

ROLE-BASED TRUST: THE EFFECT OF
COLLECTOR IDENTIFICATION ON TRUST AND
DONATING BEHAVIOURS

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ABSTRACT

The experiment investigated how job role identification can affect how people interact with a charity collector. The main predictions look at the level of identification that charity street donation collectors have with their job role (e.g., no ID, uniform/t-shirt, ID badge, and uniform/t-shirt + ID badge) and how this was associated with how much potential donors trust the charity collector, whether they comply with giving the collector a donation, and if they do comply, then how much money they donate, and also how long it takes the potential donor to make a decision. Results show that although trust and level of identification was positively correlated, the difference between groups was non-significant. With regards to amount donated per person, donors are statistically more likely to donate slightly larger sums of money per person to those collectors in the low identification conditions. The results also show that there is no statistical significance between group differences in time to make a donation decision for each of the conditions involved. Implications of the results and research for charity use are discussed.

INTRODUCTION AND RATIONALE

Identification Overview

Identification can be defined as how much an individual immerses themselves within their role that they play as a person. It may be related to aspects of their personality, such as social sub cultures that an individual may belong to. A major aspect that individuals may identify with is their job role. Being highly identified with a job role can assist others to interact with the person better, much in the way that people use pre-existing scripts to interact with those in stereotypical situations (Kleider, Pezdek, Goldinger, & Kirk, 2008).

Kochersberger and colleagues investigated participants' identification with a certain category, and found that the less they identified with that category, the more they felt psychologically distant from it (2014). This shows that unless someone identifies with their role or group, they won't see it as being of great importance to them. In contrast, those who do identify with their role or group are more passionate about it and will defend their identity as needed.

Because people can hold multiple identities, individuals often may have to alter their appearance in order to adhere to each identity they hold, whether this is a job role, or otherwise (Johnson & Lennon, 1999, p12). The level of identification within a job role can be expressed in how much an individual looks like they belong in that role. When a person looks like they identify with that role and they look the part, they are reported to have a higher identification with their job role. This was found in the particular case of an investigation into retail work by Jones and Kim (2010). The researchers found that when the employees working within a clothing chain retail store were dressed in the company's clothing, they reported high levels of identification with their job role. These

employees were also perceived by customers as having high identification with their role, as well as being regarded as approachable by customers. Overall, if an individual identifies and looks like they belong to a particular role, then subsequent interactions will be smoother between people.

Uniforms and Identification

Specific cases of identification with a role for employees include uniforms. Uniforms are important because the physical appearance of the uniform, and in particular a name badge for employees to label who they are, can lead to very high levels of identification with a role. Many companies are selective with their recruitment processes to the point where people who are hired are not only suitable for the job, but they also identify with and look similar to all those who are also in the organisation (Herriot, 2001). Therefore, the employees all look alike, and they share the same ethos for working. In turn they share trust with one another, and because they look like they are part of the role, they receive trust from others too.

Johnson and Lennon (1999) discuss how job role identity is very reliant on dress and overall appearance. As stated earlier, the individual's image looks to serve how their identity is managed in different settings, acting as a visual metaphor for their job role (Davis, 1982, cited in Johnson & Lennon, 1999). In the work environment, people will dress in a way that seems to communicate to others information about themselves, and the role which they identify with in the working context. This relates not only to their outward appearance, but also their internal manifestations; their work ethos and group or identity roles (Craik, 1996; Davis, 1985; Kaiser, 1990, cited in Johnson & Lennon, 1999). In this sense, the individual's dress in a particular role may have the power to influence many relationships they may come into contact with, both formal

and informal (Johnson & Lennon, 1999). Therefore, an individual in a particular role may appear for example, trusting to others, and can fulfil the job requirements of their role by appearing to be trusting to others.

Uniform and Employee

Identification is important in employment, and a major way to portray this identification is through the dress or attire the individual wears in their role, and how this can affect the perception of the individual. Karl, Hall and Peluchette (2013) looked into city employees and dress in public sector workplaces. While there may not be a strict uniform in place in this sector, there is still a dress code to adhere to, which still portrays the same level of image as a uniform does in other industries. Overall, the image in this particular industry shows that formal business and business casual was seen to be the ‘proper’ attire to wear, with most employees reporting positive impacts on interactions with customers (Karl, Hall & Peluchette, 2013). The motto of this research, “you are what you wear”, is a good indicator that adherence to a particular uniform of an industry is a good indicator of high identification with that job role.

Similar research on dress in the workplace can be seen in relation to high identification with career as well. Herriot (1999) states that particularly in the late 20th century, more women were entering management type job roles, and had to form their own work images to accompany these identities. Adopting the dress style of individuals already in management roles, who were mainly men at the time, helped these women create their own working identity. This meant that they were more easily able to execute their day to day tasks, as well as increase the competence of these women in their roles (Herriot, 1999).

In some jobs that require the wearing of a uniform to complete tasks, the image that the uniform portrays, as well as the individuals' preference for the uniform is important. Having strong identification with a role, for example flight attendants, is seen in research by Haise and Rucker (2003), is necessary for proper job satisfaction, and ultimately the perception and image that come with it.

Another major aspect in job roles that accompanies identification is the name badge or other identifying accessory. In particular, police officers who upon retiring after a long time position were asked to hand in their badge, uniform, and other identifying memorabilia, report a loss of identity and may even experience mental illness following this relinquishment of identity (Sunderland, 2014). Therefore the name badge is an important part, not only of the job role and the uniform, but to the identity that an individual may take on. Research on the way that hospital staff were dressed in 4 UK adult hospital psychiatric wards found that for staff and patients, 77% of the respondents thought that all staff should wear name badges (Tham & Ford, 1995). A similar result was also seen in a study at Christchurch's Princess Margaret Hospital, where most of the 451 patients preferred to interact with a doctor who was wearing a name badge on their breast pocket (Lill & Wilkinson, 2005). From these studies, it shows that visual identification of the individual's name and role is important, as well as a polite manner in interacting with others.

Trust

People rely on one another through social interaction in order to function properly. One important function of social interaction involves trust, and holding trust with other individuals for our own and other's needs. Trust is a communal concern that is critical to group stability, and the willingness to accept vulnerability based on positive

expectations about another's intentions (Fine & Holyfield, 1996; McEvily, Perrone & Zaheer, 2003). Many researchers have defined trust, with some including different sub categories, such as ability and willingness to carry out mutual tasks, as falling under trust (Naskrent & Siebelt, 2011). Trust is useful not only in the social sense, but also in organisations, and particularly in philanthropic organisations. Sargeant and Lee (2004) describe how trust in a charity or non-profit organization is indicated by four factors; donor relationship with the charity, mutual influence, forbearance of opportunism, and communication acceptance. During their research on donor trust and relationship commitment in charities they define trust in the non-profit sector as the reliance of one party on another party to comprehend and protect the rights and beliefs of all individuals involved in a transaction or exchange (Hosmer, 1995, p. 393 in Sargeant and Lee, 2004, p.190). Aside from being an important factor in social relationships, trust is also necessary in professional and working environments to assist transactions. Working relationships that are lacking in trust are more open to deterioration; therefore trust is important to working relationships (Herriot, 2001).

Role Trust

Job identification in the psychological sense involves being able to recognize that an individual is strongly aligned with or holding a particular role or job. Certain workers who put their lives on the line in their job role can be seen as having 'instant trust' from others because of this. Roles such as police, firefighters, and surgical teams are some of the individuals who tend to receive this instant trust from others due to knowledge of their training, support, and their organisations' culture and ethos, which have ensured a trust between them. The uniform that these individuals wear as part of their role reflects the cultural meanings and symbolic power which these groups maintain. The same can

be said for other uniforms, particularly if others recognize it, and then they can instantly assign the meanings and power of that recognition to the individual (Johnson & Lennon, 1999,). Holding a high level of identification with a role is crucial and helpful for trust development, particularly in roles that require such a high level of trust.

