THE UNIVERSITY OF HULL

Measuring Public Trust in Charities in the UK:

An Empirical Study based on Scale Development

Thesis submitted for the Degree of Ph.D

in the University of Hull

by

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August, 2015

Abstract

This study describes the development and initial utilizations of a scale measuring public trust in charities in the UK. It improves on past empirical studies of public trust in charities by regarding the concept as a multidimensional construct.

The scale is developed first from a conceptual model consisting of five dimensions. Using data from 490 respondents, item analysis, exploratory factor analysis, and internal consistency analysis are undertaken, of which results yield a three-factor principal components model of public trust in charities. Confirmatory factor analysis, construct validity analysis, and criterion-related validity analysis, based on another sample of 253 respondents, confirm the validity of the model with a slight modification.

The initial five-factor model of trust in charities derived from literature, which include perceived competence, perceived benevolence, perceived integrity, value similarity, and willingness to be vulnerable, is rejected in favor of a three-factor principal components model. Of the three separate domains of public trust in charities, "perceived integrity" reflects the importance of morality in charity work; "perceived competence" reflects the necessity of charities' capability to uphold and further public interests; and "value similarity" emphasizes the alignment of values between charities and individuals.

Scale utilization demonstrates that this multidimensional tool will allow the U.K. charitable sector to better understand public trust and perceptions, to discern the manifestations of public trust, as well as to be responsive to trends in trust and perceptions. It can be used to predict pro-charity behaviors, which is helpful to strategically plan and target fundraising techniques. The measure will also remedy drawbacks of current measurement of charity performance.

Overall, the multidimensional scale is accurate, more straightforward, more in-depth, and is able to provide more useful information than current crude measurements of public trust in charities. The study has important implications for researchers, practitioners, and policy makers as it provides a new, robust measure of a feature that is essential to the charitable sector's welfare.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

Public trust, i.e. the extent to which the public trust charities, is essential for the sustainability of the charitable sector as the sector derives much of its financial and human resources from public donation and volunteering. Individuals' donations are the biggest source of income for the voluntary sector in the UK. According to National Council for Voluntary Organizations (NCVO; 2014), individuals in the UK provided £17.4 billion in the form of charitable donations, legacies, and purchases in 2010/11, which accounted for 44% of the voluntary sector's total income. There are other forms of contributions that are not financial but still have a financial value. In 2014, the number of charity volunteers in the UK was 23.1 million, of which the output value was estimated as £34 billion (NCVO, 2014).

However, the amount of charitable donations from individuals in the UK has decreased in recent years. According to the NCVO and Charity Aid Foundation (CAF; 2012), the total estimated amount of money donations to charity by adults in the UK was £9.3 billion in 2011/12, which was £1.7 billion less in cash terms or £2.3 billion less in real terms (after adjusting for inflation) than 2010/11. It was also the smallest amount of charitable donation since the survey launched in 2004.

Regarding statutory funding, which is another major source accounting for 35% of total charity income (NCVO, 2014), the public sector grants fell by almost £500m in the first year of the recession, and fell a further £200m from 2009/2010 to 2010/2011. Clark,

Kane, Wilding and Bass (2012) have estimated that the voluntary sector will lose £1.2bn in government income each year until 2015/16.

Additionally, in the UK, compared to other developed countries, the contribution to charities from the business sector, is small, accounting for just 5% of the total charity income since 2000/2001 (NCVO, 2014). Together with shrinking public grants and donation, it has brought great pressure to the charitable sector, so that more than 80% of charities in the UK believe the sector is facing a serious crisis. Nearly 17% of charities predicted they would close in 2013, approximately 73% believe they would be unable to fulfill their goals, while around 33% have had to cut services and staff (CAF, 2012). The crisis is no better in 2015 with one in seven (15%) charity chief executives stating that their organization is struggling to survive (CAF and Association of Chief Executives of Voluntary Organizations, 2015).

It is possible that greater public trust would help the charitable sector to attract more donations in terms of both money and labor from the general public. According to Sargeant and Lee (2004a), higher degrees of trust in a charity have been shown to predict a greater willingness to become a donor and to make a larger donation amount, and higher levels of trust improve the possibility that enduring donor-charity relationships will develop. Therefore, maintaining public trust is essential for the continued strength of the charitable sector.

Moreover, in relationships where intangible services are provided, such as by charities, trust is particularly important because objective criteria are not usually available to assess the performance of the charity (Sargeant and Lee, 2004b). In such cases, consumers seek to remedy this by favoring providers who inspire trust (Hansmann, 1980). In addition, a high level of public trust is helpful for charities to maintain a

positive social image, which is an essential prerequisite for fundraising and the fulfillment of their objectives (Bendapudi, Singh and Bendapudi, 1996).

Beyond academia, in recognition of the pivotal role that trust plays in fostering charitable giving, William Showcross, the chair of the Charity Commission, states that "public trust in charities is the oxygen that they need to succeed – the public will and desire to give, volunteer and contribute" (2015, the fifth paragraph). The UK government has also taken an increasing interest in the importance of trust, with former Prime Minister Blair asserting, "It is crucially important that public trust and confidence in the charitable and not-for-profit sector should be maintained and if possible increased" (Cabinet Office Strategy Unit, 2002). This document clearly held that with regard to the voluntary sector, greater trust equated to greater giving and engagement. The maintenance of public support for both donating and volunteering is tied directly and intrinsically to the presence and promotion of trust and it is this that ensures an enduring relationship that sustains the sector as a whole (Sargeant and Lee, 2004b).

Traditionally, the public have given their trust unconditionally and have done little to actively assess how well the charities they support have carried out their missions (Hager, 2004). It is possible that this is because people have an inherent belief that charities will spend effectively and wisely. However, donors have little actual knowledge of how charities use their donations (NCVO, 2011). It is likely that the main reason that charities are regarded as more trustworthy than for-profit organizations is due to the nondistribution constraint that a "nonprofit organization is not allowed to distribute its surplus resources in financial form to those who control the organization" (Speckbacher, 2013, p.1013). Additionally, Rothschild (2013) has suggested that an association with civic virtue and civic capacity creates a "halo" around charities (p.887), which also contributes to trust in this sector.

However, more recently, as the public have secured greater access to information, and as the downturn of the current economic climate has spread outward, the performance of charities has come under greater scrutiny. Hager (2004) has suggested that when the public hear that particular charities (or the sector as a whole) are ineffective or have strayed from their core mission in some way, they feel betrayed: it affects public trust in charities.

This has been reflected through the fluctuating level of public trust in charities. According to nfpsynergy (2014), the proportion of people that greatly trust charities in the UK fell from 70% in 2010 to 53% in 2011. It then increased to 66% in May of 2013 before dropping to 56% in April of 2014. A recent report by the Charity Commission (2014) reveals that between 2005 and 2014, the mean score of UK public trust in charities was around 6.6 (it is based on a scale of 0-10; the higher the score, the higher the trust); whilst the proportion of people who highly trusted charities with a score of 8 and above was no more than 41%. This indicates that more than half of the UK public doubted the trustworthiness of charities to some extent.

While the empirical studies on public trust in charities in the UK provide some insight into overall rates of public trust in charities, this insight is limited by their treatment of trust as a crude, unidimensional construct. For example, the Charity Commission (2010; 2012; 2014) measures public trust in charities simply based on a general question: "How much trust and confidence do you have in charities overall?" Similar measures are also used by nfpSynergy (2011; 2014) and New Philanthropy Capital (NPC; Noble and Wixley, 2014) in the UK to assess trust.

This methodology by using a simple question asking respondents to rate their overall trust in charities is quite straightforward; it is limited, however, because it fails to consider what trust truly means. Researchers, such as Putnam (1993; 2000), Rousseau

(1998), Metlay (1999), Mayer (1995; 1999; 2005), Uslaner (1999; 2008), and Woolcock (2001) have argued that trust is a complex, multifaceted concept that incorporates values, risk, and expectations. Lewis and Weigert (1985), Sztompka (1998), Creed and Miles (1996) have all emphasized that trust is a multidimensional construct. Consequently, a single-item, unidimensional measure of trust seriously limits the depth of the analysis (Light, 2002), and it fails to capture the many domains of this construct, hindering the ability of the sector to be responsive to trends in trust and charitable activity.

Moreover, although previous empirical studies by authors including Cummings and Bromile (1996), Mayer and Davis (1999), and Gillespie (2003), have explored the factors that might be able to indicate and explain trust in organizations, they have proved insufficiently integrative to take every party in such a dyadic relationship into consideration. They either focus on the traits of trustees, in other words the trustworthiness of organizations, or the characteristics of trusters, such as willingness to accept vulnerability, rather than integrating both aspects of trust.

In addition, previous research on trust in charitable organizations by, for example, Gaskin (1999), Sargeant and Lee (2002), Charity Commission (2010; 2012; 2014), and nfpSynergy (2011; 2014), have illustrated some important factors of trust, while they have not considered the extent of contributions of different factors. An interrogation of factors' contribution to explaining the level of trust will be helpful for uncovering the extent of the importance and urgency of various measures that should be put in place to foster trust in charities. Therefore, there is an immediate need for a measure that accommodates all aspects of this construct.

Clearly, it is important for the future health of the voluntary and charitable sector in the UK to have a better means to interpret public trust in their activities. A better understanding of public trust in the charitable sector would help charities to secure public trust, as well as to ensure charitable endeavors in terms of donations and volunteers. The best techniques to achieve this could be illuminated through the measurement and identification of the essential domains of public trust in charities.

1.2 Objectives and Research Questions

Based upon the background introduced above, this research seeks to develop and validate a tool that could facilitate charities to better measure and interpret public trust in charitable organizations. It aims to fill gaps of previous empirical research by capturing various domains of the concept.

To meet the objectives of the study, some research questions need to be addressed:

(1) How should public trust in charitable organizations be conceptualized?

This study will review the existing literature on trust including conceptualizations and measures of trust. It will also explore various aspects of charity, such as meaning, features, and the roles it plays within society. It will offer a clear definition and describe the landscape of the charity sector in the UK.

Based upon a thorough review of literature, a conceptual model of public trust in charities will be developed. The imperative of public trust for the success of charitable organizations will be discussed, which would underline the necessity and significance of this study.

(2) How to develop a measure to assess public trust in charities?

This study will explain the logic behind measuring public trust. It will first introduce a theoretical framework of scale development, and will then demonstrate sampling methods and the process of sample collection. The process of scale development in the study includes three main stages: item generation, scale refinement, and scale validation.

(3) What are the possible uses of a scale of public trust in charities?

Possible uses of the newly developed scale will be demonstrated. The thesis will initially utilize the scale to measure the level of public trust in the charitable sector in the UK, to predict pro-charity behaviors, and to complement charity performance assessment.

(4) What are the implications and the value of this study?

Finally, the study will consider the implications for theory, practice and policy of studying and securing public trust in charitable organizations. It will provide suggestions on how to improve or maintain public trust in charities from the perspectives of the charitable sector and the government. It will further propose directions for future study.

1.3 Research Strategy

In order to develop a measure of public trust in charities, this research will employ both quantitative and qualitative methodologies to provide the optimum tools to examine different research questions. The study follows a structural "roadmap", which lays out

the research questions and accompanying stages and methods used to address these research questions (see Figure 1.1):

Raise research questions		**Major question: How to develop a scale capable of measuring public trust in charities?**	
Analyze the questions	**What is public trust in charities?**	**Literature review**	
	Item generation	**Literature review, Interviews, & Expert review**	
	Scale refinement		
	Scale validation	**Questionnaire Surveys**	
Solutions	**Scale utilizations**		
	Theory, practice and policy implications		

Figure 1.1 Strategy Roadmap

First, reviews of literature about charities, trust, and public trust in charities will be undertaken in order to build a conceptual model of public trust in charities. Based upon the conceptual model, items capable of reflecting diverse aspects of public trust in charities will be generated and determined through literature review, focus group interviews, and expert review. An initial 5-point Likert scale consisting of these items will be designed.

Subsequently, the scale will be refined through exploratory factor analysis. The construct of trust in charities will be revealed. It will also identify and eliminate items that fail to explain trust. Furthermore, it will provide an initial assessment of reliability

of the scale consisting of the items and components through internal consistency analysis.

Once a scale has been refined, studies will be undertaken to determine whether the scale is valid. Validity of the scale will be examined though confirmatory factor analysis, construct validity analysis, and criterion-related validity analysis.

Finally, the study will further discuss scale utilizations to link theories and practices. It will be based upon a weighted sample used for scale refinement and scale validation. Two different samples will be used for scale refinement and validation. They will be collected through three waves of questionnaire surveys. Implications and suggestions for measuring trust and securing trust will be provided.

As robust scale development is central to this study, it is also briefly introduced here. This study mainly follows approaches proposed by Churchill (1979) and DeVellis (2012) for scale development. Conceptually, this process encompasses eleven steps for developing a scale (see Figure 1.2).

Initial Scale Development   Scale Refinement   Scale Validation

| **Step 1**: Conceptualization of Constructs

Step 2: Item Generation
• Literature Review
• Focus Group Interview
• Expert Reviews

Step 3: Scale Design
• Form of the Scale
• Number of Items
• Variation of Scores | **Step 4**: Administer the scale to a development sample

Step 5: Item Analysis

Step 6: Exploratory Factor Analysis

Step 7: Internal Consistency Analysis | **Step8**: Administer the scale to a development sample

Step 9: Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Step 10: Construct Validity Analysis

Step 11: Criterion-related Validity Analysis |

Figure 1.2 Theoretical Framework of Scale Development

1.4 The Significance of the Study

The theoretical and practical necessity for this study is clear. From a theoretical perspective, although a few empirical studies have been undertaken on the topic of public trust in charities, they suffer from some serious drawbacks: (1) the meaning of "trust" is not carefully examined, and its multidimensional construct – repeatedly illustrated in the literature – is neglected; (2) the factors and items used to measure public trust in charities are not integrative enough as they fail to take features of both trustees and trusters into consideration; (3) the contributions of a range of aspects to manifesting or explaining trust are not explored, which is a key barrier to our understanding of public trust in charities and the importance of its different domains.

From a practical perspective, there is currently no systematic instrument covering all components of the concept to measure public trust in charities. As mentioned previously, existing dominant measures of public trust in charities – using a simple single question – seriously limits the depth of the analysis. A more comprehensive tool to measure public trust in the charitable sector would permit charity workers and policy makers to obtain better solutions for improving public trust in charities, which would foster broader social trust. Beyond facilitating a better understanding of trust, such a tool would also fill gaps in charity performance measurement. Although practitioners increasingly advocate evaluating the performance of charities, they rely too heavily on financial aspects, and fail to consider public trust in those evaluations (Campos, Andion, Serva, Rossetto and Assumpcao, 2011).

Consequently, the significance of the study is threefold:

(1) This research will fill key gaps of knowledge in this field of study. It will provide insights into the meaning of "trust" on the basis of a large quantity of literature, and

propose a comprehensive definition and a conceptual model of "public trust in charities" covering diverse domains of the concept; it will examine items capable of reflecting this concept by considering both the traits of trustees and also those of trusters; and based on these items and the conceptual model, it will develop a multidimensional scale, as a new comprehensive instrument to measure public trust in charities.

While previous dominant measures have narrowly focused on trust as a unidimensional construct, measurable through a single, crude item, this scale will permit the independent assessment of different dimensions of trust in charities, which will facilitate a more precise insight into public attitudes.

Finally, in the process of scale refinement and validation, the extent of each factor and item's contribution to the overall level of public trust will be determined. It will reveal the importance of each factor or aspects of the phenomenon to securing public trust in charities.

(2) For general charities and the charitable sector, from this research they will discern the construct of public trust and what the public truly expects from their performance. This multidimensional approach will facilitate a deeper insight into public attitudes, and will enhance responsiveness by charities to changes in these attitudes.

Moreover, as the study will identify relationships between public trust and pro-charity behaviors, it could allow the charitable sector to strategically plan and target their fundraising techniques with a better understanding of public donating behavior.

In addition, by using this multidimensional scale, charity practitioners would be able to obtain consistently measured feedback from the public about diverse aspects of charity work. This would enable them to better reflect on their past and current activities, and inform future strategy.

(3) For policy makers and other practitioners, this research will offer a holistic means to the consistent and accurate measurement of public trust in the charitable sector, and so to understand the landscape of public trust and perceptions of charities. It will offer them guidance on how to cultivate public trust in the sector, and identify the areas that may require more efforts and support. In the long run, it could contribute to the sustainable development of philanthropy in the country.

This study will particularly provide implications of cross-sector collaboration to avoid damaging public trust in the charitable sector. It will also discuss how to live up to young people's expectations, to improve their trust in charities, and to involve them in charity work.

1.5 Definitions

Public trust in charities

The key term in this study is "public trust in charities", and therein lays the foundation for the conceptual model of the study. Although there are still many debates about the definition, and particularly, there is no universally accepted definition of "trust", this study will propose a comprehensive definition.

To preface a finding from Chapter 2 and Chapter 3, based upon previous literature, "public trust in charities" in this study is defined as a phenomenon comprising the willingness of individuals to accept vulnerability in the relationship with charitable organizations, and the extent that individuals believe charities to have integrity, be benevolent, and competent to fulfill their commitments, and to hold shared values.

Charity

In a UK context, general charities are not-for-profit, legal and formal institutions established for charitable purposes only. Charitable purpose is for the public benefit, and its classifications include:

(1) the prevention or relief of poverty; (2) the advancement of education; (3) the advancement of religion; (4) the advancement of health or the saving of lives; (5) the advancement of citizenship or community development; (6) the advancement of the arts, culture, heritage or science; (7) the advancement of amateur sport; (8) the advancement of human rights, conflict resolution or reconciliation or the promotion of religious or racial harmony or equality and diversity; (9) the advancement of environmental protection or improvement; (10) the relief of those in need because of youth, age, ill-health, disability, financial hardship or other disadvantage; (11) the advancement of animal welfare; (12) the promotion of the efficiency of the armed forces of the Crown or of the efficiency of the police, fire and rescue services or ambulance services; (13) any other purposes that may reasonably be regarded as analogous to, or within the spirit of, any purposes which have been recognized, under the law relating to charities in England and Wales...

Charity Act 2011 (section 3)

1.6 Organization of the Thesis

This thesis is organized into nine chapters. Chapter one introduces the background, aims, research strategy, significance, and key terms of this study. Chapter two and three will present a review of relevant literature on charity and trust, and summarize the deficits

therein and underline importance of this study. Chapter four will illustrate the methodology of this study, which includes research design, methods of data collection and data analysis.

Chapter five will investigate the initial items capable of measuring public trust in charities based on literature review, focus group interviews, and expert review. Chapter six will demonstrate how the scale consisting of the items is refined through statistical analyses. It will introduce the process of item analysis, exploratory factor analysis, and internal consistency analysis. Chapter seven will interrogate the scale validation by performing confirmatory factor analysis and examining construct validity and criterion-related validity of the scale.

Chapter eight will discuss the utilization of the scale for measuring public trust in charities, predicting pro-charity behaviors, and improving charity performance measurement. Finally, Chapter nine will draw together the conclusions of this study, discuss implications, consider limitations, and also provide suggestions for future studies.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW -PART 1

2.1 Introduction

This chapter aims to gain an understanding of trust that is the central construct of this study, and to lay the groundwork for measuring public trust in charities. A definition of trust and its constituent parts is arrived at through a careful synthesis of the existing literature. It also discusses why trust should be regarded as a multidimensional construct, and why a new measurement is necessary to assess public trust in charities.

Relevant literature about trust was sought online using keywords and phrases: "trust", "measuring trust", "construct of trust", "trust scales", "trust in organizations" and "trust in charity". Information sources accessed included Science Direct, JSTOR, Wiley Online Library, Web of Science, ProQuest Direct, databases of the university library, and Google Scholar. There were 139 journal papers, conference papers, working papers, books and book chapters, and dissertations identified.

The chapter first gives an account of topological structure of trust literature and widely accepted views about dimensionality of trust, which underlines the multifaceted nature of trust. It then reviews conceptualizations and definitions of trust across the disciplines of social psychology, sociology, and organizational science that are the foundation of trust studies. Further, this chapter goes beyond theoretical conceptualizations of trust, looks into measures of trust in organizations and particularly charities. It explains how previous studies applied trust theories to assess this abstract concept under different circumstances. It also highlights the necessity for a new measurement to assess trust in

charities. All these reviews contribute to the justification of the theoretical grounds upon which the new scale of trust is developed.

2.2 Summary of Trust Literature

Trust is an essential element of social interactions. It could be argued that the fabric of day-to-day life and an effectively functioning social order rests on trust. Almost all decision-making involves trust in someone else. Trust is even more inalienable to modern society, which has become a complex one, as the more complex the society is, the greater the dependence on others. Thus it is safe to claim that the absence of trust would lead to the collapse of the social order (Rotter, 1971). As Uslaner (2000) puts it, "trust is the chicken soup of social life" (p.1).

Few would deny the importance of trust in the daily exchanges of social life (Seligman, 1997; Sztompka, 1999). However, the Western philosophers from Plato to Rawls seldom mention the term in their philosophical discussions (Hosmer, 1995). The "strange silence" on the topic of trust was noticed by Baier (1986, p. 232) who analyzed the classical philosophers' literature on trust. Although Baier was surprised by the reticence of traditional philosophical works on trust, that silence seems understandable to Hosmer. Hosmer (1995) pointed out that the topic of philosophical discussions has always been focused on the "ideal rule" (p. 394), as the goal of Western moral philosophy has been to find the "ideal rule" that would lead to a "good" society. Thus, trust, which is regarded as a result of the "good" society rather than the "good" society itself, was consigned to the backyard of the philosophical endeavor.

The theoretical study of trust began to gain pace in the late 1950s. By the new Millennium, significant literature had been generated by scholars in areas such as social

psychology, sociology, organizational science, political philosophy, economics and law. Studies in these disciplines argue that trust is essential for stable social relationships, vital for maintenance of cooperation in society, or necessary as grounds for even the most routine and everyday interaction (Misztal, 2013). However, each discipline has approached the issue through its own theoretical perspective, which has led to diverse understandings of trust.

In social psychology, two significant streams of trust research have emerged: individual dispositional account of trust and behavioral decision theory of trust. To specify, psychologists render trust as the dispositional-based generalized expectation about the reliance of an individual's promise or statement (Rotter, 1967; 1971; 1980), or they interpret trust as motivationally-based behavior in situations of risk (Deutsch, 1958; 1960).

For sociologists, although there are various types or conceptualizations of trust, the starting point of their definition is the discussion of expectation, which is regarded as the basic element of social interaction (Luhmann, 1979; Barber, 1983). Barber (1983) suggests that there are three types of expectancy: the expectation of the persistence and fulfillment of the natural and the moral social order; the expectation of technical competence of role performance in social relationships; the expectation of carrying out fiduciary responsibility, which is the actors' duty to put others' interests before their own under certain situations.

In organizational theory, trust is regarded as the most efficient mechanism for governing transactions and for reducing transaction costs (Cummings and Bromiley, 1996). The organizational scientists' research on trust mainly focuses on applying trust theories and

models in social psychology and sociology to managing interpersonal and inter-organizational relations.

Beyond those different conceptualizations of trust, there are still other understandings of this social reality from the perspective of, such as, international politics. However, these will not be elaborated upon as they are built upon the work of social psychology, sociology, and the organizational theory. Consequently, studies in these three areas are focused.

Among the disciplines, the social psychologists were the earliest to conduct meaningful theoretical research on the topic, which generated inspiring work for the forthcoming researchers. Closely following the work of social psychology, the sociological literature on trust is the richest in quantity. Although it is generally accepted that trust is important in human relations, it is the sociologists who first made the bold claim that trust is "an essential component of all enduring social relationship" (Seligman, 1997, p.13) and is the lubricant that makes every-day social life possible (Sztompka, 1999). The psychologists and sociologists offer a conceptualization of trust on different levels, with the psychologists focusing on interpersonal level of trust while the sociologists focus on the social systemic level of analysis (Lewis and Weigert, 1985). Both of their approaches are insightful, but the different conceptions and methods of analysis separate the two levels of trust, as if the interpersonal and systemic level of trust cannot complement each other. Organizational scientists have attempted to bridge the gap between the interpersonal and systemic domains of trust.

2.3 Trust as a Multifaceted Concept

This session aims to examine the multifaceted nature of trust that would facilitate a more thorough understanding of this concept. It would also support the starting point of this study that public trust in charities is a multidimensional concept, and the current single-item measure of it is limited to capture domains of trust.

2.3.1 Topological Structure of Trust Literature

Classifications by Sitkin and Roth (1993)

Based on a literature review, Sitkin and Roth (1993) categorized the previous research on trust into four clusters, namely trust as an individual attribute, trust as behavior, trust as a situational feature, and trust as an institutional arrangement. Among the four approaches to the study of trust, the most well-known is the one that treats trust as an individual attribute. Individual trust here is based on the motives of others as well as their trustworthiness. Three determinants can be found for this kind of trust: first, the information about others' motives; second, interpersonal interaction history, especially the previous experience involving interactions that include observable trustworthy or untrustworthy manner; and third, the social or demographic characteristics of others, such as educational and family background, age, social reputation or status, gender and so on.

The second stream of trust research includes the studies of trust as behavior. Scholars who adopt this approach conceptualized the cooperative behavior as trust or high level trust, while defining mistrust or low level trust through the competitive behavior.

The third cluster of trust research focuses on trust as a situational feature. These scholars usually apply a game theory perspective to study trust. A trust situation has at

least three basic features, namely the interdependence of the actors, the uncertainty about the other's choice, and the anticipated consequences.

Although the previous three approaches focus on trust at an interpersonal level, the fourth category of trust research jumps out of the sphere of interpersonal trust and focuses on trust as an institutional arrangement. Scholars who treat trust as an institutional arrangement suggest that the use of contracts, sanction, or other legalistic mechanisms can serve as formal replacement of interpersonal trust. Institutional trust is needed when the roots of interpersonal trust are not available because of highly social mobility and infeasibility of personal contacts.

Classifications by Hosmer (1995)

Unlike Sitkin and Roth, Hosmer (1995) proposed that the previous literature on trust can be classified into five clusters, which are trust as individual expectations, trust between interpersonal relationships, trust in economic exchanges, trust as social structures, and trust as ethical principles. The first approach, which includes "personal expectations" literature, represents the earliest academic study of trust. This approach defines trust as an individual optimistic expectation, or confidence about the outcome of an uncertain event, under the conditions of personal vulnerability and the lack or giving up of personal control over others' actions.

The second category of trust research is reflected in the literature that focuses on trust as interpersonal relations. This approach is different from the previous one in that it does not just view trust as the individual expectation of the consequences based on cost/benefit calculation, but takes the whole picture of interpersonal relationship and adds the notion of "ultimate net good" or greater good to trust. Here, trust is defined as

the level of dependence on others and the degree of trust varies according to perceptions of the integrity, competence, consistency, loyalty and openness of others.

The third group of trust literature focuses on trust in economic transactions. This approach is specifically reflected in works that analyze trust in principal-agent relationships and trust means the expectation or confidence of another person or group that they are honest and have good faith in fulfilling their commitments, and will not take excessive advantages of the trusting person or group's vulnerability. As the terms "principal" and "agent" could refer to individuals as well as organizations, the concept of trust could be expanded from interpersonal level to inter-organizational level, or between an individual and an organization.

The fourth stream of trust research is mainly concerned with the effect of economic development and social institution on trust. Researchers distinguish institutional trust from interpersonal trust and focus on analyzing the structural foundations of trust. Interpersonal trust can be based on either process or personal characteristics. Thus previous experience of interaction and identity are important determinants of interpersonal trust. Unlike interpersonal trust, institution-based trust relies on formal social mechanisms, such as contracts. The basic structure of institutional trust is triangular, due to the involvement of a third party, which is usually some form of authority or institution. Under that situation, one person's placement of trust upon the other may heavily be determined by that person's trust on the third party, who / which is designed to secure good behaviors. The basic triangle structure can be extended when a fourth or fifth party is introduced to guarantee the trustworthiness of the third or fourth party.

The fifth cluster of trust research emphasizes the moral or normative side of trust. From this perspective, trust is closely related to the normative rules or first principles of a

"good" society. Thus trust is not just based on self-interest computation or previous interaction history or identity, it is more about the result of morally correct decisions on the basis of ethical principles.

Classifications by Bigley and Pearce (1998)

Although the above scholars' categorization of the diverse and vast literature on trust is generally based on the research's theoretical and disciplinary differences, Bigley and Pearce's (1998) approach contrasts with the earlier methods in that they adopt a problem-centered perspective to organize the vast trust literature. Instead of giving answers to the question "what is trust?", which they felt is possible but not practical, those scholars provide topological structures of trust that addresses the more practical question "which trust and when?" They reject the idea that the lack of consensus of the definition of trust and the existence of diverse approaches to examining trust are an obstacle to the understanding of trust. Thus they divide the previous trust literature into three basic groups based on the practical questions under specific situations that the researchers are dealing with, instead of attempting to integrate the various approaches. The three types of specific situations are interactions among unfamiliar actors, interactions among familiar actors, and organization of economic transactions.

In the first group of trust literature, the researchers are dealing with situations where actors have not accumulated enough information or have not established a stable relationship with each other. There are three main disciplinary perspectives to trust among unfamiliar actors. The first perspective is dispositional theory, which suggests that factors affecting an individual's readiness to trust or distrust the unfamiliar other exist within the individual. The second perspective is called behavioral decision theory,

which defines trust as cooperative behavior and focuses on contextual or situational factors that affect the trusting decision-making process. The third theoretic approach analyses trust in an institutional framework, which emphasizes the institutional structures and organizational forms as a mechanism for trust-producing among unfamiliar actors.

Unlike the first group of trust literature, the second classification of trust literature contains work centering on interaction between actors who have gathered enough or meaningful information about one another. However, as with the first group of trust literature, there are also three main theoretic perspectives to trust among familiar actors. The first major approach takes the rational choice viewpoint and suggests that trust is the product of an individual's calculative decision making. Contra to this, the second perspective contends that trust is the product of the individual's emotions and that there are basically two kinds of trust, cognition- and affect-based trust. The third approach can be regarded as a combination of the previous two perspectives in that it proposes that the psychological nature of trust involves both information based rational decisions and individuals' emotional processes. Previous experience and existing states of trust or distrust are also important, as they can affect the individual's perceptions and calculative basis of trust decisions.

While the above two groups of trust literature deal with trust in general situations, the third category of trust research focuses on trust in specific situations and its function in reducing costs in organizational economic transactions. The core concern is the organization of transactions. From the perspective of transaction cost economics perspective, this group of literature considers how the organization of transactions within an economic system is dependent on the quality of interpersonal, intergroup, or inter-organizational relationships.

2.3.2 Dimensionality of Trust

As underlined in the topological structure of trust literature, trust is a multifaceted phenomenon. This is also manifested in various dimensions of trust as discussed in previous literature.

Cognitive, emotional and behavioral dimensions of trust

Lewis and Weigert (1985) suggest that trust consists of cognitive, emotional, and behavioral dimensions. The cognitive dimension of trust is based on information and some good reasons, such as familiarity and prior experience of interactions. This is the basic level of trust that makes it possible to decide whether an individual or an institution is trustworthy, untrustworthy or unknown in which respects and under which circumstances.

The second dimension of trust is concerned with its emotional component. The affective base always involves intense emotional investment, which can cost the behavior of betrayal at a high price, sometimes means the death of the relationship.

The third sociological foundation of trust is reflected on its behavioral content. The behavioral aspect of trust implies the undertaking of actions on optimistic expectations that the other actor will reciprocate accordingly. The behavioral manifesting of a trust-implying action can help establish and enforce both the cognitive base and emotional sentiment of trust. Although those three aspects can be identified and analyzed independently, the three dimensions of trust are actually mutually complementing each other, and they as a whole construct the unitary social phenomenon that is simply called trust.

Reflected trustworthiness, basic trustfulness and cultural orientations

As with Lewis and Weigert's sociological theory of trust, Sztompka (1998) also suggests that a comprehensive definition of trust should include at least three dimensions, namely, "reflected trustworthiness", "basic trustfulness", and "generalized, cultural orientations" (p.20). The first dimension, reflected trustworthiness, means a rationally estimated trustworthiness of the trusted and is equivalent to Lewis and Weigert's cognitive base of trust.

The basic trustfulness is a psychological trait, which can be treated as the readiness to trust. The basic trustfulness has its roots in childhood experience during the early stage of socialization and it is also influenced by later interactions involving reciprocal rewarding experiences.

The third dimension of trust, generalized cultural orientations, goes beyond the individual psychological trait and is considered as a trait of human collectivity, which is shared by the society. The shared cultural orientation can serve as a set of social rules that exerts a degree of normative demand on actors of the society. With social entities, like organizations, markets, regimes, and states, becoming more and more engaged in people's daily life, the generalized cultural aspect of trust is crucial for individuals and groups alike to decide whether to trust or not.

Process-based, characteristic-based and institutional-based trust

Zucker (1986) also introduces three conceptual models of trust production with which trust can be measured: the process-based model, the characteristic-based model, and the institutional-based model. Each model consists of different indicators and requires different amounts and kinds of information about the other party in the relationship. In

the process-based model, trust is mainly concerned with the expectations about the future exchanges and is tied to experiences of previous interactions. The information needed for process-based trust is person/case-specific. The specificity of information means that the first type of trust only exists between two parties with a history of interactions in relevant fields. The trust is not likely to be transferred to a third person outside of the relationship. It is not even readily extended to other contextual settings for the same parties.

In the characteristic-based model, one party's trust is tied to a specific other party, with which the first party shares social similarities. The social characteristics include family background, social class, ethnicity, gender etc. If two parties are confirmed by information that they have many social characteristics in common, then trust can be produced between them even where they did not previously engage in any interactions. As those social characteristics are attached to specific actors and are relatively stable, trust is not likely to be generalized unless all members of a group share similar characteristics in a given context.

In the institutional-based model, trust is not tied to previous history of interactions or similar personal characteristics any more. Instead, it rests on the functions of broad societal institutions and heavily depends on the credibility and legitimacy of the social institutions. This model of trust has specific attributes requirement, such as professional certificate, license for practice, at the individual or organizational level, and it also requires the existence of formal mechanisms, such as contracts and other legalistic mechanisms, which can guarantee that the expected exchange will take place at the systematic level. As the institutional-based trust does not rest on previous experiences of interaction or social similarities, it can be generalized and can exist between strangers. Although the institutional-based trust is widely accessible for individuals and

organizations, trust is restricted by its requirements and can only be effective in areas where the trusting party has clear and specific expectations, the trusted party has credentials, and formal mechanisms of guarantee exist.

Closely following the work of Zucker (1986), Creed and Miles (1996) propose a model of trust in inter-organization relationships including three dimensions based on mechanisms through which trust is produced: "embedded predisposition, which is a function of managerial philosophy and its structural manifestations; characteristic similarity, which is affected by organizational actions and structure; experiences of reciprocity, which are affected by the organization context for reciprocity/mutuality" (p. 20). These dimensions contribute, to different extent, to the three mechanisms through which trust emerges.

In the process-based mode of trust production, personal experience of interactions is crucial for trust to arise. Reciprocity is essential to the process. And it is through the repeated reciprocal exchanges that a sense of moral obligation to fulfill one's commitment and an optimistic expectation of equitable treatment are engendered, which results in a stable and cooperative relationship. Meanwhile, trust is built during the process and trust in the past leads to trust in the future. The second mode of trust production focuses on the characteristic-based trust. Social similarity or shared identity is at the heart of this mechanism. The common characteristics, such as family background, education, social position, and ethnicity, could be the basis of trust. The third mechanism of trust production is institutional arrangement. In this mode, the roots of interpersonal trust, such as previous experience and identity, are substituted by formal societal mechanisms, such as contract, punishment, or other legalistic measures. Trust in this situation is based upon socially recognized and formally enforceable attributes, such as professional certification, and contract.

2.3.3 Discussion

This section uncovers the complicated structure of trust literature. To summarize, there are three levels of trust study: interpersonal level, inter-organizational level, and societal level. At the interpersonal level, trust is viewed as an individual attribute, as an interpersonal relationship, as a cooperative behavior, and as an individual optimistic expectation. At the inter-organizational level, trust is regarded as an institutional arrangement. It focuses on analyzing the structural foundations or social mechanisms of trust, such as contracts. At the societal level, trust is related to normative rules or first principles of a "good" society. Trust is also viewed as a situational feature leading to cooperative behaviors.

The literature about dimensionality of trust confirms that trust is a multifaceted concept. First, trust is cognition, perception, or belief, and the readiness of trust based on individuals' psychological traits helps individuals to decide whether the other party is trustworthy or not. A key dimension of trust identified is expectations of favorable behaviors and intentions of the other party.

When considering organizational trust, embedded predisposition of the organization and characteristic similarity need more attention. Embedded predisposition of the organization includes managerial philosophy and core value. It underlies social similarity or shared identity among parties in a trusting relationship. Characteristic similarity is powerful in the establishment of trusting relationships, as it is able to facilitate trust between two parties who did not engage in interaction before if they share some characteristics in common. For interpersonal trust, these social characteristics include family background, gender, social class, and ethnicity according to previous literature. Beyond them, characteristic similarity could also be shared values or belief

that may play more profound role in trusting relationship, especially for trust in organizations.

However, there is disagreement with regard to some dimensions of trust. For example, Schoorman, Mayer and Davis (2007) disagree with the view of Lewis and Weigert (1985) that trust has emotional and behavioral dimensions. They point out that although trust also involves emotion which may create a temporary "irrationality" about the assessment on ability, benevolence and integrity, "after a period of time the perception would return to a rational perspective" (p. 349). Emotion is, therefore, too unstable to be a dimension of trust.

Besides, trust is not behavior, and taking risk or cooperation is a consequence of trust. The fundamental difference between trust and trusting behaviors is between a "willingness" to take risk and actually "taking" risk. In other words, trust is the willingness to take risk; behavioral trust, which is due to trust, is the taking of risk (Mayer, Davis and Schoorman, 1995). This is also the case for cooperative behaviors, which is another consequence of trust instead of trust *per se*. Trusting behaviors may reflect trust to some extent, but probably not precisely, as these behaviors are not necessarily due to trust. Therefore, trusting behaviors are not suggested to be used to measure trust.

The various views towards trust indicate that trust is a multifaceted phenomenon. It is an individual and an institutional feature, and is also a societal and a situational feature. To further understand trust, which could enlighten public trust in charitable organizations, definitions of trust from the three main disciplines – social psychology, sociology, and organizational sciences – need to be reviewed, as they lay the foundation of trust study as pointed out previously.

2.4 Definitions of Trust

This section reviewed definitions of trust in studies of social psychology, sociology, and organizational sciences. It aims to build the ground of definition of public trust in charitable organizations. Conceptualizations of trust were discussed at the end of this chapter.

2.4.1 Trust in Social Psychology

There are two significant streams of trust research in the field of social psychology: individual dispositional account of trust, and behavioral decision theory of trust. The personality theorists treat trust as a dispositional construct or trait, which has its root in early childhood development and is strengthened or modified during later life experiences (Lewis and Weigert, 1985). Behavioral psychologists, however, distinguish themselves from the dispositional theorists by adopting different methodological approaches and proposing different definitions. Methodologically, the behavioral theorists view trust as a rational choice of behavior and generally analyze trust in the framework of the game theory (Lewis and Weigert, 1985). Instead of focusing on personality characteristics, those theorists focus on contextual variables that can affect the level of trust in the game setting and define trust in terms of cooperative behaviors, and accordingly, distrust in terms of competitive behaviors (Lewis and Weigert, 1985).

Individual dispositional account of trust

Personality psychologists generally conceptualize trust as a personality trait or a dispositional characteristic and describe trust as a state of mind, such as a belief, expectancy, or a feeling, which has its root in early social interactions. Early personality theorists mainly focus on how to develop a healthy personality and use the concept of

trust broadly. Erikson (1953) views trust as "what is commonly implied in reasonable trustfulness as far as others are concerned and a simple sense of trustworthiness as far as oneself is concerned" (p.190). Erikson (1953) is more interested in what he called "basic trust" and regards it as the central component of mental health to develop in life. By "basic trust", Erikson (1953) means a conscious attitude towards oneself and the world which is derived from the experiences of the first year of life. In this sense, trust and confidence are similar terms and the only difference is that trust has more naiveté in it, as trust is the product of early life experience.

Significantly departing from Erikson's (1953) broad use of the concept of basic trust, Rotter (1967) defines trust as "a generalized expectancy held by an individual or a group that the word, promise, verbal or written statement of another individual or group can be relied upon" (p.651). Similarly, Gurtman (1992) defines trust as "an individual's characteristic belief that the sincerity, benevolence, or trustfulness of others can generally be relied on" (p.989). Rotter (1967) looks at trust through the lens of social learning theory. He suggests that the individual's readiness to trust is situational-specific and is dependent upon the expectancy of the occurrence of a particular outcome. Based on social learning theory, the experiences of receiving positive responses from the other party would lead to expectancies that the party's verbal or written statement can be relied on in the future and such expectancy can be generalized from one social actor to another. The generalized expectancy has its root in the experiences of early stage of socialization and may be strengthened through later years' interactions with parents, teachers, friends, etc., and those who have experienced a higher proportion of promises kept by others in the past have a higher level of generalized expectancy of trust for others in the future.

There are some other personality theorists, who either focus on the human nature side of personality's view on trust or emphasize the influence of life events on an individual's readiness to trust (Wrightsman, 1966). The human nature side of personality is concerned with the general trustworthiness of the other people, which represents the individual's view on whether the other person is basically honest or basically immoral and irresponsible (Kini and Choobineh, 1998). The life events' influence is concerned with whether the other person's characteristics are perceived by the individual as different or similar to self, as good or bad, as helpful or harmful (Wrightsman, 1966).

Behavioral decision theory of trust

The behavioral psychological approach towards trust is through interpreting behaviors in specific situations. As trust at its heart is a state of mind that cannot be observed or measured directly, scholars have been working to provide indirect alternatives to measure or determine trust in interpersonal relationships. Behavioral psychologists generally define trust as simple expectations of the other party in a transaction. Trust is reflected as certain behaviors in situations of risk and the analysis is focused on operational elements, such as risks, motivations, and power relationships (whether one party is better situated in determining the outcomes), which are necessary for the demonstration of trust.

Deutsch (1958), who is one of the pioneers in trust research, studied trust using laboratory experiments, especially the prisoner's dilemma game and offers a behavioral interpretation of trust. He states: "an individual may be said to have trust in the occurrence of an event if he expects its occurrence and his expectation leads to behavior which he perceives to have greater negative motivational consequences if the

expectation is not conformed than positive motivational consequences if it is conformed" (p. 266). Therefore, trust, implies risk-taking behaviors, which involves the notions of motivational relevance and expectation or predictability. Deutsch (1960) equates trusting behavior with risk-taking behavior or as a gamble, as by definition, the potential loss for the trusting party is greater if he chose to trust while having his trust unfulfilled than both the gain if his trust is fulfilled and the loss if he had not trusted. If the potential gain is larger than the potential loss, then the decision could be made through purely rational calculation without the necessity of trust.

Zand (1972) agrees with Deutsch's attachment of risk to trust and treats trust as behavior that increases one's vulnerability to another, whose action is not under one's control. Baier (1995) argues, "trust is acceptance of vulnerability to harm that others could inflict, but which we judge that they will not in fact inflict" (p. 152). For Deutsch, Zand and Baier, the positive motivational component of the expectancy is a determining incentive for trusting behaviors.

Moreover, Schlenker, Helm and Tedeschi (1973) suggest that three operational elements are necessary for the demonstration of trust: (1) a risky situation, where one's outcome is contingent upon the occurrence of uncertain future events, especially the behavior of the other party; (2) some cues that allow the one to make predictions about the various uncertain outcomes. The general type of cue is the information received from communication with the other party about his behavioral intentions; and (3) behaviors that show one's reliance on the information received through the cues. Based on those three elements, Schlenher, Helm and Tedeschi (1973) define trust as "a reliance upon information received from another person about uncertain environmental states and their accompanying outcomes in a risky situation" (p. 419).

Risk is also a key feature of trust distinguishing it from confidence. For example, Luhmann (1988) makes a distinction between trust and confidence in that in the former, risk must be recognized and assumed, whereas such is not the case with confidence. The difference "depends on perception and attribution. If you do not consider alternatives, you are in a situation of confidence. If you choose one action in preference to others in spite of the possibility of being disappointed by the action of others, you define the situation as one of trust" (p. 102).

2.4.2 Trust in Sociology

Trust as lubricant of social relationship

Unlike social psychologists who mainly focus on the effects of individual personality or behavioral aspects of trust, sociologists treat trust primarily as a property of collective attribute and also as a function of social structure and cultural variables (Barber, 1983). Heimer (1976) regards trust as an essential factor for actors to cope with the conditions of uncertainty and vulnerability that exist in most social relationships. Modern society is replete with potential risks and unavoidable elements of uncertainty as society consists of complex flows of social interactions and tightly integrated temporal structures (Lewis and Weigert, 1985).

Rational prediction might be one of the possible solutions to the problem of risk and uncertainty but rational prediction alone might not be enough and can sometimes cost too much, as (1) it is not always possible to take into account of all the contingencies when making decisions, (2) the resources needed for the prediction, especially the information, can be too costly and the process of information collecting and processing can be too long, while the situations concerned might need quick and economic

responses. It is the place where rational prediction fails that trust succeeds, as trust can make complex social interactions flow on a simple and confident basis by reducing risk and uncertainty more quickly and economically efficiently than rational prediction could. Thus trust can act as a functional alternative to rational prediction (Lewis and Weigert, 1985).

On the one hand, trust is regarded as an informal, interactive process, operating through internalization or moral commitment; while formalization, such as contracts, is generally seen as necessary only when trust is disrupted (Bigley and Pearce, 1998). On the other hand, trust is necessary even to write a contract, because people trust that the normal operation of social order that is functioning well today will function well tomorrow. In this perspective, trust is described as the taken-for-granted expectation of the persistence of the natural and moral social order (Barber, 1983).

Similarly, Luhmann (1979) suggests that trust can provide a mechanism allowing actors to "cognitively reduce or eliminate risk and uncertainty" in their decision making process (p.15). Additionally, Coleman (1990) suggests that the process of the conscious incorporation of risk into decision-making involves trust. Sztompka (1998) adopts a similar approach and defines trust as a gamble on the potential contingent actions of others with the decision to gamble influenced by some psychological and contextual factors.

Trust as expectations

Barber (1983) views trust as expectations of social interactions which are considered to be "rationally effective and emotionally and morally appropriate" (p.9). However, Granovetter (1985) plays down the importance of the moral element of trust and argues

that the obligations inherent in social relationships are more important in producing trust than either the generalized morality or institutional arrangements like contracts or other legalistic mechanisms do for trust in social and economic life.

Hardin (2001) underlies trust as expectations of benevolence that trust takes the form of an "encapsulated interest" in a relationship of two individuals. Thus, "I trust you because I think it is in your interest to take my interests in the relevant matter seriously" (Hardin, 2001, p.1). This is a rationalist approach that stresses the importance of interests in the formation of trust.

Hollis (1998) takes a different approach to define trust which rests on the notion that actors will honor their promises and the expectation that one another will do "what is right" (p. 10). It identifies the expectation of fiduciary obligation in trust rather than fulfilling interest of parties.

Besides, trust is also built on the truster's expectation of the trustee's ability (Mayer and Davis, 1999). "Ability is that group of skills, competencies, and characteristics that enable a party to have influence within some specific domain" (Mayer, Davis and Schoorman, 1995, p.717). This expectation highlights the "task- and situation-specific nature" of trust.

Based on the above definitions, although there may be various types or conceptualizations of trust, the sociologists start defining them from the same place, the discussion of expectation, which is regarded as the basic element of social interaction (Luhmann, 1979; Barber, 1983). Social interaction is rendered as a process of decision-making and acting aiming at achieving expectations, which are a mixture of rationality, emotion and morality. According to Barber (1983), "expectations are the meanings actors attribute to themselves and others as they make choices about which

actions and reactions are rationally effective and emotionally and morally appropriate"
(p.9).

The dimension of expectations

Zucker (1986) defines trust from a major sociological perspective asserting that trust resides in actors' expectations of things as usual or in social order. Collective orientation at initial stage of interaction is required, and self-interest is expected to play a major role in driving the interaction. Thus he argues that trust has two main components: background expectations and constitutive expectations.

According to Zucker (1986), background expectations are based on the common understandings of the social world, with members sharing (1) a general social frame through which events are interpreted in the same manner; (2) a standardized set of signals and coding rules. Constitutive expectations are based on rules that are both independent from self-interest, such as individual desires, plans, and specific to particular situations or contexts. The constitutive expectations are thus defined so that both parties in the relationship are aware of the expectations, each party knows that the other party knows the expectations, and is aware that the other party knows that the party is aware of the expectations. Then cheating can be avoided and uncertainties can be reduced.

Barber (1983) regards expectations as an essential element of trust. There are three types of expectations. The first type involves trust in the broadest sense that the natural and moral social order will persist and be realized. This trust is about the basic assumptions or expectations of social life, such as "the sun will rise tomorrow", "human life is going to survive", "the moral, legal and political system that are functioning well

today will function well tomorrow", etc. and is necessary for the effective and moral human life to start and continue (Barber, 1983; Luhmann, 1979).

The second type of expectations involves trust in the sense of competence. Trust here means the expectation of technically competent role and performance, which involves technical expertise and facility, professional certificate, performance and reputation (Barber, 1983).

The third type of expectations concerns trust in the sense of fiduciary obligation and responsibility, which is a moral obligation and responsibility to hold a special concern for others' interests before one's own. Trust as fiduciary responsibility goes beyond technical competence to the moral dimension of social transaction. This kind of trust acts as a social mechanism to prevent the abuse of technical expertise and reputation and to make possible the appropriate and right use of them (Barber, 1983).

From the perspective of the important role expectations playing in the establishment and maintenance of trust, Kasperson, Golding, and Tuler (1992) note four key dimensions of expectations: (1) full commitment to the mission, goal, or fiduciary obligation; (2) competence or technical expertise in the thing the trustee obliged to do; (3) caring or showing concern for the trusters' interests; and finally (4) predictability or consistency of the trustee's behaviors and intentions. Similarly, Levine and McCornack (1991) identify five attributes of trust from the perspective of expectations including perceived competence, fairness, consistency, and faith (or good will) (see also in Poortinga and Pidgeon, 2003).

The perspectives outlined above each cover some important aspects of expectations with regard to trust, they are, however, not of themselves sufficient or integrative. "Objectivity", "fairness", "consistency" and "faith" identified by Levine and

McCornack (1991), and "commitment" and "predictability" proposed by Kasperson, Golding and Tuler (1992) are indeed expectations towards integrity of the trustee, which is the extent to which a trustee is believed to fulfill the fiduciary obligations. "Caring" is expectation of benevolence which is the extent to which a trustee is believed to intend to do good to trusters and taking their interest.

There are other opinions about dimensions of trust in organizations. Some dimensions reflect the trustee's traits: fidelity, competence, honesty, confidentiality, commitment, openness, concern and reliability (Hall, Dugan, Zheng and Mishra, 2001; Mishra, 1996; Cummings and Bromiley, 1996). All these components reflect "integrity" and "competence".

Trust is domain specific

Sociologists also point out that trust is a three-part relationship of which the paradigm is "A trust B to C"; the generalized or social trust, "A trust B" or "A trust", is implausible because it refers to trust in random others or institutions without considering variable backgrounds for trusting particular others to various degrees (Hardin, 2001). Thus trusters' expectations would vary in reference to different trustees. As Mayer, Davis and Schoorman (1995) suggest, the issue on which one trusts another depends on the expectation or assessment of the trustee's integrity and benevolence, as well as ability to accomplish it, and the domain of these aspects is obviously specific.

2.4.3 Trust in Organizational Science

Trust has received growing attention from organizational scholars from the 1980s. The main focus has centered on the functions of trust in (1) lubricating working relationships by serving as an alternative to other organizational control mechanisms like price and authority (Zaheer, McEvily and Perrone, 1998) and (2) reducing risk and transaction costs of things like lengthy negotiation and bargaining (Cummings and Bromiley, 1996).

As smooth working relationships and efficiency are fundamentally important to organizations, the organizational scientists' research on trust is mainly focusing on translating the individual concept of trust to the outcome of performance at the organizational level. The challenge to the organizational scientists is how to extend a primarily interpersonal concept to an intergroup or inter-organizational level of analysis and to explore the role of trust in organizational transactions (Mishra, 1996). Creed and Miles (1996) suggest that the working relationship within an organization is a network of variant interpersonal relationships and the inter-organizational relationship is essentially an inter-personal one. This is because an organization is run by the decision makers, who represent the organization and play a central role in it. The decision makers initiate exchanges within the organization and between organizations. They control the flow of information and the way of communication, which means the decision makers alone can effectively influence the organization's trust levels towards other organizations.

Organizational scholars conceptualize trust bridging existing research by psychologists and sociologists. For example, Creed and Miles (1996) provide a two-folded definition of trust in organizations that trust is "both the specific expectation that another's actions

will be beneficial rather than detrimental and the generalized ability to take for granted a vast array of features of the social order" (p.17). Based on the review on sociological and psychological account of trust, it is clear that the first part of trust definition is derived from the social psychologists' conceptualization of trust, especially the work of Rotter and Deutsch's. Accordingly, a similar version of the second part of that definition can be found at Barber's discussion of his first type of expectation related to trust.

Moreover, Lewicki and Bunker (1996) take the social psychological perspective to trust and adopt a simple and straightforward definition of trust as a state involving positive motivational incentive about the other's intention in situations of risk. Cummings and Bromiley (1996) define trust as "an individual's belief or a common belief among a group of individuals that another individual or group (1) makes good-faith efforts to behave in accordance with any commitments both explicit or implicit, (2) is honest in whatever negotiations preceded such commitments, and (3) does not take excessive advantage of another even when the opportunity is available" (p. 303). This definition reflects the expectation of carrying out fiduciary responsibility in Barber's (1983) conceptualization of trust.

Additionally, Schoorman, Mayer and Davis (2007) define trust in organizations as the "willingness to be vulnerable to another party" (p. 374). They claim that "as risk is inherent in the behavioral manifestation of the willingness to be vulnerable… one must take a risk in order to engage in trusting action" (Mayer, Davis and Schoorman, 1995, p. 724). The level of trust is an indication of the amount of vulnerability that one is willing to accept, which is different with the behavior of taking risk that is an outcome of trust (Mayer, Davis and Schoorman, 1995).

However, trust implies risk, but risk-taking does not necessarily imply trust, because other factors, such as coercion, can produce risk-taking behavior as well (Williamson, 1993). It is the expectation of fiduciary obligation that successfully distinguishes trust from other broader categories of risks (Hoffman, 2002). Thus, trust is indeed a combination of the willingness to be vulnerable or take a risk and the expectation towards trustees (Hoffman, 2002).

More comprehensive definitions of trust are proposed by combining willingness to accept vulnerability and expectations. Mishra (1996) regards trust as "one party's willingness to be vulnerable to another party based on the belief that the latter party is competent, open, concerned and reliable" (p.265). It is apparent that there is linkage between this definition and the larger social science literature: (1) the element of vulnerability echoes the social psychologists' attachment of risk to the definition of trust; (2) the four requirements of the other party proposed by Mishra (1996) are summarized by sociologists like Barber (1983) as expectations of technical competency and fiduciary obligations.

Similarly, Mayer, Davis and Schoorman (1995) argue that trust is "the willingness of a party to be vulnerable to the actions of another party based on the expectation that the other will perform a particular action important to the truster, irrespective of the ability to monitor or control that other party" (p. 712). Rousseau, Sitkin, Burt and Camerer (1998) suggest that trust can be defined as: "a psychological state comprising the intention to accept vulnerability based upon the behavior of positive expectations of the intentions or behavior of another" (p. 395) on the basis of conceptualizations across a number of disciplines. These definitions cover two keys of understanding trust: willingness to accept vulnerability, and expectations of favorable intentions or behaviors of the trustee. Colquitt, Scott and LePine (2007) also support this view that

trust has two primary components: one is the intention to accept vulnerability, the other is positive expectations.

2.4.4 Discussion

Although there has been more and more widespread agreement among scholars on the importance of trust in human affairs, there has equally been widespread disagreement on a suitable definition of the term (Hosmer, 1995). The reason that there exist a variety of definitions of trust might be that trust is a complex phenomenon and has different domains. However, an alternative explanation is that different scholars in different subjects apply different theoretical frames and perspectives on the phenomenon.

There have been efforts to integrate the different perspectives. But some efforts have not been successful. Hosmer (1995) defines trust as: "the optimistic expectation by one person, group, or firm of the behavior of another person, group, or firm in a common endeavor or economic exchange, under conditions of vulnerability and dependence on the part of trusting party, for the purpose of facilitating cooperation between both parties that will result in an ultimate joint gain but, given the lack of effective contractual, hierarchical, legal, or social enforcement methods, with reliance upon a voluntarily accepted duty by the trusted party to protect the rights and interests of all others engaged in the endeavor or exchange" (p.392-393). This definition or any other similar definitions might capture the key features of trust and integrate different definitions from different perspectives, but its length and complexity make it hardly applicable.

Thus it seems that it is not practical to provide a universally applicable definition of trust. However, it does not mean that the trust scholars' work is wasted. Actually, different scholars have shed light on the phenomenon from different angles and it is

suggested that the better approach to trust is to treat it as a multifaceted phenomenon with diverse features.

First of all, trust is viewed as positive expectations towards trustees, which is the starting point of trust definitions by sociologists. The expectations manifest in different ways according to previous literature. They could be the expectation that parties would fulfill the interests of one another; they could be the expectation of fulfilling moral obligation and responsibility; they could be the expectation of technically competent role and performance of trustees; and they could also be expectations of maintaining the social order.

Second, trust is the willingness to accept vulnerability. The amount of risk that one is willing to take could serve as an indication of the level of trust. Although trust implies risk-taking behaviors, it is qualitatively different from, and should not be conflated with conventional perceptions of intentional risk taking or gambling. Nevertheless, it is a state of mind not taking-risk *per se*. It is noteworthy that trust could lead to risk-taking behaviors, but risk taking could be due to other factors, such as coercion.

Third, trust is also conceptualized as a social relationship. This relationship could be reflected by cooperative behaviors. As trust is defined as the level of dependence on others (Hosmer, 1995), collaboration based on mutual reliance could serve as an indicator of trust. Additionally, trusting relationship involves two parties-the truster and the trustee. Thus studying trust should consider traits of both parties. Previous studies view trust as a personality trait or a dispositional characteristic. This indicates the feature of the truster. The generalized expectancy of the trustworthiness or trustfulness of another individual or group derived from the traits of the trustee, which is the other indispensable part contributing to the establishment of a trust relationship.

Fourth, trust is inherently context-dependent. The domain-specific feature of trust is due to the fact that trusters' expectations would vary according to different trustees. Moreover, as trust is a dispositional characteristic, individuals' basic trustfulness varies from developmental experiences, personality types and cultural background. Thus measurements of trust developed for one specific type of relationship probably cannot be meaningfully applied to other kinds of relationship. Moreover, a measure used to assess general trust would be questionable to be generalized to measure trust in a specific relationship.

