Nonprofit brand image and typicality influences on charitable giving ☆

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ABSTRACT

This research examines the influence of nonprofit brand image and typicality on giving behaviors. To this end, the researchers create a scale to measure the brand image of charities. Four dimensions of nonprofit brands emerge in the new scale: usefulness, efficiency, affect and dynamism. Brand image explains up to 31% of intentions to give money and 24% of intentions to give time. The study also explores the role of typicality in giving behaviors. Typicality explains up to 29% of intentions to give money and 23% of intentions to give time. The theoretical contributions, in addition to the comprehensive scale, include the significant role that brand image and typicality play in affecting donation behaviors. The paper concludes with managerial implications and limitations of the study.

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1. Introduction

In December 2004, the world watched in horror as a tsunami hit Asian coasts. Spontaneously, many people from around the world wished to make donations to help the affected populations. In a rush, most of these donors turned to traditional, well-known associations involved in humanitarian aid. The statistics show that the associations that collected the most donations after the 2004 tsunami disaster closely matches those with the highest rates of spontaneous recognition (Appendix 1). While this correlation shows that donors trusted the best-known charities, it also raises the question as to whether a good image or perceptions of being truly "typical" of humanitarian aid can fully explain the high correlation between donating and spontaneous recognition.

Given the importance of fundraising in the nonprofit sector and of understanding the role of branding in donor behavior more clearly, this research has two objectives: first, it aims to identify the components of nonprofit brand image and develop a specific scale. With the exception of (Bennett and Gabriel, 2003), to date, there is only one scale developed to measure nonprofit brand image. Predominantly inspired by business practices, this scale does not adequately reflect the characteristics of the nonprofit world, thus

making it necessary to create a new tool more suitable for nonprofit brands. This necessity is also articulated by Bennett and Sargeant (2005, p. 800) who called for "measuring the images, identities and reputations of nonprofit organizations and, of course, the development of new instruments specially constructed for the nonprofit sector". In keeping with this, the second objective of the paper is to test the influence of nonprofit brand image and typicality on intentions to donate (time or money).

2. Conceptual foundation

2.1. Nonprofit brand image

A brand is a name, term, sign, drawing, or any combination of these, that serves to identify a firm's goods or services and differentiate them from those of competitors (American Marketing Association, AMA). However, much more than a sign, the brand is also a signifier associated with content in the consumer's mind. Given the ever-increasing number of nonprofit organizations and the subsequent increase in competition for donations, the nonprofit brand, through its identification system (e.g., via a name, logo, design, jingle, etc.) is becoming an important element in differentiating charitable organizations.

Despite the rising importance of nonprofit brands in securest donations, relatively scarce research attention has been given to the topic. To date, only a single study has examined the concept of nonprofit brand image, attempting to identify its impact. In their study, Bennett and Gabriel (2003) show that more favorable brand image results in higher number of donations ($R^2 = .69$). While their nonprofit brand image consists of five dimensions (compassion, dynamism, idealism, focus on beneficiaries and non-political image), it is predominantly based on concepts used in commercial rather than nonprofit branding. The authors identified the scale items partly from the literature on

corporate reputation that is specific to commercial brands and also used the reputation indices from the Fortune magazine.

Although, nonprofit brand image does not seem to have garnered much research attention, the same is not true for nonprofit brand personality. Pursuing this idea, more researchers have measured brand personality of nonprofit organizations and its influence on donation intentions. One study developed a parsimonious measure for nonprofit brand personality based on the work of Aaker (1991) using 4 dimensions: integrity, ruggedness, sophistication and nurturance (Venable et al., 2005). Their results show that these four dimensions of brand personality can explain donation intention, but the explanatory power of each dimension does not exceed 20%. Another study examined the link between nonprofit brand personality and actual donations (Sargeant et al., 2008a). Their findings show that brand personality dimensions (emotional engagement, tradition, service and voice) only explain the 4% of the total donations and 6% of the last donation (both explained by a single dimension, emotional engagement). Finally, the results of a qualitative study about brand personality conducted by Sargeant et al. (2008b) highlight that, while it is difficult for charities to find a means of differentiation, they can stand out through emotional stimulation (being strong, bold, exciting, fun, heroic and inspiring) and performance (being prudent, efficient, effective, wasteful and bureaucratic).