Trust received from others is likely to depend on the amount or extent to which people identify with a particular group or job role, and identification based trust is likely to be the primary means of determining degree of trust. Identification based trust within job roles is also important, as it is said to be the primary means of determining the degree of trust within the group that the individual belongs to. The strength to which they identify with their group or role leads to the amount of trust that is perceived by others towards them (Kramer & Pittinsky, 2012). Being identified within a group or role endows the individual with the characteristics, beliefs and behaviours that accompany this role or group. Thus, they now share a common group identity with others who are within that identity, and can then form a strong bond with others of the same category or identity based on non-calculational processes (Kramer & Pittinsky, 2012).

Organisation and Charity Trust

Because trust is a necessary component for many social exchanges, it is important for companies to exert this characteristic for successful business trade. When a company is seen to be trustworthy, the consumers of that company are seen to identify with it, and this can lead to loyalty with the company (Rodríguez del Bosque & Martínez, 2013). This is important according to researchers Bhattacharya and Sen (2003), who state that how trustworthy a consumer perceives a company to be, or a representative of that company to be, determines how they will respond to said company or non-profit (Keh & Xie, 2009; Rodríguez del Bosque & Martínez, 2013).

When a charity has a high level of trust from other individuals who are potential donors, it can affect the donation decision of these individuals. Having a high level of trust can result in the decision making of these potential donors more efficient and simple on whether to donate to the charity. McEvily, Peronne and Zaheer (2003) developed a model which verifies this, stating that trust acts as an organizing principle which can make transactions between people smoother. Those who have a high level of trust in the charity may have an easier decision to donate to the charity, and this can be conducted more quickly than if the charity was perceived to be untrustworthy. Charities that are perceived as trustworthy can reduce the need of potential donors to obtain and interpret information about the charity; because there is this trust in place, the potential donor does not need to investigate the charity's motives and can believe that they will be carrying out their work in a positive way. Because trust represents a positive assumption between two or more parties, it can lead to a mutual benefit between those involved. This can assist the decision making process by making it more efficient through the lowered need to acquire information. Trust can aid decisions and make them simple; given this logic, if an individual trusts a charity or representative of that charity, they are more likely to reach a decision that is mutually beneficial to all parties involved (McEvily et al, 2003).

Bekkers (2003) also investigated the importance of trust in charities, and stated that public trust in a charity is necessary for the expansion of charities. When a charity looks to publicize their cause it gives them recognition and this leads to a further cementation of their trust to the public as it shows the public where their charitable efforts, such as donating, can end up. More money is often donated to these charities that the public perceives as trustworthy, a characteristic that can be amplified by signalling their charitable endeavours to the public (Bekkers, 2003). Publicizing the work of non-profits

is also found to be an important effort, particularly on individuals' intent to donate to the non-profit (Oosterhof et al, 2008). Positive public exposure through news broadcasting is a valuable factor which, alongside commitment, ultimately leads to intent to donate. Therefore, those charities or non-profit organisations that have higher recognition are more likely to receive donations from committed and trusting donors.

Identification, Trust, and Donation

Sargeant and Lee (2004) indicate that trust has a positive relationship with donating behaviours, which is mediated by commitment to the charity. Trust is important and somewhat necessary for organizations, including charities to have with external clients or donors, as it reduces the amount of bargaining, negotiating and monitoring that occurs (Sargeant & Lee, 2004). Research by Cheung and Chan (2000) developed a model of factors that lead to donation, and concluded that trust in the organisation, as well as other factors such as self-efficacy, awareness of the charity and previous donating behaviours, showed significant positive effects on the intent to donate. This reinforces the research on donation; having a high level of trust in the charity and the individuals associated with it is important for positive donating behaviours, which can be mediated by other factors such as public awareness, commitment or relationship through previous donating, and self-efficacy of the individual.

To carry on from this, other research has shown that there are a multitude of factors that contribute to donor retention. Trust, satisfaction with the charity, level of involvement, and commitment to the charity all contribute and relate positively with donor retention (Naskrent & Siebelt, 2011). Monetary donations are a major contributor to charities, but other donations such as amounts of time are also crucial. Research has found that those who are more educated and empathetic to charitable causes are more

likely to donate both money and time to philanthropic organisations (Bekkers 2009). Empathy is a characteristic that is in line with trust, so it can rectify the trust-donation relationship. Trust and identification with the organisation and its affiliates can be seen to have a positive effect on donors as well; if a non-profit organisation is seen to be trustworthy and the donor can identify with it, then they tend to have stronger loyalty to that non-profit, particularly in non-profits involving money as opposed to blood or time donation non-profits (Helmig & Boenigk, 2013).

Donation Decision and Collector Tactics

Herriot writes that support, care and trust are all important factors for a successful business (2001). Successful businesses often have frequent transactions on which the business flourishes due to high levels of trust between parties. When these transactions are frequent, the time it takes to process them lowers due to this level of trust (Herriot, 2001). While making a decision of whether or not to donate is important, the amount of time it takes to donate is also one to come under speculation. Little research has been conducted in the area, but the link of identification to trust shows that those who are higher in identification with their role hold more trust with others. As shown in previous models, this higher level of trust can lower the need to make in depth decisions regarding the transaction, resulting with a smoother process that will have less time involved. Research has shown that when a non-profit organisation is perceived to be functioning comfortably, individuals are less likely to donate their money as they see the donation as not being needed (Evers & Gesthuizen, 2011).

The decision to make a donation can also rely on the tactics that the collector may be using to either collect money or sign up committed donors. One individual who has been working as a street collector states that humour and politeness is often the key to

attracting people to become regular donors (Confessions of a street fundraiser, 2002). Some non-profits who do employ street fundraising are using high quality collectors; younger people who are outgoing, energetic, and learn easily so they can talk face to face with the potential donors on the street (Confessions of a street fundraiser, 2002; Cost of charity street collecting, 2003).

Because so many non-profits are looking to collect money this way, the quality of the collectors needs to be high, and it also makes the interaction more personal. If the collector can get onto the same level as the potential donor, it makes the relationship stronger and the donor more likely to agree to the transaction as opposed to over the phone or online (Cost of charity collecting, 2003). Little research has been conducted into the area, but many news reports state that people prefer fundraisers to collect on the street in a polite manner, rather than entering peoples' homes through telephone or door sales tactics (Coughlan, 2007; Hunt, 2013). This may suggest that individuals are more likely to donate to collectors who are on the street rather than those that come into the privacy of their homes.

Research justification

It is important to conduct research on the topic of role-based trust associated with charity collectors because it is an under researched area of study (Burt, 2014). The impact of role based trust on has not been investigated, so this study conducted experimental work to provide valuable information for the charity sector. This study examined role-based trust associated with charity donation collectors. It involved a between group experiment in which a collector in four states of identification with the collector role was viewed by groups of potential donors.. The independent variable was the level of identification, and the dependent variables include level of role trust,

donation compliance, donation size, and reaction time to donate. In order to help generalize the results to the real world, the study worked with the Red Cross charity.

One of the main aims of the experiment was to see if there are links between the level of identification of charity donation collector and how much donors trusted them. Identification is seen as how much an individual immerses themselves within their role, and in this experiment it focuses on the physical appearance of the uniform of the collector such as whether or not the collector had an identification badge. Between group differences in role trust were be examined, as were the actual donations that were collected from the participants.

