of two weeks.

Data Collection

The data collection started after sending out the first regular direct mailing and ended one month after the last blood donation event. The sample consists exclusively of first-time blood donors that were able to donate for the second time during the timeframe of the field experiment. Thus, the sample corresponds to the basic population of first-time blood donors that were able to donate again. Table 1 shows all sample characteristics.

Table 1. Sample characteristics

Variable	Specification	N = 396	%
Groups	Experimental (Double Mailing)	203	51.3
	Control (Regular Mailing)	193	48.7
Second donation	Yes	105	26.5
	No	291	73.5
Gender	Male	169	42.7
	Female	227	57.3
Age	18 to 24 years	119	30.1
	25 to 34 years	110	27.8
	35 to 44 years	74	18.7
	45 to 54 years	67	16.9
	55 to 64 years	26	6.6
Blood type	0	148	37.4
	A	163	41.2
	AB	27	6.8
	B	58	14.6
Time since first donation	1 to 12 weeks	250	63.1
	13 to 24 weeks	91	23.0
	25 to 36 weeks	33	8.3
	37 to 52 weeks	13	3.3
	53 to 64 weeks	1	.3
	65 to 76 weeks	8	2.0

A total of 105 blood donation events that took place in 54 cities in November 2014 were advertised. Of the 396 invited first-time blood donors, 105 (26.5 percent) decided to donate blood for a second time, 49 (12.4 percent) of the control group and 56 (14.1 percent) of the experimental group. Overall, more female (227; 57.3 percent) first-time blood donors were invited. The sample shows a good distribution across age groups. The age ranges from 18 to 64, resulting in a mean age of 33.61 years (median age: 30 years). Also the distribution of the blood types matches with 37.4 percent 0, 41.2 percent A, 6.8 percent AB, and 14.6 percent B almost the German blood type distribution (GRC 2015b).

Regarding the time passed since the first donation, most blood donors have donated for the first-time not more than six months ago (341; 86.1 percent).

Measures

The dependent variable was the actual blood donation behavior that is if first-time blood donors followed the invitation and donated blood for the second time (yes = 1) after receiving the reminder direct mailing and/or the regular direct mailing, or whether they gave no blood (no = 0).

To include the two experimental conditions into the subsequent analysis a dummy variable was created. The reference category is the control condition (= 0). The experimental condition (= 1) contains the first-time blood donors receiving the double mailing. Furthermore, additional data which is collected from every blood donor was used as independent variables. The data includes socio-demographic and donor specific information. Variables are selected which have been identified by previous literature as predictors for starting a blood donation career, e.g., age, gender, blood type, and time passed since the first blood donation (e.g., Chan, Wan, & Yu, 2014; Kheiri & Alibergi, 2015; Veldhuizen et al., 2009). Since gender and blood type are categorical in nature, two additional dummy variables were created, whereof male function as reference category for gender (female = 1; male = 0) and blood type A (= 0) as reference category for blood type.

Analytical Approach

To assess whether significant differences in the blood donation behavior between the first-time blood donors of the control group or the first-time blood donors of the experimental group exist, we used a t-test for independent samples. Afterwards and to further control, a hierarchical binary logistic regression analysis was performed (Godin et al., 2007). Beside the binary form of the dependent variable, the independent variables are mainly nonmetric variables. Therefore, binary logistic regression is the most suitable approach. Furthermore, since we also add interaction effects, the hierarchical procedure also indicates the robustness of our two used models (Hair et al., 2010).

In order to perform the hierarchical binary logistic regression, the comparability of the two experimental groups has to be ensured, since the experimental results are only valid if the experimental groups are homogenous (Koschate-Fischer & Schandelmeier, 2014). Therefore, we give an overview of the two experimental groups by using a χ^2 -test.

The χ^2 -test does not reveal significant differences between the control group and the experimental group (table 2). The null hypothesis that the two experimental groups are homogeneous is accepted with respect to gender ($\chi^2(1, 396) = .887$; $p = .346$), age ($\chi^2(4, 396) = 3.512$; $p = .476$), as well as the time passed since the first donation ($\chi^2(5, 396) = 3.393$; $p = .640$). Only blood types ($\chi^2(3, 396) = 9.070$; $p = .028$) are significantly different regarding the two experimental conditions. This means, that the two experimental groups are heterogeneous, leading to an exclusion of this variable from the later hierarchical binary logistic regression.

Table 2. Results of the χ^2 -test

Group	Experimental		Control		χ^2	p
	N	%	N	%		
Gender						
Male	82	40.4	87	45.1		
Female	121	59.6	106	54.9	.887	.346
Age						
18 to 24 years	62	30.5	57	29.5		
25 to 34 years	53	26.1	57	29.5		
35 to 44 years	39	19.2	35	18.1		
45 to 54 years	39	19.2	28	14.5		
55 to 64 years	10	4.9	16	8.3	3.512	.476
Blood type						
0	81	39.9	67	34.7		
A	70	34.5	93	48.2		
AB	15	7.4	12	6.2		
B	37	18.2	21	10.9	9.070	.028*
Time since first donation						
1 to 12 weeks	123	60.6	127	65.8		
13 to 24 weeks	53	26.1	38	19.7		
25 to 36 weeks	16	7.9	17	8.8		
37 to 52 weeks	6	3.0	7	3.6		
53 to 64 weeks	1	0.5	0	0.0		
65 to 76 weeks	4	2.0	4	2.1	3.393	.640

Significant differences of the Pearson Chi-square test: *** p < .001; **p < .01 *; p < .05.

Results

To answer our first research question, if an additional reminder direct mailing increases the return rate of donors, a t-test for independent samples was made (Hair et al. 2010). The comparison of the mean values of the two experimental conditions indicates the influence on the return behavior of the two groups. The mean value of the experimental group with $M = .28$ ($SD = .448$) is only slightly higher than the mean value of the control group ($M = .25$; $SD = .436$). This equals an increase in the probability to make a second donation by three percent if receiving the double mailing. However, the t-test reveals no significant differences between the two groups ($T(394) = .494$, $p = .622$).

In a next step, we applied two hierarchical binary logistic regressions. Model 1 controls for the independent variables age, gender, as well as time passed since the first donation. Therefore, we are able to analyze if one of those control variables leads to a significantly higher probability to donate blood for a second time in either the control- or the experimental group. In addition, in model 2 interaction effects of the two experimental conditions with the independent variables are implemented. This refers to our second research question whether one of the two conditions leads to a higher second donation rate

regarding special donor characteristics. All variables used for the hierarchical binary logistic regression analysis as well as the results are shown in table 3.

Table 3. Results of the hierarchical binary logistic regression

	Model 1			Model 2		
	OR	SE	p	OR	SE	p
Group						
Experimental	1.181	.234	.477	.936	.765	.932
Control	<i>Reference</i>			<i>Reference</i>		
Gender						
Female	.548	.233	.010**	.509	.340	.047*
Male	<i>Reference</i>			<i>Reference</i>		
Age						
18 to 64 years	1.029	.009	.002**	1.029	.013	.029*
Time since first donation						
1 to 76 weeks	.999	.001	.579	.999	.002	.513
Group × Gender						
Female				1.148	.468	.769
Male				<i>Reference</i>		
Group × Age						
18 to 64 years				1.001	.018	.958
Group × Time since first donation						
1 to 76 weeks				1.001	.003	.694
Constant	.185	.402	.001***	.206	.536	.003**
N			396			396
-2 log L			440.960			440.704
Pseudo R ²			.062			.063
χ ² (p)			11.503 (.175)			5.728 (.678)

Note: OR = odds ratio; SE = standard error.

Significant outcome: *** p < .001; **p < .01 *; p < .05.

The first column of table 3 shows the independent variables. The second column contains the odds ratio, the third column shows the standard error, and the fourth column displays the p value. To interpret the results, the odds ratio is used. An odds ratio with a value greater than “1” indicates an increase in the probability to return for a second donation. Consequently, an odds ratio with a value below the value of “1” indicates a lower probability (Hair et al. 2010).

Model 1: The first hierarchical model analyzes the influence of the two experimental conditions regarding the dependent variable of a second donation and controls for donor characteristics of the sample. Concerning the quality of the used model, model 1 shows a Pseudo R² of .062. Thus, the used independent variables can explain 6.2 percent of the variance extracted and appears relatively low. Since we were only able to use natural data from the GRC data base, our model includes only few variables. Other variables have been confirmed by prior literature to influence the blood donation behavior, such

as past experience (e.g., Godin et al. 2007), motivation (e.g., Nilsson Sojka & Sojka, 2008), barriers to donate again (e.g., Kasraian, 2010), or risk factors (e.g., Barkworth et al., 2002). Their absence might explain the low Pseudo R^2 . Although these variables were not measured, the H-L goodness-of-fit test statistic shows non-significant values of 11.503 ($p > .05$) for model 1. These results indicate that the predicted model does not differ from the observed one. Hence, our model shows a good fit (Hair et al., 2010).

Regarding the results, no significant differences can be found between the experimental group and the control group compared with those who have not donated blood for a second time. Besides, two of three control variables possess significant different probabilities to donate blood for a second time. While the control variable 'gender' indicates that female blood donors in comparison to male blood donors have a lower probability to donate for a second time by a factor of .548, 'age' reveals that with every year of life the chance for a second blood donation increases by a factor of .029. The result of the third control variable does not reveal significant effects that the time passed since the first donation greatly affects the probability of a second one. The constant of the regression is highly significant and shows an odds ratio of .185.

Model 2: To answer our second research question, if the additional reminder direct mailing is more efficient for a specific group of blood donors, the second model adds interaction effects between the experimental groups and the additional control variables. Once again we look at the Pseudo R^2 . Model 2 shows a low Pseudo R^2 of .063. As mentioned before, this might be due to missing variables. The H-L goodness-of-fit test statistic again shows non-significant values of 5.728 ($p > .05$), which indicates a good model fit.

Furthermore, we confirm the findings of model 1. The results are consistent. We do not find significant differences between the control condition and the experimental condition regarding a second blood donation. Besides, we found a significant higher probability to donate blood for a second time with respect to 'age' and 'gender'. While with every year the first-time blood donors get older, the probability for a second donation increases by a factor of .029, female first-time blood donors have a lower probability to return to donate by a factor of .509 compared to male first-time blood donors. Again, we do not find significant different probabilities to donate blood for a second time regarding the 'time passed since the first donation'. With respect to the interaction effects, we do not find any significant differences. Therefore, it can be concluded that there are no characteristics of first-time blood donors that are influenced by the two conditions. The constant of the regression is significant with an odds ratio of .206.

Discussion

Unlike previous research which used historical or survey data to optimize frequencies of direct mailings, this study analyzed the effectiveness of an additional reminder direct mailing within a field experiment. Furthermore, we contributed to prior literature by testing the effect of a double mailing within a short time frame to stimulate blood donations regarding a particular blood donation event. Especially, this study examines the effectiveness of receiving either one regular direct mailing inviting for a particular blood donation event or an additional reminder direct mailing one week after the regular invitation. Thus, the aim of this study was to examine the effect of an additional reminder direct mailing and to test for which characteristics of first-time blood donors the double mailing works best. The results show that enhancing the frequency of direct mailings by using an additional reminder direct mailing increases the probability to make a second blood donation within two weeks by three percent. However, this effect is not significant. Hence, enhancing the frequency of direct mailings in a short time frame does not significantly influence the return behavior of first-time blood donors in our study. Furthermore, the interaction effects of the experimental groups and characteristics such as age and gender show no differences regarding the return behavior of first-time blood donors. Thus, no special group of first-time blood donors was stronger influenced by the double mailing approach.

Compared to prior literature which attaches great importance to the frequency of direct mailings, the results of our study provide evidence that receiving two direct mailings during a timeframe of two weeks does not seem to be an effective strategy. Although the double mailing approach in our study was not successful to motivate blood donors to donate a second time, we found some interesting results providing information for managerial implications to improve retention strategies especially for blood services. We verified characteristics of first-time blood donors which have an influence on the return behavior of donors. First of all, we found male first-time blood donors to have a higher probability to donate again. This is in line with prior research (e.g., Chan, Wan, & Yu, 2014). Reasons for women not to return for a second blood donation are manifold. Two main ones are adverse reactions, which relates to the lower weight of women, and higher deferral rates, due to lower hemoglobin levels (e.g., Misje, Bosnes, & Heier, 2010). Therefore, it is even more important to have a closer look at gender related factors, which influence the blood donation process. By implementing simple methods to reduce vasovagal reactions (e.g., dizziness and fainting) the blood donation experience can be improved for women. Also the possibility of other donation forms alternative to blood donations can lead to a higher return rate of women.

Second and in line with previous research (e.g., Andaleeb & Basu, 1995; Veldhuizen et al., 2009), the results indicate that blood donors are more likely to return as they get older, that is with every additional year first-time blood donors have a higher probability to donate for a second time. Reasons for this can be found in prior literature. Older blood donors, for example, show a higher awareness for the need and higher social responsibility (Andaleeb & Basu, 1995). In addition, they are less likely to

have complications during blood donations (Müller-Steinhardt et al., 2012). Younger blood donors tend to challenge lifestyle-related eligibility problems or change residencies more often. These factors often interrupt the blood donation career of young donors (Misje, Bosnes, & Heier, 2010).

Third, we did not find evidence that the time between first blood donations and receiving a direct mailing with an invitation to donate again is decisive for the decision to donate blood for a second time. Although prior research attached great importance to this factor to influence the likability for a subsequent donation of first-time blood donors (e.g., Kheiri & Alibergi, 2015; Schreiber et al., 2005), our results do not confirm this.