2.5 Measures of Trust in Organizational Research

This section focuses on trust scales in organizational research; however, some frequently cited scales measuring interpersonal trust are also reviewed as organizational trust is eventually interpersonal trust (Creed and Miles, 1996). Stack (1978) and Wrightsman (1991) provide thorough and careful evaluations of trust measures designed for research in social psychology. These measures are designed to assess differences in individuals' basic trustfulness or propensity to trust society at large or others in general, and treat trust as a relatively stable individual trait (McEvily and Tortoriello, 2011). There is a large amount of literature regarding measures of interpersonal trust, such as Rotter's (1967) Interpersonal Trust Scale (ITS) that remains the most widely cited measure of assessing dispositional trust in social psychology, the scale of trust in a specific other people (Johnson-George and Swap, 1982), a measure to assess interpersonal trust in patient-physician relationships (Anderson and Dedrick, 1990), and a scale of interpersonal trust in close relationships (Larzelere and Huston, 1980).

Trust measures in other areas, such as the scale of trust in brands (Delgado-Ballester, Munuera-Aleman and Yague-Guillen, 2003), the scale of trust in new media (Kohring and Matthes, 2007), the scale of trust in computerized systems (Jian, Bisantz and Drury, 1998), and human-robot interaction trust scale (Yagoda and Gillan, 2012) have also made contributions in furthering understanding of trust.

However, as this study is about measuring trust of organizations, organizational trust will be focused on considering the context-specific nature of trust. The following sections will first introduce conceptualizations and dimensionalities of trust proposed based on the review of organizational research by McEvily and Tortoriello (2011); and then a review of some frequently cited trust scales will be presented.

2.5.1 Scales of Trust in Organizations based on Previous Reviews

McEvily and Tortoriello (2011) provide a systematic assessment of trust measures in organizational research, with these measures "assessing the extent to which one party places trust in another individual or collectivity (e.g. group or organization)" (p.26). It excludes measures of individuals' propensity to trust society at large or others in general, measures of collective trust in which the placement of trust is made by a collective entity (i.e. groups or organizations), and behavioral measures, for example, in experimental economics using the investment/trust game.

Conceptually, McEvily and Tortoriello (2011) assert that most studies they reviewed adopt a common definition that "trust is a psychological state comprising the intention to accept vulnerability based upon positive expectations of the intentions or behaviors of another" proposed by Rousseau et al. (1998, p. 395). This definition highlights the willingness to accept vulnerability and the expectation of favorable treatment by another party as two key elements of trust, and also reveal their relationship as willingness is

based on expectation (McEvily and Tortoriello, 2011; Ferrin, Bligh and Kohles, 2008; Colquitt, Scott and LePine, 2007).

Regarding the dimensionality of trust, as discussed earlier, trust is conceptualized as a multifaceted construct. However, according to McEvily and Tortoriello (2011), 78% (161 out of 207) of measures they reviewed empirically treated trust as a unidimensional construct. Of the studies adopting a multi-dimensional measure, the number of dimensions ranges from 2 to 12, and almost all operationalized no more than 4 dimensions.

There are 38 different dimensions of trust in organizations across multidimensional measures identified by McEvily and Tortoriello (2011, p. 34). These dimensions include various aspects of trustworthiness, such as integrity, openness, loyalty, avoids taking excessive advantage, and credibility. Additionally, dimensions reflecting features of organizations, such as informal agreement, institutionalization and dynamism, are also included. There are also other dimensions operationalized less frequently, such as communication, coordination, and character.

However, construct validity of many trust measures in organizational research is unclear. McEvily and Tortoriello (2011) assert that most studies they reviewed report minimal information about construct validity and other psychometric properties of the instrument. "Half (99) were accompanied by internal consistency/reliability statistics (typically Cronbach's Alpha), but no additional construct validity information, and half (94) included both internal consistency/reliability statistics and the results of analyses for construct validity that most often took the form of exploratory or confirmatory factor analyses, although a few (16) also reported the results of convergent or discriminant analyses" (p. 32). It raises the question of validity of the multidimensional construct of trust proposed in the studies reviewed.

2.5.2 Representative Trust Scales

To further illustrate how trust has been measured in previous research, 15 representative trust scales were reviewed (see Table 2.1). They were included primarily due to (1) their strong links to the topic of trust; (2) the fact that they are frequently cited by other relevant studies and many trust studies had made use of the items or subscales in their own scale construction; and (3) they add new knowledge to previous studies on trust scale. Table 2.1 displays names of the authors, number of items, definition and dimensions of trust, sample, strengths and weakness for each scale chronologically (except for the last two scales measuring trust in charities).

Table 2.1 Representative Trust Scales

Authors & times of being cited	Scale	Number of items	Definition of trust	Dimensions of trust	Respondents	strengths	weaknesses
Rotter (1967) Cited 2805 times.	Interpersonal Trust Scale (ITS)	25	Trust is generalized expectancy that the verbal statements of others can be relied upon.	Unidimensional	547 undergraduate-s	The scale was based upon solid theoretical foundation; social desirability was controlled; reliability, construct and discriminant validation have been examined.	Some items were stated in broad terms and were presumed to measure a more general optimism regarding society, which were held to be of questionable relevance to Rotter's definition of interpersonal trust.
Cook and Wall (1980) Cited 2009 times.	Scale of interpersonal trust at work	6 items for trust in peers, and 6 items for trust in managem-ent	Trust is the extent to which one is willing to ascribe good intentions to and have confidence in the words and actions of others.	(1) Faith in the trustworthy intentions of others, and (2) confidence in the action of others, including capability and reliability.	650 male blue collar workers	The scale identified intention and behavior as two dimensions of trust, rather than treating trust as unidimensional. Items were employed to both peers and management in the organization, providing a fourfold classification of trust.	All subjects were male; more construct validity is needed; and no item pool was generated.

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Larzelere and Huston (1980) Cited 1013 times	Dyadic interpersonal trust scale	8	Trust exists to the extent that a person believes another person (or persons) to be benevolent and honest.	Unidimensional	195 people in both dating and marriage relationships, aged from 18 to 30 years	The scale stressed the benevolence element of trust in close relationships. It demonstrated good face validity and discriminant validity, high reliability, and excellent construct validity with regard to its associations with relevant variables.	The sample is young, and the size is small considering the item pool with 57 items; more construct validity, such as convergent validity, need to be examined.
Johnson-George and Swap (1982) Cited 819 times	Specific Interpersonal Trust Scale: SITS-M (for males) and SITS-F (for females)	21 items for males, and 13 items for females	Trust is involving two parties who are to a certain extent interdependent with respect to the outcomes denned by their joint choices, and one of the parties is confronted with the choice between trusting or not trusting the other.	For males: (1) overall trust; (2) emotional trust; (3) reliableness. For female: (1) emotional trust; (2) reliableness.	435 undergraduate -s	Separate analyses were conducted for males and females that enabled them to isolate the differences of trust between the sexes.	Overall trust should not be rendered as a dimension of interpersonal trust. It also reflected that the scale lack strong theoretical foundation.

Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorma and Fetter (1990) Cited 3383 times	Trust in leader scale	6	Trust is the faith in and loyalty to the leader.	Unidimensional	988 company employees	It is a simple scale capturing beliefs of integrity and loyalty elements of trust.	The scale could be developed based on a more comprehensive conceptualization of trust. As pointed out by the authors, other dimensions of trust, such as confidence in leader's ability, should also be taken into consideration.
Robinson and Rousseau (1994) Cited 1871 times	Trust in employers scale	7	Trust is based upon beliefs regarding the other's integrity, motives and intentions, behavioral consistency, openness and discreteness.	unknown	128 graduate management alumni	Longitudinal nature of this study was an advantage. It also stressed that trust was perceptions rather than behaviors.	There lack item pool generation and scale validation; dimensionality of the scale was unknown.

Currall and Judge (1995) Cited 552 times	Organization-al trust questionnaire	19	Trust is an individual's behavioral reliance on another person on a risk condition.	(1) communication; (2) informal agreement; (3) surveillance; (4) task coordination	598 boundary role persons	Analyses were performed both at the individual and dyad-level; good nomological validity was demonstrated; it added new value to earlier studies by measuring trust through behavioral indicators.	91% of one important part of the sample (superintendents) was male; the sample tended to be old; the scale lacks of reliability analysis; it lack clear conceptualization of trust: whether it should be regarded as belief/perception or behavior?
McAllister (1995) Cited 4878 times	Interpersonal trust scale	11	Trust is the extent to which a person is confident in, and willing to act on the basis of the words, actions, and decisions of another.	(1) Cognition-based trust; (2) affect-based trust.	194 managers and professionals	It identified cognitive and affective foundations of trust, and use them as dimensions of trust. It explicitly stated that bases of trust can be rendered as dimensions of trust. Moreover, the process of scale refinement and validation was rigorous.	Later studies reused the scale and found trust was best represented by a single dimension that combined the cognition-based and affect-based components (i.e. Dirks, 1999; Kirsch, Ko and Haney, 2010).

| Cummings and Bromiley (1996) Cited 1193 times | Organization-al trust inventory | 12 | Trust is an individual's belief or a common belief among a group of individuals that another individual or group (1) makes good-faith efforts to behave in accordance with any commitments both explicit or implicit, (2) is honest in whatever negotiations preceded such commitments, and (3) does not take excessive advantage of another even when the opportunity is available | Belief in (1) good-faith effort, (2) honesty in exchange, and (3) limited opportunism | 323 university students and staffs | Beyond identifying distinct dimensions of trust, it also conceptualized different ways that belief components of trust can be manifested through affective state, cognition, and intended behavior. The complexity of trust was captured through a resulting 3 x 3 definitional matrix. | The scale lack of the examination of reliability. The measure was explicitly designed to capture the expectation aspect of trust. It could be more inclusive by also reflecting the willingness element stressed by, such as Rousseau et al. (1998). |

Doney and Cannon (1997) Cited 5848 times	Scale of trust in buyer-seller relationships	8 items for trust in supplier firm scale; 7 items for trust in salesman scale	Trust is the perceived credibility and benevolence of a target of trust.	Perceived (1) credibility; (2) benevolence.	210 purchasing managers	It added new knowledge to previous studies on trust scales by indentifying credibility, which means the ability to perform effectively and reliably, as a component of trust. It measured trust in both organization and individual.	It could be limited to be generalized to dissimilar cultures; the process of scale refinement and validation is unclear.
Zaheer, McEvily and Perrone (1998) Cited 3147 times	Interorganiza-tional and interpersonal trust scale	5 items for each scale	Trust is the expectations that an actor (1) can be relied on to fulfill obligations, (2) will behave in a predictable manner, and (3) will act and negotiate fairly when the possibility for opportunism is present.	Interorganization-al trust: (1) reliability; (2) fairness; Interpersonal trust: (1) predictability; (2) fairness.	120 purchasing managers and 85 other respondents in the purchasing organization	It explained how trust operates at both individual and organizational levels of analysis, how trust at the two levels is mutually related, and how they are diverse from each other.	The wording of some items in the interorganizational scale may diminish the ability of respondents to report accurately on behalf of others' view, i.e. "*we* are hesitant to transact with Supplier X when the specifications are vague".

| Mayer and Davis (1999)

Cite 1189 times | Trust scale; Trustworthin-ess scale | 4 items for trust scale; 17 items for trustworth-iness scale | Trust is a willingness to be vulnerable to the actions of another party. | Trust: unidimensional;

Trustworthiness: (1) ability; (2) benevolence; (3) integrity. | 529 company staff | It differentiated trust, trustworthiness, and trusting behaviors; it is a longitudinal study. | The trust scale only captures the willingness, rather than the expectation element of trust emphasized in some widely accepted definitions in organizational research. The high correlation between trust and trustworthiness raises the concern whether the measures of these two concepts are distinct. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Gillespie (2003)

Cited 132 times | Behavioral Trust Inventory | 10 | Trust is a psychological state comprising the intention to accept vulnerability based upon positive expectations of the intentions or behaviors of another. | (1) Reliance; (2) disclosure | Unknown | It focused on measuring the trust component of willingness to be vulnerable to the actions of another party evidenced by behaviors, and updated the dimensionality of this element of trust. | The exclusive emphasis on the willingness aspect of trust made the expectation element of trust omitted; the sample was unknown diminishing scale validity. |

| Sargeant and Lee (2002)

Cited 66 times	Individual trust in charities scale	5	Trust is the belief that an organization/sector and its people will never take advantage of stakeholder vulnerabilities, by being fair, reliable, competent and ethical in all dealings.	unknown	576 individuals	The scale remedied previous measurements of trust in charities by using multiple items.	There lack item pool generation, and scale validation; dimensionality of the scale was unknown.
Sargeant and Lee (2004a)

Cited 122 times | Donor trust in specific charity scale | 14 | Trust is the reliance by one person, group or firm upon a voluntarily accepted duty on the part of another person, group or firm to recognize and protect the rights and interests of all others engaged in a joint endeavor or economic exchange. | (1) Relationship investment; (2) mutual influence, (3) communication acceptance, and (4) forbearance from opportunism | 477 donors | The scale demonstrated good validity and reliability through item analysis, EFA and CFA. | The study used the same sample for both EFA and CFA; more validation would be needed; it identified key actions might be indicative of trust and used them as items to measure trust, however, the extent to which it could correctly measure trust is questioned, as trust is not behavior. |

Most of the above studies on trust scales define trust as a psychological state in terms of belief, perception, willingness, or expectation. Other studies define trust as behavioral reliance, and use behavioral indicators, such as communication acceptance and coordination, to measure trust (i.e. Currall and Judge, 1995; Gillespie, 2003; Sargeant and Lee, 2004a). However, cooperative behaviors do not necessarily imply trust, as they could be due to the result of coercion instead of trust (Williamson, 1993).

Among those scales regarding trust as a psychological state, some focus on the positive expectations component of trust (i.e. Rotter, 1967; Cook and Wall, 1980; McAllister, 1995); others have focused on the assessment of willingness-to-accept vulnerability component (i.e. Mayer and Davis, 1999; Gillespie, 2003). Only one study by Gillespie (2003) adopted the definition that trust is a combination of expectation and willingness to accept vulnerability, however, trust was measured from the perspective of the willingness-to- accept vulnerability element of trust.

The segregation of the elements of expectation and willingness is also reflected in other studies. For example, research by Luo (2002), Real (1962), Roberts and O'Reilly (1974) highlighted the assessment of the expectations component of trust; those by Jarvenpaa, Knoll and Leidner (1998), Mayer and Gavin (2005), Schoorman and Ballinger (2006) examined the willingness-to-accept vulnerability component. As noted by Rousseau et al. (1998), "trust is a psychological state comprising the intention to accept vulnerability based upon positive expectations of the intentions or behaviors of another" (p. 395). Therefore, taking both of the two components of trust into consideration in the measurement of trust would further the knowledge of it.

Regarding the dimensionality of trust scale reviewed, four scales are unidimensional, two scales' dimensionality is unknown, and other scales are multidimensional. The dimensions are either about trusting behaviors or about expectations/belief/perceptions

towards trustees. Although all the scales reviewed used multiple items, still many other scholars have used direct measures that simply ask people to rate the extent to which they "trust" (i.e. Driscoll, 1978; Brockner, Siegel, Daly, Tyler and Martin, 1997; Earley, 1986; Ball, Trevino and Sims, 1993). Whist, the degree to which these different measures affect relationships with trust is unclear (Colquitt, Scott and LePine, 2007).

Dimensions of trust are employed from different perspectives according to previous research: (1) the elements or constituents that the concept is made up of (Zaheer, McEvily and Perrone, 1998); (2) different forms of the concept (McAllister, 1995); (3) key attributes or features of the concept (Poortinga and Pidgeon, 2003); and (4) aspects capable of reflecting the concept (Gillespie, 2003).

It is noteworthy that there are some subtle disagreements about how perceived "trustworthiness" as a trait of an individual or organization and "trust" as a feature of the relationship between two people or organizations should be interpreted. Some researchers (e.g. Mayer and Davis, 1999) have regarded trustworthiness as an antecedent of the trusting relationship while other (e.g. Larzelere and Huston, 1980) have taken trustworthiness to be a proxy of the trust relationship, i.e. trustworthiness directly reflects trust. Previous studies have demonstrated that either way could be suitable; however, the structure of this relationship remains unresolved.

2.5.3 Measurement of Trust in Charities

With regard to the assessment of trust in charities, direct and single item measures have been predominantly adopted to ask people to rate the extent to which they "trust". For instance, the Charity Commission (2010; 2012; 2014) measures public trust in charities simply based on a general question: "How much trust and confidence do you have in

charities overall?" Options are based on a scale of 0-10 where 10 means completely trust and 0 means completely distrust. In 2014, the survey involved a representative sample of around 1,150 adults aged 18 and over in England and Wales by telephone using Random Digit Dialing (RDD) sampling method.

Moreover, nfpSynergy (2011; 2014) measures the overall level of trust in charities by simply asking respondents "Below is a list of public bodies and institutions. Please indicate, by ticking in the appropriate column, how much trust you have in each of the bodies? (Charity is included)" The options are "very little", "not much", "not sure", "quite a lot", "a great deal", and "haven't heard of". There were 1,000 adults aged 16 and over in Britain involved in the survey in 2014.

Another survey measuring public trust in charities was undertaken by New Philanthropy Capital (NPC; Noble and Wixley, 2014). The question used was "Thinking about how much trust and confidence you have in charities, on a scale of 0-10 where 10 means you trust them completely and 0 means you don't trust them at all, how much trust and confidence do you have in charities?" A representative sample of 1,009 adults aged 16-75 across Great Britain completed the survey.

Such raw measures are not merely used for assessing public trust in charities in the UK. For example, there is currently no systematic instrument covering all components of the concept to measure public trust in charities in the US either. The overall level of trust in charities which was assessed by the Brookings Institution's Center for Public Service (2001-2008), Independent Sector (2001; 2002), and Chronicle of Philanthropy (2002) was similarly simply based on general questions (Light, 2002; 2008; O'Neill, 2009): "How much confidence do you have in charitable organizations: a great deal, a fair amount, not too much, or none?" or "Do you agree or disagree that most charities are

honest and ethical in their use of donated funds?" or "What's the impact of the post-September 11 disbursement controversy on your confidence in charities?"

Although these assessments of public trust in charities involved different samples and were carried out at different times, they basically used the same measurement with a simple question asking respondents to rate their overall trust in charities. This methodology is quite straightforward; however, it fails to ascertain what trust actually means and does not consider the multidimensional construct of this concept, which limits the scope of analysis. Thus it cannot provide adequate information for our understanding of other areas of key interest, such as the various domains and traits of public trust in charities, and therefore they provide little that would enable us, for instance, to explore which domain contributes to the overall level of trust more than the other. As noted by Light (2002), such questions seriously limited the depth of the analysis.

Beyond those single-item measurements, Sargeant and Lee (2002) designed a 5-point Likert scale with 5 items to measure public trust in charities (see Table 2.1). The items are (agree/disagree charities) "to always act in the best interest of the cause", "to conduct their operations ethically", "to use donated funds appropriately", "not to exploit their donors", "to use fundraising techniques that are appropriate and sensitive". Construct and validity of this scale is unclear.

Although the items indicate different aspects of trustworthiness of charitable organizations, the scale is not inclusive enough to consider all dimensions of trust and any traits about the truster - the public - in this dyadic trusting relationship.

Subsequently, Sargeant and Lee (2004a) designed another scale with 14 items to measure donors' trust in specific charities (see Table 2.1). Instead of assessing trust from the perspective of perceptions, the authors employ behavioral indicators to

measure trust. The behaviors reflecting trust are: (1) relationship investment; (2) mutual influence, (3) communication acceptance, and (4) forbearance from opportunism. This scale underlined multidimensionality of trust.

Although it identified key actions may be indicative of trust and used them to measure trust, their extent to correctly measure trust is questioned, as trust is behavioral intention, and some behaviors implying trust could be the results of other factors, such as coercion.

2.5.4 Discussion

Studies on trust measures have adopted diverse theoretical conceptualizations and definitions of trust, in addition there has been limited consensus on operational dimensions and they provide only weak evidence in support of construct validity. This suggests that "the state of the art of trust measurement in the organizational literature is still rudimentary and is growing increasingly fragmented" (McEvily and Tortoriello, 2011, p. 35). This is probably due in large part to the context-specific nature of trust, which limits the extent of integration of trust studies in a wide variety of fields.

Measures of trust in organizations cover most key domains of general trust discussed in section 2.3, and they also capture features of organizations. However, some important dimensions of trust are neglected in existing trust measures. For example, as noted previously, characteristic similarity is an elemental component of trust, which underlies social similarity or shared identity among parties in a trusting relationship. Similar domains are also mentioned by Mayer, Davis and Schoorman (1995) as basis of trust. These include shared values (Hart, Capps, Cangemi and Caillouet, 1986), and value congruence (Sitkin and Roth, 1993). Although later on, in a scale developed by Mayer

and Davis (1999), this domain is reflected through an item ("I like top management's values") measuring integrity that is a component of trustworthiness, it is not considered as a separate dimension in the conceptual model of trust.

The domains of perceived characteristic similarity or shared values between parties in a trusting relationship could be essential in organizational trust. However, the importance and applicability of this domain has yet been sufficiently examined in trust measurements in existing organizational research. This leaves much space for future research to explore.

Again, it could not be more important to stress the context-specific nature of trust. A meaningful measure of trust in organizations should consider specific traits of organizations as trustees, as well as characteristics of trusters. There are various kinds of organizations, and trusters's expectations and perceptions of organizations vary enormously across diverse organizations. Therefore, measures of trust should not be developed merely based on the current dominant paradigm of conceptual models. Moreover, a widely accepted measure of trust in general organizations could be inapplicable and questionable to be employed to assess trust in specific types of organizations. In this sense, a standardized measure of trust expected by some scholars would not be helpful for advancing knowledge in this area of research.

When taking charitable organizations into consideration, direct and single-item measures have been predominantly adopted to assess trust in charities. It seriously limited the depth of analysis. It is remedied to some extent with the two scales by Sargeant and Lee (2002; 2004a) of which one used multiple items with single dimension, and the other employed multiple items with multiple dimensions. The weakness of the first scale is its unclear construct and validity; the weakness for the other one is its questioned extent to correctly measure trust by using behavioral

indicators implying trust, as trust is not behavior essentially and trusting behaviors could be the consequence of other factors rather than trust. The flaws of existing measures underline a need for a more robust measurement to assess trust in charitable organizations.

2.6 Conceptualizations of Trust in This Study

The definition of trust in general organizations is examined before considering trust in charitable organizations in this study. Although there is no agreement on a single definition of trust, the trusting relationship should represent an interaction between the trusting actor's intention to accept vulnerability and the perceived potential for the trustee to represent the interests of the truster through their ability, benevolence, and integrity. Thus, trust, in this context, is an interaction between expectations and behavioral intentions (Hoffman, 2002).

This study regards trust as a multifaceted phenomenon. First, the study agrees with the view of, such as, Cook and Wall (1980), Laezalere and Huston (1980), Doney and Cannon (1997): trust is the extent that a party believes another party (an individual or a group of people, or institutions) to be benevolent, integrity, and competent to fulfill the commitment. Moreover, as trust exists in uncertain environment or risky situations (Schlenher et al., 1973), the study also agrees with the conceptualization by, such as, Mayer and Davis (1999) that trust is the extent of willingness to be vulnerable to the action of another party.

With the recognition of these two important aspects of trust, the final definition synthesize them by adopting the conceptualizations proposed by, such as, Gillepie (2003) and Rousseau et al. (1998) that trust is a psychological state comprising the

intention to accept vulnerability and positive expectations of the intentions or behaviors of another. This holistic definition avoids segmentation of trust conceptualizations and takes each party of a trusting relationship into consideration.

The definition explicitly demonstrates basic domains of trust: expectation and willingness to accept vulnerability. Consequently, trust is regarded as a multidimensional concept in this study, which will be measured with multiple items reflecting its diverse components of trust.

Expectation

The starting point of the definition of trust is the expectation towards/of trustees, echoing previous trust studies in the field of sociology. As an abstract concept based on expectancy, trust is dependent on a number of beliefs about the trustee. These are beliefs about the trustee's benevolence, integrity, and competence.

Benevolence. As discussed in earlier sections, Hardin (2002) proposes that trust takes the form of an "encapsulated interest" (p. 1) in a relationship between two parties. Thus, "I trust you because I think it is in your interest to take my interests in the relevant matter seriously" (Hardin, 2001, p.1). This rationalist approach stresses the expectation of benevolence in the establishment of trust. Barber (1983) also stressed the need of the trustee to place the interests of the truster ahead of their own interests. Trust is generally accompanied by a belief in the benevolence of the trustee. This benevolence is "an acknowledged or accepted duty to protect the rights and interests of [trusters]" (Hosmer, 1995, p. 392).

Integrity. Hollis' (1998) competing definition of trust emphasizes the expectancy that trustees will honor their promises and will do "what is right" (p. 10). In other words, trust is regarded as a set of optimistic expectations of morally correct role performance by the trustee (Barber, 1983). From the perspective of normative philosophy, trust is

regarded by Hosmer (1995) as "the result of 'right', 'just', and 'fair' behavior that is morally correct decisions and actions based upon the ethical principles of analysis" (p. 399). Butler and Cantrell (1984) also suggest that moral values like integrity are essential components in any definition of trust. Taken together, these views indicate an expectation of fiduciary obligation or integrity as an essential part of the definition of trust.

Competence. Mayer, Davis and Schoorman (1995) suggest that trust-based interactions represent a validation of the ability of the trustee to uphold promises. McLeod (2011) also illustrates that clear conditions for trustworthiness are that the trustee has the skills, ability, and commitment to do what s/he is trusted to do. Without being confident that people will display some competence, trust would be discounted.

It is noteworthy that all the above aspects of expectations indicate the characteristics of the trustee. The trustee could be individuals or organizations. As noted by Cummings and Bromile (1996), Zaheer, McEvily and Perrone (1998), Mayer and Davis (1995), these characteristics are able to be applied to organizations. Although some studies (i.e. Zaheer, McEvily and Perrone, 1998) have demonstrated that trust in people and in institutions/organizations are different constructs, the aspects of expectations relating to trust are theoretically applicable to both individuals and organizations. This point is tested through the process of item generation and scale refinement in Chapters 5 and 6. If these aspects of expectations are not applicable to organizations, interviewees and survey participants would report it particularly in the pilot study.

Willingness to accept vulnerability

As social psychologists suggested, trust is a state of mind, implying risk-taking behaviors. It is the willingness to accept vulnerability, rather than the behavior of taking

risk. The potential failure of the trustee to do what s/he is depended upon to do presents a risk for the truster. Thus one important criterion for trust is that the truster is willing to accept some level of vulnerability (Becker, 1996). Baier (1995) argues that "trust is acceptance of vulnerability to harm that others could inflict, but which we judge that they will not in fact inflict" (p. 152). Trust, therefore, can be construed as the discounting of this risk.

Context-specific nature of trust

As noted in earlier discussions, trust must be domain-specific as it is a three-part relationship of which the paradigm is "A trusts B to do X" rather than "A trusts B" or "A trusts" because different actors have different characteristics that inform expectations about their competencies to perform specific tasks (Hardin, 2001). This study focuses on trust in/towards a collective institution. As such, when analyzing trust in a specific organization, context and the particular characteristics of the organization – as perceived by the truster – should be taken into consideration. When analyzing trust in a particular sector, the major characteristics of that sector should be considered.

Again, as there are some existing measures for assessing trust in general organizations, it may give rise to concerns over whether these measures should be employed instead of developing a new one. However, it is equally important to stress that these models of organizational trust are too general to be applied to study trust in a particular type of organizations without considering specific contextual factors of the organization. It highlights the necessity of different measures for assessing trust in diverse organizations.

As this study particularly looks into British people's trust in charities in the UK, an investigation of charities in the UK will be undertaken in the following chapter. The concept of public trust in charities will also be clarified in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 3: LITERATURE REVIEW -PART 2

3.1 Introduction

This chapter aims to examine charity in the UK, and to conceptualize public trust in charities. It clarifies the definition of "public trust in charities", and proposes a conceptual model containing various dimensions of this concept. It goes beyond existing literature about trust, as reviewed in the previous chapter, by taking features of charitable organizations into consideration. Specifically, the conceptualization of trust in charities incorporates "value similarity" as an essential element of trust along with "willingness to be vulnerable" and "expectation or perception of charity competence, integrity, and benevolence" again, as explained explicitly in the earlier chapter. This chapter also underlines the significance of this study on the basis of importance of trust for charities and in the context of the great pressure the UK charitable sector is currently facing.

Relevant literature about charity were searched using the keywords and phrases "charity", "charitable organization", "non-profit organization", "charitable sector", " non-governmental organizations", "charity in the UK", "public trust in charities", and "public confidence in charities", in the following: Science Direct, JSTOR, Wiley Online Library, Web of Science, ProQuest Direct, databases of the university library, and Google Scholar. There were 123 journal papers, conference papers, working papers, books and book chapters, news reports, and dissertations obtained in data bases online. At the same time, daily news about UK charities in media, such as the Guardian and Civil Society News, were closely followed.

This chapter includes three parts: theories about charity, the landscape of charities in the UK, and public trust in charities in the UK. The first part discusses conceptualizations of charity and trust in charity. It completes the definition of "public trust in charities". The second part presents the landscape of the charitable sector in the UK, including their scale, income, beneficiaries and participants, as well as the charitable sector's relationship with the state and the commercial sector. It seeks to introduce the importance of charities, as well as concerns around public trust therein. In the third part, studies on public trust in charities are reviewed. This covers: (1) the importance of public trust in charities including its significance for charities' existence, survival, prosperity, and the impact for the whole of society; (2) current situations of public trust in UK charities, such as the overall level and features of trust, the features of charities being trusted or distrusted.

Finally, the importance of this study is discussed. It also clarifies how this study would fill the gaps of previous research about public trust in charities.

3.2 Conception of Charity and Public Trust in Charities

3.2.1 Definitions of Charity

The Word "charity" originates from "caritas" in Latin which refers to kind acts towards those in need and who are less fortunate. It is not only a moral standard deeply rooted in human behavior, but also a social principle as "love of mankind especially as shown in services to general welfare" (Chesterman, 1979, p.12). As McMullen, Maurice and Parker (1967) argue that "in its widest sense, the word 'charity' denotes all the good affections that men ought to bear towards each other" (p.1).

Charity also has historical links to religion. Locke defines charity as "a disposition of positive toleration and affability, placing this at the center of Christianity" (Lamb and Thompson, 2009, p. 240). Charity is derived from a Western Christianity tradition. During the Middle Ages, most charities in Europe were administered by the church, the clergy were actively involved in establishing charities and raising funds, and people's motives for donation were strongly related to the belief in salvation by faith (Ware, 1989). With the growth of capitalism, a transition from a religion based society to more secular society took place leading to a shift of charitable donations from ones directly associated with religion to predominantly humanistic causes such as poverty relief (Jordan, 1959). Nevertheless, deep religious faith and, in particular, the great evangelical revival acted as very important motivating factors for charitable donation, especially in Eighteenth Century England (Whelan, 1996).

This study focuses on "charity" that is as associated with an organization. This kind of organization was not necessary in previous centuries, when direct giving was the dominant form of donation. However, in more sophisticated societies, where philanthropists made posthumous gifts of large sums of money and with specific welfare purposes, such as building infrastructure, providing equipment and training staff, some form of institutional structure was necessary for implementation (Chesterman, 1979). Thus institutional charities, to facilitate the practice of benevolent giving and caring, came into being.

In order to characterize charitable organizations, a starting point is the legal definition. In the UK, "A charity is a legal form of organization which may be acquired by a body which has purpose which are exclusively charitable in law" (Ware, 1989, p.3). The key to the definition is "charitable purpose". According to House of Commons Expenditure Committee (1975), "the word 'charity' has never been defined nor it is capable of exact

definition" (p.174), while the phrase "charitable purpose" is a technical term that lends itself to less confusions.

This illustrates the basis of defining charity. In the Charity Act (1960), a charity is defined as "any institution, corporate or not, which is established for charitable purpose according to the law of England and Wales" (sec.45). The renewed Charity Act (2011) confirms that "for the purposes of the law of England and Wales, 'charity' means an institution which (1) is established for charitable purposes only, and (2) falls to be subject to the control of the High Court in the exercise of its jurisdiction with respect to charities" (sec.1). Basically, there is no major difference among the definitions, in that all focus on "charitable purposes".

The Preamble to the Statute of Charitable Uses, 1601, classified charitable purposes into four groups: the relief of poverty; the advancement of education; the promotion of religion; and other purposes beneficial to the community (Quint, 1994). The Preamble lays the foundations of contemporary charity law. Scholars have, however, argued that the charitable purposes itemized were too ambiguous to be able to cover all of the many and various kinds of activities undertaken by charities (e.g. Mitchell and Moody, 2000).

In recent years, changes have been made to the legal definition of "charity". According to 2011 Charity Act, charitable purpose is finally defined as promoting the public benefit, which is more inclusive, and its classification is more specific as follows:

(1) the prevention or relief of poverty; (2) the advancement of education; (3) the advancement of religion; (4) the advancement of health or the saving of lives; (5) the advancement of citizenship or community development; (6) the advancement of the arts, culture, heritage or science; (7) the advancement of amateur sport; (8) the advancement of human rights, conflict resolution or reconciliation or the promotion of religious or racial harmony or equality and diversity; (9) the advancement of

environmental protection or improvement; (10) the relief of those in need because of youth, age, ill-health, disability, financial hardship or other disadvantage; (11) the advancement of animal welfare; (12) the promotion of the efficiency of the armed forces of the Crown or of the efficiency of the police, fire and rescue services or ambulance services; (13) any other purposes that may reasonably be regarded as analogous to, or within the spirit of, any purposes which have been recognized, under the law relating to charities in England and Wales.

Charity Act 2011, sec.3

However, having one or more of those purposes outlined in the Charity Act as its exclusive aims is not, of itself, sufficient for a body to qualify for charitable status. Ware (1989) proposes that there are two further conditions that a charity must meet: first, it must provide a tangible benefit to the public; second, it must not engage in the distribution of profits, substantially political activities and self-help. Other features of charities are also underlined in the Finance Act 2010, in which a charity is defined as "a body of persons or trust, which: (1) is established for charitable purposes, (2) meets the jurisdiction condition, (3) [meets] the registration condition, and (4) [meets] the management condition" (sec.30). The "body of persons" is an institution, such as companies and unincorporated associations, which should be set up for charitable purposes and must be subject to the control of the High Court to meet "the jurisdiction condition"; the body or trust is required to register with a charity regulator in order to satisfy "the registration condition"; "the management condition" is concerned with the issues about internal management and propriety of the person who manage the organization (Wilson-Cole, 2011) .

3.2.2 Relevant Terminology and Characteristics of Charities

Although the legal meaning of charity is quite clear, charities and some other terms, such as civil society, voluntary and community sector, and non-governmental organizations (NGOs), are often referred to interchangeably. By examining these various terms, we may, however, discern more about charity and its characteristics. Nevertheless, as Lewis (2001) argues, there is no universally accepted definition of these terms, and it is by no means easy to clearly define them.

"Civil society" is a broad term which refers to the sphere of organizations and individuals located outside of family, state and the market where people associate with each other voluntarily to promote common interests (Anheirer, 2004). It is particularly viewed as the location for activities independent of the state, and sometimes in resistance to the state. An alternative term for "civil society" is "the third sector", which is located somewhere between the public sector and the private sector. Specifically, the third sector includes "educational establishments, pressure groups, religious organizations, trade unions, recreational clubs, community self-help initiatives and charitable welfare societies" (Lewis, 2001, p. 20). These two terms cover all these social entities excepting individuals, state and business. Therefore, charities undoubtedly belong to this sphere.

The voluntary sector organization (VSO) is at the heart of civil society. It includes registered charities, non-charitable non-profits, associations, self-help groups and community groups with discernible public benefit and some aspect of voluntarism (Clark et al., 2012). In order to scope the scene, these are also referred to as "general charities": charities which are voluntary in nature and not controlled by government, independent schools, religious organizations and some other organizations. Because of difficulties in definition, Westall (2005) summarizes defining characteristics of

voluntary organizations which also underpin "voluntary action": (1) Formality: having organizational structures; (2) Independence: not being controlled by statutory and private sector; (3) Non-profit-distribution: not distributing profits to shareholders; (4) Self-governance: being free to manage themselves and making decisions; (5) Voluntarism: keeping meaningful degree of voluntarism in terms of money or time including unpaid trustees; (6) Private benefit versus public benefit: benefiting wider public rather than their own members.

"Non-governmental organizations" (NGOs) or "Non-governmental development organizations" is a term referred to interchangeably with "voluntary organization" in many situations. The term is concerned with organizations that are value-driven, are independent from the government, and principally reinvest their surpluses to further social, cultural or environmental objectives. NGOs include voluntary and community organizations, social enterprises, faith groups and cooperatives and mutuals (Davies, 2009).

"Civil Society Organization" (CSO) is another term now often employed to describe organizations operating in the "civil society space". A prominent feature of Civil society organizations is that they can strengthen democracy by (1) educating citizens to exercise their right to participate in public life, (2) encouraging marginalized groups to become more active in the political arena, (3) helping to build overlapping networks or "social capital" (Lewis, 2001, p.49). Civil society organization includes charities and this serves to underline that advocacy and campaigning are also legitimate activities for charities to undertake. The Charity Commission (2008) specifies that "campaigning and political activity can be legitimate and valuable activities for charities to undertake; however, political campaigning, or political activity must be undertaken by a charity only in the

context of supporting the delivery of its charitable purposes and must not be the continuing and sole activity of the charity."
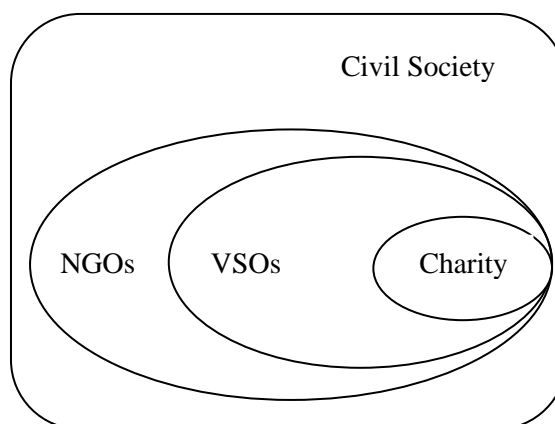
Figure 3.1 Relationship between Charity and Relevant Terms

There are obviously blurred boundaries between the above-mentioned associations and charities. Charities are clearly within the voluntary sector, they are NGOs and they form a key component of civil society (their relationships are illustrated in Figure 3.1). This analysis of the relationship between "charity" and other relevant terms has been helpful for identifying the general characteristics of charities:

(1) Formalization: a charity is an organization with an established management system, organizational structure and human recourse system. It meets basic requirements of operation for a normal organization.

(2) Not-for-profit, rather than "non-profit" or "beyond profit". "Not-for-profit" allows for the creation of surpluses but the surplus revenues of charities are used to achieve their charitable goals. All the activities of charities should work in the interests of beneficiaries and organizational development rather than for making a profit or financing shareholders.

(3) Value-driven: the core purpose of charities is to promote public benefit. Charities aim to initiate developments at local, national, and global levels in the public interest. They are motivated by these values rather than self-interest.

(4) Independence: charities should be independent from the public sector and the business sector, especially in terms of financial sources. In other words, they should not be controlled by the government and corporations, neither regarded as a part of them. They may cooperate with governments and companies, but may also criticize or challenge them.

(5) Voluntarism: the operation of charities should be mainly based on voluntarism, whereby those volunteers donate their time and (or) money. Charity is considered as an altruistic activity. Members of charities serve the society through their own interests and personal skills, which in return may produce a feeling of self-worth and respect.

3.2.3 Value Similarity and Trust in Charities

As discussed previously, "charities are identified with, and legitimated by, the causes they serve" (Tonkiss and Passey, 1997, p. 266). Among the five characteristics outlined above, the most prominent trait of charitable organizations is that they are driven by charitable purposes or values other than profit (Knutsen, 2013). Chen, Lune and Queen (2013) suggest that this value-based prioritization "can give nonprofits a competitive, though short-lived, advantage over for-profit and public sector organizations" (p. 870) in gaining public support. This value-driven character of charities leads to an inherent belief among people that charities will spend effectively and wisely even though donors have little knowledge of how charities use their resources (NCVO, 2011). Value is so important for charities that people may support charities merely based on their

appreciation of charitable purposes when they lack in depth knowledge of them (Siegrist, Cvetkovich and Roth, 2000).

Trust is linked to shared values (Uslaner, 1997, cited in Tonkiss and Passey, 1999, p. 259), and public trust in relation to voluntary organizations is associated with public identification with the values these organizations represent (Tonkiss and Passey, 1999). In other words, public trust in charities is connected to the core ethos and social objectives of voluntary organizations. These values could be charitable purposes, ethics such as not-for-profit, and organizational philosophy regarding the views of social problems and the way to solve the problems.

Moreover, Poortinga and Pidgeon (2003) found that value similarity (VS) is an important factor in explaining and predicting trust. People who perceive that they hold similar values to the organization tend to trust it more than those who do not (Siegrist, Cvetkovich and Roth, 2000; Cvetkovich and Winter, 2003), particularly when familiarity with the organization is low. When they do not have the resources or interest to make a detailed assessment of trustworthiness, individuals endow their trust based on shared values (Earle and Cvetkovich, 1995).

Shared value is also essential for identification-based trust, which is the highest level of trust as well as the most stable state of trust according to Shapiro, Sheppard, and Cheraskin (1992). This kind of trust requires fully internalization the other's preferences, desires and intentions and allows the trusted party to act as an agent for the trusting one in interpersonal transactions. The existence of identification-based trust can also make it possible to form a shared strategic focus and sustained consensus to achieve the mutual objectives. The conditions for the construction of the identification-based trust are shared values, joint products and goals, name, and proximity (Shapiro at al., 1992).

Consequently, considering particular features of charitable organizations and the relation between trust and shared value, value similarity between the public and the charitable sector could serve as a key domain of trust in charities. Any model of trust in charities should consider value similarity in addition to the willingness to be vulnerable and expectations of trustworthiness proposed in earlier conceptual models.

It is noteworthy that here value similarity is regarded as a component of trust rather than an antecedent of it. Although people are likely to be predisposed to trust individuals that they see as similar to themselves, values and trust are fluid entities. Contrary to antecedents, value similarity is not static, it may change with time as charities and their supporters/potential supporters also change. Therefore, it is clearly linked to the organization's core values but also to how effectively those values are presented – how charities' activities confirm those values and the way that their values are perceived through the media lens. Consequently, trust in charities, particularly, could be manifested as a perception of the extent of value similarity between charities and individuals. Regarding value similarity as an antecedent of trust is only one part of the story.

3.2.4 Conceptual Model of Public Trust in Charities

Combining the definition of trust discussed in the last chapter and the most prominent trait of general charities, "public trust in charities" in this study is defined as a phenomenon comprising the willingness of individuals to accept vulnerability in the relationship with charitable organizations, and the extent that individuals believe charities to have integrity, be benevolent, and competent to fulfill their commitments, and to hold shared values. General charities are not-for-profit, legal and formal

institutions established for charitable purposes only. Classifications of charitable purposes are clarified in the Charity Act 2011 (section 3).

Charity competence is the ability of charities to fulfill missions and complete tasks. Charity benevolence is the extent to which charities are believed to intend to uphold and further public interest. Charity integrity is the extent to which charities are believed to fulfill their fiduciary obligations and to be conscientious. Value similarity or shared value is the alignment of values between the individual and the charitable sector. This element of trust is particularly important for trust in charitable organizations that are identified with, and legitimated by, the causes they serve.

According to the definition, the conceptual model of public trust in charities is described in Figure 3.2. It demonstrates that trust is a dyadic and interactive relationship involving both trusters and trustees. The dimension of willingness to accept vulnerability reflects traits of trusters; the dimension of perceived trustworthiness indicates features of trustees; and the dimension of value similarity indicates shared traits of both parties. A sound identification of dimension is essential for a good understanding of the construct of trust, as it provides the foundation of establishing a measurement.

It is noteworthy that domains of this concept are identified in order to facilitate item generation in Chapter 5. The purpose of this study is to explore a construct of the concept based on items reflecting possible domains in the conceptual model.
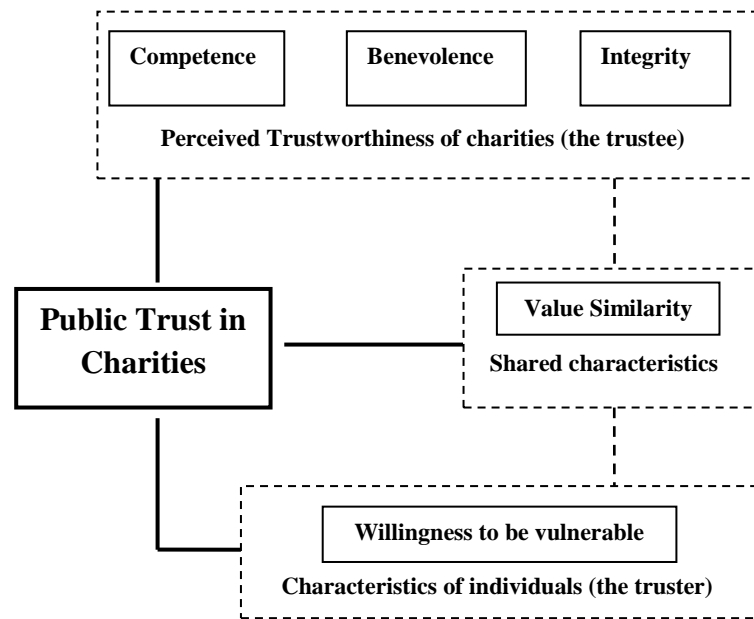
Figure 3.2 Conceptual Model of Public Trust in Charitable Organizations

3.3 Charities in the UK

Being affected by the political, economic and social environment of the UK, the charitable sector is facing reductions in charitable donations and government funding, whilst, at the same time, it endeavors to meet an increase in demand for charitable services. This has placed great pressure on charities and some have not survived, which is evidenced by the decreasing relative amount of charities since 2010. Possible ways to change this unfavorable picture is to foster public trust in the sector, and to encourage individuals' charitable contribution.

3.3.1 Scale

The UK Civil Society Almanac 2014 (NCVO, 2014) reveals there to have been a continual process of growth in the number of charities in the latter half of the twentieth century. Since the 1960s, when the register of charities was first launched, the number

of charities has grown steadily, with at least 2,500 organizations registered year on year; and in 2012, 4,200 new "general charities" were registered (NCVO, 2014). NCVO uses the term "general charities" to distinguish them from faith groups, trade associations, mutuals, housing associations, independent schools, and charities that are effectively owned and controlled by the government and the NHS.

The growth of charities during the post war period can be attributed to four main factors: increasing demand, a changing policy environment, technological development and cultural transformation. Research has illustrated that the demand for charities is higher during economic downturns, when unemployment rises and the dependent population grows; again, the increasing number of people over the age of 80 post the Second World War has also increased the demands on charities (Etherington, 1996).

Secondly, the "welfare state" reforms of the late 1940s introduced more comprehensive public provision, and provided increased possibilities for the development of charities (Alcock, 2010). From the 1970s, successive governments have increasingly looked to the third sector to deliver welfare agendas both at home and abroad. This policy advantage continued when partnership between charities and the public sector was promoted and underpinned by New Labor's national and local "compacts" of the early 21st century.

Third, with the development of information technology, telecommunications and the internet, it has been much easier for charities to get their messages across and reach more audiences and also to raise funds. Again, advances in communication technologies, together with increased numbers of donors and volunteers, have enabled charities to broaden their impact overseas.

Fourth, with the building of civil society and civic community, there is a better realization and acknowledgement of the social responsibilities of the public. It provides

the motivation for the formation of new forms of associations in social welfare, the arts, sports, and cultural heritage, and also encourages and facilitates various forms of social, environmental and political campaigning, which again, greatly fosters and promotes the role of charities.

However, since 2008, the seemingly inexorable rise of the charitable sector in England and Wales has been reversed with an approximate 5% decline in the number of charities per 1,000 populations (see Figure 3.3). It should be noted that the number of registered charities reported by the Charity Commission is slightly less compared to NCVO's report in which the "general charities" also covers those in Scotland and Northern Ireland. The decrease in charities has been due, in large part, to two concurrent factors: the impact of the recession following the international financial crisis, and the expansion of the competitive model because of the changed relationship between the government and the charitable sector.
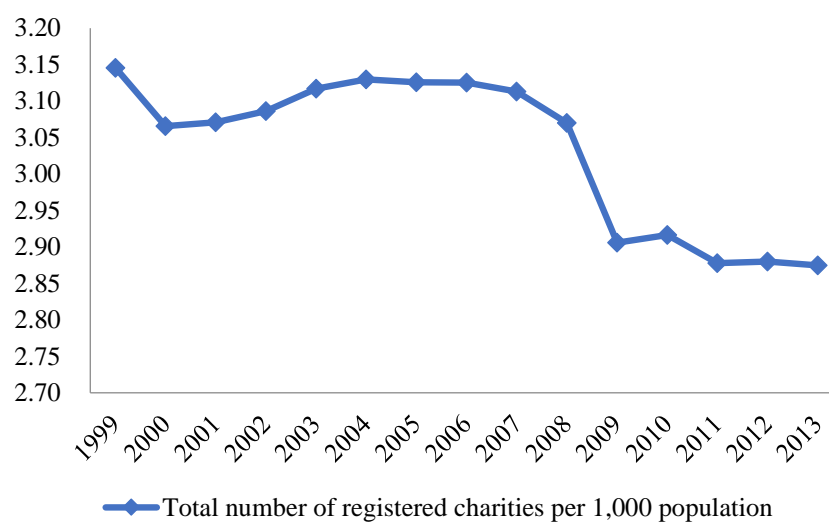
Figure 3.3 Total Number of Registered Charities per 1,000 Populations in England and Wales (1999-2013)

Source: statistics published by gov.uk, 2014(a); statistics published by Office for National Statistics, 2013.

The Charity Commission (2010a) reports that 59% of charities asserted that they were affected by the recession at the beginning of 2010, and 62% of them said they had experienced a reduction in income. A report from UNISON estimates that "the recession could leave charities in the UK with a deficit of £2.3 billion, with charities concerned about a fall in donations, declining income from investments, and their resulting increased dependence on government funding" (Davies, 2009, p.23). This bleak prediction was confirmed by the fact that the period between 2007/08 and 2008/09 saw a decline of the proportion of people who gave money to charity by two percentage points to 56%, alongside a 13% drop of the total amount given to charity (Clark et al., 2012). Meanwhile, a CAF/NCVO study in 2009 reported a decrease of 11% (or £1.3 billion) in the total amount of donations. This dropped again by a fifth in 2011, from £11bn to £9.3bn during 2011-12 (Doward, 2012).

This reduction in direct public donations has increased the reliance of charities on government funding. However, there was a concomitant squeeze of the public finances in 2008 in order for Government to achieve £35 billion of efficiencies by 2011, and this made the situation much tougher for charities. One study reveals that during the economic recession since 2008, "both central and local governments cut funding; In addition, practices associated with a funding crisis, such as public bodies delaying payment, also lead to cash-flow problems for third sector bodies" (Davies, 2009, p.19).

Furthermore, the new policy agenda adopted by the then Labor Government led to increased competition among charities for government financial support. The larger charities, which could evidence high levels of competence and benefited from strong reputations were more likely to secure contracts or grant from the Government, whilst smaller ones saw their opportunities to access such resources diminish. An increasingly small number of voluntary organizations accessed the lion's share of Government

funding, whilst "three quarters of all voluntary sector organizations (around 117,000) do not receive any funding from government – either through grants or contracts" (Davies, 2009, p.18). The consequence was that some charities failed, while others became stronger and larger. This is evidenced by the rising number of large charities (see Figure 3.4) and their increasing proportion of total income of the charitable sector (see Figure 3.6). The increased competition has therefore contributed significantly to an uneven development among charities, which has proved detrimental to the sustainable and healthy progress of the sector.
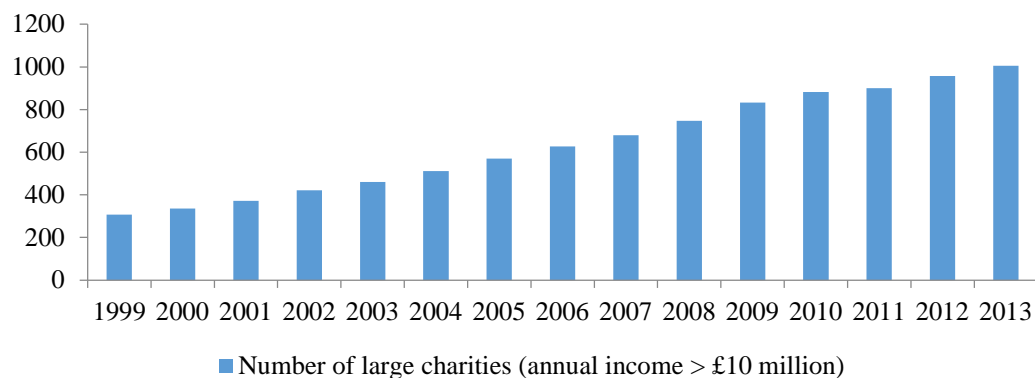
Figure 3.4 Number of Large Charities in England and Wales (annual income > £10 million)

Source: statistics published by gov.uk, 2014 (a)

3.3.2 Income

Today's charities have many and various sources of funds, and they are no longer limited to the fundraising by street collections. Contracts, grants, donations, bequests and investment are typical sources of income. In 1991, the total income of registered charities in the UK was approximately £9,100 million (Hanvey and Philpot, 1996), which was a mere 0.034% of that in 2001, £26.71 billion. Between 2001 and 2014, there was another dramatic increase in the total income of charities, more than doubling

to the sum of £63.44 billion in 2014 (see Figure 3.5). Charities have made a large contribution to the gross domestic product of the UK. For instance, the total income of charities in 2011 occupied approximately 4% of the GDP of UK in that year (Davies, 2009).
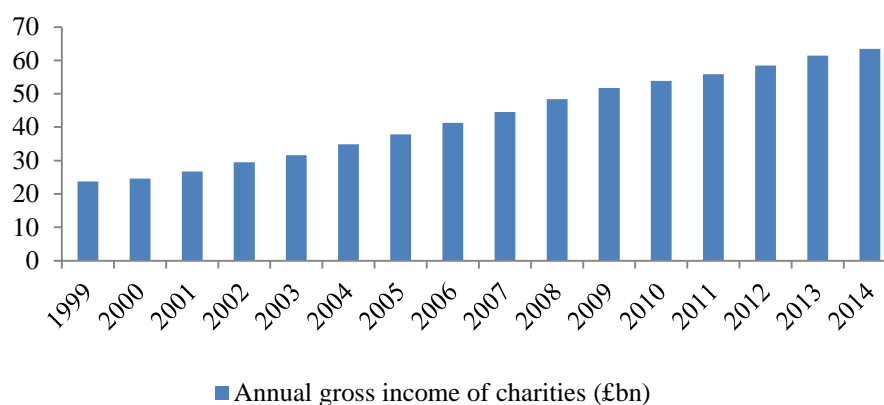
Figure 3.5 Annual Gross Income of Charities in England and Wales (£bn)

Source: statistics published by gov.uk, 2014 (a) (b)

However, there is a huge division of annual income between charities. Larger charities which normally have higher competence for financial resources commonly share a larger slice of the total income of all the registered charities. In the UK, the proportion of total income for large charities (annual income > £10 million) is around 50%, and this has risen on an annual basis from 2000 to 2013 (see Figure 3.6). According to the figure published by the Charity Commission (2010b), around 6% of the charities received 90% of the total annual income recorded, and the largest 500 charities (0.3% of those on the register) attract almost 50% of the total income, which is illustrated by Figure 3.6.
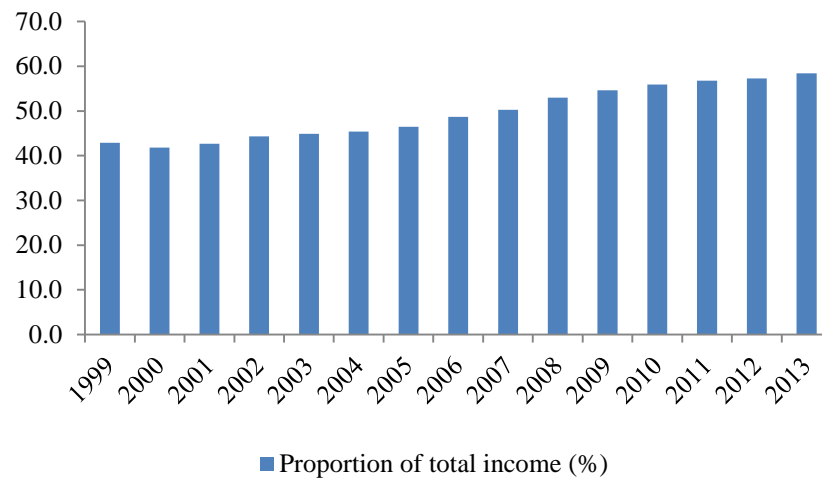
Figure 3.6 Proportion of Total Income for Large Charities in England and Wales (annual income > £10 million)

Source: statistics published by gov.uk, 2014 (a)

According to NCVO, the sources of charities' income include individuals (including legacies), the Government, the National Lottery, the voluntary sector, the private sector, trading subsidiaries and investments. From Figure 3.7, it is clear that the main sources of charities' income are individuals and the Government, of which the total proportion is the biggest and has continually risen since 2004. This supports the fact that charities increasingly rely on both individuals and statutory sources. Large charities probably view statutory sources as more crucial while the smaller charities may put more significance on individual donations and purchases. Moreover, it is more likely for charities that are newer, located in more deprived areas, and serving socially excluded or vulnerable people to receive funding from a range of local or national statutory bodies (Clifford, Rajme and Mohan, 2010). It should be noticed that other sources only account for less than 30% of the total income which also implies a huge potential space for development, in particular in terms of generating income from the private sector.
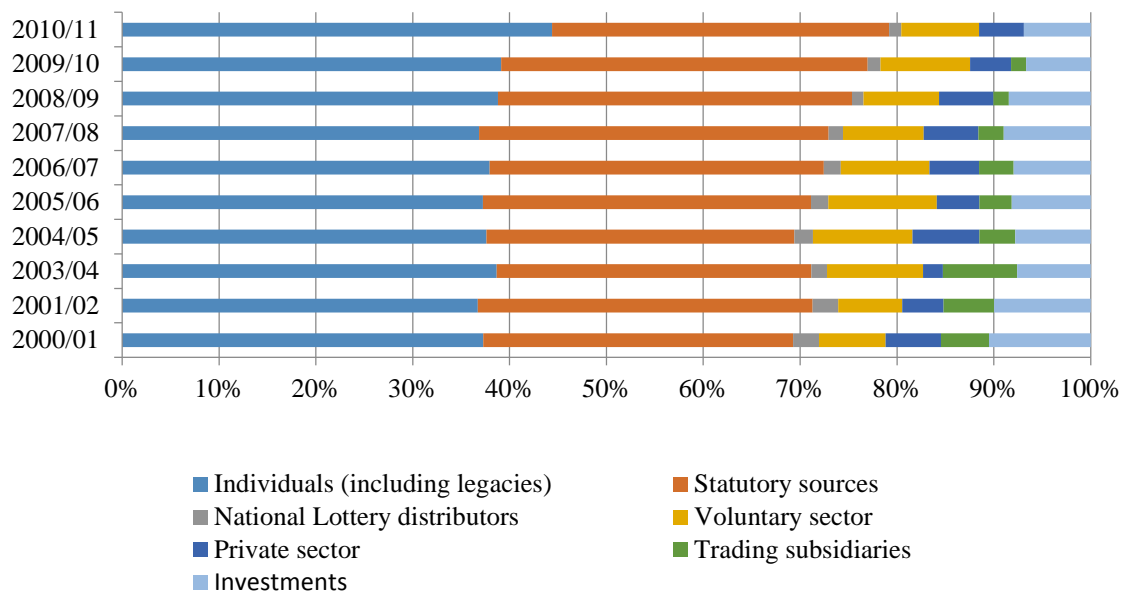
Figure 3.7 Income Sources of General Charities (2000-2011)

Source: NCVO, The UK Civil Society Almanac 2014

In 2012, a report from CAF (Charity Aid Foundation, 2012) revealed that more than 80% of charities in the UK believed the sector was facing a serious crisis, nearly 17% predicted they would close in 2013, approximately 73% believed they were unable to fulfil their goals, while around 33% had had to cut services and staff. Not surprisingly, then, available statistics reveal a significant reduction in the total number of charities per 1000 of the population in the four years from the beginning of the recession in 2009, through to 2013 (see Figure 3.3). This can be mainly attributed to reductions in charitable donations and government funding, whilst the demand for charitable services increased exponentially. As Irvin (2013) revealed, "the dominant issue last year was the lack of funding. Every month reports appeared about local charities suffering cuts, despite rising demand" (first paragraph).

