Netherlands vs Hungary: *The Effect of Verbal Anchoring in Charity Logos on the willingness to donate*

Radboud Universiteit

Abstract

Charity organizations are struggling to raise funds. To improve this, marketers employ all kinds of strategies. One of these strategies is the use of logos to transmit brand identity. Extensive research has been done on the impact of logos on consumer response. However, the relation of logos and its verbal elements has been overlooked. Verbal anchors, the verbal elements of a logo (name and slogan), are used to further enhance the transmission of brand identity. Not all people might interpret logos in a similar way. Culture, here Tolerance of Ambiguity, might be an explanation. To find out if this is true, a total of 195 Dutch and Hungarian participants took part in this online experiment. Each participant was exposed to either logo only, logo with name or logo with name and slogan of two charity organizations and answered question regarding their attitude towards the charity, the logo and intention to donate. The results of this study show that the two samples had a similar ToA level. Furthermore, completeness of verbal anchoring did not have an effect on attitude towards the charity, the logo and donation intention. However, it was found that the Hungarian sample rated the charity and its logo as more positive than the Dutch sample. The two samples did not differ in terms of donation intention. Future research should determine the impact of verbal anchoring, since this study did not yield significant results. Future research should expand on this study by using other cultural dimensions to explain differences between the samples.

Jeffrey Teeuw

Radboud University, Nijmegen

Tutor: Dr. Andreu van Hooft

Second corrector: Dr. Brigitte Planken

1. Introduction

Hofstede (2011) describes culture as a collective programming of the mind that makes people (and groups) differentiate between one and another. Globally, it boils down to the individual behavior and that each person is different. Therefore, people will react differently to messages and, therefore, will show different behavior (Roccas & Sagiv, 2010). This might also count for logo interpretation. Logos are marketing tools used by organizations to help create familiarity and help raise positive associations towards organizations, as described in the paper of Das and van Hooft (2015). Slogans are used to further enhance this process (Dahlén & Rosengren, 2005). This is particularly interesting for charity organizations. By raising positive attitudes towards the charity, people are more likely to show donation behavior (Knowles, Hyde, & White, 2012). However, the question arises whether this will be the same across cultures. People from different cultural background show different behavior. By adding a slogan to a logo, will this result in different donation behavior? Or does a name or logo alone evoke this intention? And, which country will show the highest donation intention? These questions will be explored in this paper.

2. Theoretical framework

2.1 Verbal Anchoring

Barthes (1964) describes an image or picture according to three principles: the linguistic message, coded (denoted) message and the non-coded (connoted) message. The linguistic message is all the written elements (name, slogan etc.) in the image combined with the logo or other visual elements. This message has two functions. It is either used as anchorage or as relay. A written message as anchor is used to get rid of any ambiguous or uncertain interpretation. Relay is the concept of text and image work synergistically to convey the intended meaning, i.e. they complement each other. Then there is the denoted message. This is the literal visualization of the message within the image. Finally, the connoted message is the deeper meaning of what the denoted message tries to tell, the associations or other meanings that are added to this word/or image. The connoted meaning is the result of the interaction between an individual, the word and the world. It could also be the interaction between individuals, between individuals and groups and/or between groups.

Barthes argues that written messages are mostly used as anchor and that it is most prevalent in advertisement images. Advertisement images could stand alone and convey a message, or could include text that is congruent with the message. However, complex images,

such as visual metaphors, are known for their ambiguity. People could interpret them differently (McQuarrie & Mick, 1996). This is where verbal anchors come in handy. They are written messages that are created to eliminate the possibility of ambiguous interpretations by priming the attention towards the intended message (Barthes, 1964). Kardes (1993) explains that the likelihood of understanding advertisements is increased as the amount of effort to interpret the message is decreased. To contrast, Philips (2000) found that anchoring in complex images is best when moderated, meaning that too detailed images were linked to being disliked.

This is where slogans can play a role. Slogans are written messages that are strongly related to and widely used in advertisements or marketing messages. Slogans are, for example, used as brand positioning tools (Kohli, Leuthesser, & Suri, 2007), or as will be raised in the following paragraphs, used alongside a logo. As will be explained in the following paragraphs, logos try to display the core values of an organization. Organizations often try (when initially failed to do so) to further enhance the display of their core values by adding a name and slogan. However, as acknowledged by Kohli et al. (2007) only little research has been done on the role of slogans and their ability to carry over brand image.

Therefore, this research has been set up to do exactly that. Extensive research has been conducted on logos, their function and the response of consumers to these logos (Fajardo, Zhang, & Tsiros, 2016; Machado, de Carvalho, Costa, & Lencastre, 2012; Henderson & Cote, 1998; Kim & Lim, 2019; Van der Lans et al., 2009; Airey, 2009). However, the added value of verbal elements has not been researched as thoroughly. In addition, the combination of logos and verbal elements is even more scant. The aim of this research therefore, is to find out if adding a verbal anchor (name and/or slogan) helps in raising the transfer of an organization's core value. To further specify this research, the combination of logos and verbal anchoring in relation with the donation intention to charity organizations will be analyzed. The following paragraph will further explain what logos are and what their function is. Next, slogans will be explained and their relation towards a logo. Third, the link between logos and verbal anchoring with donation intention will be made. Finally, a cross-cultural perspective related to donation intention will be established.

