FUCAPE FUNDAÇÃO DE PESQUISA E ENSINO

LARA MENDES CHRIST BONELLA SEPULCRI

# NONPROFIT BRAND ORIENTATION IN AN EMERGING COUNTRY: antecedents, consequents, and barriers

VITÓRIA
2022

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Tese apresentada ao Programa de Pós-Graduação em Ciências Contábeis e Administração, da Fucape Fundação de Pesquisa e Ensino, como requisito parcial para obtenção do título de Doutora em Ciências Contábeis e Administração.

Orientador: Prof. Dr. Emerson Wagner Mainardes

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Aprovada em 22 de março de 2022.

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## AGRADECIMENTOS

Graça é dom gratuito de Deus. Por isso, a Ele rendo graças por ter me dado muito mais do que mereço e ter me levado muito mais longe do que eu imaginava conseguir. Sou grata pela minha família, que esteve comigo nessa jornada. Obrigada aos meus pais, que são minha grande fonte de inspiração, e que, apesar de por vezes não entenderem muito bem as minhas decisões e angústias, sempre estiveram ao meu lado, nos momentos bons e nos não tão bons.

Obrigada ao meu marido, que é meu grande apoio e suportou tantos dias complicados sem reclamar, que sonhou meu sonho e que nem por um segundo me deixou desistir. Aos meus irmãos, agradeço por me inspirarem a ser uma pessoa melhor e espero ser para vocês um motivo de orgulho e admiração. Ainda como parte da família, obrigada Bento e Biscoita pela companhia canina, foram incontáveis horas que vocês estavam ao meu lado enquanto eu estudava ou dava aula.

Agradeço aos amigos, principalmente os que compartilharam comigo esse longo e árduo caminho: Andréia Hartwig, Edvan Soares, Julia Cavalcante, José Tejeda, Nádia Moreira e Ricardo Stefani. Vocês conhecem de perto essa trajetória e tenho certeza de que tudo seria mais difícil se não fosse pelo apoio uns dos outros. E claro, agradeço ao meu orientador, prof. Dr. Emerson Mainardes, que me guiou nessa jornada acadêmica, me ensinando desde os fundamentos mais básicos do marketing, ainda na graduação, até as diversas formas de pesquisa. Obrigada pelas inúmeras horas de explicação, apoio e orientação. Grande parte desta conquista deve-se a sua influência.

Também não poderia deixar de agradecer a toda equipe da FUCAPE que me acompanha desde a graduação. Ainda, agradeço a Fundação de Amparo à Pesquisa e Inovação do Espírito Santo (FAPES) pelo financiamento do meu doutorado e a Coordenação de Aperfeiçoamento de Pessoal de Nível Superior (CAPES) pelo financiamento do meu período sanduíche.

“Trabalha como se tudo dependesse de ti e confia como se tudo dependesse de Deus”

(Santo Inácio de Loyola)

# RESUMO

Este estudo teve como objetivo desenvolver os elementos que compõem a orientação à marca sem fins lucrativos em um país emergente, também identificando os antecedentes, consequentes e barreiras à implementação dessa estratégia. O país estudado foi o Brasil. Baseado no conceito da orientação à marca sem fins lucrativos (OMSL), inicialmente foram realizadas duas revisões sistemáticas de literatura e análises bibliométricas. Essas revisões formaram a base teórica para o desenvolvimento dos elementos propostos. A partir disso, três estudos se seguiram para o desenvolvimento dos elementos que compõem a OMSL em um país emergente, seus antecedentes, consequentes e barreiras. O primeiro estudo teve como objetivo compreender os fatores que compõem a orientação à marca sem fins lucrativos no contexto de uma economia emergente. Foi realizada uma pesquisa qualitativa exploratória. Foram 35 entrevistas com funcionários de organizações sociais, voluntários, doadores de dinheiro e/ou bens, não doadores e parceiros, além de observação não participante e análise de documentos das organizações sociais (OS). Os dados foram analisados por técnicas de análise de conteúdo. Os resultados dos 4 temas (OMSL, Antecedentes, Consequentes e Barreiras) geraram ao todo 102 afirmações, utilizadas na segunda parte da pesquisa. O segundo estudo teve como objetivo agrupar e sistematizar os elementos que compõem a OMSL em um país emergente, bem como os elementos que os antecedem, os consequentes e as barreiras. Foi realizada uma pesquisa quantitativa exploratória, sendo coletados 223 questionários válidos. Os dados foram analisados por análise fatorial exploratória. Como resultado foi encontrado que a OMSL em um país emergente demonstra ser um construto refletivo de segunda ordem composto por dois construtos refletivos de primeira ordem: comunicação e causa. Os antecedentes resultaram em um conjunto de construtos refletivos de primeira ordem: aspectos organizacionais, fatores de mercado e ação. Como consequentes, foi encontrado um conjunto de quatro construtos refletivos de primeira ordem: arrecadação de recursos, parcerias, relacionamentos com colaboradores e influência social. Por último, as barreiras à OMSL constituíram um construto refletivo de segunda ordem, composto por quatro construtos refletivos de primeira ordem: desafios da comunicação, aversão comercial, barreiras à doação e contexto econômico. O terceiro estudo teve como objetivo analisar as relações entre a OMSL, seus antecedentes e consequentes. Também visou verificar o efeito moderador das barreiras a OMSL nessas relações. Realizou-se uma pesquisa quantitativa descritiva. Foram coletados 329 questionários válidos, utilizando os construtos encontrados no segundo estudo. A análise foi realizada a partir de modelagem de equações estruturais por mínimos quadrados parciais (PLS-SEM). Os resultados apontaram relações significativas dos fatores de mercado e da ação na OMSL em um país emergente, e da influência desta na performance da organização. As barreiras à OMSL moderam a relação entre OMSL e performance, enfraquecendo a relação. Assim, resultados ampliam o entendimento da OMSL em um país emergente, assim como as relações com os antecedentes, consequentes e barreiras, que teve seu efeito moderador testado pioneiramente. O entendimento do uso dessa estratégia em um país emergente pode auxiliar gestores a implementar a OMSL e aumentar o impacto das OS nas sociedades de países emergentes.

**Palavras-Chave**: orientação à marca sem fins lucrativos, antecedentes, consequentes, barreiras, país emergente, brasil.[1]

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[1] Parte dos resultados desta pesquisa foram publicados em:

Sepulcri, L. M. C. B., Mainardes, E. W., & Belchior, C. C. (2020). Nonprofit branding: A bibliometric analysis. *Journal of Product and Brand Management*, *29*(5), 655-673.

Sepulcri, L. M. C. B., Mainardes, E. W., & Belchior, C. C. (2019, Outubro). Nonprofit branding: Uma análise bibliométrica. Paper presented at the meeting of XXLIII Encontro da ANPAD – EnANPAD, São Paulo, São Paulo, Brazil.

Sepulcri, L., Mainardes, E., & Marchiori, D. (2020). Brand orientation: A systematic literature review and research agenda. *Spanish Journal of Marketing - ESIC*, *24*(1), 97-114.

Sepulcri, L. M. C. B., Mainardes, E. W., & Belchior, C. C. (2019, Outubro). Brand orientation: Revisão sistemática da literatura e análise bibliométrica. Paper presented at the meeting of XXLIII Encontro da ANPAD – EnANPAD, São Paulo, São Paulo, Brazil.

Sepulcri, L., Mainardes, E., & Pascuci L. (2020, Julho). *Nonprofit brand orientation in an emerging country: Antecedents, outcomes and barriers*. Paper presented at the meeting of XIX International Congress on Public and Nonprofit Marketing, León, León, Spain.

Sepulcri, L., Mainardes, E., & Pascuci L. (2020, Setembro). *Barriers to nonprofit brand orientation in an emerging country*. Paper presented at the meeting of II IAPNM LATAM Congress on Social Marketing, Montevideo, Montevideo, Uruguay.

Sepulcri, L. M. C. B., & Mainardes, E. W. (2020, Novembro). *Barreiras à orientação da marca sem fins lucrativos em um país emergente*. Paper presented at the meeting of XXIII Seminários em Administração, São Paulo, São Paulo, Brazil.

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Sepulcri, L. M. C. B., & Mainardes, E. W., (2021, Outubro). *Barreiras à orientação da marca sem fins lucrativos em um país emergente*. Paper presented at the meeting of XLV Encontro da ANPAD – EnANPAD, São Paulo, São Paulo, Brazil

Sepulcri, L. M. C. B., & Mainardes, E. W. (2021, Novembro). Impedimentos à orientação da marca sem fins lucrativos no contexto de mercado emergente*.* Paper presented at the meeting of III IAPNM LATAM Congress on Social Marketing, Caracas, Distrito Capital, Venezuela.

Sepulcri, L. M. C. B., & Mainardes, E. W. (2022). Elements that compose the non-profit BRAND orientation in an emerging country. International Review on Public and Nonprofit Marketing. doi: 10.1007/s12208-022-00333-7

Sepulcri, L. M. C. B., Mainardes, E. W., & Pascuci L. (2022). Non-profit brand orientation as a strategic communication tool. *International Journal of Strategic Communication*. [IN SECOND REVIEW].

# ABSTRACT

This study aimed to develop the elements that make up the non-profit brand orientation in an emerging country, also identifying the antecedents, consequences, and barriers to the implementation of this strategy. The country studied was Brazil. Based on the concept of non-profit brand orientation (NBO), initially, two systematic literature reviews and bibliometric analyzes were carried out. These reviews formed the theoretical basis for the development of the proposed elements. From this, three studies followed for the development of the elements that make up the NBO in an emerging country, its antecedents, consequences, and barriers. The first study aimed to identify the factors that shape NBO in the context of an emerging economy. Exploratory qualitative research was carried out. There were 35 interviews with employees of non-profit organizations (NPO), volunteers, donors of money and/or goods, non-donors, and partners, in addition to non-participant observation and analysis of documents from NPO. Data were analyzed by content analysis techniques. The results of the 4 themes (NBO, Antecedents, Consequences, and Barriers) generated a total of 102 statements, used in the second part of the research. The second study aimed to group and systematize the elements that make up the NBO in an emerging country, as well as the elements that precede non-profit brand orientation, and the consequences and barriers. Exploratory quantitative research was carried out, and 223 valid questionnaires were collected. Data were analyzed by exploratory factor analysis. As a result, it was found that the NBO in an emerging country demonstrates to be a higher-order reflective construct composed of two lower-order reflective constructs: communication and cause. The antecedents resulted in a set of lower-order reflective constructs: organizational factors, market factors, and action. As a consequence, a set of four lower-order reflective constructs was found: fundraising, partnerships, staff relationships, and social influence. Finally, barriers to NBO constituted a higher-order reflective construct, composed of four lower-order reflective constructs: communication challenges, commercial aversion, barriers to donation, and economic context. The third study aimed to analyze the relationships between the NBO, its antecedents, and consequences. It also aimed to verify the moderating effect of barriers to NBO in these relationships. Descriptive quantitative research was carried out. A total of

329 valid questionnaires were collected, using the constructs found in the second study. The analysis was performed using partial least squares structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM). The results showed significant relationships between market factors and action at the NBO in an emerging country, and its influence on the organization's performance. Barriers to NBO moderate the relationship between NBO and performance, weakening the relationship. Thus, results expand the understanding of the NBO in an emerging country, as well as the relationships with the antecedents, consequences and barriers, which had its moderating effect tested in a pioneering way. Understanding the use of this strategy in an emerging country can help managers to implement the NBO and increase the impact of NPO on societies in emerging countries.

**Keywords**: nonprofit brand orientation, antecedents, consequents, barriers, emerging country, brazil.[2]

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[2] Part of the results of this research were published in:

Sepulcri, L. M. C. B., Mainardes, E. W., & Belchior, C. C. (2020). Nonprofit branding: A bibliometric analysis. *Journal of Product and Brand Management*, *29*(5), 655-673.

Sepulcri, L. M. C. B., Mainardes, E. W., & Belchior, C. C. (2019, October). Nonprofit branding: Uma análise bibliométrica. Paper presented at the meeting of XXLIII Encontro da ANPAD – EnANPAD, São Paulo, São Paulo, Brazil.

Sepulcri, L., Mainardes, E., & Marchiori, D. (2020). Brand orientation: A systematic literature review and research agenda. *Spanish Journal of Marketing - ESIC*, *24*(1), 97-114.

Sepulcri, L. M. C. B., Mainardes, E. W., & Belchior, C. C. (2019, October). Brand orientation: Revisão sistemática da literatura e análise bibliométrica. Paper presented at the meeting of XXLIII Encontro da ANPAD – EnANPAD, São Paulo, São Paulo, Brazil.

Sepulcri, L., Mainardes, E., & Pascuci L. (2020, July). *Nonprofit brand orientation in an emerging country: Antecedents, outcomes and barriers*. Paper presented at the meeting of XIX International Congress on Public and Nonprofit Marketing, León, León, Spain.

Sepulcri, L., Mainardes, E., & Pascuci L. (2020, September). *Barriers to nonprofit brand orientation in an emerging country*. Paper presented at the meeting of II IAPNM LATAM Congress on Social Marketing, Montevideo, Montevideo, Uruguay.

Sepulcri, L. M. C. B., & Mainardes, E. W. (2020, November). *Barreiras à orientação da marca sem fins lucrativos em um país emergente*. Paper presented at the meeting of XXIII Seminários em Administração, São Paulo, São Paulo, Brazil.

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Sepulcri, L. M. C. B., & Mainardes, E. W. (2022). Elements that compose the non-profit BRAND orientation in an emerging country. *International Review on Public and Nonprofit Marketing*. doi: 10.1007/s12208-022-00333-7

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## SUMMARY

# Chapter 1

## 1 INTRODUCTION

The nonprofit sector has been experiencing a great development word wide. With this growth, these organizations increasingly need to compete for donations, volunteers, and partnerships with for-profit organizations or with governments, that use nonprofit organizations (NPO) to implement public policies (Apaydın, 2011; Casey, 2016; Randle, Leisch, & Dolnicar, 2013; Sheth, 2011). In emerging countries, even if the recent social and economic development, and the recent democratization, these organizations are very needed to develop the society by providing essential services in many areas such as healthcare, education, and human rights (Casey, 2016; Garg, Swami, & Malhotra, 2019). As an example of this sector in an emerging country, in 2020, Brazil had over 815,000 civil society organizations and the third sector was responsible for employing more than 2,300,000 people (Institute of Applied Economic Research [IPEA], 2021). The third sector was also very relevant recently during the COVID-19 crises. At this time, more than BRL 7 billion were raised by July 2021 (Brazilian Association of Fund Raisers, 2021) to this cause, in order to support health promotion and also help vulnerable communities on the distribution of food, hygiene, and cleaning items to prevent the contagious.

Thus, one of the ways to NPO differentiate in this competition for resources, raise more funds and attract more volunteers is adopting marketing strategies (Apaydın, 2011; Garg et al., 2019, Wymer, Boenigk, & Möhlmann, 2015). In this case, nonprofit brand orientation (NBO) has been showing as a strategy that allows NPO to strengthen their brands, as the strategic decisions are taken based on the nonprofit brand, helping these organizations to be more successful in achieving their missions (P. Hankinson, 2000, 2001; Ewing & Napoli, 2005; Napoli, 2006; Laidler-Kylander & Simonin, 2009; L. C. da Silva, Mainardes, Teixeira, & Costa, 2020; Urde, 1994, 1999).

This thesis aims to create a model to better comprehend how does nonprofit brand orientation is manifested in an emerging country, the antecedents of this orientation strategy, the consequents, and the barriers faced by the NPOs. To this, the thesis focused on Brazilian NPOs. So, we started with a systematic literature review (SLR) and a bibliometric analysis about nonprofit branding and brand orientation. Then, the model was developed.

The first SRL and bibliometric analysis aimed to examine articles on nonprofit branding over an 18-year time span to develop an overview and better understanding of the subject. The second one aimed to identify the key studies, the keywords used and the origin of the studies of brand orientation.

Following this, we started the model development and test. The whole process was divided in three studies. The first study aimed to identify the factors that shape nonprofit brand orientation (NBO) in the context of an emerging economy. Also, it seeks to identify the antecedents, outcomes, and barriers involving NBO strategy implementation.

The second study aimed to group and systematize the elements that make up the nonprofit brand orientation (NBO) in an emerging country, defining the constructs that reflect this strategy, as well as the elements that precede nonprofit brand orientation, the consequences, and barriers to the implementation of this strategy, developing a quantitative analysis using exploratory factor analysis. And finally, the third study aims to analyze the relationships between NBO and its antecedents and consequents. Also, aims to verify the moderator effect of the NBO barriers in these relations.

Thus, to investigate the NBO in an emerging country as its antecedents, consequences, and barriers, in the first study, we performed qualitative exploratory research with data collected from 35 interviews, non-participant observation, and documents from nonprofit organizations employees, volunteers, donors of money and/or goods, non-donors and partners. The data were analyzed using Content Analysis. The results revel the associate categories with de four themes: NBO (cause, mission, communication, and symbols); antecedents (internal factors, external factors, and community involvement); outcomes (staff relationship, partners, reputation, performance) and barriers (non-commercial mindset, cause's short-sightedness, communication challenges, organizational culture, trammels of government, and lack of resources).

In the second study, we carried out an exploratory quantitative study, with data collected from a questionnaire elaborate from the 102 statements generated in the qualitative first study. We collected 223 valid questionnaires, later submitted to exploratory factor analysis (EFA). As a result, we demonstrate that NBO in an emerging country is a higher-order reflective construct composed of two lower-order reflective constructs (Communication and Cause). The antecedents to NBO, on the other hand, resulted in a set of lower-order reflective constructs (Organizational factors, Market factors and Action). Also, as a consequence of NBO, we found four lower-order reflective constructs (Fundraising, Partnerships, Staff relationship and Social influence). And finally, the barriers to NBO constitute a higher-order reflective construct, composed of four lower-order reflective constructs (Communication challenges, Commercial aversion, Barriers to donation and Economic context).

So, in the presence of antecedents of NBO in an emerging country, the nonprofit organization tends to develop NBO and thus achieve several benefits. However, barriers to NBO hinder both the implementation of NBO and the achievement of the benefits resulting from this strategic orientation. In the third study, to conclude the model development, we aimed to confirm the constructs found in the second study and test the relationships proposed. We collected 329 valid questionnaires, later submitted to confirmatory composite analysis (CCA) and PLS-SEM to test the hypotheses. As a result, we found that market factors and action positively influenced the adoption of NBO by NPOs in an emerging country. Also, the implementation of positively influenced performance and staff relationship. And finally, the results showed that the barriers to NBO moderates the relationship between NBO in an emerging country and performance. So that, the barriers decreased the influence of NBO in performance.

This research innovates by building a model the from the understanding of NBO, its antecedents, consequents and barriers in an emerging economy context when most of the studies in the field are based on developed economies (Anees-ur-Rehman, Wong, & Hossain, 2016; Sepulcri, Mainardes, & Marchiori, 2020), as is expected that the adoption of marketing practices differ from developed economies to the developing ones (Burgess & Steenkamp, 2006; Ernst, Kahle, Dubiel, Prabhu, & Subramaniam, 2015; Kamakura & Mazzon, 2013; Sheth, 2011). Also, in our model we proposed the moderator effect of the barriers, a relationship not tested before.

Thus, this research goes beyond other studies that did not explore the whole of NBO, discussing the peculiarities of this strategy in an emerging country context.

The research can orient managers about what NBO means, the drivers in implementing NBO, the benefits in implementing this strategy, and the many barriers faced. This research can make managers aware of the importance of implementing branding in nonprofit organizations, improving their positive impact in society, especially when facing social problems in developing countries, where these organizations are more needed.

# Chapter 2

# 2 NONPROFIT BRANDING: A BIBLIOMETRIC ANALYSIS

## 2.1 INTRODUCTION

The nonprofit landscape has been changing substantially. In the USA, approximately 1.5 million nonprofit organizations were registered with the Internal Revenue Service in 2015, representing an increase of 10.4 per cent in relation to 2005 (McKeever, 2018). As the number of nonprofit organizations increases, competition is also intensified (Hopkins, Shanahan &, Raymond, 2014). Alongside this, longstanding social organizations already face other challenges, such as a decline in direct donations (Peacock, 2000) and weakening the government and public support and reducing the availability of financial resources (Hibbert & Horne, 1996). In face of these challenges, the nonprofit sector has been diversifying its activities, recognizing the importance of becoming more market-driven and using for-profit marketing concepts and values to achieve competitive advantages over competitors (Apaydın, 2011; Ewing & Napoli, 2005). One of these concepts is nonprofit branding.

Despite this, the academy has given little attention to nonprofit branding (Michel & Rieunier, 2012) and for a breakthrough in the study of branding in the nonprofit sector to be achieved, we understand the relevance of examining the current literature to develop an overview and better understanding of the subject. For this reason, this study aims to analyze the literature dealing with branding in the nonprofit sector, identifying:

- the most frequently addressed themes over time;

- the research methodologies used to conduct the analyzed studies;
- the contributions to the literature made by these articles; and
- verifying any research gaps.

In relation to branding, several marketing concepts, developed in the corporate context, can become a powerful tool for companies operating in the nonprofit sector (Baghi & Gabrielli, 2013; Ritchie, Swami &, Weinb, 1999). Therefore, similarly to the private sector, which developed and built brands as a way to create and maintain a differential in an increasingly competitive environment, nonprofit organizations are also more likely to adhere to branding efforts (Apaydın, 2011; Stride & Lee, 2007). Besides differentiation, nonprofit branding can be considered a strategic asset, as it builds trust and represents an institution (corporate heritage), with a brand image which can influence an individual's intention to donate (Lee & Davies, 2021; Michaelidou, Micevski, & Siamagka, 2015).

However, despite the growing importance of brand in the nonprofit sector, and the fact that the theme is drawing the attention and interest of leaders in this sector, branding studies related to nonprofits still receive limited attention by researchers with regard to the complex managerial issues faced by these organizations (Modi & Sahi, 2018). We see the need for research that can validate and amplify the results, proposals and scales already found and developed as well as help develop new knowledge on the subject, considering the relevance of the subject (Boenigk & Becker, 2016; Vallaster & von Wallpach, 2018). In addition, we found no previous study evaluating and quantifying the progress of brand literature in the nonprofit sector.

The present study is justified by its contribution to the nonprofit marketing literature, providing knowledge about branding in the nonprofit sector to the academic community and institutions in this industry. Thus, we consider that this study can play a relevant role in managers' knowledge about the brand, given that brand awareness is gaining importance in the third sector as it expands.

## 2.2 LITERATURE REVIEW

After conducting a chronological analysis of nonprofit marketing and branding, nonprofit marketing studies were identified as being initially focused on the principles of marketing that could be applied in the nonprofit sector, the influence on increasing donations and the relationship between the nonprofit organization and the donors (Weir & Hibbert, 2000; Bennett & Sargeant, 2005; Ewing & Napoli, 2005). After these, later studies explored the differences between the for-profit and nonprofit sectors, from both the consumer's and organization's point of view, and examined how marketing strategies could be adapted from the for-profit to the nonprofit sector (Aaker, Vohs, & Mogilner, 2010; Apaydın, 2011).

These differences paved the way for a range of studies in marketing concepts, mainly related to nonprofit branding such as brand community (Hassay & Peloza, 2009), brand orientation (Apaydın, 2011), brand image (Baghi & Gabrielli, 2013), market orientation (Wymer et al., 2015) and brand authenticity (Wymer & Akbar, 2017), so that, over time, these themes have become prominent in the literature on the subject. However, studies on marketing strategies and nonprofit branding are not exhausted, and themes such as donation and brand image are still catching the attention of many researchers (Boenigk & Becker, 2016; Hommerová & Severová, 2019; Yoo & Drumwright, 2018).

### 2.2.1 Marketing in nonprofit organizations

Marketing has gained acceptance among the community of nonprofit professionals (Ewing & Napoli, 2005) and several studies have focused on understanding how marketing principles apply to this sector (Bennett & Sargeant, 2005; Hommerová & Severová, 2019; Hou, Zhang, & King, 2018; Wymer & Akbar, 2017). Also, several concepts have been adapted, such as relationship marketing, which shows that it aids in fundraising because the relationship is a way to differentiate between organizations and give customers an incentive to remain loyal (Weir & Hibbert, 2000). As well, brand community represents the opportunity to develop greater loyalty among donors, foster new ones and attract volunteers (Hassay & Peloza, 2009) and market orientation, which exposes the importance and consequences of organizations being market-oriented (Wymer et al., 2015).

Much of the current research in nonprofit marketing has focused on applying relationship marketing techniques to build donor engagement with organizations (Arnett, German, & Hunt, 2003; Sundermann, 2018; Ewing & Napoli, 2005; Hassay & Peloza, 2009). Fundraising is another point that receives considerable attention in the literature and is probably one of the most researched facets of marketing and nonprofit management (Bennett & Sargeant, 2005; Dvorakova & Mackova, 2014; Hommerová & Severová, 2019; Yoo & Drumwright, 2018). According to Bennett and Sargeant (2005), success in fundraising is closely linked to the level of market orientation of a nonprofit organization. For example, Yoo and Drumwright (2018) verified that the use of virtual reality in fundraising increases potential donors' feeling of interacting with potential beneficiaries. This interaction between donors and beneficiaries has a positive impact on donation intent. Other similar findings can be seen in Huang and Ku (2016), Katz (2018) and Sevilla (2018).

In fact, there has been considerable interest lately in the operationalization of the marketing concept and the relationship between the market orientation construct and various nonprofit performance measures (Algharabat, Rana, Dwivedi, Alalwan, & Qasem, 2018; Vázquez, Álvarez, & Santos, 2002). Marketing has also contributed to knowledge related to nonprofit competition, particularly in terms of how the concepts of commercial marketing, such as brand authenticity and the organizational brand image, can contribute to the achievement of differentiation and competitive advantage in an uncertain market (Baghi & Gabrielli, 2013; H. Khan & Ede, 2009; Randle et al., 2013; Wymer & Akbar, 2017).

Despite these advantages, marketing techniques are rarely used in nonprofit organizations (Chad, Motion, & Kyriazis, 2013). Several authors suggest that more research is needed to verify and confirm the validity of their studies in the nonprofit sector (Boenigk & Becker, 2016; Huang & Ku, 2016; Vallaster & von Wallpach, 2018). In addition, substantial differences between nonprofit and for-profit organizations, such as the organizational culture and the complexity of clients, indicate the need for more research that explores marketing concepts, especially those related to the study of the brand (Apaydın, 2011). Therefore, we propose that it is important to pay attention not only to the marketing strategies used but also to brand development in the nonprofit sector, given that the development of strong brands is becoming crucial for the survival of these organizations (Chapleo, 2015). Thus, it is understood that this approach requires more in-depth research.

### 2.2.2 Nonprofit branding

Nonprofits probably have a lot to gain from adopting the theories and branding models developed for the commercial sector (Ewing & Napoli, 2005). An efficient for-profit brand provides consumers with a guarantee of the quality of the product or service provided, whereas in the non-commercial sector, a strong brand provides donors with more reliability and collateral reducing donation risks (Voeth & Herbst, 2008).

The brand offers the main point of differentiation between competitors, and this is increasingly recognized as key to the success of the nonprofit organization in inter-sectoral and intra-sectoral competition (Mort, Weerawardena, & Williamson, 2007). Stride and Lee (2007) argued that nonprofit brand managers generally have to deal with problems in coordinating communication for different customers (such as beneficiaries, supporters and stakeholders) with different needs and developing coherent communication aligned with the organization’s mission and values. But, unlike for-profit management, nonprofit brand management should adopt a more malleable approach given the importance of its own values (Stride & Lee, 2007), reflecting the importance of further studies and outlining the differences between managing for-profit and nonprofit brands.

Despite this, many nonprofit organizations still underuse the potential of their brands (Voeth & Herbst, 2008), probably because of some barriers suggested in the literature such as lack of financial resources, a short-term focus, difficulty communicating with stakeholders and a lack of alignment between the organization’s image and its identity (Evans, Bridson, & Rentschler, 2012; Z. Lee, 2013).

Yet, the literature reports a clear link between this adoption of brand strategies, competitive advantage (Apaydın, 2011; Venable, Rose, Bush, & Gilbert, 2005) and the effective use of resources (Chapleo, 2015). Although nonprofits may gain by adopting some practices from commercial brands, several important differences make branding challenging (Chapleo, 2015). For example, the idea of over-commercialization, or the association with a for-profit brand, can damage rather than benefit a nonprofit organization in some cases (Boenigk & Schuchardt, 2015; F. Maier, Meyer, & Steinbereithner, 2016; Toole & Czarnitzki, 2010).

Given the relevance of the subject and the consequent increase in studies, the role of the nonprofit brand has changed significantly in recent years. In the past, it was considered as a fundraising and communication tool, focusing on design elements such as name and logo. Today, the brand has evolved to the level of a strategic asset, assuming a larger role in the organization and holding the potential to provide internal guidance to staff and volunteers, as well as external guidance to stakeholders (Boenigk & Becker, 2016).

Brand image concept, for example, is relevant in communicating the main values of an organization, because the perception of the brand plays a role in the formation of attitudes and actions among its stakeholders (Durgee, 2016; Huang & Ku, 2016). Brand equity is the end result of the branding strategy, referring to the added brand value of the brand that results from its strength and ability to influence how the consumer thinks, feels and acts in relation to it (Boenigk & Becker, 2016). In this way, Boenigk and Becker (2016) define three dimensions of nonprofit brand equity (nonprofit brand awareness, nonprofit brand trust and nonprofit brand commitment). They also proposed a performance index based on these three dimensions and suggested that nonprofit organizations could use it to drive their brand strategies, in this way strengthening relationships with their stakeholders.

Because of the fragmentation of studies and scarcity of systematic analysis relevant to brand in the nonprofit sector (W. J. Chang & Chung, 2016), we perceive that a systematic literature review (SLR) and a bibliometric analysis can present contributions to help systematize the knowledge about the subject. One of the purposes of this type of analysis is to use statistical and mathematical techniques to structure the information and generate clusters and maps so that the relationships between the data can be highlighted and visualized in a way that facilitates their interpretation (Börner, Chen, & Boyack, 2003; Pritchard, 1969; Waltman, van Eck & Noyons, 2010).

## 2.3 METHODS

To achieve the objectives of the study, two methodological approaches were carried out in sequence: a SLR and a bibliometric analysis. The source used to search for articles for the SLR was the Scopus database, which is considered the largest database of abstracts and references of peer-reviewed scientific literature (Anees-ur-Rehman et al., 2016; Valenzuela, Merigo, Johnston, Nicolas, & Jaramillo, 2017; Wang & Waltman, 2016). The bibliometric analysis was performed using the articles from SLR and generated network maps with the aim of facilitating a visualization of the relationships between the proposed elements (Börner et al., 2003; Waltman et al., 2010).

### 2.3.1 Systematic literature review

First, we conducted the SLR. It is argued that systematic reviews have become the most reliable form of research review to evaluate extensive literature bases because of the explicit and rigorous methods used (Denyer & Tranfield, 2006). According to Cook (1997), systematic reviews include a clear statement of the purpose of the review, are comprehensive and retrieve relevant research, in addition to having explicit and systematic selection criteria for searching for information, as well as critical appraisal and synthesis of the information selected. The objective of a systematic review is to synthesize a large volume of information from the studies analyzed and thus identify opportunities for future research (Cook, Mulrow, & Haynes, 1997; Denyer & Tranfield, 2006; McKibbon, 2006).

In the search engine, we used the terms “brand” and “nonprofit” or “non-profit” or “not-for-profit”, so that brand was combined using the Boolean operator AND with the other three terms that address the nonprofit sector, which were combined using Boolean operator OR. We applied the search to the fields “article title,” “abstract,” and “keywords,” and carried it out in August 2019. Thus, articles that did not have the words “brand” and “nonprofit”, “non-profit,” or “not-forprofit” in the title, abstract, or keywords were not included. After this, the filters “language” (in English only) and “type of study” (articles and reviews) were applied. To cover as many studies of nonprofit branding as possible, we did not apply filters by sector (e.g. charity, health, environmental protection, higher education, etc.), as this would decrease the number of articles and consequently decrease the size of the final database and the findings of the bibliometric analysis.

Initially, we found 293 different articles. After this first selection, we applied the following exclusion criteria:

- The article does not include any technical information such as author, year or abstract.
- It is not fully related to the areas of business, marketing or nonprofit sector.
- It does not deal explicitly with branding in nonprofit organizations, because, in these cases, it is not possible to identify whether the organizations analyzed were for-profit or nonprofit.

So, to be sure, we only considered studies that claimed to be studying the nonprofit sector. After analysis and exclusion from the sample of articles that fit at least one of the criteria, the final sample consisted of 84 papers. Only then did we summarize each of the articles by completing the fields in the data extraction form, which contain the basic information (author, date of publication), in addition to the synthesis of the study (objective of the study, methodology used, results, conclusion and suggestions for future studies). Thus, we used a complete list of the information later in the analysis of clusters generated by the bibliometric techniques.

### 2.3.2 Bibliometrics

We performed the bibliometric analysis using VOSViewer software version 1.6.10 (van Eck & Waltman, 2010; Waltman et al., 2010), applying the techniques of analysis of co-occurrence of keywords (Callon, Courtial, Turner, & Bauin, 1983) and bibliographic coupling (Kessler, 1963).

Co-occurrence observes how often these terms (keywords) appear in the sample and how close the two terms are, that is, how often two distinct keywords appear together in different articles. For this, all the keywords were initially examined and those that were synonymous, such as “brand” and “brands”, were identified and considered as the same keyword (Cobo, López-Herrera, Herrera-Viedma, & Herrera, 2011; Losiewicz, Oard, & Kostoff, 2000). Thereafter, we applied keyword co-occurrence to generate the clustering of the keywords according to their degree of association in the literature.

From another perspective, bibliographic coupling examines the number of references that two articles have in common; that is, if two articles cite a third, then the first two are bibliographically coupled. In addition, the more references they share, the more similar they are Egghe and Rousseau (2002), Kessler (1963). Therefore, we suggest that each cluster formed by the application of the bibliographic coupling technique forms the basis of a determined search front because that cluster has articles that share several references (Jarneving, 2005).

The interactions formed by the application of these techniques were illustrated in network maps (Li, An, Wang, Huang, & Gao, 2016; Marchiori & Mendes, 2020; Martínez-López, Merigó, Valenzuela-Fernández, & Nicolás, 2018), where each map was calculated by measuring the interaction force between terms, taking into account the number of links between the terms (van Eck & Waltman, 2010; Waltman et al., 2010). Graphically, each node represents a term, which in this case is an article or keyword, depending on the analysis. Therefore, each node belongs to a cluster. In addition, larger nodes represent more relevant terms than smaller nodes, and the closer one node is to another, the more related they are (even if the nodes are in different clusters). Finally, the lines show the links between nodes (Cobo et al., 2011; Sinkovics, 2016; van Eck & Waltman, 2010).

# 2.4. RESULTS

## 2.4.1 Keywords

For a better understanding of published studies on branding in the nonprofit sector, as well as the relationship between these studies (Marchiori & Mendes, 2020), we performed an analysis of the co-occurrence of keywords.

For this analysis, we considered the keywords provided by the authors, initially finding a total of 277 keywords. We then performed an analysis of synonyms where terms such as “nonprofit”, “non-profit” and “not-for-profit” were considered as equal. After the correction, 232 distinct terms were found, of which only 43 occurred two or more times. We also removed the terms “brand”, “branding” and “nonprofit” or synonyms, because the articles were initially selected by the search engine using these keywords. In this manner, of the 40 remaining keywords, we analyzed 38 final keywords, because two keywords had no connection with the others, using a resolution of one and a minimum group size equal to four keywords (approximately 10 per cent of the sample), culminating in the formation of six groups, obtaining a satisfactory level of detail (Waltman et al., 2010). The generated map is shown in Figure 1, and each cluster is circled and numbered to facilitate visualization.

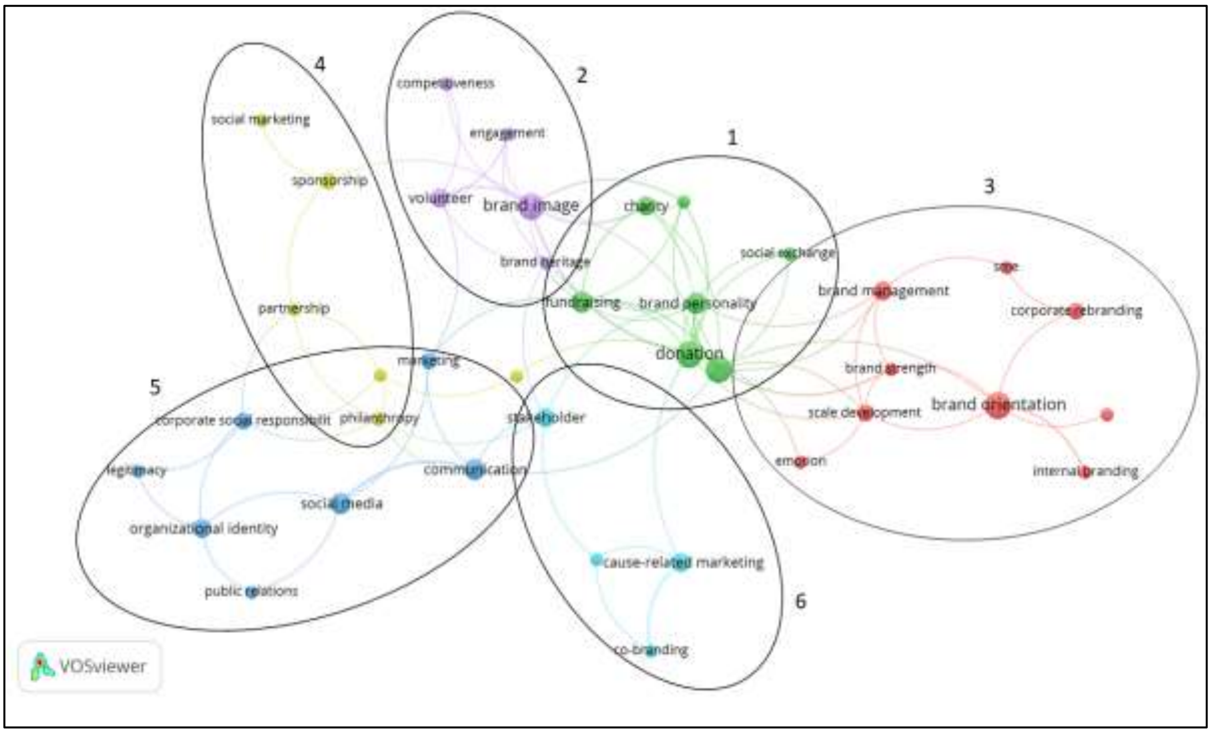


Figure 1: Keywords.
Source: Research data.

In Group 1, the keywords “nonprofit marketing”, “fundraising”, “donation”, “charity” and “brand personality” appear together. Although the utility of brand personality has been questioned in the literature (Romaniuk & Ehrenberg, 2012), studies such as those by Sargeant, Ford and Hudson (2008) and Sargeant, Hudson and West (2008) discuss how brand personality manifests differently in the nonprofit sector than in the for-profit sector, and how the different dimensions of brand personality can affect the intention to donate. Furthermore, authors like Venable et al. (2005) identified that “brand personality” contributes to the formation of “brand image”, which affects the donation intention (Huang & Ku, 2016). Michel and Rieunier (2012) showed that there is a positive relationship between the dimensions that integrate nonprofit brand image (NBI) and the intention to donate. The connections between brand personality and brand image, and the intention to donate may explain the proximity of the keyword “brand image” to Group 1, even though it belongs to Group 2.

In addition to “brand image”, Group 2 contains “volunteer”, “engagement” and “brand heritage” as keywords. Randle et al. (2013) conclude that, depending on brand image, nonprofit organizations should adopt competitive strategies or collaborative strategies for the recruitment of volunteers. Furthermore, the brand image also affects volunteers’ engagement in the organization (Curran & Taheri, 2019). Besides that, in their case study, McMullan et al. (2009) analyze the challenge of modernizing the Canadian Armed Forces brand image while preserving the brand values of that organization (brand heritage), comparing with public and nonprofit brands.

On the other hand, Group 3 is related to “brand orientation”, because this is the most relevant term in the grouping (the largest node). The keyword appears to be more related to internal and external brand management and may be related to the need to align internal and external brand management activities because they can play a central role in the success of brand building (Ewing & Napoli, 2005; H. Khan & Ede, 2009). It is interesting to note that nonprofit brand orientation (NBO) precedes NBI as NBO can be defined as the extent to which a nonprofit organization sees itself as a brand (P. Hankinson, 2000).

Group 4 is related to partnerships between nonprofit and for-profit organizations, considering that keywords such as “sponsorship”, “partnerships” and “social marketing” are associated with this group. Although partnerships between the nonprofit and for-profit sectors can bring mutual benefits, they should be looked at carefully and communicated very well to stakeholders. That is because, in some cases, partnerships can bring damage to a nonprofit organization such as a loss of credibility, an overly commercialized image and a decline of its social mission. One way to mitigate the risk of an unsuccessful partnership is by ensuring that the organizations involved (nonprofit and for-profit) hold shared organizational values (Boenigk & Schuchardt, 2015; Herlin, 2015; Jordan, 2018).

Group 5 contains “social media” as the main keyword. It also uses keywords such as “communication”, “public relations” and “organizational identity”. Whereas social media can be used to build brand image and improve the relationship between nonprofit organizations and the target audience, nonprofit brand managers do not fully understand how to use this tool properly. Social media is rarely used, for example, to disseminate information about the organization, to promote sponsors, and to advertise volunteering opportunities, forms of donations, online stores and events calendars (Waters, Burnett, Lamm, & Lucas, 2009; Eagleman, 2013).

Finally, Group 6 is associated with terms such as “stakeholder”, “cause-related marketing” and “co-branding”, possibly related to the effects of social-cause-related marketing. Studies such as Baghi and Gabrielli (2013) and Thamaraiselvan, Arasu and Inbaraj (2017) demonstrate that proper marketing strategies, such as co-branding and celebrity advocacy, can achieve good results for nonprofit organizations, such as increasing brand credibility. On the other hand, Vallaster and von Wallpach (2018) argue that brand strategies are formed by several stakeholders, meaning that the strategy is co-created by several parties involved with the organization and therefore must be aligned among them all (Laidler-Kylander, Quelch, & Simonin, 2007).

## 2.4.2 Bibliographic coupling

To determine the main research fronts (Jarneving, 2005) and to better understand the contributions, methodologies used and literature gaps within the theme of branding in the nonprofit sector, we used the bibliographic coupling of documents. Of the 84 articles that formed the database, 77 were bibliographically coupled and were the object of this analysis. The other seven articles did not share any study of their theoretical framework with the references of the selected studies. Therefore, we did not bibliographically couple them and they were removed from the analysis. In addition, a resolution of 0.7 was established, with parameter values of 1 and 0 representing attraction and repulsion, respectively, to achieve a satisfactory level of detail for the analyses (Waltman et al., 2010). With this, the map generated is shown in Figures 2 and 3, where each of the six clusters found is circled for easy visualization. Both Figures 2 and 3 present the same results, but in Figure 3 the lines have been omitted for better visualization.

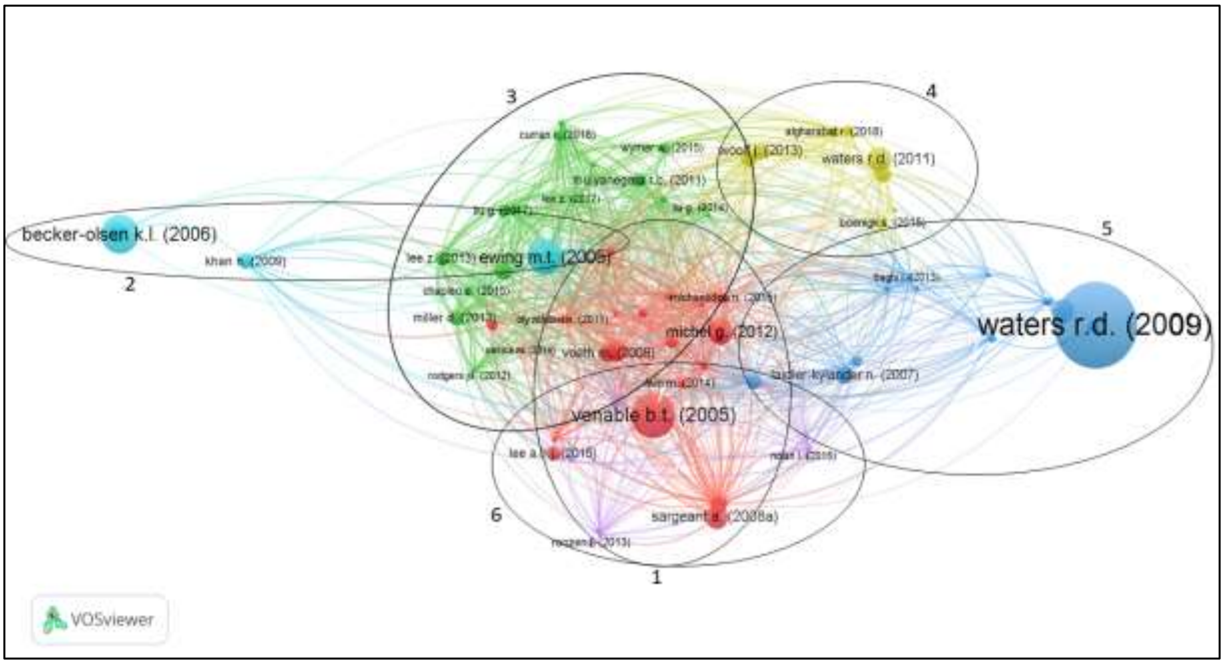

Figure 2:Bibliographic coupling by articles.
Source: Research data.

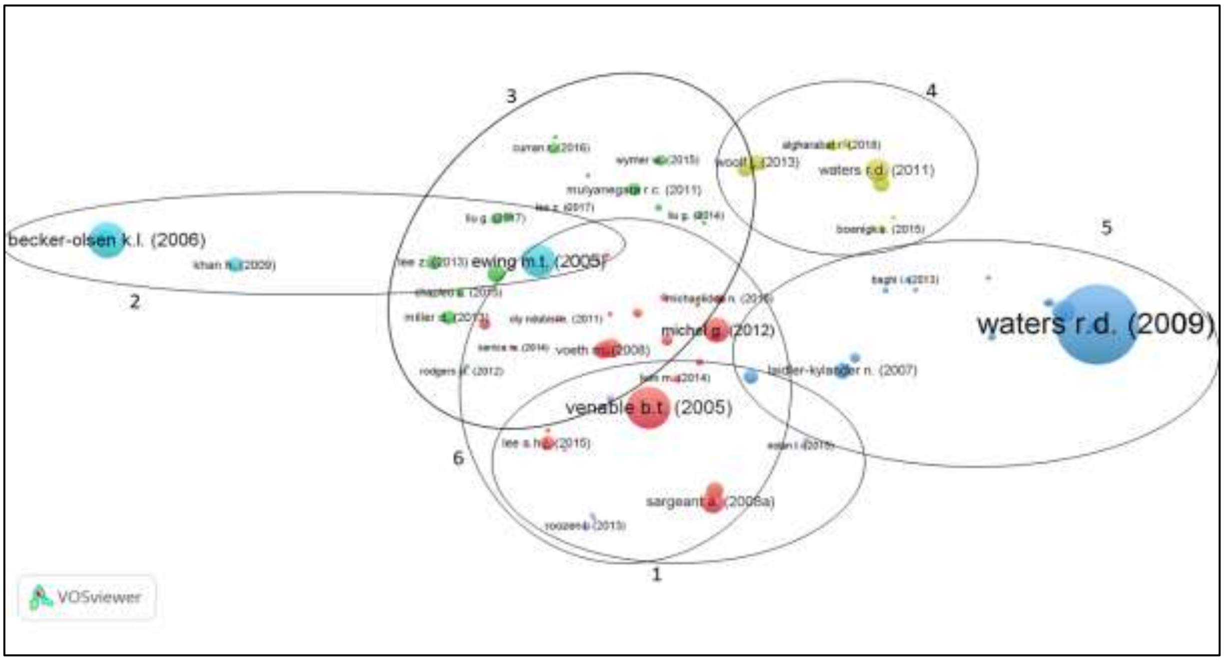


Figure 3: Bibliographic coupling by articles without lines.
Source: Research data.

In general, the map has clusters with balanced quantities of articles. In fact, there is not a very significant inequality. However, Clusters 2 and 6 have fewer articles than others. Whereas Cluster 1 has 21 articles, Clusters 3 and 5 have 17 and 16, respectively, and Clusters 2 and 6 have six and seven articles, respectively.

In addition, each cluster was titled according to its main topic, basing this finding on the analysis of its four most cited articles according to the Scopus database. Also, each cluster was related to the main keyword of the keyword group. The results can be seen in Table 1. The resulting clusters, with all the articles, are in Appendix A.

