

**The Effect of the Degree of Verbal Anchoring of Non-Profit Organization's  
Logos on the Consumer Response of Dutch and Hungarian Potential Donors**

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**Abstract**

Organizations can provide additional information to consumers by adding verbal anchoring, such as the organization's name or slogan to their logo. Multinational organizations should understand the impact of culture and national background on the perception of such cues. Therefore, the present study investigated the effect of verbal anchoring of non-profit organizations' logos on the consumer response of Dutch and Hungarian potential donors. Consumer response was divided into attitude towards the logo and the organization, the fit of core values and donation intention. Dutch and Hungarian participants were also compared on their tolerance of ambiguity. Overall, 137 participants filled in an online questionnaire that presented them logos of two non-profit organizations that either included no verbal anchoring, incomplete verbal anchoring in the form of the brand name or complete verbal anchoring, which additionally included the slogan. The results showed no difference in the tolerance of ambiguity between the Dutch and Hungarian participants. While the incomplete verbal anchoring led to higher attitudes towards the logo than the complete version, for the other variables there was no difference between the verbal anchoring conditions. The only effect of nationality was that the Hungarian participants rated the fit of core values as higher. While the findings imply that with regards to logo attitude the inclusion of the brand name seems advisable, the general effect of verbal anchoring was small and beneficial effects of slogans were not confirmed. The findings additionally highlight the need for cross-cultural research to measure cultural dimensions instead of relying on previous findings.

## **Introduction**

Logos are valuable assets in stakeholder communication that bear numerous benefits for companies. Therefore, most organizations have a logo as part of their corporate visual identity (CVI). If used effectively, logos can positively affect a company's performance. Especially for multinational organizations, it is crucial to understand how culture might shape design preferences and which strategies are most persuasive in today's globalized marketplace. While the presence of verbal anchoring through a brand name or slogan might make some people more inclined to support an organization because the additional information decreases uncertainties, others might be affected differently by such cues. The present study aims to investigate the effects of different levels of verbal anchoring on consumer response to logos of non-profit organizations and explores this in the context of two nationalities. Insights will enable multinational non-profit organizations, which rely on donations from the public, to design their logos more effectively.

## **Theoretical Framework**

### ***Logos***

According to Kim and Lim (2019), how a company positions itself and is viewed by its stakeholders can be shaped by organizational behavior, communication, and corporate visual identity (CVI). CVI, an integral part of the corporate identity, consists of the company's name, logo, colors, typeface, and slogan and is a way for organizations to present their ideal image to stakeholders (van den Bosch, de Jong & Elving, 2006; Jun, Cho & Kwon, 2008).

Henderson and Cote (1998, p.14) define logos as "the graphic design that a company uses, with or without its name, to identify itself or its products". Previous research on logos identified benefits that can be advantageous to a company's reputation and financial performance, making logos a key element in shaping the corporate image, according to

Foroudi, Melewar and Gupta (2017). For instance, logos can have positive effects on brand and product recognition and recall because visual information is understood faster than verbal cues (Henderson & Cote, 1998; van den Bosch et al., 2006). Additionally, logos can transmit an organization's identity by working as a "shorthand of the personality of the organization" (Foroudi et al., 2017, p.179). Furthermore, Park, Eisingerich, Pol and Park (2013) state that they can facilitate the communication of what the brand stands for by working as a reminder of brand benefits. Foroudi et al. (2017) emphasize that to elicit the desired associations, logos should be aligned with the culture and strategy of their organization. This way they can influence the attitude towards companies (Fajardo, Zhang & Tsiros, 2016; Kim & Lim, 2019). The attitude evoked by logos is important because previous research found that it can transfer to the organization and thus influence purchase behavior and brand commitment (Henderson & Cote, 1998; Jun et al., 2008; Kim & Lim, 2019). Therefore, logos should elicit the interpretations intended by the organization and evoke similar associations among customers (Kim & Lim, 2019; van den Bosch et al., 2006).

Moreover, logos can contribute to differentiation from the competition and increase visibility in today's competitive marketplace (Foroudi et al., 2017; Kim & Lim, 2019; Machado, de Carvalho, Costa and Lencastre, 2012). These effects on company image, attitude, knowledge and visibility can positively influence the purchase intention of potential customers (Foroudi et al. 2017). According to Henderson and Cote (1998), for logos to achieve these objectives, they should be recognizable, lead to positive attitudes and create shared meaning.

Another asset of the visual nature of logos is their ability to cross language barriers (Foroudi et al., 2017; Pittard, Ewing & Jevons, 2007). Despite the seeming universality of this feature, multinational organizations need to decide between localization and globalization strategies regarding the design of logos. Previous research on this matter has

been inconclusive. Jun et al. (2008) for instance found differences in CVI design evaluations by American and Korean participants, indicating cultural differences in the effects of design features. This is in line with Barthes (1977), who states that the interpretation of images can be shaped by for instance culture or nationality. However, Pittard et al. (2007) found similarities in the preference for logos in the divine proportion across Australia, Singapore, and South Africa. In line with this, Henderson, Cote, Leong and Schmitt (2003) suggest similarities in design preferences between Asia and the US.

To illustrate the impact of logo design features, Fajardo et al. (2016) investigated the impact of logo frames and found that they can trigger different associations by the consumer, of being perceived as either protecting or confining, depending on the risk associated with the purchase. If the purchase was considered a low risk, logo frames were shown to decrease purchase intent, whereas for high-risk purchases, logo frames increased purchase intent. This finding underlines the power of design features and illustrates the impact of the perceived risk level of a purchase. Fajardo et al. (2016) suggest that this framing effect might be especially useful for charity organizations to emphasize the action of protection. Generally, the communicative power of logos might be of special use for organizations whose services appear intangible to consumers because they might reduce the uncertainty connected to a purchase (Machado et al., 2012; Simoes, Dibb & Fisk, 2005; van den Bosch et al., 2006).