2.2 Logos and names

Das and van Hooft (2015) describe in their paper, according to several authors, that a brand logo has three main functions. First, it is used as an identifier for an organization (Van Grinsven, & Das, 2014). This is the denoted message, according to Barthes (1964). Second, logos could generate positive brand associations and attitudes among the target groups (Henderson & Cote,

1998; van Riel & van den Ban, 2001; Henderson et al., 2003). Third, logos (and its verbal part) are used to communicate the core values of a company (Olins, 1990; Ind, 1997; Schultz & Hatch, 1997; van Riel & Balmer, 1997; Urde, 2003). The last two functions can therefore be seen as the connoted message, according to Barthes (1964). Thus, logos are expected to be the most suitable communication instrument to transmit corporate identity.

The way a logo represents corporate identity, is by the use of multiple logo components. Foroudi, Melewar and Gupta (2017) have extensively analyzed research of corporate logos and established four global components: typeface, color, name and design. For this research, only name is of importance. Name is the most pervasive communication element in branding. It identifies the company and, therefore, increases the recognition speed (Schechter 1993; Henderson & Cote 1998; Kohli & Suri 2002). Furthermore, a name could express original messages and quality statements of the organization to its stakeholders. The message behind of a well-designed logo shows the overall thinking of the company and ensures consistency over a period of time (Kohli & Suri 2002). Bresciani and Del Ponte (2017) found in their study regarding brand logo design, that by adding a name to the logo, and therefore increase the verbal anchorage, it increased the overall attractiveness of the logo compared to logos that have no name incorporated. Furthermore, adding a name to the logo could help to shape consumer expectations and, in turn, influences the corporate image and identity (Foroudi, Melewar, & Gupta, 2017).

2.3 Slogans

Slogans are text that could accompany a brand logo and/or name (Kohli, Thomas, & Suri, 2013). They have more words than a name and provide an opportunity to explain, to some extent, a brand or to elaborate (Dahlén & Rosengren, 2005). Slogans, therefore, can help enhance brand identity. However, they are not mandatory (Kohli, Thomas, & Suri, 2013). Slogans, in turn, can help to raise brand awareness and brand image which will lead to higher recognition, recall and positive associations with the brand. Evidence was found to support this, since Molian's (1993) survey found that the majority of the participants valued slogans strongly, with half of the respondents rating them "very valuable". This survey was sent to a sample of advertising decision-makers from UK's top 3000 advertisers and looked at three principles: the use of a slogan, views on the ideas of an effective slogan and guidelines for effective slogan creation.

More evidence was found on the effectiveness of slogans for enhancing brand identity. For example, Boush (1993) found in his experimental study focused on slogan manipulation

and evaluation of brand extension, that priming advertisement slogans can play a crucial role in supporting or undermining a brand extension strategy. A follow-up study from Pryor and Brodie (1998) found supportive and consistent information that brand slogans shape brand perception, because slogans can function as 'primers'; when recent and frequent ideas or concepts come to mind more easy than those which are not recent or frequent. Kohli, Thomas and Suri (2013) explain, according to Dahlén and Rosengren (2005), that slogans could be direct carriers of brand equity. It was found that brands with distinctive and recognizable slogans were rated more favorably.

In order to create better brand equity, consumers should have adequate brand knowledge. For brand knowledge to build, brand awareness and brand image are key factors. Brand recall is the most common indicator of brand awareness. Slogans, alongside other elements of brand identity, play an relevant role in increasing brand recall as assumed by Kohli, Thomas and Suri (2013); Kohli, Leuthesser and Suri (2007). Dahlén and Rosengren (2005) state that consumers use "constructive memory" to link slogans and brands when a brand's name is not given. Slogans could therefore be qualified as '(verbal) anchors' (as also stated by Barthes) for remembering and recognizing brands, and for relating visual elements of a logo to a brand or company.

Supporting this, Bergkvist, Eiderbäck, and Palombo (2012) examined to what extent headline completeness mattered in terms of attitude towards ad, comprehension, brand attitude, message take-out and brand beliefs. Overall, they found that complete headlines were more clear and effective than ads that were open for interpretation. The ads that had no headline or ads that had fairly completed headlines showed having greater variation in brand association and interpretation. This further implicates the importance of slogans in advertising campaigns.

The overall effectiveness of a slogan can be explained by two factors, according to Kohli, Thomas and Suri (2013): exposure in media and the elements of the slogan design. To indicate the presence of brand advertisements in the media, media weight has been used by many researchers. It analyzes reach and frequency. Many studies (Corder, 1986; Keiser, 1975; Lodish et al., 1995; MacInnis et al., 2002; Appleton-Knapp, Bjork, & Wickens, 2005) have found a positive correlation between slogan recall and media weight. In other words, higher exposure in the media will lead to higher slogan recall and, in turn, a higher recall of the brand. However, Yalch (1991) found that multiple exposures would lead to decreased recall effect, which contrasts the results of media weight of Kohli, Thomas and Suri (2013) and other studies.

Making a relation to this research, this could signify that slogans which have a higher media weight, are recognized easier and are more effective than slogans which have a lower

media weight, causing a company that uses a high media-weight-slogan to be identified more accurate, better and to be regarded as more positive.

Slogan design could also impacts recall. The relevant aspects for this research that can impact recall are complexity, length and rhyming. In terms of complexity, the findings have been contradictive. Complex slogans make use of difficult word choices and syntactic structures. Some studies have found evidence in favor of complex slogans (Bradley & Meeds, 2002; Petty, Cacciopo, & Schumann, 1983), where another has found evidence in favor of simple slogans (Molian, 1993). However, short and to-the-point slogans are most beneficial in order to improve unaided recall (Kohli, Thomas, & Suri, 2013). Linking this finding to this research, when people are presented slogans that use of simple word choices and syntactic structure (e.g. we save the earth), it could be that slogan recall and therefore, brand recall are higher than when people are presented slogans that use difficult word choices and syntactic structure (e.g. salvaging the earth is our grail).