As previously mentioned, statutory funding and individual donations are the two main sources of income for the voluntary and community sector in the UK. NCVO (2014)

reveal that the sector received £13.7bn from government in 2010/2011, which accounted for 35% of its total income. Some 79% of government funding was in contracts for services. However, public sector grants fell by almost £500m in the first year of the recession, and continued falling by around £200m from 2009/2010 to 2010/2011. There were further cuts valued at £77m from January 2011 to January 2012. In 2002, it was estimated that the voluntary sector is likely to lose £1.2bn in government income each year to 2015/16 (Clark et al., 2012).

Charitable donations by adults also dropped in the UK over the past several years. According to the NCVO and CAF (2012), the total estimated amount of money donations to charity by adults in the UK was £9.3 billion in 2011/12, which was £1.7 billion less in cash terms or £2.3 billion less in real terms (after adjusting for inflation) than that in 2010/11. It was also the smallest amount of charitable donation since the survey launched in 2004. Figure 3.8 shows that individual giving in the UK is not stable, fluctuating widely from 2004 to 2011.
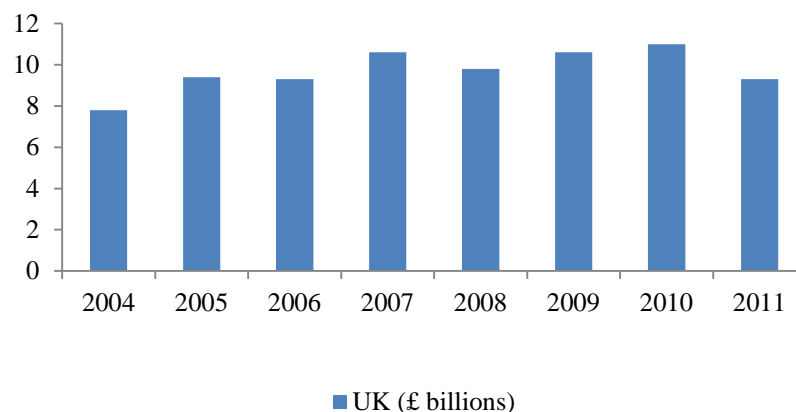
Figure 3.8 Estimated Donations from Adults in the UK (2004-2011)

Source: Data based on UK Giving 2012

Studies have highlighted the following contributory factors hindering a greater charitable contribution from individuals: (1) the economic downturn is impacting

negatively on individual giving as people have less available disposable income to donate (Charity Commission, 2010; NCVO and CAF, 2012); (2) some recent fundraising techniques are not welcome, leaving the public feeling uncomfortable (Charity Commission, 2012); (3) policies on the tax relief of charitable donations are met with suspicion and distaste (Cabinet Office, 2011); (4) the public as a whole are apathetic, unwilling to engage in civil renewal (Deakin, 2005); (5) there has been a breakdown of traditional community ties, (6) the influence of advertising in persuading people to spend first on items of personal consumption, and (7) the growing expectation that the state should provide for people's needs (Ware, 1989).

However, such explanations tend to overlook the key premise of giving: trust. Studies evidence the fact that higher degrees of trust in a charity are strongly associated with a greater willingness to become a donor and give greater sums. Trust enhances commitment and facilitates lasting relationships and long-term partnerships. It also helps to recruit and encourage volunteers (Sargeant and Lee, 2004a; Sargeant and Lee, 2004b).

3.3.3 Beneficiaries and Participants

Charities are greatly influencing UK society and its citizens, which can be reflected by the scale of beneficiaries and participants. The NCVO estimates that there are approximately 125 million beneficiaries of the activities of the UK's charities, roughly double the size of the total UK population; the most popular beneficiary groups are children and young people (58%), and then the general public (40.7%), older people (28.4%) and the disabled (26.8%) (Clark et al., 2012). The most common activities charities undertake are around social services, culture and recreation, religion, parent support, grant-making, development, nursery, education, youth support, health, village

halls, environment, and so forth (see Figure 3.9). With the development of social media, charities are able to reach an increasing number of people, locally, nationally and globally. A study of the social media audience of selected major charities in 2011 revealed that just 10 charities had gathered more than 2 million supporters on Facebook and Twitter (Clark et al., 2012).

■ Number of organisations
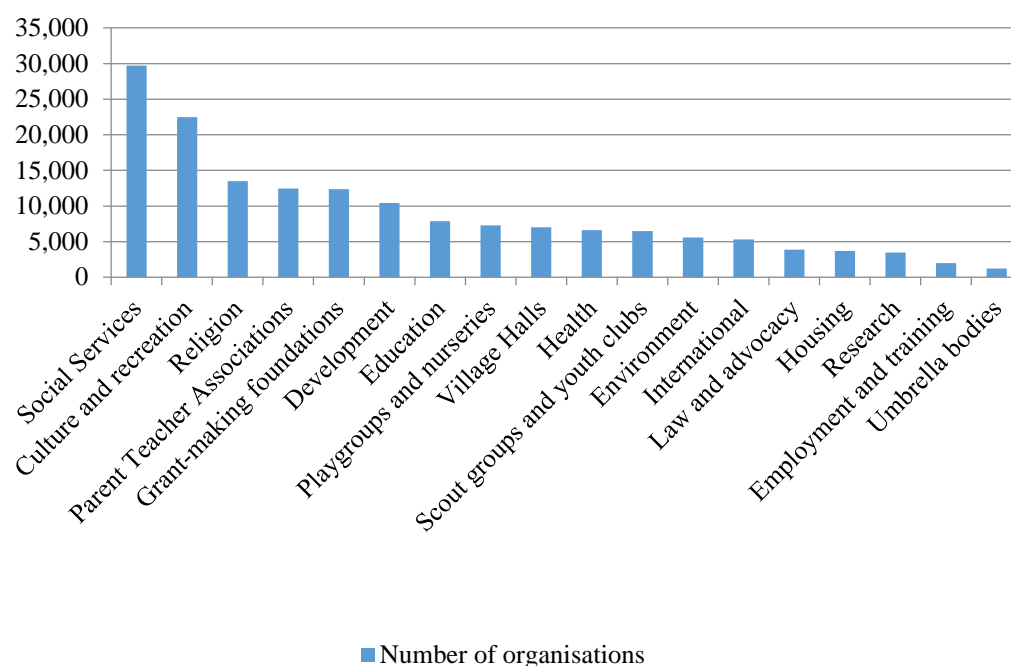
Figure 3.9 Number of Voluntary Organizations by ICNPO[1] Category, 2011/2012

Source: NCVO, the UK Civil Society Almanac 2014

The Charity sector is also a major employer. In 1990, there were 390,000 full-time employees in UK charities. Within five years that total had increased by 88,000. By 2009/2010, the number of paid staff in general charities had risen to 765,000, almost double the 1990 total, and this accounted for more than one-third (37%) of the civil society workforce (see Table 3.1; Clark et al., 2012). Although the number of charity

[1] ICNPO is International Classification of Non-profit Organization.

employees dropped by 70,000 between 2010 and 2011, in large part due to the economic recession, the sector as a whole continued to make a huge contribution to employment figures.

The sector also contributes via an army of volunteers. Available statistics reflect the enormous propensity for volunteering in the UK:

During 2010/11, 39% of adults in England said that they had volunteered formally at least once in the previous 12 months, with 25% of those volunteering formally at least once a month. This equates to 16.6 million people in England volunteering formally at least once a year and 10.6 million people in England volunteering formally once a month. If the survey results were equally valid for the UK adult population as a whole, these estimates would increase to 19.8 million (once a year) and 12.7 million (once a month). Formal volunteering means giving unpaid help through groups, clubs or organizations to benefit other people or the environment.

Clark et al. (2012, p. 33)

According to the UK Civil Society Almanac 2014, the headcounts and output value of volunteers increased steadily on a 5-year basis (see Table 3.1). Although the recession has negatively impacted both on the number and income of charities, volunteering is seldom influenced. It is partly due to the fact that with more unemployment, people who lose their job are more likely to contribute their time to volunteering, which is helpful for the sector as a whole to contribute to the country. It is estimated by the NCVO that the voluntary sector contributed £11.7 billion to UK gross value added in 2010, equivalent to 0.8% of the whole of the UK GVA that year (Clark et al., 2012).

Table 3.1 Employees and Volunteers in the Charity Sector (1995-2012)

Year	Employment (headcount)	Volunteers[2] (headcount in millions)	Volunteers output value £bn
1995	478,000	9.4	12.1
2000	563,000	12.3	15.6
2005	611,000	15.9	17.8
2010	765,000	19.8	23.1
2014	900,864	23.1	34.0

Source: Clark et al, The UK Civil Society Almanac 2012; NCVO, The UK Civil Society Almanac 2014; Weakley, 2014; Pudelek, 2014.

3.3.4 Roles and Social Functions

Figures released by the Charity Commission (2014) reveal that the proportion of people who perceive charities to play an essential role in society has risen from 30% in 2010 to 37% in 2014; 73% felt charities were effective at bringing about social change and 80% agreed that charities provided society with something unique.

The HM Treasury and Cabinet Office in the UK (2006) describes the functions of charities thus: (1) campaigning and voice: recognizing the third sector's pioneering and culture changing role; (2) public service: increased delivery and changing state power of the third sector; (3) building civil society: using the sector's ability to reach out and engage to build strong and active communities; (4) creation of an environment for change.

The roles of charities are viewed from different perspectives, as is their relationship with trust. Anheier and Kendall (2000) argue that, in economic terms, charities play a key role in providing an alternative to market failure, meanwhile, trust is an efficient mechanism to economize on transaction costs; sociologists view charitable

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[2] Volunteers are people claiming that they volunteered formally at least once a year in the UK.

organizations as playing the role of a symbolic representation of pre-existing trust, and trust is viewed as an assumption of reliability that underlies social relations and transactions; advocates of social capital perceive charitable organizations as playing the role of incubators of values, civic attitudes, and styles of organizing, as such, trust is synonymous with social capital and civic virtue.

Clearly there are differing perspectives on the role of charities, whilst it is also clear that those roles change with time in response to social and political developments, it is, however, possible to summarize their key roles, on the basis of existing literature (e.g. Sargeant and Lee, 2004a; 2004b; Alcock, 2010; Gaskin, 1999) as follows:

(1) Charities serve as public service providers. The charitable sector is undoubtedly viewed as an essential provider of public services, whatever the form of relationship with the government that is the dominate provider of public services (this is discussed in section 3.3.5). The services provided by charities cover various areas, such as the advancement of education, religion, health, arts, social welfare, culture, heritage and science.

(2) Charities serve as disadvantaged group protectors. One of the main purposes of charities is to protect the rights of disadvantaged groups, and to promote and maintain social justice. Such charities as Caring Cancer Trust, Age Concern and Oxfam provide for the relief of the disadvantaged group because of illness, disability, financial hardship, youth, or age. They variously support the advancement of human rights, conflict resolution or reconciliation, but also promote religious and racial harmony, equality and diversity.

(3) Charities serve as the environmental protector and animal welfare promoter. Charities such as World Wildlife Fund (WWF), Greenpeace, and the Fauna & Flora International have made an enormous contribution towards environmental protection

and animal welfare. These charities directly contribute to ecologically benevolent programmes and also campaign to ensure that governments and private enterprises desist from ecologically damaging activities.

(4) Charities serve as advocates and campaigners. Although this role is quite controversial, charities do play an increasingly important role in campaigning and lobbying in order to influence both public attitudes and government policies. By so doing, they act as advocates for the most marginalized and disempowered, bringing the voice of the grassroots into the process of policy, locally, nationally and internationally.

(5) Charities serve as the Big Society and citizenship promoter. The Big Society is a flagship the coalition government initiated to embrace civil society and the voluntary sector. According to Cabinet Office (2012), it is about "helping people to come together to improve their own lives; It's about putting more power in people's hands – a massive transfer of power from Whitehall to local communities for the advancement of citizenship or community development." Charities are perceived to be central to this. Most are grounded in the grassroots, and are widely perceived as adept at providing community services and promoting self-help. They promote citizenship synergy developed amongst and between different agencies through the building of partnerships.

(6) Charities serve as the watchdog of the public sector. They play a key role in challenging the absolute power of the state and in promoting better performance of government and the agencies of the state. This role clearly underlines the boundary between charities and the public sector and it is especially crucial for restoring and maintaining trust in charities today. However, there have been increasing concerns in recent years, both inside and outside of the charitable sector that charities are being routinely co-opted to undertake functions and provide services traditionally provided by state bodies and local government.

All these arguments demonstrate that charities are indispensable for a healthy society. They promote the positive functioning of society, and provide benefits to both givers and recipients. In both the short and the long term charities make society better. Thus securing trust and support from the public is crucial for the charitable sector, but it is also essential for society as a whole.

3.3.5 Public Relations and the Effect on Trust in Charities

The charity-state relationship in the UK

The charity-state relationship is of great importance to charities: it can shift their work focus, change their pattern of operation, affect both long and short term strategies, and more importantly, influence the perception and trust from the public.

In the UK, Alcock (2010) illustrates that the relationship between charities and the government is constantly changing, from voluntary organizations playing a leading role in the delivery and administration of social services, to the government as the dominant providers whilst voluntary organizations adopted supplementary and complementary roles, to the present day, with the state and the voluntary sector cooperating more as partners.

First, in the nineteenth century, it was the era of voluntary organizations as the providers of services, with little competition or interference from the state. Then as public services developed in the first half of the twentieth century voluntary action remained as a complementary form, providing services where public provision was absent or under-developed, such as hospital services and social care. In the middle of the century, the "welfare state" reforms of the late 1940s introduced more comprehensive public provision, for instance through the National Health Service,

and following this voluntary action moved to a supplementary role, providing additional or specialist services, such as hospice care, or challenging state services, for instance in Citizens Advice Bureaux. And today, we have entered a new era in state and voluntary sector relations which could be characterized as one of partnership.

Alcock, 2010, p.3

There has been a remarkable change in the dynamics of the voluntary sector since 1985 (Wilson, 1989). From that point, charities in Britain, which often pride themselves on their independence from governments, have increasingly been used as agents of public policy. From the late Victorian period until the end of the 1970s there was a steady increase in the direct role played by the British state in providing for people's welfare. In the 1980s, this trend was reversed effected by a growing acceptance of "welfare pluralism" which is a view that there should be a partnership between the state and charities in providing welfare services (Wilson, 1989). Where welfare state theorists supported the growth of public sector welfare provision, Prime Minister Thatcher sought to shift welfare responsibilities from the state towards the market or the voluntary sector, which led to a change in the relationship between the state and voluntary agencies (King, 1989). Whilst this approach promoted the role of charities to share responsibility for welfare provision, it also posed a threat to their independence, as government demanded more information on how charities spent those funds. Because governments began to increasingly restrict their funding to specified policy areas, in securing state funding, charities were increasingly in danger of compromising their own core objectives.

This process continued when the New Labor government came to power in 1997. There has been a dramatically raised profile of charities since then, which is not solely due to

the charity sector's ability to deliver good services, but also their particular role in promoting citizenship and civil engagement. Prochaska (2005) noted that "New Labor were very enthusiastic towards the voluntary sector - just as the Thatcher government embraced the voluntary sector in the name of liberty and enterprise, New Labor did in the name of community renewal and contributory citizenship" (The first paragraph). New Labor viewed charities as one part of the "third way" of public policy planning (as distinguished from the state or the market), and they were lauded as vehicles for resolving the weakness and failings of the public sector. As former Prime Minister Blair (1999) stated: "history shows that the most successful societies are those that harness the energies of voluntary actions, giving the due recognition to the third sector of voluntary and community organizations" (see also in Alcock, 2010, p.5)

Under this policy environment some important measures were taken in order to build and maintain the partnership between the government and the voluntary sector. First, many new institutions were built to act as sites for policy delivery and development. For example, in 2001 the Active Community Unit replaced the Voluntary Service Unit, and received an additional £300 million per year budget to promote voluntary activity. In 2006, the Office of the Third Sector was established within Cabinet Office to co-ordinate government policies and investment for the sector. In the same year, the Charity and Third Sector Finance Unit was created in the Treasury to co-ordinate fiscal policy for the sector (Alcock, 2010).

Second, the focus of investment by government funding was changed. The Labor government preferred contract funding over grant funding for the third sector, and so, increasingly voluntary sector activity became driven by the needs and priorities of government funders. From 2000 to 2007, contract funding from the government grew from £8.4 billion to £12 billion whilst there was a concurrent decline of grant funding

from £4.6 to £4.2 billion (Alcock, 2010). NCVO reported that earned income (by contract) accounted for more than 50% of charities' total income in 2008 for the first time (Davies, 2009).

Third, the Compact, both at the national level and at the local level, was established to support the partnership between the government and the voluntary sector. In 1998, the Labor government established the National Compact in England as a national framework for government and sector partnership, and initiated many programs for the sector's capacity building and investment, such as FutureBuilders, CommunityBuilders and ChangeUp. Subsequently, a similar Compact was implemented in Scotland, Northern Ireland and Wales, at both national and local levels. Later, the Compact Commission and Compact Voice were established to supervise the implementation of the Compact and promote good practice within and through it (Alcock, 2010).

These policies introduced by the Thatcher government and New Labor governments, however, were not without controversy. It is undeniable that the "partnership" facilitated increased access to government financial resources by the bigger and stronger charities. It is equally clear that those developments have come at the price of diminished independence. All this necessarily links with funding issues where the inequality of the relationship originates. As one former charity official explained, "no one is rude to his rich uncle" (Prochaska, 2005). Prochaska asserted that, "New Labor has further increased the regulation of charities and the reliance of the charitable sector upon the state for funding. This has further undermined the independence of the charitable sector, an independence which is the very essence of charity… To an historian, this reflects the shift towards an ever-greater centralization of state power in Britain since the war" (the second paragraph).

When the Coalition government came to power in 2010, the independence of charities was emphasized at the same time as the government was preparing to initiate deep financial cuts. The Coalition government introduced The Big Society agenda, with the stated intention of shifting power away from the center, and empowering strong and independent civil society organizations. The Compact was also renewed in 2010 with again, the stated intention of renewing a healthy and productive relationship between government and the voluntary sector. In 2012, The Office of the Third Sector was renamed The Office for Civil Society, and this body undertook to make it easier for civil society organizations to develop and to lever more resources into the sector to underpin its resilience and independence (Independence panel, 2012). All of these measures reflected the coalition government's expressed intention to support and promote the voluntary and charity sectors, especially in terms of independence.

However, the effects of these policies have caused concern in some quarters – the Independence Panel warned that the Government has seriously undermined the independence of the charity sector (Mair, 2013). Subsequently, the Transparency of Lobbying, Non-party Campaigning, and Trade Union Administration Act 2014 limited the amount charities can spend on campaigning in the lead-up to a general election (Weakley, 2014b). Recent research reveals that charities and other voluntary groups, especially those under contract to government, are facing threats to remain silent about their experiences (Aiken, 2015). This creates an atmosphere in which it is difficult for charities to speak out in case they lose their funding or face other sanctions after being accused of conducting an "overtly political" campaign (Moseley, 2014).

Whatever the Coalition's *expressed* intention to support the voluntary sector, their huge cuts in funding for the sector, their attempts to silence charitable organizations with restrictions of advocating and campaigning, combined with the increased demand for

charity services as the public sector is stripped away, have instead placed the charitable sector under enormous pressures. This is an important contributor to the serious crisis that many charities claim they are facing even after the Conservative government came to power in May 2015.

The relationship between charities and the commercial sector

The relationship between charities and the commercial sector is another aspect important to charities and public trust towards them. Charities began to increasingly consider the advantages of securing potential donors from the commercial sector during the changes in the funding environment in the 1980s, as previously outlined. With increasing competition for funds within the sector over the past decade, for some, commercial sector funding has become an increasingly attractive option. For their part, many commercial organizations are willing to support charities due to the perceived benefits of actively displaying social responsibility, and because tax relief renders this a cost-effective activity.

In order to secure enough funds, charities have learned to adopt a more professional standard of management, to reorganize into what are considered to be more efficient structures, and adopt a more project-oriented or matrix organizational structure. They have also extended their commercial activities, such as advertising, and employing paid staff, Executive Officers and Directors.

Corporate culture has had a strong influence on charitable organizations. Firstly, charities pay more attention to displaying their competence and professionalism in management and operation; secondly, they deploy skills associated with the commercial sector, such as decentralization, strategic decision making, advertising and marketing

techniques to raise funds; thirdly, they adopt a different stance towards their peer charities, becoming more competitive; fourthly, they increasingly resort to inducing payment (fees and charges) as a funding source, which for some, has turned organizational strategy and philosophy about face (Wilson, 1989).

The growth of the charitable sector/commercial sector interface has caused concern for some members of charities and also the public. One reason is that it may compromise the organizational independence of charities in order to obtain financial support from the commercial sector. Moreover, Wilson (1989) argues that the real danger is that if the changes in structure, culture and strategy in voluntary organizations persist, they may become irreversible. Additionally, a greater reliance on fees and charges means that charities' "clients" are more likely to be people with an ability to pay than those most in need. In this respect, the actuality, if not the spirit, of altruism is changing. Furthermore, the increasing competition between sister charities, in which smaller charities are squeezed out by their larger counterparts, results in fundamental changes to service provision, because those services most favored by donors are the ones most likely to persist.

Effect of public relations on trust in the charitable sector

In many ways the past two decades have seen charities grow and gain the trust and support from the state and the commercial sector. They have achieved this partly because of their proximity to the grassroots, their willingness to innovate, and their ability to reach those marginalized communities failed by both governmental action and the free market. They have also achieved it by meeting established requirements relating to probity and managerial effectiveness. Charitable organizations are seen as efficient and cost-effective. They have avoided the media and government criticism so often

aimed at the supposed inefficiency and waste of public services. Indeed, they have often been held up as an ideal model of virtue in order to support ideological attacks on the public sector. There is little doubt that despite some criticism of the sector in media circles, charities continue to maintain the overwhelming support of the political establishment and continue to be regarded as some-time partners of the commercial sector.

However, charities should not be mere supplements to the welfare state, filling in gaps in service provision left by the state machine; nor are they completely divorced from the commercial sector. Their relations with both of these sectors are very complex as "a 'true' voluntary sector ... must be more than simply additions to and extensions of private or public activities" (Wilson, 1989, p. 79).

Being a close partner of governments is problematic. Firstly, the public traditionally distrust charities perceived to be over-reliant on government. This blurs the boundary of the sectors and runs contra to the premise that the charitable sector should be independent (Gaskin, 1999). Additionally, public sector workers and trade unionists can lose faith in charities if they perceive them to be undercutting their own job security by replacing state services with cheaper and less effective services they thought.

Second, a too close relationship with the state has created divisions in the charitable sector. It is partly a result of the way in which central government departments and local authorities choose potential contractors from charities. Deakin (2005) argues that insider and outsider organizations are produced by the funding relationship in which the government habitually favors bigger or national organizations over local or smaller organizations. This situation may produce a perpetual disadvantage for small charities in competing with larger ones. Meanwhile, it promotes fiercer competition between charities. It is clear that some national charities have entered bids to win contracts that

previously they would have eschewed in order to secure an increasing share of a diminishing pie. The Women's Aid Federation England claims that one of the by-products or side-effects of a system of competitive tendering can be "distrust and conflict between previously cooperative organizations which poses a threat to effective partnership working to meet the needs of survivors and their children" (Davies, 2009, p.23).

Third, putting too much emphasis on building a closer relationship with governments could make organizations neglect their traditional constituency: the general public. When compared to the United States, the giving statistics in the UK show an underdeveloped potential of public donations. It is argued that if charities are to maintain a healthy independence, the proportion of their total income from the public should be much more than that from the government, which is vividly presented by the US giving style that individual giving is the largest part of the total giving in the USA accounting for 74.8% on average from 2004 to 2011 (Giving USA Foundation, 2005-2012).

An overly close relationship with the commercial sector can also threaten public trust. Although ironically such partnerships do not bring a large amount of financial support from commercial organizations for charities in the UK (the contributions of the commercial sector only account for around 5% of the total giving every year since 2010), it clearly leads to the increasing commercialization of charities. Some charities pay sizeable executive salaries, they charge fees for services, and adopt commercial marketing techniques. This has contributed to changing the traditional image of charities and has attracted unwelcome public attention. People can lose faith in charities if they perceive of them as having been manipulated by companies for profit or tax relief; they can be irritated by intrusive and aggressive advertisements and fund-raising

activities; and increasingly, they are expected to pay a contribution for charitable services that previously were free - to some, these developments dilute and diminish the concept of "charity". It may decrease the public's propensity to donate.

Therefore, maintaining a harmonious and balanced relationship with the government and the commercial sector is indispensable for securing public trust in charities. There is some evidence for the negative influence of unhealthy or unbalanced relations between charities and the public/business sector organizations on public trust. According to a survey undertaken by Noble and Wixley (2014), people most mistrusting charities are those who think that charities tend to get most of their money from Government/business (55% give charities a low trust rating) and those who think charities are more political (47%).

To summarize, as discussed in the beginning of this section, the charitable sector in the UK are facing decreasing sources from the public sector and continuing limited contribution from the business sector. Meanwhile, there is a huge potential of public donations has not been fully developed. As noted previously, greater public trust would help the charitable sector to attract more donations in terms of both money and labor from the general public. Thus, securing public trust is essential for the continued strength of the charitable sector. The method to achieve it needs to be carefully examined based on a thorough comprehension of public trust in the charitable sector.

3.4 Public Trust in Charities in the UK

3.4.1 The Importance of Public Trust in Charities

Previous studies have discussed the fundamental importance of trust in social relationships and social systems. Luhmann (1979) suggests that trust can help to reduce

complexity in social systems; Hirsch (1978) points out that trust is a public good, necessary for the success of many economic transactions; Heimer (1976) argues that trust enables actors to cope with the uncertainty and vulnerability existing in social relationships; Bok (1978) regards trust as a social good, without which society will falter and collapse. For charities particularly, trust also plays essential roles in their existence, prosperity, sustainability, and survival. This underlines the value of understanding trust in charities.

Origin

Public trust, which offers the ground and legitimacy for charitable organizations, plays an important role in economic and social theories explaining the existence of the third sector (Anheier and Ben-Ner, 2003; Anheier, 2005). The failure of the public and private sectors to meet all social needs creates the necessity for charities. This forms the foundation of their existence. Whilst society needs charities, they, in turn, rely on society for their growth. Thus, public trust from society is the life blood for charities to maintain long-term support and provides charities with a crucial base from which to establish and grow.

Additionally, there is an intrinsic belief (or blind trust) amongst the public that charities will meet public need, provide a public good and will spend money wisely and effectively. It is because the non-distribution constraint of charitable organizations serves as a signal of trustworthiness when the public faces an information disadvantage or asymmetry (Hansmann, 1987). This high inherent trust provides charities with a higher moral tone than the private or public sectors (Sargeant and Lee, 2004a). Although in recent years there has been evidence of declining levels of trust (nfpSynergy, 2011), charities continue to be highly trusted by the public in comparison with other social entities, such as the government.

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Prosperity and Sustainability

Public trust guarantees the sustainable development of charities. Sargeant and Lee (2004a) illustrate that higher degrees of trust in a charity are associated with a greater willingness to (1) become a donor and (2) give greater sums. Higher levels of trust also improve the possibility that a relationship will be entered into. This may contribute to a long-term partnership and readily available sources of volunteers.

Furthermore, where a relationship already exists, levels of commitment will be generated by virtue of the presence of trust. In such relationships, trust is particularly important where intangible services are provided that lack objective criteria to assess performance of a relationship, as is often the case with charitable activities (Sargeant and Lee, 2004a).

Additionally, trust plays an essential role in the image of an organization. Bendapudi et al (1996) claim that a high level of public trust is helpful for a charity to maintain a good social image, which is greatly beneficial both in their fundraising and in their day to day activities.

Survival

Public trust is helpful for charities to see them through hard times. Economic recession, reductions in government funding and financial scandals are serious tests for charities. However, since trust can enhance the commitment of donors and volunteers, and reinforce faith and belief in charities, it assists those charities with a high level of public trust to maintain their support during difficult times.

For example, Cancer Research UK is one of the most well-known of British charities. According to a recent Charity Commission report (2012), Cancer Research UK ranked the highest when the public were asked "which charity do you trust most?". Not surprisingly, Cancer Research UK is favored by both the public and governments when choosing charities to support. During the economic downturn, it continues to attract the highest proportions of donors (NCVO and CAF, 2012), which highlights the value of public trust.

Social Impact

High levels of public trust in charities could contribute to a better society. As a form of social capital, public trust is crucial for a healthy society. According to Putnam's (1993) social capital theory, trust is closely related to "civic virtue" and "better society". A higher level of trust in the voluntary sector facilitates more active engagement in civic and community activities.

In addition, as previously argued, charities perform many essential social functions, such as providing public services, protecting disadvantaged groups, the environment and animal welfare, and promoting strong communities. These functions are indispensable for building a better society and public trust underpins those activities. Without public trust, charities could lose legitimacy, and this would reduce or narrow the spaces in which they operate. In such circumstances, the needs of the most vulnerable people and groups in society would simply not be met. The Government would also lose a useful ally that provides a cost-effective means of alleviating social ills, and therefore social pressures.

Moreover, public trust in charities strengthens broader social trust. Coleman (1990) regards the third sector as a vital form for experiencing trust-driven relationships outside the family bonds. Moreover, trust can spread, and successful experience of trust can greatly extend the area of trust, and build broader societal trust. Beem (1999) argued that "trust between individuals thus becomes trust between strangers and trust of a broad fabric of social institutions; ultimately, it becomes a shared set of values, virtues, and expectations within society as a whole" (p.20). Empirical evidence suggests that wider social trust or social capital can positively impact on economic growth, election turnout, government effectiveness, labor market participation, educational achievement, crime rates, public health and life satisfaction (Jochum, 2003).

Conversely, a reduction in the public trust in certain charities may seriously erode broader societal trust. For example, The Cup Trust in the United Kingdom was exposed that it raised £176.5m in private donations over two years but spent only £55,000 on good causes. Despite giving merely 8p to unnamed good causes out of every £100 raised, the Cup Trust has asked HM Revenue and Customs for £46million in Gift Aid which will be paid by the tax payer (Charity Watch UK, 2013). According to William Shawcross, the chair of the Charity Commission, the Cup Trust tax-avoidance scandal has brought a fatal blow for the whole voluntary sector as it affected public trust and confidence in charities (Ricketts, 2013). A survey by nfpSynergy (2014) shows a fall of the public trust in charities compared with other institutions, and it is suggested to be partly resulted from the series of charity scandals including the Cup Trust tax-avoidance scandal, Comic Relief's investment in arms, alcohol and tobacco in 2013, the former head of Oxfam who was imprisoned for defrauding the charity of almost £65,000 in 2014, and £3m donations lost by Greenpeace International through speculation on currency markets in the same year (Niven, 2014).

3.4.2 The Overall Level and Features of Trust

There is a widespread belief that there has been a decline in the levels of trust in society, and it is clear that the public is increasingly reluctant to place trust in large institutions and distant organizations, whatever the sector (Gaskin, 1999). Hall (1999) confirms that generalized social trust has declined. That has been reflected in the voluntary sector. According to the research conducted by nfpsynergy (2014), results of the single-item measurement show that the percentage of people who have "a great deal" and "quite a lot" of trust in charities fluctuated wildly from 2003 to 2014, with a dramatic rise from 2007 to 2008, and followed by significant falls both from 2010 to 2011, and from 2013 to 2014 (see Figure 3.10).
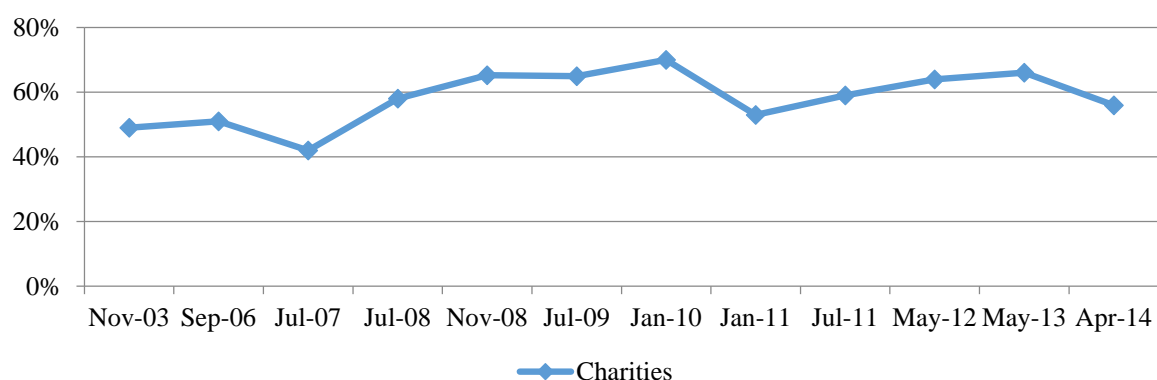
Figure 3.10 Percentage of People who have "A Great Deal" and "Quite a Lot" of Trust in Charities in Britain (2003-2014)

Source: nfpsynergy, 2014

However, according to the Charity Commission (2014), the trend of public trust in charities was stable from 2005 to 2014 (see Figure 3.11). The public in England and Wales bestowed an average 6.7 out of 10 when asked how much trust and confidence they had in charities in 2014, which was mostly in line with levels of trust in previous

years with an average score of 6.7 in 2012, 6.6 in 2010 and 2008, and 6.3 in 2005. It shows the average level of trust in charities gradually increased from 2005 to 2014.
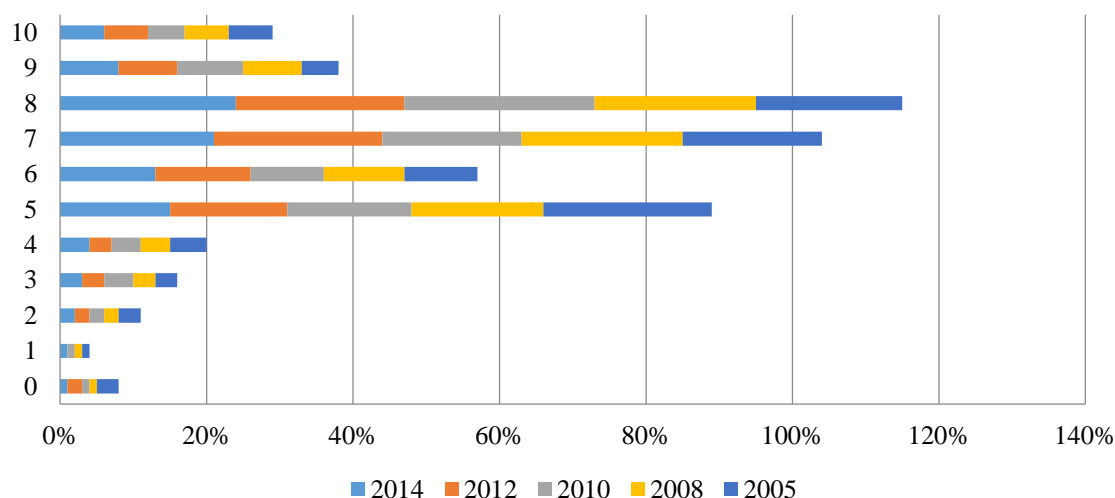
Figure 3.11 Levels of Public Trust in Charities in England and Wales (2005-2014)

Source: Charity Commission, 2014

The single year result of the survey undertaken by NPC (New Philanthropy Capital) follows a similar trend of public trust in charities to that revealed by the Charity Commission (see Figure 3.12). It shows a large proportion of respondents rating a high level of trust in charities with scores above 5. People who rate at the score of 7 account for the largest proportion, which is slightly lower than the findings of the Charity Commission, which peak at the score of 8. Both measurements suggest that relatively few people completely trust or distrust charities. Most people register a rating of between 5 and 8. This reveals a high general level of trust in charities, but also that the public retains some degree of skepticism regarding their activities.
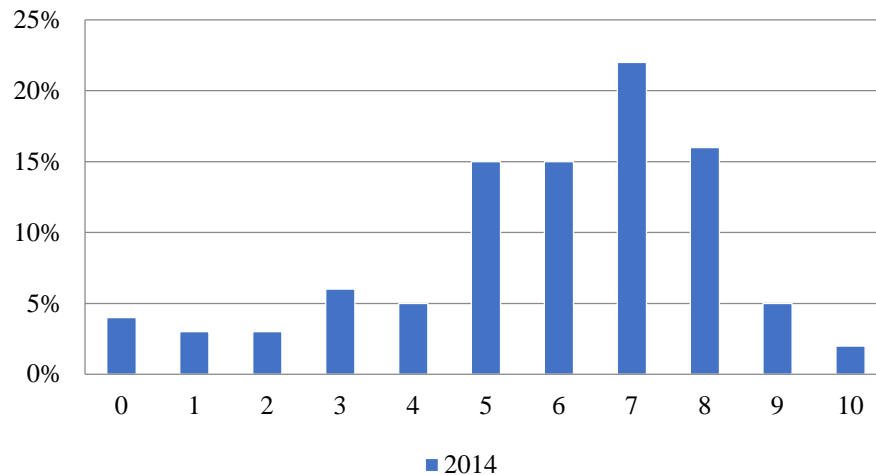
Figure 3.12 Levels of Public Trust in Charities in Great Britain (2014)

Source: NPC (New Philanthropy Capital), 2014

Beyond the overall level, there are some main features of trust in charities in the 2010s:

First, the level of trust in charities remains comparatively high among public bodies and institutions. A survey of a representative sample of 1,150 UK adults by the Charity Commission (2010) rated charities as "the third most trusted social group, just behind doctors and the police, and ahead of social services, local authorities, and private companies" (p.4). Further, the nfpSynergy (2014) study of 1,000 UK adults found that public trust in charities was greater than for-profit companies, government, the Royal Family, and politicians (although lower than trust for the armed forces and the National Health Service).

Second, trust in charities is volatile. The nfpSynergy (2011) suggests that unlike some institutions such as the Armed Forces of which the level of trust is consistently high, whilst others such as politicians are consistently low - trust levels in charities fluctuate, sometimes considerably. There has been a range of over 20 percentage points of fluctuation over recent years (nfpSynergy, 2012).

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Third, people are more likely to trust charities. As cited above, based on the surveys by the Charity Commission and the NPC, a majority of people rate their trust in charities between 5 and 8 (the larger the number, the higher the trust). It reveals a high general level of trust in charities. However, the public do retain an element of skepticism with around 20% of them registering a score of 4 and below, while only around 5% indicating that they completely trusted charities by registering a score of 10.

3.4.3 Attributes of Trust or Lack of Trust

By interrogating relevant literature by Gaskin (1999), Sargeant and Lee (2002), Charity Commission (2012), and nfpSynergy (2011), it has been possible to draw together the key attributes reflecting and driving the public trust or distrust charities, particularly that in the UK. It helps to identify factors and elements of public trust in charities.

With respect to the specific traits of charities, the public trust engendered was primarily linked to: (1) Good reputation; (2) Being well-known; (3) Being long-established; (4) Having large brands; (5) The work undertaken is essential for society; (6) Following high standards in fundraising; (7) Conducting operations ethically; (8) Using fundraising techniques that are appropriate and sensitive; (9) Attaining a broad public awareness by advertisement or other means; (10) Being supported by a celebrity; (11) Involving a partnership with a well-known company; (12) Good cooperation with the government.

Additionally, the research presents that there are eleven key elements of trustworthiness of charities perceived by the public:

(1) Making a positive difference to the cause they are working for;

(2) Ensuring that their fundraisers are honest and ethical;

(3) Being well managed;

(4) Having a good image and reputation;

(5) Being open and transparent;

(6) Ensuring that a reasonable proportion of donations are expended on the intended cause;

(7) Good quality of service;

(8) Affinity between the public and beneficiaries;

(9) Making independent decisions to further the cause they work for;

(10) The public identifying with charities;

(11) Charities' competence and quality of service.

Referring to the conceptual model proposed in section 3.2.4, these assertions confirm the importance of components of trust in charities such as "competence", "integrity", and "benevolence", and, more importantly, they identify "similarity" by pointing out "the public identifying with charities".

Conversely, according to these studies, the typical features of untrustworthy charities are: (1) lack of transparency regarding how charities spend their money; (2) having negative stories; (3) publishing limited information; (4) using intrusive fundraising techniques; (5) donations are misused by charities and do not meet their stated aim; (6) asking for inappropriate sums; (7) not efficient enough; (8) the "blurring" of the charity sector's identity and boundaries is increasing, and there is great dependence on the government; (9) being manipulated by commercial organizations for profit. The sharp decline in public trust experienced since 2010 (nfpSynergy, 2011) is in all probability, could be explained by the accumulative effect of some or all of the immediately above factors.

With the increasing popularity and the pervasive nature of contemporary media and social media, the public are becoming more strident in airing their views. They demand the transparency of charities, they demand accountability and remedy for transgressions; they call for clearer boundaries between charities, the commercial sector and the state. The social media that offer the public greater opportunities to engage with and support the charitable sector also provide instantaneous conduits through which criticism and disillusion can rapidly be spread and trust can be lost. It suggests charity practitioners to make more efforts to understand how the public perceive their work, based on which to secure public trust and support.

3.5 Discussion

This chapter has provided a detailed examination of the current body of the knowledge related to another key concept of the study: charity. It has illustrated the definition and importance of charities; it has considered the significance of public trust for charities; it has also provided insights into the political, economic and social environment for charities in the UK and the levels of public trust therein. The importance of this study and limitations of previous studies are highlighted below.

3.5.1 The Importance of this Study

One intention of the literature review in this chapter is to underline the significance of this study. As previously discussed, the charitable sector is facing great pressure being affected by the political, economic and social environment of the UK. There are reductions in charitable donations and government funding, whilst an increase in demand for charitable services. This leads to the decreasing relative amount of charities since 2010 as many were unable to survive the pressure.

How to change the picture? The key lies in obtaining sufficient resources, especially financially. Regarding sources of income for charities, contracts, grants, donations, bequests and investment are typical. Among them, government funding including contracts and grants is not always a favorable choice. As noted previously, in cooperation with the government, charities are likely to be placed in a subordinate position. In many situations, charities have to obtain state funding at the price of damaging independence and autonomy to engage in critical dialogue or pronouncement, which is the very essence of charity. Again, government funding has led to some fragmentation of the charitable sector because of the increasing, sometimes fierce competition among charities. Beyond working with/for the government, greater support from or cooperation with commercial organizations has the potential to generate similar negative consequences.

A preferable solution to the funding dilemma is to secure greater levels of support from the general public. The public is also the source of the volunteers who are essential for the prosperity of the charitable sector. Moreover, it is argued that if charities are to maintain a healthy independence, they should focus on the public rather than the government. History tells that in the relationship between the government and charities, no matter what the policies are, no matter what the expressed intentions of the government are, most charities, particularly those under contract with the government, actually regard the government as the dominant player in a patron/client relationship, rather than as a equal partner, and fear any activity that might annoy the government and thereby potentially jeopardize future funding. Similarly, if charities maintain too close relation with the commercial sector, this would lead to criticism of charities being manipulated and moving too far away from their core values.

Too high a dependence on state support also leaves the sector's well being overly dependent on the political perspective of the government of the day, which, whilst it has been generally supportive over the past several decades, across the political spectrum that may not always be the case, as funding cuts under the coalition government's austerity measures suggest.

As has been shown, public support, especially financially, is underdeveloped in the UK when comparing to other counterparts, such as the charitable sector in the US. Commentators have pointed to a range of contributory factors (as outlined in section 3.3.2). However, those explanations tend to overlook the key premise of giving: trust. Studies evidence the fact that higher degrees of trust in a charity are significantly associated with a greater willingness to become a donor and give greater sums; trust also enhances commitment and facilitates lasting relationships and long-term partnerships, which is helpful for encouraging people to become involved in charity work. Trust is so important that it serves as a guarantee for the prosperity, sustainability, growth, and indeed, the very existence of charities. Although the charitable sector is highly trusted in the UK, indeed, behind only doctors and the police in that regard, the proportion of people that greatly trust charities fluctuates dramatically, with more than half of the UK public doubting the trustworthiness of charities to some extent (nfpsynergy, 2014; Charity Commission, 2014).

Therefore, to promote public enthusiasm in supporting the charitable sector, it is necessary to understand how to inspire their trust in charities. One means to this end is through the measurement of public trust in charities, which can reveal the overall level of trust (i.e. Charity Commission, 2014). However, merely having a knowledge of the overall level is not sufficient for a thorough understanding of trust. For example, it would be of great value to charities to ascertain and comprehend how people trust or

distrust them, which factors contribute greatest to public trust in them, and by what means they can raise public trust. Hitherto, there is lack of robust measurement.

3.5.2 Gaps in Previous Research

The chapter concludes with the deficits in previous studies on measuring public trust in charities that highlight the necessity of this study.

First, while the empirical studies on public trust in charities in the UK provide some insight into overall rates of public trust in charities, this insight is limited by the treatment of trust as a crude, unidimensional construct. For example, the overall level of trust in charities which was evaluated by nfpSynergy, Charity Commission, and NPC (New Philanthropy Capital) was simply based on a general question asking respondents to rate their trust and confidence in charities overall. However, researchers, such as Putnam (1993; 2000), Metlay (1999), Mayer (1995; 1999; 2005), Uslaner (1999; 2008), and Woolcock (2001), have argued that trust is a complex, multidimensional concept that incorporates values, risk, and expectations. Consequently, a single-item measure of trust fails to capture the many components of this construct, limiting the ability of the sector to be responsive to trends in trust and charitable activity. Therefore, there is an immediate need for a measure of trust in charities that accommodates all aspects of this construct.

Second, as discussed in Chapter 2, previous methodologies for measuring trust in organizations have proved insufficiently integrative to take every party in a trusting relationship into consideration. They either focus on the traits of trustees, in other words the trustworthiness of organizations, or characteristics of trusters – their willingness to

be vulnerable. Therefore, a more comprehensive measure is required to assess public trust in organizations especially charities.

Third, although many studies have explored the factors that might be able to explain trust in charities, they have not considered the extent of the contributions made by each factor. An interrogation of each factor's contribution to levels of trust will be helpful for uncovering the extent of the importance and urgency of various measures that should be put in place to foster greater levels of trust in charities.

This study will endeavor to fill these gaps in our knowledge. First of all, on the basis of the solid theoretical background, the locus of this thesis is that public trust in charities, which has a multidimensional construct, can better be measured through a comprehensive instrument, such as a scale, which combines findings on the overall level of public trust with the components constituting it. The scale will also be utilized to shed light upon the extent of the contribution of each component to explaining trust.

In addition, the study will consider both the traits of trustees and those of trusters in the development of the new measurement for assessing trust. It stresses that public trust in charities is manifested in the public's willingness to be vulnerable, the extent of value similarity with the sector, and the perceived potential for charities to represent public interests through their ability, benevolence, and integrity. It will fill the gap in previous research that simply focuses on the performance of the organization *per se* or traits of trusters only. Methods of maintaining or raising the level of public trust in charities will also be considered from the perspectives of both charities – as the trustee-and the public – as the truster.

CHAPTER 4: METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

The research methodology has been carefully constructed to achieve a major goal of this study: to develop a scale capable of measuring public trust in charities. The purpose of this chapter is to outline and justify the research methodology to address five issues: (1) the strategy and detailed process of scale development; (2) sample frame and sampling methods; (3) methods of data collection; (4) the strategy of data analysis; and (5) issues regarding research ethics.

This chapter introduces the process of the study. First, following a review of relevant literature, two focus group interviews are conducted in order to validate the key dimensions of trust identified in the literature and to further diagnose other aspects reflecting public trust in charities. Second, with the help of expert analysis, a set of items for measuring public trust in charities were generated. Third, a study is conducted through questionnaire surveys to apply the scale constituted by these items to samples in order to examine and establish reliability and validity of this scale. Finally, this scale is applied to a weighted sample to interrogate possible utilizations.

A convenience sample is recruited from usual residents who are 16 years of age and above, and have lived in the UK for at least one year. It comprises of participants for the focus group interview, and cases for scale refinement and scale validation. The sample for scale development is obtained through a web-based survey and two waves of face-to-face survey in a university. The data collection has received ethical approval from the university's Ethics Committee.

4.2 Research Philosophy

This section presents the philosophical foundation of the study. As Trigg (2001) notes that a proper philosophical base is the premise of a successful study in social science. The exploration of philosophy can be helpful when considering a methodology to achieve satisfactory outcomes (Easterby-Smith et al., 2002).

To specify, research philosophy aims to "(1) guide professionals in a discipline to the important problems and issues confronting the discipline; (2) devise an exploratory scheme to place these issues in a framework for practitioners; (3) establish the criteria for the appropriate tools to solve these problems and to provide an epistemology, a way of knowing, that can underpin the work of the discipline" (Filstead, 1979, p. 34).

There are five widely accepted paradigms including positivism, post-positivism, critical theory, constructivism and phenomonenology (Guba and Lincoln, 1994; Howell, 2012). Different paradigms are suitable for studies for different purposes. The ontology of the former four paradigms is, respectively, naïve realism, critical realism, historical realism, and relative realism (Howell, 2012).

This research acknowledges that public trust towards charitable organizations does exist as a reality, but is "only imperfectly apprehendable because of the flawed human intellectual mechanisms and the fundamentally intractable nature of the phenomenon" (Guba and Lincoln, 1994, p.110). In other words, the "reality" of trust has constructs and mechanisms that we as scientists cannot discover directly. However, it is possible to explain observable aspects of this phenomenon, which manifest the underlying mechanisms.

Following the principles of critical realism, this study adopts mixed methods to understand trust as a reality by exploring the observable aspects of it. On the one hand,

trust as a "real" reality is measurable through quantitative methods; on the other hand, as trust is subjected to individuals' comprehension, qualitative techniques, such as focus group interviews, are adopted to further the understanding of this phenomenon.

The sections below explicitly demonstrate how the mixed methods are utilized in the study.

4.3 Research Design

4. 3.1 Scale Development Strategy

The strategy of scale development in this study mainly followed approaches proposed by Churchill (1979) and DeVellis (2012). Figure 4.1 provides a flow chart of the scale development procedure to be employed in this research. Subsequent sections introduce scale development procedures in detail.

Initial Scale development	Scale Refinement	Scale Validation
Step 1: Conceptualization of Constructs **Step 2**: Item Generation • Literature Review • Focus group Interviews • Expert Reviews **Step 3**: Scale Design • Form of the Scale • Number of Items • Variation of Scores	**Step 4**: Administer the scale to a development sample (**First Sample**, n=490) **Step 5**: Item Analysis **Step 6**: Exploratory Factor Analysis **Step 7**: Internal Consistency Analysis	**Step8**: Administer the scale to a development sample (**Second Sample**, n=253) **Step 9**: Confirmatory Factor Analysis **Step 10**: Construct Validity Analysis **Step 11:** Criterion-related Validity Analysis

Figure 4.1 Process of Scale Development in this Study

Step 1: Conceptual model

The first step of scale development is to conceptualize the constructs and specify the domains associated with a phenomenon of theoretical interest (Churchill, 1979). It requires an understanding of the variable being measured, and specifying domains underlying the construct. Relevant theories should be taken into consideration at this stage.

In this study, a conceptual model was developed based on a review of literature relating to trust and features of charity (e.g. Rotter, 1967; Luhman, 1980; Barber, 1983; Gillepie, 2003; Rousseau et al., 1998; Tonkiss and Passey, 1997; Mayer and Davis, 1999; Metlay, 1999; Hardin, 2001; Hoffman, 2002; Schoorman et al., 2007). The detailed argument and explanation have been provided in Chapter 2 and Chapter 3: literature review. In this conceptual model, public trust in charities is defined as a phenomenon comprising the willingness of individuals to accept vulnerability in the relationship with charitable organizations, the extent that individuals believe charities to have integrity, be benevolent, and competent to fulfill their commitments, and to hold shared values.

From this definition it is clear that dimensions of public trust in charities include: (1) the public's willingness to accept vulnerability, (2) expectations of charities' benevolence, (3) expectations of charities' integrity, (4) expectations of charities' competence, and (5) value similarity. The measure of trust should cover these five dimensions, and items of the scale should also reflect them.

Step 2: Item Generation

This step aims to generate a comprehensive list of scale items (an item pool) that capture the potential domains of trust in charities. A sound item pool should avoid

ambiguous, multiple negative, double-barreled items, as well as items with exceptional length, inappropriate reading difficulty level and ambiguous pronoun references (DeVellis, 2012).

There were two basic approaches to item generation. According to Hunt (1991), the first is deductive, also called as "logical partitioning" or "classification from above", which utilizes a classification schema or typology prior to data collection by developing the theoretical definition of the construct under examination; the second method is inductive, known also as "grouping" or "classification from below", which often involves "little theory at the outset as one attempts to identify constructs and generate measures from individual responses...by asking a sample of respondents to provide descriptions of their feelings or to describe some aspect of behavior" (Hinkin, 1995, p. 969).

This study uses both of these methods. The item pool is created for illustrating constructs both by identifying items from the existing relevant studies and by creating additional items that appeared to fit the construct definitions, in other words, both deductively and inductively. Items are generated by three ways: literature review, focus group interview and expert analysis.

Literature review. Previous studies provide insights into the items could be used to measure public trust in charities. Thus, by reviewing literature, in particular on the topic of trust, charities, and relevant measures, potential items capable of measuring this concept are identified.

Since this study particularly looks into British people's attitudes towards charities, there has been a specific focus on literature on trust from a British perspective. Daily news about UK charities in the media was closely followed. On the basis of this literature,

items capable of defining and underlying dimensions of trust in charities in the UK were identified.

Focus group interview. It is not sufficient solely to generate initial items of measuring trust in UK charities from existing literature, because literature sometimes cannot generalize to particular contexts or groups of people. It is important to provide additional validity by accessing public views on charity and trust in charities in the UK context. Thus the study combined "top down" and "bottom up" methods, which means it investigated the public themselves and summarized relevant literature, rather than generating items just relying on literature reviews as what most existing research has done. In order to know exactly how British people perceive charity and trust in charities and ensure that citizen opinions are adequately presented, two focus group interviews were conducted.

The samples were recruited from university students and staff who are British citizens by university email. These two focus group interviews were undertaken face to face in the university. They were guided in the form of group discussion to explore participants' perspectives on charities and the role of public trust therein, and to validate the key dimensions of the construct identified in the literature. Interview data was analyzed using thematic analysis, through which interviews were reviewed to identify the key themes and illustrative quotes from the data. The principle goal at this point was to search for potential items which could present accurately each domain of trust in charities.

Expert review. It is sensible to invite a group of people who are knowledgeable in the content area to review the item pool. Experts review can help to confirm or validate the definition of the phenomenon it is intended to measure. Reviewers can also evaluate the

items' clarity and conciseness, and provide suggestions on any aspect of the construct that the item pool may have failed to consider (DeVellis, 2012).

Expert review was undertaken based on an initial item pool generated through literature review and the focus group interview. It was employed to examine face validity and content validity of the items. Face validity is the degree to which the measure was appeared to cover the range of meanings within the concept (Babbie, 1992). Content validity refers to what the scale actually measures. Face validity and content validity concern the extent to which the scale measures all components or domains of a phenomenon (DeVellis, 2012). According to Schriesheim et al. (1993), they are viewed as "the minimum psychometric requirement for measurement adequacy" and the first step in constructing the validation of a new measure (cited in Hinkin, 1995, p. 969).

Face validity of items was examined by eleven respondents who were English speakers and familiar with charities in the UK in a pilot study. It aimed to identify duplicate items and potential sources of ambiguity, and to make items more specific and straightforward. Content validity was assessed by two experts who had completed considerable research in NGO study, multivariate statistics, and model selection techniques. They evaluated the clarity and accuracy of the items.

Step 3: Scale Design

There are some important issues regarding scale design. Initially, the format of the response options should be determined. This requires choosing a pattern of measurement from various forms. Public trust is a type of attitude and the most common method of attitude measurement is by self-report scales. It is developed to measure

phenomena that is believed to exist on the basis of theories but cannot be assessed directly.

There are several types of scales, and each type has a different format of items, response options, and construct. Commonly used attitude scaling techniques include Thurstone scale (Thurstone and Chave, 1929; Thurstone, 1931), Guttman scale (Guttman, 1950), Likert scale (Likert, 1932), and the semantic differential technique (Osgood, 1952; Osgood, Suci and Tannenbaum, 1957).

It is noteworthy that both Thurstone scale and Guttman scale are made up of graded items. The difference between them is that Thustone scale focuses on single affirmative response, while Guttman scale focuses on point of transition from affirmative to negative responses (DeVellis, 2012). Moreover, the assumption of equally strong causal relationships between the latent variable and each of the items would not apply to Thurstone scale and Guttman scale, which would be appropriate techniques for model based on item response theory though (Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994).

Unlike Thurstone scale and Guttman scale, Likert scale consists of items that are more or less equivalent or parallel "detectors" of the phenomenon of interest. It is a method where attitudes are measured by rating objects on the basis of a numbered evaluative response scale (Likert, 1932). Each item in Likert scale is "presented as a declarative sentence, followed by response options that indicated varying degrees of agreement with or endorsement of the statement" (DeVellis, 2012, p. 93)

This study aims to develop a scale capable of measuring public trust in charitable organizations. Items of the scale are different aspects reflecting and consisting of this concept. They are supposed to be equivalent, and relationships between the latent variable and each of the items are supposed to be equally strong. Therefore, Thurstone scale and Guttman scale are not appropriate. Additionally, each item is presented as a

declarative sentence, rather than a pair of opposite adjectives, followed by response options that indicated varying degrees of agreement. Consequently, semantic differential technique was not suitable.

Second, regarding scale design, "it is important that the scale used should generate sufficient variance among respondents for subsequent statistical analysis", and scale with higher numbers of response options work better (Hinkin, 1995, p. 972). In this study, items were listed in a 5-point Likert scale with which scores were 1 (strongly disagree), 2 (disagree), 3 (not disagree or agree), 4 (agree), and 5 (strongly agree).