**TABLE 1: CLUSTERS OF THE BIBLIOGRAPHIC COUPLING**

| **Main studies** | **Main Topic** | **Main Keyword** | **Cluster** | **Nº Cit.** |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Venable et al. (2005) | Brand Strategies for Donation | Donation | 1 | 145 |
| Michel and Rieunier (2012) | | | 1 | 53 |
| Sargeant, Ford, et al. (2008) | | | 1 | 40 |
| Faircloth (2005) | | | 1 | 30 |
| Becker-Olsen and Hill (2006) | Brand Management | Brand Image | 2 | 107 |
| Ewing and Napoli (2005) | | | 2 | 94 |
| Vestergaard (2008) | | | 2 | 31 |

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| H. Khan and Ede (2009) | | | 2 | 20 |
| Casidy (2014b) | Brand Orientation | Brand Orientation | 3 | 24 |
| Z. Lee (2013) | | | 3 | 16 |
| Miller and Merrilees (2013) | | | 3 | 16 |
| Mulyanegara (2011a) | | | 3 | 15 |
| Waters and Jones (2011) | Nonprofit and For-Profit Partnerships | Partnership | 4 | 45 |
| Woolf et al. (2013) | | | 4 | 23 |
| Hassay and Peloza (2009) | | | 4 | 21 |
| Herlin (2015) | | | 4 | 21 |
| Waters et al. (2009) | Communication Strategies | Communication | 5 | 528 |
| Eagleman (2013) | | | 5 | 40 |
| Laidler-Kylander et al. (2007) | | | 5 | 23 |
| Mort et al. (2007) | | | 5 | 18 |
| Roozen (2013) | Stakeholder Management | Stakeholder | 6 | 7 |
| Nolan (2015) | | | 6 | 5 |
| Wymer et al. (2016) | | | 6 | 5 |
| Vallaster and von Wallpach (2018) | | | 6 | 3 |

Source: Research data.

When analyzing the most cited works within each cluster, Cluster 1 seems to bring together articles that sought to bring knowledge of for-profit industry branding terms such as brand image and brand personality and adapt them to the nonprofit sector, verifying their potentialities, mainly in regards to the distinction of the brand and the impacts on donations. Cluster 2 seems to contain works that discuss the consequences of brand management empirically. Cluster 3 contains, in its most cited articles, studies that advocate the adoption of nonprofit marketing strategies, highlighting those focused on the brand. In general, they deal with conceptual discussions of brand orientation, demonstrating the importance of well-defined strategies in the nonprofit sector.

Most of the works in Cluster 4 discuss issues of partnership with for-profit organizations and the effects of these partnerships on donations and nonprofit brand legitimacy. Yet the most cited works in Cluster 5 deal with the promotion and building of the brand through social media and communication in general. In addition, some studies discuss how social media and other media tools are used in cause-related marketing through partnerships between nonprofit and for-profit organizations. Finally, Cluster 6 addresses stakeholder management and how to build nonprofit brand strategies.

## 2.5 DISCUSSION

The papers in this review date from the early 2000s to 2019. Thus, over almost 20 years of studies, we identified that brand concerns in the nonprofit sector begin to develop from an organization's worries about communications with its stakeholders and about its reputation (Mitchell & Mitchell, 2001; Padanyi & Gainer, 2003). Then, the research begins to study the adaptation of for-profit brand concepts (such as brand orientation, brand equity and brand personality) in a nonprofit context, developing measurement scales of these concepts for nonprofit organizations (Faircloth, 2005; Venable et al., 2005; Ewing & Napoli, 2005; Voeth & Herbst, 2008). Going forward, Waters et al. (2009) and Waters and Jones (2011) studied how social media can be used to build nonprofit brands and relationships with stakeholders.

The associations between nonprofit and for-profit organizations are also reported in nonprofit branding literature and the alignment between the mission and the vision of both organizations seems to be a key factor in partnership success (Reeves, 2013). Also, the literature has been discussing the impacts of the brand in donations, and a brand image seems to play an important role in this subject (Katz, 2018; Huang & Ku, 2016; Michaelidou, Micevski, Kadic-Maglajlic, Budhathoki, & Sarkar, 2019).

The results found in the keyword groups, which denote the relationship between the themes of published studies, are in line with the research avenues found in bibliographic coupling. This shows that the related themes actually form the research avenues found. However, some groups have keywords from more than one cluster, showing that, in some themes, the research avenues are related to each other, which is expected, because the main subject is the same (nonprofit branding). Moreover, there is a concentration of nodes in the center of Figure 2, despite the different clusters, showing that the research is closely related.

In the bibliographic coupling, we can perceive the formation of six clusters named brand and donation, brand management, brand orientation, nonprofit and for-profit partnerships, communication strategies and stakeholder management. Additionally, it is possible to note how the research has been developed over time and which topics are catching more attention from academics nowadays.

In the analysis of the first cluster, named brand and donation, the articles were dedicated to studying several concepts in branding, such as brand equity, brand personality and, in particular, brand image, which were previously studied in the for-profit sector and have been adapted to the nonprofit context. In general, articles create scales to validate their studies and attribute the gain of organizational benefits, such as increased donation intentions and increased involvement of volunteers, to the effective adoption of branding techniques (Boenigk & Becker, 2016; Michel & Rieunier, 2012; Sarrica, Michelon, Bobbio, & Ligorio, 2014). The studies gathered by this cluster were published between 2005 and 2019. It shows that the relationship between brand and donations has been a recurring topic of interest in academia.

A qualitative study by Faircloth (2005) empirically extended brand equity constructs to the nonprofit sector. After just over a decade, Boenigk and Becker

(2016) affirmed that there is still limited research on the concept of brand equity profit. Therefore, in their study, they provide insights into the operationalization of brand equity and of instrumentalizing an initial measurement index of brand equity for the industry, contributing to the discussion on the brand value of nonprofits. The study of one other brand concept, called brand personality, served as the theoretical basis of six studies (Sargeant, Ford et al., 2008, Sargeant, Hudson et al., 2008; Shehu, Becker, Langmaack, & Clement, 2016; Stinnett, Hardy & Waters, 2013; Venable et al., 2005; Voeth & Herbst, 2008), mostly qualitative.

Research such as that conducted by Venable et al. (2005), Voeth and Herbst (2008), Sargeant, Ford et al. (2008), and Sargeant, Hudson et al. (2008), which has addressed the theme in the nonprofit sector, have emphasized the exploration of the applicability of brand personality in nonprofit organizations, investigating its validation and structuring. On the other hand, research that is more recent has brought other approaches related to brand personality. Stinnett et al. (2013) devoted their study to individuals' perceptions of the personality of the brand, examining how individuals attribute human characteristics to nonprofits, and Shehu et al. (2016) sought to identify how the positive influence of a nonprofit brand personality is adversely affected when monetary incentives are offered to donors. The general conclusion of the authors is that adapting the concept of brand personality in the nonprofit sector should be manag edwell by leaders of nonprofit organizations; after all, it can affect the image of the organization (Venable et al., 2005).

Brand image was another concept addressed in Cluster 1 studies and these studies sought to relate the brand image to donation intentions. Michel and Rieunier (2012) sought to identify NBI components and to test their influence on donation intentions. In addition, they developed a scale for the NBI that was subsequently investigated in a study by Michaelidou, Micevski and Cadogan (2015), which aimed to present a better theoretical understanding of the NBI. In the same year, Michaelidou, Micevski and Siamagka (2015) carried out research that again clarified propositions suggested by Michel and Rieunier (2012). In all three studies, the methodology used was factor analysis. Huang and Ku (2016), in turn, proposed to examine the concept of brand image in the virtual context. By using the scale proposed by Michel and Rieunier (2012), they concluded that the information provided by a nonprofit organization’s website could help create its brand image, again relating it to donation intentions.

It is interesting to note that the relationship between brand image and subjects related to donation and charity is manifested in keyword Groups 1 and 2 (Figure 1). Although the keywords “brand image” and “donation” do not belong to the same keyword group, they are keyword groups located next to each other (Figure 1), demonstrating the proximity of these keywords to Cluster 1 (Figure 2).

Cluster 2, named brand management, links works such as H. Khan and Ede (2009) and Becker-Olsen and Hill (2006). These studies encourage managers and leaders of nonprofit organizations to apply a management approach to the practice of marketing and branding. To access NBO, Ewing and Napoli (2005) developed a multidimensional scale. They suggested that this scale could be used to guide brand management activities. However, Vestergaard (2008) researched the use of media discourse by humanitarian organizations, discussing how an organization might use to the media to create visibility, leveraging this visibility into an increase of recruitment to the cause.

In the same way, Winston (2017) explored, in a case study, a nonprofit organization's placement of symbols or advertising materials in movies and TV shows to promote the organization and its cause. The author argued that brand is managed with the aim of incorporating the organization's cause, in this case, Amnesty International, into society, creating a "human rights culture". Another point highlighted by the author is the difficulty of tracking and measuring the influence of brand display within cultural products (such as movies and TV shows).

Finally, McMullan et al. (2009) related the challenges of brand management for the Canadian Armed Forces. According to the authors, on one hand, it is necessary to keep the traditions and the brand values (brand heritage); on the other hand, the organization also needs to create a brand that is more attractive to young Canadians. Thus, it is possible to verify the relation between Cluster 2 (brand management) and the Group 2 keywords. Except for the study by Winston (2017), this research avenue indicated that this theme was more researched in the first decade of the 2000s, when most of the studies in this cluster were published.

The articles in Cluster 3 (brand orientation) contribute to nonprofit branding research, with the main theme being the understanding and development of the brand. Studies that are part of this cluster indicate that, although the concept of brand orientation began with Urde (1994), brand orientation began to be investigated more frequently and in-depth from the second decade of the 2000s onwards. Therefore, the cluster is formed from qualitative works (Chapleo, 2015; Z. Lee, 2013; Wymer et al., 2015) and studies that used analysis techniques, such as factor analysis, structural equation modeling and various types of linear regressions (Casidy, 2014b; Ewing & Napoli, 2005; G. Liu, Chapleo, Ko, & Ngugi, 2015; G. Liu, Ko, & Chapleo, 2017; Mulyanegara, 2011a). The studies support the literature showing that brand orientation can play a significant role in the development of the activities and structure of nonprofit organizations, in addition to demonstrating the importance of branding for these organizations, as presented in the theoretical model of antecedents and consequents to brand orientation as suggested by Apaydın (2011). Mulyanegara (2011a) adapted the approach of Ewing and Napoli (2005) when studying the perception of brand orientation. G. Liu et al. (2015, 2017) deepened the understanding of internal branding, suggesting that brand orientation plays a key role in internal brand management. Other strategies appear as well in the works of this cluster. Wymer et al. (2015), for example, conducted a broader study focused on marketing orientation, suggesting that there is a need for more research on the subject. Curran, Taheri, MacIntosh and O'Gorman (2016) studied the concept of brand heritage using regression by partial least squares as the method of analysis and concluded that brand heritage plays an important role in increasing volunteer engagement.

Thus, the different approaches in Clusters 2 and 3 are related, as they both discuss the advantages of applying nonprofit brand strategies. Graphically, it is possible to see that the clusters are intertwined in Figure 2. Moreover, many brand strategies and their management are interconnected in keyword Group 2 (Figure 1).

The fourth cluster, entitled nonprofit and for-profit partnerships, is comprised of articles that examine the relationship between the nonprofit brand and stakeholders, including partnerships with the for-profit sector. They seek to analyze the consequence of adopting brand practices and their impact on the relationship of the organization with its target audience. Studies such as the one by Hassay and

Peloza (2009) presented the concept of brand community as an opportunity to develop and foster the involvement and identification of donors and volunteers. Woolf et al. (2013) continued the study of the brand community but explored the extent to which a charity event would be able to promote brand engagement with its public, revealing that, in their case study, the charity event had little effect on the participants' relationship with the charity. Events were also investigated in the study by Toledano and Riches (2014), who discussed the potential of a health promotion event to both convey social messages and impact behavior change among the public. They concluded that nonprofits should manage their communication and intervention projects carefully.

In addition, this study addressed an inter-sectoral relationship, as did several other pieces of research present in the cluster (Boenigk & Schuchardt, 2015; Herlin, 2015; Reeves, 2013). As a rule, these studies examined the potential and consequences of adopting strategies such as brand partnerships and cause-related marketing. The results suggest organizational benefits accrue from adopting such practices, emphasizing the need for a strategic adjustment between the sectors. Lastly, Park, Hitchon and Yun (2004) studied alignment in advertising and showed a positive reaction in terms of attitude towards the nonprofit organization and donation intention.

The fifth cluster, entitled communication strategies, comprises articles that relate brand strategies of nonprofits with the communication process and also the use of social media. Laidler-Kylander et al. (2007), studying the strategies present in the construction and evaluation of nonprofit brands, concluded that brand plays several critical roles in the organization, especially in communication with the various stakeholders, as well as playing a key role in fundraising. In addition, they stressed the importance of effective brand communication, pointing out that such communication can be a challenge for leaders of nonprofit organizations. Torres (2010) and Bebko, Sciulli and Bhagat (2014) took a similar approach when examining nonprofit branding and communication strategies, concluding that communication efforts are becoming increasingly important because they play a central role in the positioning and perception of the organization among multiple publics and in the intentions of the donor.

With regard to social media, some studies focused on the virtual environment. In general, these articles contribute to understanding how nonprofit organizations use social media to reach their goals (Burton et al., 2017; Goldkind, 2015; Waters et al., 2009). Waters et al. (2009) and Burton et al. (2017) stated that these organizations recognize the potential of social media resources but are not using them to their full potential. The study by Burton et al. (2017) stepped up the exploration of the interaction of the nonprofit organization with its partners, evaluating reciprocity within the virtual context and recommending that the partnership should be strategically managed to maximize the benefits of the relationship. Cooke (2010) in turn, explored the tendency toward increased interaction between corporations and non-profit organizations, but outside the virtual context. B. F. Liu (2012) focused on communication management and showed that nonprofits are adapting social media tools, providing better brand recognition. Lastly, Goldkind (2015) suggested that the literature on the use of social media in nonprofit organizations is still unsatisfactory.

The importance of social media is reinforced by the work of Waters et al. (2009), the most cited article in our sample. The article is around 10 years old (which helps it to have more citations than more recent works), but despite that, when we analyzed it more closely in the Scopus database, the largest number of citations occurred in 2016. Therefore, the social media theme is not only relevant for nonprofit organizations in communicating with stakeholders; it is also a contemporary issue.

Regarding the relation between the clusters, works such as Palakshappa, Bulmer, Eweje and Kitchen (2010) and Park et al. (2004) highlight a link between Cluster 4, which deals with nonprofit and for-profit partnerships, and Cluster 5, which deals with communication strategies. Besides that, keyword Groups 4 and 5 (Figure 1), which have “partnership” and “communication” as their main keywords, respectively, also indicate this relation. These groups appear side by side in Figure 1 and have intersection points, showing that the subjects are interconnected in the literature. Just as Clusters 4 and 5 are related through keywords, the development of these clusters’ subjects also seems to be interconnected. The studies that are in these clusters date back to the early 2000s (Park et al., 2004; Mort et al., 2007) to the time of this research, and the relationship created by partnerships formed by for-profits and nonprofits seems to advance to discussion of corporate social responsibility and partner companies’ communication alignment, especially via social media, which mutually benefits and strengthens brands on both sides of the partnership (Algharabat et al., 2018; Burton et al., 2017; Nguyen, Romaniuk, Faulkner, & Cohen, 2018; Thamaraiselvan et al., 2017).

Finally, Cluster 6, named stakeholder management, is formed by works that follow the literature on stakeholder involvement in processes and structures of nonprofit organizations. For example, Vallaster and von Wallpach (2018) investigated, in a case study, how stakeholders engage with and co-create the brand strategy, recognizing that stakeholders have a strong impact on the co-creation process of the brand strategy and proposing new ways of managing a brand in non-profit contexts. According to Chad (2015), brands communicate with various stakeholders, which suggests that organizations that deliver communication effectively will likely have effective corporate rebranding. Wymer, Gross and Helmig (2016) also related the use of brand concepts to organizational gains, but, in this case, they studied the concept of brand strength. Wymer et al. (2016) considered how this concept relates to the degree to which the organization is favorably perceived by a target group and presented it as an antecedent to the favorable behavioral intentions and intentions regarding the brands of these organizations. This subject seems to be catching the attention of the academymore recently because most of the papers in this cluster vary from 2015 to 2018.

Another link is the relation between Clusters 5 and 6, highlighting the central role of aligning communication between stakeholders in nonprofit organizations (Laidler-Kylander et al., 2007). This relationship can also be seen graphically in the intersection of Keyword Groups 5 and 6 (Figure 1) and the proximity of the keywords “communication” (Group 5) and “stakeholder” (Group 6).

In all clusters, there are several contributions to the study of nonprofit brands. However, there is still a need for new research to confirm the perceptions proposed in some studies (Curran et al., 2016; Vallaster & von Wallpach, 2018), in addition to expanding research for a variety of nonprofit sectors, examining multiple organizations, and conducting such research in other cultures (Algharabat et al., 2018; Burton et al., 2017). Beyond these limitations, we have identified gaps that can be further explored by researchers in the field, reflecting on practical results for nonprofit organizations.

## 2.6 FUTURE RESEARCH AGENDA

Because of the development of the theory, many researchers have applied qualitative methods; thus, future research can further explore these findings as well as test the proposed models through quantitative methods. Also, small nonprofit organizations are a relatively understudied area, including in developing economies, where, given their economic condition, there is a great need for social organizations, perhaps even more so than in developed countries (Ernst et al., 2015; Sheth, 2011). As an example of research gaps, Garg et al. (2019) proposed a metric for brand effectiveness that encompasses the concepts of brand image, brand identity and brand performance. They based their findings on a sample of nonprofit organizations from northern India, but they did not explore the barriers to implementation of this approach in nonprofit organizations.

Briefly, because of the dispersion and fragmentation of research on nonprofit branding, especially as it is considered a recent subject, it is not possible to identify theoretical areas of greater interest, and, based on the six clusters analysis, we observed a range of opportunities to conduct more research, but we did not observe any subject that may be considered exhausted. As an example, although the relationship between brand and donations has been widely explored over time, there are still gaps such as how the different external factors influence the intention to donate, and the motivations that lead to different types of donation such as time, goods and money (Katz, 2018; Michaelidou, Micevski, & Siamagka, 2015; Shehu et al., 2016). Even the brand management cluster, which gathers fewer current studies, also brings research opportunities such as the barriers and consequences of rebranding in nonprofit organizations (Z. Lee, 2013; Plewa, Lu, & Veale, 2011). In addition to the limitations of clusters, it would even be interesting to note which types of organizations (such as arts, culture, human rights, education, research, environmental, animal, health, human services, international issues, foreign affairs, public issues, societal benefit, religious and mutual/membership benefit) are further studied or which derive more benefits within the theme of nonprofit branding. In short, the identified possibilities to nonprofit branding research based on each cluster were summarized in Figure 4.

| Main Topic | Future Research |
|---|---|
| **Brand and Donation** | • Examine the effects of rewards or motivations on intention to donate time, money, and/or goods (Michaelidou, Micevski, & Siamagka, 2015; Shehu et al., 2016);<br>• Analyze how individuals make choices about donations under the influence of different factors, such as reliability and familiarity, and in different contexts (Katz, 2018);<br>• In addition, the use of marketing research can be studied in a nonprofit context. |
| **Brand Management** | • Regarding the works that deal with specific strategies and brand concepts in the nonprofit sector, future studies could explore the complexity of rebranding implementation (Z. Lee, 2013) as well as investigating the consequences in practice (Plewa et al., 2011). It would also be relevant to explore those organizations that failed to adopt this strategy (Z. Lee & Bourne, 2017). In addition, it would be interesting to explore employee involvement in the rebranding process (Chad, 2015).<br>• Because of the success of different nonprofit brand strategies, which other brand strategies could be applied to the nonprofit sector? Does the strategy require an adaptation from the for-profit sector?<br>• In general, it is necessary to carry out research that looks at how brand management can improve the general marketing strategy of the nonprofit organization (Mort et al., 2007; Baghi & Gabrielli, 2013).<br>• Also, it would be interesting to find out which types of nonprofit organizations use brand strategies effectively. |
| **Brand Orientation** | • Brand orientation, and more precisely the barriers to implementation, seems to be slightly verified. However, this strategy can be considered an antecedent of many other strategies, such as brand engagement and brand equity (Wong & Merrilees, 2015; Zhang, Jiang, Shabbir, & Zhu (2016), which could be further researched. G. Liu et al. (2015) suggest developing an integrated internal branding model as well as exploring the effects of brand orientation culture in nonprofit organizations.<br>• In relation to the nonprofit's brand strength, it can be verified whether it is antecedent to the desired results of marketing (Wymer et al., 2016). |

| | |
|---|---|
| | • Also, future research could discuss the validity of brand concepts in the nonprofit context. |
| **Nonprofit and For-Profit Partnerships** | • A challenge in partnerships between nonprofit and for-profit organizations seems to be the use of indicators to quantify the gains and returns on both sides. This seems to be more difficult in small and less well-known nonprofit organizations. Having said that, we suggested research that seeks to understand the motivations of these partnerships and how the brand impacts this partnership process.<br>• For-profit organizations have been increasingly concerned about social responsibility and sustainability. One suggestion is that this concern can positively influence the partnership relations between nonprofit and for-profit organizations, increasing the interest of for-profit organizations in looking for partnerships. |
| **Communication Strategies** | • In the virtual context, there is a need to investigate the antecedents and consequents of the implementation of social media at the nonprofit organizational level (Goldkind, 2015) as well as the creation of new online branding communications (Chapleo, 2015).<br>• Studies can further investigate how the information provided by the website contributes to the nonprofit's brand image (Huang & Ku, 2016). In addition, it is recommended that studies and their propositions be tested on different social media platforms (Burton et al., 2017; Algharabat et al., 2018).<br>• It is important to investigate the emphasis on advertising campaigns, mainly to create a brand image. That is, does the communication in nonprofit organizations aim to raise awareness of the cause or to increase donations? Is it better to use an appealing tone linked to the problem that the nonprofit organization seeks to minimize or to show the reality benefited by that nonprofit organization? (Vestergaard, 2008)<br>• More research on the use of brand promotion channels, such as social media, and advertisements on various vehicles, can be useful for brand development in nonprofit organizations, a strategy that can contribute significantly to the performance of this type of organization.<br>• A challenge is how to deliver effective communication that can support the nonprofit brand through social media marketing, online marketing, and traditional marketing (Chapleo, 2015). |
| **Stakeholder Management** | • The main nonprofit organizations` stakeholders used to be the donors and beneficiaries. However, it would be interesting to investigate the relation between these groups of stakeholders, for example, to verify whether testimonials or actions that materialize the benefits achieved by the nonprofit organization for the beneficiaries can improve the intention to donate time, money, and/or goods (Yoo & Drumwright, 2018).<br>• It would be interesting to investigate, based on financial measures, the impact of the use of brand strategies on stakeholders in order to create empirical and quantifiable evidence of the benefits pointed out in the literature, especially financial (such as marketing share, ROI), which is an important argument to many stakeholders. Indeed, performance indicators seem to be little explored in nonprofit organizations, although they are widely used in for-profit sectors. |

Figure 4: Research opportunities.
Source: Own elaboration

Several studies have very specific limitations, such as geographic and cultural ones (Algharabat et al., 2018; Bebko et al., 2014; Herlin, 2015; Huang & Ku, 2016; Katz, 2018; G. Liu et al., 2017; C. T. Maier, 2016; Michaelidou, Micevski, &

Cadogan (2015; Shehu et al., 2016) because most articles focus on the USA, the UK, Canada and Australia. In view of the above, it would be interesting to understand the relevant differences and preferences of studies in the USA and UK, for example. Another obstacle in carrying out several works was the impossibility of generalizing the results proposed because they have a limited sample and are restricted to certain nonprofit contexts (Casidy, 2014b; Chad, 2015; Durgee, 2016; Herlin, 2015; Huang & Ku, 2016; C. T. Maier, 2016; Michaelidou, Micevski, & Cadogan, 2015; Michaelidou, Micevski, & Siamagka, 2015; Plewa et al., 2011; Shehu et al., 2016). Also, several authors have suggested verifying the validation of their results, such as the proposed scales (Vallaster & von Wallpach, 2018; Boenigk & Becker, 2016; Curran et al., 2016; Wymer et al., 2015; G. Liu et al., 2014; Apaydın, 2011; Hassay & Peloza, 2009).

## 2.7 CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the size and complexity of the nonprofit sector result in studies that are unlikely to be representative of all nonprofits (Z. Lee & Bourne, 2017). Thus, as a main theoretical contribution, the study identified six research avenues in nonprofit branding that emerge from our data, named brand and donation, brand management, brand orientation, nonprofit and for-profit partnerships, communication strategies and stakeholder management. The development of each research avenue was analyzed, and a future research agenda was proposed.

Beyond the theoretical contributions, each cluster also brings practical contributions as the brand concepts (such as brand image and brand personality) and how it can affect donations (positively or not); the importance of brand management to persuade people to join the cause; the evidence that brand orientation can support the development of activities and structure of nonprofit organizations; brand practices to support and build mutually beneficial partnerships between nonprofit and for-profit companies; the impacts of communication, with a special focus on social media and stakeholder in building nonprofit brands.

We had noticed that, despite the peculiarities of each research avenue, it is necessary to take into account the existing cultural diversification among countries, in addition to the difference between the various nonprofit sectors, which have many different causes and sizes. Also, the research is concentrated in a few countries, as previously mentioned, which results in a range of opportunities. Finally, we realize that the researches could be more aligned with the practical decisions of nonprofit managers by giving more attention to indicators that highlight the gains generated by investing in nonprofit branding strategies.

## Chapter 3

# 3 BRAND ORIENTATION: A SYSTEMATIC LITERATURE REVIEW AND RESEARCH AGENDA

## 3.1 INTRODUCTION

The representativeness of a brand and its relevance can be, along with other aspects, translated into consumer loyalty and consumer willingness to pay a premium price, so that the strengthening of the brand can revert to financial performance gains (Fischer, Völckner, & Sattler, 2010; Simon & Sullivan, 1993). Thus, in the twentieth century, a new organizational strategy of brand orientation was theorized, taking the focus of the company from just meeting the needs of customers to creating a strategic meaning for the brand (Urde, 1999). Since then, studies in this area have evolved from the discussion about brand orientation to the analysis of its importance in companies (Anees-ur-Rehman et al., 2016).

For Urde (1994, 1999), a brand-oriented company focuses on creating, developing and protecting brand identity, represented as the essence of the firm's strategy. Since the inception of this concept, different studies have analysed the same concept in diverse contexts (Cant, Wiid, & Hung 2013; Gromark & Melin, 2013; Jain, Chawla, Ganesh, & Pich, 2018; King, So, & Grace, 2013; Napoli, 2006). In addition to empirical implications, several models were proposed to measure brand orientation, and its barriers, antecedents and outcomes (Apaydın, 2011; Boso, Carter, & Annan, 2016; Harrison-Walker, 2014b; Huang & Tsai, 2013).

Therefore, given the diversity of empirical and theoretical production over 20 years, we understand that it is necessary not only to systematize the content produced but also to further understand the relationship between the published research and the main thematic areas. For this purpose, our study aimed to analyse the studies that deal with brand orientation, to:

- identify the origin of the research (i.e. which institutions and which countries explore more the studies in this area);
- identify the key studies and keywords used; and
- discuss how the identified issues addressed in this area have been relating over time.

Despite the existence of a systematic literature review on the theme (Anees-ur-Rehman et al., 2016), we noticed that this study did not use bibliometric analyses, to deepen the understanding of the themes analysed. The use of statistical and mathematical techniques allows researchers to expand their vision about the object of study due to the identification of bibliometric relations on the topics of interest: main keywords and their relations; the relationship between sub-themes; and the main authors in the area (Börner et al., 2003; Waltman et al., 2010). Thus, the use of statistical techniques, through a bibliometric analysis, enabled us to see some relationships that cannot be seen froma simple content analysis, filling the research gap about the relationship between brand orientation, its extensions proposed by Anees-ur-Rehman et al. (2016), the sectors and the contexts explored by the studies.

To respond to the objective of the study, we performed a systematic literature review to generate a database to analyse bibliometricaly and better interpret the results. Thus, the bibliographic analysis techniques were applied to a final sample of 90 articles published between 1994 and 2018 in the Scopus database. According to this analysis, the studies concentrate on themes and countries, generating good research opportunities by expanding the areas studied and the issues involved.

## 3.2 BRAND ORIENTATION

Brand orientation can be regarded as a strategic approach, in which the brand becomes the centre around which the organization's processes are created through interactions of stakeholders. This closely ties it to business development and financial performance (Gromark & Melin, 2011), as highlighted in the studies by Anees-Ur-Rehman, Wong, Sultan and Merrilees (2018) and Wong and Merrilees (2008). The theoretical development of this concept has been increasing since the year 2000, expanding to different extension, as suggested by Anees-ur-Rehman et al. (2016).

Ewing and Napoli (2005) developed a scale to verify the application of nonprofit brand orientation, whereas Apaydın (2011) suggested a theoretical model of antecedents and consequents to the orientations of brands in that area. Besides that, G. Liu et al. (2017) found a positive relationship between brand orientation and internal brand mechanisms, which corroborates with the idea that a brand orientation approach contributes to employees who have a better understanding of their role within a nonprofit company.

Furthermore, in the third sector, Mulyanegara (2011a) examined the brand orientation from the consumer perspective (Casidy, 2013b), coining the concept "perceived brand orientation" (PBO) (Anees-ur-Rehman et al., 2016). In his study, Mulyanegara (2011a) concludes that active participation in churches is influenced by the positive evaluation of brand orientation as well as by the spiritual and social benefits derived from church programmes. Casidy (2013b) analyses the PBO relationship with satisfaction, loyalty and post-enrollment behaviour in the higher education sector, indicating a significant relation with all the dependent variables. In the same way, Shahijan, Rezaei and Amin (2016) also finds a positive relationship between perceived brand orientation and course satisfaction among international students in Malaysia.

In the political field, the political brand orientation consists of how party brand values and party practices are in conformity. That is, how much they are oriented towards developing brand potentials (O'Cass & Voola, 2011). Downer (2016) works this concept to show how the actions of the party and its leaders can add or remove brand value, altering the value perceived by the voter.

In the same way, it is possible to develop the brand of a tourist destination and study it from this perspective. However, the tourist destination brand is an association of deliveries of products and services generated by distinct and often independent organizations (G. Hankinson, 2012). Therefore, destination brand orientation (DBO) proved to have a strongly positive relationship with brand performance (García, Galindo, & Suárez, 2018; G. Hankinson, 2012).

Particularly in the service sector, employees play a key role in the quality of service delivered (King et al., 2013; Terglav, Ruzzier, & Kaše, 2016). Thus, more specifically in the hotel industry, Terglav et al. (2016) indicate that the commitment employees have with the brand is related to the perception of the alignment between the behaviour of the brand managers. In the same line, King et al. (2013) highlight that there is a positive relationship between service brand orientation (SBO), employee orientation to the client and brand oriented behaviour.

When it comes to retail, the retail brand orientation (RBO) is described by Brïdson, Evans, Mavondo and Minkiewicz (2013) as a strategy in which the organization prioritizes and manages the brand’s distinctive, functional, augmented and symbolic attributes. Retailers who aim for a vantage point relative to competitors should invest in building a strong RBO. However, due to retail diversity, Schmidt, Mason, Steenkamp and Mugobo (2017) highlight that metrics may vary when analysed RBO in different retail sectors. Also, Balmer (2013) presented a concept of corporate brand orientation, where the corporate brand becomes the central pillar of the organization, reflecting the corporation’s values, culture and identity. Thus, employees, customers and other stakeholders are protagonists to build the corporate brand, which may create an emotional engagement with it (Balmer, 2013).

In addition to the proposed extensions, brand orientation may also be linked to other strategies, generating the so-called hybrid strategies such as brand-market orientation and market-brand orientation, suggested by Urde, Baumgarth and Merrilees (2013). Thus, Laukkanen, Tuominen, Reijonen and Hirvonen (2016) point out that the market orientation strategy has a positive impact on the financial performance of small companies if it is implemented through the brand orientation, which also proved to be a mediating factor between entrepreneurial orientation and business growth for small business-to-business (B2B) operating in emerging markets (Reijonen, Hirvonen, Nagy, Laukkanen, & Gabrielsson, 2015). This symbiosis is also present in political marketing, in which the parties that have the competencies to understand voters (political market orientation) and connect them with its offers (political brand orientation) would provide a unique value proposition, generating a clear differentiation from its rivals (O’Cass & Voola, 2011).

In spite of the various studies of brand orientation, both empirical and theoretical, it was noticed that a bibliometric analysis can contribute to a better understanding of the relations between studies about the subject. This type of analysis has, as one of the purposes, to use statistical and mathematical techniques to structure the information, generating clusters and maps, so that the relationships between the data can be enhanced and visualized in a way that facilitates interpretation (Börner et al., 2003; Pritchard, 1969; Waltman et al., 2010).

## 3.3 METHODS

In the present study, we used two methodological approaches. Firstly, we conducted a systematic literature review based on Scopus, one of the largest peer-review scientific literature of large databases of scientific journals, also considered a consistent database to perform bibliometric analysis (Anees-ur-Rehman et al., 2016; Wang & Waltman, 2016). Moreover, Scopus uses rigorous criteria to index a journal, and all indexed journals are submitted to periodic evaluations to certify the maintenance of quality (Elsevier, 2019). This review was carried out to generate the database for conducting a bibliometric analysis in which we used the techniques of bibliographic coupling (Kessler, 1963) and analysis of co-occurrence of keywords (Callon et al., 1983).

### 3.3.1 Systematic literature review

The articles analysed in this study were identified through consultation with the scientific journals indexed to Scopus and Web of Science, with no category or date filters having been made, but rather language filters (only in English) and type of work (Articles and Reviews) instead. The terms used in the search engine were “brand orientation”, “brand-orientation”, “brand oriented” and “brand-oriented”, combined with the Boolean operator OR. The search was applied in the article title fields, abstracts, and keywords. We conducted it in June 2018.

We made the initial research in both databases (Scopus and Web of Science). We found, after the initial scan, that 131 articles from Scopus and 72 articles from Web of Science met the inclusions criteria. From these articles, 57 were in both databases, 74 only in Scopus and 15 only in Web of Science. Thus, 131 articles were analysed, and of these, we excluded studies that:

- did not have any technical information like author, year or abstract;
- were not related to the areas of business, marketing, psychology or behaviour;
- used the customer’s brand orientation as variable instead of brand orientation as strategy; and
- did not use brand orientation as a model variable, that is, they used brand orientation only as a theory to support the article, but did not evaluate it to meet the search goal.

This analysis was carried out by reading the titles, abstracts and introductions of the studies. Those that fit into at least one of the exclusion criteria were removed from the sample. In cases where there were still doubts whether to keep or exclude, we read the full article. Thus, the final sample consisted of 96 papers. In total, 45 were in both databases, 45 only in Scopus and 6 only in Web of Science. Finally, we synthesized the articles and, as Scopus presented a large number of articles, we chose this database to perform the bibliometric analysis.

### 3.3.2 Bibliometrics

To perform the bibliometric analysis, we used the VOSViewer software, version 1.6.10 (van Eck & Waltman, 2010; Waltman et al., 2010). From this tool, we applied technique of bibliographic coupling (Kessler, 1963) and keyword co-occurrence analysis (Callon et al., 1983). In bibliographic coupling, the more references the articles share, the greater the similarity between them (Egghe & Rousseau, 2002; Kessler, 1963). Therefore, we suggest that each cluster formed by bibliographic coupling forms the basis of a determined research front, as that cluster has articles with common references (Jarneving, 2005).

As for the co-occurrence of keywords, the terms are grouped according to their degree of association in the literature, to identify which subjects were treated during the time. Thus, to examine the co-occurrence of keywords, it is analysed the frequency with which they appeared in the sample and how often two distinct keywords appear together in different jobs (Cobo et al., 2011; Losiewicz et al., 2000).

The interactions formed from the application of these techniques were exposed in network maps (Li et al., 2016; Marchiori & Mendes, 2020), being that, each map is calculated by measuring the force of interaction between terms, which takes into account the number of links between the terms (van Eck & Waltman, 2010; Waltman et al., 2010). Graphically, the terms (which, in this case, are articles or keywords) are represented by nodes and colour clusters, so that larger nodes represent more relevant terms than smaller nodes. The lines indicate the links between the nodes, as well as the distance, so that the closer one node is to the other, the more related they are Cobo et al. (2011), Sinkovics (2016) and van Eck and Waltman (2019).

## 3.4 RESULTS OF BIBLIOMETRIC ANALYSIS

### 3.4.1 Main studies and institutions

When analysing the most relevant studies in the area, we noted that the study by Wirtz et al. (2013) is the most cited among the articles in the sample, even though it is relatively recent, while Urde (1994), which starts the concept of brand orientation, appears as the fourth most cited. Table 2 shows the ten papers with the highest number of citations, the journals in which they were published, the number of citations, the total citations (TC) per year and their respective countries.

**TABLE 2: MOST CITED ARTICLES**

| Author | Journal | N. of citations | TC per year | Country |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Wirtz et al. (2013) | Journal of Service Management | 177 | 28.83 | UK |
| Wong and Merrilees (2005) | Journal of Product & Brand Management | 126 | 8.93 | UK |
| Simões and Dibb (2001) | Corporate Communications: An International Journal | 118 | 6.50 | UK |
| Urde (1994) | Journal of Consumer Marketing | 107 | 4.24 | UK |
| Urde et al. (2013) | Journal of Business Research | 106 | 17.50 | Holland |
| Baumgarth (2010) | European Journal of Marketing | 100 | 11.11 | UK |
| Wong and Merrilees (2008) | Journal of Product & Brand Management | 100 | 9.09 | UK |
| Reid et al. (2005) | Journal of Advertising | 92 | 6.57 | USA |
| Ewing and Napoli (2005) | Journal of Business Research | 88 | 6.21 | Holland |
| Brïdson and Evans (2004) | International Journal of Retail & Distribution Management | 81 | 5.40 | UK |

Source: Research Data.

Among the institutions that have two or more publications in this area, most of them are from Australia and Europe. This happens not only in the production but also in the places where the research samples were collected, as shown by Anees-ur-Rehman et al. (2016).

### 3.4.2 Co-occurrence keywords

When applying the co-occurrence technique with all keywords and with fractional counting (van Eck & Waltman, 2014), we found 236 different words. Of those, only those that had at least two occurrences were selected, generating 46 items. The keyword “brand orientation” was excluded from the analysis, as it was by this keyword that the articles were initially selected in the search engine. We also did an adjustment for keywords considered synonymous like “b2b” and “business-to-business”. Five groups were found.

Group 1 comprised terms such as brand commitment, internal brand management and employees, possibly relating the effects of the work of internal brand on employee commitment to the brand, with the hospitality sector standing out in this group, as the examples of studies by King and So (2015) and King et al. (2013). Group 2 suggests papers that have explored small and medium-sized enterprises (SME’s) with the type of business-to-business consumer, directing the studies to the impacts of the brand orientation, as well as the adoption of hybrid strategies, financial performance and business growth. We noticed that, although market orientation does not belong to the same group, the term is very close to Group 2, mainly to b2b branding and strategic hybrid orientation, which indicates a strong relationship.

Group 3 is directed to the internal branding and market orientation, given that these two are the ones of greater relevance in the group. Similarly, both terms appear to be related to the nonprofit sector, internal marketing and perceived benefits generated, for example, by the association of the brand orientation with market orientation (Mulyanegara, 2011a). Also, Group 3 gathers keywords such as brand strategy, internal branding and brand equity that can be related to the positive impacts of brand orientation on internal branding and brand equity, as argued by Baumgarth and Schmidt (2010).

Group 4 indicates articles that seem to relate aspects of the brand such as management and identity and shows how these aspects relate to strategic orientation, given that the terms brand management, brand identity and strategic orientation are in this group. It is important to note that, besides the keywords “financial performance” and “brand performance” which do not belong to Group 4, the proximity shows a relationship between those subjects. Finally, Group 5 includes keywords like innovation, customer loyalty and customer satisfaction suggesting that these aspects may be related to brand orientation (Wong & Merrilees, 2008) with emphasis on the higher education sector (Casidy, 2014a, 2014b).

We observed that despite the concept of corporate brand orientation is one of the extensions of brand orientation (Anees-ur-Rehman et al., 2016; Balmer, 2013) this keyword (corporate brand orientation) is not widely used in the articles. On the other hand, corporate brand and corporate branding are the terms most frequently used (Powell, 2016) and appear in this study’s sample.

### 3.4.3 Bibliographic coupling

To identify the interactions among the articles from the similarities between the references, we applied, in the sample, the technique of bibliographic coupling by documents, with fractional counting, which gives the same weight to each publication (Perianes-Rodriguez et al., 2016; van Eck & Waltman, 2014). Thus, the map is shown in Figure 5, where each of the five clusters found was circled to facilitate visualization.

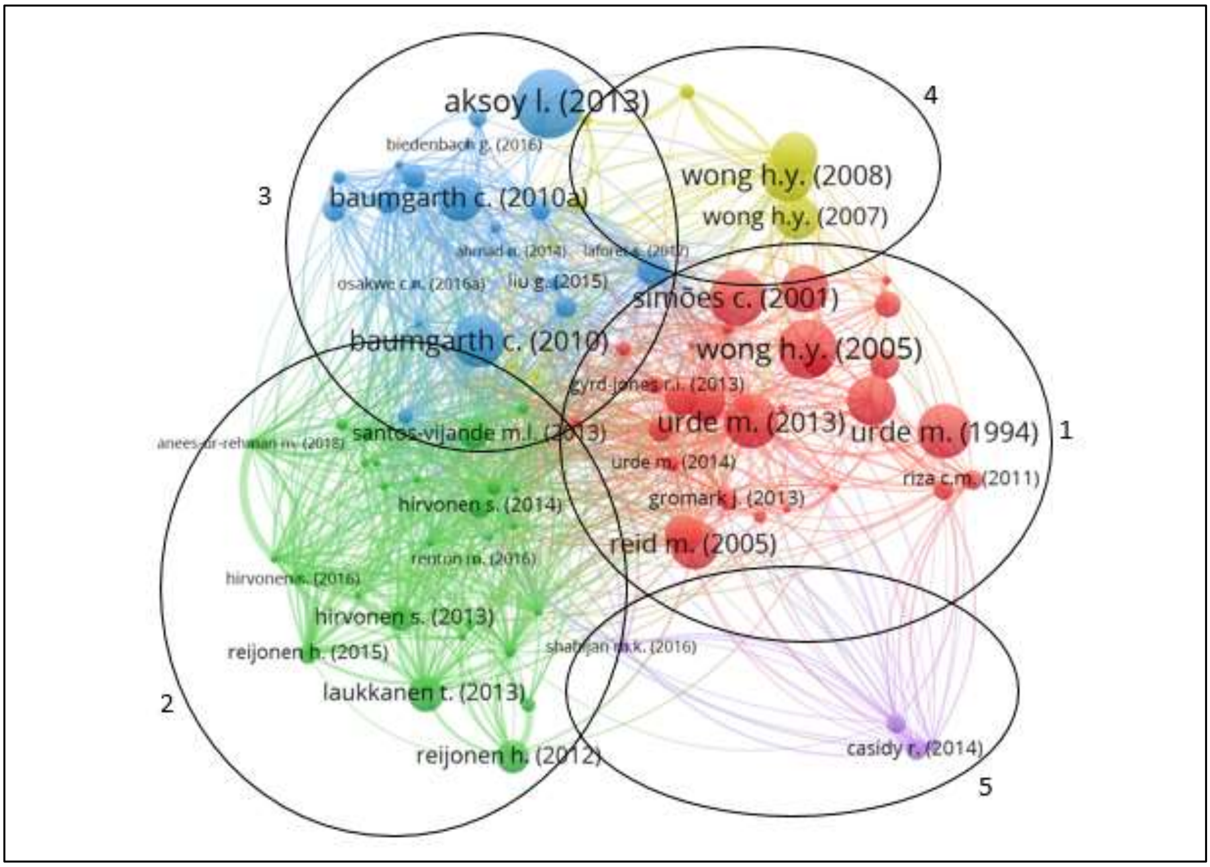

Figure 5: BC documents.
Note: The work of Wirtz et al. (2013) appears in Figure 5 as aksoy l. (2013) by means of list of authors of the Scopus base.
Source: Research data.

Therefore, when analysing the most cited studies within each cluster, the first cluster seems to gather studies that deal with conceptual discussions of brand orientation, bringing more theoretical studies, including the study by Urde (1994), who was one of the pioneers in the brand orientation theory. The most cited study of Cluster 2 empirically measures the effects of the adoption of hybrid strategies, like brand orientation with entrepreneurial orientation or brand orientation with market orientation, mainly in relation to growth and business performance. On the other hand, Cluster 3 presents, in its most cited studies, qualitative and quantitative articles, which relate to the development of the brand internally to the company or locally in a determined microregion. From another perspective, Cluster 4, despite its most cited articles, takes into account the impacts of a company to be brand oriented, usually in financial performance, and explores the concept of brand performance. Finally, the papers in Cluster 5 aim at the area of higher education, containing all the articles of the sample that cover this sector, and analysed the concept of perceived brand orientation. To summarize, Table 3 shows the four most cited studies, according to the Scopus, within each cluster and its main theme (Waltman et al., 2010).

**TABLE 3: BIBLIOGRAPHIC COUPLING CLUSTERS**

| Author | Cit. | Main theme | Cluster |
|---|---|---|---|
| Wong and Merrilees (2005) | 126 | Brand Orientation Concept | 1 |
| Simões and Dibb (2001) | 118 | | |
| Urde (1994) | 107 | | |
| Urde et al. (2013) | 106 | | |
| Laukkanen et al. (2013) | 51 | Hybrid Strategies | 2 |
| Reijonen et al. (2012) | 39 | | |
| Santos-Vijande et al. (2013) | 37 | | |
| Hirvonen et al. (2013) | 25 | | |
| Wirtz et al. (2013) | 177 | Internal Brand Management | 3 |
| Baumgarth (2010) | 100 | | |
| Baumgarth and Schmidt (2010) | 78 | | |
| G. Hankinson (2012) | 41 | | |
| Wong and Merrilees (2008) | 100 | Brand Performance | 4 |
| Wong and Merrilees (2007b) | 81 | | |
| Wong and Merrilees (2007a) | 73 | | |
| Baxter et al. (2013) | 9 | | |
| Casidy (2014b) | 18 | Perceived Brand Orientation | 5 |
| Casidy (2013b) | 14 | | |
| Shahijan et al. (2016) | 6 | | |
| Casidy (2014a) | 5 | | |

Source: Research data.

## 3.5 CLUSTER ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

In the bibliographic coupling, we can perceive the formation of five clusters: brand orientation concept hybrid strategies, internal branding management, brand performance and perceived brand orientation. When analysing each one of them it is possible to notice relations between some clusters and the keywords groups.

Cluster 1, titled brand orientation concept, set the base of brand orientation and strategic positioning theories, and it is formed by several qualitative studies. After Urde (1994) defines brand orientation, several studies developed scales to measure this concept, its antecedents, barriers and outcomes (Brïdson & Evans, 2004; Gromark & Melin, 2011; Rentschler, Brïdson, & Evans, 2011; Harrison-Walker, 2014a, 2014b). Besides, some researchers adapted the original concept to different areas such as nonprofits (Ewing & Napoli, 2005; Apaydın, 2011), retail (Brïdson et al., 2013) and politics (O'Cass & Voola, 2011; Downer, 2016) and also to different perspectives as perceived brand orientation (Mulyanegara, 2011a, 2011b). Furthermore, papers that discuss hybrid strategies (Urde & Koch, 2014) and main positioning strategies (Urde et al., 2013) from a theoretical point also form this cluster. Thus, as this cluster is considered the base of brand orientation theory and their extensions, the keywords from the studies are spread in the different keywords' groups, which are analysed below. Also, as declared, the keyword brand orientation and its synonyms have been deleted from the keyword group analysis.

The hybrid strategies (Cluster 2) is formed by articles that are mostly empirical, using methodologies such as factor analysis, structural equation modelling, cluster analysis and regressions. Laukkanen, Nagy, Hirvonen, Reijonen and Pasanen (2013) and Reijonen et al. (2015) suggest that different strategic orientations, in addition to brand orientation, may impact the relationship between entrepreneurial orientation and performance, encouraging the study of hybrid strategies. The adoption of another orientation strategy, also called a hybrid strategy, was still proposed by studies such as those by Anees-Ur-Rehman, Saraniemi, Ulkuniemi and Hurmelinna-Laukkanen (2017), W. J. Lee, O'Cass and Sok (2017), Reijonen, Laukkanen, Komppula and Tuominen (2012) and Reijonen, Párdányi, Tuominen, Laukkanen and Komppula (2014). There are also, in Cluster 2, several articles related to small and medium enterprises (Ciunova-Shuleska, Osakwe, & Palamidovska-Sterjadovska, 2016; Ciunova-Shuleska, Palamidovska-Sterjadovska, Osakwe, & Omotoso, 2017; Hirvonen & Laukkanen, 2014; Hirvonen, Laukkanen, & Reijonen, 2013; Hirvonen, Laukkanen, & Salo, 2016) and the effects of adopting this positioning strategies in companies of this size (Chovancová, Osakwe, & Ogbonna, 2015; Laukkanen et al., 2013, 2016; W. J. Lee, O'Cass, & Sok, 2016). Reijonen et al. (2012) suggest that small and medium growing companies are more brand and market oriented than other companies (stable or declining). This relation between hybrid strategies and small and medium companies can be seen in keyword groups, as the keywords "smes" and "entrepreneurial orientation" (Chovancová et al., 2015; Reijonen et al., 2015) belong to keyword Group 2. Also, although the keyword "market orientation" does not belong to Group 2, the proximity suggests a relation to the keyword Group 2.