Furthermore, studies regarding slogan length seem to be in favor for short slogans (Corder, 1986). Slogans consisting of two to three words were learned more quickly than complex ones (Kohli, Thomas, & Suri, 2013). Therefore, when people are presented slogans having a maximum of three words, it could be that slogan recall is higher than slogans with more than three words. Phrases that rhyme are proven to be more successful than those that do not rhyme (McGlone & Tofighbakhsh, 2000; Meyer & Schvaneveldt, 1975) and marketers have therefore implemented these language choices to their slogan strategies. It could therefore be argued that people who are presented with rhyming slogans have a higher slogan recall than those who are presented slogans that do not rhyme.

2.4 Donation intention

In the present times, charity organizations are struggling to raise funds (Kashif, Sarifuddin, & Hassan, 2015). Therefore, it is crucial for these organizations to find ways in which they can give a boost to the financial donation process. Previous studies have focused on what make people want to donate to a good cause. One study that did this, is the study of Knowles, Hyde and White (2012). In their study they found that young people who had favorable attitude towards donating money perceived that they had more control over donating, perceived a moral obligation to donate money and had stronger intention to donate money if they had already done this frequently in the past. They also raise that increasing positive attitude towards the charity organization could encourage donation by telling to what the contributions of people lead. Using personal obligation, such as personal experience, could help to even further boost the

donation intention.

Kashif, Sarifuddin and Hassan (2015) elaborate on these findings by linking them to Hofstede's cultural dimensions. They indeed found that past behavior and injunctive norms contributed to donation intention. In addition, they found that for people in collectivistic cultures (Malaysia), norms influence donation intention as well. People like to be part of a group and this, in turn, affects their behavior. However, they found perceived behavioral control and attitude to not contribute to donation intention. This can be related to the individual characteristics and, therefore, not being exhibited in collectivistic cultures, even for donation.

Avdeyeva et al. (2006) argue that donating money is considered a low risk and effort behavior, because it provides internal gratification and increases self-pride, without suffering time, financial or energy loss. Important here is that the researchers looked at helping responses towards victims of the Katrina storm. When people donate, they apparently take a risk. When risk is high, people are hesitant in doing something. When risk is low, people are more willing to do something. Making a cultural link to this research, it can be concluded that risk taking, and therefore donating, can be linked to Hofstede's 'uncertainty avoidance' (UA) cultural dimension. Hofstede (1984) describes uncertainty avoidance as the degree people feel uncomfortable with uncertain and ambiguous situations. However, the survey used to measure uncertainty avoidance was linked to professional situation and can therefore not be applied in other non-professional situations. Furthermore, the results of this study could not be representative of the current situation, because it is over 30 years old and culture changes over time (Liu, Volĉiĉ & Gallois, 2015). Furnham and Ribchester (1995) discuss in their paper that uncertainty avoidance does not have a single definitive etiology and that it is a paradoxical concept. However, they raise that tolerance of ambiguity (ToA), though not fully synonymous, is likely to be highly correlated to Hofstede's (1980) UA. Therefore, ToA will be used here to compare donation intention across cultures.

2.5 Differences between cultures

According to the results of Hofstede (1984), Roccas and Sagiv (2010) and other researchers, it seems that culture and personal values are important factors that determine how people think and what actions people perform. However, no evidence has been found that people from different cultures will show the same intention to donate when exposed to logos with different degree of verbal anchors. This paper will be one of the first studies that will have a cross-cultural approach to the impact of verbal anchoring towards donation intention.

In the previous paragraphs, the function of verbal anchors has also been discussed. It

can be concluded that verbal anchors act as primers to eliminate ambiguous interpretation. Verbal anchors in logos can take the form of name and/or slogan. This way, an organization can increase recall, improve the transmission of their brand identity and, in turn, might improve the donation intention. An organization could choose to implement a name and/or slogan in their logo, however, this is not a compulsory component for every logo. From the previous paragraph, it can be concluded that donating can be linked to UA and therefore, the closely related ToA. This could mean that different degrees of verbal anchorage might evoke different reactions, according to the UA or ToA level of people. Culture might also be an explanation why different reactions could be shown to the degrees of verbal anchorage.

When a cross-cultural perspective is adopted, it can be concluded that the Netherlands and Hungary, according to Hofstede's cultural dimensions, differ in terms of uncertainty avoidance. The Netherlands has a score of 53 (out of 100) and Hungary has a score of 82 (out of 100) (Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010). Tolerance of ambiguity is closely related to uncertainty avoidance, therefore, a difference in intention to donate is expected when exposed to different levels of verbal anchorage. However, this has not been proven yet. Seen that Hungary scores higher on the uncertainty avoidance dimension than the Netherlands, it could be expected that Hungarian people overall would show the highest intention to donate when there is little to no room for ambiguous interpretation (low tolerance of ambiguity). This would mean that a logo shown with name and slogan would induce the highest intention to donate. The Netherlands has a score in the middle of the spectrum of uncertainty avoidance and, therefore, have a higher ToA than Hungarian people. Therefore, it could be expected that a logo with a name would induce higher intention to donate for Dutch people compared to Hungarian people. Seen that this research will focus only on Hofstede's 'uncertainty avoidance' cultural dimension, it will disregard other dimensions. When there is no difference in intention to donate, it could mean that uncertainty avoidance and, therefore tolerance of ambiguity, is not an accurate factor. Then, it could mean that nationality could be a factor that influences intention to donate. However, this has also not been proven yet. To find out what influence the degree of verbal anchoring has on the intention to donate, the following research question has been set up: *What influence do completeness of verbal anchoring and tolerance of ambiguity or nationality have on consumer response regarding charity logos?*