The next issue concerns the use of negatively worded (reverse-scored) items. It has been employed to minimize extreme response bias and acquiescent bias (Idaszak and Drasgow, 1987). Negatively scored items were applied to this scale according to the necessity to define the phenomenon which was measured.

The last issue needs to concern is the number of items in a measure, which could affect content and construct validity, and internal consistency (Cronbach and Meehl, 1955). Scale length could affect responses as well (Roznowski, 1989). Shorter scales minimize the likelihood of response biases resulting from, for example, practice effect that respondents may get better at the answering as they go along, or failure to complete the entire set of items due to the length of the scale (DeVellis, 2012; Schmitt, et al., 1985), while scales with too few items may lack validity and reliability (Nunnally, 1978).

By the end of this step, a preliminary Likert scale consisting of items identified from literature review, focus group interview, and expert analysis was developed.

Step 4: Administer the Scale to a Development Sample

The sample was collected for scale refinement. The purposes of scale refinement are to: (1) identify and eliminate items that fail to explain the dependent variable through item analysis and exploratory factor analysis; (2) determine principle components of public trust in charities; and (3) provide an initial assessment of scale reliability through internal consistency analysis.

Sample size should be appropriate for conducting tests of statistical significance. Nunnally (1978) suggests that sample of 300 respondents is adequate for scale development. Generally speaking, the larger the sample the better if powerful statistical tests and confidence in the results are expected (Stone, 1978). Suggestions for item-to-response ratios range from 1:5 to 1: 10 up to about 300 subjects in total for each set of scales to be factor analyzed (Kline, 1994; Tinsley and Tinsley, 1987). Specifically, for exploratory factor analysis, a sample size of 150 observations should be sufficient to obtain an accurate solution (Guadagnoli and Velicer, 1988).

In this study, a questionnaire survey was conducted to obtain data for item analysis and exploratory factor analysis. The sample frame of this survey was usual residents who were no less than 16 years old and had lived in the UK for at least one year. It is supposed that this group of people has a good understanding of charities in this country. According to the theoretical framework of scale development, convenience sample can be used for scale test (McDougall and Munro, 1994). The data was collected through online surveys and face-to-face surveys in a university campus. A total sample of 490 was obtained for scale refinement.

The questionnaire contains the 5-point Likert scale consisting of items generated, as well as some variables regarding age, gender, ethnicity, the overall level of trust in

charities in the UK, the amount and the frequency of volunteering and donation to charities. All responses were collated and stored in SPSS 20.0.

Step 5: Item Analysis

After administrating the scale to a sample, item analysis is the first step for scale test. It aims to evaluate the performance of individual items so that appropriate ones can be identified to constitute a scale. There are some approaches for item analysis: (1) item-total scale correlation: it is examined to test whether there is any item not measuring the same construct measured by the other items in the scale. A correlation coefficient less than 0.2 or 0.3 indicates that the corresponding item does not correlate very well with the scale overall which may be dropped (Everitt, 2002; Field, 2005); (2) Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted: items should be dropped if their value of Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted is larger than Cronbach's Alpha of the scale.

In this study, item analysis was firstly conducted by examining item-total scale correlation analysis which was employed to ensure that internal consistency and reliability existed in the scale. Alpha if Item Deleted was also calculated for each item on the pilot scale as a measure of item-item correlation. Initial reliability of the scale was demonstrated through this step.

Step 6: Exploratory Factor Analysis

Factor analysis is the most commonly used technique for refining constructs to derive the scales (Ford, McCallum and Tait, 1986). There are two types of factor analysis: exploratory factor analysis and confirmatory factor analysis. Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) allows the elimination of obviously poorly loading items which are inadequate to

explain the covariance of the dependent variable. Principal components analysis with orthogonal rotation or oblimin rotation was the most frequently employed factoring method used to aggregate items into scales; retaining factors with Eigenvalues greater than 1 and keeping items with loading no less than 0.40 are the most widely accepted criteria for retention (Hinkin, 1995).

In this study, exploratory factor analysis (principal component analysis with Oblimin Rotation) was carried out to derive a set of correlated factors that explain the maximum amount of variation among all the scale items. Scree test, Kaiser–Guttman criterion (eigenvalues greater than 1.0), and Parallel analysis were used to decide the number of factors and associated items that should be retained (Pullant, 2005; Field, 2005).. Individual item loadings with all identified factors were also checked. Items were selected if they only load on 1 factor with a factor loading of at least 0.40. In addition, items were retained if they correlate at greater than or equal to 0.5 with at least 1 factor and do not correlate at greater than 0.3 with the other factors (Barkley and Burns, 2000; Howitt and Cramer, 2011).

Step 7: Reliability Assessment

Reliability is a necessary prerequisite for validity (Nunnally, 1978). It concerns overall consistency of a measure or the extent of a variable influencing a set of items (DeVellis, 2012). In other words, a measure which has a high reliability must produce similar results under consistent conditions. For a reliable scale, the scores it yields should represent some true traits of the variable being assessed.

The two basic concerns with respect to reliability are consistency of items within a measure and stability of the measure over time (Hinkin, 1995). Internal consistency

reliability was usually measured using Cronbach's Alpha (Price and Mueller, 1986), which aims to measure whether different items that propose to measure the same general construct produce similar scores. Alpha is the "mean of all split-half coefficients resulting from different splittings of a test" (Cronbach, 1951, p. 297). Some other alternatives, such as split-half reliability, can also be employed (Straub et al, 2004). However, Cronbach's Alpha is likely to be more representative than a single split half (Brooking, 1986).

The approach for testing measure stability is test-retest reliability analysis, which is used to assess the variation in measurements taken by a single person repeatedly on the same item and under the same conditions. However, it is "appropriate only in those situations where the attribute being measured is not expected to change over time" (Stone, 1978, cited in Hinkin, 1995, p. 978). Therefore, it is not suitable for this study, as trust is not static as supported by previous studies presented in Chapter 3.

In this study, Cronbach's alpha was calculated for total scale as a measure of internal consistency and reliability based on the data obtained. Normally, the Cronbach's alpha coefficient of a scale should be above 0.7 before applying it (Pallant, 2005). It will test the unidimensionality of the measure, with each item reflecting one, and only one, underlying construct.

Step 8: Administer the Scale to another Development Sample

Another set of sample was generated for confirmatory factor analysis, construct validity analysis, and criterion-related validity analysis. Due to potential difficulties caused by common source or common method variance, it is suggested to use multiple samples to

refine and test scales, rather than using the same sample both for scale refinement and for final reliability and validity assessment (Campbell, 1976).

The sample was also convenience sample and constituted by adult residents aged 16 years and above and had lived in the UK for a minimum of one year. The data was collected through face-to-face surveys in a university campus. The content of this questionnaire was different with the one used for scale refinement by excluding items dropped during item analysis and exploratory factor analysis.

Regarding sample size, suggestions for item-to-response ratios range from 1:5 to 1: 10 up to about 300 subjects in total for each set of scales to be factor analyzed (Kline, 1994; Tinsley and Tinsley, 1987). Specifically, for confirmatory factor analysis, it is recommended a minimum sample size of 200 (Hoelter, 1983). This study used a sample of 253 respondents for scale validation.

Step 9: Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) aims to assess the quality of the factor structure by statistically testing the fitness of the overall model and of item loadings on factors (Hair, Black, Babin and Anderson, 2010). It is best understood as an instance of the general structural equation modeling (SEM) (Hinkin, 1995).

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted for assessing the measurement model fit using Amos 20.0. x^2, normed x^2, and goodness-of-fit (GOF) statistics were examined to determine how well the model fitted the data. GOF examined included root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), standard root mean square residual (SRMR), comparative fit index (CFI), incremental fit index (IFI), and Tucker-Lewis index (TLI), and adjusted goodness of fit index (AGFI) (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007).

CFA was also used for interrogate construct validity of the model through standardized factor loadings and average variance extracted. Further, discriminant validity of the model was examined through the comparison with other models.

Step 10: Construct Validity Assessment

Construct validity concerns the relationship of the measure and the underlying attributes it is attempting to assess (Hinkin, 1995). It includes convergent validity, discriminant validity, and factorial validity (Straub, Boudreau and Gefen, 2004). Convergent validity can be established if two similar constructs correspond with one another (Hemmerdinger, Stoddart and Lilford, 2007), while discriminant validity applies to two similar constructs that are easily differentiated as they are not exactly the same (Gutierrez, 2007). Factorial validity refers to the clustering of correlations of responses by groupings of items in a scale, and it can be assessed by using factor analysis (Field, 2009).

Construct validity was examined by measuring correlates with other measures designed to measure the same thing (Churchill, 1979). The total score of the newly developed multidimensional scale was compared to the single-item measure of public trust in charities used in a previous empirical study by the Charity Commission (2012; 2014). Moreover, correlations of the new scale and items measuring willingness to accept vulnerability were investigated, as "willingness to be vulnerable" was used as an alternative term of "trust" in previous scales by Mayer and Davis (1999). Convergent validity would be evidenced if scores of these measurements were significantly or strongly correlated. Discriminant validity would be demonstrated when different measures, which are used to assess a same construct, are showed not exactly the same with their correlation coefficients not too high.

Step 11: Criterion-related Validity Assessment

Criterion-related validity is related to the relationship between a measure and another independent measure or variable (Hinkin, 1995). It includes predictive validity and concurrent validity of the instrument (Trochim, 2006). Predictive validity refers to the adequacy of an instrument in predicting scores on some future criterion (LoBiondo-Wood and Haber, 1998; Polit and Hungler, 1999); Concurrent validity, which is different with predictive validity in terms of timing particularly, assesses the degree of correlation of two measures of the same criterion measured at the same time (LoBiondo-Wood and Haber, 1998).

In the study, the existence of a relationship between the score of trust in charity and relevant variables through criterion-related validity was demonstrated. Relevant variables include the (1) public's respect towards charitable organizations, (2) public's satisfaction towards charity performance, (3) the frequency of money donations, and (4) the amount of money donations. Concurrent validity of this scale would be evidenced if scores of trust and these variables were significantly or strongly correlated (Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994). Predictive validity was not examined as the study is not longitudinal.

4. 3.2 Scale Utilization

To further examine the scale, after the scale was developed, the study discussed possible utilizations of the newly-developed scale to (1) measure and explore the level of public trust in the charitable sector; (2) predict pro-charity behaviors; (3) and determine whether it could be used to complement charity performance assessment and why. It

would uncover the level of public trust in charitable organizations in the UK, and reveal public perception on diverse components of it. It would also highlight the benefits the charitable sector could obtain from utilizations of the scale through monitoring charitable behaviors of the public, and evaluating and improving charity performance.

A weighted sample was used for measuring public trust in charities, and for predicting pro-charity behaviors. It consisted of 490 cases used for scale refinement and 253 cases used for scale validation. In other words, the sample was recycled from the one employed for scale development. In order to improve representativeness of the sample, it was weighted by age and gender of the respondents.

4.4 Sample Frame and Sampling Methods

4. 4.1 Sample Frame

The respondents for scale refinement and validation were usual residents who were 16 years of age and above, and have lived in the UK for at least one year. This study aims to develop a scale capable of measuring public trust, but "public" is a very broad term. Technically, public in the UK could be anyone living in this country. It may include British natives, immigrants from other countries, and non-immigrants from other countries, such as foreign students, travelers, and visitors. Again, charities could benefit or influence anyone in the UK, not merely beneficiaries and contributors, or natives and immigrates.

However, it is supposed that people who gain a good understanding of charities in the UK will normally be those who have lived here for some time. It is not easy to define "some time", but one year is a sound and common lower threshold according to the definition of "usual resident" by Australian Bureau of Statistics (2010): usual residence

refers to all people, regardless of nationality or citizenship, who usually live in the country, with the exception of foreign diplomatic personnel and their families; it includes usual residents who are overseas for less than 12 months; it excludes overseas visitors who are in the country for less than 12 months. The definition of usual residents is the same according to the Office for National Statistics (2012) in the UK, which further specifies that armed forces stationed within an area are included in the population of that area, but visitors and short-term migrants are excluded.

The next concern is representativeness of the sample. An appropriate ratio of, for example, sex, age and ethnicity, were considered in order to ensure a sound representativeness of sample, because the population composition in the UK is complicated. The estimated population of the United Kingdom in the 2011 census was 63.182 million, of which 31.029 million were men and 32.153 million were women; people aged 0–14 were 11.100 million (17.6%), 15–64 were 41.704 million (66.0%), and those aged more than 65 were 10.378 million (16.4%) (Office for National Statistics, 2011a). In England and Wales, 86.0 % of the population is White within which White British is the majority (80.5% of the total population) in the 2011 Census. Indian was the next largest ethnic group (2.5 %) followed by Pakistani (2.0%) (Office for National Statistics, 2011b). The structure of the ideal sample should not deviate too much from the structure of the population.

4. 4.2 Sampling Methods

With regard to sample chosen, ideally, the sample should be representative of the population that the researcher will be studying in the future and to which results will be generalized (Hinkin, 1995). However, because of practical difficulties, such as the inaccessibility of certain groups for sampling, convenience samples can also be used for

scale development, as long as the construct has some degree of relevance for the respondent (McDougall and Munro, 1994).

In the study, convenience samples were used for scale testing. Convenience samples, which are also called non-probability samples, occur when the probability that every unit or respondent was included in the sample cannot be determined (Fielding, Lee and Blank, 2008). Convenience samples, rather than probability samples, were employed for two reasons: (1) it was applicable for scale development according to previous studies; (2) it avoided practical difficulties normally occur during probability sampling, such as the lack of financial support and labor forces. Although it is likely to cause sampling bias, it is the most reasonable choice for the author. Limitations of the study due to the sampling method were discussed in Chapter 9.

4.5 Data Collection

Focus group interviews were undertaken to collect the sample for item generation. The sample for scale refinement and validation was recruited using two methods: a web-based survey and two waves of face-to-face survey in a university.

4. 5.1 Focus Group Interview

Focus group interviews were conducted to generate items measuring public trust in charities in the UK on 15th April and 19th April of 2013. There are two main reasons for choosing this approach. First, the open and free discussions in the focus group interview provide the advantage of gathering more information and opinions from the participants in comparison with questionnaire surveys and one-to-one interviews. It is because participants are asked questions in an interactive setting in focus groups and are encouraged to discuss thoughts freely with other participants. Second, the focus group

interview is quick, cost effective and good for getting rich data in participants' own words and developing deeper insight as what this research endeavors to do.

The number of interview groups depends on the number of different constituency groups in the study. Consequently, there is no single correct answer regarding the limit of group number. In this study, the sample included two groups representing stakeholders and non-stakeholders of charities respectively. These two focus group interviews explored the participants' perspectives on charities and the role of public trust therein, and validated the key dimensions of trust identified in the literature. This process contributed to the identification of aspects reflecting public trust in charities.

For each group, there were four and five participants respectively. According to the guidance on group size, the sample size is common and seldom goes beyond a minimum of four and a maximum of twelve participants per group (Carlsen and Glenton, 2011; Krueger and Casey, 2009; Kitzinger, 1995; Stewart et al., 2007). Thus the sample size in this study is acceptable. Among these two groups, one group consisted of stakeholders of charities, which included one manager, one beneficiary and three contributors (one volunteer and two donors). In contrast, four respondents from the other group were constituted by non-stakeholders of charities, who neither worked for nor made any contribution to a charity, nor received any help from charitable organizations. The sample comprised four males and five females; six of whom were British nationals. All participants were UK residents and interviews took place on a UK university campus.

The samples were recruited in two ways: first, call for participants invitations and emails (see Appendix 1) were sent out to university students and staff; second, a charity manager was invited for the interview through the personal network of the author. Following this, eight interviewees were selected from twelve people who were willing

to participate from the email trawl by asking whether they were beneficiaries, volunteers, donors or none of the above. It ensured sample contain both stakeholders and non-stakeholders of charities.

The interviews were guided in group discussion via a semi-structured interview template (see Appendix 2). Participants were asked to brainstorm the key aspects of trust in charities as they understood it, including: (1) perspectives on charities; (2) opinions of the role of public trust therein; (3) experiences and manifestations associated with trusting or distrusting these organizations; (4) features of trustworthy and untrustworthy charities.

Interview data were analyzed using thematic analysis that interviews were reviewed to identify the key themes and illustrative quotes from the data. It aimed to validate the key dimensions of the construct identified in the literature, and to identify any additional content areas relevant to trust in charities. The focus groups were audiotaped, transcribed, and used as a reference for the development of the items.

4. 5.2 The Online Survey

Considering the advantages of an online survey (e.g. Brace, 2004; Madge and O'Connor, 2004), the online method was favored in this study for the following reasons: (1) it can reach a wide audience within a short time, which enables the prospect of collecting large volumes of data; (2) it is much cheaper than postal mail, faxes and phone, thus it is a suitable method for this study which has a limited budget; (3) it facilitates rapid data analysis because responses can be directly loaded into an automatic analytical package; (4) it is able to encourage a higher response as a result of a superior questionnaire interface brought by email surveys which is possible to make them more user friendly

and attractive; (5) studies confirm that people complete a web-based survey more quickly which can help to make the survey a more pleasurable experience for respondents.

There are many approaches to online surveys. According to Bradley (1999), the main approaches of an online survey or web-based survey include: (1) open Web – a Web site open to anyone who visits it; (2) closed Web – respondents are invited to visit a Web site to complete a questionnaire; (3) hidden Web – the questionnaire appears to visitors only when triggered by some mechanism; (4) E-mail URL embedded – respondents are invited by e-mail to the survey site, and the e-mail contains a URL or Web address on which respondents click; (5) simple e-mail – an e-mail with questions contained in it; (6) E-mail attachment – the questionnaire is sent as an attachment to an e-mail.

As Denscombe (2003) suggests: "a decision on whether it is appropriate to use 'e-research' should be based on an evaluation of the respective advantages and disadvantages in relation to the specific topic that is to be investigated" (p. 41). This survey investigated the attitude of the public towards charities in the UK, which means the target respondents are the general public rather than more specific groups. Thus, multiple approaches of online survey were employed in order to reach as many respondents as possible: First, an open web of this survey was set up to facilitate the public's participation; And then, URL embedded emails were sent out to invite participants. As theses e-mails contain a URL or Web address of this survey, participants can click the link to access the online questionnaire.

However, as Madge and O'Connor (2004) assert, an online survey can present serious sampling problems: first, it excludes people who cannot access the internet; second, random sampling or gaining a representative sample is difficult due in large part to the non-response bias because of the lack of information on those who choose not to

complete a survey; third, online research does not enable the researcher to assess the reliability of responses. However, an online survey was deemed appropriate for this stage of the study, because a representative sample was not necessary for scale development.

Questionnaire

The questionnaire used for the survey contained the preliminary scale developed after step 3 discussed in section 4.2.1, and also comprised questions regarding overall level of trust in charities, the extent of satisfaction towards charity work in the UK, the form of contributions made to charities, frequency of volunteering and the amount of donation to charities. These variables were used to explore their relationships with public trust in charities and further examine validity of the scale developed in this study. In addition, demographic variables including age, gender, and ethnicity were used to investigate the representativeness of the online sample. All responses were collated and stored in SPSS 20.0.

The questionnaire was designed to be simple (14 questions) and quick (10 minutes) to fill in. It included tick box yes/no questions, rating scale attitudinal questions and open-ended responses. The survey ended with a short message to thank the respondents and a request of respondents' email addresses if they wished to be entered into a prize draw as a thank-you gift for participation.

An initial pilot study with 11 participants was conducted to ascertain any potential problems of questionnaire (see Appendix 3). A questionnaire assessment sheet was provided followed by the questionnaire for comments from participants on what the experience of completing the questionnaire was like. It included highlighting any items that had caused participants concern, or that they had found difficult to respond to. They were also encouraged to make suggestions for improvement.

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On the basis of feedback from participants, the final questionnaire in a paper version was developed (see Appendix 4). Since this survey was fist conducted online, some format adjustments were made to make it more appropriate for online use. The online questionnaire[3] was created via freeonlinesurveys.com and followed a similar format of the paper questionnaire. The major difference is that skip logic was used in the online questionnaire. The questionnaire for scale validation was slightly different with this one by excluding items dropped during item analysis and exploratory factor analysis; moreover, there were 7 items used for testing criterion-related validity and construct validity included in the questionnaire (see Appendix 5).

Administration of the online survey

Questionnaires were distributed using two approaches. First, an invitation to participate in a web survey which contained the link of the online questionnaire was posted as a message to two relevant online community discussion boards: The VSSN (Voluntary Sector Studies Network) which provides a discussion board for topics relating to the voluntary sector; and the Postgraduate Forum which provides a platform for postgraduates to share and discuss their studies. The VSSN and the Postgraduate Forum were chosen because these were likely to reach those who were interested in the topic of this study, which would assist in generating a high response rate.

The other approach used was to send email invitations which contained the link of the online questionnaire to potential participants. However, studies indicate that online users are intolerant of unsolicited communications and invitations to participate in research projects and increasingly consider them as junk mails (Harris, 1997). In order to lower the influence of it, the emails were only sent to current students studying at a

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[3] See: http://freeonlinesurveys.com/s.asp?sid=lkpvvvnvo7h31g4303515

university in the UK with the ethical approval from the university. According to the statistics published by this university in 2011 (later figures were not available), there were 23,043 students in total. Approximately 87% of students were undergraduates, and 13% were postgraduates. Only 3% of the total student population was research students. There were 2,014 full time international students, which accounted for 8.7% of the total number (University of Hull, 2011). Since only the e-mails of postgraduates were accessible with the permission of the university, emails were sent to approximately 2995 postgraduates. The first e-mail invitation was sent at the beginning of week 17 of the 22 week course. Two further reminder e-mails were sent over the next two weeks.

Various stimuli have been posited as a means of increasing response rates. First of all, the covering letter was concise, easily understood and professional (see Appendix 6); in addition to introducing basic information, it emphasized the importance of the survey, and expressed the researchers' appreciation for respondents' participation (Coomber, 1997). In the end of the covering letter, a handwritten signature was used to personalize the approach (De Vaus, 1985). Moreover, material incentives were adopted to attract participants. Material inducements are the most powerful as Göritz (2006) concluded that on average they increase the odds of a person responding by 19%, whilst non-material incentives increased retention only by 4.2% on average in a study. As such, in this study, participants were included in a draw of 5×£5 cash prizes if they completed the questionnaire before the given deadline.

Through the online survey, an effective sample with 409 respondents was obtained. The total sample was used for scale refinement.

4. 5.3 The Face-to-face Survey

Two waves of face-to-face survey were also conducted after the online survey in order to boost the sample. The questionnaire contains the 5-point Likert scale consisting of items generated, variables regarding age, gender, ethnicity, the overall level of trust in charities in the UK, the amount and the frequency of volunteering and donation to charities. As noted in section 4.4.2, the questionnaire for scale validation was slightly different with the one used for scale refinement by excluding items dropped during item analysis and exploratory factor analysis; moreover, there were 7 items used for testing construct validity and criterion-related validity included in the questionnaire

Regarding the process of administration, the first wave of survey was conducted in the university's main library. The sample included both undergraduates and postgraduates from different age groups. In order to encourage students to cooperate, participants received small gifts, such as highlight pens, pens, rulers, book mark and flash lights.

There were 81 effective respondents obtained through the first wave of face-to-face survey. They were used for scale refinement together with the previous 409 cases obtained via the online survey. The questionnaire was updated after scale refinement with fewer items. It was subsequently used for data collection for scale validation.

Using the updated questionnaire, there were 145 more cases collected via another survey in the library. At the same time, a survey was undertaken at the end of some classes in a university in the UK. The author contacted several lecturers in the university, and three of them gave the permission to do the survey in their classes. All classes were for undergraduates.

An effective sample of 253 respondents was obtained through the second wave of survey. There were 145 cases obtained in the library and 108 cases generated from classes. They were used for scale validation.

The total sample of 743 cases collected through the online survey and the face-to-face survey was further used for scale utilization after the scale was developed. The sample was weighted by gender and age of respondents before employed to explore the overall level of public trust in charities and to predict pro-charity behaviors.

4.6 Data Analysis Strategy

For qualitative data obtained via focus group interview, they were analyzed using thematic analysis that interviews were reviewed to identify the key themes and illustrative quotes from the data.

Quantitative data obtained via questionnaire surveys was used for scale development. For scale refinement, SPSS 20.0 was used for major analysis, such as internal consistency analysis and exploratory factor analysis. For scale validation, Amos 20.0 was used for confirmatory factor analysis; SPSS 20.0 was used to perform construct validity and criterion-related validity analysis.

Additionally, in Chapter 8, possible ways of scale utilization were examined. The newly developed scale was used to measure the level of public trust in the charitable sector in the UK and to predict pro-charity behaviors based on the weighted sample used for scale development. SPSS 20.0 was used for relevant analysis, such as sample weighting, descriptive analysis, correlation analysis, t-test, ANOVA, and regression analysis.

4.7 Access of Ethics

All the interviews and surveys, both online and face-to face, received ethical approval from the university's Ethics Committee. In addition, permission to conduct a survey in the university library and conduct a module-wide questionnaire across the undergraduate sample was sought from the library manager and module leaders.

Participants of surveys had all been given an information sheet outlining the study being undertaken. All participants were aware that they were under no obligation to take part in the study and that their decisions not to do so would not in any way affect their module results or the use of library.

4.8 Summary

This chapter discussed research methodology employed in this study. As the centerpiece of the study, a scale was developed following suggestions by previous research for the purpose of measuring public trust in charities. The process included 11 steps and three phases: initial scale development, scale refinement, and scale validation. After scale development, the new scale was applied to examine possible utilizations.

Focus group interviews were undertaken among British citizens for item generation. All the analyses for scale development were based on convenience samples constituted by usual residents who were 16 years of age and above, and have lived in the UK for at least one year. They were collected through both online surveys and face-to-face surveys. There were 490 cases used for scale refinement, and 253 used for scale validation. The weighted total sample was finally used for the scale utilization.

All the approaches and standards of scale development were carefully designed and were acceptable based on previous literature. All the interviews and surveys received ethical approval from the university's Ethics Committee.

CHAPTER 5: INITIAL SCALE DEVELOPMENT

5.1 Introduction

This chapter elaborates the three initial steps of scale development process introduced in the chapter of Methodology: development of the conceptual model, item generation and scale design. As a detailed explanation and discussion of the conceptual model has been presented in Chapter 2 and Chapter 3 (literature review), this chapter focuses on item generation and scale design.

Items reflecting five dimensions of public trust in charities in the conceptual model are generated through previous literature and focus group interviews. Face validity and content validity of these items are examined by thirteen experts through four rounds of analysis. The final items constitute a five-point Likert scale used to measure public trust in general charities.

5.2 Conceptual Model

A conceptual model was developed based on a review of literature related to trust in charities (see Chapter 2 and Chapter 3). "Public trust in charities" in this study is defined as the extent of willingness of individuals to accept vulnerability in the relationship with charitable organizations, and the extent that individuals believe charities to be benevolent, integrate, and competent to fulfill commitment, as well as to hold shared values. General charities are not-for-profit, legal and formal institutions established for charitable purposes only.

The definition shows clearly the key dimensions of public trust in charities: (1) individuals' willingness to accept vulnerability in the relationship with charitable organizations, (2) expectations of charities' benevolence, (3) expectations of charities' integrity, (4) expectations of charities' competence, and (5) value similarity.

As discussed in the section 3.2.4, a conceptual model of public trust in charities is proposed (see Figure 5.1, see also Figure 3.2). It demonstrates that trust is a dyadic and interactive relationship involving both trusters and trustees. The dimension of willingness to accept vulnerability reflects traits of individuals. Charity competence is the ability of charities to fulfil missions and complete tasks. Charity benevolence is the extent to which charities are believed to intend to uphold and further public interest. Charity integrity is the extent to which charities are believed to fulfil their fiduciary obligations and to be conscientious. Value similarity or shared value is the alignment of values between the individual and the charitable sector. This element of trust is particularly important for trust in charitable organizations that are identified with, and legitimated by, the values they serve.

The new scale of trust in charitable organizations, which will be developed in the study, should cover all the dimensions displayed in the conceptual model. Items of the scale should also reflect these components of trust in charities.
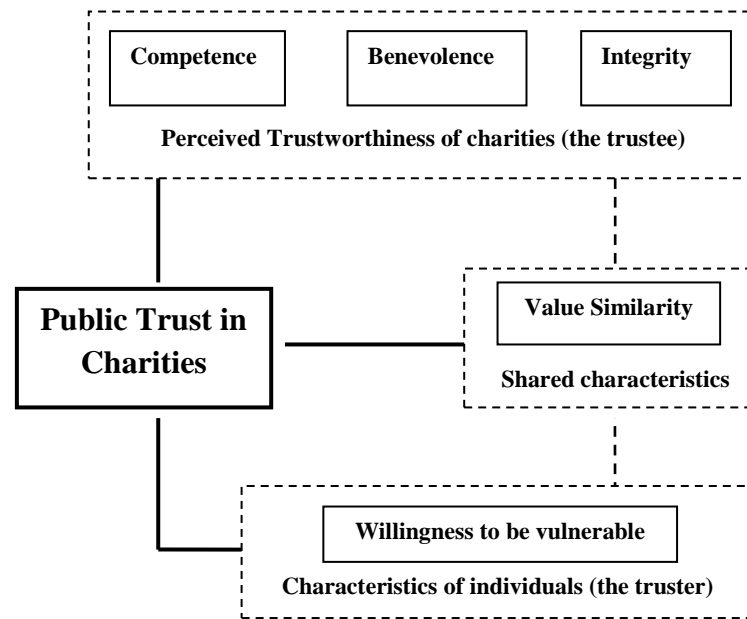
Figure 5.1 Conceptual Model of Public Trust in Charities

5.3 Relevant Items in Previous Studies

All the items referred to in this section are associated with five dimensions of trust based on the conceptual model: (1) willingness to be vulnerable, (2) expectations of charities' benevolence, (3) expectations of charities' integrity, (4) expectations of charities' competence, and (5) value similarity.

5.3.1 Willingness to be Vulnerable

Mayer and Davis (1999) develop a four-item scale to measure how willing the truster is to be vulnerable to supervisors in the work place. Schoorman and Ballinger (2006) expand this measure to seven items based on the same conceptual definition. The items are listed as follows among which three items are reverse coded and the trustee is represented as "X":

- X keeps my interests in mind when making decisions.

- I would be willing to let X have complete control over my future.

- If X asked why a problem occurred, I would speak freely even if I were partly to blame.

- I feel comfortable being creative because X understands that sometimes creative solutions do not work.

- It is important for me to have a good way to keep an eye on X. [a]

- Increasing my vulnerability to criticism by X would be a mistake. [a]

- If I had my way, I wouldn't let X have any influence over decisions that are important to me. [a]

Note: [a] = item reverse coded.

5.3.2 Value Similarity

There are several items measuring value similarity according to previous studies (Siegrist, Cvetkovich and Roth, 2000; Poortinga and Pidgeon, 2003; Mayer and Davis, 1999). These are:

- I like X's values.

- X has the same idea as me.

- X shares similar values as me.

- X shares similar opinions as me.

- X thinks in a similar way as me.

- X takes similar actions as I would.

- X shares similar goals as me.

5.3.3 Competence, Benevolence and Integrity

On the basis of Poortinga and Pidgeon (2003), Jarvenpaa et al. (1998), Mayer and Davis (1999), Zaheer et al. (1998), Cook and Wall (1980), and Luo (2002), items capable of measuring competence, benevolence and integrity of the trustee were identified. Specific context is *NOT* considered here, and the trustee is represented as "X".

Competence

- X is very capable of performing its job.

- X is known to be successful at the things it tries to do.

- X has much knowledge about the work that needs doing.

- I feel very confident about X's skills.

- X has specialized capabilities that can increase our performance.

- X is well qualified.

Benevolence

- X is very concerned about my welfare.

- My needs and desires are very important to X.

- X would not knowingly do anything to hurt me.

- X looks out for what is important to me.

- X will lend me a hand if I needed it.

Integrity

- X has a strong sense of justice.

- I never have to wonder whether X will stick to its word.

- X tries hard to be fair in dealings with others.

- Sound principles seem to guide X's behavior.

- X is sincere in its work.

- X is open in providing all relevant information.

- X displays a solid work ethic.

- X's actions and behaviors are not very consistent. [a]

- X distorts facts in its favor. [a]

    Note: [a] = item reverse coded.

5.3.4 Indicators of Trustworthiness of Charities

The items referred to section 5.3.3 mainly aim to measure interpersonal trust, and none of them is for measuring trust in charities. As previously discussed, trust is domain specific, as such, it has a different focus and different content in each particular context. Among the three dimensions of trust, expectation of the trustee's trustworthiness is distinctive and particular to each specific context. For example, the expectations of a trustworthy high-school teacher are not the same as the trust expectations of a Greenpeace activist, and again, that is not the same as the trust expectation of a bank manager. Therefore, studies on the public's expectations of the trustworthiness of charities should be considered and evaluated in their particular context.

According to Gaskin (1999), Sargeant and Lee (2002), the Charity Commission (2010; 2012; 2014), and nfpSynergy (2011; 2014), there are various indicators of the trustworthiness of charities, such as a charity's compassion, using its assets wisely, being dynamic, being very well known, being non-political, being idealistic, focusing the lion's share of its spending on beneficiaries as opposed to administration, being dependable, being authoritative, holding expertise, being responsive, friendly, warm and

accessible, having a salient image and a sound reputation, being honest, making independent decisions, being efficient, being well managed, achieving its goals, being open and transparent, being held in high esteem by the public. These indicators are classified into three categories:

Competence

- Doing a good job

- Being efficient

- Having a good reputation

- Being well-known

- Being long-established

- Having large, established brands

- Attaining a high visibility and generating broad public awareness via adverts or other means

- Being supported by a celebrity

- Involving a partnership with a well-known company

- Good cooperation with the government

Benevolence

- People benefit from the work charities undertake.

Integrity

- Using fundraising techniques that are appropriate and sensitive

- Conducting operations ethically

- Following high standards in fundraising

- Focusing spending on beneficiaries rather than administration

- Being honest, transparent and open

- Making independent decisions

Since the items above are summarized from existing literature, it will be insufficient to develop a scale merely based on them to measure public trust in charities, particular in the context of the UK. Therefore, a necessary adjustment should be made based on the public's expressed opinion or perception of charities, and this was accessed via focus groups.

5.4 Results of Focus Group Interview

5.4.1 Introduction of Focus Group Interview

As most constructs of existing relevant scales are theoretical abstractions embedded in theoretical frameworks, it was considered necessary to go beyond theory and to question whether a scale actually measures the construct of interest, based on something more solid (Spector, 1992). As a result, two focus group interviews were conducted. The first interview involved four subjects, and the second one involved five participants. Among these two mini groups, one group consisted of stakeholders of charities, which included one manager, one beneficiary and three contributors (one volunteer and two donors). In contrast, four respondents from the other group were constituted by non-stakeholders of charities, who neither worked for nor made any contribution to a charity, nor received any help from charitable organizations. The detailed arguments and justification of the number of groups and members within a group were presented in section 4.4.1.

This sample was drawn from university students and staff who identified themselves as British. They comprised four PhD students, four MA students and a charity manager; four males and five females; seven indigenous British and two immigrants. The process of sample recruitment was explained in section 4.4.1. The interviews explored the participants' perspectives on charities and the role of public trust therein. It also validated the key dimensions of trust identified in the literature, and diagnosed other aspects did not cover previously. This process contributed to the identification of suitable items for a scale that reflects the perspectives of public on trust in charities. The interviews were guided in group discussion via a semi-structured interview template (see Appendix 2). The data were analyzed by the use of thematic analysis, the results of which are summarized in the following sections.

5.4.2 Perceptions of Charities

Participants described charities as (1) registered organizations that are regulated by law; (2) non-profit organizations so that their surplus should not be distributed to shareholders; (3) value-driven, in that they aim to help poor people, protect the environment, or enhance social equality; (4) they provide a platform by which rich people give to poor people, and they enable people to make different forms of contribution, such as donating time, money, goods and furniture; (5) they provide a place where people can obtain help; (6) charity can benefit from tax breaks. It demonstrated that participants had a good understanding of charity this research studied.

When asked about the characteristics that distinguish charities from other organizations, participants mentioned: (1) charities are not for profit; (2) they focus on social responsibility, not making a profit; (3) they have a long term impact on society by helping people and protecting the environment; (4) they are flexible, so that people are

free to choose what, when and where to make a contribution to them; (5) they act as the "eyes of the world" delivering messages from different places to the whole world. Respondents captured key characteristics of charitable organizations. It also demonstrated that value-driven is a prominent feature making charities special in comparison to other types of organizations.

Participants regarded charities as an important element of society, because (1) charities channel wealth to the poor from the rich thus balancing wealth inequality; (2) charities provide jobs; (3) charities provide young people opportunities to be volunteers, thus prevent them from getting into crime; (4) donating to charities enables parents to educate their children to embrace social responsibility; (5) charities influence the business sector to become more ethical, and enhance their commitment to social responsibility; (6) people benefit psychologically from giving to charities; (7) charities are changing the way people think, and they help people be more altruistic and less self-centered. It showed that social functions of charities perceived by the participants went beyond that noted in literature by pointing out the functions of education and socialization.

5.4.3 Perceptions of Trust in Charities

This section provides an insight into the participants' opinions on trust in charities. It provides solid evidence for the necessity of studying and measuring trust in charities and improving the level of trust. All of the participants regarded trust as a fundamental element for charities' existence and their development. Moreover, they asserted that trust is more important for charities than for other institutions, such as companies. Although most participants generally trusted charities in UK, some did distrust them.

The importance of trust for charities

All of the participants deemed public trust as the key for charities. According to the participants, "trust is the central of a charity"; "if there is no trust in charity, the charity will disappear"; "a charity will not exist if people don't trust it"; "without trust, there is nothing [for charities]".

One participant asserted that charities held a very special position. He pointed out that people support charities only if they trust them, because they need to believe that their money reaches the people they desire to help. In turn, charities rely on people to trust them. During economic downturns in particular, charities seen as untrustworthy will simply not receive sufficient public support. Where people no longer trust a charity, they will stop donating or volunteering for it. Any negative news has the potential to diminish public trust.

The key importance of trust for charities, in comparison to other organizations

Participants believed that trust is more essential for charities than for other organizations, such as companies. Charities can only survive on the basis of public trust. One declared: "I give to a charity only if I trust it, but for other organizations they don't need as much trust as that of charity. A company can attract customers in various ways, such as price, product and promotional activities; whereas a charity can only win people's support by trustworthiness."

It follows that charities are more vulnerable to reductions in trust than are some other organizations. As one participant explained: "If charities lose trust, they close". Another asserted: "Once charities lose their trust, it's almost impossible for them to get it back again. It is very easy to close charities compared to companies. If they don't get funds

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from the government and people's donations, charities will definitely close." However, for companies, which are working for profits: "if they lose trust at a particular time, they can build it again by changing their prices or doing some marketing". To conclude, losing trust for a charity means losing everything.

The general level of trust in charities in the UK

Most participants trusted charities in the UK, because "they do a good job", and "there are a lot reliable charities such as the BHF (British Heart Foundation)". At the same time, they displayed concern around a number of issues, such as "the percentage of assets that go for charitable purposes" and the need or transparency, to "show what exactly they are doing".

However, two participants did not display a high level of trust in charities. They asserted that: "many companies use charity for making profit and share profit with them". It was asserted that some companies cooperated with certain charities primarily in order to improve their social image, and obtain public sympathy. Another reason suggested for distrusting charity is that there is much negative information about charities, especially by "word of mouth". In addition, one participant stated that she did not trust charities at all, because charities created more negative effects than positive ones. She asserted that charities created a stereotype for some groups of people, such as Africans and Asians, labeling them as the poor and as victims. Moreover, she felt that charities made people feel guilty when they were confronted with some of their donation activities and marketing techniques.

The change of trust in charities

With regard to the question "has your overall trust in UK charities changed in recent years", the two immigrants in the focus groups trusted charity more than before, while the others participants' levels of trust remained almost the same. The reason for the immigrants' increase of trust in charities was that they received more information about charities upon arriving in the UK. On the one hand, the media provided an important channel of information about charities' work. On the other hand, charities themselves offered a lot of information about themselves through their marketing and fundraising activities. Thus, they held that charities did much good work and also provided much information about the wider world.

It demonstrated that the level of public trust in charities could be improved with the efforts of charitable organizations. Charities should aware of expectations from the public and evaluate the distance between the expectations and their performance. It would help charities to understand measures of stimulating public trust.

5.4.4 Indicators of Trust in Charities

Indicators of public trust and distrust in charities are explored in this section and the next. The aim is to specify and supplement the items capable of measuring trust in charities identified in previous studies. Participants were asked "If you trust a charity, what do you expect towards the charity?" According to the participants' opinions, the manifestations of trust in a charity were based on two dimensions of trust: trustworthiness and value similarity. It should be noted that these indicators did not cover all aspects of trust, and they only represented the opinions of the focus group participants.

1. Competence

- Good performance: charities are expected that they are doing a good job.

- Qualification: charity workers are expected to be well qualified to perform their job.

- Long history: charities are expected to be around for a long time.

- Good reputation: charities are expected to be well regarded by the public.

- Good image: trustworthy charities should deliver a positive message through the media.

- Independence: charities are expected to be capable of making independent decisions.

- Accessible: charities are expected to be easy to make contributions to or obtain information from.

It should be noticed from the interviews that, insiders, such as the manager, tended to assess the ability of the institution they work for, or belong to, based on some technical standards, such as specialized skills and qualifications, because they were likely to have access to and an understanding of these. For their part, outsiders did not usually have access to detailed information related to an institution's abilities. Thus, they are more likely to judge it by way of external clues, such as reputation and image, besides stressing the importance of charities' qualification.

2. Benevolence

- Charities are expected to benefit me or people around me.

- Charities are expected to be easily for me to get involved in their work and experience the positive outcomes of their activities.

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- Workers of charities are expected to be caring and sympathetic.

3. Integrity

- Openness: charities are expected to provide means to ascertain the health of an organization by checking its publications and viewing its actions; trustworthy charities should also be transparent in relation to how their monies are obtained, from where, and how they are spent.
- Charities are expected to be honest.

There is an interesting point that some participants claimed that they expected trustworthy charities to be large-sized, while others stated contrarily. The reasons for those who trusted larger charities are that they believed these charitable organizations might have higher reputation, wider public awareness and stronger ability of management. But for those who trusted small charities, they asserted that these charities were more likely to be flexible, independent, and closer to the public. Therefore, there was a lack of consensus regarding to the relation between trust and the size of a charity.

4. Value similarity

- Charities are expected to work for causes I care about.

Examples of trustworthy charities

In order to obtain an enhanced understanding of the indicators listed above, participants were asked to provide examples of charities they trust and to specify key qualities of these charities as Table 5.1, below, illustrated.

Table 5.1 Examples of Trustworthy Charities

	Participant	Name of charities	Key qualities
1	P1	Oxfam	It is the biggest donor to the poor in her home country; it works for the cause she believes.
2	P2	Oxfam	It is a well-known charity, having a good image, it is accessible and friendly.
3	P3	Upendo Wetu	It is a small charity, but it does a good job; it is also a multicultural charity working for minorities and refugees; it is a local charity, cooperating closely with the community.
4	P4	British Heart Foundation	It is accessible, and easy to donate to them; the charity serves the cause she cares about.
5	P5	NSPCC	It is transparent: it tells the public what it is doing; it has an effective auditing system accessible on website; it is doing good work.
6	P6	Saneline	It works for the cause she believes.
7	P7	Cancer Research UK	It makes a difference to people's lives; it has undertaken valuable research on cancer; it is independent; it allows people's voices to be heard; it has a broad network involving many people; it undertakes activities of high quality; it is supported by the government.
8	P8	Joseph Rowntree Foundation	It works for the cause he believes; all the money is used to support vulnerable people; it is doing amazing work with children; the Charity's work is very open and honest; It has a long tradition of activities and a long history in the local community.
9	P9	Save the Children	It is doing a good job; it has a wide social influence; it is well-regarded by the public.

5.4.5 Indicators of Distrust in Charities

Besides considering manifestations of trust in charities, the indicators of public mistrust

in charities were also explored in order to provide a more comprehensive insight into

the items reflecting different facets of trust. Trust and distrust are the opposite ends of

the same continuum. The complete lack of trust equals to distrust (Schoorman, Mayer

and Davis, 2007). Participants were asked: "If you distrust a charity, what do you expect

the qualities of the charity?" The indicators provided by participants also focused on

trustworthiness and value similarity.

1. Competence

- Charities are expected to have a low frequency of appearances in the media.

- Charities are expected to have many critics and negative news.

2. Benevolence

- Charities are expected to hurt my well-being by, for example, intrusive fundraising activities.

3. Integrity

- Using inappropriate marketing techniques: charities are expected to post too many commercial advertisements, and do not target the right group;

- Not use denotation appropriately: charities are expected to spend too much money on executive members, marketing or fundraising, rather than on the core causes;

- Too dependent on the government: charities are expected to regard government's support for funding as the foundation for survival, and do not work on their own are not trustworthy;

- Using inappropriate fundraising techniques: charities are expected to be needy and greedy, and ask for more and more donations; to be intrusive or asking for a specific amount of money; to make people feel bad and guilty if they do not donate; to provide insufficient information about their fundraising work.

- Being manipulated by companies: charities are expected to be used by companies for making profits and sharing those profits.

- Lack of transparency: charities are expected to not inform the public where the money comes from and how it is spent.

- Deviating from core values: charities are expected to unable to satisfy the charitable status or non-profit features as required.

4. Value similarity

- Charities are expected to work for purposes that are not appreciated.

- Charities are expected to deal with social problems with the method I do not agree with.

Examples of charities which are not trustworthy

Participants provided some examples to further illustrate the qualities of charities they mistrusted (see Table 5.2). One participant did not name a specific charity he distrusted but still explained general features of such charities. Two participants did not distrust any particular charity.

Table 5.2 Examples of Untrustworthy Charities

	Participant	Name of charities	Key qualities
1	P7	Christian Aid	It is for religious purpose and he does not believe in that; only a limited number of people can benefit from it.
2	P5	British Red Cross	There has been some negative news about it; the way of fundraising is intrusive in that it always put many bags at the door.
3	P3	African Aid	It does not provide information regarding where the money comes from and how it is spent.
4	P8	Help for Heroes	It does not have a good reputation.
5	P6	Age UK	It does not work as well as some other charities, such as Saneline; seniors do not like the term "age" because they are not happy to be rendered as old.
6	P1	Not a specific charity	Charities working for global warming and environmental issues are untrustworthy; charities do not conduct research work are untrustworthy.
7	P9	Universities	Universities are "money-making machines", as they make too much profit.
8	P2	None	None
9	P4	None	None

5.4.6 Value Similarity as an Indicator of "Blind" Trust in Charities

It has been discussed that value similarity is a very important component of trust in charities. It is also reflected in the views expressed by the focus group participants. It showed there was a difference of extent of trust in charities working for various charitable purposes. For example, some participants did not hold trust in charities with religious links; while others had considerable trust in charities working for health and poverty relief.

In order to examine the effect of recognized charitable causes on trust in charities, participants were asked to rank their trust in certain types of charities working for specific causes from 1 to 10; the higher the score, the higher the trust. There are ten

types of charitable causes in the list (see Appendix 7). A Friedman test was performed to investigate the difference of the ranking. Results suggested that there was a significant difference in the scores (p<.05). Charities working for the causes of "health" and "society" won a significantly higher level of trust, while that of "environment and animals" and "religion" were endowed a significantly lower level of trust (see Table 5.3).

It indicates the essential and indispensable role that value similarity plays in trust. As one of the important aspects of value similarity, the appreciation of charitable causes by the public is able to manifest trust in charities, even without consideration of other information of particular charities.

Table 5.3 Rank of Public Trust by Charitable Causes

Causes	Mean Rank
Health	8.14
Society	8.07
Disability	6.79
Education	5.50
Armed Services	5.07
Arts, Culture, Humanities	5.00
Services for Charities	4.21
Sports	4.14
Religion	4.07
Environment, Animals	4.00

5.5 Initial Item Pool

There were 42 initial items listed below generated on the basis of relevant items in previous studies and the focus group interviews. They were organized by combining repeated ones obtained via literature review and the focus group interview. Some of them were also rephrased to be more appropriate to describe charities. Items were integrated to describe each of the three dimensions of trust: willingness to be vulnerable,

expectation of trustworthiness, and value similarity. Although the construct of trust is predetermined, grounded from theoretical framework, it will be tested based on a large quantity of data in the next stage of scale development: scale refinement.

5.5.1 Items of Willingness to be Vulnerable

- Most charities keep my interests in mind when making decisions.

- I would be willing to let most charities have complete control over my donations.

- It is important for me to have a good way to keep an eye on most charities. [a]

- I would not let most charities have any influence over decisions important to me. [a]

- Most charities can be relied upon to keep their promises.

  Note: [a] = item reverse coded.

5.5.2 Items of Competence

- Most charities are doing a good job.

- I feel very confident about charities' competence.

- Most charities are very capable of performing their job.

- Most charities are well qualified.

- Most charities make a great social impact.

- Most charities have a good image.

- Most charities have good reputation/ high social approval.

- Most charities have sufficient support to achieve their goals.

- Most charities attain a broad public awareness.

- There is no negative news about most charities.

- Charities in a big scale are trustworthy.

- Charities in a small scale are trustworthy.

- Charities having well-known people as patrons are trustworthy.

- Local charities are providing good services.

5.5.3 Items of Benevolence

- Most charities are concerned about my welfare.

- My needs and desires (e.g. the right for information) are very important to most charities.

- Most charities would not knowingly do anything to hurt my interests.

- Most charities would lend me a hand if I needed it.

- Most charities are glad to let me involve in their work.

5.5.4 Items of Integrity

- Most charities have a strong sense of justice.

- I never have to wonder whether charities will stick to their word.

- Too many charities' actions and missions are not very consistent. [a]

- Sound principles seem to guide charities' behavior.

- Most charities are sincere to the public.

- Too many charities distort facts in their favor. [a]

- Most charities are open in providing all relevant information.

- Most charities display a solid work ethic.

- Too many charities use inappropriate fundraising techniques. [a]

- Too many charities use donations inappropriately. [a]

- Too many charities are manipulated by companies for profit. [a]

- Most charities are registered legally.

- Most charities make independent decisions.

- Most charities are easy to access.

  Note: [a] = item reverse coded.

5.5.5 Items of Value Similarity

- I like charities' values.

- Most charities have the same goal as me.

- I believe the course of most charities.

- The work undertaken by charities is essential to society.

5.6 Results of Expert Review

5.6.1 Introduction of Expert Review

After an initial item pool was generated on a basis of literature review and focus group interviews, an expert review was undertaken to examine face validity and content validity of the items. Face validity of items was examined by eleven respondents who were English speakers and familiar with charities in the UK in a pilot study. It aimed to identify duplicate items and potential sources of ambiguity, and to make items more specific and straightforward. Subsequently, content validity was assessed by two experts who had completed considerable research in NGO study, multivariate statistics, and model selection techniques. They evaluated the clarity and accuracy of the items and items were deleted if respondents rated them as difficult or ambiguous.

For face validity test, an opinion sheet comprising six questions provided scope for 11 participants to evaluate the extent of appropriateness and clarity of items and the

questionnaire consisting of the 5-point Likert scale (see Appendix 3). They were asked to review the clarity of items. They were also asked to add any items they thought indicating the domain the scale had not covered, and to point out inappropriate items and questions. In addition, they were enquired of time for completing the questionnaire and asked to provide any additional comments this assessment sheet had not been specifically addressed.

All participants reported that the items had been easy to complete and understand, and the questionnaire followed a rigid logic. Some amendments were made based on the suggestions of participants. First, they specified more "everyday" usage of terms, and related them more clearly to the voluntary sector. Some items of the scale were reworded to make the meaning clearer and more straightforward. For example, "Most charities are very capable of performing their job" was changed to "Most charities are capable of performing their job adequately". Second, the order of the items in the scale was randomized to avoid potential influences of previous items. Third, the order of item responses was reversed. According to the opinion of participants, it is more appropriate to put the option of "strongly disagree" first not last. Finally, controversial items were excluded. For example, there were two items related to the scale of charities: "charities in a big scale are trustworthy", "charities in a small scale are trustworthy". Different people have different views on the relation of scale and trustworthiness of charities. To avoid the ambiguity and controversies, they were eliminated.

For content validity test, two experts were invited for a face-to-face meeting which aimed for discussing the clearance and accuracy of initial items. It examined: (1) if the scale appeared to assess all factors for public trust in charities; (2) clarity and conciseness of items; (3) whether scoring of items was appropriate. Based on their advice, many clarifications were made, and several redundant items were deleted. For

example, quantifiers of some scale items were deleted because they might made respondents confused. For example, in "much of the money donated to charities is used in a corrupt way", "much" is an ambiguous term which should be deleted.

In the second round of expert review, the updated items were examined again by experts independently and communications were made via emails. This round of expert review went into a deeper level focusing on the sphere of the concept which was measured. It looked at: (1) how relevant each item was to what is measured; (2) whether there was any inclusion of inappropriate items; (3) whether there was any aspect failed to be considered. Consequently, the items became more specific and straightforward. In addition, suggestions indicated that items for "value similarity" were inadequate to measure this concept. Therefore, a further literature review on "value similarity" was undertaken which helped to identify four more items capable of measuring this concept.

Finally, a third round of expert review was conducted face to face to analyze the validity of the updated version on the basis of the second round. Some items were reworded to make them clearer and avoid possible ambiguity. This time, experts reviewed these items from the perspective of respondents of the survey, and endeavored to make items even more straightforward and simpler. Expert review confirmed the correctness of the definition and construct of public trust in charities.

The final version of 40 items listed below was decided based on these three rounds of expert review.

5.6.2 Items of Willingness to be Vulnerable

- Charities keep the interests of their supporters in mind.

- I would be willing to let charities have complete control over the use of my donations.

- It is important for me to know what charities are doing with my donations. [a]

- Charities can be relied upon to keep their promises.

- The benefits of giving to charities outweigh the risks that the donation will be misused.

- It is necessary to be cautious in dealing with charitable organizations. [a]

  Note: [a] = item reverse coded.

5.6.3 Items of Competence

- Charities are performing well.

- Charities are very capable of performing their job adequately.

- Charity workers are well qualified to perform their job.

- Charities make a good social impact.

- Charities have a good image.

- Charities are well regarded by the public.

- Charities have sufficient support to achieve their goals.

- News about charities is generally positive.

5.6.4 Items of Benevolence

- The charitable sector is generally concerned about my well-being.

- Charities would not knowingly do anything to hurt me.

- When I need help, charities will do the best they can to help me.

- Charities would be happy for me to be involved in their work.

- Charity workers are caring and sympathetic to me.

- My contributions to charities are important.

5.6.5 Items of Integrity

- Charities have a strong sense of justice.

- I never wonder whether charities will stick to their word.

- Charities do not follow through on their stated intentions. [a]

- The behavior of charities is guided by sound principles.

- Charities are honest with the public.

- Charities are open in providing information about their work.

- The decisions charities make are not influenced by outside organizations.

- Charities distort facts in their favor. [a]

- Charities use intrusive fundraising techniques. [a]

- The money given to charities goes to a good cause.

- The money donated to charities is used in a corrupt way. [a]

- The money donated to charities is wasted. [a]

- Charities are manipulated by companies for profit. [a]

  Note: [a] = item reverse coded.

5.6.6 Items of Value Similarity

- The charitable sector and I share similar values.

- The aims of charities generally fit well with mine.

- Charities share beliefs with me about how the society should be developed.

- The charitable sector and I share beliefs of essentiality of charities for society.

- Charities share my opinions about many social problems.

- I agree with the way that charities deal with many social problems.

- I appreciate charities' efforts to make a better society.

5.7 Scale Design

As discussed in Chapter 4 (Methodology), among four major types of scale used to measure attitudes, Likert scale was adopted. Items of the scale were different aspects reflecting and consisting of the concept of public trust in charities. They were supposed to be equivalent, and relationships between the latent variable and each of the items are supposed to be equally strong. Each item was presented as a declarative sentence followed by response options that indicated varying degrees of agreement.

Scores of items ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). There were 40 items in total as Table 5.4 shows, and they were randomly ordered and covering three dimensions of public trust in charities: the public's willingness to be vulnerable, expectations of charities' trustworthiness in terms of competence, benevolence, and integrity, and perceptions of value similarity with the charitable sector. There were eight reverse coded items as displayed in section 5.6.2 to section 5.6.4.

Table 5.4 Items of the Likert Scale of Public Trust in Charities

Items
Charities can be relied upon to keep their promises.
News about charities is generally positive.
The money donated to charities is used in a corrupt way.
Charities share my opinions about many social problems.
Charities share beliefs with me about how society should be developed.
It is important for me to know what charities are doing with my donations.
Charities have sufficient support to achieve their goals.
The benefits of giving to charities outweigh the risks that the donation will be misused.
Charity workers are well qualified to perform their job.
I would be willing to let charities have complete control over the use of my donations.
Charities distort facts in their favor.
The behavior of charities is guided by sound principles.
The aims of charities generally fit well with mine.
Charities would not knowingly do anything to hurt me.
Charities keep the interests of their supporters in mind.
Charities are making a good performance.
Charities are well regarded by the public.
Charities have a strong sense of justice.
Charities use intrusive fundraising techniques.
The money given to charities goes to a good cause.
Charities are manipulated by companies for profit.
Charities make a good social impact.
I appreciate charities' efforts to make a better society.
It is necessary to be cautious in dealing with charitable organizations.
Charities are honest with the public.
Charities would be happy for me to be involved in their work.
Charities have a good image.
The charitable sector is generally concerned about my well-being.
My contributions to charities are important.
Charities are capable of performing their job adequately.
I never wonder whether charities will stick to their word.
The money donated to charities is wasted.
The charitable sector and I share similar values.
I agree with the way that charities deal with many social problems.
Charity workers are caring and sympathetic to me.
Charities do not follow through on their stated intentions.
When I need help, charities will do the best they can to help me.
Charities are open in providing information about their work.
The charitable sector and I share beliefs of essentiality of charities for society.
The decisions charities make are not influenced by outside organizations.

5.8 Discussion and Conclusion

This chapter presented the process of item generation. There were 42 relevant items reflecting various domains of public trust in charities obtained on the basis of literature reviews and focus group interviews. Items were subsequently selected, confirmed and improved through expert review. Finally, the initial Likert scale containing 40 items with scores ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) was developed.

This study was limited by a relatively small sample size for the interview. Although it contains various "stakeholders" and "non-stakeholders" of charities, the size for each of them was small. Moreover, the grouping method in the interview could have created a bias. The two groups are "stakeholders" and "non-stakeholders" respectively, but the former one contains many subgroups – "manager", "volunteer", "donor" and "beneficiary". Thus the ratio of sample size of "manager", "volunteer", "donor" and "beneficiary" and "non-stakeholders" is 1:1:2:1:4 which indicates a bias.