### *Slogans*

Next to logo and brand name, slogans are a part of brand identity. They similarly support recognition and recall and can differentiate brands from the competition (Kohli, Leuthesser & Suri, 2007; van den Bosch et al., 2006). Slogans can influence a brand's image due to their written nature. This makes slogans effective communicators of core benefits and the brand's character (Kohli et al., 2007; Kohli, Thomas & Suri, 2013). This is illustrated by

the fact that, as Anwar (2015) points out, slogans often include words in line with an organization's identity. This way, according to Kohli et al. (2013), slogans can help create and strengthen the associations connected to an organization. Kohli et al. (2007) state that this enhancement of brand knowledge has a positive influence on brand equity and financial performance. Conversely, Dahlén and Rosengren (2005) found that brand equity also affects the evaluation of slogans, as slogans for stronger brands were found to be evaluated more positively compared to weaker brands. Another opportunity of slogans is the fact that they are the most adaptable CVI element and thus able to steer brands into new directions while maintaining their core identity and can function as priming cues that can influence the evaluation of brand extensions (Boush, 1993; Kohli et al., 2007).

Fajardo et al. (2016) additionally found that the framing of slogans did not have the same influence on purchase intent as the previously mentioned framing effect of logos, except for when the slogans primed either freedom or safety. This suggests the importance of the content of the slogan regarding its effect.

Kohli et al. (2007) emphasize that these effects of slogans occur only when they are used effectively and consistently linked to the brand name. Research indicates that slogans are often matched to the wrong brand (Katz & Rose, 1969 as cited in Kohli et al., 2007). As Dahlén and Rosengren (2005) point out, this might be undesirable for strong brands, whose equity might then be associated with weaker brands due to incorrect brand-slogan matches.

### ***Verbal Anchoring of Visuals***

Barthes (1977) states that while images can communicate messages, they are open to different interpretations by different people. This is because interpretation depends, among other factors, on "national [and] cultural" (Barthes, 1977, p.46) knowledge. Additionally, Phillips (2000) points to the influence of consumer characteristics such as tolerance of

ambiguity (ToA) regarding the need for information in the form of verbal anchoring of visual cues. Words can guide the interpretation of visual advertisements and enhance understanding through an anchoring effect on images because, according to Barthes (1977), the relation between the verbal and visual elements is interconnected. Lick (2015) states that while language is more precise, visuals are advantageous due to fast processing and suggests that a combination of both might make advertisements more effective. In line with this, Bresciani and del Ponte (2017) found that logos including the organization's name, which can be seen as a form of verbal anchoring, together with the icon were seen as more attractive than those including only one element.

Further effects of verbal anchoring are illustrated by Phillips (2000) and Bergkvist, Eiderbäck and Palombo (2012), who investigated the effects of headlines on advertisements including pictorial metaphors. In both studies either no headline, an incomplete or complete headline was added to the visual. Bergkvist et al. (2012) used brands unfamiliar to the participants, while Phillips (2000) used real ads. Bergkvist et al. (2012) found that the degree of completeness of the headline did not lead to a higher ad attitude but did increase comprehension and enhanced the attitude towards the brand and brand beliefs. The researchers therefore suggest that advertising cues that steer brand associations more directly seem to be more effective. Phillips (2000) also found an increase in comprehension with an increase of verbal anchoring. Ad liking was found to be higher for the moderate and no verbal anchoring conditions.

Henderson and Cote (1998) emphasize that marketing messages should be unambiguous to increase the connection to the company and facilitate memorization of the claims. As, according to Phillips (2000), verbal anchoring seems to facilitate comprehension, adding it to logos might be a useful tool to make them more effective and ensure the communication and understanding of the desired information.

### ***Donation Behavior***

The present study investigates the logos of non-profit organizations, which depend on donations (DiPietro; 2013; Stojic, Kewen & Xiaopeng, 2016). Despite the need for donations, the feeling of responsibility to donate seems to decrease especially among younger people (Knowles, Hyde & White, 2012; Smith & McSweeney, 2007). Therefore, a deeper understanding of what motivates people to donate is vital for the effective design of persuasive marketing materials.

Determinants of donation behavior have mainly been investigated on an individual level in terms of for example age, gender, and family status, with older people, women and families with children donating more (DiPietro, 2013; Stojic et al., 2016; Lee & Chang, 2007). Moreover, DiPietro (2013) found that donation behavior can be influenced by the perceived control over one's future financial situation. Additionally, Kashif et al.'s (2015) study of a collectivist culture showed an impact of past behavior on donation intentions. Knowles et al. (2012) additionally mention the belief in the values of the charity among the reasons for donating. This highlights the importance of knowledge of the values of non-profit organizations among potential donors.

### ***Culture and Tolerance of Ambiguity***

Hofstede's cultural dimensions are frequently used to measure cultural differences as they indicate that people interpret the world differently (Hofstede, 1983, 2011). One of Hofstede's dimensions is uncertainty avoidance (UA), which is the degree to which people "feel threatened by ambiguous situations" (Hofstede & Bond, 1984, p.419). While the choice of countries for this study was based on Hofstede's UA scores, these scores cannot be generalized in this context. This is because Hofstede's questionnaire investigated a working environment, and the respondents were employees of the same company. Hofstede and Bond

(1984) mention that there are relations between the dimensions and other variables of cross-cultural research. For instance, Hofstede (2011) states that UA “deals with a society’s tolerance for ambiguity” (p.10). Moreover, Furnham and Ribchester (1995 as cited in van Hooft, van Mulken & Nederstigt, 2013, p.354) point to a correlation between tolerance of ambiguity (ToA) and UA. Due to this relation, the present study investigates the ToA of the participants. Norton (1975) defines intolerance of ambiguity as “a tendency to perceive or interpret information marked by vague, incomplete, fragmented (...) or unclear meanings as actual or potential sources of psychological discomfort or threat.” (p.608). ToA might be relevant when investigating the effects of different degrees of verbal anchoring of logos because as Norton (1975) points out, perceptions of such cues might be influenced by a person’s tolerance of ambiguous information. The presence or lack of information, in this case manipulated by the level of verbal anchoring, might contribute to how uncertain situations are perceived (Furnham & Marks, 2013).

Regarding logos, van der Lans et al. (2009) suggest an influence of UA on evaluations regarding the elaborateness of logos. Moreover, while Torres, Machado, Carvalho and Costa (2019) found an overall preference for natural logo designs among countries with different UA scores, countries with high UA scores were shown to prefer organic elements more than those with lower scores. These findings indicate that despite similarities, cultural adjustments of specific logo elements might be useful.