Cluster 3 has, as its main theme, the internal branding management. Thus, the application of brand orientation strategy to the internal development of the brand is composed of articles that mostly use the factor analysis, structural equation modelling and multiple regressions. Research, such as Baumgarth and Schmidt (2010) and Zhang et al. (2016), explores the relationship between internal branding and brand equity. According to them, brand orientation has a positive impact on brand equity through internal branding. From another perspective, Wirtz et al. (2013), which was the most cited article in the cluster, propose a model that relates brand orientation and consumer engagement in online brand communities (OBCs), suggesting that the consumer engagement in OBC's can improve the brand equity.

The relation between these themes can be seen through the keywords “internal branding”, “brand strategy” and “brand equity” that appeared together in Group 3.

Also, some studies in Cluster 3 explore the relation between brand orientation and internal brand under an employee’s commitment and behaviour, in both nonprofit and forprofit organizations (Dechawatanapaisal, 2018; King et al., 2013; G. Liu et al., 2015, 2017). In addition, strong internal brand development helps the employee to deliver services aligned with companies’ promises (King & So, 2015). Thus, the relationship between the keywords on this theme, such as “brand commitment”, “internal brand management and employees”, is showed by Group 1.

The fourth cluster, titled brand performance, consists of both theoretical and empirical articles. Wong and Merrilees (2015) study the antecedents and consequents of brand engagement, showing that the brand orientation precedes this relationship and has positive consequences on brand performance and financial performance. Wong and Merrilees (2007a, 2008) have also studied the relationship between brand orientation and brand performance and the gap between brand performance and marketing strategy that, according to the authors, is partially filled by brand orientation. All articles were based in samples from Australia. Also, Varadarajan and Malone (2018) presented, through a case of study in a private international school in India, how branding improves the number of school enrollment. Gisip and Harun (2013) proposed a theoretical model where brand orientation is seen as a part of brand management strategy and has a positive relationship with brand performance.

Thus, the keywords in Group 4 gather together keywords such as “brand management, brand identity”, “business performance” and “Australia”, showing the association between the themes. Also, despite the keywords “financial performance” and “brand performance” (Group 2) belonging to a different keyword group, the proximity between these keywords suggests that these themes are related (Baxter et al., 2013; Wong & Merrilees, 2008).

Finally, the fifth cluster, titled perceived brand orientation, makes use of factor analysis and structural equation modeling and explores, for example, the positive relationships between brand orientation with student loyalty, satisfaction and intention to continue the course (Casidy, 2013b, 2014a; Shahijan et al., 2016). As perceived brand orientation considers the customer’s point of view, those studies using keywords as “customer satisfaction”, “customer loyalty” or “student satisfaction” and “student loyalty” as those words are related with higher education. Keyword Group 5 shows these relationships.

In summary, articles show several relations between them. The internal aspects of the brand, and the adoption of hybrid strategies, mainly with market orientation, has been shown as a line of research that has aroused interest within the academic community, as well as the impacts of using these strategies on company performance. Still, perceived brand orientation seems to be a concept just being explored in a higher education and church context (Casidy, 2014a, 2014b; Mulyanegara, 2011a, 2011b), which reveals the opportunity to explore it in other sectors like in services, given the importance of consumer perception (Chovancová et al., 2015). Each cluster also show practical implications of adopting brand orientation such as gains in performance, the impact in growth associated with market orientation (Cluster 2), impacts on employees’ commitment, employees behaviour and brand equity (Cluster 3), impacts on performance (Cluster 4) and impacts on customer satisfaction and loyalty (Cluster 5).

## 3.6 RESEARCH AGENDA

The results show a latent need for diversification of research in different countries, mainly by comparing the causes and effects of the actions of brand orientation strategy in developed and developing economies (Laukkanen et al., 2013). In addition, some studies (Brïdson & Evans, 2004; Huang & Tsai, 2013; Osakwe, Boateng, Popa, Chovancová, & Soto-Acosta, 2016) demonstrate that good brand orientation work is related to issues such as differentiation and engagement, characteristics that seem to be even more necessary in sectors such as nonprofit, services and online commerce. In this way, future research can explore the brand orientation in these sectors, considering, for example, if nonprofit companies that are more brand-oriented are more trustworthy, and are thus able to raise more donations or attract more volunteers.

In the field of online commerce, we can verify if the brand orientation impacts on the reliability of this type of retail, thus positively affecting the consumer's purchase intention. In the service sector, brand orientation can strengthen standardization, especially in companies that operate in different locations, with headquarters and subsidiaries, guaranteeing the same exclusive experience of the brand by the consumer, wherever they use the service (Boso et al., 2016). Wallace, Buil and de Chernatony (2013) suggest exploring brand orientation in hierarchical matrixes and branch structures, looking at the role of the local manager in the development of brand identity, and the influence of the local leader and his/her team.

Regarding the metrics used, the financial performance seems to be a very relevant metric and studied as a consequence of brand orientation (Anees-ur-Rehman et al., 2016). However, other aspects seem to be little explored, such as brand sustainability, innovation, productivity, loyalty and personality (Anees-ur-Rehman et al., 2017; Biedenbach & Manzhynski, 2016; Brïdson & Evans, 2004; Gisip & Harun, 2013). The public sector is also little explored, with few studies in this context, even though Gromark and Melin (2013) point out brand orientation as an interesting alternative to market orientation in this sector.

Although some studies have explored the use of hybrid strategies in areas such as SMEs and B2B, a few studies advance to the use of other strategies beyond marketing orientation, such as orientation for the technology, for the consumer, for innovation and entrepreneurship (Anees-ur-Rehman et al., 2018; Ciunova-Shuleska et al., 2017; M'zungu, Merrilees, & Miller, 2017). It is also worth investigating when, how and what market positioning leads to the adoption of a certain strategy (Urde & Koch, 2014). And, the use of hybrid strategies in different contexts might be explored as a U-shape relationship instead of a linear relationship (W. J. Lee et al., 2016). Moreover, within the mix of characteristics that a certain segment can present, putting together, for example, small and medium-sized B2B and B2C companies from different countries with different strategies, the multi-group analysis can be a powerful tool to analyse these distinctions, as in the study by Reijonen et al. (2015). In addition, Boso et al. (2016) suggest research in the BRICS countries (Brazil, Russia, China, India and South Africa) and MINT (Mexico, Indonesia, Nigeria and Turkey) and studies that compare the results for both developed and developing economies (Powell, 2016).

Relating to internal branding, both external factors (such as market fluctuations, intensity of competition and technological changes) and internal factors (such as sustainability and innovation culture) can influence the development of the internal brand through brand orientation (Dechawatanapaisal, 2018; Huang & Tsai, 2013; Iyer, Davari, & Paswan, 2018). From another perspective, Wirtz et al. (2013) proposed a model that relates brand orientation and consumer engagement in OBCs. They suggested that future research could empirically test the differences between BCs (brand communities) online and offline, exploring when the firm should choose one or the other, as well as the antecedent and consequent model. The authors also suggest developing a scale to measure engagement in OBCs and test that engagement in brand performance. In addition, the authors suggest exploring the criteria to determine in which situations it is most beneficial the company to manage the OBC or the consumers. Otherwise, Ahn, Hyun and Kim (2016) and G. Hankinson (2012) explore the relationship between the brand of certain locations (country, region) and brand orientation. Thus, some indications for future research are the study of other destinations, and taking into account the size of destinations (whether they are, for example, large or small cities in relation to population size or local development), the levels of brand resources and brand architecture.

Innovation seems to play a crucial role in performance, be it financial performance, brand performance or customer performance (Agostini & Nosella, 2016; Gisip & Harun, 2013; W. J. Lee et al., 2016; Wong & Merrilees, 2008). W. J. Lee et al. (2016) argue that an excessive focus on a single strategy (brand orientation or innovation orientation) may decrease returns of brand performance. The authors suggest to future researchers that this relation in the turbulent market, wherein the innovation orientation can be more important than brand orientation because of environmental characteristics. Another suggestion is to analyse performance from the customer’s point of view (W. J. Lee et al., 2016).

Thus, another line for research is to explore the brand orientation of the internal and external perspectives. That is, from the points of view of managers and employees (internal perspective) and also taking into account the perceptions of consumers (external point of view), bringing a holistic view of the effects of brand orientation and possibly linking it with perceived brand orientation. Relating to higher education, perceived brand orientation is still little explored in distance learning (Casidy, 2014a; Shahijan et al., 2016).

## 3.7. CONCLUSIONS

In conclusion, this paper highlighted the relationships between the issues of brand orientation and discussed how the extensions of this concept have been applied. As the main theoretical contribution, the results of the cluster and the keyword groups showed the focus on the research in five areas: the development of the brand orientation concept and proposed extensions; hybrid strategies, mostly applied in SMEs and focusing in brand-market orientation; the relations between brand orientation, internal branding and brand management; the relation between brand orientation and brand or financial performance; the perceived brand orientation as mostly applied to higher education sector. In addition, despite the continued development of the brand orientation theme, many industries and segments still require investigation.

Also, although recent research is diversifying the countries studied (Ahn et al., 2016; Schmidt et al., 2017; Shahijan et al., 2016; Varadarajan & Malone, 2018; Zhang et al., 2016), taking into account the diversification between countries at different economic stages is necessary in an attempt to generalize the proposed models. In addition, given the complexity of adopting this type of strategy, more research can be done to clarify the background, consequents and barriers of brand orientation, their extensions and hybrid strategies, which are mainly useful managerial practices. Also, it would be interesting to perform a meta-analysis to further explore the details about the research questions related to brand orientation.

# Chapter 4

# 4 A QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS OF NONPROFIT BRAND ORIENTATION IN AN EMERGING COUNTRY

## 4.1 INTRODUCTION

The non-profit sector has been growing exponentially around the world through increased civilian participation, financing from private companies that are seeking to reinforce their social commitment, and government financing through the implementation of public policies using the third sector as a tool (Casey, 2016; Pennerstorfer & Rutherford, 2019; Sheth, 2011). However, non-profit organizations (NPO) face difficulties, especially the smaller and less professionalized ones, in adopting managerial methodologies for measuring their efficiency and fundraising (Casey, 2016; Kaplan & Grossman, 2010; Nageswarakurukkal, Gonçalves, & Moshtari, 2020). To improve non-profit sector efficiency, marketing and communication strategies have been studied in this field. Among them, non-profit brand orientation (NBO) is effective in enabling NPOs to be more successful in fulfilling their missions (Ewing & Napoli, 2005; G. Liu et al., 2015, 2017; Napoli, 2006; Randle et al., 2013). In line with this, the strategic use of communication can push the brand and is an important tool to address trust, which is essential for an NPO (Fisher & Hopp, 2020; Zerfass, Verčič, Nothhaft, & Werder, 2018).

The non-profit brand refers to a set of functional and symbolic attributes, respectively, related to an NPO's cause and beliefs (P. Hankinson, 2000). The non-profit brand orientation (NBO) can be defined as a process that provides stakeholders with great value and performance by developing and sustaining a shared understanding of the meaning of the NPO brands (Ewing & Napoli, 2005).

So, as brand understanding is essential to the company strategy, great value and performance are achieved when a communication strategy is designed to implement and support NBO (Zerfass et al., 2018; P. Hankinson, 2001). Thus, communication is a tool not just to build a “communicative resource” (Zerfass et al., 2018), but also to support the brand development and more importantly, to keep the alignment on the brand message through the internal and external stakeholders. Enabling the development and correct orientation of the brand.

As the correct orientation of the brand can support the NPOs to obtain success in their mission, this study aims to identify, in the context of an emerging economy, the factors that shape non-profit brand orientation. It also seeks to identify the main antecedents, outcomes, and barriers that are involved in its strategy implementation. The focus of this research is NPOs in Brazil.

The NBO models proposed in the literature are from the early 2000s, for example, those by Evans et al. (2012), Ewing and Napoli (2005), and P. Hankinson (2000, 2001), however, they do not unify the NBO context or are proposed for a specific sector. Despite P. Hankinson (2001) and Ewing and Napoli (2005) acknowledging communicating the brand as part of NBO strategy, we discuss this point as a communication strategy, which is essential to achieve de NBO goals (Zerfass et al., 2018). Despite NBO has gained great importance in recent decades (Baumgarth, Merrilees, & Urde, 2013), these models were developed based on findings in well-developed countries, as most of the studies were conducted in these markets (Z. Lee, 2013; G. Liu et al., 2017; Napoli, 2006; Wymer et al., 2015). So, research carried out in the emerging market context is still scarce. Emerging countries have distinct features, and some market concepts may not be applied in the same way in these economies (Burgess & Steenkamp, 2006; Ernst et al., 2015; Kamakura & Mazzon, 2013; Moraes & Strehlau, 2020; Sheth, 2011).

In 2020, Brazil had over 815,000 civil society organizations and the third sector was responsible for employing more than 2,300,000 people (IPEA, 2021). The third sector relevance was reinforced in Brazil during the COVID-19 crises, as the country became one of the epicenters of the disease. To support the healthy and social crises caused by COVID-19, more than BRL 7 billion were raised by July 2021 (Brazilian Association of Fund Raisers, 2021). The amount was designated not just for health promotion straight, but also to support vulnerable communities on the distribution of food, hygiene, and cleaning items to prevent the contagious - see Andion (2020) and Fiocruz: United Against Covid-19 (Fiocruz, 2021).

Thus, we argue that, by understanding the factors that shape brand orientation for non-profits in an emerging economy, this study can contribute to NPOs' building of strong brands, enhancing their performance, and improving their social benefits to society. As a result, society gains through the strengthened capacity of these organizations to develop and implement policies of collective interest (Lopez, 2018).

## 4.2 LITERATURE REVIEW

### 4.2.1 Emerging markets and non-profit sector

Despite the growth in emerging markets, these economies are still facing significant challenges, such as social inequality, the lack of a qualified workforce and infrastructure, corruption, unstable regulations, slowness, and distrust of legal institutions (Ernst et al., 2015; Kuti, 1999; Prahalad & Hammond, 2002; Richelieu &

Korai, 2012). At the same time, emerging markets present competitive advantages. One of them is based on the non-profit sector, which can reach previously inaccessible markets, filling social gaps based on sustainable practices (Sheth, 2011). NPOs in emerging markets have found innovative and low-cost ways to face the challenges of these markets through independent volunteers, association with governments or for-profit companies, and adaptation of marketing strategies to support their initiatives (Casey, 2016; Ernst et al., 2015; Richelieu & Korai, 2012; Sheth, 2011).

It is important to highlight that the development of the third sector is intimately related to political stability, especially when it comes to the freedom of the population to organize in groups and stand out to a cause. In many emerging countries this freedom just become in the recent past, even if it is not consolidated nowadays (Casey, 2016, 2020; Toepler, Pape, & Benevolenski, 2020). We acknowledge that NPO or NGO is an umbrella term and there are substantive differences among entities within this broad domain. Based on this, non-profit organizations are defined in this study as legally constitute private organizations that do not generate profit, self-management and are formed from a voluntary initiative (IPEA, 2021).

### 4.2.2 Non-profit branding as a strategic communication tool

The literature about non-profit branding has shown the benefits of empowering brands in the non-profit sector for both emerging and well-developed markets (Becker-Olsen & Hill, 2006; Garg et al., 2019; H. Khan & Ede, 2009). More than a symbol that represents the organization used to differentiate them from the others, the brand, as a strategic asset, can be communicated strategically to create value to the organization (Fisher & Hopp, 2020; Tilley, 1999). In the non-profit sector, brand communication can be framed to improve organization's reputation, awareness, differentiation, and connection with the target audience (Bairrada, Coelho, & Coelho, 2018; Bevilacqua, Freitas, & Paula, 2020; Boenigk & Becker, 2016; H. Khan & Ede, 2009; Renton, Daellenbach, & Davenport, 2016; Wong & Merrilees, 2005, Zerfass et al., 2018).

The efficient communication of the brand can address trust, which is crucial to obtaining and keeping new donations (Becker, Boenigk, & Willems, 2020; Durgee, 2016; Dwivedi, Johnson, Wilkie, & Araujo-Gil, 2019; Fisher & Hopp, 2020; Voeth & Herbst, 2008), and contribute to NPOs' ability to establish successful partnerships with other organizations (Cooke, 2010; Herlin, 2015; Newmeyer & Ruth, 2020; Tofighi, Grohmann, & Bodur, 2020). In this way, many branding concepts, such as brand strength (Wymer, 2015; Wymer et al., 2015), brand personality (Venable et al., 2005), and brand orientation (Apaydın, 2011; Casidy, 2014b), have been adapted to the non-profit sector, and, from the adoption of the organization's name to the frame of the brand strategy, communication has been recognized as a central point and an important tool in nonprofit branding (Schmeltz & Kjeldsen, 2016; Sepulcri, Mainardes, & Belchior, 2020).

However, even though these concepts are essential tools for NPOs (Baghi & Gabrielli, 2013; Ritchie et al., 1999), the limited understanding of brand strategies among non-profit brand managers causes many NPOs to undermine the potential of their brands (Garg et al., 2019; P. Hankinson, 2000; Voeth & Herbst, 2008). NPOs face different managerial challenges from for-profit organizations in terms of visualizing and applying brand strategies and evaluating the outcomes of these strategies (Andreasen, 2012; Stride & Lee, 2007).

Usually, in the for-profit sector, the brand is a well-accepted terminology and the value proposition expressed through the brand is easy to define. However, in the non-profit sector, this can be a challenging task, as can be difficult to balance value perceived by donors, volunteers, and the target users of the products and services offered by the NPO. And added to this, brand terminology can be not well-accepted as is usually associated with name and logo (Andreasen, 2012; Stride & Lee, 2007). Although these difficulties, by creating strong brands NPOs can reinforce their internal identity and boost their long-term social goals (Garg et al., 2019).

### 4.2.3 Brand orientation

Brand orientation was initially described by Urde (1994, 1999) as a strategy in which an organization focuses on creating a brand, developing it, and protecting it, which is the center of the organization's strategy (Anees-ur-Rehman et al., 2016). From this definition, brand orientation anticipates all the other aspects of the brand, such as internal branding (G. Liu et al., 2017), brand trust (Laidler-Kylander & Simonin, 2009), and brand performance (Y. Chang, Wang, & Arnett, 2018; Huang & Tsai, 2013). So, NBO is not just creating the brand but is also about implementing a strategy to think about the brand and what it should transmit to the stakeholders (Reid, Luxton, & Mavondo, 2005; Urde, 1994, 1999). Because of the relevance of NBO, this paper decided to focus specifically on this concept.

Reid et al. (2005) pointed out that brand orientation consists of sharing, within the organization and with the main stakeholders, the brand vision, the brand functionality, and the brand positioning; acknowledging the brand as a strategic resource; recognizing the emotional connection and appeal of the brand, which is the brand's symbolism; and managing the internal and external activities to increase the brand's ability to generate value. In this way, the brand strategic communication sets the tools to inform and disseminate the strategy of the brand and the actions taken to achieve the organization's aims (Fisher & Hopp, 2020; Reid et al, 2005).

Although most of the studies about brand orientation in different sectors have considered well-developed markets, more recent studies have investigated the application of this strategy in developing economies (Boso et al., 2016; Cant et al., 2013; Y. Chang et al., 2018; Huang & Tsai, 2013; King & So, 2015; Laukkanen et al., 2013; Osakwe, 2016; Osakwe, Ciunova-Shuleska, Ajayi, & Chovancová, 2015; Reijonen et al., 2015; Sepulcri, Mainardes & Marchiori, 2020), however, these studies do not explore brand orientation in the third sector. The study conducted by Laukkanen et al. (2013) on strategic orientation was based on two countries, an emerging one (Hungary) and a highly developed one (Finland), which showed different results. These authors determined that the relationships between the investigated orientation strategies (learning, entrepreneurial, market, and brand) vary between these countries. The results also differ in other studies, depending on where the sample is an emerging or and developed country (Baumgarth, 2010; Reijonen et al., 2015; Saban, Didonet, & Toaldo, 2015).

Therefore, it is suggested not only that brand orientation applies to emerging markets but also that its application differs from that in well-developed markets.

Also, the literature about brand orientation in developing countries is still incipient (Sepulcri, Mainardes & Marchiori, 2020) and we just found a few papers that explored NBO in an emerging country (I. Khan & Bashir, 2020; L. C. da Silva et al., 2020). Both papers in developed countries used Ewing and Napoli's (2005) scale to measure NBO. But, due to the peculiarities of emerging countries, may NBO can be measured differently.

### 4.2.4 Non-profit brand orientation (NBO)

Non-profit brand orientation (NBO) has been described as the degree to which NPOs understand themselves as a brand (P. Hankinson, 2000). Ewing and Napoli (2005) found that NBO consists of three dimensions: interaction, orchestration, and affect. The interaction dimension captures the extension of NPOs' consistent communication with their main stakeholders and their ability to respond to environmental changes, the orchestration dimension is related to the alignment of NPOs' brand communication internally and externally, the brand portfolio, and the marketing strategies, and the affect dimension concerns NPOs' comprehension of what the main stakeholders like or do not like and the reasons for their satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the organization.  Thus, the strategic use of the brand can make it into a shorthand communication tool, framing a consistent message and allowing the NPO to communicate complex information (Fisher & Hopp, 2020; P. Hankinson, 2001; Zerfass et al., 2018)

The antecedents of NBO are related to managers' characteristics (Apaydın, 2011; Ewing & Napoli, 2005; P. Hankinson, 2001). On one hand, to P. Hankinson (2001) environmental factors also work as antecedents of NBO. On the other hand, to Apaydın (2011) environmental factors should be divided into two aspects: internal factors, such as a supportive organizational culture, and external factors, referring to the environment in which the NPO is operating. Also, they do not work as antecedents but moderate the relationship between the antecedents of NBO and the NBO strategy (Apaydın, 2011). In the for-profit sector, some internal factors, particularly those related to the understanding of the brand among the staff members, can be seen as antecedents of brand orientation (Huang & Tsai, 2013; King & Grace, 2010). However, the resistance to change of some internal groups can be a barrier to implementing brand orientation (Gyrd-Jones, Helm, & Munk, 2013).

The consequences of NBO were suggested by Apaydın (2011) in terms of performance outcomes, divided into the goods and services produced by an NPO, the NPO's ability to influence public policy, the NPO's impact on the community, and resource acquisition, which is related to financial resources as well as to attracting volunteers and enhancing the NPO's reputation. Outcomes such as the enhancement of staff performance and alignment with the brand promise are also positively influenced by brand orientation according to studies based on the non-profit and for-profit contexts (King et al., 2013; G. Liu et al., 2015; Piehler, King, Burmann, & Xiong, 2016).

However, NPOs can face some barriers to being brand oriented, such as limitations on financial and human resources and time, an excessive focus on daily operations (Sarikaya & Buhl, 2021; Wong & Merrilees, 2005), and negative stakeholders' association with brand terminology (Stride & Lee, 2007). Other authors have also studied NBO in specific contexts, such as churches and museums

(Casidy, 2013a; Evans et al., 2012; Mulyanegara, 2011b). Thus, Figure 6 summarizes constructs that define NBO as well as the antecedents, outcomes, and barriers to NBO.

| **Non-profit Brand Orientation** | **Author** |
|---|---|
| Interaction, orchestration, affect | Apaydın (2011); Ewing and Napoli (2005) |
| Philosophy (culture and compass), behaviors (distinctiveness, functionality, augmentation, symbolism) | Evans et al. (2012) |
| Uniqueness, reputation, orchestration | Casidy (2013a); Mulyanegara (2011b) |
| Understanding the brand, communicating the brand, using the brand as a strategic resource, managing the brand deliberately and actively | P. Hankinson (2001) |
| **Antecedents** | **Author** |
| Personal vision of managers, relevant education and job experience of managers with brand, personal skills | Apaydın (2011) |
| Internal (curatorial orientation, commercial orientation, organizational structure, leadership, financial resources, institutional size and age) and external (private funding, public funding, direct and indirect competitor intensity, visitor behavior) | Evans et al. (2012) |
| Personal vision, relevant education and job experience, supportive organizational culture, environment factors | P. Hankinson (2001) |
| Integrity, nurturance, sophistication, ruggedness | Venable et al. (2005) |
| **Outcomes** | **Author** |
| Goods and services, policy impact, social capital, resource acquisition, reputation | Apaydın (2011); Candler and Dumont (2010) |
| Compassion, dynamism, idealism, focus on beneficiaries, non-political image | Bennett and Gabriel (2003) |
| Perception of benefits received from participating in the institution's activities of both regular and non-regular members | Casidy (2013a); Mulyanegara (2011b) |
| Developing a strong brand, successful fulfillment of organizational objectives, inclusive employee culture | P. Hankinson (2001) |
| Brand trust, clear fit with perceived needs, differentiation, visibility, stakeholders' alignment | Laidler-Kylander and Simonin (2009) |
| Organizational performance, staff service involvement, staff emotional brand attachment | G. Liu et al. (2015) |
| Usefulness, efficiency, affect, dynamism | Michel and Rieunier (2012) |
| Organizational performance | Napoli (2006) |
| **Barriers** | **Author** |
| Misunderstanding of marketing concepts and tools by employees of the social organization | Chad, Kyriazis et al. (2013); D. Lee and Markham (2015) |
| Curatorial orientation, organizational structure, institutional size, institutional age | Evans et al. (2012) |
| Aligning image and identity, stakeholder dialogue and access, balancing market requirements with organizational identity | Z. Lee (2013) |
| Negative stakeholders' association with brand terminology | Stride and Lee (2007) |

| | |
|---|---|
| Decreasing product divergence, increasing media costs, integration of markets | Urde (1994) |
| Limitations on financial, human resources and time, excess focus on daily operations | Wong and Merrilees (2005) |

Figure 6: NBO, antecedents, outcomes, and barriers
Source: Own elaboration.

Regarding brand orientation in the non-profit sector, studies that consider emerging countries are scarce (Sepulcri, Mainardes & Marchiori, 2020; L. C. da Silva et al., 2020), as most of the studies considered well-developed countries to understand NBO and its dynamics. However, due to the peculiarities of emerging countries' economies and the problems faced by their population, some of these constructs may not be applicable and others can emerge in this reality. For example, political and economic context may address the antecedents of NBO in emerging countries, due to their unstable economies and recent democratization process (Casey, 2016). Since there is a latent need for NBO especially in developing countries and some NBOs are based financed by the government, this may create an unbranded competition (Sheth, 2011). Also, as the brand terminology may not be well accepted and there is a distrust in NPO in general (Casey, 2016; Stride & Lee, 2007), is not clear if and how the stakeholders understand the NBO process and how the interaction between the brand and stakeholders occurs. However, there is evidence that brand is still important and can support NPOs to achieve their missions (Mainardes, Laurett, Degasperi, & Lasso, 2017; L. C. da Silva et al., 2020). These relations are not explored before with NBO, especially in the third sector in emerging countries.

In this way, our research addresses the following question: Which factor shape non-profit brand orientation in developing countries? Where do developing economies differ or assimilate to well-developed economies in implementing brand orientation in the non-profit sector? To answer these questions, we performed qualitative research aiming to identify the factors that shape non-profit brand orientation, its main antecedents, outcomes, and barriers in the context of an emerging economy.

## 4.3 METHODS

### 4.3.1 Methodological approach

This is a multi-case study that takes a qualitative, exploratory approach. Qualitative studies focus on developing a theory based on empirical data rather than testing hypotheses based on previous knowledge (Flick, 2009). This allows the study to identify items that shape the observed domain (Boateng, Neilands, Frongillo, Melgar-Quiñonez, & Young, 2018). Thus, this methodological approach was considered appropriate to fulfill the research objective that is to identify, in the context of an emerging economy, the factors that shape non-profit brand orientation. It also seeks to identify the main antecedents, outcomes, and barriers that are involved in its strategy implementation. In terms of deep understanding NBO and its dynamics in an emerging country, a qualitative approach was applied in studies as P. Hankinson (2000, 2001) and Chapleo (2015).

The choice of the NPOs was based on the following criteria: they were private and non-profit, legally constituted, self-managed, and had the presence of volunteer labor (IPEA, 2021). The sample is composed of nine NPOs of different sizes, stages of maturity, areas of expertise (education, social work, social rights advocacy, health, environmental protection, animal protection, and business development), and scopes of action, to capture distinctive realities. Figure 7 summarizes the characteristics of the NPO.

| Code | Employees (E) or volunteers (V) interviewed | Area of Expertise | Location |
|---|---|---|---|
| NPO1 | E1, E2, E3, E4, V1 | Social work | Local |
| NPO2 | E9, V2, V3 | Social rights advocacy | International |
| NPO3 | E6, E7, E8 | Education | Regional |
| NPO4 | V4 | Business development | Local |
| NPO5 | E10, V8 | Health | Regional |
| NPO6 | E11, V5, V6, V7 | Animal protection | Local |
| NPO7 | V9 | Social work | Local |
| NPO8 | E12, E13, E14 | Environmental protection | National |
| NPO9 | E5 | Education | National |

Figure 7: Profile of the NPOs
Source: Own elaboration.
Note: To remain anonymous, each NPO and each interview were coded. NPO – Non-profit organization; E - NPO employees; V- NPO volunteers.

The data were collected from July 2019 to January 2020 from three main sources: semi-structured interviews, non-participant observation, and documentary evidence (Boateng et al., 2018). Different sources were chosen to prevent possible biases from the use of a single source of data (Eisenhardt, 1989). To obtain the perspective of different stakeholders, 35 people were interviewed: 14 NPO employees, 9 volunteers, 8 donors, two non-donors, and two partners (employees from public and for-profit organizations). The interviewees were chosen from a theoretical sample as the sample was defined gradually during the data collection (Flick, 2009), starting by employees (internal stakeholders), volunteers (also internal stakeholders but usually less committed to the NPO), and donor (external stakeholders), followed by non-donors and partners, as they are potential sponsors, and their vision could aggregate the data. It is important to clarify that NBO is a strategical orientation built internally in the organization and influenced by the external stakeholders, because of this, more internal stakeholders were interviewed. The external point of view was used to understand and validate the internal perception and identify where there is a noise in communication.

The selection of the interviewees was made through non-probabilistic sampling, considering the interest in people who are directly involved in NPO activities, except for the non-donors, who were selected through convenience sampling. This means that the recruitment of non-donors was based on their availability to participate in the research and the confirmation that they know some NPO, but did not donate (time, money, or goods) to any of them. The sample of interviewees aimed to ensure heterogeneous characteristics in terms of gender, age, profession, income, and city of residence, seeking to broaden the results. Figure 8 summarizes the profile of the interviewed groups and the code system used to identify them.

<table>
<tr><th colspan="2">Group</th><th>Qt</th><th>Code</th><th>Group characteristic</th></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">NPO employees</td><td>14</td><td>E1 to E14</td><td>NPO employees are more likely to be committed to their organization. Therefore, they know the NPO operations, the social product delivery, and the challenges faced by the NPO to be successful in its mission.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">NPO volunteers</td><td>9</td><td>V1 to V9</td><td>There is personal identification of the volunteer with the NPO’s cause, and volunteers are usually more aware of non-profit social work than other types of donors. In addition, many directors of NPOs work as volunteers.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">NPO donors</td><td>8</td><td>D1 to D8</td><td>There is personal identification of the donor (of money or goods) with the NPO’s cause.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">NPO non-donors</td><td>2</td><td>ND1 to ND2</td><td>Non-donors are not linked to an NPO, but they know or have heard about some NPOs.</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">NPO partners</td><td>Government employee</td><td>1</td><td>PG1</td><td>In Brazil, the Government acts as a sponsor of some NPOs through the transfer of public resources.</td></tr>
<tr><td>For-profit organization employee</td><td>1</td><td>PFP1</td><td>For-profit organizations can act as a sponsor of an NPO by transferring financial resources or mobilizing employees to act as donors (of time, goods, or money).</td></tr>
</table>

Figure 8: Profile of groups of interviewees
Source: Own elaboration.
Note: To remain anonymous, each interview was coded according to the group to which he or she belongs.

The data were collected through semi-structured interviews, supported by an open question script, and can be seen in Appendix B. The purpose of the interviews was to identify: 1) the socioeconomic characteristics of the interviewees; 2) the characterization of the interviewees' relationship with the NPO; and 3) the factors that shape the non-profit brand orientation as well as the antecedents, outcomes, and barriers. Most interviews were conducted in person; however, a few interviews were conducted virtually, when the interviewee was not available after several attempts. The interviews lasted, on average, between 30 and 40 minutes and were recorded and fully transcribed for analysis, in a total of 251 pages for 25 hours of recording. In the last interviews, the data did not add new information to the research focus, so theoretical saturation was achieved with 35 interviews (Flick, 2009).

From the 3 researchers that were involved in this research, the non-participant observation was carried out by one researcher at a time, in seven of the nine NPOs. To avoid disturbing the NPO, only one researcher visited each NPO. However, 2 organizations did not allow the visit, because of this the non-participant observation was just applied in 7 NPO. Following a research protocol, notes and some photographic records were also taken by the researcher, as a non-participant observer, and recorded in a field diary to be used in the analysis stage (Corbin & Strauss, 2015). Document analysis preceded the interviews and was used to obtain prior knowledge on the NPOs (e.g. fundraising, dissemination channels, communication with the public, and verification that they met the criteria). Some documents were also obtained from interviewees during or after the interviews.

The data were analyzed using content analysis techniques, more specifically thematic code (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Ryan & Bernard, 2003) with support from the NVivo 12 software, as it allows to add codes in different types of data (images, text, audio, etc.) and group the codes, creating an easier visualization of the content in each code, category, and/or theme. The four themes (NBO, antecedents, consequents, and barriers) were set previously as they were part of this research aim. In the coding process, the content was classified into categories based on the similarity of ideas and then grouped into themes.

The codification process started with the transcription, that was imported to NVivo 12, and proceeded with the verification of the transcribed data, written notes, and first impressions, grouping, and confrontation of categories, which were developed following an inductive approach (Boateng et al., 2018; Braun & Clarke, 2006; Flick, 2009; Ryan & Bernard, 2003). The research team was responsible to engage with the data and code. Then, codes were reviewed, confronted, and discussed by each of the authors, a PhD student, one specialist in qualitative review, and one specialist in the third sector, and discussed between them. The interviews were fully coded. Finally, the categories were then named and grouped (Braun & Clarke, 2006) into four themes: non-profit brand orientation (NBO), antecedents, outcomes, and barriers. Figure 9 illustrates the codification process.

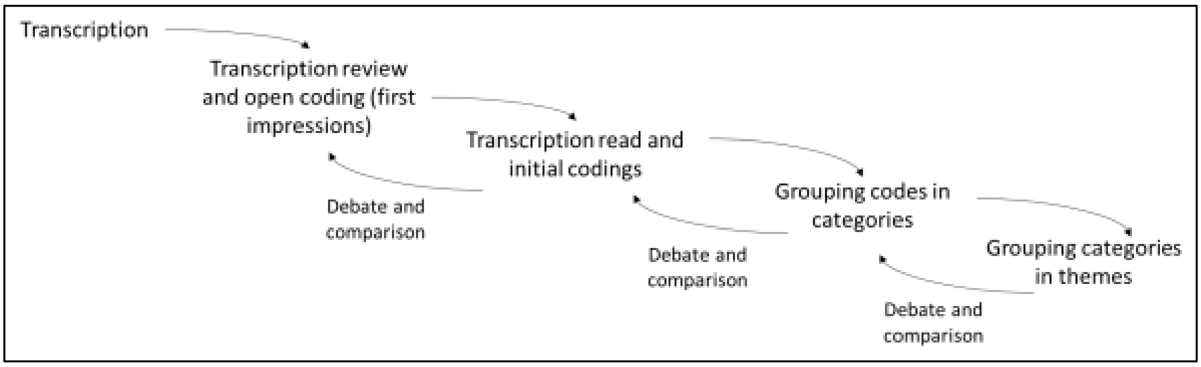


Figure 9: Coding process.
Source: Own elaboration.

### 4.3.2 Sample characterization

In terms of the sample, the NPO employees and volunteers worked at different hierarchical levels of the non-profit organization. It was interviewed 6 directors, 9 supervisors, and 8 assistants. Directors and supervisors had direct decision-making capabilities regarding de NPO brand, however. The different hierarchical levels were approached to achieve a better understanding of brand creation and development in all levels of the NPO.

Also, some of the researched organizations consisted mainly of volunteers, and they did not fully fit into a specific role for their work area. All the interviews lived in the southeast region of Brazil. Regarding the personal characteristics of the interviewees, 66% were women, mean age of 41 years old, and around 74% had undergraduate or post-graduate education. The volunteers and employees have been working in the NPO for 6 years on average.

## 4.4 FINDINGS

As a result of the data analysis, the four themes from the objective are explained in terms of their characteristics. First, we looked to the categories that shape NBO to understand how the brand is built internally by the organization and how the NBO strategy is applied. It is important to remember that NBO is built and developed inside the NPO. We found that nonprofit brand orientation can be explained as the NPO cause, mission, symbols, and the communication of these characteristics to the stakeholders. Looking backward to understand the drivers to implement the NBO, we found that the organization’s level of involvement with the community, added to its internal and external, such as staff training and the kind of the main sponsor (if the main funder is the government or private initiative), precede the NBO implementation and development.

In order to comprehend the results of NBO implementation, we found internal and external benefits for the NPO, expressed in terms of a better relationship with the staff, ease of conducting partnerships, the enhancement of reputation, and best organization performance. Finally, to understand the whole dynamic of NBO in an emerging country, the barriers to NBO were discussed in terms of the aversion to commercial practices, the cause's short-sightedness, the organizational culture, the difficulties imposed by the governmental system and legislation, and the lack of human and financial resources.

Some of these findings are not specific to emerging countries' contexts and is possible to see some similarities with the NBO application to developed countries (e.g., lack of resources, organization culture, communication, etc.). However, it is also important to highlight typical emerging countries' problems that were expressed as affecting NBO, such as the relationship with the government, the bureaucracy, and the instability of regulation. Besides that, these elements can interact with other reinforcing, for example, the cause's short-sightedness and the unbranded competition. The characteristics found could be seen in NPO's from different sectors and different sizes, which gives a broader report about NPOs realities. For example, the characteristic non-commercial mindset could be exemplified by a national and a local NPO that works in different sectors (NPO8 and NPO7). The findings and these relations are better explained in the following sections.

### 4.4.1 NBO in an emerging country

#### 4.4.1.1 Cause

The cause is one of the characteristics of NBO and is defined, in this study, as the deep understanding of the social gap that the NPO intends to fulfill to promote the creation and development of a non-profit brand reflecting the image of the NPO's cause. The deep understanding of the cause only happens if there is a clear understanding of the social gap or “the reason why the NPO exists” (E2, NPO1), as highlighted by an NPO’s employee. An understanding of the public that cares about the cause is also very important (Andreasen, 2012), as confirmed by an NPO’s employee: “So, I think you should really promote the cause to these people [who care about the cause] and also be able to identify your target audience by the cause” (E1, NPO1). Thus, the cause can be comprehended more easily by the stakeholders who are directly involved with it; as a donor said, they “hug the cause” (D8) and recognize the NPO brand image as a representation of the cause.

The better the brand represents the cause, the more likely the stakeholders are to associate the cause with the brand; therefore, the NPO acts as a good reference for that cause. This was related by an NPO’s employee as follows: “at some point, they needed [the NPO] and they were well attended. So, they decided on a way to show love for others doing volunteer work for the hospital” (E10, NPO5). It is also usual for stakeholders to identify with more than one cause, for which they can develop different emotional connections. An NPO’s employee expressed: “They [the animals] are the love of our life” (E11, NPO6). A donor exemplified the identification with more than one cause when explaining “usually you donate cash when you purely want to help, you do not know the organization in-depth, and you give personal help [donation of time] when you have more empathy with that idea [cause]” (D7). In this way, the NPO’s cause is a functional category of a non-profit’s brand and should be reflected as such (P. Hankinson, 2000; Urde, 1999). Thus, the clear definition of the case, and the niche in which the NPO will advocate, is the main point to orient the NPO’s brand.

### 4.4.1.2 Mission

The mission is defined in this study as the understanding of NPO's purpose, and the process implemented to achieve its goals, which should be based on its values and beliefs. The definition is in line with P. Hankinson (2001) to what brand orientation involves. If the cause is the "why" the NPO exists, the mission is related to what the NPO wants to achieve and how the organization intends to achieve it. A volunteer explained, "(…) this is the aim of the [NPO name] to develop the training of young business leaders to improve the business environment and consequently the [local] society. (…) So, forming these nine values [NPO values] in people through our training process is the key to this long-term engagement" (V4, NPO4). Other interviewees also explain what NPO is doing to achieve their goals and how, such as D7, E2, E5, E6, E8, PFP1, and V3. When questioned about what the name of the organization means to them, the interviewees usually answered in terms of the NPO's values, and employees from the same NPO had similar answers, such as "do your job ethically and with responsibility, respecting the people" (E7, NPO3) and "to be a good citizen within society, to have an ethical commitment to your colleagues" (E8, NPO3).

In addition, the NPO values were used to explain the organization's identity, as exemplified by a volunteer — "here we have an identity (…), which is the ability to dialogue with some of the organizational principles" (V8, NPO5) — and to justify their decisions on which services and products are offered by the organization and how, as explained by another volunteer— "the leadership has to be mixed! If you have a boy and a girl. Which we call the support for the education" (V2, NPO2). These points of how NPO acts according to its values and beliefs could be seen in the non-participant observations in the different NPO's visited (NPO1, NPO2, NPO3, NPO5, NPO6, NPO7, and NPO8).

Thus, the commitment to the mission from the stakeholders, putting the brand at the center of the organization, is an element that confirms the brand orientation and is linked with the symbolic attributes of non-profit brands (P. Hankinson, 2000). In this way, NPOs should orient the non-profit brand to reflect the organization's mission, as expressed in terms of the NPO's values but also in terms of how the NPO makes decisions about the products and services delivered.

#### 4.4.1.3 Symbols

The symbols of a brand-oriented NPO reflect its brand message. As a non-donor said, "the [NPO name], then you think what, ah turtle!" (ND2). In this NPO, it is aligned with its cause and mission, as an employee from this NPO explained: "the logo, it's a turtle, it's a sea turtle project, for sea turtle conservation" (E12, NPO8). In the non-participant observation was possible to see the logo and other symbols that represent NPO8 in many places of its head office. This was also confirmed in the document analysis.

A lack of clarity in the name, logo, and other symbols that refer to the NPO brand can lead, especially among the public, to a lack of comprehension of the NPO's cause and mission, affecting, for example, the level of donations received. Accordingly, a volunteer complained: "we receive a lot more donations for dogs than for cats, for example; our cats are a little forgotten" (V6, NPO6). However, the document analysis and the non-participant observation allowed us to see that the name and the slogan of the organization are generic in terms of which animals are supported and the logo creates direct identification with dogs and with the state in which the NPO operates. Thus, in terms of brand and symbols, the more direct the relationship between the symbols and the cause, the greater the correct association of the brand by the stakeholders and the stronger the brand orientation. These symbols should also be aligned with the mission to create an automatic association in stakeholders' minds.

#### 4.4.1.4 Communication

The last characteristic is named communication and is defined as the capability of the NPO to communicate effectively with its internal and external stakeholders to build a relationship and to align the understanding of the non-profit brand. Therefore, is the organization's ability to design and apply strategic communication. The definition is in line with Ewing and Napoli's (2005) and P. Hankinson's (2001) understanding of brand communication, besides here the communications is understood as a strategy that supports brand development. Communication disseminates the non-profit brand orientation among stakeholders, who learn about the non-profit brand in alignment with the cause, mission, and symbols. To achieve this, NPOs use a range of strategies, such as selling products, communicating through sites and social media (Hill, 2020; Nageswarakurukkal et al., 2020), promoting internal and external events, wearing uniforms, and allowing visits by the external public. As a donor reported, "It [the NPO] has a place where the [NPO's name]'s events and other events happen. So, everyone knows about the [NPO's name] in [place's name]" (D4).

A volunteer also said about selling products, “We try to make members have items and use them. Really ‘wear’ their pride of being part of the [NPO’s name]; it is a way to strengthen the brand internally” (V4, NPO4). The use of uniforms can also be considered a symbol of the NPO and seems to generate spontaneous communication of the brand, as argued by two staff members from different NPOs: “so when you use the uniform you are already promoting [the NPO]” (V2, NPO2), and “I always saw young people in uniforms. So, I said: one day it will be me!” (E6, NPO3). Thus, the communication allows not only the understanding of the brand and its orientation but also the creation and strengthening of links with the NPO.

### 4.4.2 NBO antecedents in an emerging country

#### 4.4.2.1 Internal factors

Regarding the antecedents of NBO, the characteristic named internal factors is related to the decisions taken by the organization to be brand oriented. How NPO managers deal with the brand, as well as their understanding of the brand, has a great deal of impact as they are the main group of influencers to drive NBO implementation (Apaydın, 2011; Evans et al., 2012; P. Hankinson, 2001). An NPO’s employee said, “so I started to introduce the [NPO’s name] brand, the [NPO’s name] image in these places” (E8, NPO3). On the other hand, NPO managers can understand the brand as a synonym of the logo or an “unnecessary thing” (V9, NPO7), as declared by a volunteer. In addition, non-participant observation and document analysis allowed us to note that NPO7 did not have any associated logo, neither a communication plan nor a brand development plan. This creates an adverse environment for the development of the non-profit brand orientation.

The organization's maturity is another internal factor that can influence the understanding of an NPO's mission and how to achieve it. This understanding can be better comprehended process as the organization matures and therefore becomes more brand oriented. A volunteer exemplifies, "At that time we did not have a very clear identity. (...) Not today, today we have a clear vision (…) We defend our general objectives, our nine values, our mission, and our vision; these are defined by statute" (V4, NPO4). It is observed that training influences the understanding of the brand by employees and volunteers. It helps to develop an organizational culture that supports the mission and vision of the organization, aligned with its brand (P. Hankinson, 2001; Huang & Tsai, 2013). An NPO's employee explained this relationship: "(...) they [the members] have the training, they are evaluated (...) This belief, you know, this way of acting is perpetuated" (E9, NPO2). However, training does not just involve delivering information to employees and volunteers; it should also assist in developing an understanding of the brand promises among the staff (King & Grace, 2010), thus building the NBO. The quality of training could be observed in NPO4 and NPO2 through document analysis.

#### 4.4.2.2 External factors

External factors force NPOs to adapt to a more adverse environment with fewer financial resources, more competition, and difficulties to address trust (Andion, 2020; Costa, 2016; P. Hankinson, 2000, 2001; I. Khan & Bashir, 2020), as related by an employee: "We have other non-profits that also work with [career] guidance [the same cause]" (E7, NPO3). This environment presses NPOs "to be more concerned with planning, with the support of their action" (PFP1), as argued by a for-profit organization employee. In addition, Brazil has been experiencing a deep economic crisis since 2014, and the NPO has been "facing a critical moment," as defined by an NPO employee (E14, NPO8). Adding to this is distrust of NPOs' performance, as a donor considered: "The NPO's names were diminished (…) and we are seeing many things happening, diminishing [the NPO image] even more" (D1). All these factors push NPOs to be concerned about being more brand oriented as they use brand-oriented activities "to set" (E7, NPO3) the brand image, "to build the relationship with the external public" (E3, NPO1), and "to give visibility to the institution" (E1, NPO1), as employees of different NPOs highlighted.

Furthermore, the NPOs that seemed to suffer the most from economic turbulence were those with principal funding from the government. A for-profit organization employee reported that "in Brazil, these institutions have developed largely based on the state, through public resources. (…) with low competition, based more on relationship, on networking, than effectively competitive products" (PFP1). Hence, these organizations were selected to receive financial resources mainly through bureaucratic processes or networking rather than through market laws (Sheth, 2011). The different sponsoring models can have different impacts on how NPOs perceive their brand and how they are pushed to compete for a target public (Evans et al., 2012). This is one of the characteristics that may affect NPO from emerging countries differently.

#### 4.4.2.3 Community involvement

Community involvement refers to the ability of an organization to involve the local community in the NPO's activities, even if its members are not the NPO's target public. The community that the NPO supports needs to be called to participate in the cause to recognize the NPO as an institution that delivers a social product or service. This is part not only of the society's knowledge of the brand but also of the recognition of the brand and the organization, as one volunteer highlighted: "If it [NPO] is involved with the community, the brand goes ahead; if it is not involved, then the brand is left behind" (V2, NPO2).

The involvement with the community is also seen as a success factor for brand consolidation, as pointed out by an NPO's employee: "So [the NPO brand] was consolidating given the honesty, seriousness, and community involvement" (E12, NPO8). To create the brand image, "For [the NPO] to be seen and they [the society] have an image 'you look for so-and-so', you look for that group over there that they will solve this problem" (V3, NPO2), as argued by a volunteer. The involvement is also a motivating factor to learn more about the organization's work and to engage with it. A non-donor said, "I think it should have this interaction, you know? Open to the public (...) I think that it should have a visitation center, easier, more attractive" (ND2). We could not find a mention in the literature of this characteristic before.

In short, internal and external factors drive the internal public, to be more brand oriented and community involvement drives the external public, to participate in the creation and development of the brand, which enables a favorable environment for the development of the NBO.