For this research three hypotheses were tested. As noted in previous research, trust is seen to have a positive relationship with identification of role and organisation (Sargeant & Lee, 2004). Having a high level of identification with a job role is meant to increase the amount of trust that others perceive of the individual in a specific role, as it means that they are strongly aligned with all components of that role and are reliable to act in any way that such a person in that role would behave (Herriot, 2001; Johnson & Lennon, 1999). This identification can aid with trust development as all of the actions undertaken by the individual with high identification to their job role are predictable to those who interact with them (Johnson & Lennon, 1999; Kleider, Pezdek, Goldinger, & Kirk, 2008). This justification leads onto **hypothesis one** of the study:

H1: ‘The more identified the collector is with their role, then the more trusting they will appear to the donor’.

To follow on from the first hypothesis, Sargeant and Lee (2004) indicate that trust has a positive relationship with donating behaviours. Previous models and research show that trust in the organisation and ultimately the individual representing an organisation can show significant positive effects on donation results (Cheung & Chan,

2000). Public awareness, trust, and identification with the job role should yield positive results for donation behaviours (Bekkers, 2003; Bekkers, 2009; Oosterhof et al, 2008).

This justification leads onto **hypothesis two** of the study:

H2: ‘The more trusted the collector is, the better the outcome is for donations; the donors will be more likely to comply and will give more money to a collector that is trusted’.

McEvily and colleagues state that high identity based trust with an organisation, group or a specific role can lead to a simplification of the decision process, meaning that those who are higher identified with their role have more trust and therefore donors will be able to make a simpler, faster decision regarding whether or not to donate to them (2003). As already seen, high levels of identification can reduce the need to obtain extra information about the individuals involved as there is recognition of values and other internal manifestations between the parties in the transaction (Herriot, 2001; Johnson & Lennon, 1999). This justification leads onto **hypothesis three** of the study:

H3: ‘Participants decision to donate or not will be quicker as role identification increases. The more identified the collector is with their role the quicker the participants (donors) will be to make a donation decision’.

METHOD

Design

The research design is a between groups experiment. Experimental conditions were created by employing an actor to be filmed in the role of charity collector. There are four conditions (as shown in Table 1 below): one in which the actor has no identification at all, one in which the actor wears a name badge and has a charity collection bucket with logo, one in which the actor wears a uniform (t-shirt) and has a charity collection bucket with logo, and one where the actor has the uniform, name badge, and the charity collection bucket with logo. All other factors were held constant across the conditions, such as the actor maintained a pleasant expression and used the same narrative. All the videos can be viewed by scanning the respective QR code which will link to a private YouTube page for each video. The QR codes in Table 1 can be scanned with a QR scanner, available as a free app downloaded to a smartphone. In Table 1 below, the conditions are presented in order from control with the lowest level of job identification, to Uniform and ID with the highest level of job identification.

Table 1. Visuals of the four conditions.

Condition 1, ‘Control’. No logos or other writing and/or pictures are visible. Identification is low with this condition. The QR code can be scanned with a Smartphone QR scanner app to link to the video online:



Condition 2, 'Uniform'. The actor is wearing a t-shirt with a charity logo on the front. No ID is present, however Red Cross logos are present on both the t-shirt and the money bucket. Identification with role is somewhat high with this condition.

See QR code for the full video:



Condition 3, 'ID'. The actor in the film wears plain, non-patterned clothing, but has a name badge with their name and photo clearly visible in this. Red Cross logos are seen on the bucket and the ID. Identification with role is high with this condition.

See QR code for the full video:



Condition 4, 'Uniform and ID'. The actor is wearing a t-shirt with a charity logo on the front, as well as a name badge to identify. Identification with role is very high with this condition.

See QR code for the full video:



The experiment measured compliance rate, donation amount, trust level, and the length of time it took donors to donate. The compliance rate is defined as the percentage of participants who donate any money during the experiment. The donation amount is defined as the amount in dollars (\$0-\$10) that each individual decided to donate. Trust level was measured using two scales and shows the degree to which each participant trusts the collector/actor in the video and the charity itself. The length of time to donate was measured in seconds and is the length of time between the end of the video and when the participant chooses to donate or not. The order of the scales used to measure the dependent variables were counterbalanced to control for common method variance. Also to prevent any biases, participants were randomly assigned to a condition.

As well as the dependant variables several control variables were also measured in order to minimise any error that may arise in the collection of data. These control variables are social desirability, altruism, previous donating experience, and familiarity with charity (Red Cross).

Participants

Sampling. The sample was drawn from students from the University of Canterbury. These students come from various degrees. However, all STAR students were excluded and this was determined at time of recruitment. Selection was voluntary, and the distribution into one of the four groups/conditions was made randomly.

The participants were recruited via advertisements. The advertisements were placed randomly around campus. Contact details were available on tear-away strips at the bottom of each poster, and potential participants were able to contact the researcher via email or telephone to arrange a time to take part in the experiment. The recruitment advertisement is available in Appendix A.

A \$10 cash incentive was offered to each participant. This enabled all participants to fully participate in the study by giving them the ability to donate if they wanted, regardless of personal financial situation.

Information and consent. All participants were given a consent form to read before conducting the experiment, as well as an information sheet for their own knowledge on the experiment (see Appendix B for consent form, Appendix C for Information sheet). The study was approved by the University of Canterbury Human Ethics Committee.

Participants. Overall, Eighty individuals participated in the study, with an average overall age of 23.96 and a gender split of 31 Male (38.7%) and 49 (61.3%) Female.

Table 2 below shows the descriptive statistics for each condition:

Table 2. Descriptive statistics of participants in conditions

	Control	Uniform	ID	Uniform & ID
Number of participants	20	21	18	21
Mean age	24.67	23.69	23.94	23.58
SD of age	7.21	4.79	4.05	7.54

Materials/Measures

Video detail. The study required four short films to be shot featuring the actor (collector) outside on a street to simulate the street donation collector context. The

videos involved working with an actor who was a lecturer in the Theatre and Film Studies department at the University of Canterbury. The researcher sought out and recruited the actor.

The study was supported by New Zealand Red Cross, and props (e.g., a Red Cross t-shirt for street collection, a Red Cross collection bucket, and a Red Cross ID) were obtained from them for use in the videos; a plain white t-shirt was also used for the control and ID conditions.

A handheld camcorder, Panasonic SDR-H80 was used to shoot the videos, and a tripod, 1400mm height was used to keep it stationary. Tape was used to mark the standing points of both the actor and the tripod to make any changes in between videos consistent. The videos were shot on campus at the University of Canterbury in a popular student location.

All videos were edited to be as similar to one another as possible. The speaking portion of the clip involved the actor reciting the line: 'Hi, I'm collecting for Red Cross, would you like to make a donation?' This audio spanned 4 seconds for each video. To elongate the amount of time that participants would be exposed to the stimuli, a snapshot of the video was taken at the start and the end of each video, with the start snapshot being 1 second, and the end snapshot appearing for 2 seconds, making all four videos exactly 7 seconds long each. The audio was then faded in and faded out for the film/moving portion, while the snapshot portions of the videos remained silent. The actor remained with a neutral expression and a polite smile at the end of their line so as to appear neither overwhelming nor unapproachable. The audio was taken from one of the videos and layered over the other three videos to match the speaking, thus eliminating any voice characteristic biases that may be present. Therefore the only stimuli that changed for each video was the collector identification, the independent

variable. To see a full video of each condition, please refer to the QR codes in Table 1 earlier.

Dependent variables. All dependent measures that used scales with multiple items were responded to on 5 point Likert scales ranging from 1 strongly disagree to 5 strongly agree. The scale was scored by summing the item ratings and dividing the sum by the number of scale items.

Role Trust. Role trust was measured using the 5 item scale by Sargeant, Ford and West (2000). This scale was adapted to read ‘collector’ instead of ‘non-profit’. A larger score means a higher level of trust. Sargeant, Ford and West reported a re-test reliability coefficient of .92 for the scale. In the current study, the coefficient alpha was .92. In order to obtain this, the item ‘I would trust this collector to use fundraising techniques that are appropriate and sensitive’ was deleted to raise the alpha to this point. Example, items in the final scale included the following:

- I would trust this collector to always act in the best interests of the cause
- I would trust this collector to use donated funds appropriately

The item ratings were summed and divided by the number of items to make a Role Trust score.