To summarize from a management perspective, our single case results indicate that it is sufficient for nonprofit organizations to send out only one regular direct mailing two weeks before a particular donation event, which is an important cost saving aspects. But still other frequencies of direct mailings might be optimal. We only can argue that receiving two direct mailings during two weeks does not influence the desired behavior strongly enough to make a difference in donation rates. However by building on the results of Huck and Rasul (2010) and Sonntag and Zizzo (2015) one promising strategy could integrate sending out the first direct mailing four to six weeks followed by a reminder direct mailing two weeks before the particular advertised donation event.

Furthermore, in addition to optimize the frequency, still the content of direct mailings is important. Giving donors the right appeals in the right frequency before a particular donation event to stimulate the desired behavior by doing a subsequent donation, thus, is needed. Researchers and nonprofit marketing managers should take this into account when optimizing their direct marketing strategies. Further research should analyze which kind of direct mailing content elements or design elements are the most efficient and at which emotional level donors get addressed by those elements. Thus the most influential information for first-time blood donors can be detected.

Despite these interesting results and as any study this research has some limitations that give additional new directions for further research. The main point herein is the limited data available due to some restrictive facts. These are the restriction of the sample including only first-time blood donors, the limited timeframe of one month, and the period of time between the two direct mailings. To evaluate the effectivity of the used double mailing, an expansion to other nonprofit organizations over a longer period seems useful. Furthermore, future research should take other timeframes and a variation in the frequency of direct mailings into account. Moreover, by sending blood donors a follow-up survey after a field experiment, researchers could gain more insights about reasons why donors decided to donate or not. This would enhance the knowledge on direct mailing approaches in general.

Conclusions

Although the trend indicates the implementation of more interactive marketing strategies direct marketing, such as direct mailing, is a promising tool for nonprofit organizations and blood services to address their donors. Direct mailings show a high response rate and are therefore necessary to fulfill the organizations purpose. Against this background, the question is not whether direct mailings should be used anymore, but how to make them even more effective. It still remains unanswered if increasing the frequency of direct mailings during a short timeframe to a particular event can be efficient for retaining donors. The results of this study provide evidence that sending a reminder mailing during two weeks does not increase the motivation, and thus, do not affect the donation rate. Nonprofit organizations should adhere to send one direct mailing two weeks before a particular event. However, the need for all nonprofit organizations to analyze a marketing mix of both direct marketing and interactive marketing arises.

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Share Experiences: The Effects of Receiving Word-of-mouth on Long-term Donor Relationships

Abstract

Purpose – Although antecedents and consequences for the sender of word-of-mouth (WOM) are well evaluated in many research fields, nonprofit service research focusing on consequences for receivers of WOM is limited. Thus, the purpose of this paper is to provide evidence for the positive effect that WOM has on commitment, trust, satisfaction and identification (as relationship related factors) and loyalty of donors in the long-term. Furthermore, the role of the social reference group and the moral equity of WOM-rewards are analyzed.

Design/methodology/approach – Blood donors of the German Red Cross Blood Donor Service were invited to take part in an online survey during May/June 2016. A total of 702 (23.74 percent) blood donors, who first donated in 2015/2016, participated. The data was analyzed using partial least squares structural equation modelling.

Findings – The results provide evidence that the mere presence of receiving WOM positively influences commitment, satisfaction, and identification as well as, loyalty. The positive mediating effects of the social reference group and moral equity were confirmed.

Practical implications – This study recommends using WOM approaches to bind donors, as long as the provided WOM-rewards are morally accepted from WOM-receiving donors. WOM is an effective strategy and NPOs should use this to strengthen the relationship with their donors in the long-term.

Originality/value – The paper provides and tests a theoretical framework to evaluate the impact of receiving WOM on long-term donor relationships. Thus, it fills the gap in the current discussion about the effectiveness of WOM as a marketing strategy to increase donor loyalty.

Keywords *Word of mouth, Recommendation, Relationship related factors, Loyalty, Mediation, Nonprofit management, Blood donor, Relationship marketing theory*

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1. Introduction

Since the 1960s research has assumed word-of-mouth (WOM) to be a marketing phenomenon to positively bind customers and donors (e.g., Arndt, 1967; Haywood, 1989). WOM mainly arises if an individual spreads information about consumption experiences, either to share information (e.g., Sundaram et al., 1998) or because another individual seeks for information about a product or service (e.g., Wirtz et al., 2013). New technological innovations simplify and accelerate this WOM spreading process (Stein and Ramaseshan, 2015). Therefore, marketing managers from all kinds of for-profit and nonprofit organizations (NPO) try to stimulate WOM by promising existing customers and donors a (non-)monetary reward if successfully recommending a customer or donor (e.g., Schmitt et al., 2011; Villanueva et al., 2008). Thus, stimulated WOM in contrast to “natural” WOM can lead to greater control over message content (Berman, 2016). However, before using WOM stimulating strategies, the effects of WOM in general and especially in the long-term have to be evaluated.

Researchers from all fields analyzed the influence of WOM, leading to two distinct research streams; one regarding the sender and one concerning the receiver of WOM. While antecedents and consequences for the WOM-sender has been the main interest during past decades (e.g., Anderson, 1998; de Matos and Rossi, 2008; Stein and Ramaseshan, 2015), research on determinants influencing the effectiveness of WOM and consequences of receiving WOM especially in the long-term is sparse. Studies of the for-profit sector focus on the receiver hint at WOM being determined by diverse factors, such as the perceived credibility and expertise of the WOM-sender (e.g., Sweeney et al., 2008; v. Wagenheim and Bayón, 2007). Furthermore, other studies found evidence that individuals receiving WOM are more valuable and loyal (e.g., Schmitt et al., 2011; Schumann et al., 2010; Villanueva et al., 2008).

Regarding service research WOM seems to be even more important. The consumption of services in comparison with products is considered to be riskier (Murray, 1991). Due to the intangible nature of services and the inherent difficult comparability with other services (Webster, 1991; Zeithaml et al., 1993), service consumers show a higher need for information to evaluate the offered services (Murray, 1991). Especially for NPOs which mainly offer services for their donors without compensating them for donating, the need to emphasize the service quality donors expect is important. Against this background, the relevance of relatives and friends on the decision to become and stay a donor for a particular NPO has been empirically validated in the NPO service context (e.g., Glynn et al., 2002; Julius and Sytsma, 1993; Smith et al., 2015). Donors assess the organization and its service by using opinions and expertise from existing donors (Arnett et al., 2003; Wirtz and Chew, 2002). Thus, WOM might function as a marketing tool to differentiate the service of an NPO from competitors (Murray, 1991). WOM, therein, is interpreted as a trustworthy and independent source of information (Wirtz and Chew, 2002) and might protect NPOs from donor loss (Sargeant and Woodliffe, 2007).

Hence, WOM seems appropriate to generate long-term success and to decrease marketing costs. Surprisingly, only few nonprofit service studies focus on long-term consequences of WOM on donors. The question remains open, if receiving WOM influences the relationship and loyalty of a donor with the NPO in the long-term. Accordingly, the aim of this study is to examine the influence of WOM on the relationship with donors and to derive recommendations for WOM stimulating strategies.

By fulfilling this aim, this study contributes to nonprofit service research in four ways. First, while identifying the influence of receiving WOM on the relationship to a NPO in the long-term, the importance of WOM for binding donors is revealed. This study will show that the received WOM influences the relationship with the NPO, and that receiving WOM increases loyalty of donors. Secondly, in comparison to existing WOM research, which only analyzes the influence of tie strength on WOM behavior of existing donors, this study takes the role of a social reference group, and therewith, the broader social influence on the relationship into account. Thirdly, by evaluating the moral equity of WOM-rewards, this study shows if a reward received from the WOM-sending donor for recommending donors is accepted. This reveals insights if WOM stimulating approaches have negative consequences on the relationship with a NPO. Fourthly, the study provide evidence that donors who were recommended by an existing donor while donating the first time, and thus, received active WOM, show even stronger WOM-effects on the relationship and loyalty with the NPO.

Following this, the study is structured as follows: first the theoretical background is given. Based on relationship marketing theory, the conceptual framework and related research hypotheses are derived. Subsequently, an online survey is conducted, of which relevant findings are examined to provide information about the valence of WOM. Finally, implications for NPOs as well as limitations of the study are discussed, which provide possible pathways for further research.

2. Theoretical Background

By considering WOM as a method to bind donors to a NPO, its effectiveness can be estimated by the donor relationship and loyalty it produces in the long-term. Since for NPOs the relationship with its donors is of main importance (Arnett et al., 2003), the conceptual framework (Figure 1) of this study is based on relationship marketing theory (Bennett and Barkensjo, 2005).

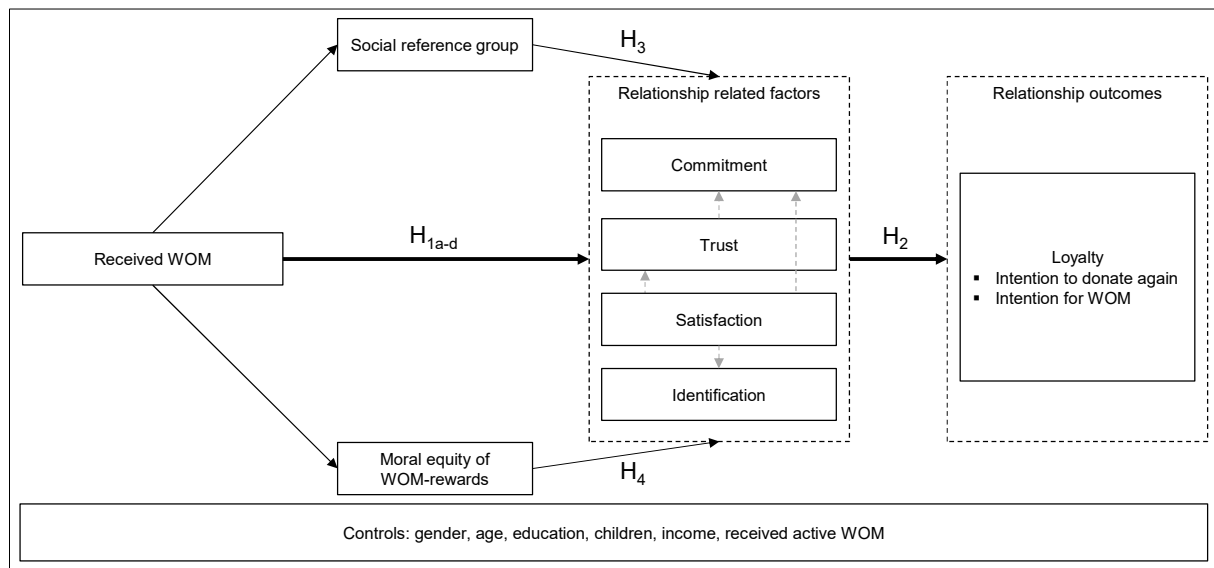
An important metric in relationship marketing theory is the evaluation of the relationship related factors (Bennett and Barkensjo, 2005) and their behavioral outcome (Shabbir et al., 2007). To gain insights about the influence of WOM on these relationship related factors, the influence of receiving WOM as a relationship introducing factor is integrated (Buttle, 1998). Prior literature gives evidence that WOM-receiving donors better match the organization (Berman, 2016), and therefore may show a closer relationship. Relationships, therein, occur after a transaction between the NPO and the donor. Commonly used factors to define relationships are commitment, trust, and satisfaction (e.g., Chumpitaz

Caceres and Paparoidamis, 2007; De Cannière et al., 2010). Furthermore, other researchers have suggested that no relationship with an organization occurs if donors do not identify themselves with the organization (e.g., Boenigk and Helmig, 2013). Thus, the identification of donors with the NPO is also included.

All relationship related factors are connected to loyalty, the relationship outcome of the conceptual framework, displayed by the intention for donate again and the intention to recommend the NPO (e.g., Boenigk and Helmig, 2013). Thus, the outlined conceptual framework tests the influence of receiving WOM on relationship related factors (H_{1a-d}) and relationship outcome (H_2).

Furthermore, two mediating variables are integrated which are further detailed below (H_3 , H_4). Since the paths between the relationship related factors and the relationship outcome have been well evaluated by prior research, I do not hypothetically derive all paths of the conceptual framework (e.g., Boenigk and Helmig, 2013; Chumpitaz Caceres and Paparoidamis, 2007; Shabbir et al., 2007).

Figure 1. Conceptual framework



Effect of received WOM on commitment. In relationship marketing theory commitment is one of the main predictors of loyalty and the most commonly used variable to describe the relationship between donors and NPOs (Weng et al., 2010). Commitment is defined as a basic concept for decisions that determine a behavior, which arises when donors become emotionally attached by a NPO to develop a relationship (Sargeant and Lee, 2004). Moreover, transferred to relationship marketing theory, commitment also seems to need a continuing desire to keep a relationship upright over a longer period of time (e.g., Moorman et al., 1992); that is a donor's conviction that the relationship with the NPO worth it to be continued (Morgan and Hunt, 1994). Summing up, commitment with a NPO first relays on a donor's attitude before getting stronger after donating, and a valuable relationship occurs. Since

value in this context is difficult to observe for a donor, the information and experiences a WOM-sending donor can commit influences the perception of a NPO. As donors who believe to receive more value from an interaction with a NPO, show higher commitment values (Wong and Sohal, 2002), receiving WOM should influence donors experience a higher commitment and therefore, seem less inclined to quit the relationship with the NPO. Accordingly, I derive the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 1a: The received WOM influences the commitment level of donors with a NPO.