### 4.4.3 NBO outcomes in an emerging country

#### 4.4.3.1 Staff relationship

NBO can positively affect the relationship with the staff (employees or volunteers) as the complete understanding of the brand's values produces higher-quality services that reflect the organization's brand, as also found by G. Liu et al. (2015) and Piehler et al. (2016). As much as they understand the NPO's cause and mission, which are characteristics of NBO, what is higher is the sense of purpose, the engagement and commitment, and the perception of the benefits delivered by the organization to the society. The evidence of these behaviors can be seen in the statements, which were all declared by different staff members: "I do not come here just to teach how to make handicrafts. No, it has a purpose" (V1, NPO1); "I really advocate for [NPO's name], I will advocate until I can" (E5, NPO9); "(…) what does mean to be part of this? is to wear the black t-shirt [uniform] and be committed" (V7, NPO6); and, "so you see that you are helping (…) I would like everyone to have the opportunity to pass through here" (E6, NPO3). In this way, staff members recognized their work as "gratifying" (E1, NPO1), "motivating" (E3, NPO1), and working "positively on the lives of people and animals" (E13, NPO8). In parallel, Casidy (2013a) suggested that the brand orientation strategy in a church positively influences the perception of benefits to non-regular and regular churchgoers.

Besides, the staff service involvement, which is the consistency between the staff service and the brand standards (G. Liu et al., 2015), was demonstrated when different employees from the same organization gave similar answers while discussing how they sold the NPO's products (NPO8) or described how the NPO carried out its work (NPO3). This alignment is also apparent from the brand orientation in the context of a hotel (King et al., 2013). The organization's name, which is one of the brand symbols, also reflects feelings such as “I’m proud of being here” (E6, NPO3) and “it is a family” (E14, NPO8), showing positive emotions and, in most cases, a strong link with the organization and with the cause (G. Liu et al., 2015). A volunteer explained, “I like this part of being involved with the animals, the concern with the environment and such things” (V6, NPO6).

#### 4.4.3.2 Partners

Building strong non-profit brands can result in the easing of establishing partnerships, mainly with for-profit companies, as the associations of the brands can generate mutual benefits (Cooke, 2010). As an example of partnership, an NPO’s employee explained: “The company [for-profit] can provide services, products, and cash to the [non-profit] institution. In return (…), it will use the [NPO’s name] brand, the [NPO’s name] logo there, as a company that contributes to the institution” (E3, NPO1).

However, for for-profit companies to join, they need a counterpart, as a non-donor and owner of a for-profit company explained: “many people who ask for donations I do not think will give me a return” (ND1). Nevertheless, this does not mean that sporadic help cannot happen, which would be motivated by the local society’s NPO brand recognition; a volunteer (V5, NPO6) said, “we don’t have a partnership agreement,” but she also talked about some influencers and companies that help, especially based on the NPO’s needs, due to its work on social media. The document analysis of NPO6 revealed that this NPO is very engaged in Instagram and Facebook, confirming these informal partnerships. In this way, to establish partnerships, although it is important to NPOs to have strong brands, it is also important to have an alignment of the non-profit brand with the partner's brand to generate mutual benefits (Herlin, 2015; Newmeyer & Ruth, 2020; Tofighi et al., 2020), which become easier to access when an NBO is more established.

#### 4.4.3.4 Reputation

In the responses to the interviews, the idea of the NPO in the mind of stakeholders was referred to as reputation, which seems to be related to organizations' values and consistency in delivering the social product, which are aspects related to the mission characteristic of NBO. Thus, NPOs' associations with terms such as "credibility" (V2, NPO2), "seriousness" (D4), "respectability" (V4, NPO4), "trust" (D5), and "seeing [the effectiveness of the donation]" (D6), as declared by staff members of NPOs, seem to be apparent when the organizations keep their social promises and provide consistent delivery of their social product. These create the social value of organizations, which is expressed through the brand (Tilley, 1999), as a for-profit organization employee pointed out: "for any result, for any brand, they [the NPO] have to deliver. (...) so those who receive will spread and [the NPO] will be known to deliver" (PFP1). In addition, when questioned about how important the brand is to the organization, a volunteer explained: "I understand that there is growing respectability due to the consistency of delivery that [NPO's name] had with the past stakeholders" (V4, NPO4).

Effective communication through the brand, which is also a characteristic of NBO, to the stakeholders is crucial as "what makes a social organization have the brand recognized are the actions. So, if it shows their achievements, their brand will be recognized" (ND2), as highlighted by a non-donor. In the long run, feedback to the stakeholders reinforced the perceived efficiency of NPOs, which is one of the aspects of brand image (Michel & Rieunier, 2012). Thus, NBO can improve an NPO's esteem and reputation (Apaydın, 2011).

#### 4.4.3.5 Performance indicators

Performance indicators, in this study, are understood as the abilities of an organization to improve its donations, mobilize people around the cause, diversify its fundraising sources, achieve its goals, and develop a strong brand. As an NPO develops its brand, it gains credibility among the donors, as observed by an NPO's employee: "they even say, since it is to [NPO's name], you don't even have to talk so much; I completely agree" (E2, NPO1). This credibility also helps to bring people together around the cause as "quickly everybody gets together, and [the NPO] receives a lot of donations. Why? Because people see [the NPO's] work" (V2, NPO2), explained a volunteer. In addition, some causes seem to have more "natural appeal" to the public, and NBOs can potentialize it through their brands. As a donor said, "people are more likely to donate because of their [NPO] credibility and for what they do. Right, it is mainly [cause] too, so the brand in that sense is worth it" (D1).

In this way, as much as an NPO perceives itself as a brand, it starts to use the brand not just to draw funding but also to diversify its sources, as highlighted by an NPO's employee, "so that we can move towards building self-sustainability" (E2, NPO1). One important point is to ensure that these new sources align with the organization's values (Tilley, 1999). An NPO's employee explained that "it is not just to sell a t-shirt; it is to sell an idea of conservation [of the environment]" (E14, NPO8).

Finally, the adoption of the NBO strategy can develop a strong brand (P. Hankinson, 2001), which can lead the organization to be recognized as a benchmark in its cause, increasing the gains of brand orientation but also improving the demand from society for that NPO. As an NPO's employee exemplified: "People call here 'what do I do with the tortoise?'; sometimes they ask for veterinary consultation even for a tortoise, I say 'sorry, but I don't know!' So, it's a reference, right?! (...) so they [people] come here to learn more and then they demand more too, so we have to stay connected always to serve this audience." (E13, NPO8). The cause of NPO8 is to protect sea turtles, and this organization is a benchmark in Brazil.

### 4.4.4 NBO barriers in an emerging country

#### 4.4.4.1 Non-commercial mindset

NPOs try to avoid practices or strategies that appear to be very "commercial" or targeted at making a profit (Stride & Lee, 2007). These were called, in this study, non-commercial mindset characteristics as "they arose in an environment where it was forbidden to make a profit" (PFP1), according to a for-profit organization employee. However, it is not just NPO managers who have this mindset; donors also do not seem to like any strategies associated with "being more commercial" as "people [can say]: oh, I'm not going to help them because they have money to make advertise" (D5), endorsing this perspective.

When asked about the idea of a franchise, a non-profit brand NPO's employee answered, "(…) it is not a thing, there is a story behind each product. So, if you are going to make a franchise, go to the store, you will lose this essence" (E12, NPO8). Some of the organizations do not even see themselves as businesses because other businesses “sell products, objects or something (…) [for] own profit purposes” (V6, NPO6) and they are not selling their cause, as pointed out by a volunteer. Brand terminology is not well accepted either, as Stride and Lee (2007) found. In some cases, the organization’s brand is useless: a volunteer said, “these things are not necessary” (V9, NPO7), and a donor declared “we can’t link the NPO’s brand or name to the work” (D2). However, this objection to business practices and to recognizing the non-profit brand can lead an NPO to avoid marketing strategies as NBO.

#### 4.4.4.2 Causes’ short-sightedness

Causes’ short-sightedness—keeping their focus on the short-term aspects of the cause and avoiding long-term strategies—was shown to be NPOs’ propensity. As these organizations do not perceive themselves as a business, they are “blinded” by the cause, falling into the trap of putting all their resources into trying to solve a social problem (cause) in the short term to the detriment of their long-term capabilities. A volunteer provided an example: “our [NPO] priority is to buy medicine for sick dogs” (V6, NPO6).

The excessive focus on the short term was proposed by Wong and Merrilees (2005). We found two points that may enhance causes’ short-sightedness. The first is the feeling associated with the organization’s work, which can contribute to the organization making more decisions based on feelings than on strategy, as an NPO employee reported: “the person [manager] even says: I don’t want to keep in touch with it [strategic planning], [what we have] it is enough to pay the bills” (E2, NPO1). Therefore, as they do not think in terms of business strategies, they also neglect branding and brand orientation. The second point is the “perception of need”, which arises when an NPO asks for specific donations (related to short-term problems) or an emergency (for example, a natural disaster) occurs. This is followed by an improvement in donations (usually goods). A volunteer explained one of these episodes— “It was something like that, surreal! But if you know how much we won [a lot]!” (V7, NPO6)—and a donor justified this with “we always donate, someone asks and then we are touched” (D3). Consequently, these factors lead the NPO to focus more on the short term, reflected in the cause’s short-sightedness, and hamper long-term strategies like NBO.

#### 4.4.4.3 Communication challenges

Communication is a central point in NBOs’ strategy (Nageswarakurukkal et al., 2020; Reid et al., 2005; Renton et al., 2016; Sepulcri, Mainardes, & Belchior, 2020; Stride & Lee, 2007). However, implementing a brand strategic communication, with a purposeful and alignment message, also seems to be the main challenge as an NPO’s employee reported that “[the NPOs are] in more than 25 places in Brazil, in 9 Brazilian states (…) So a barrier that we have for the dissemination of images, actions, everything we do is just that” (E13, NPO8). In this way, as an NPO grows, keeping the message aligned among the stakeholders can become even more difficult due to the resulting increase in the organization’s complexity (Evans et al., 2012). Potential donors can also have trouble seeing the effectiveness of results and understanding the NPO’s mission, and non-donors argued that “when [the NPOs] are small, everyone can see inside (…) when they are very big, they become a complex organization” (ND1) and “I don’t know if they [bigger NPOs] use money as well as smaller ones” (ND2). All this noise in communication affects the effectiveness of NBO as maintaining consistency in communication among stakeholders is a characteristic of NBO.

Still, most of the organizations interviewed did not have a communication sector to promote the NPO internally and externally, neither a public relation nor a marketing department. And align the organization's communication strategies, as an NPO's employee highlighted: "This part of communication today within the institution does not work well; we do not have a person responsible for communication (...). I think the [NPO's name] shows very little of what it does and does a lot" (E10, NPO5). In the case of NPO5, the communication, especially through digital channels was done by the information technology (IT) sector, as seen in the non-participating observations. Thus, due to the difficulties involved even in communicating their results, NPOs' social work is sometimes criticized as being not very effective. The challenges in establishing effective communication among the stakeholders, not just about an NPO's cause and mission but also about its performance, can be a barrier to implementing NBO and can hinder the full achievement of NBO outcomes.

#### 4.4.4.4 Organizational culture

Regarding the organizational culture, two main points emerge. The first is the resistance to change, mainly among older staff members, as highlighted by an NPO's employee: "as things are changing, some things are not very well accepted by the old ones" (E3, NPO1). The second point is the difficulty for NPOs to become more professional in terms of management and process, even though professionalization is an issue that has been discussed recently, as expressed by an NPO's employee: "the issue of professionalization has been talked about a lot [at events and conferences] and has become more urgent [in the NPO]" (E2, NPO1). However, "professionalization in the third sector is incipient," as another NPO's employee (E4) assumed.

This more "cautious culture" (P. Hankinson, 2001), which seems like resistance to change, can work as a barrier to the implementation of NBO. Therefore, if it is not part of a social organization's culture to prioritize brand strategies, when these start to be implemented, some groups are resistant to this change (Gyrd-Jones et al., 2013). Further, some managers, as they are not specialized in this area, do not comprehend the importance of branding and its potential benefits (Chad, Kyriazis, & Motion, 2013), leaving these strategies behind or seeing them more as costs than as investments (Veljković & Kaličanin, 2016; Wong & Merrilees, 2008).

#### 4.4.4.5 Trammels of government

The government can work as the sponsor of an NPO, but it can also create barriers to the development of NPOs' social work and brand. This contradiction is due to the changes and excess of exceptions in legislation (Sheth, 2011), which can directly influence NPOs' social work as "at the same time that it [legislation] exists doing the [NPO] program, other laws are being created and coming into conflict" (E8, NPO3), affirmed an NPO's employee. Another issue is bureaucratic barriers. In the interviews, many employees and volunteers related the difficulty inherent in registering the organization and accessing tax advantages.

As an example, a non-donor stated that it is difficult to donate and receive the tax deduction in return: “He [his accountant] spent two years in the process to [an NPO] be able to issue [the invoice] and make this [donation] happen; he didn’t succeed and the [non-profit] company ended (…). Otherwise, we will donate and pay around 30% over the donation” (ND1). Thus, this bureaucratic and unstable environment harms the NPO’s implementation of long-term strategies as the resources necessary to resolve these issues could be diverted to implementing NBO and increasing its outcomes. This point seems to be a peculiarity of emerging countries due to their economic characteristics.

The last point is the idea of unbranded competition (Sheth, 2011) applied to public resources. As public resources come from public notices or political relations, there is no incentive for brand development. As a donor explained, NPOs’ difficulties in accessing public resources are that they “are very bureaucratic, and also their [politicians’] willingness really to give us a financial resource” (D7).

#### 4.4.4.6 Lack of resources

Lack of resources is one of the main justifications given by the interviewees for not implementing many strategies as “we have certain limitations there, not perhaps because of a lack of initiative or a lack of vision, but because of a lack of financial means to support each initiative of this” (V8, NPO5). Along with the lack of financial resources, more people are failing to plan and implement the intended projects, as an NPO’s employee explained: “I can’t stop and sit to plan like ‘no, now I’m going to set up a project to ask for this, this and that’ (…) because we don’t have enough people” (E12). This is a problem in accessing not just public funds but also private ones as NPOs usually need to apply for available funds, but they “don’t have time” (V8, NPO5) as pointed out by a volunteer.

Beyond the restrictions of money and human capital (Sarikaya & Buhl, 2021; Wong & Merrilees, 2005), NPOs face difficulties in appointing skilled professionals, as discussed concerning the organization culture characteristic, and this was reinforced by an NPO staff member’s statement: “I go to the computer myself; I like to research” (E5, NPO9) and “we try, it is by attempt” (V3, NPO2). This was also perceived as a barrier by a government employee: “(…) it changes [the team] and does not know the importance of reading, of appropriating contractual issues, of what can, what cannot” (PG1). In this way, this lack of resources traps these NPOs into performing basic daily tasks and neglecting branding strategies (Cant et al., 2013), both because they do not understand branding strategies and their benefits and because they do not know how to implement these long-term strategies due to limitations of investments and people.

## 4.5 DISCUSSION

In short, the findings explain the characteristics that set the NBO strategy in an emerging country and add characteristics to this strategy’s antecedents, consequences, and barriers. The four characteristics of brand orientation found in this study are in line with the qualitative findings of P. Hankinson (2001). The author conceptualized nonprofit brand orientation in four dimensions: understanding the brand, communicating the brand, using the brand as a strategic resource, and managing the brand deliberately and actively. However, in this study understanding the brand is specifically understanding the cause, that should be reflected by the brand. Thus, to create the brand is first necessary to understand what the NPO stands for and how it going to do this, what we called mission. From that knowledge the symbols can be created and then, all this should be communicated strategically.

Regarding NBO, the results added to Ewing and Napoli's (2005) model the discussion on creating a non-profit brand based on the main purpose of an NPO, which is the social gap that it sets out to fill, that is, the understanding of its social function and the focus on a social problem. This aspect is captured mainly by the cause and, according to the definition by P. Hankinson (2000), the cause makes up the non-profit brand. If the cause represents the reason for the NPO's existence, the mission refers to how the organization makes decisions and how it expects to achieve its social goals. Cause and mission in this study can be compared with understanding the brand and using the brand as managing the brand actively and deliberately, proposed by P. Hankinson (2001). Even so, "managing the brand actively" is also linked with strategic communication of the brand in our understanding.

Connected to the cause and mission, the brand symbols should reflect this understanding. However, more than the logo, everything that represents the non-profit brand message can be understood as a symbol. The results showed that to complete the cycle of creating, developing, and protecting a non-profit brand (Urde, 1999), it is essential to strategically communicate the cause and the mission associated with the symbols to all stakeholders, ensuring that the right message, framed in the right way (Fisher & Hopp, 2020), is aligned among them in all the touchpoints of the brand. The brand communication strategy should match the strategy set to the brand, not just aiming to inform but to create a connection with the stakeholders, adding value to the brand (Fisher & Hopp, 2020; Zerfass et al., 2018). Therefore, the communication strategy is the "glue" in nonprofit branding, connecting the cause, mission, and symbols appropriately. Therefore, the characteristics of Symbols and Communication, found in this study, can be compared with communicating the brand and using it as a strategic resource, found as NBO concepts by P. Hankinson (2001). But the use as a strategic resource, in our knowledge, also consists in creating the symbols necessary to transmit the message of the brand.

Regarding the antecedents of the NBO strategy, internal and external factors (Apaydın, 2011; Evans et al., 2012) were discussed in more detail in this study, considering, in addition to the manager experiences, the importance of training and maturity of the NPO in the development of NBO. Relating to external factors, especially the kind of main sponsor (public or private) can exert an impact on decisions to invest in brand strategies (Evans et al., 2012). In Brazil, the brand does not seem to influence access to public resources; however, in the private sector, the credibility associated with a non-profit brand seems to influence partnerships. Furthermore, investment decisions are taken by managers, who must understand and support branding, disseminating the brand values through the organization's processes and beyond the organization's limits to strengthen the NPO brand internally and externally.

Another issue that seems to influence the concern with brand strategies is community involvement, which means the involvement with the community around the NPO area and beyond to the beneficiaries of the social organization, creating a "social license" (PFP1) whereby the NPO acts, as highlighted by an employee of a for-profit organization.  Besides the interview that was made before the COVID-19 crisis started, the importance of external factors and community involvement to NPO were highlighted during this time. Andion (2020) relates the force and organization of local groups in collective actions to find innovative solutions, even in an uncoordinated way, to assist especially the most vulnerable communities. The author also related the conflicts with the government in an “escalating authoritarianism, lack of transparency and political polarization”. How some of these aspects can act as a barrier is discussed in the following paragraphs.

Relating to the NBO outcomes, the staff relationship is a consequence of investments in promoting the non-profit brand message and values in the internal stakeholders, which generates alignment between the NPO brand and the staff behavior (King et al., 2013; G. Liu et al., 2015) and reinforces the identity of the brand (Garg et al., 2019). Externally, the image of the non-profit brand can enhance its reputation. This is particularly important as reputation by itself is an outcome, but a good reputation can also have a positive effect by enhancing staff relationships, improving, for example, engagement. It can also facilitate partnerships, not just because the partners are more likely to trust the NPO (Fisher & Hopp, 2020) but also because the association of the brands can bring mutual benefits (Cooke, 2010). As a direct consequence of NBO and the effect of the characteristics discussed, the performance indicators are likely to improve. However, for NPOs, performance indicators are not just related to the number of donations, volunteers, or beneficiaries, for example; they are also related to how successful the non-profit organization is in affecting the social problem that it targets (Andreasen, 2012; Napoli, 2006). Thus, NPOs’ success or good performance is closely linked with their cause and mission.

The barriers found can hinder the implementation of NBO and the full achievement of the outcomes. Characteristics such as a non-commercial mindset, the cause's short-sightedness, and the organizational culture have already been explored in the literature (Chad, Kyriazis et al., 2013; D. Lee & Markham, 2015; Stride & Lee, 2007; Wong & Merrilees, 2005). Regarding the cause's short-sightedness, two issues are important to enlarge the discussion about the focus on the short term: decision making based on feelings instead of strategic planning and the "perception of need." Both can be found in the Brazilian context. Additionally, the aversion to appearing too commercial by implementing a branding strategy and the resistance to change can contribute to reinforcing the trap of focusing on the short term.

Regarding the trammels of government, on the one hand, NPOs understand bureaucracy and changes in legislation as instability, making the development of long-term strategies difficult and reinforcing causes' short-sightedness. Recent democracies as Brazil and emerging markets in general, still suffer from the instability of governments, as discussed before, which can affect the establishment of NPO in the long term (Andion, 2020; Casey, 2016). Besides, as the relationship with the government is given through public notices, there is no incentive for brand development, in addition to the resistance associated with commercial practices and branding. On the other hand, NPOs often lack expertise in accessing the available resources (public or private) and investing in strategies that add value to their stakeholders, such as NBO, which contributes to worsening their lack of financial resources. Finally, in terms of added value for stakeholders, consistent brand communication is a key feature, but this task is even harder to achieve if there is a lack of understanding about the brand or if there are no clear performance measures. Also, here, the "perception of need" can direct the communication more to inform the organization's needs than to frame a communication that impacts the development of the brand. To summarize the dimensions and characteristics, Figure 10 presents the suggested relationships between them.

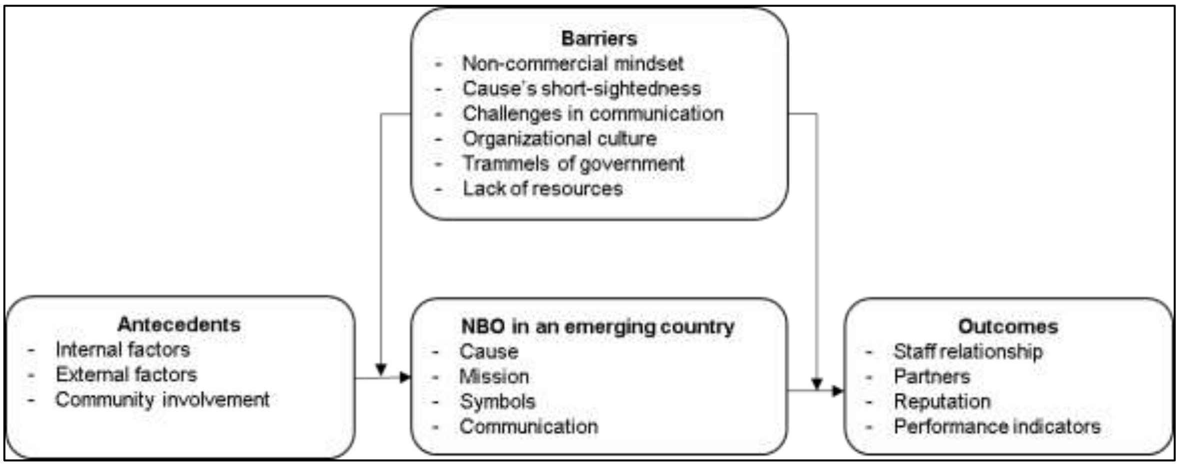


Figure 10: Proposed relationship between themes and categories
Note: Each theme (NBO in an emerging country, outcomes, antecedents, and barriers) was represented by the associated categories in the same square.
Source: Own elaboration.

Thus, the proposed model identifies the characteristics of each dimension. Although some of them have already been identified in the literature, it is important to highlight the aspects that form each characteristic as the research has enlarged this discussion. As an innovation, our research considers that especially in an emerging country, the social and economic conditions seem to contribute to (1) the lack of stability in the NPO environment, (2) the excessive focus on the short term, (3) the unbranded competition, and (4) the importance of community involvement.

## 4.6 CONCLUSIONS

This study concluded that NBO in an emerging economy context, with a focus on Brazil, is represented by four main characteristics: cause, mission, symbols, and communication. In addition, as antecedents of NBO, the study identified internal factors, external factors, and community involvement, which have four characteristics as outcomes: staff relationships, partners, reputation, and performance indicators. However, the barriers found can hinder both the implementation of NBO and the full achievement of the outcomes. The barriers were grouped into six characteristics: non-commercial mindset, the cause's short-sightedness, communication challenges, the organizational culture, trammels of government, and a lack of resources.

This research extended beyond other models that have not explored all of these or that have focused on a specific sector and well-developed countries (Evans et al., 2012; Ewing & Napoli, 2005; P. Hankinson, 2000, 2001). It is important to highlight that strategic communication is essential to support the organization's strategy, leading the nonprofit organization to successfully fulfill its mission (Zerfass et al., 2018). Thus, our findings demonstrate that communication is intrinsically linked to the branding strategy. Without focused and carefully thought-out communication for the promotion and development of the brand, it becomes very difficult for the organization to achieve the necessary alignment to successfully fulfill its mission. In this way, communication explains, in part, the nonprofit brand orientation strategy, which must be communicated at different hierarchical levels, inside and outside the NPO. Therefore, strategic communication is the factor that unites the cause, mission, and symbols of the brand, reflecting the brand orientation strategy.

It is important to highlight that some characteristics found here have not been explored as NBO drivers. Our findings corroborate with the literature about the internal organizations' drivers to implement NBO but innovate to contemplate the peculiarities of emerging countries as the political and economic unstable system should be considered as affecting the brand development. Also, the need of being involved with the local community seems to be and key success factor to develop and consolidate de brand. The results suggest that the implementation of NBO can lead to gains in performance and reputation, facilitating partnerships and enhancing the relationship between the staff and the NPO.

As a characteristic of emerging countries, the dual role of the government can be an important source of resources as a sponsor and act as a barrier in terms of brand development, in this case, due to the unbranded competition (Sheth, 2011). Thus, this research explored the peculiarities related to the dynamics with the government and with society, proposing the perception of need, the non-commercial mindset, also from the donor's perspective, and the difficulties in communication and in applying NBO for different (but linked) reasons.

This understanding can orient managers toward the drivers to implement NBO and the many barriers faced. Thus, the research showed it to be necessary for managers to acknowledge the NBO practices, contributing to the understanding of the organization's core purposes and the alignment with the communication of its objectives, attitudes, and activities to multiple stakeholders. The research extended to raising awareness of the importance of implementing branding in NPOs as it can improve their positive impact on society, especially in economies such as Brazil, where these organizations are more necessary.

In terms of limitations, this qualitative study considered just one country (Brazil) and a small sample. The sample was concentrated on internal stakeholders (employees, volunteers) since the NBO strategy is developed internally in the organization. However, other researchers can focus more on non-donors to understand the barriers to donating. Accordingly, the findings cannot be generalized to the context of all emerging countries, and, as Brazil is a country of continental proportions with different realities in each region, the findings may differ depending on the region researched. Furthermore, due to the nature of qualitative research, more studies in emerging countries, including Brazil, are required to corroborate the discussion of the results and the proposals regarding the relationships between the themes and the categories.

Thus, case studies to compare the findings among different NPOs, in different places, or specific non-profit sectors would be welcome. Despite the barriers suggested in the results, it is important to study further the present ways of overcoming these limitations, using, for example, social media channels as an alternative for low-cost communication with stakeholders. Another issue concerns how brand-oriented NPOs measure their outcomes, like performance, which can be very different than those of for-profit organizations, as proposed by Andreasen (2012). In addition, in the results, some factors, such as size, maturity, and the kind of the main sponsor (public or private), can influence NBO. This hypothesis can be explored further, especially in quantitative studies, with large samples to allow generalizations. Besides that, the proposed model could be tested empirically, especially in BRICS countries, due to the requirement for more general models. Cases of rebranding could also be investigated further, presenting, for example, different barriers and antecedents.

**Chapter 5**

# 5 ELEMENTS THAT COMPOSE THE NON-PROFIT BRAND ORIENTATION IN AN EMERGING COUNTRY

## 5.1 INTRODUCTION

The growth of the third sector around the world has increased competition for financial resources and volunteers (Apaydın, 2011; Casey, 2016; Randle et al., 2013). The global crisis resulting from COVID-19 has emphasized the importance of the performance of the third sector, particularly in serving the most vulnerable populations. The crisis helped drive increased donations to the third sector. In Brazil, which faces structural problems, donations from the private sector raised more than BRL 6 billion for this cause to July 2020 (Brazilian Association of Fund Raisers, 2021). The lack of a culture of giving, economic crises, and distrust of civil society organizations, here termed non-profit organizations (NPOs), has led these organizations to seek alternatives to face the challenges. Associations with the private sector, with governments, and/or with other third sector organizations, attracting volunteers and adopting marketing strategies, have proved to be efficient ways to face these barriers (Institute for the Development of Social Investment [IDIS], 2020; Richelieu & Korai, 2012; Sheth, 2011).

In this context, NPOs can give donors the confidence to make more donations, improve communication about the social results achieved and foster partnerships with other institutions by implementing a non-profit brand orientation strategy - NBO (IDIS, 2020; Garg et al., 2019; Laidler-Kylander & Simonin, 2009; L. C. da Silva et al., 2020; Venable et al., 2005). This strategy involves the brand as the center of the organization and can be understood as the degree to which nonprofit organizations consider themselves a brand (P. Hankinson, 2000; Urde, 1994, 1999). On the basis of previous qualitative analysis (Sepulcri, Mainardes, & Pascuci, 2020), our study grouped and systematized the elements that make up non-profit brand orientation in an emerging country, defining the constructs that reflect this strategy, as well as the elements that precede non-profit brand orientation, and the consequences and barriers to the implementation of this strategy. In this case, the country studied was Brazil.

Our study is theoretically justified in that it seeks to understand empirically how the peculiarities of developing economies affect non-profit brand orientation, and its causes and benefits, as well as the challenges to the implementation of this strategy. This is rare, as most studies of this nature are concentrated in developed countries (Anees-ur-Rehman et al., 2016; Sepulcri, Mainardes, & Belchior, 2020). The third sector is even more necessary in developing economies due to their social deficiencies. For example, in Brazil, in 2018, there were more than seven hundred and eighty thousand formally registered civil society organizations (Lopez, 2018). Understanding NBO can help managers of NPOs to better apply a brand-central strategy, with greater social impact, and favoring success in fulfilling their missions.

Our research expands the investigation of concepts that can be added to previous research (Apaydın, 2011; Evans et al., 2012; Ewing & Napoli, 2005; P. Hankinson, 2001) and can be applied in distinct non-profit sectors. This is because, whereas our study intends to be more general, previous studies that set out to understand or measure non-profit brand orientation, considering its background and barriers, kept the focus on a specific sector, such as museums (Evans et al., 2012), or lack empirical tests for the proposed relationships (for example, Apaydın, 2011).

# 5.2 LITERATURE REVIEW

## 5.2.1 Third sector in emerging economies

Emerging markets still suffer from economic and social issues, such as a high level of corruption, instability in legislation, lack of qualified labor, and insufficient basic social services (Casey, 2016; Ernst et al., 2015; Kuti, 1999; Richelieu & Korai, 2012). Understanding the particularities of these markets is important for the success of the organizations that operate in them, and for the adaptation of marketing strategies that differ from those in developed markets, whether for cultural, social or economic reasons (Bevilacqua et al., 2020; Casey, 2016; Moraes & Strehlau, 2020; Paul, 2020; Sheth, 2011). The political and economic aspects of emerging countries also impact the relationship between the non-profit and the public sector. Some of these countries, including Brazil, just recently experienced a transition to democracy, although this transition has not been fully consolidated in some of them (Casey, 2016, 2020). Non-profit organizations are based on independent civil society organization; thus, it is required to its development the legitimacy of the state and a certain degree of freedom to not be considered as a clandestine opposition network (Casey, 2020; Toepler et al., 2020).

NPOs in emerging markets have reached areas that were previously inaccessible and fulfilled their mission through innovative solutions (Sheth, 2011, Shankar & Narang, 2019). For example, according to the Best NGOs Guide 2018 (Doar Institute, 2018), of the NPOs which won the 100 best non-governmental organizations award in 2018 (an award recognizing the 100 best Brazilian NPOs based on third sector excellence practices), 27 NPOs were linked to social assistance; that is, they worked with vulnerable communities. One of these was

Artemisia, which promotes social businesses, supporting "businesses aimed at the population in a situation of economic vulnerability, which create solutions for socio-environmental problems" (Artemisia, 2020). Such solutions are created in environments with limited resources and need to solve specific problems at a low cost (Shankar & Narang, 2019).

In Brazil, a non-profit organization is defined as a private non-profit organization, legally constituted from a voluntary initiative and self-managed (IPEA, 2021). It means that any free person can start an NPO. Also, the Brazilian NPOs are categorized in social assistance; employers, professionals, and rural producer associations; culture and recreation; defence of rights and interests; education and research; housing; environment and animal protection; health; religion; and others. In 2020, most of them were categorized as defence of rights and interests (45.5%), religion (20.4%) and culture and recreation (11.9%), according to IPEA (2021).

Despite the importance of NPO in so many different areas, these organizations suffer from lack of trust, especially after corruption episodes involving Brazilian government and some NPOs (see Hopstein and Peres, 2021). However, many efforts in terms of regulation have been made to enhance transparency and accountability in the third sector, especially in Brazil, and online and local funds started to grow to support these organizations and their initiatives (Hopstein & Peres, 2021).

The financing of these third sector organizations is usually through donations, independent volunteers, and partnerships with public and private for-profit organizations (Casey, 2016), and so, in order to achieve their objectives, NPOs must use marketing strategies to improve fundraising in regards to human and financial resources (Ernst et al., 2015; Richelieu & Korai, 2012; Sheth, 2011; L. C. da Silva et al., 2020). These strategies can be seen, for example, in the context of donors. Mainardes, Laurett et al. (2017) found that the brand of a non-profit organization tends to influence Brazilian donors of goods and money to make their donations.

A brand's influence is related to variables such as the understanding of the brand, past credibility, and transparency (Mainardes, Laurett et al., 2017). Such variables were tested by Garg et al. (2019), who developed a model to measure brand effectiveness, based on a sample from India, which is also considered an emerging country. According to the findings, the brand of non-profit organizations in India proved to be an important tool, both for fundraising and for fulfilling the NPO's mission (Garg et al., 2019).

Reinforcing the importance of the brands to NPOs in emerging countries, Maleki and Hosseini (2020) found that consumer-brand engagement is a predictor of intention to donate via m-payment apps in Iran. This shows the importance of brands in online environments as well, which justifies the NPO brand research in emerging countries.

### 5.2.2 Brand and brand orientation

As a strategic attribute, a brand goes beyond graphic symbols; it represents an organization's promise and how it generates value for its audience (Urde, 1999; Tilley, 1999). Thus, brand orientation is based on creating, developing, and protecting the organization's brand (Urde, 1994, 1999). In this strategy, the brand is seen as the center of the organization and as a driver of decision-making by the organization (Urde, 1994, 1999).

However, although a brand is considered strategic, it is still not always considered at all levels of organizations' marketing strategies (Cant et al., 2013). The application of a brand orientation strategy has been shown to positively affect organizational aspects such as brand performance (Y. Chang et al., 2018; Laukkanen et al., 2013; Wong & Merrilees, 2015), brand value (Baumgarth & Schmidt, 2010; Zhang et al., 2016), employee commitment (King & So, 2015; G. Liu et al., 2015), consumer engagement (Wirtz et al., 2013), and organizational performance (G. Liu et al., 2015; Wong & Merrilees, 2015).

### 5.2.3 Brand orientation in the third sector

From the perspective of non-profit organizations, the brand also represents the cause defended by that organization (P. Hankinson, 2000). A non-profit brand orientation strategy is linked to a brand's understanding and communication, the use of the brand as a strategic resource, and the deliberate and active management of that resource (P. Hankinson, 2001). As NBO focuses on developing the brands of these organizations (P. Hankinson, 2001), it can have influence, for example, in partnerships with for-profit organizations looking for NPO brands that share their values to develop a cause-related marketing strategy (S. C. Silva, Duarte, Machado, & Martins, 2020).

Ewing and Napoli (2005) proposed a model to measure NBO based on interaction, which is linked to an organization's dialogue with stakeholders and the ability to adapt to the environment; orchestration, which is linked to communication alignment both internally and externally; and affection, related to understanding stakeholder satisfaction with the organization. By qualitatively analyzing the elements that form brand orientation in Brazil, Sepulcri, Mainardes and Pascuci (2020) perceived variables related to communication, management, and brand understanding, and added variables to these elements such as communication of the social results achieved, responding to market changes, and brand-focused training for NPO employees and volunteers. Sepulcri, Mainardes and Pascuci (2020) also suggested variables related to brand creation (Urde, 1999), such as logo, name, and other symbols, which should reflect the mission, the cause, and the values of an NPO, thus making up the non-profit brand orientation, according to the same authors. In summary, the authors found 28 variables that compose the NBO. This set of variables were evaluated by four scholars, reducing to a final set of 24 variables, which can be seen in the appendix C.

### 5.2.4 Antecedents, consequents and barriers to brand orientation in the third sector

The antecedents of brand orientation can be attributed to factors internal to a non-profit organization, such as the personal views of managers, their experience with brand management, leadership, resources to implement the brand strategy and organizational culture (Apaydın, 2011; Evans et al., 2012; P. Hankinson, 2001). There are also external factors, such as direct and indirect competition, types of financing, and environmental factors (Apaydın, 2011; Evans et al., 2012; P. Hankinson, 2001), which mean NPOs need to differentiate themselves from others through their brand to increase resources (Laidler-Kylander & Simonin, 2009; Napoli, 2006). Sepulcri, Mainardes and Pascuci (2020) also discuss the degree of

NPO involvement in communities, which acts as a factor leading NPOs to prioritize the brand and support the implementation of strategies such as NBO, to achieve its benefits. Seventeen variables classified as antecedents to NBO were found by Sepulcri, Mainardes and Pascuci (2020). These variables were evaluated by four scholars, reducing the antecedents used in this study to 14 (appendix C).

As in the for-profit sector, NPOs can also benefit from working consistently with their brands; better connections with their target audiences; improving reputation, political impact and trust levels among stakeholders; and differentiating themselves from other non-profit organizations (Boenigk & Becker, 2016; Curran et al., 2016, Durgee, 2016; H. Khan & Ede, 2009; Laidler-Kylander & Simonin, 2009; Michel & Rieunier, 2012; Voeth & Herbst, 2008; Wong & Merrilees, 2005). Ultimately, brand orientation also improves an organization's performance in the non-profit sector (G. Liu et al., 2015; Napoli, 2006). Implementing NBO makes it possible not only to bring more financial and human resources to an NPO, either through partnerships with for-profit companies or by attracting more individuals who will donate their time and money, but to improve the alignment between internal employees and NPO objectives (Sepulcri, Mainardes, & Pascuci, 2020; G. Liu et al., 2015, 2017; King et al., 2013). Twenty-eight variables classified were found as consequents of NBO by Sepulcri, Mainardes and Pascuci (2020). The variables were then analyzed by four scholars and reduced to the 27 consequents used in this study (see appendix C).

Finally, barriers to the implementation of NBO include a lack of understanding of marketing concepts and tools by employees; negative associations with brand terminology; human, financial, and time limitations; and size and organizational structure (Chad, Kyriazis et al., 2013; Evans et al., 2012; D. Lee & Markham, 2015; Stride & Lee, 2007; Wong & Merrilees, 2005). Sepulcri, Mainardes and Pascuci (2020) also showed that there is a feeling of aversion among NPOs to practices that are considered very commercial, such as some branding strategies, and that this aversion is reinforced by donors of time, money, or goods. This confirms Stride and Lee's (2007) findings, which indicate an aversion to the term “brand” even by nonprofit managers. So, is interesting to note that brand, in the nonprofit sector, is often associated with commercial practices, as if the organization had the main purpose of selling, which implies profit, instead of social change (Andreasen, 2012; Sepulcri, Mainardes, & Pascuci, 2020; Stride & Lee, 2007).

Government plays a dual role in the context of an emerging market, as an organization financier and as a barrier to NBO, given that brand makes no difference to competition for public resources, discouraging NPOs that have the government as the main sponsor, from investing in their brand (Sepulcri, Mainardes, & Pascuci, 2020). Sepulcri, Mainardes and Pascuci (2020) found 29 variables that were classified as barriers to NBO. The scholars’ evaluation reduced this to 26 variables, which are used in this study (see appendix C).

In summary, the questionnaire used in this study is based on the elements that compose the NBO, its antecedents, consequents, and the barriers to NBO, found by Sepulcri, Mainardes and Pascuci (2020), reported in the appendix C and totaling 91 variables. The intention here was to develop a way to measure the brand orientation of non-profit organizations in an emerging country, observing elements that are relevant to guiding the brands of these organizations and that can contribute to strengthening the third sector.

## 5.3 METHODS

We conducted exploratory quantitative cross-sectional research in order to fulfill the objective of this study, which is to group and systematize the elements that compose the non-profit brand orientation in an emerging country, as well as the elements that precede non-profit brand orientation, and the consequents and barriers to the implementation of this strategy. The study is characterized as exploratory quantitative, since it uses quantitative data to explore a phenomenon (non-profit brand orientation) in a little-known context (emerging markets), in order to identify the factors that explain this phenomenon. It is also characterized as a cross-sectional study since the investigation was carried out during a specific period in time. The field of study was composed of non-profit organizations, since the decision to implement a non-profit brand orientation strategy is made by the NPO and it is also implemented in the organization.

The target population was NPO employees, volunteers (donors of time), donors of money or goods, and non-donors, in order to consider the different realities of the various stakeholders who influence a non-profit brand orientation strategy, as well as its barriers, antecedents, and consequents. Given the difficulty of measuring and accessing the entire target population, we opted for non-probability sampling for accessibility; that is, we sought to reach the maximum number of subjects that were part of the target population and were available to participate in the study.

We developed a questionnaire for data collection with statements that were predefined by the researchers from the elements resulting from previous qualitative research (Sepulcri, Mainardes, & Pascuci, 2020). The statements in the initial questionnaire were evaluated by four scholars, including three researchers working in the marketing sector in the third sector and one specialist in scales (Boateng et al., 2018). Changes were proposed on the basis of these evaluations, regarding the writing and the number of statements, thus explaining the difference between the number of statements in the initial questionnaire (102 statements) and the final questionnaire (91 statements – appendix C).

Once the statement content was validated by the specialists, and the suggested changes were accepted, the questionnaire was elaborated in six parts. The first part introduced the research and the target audience and included two control questions: the first asking which group the respondent belonged to, and then, if applicable, their position in the non-profit organization. Four blocks of questions were then presented, comprising: 24 statements about NBO (O1 to O24), 14 statements about the NBO's antecedents (A1 to A14), 27 statements about the consequents of NBO (C1 to C27) and 26 statements about barriers to NBO (B1 to B26). We used a 5-point Likert scale to measure degrees of agreement with the statements. The last block was composed of 12 questions that characterized the respondents in regards to age, gender, income, region where they live, occupation, marital status, education, number of non-profit organizations they know, proximity to the non-profit organizations they attend, degree of importance of non-profit organizations, and length of employment. The final questionnaire contained 105 questions.

The questionnaire was sent in electronic format for a pre-test with 12 respondents, three respondents from each group of the target population (employees of non-profit organizations, volunteers, donors of goods and/or money, and non-donors) which resulted in modifications to the questionnaire until there were no more doubts (Boateng et al., 2018). Only after this procedure was the questionnaire released online using a google forms link on social networks, WhatsApp, and by e-mail. The social media channel and WhatsApp were used to collect data from donors and non-donors. We also carried out data collection in the field with in-person visits to the NPOs, where some questionnaires were filled out in print and others in an online format. Due the difficulty of reaching volunteers and NPO employees, we chose to visit the NPO in person in order to obtain more respondents from these groups of the target population. Data collection took place between October and December 2020. In all, 225 questionnaires were answered. Two questionnaires were discarded because they were not completely answered, so that the total sample of this study was 223 valid questionnaires.

We used Inter-item (II) and Item-total (IT) correlations for data analysis, to examine the relationship between the individual items (Boateng et al., 2018), followed by exploratory factor analysis (EFA), which aims to systematize and group the proposed elements into factors (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2009). Both were performed in SPSS 27. Inter-item correlations mean it is possible to evaluate the relationship of one item with each of the other items in the pool, and Item-total correlations evaluate the relationship of one item with the total score of the pool (Boateng et al., 2018). EFA means it is possible to verify the extent and consistency of the relationships between the observed variables, which are grouped into factors, without a priori defining the number of factors generated by the estimation (Boateng et al., 2018; Hair et al., 2009). Each factor generated from the EFA techniques therefore represents a latent variable, formed by a set of variables observed and highly correlated with each other (Boateng et al., 2018; Hair et al., 2009).

## 5.4 FINDINGS

### 5.4.1 Sample characterization

Most of the respondents considered themselves mainly as employees of a non-profit organization (32.7%), followed respectively by non-donors (26.9%), volunteers (17.9%), donors of money or goods (13.9%), and a small portion of respondents who considered themselves as having other connection (8.5%). When the employees or volunteers were linked to an NPO 6.3% of the respondents acted as directors, 4.9% acted as managers, 14.8% worked in the operational or technical area and 23.3% said they worked in another role.

It should be noted that many non-profit organizations, especially smaller ones, do not have well-defined roles within their staff and volunteers. A complete description of the respondents is summarized in Table 4.

**TABLE 4: SAMPLE CHARACTERIZATION**

| Characteristic | Definition | Quant. | % | % accumulated. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Importance of NPOs | Are not important | 2 | 0.90% | 0.90% |
| | Are of little importance | 3 | 1.35% | 2.24% |
| | Are important | 41 | 18.39% | 20.63% |
| | Are very important | 73 | 32.74% | 53.36% |
| | Are extremely important | 104 | 46.64% | 100.00% |
| Time of involvement with the NPOs | Less than 1 year | 18 | 8.07% | 8.07% |
| | 1 to 2 years | 23 | 10.31% | 18.39% |
| | 2 to 5 years | 37 | 16.59% | 34.98% |
| | 5 to 10 years | 24 | 10.76% | 45.74% |
| | More than 10 years | 88 | 39.46% | 85.20% |
| | Never donated / participated | 33 | 14.80% | 100.00% |
| Frequency in NPO activities | Weekly | 29 | 13.00% | 13.00% |
| | Monthly | 45 | 20.18% | 33.18% |
| | Annually | 18 | 8.07% | 41.26% |
| | Sporadically | 44 | 19.73% | 60.99% |
| | Never donate/participate | 20 | 8.97% | 69.96% |

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | I am employed by a non-profit organization | 53 | 23.77% | 93.72% |
| | Other | 14 | 6.28% | 100.00% |
| Distance from NPOs | They are near my home | 48 | 21.52% | 21.52% |
| | They are near my work | 21 | 9.42% | 30.94% |
| | In the municipality where I live, but not close to my home or work | 74 | 33.18% | 64.13% |
| | In the state where I live, but outside the municipality where I live or work | 29 | 13.00% | 77.13% |
| | NPOs are not located in the state in which I live or work, but operate in Brazil | 9 | 4.04% | 81.17% |
| | NPOs do not operate in Brazil, that is, they are exclusively foreign | 1 | 0.45% | 81.61% |
| | I do not participate/donate | 27 | 12.11% | 93.72% |
| | Other | 14 | 6.28% | 100.00% |
| How many NPOs he/she knows | Up to 2 | 50 | 22.42% | 22.42% |
| | Between 3 and 6 | 107 | 47.98% | 70.40% |
| | Between 7 and 9 | 36 | 16.14% | 86.55% |
| | Between 10 and 12 | 6 | 2.69% | 89.24% |
| | More than 12 | 24 | 10.76% | 100.00% |
| Gender | Male | 92 | 41.26% | 41.26% |
| | Female | 131 | 58.74% | 100.00% |
| Age | Up to 20 years of age | 2 | 0.90% | 0.90% |
| | Between 21 and 30 years of age | 53 | 23.77% | 24.66% |
| | Between 31 and 40 years of age | 74 | 33.18% | 57.85% |
| | Between 41 and 50 years of age | 52 | 23.32% | 81.17% |
| | Above 50 years | 42 | 18.83% | 100.00% |
| Marital status | Single | 76 | 34.08% | 34.08% |
| | Married | 123 | 55.16% | 89.24% |
| | Divorced | 16 | 7.17% | 96.41% |
| | Widowed | 4 | 1.79% | 98.21% |
| | Other | 4 | 1.79% | 100.00% |
| Education level | Elementary education or less | 6 | 2.69% | 2.69% |
| | High school/technical | 28 | 12.56% | 15.25% |
| | University education | 63 | 28.25% | 43.50% |
| | Postgraduate studies | 122 | 54.71% | 98.21% |
| | Other | 4 | 1.79% | 100.00% |
| Region of Brazil | Northeast | 16 | 7.17% | 7.17% |
| | North | 9 | 4.04% | 11.21% |
| | Midwest | 5 | 2.24% | 13.45% |
| | Southeast | 187 | 83.86% | 97.31% |
| | South | 6 | 2.69% | 100.00% |
| | Abroad | 0 | 0.00% | 100.00% |
| Occupation | Student | 20 | 8.97% | 8.97% |
| | For-profit private sector employee | 51 | 22.87% | 31.84% |
| | Third sector employee | 35 | 15.70% | 47.53% |
| | Public sector employee | 41 | 18.39% | 65.92% |
| | Self-employed | 40 | 17.94% | 83.86% |
| | Retired | 10 | 4.48% | 88.34% |
| | Other | 26 | 11.66% | 100.00% |
| Monthly income | Up to BRL 2,000.00 | 49 | 21.97% | 21.97% |

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Between BRL 2,001.00 and BRL 5,000.00 | 81 | 36.32% | 58.30% |
| | Between BRL 5,001.00 and BRL 8,000.00 | 49 | 21.97% | 80.27% |
| | Between BRL 8,001.00 and BRL 12,000.00 | 20 | 8.97% | 89.24% |
| | Between BRL 12,001.00 and BRL 15,000.00 | 12 | 5.38% | 94.62% |
| | Above BRL 15,000.00 | 12 | 5.38% | 100.00% |

Source: Research data.