Compliance Rate. Compliance rate was measured in a response to the question ‘Would you like to donate now?’ as displayed in Figure 1 below:

Figure 1: Compliance buttons

Would you like to donate now?

DONATE NOW

NO THANKS

Participants were shown these buttons immediately after whichever video they saw as an option to either give a donation or not give a donation to the collector they viewed in the video. Participants were required to click either one of the buttons using the mouse to make their decision.

Donation Time. The donation time is defined as the amount of time the participant took to decide whether to click 'Donate now' or 'No thanks' on the buttons shown above in Figure 1. The length of time was measured in seconds and is the length of time between the end of the video and when the participant chooses to donate or not. The timer started when the stimuli video had ended and the timer stopped when the participant had selected one of the two options presented to them (clicked on a button). Timing statistics include when the participants made their first click, their last click, the page submission, and also the number of clicks they made to indicate potential change of mind. The first click was used for the timing measure of donation decision, as 85% of the participants used only one click for their decision

Donated Amount. The single question, 'How much money would you like to donate?' was asked after a confirmation of donation, or compliance. The participant was given the opportunity to enter in the pre-selected full dollar amount they would like to donate to Red Cross via the collector they had observed in the condition video. Figure 2 over the page shows the question and the drop-down answer box for the participants to select the amount they may donate:

Figure 2: Donated amount box

How much money would you like to donate?

\$1
\$2
\$3
\$4
\$5
\$6
\$7
\$8
\$9
\$10

Please place the donated amount in the container provided, then proceed to the next question by pressing the Continue button.

Control variables. All dependent measures that used scales with multiple items were responded to on 5 point Likert scales ranging from 1 strongly disagree to 5 strongly agree. The scale was scored by summing the item ratings and dividing the sum by the number of scale items.

General Trust. Dispositional Trust was measured using the 10 item scale by the International Personality Item Pool (2014). The scale was scored by creating an average of all the individual participant's ratings for the scale items. A larger score means a higher level of dispositional trust. The International Personality Item Pool (2014) reported a re-test reliability coefficient of 0.82 for the scale. In the current study, the coefficient alpha was .82. No items needed to be deleted for this scale. Examples, of items in the final scale included the following:

- I tend to see myself as someone who believes that others have good intentions
- I tend to see myself as someone who believes in human goodness.

Social Desirability. Social desirability in relation to charity giving was measured using the 19 item scale by Lee and Sargeant (2011). Social desirability has been labelled as the need to obtain approval, so in order to get an accurate rating this needs to be addressed (Marlowe & Crowne 1960). Social desirability can influence responses, especially those regarding charitable interactions, therefore it is important to use social desirability measures with any research (Burt, 2014). The original scale included 6 sub scales, however 3 were omitted to leave the remaining sub scales: self-deception measures, intrinsic psychological measures, and social norm influence. This omission was included due to the relevance of the study, and the irrelevance of the items in the remaining three sub scales meant they were to be omitted from the experiment. These three remaining sub scales were combined to become one measure, Social Desirability. A larger score means that the individual has a higher level of propensity towards social desirability, and the more intrinsic (higher they rate themselves) an individual is, the less likely they are to exaggerate their generosity. Researchers Lee and Sargeant (2011) reported a re-test reliability coefficient of .74 for the Self-deception scale, .76 for the Intrinsic Benefit scale, and .75 for the Social Norm Influence scale. In this study, the coefficient alpha was .40 for the Self-deception scale, .78 for the Intrinsic Benefit scale, and .84 for the Social Norm Influence scale. Overall, the Social desirability scale with the three subscales yielded a Cronbach's reliability alpha of .74. In order to obtain this, the following items 'I would describe myself as a generous person', 'I believe I give more to Red Cross than Red Cross supporters', and 'Donating to Red Cross makes me feel good' were deleted. Example items in the final scale included the following:

- If I never gave to Red Cross I would feel guilty about myself
- I like to support a cause that is well known by others

Altruism. Altruism was measured using the 10 item scale from the International Personality Item Pool (2014). The item ratings were summed and divided by the number of items to make an Altruism score. A larger score means a higher level of Altruism. The International Personality Item Pool reported a re-test reliability coefficient of .77 for the scale. In this study, the coefficient alpha was .82. No items needed to be deleted for this scale. Example, items in the final scale included the following:

- I tend to see myself as someone who makes people feel welcome
- I tend to see myself as someone who looks down on others

Familiarity of Charity. Familiarity with the charity was measured using a question adapted from Burt and Williams (2014). The words ‘Red Cross’ were exchanged for the original blank term in order to fit with the current study. The question is as follows;

‘Please indicate how familiar you are with Red Cross products and services prior to completing this study’

The participant responded on a 4 point Likert scale, ranging from 1, ‘Not at all familiar’, to 4, ‘Extremely familiar’.

Previous Donating Behaviour. Previous donating behaviour was assessed using a question adapted from Burt and Williams (2014). The single question is open ended, and is as follows:

‘In the past 12 months, how many times have you donated to charity?’

The question is meant to cover all forms of charitable donation, hence the open choice response box as seen in the Qualtrics survey in Appendix D. One donation counts as every time money is given to an organisation. For example, monthly donations to a child from a sponsor would be counted as 12 times in the past 12 months.

This includes the current donation for the experiment should the participants choose to donate.

Procedure

First, the participants who arranged for a meeting after being recruited via advertisement were given an information sheet and a consent form. The Information Sheet was read out to each participant to ensure they all received the information necessary to their participation. If they consented, they were asked to fill out the Consent Form. The Consent Form was then traded for the payment of 10 X \$1 coins. This was important as it allowed the participant to properly complete the experiment. Giving them money to do with as they wish means that they were free and able to donate money to the charity/collector if they wished.

Next, each participant was seated in front of the computer to view a short, seven second video of an actor portraying a street donation collector in one of four scenarios. The condition that the participant was entered into was randomly but evenly generated by Qualtrics. Once the video ended a new screen appeared where the participant had the option to donate. This new screen started a timer to measure the reaction time of the decision. After the compliance reaction time was measured and recorded, the program then moved on to the next stage of the experiment, the survey (See Appendix D).

The Qualtrics survey was completed by all participants regardless of whether they decide to donate or not. The survey included the dependent and control variables covered in the materials section, as well demographic information. All the items in the survey are counterbalanced per participant to eliminate any ordering effects, with the exception of the question on the donation decision which was always the first question. The whole procedure took approximately 10 minutes of the participants' time.

RESULTS

Appropriate items were reverse coded in each scale, and reliability analysis was calculated for each scale. Inspection of the alpha values indicated they are all reliable indicators of their respective variables, as they are all in the .7 to .9 range. To score each scale, the items were summed and divided by the number of items in the scale. This gives a range of 1-5 for each scale.

Control Variables

Despite random assignment to each condition it was important to ensure the groups were not significantly different on the control variables. Correlations were calculated between the dependent variables compliance, donation amount, charity trust, timing, and the control variables dispositional trust, previous donations, familiarity of charity and altruism using all 80 participants. This analysis was performed to determine if any of the control variables could potentially interfere with the main results. The results of this analysis are shown in Table 3.

The significant correlations that might be expected include:

- Previous donations positively correlating with donation compliance, as seen by Cheung and Chan (2000), as well as by Oosterhof, Heuvelman, and Peters (2009). The more the individual has donated in the past, the more likely they are to donate in the future.
- Dispositional trust positively correlating with donation compliance, as seen by Evers and Gesthuizen (2011). The more dispositional trust the individual has, the more likely they are to donate to the charity.