Effect of received WOM on trust. Trust normally occurs after a transaction with a NPO and is based on social exchange theory (Arnett et al., 2003). Trust, therein, is defined as the donor's expectation in the NPO and its service to be reliable (Morgan and Hunt, 1994). Only if the donor's expectations about the organizational trustworthiness are evaluated positive, and the donor is willing to start a relationship under uncertainty, is trust generated (e.g., Schilke and Cook, 2013). Furthermore, since trust also reflects the donor's confidence with the NPO and its service, it is central to relationship marketing (Wong and Sohal, 2002).

Because of the attributes of NPOs, in which donors are not equivalent with the beneficiaries, donors mainly perceive a higher level of risk before their first contact (Murray, 1991). Thus, donors need other signals to donate. As mentioned, WOM can reduce the risk perception by increasing the donors' information level (Buttle, 1998). WOM-sending donors are perceived as better information source than NPO internal information since they are perceived independent from the NPO (Sweeney et al., 2008). In this context, the personal information source is viewed as more trustworthy (Murray, 1991).

Evidence is provided by a diverse set of studies, which reported that receiving WOM influences the expectations of a donor with the NPO (e.g., Webster, 1991). Donors, who received WOM, get information about how the NPO acts and what they can expect from the NPOs service (Zeithaml et al., 1993). Since expectations are directly related to trust, the importance of WOM as a source of information is undeniable. Furthermore, Schilke and Cook (2013) stated, trust can be transferred from a WOM-sending donor to a NPO. Trust, therein, is not directly based on an own experience, but can be extended by a third party. Thus, I hypothesize:

Hypothesis 1b: The received WOM influences the trust level of donors with a NPO.

Effect of received WOM on satisfaction. Also related to the donor's expectations, and therewith to relationship marketing theory, is satisfaction (Webster, 1991). Many NPOs focus on satisfaction as a predictor for a relationship with donors (e.g., v. Wagenheim and Bayon, 2007); thus, satisfaction has become a central measure in marketing research. For example, Webster (1991) sets the link between expectations and satisfaction literature. Satisfaction only occurs if the expectations of a donor are

fulfilled and only develops if the relationship is rewarding somehow. Since services of NPOs are intangible in nature, it is difficult for donors to formulate their expectations (Shabbir et al., 2007), and thus, the evaluation of satisfaction is equally problematic. Experienced donors of a NPO can clarify the expectations a donor can have (Buttle, 1998). This consequently influences the possibility to confirm the expectations after a contact with the recommended NPO, which increases the perceived satisfaction. I argue that by receiving WOM donors evaluate the NPO based on the experiences of the WOM-sending donor. Since only satisfied donors positively recommend a NPO, the consideration of the NPO results from these prior experiences (Wirtz and Chew, 2002) and are more positive. Thus, donors receiving WOM more easily rely on the expectations of the WOM-sending donor and will subsequently perceive the emergent relationship as rewarding because their expectations are more easily fulfilled. In turn, they become more satisfied. Accordingly, it is hypothesized:

Hypothesis 1c: The received WOM influences the satisfaction level of donors with a NPO.

Effect of received WOM on identification. Another important relationship factor is the identification of the donor with the NPO. In their study Boenigk and Helmig (2013) found evidence, that the identification with the NPO predicts loyalty. Based on social identity theory (e.g., Tajfel, 1974), the relationship identification is viewed as a dynamic response in the nonprofit context (Homburg et al., 2009). The construct is defined as the degree to which donors identify themselves with a NPO and to which extent the needs donors have are fulfilled by the NPO. If donors perceive themselves as a part of this relationship, they want to enhance their positive feelings with this connection (Homburg et al., 2009). Thus, due to its emotional component the identification defines another aspect of the relationship between the donor and the NPO. Receiving WOM influences the link between the donors and the recommended NPO. Thus, the WOM-sending donor increases the identification with the NPO since they provide donors with a reference point they can rely on. Giving this, I hypothesize:

Hypothesis 1d: The received WOM influences the identification of donors with the NPO.

Effect of received WOM on loyalty. Nonprofit management studies indicate that the mentioned relationship related factors predict the relationship outcome loyalty (e.g., Boenigk and Helmig, 2013; Homburg et al., 2009; Moorman et al., 1992). Loyalty in this context is defined as the donor's intention to donate again or to recommend the NPO (Sargeant and Woodliffe, 2007). Prior research gives evidence that higher levels of the relationship related factors lead to an ongoing relationship (e.g., Boenigk and Helmig, 2013). As predicted by Storbacka et al. (1994) relationships underlie a dynamic process and many factors influences this process. Evidence for the relationship related factors are given by the qualitative study of Shabbir et al. (2007). They displayed that commitment, trust, and satisfaction build the key antecedence of relationship quality. Since the WOM-sending donor enhances the relationship

related factors by clarifying the WOM-receiving donor's expectations, the effect on the relationship outcomes is unavoidable, but is based on the WOM received by donors. Thus, it is hypothesized:

Hypothesis 2: The received WOM influences the loyalty of donors with a NPO.

Mediating effect of social reference group. Since WOM is an interpersonal communication form, the social context in which a donor is embedded has to be taken into account. Thus, WOM communication is not only dependent on the relationship between the sender and the receiver of WOM, but also from the social environment. Relating to social exchange theory, donors experience high to weak social environmental pressure related to the closeness to experienced donors they interact with (Arnett et al., 2003). Especially, high social environmental pressure characterized by close relationships compensate efforts, which results if the donor starts a relationship with a NPO (Wirtz and Chew, 2002; Wirtz et al., 2013). As prior research shows, the effect of relatives and friends characterized by a close relationship seems to be highly powerful (e.g., Misje et al., 2005). For example, Meer (2011) examines the effect of peer pressure on the decision to charitable solicitation. The author found evidence that peer pressure influences the likelihood and the size of a gift. Moreover, Bekkers and Wiepking (2011) examined that the stronger the connection to active donors, the stronger is the social pressure, which influences the decision to enter a relationship. Thus, knowing donors, which already have donated to a NPO increases the likelihood of becoming a donor of the same NPO since the social pressure increases (Castillo et al., 2014). Furthermore, the concept of social reference group includes the aspect that donors orient their behavior and the relationship evaluation to members of a social group. Therefore, the interrelationship of receiving WOM and the social group a donor is embedded in is of importance to explain the relationship related factors. The received WOM and the relationship of the WOM-receiving donor with the NPO are consequently mediated by the social reference group and the pressure occurring from the interaction of the donor with the experienced donors. Thus, I hypothesize:

Hypothesis 3: The influence of the social reference group a donor is embedded in positively mediates the effect between the received WOM and the relationship related factors.

Mediating effect of moral equity of WOM-rewards. WOM-rewards in the form of incentives seem to be an appropriate tool to stimulate WOM in an effective way. However, the above described independence of the donor regarding the NPO may be perceived distorted by the WOM-receiving donor (Wirtz et al., 2013). WOM-sending donors might be only extrinsically motivated by the WOM-reward and not because of the positive experiences with the NPO (Wirtz and Chew, 2002). Thus, WOM-receiving donors might interpret the WOM with the knowledge that the WOM-sending donor's motive for the recommendation was the WOM-reward (Wentzel et al., 2014). If the WOM-receiving donor evaluates the WOM-reward as morally right (wrong), the influence of WOM increases (decreases) and the perceived relationship with the NPO grows (declines). Thus, the moral equity for WOM-rewards

positively (negatively) mediates the relationship between the received WOM and the relationship with the NPO. As a consequence I hypothesize:

Hypothesis 4: The perceived moral equity of WOM-rewards positively mediates the effect between the received WOM and the relationship related factors.

3. Methodology

3.1 Participants and Procedure

Data was collected during May to June 2016 by sending out an online questionnaire to blood donors of two blood services – the German Red Cross Blood Service (GRC) North – East and Baden-Württemberg-Hessen – which started their blood donation career during the last 12 months at one of the two blood services. These blood donors were chosen since the memory of what influenced the decision to donate for the first time for the GRC is not blurred by too much contact with the blood donation service. A total of 3,243 blood donors were invited by email, whereof 286 emails-addresses were not valid. Of the remaining 2,957, 702 blood donors participated in the survey (response rate: 23.74 percent). Of those, 133 participants had multiple missing answers and were excluded from the sample. Furthermore, to ensure high sample quality, 75 participants with more than 15 percent incomplete answers regarding the dependent variables were excluded from further analysis (Hair et al., 2016). The final sample included 494 blood donors, who needed 13 minutes on average to complete the questionnaire. Table 1 displays the sample characteristics.

Overall, the sample shows a good split in gender with 223 (45.1 percent) women and 270 (54.7 percent) men. Ages ranged from 18 to 71 years, resulting in a mean age of 44.82 years (median: 50 years). Thus, the sample shows representativeness for gender and age regarding the donor base of the participating blood services (GRC, 2015). Participants are grouped according to whether they have no children (212; 42.9 percent) or have children (279; 56.5 percent), with 2.13 children on average. Regarding the educational level, most participants completed a vocational training (241; 48.8 percent) or show a higher education degree (139; 28.3 percent), such as university. In addition, many donors are full-time employed (229; 46.4 percent), and have an income lower than 2,999 Euros (313; 63.4 percent). Of the sample, 201 (40.7 percent) donors stated, that they had been accompanied by an existing donor while donating the first time, means they received active WOM from an existing donor. Furthermore, most of the donors (452; 91.5 percent) have only donated blood and no other blood products.

3. Donor Relationship Management – Möglichkeiten der Spenderbindung

Table 1. Sample characteristics

		Number	Percentage
Gender	Female	223	45.1
	Male	270	54.7
	<i>Missing</i>	1	.2
Age	18–24	107	21.7
	25–34	42	8.5
	35–44	38	7.7
	45–54	148	30.0
	55–64	103	20.9
	65–71	54	10.9
	<i>Missing</i>	2	.4
Education	Without school leaving qualification	2	.4
	Still in education	16	3.2
	Completed school education	93	18.8
	Completed vocational training	241	48.8
	University degree	116	23.5
	Additional qualification in executive training	19	3.8
	Doctorate/PhD	4	.8
	<i>Missing</i>	3	.6
Children (Number: Mean = 2.13)	No	212	42.9
	Yes	279	56.5
	<i>Missing</i>	3	.6
Income	Below 450 €	34	6.9
	450 to 999 €	59	11.9
	1,000 to 1,999 €	103	20.9
	2,000 to 2,999 €	90	18.2
	3,000 to 3,999 €	38	7.7
	4,000 € and more	19	3.8
	No own income	27	5.5
	Prefer not to say	121	24.5
	<i>Missing</i>	3	.6
Received active WOM	No	293	59.3
	Yes	201	40.7
Other blood products	No	452	91.5
	Plasma	36	7.3
	Platelets	1	.2
	Plasma & Platelets	5	1.0
Other forms of donation (multiple answers)	No other form of donation	180	36.4
	Monetary donation	192	38.9
	Other beneficial donation	118	23.9
	Voluntary work	181	36.6
	<i>Missing</i>	1	.2
Work	Full-time employed	229	46.4
	Part-time employed	51	10.3
	Marginally employed	14	2.8
	Federal voluntary service	4	.8
	Inability to work	1	.2
	Unemployed	2	.4
	Pupil	23	4.7
	Trainee/Apprentice	28	5.7
	Student	39	7.9
	Parental leave	3	.6
	House-wife/husband	4	.8
	Partial retirement	8	1.6
	Retirement	66	13.4
	Others	19	3.8
	<i>Missing</i>	3	.6
German nationality	No	13	2.6
	Yes	478	96.8
	<i>Missing</i>	3	.6

3.2 Measurement

Table 2 contains a list of all measurement items. To measure the key variables of the conceptual framework, only scales from previous research were used. In order to interrupt the causal relationship of the constructs, scales were given in reverse order compared to the conceptual model. All items were measured on a seven-point Likert scale, mainly from “1 = strongly disagree” to “7 = strongly agree”.

Measurement of received WOM. To verify if participant received active WOM by experienced donors while donating, I asked participants whether they were accompanied by another person at their first blood donation (yes/no). Furthermore, a scale from Schumann et al. (2010) was adapted, using three items to measure the received WOM (e.g., “People I know already have had good experiences with the GRC-Blood Donor Service”).

Measurements of the relationship related factors. The relationship related factors were depicted by using the commitment-trust-satisfaction construct and the identification of the donor with the NPO. Commitment was measured with three items adapted from Sargeant and Lee (2004) (e.g., “The relationship I have with the GRC-Blood Donor Service is something I am very committed to”). The trust scale consists of four items adapted from Sargeant and Woodliffe (2007) (e.g., “I trust the GRC-Blood Donor Service to always act in the best interests of the cause”). The satisfaction construct was adapted from Anderson and Fornell (2000) and included two items (e.g., “Overall, I am very satisfied with the GRC-Blood Donor Service”). Furthermore, identification of the donor with the organization was adapted from van Dick et al. (2004). Their organizational identification scale was measured with seven items (e.g., “I identify myself as a member of the GRC-Blood Donor Service”), whereof I used six items, since the last item was not adaptable in the context of this study.

Measurements of the relationship outcome. The relationship outcome included the intention to donate again and the intention for WOM as predictor for loyalty. Thus, the donor loyalty scale from Boenigk and Helmig (2013) was used and as recommended complemented by adapting the scale from Swanson et al. (2007). Therefore, the used loyalty scale included five items (e.g., “I intent to donate again to the GRC-Blood Donor Service”).

