UNIVERSIDADE CATÓLICA PORTUGUESA

FACTORS INFLUENCING THE BRAND EQUITY OF NONPROFITS: THE CASE STUDY OF FLAD

Projeto apresentado à Universidade Católica Portuguesa para obtenção do grau de mestre em Ciências da Comunicação, especialidade em Marketing e Publicidade

Por

Natacha Maria Hogg Costa

Faculdade de Ciências Humanas

Novembro de 2021

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Sob orientação de João Lemos Diogo

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Abstract

Purpose: As brand management becomes well-established within the for-profit field, the same hasn't been felt in the nonprofit sector. In response, this project provides insights into the conceptualization and operationalization of nonprofit customer-based brand equity, by evaluating and providing strategies to improve FLAD's (Luso-American Development Foundation) value as a brand. For this purpose, the present research improves and further validates the measurement scale of Boenigk and Becker (2016), including the dimensions of awareness, trust and commitment, for which behavioral intentions were added.

Methodology: All constructs under analysis were identified and operationalized based on an extensive literature review and a detailed assessment of the existing brand equity models for nonprofits. The selected measurement instrument to evaluate FLAD's brand equity was based on the scale developed by Boenigk and Becker (2016). The data collected from an online survey (*n=203*) was mostly analyzed through descriptive statistics.

Findings: The results point to trust and behavioral intentions as the dimensions that most contribute to FLAD's brand equity, while commitment and awareness fall short in this assessment. Further recommendations to improve FLAD's brand equity are discussed.

Research limitation: Future research should test the efficacy, generability and robustness of the proposed nonprofit customer-based brand equity model, based on Boenigk and Becker's (2016) study. Recommendations are made to use more statistical instruments, different samples and nonprofit types, as well as incorporate other dimensions of brand equity not analyzed in this project.

Originality: The brand equity model established for FLAD in this project provides the basis for other nonprofits, especially in Portugal, to evaluate their brand's performance over time, compare it to competitors and develop accordant marketing strategies where and when needed. Additionally, this study contributes to the research field of nonprofit branding, so these organizations are better equipped to support such activities successfully.

Keywords: nonprofit, customer-based brand equity, marketing, branding

My sincere gratitude and appreciation to those who

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And supported me
To my parents and sister for everything and more.
To my friends for being there when I needed you most.

General Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

List of Charts

Introduction

- **What is the research opportunity of this project?**

While the conceptual and practical development of brand equity has rapidly progressed, and even became a top research priority, in the for-profit sector, the applicability of these tools to nonprofit organizations (NPOs) has remained an under-researched domain.

More often than not marketing activities are perceived with great cynicism by the public sector and are overlooked instruments by nonprofits, despite scholars' claims that strong organizations are supported by positive brand equity and that these assets are crucial for the survival of any institution, including nonprofit organizations.

However, the changing pace of the nonprofit sector, with an increase of competition, the deterioration of government support, as well as the decline of individual and institutional donations have propelled nonprofit organizations to alter their mindset and duties, but above all to consider more competitive strategies, where developing brands could be a differential advantage, as is the case in the for-profit sector.

Although some nonprofit organizations have become more aware and proactive in creating and managing their brands, brand-building activities are still difficult, since nonprofits need to consider a set of specific organizational features and goals not found in commercial branding approaches. Despite these obstacles, nonprofits, like in the for-profit sector, can use branding instruments to positively draw consumer behavior towards their organizations, acquire necessary resources, build key partnerships, and, ultimately, implement their mission successfully while achieving their goals of social change. It was within this literature gap in the nonprofit branding research field that this project was born.

- **The practical application of this project to a Portuguese nonprofit: Luso-American Development Foundation (FLAD)**

The embodiment of this project comes from research I conducted in parallel to my internship at FLAD (Luso-American Development Foundation), from October 2019 to March 2020. Anchored in the theoretical assumptions set in the initial parts of this study, this project intends to evaluate, from a customer perspective, the brand equity of FLAD and propose strategies to further improve the Foundation's value as a brand. For this purpose, this study also improves and further validates the nonprofit brand equity measurement scale of Boenigk and Becker (2016). Additionally, this research was also designed to highlight the importance of brand-building efforts for the success of the nonprofit sector, and specifically that of FLAD.

From the conclusions of this research, other nonprofits will be better equipped to foster branding concepts and techniques, taking into consideration the specific characteristics and goals of this sector, and, ultimately, be able to keep track of their brand performance over time, compare it to other organizations within the field and adjust their marketing campaigns where and when needed.

- **How is the present project organized?**

This work is structured in 4 distinct parts. In part I, the theoretical framework is introduced. Firstly, a literature review on brand equity for the for-profit sector is explained, including the 4 main models that have served as guidelines for the field. The second topic presents the importance of brand-building efforts for the nonprofit sector and the main brand equity models available to apply such concepts to these specific organizations. Thirdly, an introduction to FLAD is made, as well as the importance of branding activities for the achievement of its mission: *"Focusing on Science and Technology, Education, Art and Culture and Transatlantic Relations, FLAD wants to continue to pave the way for the Portuguese scientific, academic and artistic potential, strengthen the Portuguese-American communities and bring people and institutions closer together between Portugal and the United States."* (Fundação Luso-Americana para o Desenvolvimento [FLAD], 2020, p. 10).

In part II, the methodology of this research is described, including the objectives and methods utilized for the collection and analysis of the data. Furthermore, in part III, an evaluation of FLAD's brand equity is presented and discussed, based on Boenigk and Becker's (2016) measurement scale, including the dimensions of awareness, trust and commitment, to which behavioral intentions were added.

In part IV, the main conclusions of this project are put forth and a set of recommendations to develop the brand equity of FLAD is proposed. This has been done considering the main theoretical and practical contributions that frame this project. Also in this part, limitations and suggestions for future research in this field are discussed.

The following figure 1 intends to outline the structure of the present project.

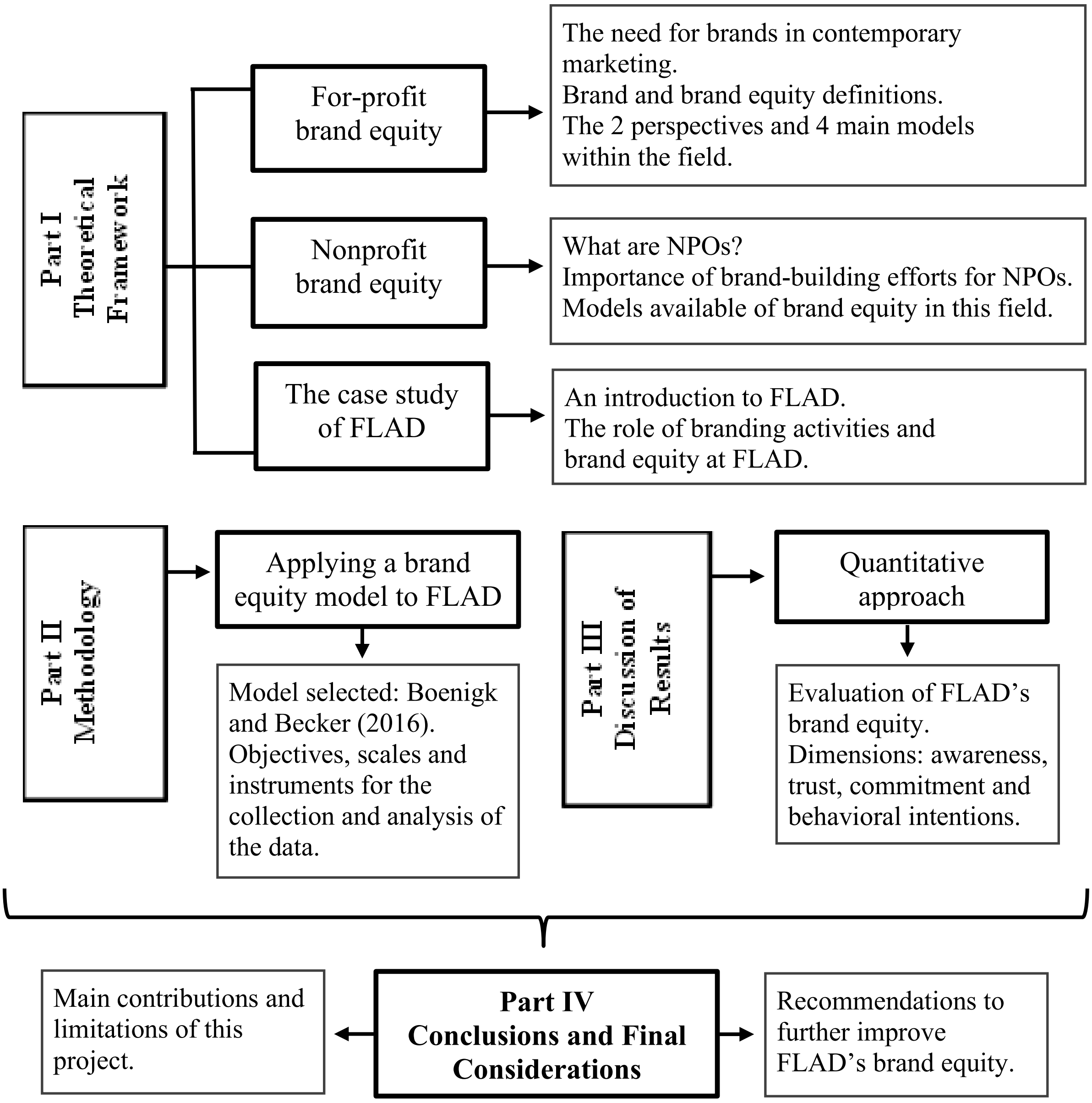

Figure 1 – Structure of the Project Developed

Part I | Theoretical Framework

1. Brand equity in the for-profit sector

1.1. Changes in contemporary marketing: the need for brands and brand equity

The earliest signs of branding have occurred since medieval times in Europe (Kotler & Keller, 2006). Brands have been employed to regulate who can use such signs and how they can be communicated, like names, logos, shapes, smells, sounds, among other features, that distinguish products from each other (Diogo, 2008). In sum, branding comes into place as a trademarking tool, to protect products and consumers from inferior quality (Diogo, 2008; Kotler & Keller, 2006).

Until the last quarter of the 20th century, companies were valued by their tangible assets, such as production equipment, property and financial assets (for example, income and investments). The so-called intangible assets, including organizational culture, technologies, patents, and brand themselves, also very important for business, were rarely valued (Brahmbhatt & Shah, 2017; Diogo, 2008).

The new challenges of modern marketing, felt in the 80s and 90s, led companies to need brands as an asset for their marketing mix (Chernatony, 2003; Kapferer, 2004). Due to the context of high competition, saturation of markets and added difficulty to implement new products, branding activities, especially brand equity, were employed to create value, but also increase brand performance, positioning and differentiation for stakeholders (Brahmbhatt & Shah, 2017; Diogo, 2008).

However, any discussion about branding activities, particularly brand equity, needs to start by defining what brands consist of: "*A product is something that offers a functional benefit (e.g. a toothpaste, a life insurance policy, or a car). A brand is a name, symbol, design, or mark that enhances the value of a product beyond its functional purpo*se." (Farquhar, 1989, pp. 24–25). More definitions are in table 24.

Brands are one of the most valuable, yet least understood assets, companies hold at their disposal, since they provide a long-lasting competitive advantage (Bharadwaj, Varadarajan, & Fahy, 1993; Kapferer, 2004). Either by simplifying purchase decisions, identifying, recalling and differentiating products with the same utility or by inferring quality and origin, through past experiences, associations and symbolism (Aaker, 1991; Kapferer, 1998; Keller, 1993). In sum, the company's earnings are secure because brands create both functional (increase recognition, promote selection, reduce perceived risk) and emotional barriers (reassurance and satisfaction of self-esteem needs) to competition for consumer loyalty (Haigh & Gilbert, 2005).

On another hand, the conversion of a product into a brand is labeled branding. Branding refers to giving products and/or services the power of a brand (Kotler & Keller, 2006). However, a brand is not just about creating a useful product, which is not enough in contemporary times to make consumers purchase from your organization. Branding is about owning a value (Kapferer, 2004). In this sense, a product has a necessary physical tangible side (e.g. name, features, functions, among others) and an increasingly valuable emotional intangible side (e.g. connection, social meaning, self-expression, cultural symbolism, among others) (Diogo, 2008; Kapferer, 2004; Kotler & Keller, 2006).

Consequently, to survive and stand out in the oversaturated market of today, companies need and can determine the fluxes of value to be created by their brands (Kapferer, 2004). This is, transform purchase decision criteria from product tangible characteristics (such as price, utility, quality, among others) to product intangible assets (such as status, lifestyle, personality, among others) (Aaker, 1991; Brahmbhatt & Shah, 2017).

What we need to understand is that brands are more than a visual identity or the utility of a product. Brands are psychological constructs and the task of branding is to manage these associations (Kylander & Stone, 2012). In the case of brand equity, if consumers buy the product based on price, features and/or convenience (tangible characteristics of the product), then there is little or no brand equity (Keller, 1993, 2001, 2003). Simply the product is one among many that can satisfy the same need and has no endowed value by being associated with a brand (Aaker, 1991).

Undeniably, strong brands are crucial for the success of any organization, including nonprofits (Chiagouris, 2005; Judd, 2004; Naddaff, 2004; Napoli, 2006; Smillie, 1995; G.

B. Voss & Voss, 2000). In fact, the need for brands is not solely felt within the for-profit sector. Although with some difficulties and uncertain effectiveness (Becker-Olsen & Hill, 2006; Faircloth, 2005; Haigh & Gilbert, 2005; Hou, Du, & Tian, 2009) nonprofits do understand that marketing and brands can be powerful tools to overcome the obstacles of an overcrowded market and to reach their social goals (Apaydin, 2011; Garg, Swami, & Malhotra, 2019; Hankinson, 2000; Kylander & Stone, 2012; Napoli, 2006). Indeed, some nonprofits have become more aware and proactive in creating, developing, maintaining and managing their own brands (Boenigk & Becker, 2016; Ito et al., 2013).

As commercial brands need to become more socially responsible to preserve their brand equity and financial performance, nonprofits have also become more business-like to impact society through their brands (Griffiths, 2005). Nonprofits have the power to be the next super brands of today, as instigators of social change (Wootliff & Derri, 2001). Surpassing the reach of major corporations, governmental bodies, and even the media among consumers, these organizations enjoy higher levels of trust (Kylander & Stone, 2012; Wootliff & Derri, 2001) due to their concrete agendas, selfless nature, service to improve society and the indispensable scientific, social, economic and environmental knowledge they possess (Griffiths, 2005; Wootliff & Derri, 2001).

1.2. Brand equity definitions

There are many conceptualizations of brand equity (Brahmbhatt & Shah, 2017), however, there is a common consensus among the field that brand equity involves the added value endowed to a product due to its positive association with a brand (Chieng & Lee, 2011). In other words, to create, develop and maintain a brand, the products and/or services provided by the company need to be considered superior by consumers when compared to the competition (Diogo, 2008).

One of the most respected and well-known brand equity definitions was given by Aaker (1991): "[The] *set of brand assets and liabilities linked to a brand, its name and symbol, that add to or subtract from the value provided by a product or service to a firm and/or to that firm's customers"* (p. 27). More definitions can be found in table 25.

Brands can be deconstructed into a set of brand assets, also referred to as brand equity dimensions. These brand equity dimensions are the mediating constructs between the marketing activities and the overall brand equity score as an outcome variable (Chieng & Lee, 2011; Diogo, 2008). Therefore, understanding the dimensions of brand equity helps to allocate resources to maximize the brand’s value and the positive influence on consumers’ perceptions and behaviors towards the brand itself (Keller, 2003). In sum, brand equity comes into focus as one of the key activities within the marketing mix (Kapferer, 2004) and as a crucial task to branding (Ambler, 1997).

Most of the conceptual and theoretical research on brand equity was done in the 80s and 90s, with quantitative research validating and testing these conclusions in the 2000s (Brahmbhatt & Shah, 2017; Chieng & Lee, 2011), with the development of reliable measurement scales and models (Diogo, 2008).

Even though brand equity has been proven by many researchers to be a source of competitive advantage for any organization, by providing higher financial performance (e.g. Aaker, 1991; Farquhar, 1989; Hoeffler & Keller, 2003; Simon & Sullivan, 1993) and consumer utility (e.g. Shapiro, 1985; Wong & Merrilees, 2005), among other benefits described in table 26, these concepts and instruments are still neglected by most institutions, especially nonprofits (Bennett & Sargeant, 2005; Bishop, 2005; Hankinson, 2000; Ito et al., 2013), besides the clear proof of the importance and contribution of developing brands, branding activities, and particularly brand equity, for the survival of any organization (Aaker, 1996; Chernatony, 2003; Kapferer, 2001; Keller, 2003).

1.3. Brand equity perspectives and management models

Within brand equity we can identify two main perspectives (Boenigk & Becker, 2016; Brahmbhatt & Shah, 2017; Chieng & Lee, 2011; Diogo, 2008) the 1) financial perspective and the 2) customer perspective.

The financial perspective is defined as being the monetary and/or financial value added to the brand by a product and/or service. An approach that considers brand equity as the amount the brand is worth, either as ownership or as ongoing future income flows (Schultz, 2003). The brand value can be composed of an increased margin, multiple values, investments, among other attributes and forms (Arnold, 1998; Farquhar, Han, & Ijiri, 1991; Salinas, 2011; Swait, Erdem, Louviere, & Dubelaar, 1993).

On the other hand, the customer perspective has been the most widespread approach adopted to evaluate brand equity (Keller, 1993). This perspective allows both scholars and practitioners to include effects on brand preference, purchase intent (Cobb-Walgren, Rubble, & Donthu, 1995), brand alliances (Rao & Ruekert, 1994), among others. A perspective that aims at understanding the psychological dimensions of brand equity and evaluating customers' subjective perceptions of and attitudes towards a brand (Chernatony, 2003; Kapferer, 2001; Shocker, Srivastava, & Ruekert, 1994). In other words, the customer perspective acknowledges the stakeholders' important role in the branding process and notes that true brand equity resides in the customers' evaluation and satisfaction of the brand (Schultz, 2000).

Aaker's (1991, 1996, 1996b) and Keller's (1993, 2001, 2003) models have had a decisive influence on this perspective. Nevertheless, the customer perspective is only one part of the whole forming the brand. There are other stakeholders along the chain, such as the employees of the organization, the distribution channel, as well as other external influences that need to be considered (Chernatony, 2003; Kapferer, 1998, 2001).

There is no doubt that both perspectives are essential in determining the brand's role as a value creator for the organization. Either quantitative value, based on the financial results of the company, or qualitative value, based on consumer loyalty (Diogo, 2008). There is a consensual opinion among main scholars that it is not advisable to apply a single concept or measurement (Berry, 2000; Burmann, Jost-Benz, & Riley, 2009; Cobb-Walgren et al., 1995; Leuthesser, 1988; Mishra & Datta, 2011; Srivastava & Shocker, 1991; Vázquez, del Río, & Iglesias, 2002; Wang & Finn, 2013), however, few brand evaluation approaches combine both perspectives (for example, Interbrand, 2021). Therefore, measuring a brand's success and performance involves the evaluation of various dimensions, both at the internal (organization) and external (customers) level (Diogo, 2008).

Even though brand equity in the for-profit sector has been approached from both perspectives, in the nonprofit context the financial perspective is mostly not considered (Boenigk & Becker, 2016). This is because nonprofits lack the common profit goal shared by commercial organizations (Oster, 1995). On top of this, the relationship between user and purchaser is not a market-based transaction, as in the for-profit sector. Therefore, the purchasers (donors) and users (recipients of the nonprofit's action) are not the same. Instead, the purchaser donates the necessary resources so the nonprofit can then provide free products and/or services to society (Laidler-Kylander, Quelch, & Simonin, 2007).

These specific nonprofit organizational features make the financial perspective insufficient to evaluate the performance and success of these brands (Garven, Hofmann, & McSwain, 2016; Leipnitz, 2014). Rather, nonprofit organizations primarily rely on a strong social mission that derives legitimacy and trustworthiness for their action within society, and, consequently, generates positive behavior from stakeholders in the forms of donations, volunteering, among others, for the accomplishment of the nonprofit's mission.

Thus, nonprofits are not necessarily concerned with how much their organization is worth, but rather they are aware that they need to influence the perceptions and behaviors of stakeholders positively towards their brands, so they can successfully achieve their mission by acquiring the necessary resources (in partnerships, time, money or in-kind donations).

Therefore, this specific environment makes the customer perspective more appropriate to evaluate the brand equity of nonprofit organizations (Shea & Hamilton, 2015) and it has been the perspective applied almost exclusively to the sector (e.g. Boenigk & Becker, 2016; Faircloth, 2005; Hou et al., 2009; Juntunen, Juntunen, & Autere, 2013), and, subsequently, the perspective that has been selected for this project.

The following section will detail the conceptual models proposed by the main scholars within for-profit customer-based brand equity, including Aaker (1991, 1996, 1996b), Keller (1993, 2001, 2003), Chernatony (2003) and Kapferer (1998, 2001). While the American approach of Aaker and Keller presents a more instrumental and pragmatical theoretical line, the European approach of Chernatony (English origin) and Kapferer

(French origin) represents a more qualitative and humanistic approach to brands (Diogo, 2008). More for-profit customer-based brand equity models are in table 25.

1.3.1. Brand Equity Ten Model – Aaker

For Aaker (1991, 1996, 1996b), and the following scholars in this section (Chernatony, 2003; Kapferer, 1998, 2001; Keller, 1993, 2001, 2003), it is fundamental to evaluate the origins and results of brand equity to assess the brand's proper management.

Table 1 – Aaker's (1991, 1996, 1996b) Brand Equity Ten Model

Dimensions of brand equity	**Variables of brand equity**
Loyalty	1. Premium price 2. Level of satisfaction / Loyalty
Perceived quality/ Brand leadership	3. Perceived quality 4. Leadership / Popularity
Brand associations/ Differentiation	5. Perceived value 6. Brand personality 7. Organizational associations
Brand awareness	8. Brand awareness
Market behavior	9. Market quota 10. Market price and distribution

Source: Adapted from Aaker (1996, p. 319)

Aaker's (1991, 1996, 1996b) Brand Equity Ten model provides a set of ten variables that can measure brand equity over five dimensions. The first four dimensions are intended to represent customer brand perceptions, while the fifth reflects the behavior and the performance of the company through information obtained on the market. This was purposefully done by Aaker (1991, 1996, 1996b), since the main challenge for the application of costumer-based brand evaluations was related to the short-term approach of most management boards, focused mostly on a financial perspective for immediate results.

The first dimension considered in Aaker's (1991, 1996, 1996b) model is loyalty, a fundamental part of brand equity, one that can serve as a foundation to other dimensions and is essential to promote repeated purchases, as well as barriers to competition.

Loyalty for Aaker (1991, 1996) means the ability to establish a premium price and a good level of satisfaction with the customer. Hence, premium prices represent how much a customer is willing to pay for the brand in comparison with other similar offerings. It reflects the likelihood of customers switching to another brand, especially when there are changes in price or product features. On another hand, satisfaction is an additional important measure in determining the level of customer connection and involvement with the brand (Aaker, 1996). Customers need to feel like their needs are satisfied (Aaker, 1991), that the product's and/or service's performance corresponds to their expectations (Kotler, Keller, Koshy, & Jha, 2013), and, ultimately, that brands listen to them (Blackston, 2000).

Perceived quality is the second dimension proposed by Aaker (1991, 1996, 1996b), an underpinning component that can further develop other brand equity constructs, such as loyalty, awareness and associations, since the brand's products and/or services need to be considered superior by costumers when compared to the options of the competition.

Perceived quality is defined as the evaluation of a specific product and/or service by the customer in comparison to other alternatives (Olson & Jacoby, 1972; Oude Ophuis & Van Trijp, 1995; Richardson, Dick, & Jain, 1994). This inferred quality is based on the tangible (such as color, flavor, texture, form, among others) and intangible (such as cultural symbolism, status, image, among others) features of the product and/or service (Aaker, 1991; Steenkamp, 1997; Zeithaml, 1988). Aaker (1996b) also proposes the variable of brand leadership that can contribute to increasing premium prices and perceived quality. Brands can require higher prices and are considered with higher levels of perceived quality if they are 1) the sales leader within the market, 2) an innovation leader within a product and/or service category, or 3) the popular accepted brand within the sector.

Additionally, brands are symbols that can facilitate the process of identifying, recalling and differentiating products and/or services (Aaker & Joachimsthaler, 2002). These symbols are represented by brand associations, the third dimension proposed by Aaker (1991, 1996). Brand associations encompass the decoding and interpretation of all communication elements that represent a brand, such as logos, musical tunes, packing, user profile, among others. In sum, brand associations are anything linked in memory to a brand, all the perceptions, feelings, experiences and attitudes differently developed by every customer (Aaker, 1991, 1996; Kotler & Keller, 2006).

Brand associations have three categories: 1) functional product associations (e.g. features, performance, price, among others), 2) non-functional product associations (e.g. cultural symbolism, lifestyle and personality representation, geographic region of the product, among others), and 3) organizational associations (e.g. corporate social responsibility). Furthermore, brand associations form an identity, an image and a personality for the brand.

On one hand, brand identity is the positioning intended by the brand (Aaker, 1996), including its value proposition and brand benefits (e.g. emotional positive feeling, low price, quality of service, among others) (Diogo, 2008). On another hand, brand image is the positioning of the brand interpreted by the customer (Kotler et al., 2013).

Furthermore, brand personality is another crucial brand equity element included by Aaker (1996b), since it can facilitate the creation of self-esteem benefits for customers. Brand personality is defined as the set of human characteristics associated with a brand, such as gender, social status, hobbies, among others (Aaker, 1997). Although brand personality categories can be generic, some are of great importance and should be included in the study of brand equity (Aaker, 1996b). We have examples of hotels, banks, and other similar services, that need to be considered friendly, familiar and reliable in their brand personality to be able to create brand equity (Diogo, 2008).

All these associations play a key role in creating and maintaining a brand, since brand associations are differentiation elements that create unique brand identities, images and personalities. Well-established brands need a strong set of associations that are communicated differently from the competition to collect the benefits of brand equity (Aaker, 1991, 1996, 1996b).

Brand awareness is another key determinant in brand equity models, especially for Aaker (1991, 1996) that considers this dimension as a conducting force of loyalty towards the brand. For Aaker (1996) awareness reflects the intensity with which a brand is present in the mind of the consumer, affecting the perceptions and attitudes of the consumer towards the brand. In conclusion, brand awareness is a prerequisite for the other components of brand equity. If consumers don't know about the brand, then it doesn't exist (Aaker, 1991).

The ability for the brand to be recognized by customers under different conditions is divided into four distinct levels (Aaker, 1996b; Diogo, 2008): 1) brand recognition, when customers remember if they have been exposed to the brand, 2) brand recall, reflects the familiarity one has with the brand after being exposed to it, 3) top-of-mind, includes recognizing a brand from memory and under different circumstances, and 4) dominant brand, which is the highest level of brand awareness, occurring when customers think of only one brand if asked about a product and/or service category (e.g. when the brand most of the time is mistaken for the product, such as Aspirin).

While the first four dimensions of brand equity are related to the customer perspective, the fifth dimension is related to the financial perspective. Aaker (1991) wishes to highlight that there are a set of financial elements inherent in brands that must be identified and considered in the assessment of brand equity (Aaker, 1991, 1996, 1996b). These elements may include patents and trademarks, market quotas, sales reports, among other market information available. In sum, Aaker (1991, 1996, 1996b) proposes a dimension in his model that allows brand leaders to merge two brand equity perspectives: 1) the financial and 2) the customer (Diogo, 2008).

1.3.2. Customer-Based Brand Equity (CBBE) Model – Keller

Keller's (1993, 2001, 2003) brand equity model takes the perspective of the client, including the consumer and the organization, creating the Customer-Based Brand Equity

(CBBE) model. For Keller, brand equity is based upon three essential topics: 1) differential effect, 2) brand knowledge, and 3) customer response to marketing actions.

It is very clear how the CBBE model has as its backbone brand knowledge. For Keller (1993, 2001, 2003) the success of the company's marketing efforts depends on the knowledge the customer has on the brand. In other words, depending on what the customers have heard, felt and experienced about the brand, it will influence their perceptions, preferences and behaviors towards the organization. This is the starting point to create the necessary differentiation for brand equity.

To create differentiation among brands it's useful to understand the processes from which the brand is learned and stored in the customer's memory. In this sense, the process of conceptualization of brand knowledge in the CBBE model is based on the theory of associative memory network. This is, while the node of memory represents the brand awareness stored in the customer's mind, the tying links represent the strength of brand associations represented by the brand's image. In this context, brand knowledge is divided into two structures: 1) brand awareness and 2) brand image.

Keller (1993, 2001, 2003) sees in these dimensions vital importance for brand equity. It is necessary to create high brand awareness and a positive brand image within customers' memory, since brand knowledge can influence positively or negatively the customers' response to the brand's marketing actions.

Brand awareness is formed by 1) brand recognition and 2) brand recall. The first is related to the ability of consumers to recognize the brand when exposed. The second is when consumers can recall the brand from memory in different circumstances, such as when asked about a product category, product use or another stimulus. Therefore, brand awareness is the full set of associations linked to the brand (Keller, 1993).

Brand image can also be defined by favorable, strong and unique associations of the brand. These associations are made by customers when stimulated with a marketing campaign. To create brand image the marketing mix needs to have a set of attributes that creates a unique identity for the brand, with a specific meaning and set of benefits, while also triggering the intended favorable reactions and attitudes towards the brand, and, ultimately, creating long-term relationships between the brand and its clients.