The limitations of the focus group sample could lead to the probability that the findings may not be able to represent opinions from the wider public. It could also limit the information obtained with regard to public perceptions of charitable organizations and trust therein. However, it should be noted that the purpose of focus group interviews was basically reached as they provided useful insights from the public to validate items measuring trust in organizations identified from the previous studies and to adapt useful ones to be suitable for assessing trust in charitable organizations. Additional items were also generated to ensure that citizen opinions were presented. Nevertheless, for future research, replicating this study with larger

samples and greater representativeness is recommended to improve the generalizability of the results.

Possible improvements could also be achieved by designing a more rigorous process of expert review by involving a larger number of experts for content validity analysis. In the study, there were two experts participated in the review of content validity of the items. Although both experts contributed enormously to examine the accuracy of items, involving more experts would provide more various opinions regarding the items, regardless of the probability that it might not change the final items in the initial scale.

To conclude, this chapter provided insight on generating items to measure public trust in charities. It explored and confirmed face validity and content validity of the items. Based upon these items, a five-point Likert scale was initially developed. Further statistical analysis for the refinement and validation of the scale consisted of these items is performed in chapter 6 and 7.

CHAPTER 6: SCALE REFINEMENT

6.1 Introduction

This chapter demonstrates the refinement of the initial scale developed in the last chapter. First of all, a sample of 490 cases is obtained through an online questionnaire survey and face-to-face surveys from those who are usual residents and are no less than 16 years old and have lived in the UK for at least one year. The questionnaire contains the 5-point Likert scale designed in the last chapter and variables regarding age, gender, ethnicity, attitude towards charity work, the frequency and the amount of money and time contributed to voluntary work.

Second, item analysis is performed as the first step of scale refinement. Cronbach's Alpha of the scale is first investigated. Item-total scale correlation analysis is also employed to ensure that internal consistency and reliability exist in the scale. Items are removed with correlation values less than 0.2 or with the value of Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted exceeding Alpha of the overall scale.

Following item analysis, an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) is performed to derive a set of correlated factors that explain the maximum amount of variation among all the scale items. Suitability of the data for factor analysis is assessed first. Factor extraction using principal components analysis is performed subsequently. Parallel analysis, Kaiser's criterion and scree test are carried out to determine which and how many factors should be retained. Finally, oblique rotation with Direct Oblimin approach is used to aggregate items into scales. Items are retained if their factor loadings are more

than 0.40. In addition, items correlated at greater than or equal to 0.50 with at least 1 factor but correlated at less than 0.30 with the other factors are also retained.

Finally, internal consistency analysis is performed to evaluate the reliability of the construct derived by EFA. Cronbach's alpha is used to examine internal consistency of the scale and subscales. A scale with good internal consistency should have a value of Cronbach's Alpha above 0.7.

Results of the analyses reveal a multi-dimensional construct of public trust in charities. Items able to reflect this concept are determined based upon the data. It also demonstrates a good internal consistency for the overall scale and subscales.

6.2 Theoretical Background

The purposes of scale refinement are: (1) identifying and eliminating items that fail to explain the dependent variable through item analysis and exploratory factor analysis; (2) determining principle components of public trust in charities through exploratory factor analysis; and (3) providing an initial assessment of scale reliability through internal consistency analysis. Scale refinement in this study followed approaches proposed by Churchill (1979) and DeVellis (2012).

6.2.1 Item Analysis

Item analysis is the first step of scale refinement. It starts with Cronbach's Alpha of the scale that is employed to ensure that internal consistency and reliability existed in the scale. Unidimensionality of the scale is demonstrated through this step to test whether items measure the same construct. Nunnally (1987) suggests a value of 0.70 as an acceptable lower bound for alpha, and a value above 0.90 as an indicator of

excellent reliability. Item-total scale correlation also needs to be examined to test whether there is any item not measuring the same construct measured by the other items in the scale. A correlation value less than 0.2 or 0.3 indicates that the corresponding item does not correlate very well with the scale overall which may be dropped (Everitt, 2002; Field, 2005). In addition, values for an item-total correlation between 0 and 0.19 may indicate that the item is not discriminating well, values between 0.2 and 0.39 indicate good discrimination, and values 0.4 and above indicate very good discrimination (Pope, 2009). While Delamere et al. (2001) assert that "the most common guidepost is the deletion of items with a corrected item-to-total correlation of less than 0.50" (p.15).

Additionally, Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted should be considered. Items with a value larger than Cronbach's Alpha of the overall scale should be removed. The deletion will increase reliability of the scale (Field, 2005).

6.2.2 Exploratory Factor Analysis

The second step of scale refinement is exploratory factor analysis. It aims to: (1) help to determine how many latent variables (components or factors) underlie a set of items; (2) provide a means to explain variation among a relatively large amount of variables (items) using relatively few newly created variables (components or factors); (3) provide a means to define the substantive content or meaning of factors that account for the variation among a larger set of items; (4) assist in identifying items that are performing better or worse (Devellis, 2012).

According to Field (2005) and Pallant (2005), there are three main steps of exploratory factor analysis. The first step is to assess the suitability of the data for factor analysis

including consideration of sample size and the strength of the relationship among items. As discussed previously, this study followed Nunnally's (1978) recommendation that 10 cases for each item to be factor analyzed. With regard to the strength of the inter-correlations among the items, Tabachnick and Fidell (2001) suggest it is not suitable for factor analysis if there is no correlation above 0.3 or many correlations above 0.9 when investigating the correlation matrix. Additionally, SPSS provides two statistical measures to assess the suitability of factor analysis: Bartlett's test of sphericity and Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measures of sampling adequacy (Pullant, 2005). The data is suitable for factor analysis if KMO value is no less than 0.6, and Bartlett's test of sphericity is significant ($p<0.05$).

The next step of exploratory factor analysis is factor extraction. It "involves determining the smallest number of factors that can be used to best represent the interrelations among the set of variables" (Pullant, 2005, p. 174). There are many approaches for factor extraction. The ones that are most frequently used are principal components analysis (PCA) and common factor analysis (CFA). The difference between these two techniques is that, basically, components are defined by how items are answered or actual scores obtained on items, while factors determine how items are answered or presents a cause of item scores (Devellis, 2012). Scale development aims to extract composites of observed variables in order to examine the structure of a concept, rather than test a theoretical model of latent factors causing observed variables. Therefore, PCA is more suitable for scale refinement (DeVellis, 2012; Field, 2005).

There are three main techniques that can be used to determine the number of factors to extract (Pullant, 2005; Field, 2005). The first one is Kaiser's criterion which retains factors with an eigenvalue no less than 1.0. Eigenvalue represents the amount of the

total variance in all the variables which is accounted for by the factor. However, Kaiser's criterion is criticized as being vulnerable to the over-retention of factors (Pullant, 2005). Another measure is Catell's scree test indicating the factors which should be retained. This test produces a scree plot displaying the eigenvalues of components or factors in descending order versus the number of the components or factors. The plot begins with a steep line followed by a flat line. Only factors above the change point or elbow should be retained. The third technique is parallel analysis which retains factors by comparing the size of the eigenvalue with those obtained from a randomly generated data set of the same size. Parallel analysis is often performed with the tool of Monte Carlo PCA for Parallel Analysis (Myers, 2011). Parallel analysis is more precise than Kaiser's criterion and scree test (Pullant, 2005).

The third step of factor analysis is factor rotation which aims to facilitate the interpretation of the results. It will not change the solution or factors extracted but will present the pattern of factor loading in a manner easier to interpret. Factor loading is the correlation of an item with a factor or the regression weight of the item on the latent variable (dimension or factor) (Kline, 1994). Two main approaches widely used are orthogonal and oblique solutions. Orthogonal approaches assume the underlying constructs or factors are not correlated, while oblique solutions allow factors to be correlated. Direct Oblimin is the most commonly used oblique technique for factor rotation. It aims to simplify factors by minimizing cross-products of loadings (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007).

Items were retained upon the basis of statistical guidelines. A factor structure is most interpretable when: (1) each factor displays 3 or more strong loadings, and more loadings means greater reliability; (2) each variable loads strongly (> 0.4) on only one factor; (3) items correlated at greater than or equal to 0.5 with at least 1 factor and did

not correlated at greater than 0.3 with the other factors; (4) the solution with a higher percentage of variance explained is better; and (5) results show a "simple" factor structure (e.g. Barkley and Burns, 2000; Howitt and Cramer, 2011). However, item selection and elimination should also be guided by theories and common sense rather than being driven by factor loadings only (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). It is a subjective process through which the analyzer must be able to understand and interpret the factor extracted.

6.2.4 Internal Consistency Analysis

Reliability of the scale should also be interrogated after EFA. Although reliability may be calculated in a number of ways, the most commonly accepted measure is internal consistency (Price and Mueller, 1986; Hinkin, 1995) that examines if a scale is homogenous (Fitzpatrick, 1998; Norwood, 1999). The assumption underlying internal consistency is that the response to a set of scale items should be corresponding and that all items should be moderately correlated with each other and the total test score. The homogeneity of a scale should be independent of its length (Cronbach, 1951).

Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient is the best method for assessing internal consistency, and an alpha coefficient should always be obtained first if other estimates of internal consistency are required (Nunnally, 1978; Polit, 1996; Fitzpatrick, 1998). Cronbach's alpha is an index of the degree to which all of the different items in a scale measure the same attribute (Polit, 1996). The formula computes the ratio of variability between individual responses to the total variability in responses, which reflects the proportion of the total variance in the response that is due to real differences between subjects (Fitzpatrick, 1998). An alpha value can be calculated both for sub-scales

within an instrument and an overall value for the entire instrument (Parahoo, 2000). According to the rule of thumb, the Cronbach's alpha coefficient of a reliable scale should be above 0.7 (Nunnally, 1978; Pallant, 2005). It assessed the unidimensionality within the scale as well as components, with each item reflecting one, and only one, underlying construct.

6.3 Method

6.3.1 Sample

For scale refinement, as there were 40 items in the initial scale and a desirable sample-item ratio is approximately 10:1 (Nunnally, 1978), a sample of at least 400 cases was required for item analysis and exploratory factor analysis (EFA). In the first round of data collection, there were 409 cases obtained via a web-based questionnaire survey and 81 cases obtained in the library in a university of the UK. All of the cases were used for scale refinement.

The questionnaire used for the survey contained the preliminary scale with 40 items and questions regarding overall level of trust in charities, satisfaction regarding charity work in the UK, the form of contributions made to charities, frequency of volunteering and the amount of donation to charities. In addition, demographic variables, such as age, gender, region and ethnicity, were used to investigate the representativeness of the online sample. Details of the questionnaire, processes of the questionnaire distribution, and survey administration were illustrated in section 4.4.

The demographic characteristic of these respondents is illustrated in Table 6.1. Age of respondents ranged from 17 to 73 years. The mean age was 29.2 years, SD was 11.1

years. The median was 25 years, and interquartile range was 11. When looking at the age group, 54.1% were aged under 25 years as there is a large proportion of participants were university students. Among the sample, 58.1% were females and 41.9% were males. 72% of respondents were White, 2.5% were from mixed ethnic groups, 18.7% were Asian or Asian British, 5.1% were Black or Black British, and 1.6% were Arabic or other.

The sample was not representative of the total population. The estimated population of the United Kingdom in the 2011 census was 63.182 million, of which 31.029 million (49.1%) were men and 32.153 million (50.9%) were women; 14.9% aged 17-24, 18.6% aged 25-34, 19.4% aged 35-44, 19.3% aged 45-54, 16.4% aged 55-64, and 11.4% aged 65-73 (Office for National Statistics, 2011a). Additionally, 86.0% of the UK population reported their ethnic group as White, 7.5% as Asian or Asian British, 3.3% as Black or Black British, 2.2% as mixed ethnic groups, 1.0% as other ethnic group (Office for National Statistics, 2011b).

However, sample bias does not influence the result of scale development. According to the theoretical framework of scale development, convenience samples can be safely used for scale test (McDougall and Munro, 1994).

Table 6.1 Demographic Characteristic of Respondents (n=490)

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Age (years)		
17-24	229	47.0
25-34	155	31.8
35-44	46	9.4
45-54	33	6.8
55-64	18	3.7
65 and above	6	1.2
Gender		
Male	203	41.9
Female	284	58.1
Ethnicity		
White	350	72.0
Mixed	12	2.5
Asian or Asian British	91	18.7
Black or Black British	25	5.1
Arabic or other	8	1.6

Note: N=490

6.3.2 Procedure of Scale Refinement

Step 1: Item analysis

Item analysis was first performed with Cronbach's Alpha of the scale. A value of 0.70 is an acceptable lower bound for alpha, and a value above 0.90 is an indicator of excellent reliability. For item-total scale correlation, at this exploring stage, 0.2 was selected as the minimum acceptable item-total correlation. Additionally, for Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted, items with a value larger than Cronbach's Alpha of the overall scale was removed.

Step 2: Exploratory factor analysis

In order to assess the suitability of the data for factor analysis, sample size and the strength of the relationship among items were examined. This study followed the suggestion that 10 cases for each item to be factor analyzed. With regard to the strength of the inter-correlations among the items, there should be many correlations above 0.3 and few correlations above 0.9. Additionally, Bartlett's test of sphericity and Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) were performed to measure sampling adequacy. The data is suitable for factor analysis if KMO value is no less than 0.6, and Bartlett's test of sphericity is significant ($p<0.05$).

Principal components analysis (PCA) was performed to extract factors explaining pubic trust in charities. PCA was applied in this study instead of common factor analysis (CFA) because (1) the components aimed to extract were not antecedents of items. Conversely, they were grounded in actual data and derived from items; (2) the study aimed to extract composites of observed variables in order to examine and refine the structure of a concept, rather than test a theoretical model of latent factors causing observed variables.

To determine the number of factors to extract, Kaiser's criterion, scree test and Parallel analysis-were examined in the study. To facilitate the interpretation of the results, oblique solution was performed as factors under study were correlated theoretically (i.e. Gillepie, 2003; Rousseau et al., 1998; Mayer, Davis and Schoorman, 1995). Direct Oblimin was employed as it was the most commonly used oblique technique for factor rotation.

Finally, items were retained if their factor loadings were no less than 0.40. Besides, items correlated at greater than or equal to 0.5 with at least 1 factor and did not correlated at greater than 0.3 with the other factors were also retained.

Step 3: Internal consistency

Cronbach's alpha coefficient was adopted to assess internal consistency of the entire scale and subscales. According to the rule of thumb, the Cronbach's alpha coefficient of a reliable scale should be above 0.7.

6.4 Results

6.4.1 Item Analysis

Cronbach's Alpha of the newly developed scale, which was 0.928, indicated that the scale had high internal reliability. Scores of nine items (RV3, RV3, RV13, RV23, RV25, RV29, RV41, and RV45) were reversed. The item-total correlation showed the correlations of two items with the scale were 0.10, and 0.07 which were below 0.2 (see Table 6.2). These variables are V7 "it is important for me to know what charities are doing with my donations", and V8 "charities have sufficient support to achieve their goals". By deleting any of them, the Cronbach's Alpha of the scale increased. Moreover, after rerunning item analysis without V7 and V8, Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted for item RV23 exceeded Alpha of the overall scale. It indicated that deleting this item "charities use intrusive fundraising techniques" would raise reliability. When dropping all these three items from this scale, Cronbach's Alpha of the scale increased to 0.934.

Table 6.2 Descriptive Statistics for Items

Items	M	SD	ITC	α_IT
V1 Charities can be relied upon to keep their promises.	3.53	.810	.572	.926
V2 News about charities is generally positive.	3.75	.799	.404	.927
V4 Charities share my opinions about many social problems.	3.45	.880	.439	.927
V6 Charities share beliefs with me about how society should be developed.	3.39	.836	.536	.926
V7 It is important for me to know what charities are doing with my donations.	4.46	.809	.101	.930
V8 Charities have sufficient support to achieve their goals.	2.87	.933	.074	.931
V9 The benefits of giving to charities outweigh the risks that the donation will be misused.	3.50	.944	.506	.926
V11 Charity workers are well qualified to perform their job.	3.19	.785	.483	.927
V12 I would be willing to let charities have complete control over the use of my donations.	3.18	1.095	.457	.927
V14 The behavior of charities is guided by sound principles.	3.56	.706	.570	.926
V16 The aims of charities generally fit well with mine.	3.57	.736	.574	.926
V18 Charities would not knowingly do anything to hurt me.	3.61	.834	.495	.926
V19 Charities keep the interests of their supporters in mind.	3.51	.820	.534	.926
V20 Charities are performing well.	3.43	.754	.565	.926
V21 Charities are well regarded by the public.	3.76	.775	.518	.926
V22 Charities have a strong sense of justice.	3.61	.829	.601	.925
V24 The money given to charities goes to a good cause.	3.67	.758	.652	.925
V27 Charities make a good social impact.	3.83	.784	.651	.925
V28 I appreciate charities' efforts to make a better society.	4.13	.816	.594	.926
V30 Charities are honest with the public.	3.20	.802	.704	.925
V32 Charities would be happy for me to be involved in their work.	3.64	.819	.427	.927
V33 Charities have a good image.	3.74	.717	.573	.926
V35 The charitable sector is generally concerned about my well-being.	2.91	.875	.493	.927
V37 My contributions to charities are important.	3.66	.846	.511	.926
V38 Charities are capable of performing their job adequately.	3.63	.696	.597	.926
V39 I never wonder whether charities will stick to their word.	2.74	1.065	.378	.928
V42 The charitable sector and I share similar values.	3.51	.794	.566	.926
V43 I agree with the way that charities deal with many social problems.	3.46	.840	.674	.925
V44 Charity workers are caring and sympathetic to me.	3.24	.797	.473	.927
V46 When I need help, charities will do the best they can to help me.	3.20	.784	.502	.926
V47 Charities are open in providing information about their work.	3.47	.830	.576	.926
V48 The charitable sector and I share beliefs of essentiality of charities for society.	3.47	.840	.601	.925
V49 The decisions charities make are not influenced by outside organizations.	2.46	.916	.363	.928
RV3 The money donated to charities is used in a corrupt way.	3.39	.899	.442	.927
RV13 Charities distort facts in their favor.	2.81	.920	.364	.928
RV23 Charities use intrusive fundraising techniques.	2.48	.937	.222	.929
RV25 Charities are manipulated by companies for profit.	3.03	.909	.347	.928
RV29 It is necessary to be cautious in dealing with charitable organizations.	2.43	.919	.331	.928
RV41 The money donated to charities is wasted.	3.67	.961	.500	.926
RV45 Charities do not follow through on their stated intentions.	3.31	.764	.465	.927

Note: N=490. Scores of items range from 1 to 5.

M=mean, SD= standard deviation, ICT= Item-Total Correlation, α_IT =Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted.

6.4.2 Exploratory Factor Analysis

Assessment of the suitability of factor analysis

As discussed previously, this study followed Nunnally's (1978) requirement of at least ten cases per item for factor analysis. In our case, there were 37 items remained after item analysis. Thus 490 cases for 37 items were adequate.

The correlation matrix revealed that every item was correlated with other items with correlation coefficients of 0.3 and above, and all the correlation coefficients were below 0.9, which indicated the suitability of data for factor analysis. In addition, the KMO value was 0.944, and all KMO for individual items were above 0.877 exceeding the recommended value of 0.6; Bartlett's test of sphericity χ^2 (666) =6862.89, p<0.01, supporting the factorability of the correlation matrix. Therefore, factor analysis was appropriate for the preliminary scale.

Factor extraction

Principal components analysis (PCA) was performed to extract factors explaining pubic trust in charities. In order to determine the number of factors to be extracted, Kaiser's criterion, scree test and Parallel analysis were performed. Analysis found there to be six factors or components with an eigenvalue of 1 and above. They explained a total of 55.11% of the variance. When looking at Scree Plot, only components above the change point or elbow were retained. In Figure 6.1, the curve began to tail off after the fourth point. Thus, four components should be retained. It needs to be confirmed through Parallel analysis. Components with the eigenvalue

larger than criterion value from parallel analysis were retained; otherwise they were rejected. From the Monte Carlo PCA for Parallel Analysis table (Table 6.3), four components were accepted. The Component Matrix table in the output reveal that most items loaded quite strongly on the first four factors (above 0.4) confirming the suitability of retaining four components (see Appendix 8). These factors explained 30.83%, 6.34%, 4.90%, and 4.22% of the variance, respectively, and 46.28% of variance in total (see Appendix 8).
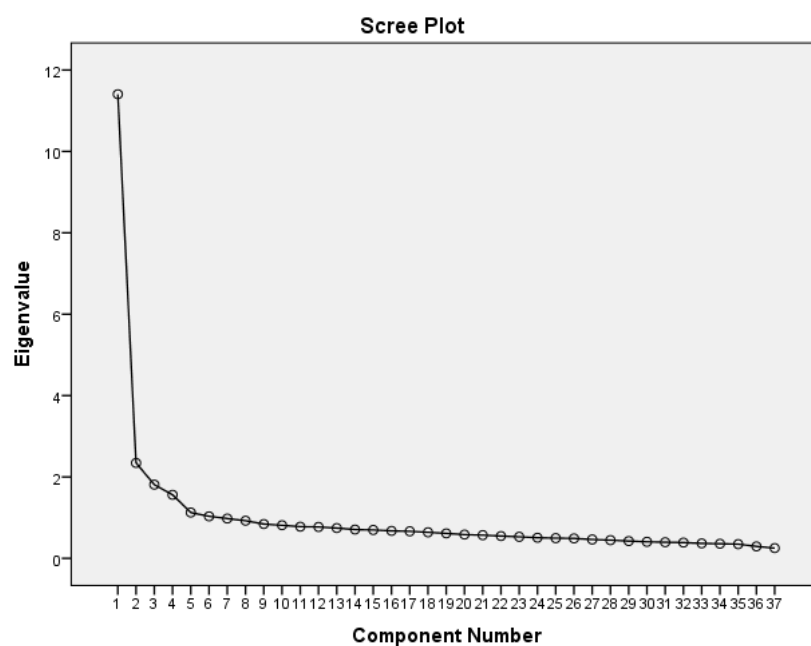
Figure 6.1 Scree Plot (37 items)

Table 6.3 Monte Carlo PCA for Parallel Analysis (37 items)

Component Number	Actual eigenvalue from PCA	Criterion value from parallel analysis	Decision
1	11.406	1.5595	accept
2	2.344	1.4942	accept
3	1.812	1.4443	accept
4	1.562	1.4015	accept
5	1.126	1.3624	reject
6	1.033	1.3259	reject

Factor rotation

To aid the interpretation of these four components, oblique rotation with Direct Oblimin approach was performed. Correlate analysis of four retained factors was first conducted to investigate whether and how components were related, and therefore to decide whether this rotation technique was appropriate. According to component correlation matrix (Table 6.4), there existed correlations between component 1 & 2, 1 & 3, and 1 & 4 with correlation coefficients of 0.3 and above. Consequently, oblique rotation was the suitable method rather than orthogonal rotation that would produce a different component matrix.

Table 6.4 Component Correlation Matrix

Component	1	2	3	4
1	1.000	.315	-.451	.301
2	.315	1.000	-.251	.239
3	-.451	-.251	1.000	-.254
4	.301	.239	-.254	1.000

Note: N=490

The solution with Direct Oblimin solution revealed a much tidier and clearer structure than the solution without rotation (see Appendix 8). However, there were eight items with weak loadings below 0.4 on factors. As discussed previously, items were retained if they only loaded on 1 factor with a factor loading of at least 0.40. Therefore, these eight items were deleted. They were V1, V9, V11, V12, V24, V30, V46, and V47.

Subsequently, PCA was performed again with the remained 29 items. Results showed one item with the loading below 0.4 and several items with cross loadings on more than one component. The item (V32) with loading below 0.4 was removed first. After the rerun of factor analysis with the remained 28 items, it displayed 5 items correlated at greater than 0.5 with at least 1 factor and correlated at greater than 0.3 with the other

factors. Among them, the item with closer cross loadings was eliminated first. Only one item was deleted at a time, thus many rounds of elimination were performed.

After the deletion of V44, V35, and RV29 in sequence, Scree Plot (Figure 6.2) and Parallel analysis (Table 6.5) show that three components instead of four should be retained with 25 remained items. Thus three components were extracted for a new round of PCA. The pattern matrix displayed one item (V49) with loading below 0.3, and one item (V22) with cross loadings, which were deleted in sequence. The remained 23 items load strongly on single components (see Appendix 8) and explain a total of 48.75% of the variance.
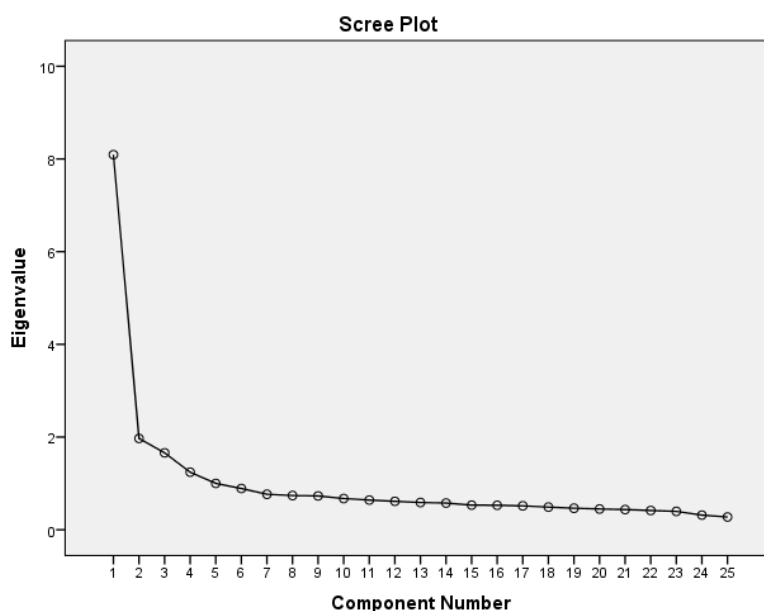
Figure 6.2 Scree Plot (25 items)

Table 6.5 Monte Carlo PCA for Parallel Analysis (25 items)

Component Number	Actual eigenvalue from PCA	Criterion value from parallel analysis	Decision
1	8.094	1.4342	accept
2	1.969	1.3687	accept
3	1.661	1.3180	accept
4	1.242	1.2736	reject
5	1.000	1.2332	reject

6.4.3 The Second Round of Item Analysis and CPA

To examine reliability of the CPA output with 23 items, Cronbach's Alpha, item-total correlation, Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted were investigated for items in each subscales. For the subscale of value similarity, Cronbach's Alpha was above 0.7 indicating good internal reliability. None of the items in this subscale correlated weakly with the overall subscale with a correlation coefficient below 0.5. Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted for all the items were smaller than Cronbach's Alpha of the overall subscale. The results suggested that all the items for the subscale of value similarity be retained. It was also the case for the subscale of perceived integrity.

However, for the subscale of perceived competence, the item V39 showed a poor reliability with item-total correlation of 0.329 and Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted (0.819) above Alpha of the overall subscale (0.806). It indicated that deleting this item "I never wonder whether charities will stick to their word" would increase reliability of the subscale. Further evidence supporting the removal of V39 was provided based on its low correlation (0.164) with the overall scale of 23 items. V39 was also the only item with the value of Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted (0.902) above Alpha of the overall scale (0.900). Consequently, V39 was removed from the scale.

The removal of V39 yielded an item (V27) with cross loadings when performing CPA with the remained 22 items. The deletion of V27, again, yielded an item (V28) with cross loadings, thus V28 was removed subsequently. Each of the remained 20 items loaded strongly and tidily on a single factor respectively (see Appendix 8). The first component indicates shared value between the public and general charities; the second indicates perceived integrity of charities; and the third one indicated perceived competence of charities (see Table 6.6).

The component of perceived competence included 8 items, which was the largest number in comparison with other factors. Some items were not initially generated to measure this component. Such items were "V18 Charities would not knowingly do anything to hurt me", "V14 The behavior of charities is guided by sound principles", "V19 Charities keep the interests of their supporters in mind". V18 was generated to reflect the theoretical component of "benevolence", V14 was generated to reflect the theoretical component of "integrity", and V19 was generated to reflect the theoretical component of "willingness to be vulnerable". The CPA results indicated that these three items were more suitable to be used to measure competence of charities and able to better explain the variance of this component. For example, V14 could reflect the ability of self-regulation; V18 and V19 could reflect the ability to protect and further public interests in charitable work. However, they need to be confirmed through other analyses described in the next chapter.

To summarize, the solution revealed a simple and clear structure with three components: value similarity (VS), perceived integrity (PI), and perceived competence (PC). Value similarity is defined as the alignment of values between the individual and the charitable sector. Integrity is defined as the extent to which charities are believed to fulfil their fiduciary obligations and to be conscientious. Competence is defined as

charities' capability important for completing missions and reaching charitable goals. These three components explained a total of 50.39% of the variance, with component 1 (VS) contributing 32.85%, component 2 (PI) contributing 9.55%, and component 3 (PC) contributing 7.99%.

Table 6.6 Component Matrix of Public Trust in Charities

	VS	PI	PC
V4 Charities share my opinions about many social problems.	.864		
V42 The charitable sector and I share similar values.	.773		
V6 Charities share beliefs with me about how society should be developed.	.744		
V43 I agree with the way that charities deal with many social problems.	.588		
V48 The charitable sector and I share beliefs of essentiality of charities for society.	.586		
V16 The aims of charities generally fit well with mine.	.582		
V37 My contributions to charities are important.	.446		
RV3: The money donated to charities is used in a corrupt way.		.756	
RV25: Charities are manipulated by companies for profit.		.739	
RV13: Charities distort facts in their favour.		.710	
RV45: Charities do not follow through on their stated intentions.		.665	
RV41: The money donated to charities is wasted.		.644	
V21 Charities are well regarded by the public.			.750
V19 Charities keep the interests of their supporters in mind.			.701
V33 Charities have a good image.			.700
V20 Charities are performing well.			.679
V18 Charities would not knowingly do anything to hurt me.			.572
V2 News about charities is generally positive.			.563
V38 Charities are capable of performing their job adequately.			.548
V14 The behavior of charities is guided by sound principles.			.441
Eigenvalues	6.570	1.910	1.597
% variance	32.85%	9.55%	7.99%

Note: N=490. VS=value similarity; PI=perceptive integrity; PC=perceptive competence.

Only factor loadings 0.4 are noted

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KM): 0.916

Bartletts' test of sphericity, $p<0.001$

6.4.4 Internal Consistency

In Table 6.7, the results confirmed the reliability of the whole scale with a very good internal consistency (Cronbach's Alpha=0.865). It also showed a good internal consistency for all subscales (Cronbach's Alpha>0.7). None of the items were suggested as redundant with significant and satisfactory correlations with individual component, and the Cronbach's alpha for the scale showed that all the items were measuring the same construct. It indicated that the scale provided reliable measures for use in future practice and research.

Table 6.7 Internal Consistency

	Reliability Statistics	
	Cronbach's Alpha	Number of Items
Total scale	.887	20
Dimension 1: Value Similarity	.844	7
Dimension 2: Perceived Integrity	.768	5
Dimension 3: Perceptive Competence	.819	8

N=490

6.5 Discussion and Conclusion

Based on the sample of 490 respondents obtained via online surveys and face-to-face questionnaire surveys in the library in a university, a 20-item scale with 3 components was developed to measure public trust in charities. Table 6.8 displays the dimensions and items measuring this concept. Internal consistency analysis using Cronbach's alpha initially demonstrated a high reliability of the scale and subscales. Factorial validity and construct validity of the scale is examined in the next chapter.

Table 6.8 Dimensions and Items of the Refined Scale

Dimensions	Items
Value Similarity	V4 Charities share my opinions about many social problems.
	V42 The charitable sector and I share similar values.
	V6 Charities share beliefs with me about how society should be developed.
	V43 I agree with the way that charities deal with many social problems.
	V16 The aims of charities generally fit well with mine.
	V48 The charitable sector and I share beliefs of essentiality of charities for society.
	V37 My contributions to charities are important.
Perceptive Integrity	V3 The money donated to charities is used in a corrupt way.
	V45 Charities do not follow through on their stated intentions.
	V41 The money donated to charities is wasted.
	V25 Charities are manipulated by companies for profit.
	V13 Charities distort facts in their favor.
Perceptive Competence	V33 Charities have a good image.
	V2 News about charities is generally positive.
	V21 Charities are well regarded by the public.
	V20 Charities are performing well.
	V38 Charities are capable of performing their job adequately.
	V19 Charities keep the interests of their supporters in mind.
	V18 Charities would not knowingly do anything to hurt me.
	V14 The behavior of charities is guided by sound principles.

In terms of this structure's alignment with the proposed conceptual model, there were a few deviations. According to the definition in this study based on previous studies and features of the charitable sector (see Chapter 3), trust in charities is a psychological state manifested by willingness to be vulnerable in the relationship with charities, expectations of the charity's competence, benevolence, integrity, and perceptions of value similarity with the charitable sector. Key dimensions of public trust in charities were defined as: (1) perceptions of the charity's competence; (2) perceptions of the charity's benevolence; (3) perceptions of the charity's integrity; (4) value similarity; and (5) willingness to accept vulnerability.

However, the solution of PCA revealed a simple and clear structure with three components: value similarity (VS), perceptive integrity (PI), and perceptive competence (PC). Benevolence did not manifest itself as an independent component.

Items of benevolence include "Most charities are concerned about my welfare", "My needs and desires (e.g. the right for information) are very important to most charities", "Most charities would not knowingly do anything to hurt my interests". Although benevolence could probably significantly influence trust in general organizations as suggested by previous literature, it did not function in the same way in public trust in charities. It was probably for the reason that the public were more likely to care what charities could contribute to the interests of the whole society and general public, which was derived from charitable values, rather than respondents themselves. It could be the reason why value similarity played a key role in public trust in charities instead of benevolence.

In addition, the public's willingness to be vulnerable is inappropriate to be considered as a dimension of trust in charities. This finding challenges previous studies. For example, Schoorman et al. (2007) and Baier (1995) regard trust as willingness to take risk or to accept vulnerability. Although "willingness to take risks may be one of the few characteristics common to all trust situations" (Johnson-George and Swap, 1982, p. 1306), it could be a consequence of trust rather than trust *per se*. It is because a higher trust might lead to a higher willingness of individuals to accept vulnerability in the relation with the trustee. It needs further examination in future studies.

It is noteworthy that the scale demonstrated the importance of value similarity as a component of public trust in charities. Value similarity, which has not previously been considered as a component of trust in charities, made the largest contribution among the three components to explaining trust. It fills the gap of previous theoretical models and alerts practitioners to be aware of the significance of value similarity in organizational trust.

To sum up, the solution by exploratory factor analysis supported the conceptual model proposed in this study overall, and clarified the structure of the concept of public trust in charities. The findings have underlined the necessity of regarding trust as a multidimensional concept. Validity of this multidimensional construct is examined in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 7: SCALE VALIDATION

7.1 Introduction

This chapter examines the validity of the scale measuring public trust in charities developed through exploratory factor analysis in the previous chapter. It is operationalized through confirmatory factor analysis, and assessing construct validity and criterion-related validity.

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) is conducted for assessing the measurement model fit using Amos 20.0 based on Structural Equation Modelling (SEM). χ^2, normed χ^2, and goodness-of-fit (GOF) statistics are examined to determine how well the model fitted the data. GOF examined includes root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), standard root mean square residual (SRMR), comparative fit index (CFI), incremental fit index (IFI), and Tucker-Lewis index (TLI), and adjusted goodness of fit index (AGFI). The three-dimensional model revealed through EFA is also used to compare with other models with two dimensions and one dimension respectively.

In order to assess construct validity, total score of the newly developed multidimensional scale is compared to the single-item measure of public trust in charities used in a previous empirical study by the Charity Commission (2012; 2014). Moreover, correlations of the new scale and items measuring willingness to accept vulnerability are investigated, as "willingness to be vulnerable" is used as an alternative term of "trust" in previous scales by Mayer and Davis (1999).

Criterion-related validity of the scale is subsequently examined through its relationship to measures of other constructs. Based on theoretical foundations, it is hypothesized

that the level of public trust in charities would be positively correlated with (1) public's respect towards charitable organizations, (2) public's satisfaction towards charity performance, (3) the frequency of money donations, and (4) the amount of money donations.

Findings evidence the validity of the modified model with three dimensions and sixteen items. Factorial validity is supported with good goodness-of-fit statistics; convergent validity is supported with significant factor loadings and correlations with other measures assessing the same construct; discriminant validity is supported with differences with other models and measures; concurrent validity is supported with relationships with measures assessing theoretically related constructs.

7.2 Theoretical Background

Although EFA revealed the construct of public trust in charities, its validity was unknown. Therefore, other analyses were performed to test validity of the scale that is the extent to which the scale measures the phenomenon of interest (DeVellis, 2012). Validity of a scale is achieved if the degree to which it measures what it is supposed to measure is satisfactory according to evaluative principles. Confirmatory factor analysis is a common method of assessing scale validity (Goodwin and Goodwin, 1991). Further, validating a scale through investigating construct validity and criterion-related validity are also recommended as frequently used approaches (Dimitrov, 2014).

7.2.1 Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) is an important technique of structural equation modelling (SEM) which is often used to examine relationships between observed measures or indicators and latent variables or factors (Brown, 2006). SEM is simply defined by Ullman (2007) as exploratory factor analysis combined with multiple regression analysis of factors and path analysis which could eliminate measurement errors. CFA is typically used in later phases of scale development or construct validation after the underlying structure has been initially established by prior empirical analysis with exploratory factor analysis (EFA) (Worrell, 2008).

CFA and EFA

EFA and CFA are different in many ways. EFA is an exploratory or descriptive technique driven by data, of which the aim is to determine the appropriate number of common factors and the pattern of relationships between the common factors and indicators. Whilst CFA aims to evaluate the solution produced by EFA in terms of how well it reproduces the sample correlation or covariance matrix of the measured variables based on strong theoretical foundation. In addition, EFA only provides a completely standardized solution with factor variances equal to 1.0, while CFA produces both standardized and unstandardized solutions; EFA allows factor rotations which does not apply to CFA; again, unlike EFA which only examines relation among indicators, CFA also explores relationships among the measurement errors (unique variances) of indicators (Brown, 2006).

Although EFA and CFA have different functions, they share some similarities: (1) both EFA and CFA are based on the common factor model which assumes that each indicator in a set of observed measures is a linear function of one or more common

factors and one unique factor; (2) they often rely on the same estimation methods, such as maximum likelihood (ML) (Brown, 2006).

Missing data

There are some issues need to be addressed for CFA including missing data, sample size, model estimation, and model modification. The first problem needs to be solved is missing data. There are four basic methods used to remedy missing data (Hair et al., 2010): complete case approach (or listwise deletion), all-available approach (or pairwise deletion), imputation techniques (i.e. mean substitution), and model-based approach (i.e. maximum likelihood estimation of the missing values). The method needs to be selected considering sample size and the extent and pattern of missing data. Hair et al. (2010) assert that any of the approaches are appropriate if missing data are random, less than 10 percent of observations, and the factor loadings are relatively high. However, each method has its advantages and disadvantages (Hair et al., 2010, p. 660). Traditionally, complete case approach is considered as the most appropriate for SEM (Hair et al., 2010).

Sample size

Regarding sample size, according to Nunnally (1978), Myer, Ahn and Jin (2011), previous studies suggest 5-10 cases for each item to be factor analyzed. Moreover, Cattell (1978) suggests that a sample of at least 250 respondents was required for CFA and the test of scale construct validity and criterion-related validity. Meanwhile, Hair et al. (2010) assert that sample sizes in the range of 100 to 400 are adequate for SEM

estimations according to model complexity. To specify, a sample size of 150 is suggested when models with seven or fewer constructs, modest communalities (0.5), and no underidentified (fewer than three items) constructs.

Data screening

Before the performance of CFA, data need to be examined to determine whether they are suitable for CFA (Suhr, 2014). It is operationalized through examining multivariate normality, outliers, and absence of multicollinearity. Regarding multivariate normality, as noted by Kline (2005), "because it is often impractical to examine all joint frequency distributions, it can be difficult to assess all aspects of multivariate normality; fortunately, many instances of multivariate nonnormality are detectable through inspection of univariate distributions" (p. 49). Univariate normality of item scores could be assessed through z-scores by dividing skewness and kurtosis by their standard error, and check whether the value is significant which would indicate whether the distribution is significantly different from normal distribution. However, as noted by Field (2009), it is more appropriate to examine histograms and the value of the skewness and kurtosis rather than calculate their significance when the sample is larger than 200.

Outliers or extreme scores can be detected by interrogating Mahalanobis distances through linear regression analysis. Mahalanobis distances measures the distance of cases from the means of the predictor/independent variables, and to identify which cases are outliers. Critical χ^2 value needs to be determined using number of independent variables as the degrees of freedom. According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2001), a maximum Mahalanobis distance larger than the critical χ^2 value for df=n (the

number of predictor/independent variables in the model) at a critical alpha value of .001 indicates the presence of one or more multivariate outliers.

Absence of multicollinearity can be diagnosed through the correlation matrix of independent variables expecting no high correlation coefficient above 0.5. Tolerance and VIF (Variance Inflation Factor) also need to be investigated for multicollinearity diagnose. Tolerance is the percentage of the variance in a given predictor that cannot be explained by the other predictors. If this value is smaller than 0.1, it indicates that the multiple correlation with other variables is high, suggesting the possibility of multicollinearity (Pallant, 2006). VIF is the reciprocal of tolerance, and a value above 10 indicates multicollinearity.

Model estimation

The next issue of CFA is model estimation. There are different estimation techniques: ordinary least squares (OLS) regression, maximum likelihood estimation (MLE), weighted least squares (WLS), generalized least squares (GLS), and asymptotically distribution free (ADF) estimations. MLE is more efficient and unbiased when the assumption of multivariate normality is met. Some of the other techniques, such as ADF, are insensitive to nonnormality of data, but the requirement of rather large sample size limits their use. According to Hair et al. (2010), MLE continues to be the most widely used approach, and "it has proven fairly robust to violations of the normality assumption" (p. 663).

Another issue for model estimation that needs to be considered is how to assess measurement model validity, which depends on levels of goodness-of-fit (GOF) and construct validity. GOF indicates the extent of the similarity of the observed and

estimated covariance matrices. Measures of GOF include three categories according to Hair et al. (2010): (1) absolute fit indices that are direct measure of how well the model specified by the researcher reproduces the observed data; it includes χ^2, goodness of fit index (GFI), root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), root mean square residual (RMR), and standard root mean square residual (SRMR); (2) incremental fit indices that assess how well the estimated model fits relative to some alternative baseline models; it includes normed fit index (NFI), comparative fit index (CFI), incremental fit index (IFI), and Tucker-Lewis index (TLI); (3) parsimony fit indices that provide information about which model among a set of competing models is best considering its fits relative to its complexity; it includes adjusted goodness of fit index (AGFI) and parsimony normed fit index (PNFI).

Multiple fit indices should be used to assess a model's GOF and should include: χ^2 and degrees of freedom, one absolute fit index (i.e. GFI or RMSEA), one incremental fit index (i.e. CFI or TLI), one goodness-of-fit index (i.e. GFI or CFI), and one badness-of-fit index (i.e. RMSEA or SRMR) (Hair et al., 2010). According to the guideline provided by Tabachnick and Fidell (2007), Brown (2006), along with that by Hair, et al. (2010) considering model situation, for a valid model with 12 to 30 indicator variables and an effective sample size below 250: (1) χ^2 could be significant even with good fit; (2) normed χ^2 (ratio of χ^2 to the degree of freedom) below 2 is expected; (3) SRMS below 0.08 is expected; (4) RMSEA below 0.08 is expected; (5) GFI above 0.90 is expected; (6) AGFI above 0.90 is expected; (7) CFI or TLI above 0.95 is expected; (8) IFI above 0.95 is expected.

Model modification

The final issue regards model modification. Models can be modified based on standardized residuals and modification indices (Hair et al., 2010). Standard residuals refer to the individual differences between observed covariance terms and estimated covariance terms. Problematic item pairs can be diagnosed with absolute value between 2.5 and 4. Further, Modification Indices (MI) are useful for indicating unmodeled variances (paths between errors) that could be estimated in a modified or revised model to improve the model fit. The larger the value of MI, the greater contribution it will make for model improvement when the path is built. However, only paths between errors for indicators loading on the same factor are allowed to be built.

7.2.2 Construct Validity

Construct validity is concerned with assessing whether the instrument accurately reflects its construct and adequately measures the underlying attribute (Polit and Hungler, 1999). It is also concerned with the appropriateness of the interpretation of scores (Goodwin and Goodwin, 1991; Coates, 1995; Haynes, Richard and Kubany, 1995).

Construct validity includes convergent validity and discriminant validity (Trochim, 2006). Convergence refers to evidence that different methods of measuring the same construct produce similar results. Discriminability refers to "the ability to differentiate the construct being measured from other similar constructs" (Gutierrez, 2007, p. 13). Convergent validity is different to concurrent validity which is used in criterion-related validation. However, they were referred to interchangeably in many

situations. Thus it is necessary to distinguish convergent validity and concurrent validity clearly. Concurrent validity is usually used to refer to the extent to which theoretically related tests, not the same tests, correlate. Convergent validity refers to the extent to which two (or more) tests of the same construct correlate (Hemmerdinger, Stoddart and Lilford, 2007; Godwin et al., 2013).

CFA can also be used to assess construct validity of a measurement. Through CFA, convergent validity is achieved when indicators of a specific construct converge or share a high proportion of common variance. It can be assessed through factor loadings: "at a minimum, all factor loadings should be statistically significant" (Hair, et al., 2010, p. 709). Further, standardized factor loadings with absolute values of 0.5 or higher indicate high convergent validity (Hair, et al., 2010). Average variance extracted (AVE) can also be used to assess convergent validity. It is the total of all squared standardized factor loadings divided by the number of items. Using the same logic of factor loadings, an AVE of 0.25 or higher would suggest adequate convergence (Bezdrob and Šunje, 2013). Discriminant validity of a model is the extent to which a construct is truly distinct from others. It can be supported with low or absence of cross-loadings, and significantly different model fits between the model under study and other models (Hair et al., 2010).

As noted by Hair et al. (2010), CFA could provide biased results of construct validity test due to the complete case approach that commonly used for remedying missing data. It would increase the likelihood of noncovergence, factor loading bias, and bias in estimates of relationships among factors. Consequently, other methods also need to be used to examine the construct validity of the model.

In addition to CFA, construct validity of the scale should also be examined by interrogating the correlation of the scale under study and other measures of this construct (Hinkin, 1995). Convergent validity would be evidenced if scores of these two measurements were significantly or strongly correlated. Discriminant validity would be demonstrated when different measures, which are used to assess a same construct, are showed not exactly the same.

There were two other scales used by previous research to measure public trust in charities. The first one was a single-item measurement used by the Charity Commission (2012, 2014) to assess public trust in charities. The item is "What is your general level of trust in charities in the UK?" The second one was used to measure willingness to accept vulnerability regarding charities, which was regarded as an alternative expression of public trust in charities by Mayer and Davis (1999). Schoorman et al. (2007) define trust as the "willingness to be vulnerable", and the level of trust is an indication of the amount of risk that one is willing to take. Baier (1995) argues that "trust is acceptance of vulnerability to harm that others could inflict, but which we judge that they will not in fact inflict" (P. 152). From this point of view, trust can be defined as the willingness to be vulnerable, which could be used to test convergent validity of the newly developed scale. Therefore, there were two hypothesis used to test construct validity of the newly developed scale[4]:

H1: A higher level of trust in charities measured by PTCS indicates a higher level of trust measured by CC.

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[4] Note: PTCS is the newly developed multidimensional scale Public Trust in Charities Scale; CC is the single-item scale employed by the Charity Commission; WTAV is the scale used to measure willingness to accept vulnerability regarding charities.

H2: A higher level of trust in charities measured by PTCS indicates a higher level of trust measured by WTAV.

7.2.3 Criterion-related Validity

Scale validity can also be inferred from its relationship to measures of other constructs, or its ability to predict specific events (DeVellis, 2012). This aspect of validity is referred to as criterion-related validity or nomological validity. The aim of criterion-related validation is to establish a relationship between the instrument and some other theoretically associated measures and variables (Josman, 1998). The instrument is regarded as valid if both scores are significantly or even strongly correlated (Polit and Hungler, 1999). The requirement within criterion-related validity is the availability of another reliable and valid criterion to which measures on the target tool can be compared (Payton, 1994). This is appropriately determined by use of another instrument that measures a similar attribute (Fitzpatrick, 1998).

Criterion-related validity includes predictive validity and concurrent validity of the instrument (Trochim, 2006). Predictive validity refers to the adequacy of an instrument in predicting scores on some future criterion (LoBiondo-Wood and Haber, 1998; Polit and Hungler, 1999). Concurrent validity, which is different to predictive validity in terms of timing particularly, assesses the degree of correlation of two measures of the same criterion measured at the same time (LoBiondo-Wood and Haber, 1998).

This study focused on concurrent validity as the data was not longitudinal. Concurrent validity was measured by comparing the scale with another instrument that measures a related, but different, construct about public trust in charities. As discussed in Chapter

4, public trust is essential for the sustainability of the charitable sector. Higher degrees of trust in a charity are associated with a greater willingness to become a donor and to make greater donations; further, higher levels of trust improve the possibility that enduring donor-charity relationships will develop, which might lead to a more frequent charitable contribution (Sargeant and Lee, 2004a). It also leads to positive public attitudes towards charities, as a high level of public trust is helpful for charities to maintain a positive social image, which is an essential prerequisite for fundraising and the fulfillment of their objectives (Bendapudi, Singh and Bendapudi, 1996).

Thus hypothetically, higher degrees of trust in a charity are associated with greater contribution towards charities, higher respect or regard towards charities, and higher extent of satisfaction towards charity performance. The public's contribution towards charities is often examined from the perspectives of the amount and the frequency of money donation to charities. These aspects are the most direct criteria which are frequently used to evaluate charitable contribution in empirical studies (NCVO and CFA, 2012). Therefore, hypothesis used to test convergent validity of the scale were:

H3: A higher level of public trust in charities indicates a higher frequency of charitable giving.

H4: A higher level of public trust in charities indicates a larger amount of charitable giving.

H5: A higher level of public trust in charities indicates a higher extent of public respect towards charitable organizations.

H6: A higher level of public trust in charities indicates a higher extent of public satisfaction towards charity performance.

7.3 Method

7.3.1 Sample

There were 253 cases obtained in classes and in the library of a university in the UK for scale validation. Among them, 108 were generated from classes, and 145 were obtained in the library. The questionnaire used for the survey was slightly different with the one used for scale refinement by excluding items dropped during item analysis and exploratory factor analysis. Moreover, seven items used for testing criterion-related validity and construct validity were included in the questionnaire. The content of the questionnaire, processes of the questionnaire distribution, and survey administration have been described in section 4.4.

Adult participants (no less than 16 years old) who had lived in the UK for at least one year were recruited. The demographic characteristic of these respondents are illustrated in Table 7.1. Age of respondents ranged from 17 to 55 years. The mean age was around 21.6 years, SD was 5.3 years. The median was 20 years, and interquartile range was 3. Of all respondents, 89.3% were aged under 25 years as most participants in the library and classes were undergraduate students. Among the sample, 57.5% were males, 42.5% were females. 76.1% of respondents were White, 4% were from mixed ethnic groups, 7.2% were Asian or Asian British, 8.8% were Black or Black British, and 4.0% were Arabic or other.

Again, this sample was not representative of the total population in the UK to some extent, particularly from the perspective of respondents' age, as the sample tended to be young. Additionally, in comparison with the population in the UK, the sample constituted a larger proportion of males and black or black British. However, sample

bias is not a concern for scale validation and convenience sample can be safely used for scale test (Rotter, 1967; Larzelere and Huston, 1980; McDougall and Munro, 1994). The issues about sample for CFA need to be concerned are sample size, missing value, and data screening for normality, outliers, and absence of multicollinearity (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007; Hair et al., 2010).

Table 7.1 Demographic Characteristic of Respondents (n=253)

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Age (years)		
17-24	223	89.9
25-34	16	6.5
35-44	4	1.6
45-54	4	1.6
55-64	1	0.4
65 and above	0	0
Gender		
Male	145	57.5
Female	107	42.5
Ethnicity		
White	191	76.1
Mixed	10	4.0
Asian or Asian British	18	7.2
Black or Black British	22	8.8
Arabic or other	10	4.0

Note: N=253

7.3.2 Procedure of Scale Validation

Step 1: Confirmatory factor analysis

Fourteen cases (5.5% of total sample) with missing data were identified. The missing data was random that its pattern for variables did not depend on any other variables in the data set or on the values of the variable itself. It was evidenced through EM

(expectation maximization) estimation which checked if the subjects with missing values were different than the subjects without missing values. Results yield by Missing Value Analysis in SPSS demonstrated there was no difference between subjects with missing values and subjects without missing values (χ^2=173.368, p>.05). Although any of the approaches discussed in section 7.2.1 for addressing missing data are appropriate if missing data are random, less than 10 percent of observations, and the factor loadings are relatively high (with many factor loadings above 0.5 in the model), complete case approach has been selected as it is considered as the most appropriate for SEM (Hair et al., 2010). Thus, there remained 239 cases.

As there were 20 items retained in the scale through scale refinement, an effective sample of 239 cases is sufficient to be used for scale validity analysis for a model including three constructs, and each construct includes more than three items.

Data screening was performed to determine whether they were suitable for CFA through examining multivariate normality, outliers, and absence of multicollinearity following the guidelines provided by Tabachnick and Fidell (2007). First, univariate normality rather than multivariate normality was interrogated as discussed in section 7.2.1. Histograms and the value of the skewness and kurtosis for individual items were focused. According to Kline (2005), variables with absolute values of skewness greater than 3 and absolute values of kurtosis greater than 10 suggest a problem of normality.

Outliers and absence of multicollinearity were examined through linear regression analysis. The 20 items retained in the scale were independent variables. The dependent variable should be a continuous variable for linear regression model. As the focus was to look at relationships among the 20 items to test whether items were suitable for

CFA, rather than how independent variables explain the dependent variable, any relevant continuous variables could be used as the dependent variable (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). In this study, variable of age was selected as the dependent variable in the linear regression model. Scores of respondents' age ranged from 17 to 55.

Outliers or extreme scores were checked by interrogating Mahalanobis distances. According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2001), a maximum Mahalanobis distance larger than the critical χ^2 value for df=n (the number of predictor/independent variables in the model) at a critical alpha value of .001 indicates the presence of one or more multivariate outliers. Absence of multicollinearity was diagnosed through the correlation matrix of independent variables expecting no high correlation coefficient above 0.5. It is also expected Tolerance larger than 0.1, and VIF (Variance Inflation Factor) below 10.

Regarding model estimation, maximum likelihood estimation (MLE) was employed in the study. Multiple fit indices were then used to assess a model's GOF. For a valid model with 12 to 30 indicator variables and an effective sample size below 250: (1) χ^2 could be significant even with good fit; (2) normed χ^2 (ratio of χ^2 to the degree of freedom) below 2 is expected; (3) SRMS below 0.08 is expected; (4) RMSEA below 0.08 is expected; (5) GFI above 0.90 is expected; (6) AGFI above 0.90 is expected; (7) CFI or TLI above 0.95 is expected; (8) IFI above 0.95 is expected.

The model was modified based on standardized residuals and modification indices. Problematic item pairs were identified with absolute value of standardized residuals between 2.5 and 4. Further, unmodeled variances (paths between errors) were diagnosed with Modification Indices (MI). The larger the value of MI, the greater contribution it made for model improvement when the path is built.

As discussed previously, discriminant validity of a model, which is the extent to which a construct is truly distinct from others, can be supported with significantly different model fits in comparison with other models with different constructs (Hair et al., 2010). The three-dimensional model in the study was first compared with a two-dimensional model including the dimension of VS (value similarity) and the dimension of PT (perceived trustworthiness) that combined of PC (perceived competence) and PI (perceived integrity). It then used to compare with the single-dimensional model integrating the constructs together. Model differences were detected through x^2 and the goodness-of-fit statistics (Hair et al., 2010).

Step 2: Examining construct validity

Construct validity of the scale was assessed through CFA and the relationship of the scale under study with other measures of this construct. Through CFA, construct validity was demonstrated by examining whether all factor loadings was statistically significant, or even with standardized factor loadings of 0.5 or higher, whether Average variance extracted (AVE) was 0.25 or higher, and whether the three-dimensional construct under measured was distinct from the two-dimensional and the single-dimensional model with significantly different model fits.

Moreover, convergent validity of the scale was examined through the correlation of the multidimensional scale under study and the single-item measure used by the Charity Commission (2012; 2014). The single item was "What is your general level of trust in charities in the UK?" Scores of this question ranged from 1 "I totally mistrust charities" to 5 "I absolutely trust charities".

Additionally, convergent validity of the scale was also interrogated by examining the correlation of the new scale under study and the scale measure willingness to accept vulnerability. Five items measuring willingness to take risk with regard to charities were identified and adjusted from works of Mayer and Davis (1999) and Schoorman and Ballinger (2006) as follows. Scores of items ranged from 1 "strongly disagree" to 5 "strongly agree".

1. Charities can be relied upon to keep their promises.

2. The benefits of giving to charities outweigh the risks that the donation will be misused.

3. I would be willing to let charities have complete control over the use of my donations.

4. Charities keep the interests of their supporters in mind.

5. It is necessary to be cautious in dealing with charitable organizations.

Step 3: Examining criterion-related validity

Criterion-related validity was measured through comparing the scale with another instrument that measures a related, but different, construct about public trust in charities. These constructs were the public's extent of respect towards charitable organizations, the public's extent of satisfaction towards charity performance, the frequency of charitable giving, and the amount of charitable donation.

The public's extent of respect towards charitable organizations was measured with an item "Charities are well regarded by the public". Scores of this item ranged from 1

(strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The public's extent of satisfaction towards charity performance was also assessed with a single item "I'm satisfied with performance of charitable organizations". Item scores ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

The amount of money donation to charities was assessed by asking "What's the amount of money donation per month in average approximately?" Scores of this question ranged from 1 (0) to 5 (above £50). The frequency of money donation was measured with the question "Do you donate at least once a year?" Scores of this question were 1 (no) to 2 (yes).

7.4 Results

7.4.1 Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Preliminary analysis

Before the performance of CFA, data need to be examined to determine whether they are suitable for CFA. First, fourteen cases with missing data (5.5% of total sample) were deleted. Next, multivariate normality, outliers, and absence of multicollinearity were examined. Scores of items appear to be reasonably normally distributed according to histograms. Moreover, absolute values of skewness of variables ranged from 0.058 to 0.935, absolute values of kurtosis ranged from 0.028 to 2.344. Variables with absolute values of skewness greater than 3 and absolute values of kurtosis greater than 10 suggest a problem of normality (Kline, 2005). Thus, the assumption of normality was not violated in this case.

Outliers and absence of multicollinearity were examined through linear regression analysis. As there were 20 independent variables in the model, the critical value of Mahalanobis distances was 45.315. The residuals statistics showed that the maximum value for Mahalanobis distances was 83.148. There were 10 outliers with Mahalanobis distances above 45.315 detected. They were individually inspected and then deleted.

Furthermore, multicollinearity was diagnosed. The correlation matrix of independent variables did not show high correlation coefficient above 0.5, thus predictors were independent from each other. In addition, results showed that the tolerance of every predictor was far above 0.1, and VIF was far below 10. Therefore, there was no violation of the multicollinearity assumption.