Table 2. Measurement quality report

	M (SD)	FL	AVE	CR	α
Received WOM (Schumann et al., 2010)			.708	.879	.796
People I know already have made good experiences with the GRC-Blood Donor Service.	5.84 (1.51)	.822***			
People I know have recommended the GRC-Blood Donor Service to me.	4.32 (2.37)	.799***			
People I know have told me positive things about the GRC-Blood Donor Service.	4.95 (2.00)	.900***			
Commitment (Sargeant and Lee, 2004)			.778	.913	.857
The relationship I have with the GRC-Blood Donor Service is something I am very committed to.	4.44 (1.92)	.828***			
The relationship I have with the GRC-Blood Donor Service is something I intend to maintain indefinitely.	5.71 (1.52)	.890***			
The relationship I have with the GRC-Blood Donor Service deserves maximum effort to maintain.	5.15 (1.73)	.925***			
Trust (Sargeant and Woodliffe, 2007)			.850	.944	.912
I trust the GRC-Blood Donor Service to always act in the best interests of the cause.	6.21 (1.26)	.934***			
I trust the GRC-Blood Donor Service to conduct its operations ethically.	6.22 (1.17)	.919***			
I trust the GRC-Blood Donor Service to use donated blood appropriately.	6.33 (1.11)	.912***			
Satisfaction (Anderson and Fornell, 2000)			.895	.944	.882
Overall, I am very satisfied with the GRC-Blood Donor Service.	6.10 (1.19)	.951***			
When I reflect on my expectation before I started a relationship and donated, the GRC-Blood Donor Service fulfills my entire expectations.	6.01 (1.24)	.941***			
Identification (van Dick et al., 2004)			.644	.877	.810
I identify myself as a member of the GRC-Blood Donor Service.	5.54 (1.76)	.827***			
Being a member of the GRC-Blood Donor Service is a reflection of who I am.	4.57 (2.04)	.828***			
I like to donate for the GRC-Blood Donor Service.	5.56 (1.57)	.889***			
[I think reluctantly of the GRC-Blood Donor Service. ^R]	6.43 (1.19)	.485***			
[Sometimes I rather don't say that I'm a member of the GRC-Blood Donor Service. ^R]	6.58 (1.09)	.441***			
The GRC-Blood Donor Service is positively judged by others.	6.39 (1.36)	.645***			
Loyalty (Boenigk and Helmig, 2013; Swanson et al., 2007)			.565	.864	.804
I intent to donate again to the GRC-Blood Donor Service.	6.56 (1.08)	.760***			
I intent to donate more to the GRC-Blood Donor Service.	5.41 (1.79)	.564***			
I would recommend going to the GRC-Blood Donor Service to my family and friends.	6.24 (1.26)	.844***			
I would suggest to others that they go to the GRC-Blood Donor Service.	5.84 (1.59)	.779***			
Overall, I only have positive things to say about the GRC-Blood Donor Service.	6.02 (1.33)	.781***			
Social reference group (Clary et al., 1998)			.590	.876	.821
People I'm close to donate blood.	5.07 (2.06)	.678***			
People I'm close to want me to donate blood.	3.14 (2.16)	.583***			
People I know share an interest in blood donations.	4.92 (1.89)	.848***			
Others with whom I am close place a high value on blood donations.	5.12 (1.84)	.839***			
Donating blood is an important activity to the people I know best.	4.58 (1.94)	.852***			
Moral equity of WOM-reward (Reidenbach et al., 1991)			.822	.949	.928
I think incentives for recommendations of blood donors are fair.	4.53 (1.93)	.915***			
I think incentives for recommendations of blood donors are just.	4.31 (1.97)	.937***			
I think incentives for recommendations of blood donors are acceptable.	4.77 (1.90)	.868***			
I think incentives for recommendations of blood donors are morally right.	4.31 (2.02)	.905***			
Only for donors who received active WOM: Tie strength (Marsden and Campell, 1984; Wirtz et al., 2013)			.839	.963	.952
I have a close relationship with this person.	4.67 (2.37)	.895***			
I would spend plenty of time with this person.	3.83 (2.27)	.871***			
I would share personal confidences with this person.	4.28 (2.44)	.935***			
I would like to spend a free afternoon socializing with this person at all time.	4.52 (2.43)	.939***			
This person had a strong influence on my decision to donate blood.	4.16 (2.53)	.940***			

Notes: ^RReverse coded items; M= mean; SD= standard deviation; FL= factor loading; AVE = average variance extracted; CR = composite reliability; α = Cronbach's alpha. SmartPLS bootstrapping with 600 iterations. *p< .05; **p< .01; *** p< .001; n.s. = not significant.

Measurements of additional constructs. To test for the mediating effects, I included a five-item scale adapted from Clary et al. (1998) to measure the influence of the social reference group (e.g., “People I’m close to donate blood”). Furthermore, moral equity of WOM-rewards was measured with four items adapted from Reidenbach et al. (1991) (e.g., “I think incentives for recommendations of blood donors are fair”). Another five-item scale was adapted from Marsden and Campbell (1984), which was also used by Wirtz et al. (2013) to measure tie strength (e.g., “I have a close relationship with this person”) and was only asked if participants stated that they have been accompanied by another donor (received active WOM). Since tie strength directly indicates the closeness of the connection between the accompanied donor and the existing donor (Marsden and Campbell, 1984), I gain more insights regarding a direct relationship between a WOM-receiving and WOM-sending donor, which is important to derive management implications for stimulating WOM.

Measurement of control variables. Finally, socio-demographic questions were included. Five questions were used as control variables (gender, age, education level, children, and income), which have been identified by prior research to influence the decision to become a donor and may influence the derived conceptual framework (e.g., Bekkers and Wiepking, 2011).

3.3 Data Analysis

In a next step, I tested for normal distribution of the data to decide which structural equation model should be used for further analysis. Since the data is neither normal nor multinormal distributed, I decided to test the path relationships posited by Hypothesis 1 to 4 by performing partial least squares structural equation modelling (PLS-SEM). Further reasons for PLS-SEM include the complexity of the derived model, the not sufficiently large sample size for the alternative asymptotically distribution-free approach with AMOS (Hair et al., 2010), as well as the limited research available regarding the influence of WOM on the relationship related factors and the two mediating effects, which have not been analyzed in this context yet (Hair et al., 2016; Ringle et al., 2012).

Furthermore, since the used software SmartPLS 3.2.1 (Ringle et al., 2015) does only allow to complete missing values by mean replacement, all answers were analyzed using the missing completely at random-test of Little (1988). The results are significant, which indicates that the data is not missing completely at random ($\chi^2 = 261.745$, $df = 187$, $p = .000$) (Little, 1988). Moreover, the missing data is nonrandom, and therefore, the expectation-maximization-algorithm was used to complete the data set for the analysis with SmartPLS 3.2.1 (Hair et al., 2010; Ringle et al., 2015).

4. Findings

4.1 PLS-SEM: Evaluation of Measurement Quality

To consider the measurement model, I evaluate the quality by determining item reliability, construct reliability, and discriminant validity (Table 2). The recommended threshold for internal consistency reliability (Cronbach's alpha) is .7 as well as for factor loadings of reflective constructs. This is also recommended for composite reliability (CR) (Hair et al., 2016). Moreover, the average variance extracted (AVE) should be above the critical value of .5 (Fornell and Larcker, 1981).

As can be seen, most reflective items show factor loadings above .7 or are on an acceptable level; except of two reflective items of the identification-scale, which factor loadings were below .5. Since also the CR for this construct is below the recommended threshold and the discriminant validity (Fornell-Larcker-Criterion) is not fulfilled, I decided to delete those two items for further analysis. However, after excluding the reverse coded items, all constructs show satisfactory AVE, CR, and Cronbach's alpha values above the recommended thresholds. Furthermore, the discriminant validity test of the model by using Fornell and Larcker's (1981) criterion ($AVE > \text{squared correlation}$) is now fulfilled for all measured constructs. Thus, the measurement model is appropriate for further analysis.

Table 3. Discriminant validity

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1 Received WOM	.842							
2 Commitment	.155	.882						
3 Trust	.124	.225	.922					
4 Satisfaction	.202	.396	.429	.946				
5 Identification	.248	.537	.228	.407	.803			
6 Loyalty	.245	.403	.329	.469	.428	.751		
7 Social Reference Group	.211	.125	.039	.081	.199	.138	.768	
8 Moral Equity	.038	.030	.024	.007	.047	.025	.024	.907

Note: Bold numbers on the diagonal show the square root of the AVE; numbers below the diagonal represent squared construct correlations.

4.2 PLS-SEM: Evaluation of the Structural Model (Hypothesis Testing)

Afterwards, the structural model is evaluated with respect to the model's predictive capabilities and the relationships between the constructs. Since the PLS-SEM uses OLS regression, I test for collinearity among the constructs (Ringle et al., 2012). Thus, the variance inflation factor (VIF) should not be below a level of .2 or above 5.00 (Hair et al., 2016). As all measured constructs fulfil the VIF criterion, I further calculate the standardized root mean square residual (SRMR) as relevant fit test for the structural model. Following a conservative approach the SRMR should value less .08 (Hair et al., 2016). Thus, the result shows a good model fit ($SRMR = .057$).

To evaluate the structure of the PLS-SEM, the path coefficients as well as the adjusted rate of reliability (adjusted R^2) are the main criteria. If one path coefficient exceeds the other, its effect can be interpreted as greater (Hair et al., 2016). To detect significant results a bootstrapping procedure with 5,000 iterations is done.

Direct effects of the PLS-SEM. In order to test for the first (H_{1a-d}) and second hypotheses (H_2), a basic structural model without the two potential mediators is estimated. Table 4 provides the path

coefficients and the adjusted R^2 values for the hypothesized basic model. The results reveal positive path coefficients from received WOM to commitment ($\beta = .132$, $SE = .042$, $p = .002$; support for H_{1a}) with a moderate adjusted R^2 ($= .413$), to satisfaction ($\beta = .451$, $SE = .039$, $p = .000$; support for H_{1c}) with a weak adjusted R^2 ($= .205$), as well as to identification ($\beta = .266$, $SE = .040$, $p = .000$; support for H_{1d}) with a moderate adjusted R^2 ($= .463$). Only the path coefficient from received WOM to trust is not significant ($\beta = .072$, $SE = .047$, $p = .127$; no support for H_{1b}), although the value of the adjusted R^2 ($= .431$) is moderate. Thus, consequences for the mediating variables have to be taken into account, as such that there is no mediation between received WOM and trust.

In support of hypothesis 2, I calculate the total effects of the relationship related factors on loyalty. All predicted path coefficients are significantly positive. The strongest path coefficient is from satisfaction ($\beta = .298$, $SE = .060$, $p = .000$), followed by the path coefficient from identification ($\beta = .246$, $SE = .053$, $p = .000$) and commitment ($\beta = .186$, $SE = .053$, $p = .001$). Trust shows the weakest path coefficient to loyalty ($\beta = .173$, $SE = .058$, $p = .003$). The construct loyalty shows a moderate adjusted R^2 value ($= .579$). Due to the fact that received WOM increases the relationship related factors, loyalty also increases.

Table 4. Results of the proposed model – direct effects

Hypotheses				Path coefficients	t-values	H supported
H1a:	Received WOM	→	Commitment	.132	(3.128)*	Yes
H1b:	Received WOM	→	Trust	.072	(1.525) ^{n.s.}	No
H1c:	Received WOM	→	Satisfaction	.451	(11.581)***	Yes
H1d:	Received WOM	→	Identification	.266	(6.610)***	Yes
H2:	Commitment	→	Loyalty	.186	(3.482)**	Yes
	Trust	→	Loyalty	.173	(2.992)*	
	Satisfaction	→	Loyalty	.298	(4.967)***	
	Identification	→	Loyalty	.246	(4.611)***	

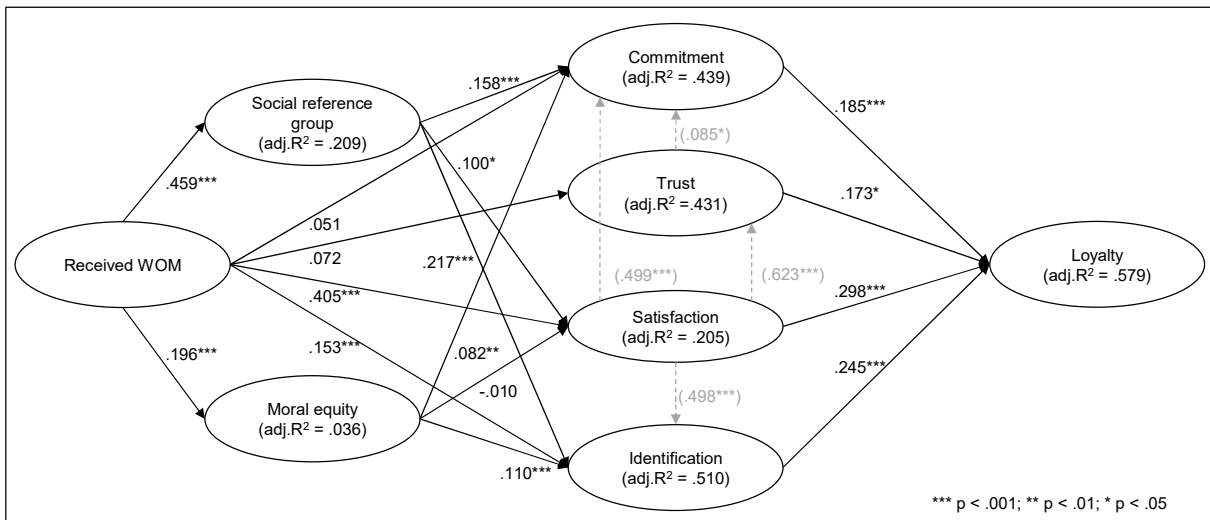
* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$; n.s. = not significant; SmartPLS bootstrapping settings: 5,000 iterations.