Most of the respondents consider non-profit organizations to be very or extremely important (79.37%), and more than half of them had engaged with these organizations for five years or more (50.22%). Considering NPOs' employees, the respondents participated in the activities of non-profit organizations or made donations mostly monthly or weekly (56.95%), however, a portion participate only sporadically (19.73%).

The organizations supported are, in general, close to home, work or in the same municipality as the respondent resides (64.13%). Support for foreign NPOs is low (0.45%). Most respondents also showed that they knew more than two non-profit organizations (77.58%), although 35.4% were not donors or employees of an NPO. The data presented is in accordance with the report of the Charities Aid Foundation (CAF), which points out that most Brazilians have a positive outlook on NPOs and that they tend to donate to local causes (IDIS, 2020).

As for the sociodemographic characteristics, 58.74% of the respondents were women, who, according to CAF, are more likely than men to make donations or engage with social causes in various situations (IDIS, 2020). It is worth mentioning that in 2018 women accounted for 65% of the NPO workforce (Lopez, 2018). 80.27% of the sample was aged between 21 and 50 years old, married (55.16%), and had an elevated level of education, as 82.96% declared having higher or postgraduate education.

Respondents were located predominantly in the southeast region of Brazil (83.86%), where most of the Brazilian population is located, and where 40% of formally constituted NPOs were located in 2018 (Lopez, 2018), that is, the most NPOs in Brazil.

The respondents were mostly active in the for-profit private sector (40.81%), and 36.32% had a monthly income between 2,001 and 5,000 BRL, comparable with the average income in Brazil (Brazilian Institute of Statistical Geography [IBGE], 2020). In short, the characterization of the sample meets the requirements of the target population and demonstrates the reality of Brazilian non-profit organizations, meaning that it is adequate for this study.

### 5.4.2 Non-profit brand orientation construct

When examining Inter-item (II) and Item-total (IT) correlations, very low correlations (<0.3) indicate possible items for deletion from the pool. In this case, only O1 showed low correlation in both estimations (II correlations between 0.037 and 0.411, and IT correlation equal to 0.271), and was characterized as a possible item for exclusion (Boateng et al., 2018). The other items presented II between 0.135 and 0.759 and IT from 0.357 to 0.770. We performed a type R EFA, given the objective of grouping the variables and identifying the constructs that constitute the proposed model, determining the latent dimensions (Hair et al., 2009).

We used Bartlett's sphericity test to verify the adequacy of the sample to the factor analysis procedures, in which p<0.05 values are accepted, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) test and the anti-image correlation matrix, from which we analyzed whether the values of the main diagonal met the measure of sampling adequacy

(MSA). Values above 0.5 were accepted as adequate for KMO and the main diagonal values of the anti-image correlation (Hair et al., 2009). The correlation matrix was verified, and there was no evidence of multicollinearity (Boateng et al., 2018). We used principal component analysis for the extraction of the factors, with an eigenvalue greater than 1, and Varimax orthogonal rotation, given its suitability for data reduction (Hair et al., 2009). As suggested by Boateng et al. (2018), the factors were also rotated using oblique rotation, however the results did not show significant differences. Thus, we opted for the Varimax rotation, which is more commonly used (Hair et al., 2009).

For the decision to maintain the variables and constructs, the explained variance was verified. It was considered adequate when greater than or equal to 60%, the communalities, were considered adequate with values greater than 0.5, and the factor loadings were considered adequate when greater than 0.4 in the absence of crossed loadings. We considered the variables that had loadings in more than one construct with a difference of less than 0.1 between them, as cross-loadings (Hair et al., 2009). We used the Cronbach’s alpha value to assess the reliability of the constructs. Although values above 0.70 are considered ideal for Cronbach’s alpha (Hair et al., 2009), values above 0.60 are admitted in exploratory studies (Hair et al., 2009) and were considered acceptable in the present study.

The first EFA aimed to identify the constructs that represent non-profit brand orientation in an emerging country. We started with 24 initial variables (O1 to O24), and excluded 9 variables: O1, O2, O3, and O4 for not fitting into the 2 constructs extracted; O9, O12, and O22 due to low commonality; and O7 and O13 due to cross-loading problems. After excluding the variables, the results presented a model with a KMO of 0.917, and significance <0.05 in Bartlett's sphericity test. Two constructs were extracted: F1, termed "communication" (=COM) and composed of the variables O24, O23, O17, O21, O18, O19, O20, O15, and O14; and F2, termed "cause" (=CAU) and composed of the variables O10, O8, O11, O6, O5. It should be noted that although O5 has a commonality below 0.5, we chose to keep the variable given the proximity to the ideal value and adequate factor loading. The commonalities varied from 0.497 (variable O5) to 0.778. The anti-image correlation matrix values of the main diagonal ranged from 0.866 to 0.961. Table 5 provides a summary of the results of this analysis, as well as the factor loadings, the explained variance, and Cronbach's alpha of the constructs.

**TABLE 5: NBO RESULTS**

| Construct | Construct name | Variable | Statement | Loading | Variance | Accumulated variance | Cronbach' s alpha |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| F1 | COMMUNICATION (COM) | O24 | Non-profit organizations communicate the results of the organization through their brands (such as the social impacts achieved or the goals that have been achieved). | 0.800 | 33.84% | 33.84% | 0.924 |
| | | O23 | Non-profit organizations develop their brands to demonstrate transparency in the use of their financial resources. | 0.782 | | | |
| | | O17 | Non-profit organizations recognize what their audiences like and dislike about their brands. | 0.739 | | | |
| | | O21 | Brands stimulate the relationship of non-profit organizations with their internal audiences. For example: NPO employees and volunteers. | 0.736 | | | |
| | | O18 | Non-profit organizations share the meaning of their brands in the training given to their teams. | 0.691 | | | |
| | | O19 | Non-profit organizations direct their advertisements to build the image of their brands. | 0.620 | | | |
| | | O16 | Non-profit organizations consistently promote their brands. | 0.619 | | | |
| | | O20 | Brands stimulate the relationship of non-profit organizations with their external audiences. For example: donors of money and goods, suppliers and society in general. | 0.614 | | | |

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | O15 | Non-profit organizations align their marketing practices with their brands. | 0.613 | | | |
| | | O14 | Non-profit organizations evaluate their brands through the perceptions of their audiences. | 0.594 | | | |
| F2 | CAUSE (CAU) | O10 | Non-profit organizations create logos and symbols that represent their causes. | 0.866 | 27.87% | 61.70% | 0.872 |
| | | O8 | Non-profit organizations create brand names that represent their causes. | 0.813 | | | |
| | | O11 | Non-profit organizations create brands that represent their missions and values. | 0.811 | | | |
| | | O6 | Non-profit organizations develop their brands to generate affinity between their target audience and their causes. | 0.651 | | | |
| | | O5 | Non-profit organizations' brands stimulate people’s solidarity. | 0.623 | | | |

Source: Research data.

The allocation of F1 as communication was based on the understanding that the variables linked to this construct are related to the communication and relationship strategies of the NPO with different stakeholders. These strategies involve communicating the results (O24), financial transparency (O23), consistent brand promotion internally (O21 and O18) and externally (O19 and O16), alignment of NPO marketing practices (O15), closer relationship with audiences (O20), and feedback evaluation (O17 and O14). F1 thus reflects the degree of communication established between the NPO brand and the various stakeholders. Communication was also considered one of the elements of the non-profit brand orientation proposed in the qualitative analysis carried out by Sepulcri, Mainardes and Pascuci (2020). The key role of communication in building and developing brands is reinforced by empirical models, such as those by Ewing and Napoli (2005), and theoretical models, such as by P. Hankinson (2001).

The allocation of F2 as cause was due to the relationship between the NPO's brand and the reason for the existence of the non-profit organization, that is, the cause being defended (Sepulcri, Mainardes, & Pascuci, 2020). It can be observed that the construct accesses the creation of symbols that represent the NPO's brand according to the cause, mission, and values of the non-profit organization (O10, O8, O11), generating affinity with its audiences (O6) and providing solidarity with people (O5). P. Hankinson (2000) reported in a qualitative analysis that the cause and values of an NPO are among the main aspects of the non-profit brand, which corroborates with the findings by Sepulcri, Mainardes and Pascuci (2020).

In summary, the NBO construct in an emerging country proved to be a reflective higher-order construct, which means that, as an NPO decides to be more brand-oriented, they need to improve the practices suggested in the variables, in line with the literature on the subject (Apaydın, 2011; Ewing & Napoli, 2005; P. Hankinson, 2001; Mulyanegara, 2011b). The NBO construct is thus composed of two reflective lower-order constructs, termed cause and communication. Communication is a construct composed of ten variables (O14, O15, O16 O17, O18, O19, O20, O21, O23 and O24), and cause is composed of five variables (O5, O6, O8, O10 and O11).

### 5.4.3 Antecedents of non-profit brand orientation

To identify the constructs that represent the antecedents to brand orientation in an emerging country, we carry out the II and IT correlations, followed by the EFA along the same lines as in item 4.2. Based on 14 initial variables (A1 and A14), although II correlations varied from 0.126 to 0.582, the IT correlations did not show possible items to delete, as Item-total correlations were above the threshold of 0.3 for all items, from 0.400 to 0.686. After running the EFA, variable A3 was excluded due to a low communality problem and A9 due to a cross-loading problem.

After exclusion, the result presented a model with a KMO of 0.883, and significance <0.05 in Bartlett's sphericity test. We extracted three constructs: F1, called “organizational factors” (=ORG) and composed of the variables A5, A4, A13, A10, A14, A6; F2, termed “market factors” (=MKT) and composed of the variables A7, A11, and A12; and F3, termed “action” (=ACT) and composed of the variables A2, A8, and A1. After excluding the variables, the commonalities varied from 0.520 to 0.733. The anti-image correlation matrix values of the main diagonal ranged from 0.817 to 0.924. A summary of the results of this analysis, as well as the factor loadings, the explained variance, and Cronbach’s alpha of the constructs, can be seen in Table 6.

**TABLE 6: RESULTS FROM THE ANTECEDENTS TO NBO**

| **Construct** | **Construct name** | **Variable** | **Statement** | **Loading** | **Variance** | **Accumulated variance** | **Cronbach’s alpha** |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| F1 | ORGANIZATIONAL FACTORS (ORG) | A5 | Understanding clearly what the organization does and how it works leads non-profit organizations to develop their brands. | 0.782 | 28.87% | 28.87% | 0.862 |
| | | A4 | Adopting good control and management mechanisms for the organization and its resources, leads non-profit organizations to develop their brands and implement long-term strategies. | 0.763 | | | |
| | | A13 | An innovative organizational culture that is open to change leads non-profit organizations to develop their brands. | 0.721 | | | |
| | | A10 | The provision of good quality products and services related to the cause leads non-profit organizations to develop their brands. | 0.689 | | | |
| | | A14 | A greater capacity to implement brand strategies leads non-profit organizations to develop their own brands. | 0.649 | | | |
| | | A6 | Having more qualified personnel leads non-profit organizations to develop their brands. | 0.563 | | | |
| F2 | MARKET FACTORS (MKT) | A7 | The competition between a non-profit organization and other non-profit organizations leads to the development of the brands of such organizations. | 0.768 | 18.52% | 47.39% | 0.702 |

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | A11 | The search for partnerships with for-profit companies leads non-profit organizations to develop their brands. | 0.749 | | | |
| | | A12 | The need to attract volunteers and employees leads non-profit organizations to develop their brands. | 0.605 | | | |
| F3 | ACTION (ACT) | A2 | Traditional non-profit organizations tend to develop important brands. | 0.843 | 15.13% | 62.52% | 0.681 |
| | | A8 | To demonstrate the positive impacts on the region in which they operate, non-profit organizations develop their brands. | 0.615 | | | |
| | | A1 | Understanding the social problem/cause they work for leads non-profit organizations to develop their brands. | 0.614 | | | |

Source: Research data.

F1 was called organizational factors due to the perception that the variables related to the construct are linked to internal issues of non-profit organization and are evidenced by a clear understanding of the organization's performance (A5), for the existence of good management (A4, A14), by organizational culture (A13), for the quality of products and services offered (A10), and by the qualification of employees (A6). The variables that comprise the construct called organizational factors are aligned with the antecedents reported by authors such as P. Hankinson (2001) and Evans et al. (2012).

Similarly, F2 was called market factors, from the perception that the variables related to the construct are linked to the market in which NPO operates. In regards to competition (A7), this aspect was also demonstrated by Evans et al. (2012) as an antecedent to NBO. The need to attract volunteers and employees (A11) and the search for partnerships with for-profit companies (A12) were discussed by P. Hankinson (2000) in his qualitative study as areas that can benefit from the application of brand strategies. It is also worth noting that the idea of using a brand to differentiate oneself from competitors and then to obtain a competitive advantage is widely accepted for the adoption of strategies such as NBO (Casidy, 2013a; Ewing & Napoli, 2005; Mulyanegara, 2011b; Urde, 1994).

Finally, F3 was named action, and is related to the development of an NPO in the region where it operates, based on the understanding of the social problem that the NPO is dedicated to solving or mitigating (A1) and demonstrating positive social impacts (A8), to then become a traditional organization where it operates (A2). It is argued that understanding the brand (P. Hankinson, 2001) comes from the knowledge of the cause by the NPO and the social problem that it proposes to mitigate or solve. The time factor, that is, the age of the NPO, seems to help to develop and propagate the brand of the non-profit organization (Sepulcri, Mainardes, & Pascuci, 2020), when associated with a demonstration of the positive effects of the performance of the NPO in the community.

In short, antecedents cannot be considered a single higher-order construct, given the breadth and diversity of the concept of antecedents, that is, what leads an NPO to implement the brand orientation strategy. Antecedents were therefore considered a set of reflective lower-order constructs that represent antecedents to the implementation of the NBO strategy, as also proposed by P. Hankinson (2001).

### 5.4.4 Consequents of non-profit brand orientation

We conducted the II and IT correlations to identify the factors that represent the consequents of brand orientation in an emerging country, followed by the EFA again in the same manner as in Item 4.2. In this case, in 27 initial variables (C1 to C27), the results of II varied from 0.055 to 0.671, but IT varied from 0.376 to 0.717 and did not show possible items to delete, as all Item-total correlations were above the threshold of 0.3. So, from the first EFA results, variable C15 was excluded due to the problem of commonality and cross-loadings, variables C1, C6, C10, C20 and C21 were excluded due to low commonality, and variables C3, C16, C8 and C9 were excluded due to the problem of cross-loadings.

After exclusion, the results presented a model with a KMO of 0.902, and significance <0.05 in Bartlett's sphericity test. We extracted four factors: F1, called "fundraising" (=FUN) and composed of the variables C12, C17, C14, C13, C18, and C7; F2, called "partnerships" (=PAR), and composed of the variables C24, C22, C23, C25, and C19; F3, called "staff relationships" (=STA), and composed of the variables C5, C3, C2, and C4; and F4, called "social influence" (=SOL), and composed of the variables C27, C11, and C26. After this, the commonalities varied between 0.585 and 0.765. The anti-image correlation matrix values of the main diagonal ranged from 0.585 to 0.745. The results of this analysis, as well as the factor loadings, the explained variance, and Cronbach's alpha of the factors can be seen in Table 7.

**TABLE 7: RESULTS OF NBO CONSEQUENTS**

| Factor | Factor name | Variable | Statement | Loading | Variance | Accumulated variance | Cronbach's alpha |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| F1 | FUNDRAISING (FUN) | C12 | Non-profit organization brands facilitate fundraising from a variety of sources. | 0.840 | 21.47% | 21.47% | 0.878 |
| | | C17 | The brands of non-profit organizations facilitate the attraction of donations of goods and/or money. | 0.815 | | | |
| | | C14 | The brands of non-profit organizations ensure the good reputation of the organization within its audiences. | 0.700 | | | |
| | | C13 | The brands of non-profit organizations facilitate the mobilization of people for the cause. | 0.687 | | | |
| | | C18 | The brands of non-profit organizations make it easier to obtain resources through alternative sources (such as selling products, renting space), other than direct donation. | 0.641 | | | |

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | C7 | Society's image of non-profit organization brands reflects the orientation of these brands by the organization's management. For example: the organization's management creates the brand so that it is seen as innovative and then the brand is perceived as innovative by society. | 0.545 | | | |
| F2 | PARTNERSHIPS (PAR) | C24 | Non-profit organization brands influence partnerships with other non-profits. | 0.758 | 18.34% | 39.81% | 0.878 |
| | | C22 | Non-profit organization brands facilitate association with brands from other organizations that are aligned with their values and beliefs. | 0.756 | | | |
| | | C23 | The brands of non-profit organizations facilitate the perception of organizations in general that support the cause to realize the benefits of providing this support. | 0.730 | | | |
| | | C25 | Non-profit organization brands influence partnerships with for-profit companies. | 0.726 | | | |
| | | C19 | The brands of non-profit organizations facilitate the population's awareness of their causes. | 0.566 | | | |
| F3 | STAFF RELATIONSHIP (STA) | C5 | Non-profit organization brands lead employees to share a sense of purpose/mission in their work. | 0.774 | 16.15% | 55.96% | 0.830 |
| | | C3 | Non-profit organizations' brands lead employees to have a higher level of engagement. | 0.773 | | | |
| | | C2 | Non-profit organizations' employees demonstrate behaviors according to the beliefs and values of the brands of non-profit organizations. | 0.766 | | | |
| | | C4 | Non-profit organizations' brands lead employees to identify with the cause. | 0.760 | | | |
| F4 | SOCIAL INFLUENCE (SOL) | C27 | Non-profit organizations' brands influence the establishment of partnerships with scientific academia (colleges and universities). | 0.779 | 11.82% | 67.78% | 0.747 |
| | | C11 | Non-profit organization's brands make it easier to retain volunteers. | 0.659 | | | |
| | | C26 | Non-profit organization's brands facilitate the influence of these organizations in public policies. | 0.656 | | | |

Source: Research data.

In the constructs that represent the consequents of NBO, F1 was named fundraising according to the perceived relationship between the variables that deal with fundraising from different sources (C12) and that go beyond direct donation (C18), donations of goods and/or money (C17), mobilizing people, that is, donating time (C13), and that are related to the brand image (C7) and its good reputation (C14). We therefore verified that one of the consequents of NBO is the facilitation of the acquisition of resources (financial or not), in line with authors such as Apaydın (2011), Napoli (2006) and Michel and Rieunier (2012). In fact, NBO was understood as a predictor of the intention to donate in Brazil (L. C. da Silva et al., 2020).

In F2, named partnerships, the variables relate to facilitation in the realization of partnerships and association of brands (C22 and C23), either with other NPO (C24) or with private for-profit companies (C25). The relationship between the development of the brand in the non-profit sector and the effect on partners is also a consequent that has already been discussed in the literature (Laidler-Kylander & Simonin, 2009). The relationship between making partners and social awareness, explored by the C19 variable, can also be perceived here. The positive impact of partnerships in raising awareness about the cause was pointed out by Cooke (2010), in a qualitative study, as one of the benefits of the partnership between for-profit and non-profit companies.

F3, staff relationships, encompasses variables related to the effect of NBO on NPO staff, leading them to share the sense of purpose/mission (C5), increasing engagement (C3), aligning beliefs and values with the NPO (C2) and identifying with the cause (C4). P. Hankinson (2001) proposed NBO's positive effect on employee engagement, and it was then empirically tested by G. Liu et al. (2015), who concluded that brand orientation affects the development of an emotional bond with the brand and the delivery of services consistent with the NPO brand.

As the last construct that groups consequents to NBO, F4, which is social influence, gathers variables related to the organization's influence in the social sphere. It is thus argued that NPOs that have a better developed brand are more oriented to the brand and attract more interest from academics, which would facilitate partnership with the academia (C27). It is also possible that these organizations have a greater capacity to develop research into the cause advocated for (see, for example *Projeto Tamar* and *Instituto Trata Brasil*), and influence public policies (C26) regarding the cause they advocate for, generating gains for the cause (Apaydın, 2011; Candler & Dumont, 2010). Finally, because they perceive the effects generated by the performance of the NPO, volunteers are more likely to remain there (Curran et al., 2016), as demonstrated by C11. By developing its brand, an NPO is able to increase its influence in society and consequently better fulfill its social mission, whether through association with academia, influencing public policies, or retaining volunteers, which often form the majority of the NPO workforce.

Like the antecedents, the consequents for NBO in an emerging country therefore do not represent a higher-order construct, but several reflective lower-order constructs. It is understood that the concept of consequents is broad; that is, the set of aspects that are affected by the implementation of NBO. The consequents of NBO were considered as a set of reflective lower-order constructs, as in P. Hankinson (2001), and Wong and Merrilees (2005).

### 5.4.5 Barriers to non-profit brand orientation

Finally, to identify the factors that are barriers to non-profit brand orientation in an emerging country, the II and IT correlations, followed by EFA, were carried out along the same lines as in Item 4.2. In 26 initial variables (B1 to B26), the results of II varied from 0.058 to 0.621, and of IT varied from 0.437 to 0.650, which did not indicate possible items to delete, as all Item-total correlations were above the threshold of 0.3. However, the first EFA results suggested the exclusion of variables B5, B24, and B25 due to low commonality; B3 for not fitting into any of the constructs extracted, and B13, B16, B19, and B22 for presenting cross-loadings.

After the exclusions, the result presented a model with a KMO of 0.846, and significance <0.05 in Bartlett's sphericity test. Four constructs were extracted: F1, "communication challenges" (=COC), and composed of the variables B8, B6, B7, B10, and B9; F2, "commercial aversion" (=CAV), and composed of the variables B21, B14, B17, B18, and B23; F3, "barriers to donation" (=BDO), and composed of the variables B1, B4, B12, and B11; and F4, "Economic context" (=ECO), and composed of the variables B15, B26 and B20. Finally, the commonalities resulted in values from 0.501 to 0.694 and the main diagonal of the anti-image correlation matrix resulted in values from 0.751 to 0.885. The result of this analysis, as well as the factor loadings, the explained variance, and the Cronbach's alpha of the constructs can be seen in Table 8.

**TABLE 8: RESULTS OF BARRIERS TO NBO**

| Factor | Factor name | Variable | Statement | Loading | Variance | Accumulated variance | Cronbach's alpha |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| F1 | COMMUNICATION CHALLENGES (COC) | B8 | Large non-profit organizations have difficulties properly communicating their brands and actions to society. | 0.807 | 16.77% | 16.77% | 0.808 |
| | | B6 | Having famous brands means that non-profit organizations receive fewer donations, as the public understands that they already have enough resources. | 0.754 | | | |
| | | B7 | A barrier to building the brands of non-profit organizations is the fear of organizations about exposing their brands on social media. | 0.722 | | | |
| | | B10 | Non-profit organizations receive more support out of necessity or pity than from brand awareness. | 0.644 | | | |
| | | B9 | The difficulty of non-profit organizations in showing work that goes beyond their main cause is a barrier to building brands in these organizations. | 0.615 | | | |
| F2 | COMMERCIAL AVERSI | B21 | A barrier to building the brands of non-profit organizations is the resistance of these organizations to thinking of themselves as brands. | 0.761 | 16.58% | 33.36% | 0.831 |

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | B14 | A barrier to building the brands of non-profit organizations is the resistance of these organizations to considering themselves a social business. | 0.760 | | | |
| | | B17 | A barrier to building the brands of non-profit organizations is the difficulty in implementing strategic projects. | 0.758 | | | |
| | | B18 | A barrier to building the brands of non-profit organizations is the aversion of non-profit organizations to practices that seem “very commercial”. | 0.654 | | | |
| | | B23 | The resistance of non-profit organizations to adopting brand strategies is a barrier to building the brands of these organizations. | 0.633 | | | |
| F3 | BARRIERS TO DONATION (BDO) | B2 | A lack of confidence in the management of financial resources by non-profit organizations makes it difficult to build the brands of these organizations. | 0.779 | 15.58% | 48.94% | 0.794 |
| | | B1 | The culture of non-donation in society makes it difficult to build the brands of non-profit organizations. | 0.678 | | | |
| | | B4 | A barrier to building the brands of non-profit organizations is the lack of continuity in financial donations. | 0.675 | | | |
| | | B12 | The difficulty of non-profit organizations in communicating the results they achieve is a barrier to building the brands of non-profit organizations. | 0.661 | | | |
| | | B11 | People’s lack of interest in making donations is a barrier to building the brands of non-profit organizations. | 0.636 | | | |
| F4 | ECONOMIC CONTEXT (ECO) | B15 | National financial crises are a barrier to building the brands of non-profit organizations. | 0.764 | 11.73% | 60.67% | 0.706 |
| | | B26 | The unfavorable political and economic context (for example, a lack of political support and economic difficulties) is a barrier to building the brands of non-profit organizations. | 0.727 | | | |
| | | B20 | The decrease in international funds available to finance non-profit organizations is a barrier to building the brands of these organizations. | 0.684 | | | |

Source: Research data.

Of the four constructs that compose the barriers to NBO, F1, communication challenges, has variables identified as difficulties for the NPO to be able to communicate clearly and consistently with their stakeholders (Sepulcri, Mainardes,

& Pascuci, 2020). These difficulties include the size of the NPO (B8) and the difficulty in showing work that goes beyond the main cause (B9). According to reports by Sepulcri, Mainardes and Pascuci (2020), these barriers seem to be greater the larger the size of the NPO and the more activities it undertakes in addition to the main cause. There also seems to be a lesser tendency to donate when there is a perception that the NPO already receives enough help, given that it is known to the general public (B6). On the other hand, donations, in some cases, are motivated by the perception of the general public that the organization needs help (Mainardes, Laurett et al., 2017). This can lead some NPOs to focus more on showing the need for help than in developing communication that promotes their brands (B10). Despite the widespread use of social media, some NPOs still resist the widespread use of this resource for fear of criticism (Sepulcri, Mainardes, & Pascuci, 2020), which is represented by variable B7.

The F2 construct, commercial aversion, gathers variables related to the NPO's aversion to using practices that seem very commercial (B18), an idea already discussed in the literature (Chad, Kyriazis et al., 2013; D. Lee & Markham, 2015; Stride & Lee, 2007). Among the commercial aversions are the difficulty of an NPO to see itself as a social business (B14), to adopt brand strategies (B23) and to implement strategic projects (B17), characteristics that seem to be related to the attributions of NPO managers, given that the level of brand orientation in an NPO is related to the managers' practices and behaviors (P. Hankinson, 2002). NPO resistance to thinking of themselves as brands (B21) makes it difficult for them to be brand-oriented, given P. Hankinson's (2000) definition of NBO, which is how much the NPO sees itself as a brand.

The F3 construct, barriers to donation, includes variables that prove to be barriers to the donation of money, which reinforces a lack of financial resources (Wong & Merrilees, 2005). These barriers include a lack of confidence in the NPO (B2), and an NPO's credibility is noted by Mainardes, Laurett et al. (2017) as one of the motivators of money donation in Brazil. People's lack of interest (B11), aligned with the lack of a culture of giving (B1), appear to be barriers, despite the recent improvement of the last variable, mainly attributed to the global pandemic (IDIS, 2020). This improvement may be related to the lack of continuity of donations (B4), that is, a donation is motivated when there is a need for NPOs (Mainardes, Laurett et al., 2017; Sepulcri, Mainardes, & Pascuci, 2020), without creating awareness among donors about the cause, who end up discontinuing their donations. This phenomenon may be linked to the difficulty of the NPO in communicating the social result achieved (B12) when making use of these donations.

Finally, variables linked to the economic context were grouped in F4, given the peculiarities of emerging markets, which generally experience greater economic and political instability (Sheth, 2011). The oscillation between boom periods and financial crisis is not uncommon (B15, B20), especially in Brazil, and can directly affect the level of donations to the NPO. The dependence of many NPOs, especially Brazilian NPOs, on public power or political relations (Sepulcri, Mainardes, & Pascuci, 2020) encourages "unbranded competition" (Sheth, 2011), often creating an unfavorable context for the development of NPO brands (B26).

In short, barriers are seen as a higher-order reflective construct, given that, together, the constructs found can affect both the relationship between the background and the implementation of NBO in an emerging country, as it makes it difficult for NBO to have an effect for the (consequential) NPO, weakening these relationships (Sepulcri, Mainardes, & Pascuci, 2020). The NBO barriers construct is thus composed of four reflective lower-order constructs, called communication challenges, commercial aversion, barriers to donation, and economic context.

## 5.5 DISCUSSION

When grouping and systematizing non-profit brand orientation, two aspects are central to brand creation, brand development, and protection (Urde, 1999). The first aspect is the cause, which is the reason for the existence of the NPO (P. Hankinson, 2000; Sepulcri, Mainardes, & Pascuci, 2020), followed by brand communication in a consistent and aligned way for the various stakeholders. The creation and development of the NPO brand therefore starts from the cause defended by the organization, its mission, and values, which must be represented through the various symbols associated with the brand, such as name and logo (P. Hankinson, 2000), and must be communicated consistently to the various stakeholders, whether internal or external to the NPO (Ewing & Napoli, 2005; P. Hankinson, 2000).

It is worth mentioning that the demonstration of the results obtained, and the transparency of the financial resources are variables that seem to be related to the construction of trust in the NPO brand, which is needed to foster donations and partnerships (Laidler-Kylander & Simonin, 2009; Mainardes, Laurett et al., 2017), seen in this study as a consequent of NBO. The development of the brand internally involves the training given to the organization's staff, who must disseminate the understanding of the brand (King & Grace, 2010; G. Liu et al., 2017).

Three constructs emerged from the data as antecedents to NBO in an emerging country: organizational factors, market factors, and action. Regarding organizational factors, it is worth noting that, in addition to the organizational culture, management, and organization structure (Evans et al., 2012; P. Hankinson, 2001), an element of the antecedents is the professionalization of staff as a whole. It is thus assumed that a management committed to the development of the brand drives the organization in this direction. Staff training affects the delivery of quality products and services, which, by being aligned with the NPO brand, help to develop it consistently. Competition with other organizations is one of the market factors proposed by Urde (1994) as an antecedent to brand orientation, and, considering the particularities of the non-profit sector, this competition includes competition for volunteers and partners who support the activities of the NPO (P. Hankinson, 2000). That is, the more NPOs need to differentiate themselves, and stand out from each other to compete for resources, the more they tend to develop their brands. Finally, it is worth highlighting the importance of understanding the cause in the construct action, in order to create and develop a brand that reflects the cause (P. Hankinson, 2001), and that is associated with the social benefits achieved by the organization (Venable et al., 2005). The more the NPO can show the results achieved, the more it is acknowledged for its performance, which is represented by its brand (Sepulcri, Mainardes, & Pascuci, 2020).

With regard to the consequents of NBO, it is clear that the fundraising construct aggregates variables that are not only related to direct donations (which may be monetary or not), but from different means of obtaining resources from different stakeholders (Apaydın, 2011). Obtaining these resources is related to the

NPO's brand image (Michel & Rieunier, 2012), which is generated from the consistent development of NPO brands. In addition to for-profit companies (P. Hankinson, 2000), NPOs can also partner with each other and help each other, especially when they share some aspect of their cause, such as, for example, the defense of animals, social minorities, or the environment. It is worth emphasizing the importance of alignment between the organizations' brands (P. Hankinson, 2000, S. C. Silva et al., 2020; Tilley, 1999) in any type of partnership. Alignment with the brand can be applied to staff, creating emotional bonds, engagement, a sense of purpose, and alignment with brand values (Curran et al., 2016; P. Hankinson, 2000; G. Liu et al., 2015, 2017).

Finally, we argue that the performance of the NPO can influence society by narrowing the relationship between the NPO and academia, achieved by developing the NPO brand. This relationship can enable the generation of data that can support other non-profit organizations and the direction of public policies, the latter being recognized as one of the roles of an NPO (Apaydın, 2011, P. Hankinson, 2000). We therefore suggest that by being brand oriented, NPOs can consistently represent and communicate their causes, achieving greater recognition of their brands, attracting resources and partnerships, engaging their employees, and leveraging influence in society. These relationships need to be further tested.

Despite the importance of communication for NBO, aligning communication with the various stakeholders is a challenge (P. Hankinson, 2000). Even the largest NPOs seem to face this difficulty, which can be due to the diversity of actions that these organizations carry out, as reported by Sepulcri, Mainardes and Pascuci (2020). When motivated by the perception of the need for an NPO (Mainardes, Laurett et al., 2017), however, some donors may fail to contribute to an NPO that is seen as “famous” or as not needing further donations. These factors may contribute to NPOs being afraid to promote their brands, which may also be linked to the difficulty that NPOs have in demonstrating their results.

Added to this, there is apprehension about NPOs being seen as commercial, and thus neglecting brand strategies (Stride & Lee, 2007). The barriers found may lead the non-profit to not seek to implement NBO, and/or has difficulties accomplishing its consequent, since, as it becomes recognized, some stakeholders may stop supporting the NPO. Finally, we found that the lack of a donation culture in a population seems to negatively influence people to start donating or to continue donating, and that the political and economic context can also create more hostile environments for the development of NPO brands (Casey, 2016).

In an emerging country, NBO is based on the cause of a NPO and on consistent communication with the various stakeholders. As antecedents, in addition to the internal context of the organization and the market in which it is inserted (Evans et al., 2012, P. Hankinson, 2000, 2001; Urde, 1994), is the need for the NPO to demonstrate its social performance, that is, to obtain a “social license” (Sepulcri, Mainardes, & Pascuci, 2020) where it operates, which can be achieved by developing the NPO brand, and therefore, by implementing an NBO strategy.

Brand development through the implementation of NBO means that an NPO benefits from increased fundraising (monetary or not), facilitating partnerships, improving relationships with staff, and greater social influence. By consistently communicating their brands, and linking their brands to their causes, missions, values, results and transparency in the use of resources, NPOs create a positive image of their brands, and tend to attract people to support them. Barriers related to an NPO's communication with stakeholders include the NPO's fear of being seen as too commercial, and the lack of culture and continuity of donations and the economic context can hamper both the implementation of NBO and the achievement of its benefits. Figure 11 synthesizes the constructs and the relationships proposed between them.

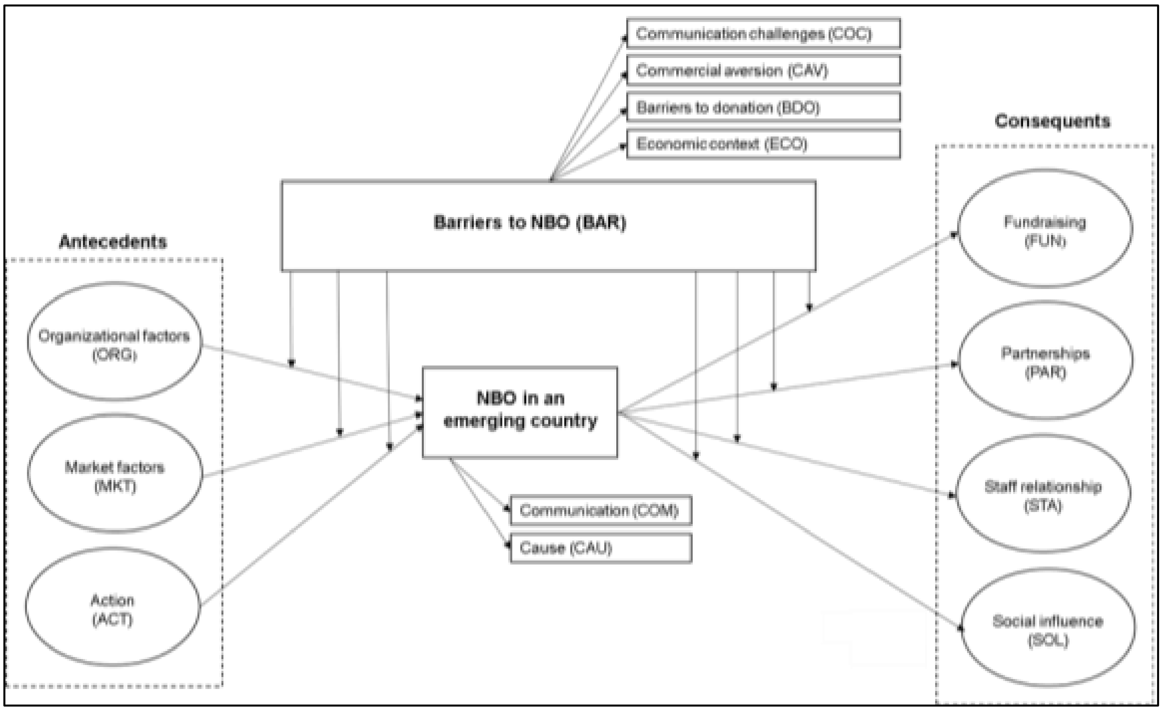


Figure 11. Constructs and relations.
Note: “NBO in an emerging country” and “Barriers to NBO” are higher-order constructs. “Antecedents” and “Consequents” are a set of lower-order constructs.
Source: Own elaboration.

## 5.6 CONCLUSIONS

This study sought to group and systematize the elements that comprise non-profit brand orientation in an emerging country, as well as the elements that precede non-profit brand orientation, and the consequents and barriers to the implementation of this strategy, within the context of a Brazilian NPO. Considering the results of the analyses, we conclude that NBO in an emerging country is a higher-order reflective construct composed of two lower-order reflective constructs called communication and cause. The three reflective lower-order constructs found in this work as antecedents to NBO were organizational factors, market factors, and action. As a consequent of NBO, we found four lower-order reflective constructs called fundraising, partnerships, staff relationships, and social influence. Finally, we understand that barriers to NBO constitute a higher-order reflective construct, composed of four reflective lower-order constructs, called communication challenges, commercial aversion, barriers to donation, and economic context.

If there are market factors, mainly linked to competition for resources, and management that understands the work of the NPO and can implement brand strategies, adding the need for NPO to show its performance to society, then the NPO tends to develop NBO. Such a strategy is potentially related to the organization's cause, that is, to the social problem it seeks to address, and in the correct communication of its cause, values, mission, and results to the various stakeholders, aligned with transparency in the use of financial resources.

As a consequence of the development of NBO, NPOs tend to find it easier to raise funds (monetary or not) and to establish partnerships (either with the private sector or with other NPOs). When implementing NBO, NPOs tend to improve relationships with their staff and increase their social influence, generating greater gains for the defended cause. However, the difficulties in communicating consistently, the fear of adopting brand practices that sound very commercial, the lack of a culture of donation from society, aligned with inconsistency in donations, and economic and political issues, can be barriers that NPOs need to overcome in order to implement NBO and achieve the consequent benefits of this strategic orientation. Especially, NPOs need to be careful to not transmit a brand message that could be associated with the main objective of sale and, consequently, profits. This “commercial goal” can generate a resistance to cooperation internal and externally. The brand message should be associated with the social transformation that the NPO wants to see in the community.

This study contributes to the current literature by proposing a means that measures NBO in an emerging country, as well as its antecedents, consequents, and barriers. Unlike the proposal by Ewing and Napoli (2005), NBO in an emerging country is based mainly on the creation and development of the brand based on the cause advocated by the organization, and on the consistent communication of the brand to the various stakeholders. The construct action stands out as an antecedent. That is, in addition to the marketing and organizational aspects already discussed in the literature (Casidy, 2013a; Ewing & Napoli, 2005; P. Hankinson, 2000, 2001; Urde, 1994), NBO also seems to be driven by the need for NPO to demonstrate a social impact where it operates, that is, to use the NPO brand to be recognized as an NPO that “makes a difference” in each cause.

In addition to information about improving fundraising, facilitating partnerships and engaging staff (Apaydın, 2011, Curran et al., 2016; P. Hankinson, 2000; G. Liu et al., 2015, 2017), the results of the research added, as variables that measure the consequences of NBO, the facilitation of partnerships between NPOs, an increase in the social influence of NPOs via partnership with academia, and also the influence of brand in volunteer retention. Finally, the study contributes to the measurement of barriers to NBO that go beyond political and economic aspects in an emerging country (Casey, 2016), and are also related to the lack of a donation culture, and the lack of continuity of donations, which aggravates the lack of financial resources for NPOs (Wong & Merrilees, 2005).

There are limitations to the study. We used a non-probabilistic sampling, which does not allow generalization to the entire NPO population, and therefore probabilistic sampling should be used in future studies in order to generalize the results. The constructs are based on qualitative exploratory research and nether the constructs nor the model were tested, so, other constructs can also be associated to NBO, and other items can be found to measure them. The study was based on only one emerging country (Brazil), with a concentration of respondents in the southeast region, and there could be differences in other countries with similar economies, and even within the Brazilian context, given the country's proportions and different realities in the regions. We therefore recommend that the constructs presented here be applied and compared in different contexts and even compared between sectors of non-profit organizations.

Future studies could verify the relationships between the constructs found in the Brazilian context, or in different emerging economies. Although the emerging countries share characteristics, the peculiarities of them open an opportunity for studies that compare one or more countries. In addition to the issues given by the market, and the internal aspects of the organization, our findings indicate the need for NPOs to demonstrate the impacts of its actions in society, which is represented by the construct named action, something to be deepened in future studies.

This relationship between the level of involvement of the NPO with society and the perception of the social impact and importance of the organization by society, especially those that are around or that are directly impacted by the organization, seems to drive brand orientation, being an interesting subject to be studied in the future. As recently is discussed the "social license" to for-profits operates (ESG discussions), is expected for nonprofits to have an even bigger commitment and impact in society. This aspect can be deeper explored in future research. Also, other constructs can be investigated as antecedents to NBO and consequent to NBO, such as financial metrics, and socioeconomic and market development, which corroborate the idea of increasing fundraising, increasing social influence, and strengthening the brand. The interaction of NBO with other strategic orientations (Urde et al., 2013) applied to the third sector could also be explored.

## 5.7 PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS

Some donations are motivated by an NPO's perceived need (Mainardes, Laurett et al., 2017), which can lead NPOs to focus more on asking for the resources they need rather than promoting their brands and social results. This study can help managers of non-profit organizations in emerging countries to understand the NBO strategy and the benefits of its implementation, thus developing NPO brands and helping to reach their social missions.

As a practical recommendation, the NPO needs to work in a deep understanding of term brand and the strategic use of this brand, as the concept still seems to be incipient in the nonprofit context (Stride & Lee, 2007). And the marketers need to take care of the strategies used to convince the donors, volunteers, and other stakeholders to collaborate with the organization, as this communication needs to convince all of them by the purpose, the cause, instead of reflecting an image that NPO just wants to raise more money, what we called “commercial practices”. So, with more efficient NPO, society as a whole therefore wins, by gaining access to services and products, as NPOs fill gaps not served by the government, and help develop society.

**Chapter 6**

# 6 NONPROFIT BRAND ORIENTATION AND ITS RELATIONSHIP WITH ANTECEDENTS, CONSEQUENCES, AND BARRIERS IN AN EMERGING COUNTRY

## 6.1 INTRODUCTION

Nonprofit organizations (NPO) have been playing an important role in many sectors, being responsible for influencing public policy and offering essential services where it is difficult for the government to reach, especially in emerging countries (Casey, 2016; Garg et al., 2019). Thus, as this sector expands, there is also an increase in the competition for resources and the need for organizations to differentiate themselves from each other (Casidy, 2013a; P. Hankinson, 2000; Michel & Rieunier, 2012; Venable et al., 2005). In this context, the NPO has been appealing to the strategies traditionally used by marketing, and, in this case, the use of the brand as a strategic asset is continuing to show great influence in supporting NPOs to achieve their goals (Apaydın, 2011; Garg et al., 2019; P. Hankinson, 2001; Michel & Rieunier, 2012; Napoli, 2006).

So, in terms of brand, brand orientation is an organizational strategy that consists of considering the brand as the center of the organization in which all decisions are based, turning the brand into a competitive advantage (Urde, 1999). Applying to NPOs means that nonprofit brands should translate the essence of the nonprofit organization, its mission, vision, and values, creating trust and making the NPO recognized by its work (Apaydın, 2011; P. Hankinson, 2000; Venable et al., 2005). In doing so, through a strong brand, the NPO tends to gather more donors, volunteers, and partners, enlarge its influence in the cause they advocate (Apaydın, 2011; P. Hankinson, 2000, 2002) to develop the society.

Thus, this paper aims to analyze, in an emerging country, more specifically in Brazil, the relationships between NBO and its antecedents and consequents. Also, aims to verify the moderator effect of the NBO barriers in these relations. Therefore, this research is based on the results from two previous studies. In the first one, the results indicate a total of 102 variables related to the four themes: NBO in an emerging country, Antecedents, Consequents, and Barriers. Then, in the second study, the variables previously found were submitted to exploratory factor analysis. As a result, the variables are grouped in seven lower-order constructs, named: organizational factors, market factors, and action, that represent the NBO drivers; fundraising, partnerships, staff relationship, and social influence, that represent the NBO outcomes. And in two higher-order constructs, named: NBO in an emerging country, reflected by the lower-order constructs cause and communication; and barriers to NBO, reflected by communication challenges, commercial aversion, barriers to donation, and economic context. Now, we propose to test the relationships between the constructs found.

Despite the importance of NPOs in addressing social challenges in emerging countries, there is still a lack of studies about NBO in these economies (Anees-Ur-Rehman et al., 2016; Sepulcri, Mainardes, & Marchiori, 2020). Despite that, the literature has been showing that marketing strategies should be adapted when applied to these economies, as the application of marketing strategies differs significantly from developed countries (Ernst et al., 2015; Paul, 2020). Also, to the best of our knowledge, there is not, in literature, a unified model that tests empirically the relations between NBO, the antecedents of its implementation, the consequents, and having the barriers as a moderator in these relations.

Our two previous studies (the qualitative analysis and the exploratory factor analysis) found new aspects that could be added to the NBO literature. Thus, considering that emerging countries have particularities and bigger social challenges than developed countries, is especially important to comprehend how NBO can be applied in these economies. Besides that, this is a sector in expansion, and, in Brazil, there were more than seven hundred and eighty thousand NPOs in 2018 (Lopez, 2018), being a representative sector. So, the development of the nonprofit brand and its use as a strategic asset leads NPOs to increase the social impact, developing society as a whole. In this research, is also important to acknowledge NPO managers the importance of branding practices and the benefits that NBO can bring when it is implemented. As well, it can lead the managers to better understand what drives the NBO strategy and the barriers it might face, helping them to better implement NBO.

## 6.2 LITERATURE REVIEW

### 6.2.1 Emerging countries and NPO

Despite the recent development in emerging countries, these economies still face many social challenges affecting the development of NPO, such as inadequate infrastructures, lack of trained employees, corruption, instability in the legal system, and distrust in NPOs (Casey, 2016; Ernst et al., 2015; Garg et al., 2019, Sheth, 2011). However, in these economies, NPOs have been important in order to ensure essential services in many different areas as education, healthcare, human rights, providing social development (Casey, 2016; Garg et al., 2019). Thus, it becomes important to understand how marketing strategies can support these organizations to enhance the benefits to society (Apaydın, 2011; Burgess & Steenkamp, 2006; Garg et al., 2019; Wymer et al., 2015)

In this way, the NPO's role is to promote civil action and make social products and services available in sectors that the government fails to provide (Casey, 2016). To this, NPOs have based their work on volunteering, partnership with government and for-profit companies, and marketing strategies to find new ways to achieve their missions (Casey, 2016; Ernst et al., 2015; Richelieu & Korai, 2012; Sheth, 2011). Between these marketing strategies, the strategic use of the brand can benefit NPO in terms of reputation, creating an emotional connection with the target public and enhancing trust in NPO (Apaydın, 2011; Laidler-Kylander & Simonin, 2009; Sepulcri, Mainardes, & Pascuci, 2020). What can lead the NPO to attract more volunteers, to make more partnerships, to improve the cause awareness and public policy influence (Apaydın, 2011; Cooke, 2010; P. Hankinson, 2000). So, these advantages can be translated into a better NPO performance, that is, the brand can be used to support NPOs in achieving their goals and contribute to the development of society (G. Liu et al., 2015; Napoli, 2006).

### 6.2.2 Nonprofit brand orientation

As first discussed by Urde (1994, 1999), brand orientation is a marketing strategy that consists of taking all organizational decisions based on the organizations' brand principles. So, brand orientation focuses on creating, developing, and protecting the brand, which is the organization´s main point of attention (Urde, 1999). Applying this strategic orientation to the nonprofit sector, P. Hankinson (2000) defined, as brand oriented NPO, the extension that the organization regard itself as a brand. From this, P. Hankinson (2001) proposed in her quantitative study that NBO consisted of understanding the brand, communicating the brand, using the brand as a strategic resource, and managing the brand deliberately and actively. She also suggests that manager characteristics, organizational culture, and environmental factors are NBO antecedents and, developing a strong brand, successful fulfillment of organizational objective, and inclusive employee culture acts as the consequents.

After, Ewing and Napoli (2005) proposed a quantitative model for measuring NBO. They find that NBO can be measured in terms of interaction (related to the NPO's interaction with the key stakeholders and the organization's response to the environment), orchestration (related to NPO ability to align brand portfolio, marketing activities, and internal and external communication) and affect (related to the NPO ability in understanding the preferences of the stakeholders). And, in compliment, Apaydın (2011), in his literature review, presented a model, with antecedents and outcomes, of NBO, based on P. Hankinson (2001), Ewing and Napoli (2005), and other authors' research. According to Apaydın (2011), managers' characteristics, such as personal vision, education, job experience, and personal skills, are antecedents of NBO. As for performance outcomes, the author indicates goods and services, policy impact, social capital, resource acquisition, and reputation.