Kashif et al. (2015) state that the impact of culture on cognition might also influence donation behavior. This claim is supported by Stojic et al. (2016), who found that a lower UA score led to a higher probability to donate. They argue that uncertainties in the context of donations might arise through insecurities related to finances and whether the donation will be used as advertised. However, Avdeyeva, Burgetova and Welch (2006) argue that donating is low in risk compared to other forms of charitable behavior such as volunteering.

Van Hooft et al. (2013) investigated the influence of ToA on perceptions of visual metaphors. They expected people from cultures low on Hofstede's UA to have a high ToA. Instead of the expected ToA differences, mostly neutral scores were found for the German, Spanish, and Dutch participants, and only the UA score of the French participants was in line with the expectations. Their findings indicate a limited influence of ToA on the investigated perceptions of visual metaphors regarding comprehension, ad liking and purchase intention.

The countries of interest of the present study were selected due to their differences on Hofstede's dimension of UA. While the Netherlands' UA score is in the middle of the scale (53/100), Hungary is in the higher range of UA (82/100) ("Compare countries", n.d.). With regards to monetary donation behavior, the World Giving Index ranks the Netherlands sixth, while Hungary is ranked 82nd (Charities Foundation Index, 2018), indicating more active donation behavior in the Netherlands.

The reviewed research seems to mainly have investigated the design dimensions of logos and the effects of verbal anchoring separately from each other or focused on other forms of verbal anchoring than slogans. The results regarding cross-cultural preferences of logo design have been inconclusive as some findings point towards a universality in the perceptions of CVI design (Henderson et al. 2013; Pittard et al., 2007) whereas others point towards differences between cultures (e.g. Jun et al., 2008). There thus seems to be a gap in knowledge, which the present study aims to close by connecting these streams of CVI and cross-cultural research. Additionally, the concerns regarding the generalizability of Hofstede's results poses the question to what extent Hungary and the Netherlands differ on their ToA. The present study therefore aims to answer the question to what extent the degree of verbal anchoring of logos and the level of tolerance of ambiguity/nationality of potential donors influences consumer response to logos of non-profit organizations by comparing

Dutch and Hungarian consumers. Consumer response is divided into different variables, resulting in the following research questions:

- RQ1:** *To what extent do Hungary and the Netherlands differ on their tolerance of ambiguity?*
- RQ2:** *To what extent do Dutch and Hungarian potential donors differ in their consumer response to logos?*
- RQ3:** *To what extent does the verbal anchoring of logos influence the attitude towards the logo?*
- RQ4:** *To what extent does the verbal anchoring of logos influence the attitude towards the organization?*
- RQ5:** *To what extent does the verbal anchoring of logos influence the perceived fit of the core values of the organization?*
- RQ6:** *To what extent does the verbal anchoring of logos influence the intention to donate?*

Understanding how the interplay between verbal anchoring and logos is most persuasive will make the marketing efforts of organizations in today's globalized marketplace more effective. Moreover, shedding light on the impact of culture/nationality on responses to CVI elements will help to answer the question whether standardized or localized strategies are more useful.

## **Method**

### **Materials**

The independent variables were the degree of verbal anchoring of the logo and the level of tolerance of ambiguity/nationality (Dutch/Hungarian) of the participants. There were three levels of verbal anchoring, operationalized through three different versions of each organization's logo: just the logo of the organization (no verbal anchoring), the logo in

combination with the organization’s name (incomplete verbal anchoring) and a combination of logo, name and slogan (complete verbal anchoring). Except for the manipulation of the verbal anchoring level, the logos and slogans were kept the same as they are used by the organizations. The versions of the materials are illustrated in tables one and two. The logos and slogans of the WWF and UNICEF, two internationally operating charity organizations, were selected. They are active in the Netherlands and Hungary and support different causes: protecting the environment and protecting children (“What we do”, n.d.-a; “What we do”, n.d-b). For each organization, the slogan was presented in the language used by the organization in the respective country because this study focused on the effects of real logos and slogans and does not interfere with the localization or globalization strategy of the organization. The WWF uses an English slogan in the Netherlands and a Hungarian slogan in Hungary. UNICEF uses slogans in the native language for both countries.

Table 1. Dutch and Hungarian logos of the WWF with no verbal anchoring, incomplete and complete verbal anchoring

	No verbal anchoring	Incomplete	Complete
<i>Dutch version</i>  ([Webpage of WWF Nederland mentioning the slogan], n.d.)			

**Hungarian version**

(“Együtt Lehetséges!”, 2019)



Table 2. Dutch and Hungarian logos of UNICEF with no verbal anchoring, incomplete and complete verbal anchoring

	No verbal anchoring	Incomplete	Complete
<b>Dutch version</b> (“Steun ons en help mee”, n.d.)			
<b>Hungarian version</b> (UNICEF Magyarország, 2017)			

**Subjects**

Out of the 148 participants that started the questionnaire, 137 participants finished it. Of those, 63 participants (46%) were Dutch and 74 (54%) were Hungarian. Regarding gender, 55 participants (40.1%) were male, 80 (58.4%) were female and 2 participants did not share this information. Age ranged from 18 to 73 years ( $M= 26.38$ ,  $SD= 10.61$ ). With 92 participants (67.6%), the majority had a tertiary education level, whereas 43 (31.6%) had a secondary education level and one person did not tell. Regarding past donation behavior, 81 (59.1%) participants donated money to charitable organizations in the past two years,

whereas 56 participants (40.9%) have not donated in the past two years.