Mediating effects of the PLS-SEM. As a next step, I test for the mediation hypotheses (H₃ and H₄). Therefore, the full PLS-SEM is estimated (Figure 2). The results for the mediating effect of the social reference group (H₃) and moral equity (H₄) on the relationship related factors is supported for the path between received WOM and commitment, which direct effect turns insignificant ($\beta = .051$, $SE = .044$, $p = .125$). The results show, that received WOM is positively related to the social reference group ($\beta = .459$, $SE = .042$, $p = .000$) and moral equity ($\beta = .196$, $SE = .046$, $p = .000$). In turn the social reference group ($\beta = .158$, $SE = .039$, $p = .000$) and the moral equity ($\beta = .082$, $SE = .035$, $p = .009$) are positively related to commitment. For the path from received WOM to satisfaction, the results only reveal one mediation effect of the social reference group. The path from received WOM to satisfaction declines ($\beta = .405$, $SE = .041$, $p = .000$). Thus, there is still a positive relation between received WOM and the social reference group, and between the social reference group and satisfaction ($\beta = .100$, $SE = .044$, $p = .012$). The path from moral equity to satisfaction is insignificant ($\beta = -.010$, $SE = .040$, p

= .403) and no mediation effect can be detected. Nevertheless, the results confirm a mediation effect of the social reference group and moral equity on the path between received WOM and identification, which declines ($\beta = .153$, $SE = .042$, $p = .000$). Still received WOM is positively related to the social reference group and moral equity, while the social reference group ($\beta = .217$, $SE = .036$, $p = .000$) and moral equity ($\beta = .110$, $SE = .033$, $p = .000$) are positively related to identification.

To clarify the significance of the indirect effects and the degree of the mediation the Sobel test and the variance accounted for (VAF) is used. The specific indirect effect of received WOM on commitment ($\beta_{12} \times \beta_{23} = .073$, $p = .000$, $VAF = .587$), on satisfaction ($\beta_{12} \times \beta_{23} = .046$, $p = .033$, $VAF = .102$), as well as on identification ($\beta_{12} \times \beta_{23} = .100$, $p = .000$, $VAF = .394$) through social reference group is significant. The same is true for the specific indirect effect of received WOM on commitment ($\beta_{12} \times \beta_{23} = .016$, $p = .049$; $VAF = .240$) and identification ($\beta_{12} \times \beta_{23} = .022$, $p = .010$, $VAF = .124$) via moral equity. Since all VAF values are between 20 and 80 percent, all detected mediations are only partial in nature (Hair et al., 2016). Thus, hypotheses 3 and 4 are only partially supported.

Figure 2. Results of the proposed model – mediating effects



Although two mediating variables were integrated into the full PLS-SEM, the path coefficients as well as the adjusted R squares of the non-mediated variables do not change. This may be due to the isolated estimation of the path coefficients and the underlying model, which does not examine the entirety of the relationships between variables (Hair et al., 2016).

Results on control variables. In a next step, I control for gender, age, education, children, income, and donors who received active WOM, by estimating the multigroup analysis implemented in SmartPLS 3.2.1 (Ringle et al., 2015). For age, I use a median split approach, resulting in two age groups of “younger” donors (18 to 50 years) and “older” donors (50 to 71 years), which is in line with prior

research (Dabholkar and Bagozzi, 2002). The results provide evidence that for most of the control variables in the full model no significant results or only for a few paths can be found (Table 5).

Table 5. Multigroup analysis

		β_1 vs. β_2	$\beta_1 - \beta_2$	p
Gender: female vs. male				
Received WOM	→ satisfaction	.542 vs. .273	.269	.001**
Identification	→ loyalty	.315 vs. .131	.219	.017*
Social reference group	→ satisfaction	-.027 vs. .220	.247	.998**
Age: 18-50 vs. 50-71				
Received WOM	→ commitment	.135 vs. -.022	.157	.033*
Education: low vs. high				
Commitment	→ loyalty	.237 vs. .011	.227	.024*
Children: no vs. yes				
Identification	→ loyalty	.360 vs. .151	.209	.023*
Social reference group	→ satisfaction	-.011 vs. .195	.206	.989*
Income: low vs. high				
Received WOM	→ commitment	.131 vs. -.085	.216	.013*
Social reference group	→ commitment	.119 vs. .272	.153	.960*
Social reference group	→ satisfaction	.016 vs. .352	.335	1.000***
Received active WOM: no vs. yes				
Social reference group	→ satisfaction	.164 vs. .000	.164	.029*

Note: Only significant differences are reported. p provides the probability of having group differences (one-sided test). If $p > .05$ (= not significant (n.s.)) the second group shows no greater parameters as the first group and if $p > .95$ (= n.s.) vice versa. *** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$

Thus and since the differences only affect parts of the model, no general statement about group differences regarding relationships are possible. This is especially surprising regarding donors receiving active WOM and those who did not. For further analysis of only donors receiving active WOM (N = 201), I integrate tie strength as a mediating variable into the full model in exchange for the social reference group. This is done to control for the effect of the closeness between a WOM-receiving donor and the WOM-sender. Since strong ties stronger activate the information flow the influence the relationship with a NPO should be stronger (Blazevic et al., 2013). Results provide evidence for a partial mediating effect of tie strength between received WOM and commitment. But tie strength negatively influenced commitment. Thus, results are not unequivocally.

5. Discussion and Conclusion

5.1 Implications for Theory and Practice

Although, many studies focused on WOM behavior (e.g., Blazevic et al., 2013; Ferguson et al., 2010), little is known about the effect of receiving WOM on the donors. However, nonprofit researchers suggested that WOM may have a strong impact on the relationship with a NPO (e.g., Misje et al., 2005). Since services from NPOs are difficult to evaluate by donors, the effect of receiving WOM seems to be even more important, as WOM function as information source for donors (Murray, 1991).

In respect to the first research aim, the findings support hypotheses 1a, 1c, and 1d. Thus, a positive effect of receiving WOM on the relationship related factors commitment, satisfaction, and identification could be confirmed. Surprisingly, no effect of receiving WOM on trust was observed and hypothesis 1b is not supported. Reasons for this result might be that trust is not easily formed by WOM. As prior research suggested, trust is built on the exchange between the NPO and its donors. Trust, therein, is formed through the reliability of the NPO that it will perform in a valuable way for both parties (Wong and Sohal, 2002). This can only be developed after having real interactions with the NPO, which might be an explanation for the non-significant effect of received WOM on trust. However, regarding the other relationship related factors the influence of received WOM was positive and explains a valuable portion. It seems that WOM-sending donors influence the WOM-receivers' decision to behave as recommended (Wong and Sohal, 2002), and increases the relationship with the NPO in the long-term. An explanation for this might be that WOM normally is spread by satisfied donors (Wirtz and Chew, 2002). Since WOM-sending donors are mostly evaluated as a good source of information; WOM-receiving donors might be able to clarify their expectations, and thus, leads to a better congruence between expectations and the real donation (Buttle, 1998). Furthermore, findings from other studies suggest that the relationship related factors might be transferable from one donor to the other (e.g., Schilke and Cook, 2013). This would also explain the positive effect on the relationship outcome, which was supported by the findings. As many researchers confirmed the positive relation of commitment, trust, satisfaction (e.g., Chumpitaz Caceres and Paparoidamis, 2007; Shabbir et al., 2007), and identification with the NPO (e.g., Boenigk and Helmig, 2013) to the intention to continue a relationship. Against this background and the positively confirmed influence of receiving WOM on the relationship related factors, the intention to continue the relationship is also positively influenced, whereby satisfaction influences loyalty at the most.

Another interesting finding which also supports that WOM-sending donors transfer parts of their relationship evaluation to WOM-receiving donor in the long-term, is the positive confirmation of the mediating effect between received WOM and the relationship related factors (hypotheses 3). The findings provide evidence for the social influence of a reference group a donor is embedded in. One could assume that the communication between the WOM-sending and the WOM-receiving donors influences the relationship with a NPO, since opinions from people in close relationships are more easily adapted than from wider relationships (e.g., Bekkers and Wiepking, 2011).

Finally, the moral equity perception of WOM-rewards was evaluated. The findings suggested that only morally accepted incentives should be used to reward WOM-sending donors and not morally accepted ones should be avoided. Interestingly, the moral equity of WOM-rewards only positively mediates the paths from received WOM to commitment and identification, and does not influence the relationship between received WOM and satisfaction. Reasons for this might be that satisfaction is more related to the organization and the donation experience itself, while commitment and identification are more expressed by the relationship between the donor and the NPO (e.g., Chumpitaz Caceres and

Paparoidamis, 2007). Therefore, commitment and identification might be more influenced by physical appreciation.

Another interesting finding is that the results do not show differences between donors receiving active WOM and those donors who do not. Consequently, the mere presence of WOM strengthens the relationship with the NPO in the long-term. However, since other studies confirmed a difference between those two donor groups (e.g., Villanueva et al., 2008; Schmitt et al., 2011; Schumann et al., 2010), this should be further evaluated.

From a service management perspective, I further recommend to have a deeper look at stimulated WOM and referral programs, since this study confirmed the positive effect of receiving WOM on the relationship with the NPO in the long-term. Especially, since the finding provides evidence that only if WOM-rewards are morally accepted, the relationship between the WOM-receiving donor and the NPO is strengthened, otherwise WOM-rewards might have negative consequences. Nevertheless, WOM is an effective binding technique, which should be further evaluated. If NPOs are able to expand their donor bases on the WOM-sending of their existing donor base, this might have valuable long-term effects. Especially, since WOM as a donor retention strategy has positive effects for both the sender and receiver of WOM. As prior research acknowledged, WOM-sending donors are also more valuable since they have a closer relationship to the NPO by spreading WOM (e.g., Sweeney et al., 2008; v. Wagenheim and Bayón, 2007). Thus, stimulating WOM with the right tools might be a profitable and cheap marketing instrument.

5.2 Limitations and Future Research

As any research study based on survey data, also this study contains some limitations, which should be acknowledged, in addition to providing direction for future research. Firstly, although this study makes overall conclusions for nonprofit service theory and practice, only a single context was studied, in which blood donors were involved that had started their relationship with the GRC between 2015 and 2016. Future research should consider the applicability to other service and nonprofit contexts, such as for-profit services or money donations and volunteering. In addition, the effect of WOM was tested after a relationship with the GRC had already been initiated. Thus, also other factors, such as the experience with the donation procedure, may have affected the relationship. It would be valuable to examine how receiving WOM directly affects the decision to donate for the first-time. Furthermore, also variables such as the WOM-sending donor's expertise or similarities with the WOM-receiving donor could have been taken into account. Future research should take this as well as other influencing factors into focus. Regarding the used constructs, the relationship outcome was measured by using intention variables, which is only a predictor for ongoing behavior. Thus, it would be highly relevant to examine the influence of WOM on real donation behavior. Furthermore, the identification construct adopted from van Dick et al. (2004) was not optimal, regarding the two reverse coded items, which were excluded for

the analysis. Future research should test other scales, which might better depict the identification of the donor with the NPO.

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4. Die Zukunft des Donor Relationship Management – Herausforderungen der Spenderbindung

The “Donor of the Future Project” – First Results and Further Research Domains

Background: Blood services are confronted with a steadily shrinking donor base and changing conditions in the blood market. This has been initiated by global changes, such as technological developments, which confront blood services with more complex requirements.

Study Design and Methods: An international survey among donors of eight blood services in six Western countries was conducted to analyze the effect of these global changes (e.g. health innovations), which have been identified as major drivers for blood donors’ future donation behavior.

Results: The survey was sent to 47,000 registered donors, of which 7,663 (16.3%) responded. The main results exhibited similarities and differences between blood donors of the participating countries. Greater differences were found, for example, regarding technological developments. Whereas only blood donors from the UK and Australia would like to be informed via SMS, blood donors from all countries would like to be informed via e-mail.

Conclusion: Different priorities of donors have been uncovered. These differences give suggestions to improve the country-specific donor management. Furthermore, the key findings provide a comprehensive overview of major future research domains.

Keywords: *blood management, blood donors, future changes, international survey*

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Introduction

During recent decades, blood services were confronted with a steadily shrinking donor base and a varying blood demand [1]. Reasons are manifold, such as aging populations, medical innovations, and stricter deferral criteria [2,3]. To meet the blood demand, blood services try to improve their donor management. However, the question remains which management approach positively influences the future donation behavior of donors and the blood supply.

The Alliance of Blood Operators (ABO) [4] instructed the Donor Engagement and Relationship Group (DERG), to analyze the ‘Donor of the Future’. This project aims to examine the effect of global changes on blood donations and deals with potential differences between countries. After attending workshops to identify future developments from the organizational perspective, experts of DERG identified five main changes: (1) demographic change; (2) technological developments; (3) health innovations; (4) public, behavioral, and attitudinal aspects; and (5) political, economic, and environmental issues. Subsequently, the identified changes were analyzed by using literature, available data from blood services, evolving facts, and expert opinions [5]. These changes are mutually dependent and affect the blood donor management [6,7].

Because little knowledge exists on how these changes influence blood donations, we start with combining and describing a theoretical perspective with DERG survey results. Given the interest in donor management, two research aims are derived. First, by theoretically describing the areas, we create awareness of their influence on blood donations. This advances the theoretical background of future changes and sheds light on the donors’ reaction to volatile conditions. Second, we identify future research topics for each of the changes, which are relevant to donor management.