Table 1 summarizes the three scales already published on the subject and shows the diversity of qualifiers used to describe the image and personality of charities.

Table 1
Summary of different measures of nonprofit brand image and personality.

Authors	Bennett and Gabriel (2003)	Venable et al. (2005)	Sargeant et al. (2008a)
Scales	Brand image	Brand personality	Brand personality
	Compassion :	Integrity :	Benevolence :
	Compassionate	Honest	Ethical
	Caring	Reputable	Fair
	Feeling	Reliable	Helpful
	Trustworthy	Positive influence	Reputable
	Reliable	Committed	Supportive
	Dynamism :	Ruggedness :	Sympathetic
	Progressive	Masculine	Progression :
	Visionary	Outdoorsy	Empowering
	Innovative	Tough	Engaging
	This is a charity that others should try to emulate	Western	Pioneering
	Efficient	Sophistication :	Transforming
	Idealism :	Glamorous	Visionary
	Idealistic	Upper Class	Conservatism :
	Focus on beneficiaries :	Good-looking	Cautious
	Focuses spending on beneficiaries rather than administration	Nurturance :	Conservative
	Political orientation :	Compassionate	Emotional engagement :
	This charity is highly political	Charitable	Exciting
	This charity gets things done	Loving	Fun
	Reputation:	Caring	Heroic
	The charity uses its assets wisely		Innovative
	Financially sound		Inspiring
	Provides an excellent service to Beneficiaries		Modern
	Well managed		Tradition :
	Capable		Traditional
	Has a good long-term future		Service :
	Has excellent employees		Approachable
	This charity is very well known		Compassionate
	This charity has achieved a great deal		Dedicated
			Voice :
			Ambitious
			Authoritative
			Bold

This discussion underlines that while charities can use brand personality to differentiate themselves, the existing studies do not explain more than 20% of intentions to give and 6% of actual donations. In order to build on these studies and expand knowledge of the impact of brand image on donations, the present research entirely focuses on brand image and not brand personality. Indeed, the concept of brand image can serve to differentiate the roles of functional and symbolic associations of the brand. The notion of associations used in previous studies (Aaker, 1991; Keller, 1993) presents the advantage of grouping all knowledge of the brand without focusing on certain specific aspects of image such as personality traits or values.

Two main types of associations are identifiable: functional and symbolic (Aaker, 1991; Keller, 1993; Hankinson, 2001). Functional associations link to the product characteristics or functional benefits of commercial brands. For nonprofit organizations, functional associations refer to the characteristics of the organization, its missions and tangible qualities. Symbolic associations are abstract cognitions that translate the values of the organization, personality traits associated with the brand and even emotions. Furthermore, functional and symbolic associations give a positive, negative or neutral dimension to brand image, directly affecting preference and purchase intention of branded products (Park and Srinivasan, 1994). Therefore, through analogy, brand image influences the attitude of individuals and impacts donation behaviors in the context of nonprofits. Since donations to nonprofit organizations can consist of either money or time, this research studies both of these types, in keeping with some of the previous studies (such as Samu and Wymer, 2009).

Since donations of time are more involving than money, the decision-making process can differ. Donations of time procure greater satisfaction than donations of money, the latter being more of a rational rather than emotional decision (Liu and Aaker, 2008). The emotional dimensions of nonprofit brands are more likely to exert a stronger influence than functional dimensions on intentions to donate time.