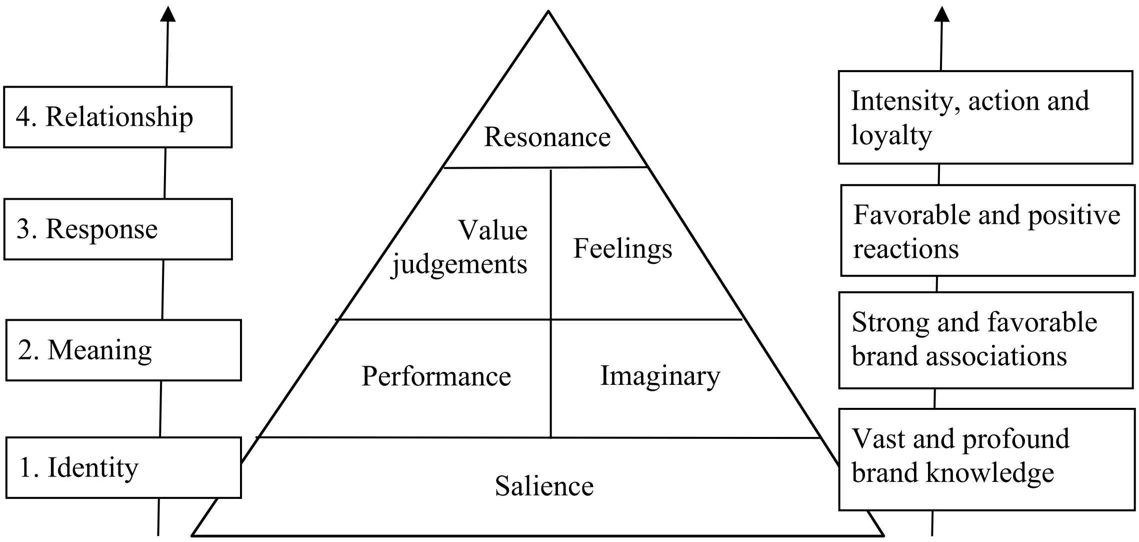

Figure 2 – Keller's (1993, 2001, 2003) CBBE Model Pyramid
Source: Adapted from Keller (2001, pp. 17–19)

In sum, for Keller (1993, 2001, 2003) the main dimensions of the CBBE model include: 1) brand identity, 2) brand meaning, 3) brand response, as well as 4) brand relationship.

Brand identity is only possible when an overriding connection with customers is directly associated with brand awareness. This is, how often and easily a brand is recognized and remembered in different circumstances. To build a strong identity, Keller (1993, 2001, 2003) identifies two factors needed: 1) depth of brand awareness and 2) extension of brand awareness. While depth defines how easily customers recognize and recall the brand, extension refers to the spectrum of situations of purchase where the brand is remembered.

Brand meaning (Keller, 1993, 2001, 2003) represents the perceptions customers have about the brand, which is translated into a set of associations, that should be consistent, unique, favorable and strong to create brand equity. Associations can be related to the 1) tangible functional characteristics of the product and/or service (e.g. color, smell, quality, among others) and 2) to the imaginary intangible characteristics of the product and/or service (e.g. personality, history of the brand, normal situation of purchase, user profile, among others).

For companies to better implement brand equity they need to be attentive to the customers' reactions and responses to their marketing strategies. This is, collect information and understand how customers feel, think and act towards their brands. Customer reactions can be evaluated from personal judgments (of quality, credibility, consideration and superiority) and feelings (of empathy, entertainment, excitement, security, social acceptance and self-esteem) stakeholders have towards the brand's performance. Such judgments and feelings can be about the tangible and/or intangible features of the brand, have different degrees of intensity and be positive or negative. However, brand equity is only formed from positive judgments and feelings customers have towards the brand (Keller, 2001).

Creating a strong relationship between the brand and its customers is the last step in Keller's (1993, 2001, 2003) CBBE model. This relationship should reinforce the image that the customer has with the brand. The brand relationship involves two components: 1) intensity and 2) activity. The first refers to the power and strength of the sense of community and attitude concerning the brand. The second variable refers to how often customers buy and use the brand, as well as their involvement with the brand in other activities that do not involve the purchase or usage of the brand. In this context, Keller (2001) highlights resonance, which refers to the nature of the customers' relationship with the brand and the level of synchronization they feel with it.

Brand resonance can be encompassed into four categories: 1) behavioral loyalty, which includes repeated purchase, 2) positive attitudes, such as positive recommendations, 3) sense of community, the creation of a bond with the community surrounding the brand, from customers to the delivery system, and 4) cognitive loyalty, the highest level of loyalty and attachment to the brand, when customers become brand missionaries and allocated additional resources, such as time on social media or more money to buy the same products and/or services from the brand.

In conclusion, with Keller's (1991, 1993, 2003) CBBE model brands need to first create a differentiated identity with salience that leads to a vast and profound brand knowledge among customers. The next step includes the production of meaning, for which the performance and imaginary of the brand are crucial to creating unique, strong and favorable associations. After that, there is the need to foster positive customer judgments and feelings, to then obtain favorable reactions and attitudes towards the brand's marketing strategies. The final step is to form relationships with intensity and resonance towards creating action and loyalty of customers, and, finally, obtaining brand equity.

1.3.3. Multidimensional Model – Chernatony

Chernatony (2003) develops a model that allows brand leaders to evaluate and manage brand equity in various contexts: the Multidimensional model. For Chernatony (2003) to evaluate, build and maintain brand equity both the internal (supply-side) and external (demand-side) levels of the brand should be considered, with a focus on the organization-brand-customer relationship, including all audiences with an interest in the brand: the stakeholders.

The seven dimensions of brand equity proposed by the Multidimensional model (Chernatony, 2003) include: 1) brand vision, 2) organizational culture, 3) brand goals, 4) brand atmosphere, 5) brand essence, 6) internal implementation, and 7) resource combination.

The first phase of Chernatony's (2003) model is intended to establish a clear brand vision for the future of the organization, aligned both internally and externally for greater organizational capacity and performance.

Additionally, for Chernatony (2003) the development of a brand is intrinsically associated with its organizational culture, which can add or subtract value to the brand, both internally (e.g. accomplishment of goals) and externally (e.g. delivery system). In this sense, it is crucial to understand if any countercultures that don't fit into what is expected from the brand are present. For this evaluation of the brand's organizational culture all members of the company need to be taken into consideration.

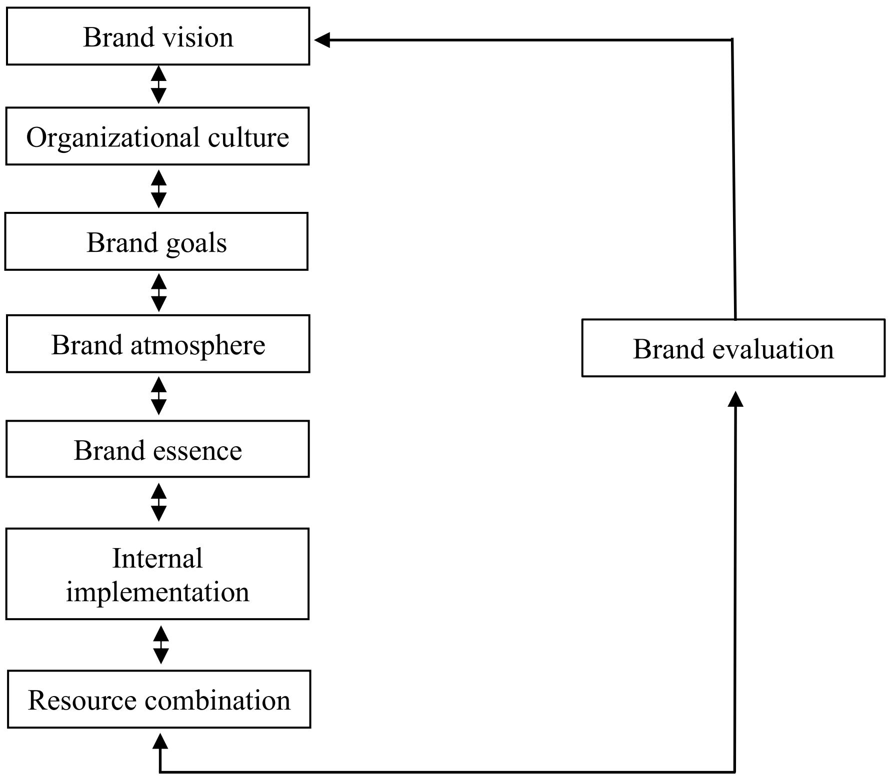

Figure 3 – Chernatony's (2003) Multidimensional Model

Source: Adapted from Chernatony (2003, p. 76)

The third step of Chernatoney's (2003) model includes the definition of short-term and long-term goals, to be accomplished by all members of the organization: the stakeholders.

Furthermore, the brand atmosphere dimension is another key component to identifying critical forces within the company that will facilitate the brand's path towards the established goals, along with detecting the biggest challenges for this to happen. For such an evaluation, according to Chernatony (2003), the following five company forces need to be taken into consideration: 1) the corporation (short-term vs long-term perspective), 2) the distribution, delivery and storage channel (if it contributes to brand development or not), 3) the clients and customers (if this relationship facilitates or hinders brand-building processes), 4) the competition (if the brand's promise converges or diverges from competing brands), and 5) the macro-environment (for example, political, social and technological threats or opportunities for brand equity development and adaptation to market changes).

On another hand, brand essence is meant to identify the characteristics that define the fundamental nature (mission, values and goals) of the brand. The importance of this dimension is to homogenize the internal positioning intended by the brand and the external interpretation of this brand positioning. For Chernatony (2003) what defines and contributes to a brand’s essence is related to: 1) the distinct presence in the field through a name and/or symbol, 2) the functional capacities of the brand, 3) the service quality associated with the brand, 4) the reduced perceived risk linked to the brand, 5) the legal protection provided by the brand, 6) the summary of information about the brand’s offerings, and 7) the symbolic functionality of the brand.

The internal implementation of this brand essence also provides opportunities for the development of brand equity. Therefore, Chernatony (2003) highlights the need to create a brand delivery system, this is to define how the organization must be structured to deliver the promises of the brand essence.

The final step recommended by Chernatony (2003) is a combination of resources available to the company for the implementation of the established brand essence, which is influenced by all the brand equity dimensions previously discussed for this model.

Essentially, Chernatony’s (2003) Multidimensional model wants strong leadership, motivated employees that are informed and in agreement with the brand’s vision, which translates into the accomplishment of the goals established and a strong organizational culture. Also, it is important to protect the nuclear competencies of the brand, by establishing a coherent brand essence and adequate delivery system of this brand value. Regarding the external public, there is also the need for recognition, identification and appreciation of the brand's vision, goals and essence, through the brand’s personality and positioning, leading to increased brand awareness and trust, and, ultimately, brand equity.

In conclusion, Chernatony's (2003) work can be characterized as a holistic model, since it faces the company as a whole and promotes brand management as an integrated process across the entire organization, considering all stakeholders. Also, Chernatony's (2003) approach is strongly influenced by strategic management, theories of corporate culture, organizational behavior and theories of motivation.

1.3.4. Prism Model of Brand Identity – Kapferer

For Kapferer (1998, 2001) an adequate strategy of brand management depends on how brand identity is defined and employed. However, for Kapferer (1998, 2001) brand identity is a different concept from the one of brand image. Brand image is a concept of reception and represents the perception as consumers decode a brand, while brand identity is a concept of issuance of signals, specifying the meaning, design and values defined by the company for its brand.

Summarizing, in Kapferer's (1998, 2001) model brand identity represents a set of variables that can be handled by the brand manager, and it is through the manipulation of these variables that a brand can be created with strong value.

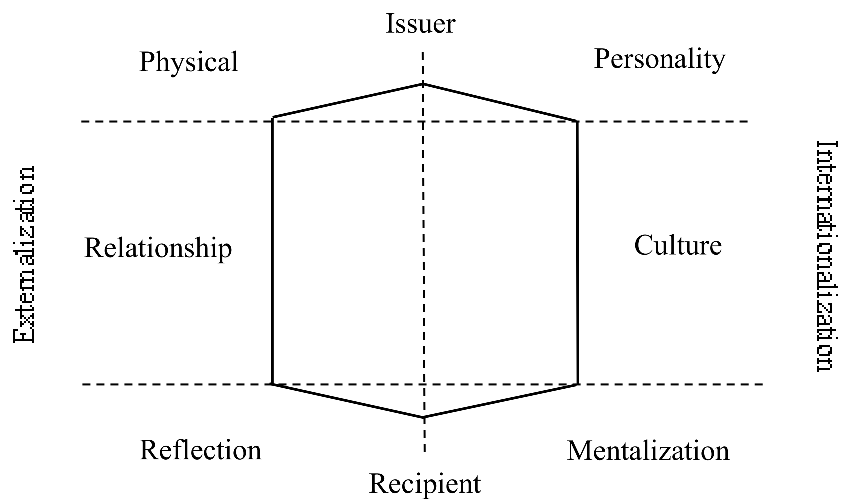

Figure 4 – Kapferer's (1998, 2001) Prism Model of Brand Identity

Source: Adapted from Kapferer (2001, p. 108)

According to Kapferer (1998, 2001), the brand represents a discourse and it is within the process of communication of the brand that Kapferer's model can be interpreted. In this sense, the "physical" (externalization) and "personality" (internalization) dimensions are based on the product and in the brand that represents the issuer, the dimensions of "reflection" (externalization) and "mentalization" (internalization) represent the components that influence the recipient of the brand's identity communication, while the dimensions of "relationship" (externalization) and "culture" (internalization) embody a central point between the issuer (the brand) and the recipient (the consumer).

Therefore, Kapferer (1998, 2001) creates within this framework the Prism Model of Brand Identity. A model that locates the strengths and weaknesses of the brand across six variables that structure brand identity. These dimensions include the 1) physical, 2) personality, 3) cultural, 4) relationship, 5) reflection, and 6) mentalization side of brands.

Brands encompass a physical dimension that includes tangible characteristics of the product and/or service, and the traditional communication or advertisement employed. However, brands also include a personality dimension, comprised of human traits, cultural symbolism, celebrity and/or character associated with the brand, among others.

In addition, brands also have a cultural dimension. For Kapferer (1998, 2001) all brands represent and are bearing of culture, embodied by the set of values and manifestations of the brand, such as products, services and communications. This cultural relationship comes from the existing connection between product and brand (Kapfrerer, 2001), since brands don't just advertise the product, they make it legitimate and create meaning for the object and behaviors associated with it.

Furthermore, brands are a relationship, a mediation between products and/or services and the consumer. This relationship is characterized by the values the brand represents to the consumer.

Brands also hold a reflection dimension. Brands can reflect the image of consumers, like behaviors, values, interests, among others. This dimension is capable of identifying the typical user of the brand, and, therefore, consolidating communication efforts. However, this needs to include a reflection of the brand's audience to be successful.

Finally, brands also contain a mentalization dimension. If the reflection variable is intended to be the brand's external mirror of the consumer, the mentalization variable is the internal reflection of the brand in the consumer. In sum, through the consumption of certain brands consumers undertake a kind of relationship with themselves, this is consumers assume an image of themselves by association with a brand.

In conclusion, for Kapferer (1998, 2001) a brand is only successful if it can manage the various variables that make up its identity, and only by combining these variables can value be created around its products and/or services. An essentially qualitative model, it intends to evaluate the brand's identity and compare it with other organizations within the sector, identify the associations involving the brand, but also create a brand with a strong personality, a suitable value system and a culture that is cherished by consumers to yield brand equity (Kapferer, 2001).

1.4. Summary

The four models presented so far are the main studies within the for-profit brand equity field that take a customer perspective (Brahmbhatt & Shah, 2017; Chieng & Lee, 2011; Diogo, 2008).

As the father of customer-based brand equity, Aaker (1991, 1996, 1996b) creates an open and effective model to combine the financial and customer force of the brand. The Brand Equity Ten model is adjustable to any brand, market, product, context and audience of the company, making it possible to add other variables and measurements in a complementary form (Diogo, 2008).

Aaker's disciple, Keller (1993, 2001, 2003) takes the perspective of the client with the Customer-Based Brand Equity (CBBE) model. However, the focus of this model stands on creating vast brand knowledge and positive brand associations, so that favorable brand attitudes and long-term relationships can be formed with customers, and, consequently, achieve brand equity.

On a more humanistic and holistic note, the Multidimensional model of Chernatony (2003) poses for an integrated brand equity management across the entire organization, considering both the internal and external structures.

Still in a very qualitative view, for the Prism Model of Brand Equity from Kapferer (1998, 2001) the creation of brand equity is only successful when brand identity is managed properly. As brands represent discourses, designed internally through brand identity and interpreted externally through brand image, it is crucial to develop a suitable value system, brand personality and culture that resonates with consumers.

All four models are mainly suited for the for-profit sector, with a rather small capacity of transition into the nonprofit sector without some significant adjustments (Faircloth, 2005; Laidler-Kylander & Simonin, 2009). Nevertheless, when referring to brand equity from the customer perspective four dimensions are taken into consideration – brand loyalty, perceived quality, brand associations and brand awareness –, the most widely accepted and implemented brand equity dimensions (Bendixen, Bukasa, & Abratt, 2004; Brahmbhatt & Shah, 2017; Chieng & Lee, 2011; Keller, 1993; Kim, Kim, & An, 2003; Motameni & Shahrokhi, 1998) that come from Aaker's (1991, 1996, 1996b) Brand Equity Ten model. Later studies have empirically tested this model (Pappu, Quester, & Cooksey, 2005; Yoo & Donthu, 2001) and have found it to explain most of the contributions to a brand's equity.

2. Brand equity in the nonprofit sector

2.1. Nonprofit organizations: definitions and features

Nonprofit brands are visible everywhere in our daily lives, like Green Peace, Amnesty International or the Red Cross. Nonprofit organizations have evolved as key players in the progress of every sector of both developed and developing countries. Areas such as education, health care, environment, art and culture, and many others, witness the focus of nonprofits (Garg et al., 2019).

Rapid democratization, economic liberalization, reduction of support from individual and institutional donors, and the limited capacity of the government to ensure social development have led to the growth in the number and diversity of nonprofits (Garg et al., 2019; Griffiths, 2005). Such organizations are no longer small-scale actors, they have grown into powerful and impactful voices of society and act as facilitators of social and political integration, filling the void left by the government (Garg et al., 2019; Kovach, Neligan, & Burall, 2003; Salamon, Sokolowski, & List, 2003).

Nonprofit products and/or services generally are called public or collective goods (Weisbrod, 1977), and the decisions they make affect many aspects of our societies (Garg et al., 2019; Kovach et al., 2003; Salamon et al., 2003) by contributing to the national economy and job creation, fostering civic engagement, providing services and products not found elsewhere, and strengthening the fabric of our communities by transforming noble causes into action (Pope, Isely, & Asamoa-Tutu, 2009).

In the literature, it is possible to find various definitions of nonprofits (Ewing & Napoli, 2005; Hou et. al., 2009; Jacobs & Glass, 2002) as organizations not operating primarily to make a profit, but instead to push forward a shared mission to install social change. These nonprofits may include 1) social justice organizations, which fight for general issues of social concern, such as human rights or the environment, 2) cultural organizations, which engage in the fine arts, music, theater, or other cultural activities, 3) social leisure organizations, which exist for explicit social and/or hobby purposes, such as bowling leagues, 4) economic organizations, such as trade unions or chambers of commerce, and 5) educational organizations, which provide educational opportunities, for example.

Indeed, nonprofit organizations have grown tremendously over the past few decades (Laidler-Kylander et al., 2007). With this growth has come greater competition and interest from this sector on the importance of marketing (Kylander & Stone, 2012; Pope et al., 2009). Although there is a general perception that nonprofits have a greater need for marketing than they did 50 years ago, there is still little agreement on how these organizations should approach marketing (Bishop, 2005; Chapleo, 2015; Ewing & Napoli, 2005; Garg et al., 2019; Hankinson, 2000; Pope et al., 2009), with most nonprofit branding approaches stemming from the for-profit sector (Laidler-Kylander & Simonin, 2009).

As shown in table 2, both sectors share similarities (Laidler-Kylander et al., 2007). Nevertheless, it is also essential to point out the differences between nonprofit and for-profit organizations when it comes to applying branding concepts and techniques (Apaydin, 2011; Bennett & Sargeant, 2005; Hou et al., 2009; Ito et al., 2013).

Table 2 –Similarities and Differences between Nonprofits and For-Profits

Similarities	Differences
High levels of increased competition.	The increased importance of their brand mission.
Importance of brand valuation.	Resistance to and skepticism of investing in brand-building activities.
Rise of brand alliances and partnerships.	Nonprofits operate in trust markets, giving their brands a head start when compared to for-profit organizations.
The need for an alignment between brand identity and brand image, and as both environments change the need for brand revitalization.	Collaborative rather than competitive approaches.
Brand values help guide the development of a brand essence, which follows into brand positioning and communication.	Nonprofits need to address multiple stakeholders, suggesting the need for their brands to be multifaceted, yet internally consistent.
The power of global consistency of brand presentation (the same logo, slogan, among others) across markets and geographies.	The decentralized and consensus-building culture of nonprofits can make brand implementation harder.
	Motivated human resources.
	Nonprofits lack the common profit goal shared by commercial organizations.

Source: Adapted from Laidler-Kylander et al. (2007) and Laidler-Kylander and Simonin (2009)

Nonprofits differ from for-profit organizations (Andreasen & Kotler, 2008; Laidler-Kylander et al., 2007; Laidler-Kylander & Simonin, 2009; Padanyi & Gainer, 2004) in at least seven major areas, which can sometimes make their brand-building efforts more difficult (as demonstrated in table 2), while focusing on both upstream (enhanced fundraising) and downstream (ensuring program implementation) activities.

- **Importance of the social mission of nonprofit organizations**

Nonprofits are mission-driven and social-oriented organizations that strive to implement social change and integration (Boenigk & Becker, 2016; Pope et al., 2009; Stride & Lee, 2007). Although for-profit organizations also have a brand mission, for nonprofits this is substantially more important. The brand mission is used to create trust among donors and recipients, additionally acting as an organizational boundary motivating staff, as well as increasing operational capacity and facilitating performance evaluations (Laidler-Kylander & Simonin, 2009; Oster, 1995).

However, many nonprofits suffer from broad missions making their brand positioning difficult and risking brand confusion. Additionally, others with too narrowly defined missions suffer from being insufficiently engaging, proving the need for message consistency across time and projects (Laidler-Kylander et al., 2007; Laidler-Kylander & Simonin, 2009). Still, nonprofits can easily link their brand to a social cause to provide communication advantages and operate in trust markets, providing a head start in their branding strategy when compared to for-profit organizations (Laidler-Kylander et al., 2007).

- **Resistance to investing in branding-building activities**

Nonprofit leaders often question the cost-benefit of investing their limited resources in marketing activities, such as developing brands, especially when this might divert funds from programs to reach their recipients and fulfill their social mission successfully (Becker-Olsen & Hill, 2006; Laidler-Kylander et al., 2007).

However, such actions are counterproductive and hinder the proven advantages of developing strong brands for nonprofit organizations (Laidler-Kylander & Simonin, 2009; Pope et al., 2009), in both enacting with increased success their social mission and acquiring more necessary resources given to them by stakeholders (e.g. the government, individual and institutional donors, volunteers, sponsors and partners).

- **Collaborative rather than competitive approach**

Even if different nonprofits are competing to secure the same resources and partnerships, collaboration efforts between these organizations are at least as important as competition (Austin, 2000; Liao, Foreman, & Sargeant, 2001).

- **The complexity of nonprofit's brand audiences**

Nonprofits need to answer and attract different stakeholders, such as purchasers (individual and institutional donors), the government (regulators), potential partners, users (recipients), volunteers and employees (Helmig, Jegers, & Lapsley, 2004; Laidler-Kylander et al., 2007; Padanyi & Gainer, 2004; Ritchie, Swami, & Weinberg, 1999).

Often these target markets are very distinct and respond to marketing strategies in very different ways (Andreasen & Kotler, 2008; Padanyi & Gainer, 2004; Stride & Lee, 2007). This complex stakeholder mix suggests that nonprofit brands need to be multifaceted and play different roles, developing marketing strategies aimed at these distinct brand audiences (Pope et al., 2009). However, this can make it difficult for their brands to remain internally consistent (Laidler-Kylander et al., 2007) and proves that managing nonprofit brands can be even more difficult than in the for-profit sector.

Additionally, the benefits gained by these different stakeholders are often non-monetary, making it difficult for nonprofits to communicate clear benefits to these audiences (Padanyi & Gainer, 2004). This happens because there is a disconnect between the purchaser (donors) and the user (recipients) of the nonprofit's mission (Liao et al., 2001).

While in the for-profit sector, the purchaser and user of the product and/or service are often the same, for the case of nonprofits, purchasers are donors that give the necessary recourses to the organization so it can then provide the products and/or services to its users, which are the recipients of the nonprofit's action. Therefore, the relationship between the purchaser (donor) and the user (recipient) is not a market-based transaction.

Consequently, rarely does direct feedback exist to help the donor determine the organization's success. Instead, purchasers (donors) mostly rely on their trust in the nonprofit's ability to carry out its mission successfully. They cannot, as is the case with for-profit organizations, rely on firsthand experience to decide whether or not to continue the funding of the nonprofit's operations. The development of trust is therefore critical to overcoming the purchaser-user disconnect, and brands facilitate the development of trust between nonprofit organizations and their stakeholders (Laidler-Kylander et al., 2007).

- **Decentralized organizational culture**

Nonprofits are characterized by a little formal hierarchy and a consensus-building culture (Foreman, 1999; Quelch & Laidler-Kylander, 2005), which can make brand implementation harder, especially for international nonprofit organizations, when it comes to decision making on marketing strategies.

- **Motivated human resources**

Employees in nonprofit organizations have higher levels of job satisfaction and are viewed as intrinsically motivated, deriving non-financial rewards from their work that may compensate for differences in salaries when compared to the for-profit sector (Benz, 2005).

- **Lack of a common profit goal shared by commercial organizations**

Nonprofit organizations strive to make a bigger impact within their communities (Pope et al., 2009) and essentially put themselves out of business by solving the problems justifying their existence (Griffiths, 2005). In sum, unlike their commercial counterparts, nonprofits don't operate to advance their own interests by selling products and/or services, rather they use society's resources to deliver social change (Andreasen & Kotler, 2008).

As a result, nonprofits are mainly focused on raising funds (money and in-kind) and volunteering, as well as establishing viable partnerships with other organizations (Lowell, Silverman, & Taliento, 2001) to successfully implement their social mission. Nevertheless, as nonprofits use donated and/or public resources, they need to constantly report their performance back to stakeholders, this being donors (purchasers), regulators (the government), employees, volunteers, partners and recipients (users), while creating a legitimate, trustworthy and reliable reputation to continuously acquire the necessary long-term support to their organization's actions (Laidler-Kylander & Simonin, 2009).

2.2. Branding approach in the nonprofit sector

Following the wide acceptance of brand equity by scholars, since successful organizations can be achieved by strengthening the financial and/or psychological value of their brands (Chapleo, 2015; Keller, 2001), the evaluation and development of brand equity have become a top research priority, especially within the for-profit sector (Brahmbhatt & Shah, 2017; Chieng & Lee, 2011). In fact, a multitude of instruments has been established to determine the equity of for-profit brands (Aaker, 1991, 1996, 1996b; Chernatony, 2003; Kapferer, 1998, 2001; Keller, 1993, 2001, 2003), as showcased in table 25.

"[Still] *while the conceptual development of brand management has progressed rapidly since the latter part of the 19th century, the applicability of these concepts to nonprofit organizations has remained a largely under-researched domain."* (Napoli, 2006, p. 673).

Although scholars have claimed that strong brands are supported by brand equity (Keller, 2001), whose assets and liabilities should be managed (Aaker, 1991), and that understanding the importance of branding and what drives brand equity is essential for any organization, including nonprofits, to succeed (Chiagouris, 2005; Judd, 2004; Naddaff, 2004; Napoli, 2006; Smillie, 1995; G. B. Voss & Voss, 2000), minor research has been made within the nonprofit sector to support a branding orientation or guide nonprofit managers in building brand equity, which suggests a gap in the literature (Laidler-Kylander & Stenzel, 2013; Wymer, Gross, & Helmig, 2016).

To summarize, brands are vital instruments for galvanizing support towards nonprofit organizations and one of the most important advantages nonprofits have at their disposal to successfully accomplish their respective social missions (Bosc, 2002; Burnham, 2002).

However, most nonprofits if they do apply a branding orientation it is primarily utilized as a fundraising tool. This is, to manage the external perceptions of the organization for favorable positioning and increased awareness amongst target audiences to acquire resources (Apaydin, 2011; Garg et al., 2019; Hankinson, 2000; Kylander & Stone, 2012; Pope et al., 2009). Nevertheless, what nonprofits need to do is move past this revenue generation paradigm and develop a more strategic long-term branding approach, to help build operational capacity, increase support and maintain focus on their social mission (Kylander & Stone, 2012).

Likewise, although most nonprofit organizations consider marketing to be important and have, to some extent, begun to perform such activities, brand management execution is still lacking or difficult (Bishop, 2005; Ewing & Napoli, 2005; Garg et al., 2019; Hankinson, 2000), with many nonprofit managers not being able to define marketing concepts and instruments or having the knowledge to apply them in their organizations (Pope et al., 2009). In fact, most often than not marketing activities are overlooked tools in this sector, despite the clear advantages of developing brands to increase organizational performance and success of nonprofit organizations (e.g. Becker-Olsen & Hill, 2006; Bennett & Gabriel, 2003; Dickinson & Barker, 2007; Michaelidou, Micevski, & Cadogan, 2015; Michel & Rieunier, 2012; Venable, Rose, Bush, & Gilbert, 2005).

- **Why don't nonprofit organizations consider themselves as brands?**

Despite several scholars' recommendations (e.g. Ewing & Napoli, 2005; Faircloth, 2005; Ito et al., 2013; Laidler-Kylander & Simonin, 2009; Sargeant, Hudson, & West, 2008), nonprofit organizations, for decades, have devoted little time and resources to one of their most powerful assets: their brands. Why is that, we ask ourselves?

This gap in the literature presents itself due to the different marketing environments generated by nonprofit organizations, as explained previously in this project (see Laidler-Kylander et al., 2007, and Laidler-Kylander & Simonin, 2009, for an overview). In sum, nonprofit organizations need to attend to different organizational features and goals that are not present in current branding approaches, which were developed thinking, in particular, on the for-profit sector.

Therefore, not only have nonprofit leaders seem reluctant to actively embrace brand-building activities due to its association with the for-profit sector (Apaydin, 2011; Becker-Olsen & Hill, 2006; Bishop, 2005; Ewing & Napoli, 2005; Garg et al., 2019; Kylander & Stone, 2012; Ritchie et al., 1999), but also because little to no explicit brand orientation or brand equity models exist for the specific characteristics of nonprofit organizations, so they can conduct such marketing activities successfully (e.g. Bennett & Sargeant, 2005; Haigh & Gilbert, 2005; Hou et al., 2009; Pope et al., 2009).