Other authors also proposed the relation between NBO, its antecedents, and consequents (Evans et al., 2012; G. Liu et al., 2015; Napoli, 2006; Wong &

Merrilees, 2005). However, these models were based on developed countries (Sepulcri, Mainardes & Marchiori, 2020). So, we proposed a model that explores NBO in an emerging country. Also, the relations between the NBO and its antecedents, consequents and barriers were investigated based on previous exploratory studies in the same country.

### 6.2.3 Proposed model

The constructs used in our proposed model follow two previous studies of NBO in an emerging country. The first study was qualitative research (Sepulcri, Mainardes, & Pascuci, 2020), followed by a second study that performed an exploratory factor analysis. So, based on Urde's (1999) definition of brand orientation, we proposed that NBO is reflected by NPO cause, that is, the reason why NPO exists, so the brand should be created, developed, and protected based on the NPO's cause. Not just that the NPO's cause reflects NBO, but also a consistent communication with different stakeholders about the NPO's cause, work, and values is a central point in this strategy (Ewing & Napoli, 2005; P. Hankinson, 2001). Internally, organizational factors can drive the NBO implementation (Apaydın, 2011; P. Hankinson, 2001), adding to the market factors (Apaydın, 2011; Evans et al., 2012; Urde, 1999) and to the need of the NPO to have their work recognized by society, what we called action (Sepulcri, Mainardes, & Pascuci, 2020).

In developing their brands by implementing NBO, NPO´s have as outcomes increasing of resources, both human and financial (Apaydın, 2011; P. Hankinson, 2001; L. C. da Silva et al., 2020), greater ease to establish partnerships (P.

Hankinson, 2000) and increasing their social influence, including with the government in proposing public policies related to the cause. However, as consistent communication is not a simple task, these NPOs can have difficulty in implementing NBO or fully achieving their outcomes. Further, the fear of becoming 'just' a business and the unfamiliarity with brand concepts (P. Hankinson, 2004; D. Lee & Markham, 2015; Sepulcri, Mainardes, & Pascuci, 2020; Stride & Lee, 2007) can prevent the NPO from implementing the NBO or generating an internal resistance that makes the implementation process difficult (Z. Lee, 2013; Sepulcri, Mainardes, & Pascuci, 2020). Also, the lack of donation culture or an adverse economic context can limit the budget to invest in this kind of strategy even further. So, together, the barriers to NBO can weaken the relationship between the drives and the NBO and the relation between the NBO and the outcomes.

To synthesize this, in an emerging context, NBO was found to be a reflective higher-order construct, reflected by cause and communication. The antecedents found were the constructs organizational factors, market factors, and action (which is the need of the NPO to have their work recognized by society). As NBO consequents, we found the constructs fundraising, partnerships, staff relationship, and social influence. And we found, as the NBO barriers, a reflective higher-order construct, reflected by communication challenges, commercial aversion, barriers to donation, and economic context. So, based on the literature review and in the result from our previous research, we hypothesize the relationships between NBO, its antecedents, consequents, and barriers.

### 6.2.3.1 Antecedents of NBO

Relating the antecedents of NBO, P. Hankinson (2001) suggested that managers have a fundamental role in influencing the degree of brand orientation in an NPO. She suggests that the managers' commitment and his/her level of expertise with brands can positively influence the degree of brand orientation in an NPO. Evans et al. (2012) argue that brand orientation is also driven by the NPO leaders, as if they consider the brand as a priority in the institution, so they invest more in branding, and developing brand orientation. But not just management is important to driving the NBO, also the organizational culture, being more open to accepting changes, can influence the decisions taken in the NPO and the ability to implement brand projects (Apaydın, 2011; P. Hankinson, 2001). In this way, as more open to accepting changes in the organizational culture, as easy to implement NBO, as it should be more accepted by the organization’s members, which is also valid in emerging economies (Z. Lee, 2013; Sepulcri, Mainardes, & Pascuci, 2020). Thus, we suggest that organizational factors can promote the adoption of NBO, and proposed the following hypothesis:

**H1a:** The organizational factors positively influence the adoption of NBO by NPOs in an emerging country.

As a good brand can differentiate the organization from the others, creating a competitive advantage, it is expected that the need to differentiate influences the development of the brand (Casidy, 2013a; Ewing & Napoli, 2005). Thus, the more competitive the market is, the more the NPO tends to adopt NBO (Evans et al., 2012; Urde, 1999). It is important to point out that the NPO does not just compete for financial resources, which usually come through donations or partnerships, but also for volunteers, and that these resources, especially the donation of money, goods, and time, can be even more scarce in emerging countries (Casey, 2016). Thus, we propose that these market factors tend to lead NPOs to adopt NBO, as suggested by the following hypothesis:

**H1b:** The market factors positively influence the adoption of NBO by NPOs in an emerging country.

Also, as there is a distrust of NPOs in emerging countries (Casey, 2016; Garg et al., 2019) these organizations need to have their social work recognized by society (Sepulcri, Mainardes, & Pascuci, 2020). So, in emerging countries, on the one hand, NPOs are needed by society to provide essential social service and, on the other, there are concerns about the NPO involvement in corruption or rent-seeking practices (Casey, 2016). In this way, the NPO should orient their brands to reflect what NPOs do and their set of values (P. Hankinson, 2002; Sepulcri, Mainardes, & Pascuci, 2020). Therefore, the involvement of the NPO with the community, especially showing their actions and social outcomes, makes the brand not just be known by society, but also makes the NPO be recognized as a trusted institution, creating a favorable environment for the development of NBO (Sepulcri, Mainardes, & Pascuci, 2020). Therefore, we suggest the following hypothesis:

**H1c:** The actions of the NPO positively influence the adoption of NBO by NPOs in an emerging country.

### 6.2.3.2 Consequents of NBO

The literature recognizes the use of the brand for fundraising purposes (P. Hankinson, 2000; Michel & Rieunier, 2012; L. C. da Silva et al., 2020; Wong &

Merrilees, 2015). The brand image, which is built by and from the NBO, and the trust passed by the organization, reflected by their brands, are aspects that influence resource acquisition from different sources (Michel & Rieunier, 2012; L. C. da Silva et al., 2020). Also, brand image was found as an antecedent of the intention to give money and time to an NPO (Michel and Rieunier, 2012), and, on a sample in Brazil, Mainardes, Laurett et al. (2017), found that brand influences the donation of money and goods. L. C. da Silva et al. (2020), also in a study in Brazil, concluded that NBO can precedes the attitudes toward charity and donation intention in emerging countries. So, as the brand is developed by the application of an NBO strategy, the NPO is expected to be able to raise more funds (Apaydın, 2011; Sepulcri, Mainardes, & Pascuci, 2020). In doing so, we propose the following hypothesis:

**H2a:** The adoption of NBO by NPOs in an emerging country positively influences fundraising.

In addressing brand trust, the NBO can make the NPO more attractive to for-profit organizations in terms of partnerships, as the association with a brand that shares their values can benefit both organizations (P. Hankinson, 2000, Laidler-Kylander & Simonin, 2009; Tilley, 1999). In these partnerships with for-profit organizations, NPOs can benefit as they guarantee more resources for their causes, increase their visibility, and provide long term resources in some cases, including in emerging countries (Cooke, 2010; P. Hankinson, 2000; Sepulcri, Mainardes, & Pascuci, 2020). Besides that, NPOs can establish partnerships between them, as we found in our previous studies, sharing knowledge, and supporting each other, especially when they share related, or in the same causes, for example, animals support or healthcare. Thus, we propose that the more brand-oriented the NPOs are, the easier for them to establish partnerships, suggesting the following hypothesis:

**H2b:** The adoption of NBO by NPOs in an emerging country positively influences partnerships with for-profits and nonprofits organizations.

Within the organization, the development of the brand, and the consistent communication of the NPOs mission and values can raise the levels of engagement, identification with the NPO, and satisfaction of the staff, as they have a deeper comprehension about the organizations brand (G. Liu et al., 2015; Curran et al., 2016; Wong & Merrilees, 2015). Also, this brand comprehension leads the staff to reflect on NPO values when performing their jobs taking them to deliver products and services align with NPO, improving organizational performance (G. Liu et al., 2015). So, we consider that the internal development of the brand can affect the NPO relationship with their staff, as suggested in the following hypothesis:

**H2c:** The adoption of NBO by NPOs in an emerging country positively influences staff relationship with the NPO.

Additionally, one of the roles of NPO is also to influence public policies (Apaydın, 2011), especially in emerging countries that suffer from instability of legislation (Ernst et al., 2015). In this case, the brand can be used as a strategic asset, reflecting NPO credibility and expertise in the field of the cause (Apaydın, 2011; Candler & Dumont, 2010). Also, from our previous studies, we can argue that more brand-oriented nonprofits can catch the attention of researchers, and the association with universities and research centers can also boost this credibility as it can generate data to justify requirements to government actions and public policies. So, in this way, strong brands can influence police public makers to change or create legislations in benefit of the cause they advocate, especially in emerging countries (Apaydın, 2011; Candler & Dumont, 2010; Sepulcri, Mainardes, & Pascuci, 2020). Thus, we argue that as much brand-oriented is the NPO, the more is their social influence.

**H2d:** The adoption of NBO by NPOs in an emerging country positively influences the NPO’s social influence.

#### 6.2.3.3 Barriers of NBO

The expertise of the manager and the organization´s culture are important factors for implementing NBO. So, the difficulty of the managers in running the NPO as a business, and the organization’s resistance to adopting marketing strategies (Sepulcri, Mainardes, & Pascuci, 2020; Stride & Lee, 2007) can be an obstacle to implementing NBO. Also, the difficulty in adapting the communication strategies to deliver a consistent brand message (P. Hankinson, 2000; Sepulcri, Mainardes, & Pascuci, 2020) can reflect in the difficulty of NBO to show its results, enhance the reputation of an NPO, and convince the organization´s staff to adopt this orientation strategy (P. Hankinson, 2000, 2002; G. Liu et al., 2015). These aspects are required to brand development. Given that communication is a central factor in NBO, we argue that the noise in communication with stakeholders can affect an NPO’s social influence, as the NPO´s messaging and social results are not being sent clearly. Further, the lack of financial and human resources proposed by Wong and Merrilees (2005) can be associated with the lack of a donation culture and, to the economic context, as in emerging countries, especially in the period of crises, the population can focus more in its on sustenance (Casey, 2016; Garg et al., 2019), decreasing the number of resources that would be allocated for the implementation or maintenance of NBO strategy.

So, we suggest that the manifestation of barriers as communication challenges, commercial aversion, barriers to donation, and economic context, can hamper the relationship between the NBO antecedents and NBO in an emerging country, reducing the strength of the antecedents on the trend towards the development of NBO. Thus, we propose the following hypothesis:

**H3a:** NBO barriers moderate the relationship between the organizational factors and NBO, reducing the strength of the organizational factors, on the trend towards the development of NBO by NPOs in an emerging country.

**H3b:** The NBO barriers moderate the relationship between market factors and NBO, reducing the strength of market factors on the trend towards the development of NBO by NPOs in an emerging country.

**H3c:** The NBO barriers moderate the relationship between the NPO's action and NBO, reducing the strength of the NPO's action on the trend towards the development of NBO by NPOs in an emerging country.

As its necessary, the continuous effort to develop and protect the brand, we argue that the barriers may not only affect the implementation of the NPO, but also the achievement of their outcomes. For example, the difficulty in communication can also affect larger social organizations with well-known and recognizable brands as they relate difficulties in communicating their work beyond the main cause (Sepulcri, Mainardes, & Pascuci, 2020), which can stop the NPO from attracting potential donors or partners. Also, adding to all these points discussed, some donations are motivated by the perception of need (Mainardes, Laurett et al., 2017). That is, as more well-known and recognized the organization turns, more the donors may think that the organization is "already rich" and does not need more donations (Sepulcri, Mainardes, & Pascuci, 2020) weakening fundraising. Also, the difficulties to share the set of brand values consistently, between internal and external stakeholders, to make all of them receive the same message (Z. Lee, 2013), can weaken the relationship between the adoption of NBO and its outcomes, especially in emerging countries, due to the distrust in NPO and the difficulty of some staff in accepting brand strategies (Casey, 2016; Garg et al., 2019; Sepulcri, Mainardes, & Pascuci, 2020). So, we are suggesting that barriers can weaken the relationship between the NBO in an emerging country and its consequents. Thus, we propose the following hypothesis:

**H4a:** The NBO barriers moderate the relationship between the adoption of NBO by NPOs in an emerging country and fundraising, reducing the strength of the NBO on fundraising.

**H4b:** The NBO barriers moderate the relationship between the adoption of NBO by NPOs in an emerging country and partnerships with for-profits and nonprofits organizations, reducing the strength of the NBO on the partnerships.

**H4c:** The NBO barriers moderate the relationship between the adoption of NBO by NPOs in an emerging country and staff relationship with the NPO, reducing the strength of the NBO on the staff's relationship.

**H4d:** The NBO barriers moderate the relationship the adoption of NBO by NPOs in an emerging country and NPO's social influence, reducing the strength of the NBO on NPO's social influence.

Finally, after the presentation of all hypotheses, Figure 12 synthesizes the proposed model.

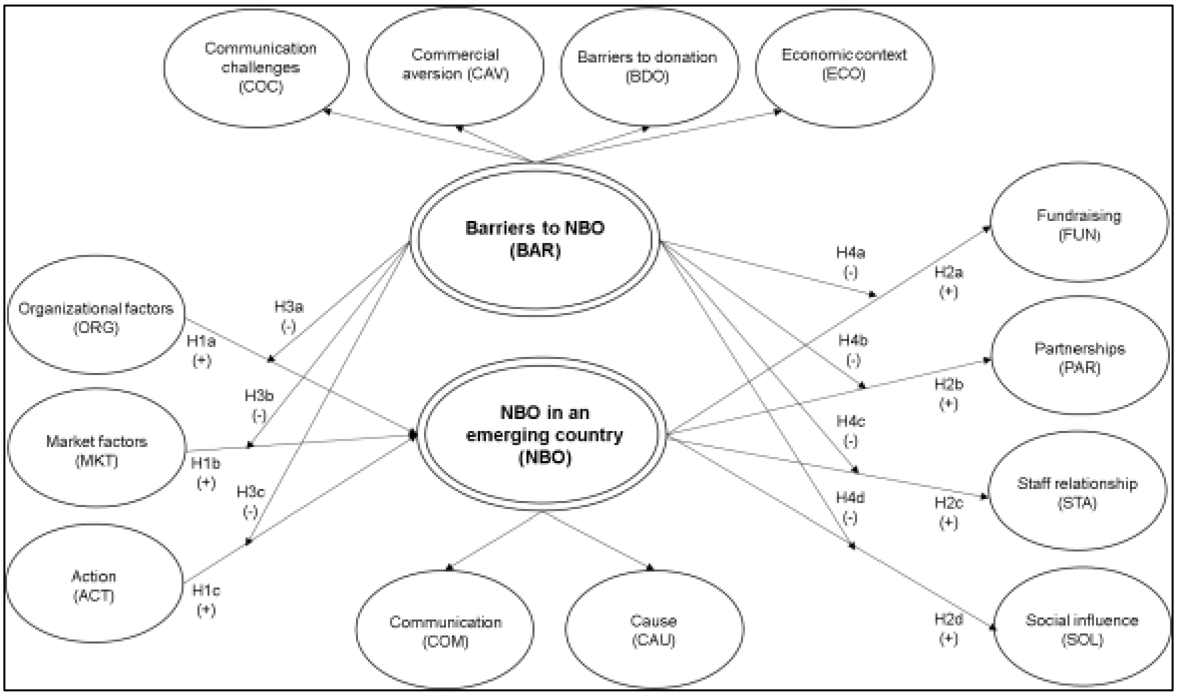


Figure 12: Theoretical model
Note: NBO in an emerging country and Barriers to NBO are higher-order constructs. Antecedents and Consequents are a set of lower-order constructs.
Source: Own elaboration.

Thus, the more the antecedents become present in the reality of the NPO, the greater the tendency for these organizations to be brand oriented. For example, if the NPO has a more open culture that better accepts the marketing strategies, then it is easier to change the staffs' mindset to more brand-oriented decisions based (P. Hankinson, 2000, 2001; Z. Lee, 2013). In the same way, in a presence of a more competitive market, the NPOs are pushed to adopt NBO to differentiate themselves from other organizations and attract more resources (Casidy, 2013a; Ewing & Napoli, 2005; P. Hankinson, 2000; Urde, 1994). Similarly, the need to show the social impact of the NPO's work takes these organizations to adopt a greater involvement with the community, and consequently better communication with the stakeholders, leading these organizations to adopt the NBO (Sepulcri, Mainardes, & Pascuci, 2020).

Also, the more brand-oriented nonprofits are, the more they achieve the results of implementing this strategy. For example, in establishing clear and consistent communication between the stakeholders, based on the cause and the set of NPO's values, which should be reflected by the brand, it gets easier for stakeholders to trust in NPO and to identify with the cause (P. Hankinson, 2000, Laidler-Kylander & Simonin, 2009). Besides that, this can influence the easier to establish partnerships, the relationship with staff, fundraising, and the social influence, as all of them are receiving a consistent message about NPO's brand, its values and social outcomes. This can also happen if the NPO's cause is well established and clearly represented through the NPO's brand, as get easier for the stakeholders to identify the NPO's cause to decide to support the organization (P. Hankinson, 2001; Sepulcri, Mainardes, & Pascuci, 2020).

However, in the relationship between the antecedents and the NBO, and between the brand orientation and its consequents, the barriers are challenges that contribute to weakening these relationships. So, in having a very limited amount of resources, made worse because of the barriers to donation, the unfavorable economic context (Casey, 2016; Sepulcri, Mainardes, & Pascuci, 2020; Wong & Merrilees, 2005), and low knowledge about brand strategies, the managers can see the implementation of NBO more as a cost than as an investment (Sepulcri, Mainardes, & Pascuci, 2020; Veljković & Kaličanin, 2016; Wong & Merrilees, 2008), making it difficult to implement NBO. Adding to this, the apprehension to adopt practices considered commercial can also contribute to not investing the necessary in these strategies or not persuading the staff to change their mindsets to a more brand-oriented vision, weaken the results to adopt NBO as fundraising, partnerships, or the relationship with staff (Z. Lee, 2013; Stride & Lee, 2007; Sepulcri, Mainardes, & Pascuci, 2020). Finally, as communication is a key point, the difficulties in communicating the brand and the actions properly and in different channels can weaken all the relationships proposed.

## 6.3 METHODS

### 6.3.1 Study 1 - Generation of indicators

In order to understand the factors that shape NBO in the context of an emerging country, the first study used a qualitative, exploratory approach. Nine Brazilian NPOs, with different sizes, stages of maturity, and sectors, participated in the study. The data was collected from interviews (supported by a semi-structured script), non-participant observation, and documentary evidence. Thirty-five people from the target population were interviewed, being 16 NPO employees, 7 volunteers, 8 donors, two non-donors, and two partners (employees from public and for-profit organizations). The interviews lasted about 30 to 40 minutes and were fully transcribed. Thus, the data were analyzed using content analysis techniques, which resulted in 102 variables: 28 that evidence the NBO in NPOs in an emerging country, 17 that indicate the antecedents of implement NBO, 28 that reflect the consequents of being brand oriented in NPOs, and 29 that evidence the barriers to implement NBO or to achieve NBO outcomes in NPOs in an emerging country.

### 6.3.2 Study 2 - Grouping of indicators and generation of constructs

The second study aimed to group and systematize the elements that make up the NBO in an emerging country, defining the constructs that reflect this strategy, as well as the elements that precede the NBO, the consequences to the implementation of this strategy, and the barriers that can make difficult the implementation of NBO, or the achievement of its outcomes. To this, quantitative exploratory research was performed with NPO's employees, volunteers, donors of money and/or goods, and non-donors. Then, based on the 102 variables resulting from Study 1, a questionnaire was set up. After experts' validation, and a pre-test with the target population, which resulted in the exclusion of 11 variables, the final questionnaire was set up with 91 statements about NBO in an emerging country (24 statements), its antecedents (14 statements), consequents (27 statements), and barriers (26 statements). The questionnaire was sent online through the google forms link on social networks, WhatsApp, and by email. Also, some questionnaires were filled and printed in an online format in face-to-face visits to NPO. Data collection took place between October and December 2020 ending with 223 valid responses. The questionnaire can be seen in appendix D.

Thus, the data were submitted to exploratory factor analysis. To the extraction of factors, was used the principal component analysis method, with Eigenvalue greater than 1, and VARIMAX rotation. As a result, we found the NBO in an emerging country as a reflective higher-order construct, reflected by communication (10 statements) and cause (5 statements). The antecedents were found as a set of reflective lower-order constructs named organizational factors (6 statements), market factors (3 statements), and actions (3 statements). In the same way, the NBO consequents were found as a set of reflective lower-order constructs, named fundraising (6 statements), partnerships (5 statements), staff relationships (4 statements), and social influence (3 statements). And finally, the NBO barriers were considered as a reflective higher-order construct, reflected by communication challenges (5 statements), commercial aversion (5 statements), barriers to donation (5 statements), and economic context (3 statements).

### 6.3.3 Study 3 - Specification and testing of relationships and model

To fulfill the objective of this study, which was to analyze the relationships between NBO in an emerging country, its antecedents and consequents, and the moderator effect of the NBO barriers in these relations, we performed descriptive quantitative cross-sectional research. For this, the field of study is in Brazil, one of the members of BRICS (Brazil, Russia, India, China, South Africa), the group of the world's major emerging economies, and its NPO, once the drivers to implement the NBO occur in the NPO, as the implementation itself, the outcomes and also the challenges faced to implement and to fully achieve the outcomes of this orientation strategy. In Brazil, these organizations are widespread in the whole country and actively participate in discussions about public policies, as are used to implement them. In terms of size, most of them are micro-organizations that act locally and are based on the work of volunteers (Lopez, 2018). So, it is important to understand how marketing tools can be used to enhance the outcomes of these organizations.

The target population was characterized by NPO employees, volunteers, donors of money or time, and non-donors, aimed to capture different perspectives from different stakeholders, as they are related to NBO strategy implementation and success, and are influenced by the NPO's brand. Following the second study, we decide, for a non-probabilistic sampling for accessibility, to access as many respondents as available, considering that the size of the target population is unknown.

Regarding data collection, a questionnaire was set up based on the constructs found in the second study. Thus, NBO in an emerging country was measured as a reflective higher-order construct, reflected by communication (10 variables) and cause (5 variables). The barriers to NBO was measured also as a reflective higher-order construct, reflected by communication challenges (5 variables), commercial aversion (5 variables), barriers to donation (5 variables), and economic context (3 variables). The antecedents were measured as a set of reflective low-order constructs named organizational factors (6 variables), market factor (3 variables), and action (3 variables). In the same way, the consequents were measured as a set of reflective low-order constructs named fundraising (6 variables), partnership (5 variables), staff relationship (4 variables), and social influence (3 variables). The constructs' frame can be seen in appendix E.

The questionnaire consisted of three parts. The first was an introduction about the research and the target population, two control questions about to which group the respondent belonged and, if applicable, what is his/her position in the social organization. The second part consisted of 4 blocks of statements. The first block had 15 statements, reflecting NBO in an emerging country. The second block is had 12 statements representing the antecedents' constructs. The third block had 18 statements, representing the consequents' constructs. And the fourth block had 18 statements reflecting the barriers to NBO. To measure the degree of agreement with the statements, a 5-point Likert scale was used. The final part of the questionnaire was composed of 12 questions that characterize the respondent in regard to age, sex, income, the region where he/she lives, occupation, marital status, education, number of social organizations he/she knows, proximity to social organizations he/she attends, degree of importance of social organizations, and bonding time with the NPO. The questionnaire can be seen in appendix F.

To ensure the understanding of the questionnaire, it was submitted to a previous test with 18 respondents of the target population before being released electronically. After the complete validation of the questionnaire, it was available electronically, sent through e-mail, WhatsApp, and social media to NPOs, volunteers, donors of money and/or time, and non-donors. Data collection took place between June and August 2021. In all, 329 questionnaires were answered. No questionnaires were discarded so the total sample of this study was 329 valid questionnaires.

#### 6.3.3.1 Sample characterization

Regarding the sample characteristics, most of the respondents considered themselves as NPOs' employees (35.56%), followed respectively by non-donors (23.71%), donors of money or goods (16.72%), volunteers (16.11%), and a small portion of respondents who considered themselves as “other” (7.9%). When the employees or volunteers were linked to an NPO, 7.50% of the respondents acted as directors, 17.5% acted as managers, 43.75% worked in the operational or technical area and 31.25% said they worked in another role.

It is important to highlight that many NPOs do not have a good definition of the roles within their staff and volunteers. A complete description of the respondents is summarized in Table 9.

**TABLE 9: SAMPLE CHARACTERIZATION**

| Characteristic | Options | Quant. | % | % accumulated. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Importance of NPOs | They are not important | 1 | 0.30% | 0.30% |
| | They are of little importance | 7 | 2.13% | 2.43% |
| | They are important | 67 | 20.36% | 22.80% |
| | They are very important | 129 | 39.21% | 62.01% |
| | They are extremely important | 125 | 37.99% | 100.00% |
| Frequency in NPO activities | Weekly | 40 | 12.16% | 12.16% |
| | Monthly | 71 | 21.58% | 33.74% |
| | Annually | 19 | 5.78% | 39.51% |
| | Sporadically | 78 | 23.71% | 63.22% |
| | Never donate/participate | 33 | 10.03% | 73.25% |
| | I am an employee of a non-profit organization | 73 | 22.19% | 95.44% |
| | Other | 15 | 4.56% | 100.00% |
| Distance from NPOs | They are near my home and/or my work | 103 | 31.31% | 31.31% |
| | In the municipality where I live, but not close to my home or work | 117 | 35.56% | 66.87% |
| | In the state where I live, but outside the municipality where I live or work | 44 | 13.37% | 80.24% |
| | NPOs are not located in the state in which I live or work, but operate in Brazil | 16 | 4.86% | 85.11% |
| | NPOs do not operate in Brazil, that is, they are exclusively foreign | 1 | 0.30% | 85.41% |
| | I do not participate/donate | 36 | 10.94% | 96.35% |
| | Other | 12 | 3.65% | 100.00% |
| How many NPOs he/she know | Up to 2 | 107 | 32.52% | 32.52% |
| | Between 3 and 6 | 107 | 32.52% | 65.05% |
| | Between 7 and 9 | 35 | 10.64% | 75.68% |
| | Between 10 and 12 | 16 | 4.86% | 80.55% |
| | More than 12 | 64 | 19.45% | 100.00% |
| Gender | Male | 170 | 51.67% | 51.67% |
| | Female | 159 | 48.33% | 100.00% |
| Age | Up to 20 years of age | 14 | 4.26% | 4.26% |
| | Between 21 and 30 years of age | 83 | 25.23% | 29.48% |
| | Between 31 and 40 years of age | 89 | 27.05% | 56.53% |
| | Between 41 and 50 years of age | 85 | 25.84% | 82.37% |
| | Above 50 years | 58 | 17.63% | 100.00% |
| Marital status | Single | 143 | 43.47% | 43.47% |
| | Married | 149 | 45.29% | 88.75% |
| | Divorced | 22 | 6.69% | 95.44% |
| | Widower | 6 | 1.82% | 97.26% |
| | Other | 9 | 2.74% | 100.00% |

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Education level | Elementary education or less | 4 | 1.22% | 1.22% |
| | High school/technical | 40 | 12.16% | 13.37% |
| | University education | 110 | 33.43% | 46.81% |
| | Postgraduate studies | 169 | 51.37% | 98.18% |
| | Other | 6 | 1.82% | 100.00% |
| Region of Brazil | Northeast | 161 | 48.94% | 48.94% |
| | North | 3 | 0.91% | 49.85% |
| | Midwest | 4 | 1.22% | 51.06% |
| | Southeast | 148 | 44.98% | 96.05% |
| | South | 11 | 3.34% | 99.39% |
| | Abroad | 2 | 0.61% | 100.00% |
| Occupation | Student | 23 | 6.99% | 6.99% |
| | For-profit private sector employee | 86 | 26.14% | 33.13% |
| | Third sector employee | 91 | 27.66% | 60.79% |
| | Public sector employee | 69 | 20.97% | 81.76% |
| | Self-employed | 37 | 11.25% | 93.01% |
| | Retired | 12 | 3.65% | 96.66% |
| | Nor working nether studing | 2 | 0.61% | 97.26% |
| | Other | 9 | 2.74% | 100.00% |
| Monthly income | No income | 13 | 3.95% | 3.95% |
| | Up to BRL 2,000.00 | 52 | 15.81% | 19.76% |
| | Between BRL 2,001.00 and BRL 5,000.00 | 117 | 35.56% | 55.32% |
| | Between BRL 5,001.00 and BRL 8,000.00 | 56 | 17.02% | 72.34% |
| | Between BRL 8,001.00 and BRL 12,000.00 | 51 | 15.50% | 87.84% |
| | Between BRL 12,001.00 and BRL 15,000.00 | 21 | 6.38% | 94.22% |
| | Above BRL 15,000.00 | 19 | 5.78% | 100.00% |

Source: Research data (N=329).

In general, the respondents considered non-profit organizations very or extremely important (77.20%). Also, the respondents participated in the activities of non-profit organizations or made donations mostly monthly or weekly (33.74%), however, a portion participate only sporadically (23.71%). Regarding organizations local, the organizations supported are, in general, close to home, work, or in the same municipality as the respondent resides (66.87%). Support for foreign NPOs is very low (0.30%). Most respondents also showed that they knew more than two non-profit organizations (67.48%).

The data presented are following the report of the Charities Aid Foundation (CAF), which points out that, in 2020, 66% of Brazilians donated (money, time, or good), and more than 80% believes that donating is important to the society (IDIS, 2020). The sample is well distributed in females (48.33%) and males (51.67%) respondents, and 78.12% of the sample was aged between 21 and 50 years old. There is a balance between single (43.47%) and married (45.24%) respondents, and had a high level of education, as 84.80% declared having higher or postgraduate education. Respondents were located predominantly in the southeast region of Brazil (44.98%) and the northeast (48.94%). Interestingly, most of the Brazilian NPOs in 2020 were located mainly in the southeast, followed by the northeast of Brazil (IPEA, 2021).

The respondents are well distributed regarding occupation, with 27.66% from the third sector, 26.14% from the for-profit sector, and 20.97% from the public sector. From them, 35.56% had a monthly income between 2,001 and 5,000 BRL, comparable with the average income in Brazil (IBGE, 2020). Therefore, the sample characteristics meet the requirements of the target population (NPO employees, volunteers, donors, and non-donors), and demonstrate the reality of Brazilian non-profit organizations, as the regions of Brazil with most NPOs are contemplated. It is also comparable with the Brazilian population in terms of age, gender, and income (IBGE, 2020, 2022).

#### 6.3.3.2 Data analysis

First, we verify the adequacy of the sample regarding common method variance (CMV) and common method bias (CMB) (Fuller, Simmering, Atinc, Atinc, & Babin, 2016; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). CMV is related to the variance that comes from the measurement method instead of the constructs represented by the measure (Podsakoff et al., 2003). The common method bias is related to effect that the common method can exert on the observed correlation between the methods (Podsakoff et al., 2003). In this way, as all our constructs were collected from the same method, we followed some guidelines to avoid CMV and CMB (Fuller et al., 2016; Podsakoff et al., 2003).

In the questionnaire, we made a previous test to avoid ambiguity or any miss interpretation of the items, we also advised and preserved the anonymity of the respondent, assured there were no right or wrong answers, and avoided statements that did not allow socially desirable responses. We also used constructs validated in a previous study (Study 2). In addition, to statistically test CMV and CMB, we applied Harman's single-factor test in SPSS 26 and the result did not suggest common method variance as 30.58% of the variance was explained by one factor, less than the threshold of 50% (Fuller et al., 2016). Thus, our model is better explained by many constructs instead of only one measure.

Data analysis was performed by structural equation modeling (SEM) by partial least squares (PLS) since the model verifies endogenous and exogenous variables at the same time. First, the measurement model was submitted to a confirmatory composite analysis (CCA) to ensure that the measure variables represent the proposed constructs (Hair, Howard, & Nitzl, 2020). So, as for the factor loadings, the internal consistencies, the convergent validity, and the discriminant validity of the constructs were checked to ensure that the constructs truly represent the concepts studied model (Hair, Risher, Sarstedt, & Ringle, 2019). To this, the factor loadings should be greater than 0.708 to demonstrate that the construct explains more than 50% of the indicator's variance, the internal consistencies were verified through the composite reliability (CR), the Cronbach's alpha, and Spearman's correlation ($\rho_a$), and the convergent validity was analyzed through the average variance extracted (AVE).

The discriminant validity was examined by the criterion of Fornell and Larcker (1981), in which the square root of a construct's AVE must be greater than the value of the construct's correlations with other constructs, and by Heterotrait-monotrait (HTMT) ratio of the correlations. All of this guarantees the consistency and reliability of the constructs. Then we verified the relationship between the constructs through hypothesis testing, and also analyzed the model fit and the moderator effect of the barriers proposed in our model (Hair et al., 2019).

## 6.4 FINDINGS

### 6.4.1 Measurement model

To validate the measurement model, we performed a CCA. The factor loadings, internal consistency, convergent validity, and discriminant validity were checked. On the first analysis, the item COC3 was removed for having factor loadings below 0.708 (Hair et al., 2019). Regarding discriminant validity, we found a high HTMT between the constructs BDO and ECO (0.911). It means that some items of these constructs could be higher correlated. To solve this, the item BDO3 was removed, as the cross-loading of BDO3 in ECO was 0.719 (high factor loading). This action solved the discriminant validity problem, no longer overlapping between the BDO and ECO constructs, that is, without BDO3, the independence of the two constructs (BDO and ECO) was guaranteed.

Later, the constructs Fundraising (FUN), Partnership (PAR), and Social influence (SOL) were combined due to the lack of discriminant validity. The new construct was named Performance (PER). Therefore, we performed an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) using SPSS 26 to verify if the constructs FUN, PAR, and SOL could be combined. To test sample adequacy, Bartlett's sphericity test was applied and resulted in a p-value<0.05, which is considered adequate. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) test and the anti-image correlation matrix diagonal were also tested, and the values were adequate (above 0.5). We performed the principal component analysis with an eigenvalue greater than 1, and Varimax orthogonal rotation (Hair et al., 2009). To maintain the variables, we verified explained variance greater than or equal to 60%, communalities greater than 0.5, and factor loadings above 0.5. We chose to keep the variable FUN6 given the proximity to the ideal value of communality and adequate factor loading. To assess the reliability, Cronbach’s alpha is considered good above 0.60, which was also achieved (Hair et al., 2009). The results of EFA can be seen in Table 10 below.

**TABLE 10: EFA RESULTS FOR PERFORMANCE**

| Construct name | Variable | Factor loadings | KMO | Communalities | Variance | Cronbach’s alpha |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| PERFOMANCE (PER) | FUN1 | 0.844 | 0.954 | 0.713 | 62.66% | 0.953 |
| | FUN2 | 0.832 | | 0.692 | | |
| | FUN3 | 0.732 | | 0.536 | | |
| | FUN4 | 0.805 | | 0.649 | | |
| | FUN5 | 0.782 | | 0.612 | | |
| | FUN6 | 0.697 | | 0.486 | | |
| | PAR1 | 0.832 | | 0.692 | | |
| | PAR2 | 0.815 | | 0.663 | | |
| | PAR3 | 0.840 | | 0.706 | | |
| | PAR4 | 0.799 | | 0.639 | | |
| | PAR5 | 0.754 | | 0.569 | | |
| | SOL1 | 0.810 | | 0.656 | | |
| | SOL2 | 0.718 | | 0.515 | | |
| | SOL3 | 0.804 | | 0.647 | | |

Note: The construct items can be seen in appendix E.

Source: Research data.

In this way, we identify that respondents could not differentiate between different benefits from NBO implementation. However, to Napoli (2006), organizational performance is related to the ability of the NBO to achieve the short and long-term goals and serve the stakeholders better than the competitors. Additionally, G. Liu et al. (2015) define organization performance in terms of NPOs' ability to deliver social service and raise resources. In this line, we argue that this result is explained because Fundraising, Partnership, and Social influence are indicative of the organizational performance, as is the organization's ability to increment funds and achieve its social goal. Due to this grouping, the hypotheses H2a, H2b, and H2d were grouped in H2a,b,d. And H4a, H4b, and H4d were also grouped in H4a,b,d.

The hypotheses H2a, H2b, and H2d were also combined in a new hypothesis H2a,b,d, suggesting that the adoption of NBO by NPOs in an emerging country positively influences performance. The same occurred to H4a, H4b, and H4d. The new hypothesis H4a,b,d suggests that the NBO barriers moderate the relationship between the adoption of NBO by NPOs in an emerging country and performance, reducing the strength of the NBO on performance.

After the grouping, we performed CCA again and the item FUN6 was removed due to low factorial load (<0.708). The items ORG1, ORG4, and ORG5 were removed due to high inner VIF (>5), following Hair et al. (2019). After grouping and exclusion of the items, we performed a new CCA, and all the factor logins were above 0.708 as shown in Table 11.

**TABLE 11: FACTOR LOADINGS**

| Construct | Itens | Factor Loadings |
|---|---|---|
| Organizational factors (ORG) | ORG2 | 0.809 |
| | ORG3 | 0.859 |
| | ORG6 | 0.817 |
| Market factors (MKT) | MKT1 | 0.743 |
| | MKT2 | 0.867 |
| | MKT3 | 0.863 |
| Action (ACT) | ACT1 | 0.806 |
| | ACT2 | 0.778 |
| | ACT3 | 0.802 |
| NBO in an emerging country: Dimension Communication (COM) | COM1 | 0.800 |
| | COM2 | 0.774 |
| | COM3 | 0.807 |
| | COM4 | 0.728 |
| | COM5 | 0.757 |
| | COM6 | 0.777 |
| | COM7 | 0.805 |
| | COM8 | 0.745 |
| | COM9 | 0.807 |
| | COM10 | 0.753 |
| NBO in an emerging country: Dimension Cause (CAU) | CAU1 | 0.837 |
| | CAU2 | 0.844 |
| | CAU3 | 0.843 |
| | CAU4 | 0.835 |
| | CAU5 | 0.722 |
| Barries to NBO: Dimension Communication challenges (COC) | COC1 | 0.784 |
| | COC2 | 0.744 |
| | COC4 | 0.771 |
| | COC5 | 0.785 |
| Barries to NBO: Dimension Commercial aversion (CAV) | CAV1 | 0.900 |
| | CAV2 | 0.844 |
| | CAV3 | 0.875 |
| | CAV4 | 0.850 |
| | CAV5 | 0.891 |
| Barries to NBO: Dimension Barriers to donation (BDO) | BDO1 | 0.867 |
| | BDO2 | 0.838 |
| | BDO4 | 0.831 |
| | BDO5 | 0.860 |
| Barries to NBO: Dimension Economic Context (ECO) | ECO1 | 0.896 |
| | ECO2 | 0.824 |
| | ECO3 | 0.855 |
| Performance (PER) | FUN1 | 0.847 |
| | FUN2 | 0.831 |
| | FUN3 | 0.735 |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| | FUN4 | 0.814 |
| | FUN5 | 0.776 |
| | PAR1 | 0.831 |
| | PAR2 | 0.813 |
| | PAR3 | 0.842 |
| | PAR4 | 0.807 |
| | PAR5 | 0.755 |
| | SOL1 | 0.814 |
| | SOL2 | 0.718 |
| | SOL3 | 0.801 |
| Staff relationship (STA) | STA1 | 0.881 |
| | STA2 | 0.890 |
| | STA3 | 0.778 |
| | STA4 | 0.905 |

Note: The construct items can be seen in appendix E. The constructs ORG (Organizational factors), MKT (Market factors), ACT (Action), PER (Performance), and STA (Staff relationship) are lower-order constructs. COM (Communication) and CAU (Cause) are dimensions of the higher-order construct NBO in an emerging country. COC (Communication challenges), CAV (Commercial aversion), BDO (Barriers to donation), and ECO (Economic context) are dimensions of the higher-order construct Barriers to NBO.
Source: Research data.

The internal consistency was achieved as all constructs presented Cronbach's alpha and Composite Reliability above 0.7 with Spearman's correlation ($\rho_a$) in between and close to 1. Although the minimum threshold was achieved, Performance (PER) is near to the maximum bound (0.95) but was considered acceptable (Hair et al., 2019). All the constructs also presented satisfactory average variance extracted above 0.5 (Hair et al., 2019), achieving convergent validity. The internal consistency and convergent validity indicators can be seen in Table 12.

**TABLE 12: INTERNAL CONSISTENCY AND CONVERGENT VALIDITY**

| Construct | Cronbach's alpha | Spearman's correlation | CR | AVE |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Organizational factors (ORG) | 0.772 | 0.777 | 0.868 | 0.687 |
| Market factors (MKT) | 0.767 | 0.784 | 0.865 | 0.683 |
| Action (ACT) | 0.710 | 0.710 | 0.838 | 0.633 |
| NBO in an emerging country: Dimension Communication (COM) | 0.926 | 0.927 | 0.938 | 0.602 |
| NBO in an emerging country: Dimension Cause (CAU) | 0.875 | 0.877 | 0.909 | 0.668 |
| Barries to NBO: Dimension Communication challenges (COC) | 0.776 | 0.790 | 0.854 | 0.595 |
| Barries to NBO: Dimension Commercial aversion (CAV) | 0.922 | 0.927 | 0.941 | 0.761 |

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Barries to NBO: Dimension Barriers to donation (BDO) | 0.871 | 0.872 | 0.912 | 0.721 |
| Barries to NBO: Dimension Economic context (ECO) | 0.821 | 0.825 | 0.894 | 0.737 |
| Performance (PER) | 0.953 | 0.954 | 0.958 | 0.640 |
| Staff relationship (STA) | 0.887 | 0.895 | 0.922 | 0.748 |

Note: The construct items can be seen in appendix E. The constructs ORG (Organizational factors), MKT (Market factors), ACT (Action), PER (Performance), and STA (Staff relationship) are lower-order constructs. COM (Communication) and CAU (Cause) are dimensions of the higher-order construct NBO in an emerging country. COC (Communication challenges), CAV (Commercial aversion), BDO (Barriers to donation), and ECO (Economic context) are dimensions of the higher-order construct Barriers to NBO.
Source: Research data.

To verify the distinctiveness of the constructs, the discriminant validity was demonstrated through Fornell and Larcker's (1981) criteria, in which the squared root of the AVE of each construct exceeds the correlations with other constructs. All the constructs met the criteria and values can be seen in Table 13.

**TABLE 13: DISCRIMINANT VALIDITY: FORNELL AND LARCKER CRITERIA**

| Constructs | ACT | BDO | CAU | CAV | CCO | COM | ECO | PER | MKT | ORG | STA |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| ACT | **0.795** | | | | | | | | | | |
| BDO | 0.118 | **0.849** | | | | | | | | | |
| CAU | 0.667 | 0.042 | **0.817** | | | | | | | | |
| CAV | 0.093 | 0.781 | 0.075 | **0.872** | | | | | | | |
| COC | 0.027 | 0.698 | 0.015 | 0.628 | **0.771** | | | | | | |
| COM | 0.684 | -0.080 | 0.742 | -0.055 | -0.010 | **0.776** | | | | | |
| ECO | 0.142 | 0.762 | 0.117 | 0.625 | 0.671 | 0.032 | **0.859** | | | | |
| PER | 0.601 | 0.153 | 0.584 | 0.184 | 0.007 | 0.532 | 0.123 | **0.800** | | | |
| MKT | 0.653 | 0.142 | 0.488 | 0.109 | 0.094 | 0.525 | 0.171 | 0.596 | **0.826** | | |
| ORG | 0.664 | 0.225 | 0.496 | 0.236 | 0.045 | 0.408 | 0.189 | 0.589 | 0.703 | **0.829** | |
| STA | 0.529 | 0.048 | 0.551 | 0.095 | -0.058 | 0.546 | 0.002 | 0.696 | 0.449 | 0.484 | **0.865** |

Note: The constructs ORG (Organizational factors), MKT (Market factors), ACT (Action), PER (Performance), and STA (Staff relationship) are lower-order constructs. COM (Communication) and CAU (Cause) are dimensions of the higher-order construct NBO in an emerging country. COC (Communication challenges), CAV (Commercial aversion), BDO (Barriers to donation) and ECO (Economic context) are dimensions of the higher-order construct Barriers to NBO.
Source: Research data.

Following this, HTMT was also verified. Ideally, the values should be below 0.85, but values below 0.90 are accepted to constructs conceptually similar (Hair et al., 2019). All the constructs achieved values below 0.90, which indicates discriminant validity. Table 14 shows the values of each construct.

**TABLE 14: DISCRIMINANT VALIDITY: HTMT RATIO**

| Constructs | ACT | BDO | CAU | CAV | CCO | COM | ECO | PER | MKT | ORG | STA |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| ACT | | | | | | | | | | | |
| BDO | 0.149 | | | | | | | | | | |
| CAU | 0.844 | 0.068 | | | | | | | | | |
| CAV | 0.112 | 0.865 | 0.089 | | | | | | | | |
| COC | 0.134 | 0.822 | 0.112 | 0.705 | | | | | | | |
| COM | 0.839 | 0.133 | 0.823 | 0.098 | 0.140 | | | | | | |
| ECO | 0.180 | 0.903 | 0.162 | 0.709 | 0.834 | 0.127 | | | | | |
| PER | 0.726 | 0.170 | 0.639 | 0.194 | 0.134 | 0.563 | 0.149 | | | | |
| MKT | 0.877 | 0.172 | 0.589 | 0.131 | 0.131 | 0.627 | 0.216 | 0.688 | | | |
| ORG | 0.887 | 0.273 | 0.598 | 0.278 | 0.127 | 0.473 | 0.236 | 0.681 | 0.900 | | |
| STA | 0.664 | 0.079 | 0.627 | 0.106 | 0.140 | 0.604 | 0.088 | 0.755 | 0.530 | 0.579 | |

Note: The constructs ORG (Organizational factors), MKT (Market factors), ACT (Action), PER (Performance), and STA (Staff relationship) are lower-order constructs. COM (Communication) and CAU (Cause) are dimensions of the higher-order construct NBO in an emerging country. COC (Communication challenges), CAV (Commercial aversion), BDO (Barriers to donation) and ECO (Economic context) are dimensions of the higher-order construct Barriers to NBO.
Source: Research data.

Therefore, with the thresholds achieved in factor loading, internal consistency, convergent, and discriminant analysis, we evaluated the variance inflation factor (VIF). The VIF related to the items presented all values below 5 with most values below 3, what is desired. The inner VIF presented all values below 3 (Hair et al., 2019, 2020). Therefore, the model was considered appropriate, and we proceed to the hypothesis test on the structural model. The VIF results can be seen in appendix G.

## 6.4.2 Structural model

The evaluate the structural model results and test the hypothesis we performed PLS-SEM with a bootstrapping considering 5000 subsamples. The constructs Fundraising, Partnerships, and Social influence were grouped in CCA and renamed to Performance. So the hypotheses H2a, H2b, and H2d were grouped in H2a,b,d as the hypotheses H4a, H4b, H4d were grouped in H4a,b,d. Figure 13 presents the results.

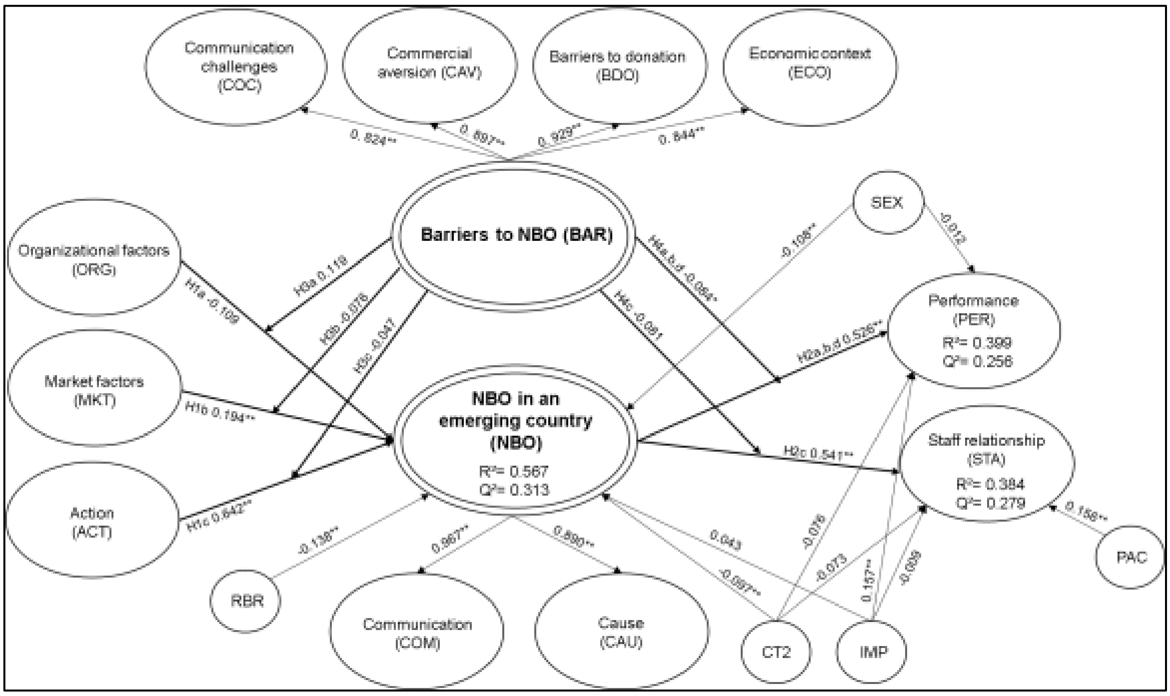


Figure 13: Pathway diagram.
Note: CT2 – Position in the nonprofit organization, IMP – Level of importance of nonprofit organizations, PAC – time of involvement with the NPO, SEX – Gender. $R^2$ – Coefficient of determination. $Q^2$ – Blindfolding. **p-value<0,01, *p-value<0,05. NBO in an emerging country and Barriers to NBO are higher-order constructs.
Source: Research data.