To further analyze consumer response, it will be divided into three variables:

- *Influence of verbal anchoring and ToA or nationality on the attitude towards the logo*
- *Influence of verbal anchoring and ToA or nationality on the attitude towards the charity*
- *Influence of verbal anchoring and ToA or nationality on the donation intention*

3. *Method*

3.1 Materials

During the experiment, the independent variables were ToA or nationality and the degree of verbal anchoring. ToA had three levels: (1) low, (2) medium or (3) high. Nationality was either Dutch or Hungarian. The latter had three levels: (1) only logo, (2) logo with name and (3) logo with name and slogan. The logos and slogans that were chosen for this study were from two charity organizations: World Wide Fund for Nature (WWF) and SOS children's villages. The reason why these organizations were chosen, is because these organizations were both active in the Netherlands and Hungary and had chosen to adapt their names and slogans to national language. This is useful for this study, to stimulate L1 thinking and familiarity. For both logos, the main logo was the same. The name and slogan were in the language the organizations used for their advertisements per country, i.e. Dutch and Hungarian. All logos and slogans were found on the web sites of the organizations. Figures 1 and 2 show the chosen stimuli.

Figure 1: WWF logos and slogans for NL (1) and HU (2)
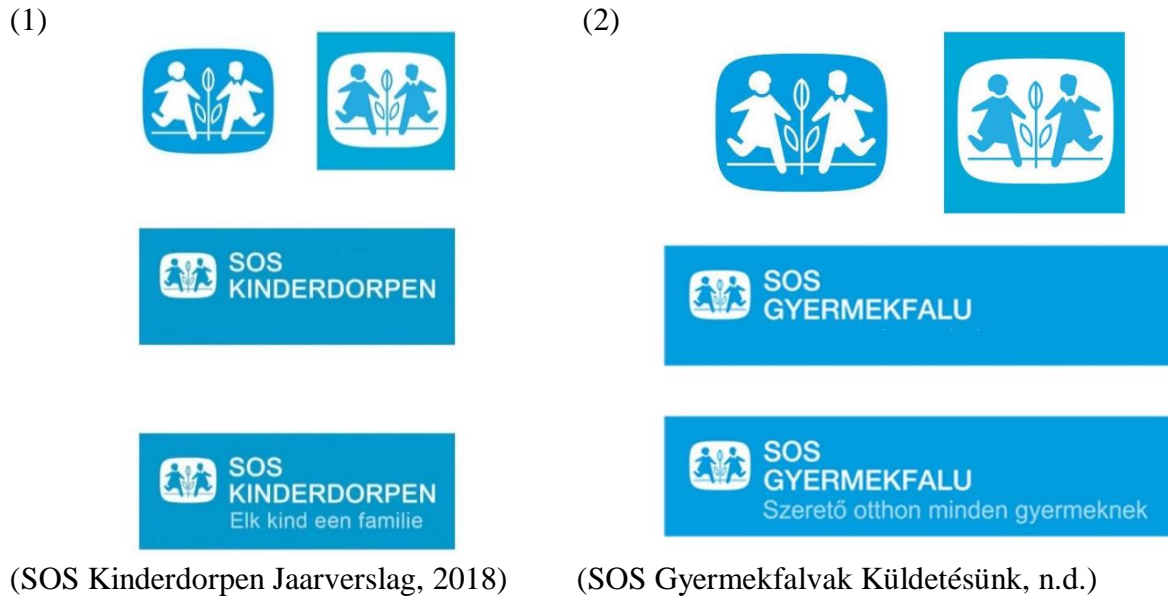
(1)

("Windsurfer Dorian van Rijsselberghe", 2019)

(2)

(WWF Magyarország, n.d)

Figure 2: SOS children's villages logos and slogans for NL (1) and HU (2)

(1)   (2)

(SOS Kinderdorpen Jaarverslag, 2018)   (SOS Gyermekfalvak Küldetésünk, n.d.)

3.2 Subjects

In total, 195 participants took part in this experiment. Of these 195 participants, 130 (66.7%) were Dutch and 65 (33.3%) were Hungarian. The minimum age of the participants was 15 and the oldest participant was 64, with $M = 22.29$, $SD = 4.70$. Of these 195 participants, 111 (56.9%) were female. In terms of educational level, 83 (42.6%) participants did a university bachelor-programme, 52 (26.7%) participants did a HBO-programme and 21 (10.8%) participants did a masters-programme. The other participants did either a practical programme (5.1%) or were in high school (14.9%). Comparing the Dutch sample to the Hungarian sample, age ($t(193) = 0.32$, $p = .747$) did not significantly differ between the two samples. Gender ($\chi^2(1) = 4.61$, $p = .032$) and education level ($\chi^2(4) = 71.32$, $p < .001$) did significantly differ between the two samples. For Gender, the Dutch sample had more females (74%) and males (56%) than the Hungarian sample. For educational level, the Hungarian sample had relatively more participants who indicated to be in high school (96.6%) than the Dutch sample (3.4%). The Dutch sample had relatively more participants who indicated to attend HBO (92.3%) compared to the Hungarian sample (7.7%). Finally, the Dutch sample had relatively more participants who indicated to attend a master's degree-programme (85.7%) than the Hungarian sample (14.3%). Gender ($\chi^2(2) = 5.44$, $p = .066$), nationality ($\chi^2(2) = 1.55$, $p = .461$), educational level ($\chi^2(8) = 2.86$, $p = .943$) and age ($F(2, 192) = 1.64$, $p = .188$) were distributed evenly across the conditions.