In other words, brand orientation and brand equity models seem to be borrowed from the for-profit sector (Boenigk & Becker, 2016; Griffiths, 2005; Kylander & Stone, 2012; Stride & Lee, 2007), which is less than optimal given the differences between nonprofits and for-profits organizations, as presented in table 2. Therefore, if a branding approach is to be applied to the nonprofit sector the differences between these two types of organizations need to be understood and accounted for while researching and managing nonprofit brands (Bennett & Sargeant, 2005; Haigh & Gilbert, 2005).

"Nonprofit leaders need new models that allow their brands to contribute to sustaining their social impact, serving their mission, and staying true to their organization's values and culture." (Kylander & Stone, 2012, p. 37). Overall, a new nonprofit branding strategy needs to be developed to assist this sector in meeting its various specific requirements and objectives (Andreasen & Kotler, 2008; Chapleo, 2015; Clarke & Mount, 2001; Hou et al., 2009; Pope et al., 2009).

- **What are the difficulties in applying brand-building activities to nonprofits?**

"While developing new marketing strategies is a difficult task for any business, NPOs lack the resources and expertise, making the process all the more complicated." (Pope et al., 2009, p. 195). Nonprofits deal with great difficulty in branding due to the shortage of financial resources, available technology, time, marketing knowledge and trained staff (Chapleo, 2015; Pope et al., 2009).

Thus, creating brands within the nonprofit sector turns out to be even more complicated than in the for-profit field, due to the specific features, needs and goals of these organizations (Chapleo, 2015; Laidler-Kylander & Simonin, 2009; Pope et al., 2009).

Besides the multiple audiences (Chapleo, 2015; Helmig et al., 2004; Letts, Ryan, & Grossman, 1999; Padanyi & Gainer, 2004; Pope et al., 2009; Ritchie et al., 1999) nonprofit organizations need to attend to – donors, recipients, partners, regulators, volunteers, employees – with different marketing needs (Andreasen & Kotler, 2008; Stride & Lee, 2007), nonprofits suffer from a decentralized and consensus-building culture (Foreman, 1999; Quelch & Laidler-Kylander, 2005) that can make it difficult to implement a consistent branding approach, without forgetting the constant need to build and maintain trust to surpass the purchaser-user disconnect found in this sector (Laidler-Kylander et al., 2007), critical to guarantee long-term support which without nonprofit organizations can’t successfully achieve their social mission (Laidler-Kylander & Simonin, 2009)

Another issue that most nonprofit organizations struggle with is determining what motivates individuals to donate. Also, within nonprofits, although volunteers are a crucial part of the success of their operation, most lack volunteer recruitment and relationship management programs, making it difficult to keep long-term good volunteers. Finally, even though most nonprofits can easily find recipients for their services and/or products, rarely any customer orientation is found within their marketing activities (Pope et al., 2009).

On top of these deficits, marketing tools in the nonprofit sector are still considered to be a significant issue to deal with, mainly because of the amounts of money nonprofits manage and the fear of over-commercialization of this sector (Apaydin, 2011; Kylander & Stone, 2012; Ritchie et al., 1999).

In sum, the public sector perceives marketing activities with great cynicism, an organizational culture challenge that creates great obstacles to the implementation of a branding approach within nonprofits (Chapleo, 2015; Kylander & Stone, 2012). The time and financial commitment by for-profit organizations to establish and maintain positive brand equity may appear excessive, especially to nonprofits facing constant resource limitations in their search and application of solutions to important social issues (Apaydin, 2011; Becker-Olsen & Hill, 2006; Helmig et al., 2004).

Unfortunately, it is very common within nonprofit organizations for executive boards and donors to not accept the importance of marketing, and therefore exclude these activities from their strategic plans and budgets (Chapleo, 2015; Pope et al., 2009). Under such conditions, priorities are unlikely to divert resources to fund significant marketing efforts in support of brand management goals for nonprofit organizations (Becker-Olsen & Hill, 2006).

- **How can NPOs improve their performance by building strong brands? What challenges are being felt by NPOs that brands can help tackle?**

The changing pace of the external environment, with nonprofit organizations needing to adapt and react to market conditions at a faster pace than they have been equipped to do, has profoundly altered the mindset and duties of nonprofits propelling them into an internal necessity to apply more competitive strategies, where developing brands can be a differential advantage (Chapleo, 2015; Laidler-Kylander et al., 2007), as is the case in the for-profit sector.

The challenges nonprofits are facing nowadays come from 1) worsening economies (Salamon, 2002), 2) changes in donors' lifestyles and self-concepts (Hankinson, 2000; Hou et al., 2009), 3) decreasing donations, from both individual and institutional donors (Liao et al., 2001; Lindenberg & Bryant, 2001; Lowell et al., 2001; Porter & Kramer, 2002), 4) deterioration in government welfare support (Frumkin & Kim, 2001; Hibbert & Horne, 1996; Salamon, 2002), 5) increasing number of nonprofits (Faircloth, 2005; Laidler-Kylander & Simonin, 2009; Wiepking, 2007), and 6) higher levels of competition for resources (Garg et al., 2019; Porter & Kramer, 2002).

As nonprofits fill in the gap left by the government, that has retrieved from its social role in the past few decades, the number and diversity of nonprofits have increased, consequently, leading to more competition (Garg et al., 2019; Michel & Rieunier, 2012) for the same funding, partnerships, volunteers and recipients, resulting in an overall limitation of resources (Liao et al., 2001; Porter & Kramer, 2002; Salamon, 2002).

Taking into consideration these difficulties, there is the need to understand how nonprofits can better address these obstacles and a possible successful path can be by building their own brands (Boenigk & Becker, 2016; Garg et al., 2019). *"Doesn't this make good branding essential?"* (Griffiths, 2005, p. 122). I would say so, as well as many other scholars that claim nonprofits would benefit greatly by applying a brand orientation (e.g. Apaydin, 2011; Garg et al., 2019; Hankinson, 2000; Napoli, 2006) and brand equity activities to their organizations (e.g. Boenigk & Becker, 2016; Hou et al., 2009; Michaelidou et al., 2015; Sargeant et al., 2008).

If brands are key elements for the survival and longevity of any organization (Aaker, 1996; Keller, 2001), then brand management is important to implement in both the for-profit and nonprofit sectors (Chapleo, 2015). Many scholars have provided insights on how nonprofits can get started by implementing a brand orientation within their organizations (see table 27 for more information), as for example, Apaydin (2011), Ewing and Napoli (2005), Garg et al. (2019), Hankinson (2000), Kylander and Stone (2012), Laidler-Kylander et al. (2007) or Napoli (2006). Several elements can be identified as essential between these models, including the following:

1. Good leadership, with a management profile and organizational culture supportive towards brand management (Apaydin, 2011; Hankinson, 2000; Kylander & Stone, 2012) and in-tune with the importance of such activities for the success of any organization, including nonprofits (Morgan, 2011; Pope et al., 2009).
2. Educating employees on marketing activities (O'Cass & Voola, 2011) and hiring already trained staff (Pope et al., 2009).
3. Advocate for an appropriate marketing structure (Napoli, 2006), which includes budgets for brand-building activities (Becker-Olsen & Hill, 2006; Laidler-Kylander et al., 2007), from traditional advertising to the use of new digital marketing tools (Chapleo, 2015; Hart, 2002; Pope et al., 2009).

4. Implement brand best practices, support a common brand-building strategy and assign its responsibility to one team within the organization, to counter the nonprofit's decentralized organizational culture, reduce brand confusion and create a sense of unity and self-identity (Laidler-Kylander et al., 2007).
5. Establish clear and consistent visual (e.g. logo, website, media coverage), message (e.g. mission, values and goals) and behavioral (brand in action, translation of values into measurable performance) communicators (Hankinson, 2000), both internally and externally (Ewing & Napoli, 2005; Napoli, 2006).
6. The brand must also employ a brand position. Understand the brand's benefits in driving customers' choices and the organization's ability to differentiate itself from the competition (Garg et al., 2019).
7. Alignment between brand identity (brand reality) and brand image (brand perception) (Garg et al., 2019; Kylander & Stone, 2012; Laidler-Kylander et al., 2007) to guide staff and volunteers internally, increasing organizational performance, while offering externally an orientation to various other stakeholders of what the organization stands for and does (Chapleo, 2015; Garg et al., 2019; Laidler-Kylander & Simonin, 2009).
8. Analyze and use market feedback and/or changes to develop and deliver superior value to stakeholders (Ewing & Napoli, 2005; Napoli, 2006).
9. Evaluate the brand's performance, this is the ability to perceive stakeholder's brand feelings and attitudes successfully (Ewing & Napoli, 2005; Napoli, 2006) to correspond to their needs (Garg et al., 2019), such as social media or website metrics, direct feedback from customers, brand equity evaluations, among others.
10. Implement an experiential and emotional branding approach (Chapleo, 2015) due to the mission-driven and social-oriented character of nonprofit organizations (Laidler-Kylander et al., 2007). Therefore, it is necessary to use values that are in alignment with the self-concept of the nonprofit's brand audience (e.g. lifestyle, personality, values, interests, among others).

Research has shown that strong for-profit brands provide important organizational outcomes through greater loyalty and financial performance (e.g. Farquhar, 1989;

Mahajan, Rao, & Srivastava, 1994; Simon & Sullivan, 1993), enhanced brand preference and purchase intention (Cobb-Walgren et al., 1995), willingness to pay premium prices (Aaker, 1991), reduced perceived risk (Shapiro, 1985), increased credibility (Erdem & Swait, 1998) and trustworthiness (Ritchie et al., 1999; Wong & Merrilees, 2005), among other benefits described in table 26.

Such benefits of brand equity can also be transferred into the nonprofit field to potentially address the challenges the sector is facing nowadays (Ewing & Napoli, 2006; Kotler & Levy, 1969). Thus, like the for-profit sector which has built and developed brands as a means of creating and maintaining a point of difference in an increasingly competitive and oversaturated market, nonprofit organizations are now more apt and in need (Bennett & Sargeant, 2005; Faircloth, 2005; Michel & Rieunier, 2012) of becoming the new super brands of today (Wootliff & Deri, 2001) and positively influencing consumer behavior towards their organizations.

Brand-building activities, such as implementing a brand orientation and evaluating brand equity, can indeed be a powerful tool to enable nonprofit organizations to implement their social missions successfully and achieve their main goals, by raising awareness, generating the necessary resources, building trust and parliamentary lobbying (Hankinson, 2000; Kylander & Stone, 2012; Napoli, 2006).

As per example, the main competitive advantages of building nonprofit brands may include: 1) internal cohesion, reduction of mission drifts, reinforcement of values and easier decision-making (Kylander & Stone, 2012), 2) clear market positioning, greater operation capacity and performance (Apaydin, 2011; Garg et al., 2019), 3) enhanced awareness, reputation, positive associations and trust (e.g. Apaydin, 2011; Hou et al., 2009; Wong & Merrilees, 2005), 4) the high levels of awareness and trust experienced by nonprofits will then lead to increased donations, volunteering and partnerships (e.g. Apaydin, 2011; Hassay & Peloza, 2009; Napoli, 2006), 5) higher recruitment, motivation and retention of donors, volunteers and employees (Laidler-Kylander et al., 2007), 6) increased leverage with partners, beneficiaries and policymakers (Laidler-Kylander et al., 2007), and 7) greater social impact (e.g. Garg et al., 2019; Kylander & Stone, 2012) and awareness for different social issues (Candler & Dumont, 2010), among others advantages presented in the following figure 5.

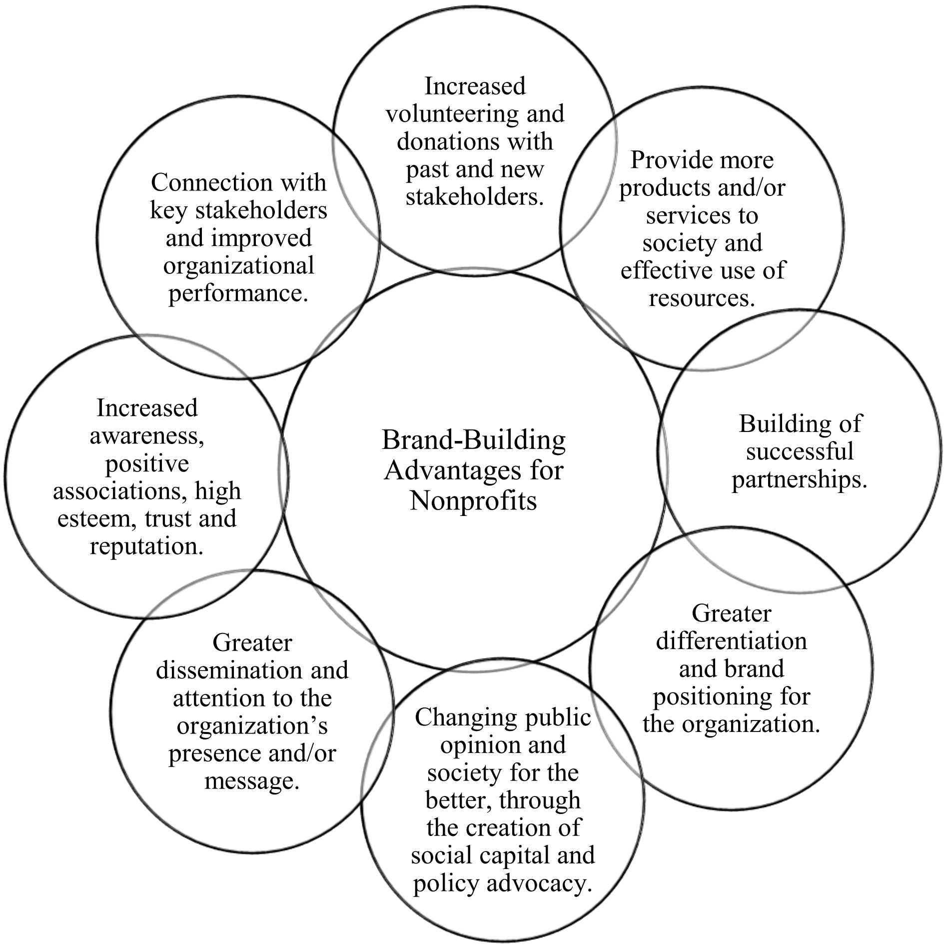

Figure 5 – Brand-Building Advantages for Nonprofits

Source: Adapted from Apaydin (2011), Garg et al. (2019), Hankinson (2000), Hou et al. (2009), Kylander and Stone (2012), Laidler-Kylander et al. (2007) and Napoli (2006)

Finally, nonprofits by creating strong brands become accepted, respected and trusted within society, and through this process gain higher support, in terms of financial and human resources, needed for their activities (Paço, Rodrigues, & Rodrigues, 2014). It's through brands that nonprofits can strengthen operation capacity and achieve impact within society by fulfilling their mission (Garg et al., 2019). Therefore, nonprofits can then successfully deliver their products and/or services to the needy (Apaydin, 2011), as well as broaden their range of activities and programs, which will ultimately contribute to society's welfare (Hankinson, 2000; Laidler-Kylander et al., 2007; Voeth & Herbst, 2008).

2.3. Models of nonprofit brand equity

"Whilst interest in the topic is growing, as evidenced by the emergence of a range of specialist journals, the quality of research is variable and the volume low when compared with that grounded in other sectors of the marketing discipline" (Bennett & Sargeant, 2005, p. 802). Even though most literature within the area of branding is focused on the for-profit field, some scholarly work can be identified within the nonprofit sector (for an overview read Bennett & Sargeant, 2005).

Firstly, nonprofits are concerned with building a brand orientation within their organizations and understanding the main obstacles to successfully applying these marketing activities (Apaydin, 2011; Chapleo, 2015; Ewing & Napoli, 2005; Garg et al., 2019; Hankinson, 2000; Kylander & Stone, 2012; Laidler-Kylander et al., 2007; Napoli, 2006), as showcased in table 27.

On a closer look, fewer studies analyze brand equity within the nonprofit sector and create measurement scales, as well as discuss the results that brand equity can generate to such organizations (Becker-Olsen & Hill, 2006; Bennett & Gabriel, 2003; Boenigk & Becker, 2016; Camarero, Garrido, & Vicente, 2010; Dickinson & Barker, 2007; Faircloth, 2005; Hou et al., 2009; Juntunen et al., 2013; Laidler-Kylander & Simonin, 2009; Michaelidou et al., 2015; Michel & Rieunier, 2012; Sargeant, Ford, & Hudson, 2007; Sargeant, Ford, & West, 2006; Sargeant et al., 2008; Sargeant & Lee, 2004; Venable et al., 2005), as presented in table 28.

In this last topic, we can identify main themes of research, such as how to manage a charitable reputation to attract donor behavior for nonprofits (Bennett & Gabriel, 2003; Faircloth, 2005; Hou et al., 2009; Michaelidou et al., 2015; Michel & Rieunier, 2012; Sargeant et al., 2007; Sargeant et al., 2006; Sargeant et al., 2008; Sargeant & Lee, 2004; Venable et al., 2005), fit of sponsorships for nonprofit organizations (Becker-Olsen & Hill, 2006; Dickinson & Barker, 2007), brand equity co-creation within nonprofits (Camarero et al., 2010; Juntunen et al., 2013), as well as general models for the development of nonprofit brand equity (Boenigk & Becker, 2016; Laidler-Kylander & Simonin, 2009).

Table 3 – Brand Equity Models for Nonprofits

Brand equity models for nonprofits	
To influence donor behavior	Bennett and Gabriel (2003), Faircloth (2005), Hou et al. (2009), Michaelidou et al. (2015), Michel and Rieunier (2012), Sargeant et al. (2007), Sargeant et al. (2006), Sargeant et al. (2008), Sargeant and Lee (2004), and, finally, Venable et al. (2005).
Fit of sponsorship	Becker-Olsen and Hill (2006) and Dickinson and Barker (2007).
Brand equity co-creation	Camarero et al. (2010) and Juntunen et al. (2013).
Overall models to develop brand equity for nonprofits	Boenigk and Becker (2016) and Laidler-Kylander and Simonin (2009).

Source: Self-authorship

2.3.1. Models of brand equity to influence donor behavior in NPOs

As stated previously, most nonprofit organizations if they do apply a branding approach it is primarily used as a fundraising tool. In other words, nonprofits use brands to manage the external perceptions of their organizations, and, thus, positively influence donor behavior to acquire the necessary resources for the successful accomplishment of their social mission (Apaydin, 2011; Garg et al., 2019; Hankinson, 2000; Kylander & Stone, 2012).

Currently, nonprofit organizations are experiencing more competition and an overwhelming restraint on resources, due to worsening economies (Salamon, 2002), a reduction in government support (Frumkin & Kim, 2001; Hibbert & Horne, 1996), an increasing number of nonprofit organizations operating in the field (Faircloth, 2005; Hankinson, 2000; Laidler-Kylander & Simonin, 2009; Wiepking, 2007), as well as changes in donors' lifestyles and self-concepts (Hankinson, 2000; Hou et al., 2009; Salamon, 2002) that has led to a decline in donations, from both individual and institutional donors (Liao et al., 2001; Lindenberg & Bryant, 2001; Lowell et al., 2001; Porter & Kramer, 2002).

Hence, fundraising is an extremely important issue within the nonprofit sector, which might explain why it is the topic where most nonprofit brand equity research can be found

(Bennett & Gabriel, 2003; Faircloth, 2005; Hou et al., 2009; Michaelidou et al., 2015; Michel & Rieunier, 2012; Sargeant et al., 2007; Sargeant et al., 2006; Sargeant et al., 2008; Sargeant & Lee, 2004; Venable et al., 2005).

Focus on this topic has been made in different ways. As nonprofit brand image and brand personality play an important role in shaping donations, nonprofits must be aware of how stakeholders perceive them. Bennett and Gabriel (2003), Michel and Rieunier (2012) and Michaelidou et al. (2015) are three studies that focus on brand image exactly, while Sargeant et al. (2007), Sargeant et al. (2008) and Venable et al. (2005) are concerned with researching brand personality. On the other hand, Faircloth (2005) and Hou et al. (2009) include brand personality, brand image and brand awareness. Lastly, Sargeant et al. (2006) and Sargeant and Lee (2004) emphasize the influence of brand trust and brand commitment upon donor behavior.

Table 4 – Models of Brand Equity to Influence Donor Behavior in NPOs

Brand image	
Bennett and Gabriel (2003)	Brand image (compassion, dynamism, idealism, focus on beneficiaries and non-political character) Brand reputation (Fortune corporate reputation index and being well-known)
Michel and Rieunier (2012)	Brand image (usefulness, efficiency, affect and dynamism) Typicality of the nonprofit
Michaelidou et al. (2015)	Brand image (usefulness, efficiency, affect, dynamism, reliability and ethicality)
Brand personality	
Sargeant et al. (2007)	Brand personality (benevolence, progression, conservatism, emotional engagement, voice, service and tradition)
Sargeant et al. (2008)	Brand personality (emotional stimulation and performance)
Venable et al. (2005)	Brand personality (sophistication, ruggedness, integrity, and nurturance)
Brand personality, brand image and brand awareness	
Faircloth (2005)	Brand personality (respect and differentiation) Brand image (character and scale) Brand awareness (recall and familiarity)

Hou et al. (2009)	Brand personality Brand image Brand awareness
Brand trust and brand commitment	
Sargeant et al. (2006)	Brand trust (performance, responsiveness and communication of the nonprofit organization) Brand commitment (demonstrable, emotional and familial utility)
Sargeant and Lee (2004)	Brand trust Brand commitment

Source: Self-authorship

2.3.1.1. Models of brand equity to influence donor behavior in NPOs based on brand image

Firstly, Bennett and Gabriel (2003) consider brand image and brand reputation as dimensions that can influence donor behavior within nonprofit organizations. While brand image is related to compassion, dynamism, idealism, focus on beneficiaries and being non-political, brand reputation was determined by the Fortune corporate reputation index and by whether or not the nonprofit considered was well-known by respondents.

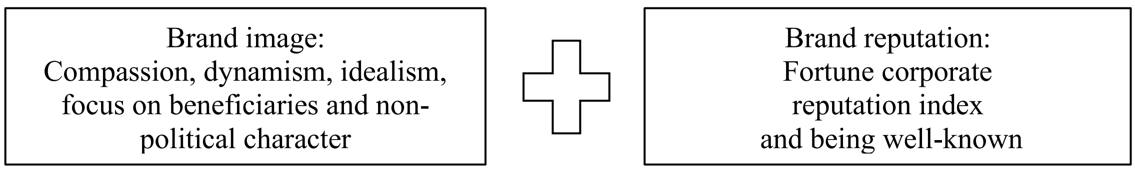

Figure 6 – Bennett and Gabriel's (2003) Model

Source: Adapted from Bennett and Gabriel (2003, pp. 281–285)

The study results have clear implications for marketing activities towards influencing donor behavior, based on brand image and brand reputation, for nonprofit organizations. Bennett and Gabriel (2003) suggest that nonprofits need to tailor their marketing communications around the projection of being compassionate, nonpolitical, dynamic (in an idealistic way) and devoting its resources to the organization's beneficiaries. Equally, nonprofits should be considered as well-known by their brand audiences and develop their reputation around the same variables known to determine the reputation of large commercial firms, the Fortune corporate reputation index, that performs successfully even outside the for-profit sector.

Likewise, Michel and Rieunier (2012) also examine the influence of nonprofit brand image and nonprofit typically on giving behavior, while validating a scale for nonprofit brand image, analyzed through the following four variables: 1) usefulness, 2) efficiency, 3) affect and 4) dynamism.

The variables proposed are quite similar to the brand image variables developed by Bennett and Gabriel (2003). However, the two scales are different in three points. Firstly, Michel and Rieunier's (2012) study differentiates between variables of usefulness and efficiency, that were previously combined under the concept of reputation by Bennett and Gabriel (2003). Secondly, the variables of idealism and political orientation have been excluded after several statistical tests, since Michel and Rieunier (2012) concluded that donors don't use such variables to describe nonprofits. Thirdly, Michel and Rieunier's (2012) scale clearly shows a substantial affective component, less significant in the study of Bennett and Gabriel (2003).

The main contribution of this study includes the emerging role of brand image in influencing donor intention to give time and/or money towards nonprofit organizations. More specifically, in Michel and Rieunier's (2012) research the affect variable explains the intention to give time better than money. In contrast, the efficiency variable explains the intention to give money better than time. These results extend those of Sargeant et al. (2007) and Sargeant et al. (2008) concerning the importance of emotional stimulation in donor behavior. Regarding the influence of usefulness and dynamism, the results show that these variables influence equally the intention to give time and money to nonprofits. As for the typicality of the nonprofit, this variable also strongly influences intentions to give money and/or time to nonprofits.

Michel and Rieunier's (2012) study reveals three important practical implications for the sector. First, nonprofits need to invest more in developing an emotional side to their brands, as proposed, for example, by Chapleo (2015) and Napoli (2006). Secondly, the research shows the important influence of efficiency on donor behavior. Therefore, nonprofits need to communicate their results back to their brand audiences more often. This confirms the importance of donor feedback, as demonstrated by Hankinson (2000) and Merchant, Ford and Sargeant (2010). Thirdly, nonprofit organizations need to be perceived as representative of their sector to attract more donations.

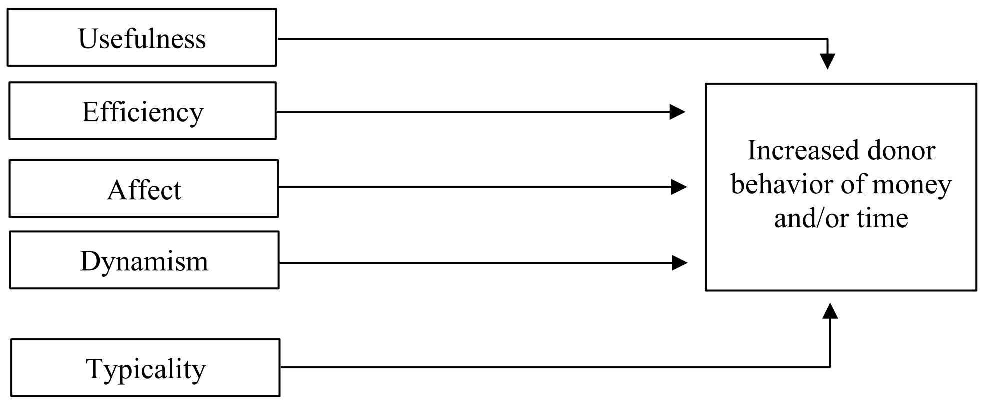

Figure 7 – Michel and Rieunier's (2012) Model
Source: Adapted from Michel and Rieunier (2012, p. 706)

Nonetheless, Michaelidou's et al. (2015) study shows that nonprofit brand image is better conceptualized using the six variables (usefulness, efficiency, affect, dynamism, reliability and ethicality) proposed by their scale, instead of the four initial variables of Michel and Rieunier's (2012) model. In addition, the findings indicate that these variables correlate with intentions to donate time and money at significant levels simultaneously.

The two new variables added to the original study on nonprofit brand image of Michel and Rieunier (2012) include 1) reliability and 2) ethicality, suggesting that individuals develop perceptions based on ethical principles and expect nonprofits to be righteous, benevolent, reliable and trustworthy.

This research of Michaelidou et al. (2015) offers improved measures of nonprofit brand image and highlights the necessity of nonprofits to consider brand image within their communication strategies. Campaigns involving all six dimensions of nonprofit brand image (e.g. how the nonprofit is trustworthy, devoted, responsible, reliable, efficient and useful in achieving its mission) are more persuasive and collectively stronger in competing for and influencing donor behavior of money, time and in-kind.

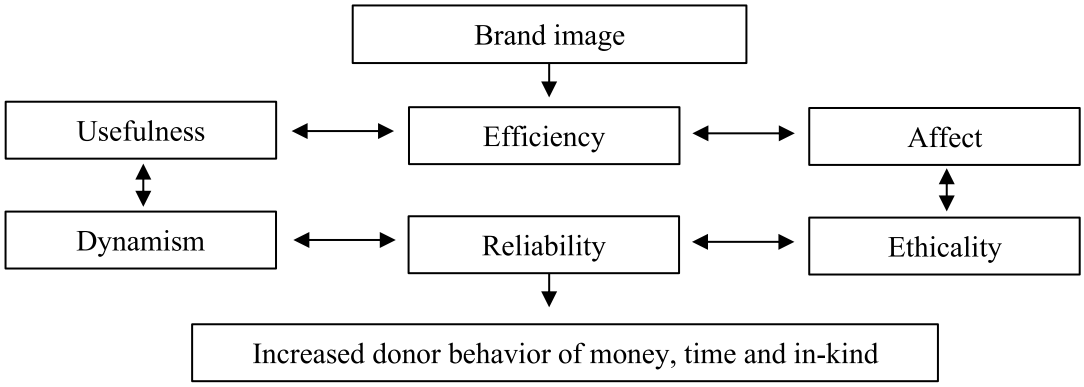

Figure 8 – Michaelidou's et al. (2015) Model
Source: Adapted from Michaelidou et al. (2015, pp. 4–7)

2.3.1.2. Models of brand equity to influence donor behavior in NPOs based on brand personality

Furthermore, Sargeant's et al. (2007) study concludes that brand personality traits associated with benevolence, progression and conservatism are incapable of distinguishing between the participating nonprofit brands in their research. However, brand personality traits associated with emotional engagement, voice, service and tradition are capable of serving as a basis for differentiation between nonprofit brands and are linked to increased donor behavior.

These results have important implications for the sector, in that Sargeant et al. (2007) suggest that nonprofit brand personalities are structured differently from their commercial counterparts. Additionally, it was found that donors appear to have a clear conception of what it means to be a nonprofit and how they would expect such organizations to behave.

For nonprofit leaders who wish to differentiate their brands from those of their competitors, promoting values of benevolence or progression is a waste of time, because donors appear to have a specific set of assumed characteristics for nonprofits, regardless of their marketing efforts, that reflect their voluntary nature and the progressive role they play in attempting to instigate social change. Regarding conservatism, the nonprofit organizations in the sample were generally not considered in this way.

Therefore, an increased utility will be derived from promoting variables such as emotional engagement, the nature of the voice projected by the nonprofit, the character of the organization's service provision, and the extent to which the nonprofit might be viewed as traditional. These results offer new insights into the structure of nonprofit brand personality and a unique approach to branding practices in the sector.