2.2. Typicality

While brand image can influence charitable behaviors, typicality of the organization in the nonprofit sector can also have a significant impact on decisions to donate. The concept of typicality is based on the principle of categorization (Rosch, 1978). The brand is a cognitive structure and supposes the existence of a prototype brand organization (Dawar and Anderson, 1994). The prototype refers to the most representative product of a given brand, with the remainder products ranging on a gradient of typicality according to their degree of similarity with the prototype (Smith and Medin, 1981). A product is typical of the brand when it is perceived as consistent with the brand's image. In the context of brand extension, research shows that intention to buy is higher for typical products than for atypical products (Ward and Loken, 1988). Based on this theoretical framework, the present study focuses on the typicality of the brand in its product category. Thus, for example, an individual can consider an association atypical of a humanitarian cause when it is inconsistent with the image that he has of that particular cause. Therefore, it is proposed that the more typical the organization in its "mission category" the higher the giving intentions for that organization will be. For example, donors could perceive Red Cross as a more typical organization in humanitarian aid compared to Doctors Without Borders and pledge more money to the former. Therefore, perception of the organization's typicality in the humanitarian field is expected to influence charitable giving.

3. Method

Three sets of data were collected for this study. The first consisted of qualitative data which enabled the identification of items to measure nonprofit brand image and build the scale. The two subsequent

quantitative data sets were then used to test the scale and the relations between brand image, typicality and giving behavior.

3.1. Study 1: In-depth interviews of donors and non-donors

A qualitative study involving fifteen donors and fifteen non-donors identified the components of nonprofit brand image. The interviews were conducted face-to-face at the homes of the respondents in a semi-structured manner. Each interview lasted from 45 min to 2 h. The guided interview focused on three themes: individual donor behavior, the image of charities to which the subject gives or refuses to give and the image of the French Muscular Dystrophy Association, because this offered individuals an opportunity to comment more easily on a specific charity. The interviews were taped and subjected to the thematic content analysis.

The thirty individuals who took part in the qualitative phase were all selected according to ad hoc samples with equal segments with respect to gender, age and socio-professional category.

A total of 144 components of brand image were identified as a result of the thematic content analysis. In order to reduce the number of items, 15 fundraising professionals evaluated the 144 components and selected the most relevant ones following the technique suggested by Malhotra (1981) and Rossiter (2002). These professionals were fundraisers, charity communication managers, market survey managers and employees from communications agencies specialized in non-profits. For each of the 144 items the subjects expressed their opinion on whether they thought that the item is "really relevant for non-profit brand image measure" or not. The study only used items that all 15 judges agreed on as relevant in describing the image of an association. This resulted in the 37 items that were selected for inclusion (Table 2).

Table 2
Items used by individuals to measure nonprofit brand image produced during the qualitative phase.

Bureaucratic
Civic-minded
Close to me
Communicates well
Communicates aggressively
Compassionate
Defends a worthy cause
Discreet
Dynamic
Engaging
Efficient
Familiar
Financially sound
Friendly
Generous
Hard-working
Has contributed a lot to the cause
Impertinent
Indispensable
Innovative
International
Militant
Modern
Old-fashioned
Politicized
Powerful
Professional
Provides an excellent service to beneficiaries
Recognized
Serious
Too much media exposure
Transparent
Trustworthy
Useful
Uses assets wisely
Warm
Well-managed

3.2. Study 2: Quantitative studies

The goal of the quantitative studies were to test the validity and reliability of the scale for nonprofit brand image as well as the significance of the proposed links between charity image, typicality and intention to donate.

3.2.1. Stimuli

The quantitative data were collected by means of a questionnaire that involved five selected French and international charities in humanitarian aid (each individual answered questions about a single organization). The organizations were chosen on the basis of to two criteria: strong "spontaneous recognition" (otherwise, it would have been difficult to question the public on their image) and international presence (in order to devise a questionnaire based on comparable organizations in terms of positioning). The criterion of a "strong spontaneous recognition" was obtained from the *Baromètre de Notoriété des Associations*, an annual study based on a representative sample of the French population by *France Générosité*. The selected nonprofit organizations all had a prompted recognition and reputation rate of more than 65%. By crossing these two criteria (strong spontaneous recognition and international presence), the following organizations were selected: the Red Cross, the AFM-Téléthon (French Muscular Dystrophy Association), UNICEF, Handicap International and Doctors Without Borders.