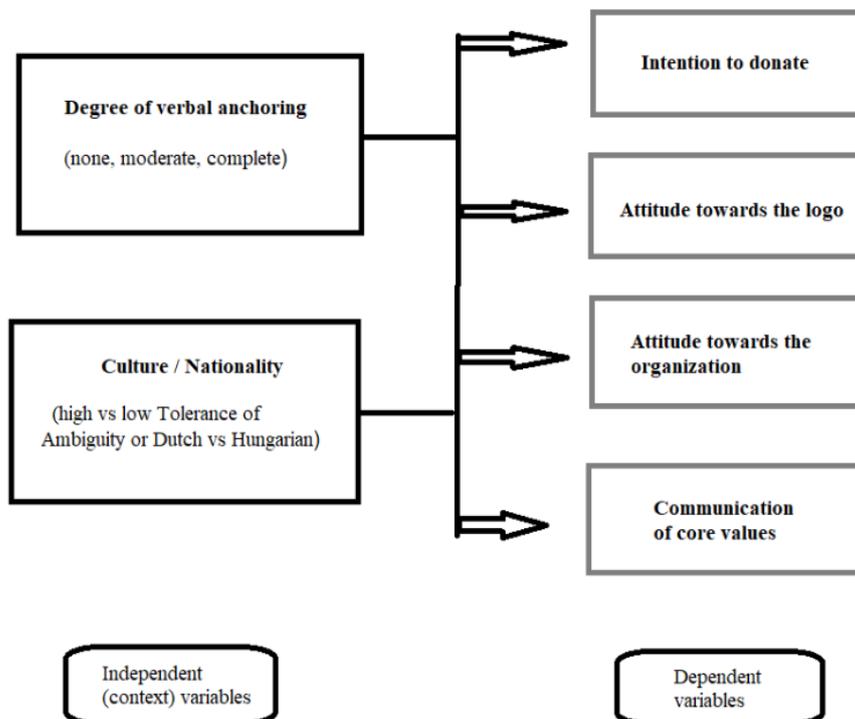
The participant characteristics of age ( $F(2, 134) = .37, p = .689$ ), gender ( $\chi^2(4) = 4.05, p = .399$ ), education ( $\chi^2(4) = 2.31, p = .679$ ) and past donation behavior ( $\chi^2(2) = .58, p = .750$ ) were distributed equally among the three verbal anchoring conditions.

Age was not equally distributed among the nationalities ( $t(122.64) = 3.29, p = .001$ ). The Hungarian participants were older ( $M = 28.95, SD = 12.19$ ) than the Dutch participants ( $M = 23.37, SD = 7.38$ ). Educational level was also not distributed equally among the participants ( $\chi^2(2) = 9.41, p = .009$ ). There were relatively more Hungarian participants with secondary education (42.5%) than Dutch participants with secondary education (19.0%). There were relatively more Dutch participants with tertiary education (79.4%) compared to the Hungarian participants with tertiary education level (57.5%). Gender ( $\chi^2(2) = 1.74, p = .419$ ) and past donating behavior ( $\chi^2(1) = .07, p = .793$ ) were distributed equally among the Dutch and Hungarian participants (see Appendix B for justification of shortened reporting).

## Design

The study used a 3x2 between-subjects design. One factor was the degree of verbal anchoring of the logos (nominal) with three levels, which were versions of logos including either no verbal anchoring, incomplete verbal anchoring or complete verbal anchoring. The other factor was culture/nationality with two levels (Dutch and Hungarian; nominal). The design of the study including all variables (independent variables measured at interval level) is presented in the analytical model in figure one.

Figure 1. Analytical model of the present study, including dependent and independent variables



**Instruments**

The dependent variables of this study, attitude towards the logo, attitude towards the organization, fit of core values and intention to donate, were measured through an online questionnaire for each logo. The alphas were measured for the logo of each organization and the lowest one was reported.

Recognition of the logo was measured with a yes/no question based on Das and van Hooft (2015) for both logos.

Attitude towards the logo was measured with five seven-point semantic differentials (based on Phillips, 2000; MacKenzie & Lutz, 1989 as cited in Das & van Hooft, 2015). The items included ‘good-bad’; ‘pleasant-unpleasant’; ‘favorable-unfavorable’; ‘like-dislike’ and ‘enjoyable-not enjoyable’. The reliability of ‘attitude towards the logo’ comprising five items was good, with all  $\alpha > .83$ .

Attitude towards the organization was measured with four seven-point semantic differentials based on Jun et al. (2008). The items included ‘unfavorable-favorable’; ‘bad-good’; ‘unlikable-likable’ and ‘negative-positive’. The reliability of ‘attitude towards the organization’ comprising four items was good, with all  $\alpha > .88$ .

The perceived fit of core values was measured with one seven-point Likert scale for each value, anchored by ‘completely disagree - completely agree’, and the item ‘To what extent does this logo fit with the following values?’ based on Das and van Hooft (2015). The core values were taken from the international websites of the organizations, where they are explicitly mentioned in contrast to the national websites. The core values of the WWF are “courageous”, “passionate”, “guided by science and inspired by nature”, “collaborative” and “integrity” (“Our values”, n.d.). The core values of UNICEF are “care”, “respect”, “integrity”, “trust” and “accountability” (“UNICEF’s Culture”, n.d.). Because the core values belonging to an organization are considered related, a composite variable was created of the core values of the WWF and another for UNICEF. Therefore, the construct measured through this composite is called ‘perceived core values fit’. The reliability of the composite mean for the core value fit per organization was acceptable, with all  $\alpha > .77$ .

Intention to donate to the organization was measured with two seven-point Likert scales anchored by ‘completely disagree - completely agree’ based on Smith and McSweeney (2007). The items stated ‘I will donate money to the WWF/UNICEF’ and ‘I will donate money to charities or community service organizations’. The reliability of the items measuring ‘intention to donate’ was acceptable, with all  $\alpha > .77$ .

Tolerance of ambiguity was measured with thirteen seven-point Likert scale questions, e.g. “I don’t tolerate ambiguous situations well” (see Appendix A), anchored by ‘completely disagree - completely agree’ based on McLain (2009). The items with reversed

scales were re-coded and the reliability of ‘tolerance of ambiguity’ comprising thirteen items was good, with all  $\alpha > .82$ .

The questionnaire also included background questions related to participant characteristics. Past donating behavior during the last two years was measured with a yes/no question. Participants indicated their age and nationality through open questions. For gender, participants could choose between male, female, ‘I would rather not say’ and the option ‘other’ with an open field. To indicate their educational level, participants chose between the most common education levels from the Netherlands and Hungary or could fill in the open field if their level was not included.

### **Procedure**

The experiment was conducted through an online questionnaire via Qualtrics. Participants were recruited through the personal and social media networks of the researchers, resulting in a convenience and snowballing sample. They accessed the questionnaire through a link. An introduction text stated that the study is about logos but did not reveal the manipulation or focus of the experiment. It explained that participation is voluntary. Participants were also informed that the questionnaire was anonymous and were asked to give their consent.