Theoretical Background

Historical patterns offer a powerful tool for predicting future trends and steadily create and change the societal character [8,9]. Blood services accepted the need to recognize these changing circumstances and try to react to these patterns. In particular, five main changes seem to directly influence the blood donor base. However, most researchers focusing on blood donation behavior of individuals, such as altruism or social pressure, but do not clearly describe if societal changes influence the donor’s motivation to donate [10-12]. To distinguish how these changes influence blood donors, the societal changes need to be understood.

(1) Demographic change: The demographic change is characterized by declining birth rates and an increasing life expectancy [13]. The shifting age-structure of the population is followed by a decreasing number of donors [1,14]. Additionally, the ethnical diversity of the population grows due to increasing migration [15]. However, many members of minority groups do not donate in their host country and most ethnic groups do not share the same blood characteristics [16], resulting in a shortage

of minority blood types [17,18]. Consequently, the need for a more ethnically diverse blood donor pool grows [19].

(2) Technological developments: Technological developments ultimately change and improve the communication between donors and blood services [9]. Furthermore, the donation process can be simplified, as the pre-donation health history questionnaire can be completed online, and more donor health data can be stored [20]. Similarly, these technologies can be used to promote donation events online. Hence, it is important for blood services to know which technologies donors prefer.

(3) Health innovations: Health innovations create possibilities for blood services to offer diversified products and special health services, including health protecting solutions [1,21,22]. In contrast, these health innovations have the potential to expand donor requirements. The increasing mobility of individuals contains new risks for patients, such as new infections or identification of new pathogens [14]. The donation process may become stricter, resulting in increasing donor loss [21]. Donors need to comply with more requirements but expect to donate without side effects [23]. An evaluation of how innovations affect donors is needed.

(4) Public, behavioral, and attitudinal aspects: Individualization is a process experienced by a population due to changing circumstances [1] and is defined with regard to personal identity, individual needs, and cultural norms [24]. Even if the general donation motives, such as awareness, reciprocity, and altruism [16] stay the same, other factors may change. Thus, a greater diversity of donors occurs. For instance, prior studies have shown the influence of family and peers on younger donors to donate for the first time [2,25,26]. Blood services want to know which special groups are important.

In addition, a multicultural population [17] also results in a developing community. Migration leads to an intermixing of cultural norms and motives through the various population subgroups [27]. Blood services need to be aware of how the community's blood donation reasons change.

(5) Political, economic, and environmental issues: The World Health Organization (WHO) supports and promotes globally voluntary non-remunerated donations [28]. But prior studies show the stimulating effect of incentives [29] due to compensating effects [10,22]. Thus, various incentives are used, which provide a nonmonetary allowance [21,30]. However, not all incentives are positively perceived [31]. Blood services need to understand which incentives should be used or avoided.

Furthermore, incentives may not be the right tool to meet the blood product demand. A solution could be sharing blood products across borders [9], but blood services have to be aware of consequences for their donor bases.

Materials and Methods

Participants and procedure

In July 2014, the DERG cooperated with the University of Amsterdam and the University of Hamburg to conduct a survey to assess the identified changes from a blood donor perspective. Donors from eight blood services in six countries cooperated (Table 1).

TABLE 1. Participating countries and organizations

Country	Blood service	Participants	Response rate
Australia (AU)	Australian Red Cross Blood Service	1,522	14.94
Canada (CA)	Canadian Blood Services	851	17.02
Germany (GER)	German Red Cross Blood Donor Service North-East	1,412	30.11
	German Red Cross Blood Donor Service Baden-Wuerttemberg-Hessen		
The Netherlands (NL)	Sanquin Blood Supply	1,351	33.80
United Kingdom (UK)	NHS Blood and Transplant	305	15.25
United States of America (USA)	American Red Cross	2,221	10.58
	America's Blood Centers		

All blood services send out the questionnaire to blood donors of their donor base aged between 17 and 50 years (identical for all blood services). The upper age limit guarantees a participant pool of donors who were able to donate at least the next 10 years. The questionnaire was mailed to about 47,000 donors, who received a reminder after two to three weeks. Participants were not offered an incentive, leading to a return rate of 7,663 (16.3%) questionnaires. However, response rates differ between countries. Reasons might be the relationship of donors to the organizations or if donors are used to get survey invitations. Nevertheless, participating donors may have a higher possibility to keep donating in the future. As 493 respondents only answered an initial question and did not answer the questions regarding the five areas of change, the final sample consisted of 7,170 questionnaires. The sample's mean age was 36.3 years. More female donors (53.7%; n=3,848) participated. The majority (95.4%; n=6,843) were active donors. Of those, 81.7% (n=5,855) donate whole blood, 8.7% (n=624) double red cells, 5.3% (n=378) platelets, and 10.0% (n=719) plasma. The majority, 53.6% (n=3,845), stated to have donated up to three times, and 24.5% (n=1,756) donated six or more times. The sample characteristics can be found in Table 2.

Measurement

The questionnaire was developed based on the insights the DERG gained from analyzing the five changes [5]. Main features were identified which could affect the blood donor management, building the basis for scale development. To increase internal validity, the questionnaire was discussed and adjusted due to the feedback of DERG experts. External validity was increased by the feedback of external researchers. The questionnaire started with an introduction, followed by the changing areas. All questions used can be found in Table 3.

TABLE 2. Sample characteristics

	Total	AU	CA	GER	NL	UK	USA
Number	7,170	1,432	814	1,289	1,264	288	2,083
%	100	20.0	11.4	18.0	17.6	4.0	29.1
Gender							
Male	2,878	606	308	527	561	98	778
Female	3,848	767	461	662	643	117	1,138
Not stated	444	59	45	85	60	13	167
Age							
17–24	996	182	164	280	188	27	155
25–34	1,855	236	199	456	361	83	520
35–44	1,958	205	205	415	359	91	683
45–50	1,764	606	199	32	298	74	555
Not stated	597	203	47	106	58	13	170
Country of birth							
Same as organizational location	6,255	1,105	675	1,106	1,164	252	1,813
Other	362	253	86	33	35	21	95
Not stated	553	74	53	150	65	36	175
Do you (still) donate blood?							
Yes	6,843	1,389	778	1,216	1,191	277	1,992
No	217	27	16	66	60	8	40
Not stated	110	16	20	7	13	3	51
What do (did) you usually donate? (multiple answers possible)							
Whole blood	5,855	1,195	726	1,140	965	260	1,569
Double red cells or red cells	624	-	10	7	4	1	602
Platelets	378	53	15	8	18	5	279
Plasma	719	302	16	58	200	0	143
Don't know or unsure	487	39	91	136	132	29	60
How many times did you donate in 2013?							
0 times	727	165	110	156	153	33	110
Once	909	139	106	277	150	45	192
2 times	1,378	185	161	329	220	49	424
3 times	1,558	302	121	206	239	80	610
4 times	962	292	105	183	118	27	237
5 times	362	44	73	44	114	5	82
6 or more times	432	124	56	33	101	6	112
Don't know or unsure	838	178	82	61	169	33	315
Not stated	4	3	0	0	0	0	1

(1) Demographic change was measured with three items related to age or ethnic background. (2) Technological developments were measured with twelve questions, focusing on information source, communication devices, or other developments. (3) Seven questions measured health innovations. Three questions covered the patients' perspective; four questions covered the donors' situation. (4) Nine questions covered the public, behavioral, and attitudinal aspects, containing donors' perspectives and expectation. (5) Political, economic, and environmental issues were measured with ten questions including various incentives and one question about sharing blood products across countries.

Statistical analysis

To analyze the data, we used statistical software (SPSS, Version 21). All variables were descriptively analyzed. To compare the participating countries, we used univariate analyses of variance (ANOVAs), since the data shows variance homogeneity (significant Levene test results) and an

approximate normal distribution (skewness and kurtosis values = $|+/-3|$ and z-values = $|+/- 2.58|$). Answers with a score of 5 to 7 were considered to be positive; of 3 to 4.99 neutral; and of 2.99 to 1 negative. In addition, we adjusted for gender and age effects.

Results

The ANOVA results of the different countries illustrate significant differences (Table 3). Due to the large sample size, these differences are only small prompting cautious interpretations.

(1) Demographic change: The results show that all donors would appreciate a permissible age higher than the limit of 69 years. Donors from Australia (M=2.65), Canada (M=2.62), and the UK (M=2.61) would not approve a maximum age limit, whereas donors from Germany (M=3.09), the Netherlands (M=3.17), and the USA (M=3.58) rate this as neutral. For donors in the USA, this result is not surprising, because there is no upper age limit [32]. Overall, younger donors evaluate a maximum age limit more positive than older donors. Regarding the registration of ethnic background, five countries rated this change positive. Only Germany indicated this registration neutral (M=4.51). Altogether, female donors are more positive regarding the ethnic registration.

(2) Technological developments: Concerning the information source, five countries rated receiving information and support online neutral, whereas the Netherlands evaluated this as rather negative (M=2.91). Donors in the USA (M=5.02) and the UK (M=5.01) would like to be informed online at the website. Donors in the Netherlands (M=2.96) liked to be informed by social media less. Donors from the UK (M=5.04) and Australia (M=5.19) prefer receiving information via SMS. The possibility to be informed via e-mail was rated positively by all countries. Moreover, this item showed the highest mean values among all other sources. Clearly, younger donors show preference to being informed via website and social media.

Regarding the communication device, all countries were positive towards a computer or laptop, whereas smartphones were rated positively by Australia (M=5.24), Canada (M=5.03), the UK (M=5.53), and the USA (M=5.07). Other new technologies were perceived neutrally by the countries, except for Germany, which evaluated this negatively (M=2.34). Overall, younger donors show higher mean values regarding smartphone and tablet and male donors are more open for new technologies.

Regarding other technological innovations, three countries evaluated the completion of the pre-donation questionnaire neutral, whereas Canada (M=5.19), the UK (M=5.26), and the USA (M=5.50) assessed this as positive. The need for more health data and the promotion of donation events online would not affect the future behavior. Regarding age, older donors prefer to complete the pre-health questionnaire online and are more skeptical regarding online promotion.

TABLE 3. Five areas of change - mean values, standard deviations, and ANOVA results

	Total M (SD)	AU M (SD)	CA M (SD)	GER M (SD)	NL M (SD)	UK M (SD)	USA M (SD)
Demographic change							
If I can, I'd be happy to continue donating when I am over 69.	5.99 (1.499)	6.30 ^b (1.220)	6.16 ^b (1.359)	5.66 ^c (1.670)	5.81 ^d (1.529)	6.30 ^b (1.404)	5.96 ^a (1.522)
I would approve a maximum age limit to donate blood.*	3.09 (1.935)	2.65 ^b (1.776)	2.62 ^b (1.674)	3.09 ^c (1.994)	3.17 ^c (1.882)	2.61 ^b (1.764)	3.58 ^a (2.025)
I have no objection when my ethnic background is recorded, which may better meet future patient needs for specific ethnicity-related blood products.	5.78 (1.797)	6.24 ^c (1.427)	6.18 ^{a,c} (1.466)	4.51 ^d (2.284)	5.72 ^c (1.729)	6.53 ^b (1.164)	6.04 ^a (1.520)
Technological developments							
I am likely to donate more in the future because of more online information and support being available.	3.95 (1.803)	4.02 ^b (1.664)	4.13 ^b (1.683)	3.52 ^c (1.760)	2.91 ^d (1.637)	4.23 ^b (1.634)	4.67 ^a (1.722)
I would prefer to be informed about blood donation events in the future							
...online at the website of the blood service.	4.61 (1.944)	4.32 ^b (1.894)	4.89 ^a (1.810)	4.31 ^b (2.117)	4.24 ^b (1.909)	5.01 ^a (1.844)	5.02 ^a (1.839)
...by social media (e.g. Facebook, Twitter).	3.59 (2.141)	3.46 ^b (2.024)	4.01 ^a (2.181)	3.18 ^c (2.208)	2.96 ^d (1.856)	3.96 ^a (2.163)	4.09 ^a (2.150)
...by SMS/text messaging.	4.11 (2.228)	5.19 ^b (1.853)	3.79 ^c (2.188)	3.43 ^d (2.294)	3.39 ^d (2.101)	5.04 ^b (1.939)	4.27 ^a (2.194)
...by e-mail.	5.63 (1.663)	5.86 ^b (1.387)	5.87 ^b (1.517)	5.65 ^a (1.872)	5.15 ^c (1.793)	6.02 ^b (1.380)	5.61 ^a (1.639)
...through computer or laptop.	5.35 (1.721)	5.56 ^{a,b} (1.506)	5.67 ^b (1.516)	5.09 ^c (2.045)	4.98 ^c (1.767)	5.64 ^{a,b} (1.534)	5.44 ^a (1.647)
...through smartphone.	4.89 (2.031)	5.24 ^{a,b} (1.881)	5.03 ^{a,b} (1.995)	4.37 ^c (2.352)	4.50 ^c (2.076)	5.53 ^b (1.748)	5.07 ^a (1.972)
...through tablet.	4.20 (2.131)	4.36 ^a (2.008)	4.50 ^a (2.065)	3.38 ^c (2.292)	4.13 ^d (2.060)	4.97 ^b (1.916)	4.43 ^a (2.057)
...through other new technologies (e.g. google glasses)	3.15 (1.993)	3.20 ^b (1.884)	3.44 ^a (2.004)	2.34 ^b (1.832)	3.04 ^c (1.872)	3.68 ^a (1.987)	3.51 ^a (2.087)
I would prefer to complete the pre-donation health history questionnaire online in the future.	4.76 (2.014)	4.61 ^b (1.919)	5.19 ^a (1.867)	4.20 ^c (2.200)	4.84 ^d (1.960)	5.26 ^a (1.685)	5.50 ^a (1.734)
I would donate blood less in the future if blood services*							
...promoted donation online (e.g. tweets, games, postings).*	2.41 (1.613)	2.89 ^c (1.689)	2.54 ^b (1.599)	2.21 ^{a,d} (1.653)	2.16 ^d (1.411)	2.35 ^{a,b} (1.502)	2.32 ^a (1.599)
...required more health data about me.*	2.52 (1.632)	2.26 ^b (1.530)	2.26 ^b (1.498)	2.89 ^a (1.773)	2.26 ^b (1.394)	2.05 ^b (1.395)	2.79 ^a (1.733)
Health innovations							
I would donate blood more often in the future if							
...the blood needs of patients increased.	5.01 (1.781)	4.79 ^b (1.840)	4.80 ^b (1.864)	4.54 ^c (1.928)	5.30 ^a (1.551)	4.96 ^b (1.834)	5.36 ^a (1.629)
...it was made clear that more donations were needed to support medical advances.	4.86 (1.773)	4.82 ^b (1.791)	4.74 ^b (1.816)	4.22 ^c (1.891)	5.15 ^a (1.584)	4.92 ^b (1.743)	5.13 ^a (1.676)
I would be disappointed if I couldn't donate in the future because of stricter requirements for blood donation.	5.15 (1.837)	5.15 ^c (1.822)	5.16 ^{a,c} (1.842)	5.05 ^c (1.942)	4.83 ^d (1.789)	5.66 ^b (1.597)	5.33 ^a (1.804)
I would donate more in the future if blood services offer health checks.	4.78 (1.779)	4.59 ^{a,b} (1.736)	4.38 ^b (1.681)	5.21 ^c (1.804)	5.00 ^d (1.689)	4.53 ^{a,b} (1.791)	4.72 ^a (1.815)
It would have a great positive influence on my future blood donation behavior if							
...donating was less time-consuming.	3.93 (2.071)	3.71 ^c (2.010)	4.50 ^a (2.049)	3.51 ^d (2.115)	3.38 ^d (1.945)	4.06 ^b (2.317)	4.43 ^a (1.990)
...a needle-free method was invented.	3.60 (2.061)	3.72 ^b (2.007)	3.95 ^{a,b} (2.015)	3.08 ^c (2.101)	2.89 ^c (1.851)	3.85 ^{a,b} (2.057)	4.10 ^a (2.024)
...I was told how my blood was used.	4.20 (2.004)	4.09 ^b (1.905)	4.57 ^a (1.989)	4.40 ^a (2.105)	3.47 ^c (1.879)	4.22 ^{a,b} (2.053)	4.47 ^a (1.960)