- Higher familiarity with the charity or greater knowledge of the charity is likely to be positively correlated with donating compliance; the more they know about the charity, the more likely they are likely to donate (Cheung & Chan, 2000; Oosterhof et al, 2009)
- Previous donation quantity is likely to correlate negatively with timing of decision (Oosterhof et al, 2009). The more often an individual has donated in the past, the quicker they will be to donate again to the charity.

Table 3. Correlations between dependent variables and control variables

	Dispositional Trust	Previous donation	Social desirability	Familiarity of charity	Altruism
Donation amount (N= 29)	.24	.03	-.03	.011	.22
Charity trust (N= 80)	.38**	.12	.20	.32**	.17
Timing of donation (N= 80)	.01	.28*	-.02	.18	.16

Note *p<.05, **p<.01

Inspection of Table 3 shows several significant correlations:

- Compliance with donation positively correlated with Dispositional trust of the participant, the amount of times the participants had previously donated, and the participants' familiarity of the charity.
- Charity trust positively correlated with the dispositional trust of the participant, and with the participants' familiarity of the charity.

- The speed of the donation decision correlated significantly with the amount of times the participants had previously donated.

Having established relationships between the dependent variables and the control variables it was important to ensure that the groups did not vary significantly on these variables. Table 4 below shows the descriptive statistics of the control variables for each condition. Analysis of variance was used to compare the groups on these variables and the results of these analyses are shown in the last column of Table 4. Inspection of these results indicates that there were no significant differences between the groups on the control variables. Despite the lack of significant between groups differences, testing of the main study hypotheses used a number of the control variables as covariates.

Table 4. Means and standard deviations for control variables

	Condition				ANCOVA comparison
	Control (N= 20)	Uniform (N= 21)	ID (N= 18)	Uniform and ID (N= 21)	
Previous donation	7.8 (13.47)	11.1 (26.48)	4.44 (10.33)	3.62 (2.85)	F (3,76) = .937, <i>NS</i>
Social Desirability	3.01 (.72)	2.73 (.70)	2.98 (.70)	2.84 (.86)	F (3,76) = .590, <i>NS</i>
Familiarity	2.35 (.59)	2.33 (.73)	2.5 (.86)	2.33 (.80)	F (3,76) = .219, <i>NS</i>
Altruism	3.72 (.59)	3.99 (.50)	3.95 (.54)	3.98 (.36)	F (3,76) = 1.323, <i>NS</i>
Dispositional Trust	3.57 (.45)	3.39 (.62)	3.58 (.60)	3.48 (.54)	F (3,76) = .517, <i>NS</i>
Age	24.67 (7.42)	23.68 (4.92)	23.94 (4.17)	23.58 (7.74)	F (3,70) = .112, <i>NS</i>

Hypothesis One

In order to analyse the first hypothesis, an analysis of co-variance was conducted to examine group differences in the collector trust measure. Dispositional trust and familiarity of charity were controlled for in this analysis as they significantly correlated with charity trust. The hypothesis states that ‘The more identified the collector is with their role, then the more trusting they will appear to the donor’. Analysis shows that there is no significant difference in the group means for the collector trust measure, $F(3, 74) = .43, p = .73$. As seen from this, hypothesis one was not supported by the results. The means and standard deviations for this analysis are shown below in Table 5.

Table 5. Means and standard deviations of Charity trust across four conditions

	Condition				
	Control (N= 20)	Uniform (N= 21)	ID (N= 18)	Uniform and ID (N= 21)	ANCOVA comparison
Charity Trust	3.85 (.82)	3.56 (1.08)	3.86 (.72)	3.84 (.40)	$F(3,74) = .43, NS$

The current experiment used four conditions to assess identification with role, and these conditions can be combined into two levels of identification; high and low. The three high identification conditions, Uniform, ID, and Uniform and ID (as seen in Table 2 earlier) combine to become ‘Identification’ (high identification with role), which is compared against the ‘Control’ condition; a neutral, non-identifying condition (low identification with role). When running the same analysis, the study yielded statistically stronger results than in the four conditions of identification. The ANCOVA showed that there were no statistical difference of trust levels between the identification levels, $F(1,$

76) = .13, $p = .72$ (See table 6 below for means). As this difference was not statistically significant, the hypothesis remains unsupported by this result.

Table 6. Means and standard deviations of Charity trust across control condition and combined conditions

	Condition		ANCOVA comparison
	Control	Identification	
Charity Trust	3.85 (.82)	3.75 (.79)	$F(1,76) = .13, NS$

Hypothesis Two

In order to analyse the second hypothesis, a Chi Square was conducted to examine the group differences in compliance of donation, and a one way ANOVA was conducted to examine group differences in donation amount. There were no correlating control variables for the dependent variables in this analysis. The hypothesis states that ‘The more trusted the collector is, the better the outcome is for donations; the donors will be more likely to comply and will give more money to a collector that is trusted’. Analysis shows that there was a borderline significant difference in donation amounts between the identification groups, $F(3, 25) = 2.85, p = .06$, and that there was no significant difference between the identification groups for compliance of donation, $\chi^2_{(3)} = 3.90, p = .27$, (See Table 7 for donation amount detail below, and Table 9 for compliance detail). Although this difference was not significant between groups for both compliance as well as donation amount, it was shown that the control condition and uniform condition have somewhat higher amounts of money donated than do the ID condition and the Uniform + ID condition (See Tables 7 and 9 for full donation details).

Table 7. Means and standard deviations of Donation amount (\$) across conditions

	Condition				ANCOVA comparison
	Control (N= 20)	Uniform (N= 21)	ID (N= 18)	Uniform and ID (N= 21)	
Donated amount	\$6.13 (4.32)	\$6 (4.06)	\$2.67 (1.16)	\$2.22 (1.64)	F (3,25) = 2.85, NS

As with the previous hypothesis, the four conditions can be combined into two levels of identification; control and identification. When running the same analysis, the ANCOVA shows that there is no statistically significant difference in donation amount between the control and identification groups, $F(1, 27) = 2.16$, $p = .153$ (See table 8 below for descriptives of this analysis).

Table 8. Means and standard deviations of Donation amount (\$) across control condition and combined 'Identification' conditions

	Condition		AVONA comparison
	Control	All ID conditions	
Donated amount	\$6.13 (4.32)	\$3.90 (3.36)	$F(1,27) = 2.16$, NS

Donation spread. Table 8 below shows the spread of the donations across the four conditions and in total. It covers the donation compliance, the total donated amount per condition, and also looks at the average amount that was donated per condition. This covers both the full 80 participants in the study, as well as the average amount of money

collected from those participants who donated to the charity (29 participants). In general, the same proportion of individuals tended to donate across all conditions, with the exception of the ID condition.

Table 9: Donation details across conditions

	Control (N= 20)	Uniform (N= 21)	ID (N= 18)	Uniform and ID (N= 21)	χ^2 comparison
Donation compliance	8 (40%)	9 (42.9%)	3 (16.7%)	9 (42.9%)	$\chi^2_{(3)} = 3.90, NS$
Donators average donation (N=29)	\$6.13 (4.32)	\$6 (4.06)	\$2.67 (1.16)	\$2.22 (1.64)	-
Donated amount total	\$49	\$54	\$8	\$20	-

The same analysis is completed for the Donation amount between Control and Identification levels. As seen below in Table 10, the chi square statistic shows that there is no statistically significant difference in the donation compliance levels between the two identification levels, $\chi^2_{(1)} = .162, p = .687$ (See Table 9 below for descriptives of this analysis). As this difference for both of these analyses are not statistically significant, the second hypothesis remains unsupported by this result.