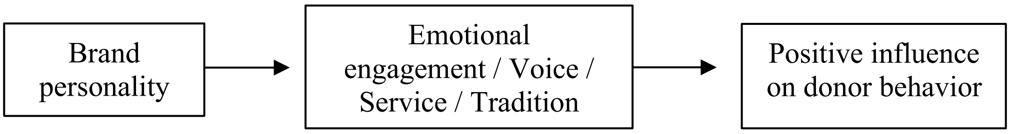

Figure 9 – Sargeant's et al. (2007) Model
Source: Adapted from Sargeant et al. (2007, pp. 484–487)

In another study, Sargeant et al. (2008) also concentrate on nonprofit brand personality and its relationship with donor behavior, ultimately concluding that traits related to emotional stimulation and organizational performance are linked to increased donations.

Despite these findings, nonprofit organizations continue to focus their attention on the benevolence component of their brands. Although an approach consistent with the extant trust literature, where, for example, Sargeant and Lee (2004) conclude that perceived ethics and benevolence fosters trust, and, hence, giving behavior, and following the attitude functional theory, in conjunction with the findings of Yavas, Riecken and Parameswaran (1980), which suggest that donors might align themselves with organizations deemed to be sympathetic, caring, generous and helpful, the results of Sargeant's et al. (2008) study recommend that to increase levels of support, nonprofit leaders should focus on what is distinctive about their brand's personality, such as emotional stimulation and organizational performance.

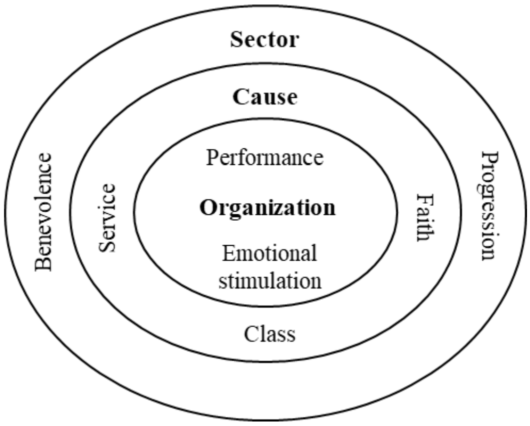

Figure 10 – Sargeant's et al. (2008) Model
Source: Adapted from Sargeant et al. (2008, p. 629)

Equally, Venable's et al. (2005) research focuses on the influence of nonprofit brand personality upon donor behavior. For Venable et al. (2005) brand personality includes the following variables: 1) sophistication, 2) ruggedness, 3) integrity and 4) nurturance. Two of the four variables, sophistication and ruggedness, that characterize nonprofit brand personality were similar to those previously found by Aaker (1997). However, two additional variables, integrity and nurturance, were found specifically for nonprofits.

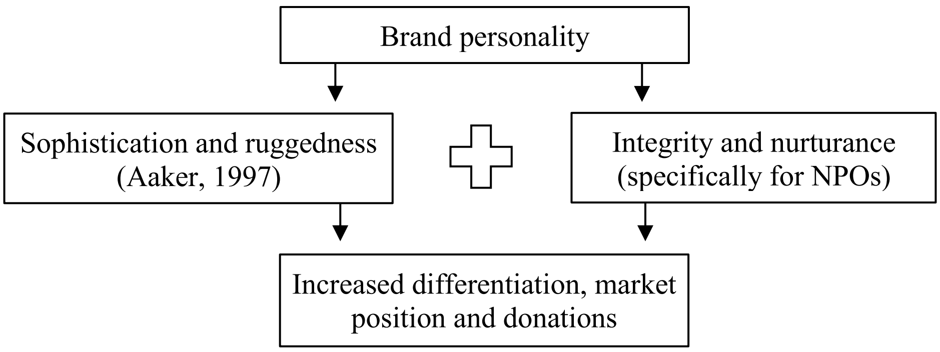

Figure 11 – Venable's et al. (2005) Model
Source: Adapted from Venable et al. (2005, p. 306)

Integrity represents a particularly important variable for evaluating nonprofit brand personality, since it captures the importance that respondents place on commitment, honesty, accountability, trust and reliability, as well as the positive influence nonprofits have on their communities. On another hand, nurturance, viewed in terms of being compassionate, loving and caring, demonstrates the social benefits that current and potential donors search for in nonprofit organizations.

Venable et al. (2005) alert to the fact that respondents ascribe different personality traits according to nonprofit categories, as well as different degrees of importance of such traits, even within the same category, presenting opportunities for nonprofit organizations to position themselves more strongly against their closest competitors.

Overall, Venable's et al. (2005) study measures and validates brand personality as a means to strengthen the brands and market position of nonprofit organizations through differentiation. As the market becomes more aggressive and competitive, creating a unique brand personality can be an efficient method to positively influence donors' likelihood to donate towards nonprofit organizations.

2.3.1.3. Models of brand equity to influence donor behavior in NPOs based on brand personality, brand image and brand awareness

Faircloth (2005) presents an exploratory research that provides empirical evidence of the influence of brand equity on increasingly constrained individual donor behavior, after controlling the effects of altruistic volunteerism.

This study proposes an extension of branding literature, adapted from the more common for-profit customer-based brand equity models of Aaker (1991) and Keller (1993), with some richer conceptualizations of its antecedents (Aaker, 1997; Churchill & Iaobucci, 2002; Fournier, 1998; Malhotra, 1981), which suggests that brand equity, analyzed through brand personality (respect and differentiation), brand image (character and scale) and brand awareness (recall and familiarity), has potential efficiency in the nonprofit sector to compete for vital resources.

When brand personality is studied as an independent dimension from brand image (Fournier, 1998), and not just conceived as human traits (Aaker, 1997) but in terms of a relationship between the nonprofit organization and its donors, according to Faircloth's

(2005) research the variables of a respectable and different organization were the most significant influences on the donors' willingness to favorably behave towards or to support the nonprofit organization.

The dimension of brand image, including the character and scale of the nonprofit, produced mixed results. The nonprofit brand character was not found to exert a significant influence on donor decisions, but those decisions were influenced by the perception that the nonprofit had a certain scale.

The effect of brand awareness also exhibited mixed and counterintuitive results. Firstly, the recall variable didn't significantly influence donor decisions, but familiarity had a considerable negative influence on them. In this instance, Faircloth (2005) considered that the sample had a negative perception of the study's nonprofit, making it clear that it is not always just whether the customer recalls the brand, but the depth of this understanding (Churchill & Iacobucci, 2002).

In sum, this study provides a multidimensional empirical nonprofit brand equity model on donor behavior influence, to be utilized as a basis for relationship building between donors and nonprofits and as a means to tackle resource challenges felt by this sector. Thus, Faircloth (2005) recommends managing the antecedents of nonprofit brand equity multidimensionally to positively influence donor behavior, by focusing on brand personality, the scale of the organization and favorable familiarity.

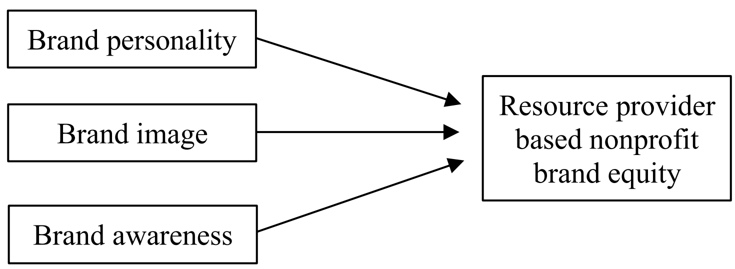

Figure 12 – Faircloth's (2005) Model
Source: Adapted from Faircloth (2005, p. 3)

Similarly, Hou et al. (2009) also research the effects of nonprofit brand equity upon individual giving intentions, taking into account the individual donor self-concept. The scholars applied their model to the dimensions introduced by Faircloth (2005): 1) brand personality, 2) brand image and 3) brand awareness.

The findings of this study indicate that the three dimensions of brand equity analyzed have a positive impact on individual giving intention and that the individual donor self-concept also has a positive impact on individual giving intention. Additionally, brand personality and brand awareness of the nonprofit have a positive impact on the individual donor self-concept, and the individual donor self-concept mediates significantly the relationships between brand personality, brand awareness and individual giving intention, while not significantly between brand image and individual giving intention. The effects of the individual donor self-concept between brand equity and individual giving intention are suggested and it is confirmed that both brand equity and the individual donor self-concept can form active individual giving intentions.

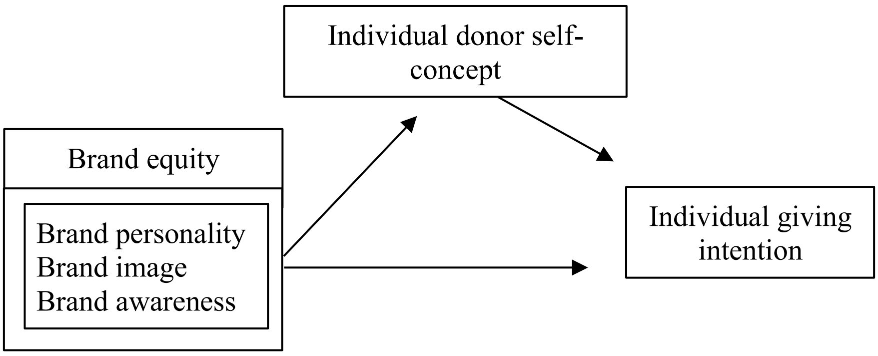

Figure 13 – Hou's et al. (2009) Model

Source: Adapted from Hou et al. (2009, p. 219)

The results of this study show that brand equity can be a useful tool for nonprofit managers to cope with scarce resources. Specifically, Hou's et al. (2009) findings indicate that biased decision-making by donors can potentially be influenced by considering the personality (as concluded by Sargeant et al., 2007, Sargeant et al., 2008, and Venable et al., 2005) and image (as determined by Bennett & Gabriel, 2003, Michaelidou et al., 2015, and Michel & Rieunier, 2012) of the nonprofit, but also how customers are aware of the organization (as established by Faircloth, 2005). Therefore, it appears that nonprofit organizations need to develop and nurture these brand equity dimensions multidimensionally. However, nonprofit managers also need to pay attention to the congruence of their organization's brand equity with their donors' self-concept, as recommended by Hout et al. (2009).

According to Hou et al. (2009), the cultivation of brand personality and brand awareness should be matching with the brand's audience self-concept (e.g. habits, values, interests, among others) to attract and guide giving behavior. As Fournier (1988) claimed, a brand personality that is strong, favorable and/or unique to the customer legitimatizes the brand as a partner and can result in more positive reciprocal exchanges, such as repurchasing or positive recommendations. Furthermore, Sirgy (1982) also suggested that customer preference would be strengthened if the brand personality matched the customers' self-concept.

To summarize, although brand image did not strengthen the individual donor's self-concept in Hou's et al. (2009) study, communicating the nonprofit's image to stakeholders is still important, since identification with nonprofit goals and values can significantly influence customer behavior towards their brands, also confirmed by Faircloth (2005).

2.3.1.4. Models of brand equity to influence donor behavior in NPOs based on brand trust and brand commitment

Nonetheless, Sargeant et al. (2006) take a different approach and analyze the impact of trust and commitment upon giving behavior within nonprofit organizations. The authors claim that the roles played by these dimensions in the nonprofit sector are different from those previously identified in the for-profit field.

According to Sargeant et al. (2006), trust appears to be unrelated to the direct benefits (demonstrable, emotional and familial utility) that occur to donors in consequence of their donations. Instead, trust, and indirectly commitment, is based on the perceived benefits supplied to beneficiaries of the nonprofit's action and the way these benefits are communicated back to donors (performance and communication of the organization). Additionally, in Sargeant's et al. (2006) study responsiveness was not found to influence trust or commitment. Therefore, it is irrelevant how quickly the nonprofit organization responds to a particular social issue.

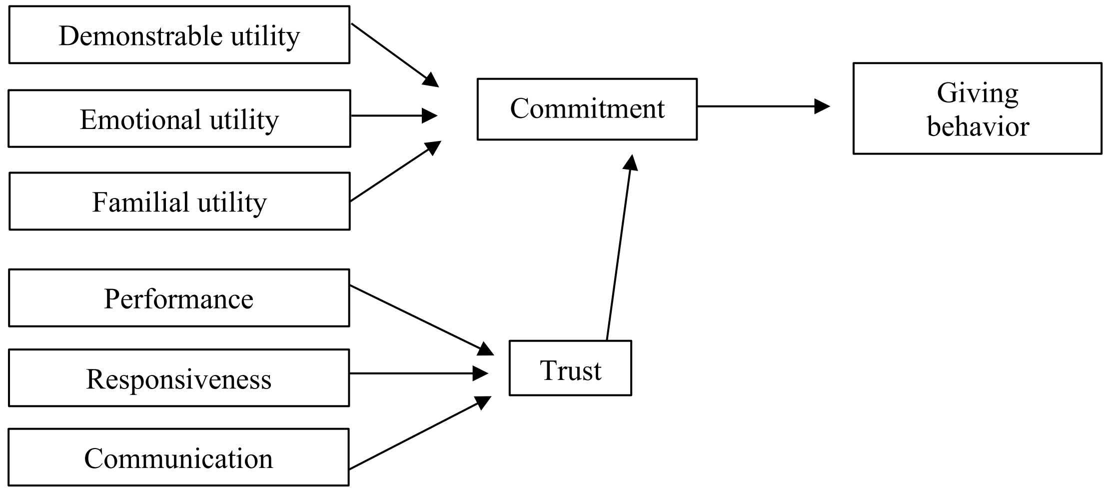

Figure 14 – Sargeant's et al. (2006) Model
Source: Adapted from Sargeant et al. (2006, p. 161)

Thus, the sequential dependency of commitment upon trust found in the for-profit field has not been fully replicated in the nonprofit sector. Trust is found to be important, but there can be commitment with just emotional and family utilities, while no support was found for demonstrable utility in Sargeant's et al. (2006) research. According to Sargeant et al. (2006), this occurs because commitment may develop in the absence of trust when giving is motivated by a need to mitigate emotional distress (emotional utility) or an expression of familial ties to the nonprofit organization (familial utility), not because donors select nonprofits to gain recognition by giving or based on whether they have benefited in the past or believe to do so in the future (demonstrable utility). Sargeant's et al. (2006) study also suggests that as commitment increases so do donations.

Likewise, Sargeant and Lee (2004) also explore whether trust directly affects giving behavior or whether its influence is mediated by commitment. Their research concludes that commitment plays a mediating role and implications for future fundraising practice are discussed within the nonprofit sector.

The instrument developed in Sargeant and Lee's (2004) research can help nonprofits measure the degree of trust and commitment of donors towards their organizations. These are important dimensions, since they have been shown to affect the nature of giving, the amount and willingness to donate, and will also affect loyalty and lifetime value of stakeholders (e.g. Dick & Basu, 1994; Jacoby & Kyner, 1973).

The authors conclude that higher levels of support are broadly associated with higher levels of trust, however, commitment can also contribute to that. Nevertheless, the results of this study show that commitment is maximized by the extent to which trust is present.

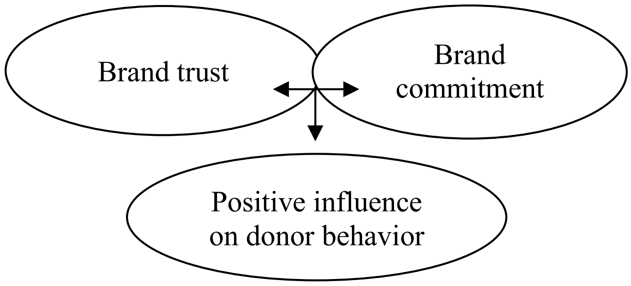

Figure 15 – Sargeant and Lee's (2004) Model
Source: Adapted from Sargeant and Lee (2004, p. 193)

According to Sargeant and Lee (2004), nonprofit managers need to understand that although these two factors – trust and commitment – have relevance, even if they are both present the impact on donations is likely to be small, since many other factors also influence giving behavior. In particular, nonprofit leaders need to revise their expectations on the significance of trust in nonprofit-donor relationships, since commitment and its non-based antecedents also play a role.

2.3.2. Models of brand equity fit of sponsorship in NPOs

Another topic mentioned within nonprofit brand equity literature is focused on fit of sponsorships (Becker-Olsen & Hill, 2006; Dickinson & Barker, 2007). Nonprofits can utilize partnerships to help build their brand's value, however, such relationships can only happen if there is a high-fit brand alliance, since associations and affect are transferred between organizations in the process. In sum, more than to gain resources from their partners, nonprofits need to be concerned about gaining benefits for their reputations from these sponsorships with other charities and/or commercial brands.

Table 5 – Models of Brand Equity Fit of Sponsorship in NPOs

Models of brand equity fit of sponsorship in NPOs	
Becker-Olsen and Hill (2006)	Brand identity Brand meaning Brand response Brand relationship
Dickinson and Barker (2007)	Brand attitudes Brand familiarity

Source: Self-authorship

Becker-Olsen and Hill (2006) develop research on how nonprofit organizations can build value for their brands out of strategic sponsorships. The study uses the Customer-Based Brand Equity (CBBE) model of Keller (1993, 2001, 2003) with the dimensions of 1) brand identity, 2) brand meaning, 3) brand response and 4) brand relationship.

Their research suggests that branding strategies, such as sponsorships, may be an important avenue for reaching nonprofit primary goals, by improving the nonprofit's reputation, stakeholder loyalty and collection of limited resources. In sum, high-fit sponsorships, with consistent cognitive meaning and associations, can enhance several important brand characteristics of nonprofits, such as brand identity, brand meaning, brand response and brand relationship.

As determined by Becker-Olsen and Hill (2006), these advantages to the nonprofit's brand characteristics include strong brand awareness and associations related to integrity and nurturance, which consequently enhance brand meaning and develop positive responses and feelings linked to the expertise, consistency, trust and sincerity of nonprofit brands. Furthermore, high-fit sponsorships build brand relationships that ultimately lead to brand engagement, positively influencing volunteerism, financial donations and willingness to recommend the nonprofit organization.

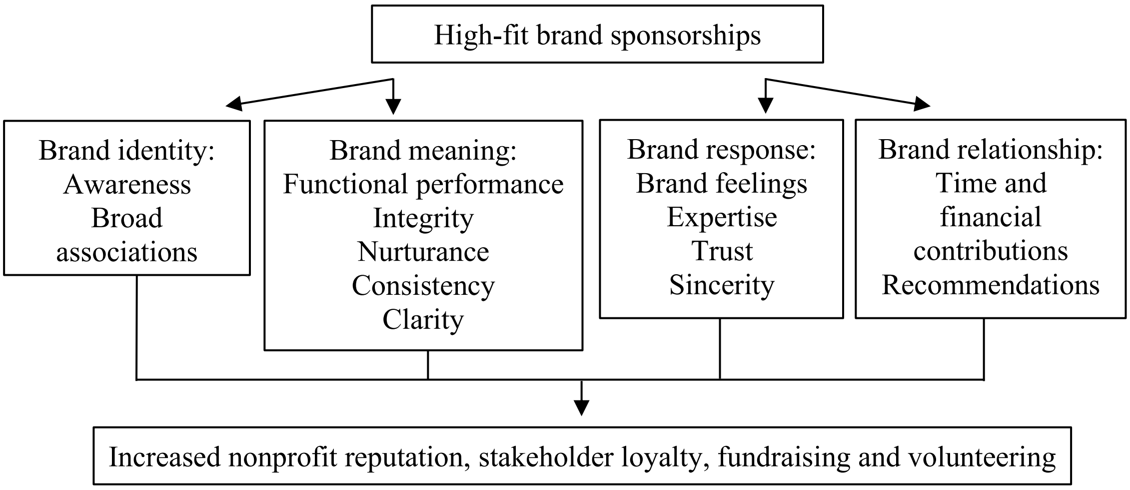

Figure 16 – Becker-Olsen and Hill's (2006) Model
Source: Adapted from Becker-Olsen and Hill (2006, pp. 76–79)

Nevertheless, low-fit sponsorships will hinder these benefits and grow doubt on the capacity and motives for such alliances. Becker-Olsen and Hill (2006) also conclude that if nonprofits are to engage in low-fit sponsorships, this can only happen if they can control the flow of information about this relationship, providing acceptable explanations for the alliance to counter the risks of a negatively perceived partnership.

On another hand, Dickinson and Barker (2007) research evaluations of brand alliances and the resulting spillover effects for brand partners, in terms of brand familiarity and brand attitudes. The author's research finds that a greater perceived fit of brand alliances allows for greater benefits to be enjoyed by each partner brand in terms of spillover effects. When the perceived brand fit is poor, then benefits are reduced or even nullified completely and the alliance may cause negative associations to form.

The results of Dickinson and Barker's (2007) study show that positive brand alliance evaluations only happen when already favorable brand familiarity and attitudes with the original partner brands exist, then transferred to both of them through the partnership, and when there is a perceived fit between the organizations. Therefore, partnering with other organizations can generate indirect benefits, resulting from brand associations and affect derived from the partner and, ultimately, can strengthen favorable familiarity and attitudes towards nonprofits brands.

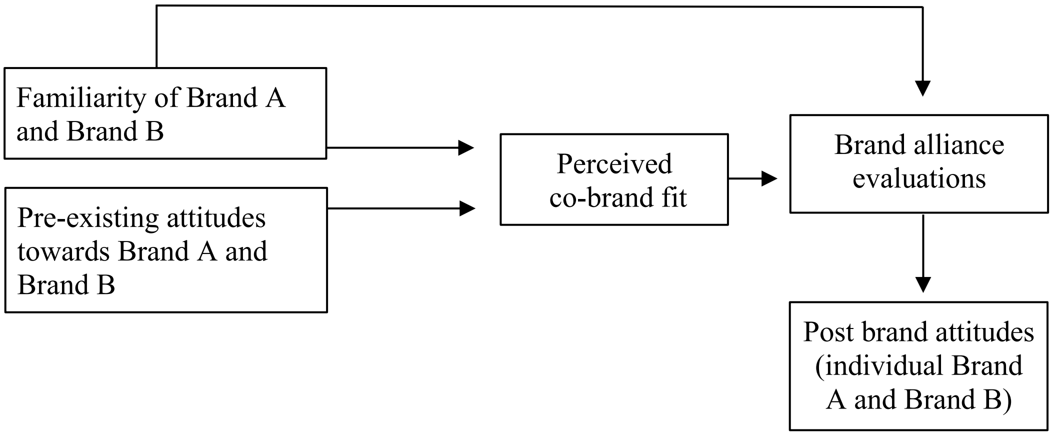

Figure 17 – Dickinson and Barker's (2007) Model
Source: Adapted from Dickinson and Barker (2007, p. 81)

In conclusion, and according to Dickinson and Barker (2007), while collaborations are important and have potential benefits for each brand, they rest on partner selection and fit between them. Careful consideration of how strong each partner is in terms of brand familiarity and attitudes, but also the perceived fit between them, such as target markets, region of operation, philosophies, interests and/or similar causes, is crucial for brand alliances to gain favorable evaluations and make the partnership worthwhile.

2.3.3. Models of brand equity co-creation in NPOs

The third topic within nonprofit brand equity literature pays attention to brand co-creation (Camarero et al., 2010; Juntunen et al., 2013). This is, when brands, including nonprofit organizations, can be co-created by both internal and external stakeholders.

Table 6 – Models of Brand Equity Co-Creation in NPOs

Models of brand equity co-creation in NPOs	
Camarero et al. (2010)	Past visitor brand loyalty Perceived quality of the exhibition Brand image Event's brand values
Juntunen et al. (2013)	Brand awareness Brand image

Source: Self-authorship

Camarero's et al. (2010) research examined the differences between internal and external stakeholders of an art exhibition, in Spain, by considering the impact of loyalty (from previous exhibitions visited), perceived quality (from various features of the exhibition), brand image and brand values (religious and cultural values of the exhibition) on brand equity (intention to visit future exhibitions and willingness to pay for the visit).

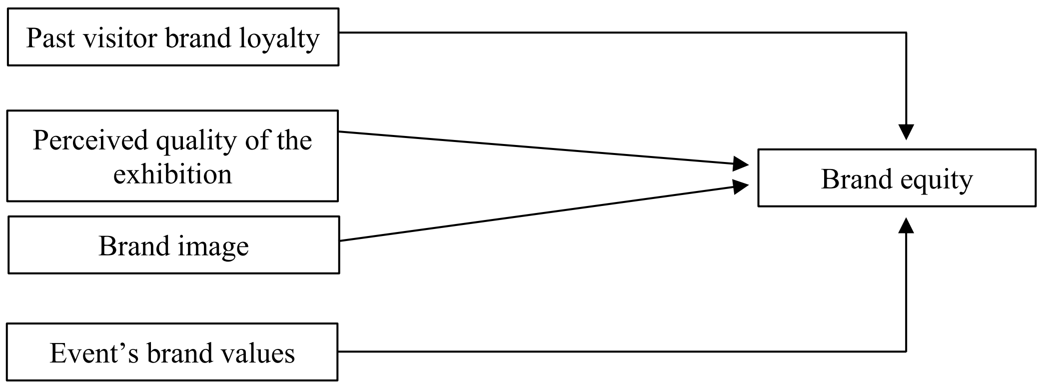

Figure 18 – Camarero's et al. (2010) Model
Source: Adapted from Camarero et al. (2010, p. 498)

The study findings suggest that external visitors attach greater importance to brand image than internal visitors, whereas for the latter the event's brand values are the main source of significance. Regarding loyalty and perceived quality, Camarero's et al. (2010) findings do not point to any differences between the two groups.

Camarero et al. (2010) conclude that it is crucial to understand what kind of visitors are attending the exhibition, and, therefore, develop brand equity according to that criteria, through an internal and external perspective. Therefore, exhibitions need to have values that fit with internal visitors' interests and create a positive impact on the exhibition's communication (the media, social repercussion) to attract external visitors.

Similarly, Juntunen et al. (2013) develop a successful model of co-created brand equity for nonprofit organizations, based on the commercial model of Davis, Golicic and Marquardt (2008). More specifically, the study examined whether the brand equity models of internal (recruits) and external (logistic service providers, LSP) stakeholders of the same nonprofit (Finnish Defense Forces Military Driving School) would be similar. Furthermore, Juntunen et al. (2013) considered two brand equity dimensions in their study: 1) brand awareness and 2) brand image.

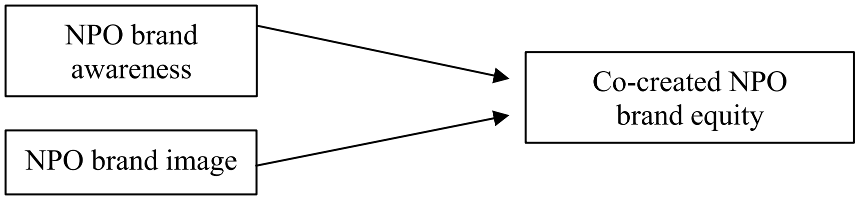

Figure 19 – Juntunen's et al. (2013) Model
Source: Adapted from Juntunen et al. (2013, p. 125)

Juntunen's et al. (2013) findings show how brands have an important role in mediating relationships for co-creating meaning and experiences in the interaction of internal and external stakeholders. While for internal stakeholders, the military recruits that are actively engaged in the organization, brand awareness is more significant, for external stakeholders, the logistic service providers (LPS) who have been a part of the organization, brand image has more importance.

According to Juntunen et al. (2013), this can be explained by the fact that the logistic service providers (LSP) gained their experiences earlier on and now have only faded recollections of their training, which increases the importance of brand image. These results confirm those found by Camarero et al. (2010), namely that brand image is a determining factor for external visitors. On the other hand, since recruits are more aware of the military driving school than logistic service providers (LSP), because they are currently engaged with it, brand awareness becomes more important.

From a managerial perspective, and as concluded by Juntunen et al. (2013), brands need to understand that internal and external stakeholders interact and can co-create brand equity. Therefore, it is important to create positive internal experiences to be carefully communicated externally, and, consequently influence favorable customer behavior towards the brand in question, including nonprofit organizations.

2.3.4. General models to develop brand equity in NPOs

Lastly, it is also possible to encounter in the nonprofit branding literature some scholarly works to develop and validate models of general brand equity within nonprofit organizations (Boenigk & Becker, 2016; Laidler-Kylander & Simonin, 2009).

Table 7 – General Models of Brand Equity in NPOs

General models of brand equity in NPOs	
Boenigk and Becker (2016)	Brand awareness Brand trust Brand commitment
Laidler-Kylander and Simonin (2009)	Consistency Focus Trust Partnerships

Source: Self-authorship

Boenigk and Becker (2016) address the limited research on nonprofit brand equity while supplementing prior studies that focus on the composition of nonprofit brands (Faircloth, 2005; Hou et al., 2009; Laidler-Kylander & Simonin, 2009). The study creates a nonprofit brand equity measurement scale including 1) brand awareness, 2) brand commitment and 3) brand trust, which provides the basis for other nonprofit organizations to compare their brands' performance over time and develop accordant branding strategies when and where needed to build brand equity.

The main conclusions of Boenigk and Becker's (2016) study includes the need for nonprofit managers to apply a more strategic approach to branding and gain insights into the nonprofit brand equity measurements related to the three dimensions analyzed in their study – awareness, commitment and trust –, since all create brand equity in the nonprofit sector and organizations with these corresponding traits have been found to enjoy higher reputations and performance (Mitchell, 2015).

Boenigk and Becker (2016) also determine that a strong nonprofit brand indicates that the organization is well-known (brand awareness), that stakeholders believe in the organization’s trustworthiness (brand trust), and, ultimately, create a long-term relationship with the organization (brand commitment).