Table 3. Continued

Public, behavioral, and attitudinal aspects

Who would have a great influence on your future blood donation behavior?							
My family.	4.22 (2.201)	4.02 ^d (2.219)	4.42 ^c (2.186)	4.17 ^d (2.309)	3.58 ^b (2.052)	3.68 ^b (2.255)	4.80 ^a (2.054)
My friends.	3.58 (2.062)	3.36 ^d (1.988)	3.63 ^c (2.097)	3.58 ^c (2.142)	2.97 ^b (1.830)	2.96 ^b (1.863)	4.18 ^a (2.050)
My colleagues.	3.05 (1.897)	2.99 ^d (1.812)	3.19 ^c (1.955)	2.74 ^b (1.853)	2.39 ^c (1.532)	2.53 ^{b,c} (1.652)	3.71 ^a (1.983)
Celebrities/public figures.	1.99 (1.456)	2.07 ^d (1.368)	1.94 ^d (1.448)	1.61 ^b (1.226)	1.83 ^d (1.256)	1.80 ^{b,d} (1.253)	2.32 ^a (1.697)
I believe more people will donate blood in the future because							
...of better awareness of the need.	5.56 (1.400)	5.58 ^b (1.323)	5.60 ^b (1.366)	5.05 ^c (1.709)	5.79 ^a (1.141)	5.55 ^b (1.352)	5.69 ^{a,b} (1.335)
...of greater connection with the community.	4.89 (1.636)	5.13 ^c (1.494)	5.16 ^c (1.537)	4.17 ^d (1.796)	4.42 ^b (1.564)	4.62 ^b (1.543)	5.39 ^a (1.475)
...of more medical advances, which require blood to extend patients' lives.	4.95 (1.588)	5.11 ^c (1.478)	5.00 ^c (1.530)	4.24 ^d (1.733)	4.68 ^b (1.529)	4.90 ^{b,c} (1.486)	5.43 ^a (1.441)
...they want to make a difference in patients' lives.	5.50 (1.421)	5.59 ^{b,c} (1.327)	5.71 ^{a,c} (1.309)	4.90 ^c (1.726)	5.40 ^d (1.298)	5.44 ^{b,d} (1.410)	5.81 ^a (1.268)
...they want to feel better about themselves.	5.19 (1.519)	5.25 ^{b,c} (1.458)	5.40 ^{a,c} (1.447)	5.02 ^d (1.626)	4.80 ^c (1.518)	5.09 ^{b,d} (1.453)	5.42 ^a (1.469)
Political, economic, and environmental issues							
I believe donors in the future should be rewarded.	3.80 (2.041)	3.02 ^b (1.885)	3.22 ^{b,c} (1.931)	4.35 ^d (2.014)	3.27 ^c (1.885)	3.07 ^{b,c} (1.866)	4.60 ^a (1.920)
I would donate in the future if I received							
...payment.	3.22 (2.222)	2.51 ^b (1.940)	3.05 ^c (2.220)	3.62 ^a (2.261)	2.93 ^c (2.072)	2.66 ^{b,c} (2.041)	3.80 ^a (2.298)
...time off work.	3.81 (2.226)	3.23 ^b (2.109)	3.76 ^c (2.238)	4.07 ^a (2.271)	3.76 ^c (2.184)	3.44 ^{b,c} (2.173)	4.14 ^a (2.217)
...discounts.	3.57 (2.158)	2.92 ^b (2.002)	3.50 ^d (2.196)	3.65 ^d (2.147)	3.16 ^c (2.033)	3.07 ^{b,c} (2.000)	4.35 ^a (2.113)
...certificates.	3.33 (2.122)	2.70 ^d (1.878)	3.35 ^b (2.150)	2.87 ^{c,d} (1.999)	3.17 ^b (2.033)	3.12 ^{b,c} (2.017)	4.19 ^a (2.144)
...voucher.	3.59 (2.139)	2.93 ^b (1.994)	3.38 ^c (2.151)	3.81 ^d (2.074)	3.07 ^b (1.991)	3.01 ^b (1.940)	4.43 ^a (2.093)
...small gifts at the time of donation.	3.49 (2.108)	2.73 ^b (1.890)	3.16 ^c (2.043)	4.04 ^a (2.081)	3.09 ^c (1.983)	2.76 ^b (1.927)	4.16 ^a (2.107)
...public recognition.	2.87 (1.960)	2.58 ^c (1.802)	2.73 ^{b,c} (1.881)	3.24 ^d (2.089)	2.81 ^{a,b} (1.921)	2.75 ^{a,b,c} (1.908)	2.95 ^a (2.009)
...no reward.	5.11 (1.978)	5.59 ^b (1.774)	5.58 ^b (1.775)	4.13 ^c (2.211)	5.25 ^d (1.817)	5.68 ^b (1.675)	5.01 ^a (1.949)
I would continue to donate in the future even if blood components were shared across borders to help patients in other countries.	5.39 (1.918)	5.69 ^c (1.758)	5.51 ^{b,c} (1.952)	5.69 ^c (1.865)	5.22 ^a (1.720)	5.33 ^{a,b} (1.980)	5.08 ^a (2.087)

Significant differences ($p < .001$) using ANOVA and REGWF post hoc test ($p < .05$). ^{a,b,c,d,e} Means that shared superscripts are not significantly different ($p > .05$).

Measured on a 7-Point Likert scale from 1= strongly disagree to 7= strongly agree.

*Reverse coded items.

(3) Health innovations: The country-specific “health innovation” results were more diversified. While four countries stated to be neutral about donating more if the need of patients increases, the Netherlands stated to be neutral towards stricter requirements ($M=4.83$). We found female donors to be more upset if requirements increase. However female and younger donors show higher mean values for “need of patients increase”. Donors from the Netherlands ($M=5.15$) and the USA ($M=5.13$) would support medical advances. This is also true for younger donors. Offering a health check stimulates donations in Germany ($M=5.21$), the Netherlands ($M=5.00$) and of younger donors. Donors from the Netherlands were skeptical about the invention of a needle-free donation method ($M=2.89$). However, younger donors would like to know how their blood was used.

(4) Public, behavioral, and attitudinal aspects: All countries evaluated the influence of family and celebrities as neutral. Regarding friends and colleagues, small but statistically significant differences were found. Donors in the Netherlands ($M=2.97$) and the UK ($M=2.96$) stated that friends have no influence. In Australia ($M=2.99$), Germany ($M=2.74$), the Netherlands ($M=2.39$), and the UK ($M=2.53$), colleagues had no influence. However, younger blood donors show higher mean values for family and friend.

All countries expected a “better awareness of need” and to “feel better about themselves” as positively stimulating the population to donate. Donors in Canada, the UK, and the USA rated the “communal connection” and “medical advances” as positive. German donors evaluated “to make a difference in patients’ lives” as neutral ($M=4.90$), and donors in the Netherlands assessed to “feel better about themselves” as neutral ($M=4.80$). Overall, female donors evaluated a “better awareness of need”, “medical advances”, and “to make a difference in patients’ lives” as stronger reasons, while younger donors stated “make a difference in patients’ lives” and “feel better about themselves”.

(5) Political, economic, and environmental issues: Blood donors in Canada and the USA generally have the same neutral opinion regarding incentives. Only “public recognition” was rated negatively, whereas “no reward” was rated positively. Australian donors assessed “payments” ($M=2.51$), “discounts” ($M=2.92$), “certificates” ($M=2.70$), “vouchers” ($M=2.93$), and “small gifts” ($M=2.73$) as negative. Obtaining “certificates” ($M=2.87$) was stated as negative by German donors, whereas “public recognition” ($M=3.24$) had a neutral influence and “no reward” ($M=4.13$) a positive one. Donors in the Netherlands valued “payment” ($M=2.93$) negatively. A “paid blood donation” ($M=2.66$) and “small gifts” ($M=2.76$) were negatively evaluated by the UK. Sharing blood across borders was evaluated positively by all countries. Younger donors evaluate rewards and sharing blood products as more positive. Female donors are more positive towards no reward.

Discussion

Our study helps understanding better how global changes affect blood donations in Western countries. By elaborating the five areas, we present a theoretical background of future changes and shed light on current donors' reactions to volatile conditions. Donors differ in some aspects regarding the influence of the identified areas. Thus, a universal approach to improve donor management worldwide would not be applicable. Instead, different priorities between countries were uncovered. Here, the wide standard deviations of all results stress the need for a diversified approach.

The “demographic change” leads to an increasing proportion of older people, resulting in a decreasing potential to cover blood demands, because healthy donors of a certain age will leave the blood donation system [33]. Therefore, the upper age limit for donors was discussed earlier [34], but no uniform age restriction worldwide exists [35]. A first research stream should focus on the consequences for blood donors after reaching the maximum age and consequences for patients receiving blood from elderly donors. Because no upper age limit in the USA exists, other countries could learn from those experiences [32]. A second research stream should focus on the expectations of minority donors regarding the registration pattern and extrapolate the future demand for even more tailored products.

“Technological developments” are ubiquitous, and communication is developing continuously [9]. The implementation of new technologies always influences the service a blood service offers, and future research should focus on consequences of adopting innovations. A more diversified look at subgroups of donors, especially in a country-specific context, taking different levels of expertise and innovativeness into account, is needed. This is even more relevant since younger donors are more open regarding smartphone, tablet, and social media. The second research domain should focus on how implementing innovative technologies is experienced by donors to improve the service and to influence donor recruitment positively. As some blood services already have several existing new technologies - such as social media- in use, blood services which donors evaluated these technologies less preferable (for example from the Netherlands), should try to learn from more successful blood services. Surprisingly, the possibility to complete the pre-donation health questionnaire online, which is already used in Australia, shows the smallest value for Australian donors. But older blood donors are more open to this service. Thus, before implementing this technology, it needs to be evaluated in detail.

“Health innovations” offer possibilities in securing the future blood need. Although previous research mainly focused on improving marketing tools [7,11], an understanding of how changing requirements should be communicated is important. Donors would be disappointed if they were no longer able to donate, and this is even stronger for female donors. Further research should evaluate different communication forms to counteract negative donors' reactions. Second, the results are clear about the benefits for donors resulting from health innovations. Future research should focus on the needs and values of specific subgroups [12]. Integrating clearly defined benefits for donors in recruitment tools may increase donations.

Regarding “public, behavioral, and attitudinal aspects,” previous research suggests that social pressure from friends and peers and using celebrities in campaigns can trigger blood donations [12,24,25]. But our results do not allow for such overall conclusion. Only younger blood donors are influenced by family and friends. Future research should analyze how the influence of acquaintances changes during the donor’s career [2]. There are indicators of a greater influence at the beginning of the donation career, which decreases over time. Additionally, previous research suggests that generational motives may influence donations [25]. Thus, future research needs to understand generational differences.

Related to “political, economic, and environmental issues”, research should evaluate the country-specific influence of incentives. For example, donors from Germany and the USA, where there are partially paid blood donations, rated “rewards” and “payment” higher. Although the participating blood services do not reveal any payment for donations, the acceptance of monetary rewards in these countries seems to be higher, which was also documented for other countries [31]. Furthermore, male and younger donors are in general more open to rewards. Analyzing whether a subgroup of donors tends to shorten its donation interval in order to obtain an incentive would be interesting. In the case of a confirmation, blood services could use this to alleviate shortages in the blood supply. Another approach to avoid shortages is sharing blood products across borders, especially since many European countries are still unable to collect enough plasma to be self-sufficient [36]. Because there is still reluctance regarding blood products from other countries researchers should deal with such views in two ways. First, knowledge about existing country-specific biases is needed. Second, an understanding of the consequences of trading blood products is important.