3.3 Design

This study made use of a 3x2 (degree of verbal anchor and nationality) between-subjects design. Each participant saw only one stimulus (e.g. either logo, logo and name or logo, name and slogan) for both organizations and had to answer questions in their native language, according to this stimuli in terms of attitude and intention. The within factor 'organization' was not taken into consideration, because the combined mean of both organizations was used.

3.4 Instruments

In this study, participants filled in one questionnaire, consisting of two parts. The first part regarded attitude towards the charity, attitude towards the logo and donation intention. Attitude towards charity was measured using four, 7-point Likert scales with the question: 'Do you perceive the charity as …' with the following items: 'successful, respected, admiring and positive' and anchored by 'I strongly disagree – I strongly agree'. These scales were adapted from Vermeulen and Beukeboom (2016) in Bruner (2019, p. 91). The reliability of 'attitude towards charity' comprising four items was good, with all $\alpha > .77$. Consequently, the mean of all four items was used to calculate the compound variable 'attitude towards charity', which was used in the further analyses.

Attitude towards logo was measured using three, 7-point Likert scales with the question: 'Do you perceive the logo as …' with the following items: 'good, positive, valuable' and anchored by 'I strongly disagree – I strongly agree'. These scales were adapted from Xie and Keh (2016) in Bruner (2019, p. 53). The reliability of 'attitude towards logo' comprising three items was good, with all $\alpha > .81$. Consequently, the mean of all three items was used to calculate the compound variable 'attitude towards logo', which was used in the further analyses.

Donation intention was measured using three, 7-point Likert scales with the question: 'Would you consider donating to the organization?' with the following items: 'very likely, probable, would consider' and anchored by 'I strongly disagree – I strongly agree'. The scales were adapted from Zúñiga (2016) in Bruner (2019, p. 515). The reliability of 'donation intention' comprising three items was good, with all $\alpha > .77$. Consequently, the mean of all three items was used to calculate the compound variable 'donation intention', which was used in the further analyses.

The second part regarded tolerance of ambiguity and was adapted from McLain (2009). It used twelve 7-point Likert scales for all questions (1 – strongly disagree with statement, 7 – strongly agree with statement) and scores were measured (1) low tolerance – (7) high tolerance). The reliability of 'tolerance of ambiguity' comprising twelve items was good,

with all α > .84. Consequently, the mean of all twelve items was used to calculate the compound variable 'tolerance of ambiguity', which was used in the further analyses. The questionnaire was translated into Dutch and Hungarian by the researchers (see appendix 1, page 26). All scales were also translated in Dutch and Hungarian by the researchers.

3.5 Procedure

In order to gather the required amount of participants, each research used their personal network to recruit volunteers. Due to the nationalities of the researchers, Dutch and Hungarian people were chosen as participants. Participants were gathered by the use of convenience sampling, combined with snowball sampling. No rewards were given to the volunteers, due to the researchers having no budget. The was an online experiment. The first part of the questionnaire had questions about the stimuli. They either saw a logo, a logo with name or a logo with name and slogan for two charities. To test to what extent verbal anchoring influenced the perception of the logos, the participant were asked four questions regarding attitude towards the charity and three questions regarding attitude towards the logo. To test what effect verbal anchoring has had on donation intention, three questions were asked regarding donation intention.. The second part of the questionnaire measured the tolerance of ambiguity of the participant Afterwards, some final questions regarding nationality, age, educational level and gender will be posed.

  The questionnaire was a personal questionnaire. The questionnaire took M = 5.89, SD = 8.65, all in minutes. This procedure was the same for all participants. No debriefing was done to the participants. Finally, it was be made sure that participation is anonymous and that the participants had the option to stop with the questionnaire at any time, seen that participation was voluntarily.

3.6 Statistical treatment

To analyze the results, two-way ANOVAs were used to test to what extent the two groups differed in terms of attitude towards charity, attitude towards logo and donation intention, according to the received stimuli. Furthermore, one-way ANOVAs were used to see what the differences per dependent variable were for the three levels of verbal anchoring. A t-test was used to compare ToA between the Dutch and Hungarian groups. Finally, Chi-square tests were used to analyze and compare the familiarity bias of the logos per nationality. If Levene's test has been violated, it will be mentioned in the results section.

Analytical model

To give an overview of which variables were used in this experiment, figure 3 shows the analytical model. In this experiment, two independent variables were used: (1) completeness of verbal anchoring (no anchor, incomplete anchor and complete anchor) and (2) Tolerance of ambiguity or nationality (thought median split method). Both IVs measurements are nominal level. There could be an interaction between these two IVs. The participants showed a reaction according to the stimuli they have received and their nationality or ToA. The reaction they have shown were the dependent variables, and these are threefold: (1) attitude towards the charity organization, (2) attitude towards the logo and (3) donation intention. All the DVs measurement levels are interval.