Table 10. Means and standard deviations of Compliance across control condition and combined 'Identification' conditions

	Condition		χ^2 comparison
	Control	All ID conditions	
Compliance	8 (40%)	21 (35%)	$\chi^2_{(1)} = .162, NS$

Hypothesis Three

In order to analyse the third hypothesis, an analysis of co-variance was conducted to examine group differences in the decision time measure. Familiarity of charity, previous donating, and altruism were controlled for in this analysis as they significantly correlated with the decision time measure. The hypothesis states that ‘Participants decision to donate or not will be quicker as role identification increases. The more identified the collector is with their role the quicker the participants (donors) will be to make a decision’. Analysis shows that there is no significant difference in the group means as seen below in Table 11, $F(3, 22) = .615$, $p = .612$. As seen from this, the hypothesis was not supported by the results.

Table 11. Means and standard deviations of Timing of donation (s) across conditions

	Condition				ANCOVA comparison
	Control (N= 20)	Uniform (N= 21)	ID (N= 18)	Uniform and ID (N= 21)	
Timing of donation (seconds)	5.90 (3.40)	8.10 (6.81)	5.86 (6.40)	9.31 (6.40)	$F(3,73) = 1.94$, NS

As with previous hypotheses, the four conditions can be combined into two levels of identification; high and low. When running the same analysis, the study yields stronger results than when in the four conditions of identification. The ANCOVA shows that there is a difference of speed between the identification levels but it is not strong enough to yield a significant result, $F(1, 24) = .669$, $p = .421$. Table 12 below shows the descriptive statistics between the control and identification conditions with there being

no statistically significant difference between groups, and the hypothesis remains unsupported by this result.

Table 12. Means and standard deviations of Timing of donation (s) across control condition and combined 'Identification' conditions

	Condition Control	All ID conditions	AVONA comparison
Timing of donation	5.90 (3.40)	5.86 (6.40)	F (1,75) = 1.42, <i>NS</i>

Additional analysis. While not part of the study prediction, the data was examined to determine if there were differences between small and larger donors. The results show that eight individuals donated the full \$10 compared to the rest of donors who gave anywhere from \$1-5 of their money. Table 13 below shows the data from those who donated large amounts (the full \$10) compared to those who donated the smaller amounts (\$1-5). Overall, there is no statistical significance between the small donors and large donors for any of the variables presented, except for the donation amount which is expected.

Table 13. Comparisons in means and standard deviations between small donors and large donors

	Small donations (\$1-5)	Large Donations (\$10)	AVONA comparison
Previous donations given	12.05 (25.47)	14.75 (16.32)	F (1, 27) = .077, p=.784

Social Desirability	3.09 (.46)	3.05 (.80)	$F(1, 27) = .023, p = .881$
Familiarity with charity	2.62 (.67)	2.63 (.52)	$F(1, 27) = .001, p = .982$
Altruism	3.99 (.46)	4.00 (.44)	$F(1, 27) = .003, p = .960$
IPIP Trust	3.69 (.38)	3.85 (.46)	$F(1, 27) = .841, p = 3.67$
Age	25.63 (8.40)	22.00 (3.27)	$F(1, 24) = 1.213, p = .282$
Donation Amount	\$2.43 (\$1.63)	\$10 (0)	$F(1, 27) = 168.73, p < .001$
Charity Trust	3.81 (.69)	4.28 (1.01)	$F(1, 27) = 2.042, p = .164$
Timing-First Click	10.64 (7.57)	6.94 (5.50)	$F(1, 27) = 1.581, p = .219$

DISCUSSION

The aim of the study was to investigate three hypotheses relating to collector identification. The research looked into whether varied levels of identification with the specific job role of charity street donation collectors can affect (1) the level of trust that is perceived about them from others, (2) the compliance rate and the amount of money that is donated to their charity, and (3) the speed of donation decision making made by potential donors. In total, \$131 was donated as part of this study, and has been donated in full to the New Zealand Red Cross.

Hypothesis One

The first hypothesis states that ‘The more identified the collector is with their role, then the more trusting they will appear to the donor’. Analysis of co-variance was used to test this hypothesis, but yielded insignificant results, meaning the hypothesis was unsupported. As already noted, dispositional trust and donation amount correlate positively, yet are statistically non-significant. The analysis of the hypothesis also looked at combining the four conditions into two conditions; Control and Identification. The three independent conditions, Uniform, ID, and Uniform + ID, were combined to become ‘Identification with role’, which was compared against the Control condition, a condition which yielded no observable identifiers of job role or personal identity. This was justified to see if any marker of identity with job role, whether it is uniform of the role or identity or name badge, has a significant effect on trust levels and donation behaviours of potential donors. However, the analysis yielded statistically non-significant results. For future study, the participant pool could be enlarged to show greater power, and thus potentially show a significant result between these groups.

The level of power and participants in the study is a major aspect as to why the hypothesis was not supported, but other potential conclusions need to be drawn from this, to prepare for future studies. The hypothesis does not appear to be incorrect, as the results are heading in the correct direction of the hypothesis. In general, the street donation collector who had a larger level of identification with their role (i.e., Uniform + ID) had a somewhat higher level of trust perceived than when the same street donation collector was dressed in a lower level of identification (i.e. Control) with their role. Because of this, it can be concluded that the hypothesis was correct, but perhaps some of the measures and concepts were problematic.

One issue to address with regards to the measures and concepts is the number of participants included in the study. A larger number of participants would have resulted in more power for the research, and potentially significant results for the hypothesis (Aron, Aron & Coups, 2009). However, the budget restraints for the research meant that only 80 participants were able to be recruited for \$10 payment each. For future research, the payment for the experiment incentive could be reduced to perhaps \$5 per participant, and this would double the amount of participants and in turn the overall statistical power of the experiment. However, this issue may be problematic, as a \$5 incentive for participation is not a lot of money when comparing to other studies advertised around the campus, particularly when the participants are asked to donate some of their funds. Perhaps if the number of participants in the study were expanded to have a donation sample size that exceeded this power threshold, the results may have been significant for the hypothesis; that the more identification with the role the street donation collector has, the more trust they will receive from the potential donors.

The research that was conducted was a controlled experiment, using an actor and props in the video. None of the stimuli in the video were changed with the exception of

the clothing the collector was wearing, which portrayed the level of identification that the collector held with the role. This consistency included the single line of dialogue which was seen to portray interaction with the participant. Because of this, and the reasons given above, the main conclusion for the lack of support for the hypothesis is the lack of power in the experiment.

Hypothesis Two

The second hypothesis states that ‘The more trusted the collector is, the better the outcome is for donations; the donors will be more likely to comply and will give more money to a collector that is trusted’. This hypothesis was tested using analysis of covariance, and, unfortunately, it was also seen to be not supported with statistically insignificant results. For this hypothesis, the variables compliance as well as donation amount were considered in comparison to identification with job role. The compliance level was not statistically significant between the four groups of identification level; however there was a borderline statistically significant difference between the identification conditions for the donation amount. Unfortunately, this was in the reverse of what the hypothesis was expecting; individuals donated larger quantities to the collector when in the lower identification than when in the higher identification condition. The four conditions were also condensed to become Control and Identification with role, as with the previous hypothesis. However, this analysis was also found to be statistically non-significant for both the compliance rate across groups as well as the donation amount across groups. Overall, the street donation collector in the lower identification is borderline statistically more likely to receive larger donations than the street donation collector in the higher identification conditions, but there is no statistical difference between groups for compliance with donation.

Link with hypothesis one. Dispositional trust and donating amount are positively correlated as seen earlier from Table 3. It has to be noted that the amount of people who donated in the study is under the threshold of having a good level of power in an experiment (Aron, Aron & Coups, 2009). If the power of the experiment was increased with a larger sample size than the 29 individuals who donated, then these results could potentially be statistically significant. Table 3 also shows that Dispositional trust and Charity trust are positively and significantly correlated. When taken in conjunction with the earlier hypothesis regarding trust level, it can be interpreted that given larger power in the experiment, a higher level of identification with job role can lead to an increase in trust in the collector, which may result in a higher level of donation compliance for the charity.