Participants were presented with questions related to one variable and one logo per page. The logos were shown in alternating order for each set of questions. The questions regarding recognition, attitude towards the logo and the organization, fit of core values and intention to donate were asked separately for each logo. Each participant only saw one verbal anchoring version of the logos and they were presented with the logo and verbal anchoring that is used in their country. The participants were assigned randomly to the conditions. They were able to look at the logos and questions for an unlimited amount of time and the

procedure was the same for all participants. The questionnaire was translated from English into the participant's mother tongue by native speakers of Dutch and Hungarian. The participants were not given a reward for participating. On average it took about ten minutes to complete the questionnaire.

### **Statistical treatment**

The data files were transferred from Qualtrics to SPSS and the Dutch and Hungarian versions were merged. To simplify the analysis, the educational level was merged into three levels (secondary, tertiary, other). Scales consisting of multiple items were merged into composite variables. An independent samples t-test was used to test the relation between tolerance of ambiguity and nationality. Chi-square tests were conducted to test the recognition of the logos and the relation between recognition and verbal anchoring as well as nationality. Two-way ANOVAS were conducted to investigate possible main effects of the verbal anchoring conditions and nationality as well as interactions between the two factors. The assumptions were checked and will only be reported in case of violation.

## **Results**

The following section presents the results of the analyses on verbal anchoring and nationality on recognition of the logo and consumer response including attitude towards the logo and the organization, the perceived fit of core values and the influence on the intention to donate. Dutch and Hungarian participants were also compared on their tolerance of ambiguity.

### **Tolerance of Ambiguity**

An independent samples t-test did not show a significant difference between Dutch and Hungarian participants with regards to their tolerance of ambiguity ( $t(132.43) = 0.67, p =$

.502). This means that the Dutch ( $M = 4.27$ ,  $SD = .70$ ) and the Hungarian participants ( $M = 4.36$ ,  $SD = .96$ ) did not differ on their tolerance of ambiguity. This makes nationality instead of culture the independent context variable, as culture cannot be used as an explanatory factor. The means show that both nationalities are situated above the middle of the ToA scale and are therefore considered more tolerant than intolerant.

### **Logo Recognition**

A Chi-square test did not show a significant relation between the recognition of the WWF logo and verbal anchoring condition ( $\chi^2 (2) = 3.1$ ,  $p = .213$ ). Another Chi-square test showed a significant relation between the recognition of the WWF logo and nationality of the participants ( $\chi^2 (1) = 5.34$ ,  $p = .021$ ). The Dutch participants recognized the WWF logo significantly more often (100%) than the Hungarian participants (91.9%). Vice versa more Hungarian participants did not recognize the WWF logo (8.1%) compared to the Dutch participants (0.0%).

For the UNICEF logo, a Chi-square test found a significant relation between the recognition of the logo and the verbal anchoring conditions ( $\chi^2 (2) = 14.59$ ,  $p = .001$ ). In the no verbal anchoring condition, the logo was recognized less often (84.8%) compared to the incomplete (100%) and complete verbal anchoring condition (100%). There was no significant difference between the incomplete and complete verbal anchoring condition. Another Chi-square test showed a significant relation between recognition of the UNICEF logo and participant nationality ( $\chi^2 (1) = 6.28$ ,  $p = .012$ ). The Dutch participants recognized the UNICEF logo (100%) significantly more often than the Hungarian participants (90.5%). The results of the Chi-square tests regarding the recognition of the logos are presented in table one and two.

Table 1. Counts and percentages of correct and incorrect logo recognition by verbal anchoring condition and nationality of participants

	WWF Logo			
	Recognized		Not recognized	
	Count	Percentage	Count	Percentage
<i>Verbal anchoring condition</i>				
No verbal anchoring	42 <sub>a</sub>	91.3%	4 <sub>a</sub>	8.7%
Incomplete verbal anchoring	50 <sub>a</sub>	98.0%	1 <sub>a</sub>	2.0%
Complete verbal anchoring	39 <sub>a</sub>	97.5%	1 <sub>a</sub>	2.5%
Total	131	95.6%	6	4.4%
<i>Nationality</i>				
Dutch	63 <sub>a</sub>	100%	0 <sub>a</sub>	0.0%
Hungarian	68 <sub>b</sub>	91.9%	6 <sub>b</sub>	8.1%
Total	131	95.6%	6	4.4%

Table 2. Counts and percentages of correct and incorrect logo recognition by verbal anchoring condition and nationality of participants

	UNICEF logo			
	Recognized		Not recognized	
	Count	Percentage	Count	Percentage
<i>Verbal anchoring condition</i>				
No verbal anchoring	39 <sub>a</sub>	84.4%	7 <sub>a</sub>	15.2%
Incomplete verbal	51 <sub>b</sub>	100.0%	0 <sub>b</sub>	0.0%

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anchoring				
Complete verbal anchoring	40 <sub>b</sub>	100.00%	0 <sub>b</sub>	0.0%
Total	130	94.9%	7	5.1%
<i>Nationality</i>				
Dutch	63 <sub>a</sub>	100%	0 <sub>a</sub>	0.0%
Hungarian	67 <sub>b</sub>	90.5%	7 <sub>b</sub>	9.5%
Total	130	94.9%	7	5.1%

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### Attitude towards logo

A two-way ANOVA with verbal anchoring condition and nationality as factors showed a significant main effect of verbal anchoring condition on attitude towards the logo ( $F(2, 131) = 4.65, p = .011$ ). The incomplete verbal anchoring condition ( $M = 5.66, SD = .82$ ) led to higher attitudes towards the logo compared to the complete verbal anchoring ( $p = .008$ , Bonferroni correction;  $M = 5.14, SD = .76$ ). There was no significant difference between the no verbal anchoring and incomplete condition ( $p = 1.0$ , Bonferroni correction) or between the no verbal anchoring and complete verbal anchoring condition ( $p = .057$ ; Bonferroni correction).

Nationality was not found to have a significant main effect on attitude towards the logo ( $F(1, 131) = .01, p = .938$ ). The interaction effect between nationality and verbal anchoring condition was not statistically significant ( $F(2, 131) = .86, p = .427$ ). The results are presented in table three.

### Attitude to organization

A two-way ANOVA with verbal anchoring condition and nationality as factors showed no significant main effect of verbal anchoring condition ( $F(2, 131) = .21, p = .811$ ) or nationality ( $F(1, 131) = .07, p = .798$ ) on attitude towards the organization. The

interaction effect between verbal anchoring condition and nationality was also not statistically significant ( $F(2, 131) = .10, p = .907$ ). Table three illustrates these results.