3.2.2. Procedure

Two quantitative studies determined whether the construct produced the same results in face-to-face interviews as it did in the self-administered questionnaires. Since many organizations do not have the means to conduct face-to-face interviews, ensuring that the scale produced comparable and reliable results was essential. In the first study, 484 people responded to a series of questions in the course of interviews in their home (response rate was 60%). To minimize respondent fatigue, each subject answered the questionnaire for only one of the five organizations selected. Subjects were selected using the quota sampling method with segments representing the French population for age, sex and employment. Table 3 presents the sample characteristics. The final sample consisted of 51% women (15% between age 18 and 24, 47% between 25 and 49, 20% between 50 and 64, and finally 18% over age 65). 71% had at least a high school diploma and were from the middle class (37% earned between $1000 and $2499 a month, 28% between $2500 and $4000 a month). Concerning employment, the sample consisted of senior managers (36%), workers (19%), retired (17%), employees (15%), professionals (5%), students (3.5%), and unemployed (3%).

For the second study, surveys were distributed via the Internet and resulted in an 8.6% response rate (1727 answered interviews) from 20,000 individuals contacted. Among 1727 people, 1192 (69%) correctly completed the questionnaire. The sample characteristics were as follows (Table 3): under age 24 (26.5%), between 25 and 49 (60.5%) between 50 and 64 (11%) and over 65 (2%), female (74%), educated (89% high school diploma or higher) and middle class (50% earns between $ 1000 and $ 2500 and 30% between $2500 and $4000 a month). It also consists of predominantly white-collar workers (37% senior managers, 23% employees, 22% students, 10% unemployed, 3% retired, and 3% workers).

3.2.3. Measures

For both data sets, respondents selected the nonprofit they knew the most about from a list of five organizations. If a respondent did not recognize any of the organizations, s/he was excluded from the sample. The questionnaire included four sections. The first one measured the degree of product typicality within a brand by referring to the brand idea (Rosch and Mervis, 1975) with two items: 1- [the nonprofit organization X] is representative of the idea I have of the humanitarian sector and

Table 3
Sample characteristics.

	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
	Face to face (N = 484)		Internet (N = 1192)	
Gender				
Female	247	51	883	74
Male	237	49	309	26
Age				
18–24 years old	74	15.3	313	26.3
25–34 years old	114	23.6	412	34.5
35–49 years old	112	23.1	312	26.1
50–64 years old	95	19.6	130	11
Over age 65	89	18.4	25	2.1
Education				
No diploma	140	29	132	11
High school	48	10	180	15.1
2 years degree	88	18.2	235	19.8
4 years degree	89	18.3	290	24.3
5 years degree	119	24.6	355	29.8
Income				
$1000–$2499	180	37.2	597	50.1
$2500–$4000	135	27.9	355	29.8
Over $4000	169	34.9	240	20.1
Employment				
Student	19	3.4	264	22.2
Employees	73	15	270	22.7
Manual workers	92	19	35	2.9
Executives	174	35.9	441	37
Professionals	24	4.9	19	1.6
Farmers	5	1	2	0.1
Unemployed	14	2.8	121	10.2
Retired	82	17	40	3.3

2- [the non profit organization X] is a good example of the humanitarian sector (1-Strongly disagree… 5-Strongly agree).

In the second section, 37 items assessed the brand image on the basis of our qualitative studies shown in Table 2. This consisted of identifying the strength of associations with the nonprofit brands by measuring the strength of links perceived by the respondents between the nonprofit brand and associations presented to them. The strength of association was determined as follows: On a 5-point Likert scale where 1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree, (a) the nonprofit organization (X) is friendly; (b) the nonprofit organization (X) is modern… etc. for 37 brand associations. The third section measured donation intentions using a 5-point Likert scale (agree–disagree): (a) if I were to contribute some money to a nonprofit organization, I would contribute to XX, and (b) if I were to contribute some personal time to a nonprofit organization, I would contribute to XX. Finally, the last section measured the individual's demographic characteristics such as age, sex, income, education and number of children.