Through preliminary analysis, 229 cases were retained. According to the common rule of thumb for determining adequate sample size for the application of CFA, the retained sample of 229 cases was sufficient for a model of 20 items with three constructs, and each construct includes more than three items.

Model estimation

The model of public trust in charities was built based on the construct revealed through EFA. There are three factors noted as value similarity, perceived integrity, and perceived competence. According to the path diagram produced with Amos, items identified for each factor in EFA were presented as indicators (V"x"); Measurement errors revealing unique variance of indicators were presented as e"x". Arrows or linkages between factors and indicators showed factor loadings of each indicator; Arrows between indicators and error displayed error variances; Arrows between

factors indicated factor covariance, and that between errors indicated error covariance (see Figure 7.1).
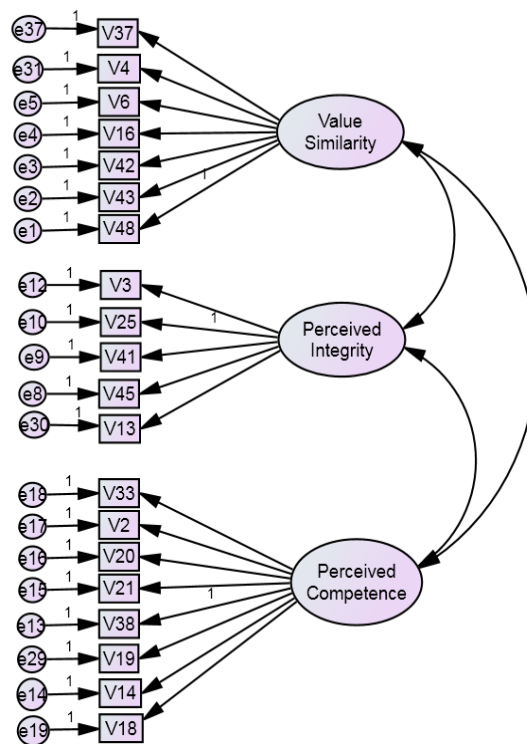
Figure 7.1 Path Diagram of the Initial Model

After the model has been established, maximum likelihood estimation (MLE) was selected as the appropriate estimation technique based on the preliminary analysis. To assess measurement model validity, it is necessary to investigate the goodness-of-fit statistics. CFA output included many fit indices, but only key GOF values were focused to provide assessment of fit (see Table 7.2). The overall model χ^2 was 271.276 with 167 degrees of freedom. The p value associated with this result was significant showing that the χ^2 goodness-of-fit statistic did not indicate a match between the observed covariance matrix and the estimated covariance matrix within sampling variance. However, as Hair, et al. (2010) suggest, for a valid model with 12 to 30

indicator variables and an effective sample size below 250, χ^2 could be significant even with good fit. Therefore, other fit statistics were also examined.

The rule of thumb suggests relying on at least one absolute fit index and one incremental fit index. The value for RMSEA, an absolute fit index, was 0.052. This value was below the 0.08 guideline for a model with 20 measured variables and an effective sample size of 229. Using the confidence interval for this RMSEA, the true value of RMSEA was between 0.041 and 0.063. Thus, even the upper bound of RMSEA was lower than 0.08 in this ease. The RMSEA therefore provided additional support for model fit. SRMR had a value of 0.058, below the cutoff value of 0.08. The third absolute fit statistic was the normed χ^2, which was 1.624. This measure is the χ^2 value divided by the degrees of freedom (271.276/167=1.624). A number smaller than 2.0 is considered as very good, and between 2.0 and 5.0 as acceptable. Thus, the normed x^2 suggested a good fit for the CFA model.

Moving to the incremental fit indices, the CFI is the most widely used index. In this CFA model, CFI had a value of 0.893, which was below the CFI guidelines of greater than 0.95 for a model of this complexity and sample size. The other incremental fit indices were also below the suggested cutoff values. Although this model was not compared to other models at this stage, the parsimony index of AGFI had a value of 0.870, which below the suggested cutoff value of 0.90.

Table 7.2 CPA Goodness-of-fit Statistics for the Initial Model

	Statistics
Chi-square (χ^2)	
χ^2	271.276 (p<0.001)
Degrees of freedom	167
Absolute Fit Indices	
Goodness of fit index (GFI)	0.897
Root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA)	0.052
90 percent confidence intervals for RMSEA	(0.041, 0.063)
Standard root mean square residual (SRMS)	0.058
Normed χ^2	1.624
Incremental Fit Indices	
Incremental fit index (IFI)	0.896
Tucker-Lewis index (TLI)	0.879
Comparative fit index (CFI)	0.893
Parsimony Fit Indices	
Adjusted goodness of fit index (AGFI)	0.870

To conclude, results of goodness-of-fit statistics showed a fair fit for the initial model. Although absolute fit indices, were satisfactory, incremental fit indices and parsimony fit indices were not. Therefore, model improvement was necessary.

Before shifting focus to model modification, issues regarding construct validity were examined next in order to identify problems causing the unsatisfactory results of some model fit indices. To assess construct validity, convergent validity was examined subsequently through standardized factor loadings. As discussed previously in the theoretical background, all factor loadings should be statistically significant, and further, standardized factor loadings with absolute values of 0.5 or higher indicate high convergent validity (Hair et al., 2010). Moreover, average variance extracted (AVE) of 0.25 or higher suggests adequate convergence.

Table 7.3 displays standardized loadings. Loading estimates were statistically significant (p<0.001) supporting convergent validity of the model (see Appendix 9).

However, loading strength was not very strong for some indicators. The highest loading was 0.75, linking VS (value similarity) to item V48. The lowest loading was 0.34, linking PI (perceptive integrity) to item V25. Moreover, as shown at the bottom of Table 7.3, AVE was 22.2% for PC (perceptive competence), which is below the cutoff value of 25%. Under this factor, 4 from 8 items show a loading below 0.5. Therefore, these four items should be considered as candidates for deletion from the model.

Table 7.3 Standardized Factor Loadings and Average Variance Extracted

Item	VS	PI	PC
V37	0.42		
V4	0.53		
V6	0.61		
V16	0.60		
V42	0.70		
V43	0.65		
V48	0.75		
V3		0.66	
V25		0.34	
V41		0.64	
V45		0.61	
V13		0.47	
V33			0.52
V2			0.35
V20			0.51
V21			0.45
V38			0.52
V19			0.43
V14			0.50
V18			0.48
AVE	36.3%	31.2%	22.2%

Note: VS is value similarity; PI is perceived integrity; PC is perceived competence. AVE is Average Variance Extracted.

It is not suggested to rely on factor loadings and AVE to assess convergent validity of the model for this case. As Hair et al. (2010) note that the method to remedy missing value would affect the results of convergent validity test. To specify, the complete case

approach, which is adopted in this study, would increase the likelihood of noncovergence, factor loading bias, and bias in estimates of relationships among factors (Hair et al., 2010, p. 660). Consequently, other methods were also used to examine convergent validity of the model later in section 7.4.2. Nevertheless, factor loadings and AVE provided diagnostic information that may suggest modifications for addressing problems.

Before examining discriminant validity, which is another element of construct validity, model modification will be interrogated. It is more suitable to assess discriminant validity for the final model after modified.

Model modification

Model modification was operationalized based on factor loadings, standardized residuals, and modification indices. First, as discussed previously, low loadings below the cutoff value of 0.5 suggest a variable is a candidate for deletion from the model. Such variables in this case were V37, V25, V13, V2, V21, V19, and V18. Moreover, AVE for each of the three factors showed that the component PC needs particular attention as the value was below 25% and there were four items (V2, V21, V19, and V18) with a loading below 0.5 on this factor. However, the decision of deletion is not made just on the loadings as noted by Hair et al. (2010).

Standardized residuals were also examined. Results in Table 7.4 show three pairs of variables that have standardized residuals greater than 2.5. The largest residual was 3.42 for the covariance between V21 and V33 representing the same factor PC. V21 had a low loading (0.45) below 0.5 whilst the loading for V33 was 0.52, thus V21 could be deleted. Another pair of items V37 and V38 also had standardized residuals

greater than 2.5. V37 represents the factor VS, and V38 represents the factor PC. One of them should be deleted. As the loading for V37 on VS was 0.42, while the one for V38 on PC was 0.52, V37 was suggested to be deleted.

Furthermore, V18 and V19 shared a high standardized residual covariance, and both of them loaded weakly (below 0.5) on the factor PC. V18 was "charities would not knowingly do anything to hurt me". V19 was "charities keep the interests of their supporters in mind". Both items were used to indicate the component "willingness to be vulnerable" before EFA. However, EFA showed these items were strongly loaded on the factor "perceived competence". The problem regarding this contradiction was diagnosed through CFA that the regression weight of both items on PC was not strong, and they were associated with each other closely. It also supports that the model has a solid theoretical foundation. Consequently, both of the items could be removed from the model.

Table 7.4 Standardized Residuals (all residuals greater than 2.5)

Items	Standardized Residuals
V21 and V33	3.424
V37 and V38	2.757
V18 and V19	2.788

Before making the decision to delete the problematic items (V21, V37, V18, and V19), model modification was performed by interrogating modification indices (see Appendix 9). The largest modification index was 24.39 for the covariance of the error terms of V21 and V33. The modification index for the covariance of the error terms was also high for V18 and V19 with a value of 13.75, for V37 and V38 with a value of 9.50. The results confirmed the necessity of removing items V21, V37, V18, and V19 from the model.

It is noteworthy that, as discussed previously, items V25, V13, and V2 loaded relatively weakly (below 0.5) on the factors they represent. However, they cannot be removed merely based on this criterion. As suggested by guidelines, standardized residuals and modification indices for these items also need to be considered. Statistics showed no problems regarding standardized residuals and modification indices for these three items. Therefore, no action was taken at this point.

Without the four problematic items (V21, V37, V18, and V19), a new model with 16 items is specified in Figure 7.2. Good-of-fit statistics of this model in Table 7.5 show an improvement from the initial model. All the absolute fit indices and parsimony fit indices satisfied the benchmark values. Although there was a dramatically rise for incremental fit indices (CFI, IFI, and TLI), they remained below the cutoff value of 0.95. Therefore, a further model improvement is necessary.
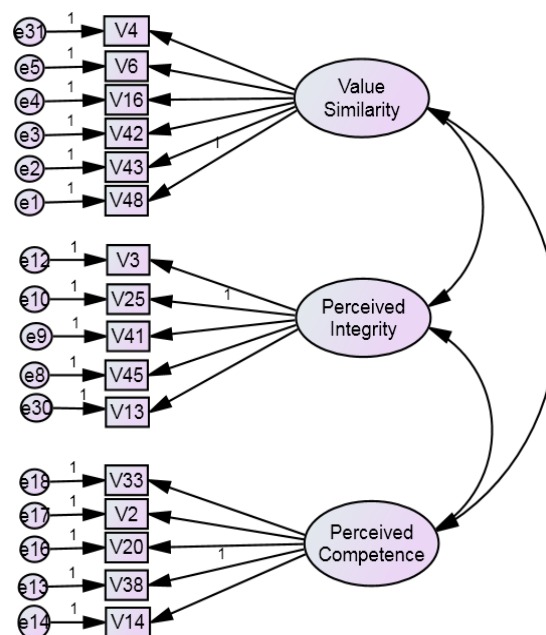
Figure 7.2 Path Diagram of the Modified Model

Table 7.5 CPA Goodness-of-fit Statistics for the Modified Model

Goodness-of-fit	Normed χ^2	SRMR	RMSEA	GFI	CFI	TLI	IFI	AGFI
Initial Model	1.624	0.058	0.052	0.897	0.893	0.879	0.896	0.870
Modified Model	1.499	0.052	0.047	0.927	0.936	0.924	0.937	0.901

Factor loadings showed there were four items (V25, V13, V33, and V2) loaded relatively weakly on factors they represent with regression weight below 0.5. It is not unusual given a total sample size of 253 (with an effective sample size of 229) using complete case approach (Hair et al., 2010). Standardized residuals showed that only one pair of items (V33 and V43) had the value of 2.57, which slightly exceed 2.5. No action was taken considering (1) factor loadings for V33 (0.45) and V43 (0.64) were not very low; (2) the deletion of V33 caused decrease of factor loadings of other items, such as V14 and V2; and (3) it also caused an increase of correlations between factors PC and PI.

Modification indices showed the largest value was 16.85 for the covariance of the error terms of V4 and V6, which were indicators of VS (see Appendix 9). Results also suggest a path between the error terms of V38 and V14, V38 and V20, which all were indicators of PC. When these linkages were added, goodness-of-fit statistics of the model were improved as displayed at Table 7.6. Correlation between error variance was 0.31 for V4 and V6, -0.13 for V20 and V38, 0.15 for V14 and V38 (see Appendix 9).

Table 7.6 CPA Goodness-of-fit Statistics for the Final Model

	Statistics
Chi-square (χ^2)	
χ^2	124.411 (p=0.037)
Degrees of freedom	98
Absolute Fit Indices	
Goodness of fit index (GFI)	0.94
Root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA)	0.034
90 percent confidence intervals for RMSEA	(0.009, 0.051)
Standard root mean square residual (SRMS)	0.047
Normed χ^2	1.269
Incremental Fit Indices	
Incremental fit index (IFI)	0.967
Tucker-Lewis index (TLI)	0.959
Comparative fit index (CFI)	0.966
Parsimony Fit Indices	
Adjusted goodness of fit index (AGFI)	0.916

Table 7.6 showed the CFA results generally supported the measurement model. The χ^2 statistic was insignificant at the 0.01 level indicating a match between the observed covariance matrix and the estimated covariance matrix within sampling variance. All the absolute fit indices, incremental fit indices, and parsimony fit indices were quite good, demonstrating a good validity of the model.

Model comparison

Discriminant validity of the model was demonstrated through comparisons with other models. In this case, the three-dimensional model was compared with other models with single dimension and two dimensions respectively (see Figure 7.3).

The three-dimensional model was first compared with a two-dimensional model that included the dimension of VS (value similarity) and the dimension of PT (perceived trustworthiness). PT was the combination of PC (perceived competence) and PI

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(perceived integrity), which were two aspects of trustworthiness of charities as discussed in Chapter 2. PC and PI were integrated as one common factor also because of the relatively high factor covariance with a value of 0.88. Model differences were detected through x^2 and the goodness-of-fit statistics (see Table 7.7).
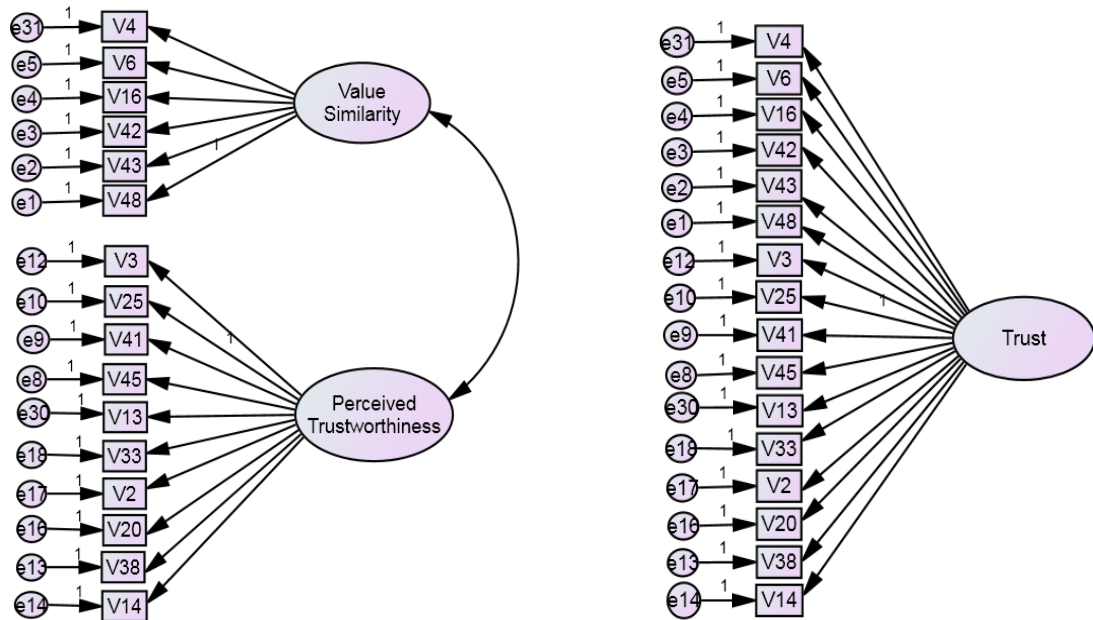
Figure 7.3 Path Diagram of the Two-factor and the Single-factor Models

The difference of chi-square Δx^2 between the three-factor model and the two-factor model was 34.692; the difference of degrees of freedom Δdf was 5. According to the χ^2 distribution table, at the significance level of 0.001 with Δdf of 5, if Δx^2 is larger than 20.515, the null hypothesis that there is no significant difference between the two models would be rejected. In this case, Δx^2 was 34.692, which was larger than the critical value, thus the two models in comparison were significantly different. It indicated that the construct of PI was significantly distinct from the construct of PC, which supported the discriminant validity of the dimensions. Moreover, GOF statistics

in Table 7.7 showed a better fit for the three-factor model than the two-factor mode. In other words, the three-factor model was better to fit the data.

Table 7.7 CPA Goodness-of-fit Statistics for Different Models

	χ^2	df	Normed χ^2	SRMR	RMSEA	GFI	CFI	IFI	AGFI
3 factor Model	124.411	98	1.269	0.047	0.034	0.940	0.966	0.967	0.916
2 factor Model	159.103	103	1.545	0.054	0.049	0.924	0.929	0.930	0.899
1 factor Model	229.723	104	2.209	0.066	0.073	0.941	0.840	0.843	0.841

The three-factor model was subsequently compared with the single-dimensional model (see Figure 7.3). The χ^2 distribution table shows if Δx^2 is larger than 22.458 at the significance level of 0.001 with Δdf of 6, the null hypothesis that there is no significant difference between the two models would be rejected. In this case, Δx^2 between the two models was 105.312, which greatly exceed the critical value. Therefore, there was a significant difference between the three-factor model and the single-dimensional model. It supported the discriminant validity for the three dimensions VS, PI, and PC. Further, GOF statistics in Table 7.7 demonstrate that the three-factor model has a better fit than the single-dimensional model.

The above analysis evidenced discriminant validity of the three-dimensional model as it was significantly different with the two-factor model and the single-factor model. It was also the best model to fit the data.

7.4.2 Construct Validity

Single-item measurement

Results of correlate test showed that the correlation coefficient between the total score of items of the multidimensional scale was strongly and significantly related with the

score of the single-item measurement (r_s=0.55, p<0.001). It demonstrated that these two measures which assessed the same construct produced significantly and positively related results. It indicated a strong convergent validity of the newly developed scale in this study and supported the hypothesis H1 proposed in section 7.2.2. On the other hand, the correlation coefficient of 0.55 indicated there existed differences of the two measures and underlined the discriminant validity of the three-dimensional scale.

Additionally, each component was significantly correlated to trust assessed with the single-item measurement. Spearmen's correlation coefficient between value similarity and trust was 0.44 (p<.001); correlation coefficient between perceived competency and trust was 0.43 (p<.001); correlation coefficient between perceived integrity and trust was 0.52 (p<.001). It demonstrated that the constructs of the new scale were also significantly related to the single-item measurement, which supported construct validity of each subscales.

Willingness to be vulnerable

In addition to the single-item measurement, the scale measuring willingness to be vulnerable was also used to test convergent validity of the newly developed scale. As noted in section 7.2.2, five items measuring willingness to be vulnerable with regard to charities were identified and adjusted from works of Mayer and Davis (1999) and Schoorman and Ballinger (2006). However, these five items were not able to constitute a reliable scale with Cronbach's alpha (0.564) below 0.7. Therefore, correlate analysis between individual items and the total score of scale measuring public trust in charities was performed.

Results in Table 7.8 revealed statistically significant correlations between the scale and the variables indicating the same construct at a significance level of 0.001 or at a Bonferroni-adjusted p-value of 0.0007 (0.001/15). It confirmed the convergent validity of the newly developed scale. Again, the moderate correlation coefficients highlighted discriminant validity of the scale. The results supported hypothesis H2 proposed in section 7.2.2.

Table 7.8 Correlation Matrix of WAV and Public Trust in Charities

	PTCS	Item 1	Item 2	Item 3	Item 4	Item 5
PTCS	1					
Item 1	.439***	1				
Item 2	.345***	.141*	1			
Item 3	.335***	.205**	.263**	1		
Item 4	.327***	.214**	.207**	.011	1	
Item 5	.-298***	-.181**	-.146*	-.333**	.090	1

r: Spearman rho
* p<.003. ** p<.0007. *** p<.00007. p is Bonferroni-adjusted p-value.
WAV is Willingness to Accept Vulnerable.
PTCS is the total score of 16 items of Public Trust in Charities Scale

7.4.3 Criterion-related Validity

Results in Table 7.9 illustrated that total score of the scale measuring public trust in charities was statistically significantly correlated with public's respect towards charitable organizations, and public's satisfaction towards charity performance. In addition, public trust in charities was also statistically significantly correlated with frequency of charitable donation. This demonstrated that people with higher levels of public trust in charities, according to the results, were more likely to have positive attitudes towards charitable organizations, and charity performance, as well as to make more frequent charitable donation. These findings provided strong evidence for the

concurrent validity of the scale supporting hypothesis H3, H5, and H6 proposed in section 7.2.3.

It is noteworthy that the correlation of trust and the amount of charitable giving was significant at a significance level of 0.05, whilst it was insignificant at a Bonferroni-adjusted p-value of 0.005 (0.05/10). Moreover, although there was a significant relation between the level of public trust and frequency of charitable giving, the relation was rather weak with the correlation coefficient equal to 0.17. In other words, the level of public trust in charities could only explain 17% of the variance of the frequency of charitable donation. It indicated there could be other factors influencing people's charitable behaviors in terms of the amount and frequency of charitable giving. Overall, the assumptions regarding criterion-related validity of the new scale were true.

Table 7.9 Relevant Constructs and Their Correlations with PTCS

	PTCS	PRTC	PSTC	AMD	FMD
PTCS	1				
PRTC	.340***	1			
PSTC	.487***	.111	1		
AMD	.135	.120	.229**	1	
FMD	.173**	.117	.210**	.896**	1

r: Spearman rho;
* p<.005. ** p<.001. *** p<.0001. p is Bonferroni-adjusted p-value.
PTCS is the total score of 16 items of Public Trust in Charities Scale
PRTC is the public's extent of respect towards charitable organizations
PSTC is public's extent of satisfaction towards charity performance
AMD is the amount of money donation to charities
FDM is the frequency of money donation to charities

7.5 Discussion and Conclusion

This chapter describes the validation of a 16-item scale designed to measure public trust in charities (see Table 7.10). In the process of CFA, four problematic items were

removed from the initial model revealed through EFA. The items were V21 "charities are well regarded by the public", V37 "my contributions to charities are important", V18 "charities would not knowingly do anything to hurt me", and V19 "charities keep the interests of their supporters in mind".

After model modification, the robustness of the final three-factor model of public trust in charities was confirmed with satisfactory goodness-of-fit statistics, good construct validity and criterion-related validity. The construct of public trust in charities with three components was found to be clear and stable.

Table 7.10 Dimensions and Items of the Final Scale

Dimensions	Items	Origin (or adapted from)
Value Similarity	V4 Charities share my opinions about many social problems.	Poortinga and Pidgeon (2003); Sargent and Lee (2001)
	V42 The charitable sector and I share similar values.	Mayer and Davis (1999); Siegrist, Cvetkovich and Roth (2000)
	V6 Charities share beliefs with me about how society should be developed.	Siegrist, Cvetkovich and Roth (2000); Expert review
	V43 I agree with the way that charities deal with many social problems.	Siegrist, Cvetkovich and Roth (2000); Focus group interview
	V16 The aims of charities generally fit well with mine.	Siegrist, Cvetkovich and Roth (2000)
	V48 The charitable sector and I share beliefs of essentiality of charities for society.	Expert review
Perceptive Integrity	V3 The money donated to charities is used in a corrupt way.	Jarvenpaa et al. (1998)
	V45 Charities do not follow through on their stated intentions.	Mayer and Davis (1999)
	V41 The money donated to charities is wasted.	Jarvenpaa et al. (1998)
	V25 Charities are manipulated by companies for profit.	Poortinga and Pidgeon (2003); Focus group interview
	V13 Charities distort facts in their favor.	Poortinga and Pidgeon (2003)
Perceptive Competence	V33 Charities have a good image.	Focus group interview
	V2 News about charities is generally positive.	Focus group interview; expert review
	V20 Charities are performing well.	Poortinga and Pidgeon (2003)
	V38 Charities are capable of performing their job adequately.	Mayer and Davis (1999); Poortinga and Pidgeon (2003); Jarvenpaa et al. (1998)
	V14 The behavior of charities is guided by sound principles.	Mayer and Davis (1999)

The findings have underpinned the multi-dimensional nature of trust in charities. Of the three domains, perceived integrity reflects the importance of morality in charity work; perceived competence reflects the necessity of charities' capability in diverse aspects; and value similarity emphasizes the relevance of charitable values.

This scale can replace single-item measures used to assess public trust in charities that fail to cover the three domains of the structure. While previous measures of trust in charity have narrowly focused on trust as a unidimensional construct, measurable through a single, crude item, this scale permits the independent assessment of three dimensions of trust in charities. This multidimensional approach will facilitate a more precise insight into public attitudes, in turn permitting enhanced responsiveness to changes in these attitudes.

For future study, there are some other scale validation techniques that would be interesting to explore with larger and more diverse samples. First, multiple groups analysis could be used to test measurement invariance. It is sometimes performed to see if there are differences between individual group models by meaningful characteristics such as respondents' gender. The objective is to ensure that measurement models conducted under different conditions yield equivalent representations of the same construct. Multiple groups analysis is not appropriate to be undertaken in this study due to the limited sample size for individual groups. For example, the sample contains 145 males and 107 females. The minimum sample size for a model with 16 items and 3 constructs should be 150 for each group. Insufficient sample would lead to biased results. Therefore, it is suggested to generate a larger and more diverse sample in the future for multiple groups analysis.

Moreover, it is also suggested to compare the final three-dimensional model with the five-dimensional theoretical model proposed before EFA. It could demonstrate

whether the three-dimensional model is better than the theoretical model, and if so, how. A larger sample size is, again, required for reliable results. It is due to the complexity of the theoretical mode that includes 40 items and 5 constructs. A sample of approximately 400 cases is suggested for such model comparison in future studies.

Additionally, future studies could endeavor to examine the structural relationships between constructs of public trust in charities using SEM. Based on a structure model, the relationship, such as causality, between value similarity, perceived integrity, and perceived competence would be explained. It would be helpful for facilitating the understanding of the dynamic for the three constructs in reflecting trust in charities.

Finally, this study is unable to test predictive validity of the new scale. This would be reflected, for example, in studies that demonstrate that higher scores on the scale at one point in time would be associated with more charitable contributions in terms of money or time in the future. Therefore, longitudinal studies are suggested to demonstrate the validity and stability of the new scale over time.

CHAPTER 8: SCALE UTILIZATION

8. 1 Introduction

This chapter aims to examine possible utilizations of the newly-developed scale to (1) measure and explore the level of public trust in the charitable sector; (2) predict pro-charity behaviors; (3) and determine whether it could be used to complement charity performance assessment and why.

All the analyses are based upon a reuse of the total sample of 743 cases in this study. First, sample weighting is used for poststratification to make the resulting weighted estimates from the sample conform to known population values and distribution for some key variables. The key variables of interest are age and gender, which have been shown to be the most typical and common demographics that influence public trust in the charitable sector. Analyses results only reflect trust in the charitable sector from the perspective of people who receive a higher level of education and who are aged between 17 and 54 years, due to the limited resources the author could obtain for sample collection.

Second, the newly developed scale is utilized to measure public trust in the charitable sector based on the weighted sample. The overall level of trust and public attitudes towards the three components of trust in charities are examined. Gender and age differences therein are also explored.

Third, the scale is used to examine how public trust in charities predicts pro-charity behaviors. Regression analysis is performed to interrogate relationships between the level of trust and the probability of being a regular donor, to do voluntary work, and to

donate goods to charities. Although relations between trust and frequency/amount of money donation were also examined in Chapter 7, it was for the purpose of scale validation with a smaller size of sample.

Furthermore, based on an examination of limitations of current charity performance measurement and the relationship between public trust in charities and charity performance, it underlines the necessity of including public trust measurement as a part of performance assessment in the voluntary sector. Previous literature and focus group interviews of the study indicate that it could remedy the drawbacks of current measurement by taking features of charities into consideration, employing a "bottom-up" approach to the evaluation, and avoiding the conflicting demands of different stakeholders when deciding assessment criteria.

Findings show that most of the respondents trust charities in the UK. They also have positive attitudes towards three components of trust. Gender and age differences in trust can be manifested and explained by attitudes towards the components of trust. Moreover, the level of trust is able to predict the probability of being a regular donor, to do voluntary work, and to donate goods to charities; it can also serve as a significant mediator for the relations between gender and the amount of time contributed to voluntary work. Implications of findings and limitations are discussed. Suggestions for future research are proposed.

8.2 Sample Weighting

The total sample of this study included 743 cases who were usual residents of the UK aged above 16. It was a convenience sample previously used for scale development

and validation. The lack of representativeness of the UK population would decrease the generalizability of analysis findings. For example, the sample consisted largely of university students whereby 60.8% of the total sample is aged between 17 and 24. Analysis based on such sample would mainly reflect trust in the charitable sector from the perspective of young people who receive a higher level of education. Thus re-using this sample to measure public trust in the charitable sector in the UK could lead to biased results that would be unreliable as an indication of levels of trust from the general public. In order to increase the accuracy of estimation in the subsequent analysis, sample weighting was employed considering key social demographic variables.

8.2.1 Theoretical Background

Sampling weights are commonly assigned to make the sample represent the population of inference as closely as possible. They are used to correct for imperfections in the sample, such as selection of units with unequal probabilities, non-coverage of the population, and non-response, which might lead to bias and other departures between the sample and population (Brick and Kalton, 1996; Kalton and Flores-Cervantes, 2003).

Major weighting methods include cell weighting, raking, and logistic regression modelling (Kalton and Flores-Cervantes, 2003). The standard cell weighting procedure is to adjust the sample weights so that the total sample conforms to the total population on a cell-by-cell basis. Different with cell weighting, raking forces the sample marginal distribution of the auxiliary variables to conform to the population marginal distribution (Westlake et al., 1998). These two methods have been widely used for many years, and can normally incorporate relatively limited auxiliary

information. When the number of cells is relatively small and the cell sizes are reasonably large, cell weighting would be a better choice; while when there are many cells, raking may generally be preferable (Kalton and Flores-Cervantes, 2003).

More complex adjustment methods, such as logistic regression modeling, which can incorporate more auxiliary information than that with cell methods have been increasingly used to date. Logistic regression modeling is used to develop weighting adjustments for nonresponse (Westlake, Martin, Rigg and Skinner, 1998). It is conducted to predict the probability of responding if sampled based on the auxiliary information, and the inversed predicted response probability is each respondent's weighting adjustment (Lepkowski, Kalton and Kasprzyk, 1989). It is flexible in that it can include continuous variables and interaction terms. However, it cannot give weighting adjustment less than 1.

Before deciding which method should be used, choices of auxiliary variables need to be made. Social-demographic variables that are known to influence the respondent variable, public trust in the charitable sector, are focused.

According to previous studies, there are some demographic drivers which can impose an impact on public trust in charities. For instance: (1) gender: in the UK, women trust charities more than men; (2) age: in the UK, people aged between 18 to 34 hold the most trust in charities; (3) regular worshippers tend to trust charities more than those who don't worship; (4) those in higher social groupings have higher levels of trust in charities; (5) people with a higher sense of social responsibility trust charities more than those with a low sense of social responsibility (Charity Commission, 2012; 2014; nfpSynergy, 2011).

Moreover, in the UK, "people who are more knowledgeable about the charity sector - for example: those who personally work in the sector (or have family or friends who do); those who have used the services of a charity; and those who are aware of the Charity Commission - are more likely to give higher overall trust scores in charities. Conversely those with lower levels of knowledge tend to have lower trust, and people who give lower trust ratings tend to have less direct experience or knowledge" (Charity Commission, 2014, p.8).

However, to what extent these factors could affect trust is not revealed by previous studies. Therefore, the extent of importance for each factor is unclear, and there lack of a guidance of the choice of these factors as auxiliary variables for sample weighting. Nevertheless, it must be noted that taking too many variables into consideration will increase the probability of extremely high weights and instability of analysis of subgroups (Kalton and Flores-Cervantes, 2003). Thus, it needs to be cautious regarding selecting auxiliary variables for sample weighting.

8.2.2 Method

This study adjusted sample weight for poststratification aiming to make the resultant weighted estimates from the sample conform to known population value or distribution for some key variables. As there were 60.8% of the total sample aged between 17 and 24, it was used to compensate for non-coverage to improve the precision of the survey estimates. Cell weighting and raking are two widely used weighting method to compensate for non-coverage. However, auxiliary variables for sample weighting need to be decided first.

Although there are many factors influencing trust in charities as discussed previously, only gender and age are the interested social demographic variables for sample weighting in this study. There are two reasons: first, these two variables are the most typical and common demographics affecting public trust in the charitable sector, as outlined in previous studies; second, it would decrease the probability of extremely high weights and instability of analysis of subgroups by using a relatively small set of variables (Kalton and Flores-Cervantes, 2003).

However, it might be unable to match the distribution of the population perfectly, particularly from some other aspects, such as education in this case due to the focus on university students as participants in the survey. Börsch-Supan et al. (2004) state that determining what variables to use requires taking a stand on the trade-off between a perfect match of weighted sample and the population and avoiding large weights. This study chooses a simple and safe way by merely taking age and gender into consideration for weighting. The limitation therein is perhaps an area for consideration in future research.

Respondents' age was divided into six age groups in order to facilitate the combination with gender that included two groups. By combing age groups and gender, there were 12 cells in the crosstab in this study. Therefore, cell weighting was used considering the number of cells is relatively small. The "gold standard" gauge for sample weighting is population statistics from the UK Census 2011.

8.2.3 Weighting of the Sample of 743 Cases

Gender

In this study, there were 52.8% females and 47.2% males among 739 valid cases. According to the census 2011 (Office of National Statistics, 2011), there were 32,154,035 females and 31,028,143 males in the UK. The distribution of gender in the sample and the population is displayed in Table 8.1. It shows that the proportion of each gender is slightly different between the sample and population.

Table 8.1 Distribution of Gender (n=743)

Gender	Count (sample)	Proportion (sample, %)	Count (population)	Proportion (population, %)
Male	349	47.2	31,028,143	49.1
Female	390	52.8	32,154,035	50.9
Total	739	100.0	63,182,178	100.0

Age and age groups

Age of respondents ranged from 17 to 73 years. The mean was 26.65, SD was 10.2, median was 23, interquartile range was 8. The distribution was not normal according to the histogram and Q-Q plot (see Figure 8.1). Age of respondents was positively skewed indicating that the sample was concentrated in the lower aged respondents. Around half of the sample was aged between 21 and 29 years. This concentration of age groups probably reflects the higher response rate of the emails sent to postgraduates via the online survey (more details in Chapter 4).
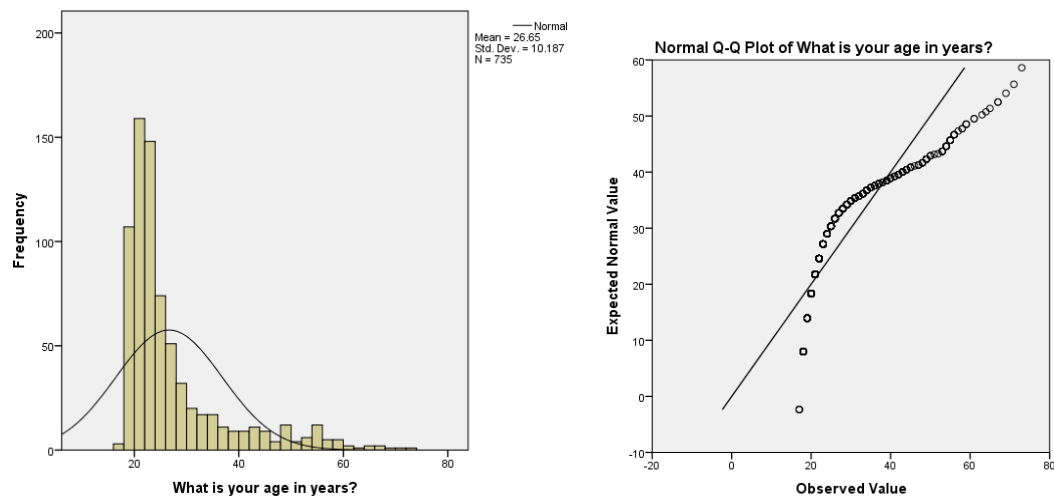
Figure 8. 1 Distribution of Age in the Sample (n=743)

As the sample tended to be young, case weighting was used to compensate the lack of representativeness. All the respondents were classified into six age groups (in years): (1) 17-24; (2) 25-34; (3) 35-44; (4) 45-54; (5) 55-64; (6) 65-73. Table 8.2 shows that respondents aged between 17 and 24 years were over sampled with a much higher proportion in comparison with the population, and other age groups were under sampled.

Table 8.2 Distribution of Age Group (n=743)

Age group	Frequency (sample)	Proportion (sample, %)	Frequency (population)	Proportion (population, %)
17-24	452	60.8	6,745,000	14.9
25-34	171	23.0	8,433,000	18.6
35-44	50	6.7	8,818,000	19.4
45-54	37	5.0	8,738,000	19.3
55-64	19	2.6	7,422,000	16.4
65-73	14	1.9	5,181,000	11.4
Total	743	100.0	45336500	100

It is worth noting there were merely 33 (4.5%) respondents aged 55 years and above among 743 of the total sample. While in the population, there were 27.8% people aged 55 years and above. It would lead to low cell counts and high weights in the bivariate

distribution of age and gender. Therefore, respondents aged 45 years and above were integrated into one age group, which accounted for 9.5% of the total sample.

Gender and age group: Cell weighting

Weights of gender and age groups are displayed in a crosstab (see Table 8.3). The weight for each group equals to its proportion in population divided by the proportion in the sample. There are 739 total observations after excluding missing values.

Table 8.3 Initial Weights of Gender & Age (17-73 years)

Age & gender	Count (sample)	Proportion (sample, %)	Count (population)	Proportion (population, %)	Weight
17-24 male	221	30%	3,408,000	8%	0.25
17-24 female	229	31%	3,336,000	7%	0.24
25-34 male	69	9%	4,205,000	9%	1.00
25-34 female	102	14%	4,228,000	9%	0.68
35-44 male	22	3%	4,365,000	10%	3.25
35-44 female	28	4%	4,453,000	10%	2.60
45-73 male	37	5%	10,386,000	23%	4.59
45-73 female	31	4%	10,790,000	24%	5.69
Total	739	100%	45,171,000	100%	

As there was a relatively large variability in the weights (above 5), it might lower the precision of the survey estimates (Kalton and Flores-Cervantes, 2003). Thus large weights were trimmed to some collapse cells. These cells were collapsed with other cells so that the weights of the collapsed cells could be decreased (Kalton and Flores-Cervantes, 2003). With collapsing, the cell of "45-73 female", which had the largest weight, was combined with the adjacent cell "45-73 male". The adjusted weight was then the ratio of proportion of population age group 45-73 to the proportion of sample age group 45-73, which was 5.09 (see Table 8.4).

Table 8.4 Adjusted Weights of Gender & Age (17-73 years)

Age & gender	Count (sample)	Proportion (sample, %)	Count (population)	Proportion (population, %)	Weight
17-24 male	221	30%	3,408,000	8%	0.25
17-24 female	229	31%	3,336,000	7%	0.24
25-34 male	69	9%	4,205,000	9%	1.00
25-34 female	102	14%	4,228,000	9%	0.68
35-44 male	22	3%	4,365,000	10%	3.25
35-44 female	28	4%	4,453,000	10%	2.60
45-73 male	37	5%	10,386,000	23%	5.09
45-73 female	31	4%	10,790,000	24%	5.09
Total	739	100%	45,171,000	100%	

Although the largest weight has decreased from 5.69 to 5.09, the gap between the largest weight and the smallest one remained very large as the former was 21.2 times larger than the later. Kalton and Flores-Cervantes (2003) claim that "when non-coverage is large and variable across the population, the overall benchmarking may well be to lower the precision of some survey estimates" (p. 94). Although they do not give an indication of what constitutes "large" or "variable", as suggested by Börsch-Supan et al. (2004), the substantive analysis was restricted to the age group of between 17 years and 54 years. By eliminating the age group of 55 and above, which accounted for 4.5% and 27.8% of the total sample and population respectively, it would help to obtain a more precise estimation. This reduced the size of the sample used in the weighting procedure and the subsequent analysis to 710 observations.

Weights of gender and age groups excluding respondents aged 55 years and above were displayed in crosstab (see Table 8.5). The weight for each group equals to its proportion in population divided by the proportion in the sample. There are 708 total observations after excluding missing values.

Table 8.5 Initial Weights of Gender & Age (17-54 years)

Age & gender	Count (sample)	Proportion (sample, %)	Count (population)	Proportion (population, %)	Weight
17-24 male	221	31%	3,408,000	10%	0.33
17-24 female	229	32%	3,336,000	10%	0.32
25-34 male	69	10%	4,205,000	13%	1.32
25-34 female	102	14%	4,228,000	13%	0.90
35-44 male	22	3%	4,365,000	13%	4.29
35-44 female	28	4%	4,453,000	14%	3.44
45-54 male	22	3%	4,322,000	13%	4.25
45-54 female	15	2%	4,416,000	13%	6.37
Total	708	100%	32,733,000	100%	

Again, according to Kalton and Flores-Cervantes (2003), as there was a relatively large variability in the weights (above 5), it might lower the precision of the survey estimates. Thus the cell of "45-54 female", which had the largest weight, was combined with the adjacent cell "45-54 male". The adjusted weight was then the ratio of proportion of population age group 45-54 to the proportion of sample age group 45-54, which was 5.11 (see Table 8.6).

Table 8.6 Adjusted Weights of Gender & Age (17-54 years)

Age & gender	Count (sample)	Proportion (sample, %)	Count (population)	Proportion (population, %)	Weight
17-24 male	221	31%	3,408,000	10%	0.33
17-24 female	229	32%	3,336,000	10%	0.32
25-34 male	69	10%	4,205,000	13%	1.32
25-34 female	102	14%	4,228,000	13%	0.90
35-44 male	22	3%	4,365,000	13%	4.29
35-44 female	28	4%	4,453,000	14%	3.44
45-54 male	22	3%	4,322,000	13%	5.11
45-54 female	15	2%	4,416,000	13%	5.11
Total	708	100%	32,733,000	100%	

With weight adjusting, the largest weight dropped from 6.37 to 5.11. The gap between the largest weight and the smallest one was narrowed from 19.9 to 16 times. It is noteworthy that although weights have been adjusted to increase the precision of

estimations, the sample was still biased to some extent. For example, the sample largely consisted of respondents who were highly educated including both undergraduate and postgraduate students. However, the sample was not weighted by education, considering it would produce large weights and decrease precision of estimation as there was a large non-coverage of people who obtained a lower education. Thus, to be cautious, subsequent analysis only reflected trust in the charitable sector from the perspective of people who received a higher level of education and who were aged between 17 and 54 years. Despite this limitation, the weighted sample was supposed to better represent the population than the unweighted.

8.3 Scale Utilization 1: Measuring Public Trust in the Charitable Sector

8.3.1 Theoretical Background

The first way to utilize the new multidimensional scale is to measure public trust in charities. This section is different from previous two chapters that it actually discusses the use of the scale to assess the landscape of public trust, rather than testing scale validity. First, the overall level of trust will be demonstrated through the total score of the scale. It will show whether participants are more likely to trust or distrust charities in the UK.

Second, as trust is a multidimensional construct, each dimension of trust will be subsequently assessed. Public trust in charities is manifested in the extent of value similarity with the sector, and the perceived competence and integrity of charities. Scores of each dimension of trust will demonstrate which aspect(s) of trust is rated

higher or lower by participants, thus needs more attention in future charity work in order to secure public trust.

Third, the scale includes 16 items reflecting various aspects of trust in charities. Each item makes unique contributions to explaining trust. Therefore, scores of individual items of the scale will illustrate how participants trust or distrust charitable organizations. It would, again, help charities to identify aspects diminishing trust or stimulating trust. Therefore, scores for individual items were analyzed to obtain a deeper knowledge of public trust in charities in the UK.

Moreover, age and gender differences in trust towards charities will be explored. Age and gender are reported as key demographics influencing public trust in the charitable sector in the UK based on previous studies (i.e. Charity Commission, 2012; 2014; nfpSynergy, 2011). First, it is reported that women trust charities more than men. Previous literature discuss that the gender gap may be attributed to gender differences in various aspects, such as cognitive ability (particularly with regard to decision making) and personality (i.e. Ben-Ner, Kong and Putterman, 2004), and moral identity (Winterich, Mittal and Ross, 2009). Second, studies reveal that younger people have higher levels of trust, and people aged between 18 to 34 hold the most trust in charities (Charity Commission, 2014). To test whether these differences are also reflected through this measurement, the effects of gender and age on trust in charities were examined. There were two hypotheses regarding this aspect:

H1 Females have a higher level of trust in charities than males.

H2 Younger people are more likely to have a higher level of trust in charities.

8.3.2 Method

There were three components with 16 items in the scale used to investigate the level of public trust in charities in the UK. Following the reversing of negatively worded items, a higher total score of items reflected a higher level of trust in charities. In order to improve the representativeness of the sample, sample weighting by age group and gender as discussed in section 8.2 was adopted.

The overall level of trust, scores for components of trust, and individual items were analyzed through frequency analysis via SPSS 20.0. In order to facilitate the comparison with the findings by Charity Commission (2014), scores of overall trust yield by the new scale were categorized into groups. As the score for each of the 16 items ranged from 1 "strongly disagree" to 5 "strongly agree", the total score must be between 16 and 80 with a median of 48. Scores were divided into three groups: (1) 16-47: individual item was scored averagely below 3; (2) 48-64: individual item was scored averagely from 3 to 4; (3) 65-80: individual item was scored averagely above 4. The three groups reflect *low trust, moderately high trust*, and *very high trust* respectively.

Gender differences in trust were examined through chi-square test. Relations between age and trust were assessed with correlation analysis. Age differences in trust were interrogated through ANOVA. Respondents' age was divided into four groups (in years): (1) 17-24; (2) 25-34; (3) 35-44; (4) 45-54.

8.3.3 Findings

Overall level of trust in the charitable sector

Total score of the items in this survey ranged from 27 to 78. The mean score of the weighted sample was 55.03. Distribution of total score was approximately normal (see Figure 8.2) without a significant skewness (-0.40) or high kurtosis (1.13). It showed that the total score was concentrated in the middle, and few respondents gave extremely high or low scores. This distribution was bimodal showing there were large frequency of respondents giving a total score of their trust in charities abound 64 and 80. It indicated that respondents were more likely to trust charities.
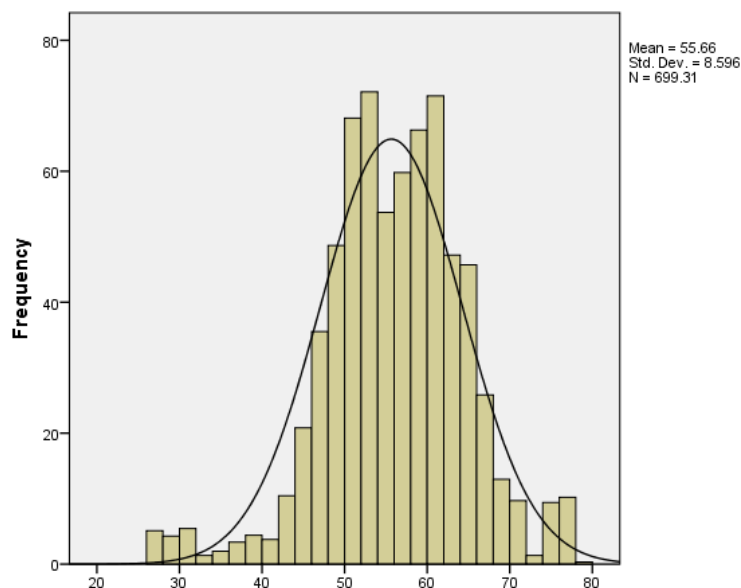
Figure 8.2 Distribution of Total Score of Trust

Results of frequency analysis showed that 86.21% of respondents trusted charities in the UK, among which 13.03% highly trusted charities. Meanwhile, there were 13.79% of respondents have a low level of trust in charities (see Figure 8.3). This result was mostly in consistency with a report of Charity Commission (2014) that the proportion of people who trusted charities (with a score of 5 and above, including "trust", "very trust" and "completely trust") was approximately 86% during 2005 and 2014. It

should be noted that the report by the Charity Commission (2014) was based on a larger sample of a size of 1,163; and the sample was more diverse than that used in this study as it included 40% of the older generation aged 55 and above.

Nevertheless, more evidence supporting that the new scale was able to precisely measure trust were revealed from other studies. For example, Noble and Wixley (2014) noted that people are more likely to trust charities. The high level of public trust in charities was also demonstrated by nfpSynergy (2011) that charities in the UK are the third most trusted group, just behind the armed forces and the NHS, or in other words, merely lower than doctors and the police according to the Charity Commission (2014). The high level of trust was confirmed through the scale measurement.
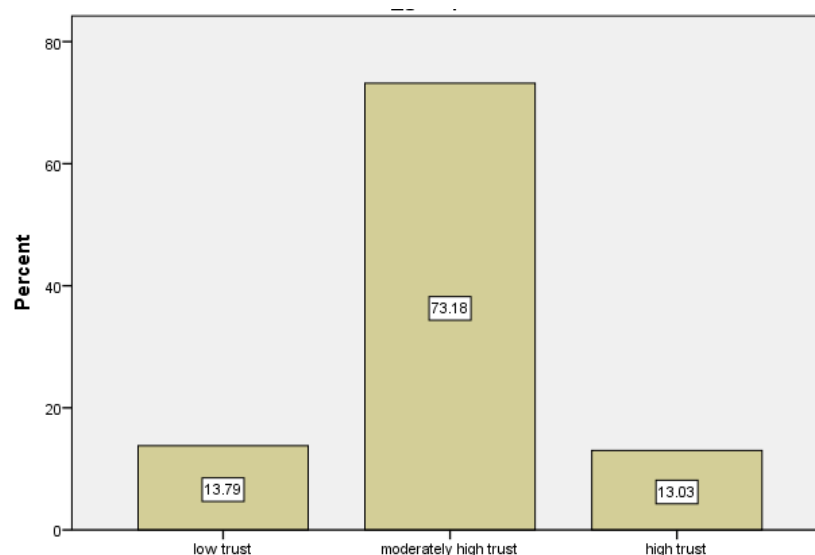
Figure 8.3 Overall Level of Trust in Charities

The mean score of public trust in charities for males and females in the weighted sample was 55.09 and 56.29 respectively. Therefore, females had a higher average level of trust in the charitable sector than males. This finding was in line with the result released by nfpsynergy (2011) that women trusted charities more than men in the UK. However, the difference was not statistically significant with p>0.05 (p=0.07).

It supported H1 that females had a higher trust in the charitable sector than males, although the difference was not statistically significant.

There was a significantly positive relationship between age of respondents and the total score of trust in charities ($r_s=0.09$, $p<0.05$). Relation between age and total score was further examined by interrogating age groups. There are four age groups in years: (1) 17-24; (2) 25-34; (3) 35-44; (4) 45-54. Mean values of the total score of public trust in charities were generally increasing from the lower age group to the higher age group. It indicated that the older the respondents, the higher the average level of public trust in charities. However, the result of weighted ANOVA showed that the mean values were insignificantly different among four groups with $p>0.05$ ($p=0.06$). Therefore, H2 was rejected as results showed the older the participants, the higher probability for them to trust charities. Whilst the difference cross age groups was not statistically significant.

This result deviated from previous studies probably due to the difference of age distribution of this sample and that of other studies. For example, the sample for the Charity Commission (2014) report includes 40% of the older generation aged 55 and above. It notes that younger people have a higher trust in charities particularly compared to people aged 65 and above as older people are less likely to be serviced by charities (Charity Commission, 2014). While in this study, as respondents aged above 55 years were excluded, the definition of "younger people" was different with previous studies, which might contribute to the rejection of the hypothesis.

Score of subscales measuring dimensions of trust

Beyond the overall level of trust in charities, scores of each dimension of trust were examined. As independent items were scored from 1 "strongly disagree" to 5 "strongly agree", the median for subscale 1 (Value Similarity, 6 items) was 18; the median for subscale 2 (Perceived Integrity, 5 items) was 15; the median for subscale 3 (Perceived Competence, 5 items) was 15. As Table 8.7 shows, the mean score for each subscale based on the weighted sample was higher than the median (or threshold), which indicated that respondents had positive attitudes towards these three dimensions of public trust in charities which explained the high overall level of public trust in charities.

Furthermore, the average score of "Perceived Competence" was higher than that of "Perceived Integrity", which indicated that competence of the charitable sector was better regarded by respondents than integrity of charities averagely. "Value Similarity", which made the largest contribution to explaining public trust in charities as revealed through EFA, achieved the highest mean score. The relatively low average score for integrity was probably attributed to the unsatisfactory performance regarding charity work ethics, such as inefficient use of donations and corruptions.

Table 8.7 Score of Subscales

Subscales	Number of items	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Threshold
Total score of subscale T1 Value Similarity	6	6	30	20.95	18
Total score of subscale T2 Perceived Integrity	5	5	24	16.54	15
Total score of subscale T3 Perceived Competence	5	9	25	18.11	15

Among these three dimensions of public trust in charities, the average score of value similarity (VS) was significantly different between males and females. The mean score for females (21.32) was higher than males (20.62) with $p < 0.05$. It could indicate how females have a higher level of trust in the charitable sector overall in comparison with males.

With regard to the relation of age and dimensions of public trust, age was positively correlated with the average score of perceived integrity at a significant level ($r_s = 0.10$, $p < 0.05$). Moreover, results of weighted ANOVA analysis showed that there were significant differences within four age groups regarding perceived integrity ($p < 0.001$), and people aged higher tended to have a significantly higher score for this dimension. This partly revealed why the average level of public trust in charities overall increased with the rise of people's age.

Scores of individual items

Average scores for individual items ranged from 2.91 to 3.77 (see Appendix 10). The item with the lowest score was "charities distort facts in their favor" (reversed). It was also the only item rated below 3.0. The average score of 2.91 indicated that respondents on average tend to agree that charities distorted facts in their favor. In other words, charities were more likely to be regarded as dishonest and irresponsible.

The item with the second lowest score was "charities are manipulated by companies for profit" (reversed). The average score was very close to 3 which represented the option of "neither agree nor disagree". The relatively large standard deviation (SD=0.964) reflected a great variation among respondents on the view of this item. It

could be that a large proportion of respondents agree that charities were in an unhealthy relationship with business sector organizations.

The item with the highest average score was "news about charities is generally positive". The average score of 3.77 indicated that respondents tended to agree that charities were able to maintain a positive media coverage that effectively influences the public's knowledge of the charitable sector.

Other items that had relatively higher scores were, for example, "charities are capable of performing their job adequately", "charities have a good image", "the money donated to charities is wasted" (reversed), and "the behavior of charities is guided by sound principles". All these items reflected that charities had done a good job, for example, with adequate competency, a good image, good use of donations, good reputations, and disciplines. These aspects were all important for the public to decide their trust in charities.

There were significant differences for scores of some items between males and females. To specify, items rated significantly higher by males in average is "charities are manipulated by companies for profit" (reversed). Items rated significantly higher by females in average were: (1) "charities share my opinions about many social problems"; (2) "charities share beliefs with me about how society should be developed"; (3) "the aims of charities generally fit well with mine"; (4) "charities distort facts in their favor" (reversed); (5) "charities are capable of performing their job adequately". Among them, three items were from the subscale of Value Similarity. It, again, underlined that females had a significantly higher level of value similarity with charities than males as revealed in the previous section.

There were also some items rated significantly lower by younger respondents aged below 35 years than the older aged 35 and above. These items were: (1) "charities share my opinions about many social problems"; (2) "the charitable sector and I share similar values"; (3) "the money donated to charities is used in a corrupt way" (reversed); (4) "charities distort facts in their favor" (reversed); (6) "charities are manipulated by companies for profit" (reversed); (7) "the money donated to charities is wasted" (reversed); (8) "charities do not follow through on their stated intentions" (reversed). Among them, two items were from the subscale of Value Similarity, and five items were from the subscale of Perceived Integrity. They highlighted the aspects requiring improvement, particularly from the perspective of charity integrity, in order to increase the level of trust from young people.

8. 4 Scale Utilization 2: Predicting Pro-charity Behaviors

Another important aspect of the scale utilization is to predict pro-charity behaviors, such as charitable donations and voluntary work. It would help charities to steer charitable contributions from the public based on their deeper understanding of public trust and its relations with pro-charity behaviors. Therefore, this section aims to explore relations of public trust in charities with relevant variables reflecting charitable behaviors.

It is noteworthy that relationships between trust and some pro-charity behaviors has been discussed in Chapter 7. These behaviors included the amount and frequency of money donated to charities. They were used to test validity of the newly developed scale by interrogating whether there were relationships of theatrically related variables.

Different with Chapter 7, this section aims to examine how trust could predict more kinds of charitable behaviors based on a larger and weighted sample.

8.4.1 Theoretical Background

Trust and pro-charity behavior

As discussed in Chapter 1, trust is of crucial importance for charitable giving. Sargeant and Lee (2004a) illustrate that people's trust in charities has a relation with charitable behaviors: higher degrees of trust in a charity are associated with a greater willingness to (1) become a donor and to (2) give greater sums. Furthermore, where a relationship already exists, levels of commitment will be generated by virtue of the presence of trust which contributes to a higher frequency of charitable giving (Sargeant and Lee, 2004b).

Moreover, higher levels of trust improve the possibility that a relationship will be entered into, which contributes to a long-term partnership and readily available sources of volunteers (Sargeant and Lee, 2004b). Uslaner (2002) also notes that people with a higher level of trust are more likely to be engaged in voluntary associations than those with lower levels of trust, as trust is often regarded as an ingredient of social capital promoting civic engagement (volunteering and charitable giving).

Gender and pro-charity behavior

When considering gender, women are more likely to make charitable contributions than men (e.g. Andreoni, Brown and Rischall, 2003; Bekkers, 2004; Carman, 2006). This finding has been seconded by some empirical studies undertaken in the UK. According to UK Giving 2012 by NCVO and CAF (2012), women continue to be

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more likely to give to charity than men (58% compared to 52%). Breeze and Thornton (2005) reveal a similar pattern that: "Girls were more likely than boys to have given to charity the last time they were asked (87% vs. 74%)" in the United Kingdom (p.12; see also in Bekkers and Wiepking, 2001). As Guild, Harrison and Saxton (2014) report, although the gender gap has increasingly narrowed, the gap was pretty big with 23% of women claiming they had volunteered in the last three months in Jan 2005, compared to just 13% of men.