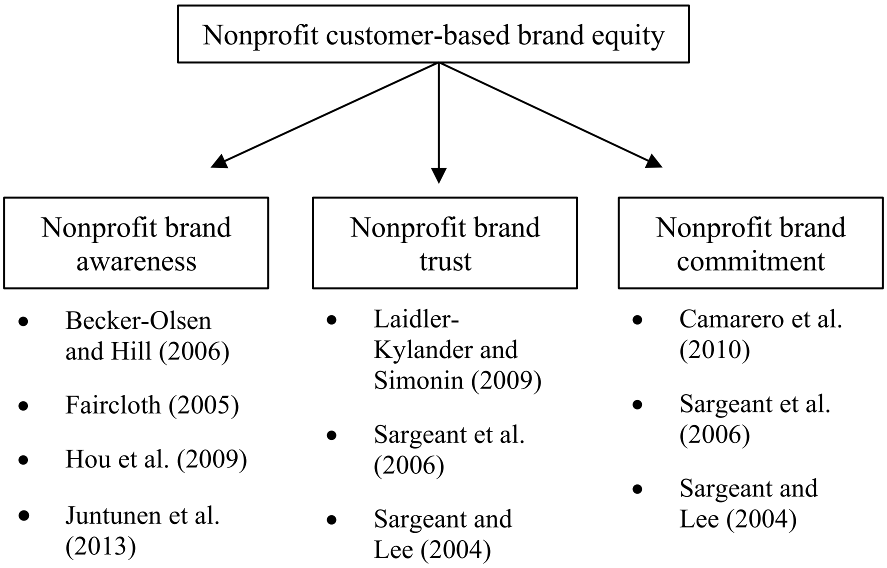

Figure 20 – Boenigk and Becker’s (2016) Model

Source: Adapted from Boenigk and Becker (2016, p. 185)

Finally, Laidler-Kylander and Simonin (2009) create the first brand equity model specifically designed by nonprofits and for nonprofits, centered around four new dimensions for the sector: 1) consistency, 2) focus, 3) trust and 4) partnerships. Therefore, Laidler-Kylander and Simonin’s (2009) research differs from pre-existing brand equity nonprofit models based upon for-profit branding research (e.g. Becker-Olsen & Hill, 2006; Bennett & Gabriel, 2003; Faircloth, 2005; Juntunen et al., 2013; Michaelidou et al., 2015; Sargeant et al., 2007; Venable et al., 2005). Additionally, Laidler-Kylander and Simonin (2009) leave a set of recommendations so nonprofits can create brand equity for the specific characteristics, needs and goals of their organizations.

Firstly, Laidler-Kylander and Simonin (2009) recommend investing more strongly into internal coordination practices (e.g. such as coordination meetings) to enhance consistency throughout the organization and in-between operations, but also to concentrate external messaging efforts (e.g. by using the same logo and/or mission statements) so nonprofit organizations can increase their visibility and differentiation within the field.

Regarding focus, Laidler-Kylander and Simonin (2009) suggest that nonprofit brands should strive for a clear and consistent brand position, in terms of mission, values and goals, despite the pressures for growth and fundraising. Overall, nonprofit leaders should stick closely to their mission, since it helps to establish boundaries for the organization's activities, increases efficiency in managing resources and improves operational capacity, but also performance, in achieving the nonprofit's brand promise.

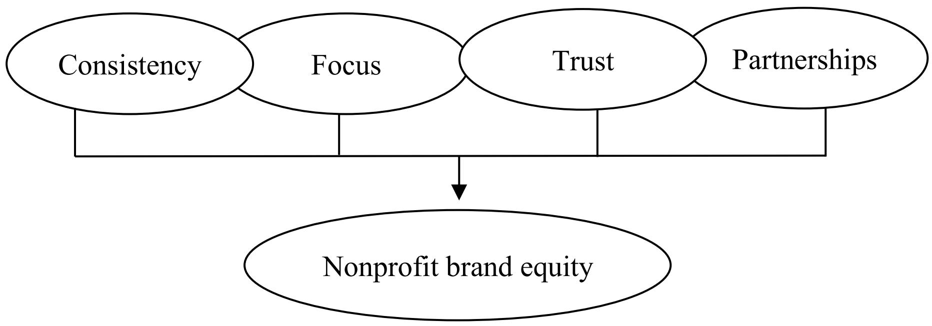

Figure 21 – Laidler-Kylander and Simonin's (2009) Model
Source: Adapted from Laidler-Kylander and Simonin (2009, pp. 61–64)

When it comes to increasing trust, nonprofits need to differentiate their organization through strong positioning and fulfillment of needs, as well as raise visibility and recognition through messaging and presence in the field. In addition, establishing best practices and workshops within the organization can promote trust and integrity, as suggested by Laidler-Kylander and Simonin (2009).

Lastly, but not least, to develop partnerships Laidler-Kylander and Simonin (2009) recommend selecting partners that provide the best fit with the nonprofit's organizational mission, values and activities, but also proactively managing customer and partner relationships.

2.4. Summary

According to Keller and Lehmann (2006), institutions need to have a clear understanding of the equity of their brands to be able to manage them appropriately. To identify the sources of brand equity is to detect and focus on how and where brands add value, and it is no different for nonprofit organizations.

Although most research within brand equity has been conceptualized and validated in the for-profit sector, some scholarly work can be identified for the nonprofit field, as revisited previously on this project. Within the literature, five common themes can be identified.

To begin with, research has been developed to implement models of brand orientation within nonprofit organizations, so the conditions are established to build and sustain branding activities, such as brand equity (Apaydin, 2011; Chapleo, 2015; Ewing & Napoli, 2005; Garg et al., 2019; Hankinson, 2000; Kylander & Stone, 2012; Laidler-Kylander et al., 2007; Napoli, 2006), as demonstrated in table 27.

Additionally, due to increasing competition and limitation of resources, nonprofit organizations have focused most of their attention on brand equity to influence donor behavior, either through brand image (Bennett & Gabriel, 2003; Michaelidou et al., 2015; Michel & Rieunier, 2012), brand personality (Sargeant et al., 2007; Sargeant et al., 2008; Venable et al., 2005), a combination of brand personality, brand image and brand awareness (Faircloth, 2005; Hou et al., 2009) or through the dimensions of brand trust and brand commitment (Sargeant et al., 2006; Sargeant & Lee, 2004).

Furthermore, some research has highlighted the importance of sponsorships to further develop nonprofit brands and their positioning within the field (Becker-Olsen & Hill, 2006; Dickinson & Barker, 2007), but also the significance of brand equity co-creation for these organizations (Camarero et al., 2010; Juntunen et al., 2013). Lastly, other scholars have developed overall brand equity models for the application of this marketing tool within nonprofit organizations (Boenigk & Becker, 2016; Laidler-Kylander & Simonin, 2009), as presented in table 28.

Given the challenges of today’s nonprofit sector and acknowledging the benefits of strong nonprofit brands, implementing brand-building activities, such as brand orientation and brand equity, are tools for nonprofit managers to deal with the scarce resources and the increased competition that is being felt within the field (Hou et al., 2009). Both are robust constructs and instruments with potential efficacy in the nonprofit context to understand and manage favorable consumer behavior towards their brands (Becker-Olsen & Hill, 2006; Faircloth, 2005).

Additionally, through branding activities, nonprofit organizations can retain consistent donors by understanding what motivates them to donate and why they select specific organizations, but also effectively use dedicated and long-term volunteers by addressing their motivation to come back to the nonprofit, and even reach out to new and more diverse recipients by segmenting the nonprofit's market (Pope et al., 2009).

Consequently, brand management can be seen as an investment rather than a drain on precious resources (Becker-Olsen & Hill, 2006; Michel & Rieunier, 2012), that provides additional exposure to the nonprofit organization, creates a trustworthy reputation, reinforces positive associations, helps to develop a stronger sense of loyalty among stakeholders, improves competitive positions through differentiation, lowers the overall costs of running the organization and increases willingness to make financial and non-financial donations, solving most of the problems experienced by this sector (e.g. Haigh & Gilbert, 2005; Hassay & Peloza, 2009; Paço et al., 2014; Wong & Merrilees, 2005).

Although nonprofit leaders have an evident consensus of the importance and potential of brands for the sector (Bosc, 2002; Burnham, 2002; Laidler-Kylander et al., 2007; Webster, 2002), some still stand against the idea of applying marketing principles, mostly because meaningful values don't sit well with commercial interests or tools (Griffiths, 2005). This approach resists the benefits of marketing in almost any domain (Apaydin, 2011).

Nonprofits need to re-evaluate the importance of marketing and place it higher on the hierarchy of organizational priorities (Pope et al., 2009). Like commercial brands, nonprofits need to justify their existence to all of us, since they are not just competing within themselves, but they have also entered the commercial territory to install change, push values and retain the disposable income of consumers for donations (Griffiths, 2005; Wootliff & Derri, 2001). Nonprofit brands are here to change the world, but if they fail to brand their organizations they can seize to exist. Not because they have fulfilled their social mission, but because no one has heard of it (Griffiths, 2005).

Although some nonprofit organizations have applied marketing strategies to their activities (Arnold & Tapp, 2003; Frumkin & Kim, 2001; Garg et al., 2019), the power of brands has to be fully understood and further developed with a different approach from the one found in the for-profit sector.

As discussed previously, the common denominator is the adaptation of one or more brand equity dimensions from Aaker's (1991, 1996, 1996b) and/or Keller's (1993, 2001, 2003) models into the nonprofit sector (e.g. Becker-Olsen & Hill, 2006; Bennett & Gabriel, 2003; Dickinson & Barker, 2007; Faircloth, 2005; Hou et al., 2009; Michaelidou et al., 2015; Michel & Rieunier, 2012; Sargeant et al., 2007; Venable et al., 2005). Therefore, the development of new marketing instruments specifically constructed for the features, needs and goals of nonprofit organizations is still pending (Bennett & Sargeant, 2005; Laidler-Kylander & Simonin, 2009).

3. An introduction to FLAD: Luso-American Development Foundation

The Luso-American Development Foundation (FLAD) is the result of a strong relationship between Portugal and the United States of America. Longtime allies, the origins of FLAD started with the Agreement on Cooperation and Defense between Portugal and the United States, in 1983, where the Portuguese government accepted the extension of the United States military stay at the Lajes Base, in the Azores. On the other hand, the United States agreed to grant a package of support to Portugal, among which was the creation of FLAD.

FLAD was thereby created on the 20th of May of 1985, through the approval of the decree-law nº 168/85. FLAD was thus constituted as a Portuguese private and financially autonomous institution. On that date, FLAD had a capital of 85 million euros. The management of this endowment allows the independent exercise of FLAD's mission, to which other revenues from statutory activities also contribute.

Member of the main national and international network of foundations, the Portuguese Foundation Center (CPF) and the European Foundation Center (EFC), FLAD is recognized as one of the most important foundations within the Portuguese market.

FLAD's mission has been the same since its inception in 1985: "*To promote the development of Portugal (…) through cooperation with the United States of America.*" (FLAD, 2020, p. 2). How does FLAD accomplish this? By supporting thousands of beneficiaries through regular grants, programs, awards, open calls, events, and other types of support, but also by taking into consideration ideas framed within the promising relationship between both countries. In sum, FLAD has opened doors to the United States for the last 36 years, developing Portugal, the Portuguese and the Portuguese-American community, in partnership with leading institutions to support projects of recognized value.

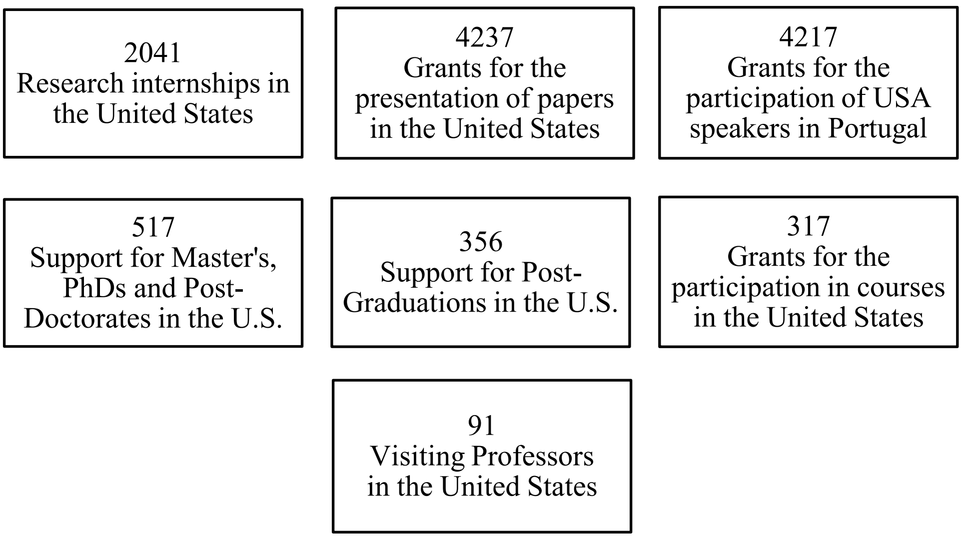

Figure 22 – 36 Years of FLAD in Numbers and Initiatives
Source: Adapted and translated from FLAD (2020, p. 9)

It's by assuming this continuous purpose that FLAD encounters a differential factor determining its strategy, to be a bridge between the two countries, a resource of excellence among those who seek and offer opportunities of development through close interaction between Portugal and the United States, in all fields of research.

Focusing on four main areas 1) Science and Technology, 2) Education, 3) Art and Culture, and 4) Transatlantic Relations, FLAD wants to pave the way for the Portuguese scientific, academic and artistic potential, strengthen the Portuguese-American community and bring people and institutions closer together from both sides of the Atlantic.

3.1. Science and Technology

FLAD looks at Science and Technology as a decisive area for Portugal's development. In addition to FLAD's regular grants (Papers@USA, USA@PT and R&D@USA), the Foundation also has the Science Awards – Atlantic and Mental Health. Besides supporting different scientific projects, FLAD also collaborates with other institutions for grant programs (e.g. University of California, Berkeley, or Fulbright Commission Portugal), participates in events to share opportunities to study and research in the U.S. (e.g. Road Show Estudar e Investigar nos EUA) and hosts conferences about topics within this field.

Goals:

- Promote the recognition of FLAD as a facilitator of innovative scientific and technological research in a multidisciplinary context.
- Facilitate the development of research projects, in any field, in interaction with similar entities and teams in the United States.
- Increase the number and quality of applications for FLAD's opportunities.
- Increase the number and quality of one-shot proposals pitched to FLAD.

3.2. Education

Portugal will be stronger as more people value our language, history, culture and institutions. Hence, in addition to U.S. research grants in Portugal (e.g. in partnership with Arquivo Nacional da Torre do Tombo or Biblioteca Nacional de Portugal) and the Brown Visiting Professor opportunity, FLAD also actively promotes the Portuguese language and culture in the United States through the Instituto Camões, I.P. Nevertheless, FLAD's biggest investment in the area of Education is the Study in Portugal Network (SiPN), a study mobility program in Portugal for American students.

Goals:

- Reinforce the education of the Portuguese language throughout the United States.
- Promote Portugal as a destination of study abroad experiences for U.S. students (e.g. participation in the Annual Conferences of the North-American Foreign Studies Association – NAFSA).
- Boost the internationalization of Portuguese universities, thus contributing to the development of the national academic environment (e.g. in partnership with leading institutions such as Universidade Católica Portuguesa, Universidade NOVA de Lisboa, Universidade de Lisboa, ISCTE – Instituto Universitário de Lisboa and Universidade dos Açores).
- Promote Portugal and the Portuguese culture in the U.S. labor market.

3.3. Art and Culture

FLAD has a relevant contemporary art collection for which the Foundation collaborates with different institutions for exhibitions (e.g. Mesa dos Sonhos with Serralves Foundation) and art loans (e.g. Culturgest). Additionally, FLAD also finances art residencies (e.g. AiR 351), artistic exchange programs (e.g. Disquiet International), festivals (e.g. Walk&Talk, Tremor Festival, Fabric Arts Festival or DocLisboa – Festival Internacional de Cinema), among other cultural activities.

Goals:

- Launch the Feast. Fury. Femina. – Works from FLAD's Collection exhibition, in Portugal (Lisbon and the Azores), between 2020 and 2022.
- Create more art and cultural programs (e.g. FLAD's Translation Open Call or FLAD's Art Residencies in the U.S.) and awards (e.g. FLAD's Drawing Award).

- Extend the cultural scope of FLAD to include cinema, with Outsiders – Cinema Independente Americano.
- Maintain support for cultural activities, namely in the Azores, with greater visibility, collaboration and involvement of FLAD and partner entities.

3.4. Transatlantic Relations

This area assumes a natural role for FLAD due to its mission of cooperation between Portugal and the United States. Two clear priorities are identified: 1) to reflect on the transatlantic alliance and 2) to support the Portuguese descendants in the United States. For such purposes, FLAD collaborates with several American institutions in Portugal (e.g. U.S. Embassy and Consulate in Portugal or the Portugal-U.S. Chamber of Commerce, among others) and supports different institutions of importance to the Portuguese-American community in the U.S. (e.g. PALCUS – Portuguese-American Leadership Council of the United States or CPAC – California Portuguese American Coalition, among others).

Goals:

- Strengthen Portugal's voice and the Portuguese legacy in the United States by supporting the Portuguese-American community, such as for greater political representation in the U.S. (e.g. Make Portuguese Count campaign) and to establish a network to consolidate the link between Portuguese-Americans and Portugal (e.g. Legislators Dialogue conference or PGlobal newsletter in English).
- Promote the study of contemporary Portugal and its role in the transatlantic alliance (e.g. Georgetown Visiting Professor Open Call or FLAD's Atlantic Security Award).
- Promote the analysis of the transatlantic relation, both in Portugal and in the United States, in partnership with renowned institutions (e.g. IPRI – Instituto Português de Relações Internacionais or CIEP – Centro de Investigação do Instituto de Estudos Políticos, among others).

- Create and support opportunities that promote the debate on international policy issues, but also allow contact between different generations (e.g. 9/11: 20 years later conference or 70 years of NATO conference).
- Promote initiatives that stimulate dialogue between the two countries, linking universities, think tanks and professional associations, among others (e.g. Marshall Memorial Fellowship – MMF – Portugal Alumni Association).

3.5. FLAD's mission and projects during the COVID-19 pandemic

After a year dedicated to organizing and strengthening FLAD's internal structure, the Foundation had great plans for 2020. However, due to the COVID-19 pandemic, FLAD, like so many other organizations, had to find new ways to adapt its main activities.

Besides postponing several projects (e.g. FLAD's 35th-anniversary celebrations or the 2020 U.S. electoral night), FLAD reoriented part of its activity to social intervention (e.g. support to the Banco Alimentar Contra a Fome or the creation of the COVID-19 Biobank with iMM – Instituto de Medicina Molecular, among others), and transferred its initiatives to a digital format (e.g. What's Next webinars, Atlantic Talks podcast, Feast. Fury. Femina. – Works from FLAD's Collection virtual tour, among others).

Nevertheless, besides the difficulties of the COVID-19 pandemic, FLAD's strategy always remained the same, *"to create opportunities that will allow the development of Portuguese people and institutions, opening doors to the U.S."* (FLAD, 2020, p. 27), by actively seeking to work in network with other institutions of reference, continuing to reward merit and innovation, as well as promoting the mobility and exchange of know-how between the two countries.

3.6. The importance of branding activities for FLAD

Given the fact that in 36 years FLAD did not possess a Communication and/or Marketing department does not surprise me and it shouldn't surprise practitioners or scholars within the nonprofit sector. As duly noted previously, nonprofit organizations don't consider themselves as brands and have devoted little time or effort to brand-building activities (e.g. Bennett & Gabriel, 2003; Venable et al., 2005).

There are many reasons why nonprofits refuse to take a branding approach within their organizational strategy, and some of them have and do apply to FLAD. Not only did this nonprofit consider it wasteful to set aside precious resources to be allocated to marketing activities in previous administrations (Apaydin, 2011; Becker-Olsen & Hill, 2006), but it also had an absence of marketing knowledge and trained staff to apply such instruments successfully (Kylander & Stone, 2012; Pope et al., 2009), and lacked brand management execution guidelines for the specific characteristics and goals of FLAD (Bennett & Sargeant, 2005; Laidler-Kylander & Simonin, 2009).

Nevertheless, the new administration (2019-2023), conducted by President Rita Faden, has recognized the potential brands have to help tackle the many challenges, such as increased competition and limited resources (Faircloth, 2005; Hou et al., 2019), nonprofit organizations are facing in today's sector, also in the Portuguese context.

As a means to raise awareness, build trust, fundraising, volunteering and parliamentary lobbying (e.g. Apaydin, 2011; Garg et al., 2019; Hankinson, 2000), brand equity is a tool that has been applied to FLAD through this project, with the goal of better achieving its social mission, while understanding and managing consumer behavior favorably towards the Foundation's brand.

Although FLAD still needs to work on its marketing structure, in terms of applying best practices for its branding strategy, establishing a clear and consistent brand position and increasing financial support for brand-building efforts (e.g. Chapleo, 2015; Ewing & Napoli, 2005; Garg et al., 2019; Hankinson, 2000; Laidler-Kylander et al., 2007), the Foundation has recognized brand management as an important organizational requirement for its survival and longevity, by trying to implement sufficient resources and trained staff invested into such activities.

The new administration found this change necessary because FLAD lives in a very different setting from the one it was created back in 1985. Nowadays, more nonprofit organizations are operating in Portugal – for example, Calouste Gulbenkian Foundation, Champalimaud Foundation, Oriente Foundation, Francisco Manuel dos Santos Foundation, Fulbright Commission Portugal, EDP Foundation, among others –, some with greater financial capacity, based on less classical work models, and with an exclusive focus on specific areas that cross path with FLAD's mission.

Even though FLAD was a pioneer, in the 80s and 90s, to award grants to study and research in the United States, to finance innovative projects, to help create leading institutions, like the Serralves Foundation or Culturgest, and to promote channels of cooperation with the United States, the Foundation needs to rethink its place within Portuguese society, redefine priorities, regain focus, find different approaches to be recognized, build new paths to communicate more and better, and, ultimately, develop a brand for the Foundation.

Indeed, the year 2019 was a period of transition, redefinition and transformation for FLAD. My tasks as an intern in the Communication team, between October of 2019 and March of 2020, were to embrace this new mission and perform its communication with a revamped style across different platforms – such as FLAD's social media and website, traditional advertising, email marketing, among others –, hopefully, to increase the Foundation's reach, notoriety and positive perceptions among stakeholders.

With this internal mindset, all the necessary steps were taken to develop an accordant organizational culture accepting of a branding approach for FLAD, as well as supportive towards this project, developed in parallel to my internship, to evaluate the Foundation's brand equity and purpose future strategies to improve it.

Part II | Methodology

1. Research questions and objectives

The purpose of this project is to evaluate, from a customer perspective, the brand equity of FLAD and propose additional strategies to improve FLAD's value as a brand, with the ultimate goal of increasing the Foundation's notoriety, reputation and performance in the future. Additionally, this project aims to improve and further validate the nonprofit brand equity measurement scale of Boenigk and Becker (2016), including the dimensions of awareness, trust and commitment, to which behavioral intentions were added.

Since the present research doesn't intend to examine the relationships between the study variables, it didn't establish research hypotheses, but rather research questions, in line with the recommendation of Pyrczak (2014) and replicating the original approach of Boenigk and Becker's (2016) study. Therefore, and considering that the project's goal is to identify which dimensions contribute most to FLAD's brand equity and which need further development, the following research questions were established.

RQ1. What is the brand equity perspective of FLAD for the consumer?
RQ2. What dimensions most benefit FLAD's brand equity?
RQ3. What dimensions least benefit FLAD's brand equity?
RQ4. What kind of associations can be established among FLAD's brand equity dimensions?

This research will also help establish a brand equity evaluation model at FLAD and will provide a brand equity scorecard to assist in strategic decision-making for this nonprofit. Hopefully, in the future, this research can also help FLAD keep track of its brand performance over time and even compare it to other competitors within the Portuguese and American markets.

Nevertheless, by using FLAD as a case study, this research also aims to highlight the importance of brand-building efforts for the survival and longevity of nonprofits, as it occurs in the for-profit sector, but also contribute to the research field within nonprofit branding, by clarifying how can these organizations foster such concepts and techniques, adapted to their specific features, needs and goals, so they are better equipped to support such marketing activities successfully.

1.1. Applying a brand equity model to FLAD

I have selected Boenigk & Becker's (2016) model to apply to FLAD, a decision that was made based upon an extensive literature review of the available models within nonprofit brand equity, analyzed beforehand in Part I – Theoretical Framework and showcased in tables 3 and 28 (e.g. Becker-Olsen & Hill, 2006; Bennett & Gabriel, 2003; Boenigk & Becker, 2016; Camarero et al., 2010; Dickinson & Barker, 2007; Faircloth, 2005; Hou et al., 2009; Juntunen et al., 2013; Laidler-Kylander & Simonin, 2009; Michaelidou et al., 2015; Michel & Rieunier, 2012; Sargeant et al., 2007; Sargeant et al., 2006; Sargeant et al., 2008; Sargeant & Lee, 2004; Venable et al., 2005).

This recent model adapted to nonprofit organizations, supplements prior studies with a focus on brand equity for the sector. While contributing to the lack of research on nonprofit customer-based brand equity by providing insights into its conceptualization and operationalization specifically for this sector, Boenigk and Becker (2016) create an accordant measurement scale that includes three dimensions: 1) brand awareness (already analyzed by Becker-Olsen & Hill, 2006, Faircloth, 2005, Hou et al., 2009, and Juntunen et al., 2013), 2) brand commitment (formerly researched by Camarero et al., 2010, Sargeant et al., 2006, and Sargeant & Lee, 2004) and 3) brand trust (previously presented by Laidler-Kylander & Simonin, 2009, Sargeant et al., 2006, and Sargeant & Lee, 2004), to which behavioral intentions were added to the model (in the past studied by Diogo, 2019, and Söderlund, 2016).

Furthermore, most academic studies within nonprofit customer-based brand equity have provided a measurement scale based on one or a few selected nonprofit brands (per example, Becker-Olsen & Hill, 2006, Faircloth, 2005, and Michel & Rieunier, 2012), in contrast, Boenigk and Becker's (2016) research is applied to 40 best-known German nonprofit brands, offering a brand equity scale that can be used by other nonprofit organizations with greater validity.

- **Brand Awareness**

Brand awareness is a key determinant in brand equity models (Aaker, 1991). A prerequisite for further engagement with the brand and development of other dimensions, such as trust, commitment and behavioral intentions, since it can affect positively or negatively brand perceptions and attitudes of consumers (Keller, 2001, 2003).

Brand awareness is "*the ability for a buyer to recognize or recall that a brand is a member of a certain product category"* (Aaker, 1991, p. 61). In sum, brand awareness reflects the intensity with which a brand is present in the mind of the consumer (Aaker, 1996) and the full set of associations linked to the brand (Keller, 1993). If consumers don't know the brand, then it does not exist, and, thus, it is not an option to be considered by stakeholders in their interaction decisions with organizations (Aaker, 1991).

The goal is for the brand to be recognized and evoked from memory in customers' decision-making processes to increase the probability of repurchasing or positive recommendations, among other activities associated with for-profit and nonprofit brands (Faircloth, 2005; Hou et al., 2009). In sum, brand awareness acts as an orientation aid, expressing the organization's mission, values and goals, while simplifying decisions whether to support and use the products and/or services of the organization or not (Laidler-Kylander & Stenzel, 2013; Ritchie et al., 1999).

Nevertheless, Faircloth (2005) advises that the level of positive familiarity with the organization is more important for stakeholders' interactions with nonprofit brands, rather than being able to identify or distinguish the brand from competitors. Additionally, Hou et al. (2009) recommend that while developing the brand awareness dimension, nonprofit leaders must make sure that there is a match with the customer's self-concept (e.g. habits, interests, values, among others) to attract further interactions with the nonprofit brand (as also stated by the reflection dimension of Kapferer's, 1998, 2001, model and the brand resonance dimension of Keller's, 1993, 2001, 2003, model).

In the present study, brand awareness will be evaluated by using the scale developed by Aaker (1996) and Yoo and Donthu (2001).

- **Brand Trust**

Although relationship-based dimensions, such as brand commitment and brand awareness, have played a prominent role in nonprofit brand equity research (Boenigk & Becker, 2016), the same cannot be said by acknowledging the high importance of trust (Kearns, 2014). This project in particular calls for more conceptual and empirical work to be done on this overlook dimension, as proposed by Boenigk and Becker (2016).

Considered a cornerstone of any relationship established between stakeholders and brands (Keller, 2000), trust is critical for the development of brand equity of any organization (Delgado-Ballester & Munuera-Alemán, 2005), but especially nonprofits. Trust refers to the *"willingness to increase one's vulnerability to a person whose behavior is beyond one's control"* (Zand, 1972, p. 231).

According to Laidler-Kylander and Simonin's (2009) findings, trust plays a major role in nonprofit branding because of the purchaser-user disconnect (see table 2). In sum, trust is extremely important because the products and/or services provided by nonprofits to recipients (users) are often intangible and can't be assessed by donors (purchasers) at all (Kearns, 2014; Polonsky & Macdonald, 2000; Prakash & Gugerty, 2010). Thus, donors need to trust nonprofit organizations to behave as expected, by delivering the benefits to society that they have promised (Hansmann, 1980; Sargeant & Lee, 2004), to ultimately decide if they will continue to support the organization or not (Laidler-Kylander et al., 2007; Ritchie et al., 1999; Sargeant et al., 2006).

Sargeant and Lee (2004) also put forth the importance of trust in the charity sector for the development of donor and beneficiary relationships, fundraising, volunteering and engagement with nonprofit brands (Kotler & Andreasen, 1991; Sargeant & Lee, 2002). These scholars showcase trust as an important dimension defining both the credibility and legitimacy of the nonprofit field and in affording it a higher moral tone than the private or public sectors, for regulators, the media and the general public (Laidler-Kylander et al., 2007; Sargeant & Lee, 2004). Sargeant et al. (2006) also confirm that trust improves the likelihood of stakeholders to enter into a nonprofit brand relationship and that higher levels of commitment will be generated due to the presence of trust.

Additionally, and because stakeholders have a clear conception of what it means to be a nonprofit and how these entities should behave, many scholars (e.g. Laidler-Kylander & Simonin, 2009; Michel & Rieunier, 2012; Sargeant et al., 2007; Venable et al., 2005) have advised nonprofits to include characteristics involving trust (e.g. integrity, accountability, expertise, benevolence, honesty, trustworthiness, sympathy, compassion, righteousness, among others) in their communication strategies, while building brand image and/or brand personality for their organizations. As the nonprofit market becomes more competitive, these dimensions outlined through trust can create a means of differentiation to positively influence stakeholders' behaviors towards nonprofit brands (Becker-Olsen & Hill, 2006; Michaelidou et al., 2015).

Although, for example, Faircloth (2005) illustrates the importance of traits such as trustworthiness for nonprofits, Michaelidou et al. (2015) considered reliability and ethicality as nonprofit brand image essential features, Venable's et al. (2005) findings concentrated on integrity and nurturance as nonprofit brand personality fundamental qualities, and Becker-Olsen and Hill's (2006) study also confirmed that brand meaning, defined by integrity and nurturance, would lead to positive customer brand responses and relationships towards nonprofits, Boenigk and Becker (2016) believe that to evaluate brand equity in the nonprofit sector in terms of general positive associations, such as brand personality and/or brand image, might not be sufficient.