3.3. Confirmatory Factor Analysis

As the first step in the iterative process recommended for purifying and developing a well-fitting measurement model (Anderson and Gerbing, 1988), the 37 items were subjected to a Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA). CFA provides a strong test of internal and external validity (Anderson and Gerbing, 1988). A four-factor model was specified to represent the brand image concept (i.e. exploratory factor analysis). However, the overall model fit emerged as relatively low. An examination of the multivariate Lagrange multiplier tests revealed that some items have significant factor cross-loadings. Furthermore, these items do not load higher on their intended factor than on another. Thus, these items were trimmed as recommended in the scale development literature (Bagozzi and Yi, 1988). The remaining fourteen items were subsequently subjected to another CFA. The findings showed that all

four nonprofit brand image dimensions demonstrate sufficient reliability. Table 4 summarizes coefficient alpha reliability estimates.

3.3.1. Reliability

Construct reliability estimates were based on the standardized loadings for the four-factor correlated model (Fornell and Larcker, 1981). Three items assess *usefulness* (*useful, indispensable,* and *civic-minded*), resulting in alpha coefficients of .79 and .80 for the face-to-face and Internet samples respectively. Five items measured efficiency (*efficient, serious, well-managed, provides an excellent service to beneficiaries,* and *the charity uses its assets wisely*) producing alpha coefficients of .83 and .87 for the face-to-face and Internet samples respectively. Four items measured affect (*generous, warm, friendly,* and *engaging*) yielding alpha coefficients of .81 and .83 for samples 3 and 4. Finally, two items measured dynamism (*modern,* and *innovative*) which result in alpha coefficients of .76 and .81 for samples face-to-face and online respectively. In addition, all indicator t values were significant (p<.01) and all standardized estimates exceed .50 (Hair et al., 2006).

3.3.2. Discriminant validity

Fornell and Larcker (1981) suggest a test to examine discriminant validity in which they compare variance extracted within constructs with the square of the bivariate correlation between factors. The variance-extracted statistics for the construct in the model were, for the face-to-face sample, 57% for usefulness, 63% for efficiency, 61% for affect and 62% for dynamism. For the Internet sample, the variance-extracted statistics for the construct were 59% for usefulness, 55% for efficiency, 54% for affect and 69% for dynamism. Table 5 summarizes the rho and square of the bivariate correlation between factors. All variance-extracted estimates exceeded the square of the between–factor correlations, except for the face-to-face sample where square bivariate correlation between affect and efficiency (.67) is higher than the variance explained by efficiency (.63) and affect (.60).

3.3.3. Overall fit

Table 4 presents the overall fit statistics of the model developed for the face-to-face and Internet samples. The fit indices showed very good fit for the fourteen-item, four-factor model. The Comparative Fit Index (CFI) was .94 and .94 for the face-to-face and the Internet samples, this criterion exceeded suggested limits (Bollen, 1989; Bentler, 1990). One other robust indice, RMSEA (.07 for both samples) is above recommended level (Hair et al., 2006). The chi-square value for the face-to-face model was 276 with 70 degrees of freedom (p<.01) and 1057.7 with 70 degrees of freedom (p<.01) for the Internet model. In short, the four-factor model appeared to fit the data relatively well.

3.3.4. Test of hypotheses

Multiple regressions with SPSS analyze the influence of brand image (usefulness, efficiency, affect, and dynamism) on giving behavior (Table 6, Fig. 1). One item measures intention to give money and one item measures intention to give time. The results showed that four dimensions of brand image significantly explain intention to give money: efficiency (beta = .30, p<.01), usefulness (beta = .13, p<.01), affect (Beta = .13, P<.01) and dynamism (beta = .09, p<.01). Globally the four dimensions of brand image explained 31% of intentions to give money. In addition, the four dimensions of brand image influence positively the intention to give time: affect (Beta = .21, P<.01), efficiency (beta = .18, p<.01), usefulness (beta = .12, p<.01), and dynamism (beta = .08, p<.01). Globally the four dimensions of brand image explained 24% of intentions to give time. To further investigate the results of the influence of brand image on intention to give to the nonprofit organization, Cohen & Cohen's test was used to compare the power of each dimension, examining the significant difference between regression coefficients (Baron and Kenny, 1986). The results showed that the power of affect is higher than the influence of efficiency to explain the intention to give time (Beta affect = .21; beta efficiency = .18). On the other hand, the

Table 4
Confirmatory Factor Analysis: reliability and standardized factor loadings.