When looking at the donation details across the four conditions as seen earlier in Table 5, in general the same proportion of participants donated in each condition, with the exception of the ID condition, which was statistically significant from the other conditions for both compliance as well as donation amount. This suggests that there is something potentially unnerving about the ID condition alone that makes people want to donate less money and less often when in comparison to the other conditions. The collector in the ID condition is wearing a plain white t shirt with just an identification badge in a lanyard as to identify with the role. Perhaps this form of visual identification with role looks less like a street donation collector to potential donors, and more like a figure of authority or on a commission as opposed to volunteer work. Some participants upon completion of the experiment expressed distaste for commission based donation collectors, which may be why this condition had significantly less money donated than the other three conditions.

Perhaps the hypothesis should be reformed, as the results are significant but against the direction of the hypothesis. A possible reason for this could be lack of information that the participants and donors received or held about the street donation collector. Some participants expressed concern for donating to large non-profit organisations, and questioned whether or not their donation, or intended donation, would be used for charitable purposes. The identification badge may notify presence of a commission based approach which some participants were eager to avoid. This may increase the amount of identification that the collector has with their role, but it may not increase the amount of trust others have with them. However, there is little research on which to base this assumption, so the lack of hypothesis supporting results may be due to the measures involved instead.

The participants that were included in the study were all students, and while students are seen to be a reliable source of donations there were some students who stated after the experiment that they did not donate because of either personal reasons, financial strain, or the belief that that they were being paid this money for taking part and did not want to part with their money (Burt & Williams, 2014). A popular donation scheme was taking hold of social media during the time of collection, the ALS ice bucket challenge. A small number of students had donated a large amount to this cause, and therefore were looking to gain back their funds where possible. This same reason could be given if the participants had recently donated to other causes, believing that they had already made a donation to a non-profit organisation and therefore perhaps did not feel the need to donate again.

Hypothesis Three

Hypothesis three states that 'Participants decision to donate or not will be quicker as

role identification increases. The more identified the collector is with their role the quicker the participants (donors) will be to make a decision'. Again, analysis of covariance was used to test this hypothesis, but also yielded insignificant results, meaning the hypothesis was unsupported. While several timing measures were offered, such as participants' first click, last click, page submit time, and number of clicks on the page, the variable 'first click' was used to indicate the amount of time the participant took in deciding, as the vast majority of participants used their first click's selection as their final. There were only a small number of individuals who changed their mind between whether to donate or not before settling on a decision and pressing the continue button to carry on with the experiment. Again, as seen in previous hypotheses, the analysis also ran through the two condensed conditions, Control and Identification with role. Unfortunately, the condensed conditions did not show a statistical significance in terms of donation decision speed. This hypothesis can be concluded as unsupported, with no evidence that there is any difference in donation decision speed between the conditions.

To review this hypothesis, it has to be taken into consideration that perhaps this hypothesis is incorrect, or is in the wrong direction to what is predicted. The decision to donate or not could perhaps be shorter for those in the control condition, or the low identification condition, as they are not in uniform and may be seen as less trust worthy, thus having a shorter deciding time as to not donate. There is very limited research on the timing of donation, so perhaps timing of donation decision does not get shorter as the level of identification is higher.

With regards to the measures and concepts, the participants may benefit from prolonged exposure to the stimuli when making a decision. After all, when faced with a donation situation in real life, the collector does not leave after asking the potential donor to make a donation. For future studies, a snapshot of the collector in their

appropriate identification level for the condition could be presented alongside the question when taking the experiment. This way, when the participant is carrying out the experiment, they have the extended stimuli of the collector to view while making their decision, rather than recollecting from memory.

When measuring the timing, the measure 'First click' was used. There were four measures offered when analysing the timing; 'First click', 'Last click', 'Page submit', and 'Total clicks used'. The reason that 'First click' was used is because some people thought that the next page in the survey would load automatically after selecting a decision, hence why 'Page submit' or 'Last click' time might not be correct. As stated in previous text, most of the participants used the first click as their decision, which is why this measure was used in place of the others. Alternatively, the program could be edited to see if the next page could load automatically after choosing a decision, so then it is more definite and the participants are selecting only one button, as some people clicked more than one, jumping between decisions, showing indecisiveness. Also, as covered in the previous hypothesis' analysis, a screenshot of the collector could be shown next to the question 'Would you like to make a donation?' to assist with decision timing by extending exposure to the stimulus.

Limitations of the Study

While it is good to focus on the successful outcomes of a study, it is also important to note the limitations of the research so that they may be made aware of, especially for future research in the area.

Sampling. Because of the location of the study, the participants who were included in the research were students at the university. This may be limiting to the quality of the applicant pool, however the current participants for the research have good spread with

a wide age range. Previous research has also found that students are reliable donors to charity with little or no difference to the remainder of the population. Students are also seen as Western, Educated, Intelligent, Rich, and Democratic, which is what the majority of the population is that undergoes psychological participation (Henrich, Heine, & Norenzayan, 2010).

Also in regards to the sampling of participants, the advertisement used to recruit the participants should be questioned. The advertisement gave no mention of a donation opportunity for the participants during the experiment, or to any explicit non-profit or charitable investigations (See Appendix A for full advertisement details). This omission of the donation aspect may be a reason for the lack of donations found in the results. However, it was suggested that this detail be left out by the human ethics committee during the proposal writing stage, as it may bias the sample in a particularly self-deceptive enhancement (Schultz & Whitney, 2005). This was omitted because including such a description may result in mostly donation-happy participants being included in the study, which is not a representative sample of the campus population.

Measurement. The research used scales to measure, which while they did have a good measure of reliability, are also self-report measures. Self-reporting can come with some issues, including people not reporting their scores properly (Schultz & Whitney, 2012). This may be due to deliberately not telling the truth, the individual's interpretation of the responses, and wanting to conform to others' responses. However in this study, each participant completed the survey individually in a separate room so no other participants could influence their answers. The responses were recorded on a computer so that only the researcher and the participant completing the survey could see the results. The Cronbach reliability alphas of all the sub scales in the survey were of a strong level which matched that of the original papers from which they came, meaning

that the scales have good reliability; the participants understood what was being measured (Aron, Aron & Coups, 2009; Cronbach, 1951, in DeVellis, 2012, p34-35).

Controlled Experiment. The research was a controlled experiment, with the researcher deciding where the experiment will take place, the time, the participants, and the variables involved. However, because pure experiments are completely controlled, replicating the findings in real life may be difficult with so many variables to account for. Attempting to generalise the findings to a real life setting may not be as straight forward, as pure experiments may tend to have low external validity (Tebes, 2000). Also, because the participants may be aware of the experiment, they may be affected by demand characteristics which can bias the results. The participant may think they have guessed what the experimenter is attempting to achieve, and may try to affect the results through impression management (Schultz & Whitney, 2005). Because the experiment is pure, it means that researchers have total control over all the variables in the study, including control variables. The control variables that are mentioned also showed no significant interaction with the independent variables, so the conclusions that were collected were solely at the result of the independent variables in the study. Experiments allow for total control of all variables, allowing for a cause and effect relationship to take place instead of implying a relationship as seen in a correlational study.