To test the structural model, we first tested the control variables in the endogenous constructs (NBO ins an emerging country, Performance, and Staff relationship). The results showed that only the control variables Position that the respondent holds in the organization (CT2), the level of importance of NPO to the respondent (IMP), time of involvement with the NPO (PAC), the Brazilian region where the respondent lived (RBR), and gender (SEX) were significant to explain the endogenous constructs. So, CT2 and IMP were significant to all endogenous variables, PAC was significant to Staff relationships, RBR was significant to NBO in an emerging country and SEX was significant to Performance and NBO in an emerging country. The other control variables Group he/she belongs (CT1), Marital status (ECI), Education level (ESC), Frequency in NPO activities (FRE), Age (IDA), Occupation (OCU), Distance from NPOs to respondent house (PRO), How many NPOs he/she knows (QNT), and Monthly income (REN), were not significant and were excluded from the analysis. The results of the control variables in the endogenous constructs can be seen in appendix H.

Second, we tested the hypotheses without the control variables. At this point, the hypotheses H1b, H1c, H2a,b,d, and H2c were supported. The moderation hypothesis H4a,b,d was also supported. The other hypotheses H1a, H3a, H3b, H3c, and H4c were not significant, thus they were not supported.

Third, we tested the hypotheses with the significant control variables on the respective endogenous variables. The significance of the hypothesis in comparison with the test without control variables had not changed. The results can be seen in Table 15.

**TABLE 15: HYPOTHESES TEST RESULTS**

| Hypotheses – Direct effects and moderation | | Results without controls | | Results with controls | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Γ (effect) | p-value | Γ (effect) | p-value | f² | q² |
| H1a | ORG -> NBO | -0.087 | 0.151 | -0.109 | 0.072 | 0.010 | 0.003 |
| H1b | MKT -> NBO | 0.175 | 0.005** | 0.194 | 0.002** | 0.041 | 0.013 |
| H1c | ACT -> NBO | 0.687 | 0.000** | 0.642 | 0.000** | 0.409 | 0.161 |
| H2a,b,d | NBO -> PER | 0.578 | 0.000** | 0.526 | 0.000** | 0.409 | 0.311 |
| H2c | NBO -> STA | 0.576 | 0.000** | 0.541 | 0.000** | 0.434 | 0.344 |
| H3a | ORG*BAR -> NBO | 0.119 | 0.065 | 0.119 | 0.059 | 0.009 | |
| H3b | MKT*BAR -> NBO | -0.090 | 0.318 | -0.076 | 0.378 | 0.004 | |
| H3c | ACT*BAR -> NBO | -0.053 | 0.422 | -0.047 | 0.448 | 0.002 | |
| H4a,b,d | NBO*BAR -> PER | -0.107 | 0.003** | -0.084 | 0.018* | 0.014 | |
| H4c | NBO*BAR -> STA | -0.079 | 0.057 | -0.081 | 0.059 | 0.012 | |

Note: ORG - Organizational factors; MKT - Market factors; ACT – Action; NBO – NBO in an emerging country; BAR – Barriers to NBO; PER – Performance; STA - Staff relationship. ** p-value<0,01, * p-value<0,05. $f^2$ - Effect size and $q^2$ - Predicted effect size.
Source: Research data.

The results present in Table 15 showed that the hypotheses H1b ($\Gamma$ =0.194; $f^2$= 0.041; $q^2$= 0.013; p-value<0,01), H1c ($\Gamma$= 0.642; $f^2$= 0.409; $q^2$= 0.161; p-value<0,01), H2a,b,d ($\Gamma$= 0.526; $f^2$= 0.409; $q^2$= 0.311; p-value<0,01), H2c ($\Gamma$= 0.541; $f^2$= 0.434; $q^2$= 0.344; p-value<0,01) were supported at 1% significance and H4a,b,d ($\Gamma$= -0.084; $f^2$= 0.014; p-value<0,05) was supported at 5% significance. The hypotheses H1a ($\Gamma$ =0.109; $f^2$= 0.010; $q^2$= 0.003; p-value>0,05) suggested that the organizational factors positively influence the adoption of NBO by NPOs in an emerging country was not supported. Also, the hypotheses H3a (Γ =0.119; $f^2$= 0.009; p-value>0,05), H3b (Γ =-0.076; $f^2$= 0.004; p-value>0,05), H3c (Γ =-0.047; $f^2$= 0.002; p-value>0,05), that suggested a moderation of the Barriers on the antecedents and NBO relationship, and H4c (Γ =0.081; $f^2$= 0.012; p-value>0,05), that suggested a moderation of the Barriers on the NBO and Staff relationship way, were not supported.

We also found some significant indirect effects from Market factor (MKT) on Staff relationship (STA) and Performance (PER) through NBO in an emerging country (NBO) and from Action (ACT) on Staff relationship (STA) and Performance (PER) through NBO in an emerging country (NBO). Additionally, all the variables that reflect NBO in an emerging country (NBO) were respectively significant at 1% and the variables that reflect Barriers to NBO (BAR) were significant at 1%. These results can be seen in Table 16.

**TABLE 16: INDIRECT EFFECTS AND HIGHER-ORDER CONSTRUCTS**

| Indirect effects | Results without controls | | Results with controls | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Γ (efect) | p-value | Γ (efect) | p-value |
| ORG -> NBO -> PER | -0.050 | 0.154 | -0.057 | 0.074 |
| ORG -> NBO -> STA | -0.050 | 0.151 | -0.059 | 0.070 |
| MKT -> NBO -> PER | 0.101 | 0.008** | 0.102 | 0.004** |
| MKT -> NBO -> STA | 0.101 | 0.007** | 0.105 | 0.004** |
| ACT -> NBO -> PER | 0.397 | 0.000** | 0.337 | 0.000** |
| ACT -> NBO -> STA | 0.396 | 0.000** | 0.347 | 0.000** |
| **Higher-order constructs** | **Results without controls** | | **Results with controls** | |
| | **Γ (efect)** | **p-value** | **Γ (efect)** | **p-value** |
| NBO -> CAU | 0.890 | 0.000** | 0.890 | 0.000** |
| NBO -> COM | 0.967 | 0.000** | 0.967 | 0.000** |
| BAR -> BDO | 0.929 | 0.000** | 0.929 | 0.000** |
| BAR -> CAV | 0.897 | 0.000** | 0.897 | 0.000** |
| BAR -> COC | 0.824 | 0.000** | 0.824 | 0.000** |
| BAR -> ECO | 0.844 | 0.000** | 0.844 | 0.000** |

Note: NBO – NBO in an emerging country; CAU – Cause; COM – Communication; BAR – Barriers to NBO; CAV - Commercial aversion; COC – Communication challenges; ECO - Economic context; ORG - Organizational factors; PER – Performance; STA - Staff relationship; ACT – Action; MKT - Market factors. ** p-value<0,01, * p-value<0,05.
Source: Research data.

The higher-order constructs were tested and validated following Sarstedt et al. (2019). To this, we tested the constructs in the structural model, using the repeated indicator's approach (Sarstedt et al., 2019). First, we verify if the factor loading of each lower-order construct on its respective higher-order construct was higher or equal to 0.708 for indicator reliability (see Table 16).

Next, to access discriminant validity we checked if the Heterotrait-monotrait (HTMT) ratio of the correlations between each lower-order construct (Organizational factors, Performance, Staff relationship, Action, and Market factors) and each higher-order construct (NBO in an emerging country and Barriers to NBO) was below the 0.85. To access convergent validity, we verify if the average variance extracted (AVE) of each higher-order construct was higher than 0.5. And finally, to access internal consistency we verified if Cronbach's alpha and Composite Reliability (CR) of each higher-order construct were greater than 0.708, and if Spearman's correlation ($\rho_a$) was in between and close to 1.

Regarding the validation of NBO in an emerging country (NBO), on HTMT between NBO and the lower-order constructs (Organizational factors, Performance, Staff relationship, Action, and Market factors) most of the values were below 0.85, except for ACT on NBO. However, HTMT values between 0.85 and 0.90 are accepted for conceptually similar constructs (Hair et al., 2019, 2020). Also, AVE was greater than 0.5, Cronbach's alpha, Composite Reliability (CR) greater than 0.708, and Spearman's correlation ($\rho_a$) in between and close to 1.

In terms of Barriers to NBO (BAR), the HTMT values were below the 0.85 thresholds, being considered adequate (Hair et al., 2019, 2020). The AVEs were greater than 0.5, Cronbach's alpha and CR greater than 0.708, and Spearman's correlation ($\rho_a$) in between and close to 1. Therefore, it was considered that the constructs internal consistency, convergent validity, and discriminant validity. The values can be seen in Table 17.

**TABLE 17: HIGHER-ORDER VALIDATION**

| | HTMT | | | | | | | Indicators | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | ORG | MKT | ACT | PER | STA | NBO | BAR | AVE | C. α | $\rho_a$ | CR |
| NBO | 0.538 | 0.642 | 0.878 | 0.616 | 0.639 | - | 0.131 | 0.552 | 0.942 | 0.942 | 0.948 |
| BAR | 0.257 | 0.171 | 0.152 | 0.726 | 0.112 | 0.131 | - | 0.545 | 0.943 | 0.947 | 0.950 |

Note: NBO – NBO in an emerging country; BAR – Barriers to NBO; ORG - Organizational factors; PER – Performance; STA - Staff relationship; ACT – Action; MKT - Market factors. HTMT – Heterotrait-monotrait ratio; AVE – Average variance extracted; C. α - Cronbach's alpha; CR - Composite Reliability; $\rho_a$ – Spearman's correlation.
Source: Research data

Regarding the control variables, CT2, RBR and SEX were significant on NBO at 1%. The control variable IMP was significant on PER at 1%, and the control variable PAC was significant on STA at 1%. The results of the control variables can be seen in Table 18.

**TABLE 18: RESULTS OF THE CONTROL VARIABLES**

| Controls | Γ (efect) | p-value |
|---|---|---|
| CT2 -> PER | -0.076 | 0.067 |
| CT2 -> NBO | -0.097 | 0.008** |
| CT2 -> STA | -0.073 | 0.101 |
| IMP -> PER | 0.157 | 0.001** |
| IMP -> NBO | 0.043 | 0.286 |
| IMP -> STA | -0.009 | 0.856 |
| PAC -> STA | 0.156 | 0.003** |
| RBR -> NBO | -0.138 | 0.001** |
| SEX -> PER | -0.012 | 0.787 |
| SEX -> NBO | -0.108 | 0.003** |

Note: CT2 - Position that the respondent holds in the organization; IMP - Level of importance of NPO to the respondent; PAC - Time of involvement with the NPO; RBR - Brazilian region where the respondent lived; SEX – Gender; NBO – NBO in an emerging country; PER – Performance; STA - Staff relationship. ** p-value<0,01, * p-value<0,05.
Source: Research data.

Finally, to verify the quality of the fit of the model, $R^2$ (coefficient of determination) and $Q^2$ (blindfolding) were analyzed. According to Hair et al. (2019, 2020), $R^2$ values up to 0.25, 0.50, and 0.75 are considered respectively week, moderate and substantial. Regarding $Q^2$ values higher than 0, 0.25, and 0.50 are considered to have small, medium, and large predictive accuracy respectively.

Therefore, NBO in an emerging country ($R^2 = 0.567$; $Q^2 = 0.313$) presented substantial explanatory power and medium predictive accuracy, Performance ($R^2 = 0.399$; $Q^2 = 0.256$) and Staff relationship ($R^2 = 0.384$; $Q^2 = 0.279$) presented moderate explanatory power and medium predictive accuracy. In this way, the findings showed a well-adjusted model, with five hypotheses were supported by de data.

According to the hypotheses supported in the structural model, market factors and action positively influence the adoption of NBO by NPOs in an emerging country, as shown by H1b and H1c respectively. It means that the more NPO market is developed, especially in terms of competition, and the more NPO takes action to show its social work to the society, the more likely the NPO is to implement NBO. Also, the implementation of NBO proved to be positive as it enhances performance (H2a,b,d) and a good relationship with staff (it means, NPO employees and volunteers), as demonstrated by H2c. However, the results showed that the barriers to NBO moderate the relationship between NBO in an emerging country and performance. So that, the barriers decrease the influence of NBO in performance, according to H4a,b,d.

In terms of the hypothesis rejected, the data demonstrates that organizational factors do not influence the adoption of NBO in an emerging country (H1a). And the Barriers to NBO were not able to moderate the relationship of the antecedents on NBO (H3a, H3b, and H3c). As the direct effect of organizational factors on NBO was not significant (H1a), in consequence, there was no moderation effect of the Barriers to NBO in this relationship (H3a). Yet, the significant relationship between Market factors on NBO and Action on NBO were not influenced by the barriers (H3b and

H3c). Regarding the consequents, the results showed that the barriers did not affect the relationship between the NBO on Staff relationship, as this moderation was not supported (H4a).

Furthermore, the indirect effects showed that the better developed the market is concerning NPOs, the more likely these organizations are to implement NBO and, in consequence, the more likely to develop a good relationship with staff, that really understands and reflects the NPO brand. Also, the more the NPO organizations demonstrate their social work to the society, what we called in this study as action, the more likely they are to be brand oriented and to achieve NBO outcomes performance, and staff relationships.

## 6.5. DISCUSSION

Based on the presented results, it is possible to interpret that market factors and actions can be antecedents of NBO in an emerging country. It means that the market where the NPO operates pushes the organizations to attempt to find alternatives to compete and differentiate from the others, and an alternative is to implement NBO. To these organizations, “social validation” seems to be important to brand development. It means that, a closer relationship with the society in where the NPO acts, showing the social work realized by the NPO, drives the social organization to implement NBO. We argue that brand co-creation explains this relationship. In this, the more the society knows and validate the work of the NBO, the more they recognized the NPO brand and the more the NPO develop its brand. Also, social validation can be a way to reduce the distrust in NPO, characteristic of emerging economies.

However, the barriers can contribute to reducing the influence of NBO in gains of performance. In this way, the effect of challenges in communication, commercial aversion, barriers to donation, and economic context together can decrease the effect of implementing NBO in performance.

Analysing each hypothesis, H1a suggested organizational factors positively influence the adoption of NBO ($\Gamma$ =0.109; $f^2$= 0.010; $q^2$= 0.003; p-value>0,05) and was not supported. The result suggested that internal aspects of NPO as organizational culture, characteristics of managers, and the quality of the products and services are not enough to influence the decision of the organization to implement NBO in an emerging country. This result is opposite to what was found by qualitative research in the non-profit sector from developed and emerging countries (Evans et al., 2012; P. Hankinson, 2001; Z. Lee, 2013; Sepulcri, Mainardes, & Pascuci, 2020; Wymer et al., 2015), and appears to be a novelty of our study. Also, our study is the first, to the best of our knowledge, to quantitively test this relation in the non-profit sector. However, in terms of the for-profit sector, Huang and Tsai (2013) proposed, from a sample in Taiwan, that to implement brand orientation is necessary constant investments in marketing activities and an organizational structure to support its implementation. In this way, organizational factors are also seen to be relevant to developed brand orientation in the for-profit sector of an emerging country.

Besides the importance of the managers in implementing marketing strategies on organizations, especially in emerging countries (Burgess & Steenkamp, 2006), NPO managers do not use to have a deep understanding of branding (Garg et al., 2019). Also, in emerging economies, usually there is a lack of skilled trained employees (Burgess & Steenkamp, 2006; Garg et al., 2019). Added to this, Sepulcri, Mainardes and Pascuci (2020) notice that, in some NPOs in Brazil, brand, and therefore branding, is not considered necessary, or it is a term that managers try to avoid (Stride & Lee, 2007). Another point is, many NPOs in Brazil are based on volunteer work (not fully dedicated) and it is difficult even to understand the roles within their staff and volunteers. Thus, it is possible to suggest that NPOs in emerging countries are not likely to implement NBO unless there are external pressures, as shown by the influence of Market factors and Action.

The hypothesis H1b ($\Gamma$ =0.194; $f^2$= 0.041; $q^2$= 0.013; p-value<0,01) suggested that market factors positively influence the adoption of NBO by NPOs in an emerging country and was supported. This means that the market context from where the NPO is operating can influence the organization's decision to implement NBO. So, as the NPOs seek to differentiate from the other ones and compete for resources, they are likely to adopt marketing strategies as NBO to gain competitive advantages (Casidy, 2013a; Evans et al., 2012; Ewing & Napoli, 2005; Urde, 1999). This result is in line with developed economies results (Evans et al., 2012; P. Hankinson, 2001) and with what was proposed by Urde (1994). We consider it a novelty and an interesting result to a developing country, as the NPO market is still flourishing in these economies, including in Brazil, due to their young democracies (Casey, 2016; Toepler et al., 2020) and there is still a high level of government intervention (Casey, 2016; Sheth, 2011). Thus, besides Sheth (2011) argued that in emerging countries there is usually an “unbranded competition”, our results indicate that to some degree the development of the market pushes the NPOs to develop their brands to compete for resources.

The hypothesis H1c ($\Gamma = 0.642$; $f^2 = 0.409$; $q^2 = 0.161$; p-value<0,01) suggested the actions of the NPO positively influence the adoption of NBO by NPOs in an emerging country. The hypothesis was supported, so, in an emerging country context the more the NPO demonstrate its social work to the society, the more likely it is to adopt NBO strategy, in order to build, develop, and sustain its brand (Sepulcri, Mainardes, & Pascuci, 2020; Urde, 1994, 1999). This result is a novelty as it extends the understanding of what influences NBO adoption. It adds to market and organizational aspects proposed in the literature (Casidy, 2013a; Ewing & Napoli, 2005; P. Hankinson, 2000, 2001; Urde, 1994) and indicates that, in an emerging country, the social validation (Sepulcri, Mainardes, & Pascuci, 2020) of the NPO is also relevant. We suppose that this validity may be a way to fight against the distrust in NPO, a characteristic of emerging economies (Casey, 2016). And we argue that this social validation pushes the development of the brand, as the NPO work becomes more recognized by the society, which influences its brand in a co-creation process. Vallaster and von Wallpach (2018), from a sample in Germany, proposed a conceptual model that society's relationship with the organization co-creates the brand strategy, although the authors did not mention NBO itself. Our results showed that there are common behaviors between developed and emerging countries, as the tendency of emergent is to become developed.

Considering the NBO outcomes, the hypotheses H2a, H2b, and H2d had been grouped in H2a,b,d ($\Gamma = 0.526$; $f^2 = 0.409$; $q^2 = 0.311$; p-value<0,01) because the constructs Fundraising, Partnership, and Social influence were combined in the construct Performance. Therefore, the hypotheses H2a, H2b, and H2d were adapted in a new hypothesis, which suggested a positive influence of NBO by NPOs in an emerging country in performance. The H2a,b,d was supported. The impact of NBO on organizational performance was also empirically demonstrated by G. Liu et al. (2015) and Napoli (2006) and qualitatively suggested by Apaydın (2011) and Sepulcri, Mainardes and Pascuci (2020). However, Apaydın (2011) and Sepulcri, Mainardes and Pascuci (2020) understood performance in separated aspects (such as in Fundraising, Social influence, and Partnership). Napoli (2006) understood that performance is related to the NPO's ability to achieve its goals and attend to the stakeholders. To G. Liu et al. (2015), it is related to the NPOs' ability to deliver social service and raise resources. Therefore, we interpreted that Performance grouped the author's understanding of performance and reflects as the respondents understand performance too.

Thus, the result pointed out that the more the NPO develop its brand, the best it performs in terms of achieving their goals related to raising resource, extending its social influence, and establishing partnerships. Despite scarce, previous studies showed that, in emerging countries, NBO seems to influence donation intention (L. C. da Silva et al., 2020), and performance (I. Khan & Bashir, 2020). Also, Paul (2020) acknowledges that, in emerging markets, firms should adapt their strategies to establish more informal relationships with consumers, which we argue could be done through the brand, elevating NPO performance. So, the more brand is distinguished and reliable (a very important characteristic especially to NPO) by society, the more favorable is the decision-making process (Lee & Davies, 2021; Paul, 2020). Another characteristic of emerging countries is that their societies are based on image and brand is a key element (Mainardes, Araujo, Lasso & Andrade, 2017; Mainardes, Almeida & de-Oliveira, 2019). In this way, the better the brand is known, the more support of society the NPO has. Therefore, although the different characteristics of emerging and developed markets, our results showed that NBO is not just applicable in emerging countries, it is also likely to result in gains to NPOs.

The hypothesis H2c ($\Gamma = 0.541$; $f^2 = 0.434$; $q^2 = 0.344$; p-value<0,01) suggested the positive influence of the adoption of NBO by NPOs in an emerging country in staff relationship with the NPO. The hypothesis was supported. So, the gains to adopt NBO are not just related to external aspects, but also with the relation between the NPO and the staff (volunteers and employees). We argue that from a better understanding of the brand, of the NPO mission, and values, the staff becomes more committed and dedicated to the organization's work, sharing the organization purpose e behaving according to NPO beliefs and values. Our finding is in line with Wong and Merrilees (2015), which demonstrates that brand orientation is an antecedent of brand engagement in the for-profit sector. In the same way, King et al. (2013) concluded that, in China, service brand orientation influences employees' attitudes and behavior to be more aligned with the organizational brand. Also, G. Liu et al. (2015) studied NPO and demonstrates, in a developed country (UK), that brand orientation precedes staff emotional brand attachment and staff service involvement, thus the positive influence of brand orientation in staff is recognized by the literature. This is an important finding in terms of emerging countries, as, to the best of our knowledge, this hypothesis was not tested before in this context. Therefore, to both sectors (for-profit and non-profit) and in both economic contexts (emerging and developed countries), the development of the brand seems to positively affect the staff relationship with the organization.

Relating to the moderation hypothesis (H3a, H3b, H3c, H4a,b,d, and H4d) it is important to point out that barriers to NBO were discussed in the literature from a theoretical point of view through qualitative and exploratory studies (Chad, Kyriazis et al., 2013; Evans et al., 2012; D. Lee & Markham, 2015; Mainardes, Laurett et al., 2017; Sepulcri, Mainardes, & Pascuci, 2020; Stride & Lee, 2007; Wong & Merrilees, 2005), and the moderation effect was not tested previously in the literature. Because of this, we considered our results a novelty for branding, brand orientation, non-profit branding, and non-profit marketing literature.

The hypothesis H3a ($\Gamma$ =0.119; $f^2$= 0.009; p-value>0,05) considered NBO barriers moderate the relationship between the organizational factors and NBO. In this case, we supposed that Barriers to NBO would reduce the strength of the organizational factors on the trend towards the development of NBO in an emerging country. It was not supported. But it is important to highlight that our findings did not indicate a significant effect of organization factor on NBO adoption in an emerging country. Thus, as the direct relationship between organization factors and NBO was not supported, the moderation effect could not be supported neither. Evans et al. (2012) argued in a qualitative study that in museums from UK, USA, and Australia, a barrier to being brand orientated is to align the vision of the brand between the different stakeholders, which can be more difficult in NPO with more complex organizational structures. So, to the authors, the complexity of the NPO, the size, and the age are barriers to becoming more brand oriented. In parallel, these characteristics are linked with organization factors and challenges in communication. Gyrd-Jones et al. (2013) also in a qualitative study explored the impact of the internal groups (silos) in implementing brand orientation in the for-profit sector. According to the authors, the different mindset of these groups is a barrier to implement brand orientation, not just in terms of communication but also in terms of changing daily behaviors to be linked with the brand. However, our empirical results did not show an influence nor of the organizational factors in NBO and neither in the moderation of the barriers in this relationship. In other words, neither organizational factors nor barriers seem to interfere in the development of the NBO by NPOs in emerging markets.

Following, the hypothesis H3b ($\Gamma$ =-0.076; $f^2$= 0.004; p-value>0,05) indicated that the NBO barriers moderate the relationship between market factors and NBO, reducing the strength of market factors on the trend towards the development of NBO. However, the moderation effect was not significant, and the hypothesis was not supported. In this way, the Barriers to NBO does not seem to affect the relationship between the Market factors and NBO in an emerging country context. Once the market drives the NBO to become more brand orientated, we argue that even in an adverse environment, which is the case of emerging countries, the NPO needs to develop its brand in order to survive (Urde, 1999). Therefore, market factors drive the development of the brand even with the presence of barriers.

In the same way, H3c ($\Gamma$ =-0.047; $f^2$= 0.002; p-value>0,05) suggested that the NBO barriers moderate the relationship between the NPO's action and NBO, reducing the strength of the NPO's action on the trend towards the development of NBO by NPOs in an emerging country. The hypothesis was not significant and consequently was not supported. It indicates that Barriers to NPO do not influence the relationship between action and the adoption of NBO in an emerging country. Here, we argue that action pushes the NPO to develop its brand leading the NPO to social validation. However, this brand development can be more organic than strictly oriented, as emerging countries the NPOs face difficulty to hire skilled trained employees and can have some degree of aversion in branding and difficulty in communication (Burgess & Steenkamp, 2006; Garg et al., 2019; Stride & Lee, 2007; Sepulcri, Mainardes, & Pascuci, 2020). Thus, we argue that the social work of the NPO and in consequence its brand starts to be validated by the society that needs to clearly understand the NPO mission, vision, and values, so the brand is co-created (Sepulcri, Mainardes, & Pascuci, 2020; Vallaster & von Wallpach, 2018). In this sense, the need for social validation drives brand development regardless of the presence of barriers.

Considering the hypothesis H4a,b,d ($\Gamma$= -0.084; $f^2$= 0.014; p-value<0,05) as a combination of the hypotheses H4a, H4b and H4d due to the construct Performance, it suggested that the NBO barriers moderate the relationship between the adoption of NBO by NPOs in an emerging country and performance, reducing the strength of the NBO on performance. The hypothesis was supported. In this way, the adversities to implement NBO seem to negatively impact the benefits from this in the organization's performance. Some studies corroborate this result. Regarding Communication challenges, Sepulcri, Mainardes and Pascuci (2020) argued that the NPO's difficulty in communicating their social work can discourage potential donors or partners. Also, studies in Brazil found that the perception that the NPO already has enough resources (Mainardes, Laurett et al., 2017, Sepulcri, Mainardes, & Pascuci, 2020) can decrease donations. However, the alignment of the brand between the different stakeholders does not appear to be an exclusive characteristic of emerging countries (P. Hankinson, 2000). In terms of commercial aversion, this barrier seems to be shared in some degree with developed economies, as Stride and Lee (2007) also found the negative stakeholders' association with the brand terminology in a sample from the United Kingdom (UK). Relating to the Barriers to donation, can be added the distrust in NPOs and concerns about corruption (Casey, 2016), a characteristic of emerging countries. But Guo and Xu (2021) found that the lack of information about donations and the lack of awareness of the impact that donations make are barriers to donations of goods in the UK. Also, once the organization started the implementation of NPO, the unstable economic context (Burgess & Steenkamp, 2006; Sheth, 2011), can change, for example, the planned resources allocated to implement and sustain this strategy. Therefore, the presence of the Barriers to NBO reduced the impact of NBO on performance and this needs to be considered and managed by NPO managers.

Finally, H4c ($\Gamma$ =0.081; $f^2$= 0.012; p-value>0,05) suggested a moderation of the Barriers on the NBO and Staff relationship, reducing the strength of the NBO on the staff's relationship. The hypothesis was not significant and hence it was not supported. Given this, the effect of the barriers to NBO does not seem to interfere in the relationship between the NBO in an emerging country and the staff relationship. Despite the contrary result in the literature, it may occur as staff, more than understand and assimilate the NPO brand, creates an emotional connection with the NPO brand, as much as the brand is developed (G. Liu et al., 2015). Another point is that Burgess and Steenkamp (2006) acknowledge emerging countries as having a culture that emphasizes the integration and the collective groups. In these countries, according to the authors, the group should be observed rather than the individual. So, once the group is convinced about the brand and embraces the individual, he/she starts to present behaviors aligned with the brand. In this way, we argue that, in the presence of a strong brand, the staff becomes more committed to the NPO and the Barriers to NBO do not influence this relationship.

Therefore, the results indicate that a market that leads NPO to compete for more resources (donors, partnerships, and volunteers) and the need to has a social validation to its works, positively influences the NPO to adopt brand orientation. The adoption of this strategy can generate gains in terms of organizational performance (enhancing fundraising and partnerships, expanding the organization’s social influence), and also in establishing a better relationship with staff. However, the barriers to NBO, which can be seen in terms of challenges in communicating consistently among different stakeholders, the commercial aversion, the barriers to receiving donations, and the adverse economic context, can moderate the relationship decreasing the influence of NBO implementation in performance. So, in the presence of the barriers, the impact of NBO implementation in performance is diminished.

## 6.6 CONCLUSION

This paper aimed to analyze, in an emerging country, more specifically in Brazil, the relationships between NBO and its antecedents and consequents. Also, aimed to verify the moderator effect of the NBO barriers in these relations. Our results showed that the more developed and competitive is the market in which the organization operates, the more likely the NPO is to adopt NBO. Also, the action of the NPO with the society, showing the social work development, can be also an NBO antecedent. In addition, organization performance and staff relationship were significant positive outcomes of NBO adoption by NPO in an emerging country. However, the barriers to NBO showed a significant moderator effect in the relationship between NBO in an emerging country and performance, reducing the strength of the NBO on performance.

Therefore, we concluded that, in an emerging country context, the NBO is more likely to be adopted if there is external pressure by the market and social validation of the NPO by the community where the organization acts. It means that, as in developed countries, the society can co-create the brand of the NPO, validating and recognizing it. The organization factor, which would be an internal pressure, did not show significance to NBO adoption in this study, although P. Hankinson (2001) and Apaydın (2011) had been suggested this relation. So, unlike the situation in developed economies, in emerging countries, the external factors (as market and action) seem to drive the NPO to find alternatives to differentiate and compete for resources, which can result in NBO adoption.

Also, we understood that the adoption of NBO can result in gains in performance to the NPO, facilitating partnerships, increasing fundraising, and extending the NPO social influence (Apaydın, 2011; P. Hankinson, 2000; G. Liu et al., 2015, 2017; Napoli, 2006). And internally, NBO may influence de staff relationship, so the brand development can influence the staff behavior, enhancing the staff identification with the NPO (G. Liu et al., 2015).

However, the barriers to NBO seem to decrease the influence of NBO on performance. Regarding the barriers, especially the unstable economic context of an emerging country can seriously affect the long-term strategies of NPO (Burgess & Steenkamp, 2006; Sheth, 2011). Also, the social characteristics of emerging countries, such as distrust in the institutions and the difficulty in donating may difficult the full implementation of NBO in this context, which can affect the NPO gains in performance. Another point is, the fewer organizations see themselves as a brand, the more difficult full implementation of NBO can become. So, the commercial aversion can also make hard the acceptance of this marketing strategy among the stakeholders. Finally, communication is a crucial point to align the brand between the stakeholders and implement the NBO strategies. Therefore, the NPO communication challenges can confuse the stakeholders or negatively interfere in brand awareness, lowering the NBO performance.

As theoretical contributions, this study, to the best of our knowledge, was the first to empirically explore the role dynamics of NBO, especially in an emerging country. We also test these relations in a model developed in an emerging economy and to emerging economies, being an alternative to the NBO model developed by Ewing and Napoli (2005) based on a sample from a developed country. In this context, a “social license”, what we called action, seems to be important to NPOs developing their brands, which was not explored by the literature before. It is important to note that communication acts, to some degree, in a great part of the NBO dynamic: as an antecedent in actions, as part of the construct NBO in an emerging country, and as a barrier in challenges of communications. The barriers extended NPO internal characteristics, as commercial aversion, and showed that the economic context, which is out of the NPO control, also impacts its gains, as demonstrated by the moderation of barriers on NBO and performance relationship.

In this way, as theoretical contributions we can list: (i) the pioneering test of the relationships of the constructs, especially the moderation effect of the barriers, not tested neither in emerging countries, nor in developed ones; (ii) the validation of constructs as an alternative to measuring NBO, its drives, consequences, and barriers, especially in an emerging country; (iii) the coverage of new drives to NBO, particularly action, that was a characteristic neglected in the literature of brand orientation; (iv) the better understanding of which external factors affects NBO in an emerging country, what the NPO can gain in adopting NBO, and how the barriers can interfere or not in these relationships.

As practical contributions, the managers of NBOs need to be aware of this strategy, as it showed to generate gains to the organization growth and expansion of the social influence, and to the internal strengthening of the organization, through the relationship improvement of staff. The managers should also acknowledge the barriers, to work to mitigate them. Again, not just the cause, but strategic communication is a crucial point to develop the brand internally and externally and needs greater attention of the managers in the organizations. In this way, the NBO supports the NPO development and, in consequence, the society's development. So as some practices we can list: (i) the managers should acknowledge branding and its strategies in order to fully implement NBO and benefit from it; (ii) the communication is a crucial key and should have attended at a strategic level, so, is not just “to say”, but what to say, how to say and for whom; (iii) the NPO needs to be in touch with the society, even if some of them are not the target-public, but this closer relationship seems to make difference, especially in a more hostile context.

This study had some limitations. First, non-probabilistic sampling was used, which does not allow generalization to the entire NPO population. Therefore, to generalize the results, probabilistic sampling can be used in future studies.

Although the model was developed for emerging economies, it was only tested in Brazil and can be extended in other to compare with other emerging countries' realities. The definition of NPO is broad and encompasses many different sectors, so, this study did not capture the sector specificities, which also would be useful in terms of comparisons. The theme also is limited discussed in emerging countries. Before this study, we just found only one published paper about NBO in Brazil (L. C. da Silva et al., 2020) and one in Pakistan (I. Khan & Bashir, 2020). Because this, it was required the development of the whole model: the identification of the factors that shape non-profit brand orientation in an emerging country, as well as the main antecedents, outcomes, and barriers; the grouping and systematization of the factors; and the proposition and test of the relationships between them.

In this way, future research can use different countries and sectors to apply the proposed model. Also, would be interesting to compare the internal and external perceptions of NBO in a non-profit context, as the brand is co-created by its stakeholders (Vallaster & von Wallpach, 2018). The relation between NBO, volunteers, and employees can also be further explored, as a recognized brand may not just enhance their relationship with the organization but also may work as an attraction to them. Furthermore, the staff relationship with NPO may influence performance, as G. Liu et al. (2015) demonstrated that staff involvement with NPO affects performance. As well, one of the main groups of influence in the NPO in terms of implementing strategies are the managers, and our results pointed organizational factors did not influence the NBO implementation. So, this relationship needs to be further explored, especially in terms of organization size and managers' understanding of branding. Finally, especially in emerging countries it is necessary to understand the impacts of government on brand development, as it can be one of the main sponsors and this competition is not usually made by brands (Sepulcri, Mainardes, & Pascuci, 2020; Sheth, 2011).

# Chapter 7

# 7 CONCLUSIONS

To conclude, our study sought to develop the elements that compose the nonprofit brand orientation (NBO) in an emerging country, also identifying the antecedents, consequents, and barriers to implementing this strategy. In this case, the country studied was Brazil. However, first, we deeply explore and related the existent literature about nonprofit branding and brand orientation. Then, aiming to understand the factors that shape NBO in the context of an emerging economy, we explore qualitatively the meaning of NBO in an emerging country, the antecedents, consequents, and barriers. Our findings related a set of characteristics to each theme (NBO in an emerging country, antecedents, consequents, and barriers). Our results showed that NBO in an emerging country is reflected by the NPO's cause, the mission, the symbols, and the communication. It also showed that NPOs can benefit from implementing NBO in terms of improving performance, improving reputation and the internal relationship with staff. Besides, it was that the unbranded competition (Sheth, 2011) action as a barrier to NBO development. Some peculiarities as the perception of need, the non-commercial mindset, reinforced by the donor's perspective, and the difficulties in implementing consistent communication were also discussed.

Thus, all the characteristics found in the first part were explored quantitatively aiming to group and systematize the elements that make up the NBO in an emerging country, as well as the elements that precede the NBO, the consequences, and the barriers of this strategy. So, we found that the NBO in an emerging country is a higher-order reflective construct composed of two lower-order reflective constructs named communication and cause. The antecedents of NBO were found as a set of lower-order reflective constructs named organizational factors, market factors, and action. The consequents of NBO were found as a set of four lower-order reflective constructs named as fundraising, partnerships, staff relationships, and social influence. And, the barriers to NBP were found as a higher-order reflective construct, composed of four lower-order reflective constructs named communication challenges, commercial aversion, barriers to donation, and economic context.

Therefore, we proposed new measures related to NBO in an emerging country, adding to the previous models in the literature and also discussing, for example, the need of the NPOs to show their results, what is captured by the construct named action, as an antecedent of NBO. Still, the use of the brand to influencing partnerships can also be extended to academia, with benefits in influence public policies and volunteering retention, which was discussed in the social influence. The study also contributes to measuring the barriers and enlarging the discussion of it, as proposed constructs that go beyond the lack of time and/or money (Wong & Merrilees, 2005), but are also linked with socioeconomics characteristics (Casey, 2016) and the culture.

Finally, to complete the development and test of the model, we tested the constructs found in and the relationships proposed. In doing so, the market factors and action were able to positively influence the NBO adoption, while to our surprise, organization factors were not significant. In terms of outcomes, the NBO positively influenced performance and staff relationships. However, the barriers were significant to decrease the influence of NBO in performance. Thus, this study showed the influence of external factors in NBO adoption by NPOs in an emerging country and that NPOs can have gains in implementing NBO. So, despite the different characteristics of emerging countries, brand orientation is also important in this context.

Thus, this thesis contributes in many points to the previous literature: (i) making a systematic review about brand orientation and nonprofit branding, and proposing a research agenda in these themes; (ii) deeply exploring the whole of NBO in an emerging country, which is new in the literature; (iii) proposing and testing new constructs and a new model to measure NBO in an emerging country; (iv) proposing and testing the relationships linked with the implementation and the achievement of the outcomes of this orientation strategy, and (v) proposing and testing the barriers to this implementation and outcomes achievement.

As practical contributions, this thesis can contribute with managers in emerging countries to understand the importance of the brand and the benefits to orient the nonprofit brand not just in terms of internal performance but also to improve the NPO impacts and influence in developing the society as a whole, especially in emerging economies where nonprofit organizations are so required. Also, it reinforces the need to NPOs to increase their knowledge about branding and implement brand strategies. These organizations need to focus on strategic communication and show their results to society, inviting the society to join the cause not out of pity, but because of the importance of the cause and the relevant impact.

In terms of limitations, our results are based on only one emerging country (Brazil) and the characteristics of the sample do not allow generalizations. Therefore, probabilistic samples and different emerging countries can be used in future studies aiming to generalize the results. Also, we suggest that the model present be tested in different realities, also comparing the sectors and the different effects of levels of brand orientation. We argued that brand orientation is related to the success of NPO, so, in some extent, NBO is related to social development, which could be further studie. Given that, the literature about non-profit branding and non-profit brand orientation has a long way to be developed, as the literature about the theme is scarce. So, there is place for qualitative and quantitative research to better explain the differences from developed countries and to test new hypotheses and constructs. Also, the peculiarities of each country open an opportunity for studies that compare one or more countries.

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# APPENDIX A - ARTICLES PER CLUSTER (SORTED BY QUANTITY OF ARTICLES)

| | Authors | Title | Cluster | Number of citations |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | Venable et al. (2005) | The role of brand personality in charitable giving: an assessment and validation | 1 | 145 |
| 2 | Michel and Rieunier (2012) | Nonprofit brand image and typicality influences on charitable giving | | 53 |
| 3 | Sargeant, Ford, et al. (2008) | Charity brand personality: the relationship with giving behavior | | 40 |
| 4 | Faircloth (2005) | Factors influencing nonprofit resource provider support decisions: applying the brand equity concept to nonprofits | | 30 |
| 5 | Voeth and Herbst (2008) | The concept of brand personality as an instrument for advanced non-profit branding – an empirical analysis | | 24 |
| 6 | Sargeant, Hudson, et al. (2008) | Conceptualizing brand values in the charity sector: the relationship between sector, cause and organization | | 22 |
| 7 | A. H. Lee et al. (2015) | Creative food clusters and rural development through place branding: culinary tourism initiatives in Stratford and Muskoka, Ontario, Canada | | 16 |
| 8 | Hankinson et al. (2007) | The time factor in re-branding organizations: its effects on staff knowledge, attitudes and behaviour in UK charities | | 10 |
| 9 | Huang and Ku (2016) | Brand image management for nonprofit organizations: exploring the relationships between websites, brand images and donations | | 10 |
| 10 | Stinnett et al.(2013) | Who are we? The impacts of anthropomorphism and the humanization of nonprofits on brand personality | | 8 |
| 11 | Michaelidou, Micevski, and Cadogan (2015) | An evaluation of nonprofit brand image: towards a better conceptualization and measurement | | 7 |
| 12 | Lwin and Phau (2014) | An exploratory study of existential guilt appeals in charitable advertisements | | 6 |
| 13 | Shehu et al. (2016) | The brand personality of nonprofit organizations and the influence of monetary incentives | | 6 |
| 14 | Michaelidou, Micevski and Siamagka, (2015) | Consumers' intention to donate to two children's charity brands: a comparison of Barnardo's and BBC Children in Need | | 5 |
| 15 | Plewa et al. (2011) | The impact of rebranding on club member relationships | | 5 |
| 16 | Boenigk and Becker (2016) | Toward the importance of nonprofit brand equity: results from a study of German nonprofit organizations | | 3 |
| 17 | Sarrica et al. (2014) | Employer branding in nonprofit organizations. an exploration of factors that are related to attractiveness, | | 1 |

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|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | identification with the organization, and promotion: the case of emergency | | |
| 18 | Katz (2018) | The impact of familiarity and perceived trustworthiness and influence on donations to nonprofits: an unaided recall study | | 0 |
| 19 | Kleinschafer et al. (2018) | The importance of the service encounter in influencing identity salience and volunteering behavior in the cultural sector | | 0 |
| 20 | Lithopoulos et al. (2018) | Examining the ParticipACTION brand using the brand equity pyramid | | 0 |
| 21 | Michaelidou et al. (2019) | Does non-profit brand image mean the same across cultures? an exploratory evaluation of non-profit brand image in three countries | | 0 |
| 22 | Casidy (2014b) | Linking brand orientation with service quality, satisfaction, and positive word-of-mouth: evidence from the higher education sector | | 24 |
| 23 | Z. Lee (2013) | Rebranding in brand-oriented organisations: exploring tensions in the nonprofit sector | | 16 |
| 24 | Miller and Merrilees (2013) | Rebuilding community corporate brands: a total stakeholder involvement approach | | 16 |
| 25 | Mulyanegara (2011a) | The relationship between market orientation, brand orientation and perceived benefits in the non-profit sector: a customer-perceived paradigm | | 15 |
| 26 | Curran et al. (2016) | Nonprofit brand heritage: its ability to influence volunteer retention, engagement, and satisfaction | | 11 |
| 27 | G. Liu et al. (2017) | Managing employee attention and internal branding | | 10 |
| 28 | Wymer et al. (2015) | The conceptualization of nonprofit marketing orientation: a critical reflection and contributions toward closing the practice–theory gap | | 10 |
| 29 | G. Liu et al. (2015) | The role of internal branding in nonprofit brand management: an empirical investigation | | 7 |
| 30 | Chapleo (2015) | Brand ‘infrastructure’ in nonprofit organizations: challenges to successful brand building? | 3 | 6 |
| 31 | G. Liu et al. (2014) | Managing branding and legitimacy: a study of charity retail sector | | 5 |
| 32 | Apaydın (2011) | A proposed model of antecedents and outcomes of brand orientation for nonprofit sector | | 4 |
| 33 | Z. Lee and Bourne (2017) | Managing dual identities in nonprofit rebranding: an exploratory study | | 2 |
| 34 | Rodgers and Jackson (2012) | Are we who we think we are: evaluating brand promise at a liberal-arts institution | | 2 |
| 35 | Curran and Taheri (2019) | Enhancing volunteer experiences: using communitas to improve engagement and commitment | | 1 |
| 36 | C. T. Maier (2016) | Beyond branding: Van Riel and Fombrun’s corporate communication theory in the human services sector | | 1 |
| 37 | Wymer and Akbar (2017) | Brand authenticity, its conceptualization, and its relevance to nonprofit marketing | | 1 |
| 38 | Garg et al. (2019) | Branding effectiveness measurement in non-profit environment | | 0 |

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|---|---|---|---|---|
| 39 | Waters et al. (2009) | Engaging stakeholders through social networking: how nonprofit organizations are using Facebook | | 528 |
| 40 | Eagleman (2013) | Acceptance, motivations, and usage of social media as a marketing communications tool amongst employees of sport national governing bodies | | 40 |
| 41 | Laidler-Kylander et al. (2007) | Building and valuing global brands in the nonprofit sector | | 23 |
| 42 | Mort et al. (2007) | Branding in the non-profit context: the case of Surf Life Saving Australia | | 18 |
| 43 | Goldkind (2015) | Social media and social service: are nonprofits plugged in to the digital age? | | 12 |
| 44 | Bebko et al. (2014) | Using eye tracking to assess the impact of advertising appeals on donor behavior | | 9 |
| 45 | B. F. Liu (2012) | Toward a better understanding of nonprofit communication management | | 7 |
| 46 | Cooke (2010) | Building social capital through corporate social investment | | 6 |
| 47 | Randle et al. (2013) | Competition or collaboration? The effect of non-profit brand image on volunteer recruitment strategy | 5 | 6 |
| 48 | Burton et al. (2017) | Helping those who help us: co-branded and co-created twitter promotion in CSR partnerships | | 5 |
| 49 | Baghi and Gabrielli (2013) | Co-branded cause-related marketing campaigns: the importance of linking two strong brands | | 4 |
| 50 | Thamaraiselvan et al. (2017) | Role of celebrity in cause related marketing | | 3 |
| 51 | Palakshappa et al. (2010) | Integrated strategic partnerships between business and not-for-profit organisations: a case study from New Zealand | | 2 |
| 52 | Torres (2010) | International Committee of the Red Cross: emblems of humanity | | 1 |
| 53 | Domański (2011) | The analysis and synthesis of strategic management research in the third sector from early 2000 through to mid-2009 | | 0 |
| 54 | Nguyen et al. (2018) | Does an expanded brand user base of co-branded advertising help ad-memorability? | | 0 |
| 55 | Waters and Jones (2011) | Using video to build an organization's identity and brand: a content analysis of nonprofit organizations' YouTube videos | | 45 |
| 56 | Woolf et al. (2013) | Do charity sport events function as “brandfests” in the development of brand community? | | 23 |
| 57 | Hassay and Peloza (2009) | Building the charity brand community | | 21 |
| 58 | Herlin (2015) | Better safe than sorry: nonprofit organizational legitimacy and cross-sector partnerships | 4 | 21 |
| 59 | Algharabat et al. (2018) | The effect of telepresence, social presence and involvement on consumer brand engagement: an empirical study of non-profit organizations | | 11 |
| 60 | Boenigk and Schuchardt (2015) | Nonprofit collaboration with luxury brands: positive and negative effects for cause-related marketing | | 7 |
| 61 | Park et al. (2004) | The effects of brand familiarity in alignment advertising | | 7 |

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| 62 | Toledano and Riches (2014) | Brand alliance and event management for social causes: evidence from New Zealand | | 3 |
| 63 | Lloyd and Woodside (2015) | Advancing paradox resolution theory for interpreting non-profit, commercial, entrepreneurial strategies | | 2 |
| 64 | Reeves (2013) | Brand partnerships as joint ventures: a comparison of two partnerships in the small non-profit arena | | 0 |
| 65 | Roozen (2013) | The impact of emotional appeal and the media context on the effectiveness of commercials for not-for-profit and for-profit brands | 6 | 7 |
| 66 | Nolan (2015) | The impact of executive personal branding on non-profit perception and communications | | 5 |
| 67 | Wymer et al. (2016) | Nonprofit brand strength: What is it? How is it measured? What are its outcomes? | | 5 |
| 68 | Vallaster and von Wallpach (2018) | Brand strategy co-creation in a nonprofit context: a strategy-as-practice approach | | 3 |
| 69 | Chad (2015) | Utilising a change management perspective to examine the implementation of corporate rebranding in a non-profit SME | | 1 |
| 70 | Durgee (2016) | Exploring what nonprofit branding can learn from contemporary art | | 0 |
| 71 | Halbert and Mcdowell (2013) | Sustaining local radio journalism: a case study of the WLRN/*Miami Herald* strategic alliance | | 0 |
| 72 | Becker-Olsen and Hill (2006) | The impact of sponsor fit on brand equity: the case of nonprofit service providers | 2 | 107 |
| 73 | Ewing and Napoli (2005) | Developing and validating a multidimensional nonprofit brand orientation scale | | 94 |
| 74 | Vestergaard (2008) | The case of Amnesty International | | 31 |
| 75 | Khan and Ede (2009) | How do not-for-profit SMEs attempt to develop a strong brand in an increasingly saturated market? | | 20 |
| 76 | Mcmullan et al. (2009) | Selling the Canadian Forces' brand to Canada's youth | | 2 |
| 77 | Winston (2017) | Nonprofit product placement: human rights advocacy in film and television | | 2 |

Source: Research data.