Figure 3: Analytical model
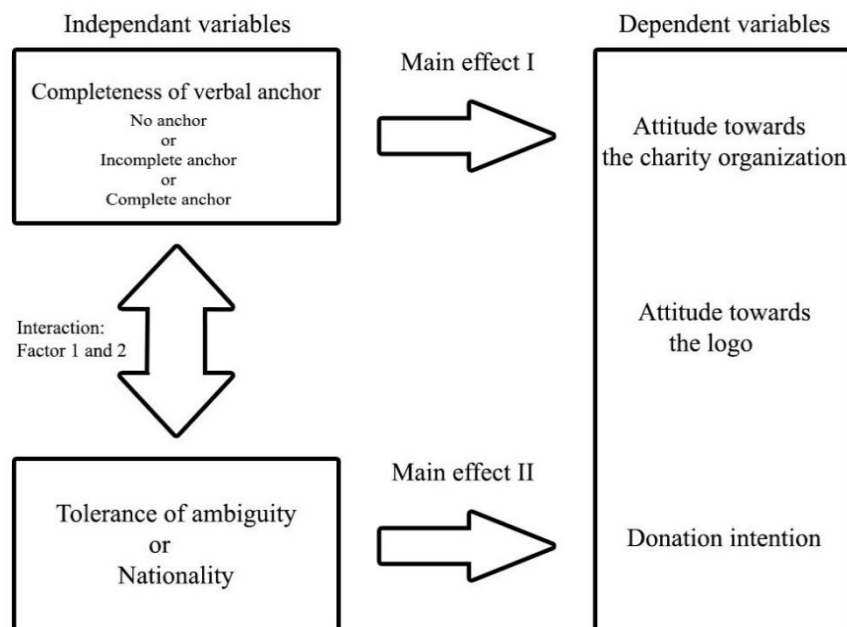
4. Results

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effects of verbal anchor completeness in logos and tolerance of ambiguity on consumer response. Consumer response is divided into three variables: (1) attitude towards the charity, (2) attitude towards the logo and (3) donation intention. Dutch and Hungarian samples were used to make comparisons across countries.

Tolerance of Ambiguity

An independent samples t-test did not show differences between ToA and nationality (t (193) $= 0.26$, $p = .795$). The Dutch sample ($M = 3.81$, $SD = 0.82$) had an equal ToA as the Hungarian sample ($M = 3.85$, $SD = 1.07$). Both samples showed having a score near the middle of the ToA scale.

Attitude towards Charity

A two-way analysis of variance for attitude towards charity with nationality and degree of verbal anchoring as factors showed a significant main effect of nationality (F (1, 189) $= 26.65$, $p < .001$), with grand $M = 5.23$, $SD = 0.90$ for the Dutch sample and grand $M = 5.94$, $SD = 0.91$ for the Hungarian sample. No significant results were found for the main effect of degree of verbal anchoring (F (2, 189) < 1) and interaction effect (F (2, 189) $= 1.29$, $p = .278$). The Hungarian sample overall had a higher attitude towards the charity compared to the Dutch sample. Comparing attitude towards charity for nationality, independent samples t-tests showed a non-significant effect of logo alone (t (63) $= 2.16$, $p = .061$) and significant effects of logo with name (t (59) $= 2.51$, $p = .015$) and logo with name and slogan (t (67) $= 4.53$, $p < .001$). For logo alone ($n = 65$), the Dutch sample ($M = 5.24$, $SD = 0.98$) showed having similar attitude towards the charity as the Hungarian sample ($M = 5.72$, $SD = 0.72$). For logo with name ($n = 61$), the Dutch sample ($M = 5.29$, $SD = 0.83$) showed lower attitude towards the charity than the Hungarian sample ($M = 5.91$, $SD = 1.09$). For logo with name and slogan ($n = 69$), the Dutch sample ($M = 5.16$, $SD = 0.87$) showed lower attitude towards the charity than the Hungarian sample ($M = 6.16$, $SD = 0.81$). This means that the Hungarian sample had a higher attitude towards the charity when exposed to a logo with some degree of verbal anchoring compared to the Dutch sample.

Attitude towards Logo

A two-way analysis of variance for attitude towards logo with nationality and degree of verbal anchoring as factors showed a significant main effect of nationality (F (1, 189) = 7.60, p = .006), with grand M = 5.14, SD = 1.07 for the Dutch sample and grand M = 5.59, SD = 1.04 for the Hungarian sample. No significant results were found for the main effect of degree of verbal anchoring (F (2, 189) < 1) and interaction effect (F (2, 189) < 1). The Hungarian sample overall had a higher attitude towards the logo compared to the Dutch sample. Comparing attitude towards logo for nationality, independent samples t-tests showed no significant effects of logo alone (t (63) = 1.01, p = .318), logo with name (t (59) = 1.79, p = .078) and a significant effect of logo with name and slogan (t (67) = 2.13, p = .037). For logo alone (n = 65), the Dutch sample (M = 5.28, SD = 1.22) showed no different attitude towards the charity than the Hungarian sample (M = 5.60, SD = 1.03). For logo with name (n = 61), the Dutch sample (M = 5.09, SD = 1.04) showed no different attitude towards the charity than the Hungarian sample (M = 5.60, SD = 1.17). For logo with name and slogan (n = 69), the Dutch sample (M = 5.05, SD = 0.93) showed lower attitude towards the charity than the Hungarian sample (M = 5.57, SD = 0.95). This means that the Hungarian sample had a higher attitude towards logo when the logo showed no room for ambiguous interpretation compared to the Dutch sample.

Donation Intention

A two-way analysis of variance for donation intention with nationality and degree of verbal anchoring as factors showed non-significant main effect of nationality (F (1, 189) = 1.42, p = .235), degree of verbal anchoring (F (2, 189) < 1) and interaction effect (F (2, 189) < 1). This means that the different degrees of verbal anchorage did not evoke the Dutch and Hungarian samples to show differences in terms of donation intention. Table 1 shows the donation intention of the samples.