### **Perceived fit of the core values**

A two-way ANOVA with verbal anchoring condition and nationality as factors showed no significant main effect of verbal anchoring condition on the perceived fit of core values ( $F(2, 131) = 2.07, p = .130$ ). Nationality had a significant main effect on perceived fit of core values ( $F(1, 131) = 5.47, p = .021$ ). The Hungarian participants rated the fit of core values as higher ( $M = 5.33, SD = .98$ ) than the Dutch participants ( $M = 4.98, SD = .70$ ). The interaction effect between verbal anchoring condition and nationality was not significant ( $F(2, 131) = .35, p = .703$ ). These results are presented in table three.

### **Intention to Donate**

A two-way ANOVA with verbal anchoring condition and nationality as factors showed no significant main effect of the verbal anchoring condition on intention to donate ( $F(2, 131) = .31, p = .733$ ). Nationality also showed no significant main effect on intention to donate ( $F(1, 131) = 2.20, p = .140$ ). The interaction effect between verbal anchoring condition and nationality was also not significant ( $F(2, 131) = 1.72, p = .183$ ). Table three shows these results.

Table 3. Means, standard deviations and *n* for attitude towards logo, attitude towards organization, fit of core values and intention to donate in function of verbal anchoring condition and nationality (1 = low; 7 = high)

	No verbal anch.			Incom. verbal anch.			Compl. verbal anch.			Total		
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>
<i>Attitude towards logo</i>												
Dutch	5.61	.66	22	5.53	.67	23	5.23	.72	18	5.47	.69	63
Hungarian	5.50	1.0	24	5.77	.93	28	5.06	.80	22	5.47	.95	74
Total	5.56	.82	46	5.66	.82	51	5.14	.76	40	5.47	.84	137
<i>Attitude towards organiz.</i>												
Dutch	5.95	.84	22	6.02	.85	23	5.89	.97	18	5.96	.87	63
Hungarian	5.90	.87	24	6.07	1.18	28	6.01	.78	22	6.00	.97	74
Total	5.93	.85	46	6.05	1.03	51	5.96	.86	40	5.98	.92	137
<i>Core values</i>												
Dutch	5.01	.64	22	5.05	.70	23	4.84	.78	18	4.98	.70	63
Hungarian	5.36	.92	24	5.55	1.06	28	5.03	.89	22	5.33	.98	74
Total	5.19	.81	46	5.33	.94	51	4.95	.84	40	5.17	.88	137
<i>Intention to donate</i>												
Dutch	3.83	1.42	22	3.76	1.47	23	4.11	1.46	18	3.88	1.44	63
Hungarian	4.57	1.56	24	4.54	1.62	28	3.78	1.73	22	4.32	1.65	74
Total	4.22	1.52	46	4.19	1.59	51	3.93	1.60	40	4.12	1.57	137

### **Conclusion and Discussion**

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effect of verbal anchoring of logos and nationality on consumer response, which was divided into the attitude towards the logo and the organization, the fit of core values and intention to donate. Additionally, the Netherlands and Hungary were compared on their tolerance of ambiguity (ToA).

Regarding research question one, no significant difference between the Netherlands and Hungary on ToA was found. This suggests that Dutch and Hungarian people react to ambiguous information similarly. Moreover, both seem to be more tolerant than intolerant towards ambiguity.

This lack of difference is not in line with Hofstede's ("Compare countries", n.d.) scores regarding the differences in uncertainty avoidance between the two countries. Previous researchers such as Furnham and Ribchester (1995 as cited in van Hooft et al. 2013, p.354) and Hofstede (2011) himself indicated a relation between the concepts of uncertainty avoidance and ToA. Therefore, the findings of the present study lend support to the assumption that Hofstede's findings on this cultural dimension might not apply to the investigated countries. This might be due to the limitations of Hofstede's study, which was conducted in the working environment of one company and might therefore not be generalizable to the entire country.

The findings regarding ToA are in line with those of van Hooft et al. (2013), whose results similarly contrast with Hofstede's. Instead of differences in line with Hofstede's UA scores, the researchers found mostly neutral ToA scores.

The findings do not align with the conclusion of Stoij et al. (2016) that countries with a lower UA index tend to donate more than countries with a higher UA index. While the present study found that there was no difference between the Netherlands and Hungary in their ToA, the World Giving Index ranks the Netherlands (6th) higher for monetary donations

compared to Hungary (82nd; Charities Aid Foundation, 2018). The findings of the present study suggest that UA cannot explain this difference. Stoij et al. (2016) used the UA scores from Hofstede and the GLOBE project, which might explain these differences. However, the present study also found no differences in the past donation behavior between the Dutch and Hungarian participants in the way the World Giving Index suggests. Therefore, it might not be possible to compare the findings due to the different scales used and possible differences in the samples.

Regarding RQ three, the incomplete verbal anchoring condition including the brand name evoked higher attitudes towards the logo, compared to the complete condition including a slogan. This indicates a partial effect of verbal anchoring as the version without verbal anchoring did not differ from the incomplete or complete condition. The preference for the incomplete version would be in line with the ToA scores towards the middle of the scale because how the amount of information given through the verbal anchoring is perceived can be connected to a person's ToA (Furnham & Marks, 2013; Norton, 1975). Because the recognition of the logos did not differ between the incomplete and the complete conditions, recognition is unlikely to explain this difference in attitude.

The finding is in line with Phillips (2000), who also found that moderate verbal anchoring led to higher ad liking than the complete version. However, in contrast to Phillips, the present study did not find a difference between the no verbal anchoring and the complete condition. The finding is also partially in line with that of Bresciani and del Ponte (2017), who found that logos using a combination of visual icon and brand name were more attractive than logos that only include a visual. However, while the present findings confirm the positive effects of including the brand name, this effect was found in comparison to the complete version and in contrast to Bresciani and del Ponte (2017), no difference was found between the no verbal anchoring and incomplete condition. The positive effect of the brand

name therefore does not seem to extend to slogans.

The positive effect of the incomplete version is not in line with the results of Bergkvist et al. (2012), who investigated the effect of completeness of headlines of ads and did not find a positive effect of headline completeness on ad attitude. A possible explanation of this difference might be that a headline could be seen as more distanced from the organization than its name, which is more closely related to brand identity and therefore might have more influence on logo attitude.