# APPENDIX B - SCRIPT: CHARACTERISTICS OF BRAND ORIENTATION IN SOCIAL ORGANIZATIONS

**Before the interview starts, inform the interviewee that:**

**1.** The study is related to the brand of non-profit organizations.

**2.** The interview aims to understand how the brand of non-profit organizations is built, how it relates to the public, employees, and volunteers and what the brand impacts on non-profit organizations are.

**3.** Explain to the interviewee that “brand,” in this research, refers to the brand of non-profit organizations.

**4.** The interview will be conducted following ethical procedures and the information obtained will be used only for research purposes, with no disclosure of the names of the interviewees under any circumstances.

**5.** Request authorization to record the interview to save time for the interviewee and ensure the accurate recording of information.

**6.** Collect a signature on the Informed Consent Form.

## I. INTERVIEWEE’S PROFILE

**1.1** Gender: ( ) Male ( ) Female

**1.2** Age: ________ years

**1.3** Individual monthly income

( ) Have no income

( ) Up to 1 minimum wage

( ) Between 1 and 2 times the minimum wage

( ) Between 2 and 5 times the minimum wage

( ) Between 5 and 10 times the minimum wage

( ) Above 10 times the minimum wage

**1.4** Address (*municipality and neighborhood*):

**1.5** Educational level (*in the case of undergraduate, master’s, or others, state which*):

**1.6** Course and area of specialization (*if any*):

## II. NPO’S PROFILE (in the case of donors or employees)

**2.1** Non-profit organization in which the interviewee participates:

**2.2** Position (in the non-profit and/or other external organization):

**2.3.** Do you have previous experience in other social organizations? ( ) Yes ( ) No

If so, which one(s)?

**2.4** How long have you been part of the current organization?

## III. DISCUSSION POINTS

**3.1** Tell me about what led you (or what would lead you in the case of non-volunteers) to participate/work in a non-profit organization? (*How did you get here OR where and why would you like to act?*)

**3.2** What are some words that, in your opinion, symbolize the brand of the non-profit organization _______________ (say the name), always. (*Identify terms related to the brand, alignment, large and small organizations—non-donors.*)

**3.3** For you, what does it mean/represent to think of the non-profit organization as a brand (*example: revenue, image, market, differentiation, can you see yourself as a brand?*)

**3.4** In your opinion, does your organization's brand represent well what the organization does? Justify your answer (*express objectives, symbols, alignment, relationships*).

**3.5** How did you know about the brand of the non-profit organization________________? Where did you see/hear about it? Cite examples. (*Social network (which one?), word of mouth, TV advertisements, events, others?*)

**3.6** In your perception, does it make a difference for a non-profit organization to have its brand known? Why? (*Explore whether positively and negatively; donation of goods, time, and money, trust, differentiation, other? Same or different for any organization?*)

**3.7** In your opinion, what makes (or should make) the brand known? Cite examples (*investment, knowledge, short-term thinking, promotion, advertising, social networks, events, partners, others*).

**3.8** In your opinion, what aspects hinder brand recognition? Cite examples (*lack of investment, (lack of) knowledge of marketing, failed dissemination, short-term thinking, others).*

**Note**: The script was written and used in Portuguese and then translated into English.

# APPENDIX C – ELEMENTS OF NONPROFIT BRAND ORIENTATION,

| Item | NBO in an emerging country (variables) | Variable definition |
|---|---|---|
| O1 | Focus of a cause | Focus of a specific cause |
| O2 | Ability to respond to market changes | NPO's ability to respond to changes in their sector and stakeholder needs over time |
| O3 | Target-public | Understanding of the target-public who may be sensitive to the cause |
| O4 | Changing of public | Understanding of how the target-public may change during the time |
| O5 | Stakeholders altruism | Stakeholder willingness to engage with social organizations based on altruism |
| O6 | Public empathy with the cause | The affinity between the public and the cause |
| O7 | Appeal | Natural appeal of the cause which can boost the brand or can require more effort to grab people to join the NPO |
| O8 | Name | The link between the NPO's name and what it represents to the stakeholders |
| O9 | Organization internal process | The internal process used by the NPO to achieve their goals, and align with their values |
| O10 | Logo | The link between the NPO Logo and what it represents to the stakeholders |
| O11 | Mission | What the organization aims to achieve |
| O12 | Extension of the mission | What the organization do to go beyond their core work to meet the needs of stakeholders |
| O13 | Services or products offered | Services or products offered by the NPO, aligned with the nonprofit brand |
| O14 | Stakeholder feedback | Feedback process regarding how the stakeholders see the organization's activities and the brand |
| O15 | Evaluation of marketing practices | Internal evaluation of NPO marketing practices, checking the consistency with the brand |
| O16 | Brand message | Marketing activities to promote a consistent NPO brand message |
| O17 | Stakeholder perceptions | Stakeholder perceptions regarding what they like and dislike about the organization |
| O18 | Staff training | NPO staff training to teach not just the NPO's process but also values and beliefs |
| O19 | Advertising strategies | Advertising strategies to develop a good image or understanding of the brand linked with the work of the NPO |
| O20 | External brand strategies | Strategies to develop the brand and a relationship with external stakeholders |
| O21 | Internal brand strategies | Strategies to develop the brand and a relationship with internal stakeholders |
| O22 | Communication channels | Channels used to carry out brand communication |
| O23 | Transparency | Communication used for accountability |
| O24 | Promotion of the achieved social results | Communication to promote the effectiveness of the work of the NPO, associated with the brand |

| Item | Antecedents of NBO (variables) | Variable definition |
|---|---|---|
| A1 | Understanding of the social gap | Understanding of the social gap/problem that the NPO wants to work with |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| A2 | Tradition | Age of NPO, and how the organization and its brand have developed and changed over the years |
| A3 | Manager experience | Manager experience with NPO and brand |
| A4 | Governance system | More structured organizations, with a well-developed governance system, are more likely to be supported in their cause and also to implement long-term strategies |
| A5 | Business process | The level of definition and knowledge of business processes |
| A6 | Skilled staff | How prepared the staff members are well for their positions |
| A7 | Environment competition | Competition from other NPO |
| A8 | Regional scope | The NPO's ability to demonstrate a positive impact in the region in which they act |
| A9 | Community involvement | Integration of the NPO with the whole community, not just with the assisted public |
| A10 | Perceived services quality | Perceived quality of the service provided by the social organization |
| A11 | Relationship with for-profit companies | NPO strategy to attract for-profit companies concerned about corporate social responsibility |
| A12 | Need to attract volunteers and employees | The ability of the NPO to attract volunteers or employees |
| A13 | Innovative organizational culture | How open and innovative the organization`s culture is to accepting new strategies to develop the brand |
| A14 | Ability to implementation of brand strategies | The ability of the NPO to effectively implement the strategies to develop the nonprofit brand |

| **Item** | **Outcomes of NBO (variables)** | **Variable definition** |
|---|---|---|
| C1 | Perception of benefits by the staff | Perception of personal benefits by the staff in work in the NPO |
| C2 | Staff brand oriented behavior | Staff behavior aligned with the brand orientation |
| C3 | Staff engagement | Staff engagement with the NPO |
| C4 | Staff identification | Staff personal identification with the NPO and its cause |
| C5 | Sense of purpose | Feeling of purpose due to the social work done in the organization |
| C6 | Internal brand image | Brand image internally |
| C7 | Brand image | Brand image externally |
| C8 | Staff commitment | Staff commitment to the NPO |
| C9 | Credibility | The credibility of the NPO among the stakeholders |
| C10 | Volunteer attraction | Ease of attracting volunteers to join the NPO |
| C11 | Volunteer retention | Ease of keeping volunteers working in the NPO |
| C12 | NPO financial sustainability | Development of alternative sources of fundraising or savings to ensure the organization's sustainability |
| C13 | Society mobilization | Mobilizing people |
| C14 | Organization's reputation | The reputation of the NPO among the stakeholders |
| C15 | Brand strength | Development of a strong brand |
| C16 | Brand recognition | Development of a recognized brand |
| C17 | Donors of money or goods attraction | Ease of attracting donors of money or goods to donate to the NPO |
| C18 | Funding diversification | Diversification of funding sources that do not involve a direct or continuous donation |
| C19 | Cause awareness | Awareness of society about cause's importance |
| C20 | Increased demand from society | Increased demand from society for the work performed by the organization |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| C21 | Use of marketing strategies to raise funds | Marketing strategies that facilitate or encourage the donation of money, time and/or assets or the raising of resources in general |
| C22 | Nonprofit brand and partner brand alignment | The brand's associations between the NPO and partner brand should be aligned to both companies' values and beliefs |
| C23 | Perceived benefits by the partner | The perceived benefits when partnering with an NPO, especially by the for-profit companies |
| C24 | Partnerships with other NPO | Partnerships with other NPO in terms of helping each other |
| C25 | Partnerships with for-profit organizations | Partnerships between an NPO and a for-profit company |
| C26 | Partnerships with government | Partnerships between an NPO and the government |
| C27 | Partnership with academia | Partnerships between an NPO and academia in terms of research and the development of strategies |

| **Item** | **Barriers of NBO (variables)** | **Variable definition** |
|---|---|---|
| B1 | Lack of donation culture | People's culture as a barrier to donating money |
| B2 | Distrust in management | People's distrust in financial resources management as a barrier to the donation of money |
| B3 | Legislation | Legislative barrier to the donation of money |
| B4 | Discontinuity of donations | Discontinuity of monetary donation |
| B5 | Excess of focus on short-term necessities | When the social organization keeps their focus on short term necessities, for example: always asking for specific donations (related to the short-term cause problems) to continue their work, or if there is an emergency (for example, a natural disaster) |
| B6 | Fame of NPO | If the NPO is famous or recognized, people may think that it has or receives enough (or too much) money, so they do not donate to this organization. |
| B7 | Apprehension in using social media communication channels | Apprehension about the presence on social networks due to possible criticism from external stakeholders |
| B8 | Difficulties in communication due to NPO size | Difficulties in communication due to the NPO dimension (too big) |
| B9 | Difficulties promoting the extended mission | Difficulties promoting what the organization does beyond their core work, as their brand is strongly associated with the main cause and mission |
| B10 | Lack of awareness of the cause | Relationship with the social institution not due to an awareness of helping the cause |
| B11 | Lack of interest in donating | People's lack of interest in donating |
| B12 | Difficulty communicating the results | Difficulties communicating the NPO's social impact and results |
| B13 | Bureaucracy | The difficulty of the NPO gaining official registration |
| B14 | Lack of vision as a nonprofit business | Resistance to considering the NPO as a business |
| B15 | Financial crisis | Brazilian financial crisis |
| B16 | Lack of financial resources | NPO financial difficulties with very small budgets |
| B17 | Difficulties in implement strategic projects | Difficulties of the NPO in implementing strategic projects |
| B18 | The negative association with commercial practices | Apprehension about adopting certain practices and looking too commercial |
| B19 | Resistance to funding diversification | Resistance to implementing new means of funding |
| B20 | Lack of available international funding | Shortage of international resources, which decreases funding possibilities |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| B21 | Resistance to brand | Resistance to thinking about the nonprofit brand as a brand |
| B22 | Lack of understanding of brand strategies | Lack of understanding of brand and brand strategies |
| B23 | Resistance to adopting brand strategies | Resistance to adopting new ways of working in the NPO, associated with brand strategies |
| B24 | Focus on the short-term | Excess of focus on short-term and daily operations |
| B25 | Distrust of NPO | Social distrust in NPO |
| B26 | Political and economic context | The political and economic context in which the NPO acts |

# APPENDIX D – QUESTIONNAIRE OF STUDY 2

Dear respondent, my name is Lara Sepulcri and I am a PhD candidate student in Accounting and Administration at Fucape Business School. The following questionnaire is part of my doctoral thesis and aims to analyze people's perceptions of nonprofit organizations in Brazil. They are examples of nonprofit organizations: NGOs, churches, private foundations and private associations, such as Projeto Tamar, APAE, Instituto Ayrton Senna, among others. Moreover, the concept of brand can be understood as a set of attributes associated with the organization (such as name, logo, cause, values, among others) that sets it apart from other organizations.

For example, in the Tamar Project we have the turtle logo, the name that derives from TArtaruga MARinha (Sea Turtle), the cause is the protection of sea turtles and the mission is to recover these animals by developing **research actions, conservation and social inclusion. All of these attributes constitute the hallmark of the Tamar Project.**

The answers obtained will serve as a source of data for the conclusion of the study. At no time are the questions aimed at identifying or exposing you. The collected data will be used exclusively for academic purposes and your anonymity will be preserved. Furthermore, there is no right or wrong answer; the following sentences will only analyze your degree of agreement/disagreement with each of the statements.

If you want, you can follow the development of the research through the website: www.cemos.com.br

I thank you in advance for your time and collaboration.

Lara Sepulcri

Questions:

| **Which group do you belong to? If more than one, choose the main one.** | |
|---|---|
| | I am an employee of a social organization |
| | I am a volunteer (time giver) of a social organization |
| | I am a donor of money or goods (such as clothes, food) to a social organization |
| | I am not an employee of a social organization or donor |
| | Other |
| **If you are an employee of a social organization or volunteer, what is your role within the organization? If not, answer "not applicable"** | |
| | I act as director |
| | I act as manager/administrator |
| | I work in the operational or technical area |
| | I work in another role |
| | Not applicable |

Based on your perception of social organizations in Brazil, answer, on a scale of 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree), what is your degree of agreement with each of the following statements:

| Item | Statement |
|---|---|
| O1 | Social organizations focus their brands on a specific cause. |
| O2 | Social organizations direct their brands to respond to changes in the sector in which they operate. For example: an organization provided family health monitoring services, which started to be offered by SUS. Thus, it ceases to provide this service and focuses its activities on other health actions, such as feeding the family or another action. |
| O3 | Social organizations direct their brands to their target audiences. |

| | |
|---|---|
| O4 | Social organizations target their brands to respond to changes in the behavior of the organization's target audiences. For example, social organizations need to adopt environmentally sustainable practices or other aspects that were not common in their target audiences before. |
| O5 | The brands of social organizations stimulate people's solidarity. |
| O6 | Social organizations develop their brands to generate affinity between their target audience and their causes. |
| O7 | Social organizations promote their brands based on the appeal of the defended cause. |
| O8 | Social organizations create brand names that represent their causes. |
| O9 | Social organizations develop their internal processes in line with the values of their brands. For example, social organizations that have values of sustainability, incorporate sustainable practices in their work. |
| O10 | Social organizations create logos and symbols that represent their causes. |
| O11 | Social organizations create brands that represent their missions and values. |
| O12 | Brands represent the different fronts on which social organizations operate. For example, an organization that operates in animal rescue, also carries out awareness campaigns on the abandonment of animals. |
| O13 | Social organizations offer products and services aligned with their brands. |
| O14 | Social organizations evaluate their brands through the perceptions of their audiences. |
| O15 | Social organizations align their marketing practices with their brands. |
| O16 | Social organizations consistently promote their brands. |
| O17 | Social organizations recognize what their audiences like and dislike about their brands. |
| O18 | Social organizations share the meaning of their brands in the training given to their teams. |
| O19 | Social organizations direct their advertisements to build the image of their brands. |
| O20 | Brands stimulate the relationship of social organizations with their external audiences. For example: donors of money and goods, suppliers and society in general. |
| O21 | Brands stimulate the relationship of social organizations with their internal audiences. For example: employees and volunteers. |
| O22 | Social organizations expose their brands in different communication channels. |
| O23 | Social organizations develop their brands to demonstrate transparency in the use of their financial resources. |
| O24 | Social organizations communicate the results of the organization through their brands (such as the social impacts achieved or the goals that have been achieved). |

| Item | Statement |
|---|---|
| A1 | By understanding the social problem/cause they work for, this leads social organizations to develop their brands. |
| A2 | Traditional social organizations tend to develop important brands. |
| A3 | Having professionals with experience in brand management leads social organizations to leverage their own brands. |
| A4 | Adopting good control and management mechanisms for the organization and its resources, leads social organizations to develop their brands and implement long-term strategies. |
| A5 | Understanding clearly what the organization does and how it works, leads social organizations to develop their brands. |
| A6 | Having more qualified personnel leads social organizations to develop their brands. |
| A7 | The competition of a social organization with other social organizations leads to the development of the brands of such organizations. |
| A8 | To demonstrate the positive impacts in the region in which they operate, social organizations develop their brands. |
| A9 | The involvement of the local community in social organizations leads to the development of the brands of these organizations. |
| A10 | The provision of good quality products and services, related to the cause, leads social organizations to develop their brands. |
| A11 | The search for partnerships with for-profit companies leads social organizations to develop their brands. |

| | |
|---|---|
| A12 | The need to attract volunteers and employees leads social organizations to develop their brands. |
| A13 | An innovative organizational culture and open to change leads social organizations to develop their brands. |
| A14 | The greater capacity to implement brand strategies leads social organizations to develop their own brands. |

| Item | Statement |
|---|---|
| C1 | Social organizations' brands lead employees to realize personal benefits when developing their work. |
| C2 | Employees of social organizations demonstrate behaviors in accordance with the beliefs and values of the brands of social organizations. |
| C3 | The brands of social organizations lead employees to have a higher level of engagement. |
| C4 | Social organizations’ brands lead employees to identify with the cause |
| C5 | The brands of social organizations lead employees to share a sense of purpose/mission in their work. |
| C6 | The image of social organizations’ brands for their employees reflects the orientation of these brands by the organization’s management. For example: the organization’s management creates the brand so that it is seen as innovative and then the brand is perceived as innovative by the employees of the social organization. |
| C7 | The image of social organizations' brands to society reflects the orientation of these brands by the organization's management. For example: the organization's management creates the brand so that it is seen as innovative and then the brand is perceived as innovative by society. |
| C8 | The brands of social organizations lead employees to have a higher level of commitment. |
| C9 | The brands of social organizations give credibility to their audiences. |
| C10 | The brands of social organizations facilitate the attraction of volunteers. |
| C11 | The brands of social organizations facilitate the retention of volunteers. |
| C12 | The brands of social organizations facilitate fundraising from various sources. |
| C13 | The brands of social organizations facilitate the mobilization of people for the cause. |
| C14 | The brands of social organizations ensure the good reputation of the organization with its audiences. |
| C15 | The development of social organizations’ brand orientation leads these organizations to strengthen their own brands. |
| C16 | The development of social organizations' brand orientation leads these organizations to have brands recognized by society. |
| C17 | The brands of social organizations facilitate the attraction of donations of goods and/or money. |
| C18 | The brands of social organizations make it easier to obtain resources through alternative sources (such as selling products, renting space), other than direct donation. |
| C19 | The brands of social organizations facilitate the population’s awareness of the cause. |
| C20 | The brands of social organizations lead society to expect more from the work of such organizations. |
| C21 | The brands of social organizations facilitate the adoption of marketing strategies to encourage society to donate money, time or goods. |
| C22 | Brands from social organizations facilitate association with brands from other organizations that are aligned with their values and beliefs. |
| C23 | The brands of social organizations facilitate the perception of organizations in general that support the cause to realize the benefits of providing this support. |
| C24 | The brands of social organizations influence the establishment of partnerships with other nonprofit entities. |
| C25 | The brands of social organizations influence the realization of partnerships with for-profit companies. |
| C26 | The brands of social organizations facilitate the influence of these organizations in public policies. |
| C27 | The brands of social organizations influence the realization of partnerships with the scientific academy (colleges and universities). |

| Item | Statement |
|---|---|
| B1 | The culture of non-donation from society makes it difficult to build the brands of social organizations. |
| B2 | The lack of confidence in the management of financial resources by social organizations makes it difficult to build the brands of these organizations. |
| B3 | Brazilian law makes it difficult for companies and individuals to donate money, and is a barrier to building the brands of social organizations. |
| B4 | A barrier to building the brands of social organizations is the lack of continuity in financial donations. |
| B5 | The over-focus of social organizations on short-term needs is a barrier to building the brands of these organizations. |
| B6 | By having famous brands, social organizations receive less donations, as the public understands that they already have enough resources. |
| B7 | A barrier to building the brands of social organizations is the fear of organizations to expose their brands on social media. |
| B8 | Large social organizations have difficulties in properly communicating their brands and actions to society. |
| B9 | The difficulty of social organizations in showing their work that goes beyond the main cause is a barrier to building brands in these organizations. |
| B10 | Social organizations receive more support for necessity or pity than for the notoriety of their brands. |
| B11 | People's lack of interest in making donations is a barrier to building the brands of social organizations. |
| B12 | The difficulty of social organizations in communicating the results they achieve is a barrier to building the brands of social organizations. |
| B13 | The difficulty of social organizations in dealing with bureaucracy and legal aspects is a barrier to building the brands of these organizations. |
| B14 | A barrier to building the brands of social organizations is the resistance of these organizations to consider themselves as a social business. |
| B15 | National financial crises are a barrier to building the brands of social organizations. |
| B16 | The lack of money in social organizations is a barrier to building the brands of these organizations. |
| B17 | A barrier to building the brands of social organizations is the difficulty in implementing strategic projects. |
| B18 | A barrier to building the brands of social organizations is the aversion of social organizations to practices that seem "very commercial". |
| B19 | The resistance of social organizations to diversify fundraising is a barrier to building the brands of these organizations. |
| B20 | The decrease in international funds available to finance social organizations is a barrier to building the brands of these organizations. |
| B21 | A barrier to building the brands of social organizations is the resistance of these organizations to think of themselves as brands. |
| B22 | A barrier to building the brands of social organizations is the low knowledge of managers. |
| B23 | The resistance of social organizations to adopt brand strategies is a barrier to building these organizations' brands. |
| B24 | The excess of focus by social organizations in daily activities is a barrier to building the brands of these organizations. |
| B25 | The disrepute of some social organizations by society is a barrier to building the brands of these organizations. |
| B26 | The unfavorable political and economic context (for example, the lack of political support and economic difficulties) is a barrier to building the brands of social organizations. |

Now, some personal questions (remember: you will not be identified):

| **In your opinion, how important are nonprofit organizations to society?** |
|---|

| | |
|---|---|
| | They are not important |
| | They are of little importance |
| | Important |
| | Very important |
| | Extremely important |
| **How long have you been donating or participating in activities in nonprofit organization (s)?** | |
| | Less than 1 year |
| | 1 to 2 years |
| | 2 to 5 years |
| | 5 to 10 years |
| | More than 10 years |
| | I don't donate/participate |
| **How often do you donate or participate in activities in nonprofit organizations?** | |
| | Weekly |
| | Monthly |
| | Annually |
| | Sporadically |
| | I never donate/participate |
| | I am an employee of a social organization |
| | Other |
| **The nonprofit organization(s) you usually donate or participate in activities are:** | |
| | Near your home |
| | Near your work |
| | In the municipality where you live, but not close to your home or work |
| | In the state where you live, but outside the municipality where you live or work |
| | They are not located in the state in which you live or work, but operate in Brazil |
| | They do not operate in Brazil, that is, they are exclusively foreign |
| | I do not participate/donate |
| | Other |
| **Approximately, how many nonprofit organizations do you know personally?** | |
| | Up to 2 |
| | Between 3 and 6 |
| | Between 7 and 9 |
| | Between 10 and 12 |
| | More than 12 |
| **What is your gender?** | |
| | Male |
| | Female |
| **How old are you?** | |
| | Up to 20 years of age |
| | Between 21 and 30 years of age |
| | Between 31 and 40 years of age |
| | Between 41 and 50 years of age |
| | Above 50 years of age |
| **What is your marital status?** | |
| | Single |
| | Married |
| | Divorced |

| | |
|---|---|
| | Widower |
| | Other |
| **What is your educational level?** | |
| | Elementary education or less |
| | High school/technical |
| | University education |
| | Postgraduate studies |
| | Other |
| **Which region of Brazil do you live in?** | |
| | Northeast |
| | North |
| | Midwest |
| | Southeast |
| | South |
| | I live abroad |
| **Currently, what is your occupation?** | |
| | Student |
| | For-profit private sector employee |
| | Third sector employee |
| | Public sector employee |
| | Self-employed |
| | Retired |
| | Other |
| **What is your monthly income?** | |
| | Up to BRL 2,000.00 |
| | Between BRL 2,001.00 and BRL 5,000.00 |
| | Between BRL 5,001.00 and BRL 8,000.00 |
| | Between BRL 8,001.00 and BRL 12,000.00 |
| | Between BRL 12,001.00 and BRL 15,000.00 |
| | Above BRL 15,000.00 |

**Note:** The questionnaire was formulated and applied in Portuguese and then translated.

# APPENDIX E - FRAME OF CONSTRUCTS

| CONSTRUCT: NBO IN AN EMERGING COUNTRY | | |
|---|---|---|
| **DIMENSION** | **VARIABLE** | **CODE** |
| Communication (COM) | Nonprofit organizations communicate the results of the organization through their brands (such as the social impacts achieved or the goals that have been achieved). | COM1 |
| | Nonprofit organizations develop their brands to demonstrate transparency in the use of their financial resources. | COM2 |
| | Nonprofit organizations recognize what their audiences like and dislike about their brands. | COM3 |
| | Brands stimulate the relationship of nonprofit organizations with their internal audiences. For example: NPO's employees and volunteers. | COM4 |
| | Nonprofit organizations share the meaning of their brands in the training given to their teams. | COM5 |
| | Nonprofit organizations direct their advertisements to build the image of their brands. | COM6 |
| | Nonprofit organizations consistently promote their brands. | COM7 |
| | Brands stimulate the relationship of nonprofit organizations with their external audiences. For example: donors of money and goods, suppliers and society in general. | COM8 |
| | Nonprofit organizations align their marketing practices with their brands. | COM9 |
| | Nonprofit organizations evaluate their brands through the perceptions of their audiences. | COM10 |
| Cause (CAU) | Nonprofit organizations create logos and symbols that represent their causes. | CAU1 |
| | Nonprofit organizations create brand names that represent their causes. | CAU2 |
| | Nonprofit organizations create brands that represent their missions and values. | CAU3 |
| | Nonprofit organizations develop their brands to generate affinity between their target audience and their causes. | CAU4 |
| | The brands of nonprofit organizations stimulate people's solidarity. | CAU5 |
| **CONSTRUCTS: ANTECEDENTS** | | |
| Organizational factors (ORG) | Understanding clearly what the organization does and how it works, leads nonprofit organizations to develop their brands. | ORG1 |
| | Adopting good control and management mechanisms for the organization and its resources, leads nonprofit organizations to develop their brands and implement long-term strategies. | ORG2 |
| | An innovative organizational culture and open to change leads nonprofit organizations to develop their brands. | ORG3 |
| | The provision of good quality products and services, related to the cause, leads nonprofit organizations to develop their brands. | ORG4 |
| | The greater capacity to implement brand strategies leads nonprofit organizations to develop their own brands. | ORG5 |
| | Having more qualified personnel leads nonprofit organizations to develop their brands. | ORG6 |
| Market factors (MKT) | The competition of a nonprofit organization with other nonprofit organizations leads to the development of the brands of such organizations. | MKT1 |
| | The search for partnerships with for-profit companies leads nonprofit organizations to develop their brands. | MKT2 |
| | The need to attract volunteers and employees leads nonprofit organizations to develop their brands. | MKT3 |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Action (ACT) | Traditional nonprofit organizations tend to develop important brands. | ACT1 |
| | To demonstrate the positive impacts on the region in which they operate, nonprofit organizations develop their brands. | ACT2 |
| | By understanding the social problem/cause they work for, this leads nonprofit organizations to develop their brands. | ACT3 |
| | **CONSTRUCTS: CONSEQUENTS** | |
| Fundiraising (FUN) | Nonprofit organizations' brands facilitate fundraising from a variety of sources. | FUN1 |
| | The brands of nonprofit organizations facilitate the attraction of donations of goods and/or money. | FUN2 |
| | The brands of nonprofit organizations ensure the good reputation of the organization with its audiences. | FUN3 |
| | The brands of nonprofit organizations facilitate the mobilization of people for the cause. | FUN4 |
| | The brands of nonprofit organizations make it easier to obtain resources through alternative sources (such as selling products, renting space), other than direct donation. | FUN5 |
| | The image of nonprofit organizations' brands to society reflects the orientation of these brands by the organization's management. For example: the organization's management creates the brand so that it is seen as innovative and then the brand is perceived as innovative by society. | FUN6 |
| Partnerships (PAR) | Nonprofit organizations' brands influence partnerships with other nonprofits. | PAR1 |
| | Nonprofit organization brands facilitate association with brands from other organizations that are aligned with their values and beliefs. | PAR2 |
| | The brands of nonprofit organizations facilitate the perception of organizations in general that support the cause to realize the benefits of providing this support. | PAR3 |
| | Nonprofit organization brands influence partnering with for-profit companies. | PAR4 |
| | The brands of nonprofit organizations facilitate the population’s awareness of the cause. | PAR5 |
| Staff relationship (STA) | Nonprofit organizations’ brands lead employees to share a sense of purpose/mission in their work. | STA1 |
| | The brands of nonprofit organizations lead employees to have a higher level of engagement. | STA2 |
| | Employees of nonprofit organizations demonstrate behaviors according to the beliefs and values of the brands of nonprofit organizations. | STA3 |
| | The brands of nonprofit organizations lead employees to identify with the cause. | STA4 |
| Social Influence (SOL) | The brands of nonprofit organizations influence the establishment of partnerships with the scientific academia (colleges and universities). | SOL1 |
| | Nonprofit organization brands make it easier to retain volunteers. | SOL2 |
| | The brands of nonprofit organizations facilitate the influence of these organizations in public policies. | SOL3 |
| | **CONSTRUCT: BARRIERS TO NBO** | |
| Communicatio n challenges (COC) | Large nonprofit organizations have difficulties in properly communicating their brands and actions to society. | COC1 |
| | By having famous brands, nonprofit organizations receive less donations, as the public understands that they already have enough resources. | COC2 |
| | A barrier to building the brands of nonprofit organizations is the fear of organizations to expose their brands on social media. | COC3 |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| | Nonprofit organizations receive more support out of necessity or pity than their brand awareness. | COC4 |
| | The difficulty of nonprofit organizations in showing their work that goes beyond the main cause is a barrier to building brands in these organizations. | COC5 |
| Commercial aversion (CAV) | A barrier to building the brands of nonprofit organizations is the resistance of these organizations to think of themselves as brands. | CAV1 |
| | A barrier to building the brands of nonprofit organizations is the resistance of these organizations to consider themselves as a social business. | CAV2 |
| | A barrier to building the brands of nonprofit organizations is the difficulty in implementing strategic projects. | CAV3 |
| | A barrier to building the brands of nonprofit organizations is the aversion of nonprofit organizations to practices that seem "very commercial". | CAV4 |
| | The resistance of nonprofit organizations to adopt brand strategies is a barrier to building the brands of these organizations. | CAV5 |
| Barriers to donation (BDO) | The lack of confidence in the management of financial resources by nonprofit organizations makes it difficult to build the brands of these organizations. | BDO1 |
| | The culture of non-donation from society makes it difficult to build the brands of nonprofit organizations. | BDO2 |
| | A barrier to building the brands of nonprofit organizations is the lack of continuity in financial donations. | BDO3 |
| | The difficulty of nonprofit organizations in communicating the results they achieve is a barrier to building the brands of nonprofit organizations. | BDO4 |
| | People's lack of interest in making donations is a barrier to building the brands of nonprofit organizations. | BDO5 |
| Economic context (ECO) | National financial crises are a barrier to building the brands of nonprofit organizations. | ECO1 |
| | The unfavorable political and economic context (for example, the lack of political support and economic difficulties) is a barrier to building the brands of nonprofit organizations. | ECO2 |
| | The decrease in international funds available to finance nonprofit organizations is a barrier to building the brands of these organizations. | ECO3 |

# APPENDIX F – QUESTIONNAIRE OF STUDY 3

Dear respondent, my name is Lara Sepulcri and I am a PhD candidate student in Accounting and Administration at Fucape Business School. The following questionnaire is part of my doctoral thesis and aims to analyze people's perceptions of social organizations in Brazil. They are examples of social organizations: NGOs, churches, private foundations and private associations, such as Projeto Tamar, APAE, Instituto Ayrton Senna, among others. Moreover, the concept of brand can be understood as a set of attributes associated with the organization (such as name, logo, cause, values, among others) that sets it apart from other organizations.

For example, in the Tamar Project we have the turtle logo, the name that derives from TArtaruga MARinha (Sea Turtle), the cause is the protection of sea turtles and the mission is to recover these animals by developing **research actions, conservation and social inclusion. All of these attributes constitute the hallmark of the Tamar Project.**

The answers obtained will serve as a source of data for the conclusion of the study. At no time are the questions aimed at identifying or exposing you. The collected data will be used exclusively for academic purposes and your anonymity will be preserved. Furthermore, there is no right or wrong answer; the following sentences will only analyze your degree of agreement/disagreement with each of the statements.

If you want, you can follow the development of the research through the website: www.cemos.com.br

I thank you in advance for your time and collaboration.

Lara Sepulcri

Questions:

| **Which group do you belong to? If more than one, choose the main one.** | |
|---|---|
| | I am an employee of a social organization |
| | I am a volunteer (time giver) of a social organization |
| | I am a donor of money or goods (such as clothes, food) to a social organization |
| | I am not an employee of a social organization or donor |
| | Other |

| **If you are an employee of a social organization or volunteer, what is your role within the organization? If not, answer "not applicable"** | |
|---|---|
| | I act as director |
| | I act as manager/administrator |
| | I work in the operational or technical area |
| | I work in another role |
| | Not applicable |

Based on your perception of social organizations in Brazil, answer, on a scale of 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree), what is your degree of agreement with each of the following statements:

| Item | Statement |
|---|---|
| 1 | Nonprofit organizations communicate the results of the organization through their brands (such as the social impacts achieved or the goals that have been achieved). |
| 2 | Nonprofit organizations develop their brands to demonstrate transparency in the use of their financial resources. |
| 3 | Nonprofit organizations recognize what their audiences like and dislike about their brands. |
| 4 | Brands stimulate the relationship of nonprofit organizations with their internal audiences. For example: NPO's employees and volunteers. |

| | |
|---|---|
| 5 | Nonprofit organizations share the meaning of their brands in the training given to their teams. |
| 6 | Nonprofit organizations direct their advertisements to build the image of their brands. |
| 7 | Nonprofit organizations consistently promote their brands. |
| 8 | Brands stimulate the relationship of nonprofit organizations with their external audiences. For example: donors of money and goods, suppliers and society in general. |
| 9 | Nonprofit organizations align their marketing practices with their brands. |
| 10 | Nonprofit organizations evaluate their brands through the perceptions of their audiences. |
| 11 | Nonprofit organizations create logos and symbols that represent their causes. |
| 12 | Nonprofit organizations create brand names that represent their causes. |
| 13 | Nonprofit organizations create brands that represent their missions and values. |
| 14 | Nonprofit organizations develop their brands to generate affinity between their target audience and their causes. |
| 15 | The brands of nonprofit organizations stimulate people's solidarity. |

| **Item** | **Statement** |
|---|---|
| 16 | Understanding clearly what the organization does and how it works, leads nonprofit organizations to develop their brands. |
| 17 | Adopting good control and management mechanisms for the organization and its resources, leads nonprofit organizations to develop their brands and implement long-term strategies. |
| 18 | An innovative organizational culture and open to change leads nonprofit organizations to develop their brands. |
| 19 | The provision of good quality products and services, related to the cause, leads nonprofit organizations to develop their brands. |
| 20 | The greater capacity to implement brand strategies leads nonprofit organizations to develop their own brands. |
| 21 | Having more qualified personnel leads nonprofit organizations to develop their brands. |
| 22 | The competition of a nonprofit organization with other nonprofit organizations leads to the development of the brands of such organizations. |
| 23 | The search for partnerships with for-profit companies leads nonprofit organizations to develop their brands. |
| 24 | The need to attract volunteers and employees leads nonprofit organizations to develop their brands. |
| 25 | Traditional nonprofit organizations tend to develop important brands. |
| 26 | To demonstrate the positive impacts on the region in which they operate, nonprofit organizations develop their brands. |
| 27 | By understanding the social problem/cause they work for, this leads nonprofit organizations to develop their brands. |

| **Item** | **Statement** |
|---|---|
| 28 | Nonprofit organizations' brands facilitate fundraising from a variety of sources. |
| 29 | The brands of nonprofit organizations facilitate the attraction of donations of goods and/or money. |
| 30 | The brands of nonprofit organizations ensure the good reputation of the organization with its audiences. |
| 31 | The brands of nonprofit organizations facilitate the mobilization of people for the cause. |
| 32 | The brands of nonprofit organizations make it easier to obtain resources through alternative sources (such as selling products, renting space), other than direct donation. |
| 33 | The image of nonprofit organizations' brands to society reflects the orientation of these brands by the organization's management. For example: the organization's management creates the brand so that it is seen as innovative and then the brand is perceived as innovative by society. |
| 34 | Nonprofit organizations' brands influence partnerships with other nonprofits. |
| 35 | Nonprofit organization brands facilitate association with brands from other organizations that are aligned with their values and beliefs. |

| | |
|---|---|
| 36 | The brands of nonprofit organizations facilitate the perception of organizations in general that support the cause to realize the benefits of providing this support. |
| 37 | Nonprofit organization brands influence partnering with for-profit companies. |
| 38 | The brands of nonprofit organizations facilitate the population’s awareness of the cause. |
| 39 | Nonprofit organizations’ brands lead employees to share a sense of purpose/mission in their work. |
| 40 | The brands of nonprofit organizations lead employees to have a higher level of engagement. |
| 41 | Employees of nonprofit organizations demonstrate behaviors according to the beliefs and values of the brands of nonprofit organizations. |
| 42 | The brands of nonprofit organizations lead employees to identify with the cause. |
| 43 | The brands of nonprofit organizations influence the establishment of partnerships with the scientific academia (colleges and universities). |
| 44 | Nonprofit organization brands make it easier to retain volunteers. |
| 45 | The brands of nonprofit organizations facilitate the influence of these organizations in public policies. |

| **Item** | **Statement** |
|---|---|
| 46 | Large nonprofit organizations have difficulties in properly communicating their brands and actions to society. |
| 47 | By having famous brands, nonprofit organizations receive less donations, as the public understands that they already have enough resources. |
| 48 | A barrier to building the brands of nonprofit organizations is the fear of organizations to expose their brands on social media. |
| 49 | Nonprofit organizations receive more support out of necessity or pity than their brand awareness. |
| 50 | The difficulty of nonprofit organizations in showing their work that goes beyond the main cause is a barrier to building brands in these organizations. |
| 51 | A barrier to building the brands of nonprofit organizations is the resistance of these organizations to think of themselves as brands. |
| 52 | A barrier to building the brands of nonprofit organizations is the resistance of these organizations to consider themselves as a social business. |
| 53 | A barrier to building the brands of nonprofit organizations is the difficulty in implementing strategic projects. |
| 54 | A barrier to building the brands of nonprofit organizations is the aversion of nonprofit organizations to practices that seem “very commercial”. |
| 55 | The resistance of nonprofit organizations to adopt brand strategies is a barrier to building the brands of these organizations. |
| 56 | The lack of confidence in the management of financial resources by nonprofit organizations makes it difficult to build the brands of these organizations. |
| 57 | The culture of non-donation from society makes it difficult to build the brands of nonprofit organizations. |
| 58 | A barrier to building the brands of nonprofit organizations is the lack of continuity in financial donations. |
| 59 | The difficulty of nonprofit organizations in communicating the results they achieve is a barrier to building the brands of nonprofit organizations. |
| 60 | People’s lack of interest in making donations is a barrier to building the brands of nonprofit organizations. |
| 61 | National financial crises are a barrier to building the brands of nonprofit organizations. |
| 62 | The unfavorable political and economic context (for example, the lack of political support and economic difficulties) is a barrier to building the brands of nonprofit organizations. |
| 63 | The decrease in international funds available to finance nonprofit organizations is a barrier to building the brands of these organizations. |

Now, some personal questions (remember: you will not be identified):

| In your opinion, how important are nonprofit organizations to society? | |
|---|---|
| | They are not important |
| | They are of little importance |
| | Important |
| | Very important |
| | Extremely important |
| **How long have you been donating or participating in activities in nonprofit organization (s)?** | |
| | Less than 1 year |
| | 1 to 2 years |
| | 2 to 5 years |
| | 5 to 10 years |
| | More than 10 years |
| | I don't donate/participate |
| **How often do you donate or participate in activities in nonprofit organizations?** | |
| | Weekly |
| | Monthly |
| | Annually |
| | Sporadically |
| | I never donate/participate |
| | I am an employee of a social organization |
| | Other |
| **The nonprofit organization(s) you usually donate or participate in activities are:** | |
| | Near your home |
| | Near your work |
| | In the municipality where you live, but not close to your home or work |
| | In the state where you live, but outside the municipality where you live or work |
| | They are not located in the state in which you live or work, but operate in Brazil |
| | They do not operate in Brazil, that is, they are exclusively foreign |
| | I do not participate/donate |
| | Other |
| **Approximately, how many nonprofit organizations do you know personally?** | |
| | Up to 2 |
| | Between 3 and 6 |
| | Between 7 and 9 |
| | Between 10 and 12 |
| | More than 12 |

| What is your gender? | |
|---|---|
| | Male |
| | Female |
| **How old are you?** | |
| | Up to 20 years of age |
| | Between 21 and 30 years of age |
| | Between 31 and 40 years of age |
| | Between 41 and 50 years of age |
| | Above 50 years of age |
| **What is your marital status?** | |

| | |
|---|---|
| | Single |
| | Married |
| | Divorced |
| | Widower |
| | Other |
| **What is your educational level?** | |
| | Elementary education or less |
| | High school/technical |
| | University education |
| | Postgraduate studies |
| | Other |
| **Which region of Brazil do you live in?** | |
| | Northeast |
| | North |
| | Midwest |
| | Southeast |
| | South |
| | I live abroad |
| **Currently, what is your occupation?** | |
| | Student |
| | For-profit private sector employee |
| | Third sector employee |
| | Public sector employee |
| | Self-employed |
| | Retired |
| | Other |
| **What is your monthly income?** | |
| | Up to BRL 2,000.00 |
| | Between BRL 2,001.00 and BRL 5,000.00 |
| | Between BRL 5,001.00 and BRL 8,000.00 |
| | Between BRL 8,001.00 and BRL 12,000.00 |
| | Between BRL 12,001.00 and BRL 15,000.00 |
| | Above BRL 15,000.00 |

Note: The questionnaire will be applied in Portuguese.

# APPENDIX G – VIF AND INNER VIF

**ITEMS VIF**

| Item | VIF | Item | VIF | Item | VIF | Item | VIF |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| ACT1 | 1.520 | CAV1 | 4.234 | COM2 | 2.957 | FUN2 | 3.316 |
| ACT2 | 1.285 | CAV2 | 2.389 | COM3 | 2.580 | FUN3 | 2.036 |
| ACT3 | 1.450 | CAV2 | 2.853 | COM3 | 2.646 | FUN4 | 2.897 |
| BDO1 | 2.366 | CAV3 | 2.746 | COM4 | 2.172 | FUN5 | 2.375 |
| BDO1 | 2.925 | CAV3 | 3.173 | COM4 | 2.324 | MKT1 | 1.369 |
| BDO2 | 2.239 | CAV4 | 2.680 | COM5 | 2.156 | MKT2 | 1.804 |
| BDO2 | 2.601 | CAV4 | 2.927 | COM5 | 2.243 | MKT3 | 1.751 |
| BDO4 | 2.065 | CAV5 | 3.396 | COM6 | 2.371 | ORG2 | 1.443 |
| BDO4 | 3.102 | CAV5 | 4.242 | COM6 | 2.664 | ORG3 | 1.752 |
| BDO5 | 2.304 | COC1 | 1.685 | COM7 | 2.559 | ORG6 | 1.670 |
| BDO5 | 2.777 | COC1 | 1.921 | COM7 | 2.642 | PAR1 | 3.091 |
| CAU1 | 2.440 | COC2 | 1.612 | COM8 | 2.372 | PAR2 | 2.959 |
| CAU1 | 2.614 | COC2 | 1.896 | COM8 | 2.506 | PAR3 | 3.157 |
| CAU2 | 2.285 | COC4 | 1.581 | COM9 | 2.750 | PAR4 | 2.724 |
| CAU2 | 2.408 | COC4 | 1.964 | COM9 | 2.918 | PAR5 | 2.325 |
| CAU3 | 2.406 | COC5 | 1.434 | ECO1 | 2.227 | SOL1 | 3.060 |
| CAU3 | 2.687 | COC5 | 2.524 | ECO1 | 2.628 | SOL2 | 1.952 |
| CAU4 | 2.263 | COM1 | 3.070 | ECO2 | 1.696 | SOL3 | 2.999 |
| CAU4 | 2.886 | COM1 | 3.107 | ECO2 | 2.797 | STA1 | 2.991 |
| CAU5 | 1.645 | COM10 | 2.251 | ECO3 | 1.867 | STA2 | 2.750 |
| CAU5 | 1.924 | COM10 | 2.459 | ECO3 | 2.365 | STA3 | 1.850 |
| CAV1 | 3.915 | COM2 | 2.867 | FUN1 | 3.728 | STA4 | 3.294 |

Note: The construct items can be seen in Appendix E.
Source: Research data.

| Constructs | ACT | BAR | BDO | CAU | CAV | COC | COM | ECO | MKT | NBO | ORG |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **ACT** | | | | | | | | | | 2.408 | |
| **BAR** | | | 1.000 | | 1.000 | 1.000 | | 1.000 | | 1.318 | |
| **BDO** | | | | | | | | | | | |
| **CAU** | | | | | | | | | | | |
| **CAV** | | | | | | | | | | | |
| **CCO** | | | | | | | | | | | |
| **COM** | | | | | | | | | | | |
| **ECO** | | | | | | | | | | | |
| **MKT** | | | | | | | | | | 2.224 | |
| **NBO** | | | | 1.000 | | | 1.000 | | | | |
| **ORG** | | | | | | | | | | 2.838 | |
| **STA** | | | | | | | | | | | |

Note: The constructs ORG (Organizational factors), MKT (Market factors), ACT (Action), PER (Performance), and STA (Staff relationship) are lower-order constructs. COM (Communication) and CAU (Cause) are dimensions of the higher-order construct NBO in an emerging country. COC (Communication challenges), CAV (Commercial aversion), BDO (Barriers to donation), and ECO (Economic context) are dimensions of the higher-order construct Barriers to NBO.
Source: Research data.

# APPENDIX H – CONTROL VARIABLES

| Control variables | Γ (efect) | p-value | Control variables | Γ (efect) | p-value |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| CT1 -> PER | -0.094 | 0.107 | OCU -> PER | 0.066 | 0.262 |
| CT1 -> NBO | 0.052 | 0.385 | OCU -> NBO | -0.070 | 0.221 |
| CT1 -> STA | -0.051 | 0.372 | OCU -> STA | -0.052 | 0.413 |
| CT2 -> PER | -0.129 | 0.025* | PAC -> PER | 0.070 | 0.332 |
| CT2 -> NBO | -0.162 | 0.010* | PAC -> NBO | -0.020 | 0.775 |
| CT2 -> STA | -0.155 | 0.005** | PAC -> STA | 0.144 | 0.043* |
| ECI -> PER | 0.021 | 0.701 | PRO -> PER | -0.011 | 0.846 |
| ECI -> NBO | -0.001 | 0.989 | PRO -> NBO | 0.025 | 0.602 |
| ECI -> STA | 0.003 | 0.967 | PRO -> STA | 0.002 | 0.973 |
| ESC -> PER | 0.021 | 0.753 | QNT -> PER | 0.061 | 0.322 |
| ESC -> NBO | 0.002 | 0.975 | QNT -> NBO | -0.034 | 0.595 |
| ESC -> STA | -0.015 | 0.816 | QNT -> STA | -0.005 | 0.937 |
| FRE -> PER | -0.016 | 0.817 | RBR -> PER | -0.042 | 0.453 |
| FRE -> NBO | 0.038 | 0.550 | RBR -> NBO | -0.118 | 0.038* |
| FRE -> STA | 0.064 | 0.357 | RBR -> STA | -0.118 | 0.058 |
| IDA -> PER | 0.080 | 0.281 | REN -> PER | -0.099 | 0.193 |
| IDA -> NBO | 0.151 | 0.053 | REN -> NBO | -0.144 | 0.066 |
| IDA -> STA | 0.067 | 0.388 | REN -> STA | -0.103 | 0.230 |
| IMP -> PER | 0.265 | 0.000** | SEX -> PER | -0.111 | 0.034* |
| IMP -> NBO | 0.192 | 0.003** | SEX -> NBO | -0.207 | 0.000** |
| IMP -> STA | 0.141 | 0.026* | SEX -> STA | -0.077 | 0.153 |

Note: CT1 - Group he/she belongs; CT2 - Position that the respondent holds in the organization; ECI - Marital status; ESC - Education level; FRE - Frequency in NPO activities; IDA – Age; IMP - Level of importance of NPO to the respondent; OCU – Occupation; PAC - Time of involvement with the NPO; PRO - Distance from NPOs to respondent house, QNT - How many NPOs he/she knows; RBR - Brazilian region where the respondent lived; REN - Monthly income; SEX – Gender. ** p-value<0,01, * p-value<0,05.
Source: Research data.