Rather, Boenigk and Becker (2016) argue that the brand's specific characteristics in the nonprofit sector should be integrated more strongly, and thus they view trust in brands as a dimension within the nonprofit sector with a more thorough conceptualization, as was replicated for this project. This is consistent with findings within the field that show the dependence of nonprofits on public trust because of their mission-driven and social-oriented character (e.g. Kearns, 2014; Laidler-Kylander & Simonin, 2009; Prakash & Gugerty, 2010; Sargeant et al., 2006; Sargeant & Lee, 2004).

The dimension of brand trust will be measured by using the scale created by Boenigk and Becker (2016).

- **Brand Commitment**

Brand commitment is a central factor of brand equity, that can serve as a foundation to other dimensions, such as awareness and trust (Boenigk & Becker, 2016), but can also influence behavioral intentions (Diogo, 2019).

The brand's ability to develop stronger relationships with stakeholders is extremely important in any sector to build and sustain solid brands (Aaker, 1991; Lassar, Mittal, & Sharma, 1995), especially in the nonprofit field because this translates into positive outcomes, including repeated donations, as well as greater attachment and engagement with the organization (Arnett, German, & Hunt, 2003; Boenigk & Scherhag, 2014). In sum, commitment, but also trust, are important brand equity dimensions for nonprofits because they affect the nature of giving, the amount and willingness to donate, and the loyalty and lifetime value of stakeholders (Dick & Basu, 1994; Jacoby & Kyner, 1973).

Additionally, it has been proven that an increase in customer loyalty generates a set of positive effects on the profitability of brands, such as an increase in sales, establishment of barriers to competition, assured long-term relationships with stakeholders, or the reduction of organizational costs (e.g. Aaker, 1991; Keller, 1993; Oliver, 1997; Zeithaml, Berry, & Parasuraman, 1996). As established by Keller (2003) the ultimate goal is for the brand to be the first choice of the consumer (cognitive loyalty), and, thus, purchased repeatedly (behavioral loyalty).

Commitment is defined by Moorman, Zaltman, and Deshpandé (1992) as "*an enduring desire to maintain a valued relationship"* (p. 316). However, several scholars (e.g. Garbarino & Johnson, 1999; Morgan & Hunt, 1994) have regarded trust as a precursor of commitment, since commitment will always involve some degree of self-sacrifice and is unlikely to occur in circumstances where trust is absent (Sargeant & Lee, 2004).

As concluded by Sargeant and Lee (2004) higher levels of support to nonprofits are broadly associated with higher levels of trust, although commitment can also contribute for that matter. Additionally, the results of their study show that commitment is maximized by the extent to which trust is present. However, according to Sargeant et al. (2006) although trust is found to be important, commitment in the nonprofit sector can be developed in the absence of trust when giving is motivated by a need to mitigate emotional distress or an expression of familial ties to the organization.

In brief, as organizations face an increasingly aggressive and competitive environment, and, at the same time, face increasingly demanding customers, commitment, along with loyalty, are at the core of the marketing literature (Bobâlcă, Gătej, & Ciobanu, 2012; Han, Kim, & Kim, 2011), since all organizations want to identify the factors influencing the decision-making processes and the post-purchase behavior of their brand audiences, for the development of more appropriate marketing strategies, to achieve continuous positive consumer behavior towards their brands (Diogo, 2019).

In this study, the dimension of brand commitment will be evaluated through the scale established by Boenigk and Becker (2016).

- **Behavioral Intentions**

Literature shows that behavioral intentions are one of the most relevant factors in brand equity assessment, especially when it comes to brand loyalty (Diogo, 2019). The use of behavioral intentions in marketing literature reveals that customers may form different intentions on brand attitudes, such as word-of-mouth, repurchasing, providing feedback to a supplier, among others (Han, Kwortnik, & Wang, 2008; Söderlund, 2006).

It is not common to find specific theories or even definitions about this brand equity dimension (Söderlund & Öhman, 2005), except for that proposed by Zeithaml et al. (1996) *"behavioral intentions can be viewed as indicators that signal whether customers will remain with or defect from the company"* (p. 33).

Therefore, behavioral intentions are an integral part of loyalty, but they only measure the loyalty component related to the future intentions of customer behavior towards the brand (Byon, Zhang, & Baker, 2013), this is, conative loyalty, when the customer demonstrates a clear and solid intention to acquire the brand, product and/or service, in the future, or, for example, to recommend it to third parties, while no longer considering competing brands

(Han et al., 2011). It follows that behavioral intentions and conative loyalty are similar concepts (Diogo, 2019), and so both are part of the broader spectrum of attitudinal loyalty, hopefully, resulting in greater customer readiness to act (e.g. buy and recommend) favorably towards the brand in question.

Behavioral intentions are typically used as a dependent variable, as it was intended for this project, allowing the assessment of the positive or negative effects of other brand equity dimensions on customer behavior, more specifically on future customer intentions, in different contexts and sectors of activity (e.g. Brady et al., 2005; Cronin, Brady, & Hult, 2000; Theodorakis, Howat, Ko, & Avourdiadou, 2014; Zeithaml et al., 1996).

The importance of behavioral intentions is directly related to the need to assess the future intentions of customers. And the basis for this need is linked to the recognition that a high level of conative loyalty to brands is necessary for the purchase to take place and, above all, to repeat itself (Diogo, 2019).

According to Zeithaml et al. (1996) an increase in behavioral intentions enables customers to 1) make positive comments about the organization, 2) recommend the products and/or services to other customers, 3) remain loyal by buying again, 4) buy more from the same company, and 5) willingness to pay more for the same products and/or services.

The dimension of behavioral intentions will be measured, in this study, through the scale proposed by Diogo (2019) and Söderlund (2006).

1.2. Scales and instruments for the collection of data

The research questions proposed by this project will be answered by evaluating FLAD's brand equity through the improvement and further validation of a brand equity measurement scale appropriate for the features of the nonprofit sector and that of the Foundation. In particular, for this project, Boenigk and Becker's (2016) model has been selected based on an extensive literature review of nonprofit brand equity (see Part I – Theoretical Framework and tables 3 and 28).

Boenigk and Becker's (2016) model includes three important brand equity dimensions for the nonprofit sector, 1) awareness, 2) trust and 3) commitment, for which 4) behavioral intentions were added to this project to understand if the survey's respondents would reach out, recommend or follow FLAD's activities.

Brand awareness will help FLAD to raise notoriety for its mission, goals and values – to be a resource of excellence for those seeking and offering opportunities between Portugal and the United States –, but also of its expertise and efficiency to successfully carry out its brand promise. In return, this will simplify the decision-making processes of its recipients, attract more and new brand audiences, but also increase FLAD's brand presence within the market, allowing for future stakeholders to think of FLAD when seeking information on the relationship and opportunities connecting Portugal and the United States.

Additionally, and as proven by previous scholars (e.g. Boenigk & Becker, 2016; Kearns, 2014; Laidler-Kylander & Simonin, 2009; Sargeant et al., 2006; Sargeant & Lee, 2004), trust is essential for stakeholders to enter into brand relationships and to stay in them, especially in the nonprofit sector where there is a disconnect between purchasers (donors) and users (recipients). Therefore, nonprofit organizations and FLAD need to be considered as ethical, legitimate, reliable and trustworthy to be able to provide their services and/or products to society, but also to obtain from stakeholders the necessary resources (time, money, partnerships and in-kind) for the successful accomplishment of their missions.

Brand commitment will assist FLAD in the development and maintenance of long-term relationships with its stakeholders, create stronger barriers to competition, promote greater attachment and engagement with the Foundation, as well as ensure future fundraising or volunteering if necessary.

Finally, behavioral intentions will help FLAD understand if their stakeholders are creating future intentions to act favorably towards the Foundation's brand, such as recommending its different initiatives to third parties, following its day-to-day activities and/or applying to FLAD's opportunities in connection with the United States, hopefully, while no longer considering competing brands.

Concluding, the present research postulates that only when stakeholders are aware and familiar with a nonprofit brand and believe in the positive nature of its image and personality, portraited in this study by trust, can stakeholders ultimately create a long-term committed relationship with the organization (Aaker, 1991; Boenigk & Becker, 2016; Keller, 2003; Laidler-Kylander & Simonin, 2009), along with other positive behavioral intentions, such as recommending or following the nonprofit's initiatives (Diogo, 2019).

Therefore, through these four dimensions nonprofit brand managers, as is the case of FLAD, will be able to build a reputation associated with transparency and trustworthiness, improve their brand positioning and differentiation within the nonprofit field, help progress brand awareness by increasing the familiarity of their mission, reduce the risk stakeholders feel by engaging with their organization, as well as maintain strong exchange relationships with their stakeholders (Boenigk & Becker, 2016).

Such actions will consequently derive positive customer intentions and attitudes towards the nonprofit in question, such as more fundraising and volunteering (Apaydin, 2011; Garg et al., 2019; Hassay & Peloza, 2009; Kylander & Stone, 2012). In the case of FLAD, more recommendations of its opportunities can happen, an increasing number of applications to its programs and one-shot proposals might also be felt, as well as the establishment of more partnerships and other projects, while reaching out to new brand audiences and still maintaining strong relationships with its previous stakeholders.

To evaluate FLAD's brand equity the data was collected through an online survey built on Google Forms, between November of 2020 and February of 2021. The majority of the items from the 4 dimensions analyzed – awareness, trust, commitment and behavioral intention – were measured according to a 7-point Likert scale, where 'strongly disagree' corresponded to level 1 and 'strongly agree' corresponded to level 7 (as demonstrated in table 8 and annex C).

Although this project is written in English, the questions of the survey were translated from English to Portuguese by two translators, experts within the brand equity field (as shown in table 8 and annex C). This decision was made because the study is pertinent to the

Portuguese nonprofit sector and FLAD's main audience prevails within the Portuguese market, even though the Foundation has initiatives in both Portugal and the United States. The translated questions (see annex C) were tested and modified three times before the survey was finally applied to the study's sample.

Table 8 – Final Scale Utilized (4 Dimensions, 17 Items)

Dimension	Item	Var.
Awareness	*Por favor, indique uma organização sem fins lucrativos que se consiga recordar em primeiro lugar. (*)*	BA1
	Consegue indicar mais alguma organização sem fins lucrativos? (*)	BA2
	Conhece a FLAD (Fundação Luso-Americana para o Desenvolvimento)? (**)	BA3
	Eu defino a atividade da FLAD da seguinte forma (indicar uma opção): É uma ONG (Organização Não Governamental), É uma Organização Sem Fins Lucrativos, É uma Fundação Privada, É uma Organização de Solidariedade Social, É uma Empresa Comercial ou Não sei. Prefiro não responder. (***)	BA3.1.
	Eu consigo distinguir a FLAD de outras marcas concorrentes. (****)	BA4
	Eu consigo definir a FLAD com facilidade. (****)	BA5
	Eu consigo recordar-me do logótipo da FLAD facilmente. (****)	BA6
	Eu tenho dificuldade em caracterizar a FLAD. (****)	BA7
Trust	*Eu confio que a FLAD é uma organização que age no melhor interesse da causa que defende. (****)*	BT1
	Eu confio que a FLAD é uma organização que age com ética. (****)	BT2
	Eu confio que a FLAD é uma organização que utiliza os seus recursos de forma adequada. (****)	BT3
Commitment	*A relação que tenho com a FLAD é algo com a qual estou comprometido/a. (****)*	BC1
	A relação que tenho com a FLAD é algo que pretendo manter no futuro. (****)	BC2
	A relação que tenho com a FLAD merece o máximo de esforço para ser mantida. (****)	BC3
Behavioral Intentions	*Eu tenciono recomendar a FLAD nos próximos tempos. (****)*	BI1
	Eu tenciono recorrer à FLAD nos próximos tempos. (****)	BI2
	Eu tenciono acompanhar as atividades da FLAD nos próximos tempos. (****)	BI3

Source: Adapted and translated from Aaker (1996), Boenigk and Becker (2016), Diogo (2019), Söderlund (2006) and Yoo and Donthu (2001).

(*) Item answered through an open answer.
(**) Item answered through a Yes/No option. Only one answer available.
(***) Item answered through the multiple choice described. Only one answer available.
(****) Items answered by a 7-point Likert scale: (1) strongly disagree / (7) strongly agree.

Additionally, the data was compiled and processed with the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS), version 26.0 for Windows 10. Descriptive statistics were used to measure indicators such as the mean, mode, standard deviation, variances, minimum and maximum values of the 13 items which make up the 4 dimensions of brand equity analyzed in this study – awareness, trust, commitment and behavioral intentions. The reliability of the scale was assessed by using the Cronbach's Alpha (α) test, and the normal distribution of the data was verified by applying the Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) test and the Shapiro-Wilk test. An analysis of the Spearman (r_s) correlation was also carried out to confirm the existence of associations between the study's dimensions. Furthermore, the Spearman's (r_s) test replaced the Pearson's (r) test, although the variables analyzed are quantitative, because the collected data deviates from a normal distribution.

1.2.1. Project's population and sample

The envisioned study population for this project included the academic segment of different Portuguese organizations, this is college students (from undergraduates to doctorates), researchers and professors that could benefit in the future from FLAD's opportunities, such as grants, awards and/or open calls, in connection to the United States, which is very much in line with FLAD's mission: *"*[To] *promote the development of Portugal, the Portuguese and the Portuguese-descendant communities through cooperation with the United States of America"* (FLAD, 2020, p. 2).

This study population was chosen to understand their customer evaluation of FLAD's brand equity (e.g. if they know about FLAD's mission, values and goals – brand awareness –, if they trust in FLAD's opportunities and efficiency – brand trust –, if they are committed to a relationship with FLAD – brand commitment –, and if they have the intention to act positively towards FLAD in the future – behavioral intentions).

The necessary efforts to contact several universities, research centers, think thanks, student associations, and other institutions with scholarship opportunities for this study population (e.g. other foundations, such as Calouste Gulbenkian Foundation, nonprofits, such as Fulbright Commission Portugal, and Portuguese or American governmental institutions, such as FCT – Fundação para a Ciência e a Tecnologia or the U.S. Embassy and Consulate in Portugal), were made in an attempt to spread the online survey of this project to move towards a probabilistic and aleatory sample. However, due to privacy concerns associated with the GDPR policy, FLAD, unfortunately, couldn't formally endorse this study, although that was the Foundation's initial intention. Consequently, after two months, the survey obtained little to no answers.

Therefore, in a second moment, the online survey was then sent to a public database of stakeholders that already worked closely with the Foundation's several projects, mainly partners in the promotion of the Foundation's initiatives. Such stakeholders were distributed throughout FLAD's four pillars of action (e.g. MIT Portugal within Science and Technology, Serralves Foundation within Art and Culture, Portugal-U.S. Chamber of Commerce within Transatlantic Relations, Instituto Camões, I.P. within Education, etc.)

This option was made due to the operational ease of obtaining the data for the project. Nevertheless, due to the close relationship of the selected stakeholders to FLAD, the non-aleatory, non-probabilistic and convenience sample obtained was highly biased towards the Foundation and might have contributed to obtaining a non-normal distribution of the data (as seen in table 9), meaning that the findings of this project cannot be extrapolated to the study's population and might not represent the totality of perceptions, feelings or attitudes towards FLAD's brand.

Of the 203 valid sample cases, a large percentage of the answers came from female respondents (64,5% – table 29) that hadn't benefited from or applied for FLAD's support (77,8% – table 30). Furthermore, the majority of the sample possessed a university degree (94,1% – table 31), was predominantly Portuguese (95% – table 32), belonged to the 46 to 55 age group (25,6% – table 33) and worked within the academic field (54% – table 34).

1.2.2. Data processing and clearing

In the survey to evaluate FLAD's brand equity 294 answers were collected, of these, only 210 respondents claimed to know FLAD, so they were considered valid to start processing the data. Even so, the data file was cleaned to remove answers that did not present any variance, were incomplete surveys and/or expressive outliers (e.g. 3 answers with reference 41, 98 and 195 were excluded). Through a Box-Plot analysis, it was also possible to identify another 4 answers that presented themselves as expressive outliers and were thus removed (e.g. answers with reference 52, 55, 100 and 191). After this clearance, the final database gathered 203 valid cases for statistical treatment.

1.2.3. Analysis of the normal distribution of the data

To verify whether the study's dimensions obtain a normal distribution, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) test and the Shapiro-Wilk test were performed. For this purpose, the method of hypothesis testing was used, in which the confirmation of a normal distribution of the data is represented by the null hypothesis (H_0) and the confirmation of a non-normal distribution of the data is confirmed by the alternative hypothesis (H_1) (Rodrigues, 2011).

Table 9 – Normality Tests

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov			Shapiro-Wilk		
Item	**Statistic**	**df**	**Sig.**	**Statistic**	**df**	**Sig.**
BA4	0,156	203	0,000	0,891	203	0,000
BA5	0,153	203	0,000	0,920	203	0,000
BA6	0,159	203	0,000	0,908	203	0,000
BA7	0,145	203	0,000	0,931	203	0,000
BT1	0,184	203	0,000	0,890	203	0,000
BT2	0,202	203	0,000	0,868	203	0,000
BT3	0,191	203	0,000	0,872	203	0,000
BC1	0,200	203	0,000	0,846	203	0,000
BC2	0,160	203	0,000	0,906	203	0,000
BC3	0,178	203	0,000	0,901	203	0,000
BI1	0,153	203	0,000	0,911	203	0,000
BI2	0,143	203	0,000	0,916	203	0,000
BI3	0,178	203	0,000	0,899	203	0,000

a Lilliefors Significance Correction

Thus, and taking into consideration that the *p-value* must be greater than $p>0.05$ to validate the null hypothesis, it is verified by the scores obtained that the null hypothesis must be rejected, since all values obtained are inferior ($p = 0.000$), as shown in table 9. Consequently, and according to both tests, it is not possible to confirm the normal distribution of the collected data (Bagozzi & Yi, 2012; Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 2006; Marôco, 2014). Therefore, the results must be limited exclusively to the sample of this research and cannot be extrapolated to the study's population.

The non-normal distribution of the project's data may have to do with the non-aleatory and non-probabilistic sample collected, strongly conditioned by an extensive knowledge of FLAD and their close relationship to the Foundation, which generated similar, favorable and biased answers towards the items of each brand equity dimension analyzed in this study – awareness, trust, commitment and behavioral intentions.

In conclusion, this convenience sample might not be fully representative of the overall perceptions, feelings and attitudes towards FLAD's brand equity, since not all respondents had the same tendency to randomly answer to the questions of the implemented survey.

1.2.4. Factorial validity and reliability of the scale

For the evaluation of the reliability of the scale, the Cronbach's Alpha (α) coefficient was examined to proceed to the analysis of each composite dimension with the confidence that the various items have good psychometric characteristics. Values above 0.70 were considered valid, according to the recommendation of Bagozzi and Yi (2012), Hair et al. (2006) and Marôco (2014).

The Cronbach's Alpha (α) test is of utmost importance, since, according to Maroco and Garcia-Marques (2006) *"*[it] *estimates how uniformly the items contribute to the unweighted sum of the instrument, varying on a scale from 0 to 1. This property is known as internal consistency of the scale, and thus, α can be interpreted as the mean coefficient of all estimates of internal consistency that would be obtained if all possible divisions of the scale were made"* (p. 73).

In a first reading, and considering the totality of 13 items comprising the scale, a very positive Cronbach's Alpha coefficient value was obtained ($\alpha = 0,872$), which proves that the scale, as a whole, presents an excellent internal consistency (see table 10).

However, and considering the contribution of each of the items, it is possible to see that the removal of the BA7 item (*"I have difficulty characterizing FLAD."*) would provide greater consistency to the scale, with an improvement of the Cronbach's Alpha (α) coefficient to a stronger value of 0,912.

Table 10 – Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient for the General Scale

Item	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
BA4	54,818	171,546	0,538	0,863
BA5	55,138	167,961	0,628	0,858
BA6	55,980	160,534	0,661	0,856
BA7	56,246	216,523	-0,390	0,912
BT1	54,305	178,104	0,625	0,862
BT2	54,133	179,037	0,674	0,861
BT3	54,365	180,965	0,603	0,864
BC1	56,724	159,943	0,641	0,857
BC2	55,438	158,010	0,780	0,848
BC3	55,498	160,667	0,709	0,853
BI1	55,020	163,623	0,739	0,852
BI2	56,123	167,495	0,551	0,863
BI3	54,911	164,358	0,703	0,854

Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	N of Items
59,892	199,087	14,110	13

Cronbach's Alpha Total Value
0,872

After this, an analysis was carried out regarding each construct individually, to prove the reliability of the chosen variables to evaluate each dimension: awareness, trust, commitment and behavioral intentions.

As for brand awareness, it appears that the set of four items, BA4, BA5, BA6 and BA7, that assess this dimension obtain a valid Cronbach's Alpha coefficient ($\alpha = 0,794$). Nevertheless, a further reading points to an improvement in this subscale with the removal of the BA7 item (*"I have difficulty characterizing FLAD."*), which would allow for a slight improvement in its Cronbach's Alpha coefficient ($\alpha = 0,809$), as shown in table 11.

Since this increment is residual, and the utmost care was taken in the translation of the brand awareness items, along with the fact that the scale has been used in other studies with proven validity, such as Aaker (1996) and Yoo and Donthu (2001) from where the brand awareness scale was retrieved, the option to remove BA7 was not made.

Table 11 – Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient for Brand Awareness

Item	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted	Cronbach's Alpha Total Value
BA4	13,020	20,198	0,642	0,725	0,794
BA5	13,340	19,344	0,719	0,687	
BA6	14,182	18,249	0,616	0,739	
BA7	13,739	22,204	0,461	0,809	

The dimension that assesses FLAD's brand trust, consisting of items BT1, BT2 and BT3, also shows excellent results in terms of consistency with an expressive Cronbach's Alpha coefficient (*α = 0,914*). Therefore, it is not recommended to delete any of the items, as indicated in table 12.

Table 12 – Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient for Brand Trust

Item	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted	Cronbach's Alpha Total Value
BT1	11,290	4,017	0,805	0,901	0,914
BT2	11,110	4,279	0,876	0,839	
BT3	11,340	4,484	0,811	0,891	

The dimension of brand commitment, which includes items BC1, BC2 and BC3, also presents good results of internal consistency to evaluate this construct, with a Cronbach's Alpha coefficient greater than 0.70 (*α = 0,852*). Removing any items of the scale does not improve this value, as demonstrated in table 13.

Table 13 – Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient for Brand Commitment

Item	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted	Cronbach's Alpha Total Value
BC1	8,850	12,734	0,677	0,842	0,852
BC2	7,560	13,238	0,771	0,749	
BC3	7,620	13,553	0,726	0,790	

Regarding the dimension of behavioral intentions, comprised of items BI1, BI2 and BI3, it also shows an adequate internal consistency to evaluate this construct with a valid Cronbach's Alpha coefficient ($\alpha = 0{,}805$), as presented in table 14.

Table 14 – Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient for Behavioral Intentions

Item	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted	Cronbach's Alpha Total Value
BI1	8,750	10,902	0,649	0,739	0,805
BI2	9,850	9,691	0,638	0,755	
BI3	8,640	10,449	0,678	0,709	

Part III | Discussion of Results

1. FLAD's brand equity scorecard

When evaluating FLAD's brand equity, it appears that the dimension of trust is the best-rated construct by the respondents of this study (*M = 5,624*), followed by the dimension of behavioral intentions (*M = 4,540*), the dimension that assessed FLAD's brand awareness (*M = 4,523*), and, finally, by the commitment dimension (*M = 4,005*).

In fact, not only is commitment the dimension with the lowest mean value, but it is also the dimension that presents the greatest variation of opinions (*SD = 1,751*), which demonstrates a low consensus among respondents concerning this dimension of FLAD's brand equity. Additionally, the answers to the corresponding items of the behavioral intentions (*SD = 1,535*) and awareness (*SD = 1,442*) dimensions also present some discrepancies. As for trust (*SD = 1,011*), this dimension of FLAD's brand equity evaluation demonstrates the most concentrated data from the sample.

However, all dimensions studied are positive, with values above the midpoint of the 7-point Likert scale (*M = 3,50*), which reveals that FLAD has positive brand equity amongst the sample who evaluated it. Even so, there is a high degree of improvement possible for each of the four dimensions analyzed, especially for commitment, awareness, behavioral intentions and trust, by order.

The following tables 15 and 16 present a more detailed reading of each dimension and the respective coefficients.

Table 15 – FLAD's Brand Equity Results by Dimension Analyzed (*n=203*)

Dimension	Min.	Max.	Sum	Mean	Std. Error	Std. Deviation	Variance	Cronbach's Alpha
Trust	2	7	1141,670	5,624	0,071	1,011	1,021	0,914
Behavioral Intentions	1	7	921,670	4,540	0,108	1,535	2,357	0,805
Awareness	1	7	918,250	4,523	0,101	1,442	2,079	0,794
Commitment	1	7	813,000	4,005	0,123	1,751	3,067	0,852

Global Scale Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient (13 items) = 0,872

Table 16 – FLAD's Brand Equity Results by Item of Each Dimension (*n=203*)

Dimension	Item	Min.	Max.	Sum	Mean	Mode	Std. Error	Std. Deviation	Variance
Awareness	BA4	1	7	1030	5,070	7	0,122	1,740	3,029
	BA5	1	7	965	4,754	5	0,121	1,729	2,989
	BA6	1	7	794	3,910	2	0,144	2,052	4,210
	BA7	1	7	884	4,355	6	0,126	1,800	3,240
Trust	BT1	2	7	1134	5,590	7	0,083	1,176	1,382
	BT2	3	7	1169	5,760	6	0,074	1,051	1,105
	BT3	4	7	1122	5,530	6	0,074	1,050	1,102
Commitment	BC1	1	7	643	3,170	1	0,150	2,134	4,556
	BC2	1	7	904	4,450	4	0,134	1,909	3,645
	BC3	1	7	892	4,390	4	0,135	1,930	3,725
Behavioral Intentions	BI1	1	7	989	4,870	4	0,121	1,719	2,954
	BI2	1	7	765	3,770	4	0,137	1,947	3,793
	BI3	1	7	1011	4,980	7	0,123	1,755	3,079

1.1. FLAD's brand dimensions: associations identified

Since all variables are quantitative, a Pearson's correlation (r) analysis would be the desirable statistical test to perform (Rodrigues, 2011). However, since it was verified that the data violates the prerequisite of normal distribution, it is recommended to proceed with the Spearman (r_S) correlation instead. This analysis allows the assessment of the degree of association between two ordinal variables, or quantitative variables without normal distribution, as is the case.

The correlation coefficient is in the range of $-1 \leq r \leq 1$. The negative or positive sign of the correlation means the sense of association between the variables. And its coefficients determine the strength of this association. When the correlation value is less than 0.2 the linear association is considered very bad, when it is between 0.2 and 0.39 it is deemed bad, between 0.4 and 0.69 it is moderate, between 0.7 and 0.89 it is good, and, finally, between 0.9 and 1 it is regarded as very good (Pestana & Gageiro, 2014).

According to the results obtained, it is confirmed that all study variables are positively associated with each other, appearing in a confidence interval of 99% ($p<0.01$), apart from the BI2 item (*"I intend to turn to FLAD in the future."*) and the BA7 item (*"I have difficulty characterizing FLAD."*) that appear in a confidence interval of 95% ($p<0.05$).

The only correlation that has no statistical significance concerns the association between the BT1 item (*"I trust that FLAD is an organization that acts in the best interest of the cause it defends."*) and the BA7 item (*"I have difficulty characterizing FLAD."*) whose results obtained are: $r_s = 0,136; p = 0,052$.

Table 17 – Spearman's Correlation Coefficient (*n=203*)

Item	BA4	BA5	BA6	BA7	BT1	BT2	BT3	BC1	BC2	BC3	BI1	BI2	BI3
BA4	-	,661**	,555**	,400**	,473**	,413**	,397**	,350**	,471**	,362**	,480**	,253**	,469**
BA5	,661**		,628**	,429**	,473**	,498**	,478**	,405**	,483**	,463**	,503**	,281**	,485**
BA6	,555**	,628**	-	,376**	,460**	,443**	,391**	,490**	,576**	,540**	,506**	,321**	,532**
BA7	,400**	,429**	,376**	-	,136	,196**	,186**	,274**	,299**	,305**	,263**	,163*	,286**
BT1	,473**	,473**	,460**	,136	-	,820**	,744**	,347**	,412**	,446**	,526**	,204**	,447**
BT2	,413**	,498**	,443**	,196**	,820**	-	,828**	,360**	,493**	,529**	,565**	,308**	,515**
BT3	,397**	,478**	,391**	,186**	,744**	,828**	-	,298**	,395**	,441**	,553**	,261**	,461**
BC1	,350**	,405**	,490**	,274**	,347**	,360**	,298**	-	,620**	,572**	,472**	,401**	,463**
BC2	,471**	,483**	,576**	,299**	,412**	,493**	,395**	,620**	-	,733**	,657**	,587**	,680**
BC3	,362**	,463**	,540**	,305**	,446**	,529**	,441**	,572**	,733**	-	,598**	,487**	,627**
BI1	,480**	,503**	,506**	,263**	,526**	,565**	,553**	,472**	,657**	,598**	-	,546**	,628**
BI2	,253**	,281**	,321**	,163*	,204**	,308**	,261**	,401**	,587**	,487**	,546**	-	,584**
BI3	,469**	,485**	,532**	,286**	,447**	,515**	,461**	,463**	,680**	,627**	,628**	,584**	-

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

The confirmation that practically all variables are correlated with each other, with moderate to strong associations, reinforces the trust in the proposed model of nonprofit customer-based brand equity, strengthening the confidence that most of the 13 items analyzed contribute to the assessment of FLAD's brand equity construct.[1]

As a next step, a correlational analysis was carried out between the composed variables which measure each construct under analysis, seeking to confirm the degree of association between all dimensions.

According to the results obtained, it is confirmed that the four dimensions – awareness, trust, commitment and behavioral intentions – are associated with each other, with a moderate to strong effect, and with levels of significance in a confidence interval of 99% ($p<0,01$), as seen in the following table 18.

[1] Nonetheless, the results point again to an eventual improvement of the proposed nonprofit customer-based brand equity model with the removal of the BA7 item.

Therefore, since all dimensions are positively associated, it is also possible to assume that when one dimension of FLAD's brand equity increases the other(s) will surely follow.