Table 1. Means and standard deviations of Donation Intention in function of Nationality and Degree of Verbal anchorage (1 – low, 7 – high)

	Logo only	Logo with name	Logo with name and slogan
	n = 65	n = 61	n = 69
Dutch - *M (SD)*	4.45 (1.25)	4.39 (1.26)	4.18 (1.06)
Hungarian - *M (SD)*	4.46 (1.22)	4.82 (1.28)	4.40 (1.41)

Familiarity bias

At the end of the questionnaire, the participant was asked whether he/she already knew the logo before starting the experiment. Of the 195 participants, 31 (15.9%) participants recognized the logo of SOS and 187 (95.9%) participants recognized the logo of WWF. A Chi-square test showed a significant relation between nationality and the proportion of recognition of SOS logo (χ^2 (1) = 5.54, p = .019). The proportion of recognition of the Dutch sample (11.5% yes; 88,5% no) differs from the Hungarian sample (24.6% yes; 75% no). Additionally, a Chi-square test showed a significant relation between nationality and recognition of WWF logo (χ^2 (1) = 11.01, p = .001). The proportion of recognition of the Dutch sample (99.2% yes; .8% no) differs from the Hungarian sample (89.9% yes; 10,8% no).

5. *Conclusion/Discussion*

The purpose of this study was twofold. The first purpose was to analyze what influence completeness of verbal anchoring in logos had on consumer response. The second purpose was to find out if Tolerance of Ambiguity had an influence on consumer response. Dutch and Hungarian samples were used to make cross-country comparisons. Beforehand, culture was measured by ToA. Since both samples did not show any differences here, culture will be replaced by nationality.

In detail, the results of this study show that both samples had an equal ToA level, near the middle of the spectrum. This finding contradicts previous results. Before the analyses, it was expected that the two samples would show differences in their ToA level. This expectation was based on previous research of Hofstede, Hofstede and Minkov (2010). As discussed in sub section 2.5 (pages 7-8), ToA is closely related to Hofstede's (1980) uncertainty avoidance index. Hungary had a score in the fourth quartile and the Netherlands had a score near the middle. These results were also expected for the ToA level. The results of this study are surprising, yet explainable. A possible reason why the two samples showed similar ToA levels, instead of the expected differences, is because culture is a dynamic process. As described by Lui, Volĉiĉ and Gallois (2015), culture is subjected to change over time. When different cultures come into contact or cultural environment changes, culture overall changes as well. Globalization could be a contributor to cultures becoming more similar.

The focus then shifted towards the main variables. It was found that completeness of verbal anchoring did not yield differences in attitude towards the charity organization; attitude towards the logo and donation intention. This finding is not in line with previous findings. As discussed in the theoretical framework, it was expected that companies use their logos to

generate positive brand associations and attitudes among the target groups and to communicate their core values (corporate identity). It was also expected that names and slogans, therefore verbal anchors, are used to help increasing the transmission of corporate identity (Boush, 1993; Foroudi et al., 2017; Kohli et al., 2013; Dahlén & Rosengren, 2005). Expanding on this, evidence was found on the effectiveness of verbal anchors as elaborators. For example, Bergkvist et al. (2012) found supportive evidence that ads with verbal anchoring were more easy to understand and were rated more positive than ads with incomplete or no verbal anchor at all. By using verbal anchors, the transmission of corporate identity, the attitude towards the company, and intention to donate should increase for consumers (Knowles et al., 2012). Yet, in this research, no evidence has been found that verbal anchors helped in increasing positive attitude towards the organization, the logo and intention to donate. Here, it was shown that no matter the condition, the attitude towards the organizations and logos and intention to donate did not differ. This might mean that verbal anchors do not have the power at all to increase attitudes and donation intention. It could also mean that verbal anchors do not work when people are confronted with charities and donation intention. Another possible explanation might be that the design of the slogans was not sufficient. In sub section 2.3 (pages 4-6), three elements of slogan design are presented: complexity, length and rhyming (Kohli, Thomas, & Suri, 2013). In the literature, complexity has no one-sided answer of which design is better. In this study, simple slogans were used and yielded no significant results. This seems to suggest that simple slogans are not effective. In terms of length, the literature seems to be in favor of short slogans. In this experiment, all slogans had four words, except the Hungarian WWF slogan. As this study did not present significant results, it might be that these slogans were too short to elaborate on the organization. Finally, rhyming slogans were expected to be more effective. In this study, no rhyming slogans were used. This might be a reason why no significant results have been found.

Nationality did have an effect on attitude towards the logo. The Hungarian sample showed having a more positive attitude towards the logo than the Dutch sample. This difference was caused by the Hungarian sample having a more positive attitude towards the charity than the Dutch sample when exposed to a logo with name and slogan. This is to some extent in line with the expectations regarding completeness of verbal anchoring and the ToA levels. It was expected that logos with no room for ambiguous interpretation would have the most effect on the Hungarian sample, because this sample was expected to have a lower level of ToA (See sub section 2.5, pages 7-8). However, the samples showed having a similar level of ToA. This cannot explain why the two samples had different attitudes towards the organizations. It might

be that another cultural dimension influences the way people evaluate or value a charity organization. Another possible explanation of why the two samples showed different results might be familiarity with the logos. The participants overall reported to be more familiar with WWF than SOS. Comparing the two samples, it turned out that more Hungarian participants knew SOS and that more Dutch participants knew the WWF. This can be linked to media weight. Many researchers (Corder, 1986; Keiser, 1975; Lodish et al., 1995; MacInnis et al., 2002; Appleton-Knapp, Bjork, & Wickens, 2005) have found that higher slogan exposure in the media will lead to higher slogan recall and, in turn, a higher recall of the brand. This might mean that a company with high media weight is identified more accurate, better and is regarded as more positive. It could be that SOS has performed more media activity in Hungary and WWF has performed more media activity in the Netherlands. This could have led to biases. Furthermore, nationality did have an effect on attitude towards charity. The Hungarian sample showed having a more positive attitude towards the charity than the Dutch sample. This difference was caused by the Hungarian sample having a more positive attitude towards the charity than the Dutch sample when exposed to a logo with name and logo with name and slogan. This is in line with the expected relation between attitude towards the logo and attitude towards the charity. Logos could generate positive brand associations (Henderson & Cote, 1998; van Riel & van den Ban, 2001; Henderson et al., 2003). The result that the Hungarian sample had a more positive attitude towards the logo compared to the Dutch sample, could explain why the Hungarian sample had a more positive attitude towards the charity than the Dutch sample. However, nationality did not have an effect on intention to donate. Both samples showed having similar donation intention, despite having different attitudes towards logo and charity. It was expected that a positive attitude towards the logo would lead to positive attitude towards the charity, which could encourage donation intention (Knowles et al., 2012). Moreover, it was expected that the Hungarian sample would show more intention to donate when exposed to logos with name and slogan. This was found to be not true. As discussed before, ToA cannot be used as an explanation since both samples showed having similar ToA levels. This seems to suggest that another factor or cultural dimension has had an influence on donation intention. A possible explanation could be age. Knowles et al. (2012) raised that students often do not have the financial resources in order to donate. In this study, the target group were students. It could be that age has had an influence on intention to donate.