Attitude towards the organization was unaffected by the verbal anchoring condition (RQ 4). This might indicate a limited influence of the degree of verbal anchoring of logos. The result is not in line with that of Bergkvist et al. (2012), who found that the degree of completeness of headlines enhanced the attitude towards the brand. However, the researchers used unfamiliar brands, whereas the organizations used in the present study were recognized by most of the participants. This might imply that for organizations that are well known, consumers might have already formed their attitudes towards the organization due to past experiences and these might therefore not be as susceptible to influence through the verbal anchoring.

The perceived fit of the organization's core values was also not found to be influenced by the verbal anchoring level (RQ5). This contrasts with the findings of previous studies that highlighted the role of slogans in communicating brand benefits, such as Kohli et al. (2007, 2013) or Park et al. (2013). In other words, the level of verbal anchoring did not influence the interpretation of the visual logos in relation to the core values as Barthes (1977) argues it can. Additionally, the findings are not in line with Bergkvist et al. (2012) who found that more complete verbal anchoring in the form of headlines increased the communication of the key brand benefits in ads. The contrasting results might imply a difference between the effects of verbal anchoring on brand image evoked by ads and logos. As mentioned before, other than

Bergkvist et al. (2012), the present study used organizations whose logos were highly recognizable. Therefore, participants might have known what the used organizations stand for, which might have mitigated the effect of the verbal anchoring, especially the power of the slogan.

The verbal anchoring conditions did not influence the intention to donate to the organization (RQ6). The findings imply that while complete verbal anchoring led to lower attitudes towards the logo, this did not transfer to the attitude towards the organization or intention to donate, even though previous studies (e.g. Foroudi et al., 2017; Henderson & Cote, 1998; Jun et al., 2008; Kim & Lim, 2019) indicate that the attitude evoked by logos can influence the attitude towards the organization as well as purchase behavior.

With regards to the effect of nationality on consumer response (RQ 2), the present study found no differences between the Dutch and Hungarian participants regarding attitude towards the logo, organization or the intention to donate. These results are in line with the suggested universality of logo designs suggested by Henderson et al. (2003). The finding regarding donation intention is in line with the lack of difference in the past donation behavior of the participants. The only difference between the nationalities occurred for the perceived fit of core values. The Hungarian participants rated the fit of core values as higher than the Dutch participants. This might suggest that the associations evoked by the logos or the corporate images of the organizations in the two countries differ. This result might be explained by the influence of national knowledge on the interpretation of images, suggested by Barthes (1977). Previous research (Henderson & Cote, 1998; Kim & Lim, 2019; van den Bosch et al., 2006) emphasizes that logos should create similar associations in the mind of the consumer and that these should be in line with how the company aims to be perceived. However, the small differences in means in the upper half of the scale might be an indicator that overall, the core values are perceived to fit well with what the logos communicate, which

is an important attribute according to Park et al. (2013). Additionally, this result and the differences in recognition of the logo did not lead to differences in the donation intention.

Generally, a limited effect of the degree of verbal anchoring and nationality on consumer response towards logos was found. While the inclusion of the organization's name led to higher attitudes towards the logo than the version also including a slogan, no similar effect was found for the attitude towards the organization, the fit of core values or the intention to donate. While the nationalities differed in their ratings concerning the core value fit, no such differences were found for the other variables, such as intention to donate, which is the goal of charities. The findings of the present study seem to contrast with the results of previous research on slogans, such as Kohli et al. (2013, 2017), who emphasize the powerful role of slogans in communicating the brand's character, as well as their role in recognition. For the UNICEF logo, the inclusion of verbal anchoring led to higher recognition but the lack of difference between the version using the organization's name and the one including the slogan as well might imply a limited influence of slogans on recognition for well-known organizations.

Avdeyeva et al. (2006) claim donations to be low risk compared to other forms of charitable behavior. The inclusion of a slogan, which might decrease uncertainties because it gives more information, led to more negative attitudes towards the logo. This would be in line with the explanation by Fajardo et al. (2016) that for low-risk purchases logo design features such as frames that reduce uncertainty can be perceived as confining. However, this did not decrease donation intention the same way logo frames did for low-risk purchases in Fajardo et al. (2016).

A limitation of the present study might be the fact that because the sample was a convenience sample that was potentially influenced by the social networks of the researchers, it might not be representative of the population. Moreover, the WWF uses an English slogan

in the Netherlands, and a slogan in the native language for Hungary, which might interfere with the results because of the potentially differing associations evoked by foreign languages. Because logos of well-known organizations were used, previous knowledge about them might have interfered with the effect of verbal anchoring. The overall high recognition of the logos might have influenced the results because according to Henderson and Cote (1998), recognition is necessary for logos to lead to positive effects on customer response. This might explain the contrasting results to the study of Bergkvist et al. (2012), who used unfamiliar brands. The lack of difference of the two investigated countries on ToA limits the recommendations to organizations whether a globalization strategy regarding the use of verbal anchoring for different cultures is advisable.

To shed light on the influence of tolerance of ambiguity on the perceptions of verbal anchoring, future studies could replicate the present design with different countries that differ on their ToA and explore whether this difference affects the perception of different verbal anchoring conditions. This would help to make recommendations to multinational organizations regarding the amount of information to be included in logos. Future studies could also compare the effect of verbal anchoring on consumer response by including purchases associated with different risk levels. This would allow better comparison with the results of Fajardo et al. (2016) and gain further insights into the effects of slogans in connection the risk-level of purchases. Moreover, to explore the impact of the use of well-known organizations, future studies might replicate this design with unknown organizations. This might shed light the lack of impact of slogans and allow better comparison with the contrasting finding of previous studies.

Implications for the theory include the advice to revise the view on previous findings on uncertainty avoidance and potentially cultural dimensions in general, especially regarding the generalizations previous of cross-cultural research. The results lend support to the

assumption that the findings of Hofstede's cultural dimensions might not be generalizable. It therefore seems valuable for future researchers to use revised scales and to measure such concepts.