Table 18 – Spearman's Correlation Coefficient for the Composite Dimensions (*n=203*)

Dimension	A	T	C	B
Awareness (A)	-	,514**	,608**	,558**
Trust (T)	,514**	-	,474**	,494**
Commitment (C)	,608**	,474**	-	,715**
Behavioral Intentions (B)	,558**	,494**	,715**	-

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

In sum, the data indicate that, for example, if FLAD's commitment is further developed the dimension of behavioral intentions should also achieve increased brand equity scores, due to the strong association shared by these two dimensions ($r_s = 0,715; p<0,01$), as demonstrated in table 18.[2]

1.2. Results to the research questions proposed by this project

As concluded by a statistical analysis of the 13 items corresponding to the 4 dimensions of brand equity analyzed in this study – awareness, trust, commitment and behavioral intentions –, the following results were found for each research question put forth by this project.

Table 19 – Summary of Results to the Research Questions of this Project

Summary of results to the research questions of this project		
RQ1	What is the brand equity perspective of FLAD for the consumer?	The study's sample firmly believes in FLAD's trustworthy character, within its behavioral intentions is willing to recommend and follow FLAD's initiatives to a certain degree, can identify and distinguish FLAD from other competing brands, but has a harder time in characterizing FLAD's mission and/or activities, and, finally, demonstrates little signs of commitment in their relationship with FLAD's brand (see tables 15 and 16).

[2] However, this estimate should be reinforced statistically with a Pearson's (r) correlation analysis, the necessary step to establish a cause-effect relationship between dimensions. With a Spearman's (r_s) correlation analysis it is only possible to measure and interpret the strength of association between dimensions, and the direction of this relationship (if positive or negative).

RQ2	What dimensions most benefit FLAD's brand equity?	Trust and behavioral intentions, by order (see tables 15 and 16).
RQ3	What dimensions least benefit FLAD's brand equity?	Commitment and awareness, by order (see tables 15 and 16).
RQ4	What kind of associations can be established among FLAD's brand equity dimensions?	All four dimensions are positively associated and influence each other with a moderate to strong effect. The strongest associations can be identified, in a confidence interval of 99% (*$p<0,01$*), between commitment and behavioral intentions ($r_s = 0,715$), awareness and commitment ($r_s = 0,608$), awareness and behavioral intentions ($r_s = 0,558$), trust and awareness ($r_s = 0,514$), trust and behavioral intentions ($r_s = 0,494$), and, finally, trust and commitment ($r_s = 0,474$), by order (see table 18).

In the following points, a detailed and meticulous statistical analysis is made for the scores of each item of the awareness, trust, commitment and behavioral intentions dimensions included in FLAD's brand equity evaluation.

1.3. FLAD's brand awareness

As mentioned above, this project's survey gathered 294 answers, of which 210 (71%) knew FLAD and 84 (29%) didn't recognize the Foundation (*BA3 item*). Nonetheless, only 203 cases were valid for further statistical treatment within this study.

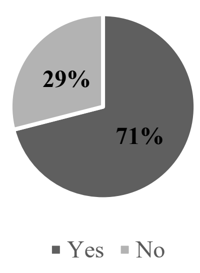

Chart 1 – Degree of Knowledge of FLAD by the Sample (*n=294*)

The cleared sample (*n=203*) referred to several nonprofit organizations in the BA1 item (*"Please indicate a nonprofit organization that you can remember first."*) and BA2 item (*"Can you select any more nonprofit organizations?"*). FLAD was selected 25 times

(12,3%) representing the most mentioned nonprofit organization in the BA1 item. Additionally, it was mentioned 11 times (5,4%) in the BA2 item, only surpassed by Banco Alimentar Contra a Fome (6,4%) and the Calouste Gulbenkian Foundation (5,9%).

Amongst the most cited nonprofits in the BA1 item, the following should be highlighted as organizations with high brand awareness within the study's sample: UNICEF – United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund (7,8%), Banco Alimentar Contra a Fome (7,4%), Calouste Gulbenkian Foundation (5,9%), Portuguese Red Cross (4,4%) and APAV – Associação Portuguesa de Apoio à Vítima (3,9%).

As for the BA2 item, the following nonprofits are called to attention as organizations also recognized by the sample within the national and international context: Banco Alimentar Contra a Fome (6,4%), Calouste Gulbenkian Foundation (5,9%), Portuguese Red Cross (4,9%), i3S – Instituto de Investigação e Inovação em Saúde (3,4%) and UNICEF – United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund (2,9%).

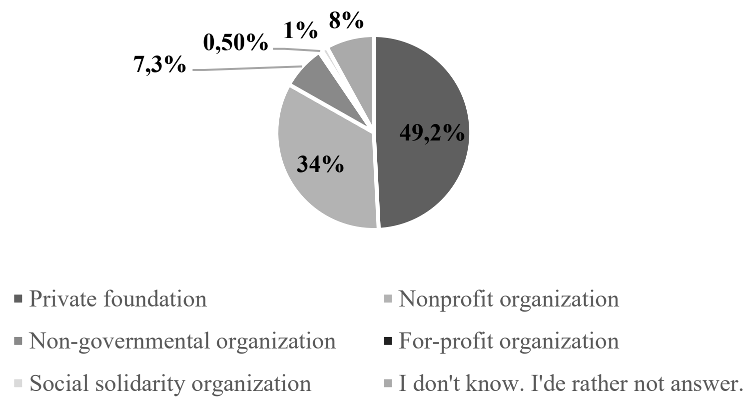

Chart 2 – Classification of FLAD's Activity by the Sample (*n=203*)

When characterizing the Foundation's activity (*BA3.1. item*) 49,2% of the sample understood that FLAD was a private foundation, while 34% also correctly considered FLAD as a nonprofit organization (see chart 2). The other 16,8% either didn't know (8%) or chose an incorrect classification of FLAD's organization (8,8%), such as a non-governmental organization (7,3%), a social solidarity organization (1%) or a for-profit organization (0,5%), as demonstrated in chart 2.

Furthermore, FLAD's brand awareness overall score corresponded to an average of 4,523 (*'neither agree nor disagree'*), as showcased in table 15. Upon further examination of the answers for each item of FLAD's brand awareness dimension, it appears that while the sample could recognize FLAD as a brand, the familiarity of this understanding is quite superficial. In sum, although the sample could identify FLAD and distinguish the Foundation's brand from other competing nonprofit organizations ($M_{BA4} = 5{,}070$), the levels of recognition of FLAD's logo ($M_{BA6} = 3{,}910$), the ability to characterize the Foundation with ease ($M_{BA7}= 4{,}355$), as well as define it mission, goals and activities ($M_{BA5} = 4{,}754$) were lower than expected.

Lastly, FLAD's brand awareness dimension presented a standard deviation of 1,442 (see table 15), which shows a slight variation in the sample's answers to these items. Of those, BA6 experienced the highest discrepancy ($SD_{BA6} = 2{,}052$), proving that FLAD's new logo is still a brand sign not recognized by the study's sample.

Table 20 – Results for FLAD's Awareness Dimension (*n=203*)

Item	Min.	Max.	Sum	Mean	Mode	Std. Error	Std. Deviation	Variance
(BA4) I can distinguish FLAD from other competing brands.	1	7	1030	5,070	7	0,122	1,740	3,029
(BA5) I can easily define FLAD.	1	7	965	4,754	5	0,121	1,729	2,989
(BA6) I can remember FLAD's logo easily.	1	7	794	3,910	2	0,144	2,052	4,210
(BA7) I have difficulty characterizing FLAD.	1	7	884	4,355	6	0,126	1,800	3,240

For the BA4 item, *"I can distinguish FLAD from other competing brands"*, the greatest percentage of answers falls within level 7 (*'strongly agree'*) with 29,1%. The second level with the highest rate of answers corresponds to level 5 (*'somewhat agree'*) with 21,7%. The third level with the most answers is represented by level 6 (*'agree'*) with 15,8%. In sum, 66,6% of the sample answered positively (between levels 5 and 7 in the Likert scale) to being able to distinguish FLAD from other competing nonprofit brands.

Regarding the BA5 item, *"I can easily define FLAD"*, most of the sample (59,7%) could successfully define FLAD's mission, goals and activities (answers between levels 5 and 7 in the Likert scale), with level 1 (*'strongly disagree'*), level 2 (*'disagree'*) and level 3 (*'somewhat disagree'*) corresponding to 26,2% of the answers. Predominantly, the sample answered to level 5 *('somewhat agree'* – 23,2%) for the BA5 item, with level 7 (*'strongly agree'* – 21,2%) coming in second place, and level 6 (*'agree'* – 15,3%) in third.

Concerning the BA6 item, a considerable amount of the sample (42,9%) couldn't easily remember FLAD's logo (answers between levels 1 and 3 in the Likert scale). Additionally, level 1 (*'strongly disagree'*) and level 7 (*'strongly agree'*) experienced the same percentage of answers (15,8%). Furthermore, answers at level 2 (*'disagree'*) and level 5 (*'somewhat agree'*) are presented, respectively, in first (17,7%) and second (16,3%) place.

As for the BA7 item, *"I have difficulty characterizing FLAD",* after the reversal of the 7-point Likert scale, a large percentage of the sample (33%) experienced a hard time characterizing FLAD's brand (answers between levels 1 and 3 in the Likert scale). Nonetheless, 49,2% of respondents (answers between levels 5 and 7 in the Likert scale) didn't experience any difficulties in characterizing FLAD. Adding to this point, the most frequent answer for the BA7 item corresponded to level 6 (*'disagree'* – 19,7%), with level 4 (*'neither agree nor disagree'*) and level 5 (*'somewhat disagree'*) reaching, respectively, second (17,8%) and third (16,7%) place.

1.4. FLAD's brand trust

When it comes to FLAD's brand trust, this dimension on average scored 5,624 (*'somewhat agree'*), as presented in table 15. In particular, more members of the sample considered that FLAD is an organization that acts ethically ($M_{BT2} = 5{,}760$), than trust that FLAD is a nonprofit that acts in the best interest of the cause it defends ($M_{BT1} = 5{,}590$) and uses its resources appropriately ($M_{BT3} = 5{,}530$). Nevertheless, these items have the best scores of any dimension included in FLAD's brand equity evaluation. It is also worth mentioning that the minimum answered by the sample to the items of the trust dimension did not fall behind level 2 (*'disagree'*) in the 7-point Likert scale.

Finally, the standard deviation of FLAD's brand trust dimension corresponded to 1,011 (as demonstrated in table 15), indicating the greatest uniformity of the sample's answers to any dimension of FLAD's brand equity evaluation. More specifically, the sample agreed, by order, that FLAD is an organization that uses its resources appropriately ($SD_{BT3} = 1{,}050$), acts ethically ($SD_{BT2} = 1{,}051$) and behaves in the best interest of the cause it defends ($SD_{BT1} = 1{,}176$).

Table 21 – Results for FLAD's Trust Dimension (*n=203*)

Item	Min.	Max.	Sum	Mean	Mode	Std. Error	Std. Deviation	Variance
(BT1) I trust that FLAD is an organization that acts in the best interest of the cause it defends.	2	7	1134	5,590	7	0,083	1,176	1,382
(BT2) I trust that FLAD is an organization that acts ethically.	3	7	1169	5,760	6	0,074	1,051	1,105
(BT3) I trust that FLAD is an organization that uses its resources appropriately.	4	7	1122	5,530	6	0,074	1,050	1,102

Regarding the BT1 item, 80,8% of the sample (answers between levels 5 and 7 in the Likert scale) trusted that FLAD is an organization that acts in the best interest of the cause it defends (e.g. the development of Portugal through cooperation with the United States). This is, only 3,5% of the sample answered between level 2 (*'disagree'*) and level 3 (*'somewhat disagree'*), with no members of the sample strongly disagreeing with this statement (level 1 in the 7-point Likert scale). As proof of FLAD's strong brand equity for the trust dimension, the sample answered more frequently to the BT1 item, by order, within level 7 (*'strongly agree'* – 27,6%), level 6 (*'agree'* – 27,1%) and level 5 (*'somewhat agree'* – 26,1%).

For the BT2 item, "*I trust that FLAD is an organization that acts ethically",* no members of the sample selected level 1 (*'strongly disagree'*) or level 2 (*'disagree'*) in the 7-point Likert scale, demonstrating the solid and positive stance of FLAD's brand trust within the sample. In sum, 85,1% of the sample felt that FLAD is an organization that acts ethically within society (answers between levels 5 and 7 in the Likert scale). Additionally, the sample answered more frequently to the BT2 item, by order, within level 6 (*'agree'* – 31%), level 7 (*'strongly agree'* – 30%) and level 5 (*'somewhat agree'* – 24,1%).

Concerning the BT3 item, once more the sample demonstrated excellent levels of trust within the Foundation's capacity to use its resources appropriately for the progression of its mission, with no answers from the sample found on level 1 (*'strongly disagree'*), level 2 (*'disagree'*) or level 3 (*'somewhat disagree'*) in the 7-point Likert scale. Therefore, 79,3% of the sample showcased positive answers (between levels 5 and 7 in the Likert scale) towards this item of the trust dimension. However, this doesn't mean that there is no room for improvement, since the most frequently selected answer corresponds to level 6 (*'agree'* – 30%), with level 5 (*'somewhat agree'* – 27,6%) in second place, and, lastly, level 7 (*'strongly agree'* – 21,7%) in third.

1.5. FLAD's brand commitment

Relating to FLAD's brand commitment, this dimension had an average score of 4,005 (*'neither agree nor disagree'*), as shown in table 15. Respectively, the survey's sample did not consider the relationship with FLAD something to be committed to ($M_{BC1} = 3{,}170$) and demonstrated little effort in maintaining a relationship with FLAD's brand ($M_{BC3} = 4{,}390$) or the intention to keep it in the future ($M_{BC2} = 4{,}450$).

Additionally, FLAD's brand commitment dimension achieved the highest standard deviation of this evaluation, with a score of 1,751 (see table 15). This variation in the sample's answers is stronger, by order, in BC1 ($SD_{BC1} = 2{,}134$), BC3 ($SD_{BC3} = 1{,}930$) and

BC2 ($SD_{BC2} = 1,909$). Making it clear that although FLAD's commitment dimension presents the lowest brand equity score in this evaluation, the sample has a high degree of discrepancy within their perceptions, feelings and attitudes towards being committed to FLAD's brand.

Table 22 – Results for FLAD's Commitment Dimension (*n=203*)

Item	Min.	Max.	Sum	Mean	Mode	Std. Error	Std. Deviation	Variance
(BC1) The relationship I have with FLAD is something I am committed to.	1	7	643	3,170	1	0,150	2,134	4,556
(BC2) The relationship I have with FLAD is something I intend to maintain in the future.	1	7	904	4,450	4	0,134	1,909	3,645
(BC3) The relationship I have with FLAD deserves the maximum effort to be maintained.	1	7	892	4,390	4	0,135	1,930	3,725

When it comes to the BC1 item, the sample clearly expressed their refusal in committing to a relationship with FLAD's brand, since more than half of the sample, 57,7%, answered between level 1 (*'strongly disagree'*) and level 3 (*'somewhat disagree'*) in the 7-point Likert scale. Adding to this point, the most frequently selected answer for the BC1 item corresponded to level 1 (*'strongly disagree'* – 33,5%), with a small difference of 2% separating level 2 (*'disagree'* – 15,8%) from level 7 (*'strongly agree'* – 13,8%).

Regarding the BC2 item, the survey's respondents demonstrated a neutral position as to their desire in maintaining a relationship with FLAD's brand in the future. This conclusion can be observed due to the concentration of the sample within level 4 ('*neither agree nor disagree'* – 31%), surpassing level 7 (*'strongly agree'* – 21,7%) and level 6 (*'agree'* – 12,3%) as the most frequently selected answer. Even so, the respondents still showcased a positive reaction to the BC2 item (43,4% of the answers are within levels 5 and 7 in the Likert scale). Therefore, and although commitment suffers from a poor evaluation in FLAD's brand equity scorecard, the BC2 item reveals that the perceptions, feelings and attitudes by the study's sample demonstrate a high degree of discrepancy in the commitment dimension.

As for the BC3 item, the sample, once again, maintained their neutral position regarding the effort they intended to apply to maintain a relationship with FLAD's brand. This remark can be proven by the sample's concentration of answers on level 4 (*'neither agree nor disagree'* – 32,6%). Although the respondent's position towards the BC3 item is somewhat positive (43,3% of the answers are within levels 5 and 7 in the Likert scale), there is still a high percentage of answers within level 1 (*'strongly disagree'*) and level 2 (*'disagree'*) representing 21,6% of the sample, close to the values presented on level 5 (*'somewhat agree'*) and level 6 (*'agree'*) with 22,6%. Moreover, the sample still showcases a high degree of disparity in their answers to the commitment dimension, with 20,7% of the respondents selecting level 7 (*'strongly agree'*) for the BC3 item.

1.6. FLAD's behavioral intentions

Concerning FLAD's behavioral intentions, this dimension had an average score of 4,540 ('*neither agree nor disagree')*, as demonstrated in table 15. In sum, FLAD's sample exhibited a somewhat positive intention to follow FLAD's activities ($M_{BI3} = 4{,}980$) and recommend the nonprofit in the future ($M_{BI1} = 4{,}870$). However, the respondents didn't reveal the intention to turn to FLAD's resources and/or opportunities ($M_{BI2} = 3{,}770$).

Furthermore, the answers for the behavioral intentions dimension showed an increased degree of variation ($SD = 1{,}535$) in FLAD's brand equity evaluation, only surpassed by the commitment dimension ($SD = 1{,}751$), as indicated by table 15. As for the items individually, the one with the highest discrepancy in the sample's answers is the intention to turn to FLAD ($SD_{BI2} = 1{,}947$) and to follow FLAD's activities in the future ($SD_{BI3} = 1{,}755$). As for the intention to recommend FLAD, this was the item within the behavioral intentions dimension that presented the most homogenous data ($SD_{BI1} = 1{,}719$).

Table 23 – Results for FLAD's Behavioral Intentions Dimension (*n=203*)

Item	Min.	Max.	Sum	Mean	Mode	Std. Error	Std. Deviation	Variance
(BI1) I intend to recommend FLAD in the future.	1	7	989	4,870	4	0,121	1,719	2,954
(BI2) I intend to turn to FLAD in the future.	1	7	765	3,770	4	0,137	1,947	3,793
(BI3) I intend to follow FLAD's activities in the future.	1	7	1011	4,980	7	0,123	1,755	3,079

Regarding the BI1 item, 58,1% of FLAD's sample reacted positively (answers between levels 5 and 7 in the Likert scale) to the intention of recommending FLAD in the future. Although level 4 (*'neither agree nor disagree'*) is the most expressive answer within the BI1 item (23,2%), level 7 (*'strongly agree'* – 22,7%) falls behind by only 0,5%, with level 6 (*'agree'*) and level 5 (*'somewhat agree'*) comprising 35,4% of the answers, respectively 18,2% and 17,2%.

The answers to the BI2 item demonstrate the lack of motivation from the study's sample in turning to FLAD in the future. In other words, to make use of the Foundation's resources and/or opportunities connecting Portugal to the United States. This brand attitude towards FLAD is made clear due to the concentration of answers between level 1 (*'strongly disagree'*), level 2 (*'disagree'*) and level 3 (*'somewhat disagree'*) representing 40,4% of the study's sample. Additionally, the second and third most frequent answers happen to be focused on level 1 (17,2%) and level 2 (15,3%), despite level 4 (*'neither agree nor disagree'*) taking 26,7%.

Regarding the BI3 item, the study's sample showcased the intention to keep up and monitor FLAD's upcoming initiatives and opportunities (63% of the answers were presented between levels 5 and 7 in the Likert scale), in resemblance to the conclusions found for the BI1 item. As for the BI3 item, in particular, the sample answered more frequently, by order, to level 7 (*'strongly agree'* – 25,1%), level 6 (*'agree'* – 20,7%) and level 5 (*'somewhat agree'* – 17,2%), with level 4 (*'neither agree nor disagree'*) not falling behind with 15,8% of the respondent's answers.

1.7. Summary

Concluding, the study's sample can identify and distinguish the Foundation from other competing brands, although the depth of familiarity of what FLAD does and stands for is deemed superficial in this evaluation. Also, the study's respondents firmly believe in FLAD's ethical, reliable, efficient and trustworthy character. Furthermore, the sample also demonstrated some intention to act favorably towards FLAD, especially when it comes to recommending the nonprofit to others or following its projects. However, and although the conditions are set for this to happen, as established by previous scholars in the field (Garbarino & Johnson, 1999; Morgan & Hunt, 1994), commitment falls short in this brand equity evaluation, with the respondents clearly showing a lack of motivation to put any effort in keeping a brand relationship with FLAD.

This means that the sample who participated in this study is not creating a long-term committed relationship with FLAD, maybe because the target used was mainly those who work alongside and promote FLAD's initiatives, not necessarily those who would use FLAD's resources to pursue an opportunity in the United States. This conclusion is also shown in the behavioral intentions dimension, while the sample is willing, to some degree, to recommend FLAD and follow its day-to-day activities, the respondents are not inclined to use the Foundation's resources and/or opportunities.

Several recommendations will follow, in Part IV of this project, taking into account an extensive literature review on nonprofit branding, so FLAD, and other organizations, can improve the scores of the brand equity dimensions analyzed in this study – awareness, trust, commitment and behavioral intentions.

Part IV | Conclusions and Final Considerations

1. Brief overview of this research

The results of this study suggest new insights into the state of FLAD's brand value, from a customer perspective, in addition to the proposal of several recommendations to further develop what is lacking and increase the Foundation's brand equity in the future.

Additionally, this project also contributes to the existing pool of nonprofit branding literature and offers new insights for nonprofits to strengthen their brands and market position as they compete with other organizations for the time, money and partnerships of stakeholders. In other words, this research endorses a proper branding strategy and instrument for the nonprofit sector and guides FLAD, as well as other nonprofit managers, in building brand equity for their organizations.

Therefore, by applying the present proposed model, based on Boenigk and Becker's (2016) research with increased improvement and validity, nonprofit leaders can properly measure, protect and enhance their brand equity and positively influence consumer behavior towards their organizations.

Furthermore, this research also offers exciting new approaches for the future of nonprofit branding that differs from existing for-profit brand equity models. As demonstrated previously (e.g. Andreasen & Kotler, 2008; Bennett & Sargeant, 2005; Faircloth, 2005; Hou et al., 2009; Laidler-Kylander & Simonin, 2009; Stride & Lee, 2007) the unique characteristics, goals and needs of the nonprofit sector require different branding strategies and the present study intends to do the same, further improve and validate a brand equity model for and by nonprofit organizations.

Looking ahead, and with the development of more research within the nonprofit branding field, especially in Portugal, it is expected for FLAD and other nonprofit organizations to become increasingly more confident in managing their brands, by gaining a stronger understanding of the nature and scope of brand equity for their specific organizations.

1.1. Main conclusions and recommendations for FLAD's brand equity

Several conclusions can be drawn from the evaluation of FLAD's brand equity which are worthy of discussion. Although FLAD's brand equity evaluation is positive and no dimensions are below the midpoint of the scale (*M = 3,50*), there is still great room for improvement to be accomplished by the Foundation.

In short, the project's sample is to some extent aware of FLAD's brand – awareness dimension – and does consider its reputation to be trustworthy at a high degree – trust dimension. However, and although trust is the best-rated dimension of FLAD's brand equity evaluation and a prerequisite for commitment (Garbarino & Johnson, 1999; Morgan & Hunt, 1994), the later dimension experiences the lowest score in this assessment. Meaning that even if the study's sample has, to a certain degree, the intention to act favorably towards FLAD's brand – behavioral intentions dimension –, such as recommending and following its initiatives, it is not creating a long-term relationship with the Foundation – commitment dimension –, as demonstrated in tables 15 and 16.

Indeed, the study's respondents didn't consider the relationship with FLAD something to be committed to, demonstrated little effort in maintaining this brand relationship with the Foundation and didn't have the intention to keep it in the future (as shown in tables 15 and 16). This conclusion is rather concerning, since commitment has been proven to be a central dimension of brand equity, whether in the nonprofit or for-profit sector, to build and sustain solid brands (Aaker, 1991; Lassar et al., 1995).

Without the ability to develop long-term strong relationships, FLAD can have trouble in providing a favorable environment for future fundraising and volunteering, establish barriers to competition (Aaker, 1991; Keller, 1993), as well as create greater brand attachment and engagement with the Foundation by its stakeholders (Arnett et al., 2003; Boenigk & Scherhag, 2014).

Therefore, the necessary steps need to be taken to prioritize the improvement of FLAD's brand commitment, but also brand awareness that comes in third place in this assessment of the Foundation's brand equity and should be more prominent.

The study's sample awareness of the Foundation was deemed superficial, since although they could identify and distinguish FLAD from other competing nonprofit organizations, a considerable amount experienced a hard time characterizing the Foundation's brand symbols, mission, values, goals and initiatives (see tables 15 and 16). Hence, there is still a long way to go to build a depth of familiarity with what FLAD does and stands for.

Brand awareness is a prerequisite for further engagement with the organization (Aaker, 1991) and can affect perceptions, feelings, preferences and attitudes of stakeholders (Keller, 1993, 2001, 2003), thus influencing the probability of any activity (e.g. donations, purchases, recommendations, among others) associated with the brand in question (Faircloth, 2005; Hou et al., 2009).

Therefore, FLAD's stakeholders need to establish a long-lasting and committed relationship with the Foundation, but also develop a deep and favorable understanding of FLAD's brand position and differentiation within the nonprofit field (e.g. What does FLAD do? What does FLAD stand for? What does FLAD want to achieve? What can FLAD offer that is different from the competition?).

In particular, brand commitment can be developed by paying attention to the duration and nature of previous stakeholder-FLAD relationships and the degree of personal association with FLAD's mission (Sargeant & Lee, 2004). This is, how has FLAD's action touched people's lives? Do stakeholders approve of and resonate with FLAD's mission and goals (goal congruency)? Has a member of their family benefited from FLAD (familial utility)? Have the beneficiaries and partners of FLAD's action properly been recognized (appropriate recognition)? Are there multiple ways to be involved with FLAD in more than one capacity (multiple engagements)? All of these factors have been shown to build commitment in nonprofit organizations (Sargeant & Lee, 2002; Sargeant, West, & Ford, 2001) and should be applied also to FLAD.

Furthermore, since all variables under analysis are positively associated with each other, it seems that FLAD to obtain a greater degree of commitment from its stakeholders, the least developed construct in this brand equity evaluation, should invest more in the awareness and trust dimensions, for which it is also expected that the consequence of these measures will reveal an increase in the behavioral intentions towards the Foundation, as demonstrated by the collected data of this project (see table 18).

As for brand awareness, this dimension can be further developed by devoting more resources into marketing campaigns towards building notoriety within FLAD's main brand audiences and developing a stronger market position within the national and international field of nonprofit organizations, either through traditional or digital media (Chapleo, 2015; Hart, 2002; Pope et al., 2009), proven to be an important strategy to also build trust (Laidler-Kylander & Simonin, 2009).

Furthermore, and according to Becker-Olsen and Hill (2006) and Dickinson and Barker (2007), the development of high-fit brand partnerships, with organizations with similar missions and values, could also be an effective opportunity for increasing awareness of nonprofit brands.

Nevertheless, it is also important to develop positive familiarity within FLAD's stakeholders (Churchill & Iacobucci, 2002; Faircloth, 2005; Keller, 1993, 2001, 2003), this is for the Foundation to be remembered at the right interaction moment with a deeper and favorable understanding of its mission, values, goals and initiatives. For this purpose, the Foundation needs to cultivate a brand awareness matching with its audience self-concept (e.g. reflecting its interests, values, personality, lifestyle, among others), ultimately leading to an increase of brand preference and positive reciprocal exchanges (Hou et al., 2009; Kapferer, 1998, 2001; Keller, 1993, 2001, 2003), such as volunteering, donating, recommending the organization, among others.

Additionally, as revealed in the discussion of results, the sample experienced a hard time characterizing FLAD's brand promise (BA5, BA6 and BA7 items – see tables 15 and 16). This can be due to its disperse pillars of action – Science and Technology, Education, Art and Culture and Transatlantic Relations – implemented to accomplish FLAD's mission: "*To create opportunities that will allow the development of Portuguese people and institutions, opening doors to the U.S.*" (FLAD, 2020, p. 27). Thus, FLAD should try to have a more consistent brand messaging (mission, values and goals) that facilitates stakeholders' identification of FLAD's brand position (as proposed by Hankinson, 2000, and Laidler-Kylander & Simonin, 2009), an approach that will also help to build trust within the Foundation's brand audience.

Also, the data obtained by this project points to a positive association between FLAD's brand awareness and commitment, followed by trust in the organization (see table 18). Therefore, in the future, the development of such brand equity dimensions should also be considered when improving the awareness of FLAD's brand or that of any other nonprofit organization.

As for behavioral intentions, while the sample of this study is willing to recommend and follow FLAD's activities in the future, at least to a certain degree, the intention to turn to the Foundation and use its resources and/or opportunities between Portugal and the United States was not present (as indicated in tables 15 and 16). [3]

Measuring behavioral intentions is an essential element to brand equity assessment, since it is important to understand if the future intentions of customer behavior are favorable towards the brand in question (Diogo, 2019). Behavioral intentions can take different forms, either by making positive comments about the organization or having the willingness to pay more for the same product and/or service, among others (Han et al., 2008; Söderlund, 2006; Zeithaml et al., 2006).

Typically, behavioral intentions are used as a dependent variable to evaluate the positive or negative effects of other dimensions of brand equity on customer behavior intentions (Brady et al., 2005; Cronin et al., 2000; Theodorakis et al., 2014). This objective was

[3] The levels of these brand attitudes towards FLAD, as well as commitment towards the Foundation, can be justified by the fact that the sample was not comprised of direct stakeholders possibly searching for opportunities between Portugal and the U.S., but rather members of other organizations that work alongside FLAD in promoting its initiatives. Therefore, it is very much possible to gather other conclusions for the behavioral intentions and commtiment dimensions with a better composed and aleatory sample.

intended for this project, however, due to the lack of normal distribution of the collected data the establishment of a predictive model to determine the influence of awareness, trust and commitment upon behavioral intentions wasn't possible. Nonetheless, the positive associations identified through the Spearman's (r_s) test, allowed this research to infer that there may be a cause-effect relationship between the dimensions of brand equity included in this study, since the associations between the variables under analysis present a moderate to strong effect (see tables 17 and 18).

Additionally, and according to the data collected by this project (see table 18), behavioral intentions are expected to increase especially if commitment is further developed, along with awareness and trust, by order. In sum, by developing the brand equity dimensions suggested previously, brand preference and positive stakeholder attitudes towards FLAD's brand, or another nonprofit in question, should also improve.