Our results suggest that blood services need to be flexible to integrate new service strategy and to meet the donors’ high requirements. Although, this study was based on active blood donors, sufficient approaches to secure the future blood supply with the help of loyal, regular donors are provided. However, future studies should evaluate non-donors to enhance recruitment strategies.

Our study has some limitations. The number of changes was limited. Since literature reveals many possible changes, which are not always independent, an influence of “side trends” cannot be precluded [6]. Further research should derive cross-relationships and their effect on blood donor management. The number of respondents per country differed greatly. In addition, our sample is not representative regarding age, gender and donation number, which is negligible due to the large sample size. Furthermore, the self-selected sample consists only of donors aged 17 to 50 years to gain a future perspective. For a thorough comparison, a similar and representative number of participants should be ensured. The DERG survey considered the effect from a practical perspective. Further research should assess actual effects on the donor base.

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Anhang

A. Kurzzusammenfassung der Ergebnisse in deutscher und englischer Sprache

Kurzzusammenfassung:

Die kumulative Dissertation „Nonprofit Donor Relationship Management – An Evaluation of Blood Donor Relationship Marketing Strategies“ basiert insgesamt auf vier Einzelprojekten, die zusammengenommen einen Beitrag zur aktionsbasierten Forschung im Bereich des Relationship Marketings zur Rekrutierung und Bindung von Spendenden leisten. Vor diesem Hintergrund befasst sich das erste Forschungsprojekt mit der Anwendung des differenzierten Marketings, welches bereits im Forprofit-Bereich hinreichend Anwendung findet, um potenzielle Spendende zu gewinnen. Zur Überprüfung des Ansatzes wurden zwei differenzierte (Gesundheits- und Unterhaltungskampagne) einer undifferenzierten Marketing-Kampagne in einem Online Experiment gegenübergestellt. Es konnte gezeigt werden, dass es in dem geprüften Fall keinen Einfluss auf die Spendenintention hatte, ob der potenzielle Spendende mit einer differenzierten oder undifferenzierten Marketing-Kampagne konfrontiert wurde.

Das zweite und dritte Forschungsprojekt dienen der Überprüfung von Maßnahmen zur Spenderbindung. Das zweite aktionsbasierte Forschungsprojekt überprüft, ob die Erhöhung der Frequenz eines Direct Mailings zu einer Erhöhung der Zweitspendenrate bei Erstspenden führt. Hierzu wurde in einem Feldexperiment Erstspendende entweder zweimal (Doppelposting) oder nur einmal innerhalb von zwei Wochen mit einem Direct Mailing zu einem spezifischen Event eingeladen. Es konnte gezeigt werden, dass ein einfaches Direct Mailing innerhalb von zwei Wochen genauso effektiv war wie ein Doppelposting. Das dritte Forschungsprojekt zielte auf die Überprüfung von Word-of-Mouth (WOM)-Effekten auf die Beziehung zwischen Spendenden und einer Nonprofit Organisation ab. Mittels Pfadmodellierung konnte belegt werden, dass WOM die Stärke der Beziehung signifikant erhöht. Des Weiteren wurde der Einfluss zweier Mediatoren überprüft. Die soziale Referenzgruppe und die moralische Akzeptanz von WOM-Belohnungen übten einen signifikanten Einfluss auf den Pfad zwischen WOM und einigen Beziehungsfaktoren aus.

Das vierte Forschungsprojekt diente der Identifizierung und Einordnung verschiedener globaler Veränderungen auf das zukünftige Spendenverhalten. Zunächst wurden hierzu die fünf wichtigsten globalen Veränderungen identifiziert und anhand einer Umfrage in sechs Ländern der Einfluss dieser auf das Spendenverhalten überprüft. Das Forschungsprojekt leistet durch den Vergleich von sechs Ländern einen Beitrag zur Vergleichbarkeit von Spendenden und zeigt, wie Donor Relationship Management Strategien auf sich verändernde Bedingung angepasst werden sollten, um Spendende auch langfristig an eine Nonprofit Organisation zu binden.

Summary:

The cumulative dissertation “Nonprofit Donor Relationship Management – An Evaluation of Blood Donor Relationship Marketing Strategies” is based on four individual research projects that contribute to the action-based research in the field of relationship marketing to recruit and retain donors. Against this background, the first research project concerns the marketing approach of differentiated marketing, which has been sufficiently proven in the for-profit area, to attract potential donors. To validate the approach an online experiment compared two differentiated (health and entertainment campaign) with an undifferentiated marketing campaign. In the examined case, no influence on the donation intention was found regardless with which marketing campaign, differentiated or undifferentiated, the potential donor was confronted.

The second and third research project is designed to evaluate approaches to retain donors. The second action-based research project verifies if an increase in the frequency of a direct mailings leads to an increase of the second donation rate of first-time donors. For this purpose, first-time donors received either twice (double mailing) or only once a direct mailing within two weeks with an invitation for a particular event in a field experiment. It was shown that a single direct mailing within two weeks was as effective as a double mailing. The third research project aimed at analyzing of word-of-mouth (WOM) effects on the relationship between donors and a nonprofit organization. By using path modeling it was proven that WOM significantly increases the strength of the relationship. Furthermore, the influence of two mediators was confirmed. The social reference group and the moral equity of WOM-rewards significantly influenced the path between WOM and some relationship related factors.

The fourth research project identifies and classifies the effect of different global changes on the future donations behavior. First, the five major global changes have been identified and afterwards they have been verified by using a survey conducted in six countries measuring the effect on donations. The research project contributes to the comparability of donors by comparing six countries and demonstrates how donor relationship management strategies should be adapted to changing conditions in order to achieve long-term retention success of a nonprofit organization.

B. Einzelarbeiten, Status der Publikationen und Selbstdeklaration

Nachfolgend wird auf Grundlage der Promotionsordnung vom 24. August 2010 nach § 6 Abs. 2 b) einer kumulativen Dissertation eine Liste der Titel der Einzelarbeiten in tabellarischer Form, nach § 6 Abs. 5 zusätzlich eine Liste der aus der Dissertation hervorgegangenen Veröffentlichungen sowie eine Bewertung des Umfangs der Eigenleistungen gemäß § 6 Abs. 3 an den in dieser Dissertation enthaltenen Artikeln vorgenommen. Die Einschätzung erfolgt anhand von drei Kriterien: Konzeption, Durchführung und Berichtsabfassung.

Titel der Einzelarbeiten und hervorgegangene Publikationen		Selbstdeklaration: Geleisteter Beitrag der Doktorandin	
1	<i>Boenigk, S./Sundermann, L. M./Willems, J.:</i> Under Blood Pressure – Differentiated versus Undifferentiated Marketing to Increase Blood Donations. International Review on Public and Nonprofit Marketing (in Begutachtung; VHB-Jourqual 3: C; Impact Factor: --).	Konzeption	33,3 %
		Durchführung	33,3 %
		Berichtsabfassung	33,3 %
2	<i>Sundermann, L. M./Leipnitz, S.:</i> Catch Them If You Can: The Effect of Reminder Direct Mailings on the Return Rate of First-Time Donors. Journal of Nonprofit and Public Sector Marketing (eingereicht; VHB-JOURQUAL 3: C; Impact Factor: --).	Konzeption	50 %
		Durchführung	50 %
		Berichtsabfassung	50 %
3	<i>Sundermann, L. M.:</i> Share Experiences: The Effects of Receiving Word-of-mouth on Long-term Donor Relationships. Journal of Service Management (wird eingereicht; VHB-Jourqual 3: B; Impact Factor: 2,233).	<i>Allein-Autorenschaft</i>	100 %
4	<i>Boenigk, S./Sundermann, L. M./de Kort, W.:</i> The “Donor of the Future Project” – First Results and Further Research Domains. Vox Sanguinis (wieder eingereicht nach „major revision“; VHB-Jourqual 3: --; Impact-Factor: 2,628).	Konzeption	33,3 %
		Durchführung	33,3 %
		Berichtsabfassung	33,3 %

C. Konferenzbeiträge und weitere Projekte innerhalb der Dissertationszeit

Neben der schriftlichen Leistung dieser Dissertation, wurden Teilergebnisse der Promotionsprojekte auf Konferenzen präsentiert und diskutiert sowie verschiedene Themenschwerpunkte in Workshops diskutiert und aufbereitet. Zusätzlich wurde ein schriftlicher Beitrag für das von der Alliance of Blood Operators (ABO) Donor Engagement and Relationship Group (DERG) verfasste Papier „The Blood Donor of the Future“ beigetragen. Eine Übersicht dieser Beiträge findet sich in der folgenden Tabelle.

Konferenzbeiträge

- 2014 *Boenigk, S./Sundermann, L. M.*: Blood Donor Segmentation – Identifying the Blood Donor of the Future, präsentiert auf dem Internationalen Doktoranden- und Habilitanden-Kolloquium „Management Science“, 10. – 12. März 2014, Kaiserslautern, Deutschland.
- Boenigk, S./Sundermann, L. M.*: Strategic Approach to Recruit New Blood Donor Segments Based on Preferences, präsentiert auf der 1. European Conference on Donor Health and Management (ECDHM), 02. – 05. September 2014, Den Haag, Niederlande.
- 2015 *Boenigk, S./Sundermann, L. M./Willems, J.*: Do Differentiated Blood Donor Marketing Campaigns Work? An Experimental Study, präsentiert auf dem Internationalen Doktoranden- und Habilitanden-Kolloquium “Management Science”, 15. – 17. Juni 2015, Oberhof, Deutschland.
- Boenigk, S./Sundermann, L. M./Willems, J.*: Do Differentiated Blood Donor Marketing Campaigns Work? An Experimental Study, präsentiert auf der 7ten internationalen Konferenz des European Research Network On Philanthropy (ERNOP), 09. – 10. Juli 2015, Paris, Frankreich.
- Leipnitz, S./Sundermann, L. M.*: The Impact of Blood Donor Marketing: An Experimental Study on Direct Mailing Effects, präsentiert auf der 44. jährlichen Konferenz der Association for Research on Nonprofit Organizations and Voluntary Action (ARNOVA), 19. – 21. November 2015, Chicago, USA.
- 2016 *Boenigk, S./Sundermann, L. M./de Kort, W.*: ABO-DERG Project „The Donor of the Future“ – the Donors’ Perspective, präsentiert auf dem Workshop für Blutspendemanagement & -Marketing der Blutspendedienste des Roten Kreuzes aus Österreich, Deutschland und der Schweiz, 20. – 21. April 2016, Wien, Österreich.
- Sundermann, L. M./Leipnitz, S.*: Catch Them If You Can: Direct Mailing Effects on Early Career Donors, präsentiert auf der 12. Internationalen Konferenz der International Society for Third-Sector Research (ISTR), 28. Juni – 01. Juli 2016, Stockholm, Schweden.

Workshops

- 2014 *ABO-DERG Project*: Workshop zum zukünftigen Spendenverhalten von Spendern auf internationaler Ebene mit Blutspendemanagern und –forschern, 01. September 2014, Amsterdam, Niederlande.
- 2015 *Strategieworkshop*: Workshop zu zukünftigen Forschungsprojekten im Bereich des Spendermarketings mit Blutspendemanagern und –forschern, 21. August 2015, Amsterdam, Niederlande.
- 2016 *Zukunftsworkshop*: Workshop zum Spendenverhalten von Blutspendern der Blutspendedienste des Roten Kreuzes aus Deutschland, 14. April 2016, Hannover, Deutschland.
- Workshop für Blutspendemanagement & -Marketing der Blutspendedienste des Roten Kreuzes aus Österreich, Deutschland und der Schweiz*: Workshop zur Gewinnung, Bindung und Rückgewinnung von Blutspendern sowie zukünftige Herausforderungen im Spendermanagement, 20. – 21. April 2016, Wien, Österreich.

Zusätzliche schriftliche Ausarbeitung

- 2015 *Boenigk, S./Sundermann, L. M./de Kort, W.* (2015): Donor of the Future Inputs – International Survey, in “The Blood Donor of the Future” verfasst und veröffentlicht von der Alliance of Blood Operators (ABO) Donor Engagement and Relationship Group (DERG).

D. Erklärung und Eidesstattliche Versicherung

Erklärung:

Hiermit erkläre ich, Larissa M. Sundermann, dass ich keine kommerzielle Promotionsberatung in Anspruch genommen habe. Die Arbeit wurde nicht schon einmal in einem früheren Promotionsverfahren angenommen oder als ungenügend beurteilt.

Hamburg, den 29. Juli 2016

(Larissa M. Sundermann)

Eidesstattliche Versicherung:

Ich, Larissa M. Sundermann, versichere an Eides statt, dass ich die Dissertation mit dem Titel: „*Nonprofit Donor Relationship Management – An Evaluation of Blood Donor Relationship Marketing Strategies*“ selbst und bei einer Zusammenarbeit mit anderen Wissenschaftlerinnen oder Wissenschaftlern gemäß den beigefügten Darlegungen nach § 6 Abs. 3 der Promotionsordnung der Fakultät Wirtschafts- und Sozialwissenschaften vom 24. August 2010 verfasst habe. Andere als die angegebenen Hilfsmittel habe ich nicht benutzt.

Hamburg, den 29. Juli 2016

(Larissa M. Sundermann)