Factor loadings (α)	Usefulness		Efficiency		Affect		Dynamism	
	Face to face	Internet	Face to face	Internet	Face to face	Internet	Face to face	Internet
	.79	.80	.83	.87	.81	.83	.76	.81
Item loadings								
Indispensable	.76	.76						
Useful	.78	.81						
Civic-minded	.72	.72						
Efficient			.73	.74				
Serious			.69	.70				
Well-managed			.74	.72				
Provides an excellent service to beneficiaries			.71	.73				
Uses assets wisely			.70	.75				
Friendly					.69	.73		
Generous					.68	.72		
Warm					.76	.77		
Engaging					.75	.73		
Modern							.83	.87
Innovative							.73	.78
Variance extrated	57%	59%	63%	55%	61%	54%	62%	69%

Measurement model Fit	Face to face	Internet
χ2 (df)	276.0 (70)	1057.7 (71)
p-value	p<.01	p<.01
CFI	.94	.94
RMSEA	.07	.07

The questionnaire evaluates each brand image item using Likert-type scale (1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree).

Table 5
Discriminant validity.

Rho (ρ)	Rhô vc		Square bivariate correlation							
	Face to face	Internet	Usefulness		Efficiency		Affect		Dynamism	
			FtoF	Int	FtoF	Int	FtoF	Int	FtoF	Int
Usefulness	.57	.591	1	1						
Efficiency	.63	.559	.57	.54	1	1				
Affect	.61	.549	.61	.53	.67	.54	1	1		
Dynamism	.62	.690	.21	.23	.35	.37	.31	.32	1	1

intention to give money was influenced more by the efficiency dimension than by affect of brand image (beta affect = .13/Beta efficiency = .30).

Simple regressions analyze the influence of a nonprofit organization's typicality for its cause. Typicality of a nonprofit organization significantly explained the intention to give money (beta = .54, P<.01, R^2 = .29) and the intention to give time (beta = .48, p<.01 R^2 = .23).

4. Discussion and implications

4.1. Theoretical implications

The key contribution of this study is the creation of a scale for nonprofit brand image and its validation for five different organizations. The dimensions proposed in this study are quite similar to the

Table 6
Multiple Regression: brand image, typicality and charitable giving.

Global sample	Giving money		Giving time	
	Beta	t	Beta	t
Usefulness	.13	4.78[*]	.12	4.18[*]
Efficiency	.30	9.84[*]	.18	5.74[*]
Affect	.13	4.66[*]	.21	6.89[*]
Dynamism	.09	3.68[*]	.06	2.58[*]
R^2	.31		.24	
Typicality	.54	26.67[*]	.48	22.78[*]
R^2	.29		.23	

[*] p<.01, for Multiple Regressions Procedure Forward.

brand image factors developed by Bennett and Gabriel (2003), since five out of fifteen items are the same. However, the two scales are different on three points. First, this study differentiates between the dimensions of usefulness and efficiency that were previously combined under the concept of reputation by Bennett and Gabriel (2003). Secondly, the dimensions of idealism and political orientation have disappeared after several statistical analyses. This may be because donors do not generally use these dimensions to describe the charities. Thirdly, our scale clearly shows a significant affective dimension in the image of the charities, contrary to the scale of Bennett and Gabriel (2003).