Implications of the study

In conclusion, the results of this research leave the charity industry with some interesting take home messages. Each hypothesis and its related literature background bring forth ideas that can be used in the non-profit sector in order to make better use of their collection tactics. The first hypothesis, while not statistically significant, attempted to support research that found that if an individual has a higher level of identification

then this may lead to higher received levels of trust. If people appear to be dressed in the outfit of the role they work in, then others who interact with these individuals are more likely to trust them. This bodes well for street donation collectors, who can take this approach in order to visually show they are trustworthy recipients of donations for their charity. A large concern for donors is where exactly their money is going, and whether the vast majority of it reaches charitable ends. The second hypothesis assessed compliance and donation amounts as variables on identification with role. In general, the more identified the collector is with their role, then the less funds they may receive from potential donors. This needs to be taken into consideration with the first hypothesis' results, in that higher levels of identification lead to higher levels of trust received from others. Therefore, street donation collectors should be appearing to dress in a way that is visually trusting and identify with their charity, yet not appear to be commission based. Through analysis of the hypothesis, the condition that earned the lowest money was one of the higher identified roles, the ID condition. In order to appear trust-worthy, as well as earn more money, the collectors should dress in the style of the Uniform + ID condition, with the full uniform and identification badge showing. This way, the collector is identifying their role within the charity, have their name and details on show for the donor to observe, and appears to be openly agreeing to their role of collecting for the charity. The third and final hypothesis, which looked into timing measures of donation decisions depending on the collector's identification with job role, was also not statistically significant. This means that the amount of time the participant took to decide whether to click 'Donate now' or 'No thanks' to a donation opportunity is irrelevant to the identification level of the collector. This means that the potential donor may or may not make a donation, regardless of how long they may be taking to decide, or how identified the collector is within their role. Future research into this

hypothesis of donation timing and identification with role may include more explicitly separate identification with role, and starting the timing measure at different stages of the video. This is because people might begin to make their decision upon first sight of the collector, and what the collector says in their speech can influence the potential donor into making a donation.

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Come and participate in our study!

We are looking for students from all walks of life, INCLUDING YOU to help us in our study on charities.

What's involved?

Participation in this research includes watching a short video, and answering a few questions related to it. You'll receive a \$10 cash payment for your participation.

How long will it take?

The whole procedure will only take up approximately 10 minutes of your time.

Who to contact?

Take the information below, or send an email to keb68@uclive.ac.nz to arrange a time, information on the location, and to begin your participation.

Unfortunately, STAR students are not included in this study.

Donation behaviour study, \$10 for 10 minutes
keb68@uclive.ac.nz

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keb68@uclive.ac.nz

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Psychology Department
Telephone: +64 (03) 364 2987 (ext7187)
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6/05/14

Charitable Donating Study

Information Sheet for participants

My name is Katharine Bolton and I am a Master's student here at the university. I am looking at how people interact with charity collectors they may encounter on the street.

Your involvement in this project will require you to watch a short video and then answer questions in a survey online. The experiment involves approximately 10 minutes of your time. During the session you will have the opportunity to make a real donation using cash.

Participation is voluntary and you have the right to withdraw at any stage without penalty. If you withdraw, I will remove information relating to you; however beyond October 21st data removal will be impossible, so please contact me before this date if you do not want your data to be included in the analysis.

The results of the project may be published, but you may be assured of the complete confidentiality of data gathered in this investigation: your identity will never be made public. To ensure anonymity and confidentiality, names will not be taken except on the consent form which is held separately from the study data. The only ones who may have access to the study data include me and my research supervisors. The data will be securely stored on campus, and will be destroyed after a period of 5 years. The thesis resulting from this research is a public document and will be available through the UC Library.

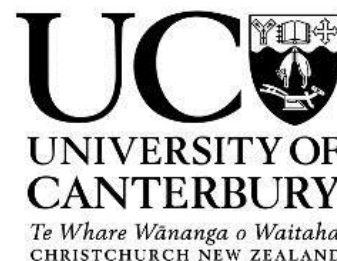
The project is being carried out as a requirement for a degree by Katharine Bolton under the supervision of Chris Burt and Katharina Naswall, who can be contacted at christopher.burt@canterbury.ac.nz and katharina.naswall@canterbury.ac.nz. They will be pleased to discuss any concerns you may have about participation in the project.

This project has been reviewed and approved by the University of Canterbury Human Ethics Committee, and participants should address any complaints to The Chair, Human Ethics Committee, University of Canterbury, Private Bag 4800, Christchurch (human-ethics@canterbury.ac.nz).

If you agree to participate in the study, you are asked to complete the consent form before beginning the study.

Katharine Bolton

Psychology Department
Telephone: +64 (03) 364 2987 (ext7187)
Email: katharine.bolton@pg.canterbury.ac.nz



Charitable Donating

Consent Form for participants

I have been given a full explanation of this project and have had the opportunity to ask questions.

I understand what is required of me if I agree to take part in the research.

I understand that participation is voluntary and I may withdraw at any time without penalty. Withdrawal of participation will also include the withdrawal of any information I have provided should this remain practically achievable.

I understand that any information or opinions I provide will be kept confidential to the researcher and supervisor(s) and that any published or reported results will not identify the participants. I understand that a thesis is a public document and will be available through the UC Library.

I understand that all data collected for the study will be kept in locked and secure facilities and/or in password protected electronic form and will be destroyed after five years.

I understand that I can contact the researcher [Katharine Bolton, katharine.bolton@pg.canterbury.ac.nz] or supervisor [Chris Burt, Christopher.burt@canterbury.ac.nz] for further information. If I have any complaints, I can contact the Chair of the University of Canterbury Human Ethics Committee, Private Bag 4800, Christchurch (human-ethics@canterbury.ac.nz)

By signing below, I agree to participate in this research project.

Name: _____

Signature: _____

Date: _____

By signing below, it signifies that I have received my \$10 cash payment

Name: _____

Signature: _____

Date: _____

[Please hand this consent form to me when you are ready to begin the experiment]

Katharine Bolton

Appendix D – Qualtrics Survey Items

Would you like to donate now?

DONATE NOW

NO THANKS

How much money would you like to donate?

▼

- \$1
- \$2
- \$3
- \$4
- \$5
- \$6
- \$7
- \$8
- \$9
- \$10

Please place the donated amount in the container provided, then proceed to the next question by pressing the Continue button.

Sargeant, Ford, West, 2005 for Charity Trust

Think back to the video you observed.

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with or disagree with the following statements.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I would trust this collector in the video to always act in the best interests of the cause	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I would trust this collector in the video to conduct their operations ethically	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I would trust this collector in the video to use donated funds appropriately	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I would trust this collector in the video not to exploit their donors	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I would trust this collector in the video to use fundraising techniques that are appropriate and sensitive	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Appendix D – Qualtrics Survey Items

IPIP 2014 for Altruism

I tend to see myself as someone who...

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Makes people feel welcome	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Looks down on others	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Loves to help others	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Is indifferent to the feelings of others	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Anticipates the needs of others	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Is concerned about others	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Makes people feel uncomfortable	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Turns my back on others	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Has a good word for everyone	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Takes no time for others	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

IPIP 2014 for Trust

I tend to see myself as someone who...

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Trusts others	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Believes that others have good intentions	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Thinks that all will be well	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Believes that people are essentially evil	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Distrusts others	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Believes that people are basically moral	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Believes in human goodness	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Suspects hidden motives in others	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Is wary of others	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Appendix D – Qualtrics Survey Items

Lee and Sargeant 2011 Social desirability for charitable work

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with or disagree with the following statements.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I believe I give more to charity than many charity supporters	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I would describe myself as a very generous person	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Donating to charity makes me feel good	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I give to charity because I would feel guilty if I didn't	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
If I never gave to charity I would feel bad about myself	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I like to support causes that I know many other people support	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I like to support causes that are well known	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I like to support a cause that is well recognised by others	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Familiarity

Please indicate how familiar you are with Red Cross products and services prior to completing this study.

- ☐ Not at all familiar
- ☐ Slightly familiar
- ☐ Moderately familiar
- ☐ Extremely familiar

Previous donating

In the past 12 months, how many times have you donated to charity?

Demographics

What is your gender?

- ☐ Male
- ☐ Female

What is your age?