The differences in the fit of core values between the nationalities might encourage multinational organizations with a globally standardized identity to investigate whether it is in line with how donors in different countries perceive them and whether their logos lead to similar associations cross-culturally. For cultures with a similar ToA, the findings imply support for a globalization strategy with regards to verbal anchoring of logos. Additionally, for such countries, the level of verbal anchoring does not seem to influence the intention to donate or the attitude towards the organization, which might be an important insight to help these organizations with the focus of their resources. Because no positive effects of slogans compared to the other conditions were found, the findings might encourage organizations that already have a slogan to link them more effectively to their brand because Kohli et al. (2007) state this as a determinant of the effectiveness of slogans. Because of the findings regarding logo attitude and the lack of effects that would point towards the benefits of slogans, it might be advisable for charitable organizations to include the brand name with the logo icon, at least when targeting donors similar to the investigated countries. The lack of effect on the other variables might indicate that while the use of a slogan does not negatively influence donation intention, no benefits were found in comparison to the other versions. Considering the resources that go into the creation of slogans and the negative effects they might have on logo attitude, slogans might not lead to the expected benefits regarding consumer response.

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**Appendix A.**  
**Tolerance of Ambiguity Items based on McLain (2009)**

1. I don't tolerate ambiguous situations well.
2. I would rather avoid solving a problem that must be viewed from several different perspectives.
3. I try to avoid situations that are ambiguous.
4. I prefer familiar situations to new ones.
5. Problems that cannot be considered from just one point of view are a little threatening.c
6. I avoid situations that are too complicated for me to easily understand.c
7. I am tolerant of ambiguous situations.
8. I enjoy tackling problems that are complex enough to be ambiguous.
9. I try to avoid problems that don't seem to have only one "best" solution.
10. I generally prefer novelty over familiarity.
11. I dislike ambiguous situations.
12. I find it hard to make a choice when the outcome is uncertain.
13. I prefer a situation in which there is some ambiguity

**Appendix B**  
**Shortened Reporting in Subjects section**

The purpose of this appendix is to inform the reader that the shortened way of reporting statistical tests for the distribution of participant characteristics in the subjects section is not entirely in line with the Vademecum Reporting Research. This choice was discussed with the supervisor and made by the writer to shorten this section and make the reading easier.



## Appendix D. Checklist EACH

(version 1.6, november 2020)

1. Is a health care institution involved in the research?

*Explanation: A health care institution is involved if one of the following (A/B/C) is the case:*

- A. One or more employees of a health care institution is/are involved in the research as principle or in the carrying out or execution of the research.
- B. The research takes place within the walls of the health care institution and should, following the nature of the research, generally not be carried out outside the institution.
- C. Patients / clients of the health care institution participate in the research (in the form of treatment).
  - No → continue with questionnaire
  - Yes → Did a Dutch Medical Institutional Review Board (MIRB) decide that the Wet Medisch Onderzoek (Medical Research Involving Human Subjects Act) is not applicable?
  - Yes → continue with questionnaire
  - No → This application should be reviewed by a Medical Institutional Review Board, for example, the Dutch [CMO Regio Arnhem Nijmegen](#) → end of checklist

2. Do grant providers wish the protocol to be assessed by a recognised MIRB?

- No → continue with questionnaire
- Yes → This application should be reviewed by a Medical Institutional Review Board, for example, the Dutch [CMO Regio Arnhem Nijmegen](#) → end of checklist

3. Does the research include [medical-scientific research](#) that might carry risks for the participant?

- No → continue with questionnaire
- Yes → This application should be reviewed by a Medical Institutional Review Board, for example, the Dutch [CMO Regio Arnhem Nijmegen](#) → end of checklist

### Standard research method

4. Does this research fall under one of the stated [standard research methods](#) of the Faculty of Arts or the Faculty of Philosophy, Theology and Religious Studies?

- Yes → **standard evaluation and attitude research** → continue with questionnaire
- No → assessment necessary, end of checklist

### Participants

5. Is the participant population a healthy one?

- Yes → continue with questionnaire
- No → assessment necessary, end of checklist → [go to assessment procedure](#)

6. Will the research be conducted amongst minors (<16 years of age) or amongst (legally) incapable persons?

- Yes → assessment necessary, end of checklist → [go to assessment procedure](#)
- No → continue with questionnaire

## Method

7. Is a method used that makes it possible to produce a coincidental finding that the participant should be informed of?

- Yes → assessment necessary, end of checklist → [go to assessment procedure](#)
- No → continue with questionnaire

8. Will participants undergo treatment or are they asked to perform certain behaviours that can lead to discomfort?

- Yes → assessment necessary, end of checklist → [go to assessment procedure](#)
- No → continue with questionnaire

9. Are the estimated risks connected to the research minimal?

- No → assessment necessary, end of checklist → [go to assessment procedure](#)
- Yes → continue with questionnaire

10. Are the participants offered a different compensation than the usual one?

- Yes → assessment necessary, end of checklist → [go to assessment procedure](#)
- No → continue with questionnaire

11. Should [deception](#) take place, does the procedure meet the standard requirements?

- No → assessment necessary, end of checklist → [go to assessment procedure](#)
- Yes → continue with questionnaire

12. Are the standard regulations regarding [anonymity and privacy](#) met?

- No → assessment necessary, end of checklist → [go to assessment procedure](#)
- Yes → continue with questionnaire

## Conducting the research

13. Will the research be carried out at an external location (such as a school, hospital)?

- No → continue with questionnaire
- Yes → Do you have/will you receive written permission from this institution?
- No → assessment necessary, end of checklist → [go to assessment procedure](#)
- Yes → continue with questionnaire

14. Is there a contact person to whom participants can turn to with questions regarding the research and are they informed of this?

- No → assessment necessary, end of checklist → [go to assessment procedure](#)
- Yes → continue with questionnaire

15. Is it clear for participants where they can file complaints with regard to participating in the research and how these complaints will be dealt with?

- No → assessment necessary, end of checklist → [go to assessment procedure](#)
- Yes → continue with questionnaire

16. Are the participants free to participate in the research, and to stop at any given point, whenever and for whatever reason they should wish to do so?

- No → assessment necessary, end of checklist → [go to assessment procedure](#)
- Yes → continue with questionnaire

17. Before participating, are participants informed by means of an information document about the aim, nature and risks and objections of the study? (zie [explanation on informed consent](#) and [sample documents](#)).

- No → assessment necessary, end of checklist → [go to assessment procedure](#)
- Yes → continue with questionnaire

18. Do participants and/or their representatives sign a consent form? (zie [explanation on informed consent](#) and [sample documents](#)).

- No → assessment necessary, end of checklist → [go to assessment procedure](#)
- Yes → checklist finished