A second contribution of this study is the emerging role of brand image in donor intention. The results show that nonprofit brand image correlates strongly with intention to give time or money. These findings converge with those of Venable et al. (2005) since nonprofit brand personality explains about 30–40% of intentions to give. On the other hand, they differ from those of Bennett and Gabriel (2003) and Sargeant et al. (2008a). This maybe because Bennett and Gabriel (2003) worked with a small sample composed exclusively of young people. As for Sargeant et al. (2008a), they clearly demonstrated that certain brand personality factors could not explain donor behaviors and the only explanatory dimension was emotion. Our study shows that there is a significant link between the four dimensions of brand image and the various facets of donor intention. More specifically, the affect dimension explains the intention to give time better than the intention to give money. In contrast, the efficiency dimension of the nonprofit brand explains the intention to give money better than the intention to give
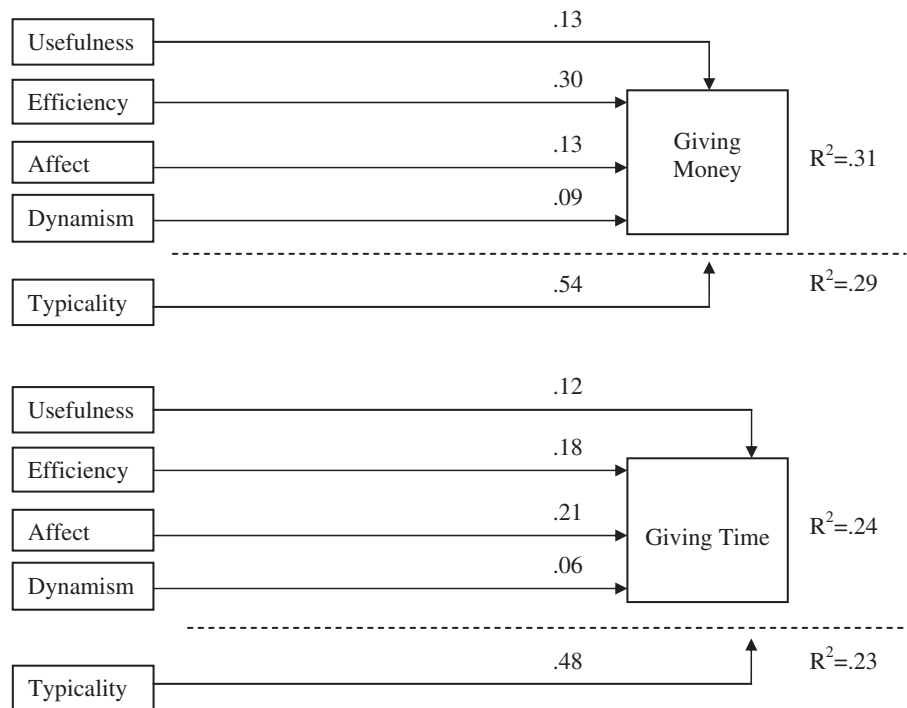
Fig. 1. The Impact of Brand Image and Typicality on Charitable Giving.

time. These results therefore extend those of Sargeant et al. (2008a) concerning the importance of affect in donor behavior. While affect explains the intention to give to a nonprofit, it exerts a greater influence on the decision to give time rather than money. Regarding the influence of the dimensions usefulness and dynamism, the results of this study show that these variables influence significantly the intention to give to nonprofit organizations, but are less powerful than affect and efficiency and have the same impact on for intentions to give time and to give money.

Concerning the typicality of the nonprofit organization in the field of humanitarian aid, this variable strongly influences intentions to give both money and time. High typicality means that individuals perceive the nonprofit organization as representative of the sector. In other words, in order to explain the intention to give, the coherency and relevance of the nonprofit organization's brand image compared with the individual's representation of humanitarian aid is important. These results converge with the work of Rosch (1978) on the categorization process and the theory of social representations (Moscovici, 1988).

4.2. Managerial implications

This study reveals four important managerial implications. First, all nonprofits can use the developed scale in their examination of the donors, studies of volunteers and employees, or in their broader brand image research. They can use it, in particular, to situate the nonprofit's image in relation to competitors within a brand positioning approach. Measuring image each year would enable the organization to identify the influence of its communications campaigns and track the evolutions in its image over time. For example, a nonprofit could identify the influence of a celebrity spokesperson, public speaking event, or a new billboard campaign. The scale can be used either for face-to-face interviews or for self-administered questionnaires and thus enables the nonprofits to appropriate and incorporate it in their mailings or websites. Discussions with fundraising professionals reveal that they are very interested in accurately measuring their brand image, but do not have enough finances to purchase studies from survey companies. This scale provides a useful alternative for costly data acquisition.