However, the literature on the relationship between gender and the amount of charitable contribution does not reach a consensus, and there is some controversy regarding gender differences on generosity of giving (Piper and Schnepf, 2008). For example, Bolton and Katok (1995) suggest that there are no gender differences in generosity; Ben-Ner, Kong and Putterman (2004) find that men are more generous; while Willer, Wimer and Owens (2015) note that men are more likely to make less charitable contributions than women due to lower empathy. Moreover, the relationship is revealed to be dependent on marital status (Rooney, Steinberg and Denton, 2006), and the role of the household's main decision maker (Andreoni et al., 2003). As there is no coherent picture presented on these aspects, only the gender difference in likelihood of giving and volunteering was explored in the study.

Age and pro-charity behavior

Age proves as another significant factor influencing pro-charity behaviors. The typical finding about the relationship of age with philanthropy is positive according to previous literature (e.g. Chang, 2005; Banks and Tanner, 1999; Belfield and Beney, 2000). For example, studies undertaken in the UK show people aged between 16 and

24 years are least likely to participate in charitable activities (Weakley, 2015b). UK Giving 2012, by NCVO and CAF (2012), offers the evidence that the youngest adults continue to be the least likely to give.

Other studies find that this relationship decreases at higher age (e.g. Zech, 2000; Putnam, 2000; Bryant, et al., 2003). For example, Andreoni (2001) find a positive relationship between age and charitable giving until age 75, after which a decrease is observed. However, there is no significant age difference in the amount of donation suggested by some studies (e.g. Rooney, Steinberg and Schervish, 2001; Schiff, 1990).

In addition, other factors, such as education, religion, socialization, family composition and income, might also be able to predict chartable behavior (Bekkers and Wiepking, 2001; Wiepking and Bekkers, 2002); however, they were not considered in this study at this exploring stage.

Hypotheses

Trust, respondents' gender and age were all considered as predictors of charitable behaviors in terms of money donation and time donation. Five hypotheses regarding what factors predict the likelihood of certain charitable behaviors were proposed:

H1 Age, gender, and trust are able to predict whether participants make charitable contributions.

H2 Age, gender, and trust are able to predict whether participants donate money to charities.

H3 Age, gender, and trust are able to predict whether participants volunteer in charities.

H4 Age, gender, and trust are able to predict whether participants donate goods to charities.

H5 Age, gender, and trust are able to predict whether participants donate money more frequently if they donate any.

8.4.2 Method

Variables of charitable behaviors in the hypotheses were: whether respondents have ever (1) made a charitable contribution (1: no, 2: yes), (2) donated money (1: no, 2: yes), (3) done any voluntary work (1: no, 2: yes), (4) donated goods (1: no, 2: yes), and (5) whether they are regular donors (1: no, 2: yes), (6) what is the amount of their money donated per month (1: 0 to 5: above £50), and (7) the amount of time contributed to charities per week (1: 0 to 5: 8 hours and above).

Regression analysis was performed to explore the contribution of trust and demographic variables to predicting pro-charity behaviors. Independent variables or predictors included the overall level of trust, respondents' gender and age. Dependent variables were whether participants have (1) made a charitable contribution, (2) donated money, (3) done any voluntary work, (4) donated goods, and (5) whether they are regular donors. Dependent variables were all binominal, so binary logistic regression analysis was performed.

Outliers and absence of multicollinearity were examined to test whether the data satisfy assumptions of regression analysis. Outliers or extreme scores were checked by interrogating ZResid value in Casewise List. According to Pallant (2005), case with value above 2.5 or less than -2.5 are clear outliers. These cases should be considered to

remove from the data file. Absence of multicollinearity was diagnosed through the correlation matrix of independent variables expecting no high correlation coefficient above 0.5.

8.4.3 Findings

Respondents' charitable participation

Among the weighted sample of 709 valid cases, 89.1% of respondents had made contributions to the charitable sector, 84.8% of the total sample had donated money, 72.8% were regular donors who donated money at least once a year, and 68% had donated goods to a charity in the UK. According to a report by NCVO and CAF (2012), 55% of adults in the UK gave to charities in a typical month in 2011/2012. The difference of figures between the report and those obtained in this study could be explained by the diverse definition of time range, in that this study is not limited to charitable behavior within one month. In addition, 50% of respondents in this survey had done voluntary work. That is broadly consistent with figures released by NCVO (2011) that 54% of UK residents volunteered at least once a year informally in 2009/2010.

With regard to the amount of charitable donation, 29.8% of the respondents donated on average approximately 1p-£5 per month, which accounted for the largest proportion among five levels of donation amounts. According to NCVO and CAF (2012), the median amount of donation per donor was £10 in 2011/2012, which was higher than the level in this survey with the median of 1p-£5. That may well be because the sample in this survey was largely comprised of students in universities who did not have much spare money to donate. When asking about the time of voluntary work, 23%

volunteered less than 2 hours per week, 14.6% volunteered 2-7 hours a week, and 6.7% volunteered 8 hours and above. A report by NCVO (2011) also revealed a similar picture of time contribution to charities that people who regularly participated in formal volunteering spend an average of 3.2 hours per week.

Predicting charitable behaviors

For logistic regression, absence of multicollinearity was confirmed through the correlation matrix of independent variables with no correlation coefficient above 0.5 yielded in the output of binary logistic regression analysis. Outliers were examined for each model with different dependent variables.

Regarding whether participants have done voluntary work or not, trust, age, and gender served as significant predictors (Model 1; see Table 8.8). First, trust had a significant effect on this dependent variable ($p<0.05$). An increase of trust by one score increased odds of having volunteered by 2%. Second, age had a significant effect on the dependent variable ($p<0.01$). An increase of age by one year increased odds of having volunteered by 3.6%. Moreover, gender had a significant effect on the dependent variable ($p<0.01$). The odds of having volunteered for males were about 48% lower than females. The three factors explained 6.6% to 8.8% of variance of the dependent variable. This model was reliable according to Hosmer-Lemeshow Test showing good fit with significant values above 0.05. No outliers were detected. H3 was supported.

Table 8.8 Variables in Model 1

	B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp (B)
Age	.036	.007	24.492	1	.000	1.036
Trust	.020	.009	4.731	1	.030	1.020
Gender (male)	-.654	.159	16.953	1	.000	.520
Constant	-2.031	.571	12.654	1	.000	.131

Dependent variable: have done voluntary work or not

Trust, age, and gender were also showed as significant predictors of whether donated goods to charities (Model 2; see Table 8.9). First, trust had a significant effect on this dependent variable ($p<0.05$). An increase of trust by one score increased odds of having donated goods by 2.3%. Second, age had a significant effect with $p<0.01$. An increase of age by one year increased odds of having donated goods by 5.8%. Moreover, gender had a significant effect with $p<0.01$. The odds of having donated goods to charities for males were about 54% lower than females. The three factors explained 10.4% to 14.6% of variance of the dependent variable. This model was reliable according to Hosmer-Lemeshow Test showing good fit with significant values above 0.05. No outliers were detected. H4 was supported.

Table 8.9 Variables in Model 2

	B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp (B)
Age	.056	.008	47.615	1	.000	1.058
Trust	.023	.010	4.971	1	.026	1.023
Gender (male)	-.780	.177	19.425	1	.000	.458
Constant	-2.017	.630	10.237	1	.001	.133

Dependent variable: whether donated goods to charities

Moreover, results showed that trust and age had significant effects on whether participants were regular donors or not with $p<0.001$ (Model 3; see Table 8.10). An increase of trust by one score increased odds of being a regular donor by 6.8%. An

increase of age by one year increased odds of being a regular donor by 3.9%. The two factors explained 8.8% to 12.7% of variance of the dependent variable. This model was reliable according to Hosmer-Lemeshow Test showing good fit with significant values above 0.05. No outliers were detected. The model partly supported H5 that only age and trust were able to predict whether participants were regular donors or not.

Table 8.10 Variables in Model 3

	B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)
Age	.038	.008	21.134	1	.000	1.039
Trust	.066	.011	36.367	1	.000	1.068
Constant	-3.931	.669	34.476	1	.000	.020

Dependent variable: whether being a regular donor or not

8. 5 Scale Utilization 3: Improving Performance Assessment of Voluntary Sector Organizations

Performance measurement in the voluntary sector is a contestable topic (Hofstede, 1981) as the performance measurement system lacks clarity and consensus in terms of what should be measured (Moxham, 2014). Furthermore, studies have demonstrated that there is no clear distinction between performance measurement of the voluntary sector and that of the public sector and the business sector. Current approaches of performance measurement, mirroring the business model, overlook important facets of charitable organizations (Bozzo, 2000). Voluntary sector organizations are characterized by being value driven and non-profit, and having goal ambiguity, and performance generally has to be evaluated by formative criteria which are difficult to measure (McGill and Wooten, 1975).

Endeavoring to improve performance measurement for voluntary sector organizations, this section addresses the following questions primarily focused on the UK: What are the current performance measurements of voluntary sector organizations and what are their limitations? What is the relationship between public trust and charity performance? Why should public trust assessment be a part of performance measurement in the voluntary sector?

8.5.1 Performance Measurement of Voluntary Sector Organizations and its Limitations

Drivers, levels and approaches of performance measurement

Voluntary sector organizations have become much more aware of the need for evaluation since the 1990s (Howes, 1992). This is due in large part to the "contractual" demands that accompanied the emergence of public funds or official aid as the largest source of funding for charities since the 1980s (Hawley, 1993). Voluntary sector organizations use the measurement to: (1) meet or exceed standards set by funders; (2) provide excellent services to users; (3) motivate staff and volunteers through learning and development; (4) ensure accountability and transparency with the Charity Commission (Dunn and Matthews, 2001; Boas, 2012); (5) legitimize their activities; (6) improve efficiency and effectiveness (Moxham, 2014).

Performance measurement in voluntary sector organizations operates at three levels (Marsden and Oakley, 1990). The first is at the level of the donor agency, and the project is evaluated by a third party rather than any party involved in the implementation. The second is undertaken by the implementing agency, which involves both external evaluators and project staff. The third one is called

"self-evaluation", which is undertaken by beneficiaries with, at times, the participation of project staff.

There are two main approaches to the evaluation of the voluntary sector. The first is the "technocratic approach" which focuses on the use of funds and is frequently undertaken by donors as a part of the funding relationship, or by the government as an assessment of the work charitable organizations are doing. It involves a systematic evaluation of a range of observable indicators, measures, and agreed baselines, employing tools such as cost-benefit analysis, financial audit, and logical framework analysis (Lewis, 2001). However, this approach is limited by the fact that it relies too heavily on financial factors and excludes other, non-economic or "soft" factors. Performance assessment in the charitable sector is regarded as more of an "art" than an exact science (Riddell and Robinson, 1995), which is mainly due to the difficulty of measuring social development in which qualitative achievements cannot be evaluated objectively in comparison to economic development. Again, although finance is an important indicator of performance, some other "soft" factors, such as social satisfaction and trust, should not to be neglected.

The second trend of evaluation is the "participatory approach" which regards evaluation as a combined judgment of the different stakeholders rather than an objective and factual process (Chambers, 1994). As Fowler (1996) asserts, unlike governments and businesses, which can be assessed respectively in terms of political support and financial returns, the bottom line for third sector organizations is the effective satisfaction of the rights and interests of legitimate, recognized "stakeholders". Thus, he proposed that the key to the performance assessment of non-profit organizations lies in, firstly, identifying and applying performance standards as the factors and criteria which "relevant people" are likely to use when

making a judgment, and then, continuously engaging multiple stakeholders structurally and systematically. However, this approach has three limitations: first, it is easily co-opted into the top-down paradigm neglecting opinions from marginalized or disadvantaged stakeholders; second, opinions from potential donors, so-called "non-stakeholders" or "irrelevant people" who are impacted upon are not taken into consideration because of the focus on "stakeholders"; third, the variation of standards in third sector performance assessment among different stakeholders often makes it difficult to balance conflicting demands in evaluation.

Indicators of performance

There are two kinds of indicators for performance measurement in voluntary sector organizations. One is for the measurement of economic performance, such as fundraising and revenue reserves, as Ritchie and Kolodinsky (2003) recommended. The other is for the measurement of non-economic performance, such as service quality, service user satisfaction, donor satisfaction, volunteerism, and overall programme effectiveness (Durtina, 1984).

Campos et al. (2011) showed that most charitable organizations use internal rather than external evaluation and conduct evaluations focused on projects and programmes. In so doing, they focus on the identification of costs and benefits, efficiency and efficacy based on quantitative statistics; and other "soft" factors, such as trust and satisfaction are not favored. However, measures merely based on economic indicators are often regarded as rather "narrow" (Barrett, 2000), because they "are so focused on short-term efficiency criteria that they lose sight of long-range goals concerning social development and change" (Ebrahim, 2005, p. 61). Mano (2010) also claimed that

"while efficient economic measures are vital, the institutional nature of non-profit organizations suggests that non-technical measures should be the most important for assessing their performance" (p. 557). In comparison to material goods, services and other outputs of charities are intangible in various degrees, which lead to difficulties of measuring (Zeithaml, 1984). However, these aspects should be measured nonetheless, because they are significant (Clements, 2001).

On this basis, non-economic indicators have presented a challenge for the measurement of charity performance (Mahmoud and Yusif, 2012). Studies dealing with non-economic or "soft" indicators focus on the benefits obtained by individuals or the community and beneficiaries' satisfaction (Carmen and Jose, 2008). For example, Hishamudin et al. (2010) listed some non-economic indicators: user or beneficiary satisfaction with programmes or services; the increase in the number of users or beneficiaries; programme and service quality; and overall programme and service effectiveness and implementation.

Limitations of performance measurement

Earlier literature related to performance measurement in the voluntary sector focused either on a process-oriented "how-to-do" level or on a level that attempted to identify adequate performance indicators (Greiling, 2007). However, performance measurement in the voluntary sector, mirroring the business sector, relied too heavily on the financial aspects of performance overall. This led to many drawbacks. As Uphoff (1996) pointed out "restricting evaluations to quantified costs and benefits will exclude many important factors, especially externalities, from consideration. And

institutions will be treated as closed systems and isolated from the economic, social, cultural, physical and other contexts in which they function" (p. 35).

This reveals a key weakness in the practices of charity performance measurement, in that the performance evaluations are separated from features of the organizations themselves (Fowler, 1996). The changing operating environment, such as greater regulation, competition, and a contract culture, leads to the contradictory relationship between institutional nature of charitable organizations and their value base (Tonkiss and Passey, 1997). Focusing on effectiveness of charities in evolutions leads to neglecting of charitable values and principles of voluntarism which serve as foundations for charitable organizations. It is not appropriate to measure performance of the non-profit sector based solely on cost effectiveness, because this does not take account of intangible services and other non-material outputs of charities either (Zeithaml, 1984).

Possible options for improving performance measurement in voluntary sector organizations can be provided under the increasing impact of "soft" factors (Karkatsoulis et al., 2005). This section is focused on trust as one of the important "soft" factors. Rather than discussing the roles that interpersonal trust and inter-organizational trust play in performance management and measurement in the charitable sector, it concentrates on trust by the general public as an indicator of charity performance.

8.5.2 Relationship between Public Trust and Charity Performance

Public trust plays a significant role in the voluntary sector and its performance. Edwards (1999) argues that good performance in voluntary sector organizations is

dependent on a supportive relationship with resource providers or donor agencies –
and trust is the foundation of this relationship. Public trust not only facilitates
resources for charities, strengthens commitment of the public, but also offers charities
a higher moral tone than other sectors (Sargeant and Lee, 2004a; 2004b). Thus public
trust provides a premise for charities to perform.

On the other hand, although the non-profit status of voluntary sector organizations
leads to an inherent trust of the public towards them (Hansmann, 1987), long-term
trust is undoubtedly built on the successful performance of voluntary sector
organizations. This is because the starting point for trust is the trusters' expectations of
the trustees' trustworthiness which is largely decided by the performance (Luhmann,
1979; Barber, 1983). Thus the level of public trust in a charity might be able to
indicate how well or how badly it performed. And the result of public trust assessment
would be helpful for detecting the way to improve charity performance and secure the
source of support from the general public.

The focus group interviews discussed in section 4.4 revealed that the criteria of public
trust and mistrust in charities are closely related to the performance of charities. Firstly,
some factors serve as indicators for both the trustworthiness and the performance of a
charity. For example, fundraising efficiency is a typical criterion for measuring
charities' financial performance by using cost-effective analysis, and the use of money
is often investigated in financial audit. These two criteria are also favored by the
public to indicate their trust in charities as well as being used in conventional tools to
evaluate charities' performance. This reveals a connection between conventional
performance indicators and criteria of public trust. Furthermore, criteria of public trust
shed light on "soft" factors which could be used to assess performance, such as

"uphold supporters' interest", "maintain a positive social image" and "follow through on stated intentions and values".

In addition, there is a correlation between charity performance as measured by conventional indicators and the level of public trust. This is well illustrated by Cancer Research UK which, on the one hand, owns the highest level of public trust according to the Charity Commission (2012); on the other hand, it ranks high in terms of financial performance among 1000 top charities in the UK (JM Finn and Co, 2012). The same study also reveals that the annual income of Cancer Research UK is ranked as first among 1000 charities, which further indicated that a higher level of trust is associated with higher income and better performance.

Further, the 16 indicators of the newly developed scale measuring public trust in charities provides new insight into indicators relevant with charity performance, such as the relationship with the public, value driven, not for profit, social image, reputation, independency and honesty. They go beyond conventional "soft" indicators which are frequently discussed, such as user or beneficiary satisfaction and service quality. Therefore, to improve performance, charities should, for example, highlight their value, their non-profit status, consistence with their missions, their independence from the government and the business sector, and they should maintain a positive media presence.

Moreover, it is noteworthy that value similarity, which has not previously been considered as a component of trust in charities made the largest contribution among the three components to explaining trust as uncovered through scale development. Therefore, the significance of charities' values and value similarity with the public is suggested to be considered in charity performance measurement. Voluntary sector organizations should also be aware of the important implications of changes and

contradictions to their publicly perceived values which could influence their performance and evaluation.

8.5.3 Measuring Public Trust as a Part of Charity Performance Assessment

Considering the relationship between public trust and charity performance, and the limitations of current performance measurement in the voluntary sector, this highlights the necessity of measuring public trust as an indispensable supplement to existing approaches of performance assessment in the voluntary sector. The reasons are fivefold.

First, since the key weakness in current practices of voluntary sector performance measurement is the separation of performance evaluations from features of the organizations themselves (Fowler, 1996), measuring public trust in charities provides a means to remedy this by taking features of charities into consideration, such as being value-driven, not for profit, and independent from the public and business sector. It also considers non-material outputs of charities, such as upholding the interests of supporters.

In addition, public trust serves as a signal for the good or bad performance of charities: studies indicate that high levels of public trust imply a satisfying performance; conversely, a low level of public trust indicates a bad performance. Therefore, public trust could be considered when measuring charity performance.

Furthermore, as discussed earlier, criteria of public trust do not only include relevant indicators of performance, such as fundraising efficiency and donation usage, but also

shed light on many soft factors which can be used to understand more about charity performance, such as social image and honesty.

Fourth, it employs a "bottom-up" approach to evaluation and involves both current and potential stakeholders and any other social groups which could be affected by the voluntary sector. Measuring public trust includes assessing the public's judgment of charities' performance. "The public" includes work staff, donors, volunteers, beneficiaries, managers, partners, and any other members of society. Perceptions from the public, whether connected with charities or not, are all important for assessing the performance of charities. That is because, on the one hand, everyone may influence charities by donating or volunteering; on the other hand, anyone could be influenced by charities in the form of marketing campaigns and fundraising activities. The inclusiveness of this measurement ensures the engagement of marginalized groups rather than only "VIPs". However, the extent of the engagement depends on the sampling method.

Fifth, it avoids the conflicting demands of different stakeholders when deciding the criteria of assessment. Charities are regarded as multiple stakeholder organizations. Although different people may have various demands and interests with regard to charities, there was no major difference in the indicators of trust and distrust between stakeholders (i.e. charity manager, volunteers, donors, beneficiaries) and non-stakeholders of charities as revealed through the focus group interviews. The slight difference was that donors, volunteers and "non-stakeholders" cared about a broader range of issues when compared to the manager. They not only shared the manager's concerns around internal standards such as qualifications, but also voiced concerns in relation to external standards or "soft" factors, such as social image and

openness. Apart from that, respondents displayed a high consistency on the manifestation of trust or distrust in charities.

8.6 Discussion

This chapter discussed three possible ways of utilizing the newly developed scale: measuring and exploring public trust in the charitable sector in the UK, predicting pro-charity behaviors, and improving charity performance measurement.

The scale revealed a high level of public trust in charities in the UK with 86.21% of respondents trusting charities based on the weighted sample. High trust was reflected through dimensions and items of the scale. First, the public in the UK have a high value similarity with the charitable sector. This is possibly due in large part to the broad social context. Charity is derived from a Western Christianity tradition. During the Middle Ages, most charities in Europe were administered by the church, the clergy were actively involved in establishing charities and raising funds, and people's motives for donation were strongly related to the belief in salvation by faith (Ware, 1989). Deep religious faith and, in particular, the great evangelical revival acted as very important motivating factors for charitable donation, especially in Eighteenth Century England (Whelan, 1996). Being deeply influenced by religion and tradition, many British residents tend to have a high awareness and enthusiasm to do good, to help disadvantaged society members and tend to trust others. Thus British residents continue to provide great support to the charitable sector. Again, as the charitable sector in the UK has been established and well developed with a long history, charitable values of voluntarism, mutual help and caring for others are part of the

culture. Thus many British citizens identify with the values of the charitable sector, which contributes to a high level of trust in charities.

The high level of public trust in the charitable sector revealed by the result of scale measurement was also reflected through the good perceived "competence" and "integrity" of the charitable sector. To specify, according to the mode of scores for individual items, most respondents agreed that the charitable sector had a good image; news about charities was generally positive; charities were performing well; charities were capable of performing their job adequately; the behavior of charities was guided by sound principles; money donated to charities were not wasted. It could be concluded that the good perceptive performance of charities reflects a high level of public trust therein, as charities live up to expectations of the public towards their trustworthiness.

It is noteworthy that a large proportion of respondents selected the neutral option of "Neither agree nor disagree" for some items measuring the dimension of "perceived integrity" (mode=3), which registers a relatively low mean score of "integrity" compared with "competence". These items were "The money donated to charities is used in a corrupt way", "Charities do not follow through on their stated intentions", "Charities are manipulated by companies for profit", and "Charities distort facts in their favor". It was possibly due to the ambiguity of charity defined in this study. Charity was defined as a general term rather than specific in order to develop a scale to measure public trust in the general charitable sector. However, the concept of charities as a homogenous term might be limited, which may have made it difficult for some participants to generalize their level of trust to most charities in the UK. Thus respondents tended to select the neutral option if the statement was greatly variant from different charities.

With regard to gender differences of level of public trust in charities, females had a higher average level of trust in charities than males based on the weighted sample. The general higher level of public trust in charities for females was reflected on their significantly higher value similarity with charities on average. It indicated that females were more likely to recognize values of charities, and then to make efforts to support these charitable values, such as protecting the environment and animals, helping people in poverty and improving disabled people's welfare. This point has also been supported by previous research indicating that females are more likely to donate to charity than males (e.g., Andreoni, Brown and Rischall, 2003; Bekkers, 2004; Carman, 2006).

Regarding age differences in levels of public trust in charities, results showed that the older the respondents, the higher the average level of public trust in charities. Based on scores of individual items and dimensions of trust, it indicated that charities' integrity was more likely to be highly regarded by older people, which reflected their higher trust in general charities. Although correlations between age and overall level of trust, age and perceived charity integrity were not strong ($r_s < 0.3$), significant age differences in individual items existed. All items measuring charity integrity were rated statistically significantly higher by respondents aged above 35 years than those aged below 35 years.

The age differences could be the consequence that those with a relatively higher age (among participants aged 17 to 55 years in this case) were more likely to interact with charities, use charity services and get involved in charity activities and work, thus they were more familiar with different charitable organizations. As noted by McCulloch, Mohan and Smith (2012), involving in activities of voluntary organizations could lead to the development of attitudes such as trust (in other people), at both an individual

and at an aggregate level. It could also help them to evaluate the integrity of charities independent from media or social media which had a great influence on young people in relation to charities. Although the measurement results showed that 73.1% of respondents agree news about charities is generally positive, there was media focusing on negative news about charities in order to attract audiences (Weakley, 2015a). This news could influence young adults who lack experience and awareness of most charities, and thereby establishes for them a negative image of the sector, which resulted in a lower level of trust in charities.

The second utilization of the newly developed scale was to predict pro-charity behaviors. Trust, age, and gender were significant predictors of "whether have done voluntary work" and "whether donated goods". Moreover, trust and age were able to predict "whether be a regular donor". It indicated that a higher level of trust could raise the probability of public participations in voluntary work, goods donation, and regular money donations.

The last utilization of the scale discussed was to improve existing methods of charity performance measurement. It identified public trust as an important indicator of performance in the voluntary sector, and stressed the necessity of including public trust assessment as a part of performance measurement. This was examined by recognizing that measuring performance in the voluntary sector should not solely focus on economic criteria, and that non-economic indicators such as public trust were required for a thorough understanding of charity performance. Based on existing literature and the focus group interviews in the study, it showed that: (1) indicators of public trust not only related to some conventional criterion of performance measurement, but also shed light on "soft" factors beyond the traditional ones which could be used for a better understanding of charity performance; (2) measuring public

trust was an indispensable supplement for existing approaches of performance assessment in the voluntary sector, as it remedied the drawbacks of current measurement by taking features of charities into consideration, employing a "bottom-up" approach to evaluation, and avoiding the conflicting demands of different stakeholders when deciding assessment criteria.

Scale utilizations and measurement results of public trust in charities in the UK based on the sample of this study confirmed the robustness of the newly developed scale. The high level of public trust in charities was consistent with existing literature. Moreover, demographic diversities of trust in the charitable sector conform to realities and were supported by much previous research. In addition, hypotheses about relations of trust in charities and pro-charity behaviors based on previous qualitative and quantitative research have been mostly supported. Beyond this, the assessment of public trust in charities by using this scale had a unique advantage that results clearly reflect aspects which were able to reflect the level of trust based on scores of each item and dimension. It was also helpful for examining how levels of trust varied among people with different gender and age.

However, it is noteworthy that the accuracy of the findings might be undermined due to the recycled sample used in the study. For example, the sample could affect the ability of trust to predict pro-charity behaviors. As there was a large proportion of the sample constituted by university students, their charitable behaviors were probably different with other social groups, more or less. One prominent distinction is that students might be less likely to donate money to charities in comparison with people who have a job with a better economy status. Therefore, the relations between trust and some charitable behaviors revealed from statistical analysis in the study may only displayed a part of the picture.

The weighted sample may also not be able to well represent the population, bringing the generalizability of the analysis into question. Although weights have been adjusted by age and gender to increase the precision of estimations, the sample was still biased to some extent as it largely consisted of respondents who were relatively more highly educated. However, the sample was not weighted by education or other social demographic variables to reduce the probability of large weights which may decrease precision of estimation due to the flaw of non-coverage. For future research, it would be advisable to utilize the scale to respondents with a higher diversity rather than focusing on university students. That would improve the representativeness of the sample.

Regarding the relationships of trust and charitable behaviors, there might be a possibility that donation/volunteering drives trust/attitudes. According to the theory of cognitive dissonance (Festinger, 1962), when situation does not reflect one's beliefs, sometimes the beliefs are adjusted to reflect situation in order to relieve mental discomfort and to reduce uncertainty or to make sense of the world. The change of actions or behaviors could facilitate the adjustment of attitudes or beliefs. It has been supported in the study that public trust in charities contributes to certain charitable behaviors, but there is a need to explore whether it is true the other way around.

Furthermore, it could be useful to disaggregate the charitable sector into different subsectors and to interrogate public trust in specific charities. As previously mentioned, a more detailed definition of charity would help to reduce the difficulty of generalizing level of trust to most charities of the same kind. Thus, fewer respondents would probably select neutral options for some items. The deficit could be addressed by studying public trust in certain kinds of or specific charities, although it was not the purpose of this study.

Overall, this multi-dimensional scale serves as a useful tool as it is accurate, it is also more straightforward, more in-depth, and is able to provide more useful information than current crude measurements of public trust in charities.

CHAPTER 9 DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

9.1 Introduction

This study was undertaken for the purpose of developing a multidimensional scale to measure public trust in charities. It described the development, refinement, validation, and initial utilization of a scale capturing diverse domains of public trust in charities. This chapter is the final component of the study. It summarizes the findings of the study, discusses its implications, explains its limitations, and provides suggestions for future studies.

Major findings of the study include a new measure developed to assess public trust in charities, evidences supporting the multidimensional nature of the concept, and three possible uses of the new scale.

The findings have important theoretical, practical, and policy implications. Theoretical studies are suggested to aware the importance of value similarity in organizational trust, and to consider public trust when developing tools to assess charity performance. It also raises the concern that willingness to be vulnerable might be treated as a consequence rather than a component of organizational trust.

The findings suggest practitioners to apply the newly developed scale for a better understanding of public perceptions in charities. It also has implications for charity workers to strategically boost charitable resources from the public based on results of trust measurement. For policy makers, it is suggested to promote a harmonious and balanced relationship between the charitable sector and other sectors in order to improve the level of public trust in charitable organizations.

The study is mainly limited by the scope of research that focuses on trust in general charities instead of its constituents, such as individual charities or charity workers. Another flaw is the use of a convenience sample due to the time and resource limitations of the study. Future research is suggested to tailor the scale to measure trust in specific charities or subsectors of the voluntary sector. It is also suggested to go beyond the scope of the study based on more representative and diverse samples.

The study concludes that the scale is of great value for the charitable sector as it serves as a useful tool able to facilitate charities to better measure and interpret public trust.

9.2 Findings

9.2.1 A new Measure to Assess Public Trust in Charities

A scale with 16 items and 3 components was developed to measure public trust in charities. This study articulated the process of the scale development and findings at each stage, which were the centerpiece of the study. The process of the scale development included 11 steps: (1) conceptualization of the construct; (2) item generation; (3) scale design; (4) the first sample collection; (5) item analysis; (6) exploratory factor analysis; (7) internal consistency analysis; (8) the second sample collection; (9) confirmatory factor analysis; (10) construct validity analysis; and (11) criterion-related validity analysis.

For item generation, there were 51 relevant items indicating five dimensions of the concept under study identified from previous studies. Through focus group interviews and expert reviews, it was decided to include 40 items in the initial scale. Based upon

these items, a five-point Likert scale was developed. There were eight reverse coded items in the scale.

Subsequently, item analysis helped to identify two items (V7 and V8) with Item-total scale correlation less than 0.2 and one item (RV23) with value of Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted exceeding Alpha of the overall scale. Eliminating all these three items from the scale raised Cronbach's Alpha of the scale to 0.934.

Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) revealed a clear and stable structure with 20 items and three components: value similarity, perceived charity integrity, and perceived charity competence. These three components explained a total of 50.39% of the variance of public trust in charities.

Cronbach's alpha was then used to examine internal consistency of the scale and subscales. Results demonstrated a good internal consistency for the overall scale (Cronbach's Alpha=0.887) and for all subscales (Cronbach's Alpha > 0.7).

Initial model estimation based on χ^2, normed χ^2, and goodness-of-fit (GOF) statistics through Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) suggested the deletion of four items (V21, V37, V18, and V19) negatively affecting the model fit and model construct validity. After model modification, findings of CFA demonstrated a good fit and validity for the final model. This three-dimensional model was also used to compare with other models with two dimensions and one dimension respectively. Its significant difference from the other two models illustrated good discriminant validity. Findings also showed that the three-factor model had the best fit based on GOF statistics for the three models.

For construct validity assessment, convergent validity of the newly developed scale was supported as the scale was statistically significantly correlated with different

measurements assessing the same construct. For criterion-related validity assessment, concurrent validity of the scale was supported with relationships with measures assessing theoretically related constructs.

9.2.2 Public Trust in Charities as a Multidimensional Concept

This study uncovered the multidimensionality of trust in charities in the process of developing the new measure of this construct. It filled the gap of previous measures assessing public trust in charities that mostly treated trust as a crude construct using a single item asking respondents to rate their overall "trust and confidence" in charities.

The construct of public trust in charities with three components was found to be clear and stable. Of these three separate domains, perceived integrity (PI) reflects the importance of morality in charity work; perceived competence (PC) reflects the necessity of charities' capability to uphold and further public interests; value similarity (VS) emphasizes the relevance of charitable values. These three components explained a total of 50.39% of the variance, with component 1 (VS) contributing 32.85%, component 2 (PI) contributing 9.55%, and component 3 (PC) contributing 7.99%.

This construct of trust in charities revealed through data analysis was deviated from the initial five-factor model derived from literature, which include perceived competence, perceived benevolence, perceived integrity, value similarity, and willingness to be vulnerable. Perceived benevolence and willingness to accept vulnerability were found not able to manifest themselves as separate components of public trust in charities.

9.2.3 The Possible Uses of the Scale of Public Trust in Charities

The newly developed scale could be utilized to measure the level of public trust in the charitable sector in the UK. The results of the measurement revealed a relatively high level of public trust in the charitable sector, which were consistent with previous research findings. Beyond it, the assessment by using this scale had a unique advantage that results clearly showed aspects that were able to reflect the level of trust based upon scores of each item and dimension. For example, the result of assessment revealed that females had a higher average level of trust in the charitable sector overall in comparison with males, which was manifested through a significantly higher level of value similarity with the charitable sector for females; the average level of public trust in charities overall increased with the rise of people's age, which was reflected by a significantly higher score of perceived integrity of charities for those of a higher age.

The scale could also be used to predict pro-charity behaviors. The level of trust measured by this scale served as a significant predictor of "whether have done voluntary work", "whether donated goods", and "whether being a regular donor". It supported the important role of trust to promote public participations in voluntary work, goods donation, and regular money donations as indicated by previous studies. Overall, the scale offers a holistic instrument for charities to predict charitable behaviors of the public.

Furthermore, the newly developed scale measuring public trust could provide an indispensable tool for improving charity performance assessment. The argument is based upon the importance of including public trust measurement as a part of performance assessment in the voluntary sector, because the measurement of non-economic indicators or "soft" factors was required for a thorough understanding of charity performance. The newly developed scale provided a valid, comprehensive

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means to realize this goal. It could remedy the drawbacks of current measurement by taking features of charities into consideration, employing a "bottom-up" approach to evaluation, and avoiding the conflicting demands of different stakeholders when deciding assessment criteria.

9.3 Implications

9.3.1 Implications for Theory

Value similarity in organizational trust

The study demonstrated the importance of value similarity as a component of public trust in charities. Indeed, value similarity, which has not been paid enough attention in previous trust studies, made the largest contribution among the three components to explaining trust. Value similarity is reflected in different aspects, such as shared opinions about many social problems, shared beliefs about how society should be developed, shared aims and values, and agreed actions of addressing social problems. It was able to reflect gender difference in public trust in charities. The research value of this aspect of trust should be recognizant in theoretical studies.

Further, shared value is essential for identification-based trust, which is the highest level of trust according to Shapiro, Sheppard and Cheraskin (1992). This kind of trust requires fully internalization of the other's preferences, desires and intentions and allows the trusted party to act as an agent for the trusting one in interpersonal transactions. The existence of identification-based trust can also make it possible to form a shared strategic focus and sustained consensus to achieve the mutual objectives. With identification-based trust from the public, there is less need for charities to be

concerned about their ability to secure charitable resources as the public are believed to support charities as much as they can.

Therefore, researchers focusing on the voluntary sector should be aware of the significance of value similarity in organizational trust. Further efforts are needed on studying the methods of cultivating value similarity between the public and the charitable sector. Charities should also be aware of the important implications of changes and contradictions to their publicly perceived values.

Trust and charity performance assessment

Considering the relation between measures of public trust in charities and charity performance measurement, another theoretical implication of this study is to consider public trust in charities when developing tools to measure charity performance. Earlier literature related to performance measurement in the voluntary sector focused too heavily on the financial aspects of performance overall, such as the use of funds, and the identification of costs and benefits, efficiency and efficacy.

Nevertheless, due to social developments and qualitative achievements of charitable organization that can hardly be evaluated objectively in comparison to economic development, performance assessment in the charitable sector is regarded as more of an "art" than an exact science. Thus non-economic or "soft" factors, such as social satisfaction and trust, are suggested to be taken into consideration when establishing the theoretical framework of charity performance measurement.

Willingness to be vulnerable: A consequence of trust?

In the theoretical model of public trust in charities, willingness to be vulnerable was regarded as a components of the concept after a thorough literature review. However, all the items reflecting this were found unable to explain or manifest trust in the process of scale development. This is a quite interesting finding that challenges previous studies. As discussed in Chapter 2, although there is no agreement on a single definition of trust, the trusting relationship should represent an interaction between the truster's intention to accept vulnerability and the expectations towards the trustee as suggested by many scholars.

It suggests to re-evaluate the relationship between trust, particularly in organizations, and willingness to be vulnerable. It is widely acknowledged that trust leads to risk-taking behaviors, it is also reasonable to argue that one's trust in another party can also strengthen its intention to accept vulnerability in the relationship. For the case of trust in charities, if a donor have a high level of trust in charities, he/she could be more willing to put him/herself into a risking situation, such as making donations without knowing how the money is spent, because he/she believe this trustworthy charity will not misuse the donation.

Therefore, willingness to accept vulnerability could be a consequence of trust, rather than a component or constituent of trust. It is also possible that willingness to be vulnerable plays different roles in different types of trust considering the context-specific nature of trust. It provides interesting points for future research on trust theories to explore.

9.3.2 Implications for Practice

A tool for a better understanding of public trust and perceptions in charities

In the charitable sector, public perception is powerful. "Perception of a charity's brand, of its cause or of how it manages its money can all dramatically influence its levels of support" (Hobbs, 2014, the second paragraph). However, the public is easily misled, significantly underestimating the efficiency of charities and therefore the power of the donations they have made (Hobbs, 2014). Understanding public perception of the charitable sector would also allow charities to estimate the gap between perceptions and the reality, as well as permit enhanced charities' responsiveness to changes in these attitudes. "When it comes to the public, perception is just as important as reality, if not more so. No matter how accurate, it is the perception of a charity which drives its support, both financial and otherwise" (Hobbs, 2014, the seventh paragraph).

The newly developed scale serves as a suitable instrument for understanding public perception. It measures public perceptions of charity integrity and competence, which are two components of trust in charities and keys for understanding charity performance. This scale also measures value similarity with the sector as the other component of public trust in charities. It helps charities to know whether the public agree with their values and charitable causes, how the public think of their ways of managing donations, and social image.

The multi-dimensional scale developed in this study is particularly useful for charitable sector regulators and for research institutes and scholars studying the whole charitable sector in the UK. It can replace the single-item measures previously used to assess public trust in the charitable sector by, for example, the Charity Commission and nfpsynergy, which fail to cover the domains of the construct. The new scale is

accurate, it is precise and straightforward, more in-depth, and is able to provide more useful information than current measurements of public trust in charities.

Utilization of this multidimensional scale to measure public trust and charity performance would facilitate the sector to obtain consistently measured feedback from the public. By analyzing each item and component of public trust in charities, one can easily detect aspects charities need to work on to improve the level of trust. For example, as mentioned in section 8.3.3, results of scale utilization showed that the average score for the component of "charity integrity" was relatively low. Among the items measuring this component, items of "charities distort facts in their favor" (reversed), and "charities are manipulated by companies for profit" (reversed) had the lowest score.

As such, the sector should reflect on its work in these areas and ascertain whether these perceptions are accurate. If so, further efforts need to be made to confirm their integrity in public perceptions and to balance the relationships between charities and the business sector.

Additionally, as public perceptions are increasingly driven by the media, who all too often focus on negative accounts, it is more and more crucial for the charity sector to demonstrate its effectiveness and integrity to the public to avoid risking public trust. Instead of allowing information to filter through the media, charities should communicate directly with the public, to ensure that more positive and balanced perspectives are received (Weakley, 2014a). Charity websites, annual reports, and the publication of statistics about income and spending are useful means to this end.

Strategically boosting charitable resources from the public

As the level of public trust is able to predict pro-charity behaviors, the scale can be used for the purpose of understanding and monitoring charitable behaviors of the public. This could allow the charitable sector to strategically plan and target their fundraising techniques. Some examples are set to explain ways to achieve this as discussed as follows.

The study revealed that females had a higher average level of trust in the charitable sector overall in comparison with males. As the level of public trust is positively related to the frequency of charitable donation, this suggests that females are more likely to donate with a higher frequency. Available statistical reports and literature indeed evidence that women are more likely to make charitable contributions than men (e.g. Andreoni, Brown and Rischall, 2003; Bekkers, 2004; Carman, 2006; NCVO and CAF, 2012).

Based on the results of scale measurement, the gender difference in trust was manifested as a significantly higher level of value similarity with the charitable sector for females (see section 8.3.3). Therefore, to attract charitable donations from males, charities need to understand why they agreed less with the values and other relevant aspects of the charity sector, such as the way that charities deal with many social problems, causes and aims of charities.

Further, the average level of public trust in charities overall increased with the rise of people's age as revealed in section 8.3.3. Thus, hypothetically, people with a lower age are less likely to make charitable donations. It is noteworthy that the evidence revealed by this study was not strong because the relationship between age and trust in charities was rather weak with correlation coefficient below 0.3. However, other

studies by, such as, NCVO and CAF (2012) offers the evidence that the youngest adults continue to be the least likely to give. Results of scale measurement revealed that it manifested as a significantly lower score of perceived integrity of charities for those of a younger age. Further, younger respondents aged below 35 years rated significantly lower than those aged 35 years and above regarding many aspects of trust reflected via multiple items. Among them, three items were from the subscale of Value Similarity, and five items were from the subscale of Integrity.

Therefore, in order to attract resources from younger adults, as well as improve their trust in charities, the sector needs to understand how to influence positively their perceptions of charity integrity by both delivering accurate information and addressing the perceived bad practice of some charities. The sector should also better demonstrate its values and help younger adults to understand and to build empathy. None of these is easy to achieve, and it may require concerted efforts for many decades. Nonetheless, it is essential for the charity sector to be aware of the task at hand and the direction in which they need to travel.

9.3.3 Implications for Policy

Building balanced relationships between the charitable sector and other sectors

The relationship between the charitable sector and the public/commercial sector is a controversial topic. As discussed in section 3.3.5, a too "close" relation would threaten public trust. This has been reflected in the result of scale utilization. The item with the second lowest score on average was "charities are manipulated by companies for profit" (reversed). This suggests that a large proportion of respondents agree that charities are in an unhealthy relationship with business sector organizations. This may in part be

due to the increasing commercialization of charities, such as paying sizeable executive salaries, charging fees for services, and adopting commercial marking techniques. It has contributed to changing the traditional image of charities and has attracted unwelcome public attention. People can lose faith in charities if they perceive of them as having been manipulated by companies for profit or tax relief; they can be irritated by intrusive and aggressive advertisements and fund-raising activities; and increasingly, they are expected to pay a contribution for charitable services that previously were free – to some, these developments dilute and diminish the concept of "charity". It may also decrease the public's propensity to donate.

Regarding public perceptions of relations between the charity sector and the public sector, although there is no relevant item included in the scale, it was reflected in the focus group interviews discussed in section 5.4. Interviewees did not trust charities that were too dependent on the government. They argued that charities regarding government's support for funding as the foundation for their sustainability and not working to their own resource base were not trustworthy. Further, according to a survey undertaken by Noble and Wixley (2014), people most mistrusting charities are those who think that charities tend to get most of their money from Government/business (55% give charities a low trust rating) and those who think charities are more political (47%).

Consequently, it is urgent for policy makers to be cognizant of the necessity of balancing the relationship between the charitable sector and other sectors. Some efforts have been made. As discussed in section 3.3.5, the independence of charities was enhanced at the same time as the government was preparing to initiate deep financial cuts since 2010. The Coalition government introduced The Big Society agenda and renewed the Compact that established in 1998, with the stated intention of

empowering strong and independent civil society organizations and renewing a healthy and productive relationship between government and the voluntary sector. All of these measures reflected the Coalition government's expressed intention to support and promote the voluntary and charity sectors, especially in terms of independence. However, these policies have not adequately satisfied the public with many of them regarding the boundary between the two sectors as too blurred.

The relationship between charity and commercial organizations is even more complicated. For modern philanthropy, donations from the business sector are expected to be one of the major income sources for charities. Thus, commercial organizations are encouraged to make charitable contributions. However, it is also clear that for many commercial organizations supporting charities has become a cost-effective activity due to the perceived benefits of actively displaying social responsibility, and because of tax relief. Cooperation between charities and commercial organizations therefore requires close scrutiny, because the above motivations have the potential to conflict with the notions of altruism and "public benefit" that have traditionally legitimized the activities of charities.

Legislation could be introduced to clarify the roles of both parties in the cooperation or partnership, to stress the importance of independence for charities therein, and to require both charities and commercial organizations to regularly publish information about the amount of any donation, the usage of the donation, and its social impact. These policies could reduce public concerns that charities are manipulated by business organizations.

9.4 Limitations

This research provides a rich insight into the nature of public trust in charities in the UK. It contributes alongside other relevant studies to theories, practice and policy. However, given the scope of the study, it inevitably has its limitations.

First, public trust in charities was found to be a multidimensional concept, and the three components of the construct explained a total of 50.39% of the variance of trust. Thus, there are some other factors that may explain the remaining 49.61% of the variance that have not been taken into consideration. It is suggested to interrogating relevant factors based on a solid theoretical ground in future studies to ascertain whether they also contribute to the variance of public trust in charities.

Moreover, this study aims to provide a better tool for charitable sector regulators and research institutes and scholars studying trust in the charitable sector in the UK. Therefore, it focuses on general charities or the charitable sector as a whole, and lacks analyses on public trust in individual charities and subsectors. Specific charities may wish to tailor the scale to assess public trust in their own organization. This would enable them to better reflect on their past, current, and future activities, and allow them to be more responsive to changing values and expectations. However, before the scale is amended to evaluate trust in specific charities, the validity of the measurement for such a purpose would need to be assessed.

Further, it also lacks of analyses on public trust in specific constituents of charitable organizations. It would argue that trust in organizations is built from perceptions of employees and fieldworkers, the institutionalized rules or procedures. Measuring one or several constituents of the organization could be more focused, but it is not the purpose of this study that concerns trust in the organizational level. For the same

reason, the study does not focus on trust in specific behaviors of charities, such as chief exec salaries, fundraising costs, overhead costs, and delivering promised impacts on beneficiaries.

Regarding methodology, although it is acceptable to use a convenience sample for scale development, a more representative sample would lower the probability of bias in respondents' perspectives on charities. It is important to clarify that the sample used both for scale development and utilization in the study was probably not perfect, but it was the most practical methodology, given the time and resource limitations of the study.

Another limitation of the methodology is that a relatively small number of participants were included in the focus group interviews and the expert review. As discussed in Chapter 5, the small number of groups and the biased ratio of constituents within groups may undermine the generalizability of the findings and limit information generated regarding public perceptions of the charitable sector and roles of trust therein. Further, possible improvements on the focus group interview could also be achieved by designing a more rigorous process of expert review involving a larger number of experts, particularly for the review of content validity of the scale. Although interviewees and experts have made a considerable contribution towards item generation, it would be interesting to see whether a greater number of interviewees and experts would elicit different perspectives.

In addition, the initial scale utilization is limited by the sample used as it lacks demographic representativeness to some extent. Although weights have been adjusted by age and gender to increase the precision of estimations, the sample is still biased to some extent as it largely consists of respondents who are relatively young and in higher education. However, education level and other variables, such as area

deprivation (McCulloch, Mohan and Smith, 2012), could affect charitable behaviors and attitudes; while they are not weighted in order to reduce the probability of large weights which may decrease precision of estimation due to the flaw of non-coverage. Therefore, it may affect accuracy and decrease the generalizability of the findings of scale utilization.

9.5 Suggestions for Future Research

It is important for future research to go beyond the limitations of this study. First, in order to diminish the weakness of the fact that the three components of the concept of public trust in charities explained 50.39% of the variance of public trust in charities, the conceptual model of public trust in charities could be more inclusive. It would therefore be useful for future studies to consider additional factors that might account for variance of the concept. That would contribute to interrogating the robustness of the multidimensional construct of the concept of public trust in charities uncovered in this study, with the additional benefit of providing a richer knowledge of trust.

Moreover, value similarity was not regarded as an independent component of trust in general organizations in most previous studies of organizational trust. This demonstrated that context and the specific characteristics of the organization/sector were of great importance. Differences of the organization/sector do have influence on the trust construct. However, as charities generally have a good reputation in society, value similarity could be subject to social desirability bias. Therefore, it would be of great interest to explore whether this domain can be generalized to trust in other types of organizations or general institutions in future studies.

Practitioners should note that there could be a blur boundary between antecedents and elements of trust. For example, as discussed previously in Chapter 3, value similarity is regarded as both an antecedent and a component of trust in earlier studies. Although this study treats value similarity as a part of the construct of trust, it should be careful not to over-claim that is it the only way manifesting the relationship between trust and value similarity due to the context-specific nature of trust. Therefore, the scale could be useful for exploring its differences and relationships with other instruments measuring antecedents of trust, which would, in turn, demonstrate the accuracy of the scale developed in the study.

The scale can be amended to evaluate trust in specific charities. It would be necessary to disaggregate the sector into different subsectors and to focus on public trust in charities working for specific purposes, or charities of a specific size, or charities in a specific area. It would also be useful to conduct comparative studies on public trust in charities by charitable purpose, size or location. As previously mentioned, a more detailed definition of charity would also help to decrease difficulty of generalizing levels of trust to most charities of the same kind. Thus, fewer respondents would probably select neutral options for some items.

However, the scale, as it stands, is not ready to be used to directly and correctly measure public trust in individual charities and subsectors, as it was developed to measure public trust in the charitable sector *in toto*. Thus some adjustments might need to be made before the utilization. Future studies could follow the process and framework of scale development presented in this study, and then focus on particular charities or subsectors instead of the whole charity sector, so as to measure trust in charity workers, procedures, or specific charitable behaviors.

In order to improve the generalizability of the results of scale utilization, these findings could be cross-validated using a representative sample. For future research, it is suggested to operationalize the scale to a broader sample than university students. The sample is suggested to have a higher diversity in age, education level, economic status, and to consider area deprivation. With larger and more diverse samples, some other scale validation techniques could also be used. It includes multiple groups analysis and further model comparisons. It could facilitate the study on the structural relationships, such as causality, between constructs of public trust in charities using SEM. Longitudinal studies are also recommended to demonstrate the reliability and validity of the new scale over time by, for instance, examining test-retest reliability and predictive validity. It would also remedy common method bias of cross-section data.

Another suggestion for research beyond this study is for a cross-cultural approach to scale utilization and public trust. As testing of the scale has thus-far been limited to a UK sample, the cross-cultural validity of the scale is unknown. Thus comparative analyses will facilitate further understanding of trust in charities and identify differences that may exist across cultures and contexts. According to Sztompka (1998), culture is a very important dimension of trust. When studying trust across cultures, seven cultural variables should be considered: (1) normative certainty of the system of social rules; (2) transparency of social organizations; (3) stability of social order; (4) accountability of power; (5) enactment of rights and obligations; (6) enforcement of duties and responsibilities; (7) safeguarding of the dignity, integrity and autonomy of societal members. Although these variables are quite broad, they could influence public trust in charitable sector and individual charities. Consequently, when utilizing the scale developed in this study to other cultures and societies, all seven aspects

mentioned need to be considered. In the process, some items or even dimensions might be found not suitable to be used to measure public trust in charities in certain contexts. Under such circumstance, amendments will be necessitated.

It would also be of value to study the evolution of public trust in charities. According to Shapiro, Sheppard and Cheraskin (1992), Lewicki and Bunker (1996), there are three levels of trust, from the lowest to the highest, they are: calculus-based trust, knowledge-based trust, and identification-based trust. Calculus-based trust is the result of rational, economic calculation of benefits and costs of variance outcomes; Knowledge-based trust is based on the predictability of the trustee; identification-based trust requires fully internalization the other's preferences, desires and intentions. Future studies could explore which level of trust in the charitable sector is held by most of the public, and how to upgrade it to a higher level if trust is not the identification-based trust yet. The dynamic of that process could also be another important research topic.

9.6 Final Conclusion

This study explored public trust in the charitable sector – a construct that is recognized by both charity practitioners and academics as of great importance, yet it remains understudied. This study improves on previous empirical studies of public trust in charities by regarding trust as a multidimensional construct.

In the process of scale development, the construct was revealed to comprise of three dimensions: value similarity, perceived integrity of general charities, and perceived competence of charities. A 16-item scale was developed to measure this overall construct. The validity of this scale was assessed and confirmed through exploratory

and confirmatory factor analysis, construct validity analysis, and criterion-related validity. Scale utilizations demonstrated usefulness and importance of this new measure.

Despite the limitations discussed, this multi-dimensional scale serves as a useful tool for charity researchers, charity workers, and policy makers to ascertain a nuanced understanding of the landscape of public trust and attitudes towards the charitable sector. This will enable them to predict people's charitable behaviors, and to improve charity performance based on the knowledge of public trust. Consequently, the scale is a potentially valuable contribution to the sector's welfare.

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Appendix 1: Invitation for Focus Group Interview

Call for Participants

Dear all,

I am a PhD student in the Department of Social Sciences, looking for participants to take part in a focus group study that investigates **perceptions and attitudes towards charities in the UK**. I am looking for participants who are **British citizens**.

The study consists of two focus group interviews, and you are invited to participate in one of them. Each interview will take approximately **50 minutes**. The compensation for your time is **£5** and the opportunity to meet new friends and enjoy Chinese tea.

The interviews will be conducted on the University campus (Hull) at 2 p.m. on **15th and 19th of April** respectively. You can **choose one of the interviews** when you are available.

If you're interested in participation, please contact me on **yongjiao.yang@2012.hull.ac.uk**, and inform me of the time you choose. Confidentiality is guaranteed.

Best wishes,

Yongjiao Yang
PhD Candidate
Department of Social Sciences
University of Hull
yongjiao.yang@2012.hull.ac.uk

Appendix 2: Interview Template

1. What do you think constitutes a charity? Could you describe it briefly?

2. We know charities are organizations. What do you think are the key characteristics that distinguish charities from other organizations?

3. Do you think charities are important to society? Why?

4. Do you think trust in charities important? Why?

5. Is there a difference between your trust in charities and trust in other organizations such as companies?

6. Generally speaking, do you trust charities in the UK?

7. Has your overall trust in the UK charities changed in recent years?

8. If you trust a charity, what do you expect towards the charity?

9. (1) Please name some charities in the UK that you trust.

    (2) Most of you mentioned XX. What are the key qualities making it trustworthy?

10. If you distrust a charity, what do you expect the qualities of the charity?

11. (1) Is there any charity in the UK that you do not trust?

    (2) What makes XX not trustworthy?

12. Without considering any information of charities, please rank your trust in certain types of charities working for specific causes from 1 to 10; the higher the score, the higher the trust. There are ten types of charitable causes in the list (see Appendix 7).

Appendix 3: Scale and Questionnaire Assessment Sheet

1. Do you feel that items and/or questions in the questionnaire are easy to understand? If not, please specify which items and/or questions are problematic in the space provided below.

2. Do you think that any of items and/or questions should be reworded? If yes, which items and/or questions, and what suggestions for different wordings would you make?

3. Are there any items and/or questions where the options given are not applicable to you? If yes, please indicate which items and/or questions and what options you believe need to be added.

4. Are there any items and/or questions that you think should be added to the questionnaire in order to gain a more thorough understanding of trust in charities? If yes, please indicate what you believe they should be.

5. How many minutes did it take for you to complete this scale, and how long did it take for you to complete the whole questionnaire?

6. Do you have any additional comments?

Thanks again for completing the questionnaire and the assessment form.

Appendix 4: Research Questionnaire for Scale Refinement

1. Please indicate the extent to which you *generally* agree or disagree with each of these statements related to *charities in the UK* and so on. Please circle the appropriate number for your response.

Items	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
Charities can be relied upon to keep their promises.	1	2	3	4	5
News about charities is generally positive.	1	2	3	4	5
The money donated to charities is used in a corrupt way.	1	2	3	4	5
Charities share my opinions about many social problems.	1	2	3	4	5
Charities share beliefs with me about how society should be developed.	1	2	3	4	5
It is important for me to know what charities are doing with my donations.	1	2	3	4	5
Charities have sufficient support to achieve their goals.	1	2	3	4	5
The benefits of giving to charities outweigh the risks that the donation will be misused.	1	2	3	4	5
Charity workers are well qualified to perform their job.	1	2	3	4	5
I would be willing to let charities have complete control over the use of my donations.	1	2	3	4	5
Charities distort facts in their favor.	1	2	3	4	5
The behavior of charities is guided by sound principles.	1	2	3	4	5
The aims of charities generally fit well with mine.	1	2	3	4	5
Charities would not knowingly do anything to hurt me.	1	2	3	4	5
Charities keep the interests of their supporters in mind.	1	2	3	4	5
Charities are making a good performance.	1	2	3	4	5
Charities are well regarded by the public.	1	2	3	4	5
Charities have a strong sense of justice.	1	2	3	4	5
Charities use intrusive fundraising techniques.	1	2	3	4	5
The money given to charities goes to a good cause.	1	2	3	4	5
Charities are manipulated by companies for profit.	1	2	3	4	5
Charities make a good social impact.	1	2	3	4	5
I appreciate charities' efforts to make a better society.	1	2	3	4	5
It is necessary to be cautious in dealing with charitable organizations.	1	2	3	4	5
Charities are honest with the public.	1	2	3	4	5
Charities would be happy for me to be involved in their work.	1	2	3	4	5
Charities have a good image.	1	2	3	4	5
The charitable sector is generally concerned about my well-being.	1	2	3	4	5
My contributions to charities are important.	1	2	3	4	5
Charities are capable of performing their job adequately.	1	2	3	4	5
I never wonder whether charities will stick to their word.	1	2	3	4	5
The money donated to charities is wasted.	1	2	3	4	5
The charitable sector and I share similar values.	1	2	3	4	5
I agree with the way that charities deal with many social problems.	1	2	3	4	5
Charity workers are caring and sympathetic to me.	1	2	3	4	5
Charities do not follow through on their stated intentions.	1	2	3	4	5
When I need help, charities will do the best they can to help me.	1	2	3	4	5

Items	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
Charities are open in providing information about their work.	1	2	3	4	5
The charitable sector and I share beliefs of essentiality of charities for society.	1	2	3	4	5
The decisions charities make are not influenced by outside organizations.	1	2	3	4	5

2. What is your gender? (1) Male ☐ (2) Female ☐

3. What is your ethnic group?

(1) White ☐ (2) Mixed ☐ (3) Asian or Asian British ☐

(4) Black or Black British ☐ (5) other ethnic group ☐ Please specify ⎯⎯⎯

4. What is your age in years? ⎯⎯⎯⎯⎯

5. What is your general level of trust in charities in the UK?

(1) I absolutely trust charities ☐

(2) I trust charities ☐

(3) I neither trust nor distrust charities ☐

(4) I don't trust charities ☐

(5) I totally mistrust charities ☐

6. How much are you satisfied with charity work in the UK?

(1) Very satisified ☐

(2) Satisified ☐

(3) Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied ☐

(4) Dissatisfied ☐

(5) Very dissatisfied ☐

7. Have you ever made a contribution to a charity in the UK?

(1) Yes ☐ (***Go to 7a***)   (2) No ☐ (***Go to the end of this survey***)

  ↳ **7a** What was the form(s) of the contribution? (***Tick all that apply from I to IV***)

   I Financial donation   ☐   (***Go to 7b***)

    7b Do you donate at least once a year?