This study has elaborated on the theory of verbal anchoring. Before this study, scant research about verbal anchoring was performed. Despite all the knowledge about what logos, names and slogans in theory do, in this situation it appears that verbal anchoring does not have

the intended effect. For marketers, these are still relevant insights. As has been suggested, media weight could still have an impact. If a company wants to be recognized more, it could opt for a strategy that uses cohesive, structural and returning elements to boost familiarity. Even though this research did not yield significant results, it does not directly mean that verbal anchors do not have an effect. More and future research should be followed to paint a more clear picture of the effects of verbal anchoring.

This study had limitations. First, this study primarily focused on young students. Moreover, the Dutch and Hungarian samples did differ in terms of gender and educational level. Even though the samples did differ, comparisons have still been made. Therefore, these results cannot be generalized to whole populations and need to be analyzed by using equal samples. Future research can expand on these findings by using equal samples and, maybe, different nationalities. Furthermore, this study focused solely on one cultural dimension. Other dimension have been left out. This means that there is still a gap to be explored. Future research could for example focus on the cultural dimension 'masculinity'. A masculine culture, like Hungary, can be described as a culture driven by achievement and competition. A feminine culture, like the Netherlands, can be described as a culture driven by caring for each other and quality of life (Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010). The activities of a charity could be seen as 'helping behavior' (Avdeyeva et al., 2006), which fits in a feminine culture. Seen that both countries are opposites in this dimension, this might explain why the two samples showed differences in terms of in attitude towards the charity and the logo. Future research could prove this relation. In terms of materials, this study made use of only charity organizations and their logos. Other types of organizations and logos have been left out. Also here lies a gap to be explored. Knowles et al. (2012) describe in their theoretical framework that donation intention is likely to be provided in crisis and non-crisis scenarios and that it is performed when people have the necessary resources. It could therefore be that donation intention is specific behavior, which could evoke specific reactions and results. Using other organizations and logos (e.g. in non-charitable context) might yield different responses in terms of attitude towards the organization and its logo. Finally, it might have been that the used slogans did not have effective designs and, thus that no significant results were found. Future research could use or create slogans that have effective design, as discussed by Kohli et al. (2013) and see if slogan design does influence the effectiveness of slogans.

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***Appendix 1:** Mclain's questionnaire original, in Dutch and in Hungarian.*

Original

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.

6. I avoid situations that are too complicated for me to easily understand.

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.

Dutch

1. Ik kan niet goed tegen onduidelijke situaties

2. Het liefst ontwijk ik problemen die op meerdere manieren opgelost kunnen worden

3. Ik probeer onduidelijke situaties het liefst te vermijden

4. Ik verkies bekende situaties boven nieuwe situaties

5. Problemen die niet vanuit één standpunt kunnen worden gezien zijn enigszins intimiderend

6. Ik vermijd het liefst situaties die moeilijk te begrijpen zijn.

7. Ik kan goed met onduidelijke situaties omgaan.

8. Ik vind het leuk om moeilijke en onduidelijke problemen op te lossen

9. Het liefst vermijd ik problemen die niet één manier van oplossen lijken te hebben

10. Over het algemeen geef ik de voorkeur aan nieuwe dingen boven vertrouwde dingen.

11. Ik houd niet van onduidelijke situaties

12. Ik vind het moeilijk om keuzes te maken wanneer het resultaat onzeker is

13. Ik geef de voorkeur aan situaties die enigszins onduidelijk zijn

Hungarian

1. Nem tolerálom azokat a helyzeteket, amelyek nem egyértelműek.

2. Szívesebben oldok meg egy problémát, amit több szemszögből kell megvizsgálni.

3. Megpróbálom elkerülni a nem egyértelmű helyzeteket.

4. Előnyben részesítem az ismerős helyzeteket, az újak helyett.

5.Azok a problémák, amik nem csak egy szemszögből közelíthetők meg, egy kicsit nyomasztóak.

6. Kerülöm azokat a helyzeteket, amelyek számomra túl bonyolultak hogy egyszerűen megértsem.

7. Tolerálom a kétértelmű helyzeteket.

8. Szeretek olyan problémákat megoldani, amelyek elég bonyolultak ahhoz, hogy kétértelműek legyenek.

9. Megpróbálom elkerülni azokat a problémákat, amiknek nincs „egy legjobb" megoldása.

10. Általában az újdonságot preferálom az ismert helyett.

11. Nem szeretem a kétértelmű helyzeteket.

12. Nehezen döntök olyan helyzetekben amikor az eredmény bizonytalan.

13. Azt a helyzetet részesítem előnyben, amely valamennyire kétértelmű.