Second, of the five organizations studied, several have weak scores for affect while scoring high on confidence, which can be found here in the dimensions of usefulness and efficiency. They seem to have devoted less effort to the emotional dimension of their link with donors. Ewing and Napoli (2005) recommend that nonprofit organizations manage their brand through three dimensions: interaction (i.e. create a dialog with stakeholders), orchestration (i.e. communicate the same image to internal and external stakeholders) and affect (i.e. develop detailed knowledge of what the stakeholders like or dislike about the brand). The authors agree that charities have to understand how to create emotions linked to their brand, especially when trying to attract more volunteers.

Third, this research demonstrates the important influence of perceived efficiency on donor behavior. It is, therefore, vital that nonprofits communicate on the efficiency of their organizations by publishing their accounts and mailing them to donors, organizing open house days, and providing an idea of donation equivalencies (e.g. one dollar can feed a child for one week). This confirms the importance of donor feedback as recently demonstrated by Merchant et al. (2010).

Fourth, the findings show that nonprofits need to be perceived as typical of their cause in order to attract donations of time and money. Organizations should be careful to differentiate their marketing strategies from those of commercial brands and remain typical of humanitarian causes in their advertising. For example, UNICEF launched a brand of orange juice in the French market, the proceeds of which were intended for the organization. However, the campaign failed miserably because consumers considered the UNICEF brand as completely atypical in the orange juice market. Similarly, several nonprofit organizations have observed that when their mailings were too colorful, donors were less generous in giving. A survey showed that they viewed these mailings as too commercial and not typical of the charitable organizations (source: confidential study of the biggest French non-profit organization fighting against aids, AIDES).

4.3. Limitations and further research

This study used donor intention data but future research must go beyond the declarative stage and measure real giving behavior. Also, since the sample consisted of nonprofit brands essentially involved in

humanitarian aid in France, it is important to verify these findings for other nonprofit organizations and in other countries and cultures.

In order to reveal the brand equity of a charity, it would be interesting to perform other experiments (e.g. well-known brand vs. lesser-known brand) to identify the differences in donor assessments and intentions according to whether a cause is sponsored by a recognized brand or not. This study does not deal with the question of brand territory. Future research could also help define brand territory and the potential for brand extension. Such a study could clearly identify the link between a charity brand and a corporate brand in case of their mutual partnership. Although studies have examined the influence of fit between nonprofit causes and commercial brands on the purchase of co-branded products (Pracejus and Olsen, 2004; Samu and Wymer, 2009), there is no research on the territories of shared or complementary brands.

A multiple regression of brand image and typicality explains 34% of intentions to donate money and 29% of intentions to donate time, raising questions about the other explanatory factors behind donor intentions. As Cermak et al. (1994) point out in the case of major donors, donations can be explained by a wide range of behaviors such as conformity with family wishes, desire to help an organization that has provided aid in the past, joining the organization's social network and meeting new friends, or local expansion of the nonprofit. Similarly, Sargeant et al. (2006) use a model to show that family utility, emotional utility and the quality of the nonprofit's communication campaign have an impact on donations. All these factors certainly account for a substantial share of variance that is not explainable by image and typicality and constitute useful avenues for future research.

Appendix 1. Relation Between the sum of donations made during the Tsunami and the reputation of the 10 nonprofits that collected the most

	Donations in euros	Spontaneous recognition
Croix Rouge Française (French Red Cross)	115 778 000	46
Unicef	57 482 301	20
Secours catholique	36 472 698	24
Fondation de France	20 682 986	4
Secours populaire Français	14 508 053	24
Action contre la faim	14 357 002	9
Médecins Sans Frontières (Doctors without borders)	13 168 879	21
Médecins Du Monde	11 486 787	14
Handicap International	10 062 959	12
Comité Catholique contre la Faim et pour le Développement	2 832 389	4

Source:

- «Spontaneous recognition» : IFOP et UNOGEP (2006), "Baromètre sur la notoriété et l'image des ONG".
- «Donations in euros» : Cours des Comptes (2007), «L'aide aux victimes du Tsunami du 26 décembre 2004».

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