    (1) Yes ☐   (***Go to 7c***)   (2) No ☐

      ↳ **7c** What's the amount per month in average approximately?

      (1) below £5   (2) £5-£9.99   (3) £10-£50   (4) above £50

   II Volunteering work   ☐   (***Go to 7d***)

    7d What's the amount of time you contribute per week on average?

    (1) below 2 hours   (2) 2-7 hours   (3) 8 hours and above

    (4) not applicable

   III Donating goods   ☐

   IV Others   ☐   Please specify _____

8. Please write down your email address if you'd like to join the draw to win the prize of £5.

_____

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR COMPLETING THE SURVEY!   ☺

Appendix 5: Research Questionnaire for Scale Validation

1. Please indicate the extent to which you *generally* agree or disagree with each of these statements related to *charities in the UK* and so on. Please circle the appropriate number for your response.

Items	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
News about charities is generally positive.	1	2	3	4	5
The money donated to charities is used in a corrupt way.	1	2	3	4	5
Charities share my opinions about many social problems.	1	2	3	4	5
Charities can be relied upon to keep their promises.	1	2	3	4	5
Charities share beliefs with me about how society should be developed.	1	2	3	4	5
The benefits of giving to charities outweigh the risks that the donation will be misused.	1	2	3	4	5
Charities distort facts in their favor.	1	2	3	4	5
The behavior of charities is guided by sound principles.	1	2	3	4	5
The aims of charities generally fit well with mine.	1	2	3	4	5
Charities keep the interests of their supporters in mind.	1	2	3	4	5
Charities are performing well.	1	2	3	4	5
Charities are well regarded by the public.	1	2	3	4	5
Charities are manipulated by companies for profit.	1	2	3	4	5
Charities have a good image.	1	2	3	4	5
Charities are capable of performing their job adequately.	1	2	3	4	5
The money donated to charities is wasted.	1	2	3	4	5
The charitable sector and I share similar values.	1	2	3	4	5
I agree with the way that charities deal with many social problems.	1	2	3	4	5
Charities do not follow through on their stated intentions.	1	2	3	4	5
The charitable sector and I share beliefs of essentiality of charities for society.	1	2	3	4	5
I'm satisfied with performance of charitable organizations.	1	2	3	4	5
I would be willing to let charities have complete control over the use of my donations.	1	2	3	4	5
It is necessary to be cautious in dealing with charitable organizations.	1	2	3	4	5

2. What is your gender?   (1) Male ☐   (2) Female ☐

3. What is your ethnic group?

   (1) White ☐   (2) Mixed ☐   (3) Asian or Asian British ☐

   (4) Black or Black British ☐   (5) other ethnic group ☐   Please specify _____

4. What is your age in years? _____

5. What is your general level of trust in charities in the UK?

   (1) I absolutely trust charities ☐
   (2) I trust charities ☐
   (3) I neither trust nor distrust charities ☐
   (4) I don't trust charities ☐
   (5) I totally mistrust charities ☐

6. How much are you satisfied with charity work in the UK?
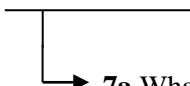
(1) Very satisified ☐

(2) Satisified ☐

(3) Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied ☐

(4) Dissatisfied ☐

(5) Very dissatisfied ☐

7. Have you ever made a contribution to a charity in the UK?

(1) Yes ☐ (*Go to 7a*) (2) No ☐ (*Go to the end of this survey*)

  → **7a** What was the form(s) of the contribution? (*Tick all that apply from I to IV*)

   I Financial donation ☐ (*Go to 7b*)

    7b Do you donate at least once a year?

    (1) Yes ☐ (*Go to 7c*) (2) No ☐

     → **7c** What's the amount per month in average approximately?

     (1) below £5 (2) £5-£9.99 (3) £10-£50 (4) above £50

   II Volunteering work ☐ (*Go to 7d*)

    7d What's the amount of time you contribute per week on average?

    (1) below 2 hours (2) 2-7 hours (3) 8 hours and above

    (4) not applicable

   III Donating goods ☐

   IV Others ☐ Please specify _____

8. Please write down your email address if you'd like to join the draw to win the prize of £5.

_____

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR COMPLETING THE SURVEY! ☺

Appendix 6: The Covering Letter for the Web-based Survey

UNIVERSITY OF **Hull**

Dear friend,

I am a PhD student in the Department of Social Sciences at the University of Hull. I am seeking participants (aged 16+ years and have lived in the UK for at least 1 year) to take part in a survey that investigates public trust in charities in the UK. The survey has been approved by the Hull University Ethics Committee.

The questionnaire includes **8-14 questions** and takes approximately **10 minutes** to finish.

Five of the submissions, randomly selected, will receive a thank you gift of £5. If you wish to be included in the draw, please write down your email address at the end of the questionnaire. The result of the draw will be announced via email after the survey being closed at the end of this December.

Your contribution will remain completely confidential and anonymous, and no identifiable information will be required. Please click the link of the questionnaire below and follow the instructions. If the link does not work, please copy and paste the URL into a browser.

http://freeonlinesurveys.com/s.asp?sid=lkpvvvnvo7h31g4303515

If you have any questions, please feel free to contact me by e-mail(s).

Thank you for your assistance.

Yours sincerely,

Yongjiao Yang

Yongjiao Yang

Email: Yongjiao.Yang@2012.hull.ac.uk

Appendix 7: Charity Types (classified by causes)

1   for Environment, Animals

   e.g. • Nature and conservation • Animal welfare • Wildlife • Pet • Zoo • General/other

2   for Armed Services

   e.g. • Ex Services • Army • General/other

3   for Arts, Cultural, Humanities

   e.g. • Heritage • Music • Theatre • General/other

4   for Disability

   e.g. • Blind • Children • Deaf • Deaf-Blind • Down syndrome • Learning difficulty • Support Group • Other Disabled • General/other

5   for Education

   e.g. • Higher education• Academy • Training • Pre-School • Science and Technology • Special education• General/other

6   for Health

   e.g. • Addictions • Broadcasting • Cancer • Children • Ethnic Minority • HIV/AIDS • Holistic/alternative • Hospices • Hospitals • Maternity • Medical Research/Animal Welfare • Medical Research/Welfare • Mental Health • Support • Undiagnosed • Women • General/other

7   for Religion

   e.g. • Christian • Christian/Welfare • Islam • Other Religious

8   for Society

   e.g. • Children/Youth • Community • Community Care/Relations • Ethnic/Foreign • Family Welfare • Gay/Lesbian • Homelessness • Marriage • Older People • Social Welfare • Poverty • Support • Voluntary Services • Women Issues • General/other

9   for Sports

   e.g. • Athletics and Sport • Recreation • Other

10 for Services for Charities

   e.g. • Accounting • Computer Software • Direct Marketing • Fundraising Consultants • Insurance • Legal • Mobility Equipment • Online fundraising • Print and Design • Web Design • other

Other (Please specify)

Appendix 8: Output of CPA with SPSS

1. Factor extraction

Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	11.406	30.827	30.827	11.406	30.827	30.827
2	2.344	6.335	37.162	2.344	6.335	37.162
3	1.812	4.897	42.059	1.812	4.897	42.059
4	1.562	4.221	46.280	1.562	4.221	46.280
5	1.126	3.043	49.322	1.126	3.043	49.322
6	1.033	2.792	52.114	1.033	2.792	52.114

	Component					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
V30 Charities are honest with the public.	.717					
V43 I agree with the way that charities deal with many social problems.	.702					
V27 Charities make a good social impact.	.695					
V24 The money given to charities goes to a good cause.	.681					
V22 Charities have a strong sense of justice.	.650					
V28 I appreciate charities' efforts to make a better society.	.648					
V38 Charities are capable of performing their job adequately.	.643					
V48 The charitable sector and I share beliefs of essentiality of charities for society.	.632					
V16 The aims of charities generally fit well with mine.	.628					
V42 The charitable sector and I share similar values.	.616					
V33 Charities have a good image.	.615					
V14 The behavior of charities is guided by sound principles.	.607					
V20 Charities are performing well.	.598					
V47 Charities are open in providing information about their work.	.597					
V1 Charities can be relied upon to keep their promises.	.585					
V19 Charities keep the interests of their supporters in mind.	.584					
V6 Charities share beliefs with me about how society should be developed.	.575					
V21 Charities are well regarded by the public.	.559					
V37 My contributions to charities are important.	.558					
V18 Charities would not knowingly do anything to hurt me.	.548				.429	
V46 When I need help, charities will do the best they can to help me.	.537					
V9 The benefits of giving to charities outweigh the risks that the donation will be misused.	.527					
V35 The charitable sector is generally concerned about my well-being.	.519			.408		
RV41: The money donated to charities is wasted.	.517					
V11 Charity workers are well qualified to perform their job.	.513					
V44 Charity workers are caring and sympathetic to me.	.512					
RV45: Charities do not follow through on their stated intentions.	.492	.415				
V4 Charities share my opinions about many social problems.	.490					
V12 I would be willing to let charities have complete control over the use of my donations.	.489					
V32 Charities would be happy for me to be involved in their work.	.468					
V2 News about charities is generally positive.	.434					
RV25: Charities are manipulated by companies for profit.		.567				
RV3: The money donated to charities is used in a corrupt way.	.459	.520				
RV29: It is necessary to be cautious in dealing with charitable organizations.		.492				
RV13: Charities distort facts in their favor.		.471				
V39 I never wonder whether charities will stick to their word.	.401		.430			
V49 The decisions charities make are not influenced by outside organizations.				.499		

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

a. 6 components extracted.

2. Factor rotation: with 37 items

Pattern Matrix^a

	Component			
	1	2	3	4
V21 Charities are well regarded by the public.	.695			
V33 Charities have a good image.	.674			
V19 Charities keep the interests of their supporters in mind.	.618			
V20 Charities are performing well.	.576			
V38 Charities are capable of performing their job adequately.	.554			
V18 Charities would not knowingly do anything to hurt me.	.552			
V2 News about charities is generally positive.	.527			
V22 Charities have a strong sense of justice.	.417			
V14 The behavior of charities is guided by sound principles.	.414			
V12 I would be willing to let charities have complete control over the use of my donations.				
V9 The benefits of giving to charities outweigh the risks that the donation will be misused.				
V24 The money given to charities goes to a good cause.				
RV3: The money donated to charities is used in a corrupt way.		.748		
RV25: Charities are manipulated by companies for profit.		.684		
RV13: Charities distort facts in their favor.		.673		
RV45: Charities do not follow through on their stated intentions.		.655		
RV41: The money donated to charities is wasted.		.619		
RV29: It is necessary to be cautious in dealing with charitable organizations.		.548		
V1 Charities can be relied upon to keep their promises.				
V4 Charities share my opinions about many social problems.			-.821	
V42 The charitable sector and I share similar values.			-.773	
V6 Charities share beliefs with me about how society should be developed.			-.725	
V28 I appreciate charities' efforts to make a better society.			-.594	
V48 The charitable sector and I share beliefs of essentiality of charities for society.			-.589	
V43 I agree with the way that charities deal with many social problems.			-.572	
V16 The aims of charities generally fit well with mine.			-.569	
V27 Charities make a good social impact.			-.513	
V37 My contributions to charities are important.			-.502	
V32 Charities would be happy for me to be involved in their work.			-.409	
V49 The decisions charities make are not influenced by outside organizations.				.678
V39 I never wonder whether charities will stick to their word.				.608
V35 The charitable sector is generally concerned about my well-being.				.537
V44 Charity workers are caring and sympathetic to me.				.410
V11 Charity workers are well qualified to perform their job.				
V46 When I need help, charities will do the best they can to help me.				
V30 Charities are honest with the public.				
V47 Charities are open in providing information about their work.				

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.
a. Rotation converged in 17 iterations.

Structure Matrix

	Component			
	1	2	3	4
V33 Charities have a good image.	.710			
V21 Charities are well regarded by the public.	.691			
V19 Charities keep the interests of their supporters in mind.	.664			
V38 Charities are capable of performing their job adequately.	.662		-.502	
V20 Charities are performing well.	.648			
V18 Charities would not knowingly do anything to hurt me.	.608			
V22 Charities have a strong sense of justice.	.594		-.515	
V24 The money given to charities goes to a good cause.	.567	.452	-.544	
V14 The behavior of charities is guided by sound principles.	.566		-.421	
V2 News about charities is generally positive.	.528			
V9 The benefits of giving to charities outweigh the risks that the donation will be misused.	.485			
V12 I would be willing to let charities have complete control over the use of my donations.	.479			.434
V47 Charities are open in providing information about their work.	.450		-.445	.423
RV3: The money donated to charities is used in a corrupt way.		.755		
RV45: Charities do not follow through on their stated intentions.		.689		
RV25: Charities are manipulated by companies for profit.		.679		
RV13: Charities distort facts in their favor.		.667		
RV41: The money donated to charities is wasted.		.663		
RV29: It is necessary to be cautious in dealing with charitable organizations.		.568		
V1 Charities can be relied upon to keep their promises.	.511	.516		.422
V42 The charitable sector and I share similar values.			-.775	
V4 Charities share my opinions about many social problems.			-.725	
V6 Charities share beliefs with me about how society should be developed.			-.715	
V43 I agree with the way that charities deal with many social problems.	.495		-.701	
V28 I appreciate charities' efforts to make a better society.	.561		-.699	
V48 The charitable sector and I share beliefs of essentiality of charities for society.	.414		-.672	
V16 The aims of charities generally fit well with mine.	.494		-.670	
V27 Charities make a good social impact.	.573		-.668	
V37 My contributions to charities are important.	.440		-.594	
V32 Charities would be happy for me to be involved in their work.			-.492	
V49 The decisions charities make are not influenced by outside organizations.				.680
V39 I never wonder whether charities will stick to their word.				.646
V35 The charitable sector is generally concerned about my well-being.			-.452	.613
V30 Charities are honest with the public.	.539	.459	-.509	.551
V44 Charity workers are caring and sympathetic to me.	.463			.510
V11 Charity workers are well qualified to perform their job.	.415			.492
V46 When I need help, charities will do the best they can to help me.			-.462	.479

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.

3. Factor rotation: with 23 items

Pattern Matrix[a]

	Component		
	1	2	3
V4 Charities share my opinions about many social problems.	.848		
V42 The charitable sector and I share similar values.	.791		
V6 Charities share beliefs with me about how society should be developed.	.727		
V48 The charitable sector and I share beliefs of essentiality of charities for society.	.622		
V16 The aims of charities generally fit well with mine.	.606		
V28 I appreciate charities' efforts to make a better society.	.606		
V43 I agree with the way that charities deal with many social problems.	.596		
V27 Charities make a good social impact.	.526		
V37 My contributions to charities are important.	.505		
RV3: The money donated to charities is used in a corrupt way.		.754	
RV25: Charities are manipulated by companies for profit.		.735	
RV13: Charities distort facts in their favor.		.717	
RV45: Charities do not follow through on their stated intentions.		.661	
RV41: The money donated to charities is wasted.		.635	
V21 Charities are well regarded by the public.			.727
V19 Charities keep the interests of their supporters in mind.			.678
V20 Charities are performing well.			.667
V33 Charities have a good image.			.665
V18 Charities would not knowingly do anything to hurt me.			.559
V2 News about charities is generally positive.			.544
V38 Charities are capable of performing their job adequately.			.503
V39 I never wonder whether charities will stick to their word.			.455
V14 The behavior of charities is guided by sound principles.			.424

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.
a. Rotation converged in 8 iterations.

Structure Matrix

	Component		
	1	2	3
V42 The charitable sector and I share similar values.	.788		.347
V4 Charities share my opinions about many social problems.	.738		
V6 Charities share beliefs with me about how society should be developed.	.716		
V43 I agree with the way that charities deal with many social problems.	.713	.315	.509
V28 I appreciate charities' efforts to make a better society.	.710		.507
V16 The aims of charities generally fit well with mine.	.687		.482
V48 The charitable sector and I share beliefs of essentiality of charities for society.	.687	.301	.394
V27 Charities make a good social impact.	.682	.362	.548
V37 My contributions to charities are important.	.587		.432
RV3: The money donated to charities is used in a corrupt way.		.764	
RV45: Charities do not follow through on their stated intentions.		.715	.368
RV25: Charities are manipulated by companies for profit.		.713	
RV41: The money donated to charities is wasted.	.376	.698	.328
RV13: Charities distort facts in their favor.		.696	
V33 Charities have a good image.	.378	.308	.715
V21 Charities are well regarded by the public.	.321		.712
V20 Charities are performing well.	.345		.699
V19 Charities keep the interests of their supporters in mind.	.362		.692
V38 Charities are capable of performing their job adequately.	.515		.635
V18 Charities would not knowingly do anything to hurt me.	.348		.606
V14 The behavior of charities is guided by sound principles.	.452	.362	.574
V2 News about charities is generally positive.			.543
V39 I never wonder whether charities will stick to their word.			.439

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.

Component Correlation Matrix

Component	1	2	3
1	1.000	.295	.445
2	.295	1.000	.339
3	.445	.339	1.000

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.

4. Factor rotation: with 20 items

Pattern Matrix^a

	Component		
	1	2	3
V4 Charities share my opinions about many social problems.	.864		
V42 The charitable sector and I share similar values.	.773		
V6 Charities share beliefs with me about how society should be developed.	.744		
V43 I agree with the way that charities deal with many social problems.	.588		
V48 The charitable sector and I share beliefs of essentiality of charities for society.	.586		
V16 The aims of charities generally fit well with mine.	.582		
V37 My contributions to charities are important.	.446		
RV3: The money donated to charities is used in a corrupt way.		.756	
RV25: Charities are manipulated by companies for profit.		.739	
RV13: Charities distort facts in their favor.		.710	
RV45: Charities do not follow through on their stated intentions.		.665	
RV41: The money donated to charities is wasted.		.644	
V21 Charities are well regarded by the public.			-.750
V19 Charities keep the interests of their supporters in mind.			-.701
V33 Charities have a good image.			-.700
V20 Charities are performing well.			-.679
V18 Charities would not knowingly do anything to hurt me.			-.572
V2 News about charities is generally positive.			-.563
V38 Charities are capable of performing their job adequately.			-.548
V14 The behavior of charities is guided by sound principles.			-.441

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.
a. Rotation converged in 13 iterations.

Structure Matrix

	Component		
	1	2	3
V42 The charitable sector and I share similar values.	.793		-.383
V4 Charities share my opinions about many social problems.	.775		
V6 Charities share beliefs with me about how society should be developed.	.744		
V43 I agree with the way that charities deal with many social problems.	.717	.314	-.532
V16 The aims of charities generally fit well with mine.	.686		-.518
V48 The charitable sector and I share beliefs of essentiality of charities for society.	.675	.308	-.430
V37 My contributions to charities are important.	.553		-.457
RV3: The money donated to charities is used in a corrupt way.		.767	
RV45: Charities do not follow through on their stated intentions.		.717	-.374
RV25: Charities are manipulated by companies for profit.		.712	
RV41: The money donated to charities is wasted.	.333	.701	-.339
RV13: Charities distort facts in their favor.		.692	
V33 Charities have a good image.	.324	.317	-.726
V21 Charities are well regarded by the public.			-.720
V19 Charities keep the interests of their supporters in mind.	.331		-.702
V20 Charities are performing well.	.315		-.701
V38 Charities are capable of performing their job adequately.	.468		-.653
V18 Charities would not knowingly do anything to hurt me.	.330		-.611
V14 The behavior of charities is guided by sound principles.	.443	.362	-.584
V2 News about charities is generally positive.			-.546

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.

Component Correlation Matrix

Component	1	2	3
1	1.000	.279	-.432
2	.279	1.000	-.340
3	-.432	-.340	1.000

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser
Normalization.

Appendix 9: Output of CFA with Amos

Regression Weights: (Group number 1 - Default model)

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
V48	<---	ValueSililarity	1.000				
V43	<---	ValueSililarity	1.061	.130	8.136	***	par_1
V42	<---	ValueSililarity	1.059	.123	8.597	***	par_2
V16	<---	ValueSililarity	.834	.110	7.594	***	par_3
V6	<---	ValueSililarity	1.049	.135	7.746	***	par_4
V45	<---	Integrity	1.666	.386	4.313	***	par_5
V41	<---	Integrity	1.957	.448	4.366	***	par_6
V25	<---	Integrity	1.000				
V3	<---	Integrity	1.699	.386	4.398	***	par_7
V38	<---	Competence	1.000				
V21	<---	Competence	1.048	.203	5.157	***	par_8
V20	<---	Competence	1.000	.179	5.600	***	par_9
V2	<---	Competence	.811	.191	4.247	***	par_10
V33	<---	Competence	.894	.157	5.683	***	par_11
V19	<---	Competence	.952	.192	4.971	***	par_15
V13	<---	Integrity	1.441	.363	3.970	***	par_16
V4	<---	ValueSililarity	.921	.134	6.875	***	par_17
V37	<---	ValueSililarity	.666	.121	5.490	***	par_18
V14	<---	Competence	1.000	.180	5.543	***	par_19
V18	<---	Competence	1.140	.221	5.157	***	par_20

Modification Indices (for the model with 16 items)

			M.I.	Par Change
e17	<-->	Competence	4.640	.039
e13	<-->	e14	5.292	.056
e13	<-->	e16	4.034	-.048
e8	<-->	e18	4.613	-.052
e5	<-->	e31	16.846	.135
e5	<-->	e16	4.743	-.060
e4	<-->	e16	6.872	.060
e4	<-->	e10	5.243	-.068
e3	<-->	e13	4.078	-.045
e3	<-->	e10	4.046	.060
e2	<-->	e18	9.306	.071
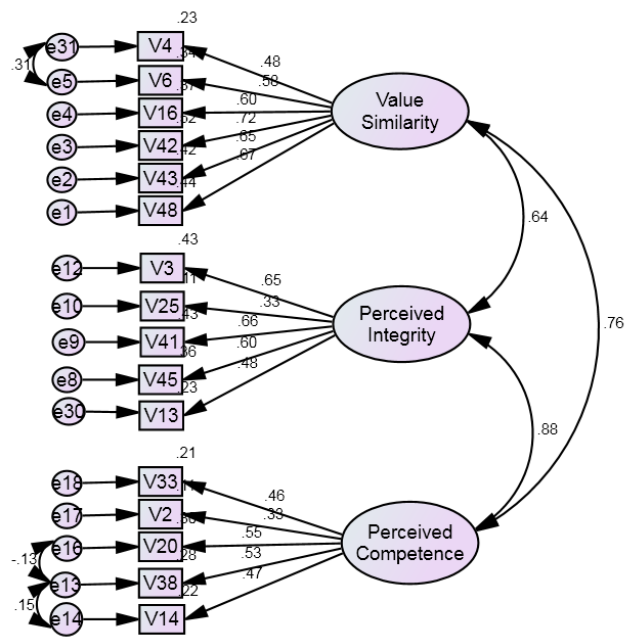
Detailed Path Diagram of the Modified Model

Appendix 10: Descriptive Statistics of Individual Items in the Final Scale

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
RV13: Charities distort facts in their favor.	709	2.91	.917	-.110	.092	-.313	.183
RV25: Charities are manipulated by companies for profit.	708	3.06	.964	-.031	.092	-.191	.183
V6 Charities share beliefs with me about how society should be developed.	709	3.34	.847	-.489	.092	-.320	.183
RV45: Charities do not follow through on their stated intentions.	709	3.36	.783	-.151	.092	.162	.183
V20 Charities are performing well.	708	3.44	.787	-.571	.092	.461	.184
RV3: The money donated to charities is used in a corrupt way.	709	3.45	.908	-.232	.092	-.123	.183
V43 I agree with the way that charities deal with many social problems.	709	3.49	.870	-.673	.092	.720	.183
V48 The charitable sector and I share beliefs of essentiality of charities for society.	709	3.50	.881	-.720	.092	.818	.183
V4 Charities share my opinions about many social problems.	709	3.52	.917	-.499	.092	-.003	.183
V42 The charitable sector and I share similar values.	708	3.55	.812	-.582	.092	.950	.183
V16 The aims of charities generally fit well with mine.	709	3.56	.781	-.864	.092	1.009	.183
V14 The behavior of charities is guided by sound principles.	709	3.56	.748	-.669	.092	1.200	.183
V38 Charities are capable of performing their job adequately.	704	3.60	.728	-.771	.092	.876	.184
V33 Charities have a good image.	709	3.74	.730	-.795	.092	1.295	.183
RV41: The money donated to charities is wasted.	708	3.76	.960	-.689	.092	.444	.183
V2 News about charities is generally positive.	709	3.77	.821	-.873	.092	.943	.183
Valid N (listwise)	699						

Appendix 11: SPSS Syntax

Chapter 6

6.3.1 Sample

GET

   FILE='C:\Users\Yang_2\Desktop\490_SR.sav'.

DATASET NAME DataSet6 WINDOW=FRONT.

FREQUENCIES VARIABLES=age

   /NTILES=4

   /STATISTICS=STDDEV MINIMUM MAXIMUM MEAN MEDIAN SKEWNESS SESKEW KURTOSIS SEKURT

   /ORDER=ANALYSIS.

RECODE age (17 thru 24=1) (25 thru 34=2) (35 thru 44=3) (45 thru 54=4) (55 thru 64=5) (65 thru 73=6) INTO agegroup2.

VARIABLE LABELS   agegroup2 'age group 2'.

EXECUTE.

FREQUENCIES VARIABLES=agegroup2

   /ORDER=ANALYSIS.

FREQUENCIES VARIABLES=ethnicity gender

   /ORDER=ANALYSIS.

6.4.1. Item analysis

COMPUTE RV3=6 - VAR3.

EXECUTE.

COMPUTE RV13=6 – VAR13.

EXECUTE.

COMPUTE RV23=6 – VAR23.

EXECUTE.

COMPUTE RV25=6 – VAR25.

EXECUTE.

COMPUTE RV29=6 – VAR29.

EXECUTE.

COMPUTE RV41=6 – VAR41.

EXECUTE.

COMPUTE RV45=6 – VAR45.

EXECUTE.

DESCRIPTIVES VARIABLES= VAR1 VAR2 VAR4 VAR6 VAR7 VAR8 VAR9 VAR11 VAR12 VAR14 VAR16 VAR18 VAR19 VAR20 VAR21 VAR22 VAR24 VAR27 VAR28 VAR30 VAR32 VAR33 VAR35 VAR37 VAR38 VAR39 VAR42 VAR43 VAR44 VAR46 VAR47 VAR48 VAR49 RV3 RV13 RV23 RV25 RV29 RV41 RV45

/STATISTICS=MEAN STDDEV MIN MAX.

RELIABILITY

   /VARIABLES=VAR1 VAR2 VAR4 VAR6 VAR7 VAR8 VAR9 VAR11 VAR12 VAR14 VAR16 VAR18 VAR19 VAR20 VAR21 VAR22 VAR24 VAR27 VAR28 VAR30 VAR32 VAR33 VAR35 VAR37 VAR38 VAR39 VAR42 VAR43 VAR44 VAR46 VAR47 VAR48 VAR49 RV3 RV13 RV23 RV25 RV29 RV41 RV45

   /SCALE('ALL VARIABLES') ALL

   /MODEL=ALPHA

   /STATISTICS=DESCRIPTIVE SCALE CORR

   /SUMMARY=TOTAL.

RELIABILITY

   /VARIABLES=VAR1 VAR2 VAR4 VAR6 VAR9 VAR11 VAR12 VAR14 VAR16 VAR18 VAR19 VAR20 VAR21 VAR22 VAR24 VAR27 VAR28 VAR30 VAR32 VAR33

VAR35 VAR37 VAR38 VAR39 VAR42 VAR43 VAR44 VAR46 VAR47 VAR48 VAR49 RV3 RV13 RV23 RV25 RV29 RV41 RV45

/SCALE('ALL VARIABLES') ALL

/MODEL=ALPHA

/STATISTICS=DESCRIPTIVE SCALE CORR

/SUMMARY=TOTAL.

RELIABILITY

/VARIABLES=VAR1 VAR2 VAR4 VAR6 VAR9 VAR11 VAR12 VAR14 VAR16 VAR18 VAR19 VAR20 VAR21 VAR22 VAR24 VAR27 VAR28 VAR30 VAR32 VAR33 VAR35 VAR37 VAR38 VAR39 VAR42 VAR43 VAR44 VAR46 VAR47 VAR48 VAR49 RV3 RV13 RV25 RV29 RV41 RV45

/SCALE('ALL VARIABLES') ALL

/MODEL=ALPHA

/STATISTICS=DESCRIPTIVE SCALE CORR

/SUMMARY=TOTAL.

6.4.2. Exploratory factor analysis

FACTOR

/VARIABLES VAR1 VAR2 VAR4 VAR6 VAR9 VAR11 VAR12 VAR14 VAR16 VAR18 VAR19 VAR20 VAR21 VAR22 VAR24 VAR27 VAR28 VAR30 VAR32 VAR33 VAR35 VAR37 VAR38 VAR39 VAR42 VAR43 VAR44 VAR46 VAR47 VAR48 VAR49 RV3 RV13 RV25 RV29 RV41 RV45

/MISSING PAIRWISE

/ANALYSIS VAR1 VAR2 VAR4 VAR6 VAR9 VAR11 VAR12 VAR14 VAR16 VAR18 VAR19 VAR20 VAR21 VAR22 VAR24 VAR27 VAR28 VAR30 VAR32 VAR33 VAR35 VAR37 VAR38 VAR39 VAR42 VAR43 VAR44 VAR46 VAR47 VAR48 VAR49 RV3 RV13 RV25 RV29 RV41 RV45

/PRINT UNIVARIATE INITIAL CORRELATION SIG DET KMO INV REPR AIC EXTRACTION

/FORMAT SORT BLANK(.40)

/PLOT EIGEN

/CRITERIA MINEIGEN(1) ITERATE(25)

/EXTRACTION PC

/ROTATION NOROTATE

/METHOD=CORRELATION.

FACTOR

    /VARIABLES VAR1 VAR2 VAR4 VAR6 VAR9 VAR11 VAR12 VAR14 VAR16 VAR18 VAR19 VAR20 VAR21 VAR22 VAR24 VAR27 VAR28 VAR30 VAR32 VAR33 VAR35 VAR37 VAR38 VAR39 VAR42 VAR43 VAR44 VAR46 VAR47 VAR48 VAR49 RV3 RV13 RV25 RV29 RV41 RV45

    /MISSING PAIRWISE

    /ANALYSIS VAR1 VAR2 VAR4 VAR6 VAR9 VAR11 VAR12 VAR14 VAR16 VAR18 VAR19 VAR20 VAR21 VAR22 VAR24 VAR27 VAR28 VAR30 VAR32 VAR33 VAR35 VAR37 VAR38 VAR39 VAR42 VAR43 VAR44 VAR46 VAR47 VAR48 VAR49 RV3 RV13 RV25 RV29 RV41 RV45

    /PRINT UNIVARIATE INITIAL CORRELATION SIG DET KMO INV REPR AIC EXTRACTION ROTATION

    /FORMAT SORT BLANK(.40)

    /PLOT EIGEN

    /CRITERIA FACTORS(4) ITERATE(25)

    /EXTRACTION PC

    /CRITERIA ITERATE(50) DELTA(0)

    /ROTATION OBLIMIN

    /METHOD=CORRELATION.

FACTOR

    /VARIABLES VAR2 VAR4 VAR6 VAR14 VAR16 VAR18 VAR19 VAR20 VAR21 VAR22 VAR27 VAR28 VAR32 VAR33 VAR35 VAR37 VAR38 VAR39 VAR42 VAR43 VAR44 VAR48 VAR49 RV3 RV13 RV25 RV29 RV41 RV45

    /MISSING PAIRWISE

    /ANALYSIS VAR2 VAR4 VAR6 VAR14 VAR16 VAR18 VAR19 VAR20 VAR21 VAR22 VAR27 VAR28 VAR32 VAR33 VAR35 VAR37 VAR38 VAR39 VAR42 VAR43 VAR44 VAR48 VAR49 RV3 RV13 RV25 RV29 RV41 RV45

    /PRINT UNIVARIATE INITIAL CORRELATION SIG DET KMO INV REPR AIC EXTRACTION ROTATION

    /FORMAT SORT BLANK(.30)

    /PLOT EIGEN

    /CRITERIA FACTORS(4) ITERATE(25)

    /EXTRACTION PC

    /CRITERIA ITERATE(50) DELTA(0)

    /ROTATION OBLIMIN

    /METHOD=CORRELATION.

FACTOR

    /VARIABLES VAR2 VAR4 VAR6 VAR14 VAR16 VAR18 VAR19 VAR20 VAR21 VAR22 VAR27 VAR28 VAR33 VAR35 VAR37 VAR38 VAR39 VAR42 VAR43 VAR48 VAR49 RV3 RV13 RV25 RV29 RV41 RV45

    /MISSING PAIRWISE

    /ANALYSIS VAR2 VAR4 VAR6 VAR14 VAR16 VAR18 VAR19 VAR20 VAR21 VAR22 VAR27 VAR28 VAR33 VAR35 VAR37 VAR38 VAR39 VAR42 VAR43 VAR48 VAR49 RV3 RV13 RV25 RV29 RV41 RV45

    /PRINT UNIVARIATE INITIAL CORRELATION SIG DET KMO INV REPR AIC EXTRACTION ROTATION

    /FORMAT SORT BLANK(.30)

    /PLOT EIGEN

    /CRITERIA FACTORS(4) ITERATE(25)

    /EXTRACTION PC

    /CRITERIA ITERATE(50) DELTA(0)

    /ROTATION OBLIMIN

    /METHOD=CORRELATION.

FACTOR

    /VARIABLES VAR2 VAR4 VAR6 VAR14 VAR16 VAR18 VAR19 VAR20 VAR21 VAR22 VAR27 VAR28 VAR33 VAR37 VAR38 VAR39 VAR42 VAR43 VAR48 VAR49 RV3 RV13 RV25 RV29 RV41 RV45

    /MISSING PAIRWISE

    /ANALYSIS VAR2 VAR4 VAR6 VAR14 VAR16 VAR18 VAR19 VAR20 VAR21 VAR22 VAR27 VAR28 VAR33 VAR37 VAR38 VAR39 VAR42 VAR43 VAR48 VAR49 RV3 RV13 RV25 RV29 RV41 RV45

    /PRINT UNIVARIATE INITIAL CORRELATION SIG DET KMO INV REPR AIC EXTRACTION ROTATION

    /FORMAT SORT BLANK(.30)

    /PLOT EIGEN

    /CRITERIA FACTORS(4) ITERATE(25)

    /EXTRACTION PC

    /CRITERIA ITERATE(50) DELTA(0)

    /ROTATION OBLIMIN

    /METHOD=CORRELATION.

FACTOR

    /VARIABLES VAR2 VAR4 VAR6 VAR14 VAR16 VAR18 VAR19 VAR20 VAR21
VAR22 VAR27 VAR28 VAR33 VAR37 VAR38 VAR39 VAR42 VAR43 VAR48 VAR49
RV3 RV13 RV25 RV41 RV45

    /MISSING PAIRWISE

    /ANALYSIS VAR2 VAR4 VAR6 VAR14 VAR16 VAR18 VAR19 VAR20 VAR21
VAR22 VAR27 VAR28 VAR33 VAR37 VAR38 VAR39 VAR42 VAR43 VAR48 VAR49
RV3 RV13 RV25 RV41 RV45

    /PRINT UNIVARIATE INITIAL CORRELATION SIG DET KMO INV REPR AIC
EXTRACTION ROTATION

    /FORMAT SORT BLANK(.30)

    /PLOT EIGEN

    /CRITERIA FACTORS(4) ITERATE(25)

    /EXTRACTION PC

    /CRITERIA ITERATE(50) DELTA(0)

    /ROTATION OBLIMIN

    /METHOD=CORRELATION.

FACTOR

    /VARIABLES VAR2 VAR4 VAR6 VAR14 VAR16 VAR18 VAR19 VAR20 VAR21
VAR22 VAR27 VAR28 VAR33 VAR37 VAR38 VAR39 VAR42 VAR43 VAR48 RV3
RV13 RV25 RV41 RV45

    /MISSING PAIRWISE

    /ANALYSIS VAR2 VAR4 VAR6 VAR14 VAR16 VAR18 VAR19 VAR20 VAR21
VAR22 VAR27 VAR28 VAR33 VAR37 VAR38 VAR39 VAR42 VAR43 VAR48 RV3
RV13 RV25 RV41 RV45

    /PRINT UNIVARIATE INITIAL CORRELATION SIG DET KMO INV REPR AIC
EXTRACTION ROTATION

    /FORMAT SORT BLANK(.30)

    /PLOT EIGEN

    /CRITERIA FACTORS(3) ITERATE(25)

    /EXTRACTION PC

    /CRITERIA ITERATE(50) DELTA(0)

    /ROTATION OBLIMIN

    /METHOD=CORRELATION.

FACTOR

   /VARIABLES VAR2 VAR4 VAR6 VAR14 VAR16 VAR18 VAR19 VAR20 VAR21 VAR27 VAR28 VAR33 VAR37 VAR38 VAR39 VAR42 VAR43 VAR48 RV3 RV13 RV25 RV41 RV45

   /MISSING PAIRWISE

   /ANALYSIS VAR2 VAR4 VAR6 VAR14 VAR16 VAR18 VAR19 VAR20 VAR21 VAR27 VAR28 VAR33 VAR37 VAR38 VAR39 VAR42 VAR43 VAR48 RV3 RV13 RV25 RV41 RV45

   /PRINT UNIVARIATE INITIAL CORRELATION SIG DET KMO INV REPR AIC EXTRACTION ROTATION

   /FORMAT SORT BLANK(.30)

   /PLOT EIGEN

   /CRITERIA FACTORS(3) ITERATE(25)

   /EXTRACTION PC

   /CRITERIA ITERATE(50) DELTA(0)

   /ROTATION OBLIMIN

   /METHOD=CORRELATION.

6.4.3 The second round of item analysis and CPA

RELIABILITY

   /VARIABLES=VAR4 VAR6 VAR16 VAR42 VAR48 VAR43 VAR27 VAR28 VAR37

   /SCALE('ALL VARIABLES') ALL

   /MODEL=ALPHA

   /STATISTICS=DESCRIPTIVE SCALE

   /SUMMARY=TOTAL.

RELIABILITY

   /VARIABLES=RV3 RV13 RV25 RV41 RV45

   /SCALE('ALL VARIABLES') ALL

   /MODEL=ALPHA

   /STATISTICS=DESCRIPTIVE SCALE

   /SUMMARY=TOTAL.

RELIABILITY

/VARIABLES=VAR2 VAR21 VAR19 VAR20 VAR18 VAR33 VAR38 VAR39 VAR14

/SCALE('ALL VARIABLES') ALL

/MODEL=ALPHA

/STATISTICS=DESCRIPTIVE SCALE

/SUMMARY=TOTAL.

RELIABILITY

/VARIABLES=VAR2 VAR4 VAR6 VAR14 VAR16 VAR18 VAR19 VAR20 VAR21 VAR27 VAR28 VAR33 VAR37 VAR38 VAR39 VAR42 VAR43 VAR48 RV3 RV13 RV25 RV41 RV45

/SCALE('ALL VARIABLES') ALL

/MODEL=ALPHA

/STATISTICS=DESCRIPTIVE SCALE CORR

/SUMMARY=TOTAL.

FACTOR

/VARIABLES VAR2 VAR4 VAR6 VAR14 VAR16 VAR18 VAR19 VAR20 VAR27 VAR28 VAR21 VAR33 VAR37 VAR38 VAR42 VAR43 VAR48 RV3 RV13 RV25 RV41 RV45

/MISSING PAIRWISE

/ANALYSIS VAR2 VAR4 VAR6 VAR14 VAR16 VAR18 VAR19 VAR20 VAR27 VAR28 VAR21 VAR33 VAR37 VAR38 VAR42 VAR43 VAR48 RV3 RV13 RV25 RV41 RV45

/PRINT UNIVARIATE INITIAL CORRELATION SIG DET KMO INV REPR AIC EXTRACTION ROTATION

/FORMAT SORT BLANK(.30)

/PLOT EIGEN

/CRITERIA FACTORS(3) ITERATE(25)

/EXTRACTION PC

/CRITERIA ITERATE(50) DELTA(0)

/ROTATION OBLIMIN

/METHOD=CORRELATION.

FACTOR

    /VARIABLES VAR2 VAR4 VAR6 VAR14 VAR16 VAR18 VAR19 VAR20 VAR28
VAR21 VAR33 VAR37 VAR38 VAR42 VAR43 VAR48 RV3 RV13 RV25 RV41 RV45

    /MISSING PAIRWISE

    /ANALYSIS VAR2 VAR4 VAR6 VAR14 VAR16 VAR18 VAR19 VAR20 VAR28
VAR21 VAR33 VAR37 VAR38 VAR42 VAR43 VAR48 RV3 RV13 RV25 RV41 RV45

    /PRINT UNIVARIATE INITIAL CORRELATION SIG DET KMO INV REPR AIC
EXTRACTION ROTATION

    /FORMAT SORT BLANK(.30)

    /PLOT EIGEN

    /CRITERIA FACTORS(3) ITERATE(25)

    /EXTRACTION PC

    /CRITERIA ITERATE(50) DELTA(0)

    /ROTATION OBLIMIN

    /METHOD=CORRELATION.

FACTOR

    /VARIABLES VAR2 VAR4 VAR6 VAR14 VAR16 VAR18 VAR19 VAR20 VAR21
VAR33 VAR37 VAR38 VAR42 VAR43 VAR48 RV3 RV13 RV25 RV41 RV45

    /MISSING PAIRWISE

    /ANALYSIS VAR2 VAR4 VAR6 VAR14 VAR16 VAR18 VAR19 VAR20 VAR21
VAR33 VAR37 VAR38 VAR42 VAR43 VAR48 RV3 RV13 RV25 RV41 RV45

    /PRINT UNIVARIATE INITIAL CORRELATION SIG DET KMO INV REPR AIC
EXTRACTION ROTATION

    /FORMAT SORT BLANK(.30)

    /PLOT EIGEN

    /CRITERIA FACTORS(3) ITERATE(25)

    /EXTRACTION PC

    /CRITERIA ITERATE(50) DELTA(0)

    /ROTATION OBLIMIN

    /METHOD=CORRELATION.

FACTOR

    /VARIABLES VAR2 VAR4 VAR6 VAR14 VAR16 VAR18 VAR19 VAR20 VAR21 VAR33 VAR37 VAR38 VAR42 VAR43 VAR48 RV3 RV13 RV25 RV41 RV45

    /MISSING PAIRWISE

    /ANALYSIS VAR2 VAR4 VAR6 VAR14 VAR16 VAR18 VAR19 VAR20 VAR21 VAR33 VAR37 VAR38 VAR42 VAR43 VAR48 RV3 RV13 RV25 RV41 RV45

    /PRINT UNIVARIATE INITIAL CORRELATION SIG DET KMO INV REPR AIC EXTRACTION ROTATION

    /FORMAT SORT BLANK(.30)

    /PLOT EIGEN

    /CRITERIA FACTORS(3) ITERATE(25)

    /EXTRACTION PC

    /CRITERIA ITERATE(50) DELTA(0)

    /ROTATION OBLIMIN

    /METHOD=CORRELATION.

6.4.4 Scale internal consistency

RELIABILITY

    /VARIABLES=VAR2 VAR4 VAR6 VAR14 VAR16 VAR18 VAR19 VAR20 VAR21 VAR33 VAR37 VAR38 VAR42 VAR43 VAR48 RV3 RV13 RV25 RV41 RV45

    /SCALE('ALL VARIABLES') ALL

    /MODEL=ALPHA

    /STATISTICS=DESCRIPTIVE SCALE CORR

    /SUMMARY=TOTAL.

RELIABILITY

/VARIABLES=VAR4 VAR6 VAR16 VAR37 VAR42 VAR43 VAR48

    /SCALE('ALL VARIABLES') ALL

    /MODEL=ALPHA

    /STATISTICS=DESCRIPTIVE SCALE CORR

    /SUMMARY=TOTAL.

RELIABILITY

  /VARIABLES=RV3 RV13 RV25 RV41 RV45

  /SCALE('ALL VARIABLES') ALL

  /MODEL=ALPHA

  /STATISTICS=DESCRIPTIVE SCALE CORR

  /SUMMARY=TOTAL.

RELIABILITY

/VARIABLES=VAR2 VAR14 VAR18 VAR19 VAR20 VAR21 VAR33 VAR38

/SCALE('ALL VARIABLES') ALL

  /MODEL=ALPHA

  /STATISTICS=DESCRIPTIVE SCALE CORR

  /SUMMARY=TOTAL.

Chapter 7

7.3.1 Sample

GET

  FILE='C:\Users\Yang_2\Desktop\253_SV.sav'.

DATASET NAME DataSet1 WINDOW=FRONT.

FREQUENCIES VARIABLES=age

  /NTILES=4

  /STATISTICS=STDDEV MINIMUM MAXIMUM MEAN MEDIAN SKEWNESS SESKEW KURTOSIS SEKURT

  /ORDER=ANALYSIS.

RECODE age (17 thru 24=1) (25 thru 34=2) (35 thru 44=3) (45 thru 54=4) (55 thru 64=5) (65 thru 73=6) INTO agegroup2.

VARIABLE LABELS   agegroup2 'age group 2'.

EXECUTE.

FREQUENCIES VARIABLES=agegroup2

   /ORDER=ANALYSIS.

FREQUENCIES VARIABLES=ethnicity gender

   /ORDER=ANALYSIS.

7.4.1 CFA_ preliminary analysis

FREQUENCIES VARIABLES= VAR2 VAR3 VAR4 VAR6 VAR13 VAR14 VAR16
VAR18 VAR19 VAR20 VAR21 VAR25 VAR33 VAR37 VAR38 VAR41 VAR42 VAR43
VAR45 VAR48

   /STATISTICS=SKEWNESS SESKEW KURTOSIS SEKURT

   /HISTOGRAM

   /ORDER=ANALYSIS.

MVA VARIABLES=VAR2 VAR3 VAR4 VAR6 VAR13 VAR14 VAR16 VAR18 VAR19
VAR20 VAR21 VAR25 VAR33 VAR37 VAR38 VAR41 VAR42 VAR43 VAR45 VAR48

   /EM(TOLERANCE=0.001 CONVERGENCE=0.0001 ITERATIONS=25).

REGRESSION

   /DESCRIPTIVES MEAN STDDEV CORR SIG N

   /MISSING PAIRWISE

   /STATISTICS COEFF OUTS CI(95) R ANOVA COLLIN TOL ZPP

   /CRITERIA=PIN(.05) POUT(.10)

   /NOORIGIN

   /DEPENDENT age

   /METHOD=ENTER VAR2 VAR4 VAR6 VAR14 VAR16 VAR18 VAR19 VAR20
VAR21 VAR33 VAR37 VAR38 VAR42 VAR43 VAR48 RV3 RV13 RV25 RV41 RV45

   /SCATTERPLOT=(*ZRESID ,*ZPRED)

   /RESIDUALS HISTOGRAM(ZRESID) NORMPROB(ZRESID)

   /CASEWISE PLOT(ZRESID) OUTLIERS(3)

   /SAVE MAHAL COOK.

7.4.2 Construct validity

COMPUTE total_16=VAR4 + VAR6 + VAR16 + VAR42 + VAR43 + VAR48 + RV3 + RV13 + RV25 + RV41 + RV45 + VAR2 + VAR20 + VAR14 + VAR33 + VAR38.

EXECUTE.

(1) Single-item measurement

COMPUTE trust_R=6-lev_trust.

EXECUTE.

CORRELATIONS

  /VARIABLES=total_16 trust_R

  /PRINT=TWOTAIL NOSIG

  /MISSING=PAIRWISE.

NONPAR CORR

  /VARIABLES=total_16 trust_R

  /PRINT=SPEARMAN TWOTAIL NOSIG

/MISSING=PAIRWISE.

COMPUTE VS=VAR4 + VAR6 + VAR16 + VAR42 + VAR43 + VAR48.

EXECUTE.

COMPUTE PI=RV3 + RV13 + RV25 + RV41 + RV45.

EXECUTE.

COMPUTE PC=VAR2 + VAR14 + VAR20 + VAR33 + VAR38.

EXECUTE.

NONPAR CORR

  /VARIABLES=VS PI PC total_16 trust_R

  /PRINT=SPEARMAN TWOTAIL NOSIG

/MISSING=PAIRWISE

CROSSTABS

   /TABLES=VS PI PC BY trust_R

   /FORMAT=AVALUE TABLES

   /STATISTICS=CORR

   /CELLS=COUNT

   /COUNT ROUND CELL.

(2) Willingness to be vulnerable

RELIABILITY

   /VARIABLES=VAR12 RV29 VAR1 VAR9 VAR19

   /SCALE('ALL VARIABLES') ALL

   /MODEL=ALPHA

   /STATISTICS=DESCRIPTIVE SCALE

   /SUMMARY=TOTAL.

CORRELATIONS

   /VARIABLES=VAR1 VAR9 VAR12 VAR19 RV29 total_16

   /PRINT=TWOTAIL NOSIG

   /MISSING=PAIRWISE.

NONPAR CORR

   /VARIABLES=total_16 VAR1 VAR9 VAR12 VAR19 VAR29

   /PRINT=SPEARMAN TWOTAIL NOSIG

/MISSING=PAIRWISE.

CROSSTABS

   /TABLES=VAR1 VAR9 VAR12 VAR19 VAR29 BY total_16

   /FORMAT=AVALUE TABLES

   /STATISTICS=CORR

   /CELLS=COUNT

/COUNT ROUND CELL.

7.4.3 Criterion-related validity

COMPUTE dmfreq_R=3-dmoney_freq.

NONPAR CORR

   /VARIABLES=VAR21 dmoney_amou_ordered dmfreq_R satis_R total_16

   /PRINT=SPEARMAN TWOTAIL NOSIG

/MISSING=PAIRWISE.

CROSSTABS

   /TABLES=VAR21 dmoney_amou_ordered satis_R dmfreq_R BY total_16

   /FORMAT=AVALUE TABLES

   /STATISTICS=CORR

   /CELLS=COUNT

   /COUNT ROUND CELL.

Chapter 8

8.2 Sample weighting

GET

   FILE='C:\Users\Yang_2\Desktop\743_SU.sav'.

DATASET NAME DataSet1 WINDOW=FRONT.

FREQUENCIES VARIABLES=gender

   /ORDER=ANALYSIS.

DESCRIPTIVES VARIABLES=age

   /NTILES=4

   /STATISTICS=STDDEV MINIMUM MAXIMUM MEAN MEDIAN SKEWNESS
SESKEW KURTOSIS SEKURT

   /ORDER=ANALYSIS.

GRAPH

   /HISTOGRAM=age.

PPLOT

    /VARIABLES=age

    /NOLOG

    /NOSTANDARDIZE

    /TYPE=Q-Q

    /FRACTION=BLOM

    /TIES=MEAN

    /DIST=NORMAL.

RECODE age (17 thru 24=1) (25 thru 34=2) (35 thru 44=3) (45 thru 54=4) (55 thru 64=5) (65 thru 73=6) INTO agegroup2.

VARIABLE LABELS   agegroup2 'age group 2'.

EXECUTE.

FREQUENCIES VARIABLES=agegroup2

    /ORDER=ANALYSIS.

IF   (agegroup2 = 1 & gender = 1) weight_agegen=0.33.

IF   (agegroup2 = 1 & gender = 2) weight_agegen=0.32.

IF   (agegroup2 = 2 & gender = 1) weight_agegen=1.32.

IF   (agegroup2 = 2 & gender = 2) weight_agegen=0.90.

IF   (agegroup2 = 3 & gender = 1) weight_agegen=4.29.

IF   (agegroup2 = 3 & gender = 2) weight_agegen=3.44.

IF   (agegroup2 = 4 & gender = 1) weight_agegen=5.11.

IF   (agegroup2 = 4 & gender = 2) weight_agegen=5.11.

IF   (agegroup2 = 5 & gender = 1) weight_agegen=0.

IF   (agegroup2 = 5 & gender = 2) weight_agegen=0.

IF   (agegroup2 = 6 & gender = 1) weight_agegen=0.

IF   (agegroup2 = 6 & gender = 2) weight_agegen=0.

EXECUTE.

8.3 Measuring public trust in charities

WEIGHT BY weight_agegen.

COMPUTE T1=VAR4 + VAR6 + VAR16 + VAR42 + VAR43 + VAR48.

EXECUTE.

COMPUTE T2=RV3 + RV13 + RV25 + RV41 + RV45.

EXECUTE.

COMPUTE T3=VAR2 + VAR14 + VAR20 + VAR33 + VAR38.

EXECUTE.

COMPUTE T4=VAR2 + VAR14 + VAR20 + VAR33 + VAR38 + VAR4 + VAR6 + VAR16 + VAR42 + VAR43 + VAR48 + RV3 + RV13 + RV25 + RV41 + RV45.

EXECUTE.

DESCRIPTIVES VARIABLES=T4

   /STATISTICS=MEAN STDDEV MIN MAX KURTOSIS SKEWNESS.

GRAPH

   /HISTOGRAM(NORMAL)=T4.

RECODE T4 (48 thru 64=2) (65 thru Highest=3) (Lowest thru 47=1) INTO T4G.

VARIABLE LABELS   T4G 'T4_group'.

EXECUTE.

FREQUENCIES VARIABLES=T4G

   /BARCHART PERCENT

   /ORDER=ANALYSIS.

T-TEST GROUPS=gender(1 2)

   /MISSING=ANALYSIS

   /VARIABLES=T4

   /CRITERIA=CI(.95).

NONPAR CORR

    /VARIABLES=age T4

    /PRINT=SPEARMAN TWOTAIL NOSIG

    /MISSING=PAIRWISE.

CORRELATIONS

    /VARIABLES=age T4

    /PRINT=TWOTAIL NOSIG

    /MISSING=PAIRWISE.

ONEWAY T4 BY agegroup2

    /STATISTICS DESCRIPTIVES

    /MISSING ANALYSIS

    /POSTHOC=BONFERRONI ALPHA(0.05).

DESCRIPTIVES VARIABLES=T1 T2 T3

    /STATISTICS=MEAN STDDEV MIN MAX KURTOSIS SKEWNESS.

T-TEST GROUPS=gender(1 2)

    /MISSING=ANALYSIS

    /VARIABLES=T1 T2 T3

/CRITERIA=CI(.95).

NONPAR CORR

    /VARIABLES=age T3 T1 T2

    /PRINT=SPEARMAN TWOTAIL NOSIG

/MISSING=PAIRWISE.

CORRELATIONS

  /VARIABLES=T1 T2 T3 age

  /PRINT=TWOTAIL NOSIG

  /MISSING=PAIRWISE.

ONEWAY T1 T2 T3 BY agegroup2

  /STATISTICS DESCRIPTIVES

  /MISSING ANALYSIS

  /POSTHOC=BONFERRONI ALPHA(0.05).

DESCRIPTIVES VARIABLES=VAR4 VAR6 VAR16 VAR42 VAR43 VAR48 RV3 RV13 RV25 RV41 RV45 VAR2 VAR14 VAR20 VAR33 VAR38

  /STATISTICS=MEAN STDDEV KURTOSIS SKEWNESS

/SORT=MEAN (A).

T-TEST GROUPS=gender(1 2)

  /MISSING=ANALYSIS

  /VARIABLES= VAR4 VAR6 VAR16 VAR42 VAR43 VAR48 RV3 RV13 RV25 RV41 RV45 VAR2 VAR14 VAR20 VAR33 VAR38

  /CRITERIA=CI(.95).

RECODE agegroup2 (1 thru 2=1) (3 thru 4=2) INTO agegroup2_1.

VARIABLE LABELS   agegroup2_1 'age group 2_1'.

EXECUTE.

T-TEST GROUPS=agegroup2_1(1 2)

  /MISSING=ANALYSIS

  /VARIABLES= VAR4 VAR6 VAR16 VAR42 VAR43 VAR48 RV3 RV13 RV25 RV41 RV45 VAR2 VAR14 VAR20 VAR33 VAR38

  /CRITERIA=CI(.95).

ONEWAY VAR4 VAR6 VAR16 VAR42 VAR43 VAR48 RV3 RV13 RV25 RV41 RV45
VAR2 VAR14 VAR20 VAR33 VAR38 BY agegroup2

/STATISTICS DESCRIPTIVES

/MISSING ANALYSIS

/POSTHOC=BONFERRONI ALPHA(0.05).

8.4. Predicting pro-charity behaviors

FREQUENCIES VARIABLES=contribution dmoney_yeno dmoney_freq volunt_yeno
dgoods_yeno dmoney_amou_ordered volunt_amou_ordered

/BARCHART PERCENT

/ORDER=ANALYSIS.

LOGISTIC REGRESSION VARIABLES Bvolunt

/METHOD=ENTER age T4 gender

/CONTRAST (gender)=Indicator

/CLASSPLOT

/CASEWISE OUTLIER(2.5)

/PRINT=GOODFIT CORR ITER(1) CI(95)

/CRITERIA=PIN(0.05) POUT(0.10) ITERATE(20) CUT(0.5).

LOGISTIC REGRESSION VARIABLES Bdgoods

/METHOD=ENTER age T4 gender

/CONTRAST (gender)=Indicator

/CLASSPLOT

/CASEWISE OUTLIER(2.5)

/PRINT=GOODFIT CORR ITER(1) CI(95)

/CRITERIA=PIN(0.05) POUT(0.10) ITERATE(20) CUT(0.5).

LOGISTIC REGRESSION VARIABLES Bdmoneyfre

　　/METHOD=ENTER age T4 gender

　　/CLASSPLOT

　　/CASEWISE OUTLIER(2.5)

　　/PRINT=GOODFIT CORR ITER(1) CI(95)

　　/CRITERIA=PIN(0.05) POUT(0.10) ITERATE(20) CUT(0.5).

8.6 Discussion

FREQUENCIES VARIABLES=VAR4 VAR42 VAR6 VAR43 VAR16 VAR48 RV3 RV45 RV41 RV25 RV13 VAR33 VAR2 VAR14 VAR20 VAR38

/FORMAT=NOTABLE

　/STATISTICS=MEDIAN MODE

　/ORDER=ANALYSIS

FREQUENCIES VARIABLES=VAR2

　/ORDER=ANALYSIS

Appendix 12: List of Publications

Journal Articles

1. Yang, Y., Zhang, X., Tang, D., & Wilkinson, M. (2015). The abolition of dual administration of NGOs in China: Imperatives and challenges. *International Journal of Social Science and Humanity,* 5 (6), 546-552.

2. Yang, Y., Wilkinson, M., & Zhang, X. (2014). Beyond the abolition of dual administration: The challenges to NGO governance in 21st century China. *VOLUNTAS: International Journal of Voluntary and Nonprofit Organizations*, October 2014 (online first). http://link.springer.com/article/10.1007%2Fs11266-014-9521-7

3. Yang, Y., Brennan, I., & Wilkinson, M. (2014). Public trust and performance measurement in charitable organizations. *International Journal of Productivity and Performance Management,* 63 (6), 779-796.

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