High levels of public trust are indispensable in the nonprofit sector (Boenigk & Becker, 2016), and, indeed, the sample of this study believed that FLAD is an organization that acts ethically, behaves in the best interest of the cause it defends and uses its resources appropriately (as showcased in tables 15 and 16).

This confident evaluation means that FLAD should be able to develop long-term relationships with its stakeholders (Morgan & Hunt, 1994), as well as be protected from scandals and/or criticism that can jeopardize the brand-building efforts of the Foundation throughout the years (Laidler-Kylander et al., 2007). Furthermore, by FLAD being perceived as ethical, reliable, legitimate, efficient and trustworthy, it can afford the nonprofit organization an increased reputation to pursue other projects and partners with greater success (Sargeant et al., 2006), as well as foster increased attachment and engagement (e.g. fundraising and volunteering) towards the Foundation's brand (Kotler & Andreasen, 1991; Sargeant & Lee, 2002).

However, while FLAD's trust is the best-rated brand equity dimension in this evaluation, it doesn't mean that there is no room for improvement. Brand trust can be further developed by fostering consistency and integrity throughout the organization (as recommended by

Laidler-Kylander & Simonin, 2009). Therefore, besides the establishment of new pillars of action and more efficient internal produces, FLAD needs to further reinforce other best practices, such as strengthening its brand-oriented organizational culture, solidifying internal channels to share essential information on current projects, increasing efforts for the enactment of a focused and common branding strategy (Hankinson, 2000; Laidler-Kylander et al., 2007), but also regard marketing as a budget priority and continue to assign enough resources, staff and time for these activities (Becker-Olsen & Hill, 2006; Pope et al., 2009).

Furthermore, it is also important to seem accountable and to have a significant impact on the cause the organization stands for, as per example, by communicating FLAD's performance and benefits back to stakeholders more frequently (Hankinson, 2000; Merchant et al., 2010; Michel & Rieunier, 2012; Sargeant et al., 2006). This is crucial to showcase the nonprofit's benevolent mission and capacity in achieving its brand promise (Sargeant & Lee, 2004), which will, in turn, develop trust, but also commitment.

In other words, FLAD needs to communicate what it is and what it does currently, but also how the Foundation has an impact on people's lives and in the development of their academic and/or professional careers. This is an important tool to build awareness of FLAD's contribution to Portuguese society, but also so future stakeholders think of FLAD when seeking opportunities in connection with the United States (Hankinson, 2000; Sargeant et al., 2006). For example 1) showcasing numbers to quantify FLAD's initiatives (e.g. how many grants are awarded each month and to which scientific field) or 2) promoting the work and stories of FLAD's beneficiaries (e.g. grantees, institutions or the Portuguese-American community).

It is also important to consider, while developing FLAD's trust dimension, that according to the results of this study (see table 18) the degree of trust felt by stakeholders might be influenced by the degree of awareness stakeholders hold on the nonprofit in question, but also that trust and commitment are positively associated, as already confirmed by previous scholars (e.g. Sargeant et al., 2006; Sargeant & Lee, 2004), meaning that as trust in the nonprofit increases so should commitment.

1.2. Practical contributions to the NPO sector

This study provides a framework for nonprofit leaders to better manage their brands and ultimately offers guidelines to find brand-building concepts and tools properly suited for the specific features, needs and goals of nonprofit organizations.

Overall, the project provides much evidence that branding activities need to be at the heart of nonprofits and are crucial for the longevity of these organizations (Becker-Olsen & Hill, 2006; Bennett & Sargeant, 2005; Griffiths, 2005; Hou et al., 2009; Michel & Rieunier, 2012; Pope et al., 2009; Wootliff & Deri, 2001).

Given the challenges of today's nonprofit sector of increased competition and diminished resource stream (Griffiths, 2005; Liao et al., 2001; Lindenberg & Bryant, 2001; Lowell et al., 2001; Porter & Kramer, 2002; Salamon, 2002; Stride & Lee, 2007; Wiepking, 2007), this study acknowledges the relevance of branding as a strategic instrument to do deal with the many constraints felt by these organizations and galvanize the necessary support to their activities (Haigh & Gilbert, 2005; Hassay & Peloza, 2009; Hou et al., 2009; Paço et al., 2014), as it occurs in the for-profit field (Ewing & Napoli, 2005; Wootliff & Deri, 2001). In addition, brand equity has been proven to be an effective device to understand and manage favorable consumer behavior towards nonprofit brands (Becker-Olsen & Hill, 2006; Faircloth, 2005; Garg et al., 2019; Hankinson, 2000; Wong & Merrilees, 2005).

In conclusion, engaging in strategic and coherent branding activities is a worthwhile endeavor for nonprofits because strong brands are related to important organizational outcomes (e.g. Bennett & Gabriel, 2003; Dickinson & Barker, 2007; Laidler-Kylander et al., 2007; Michaelidou et al., 2015; O'Cass & Voola, 2011; Pope et al., 2009; Venable et al., 2005; Wong & Merrilees, 2005). Therefore, this project suggests that brand management, in terms of brand orientation and brand equity, is an important avenue for helping nonprofit organizations reach their primary goals, such as creating social capital, raising awareness for different social issues, building trustworthy reputations, increasing fundraising, volunteering, partnerships and parliamentary lobbying, among others (Apaydin, 2011; Garg et al., 2019; Hankinson, 2000; Kylander & Stone, 2012).

Although brand valuation is still in its infancy in the nonprofit sector, evaluating the brand equity of nonprofits is a management tool from where insights turn into a deeper understanding of their brands (Laidler-Kylander et al., 2007). To identify the sources of brand equity is to detect and focus on how and where brands add value (Keller & Lehmann, 2006). In sum, brand valuation serves as a compass to nonprofit organizations, so their managers can better assess strategic decision-making on the marketing activities of their organizations (Boenigk & Becker, 2016).

Any nonprofit manager wishing to create greater value for their organization should embrace this instrument, further refine its brand equity dimensions and subsequent evaluations. Although previous studies have mostly adapted for-profit scales to the nonprofit sector and have discovered that these don't fit the needs of nonprofit organizations (Laidler-Kylander & Simonin, 2009), this study improves and further validates the research of Boenigk and Becker (2016) in developing a model adapted for nonprofit brand equity, including the dimensions of awareness, trust and commitment, to which behavioral intentions were added.

Therefore, this project provides a suitable brand equity measurement scale for FLAD, that can also be utilized by other nonprofit organizations, to evaluate their brand's value from a customer perspective, situate the nonprofit's brand equity in relation to competitors, and even keep track of their brand's performance over time. Additionally, practical recommendations are also discussed for the development of FLAD's brand equity, taking into account an extensive literature review on nonprofit branding, which can also be applied by other nonprofit organizations.

1.3. Theoretical contributions to the NPO sector

The current poor definition or invalidity of precious measures for nonprofit brand equity often leads to greater difficulty in the application of such instruments to this sector and for nonprofits to properly assess their brand value (Becker-Olsen & Hill, 2006; Garg et al., 2019; Laidler-Kylander et al., 2007). Within this context, the present study is of extreme importance and necessity providing several theoretical contributions.

Firstly, this research adds to the extant nonprofit branding literature by answering the call for further validation in this sector of brand equity measures, due to the lack of practical application of such instruments to these organizations (Boenigk & Becker, 2016; Chapleo, 2015; Faircloth, 2015; Juntunen et al., 2013; Laidler-Kylander & Simonin, 2009; Pope et al., 2009), especially in the Portuguese context.

Therefore, this study complements the domain of nonprofit brand equity by confirming a richer conceptualization and operationalization of this instrument in the sector. This has been done by evaluating FLAD's brand equity, while further improving and validating an accordant nonprofit brand equity measurement scale to the Portuguese context, based on Boenigk and Becker's (2016) model, with the dimensions of awareness, trust and commitment, for which behavioral intentions were also added. Therefore, this project not only proves the multicultural capacity of the scale proposed, but also validates the four brand equity dimensions in question.

Adding to this point, through the Cronbach's Alpha test, this study demonstrates that the proposed nonprofit brand equity measurement scale holds construct reliability ($\alpha = 0,872$), as demonstrated in table 10. Additionally, through the analysis of the Spearman (r_s) test, it was confirmed that practically all variables under analysis were correlated with each other, with moderate to strong associations, also reinforcing the confidence in the psychometric properties of the proposed measurement scale (see table 17). Therefore, this instrument represents a theoretical contribution to measuring nonprofit customer-based brand equity. However, the violation of the assumptions of normal distribution of the collected data in this research (see table 9), due to a non-probabilistic sample, requires the further application of the proposed scale in new and different studies.

Within a field where branding research is less frequent and inconsistent, this project represents an important contribution for those researching and practicing in the nonprofit sector, by providing an easily administrated and improved measurement scale that can be potentially used in multiple nonprofits, not just in FLAD, for the evaluation of their brand equity and, in particular, for the measurement of the degree of awareness, trust, commitment and behavioral intentions engendered in stakeholders to their organizations.

Such measures are important because they have been shown to create a means of differentiation and can increase the legitimacy of the nonprofit's action, the likelihood of stakeholders to enter into a brand relationship with the organization, the levels of commitment and longevity of these relationships, the attachment and engagement to the nonprofit organization by stakeholders, the establishment of barriers to competition, the assurance of brand preference and positive attitudes towards the nonprofit in question, such as, for example, repeated donations or positive word-of-mouth (e.g. Arnett et al., 2003; Boenigk & Scherhag, 2014; Faircloth, 2005; Hou et al., 2009).

Thus, by identifying and measuring these four brand equity dimensions, both scholars and professionals in the nonprofit sector can now validly assess how each of these constructs impacts positively or negatively stakeholders' behaviors towards their brands.

Furthermore, this project makes another theoretical contribution by implementing a framework around the researched brand equity dimensions of this model – awareness, trust, commitment and behavioral intentions –, integrating all of them into one study for the nonprofit sector and suggesting the associations among them (see tables 17 and 18). Such as the confirmation of the positive association between trust and commitment (already validated by Sargeant et al., 2006, and Sargeant & Lee, 2004) or the conclusion that as commitment, awareness and trust, by order, increase so should behavioral intentions towards FLAD or another nonprofit organization in question, as indicated in table 18.

Thus, the results have also demonstrated the need to consider managing the dimensions of brand equity multidimensionally to achieve better results. This finding becomes a potential contribution to the design of nonprofit branding strategies.

1.4. Limitations and recommendations for future research

Although this study contributes to the research of nonprofit brand equity and provides valuable recommendations to the sector, still, it has limitations that offer the basis for future research and discussion.

Firstly, this project looked at the brand equity of a specific nonprofit, that of FLAD, which is not representative of all nonprofit organizations, especially in the Portuguese context. Further research including other nonprofit organizations is encouraged, being it different types (advocacy vs traditional relief), sizes (local vs international) or missions (environmentalism vs human rights), to determine if the findings of the brand equity dimensions analyzed might vary, since such factors can affect stakeholder's preference.

Furthermore, there is also the need to replicate this work in other geographical and cultural contexts, as these may provide additional insights into brand-building activities within the nonprofit sector, as is the case for brand equity.

Secondly, the specific sample obtained also represents another limitation to the findings. Although the best efforts to randomly select the sample of this study were put into place, this was not possible due to several constraints explained previously (see Part II – Methodology). Therefore, the final sample utilized was non-aleatory and non-probabilistic contributing to the lack of normal distribution of the collected data (see table 9).

Future research should utilize a sampling method that allows for an aleatory sample and it would also be interesting to understand the perception of different brand audiences of importance to FLAD (e.g. SiPN's alumni or the Portuguese-American community, among others) beyond the academic segment of Portuguese organizations. This is, where do these stakeholders obtain the most value from FLAD, or another nonprofit brand in question, and then tailor these measures to satisfy their needs.

Consequently, the replication of this research with other samples is called for and will help add confidence in the measures developed of nonprofit customer-based brand equity, as well as extrapolate the results to the study's population.

Furthermore, this project didn't follow all the prerequisites to perform a Regression analysis for the development of a predictive model and the establishment of cause-effect relationships between the brand equity dimensions evaluated in this research, especially to understand the degree of influence from awareness, trust and commitment upon behavioral intentions, the planned dependent variable of this study.

Therefore, due to this and several other constraints that were felt in the statistical analysis of the collected data, more quantitative instruments should be applied in future research to obtain more robust statistical readings of the findings.

Additionally, and although the proposed nonprofit brand equity measurement scale of this study showcases high levels of reliability ($\alpha = 0{,}872$), it is recommended to eliminate the BA7 item in future research, since not only does the global Cronbach's Alpha coefficient of the scale improve to 0,912 (see table 10), but this item also doesn't present significative associations with most of the variables analyzed in this project (as shown in table 17).

Thirdly, the model proposed only examined four dimensions of brand equity – awareness, trust, commitment and behavioral intentions –, therefore, future research should include other constructs, such as brand personality (e.g. Aaker, 1991, 1996, 1996b; Faircloth, 2005; Hou et al., 2009; Sargeant et al., 2007; Sargeant et al., 2008; Venable et al., 2005), brand identity (e.g. Becker-Olsen & Hill, 2006; Kapferer, 1998, 2001; Keller, 1993, 2001, 2003), brand image (e.g. Bennett & Gabriel, 2003; Camarero et al., 2010; Faircloth, 2005; Hou et al., 2009; Juntunen et al., 2013; Michaelidou et al., 2015; Michel & Rieunier, 2012), among several other dimensions found to relate particularly to the nonprofit sector (e.g. Laidler-Kylander & Simonin, 2009). This future work can refine the present nonprofit brand equity measurement scale and contribute to the evaluation of brand equity within this research field.

In short, this study is limited by a specific nonprofit organization, a specific sample and a specific set of brand equity dimensions analyzed. Consequently, future research could test the efficacy, generability and robustness of the proposed brand equity measurement scale among a broader range of nonprofit types, different aleatory samples and include more dimensions of brand equity not analyzed in this project, as well as perform more statistical tests with predictive capacity to further expand on the results obtained by this research.

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Annexes

Annex A | FLAD's internship certificate

FLAD FUNDAÇÃO LUSO-AMERICANA PARA O DESENVOLVIMENTO

Certificado de Estágio

Declaro que Natacha Maria Hogg Costa, cartão do cidadão nº 14549899, residente em Rua Tenente Espanca, 4, 1050-043 Lisboa, cumpriu com distinção o estágio extracurricular na Direção de Comunicação da Fundação Luso-Americana para o Desenvolvimento (FLAD), entre os dias 1 de outubro de 2019 e 31 de março de 2020.

FUNDAÇÃO LUSO-AMERICANA

Liliana Valpaços
Chief Operating Officer

Annex B | FLAD's internship evaluation

FLAD FUNDAÇÃO LUSO-AMERICANA PARA O DESENVOLVIMENTO

RELATÓRIO DE ESTÁGIO

Nome: Natacha Costa

Período: 1 de outubro 2019 – 31 de março 2020

Departamento: Comunicação

Responsável pelo estágio: Liliana Valpaços

Principais Funções: Acompanhamento da definição da estratégia e plano de comunicação, organização de eventos, atualização de redes sociais, comunicação com a imprensa, gestão da base de dados.

Principais Projetos: Rebranding FLAD, lançamento de novo site, organização de "Estudar e Investigar nos Estados Unidos" – Porto e Minho, lançamento do FLAD Science Award Atlantic.

Pontos Fortes: A Natacha é muito organizada, metódica e responsável. Demonstra grande vontade de aprender e de evoluir, com uma atitude muito positiva em relação às críticas. Durante estes seis meses, a Natacha desenvolveu-se bastante, quer no conhecimento teórico da área da Comunicação, como na execução das tarefas. Sabe pesquisar e selecionar informação relevante. Tem grande capacidade de trabalho e é um bom elemento de equipa. Tem um excelente domínio da língua inglesa.

Competências a desenvolver: É importante, para a sua evolução nesta área, que esteja mais atenta à atualidade e aos conteúdos dos meios de comunicação social. Creio que assim, ao reforçar a sua cultura geral e conhecimento dos meios, irá ser capaz de ser mais criativa e de dominar melhor as particularidades da escrita e de a tornar mais eficaz.

Avaliação final: A apreciação global do desempenho da Natacha é muito positiva. De tal modo que a FLAD decidiu contratá-la para reforçar a equipa neste ano em que a Fundação celebra 35 anos e são apresentados novos desafios na área da Comunicação. Se se mantiver num percurso evolutivo, estou certa de que a Natacha será uma mais valia numa equipa de Marketing e / ou Comunicação.

FUNDAÇÃO LUSO-AMERICANA PARA O DESENVOLVIMENTO

Liliana Valpaços
Chief Operating Officer

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Annex C | Survey's translation from English to Portuguese

Ref.	Original question	Scale utilized	Original study	Translation proposition	Suggestion 1	Suggestion 2 after feedback of the pre-test October 2nd, 2020	Suggestion 3 after feedback of the pre-test October 10th, 2020
Dimension: Brand awareness							
BA1	The first-named brand in a recall task.	Aaker (1996)	Aaker (1996)	Qual é a primeira organização sem fins lucrativos Portuguesa que se recorda?	Indique uma organização sem fins lucrativos que se consiga recordar em primeiro lugar.	Por favor, indique uma organização sem fins lucrativos que se consiga recordar em primeiro lugar.	Por favor, indique uma organização sem fins lucrativos que se consiga recordar em primeiro lugar. *(Resposta obrigatória, aberta e curta)*
BA2	Name the brands in this product class.	Aaker (1996)	Aaker (1996)	Nomeie as marcas nesta classe de organizações sem fins lucrativos em Portugal.	Consegue indicar mais alguma organização sem fins lucrativos?	Consegue indicar mais alguma organização sem fins lucrativos?	Consegue indicar mais alguma organização sem fins lucrativos? *(Resposta opcional, aberta e curta)*
BA3	I am aware of X.	Yoo and Donthu (2001)	Alba and Hutchinson, (1987), Rossiter and Percy (1987), and Srull (1984)	Está ciente da existência da FLAD?	Eu conheço a FLAD.	Eu conheço a FLAD (Fundação Luso-Americana para o Desenvolvimento).	Conhece a FLAD (Fundação Luso-Americana para o Desenvolvimento)? _Sim _Não *(Resposta obrigatória e indicar uma opção)*
BA3.1.				Por favor, caracterize a FLAD indicando apenas uma opção: _ ONG _ Empresa Comercial _ Outra atividade	Por favor, caracterize a FLAD indicando apenas uma opção: _ONG _Organização Sem Fins Lucrativos _Organização de Solidariedade Social _ Empresa Comercial _ Outra atividade	Eu defino a atividade da FLAD da seguinte forma: (indicar uma opção) _ ONG _Organização Sem Fins Lucrativos _Fundação Privada _Organização de Solidariedade Social _ Empresa Comercial _ Não sei. Prefiro não responder.	Eu defino a atividade da FLAD da seguinte forma: (indicar uma opção) _É uma ONG (Organização Não Governamental) _ É uma Organização Sem Fins Lucrativos _ É uma Fundação Privada _ É uma Organização de Solidariedade Social _ É uma Empresa Comercial _ Não sei. Prefiro não responder. *(Resposta obrigatória)*

BA4	I can recognize X among other competing brands.	Yoo and Donthu (2001)	Alba and Hutchinson, (1987), Rossiter and Percy (1987), and Srull (1984)	Consegue reconhecer a FLAD entre outras marcas concorrentes?	Eu consigo reconhecer a FLAD entre outras marcas concorrentes.	Eu consigo distinguir a FLAD de outras marcas concorrentes.	Eu consigo distinguir a FLAD de outras marcas concorrentes. *(Resposta obrigatória de acordo com a escala de 7 pontos de Likert)*
BA5	Some characteristics of X come to my mind quickly.	Yoo and Donthu (2001)	Alba and Hutchinson, (1987), Rossiter and Percy (1987), and Srull (1984)	Algumas das características da FLAD surgem-lhe facilmente?	Consigo caracterizar a FLAD com facilidade.	Eu consigo definir a FLAD com facilidade.	Eu consigo definir a FLAD com facilidade. *(Resposta obrigatória de acordo com a escala de 7 pontos de Likert)*
BA6	I can quickly recall the symbol or logo of X.	Yoo and Donthu (2001)	Alba and Hutchinson, (1987), Rossiter and Percy (1987), and Srull (1984)	Consegue recordar-se com facilidade de algum símbolo ou logo da FLAD?	Consigo recordar-me rapidamente do logótipo da FLAD.	Eu consigo recordar-me do logótipo da FLAD facilmente.	Eu consigo recordar-me do logótipo da FLAD facilmente. *(Resposta obrigatória de acordo com a escala de 7 pontos de Likert)*
BA7	I have difficulty imagining X in my mind.	Yoo and Donthu (2001)	Alba and Hutchinson, (1987), Rossiter and Percy (1987), and Srull (1984)	Tem dificuldade em imaginar a marca FLAD?	Tenho dificuldade em visualizar a FLAD.	Eu tenho dificuldade em caracterizar a FLAD.	Eu tenho dificuldade em caracterizar a FLAD. *(Resposta obrigatória de acordo com a escala de 7 pontos de Likert)*
Dimension: Brand trust							
BT1	I trust this nonprofit brand to always act in the best interest of its cause.	Boenigk and Becker (2016)	Sargeant and Woodliffe (2007)	Confia que a marca FLAD irá sempre agir no melhor interesse da sua causa?	Confio que a FLAD é uma organização sem fins lucrativos que agirá sempre no melhor interesse da causa que defende.	Eu confio que a FLAD é uma organização sem fins lucrativos que age no melhor interesse da causa que defende.	Eu confio que a FLAD é uma organização que age no melhor interesse da causa que defende. *(Resposta obrigatória de acordo com a escala de 7 pontos de Likert)*
BT2	I trust this nonprofit brand to conduct its operations ethically.	Boenigk and Becker (2016)	Sargeant and Woodliffe (2007)	Confia na marca FLAD para conduzir as suas operações de forma ética?	Confio que a FLAD é uma organização sem fins lucrativos que agirá sempre de forma ética.	Eu confio que a FLAD é uma organização sem fins lucrativos que age com ética.	Eu confio que a FLAD é uma organização que age com ética. *(Resposta obrigatória de acordo com a escala de 7 pontos de Likert)*
BT3	I trust this nonprofit brand to use donated funds appropriately.	Boenigk and Becker (2016)	Sargeant and Woodliffe (2007)	Confia que a marca FLAD irá gerir os seus fundos de forma adequada?	Confio que a FLAD é uma organização sem fins lucrativos que irá sempre utilizar os donativos que recebe de forma adequada.	Eu confio que a FLAD é uma organização sem fins lucrativos que utiliza os seus recursos de forma adequada.	Eu confio que a FLAD é uma organização que utiliza os seus recursos de forma adequada. *(Resposta obrigatória de acordo com a escala de 7 pontos de Likert)*

Dimension: Brand commitment							
BC1	The relationship I have with this nonprofit brand is something I am very committed to.	Boenigk and Becker (2016)	Sargeant and Lee (2004)	A relação que tem com a marca FLAD é algo com a qual está comprometido?	A relação que tenho com a FLAD é algo com o qual estou muito comprometido.	A relação que tenho com a FLAD é algo com o qual estou comprometido.	A relação que tenho com a FLAD é algo com a qual estou comprometido/a. *(Resposta obrigatória de acordo com a escala de 7 pontos de Likert)*
BC2	The relationship I have with this nonprofit brand is something I intend to maintain indefinitely.	Boenigk and Becker (2016)	Sargeant and Lee (2004)	A relação que tem com a marca FLAD pretende mantê-la indefinidamente?	O relacionamento que tenho com a FLAD é algo que pretendo manter indefinidamente.	A relação que tenho com a FLAD é algo que pretendo manter indefinidamente.	A relação que tenho com a FLAD é algo que pretendo manter no futuro. *(Resposta obrigatória de acordo com a escala de 7 pontos de Likert)*
BC3	The relationship I have with this nonprofit brand deserves maximum effort to maintain.	Boenigk and Becker (2016)	Sargeant and Lee (2004)	A relação que tem com a marca FLAD merece o máximo de esforço para a manter?	O relacionamento que tenho com a FLAD merece o máximo de esforço para ser mantido.	A relação que tenho com a FLAD merece o máximo de esforço para ser mantida.	A relação que tenho com a FLAD merece o máximo de esforço para ser mantida. *(Resposta obrigatória de acordo com a escala de 7 pontos de Likert)*
Dimension: Behavioral intentions							
BI1	I will recommend other persons to visit the restaurant.	Söderlund (2006)	Söderlund (2006)	Tenciona recomendar a FLAD num futuro próximo?	Eu tenciono recomendar a FLAD nos próximos tempos.	Eu tenciono recomendar a FLAD nos próximos tempos.	Eu tenciono recomendar a FLAD nos próximos tempos. *(Resposta obrigatória de acordo com a escala de 7 pontos de Likert)*
BI2	I will have dinner at the restaurant during the coming 6 months.	Söderlund (2006)	Gotlieb, Grewal and Brown (1994), Oliver (1997), and Patterson, Johnson and Spreng (1997)	Tenciona recorrer à FLAD num futuro próximo?	Eu tenciono recorrer à FLAD nos próximos tempos.	Eu tenciono recorrer à FLAD nos próximos tempos.	Eu tenciono recorrer à FLAD nos próximos tempos. *(Resposta obrigatória de acordo com a escala de 7 pontos de Likert)*
BI3	Tenciono assistir a mais jogos do Sporting no Estádio José Alvalade nos próximos meses.	Diogo (2019)	Hedlund (2014) and Biscaia, Correia, Yoshida, Rosado and Marôco (2013)	Tenciona acompanhar as iniciativas da FLAD num futuro próximo?	Eu tenciono acompanhar as atividades da FLAD nos próximos tempos.	Eu tenciono acompanhar as atividades da FLAD nos próximos tempos.	Eu tenciono acompanhar as atividades da FLAD nos próximos tempos. *(Resposta obrigatória de acordo com a escala de 7 pontos de Likert)*

Dimension: Sample characterization							
DCg				Género *(Resposta obrigatória, masculino/feminino)*			
DCi				Idade *(Resposta obrigatória, 6 opções)*			
DCh				Habilitações académicas *(Resposta obrigatória, 6 opções)*			
DCn				Nacionalidade *(Resposta obrigatória, 4 opções)*			
DCp				Atividade profissional *(Resposta obrigatória, aberta e curta)*			
DCa				Área de investigação *(Resposta opcional, aberta e curta)*			
DCf				Apoio da FLAD *(Resposta obrigatória, sim/não)*			

Extra Tables

Table 24 – Brand Definitions

Author and year	Brand definitions
Aaker (1991)	A brand signals to the customer the source of the product and protects both the customer and the producer from competitors who would attempt to provide products that appear to be identical.
American Marketing Association (n.d.)	A brand is a name, term, sign, symbol or design, or any other feature that identifies one seller's goods or services as distinct from those of other sellers.
Doyle (2001)	Simplifies the choice process by confirming the functional and emotional associations of the brand. Increasingly, it is the emotional or experience associations from where successful brand promises can create customer value.
Farquhar (1989)	A product is something that offers a functional benefit (e.g. a toothpaste, a life insurance policy or a car). A brand is a name, symbol, design or mark that enhances the value of a product beyond its functional purpose.
International Organization for Standardization (n.d.)	Brands are intangible assets, intended to create distinctive images and associations in the minds of stakeholders, thereby generating economic benefits and value.
Kapferer (1992)	A strong idea that is supported by a profitable economic equation.
Keller (2003)	A product, but one that adds other dimensions that differentiates it in some way from other products designed to satisfy the same need.
Kotler et al. (2013)	At the heart of a successful brand is a great product and/or service, backed by a careful marketing strategy and a great deal of long-term commitment. A strong brand commands intense customer loyalty.

Source: Adapted from Brahmbhatt and Shah (2017)

Table 25 – Brand Equity Definitions and For-Profit Customer Perspective Models

Author and year	Definitions of brand equity	Variables of brand equity
Aaker (1991, 1996, 1996b)	Set of brand assets and liabilities linked to a brand, its name and symbol, that add to or subtract from the value provided by a product or service to a firm and/or to that firm's customers.	Loyalty, Perceived quality/ Brand leadership, Brand associations/ Differentiation, Brand awareness, Market behavior
Berry (2000)	Brand equity is the differential effect of brand awareness and brand meaning on the customer's response to the marketing of the brand.	Brand awareness, Brand meaning
Burmann et al. (2009)	This research explores the sources of brand equity from both internal and external perspectives, at the behavioral and financial levels, to achieve a more accurate and sustainable brand equity measurement approach.	Brand benefit clarity, Perceived quality, Brand uniqueness, Brand sympathy, Brand trust, Brand awareness
Chernatony (2003)	Brand equity is understood on a more humanistic and holistic note. This author poses for integrated management of brand equity throughout the entire organization, including both internal and external stakeholders.	Brand vision, Organizational culture, Brand goals, Brand atmosphere, Brand essence, Internal implementation, Resource combination
Cobb-Walgren et al. (1995)	The brand that presents the greatest advertising budget yields substantially higher levels of brand equity. In turn, the brand with the highest equity generates significantly greater preference and purchase intentions.	Perceived quality, Brand awareness, Brand associations, Advertising awareness
Farquhar (1989)	The added value that a brand endows to a product.	Positive brand evaluations, Accessible brand attitudes, Consistent brand image

Kapferer (1998, 2001)	Brand equity is considered in terms of its brand's identity. A qualitative view where brands represent discourses and only by creating a suitable value system with resonance with consumers can brand equity be developed.	The six sides of brands (Physical, Personality, Cultural, Relationship, Reflection, Mentalization)
Keller (1993, 2001, 2003)	Brand equity as seen from the perspective of the client. A view that stands on creating vast brand knowledge and positive brand associations, so that favorable brand attitudes and long-term relationships can be formed with customers, and, consequently, achieve brand equity.	Brand Knowledge and Brand Image: Identity, Meaning, Response, Relationship
Lassar et al. (1995)	Enhancement of perceived utility, superiority and desirability a brand name confers on a product, this when compared to other brands.	Performance, Value, Social image, Trustworthiness, Commitment
Leuthesser (1988)	Set of associations and behaviors on the part of the brand's customers, channel members and parent corporations that allow the brand to earn greater volume or greater margins than it would without the brand name, and that gives the brand a strong and sustainable advantage over competitors.	Brand meaning
Srivastava and Shocker (1991)	Brand equity is the brand strength within customer perception and behavior.	Brand strength, Brand value
Vázquez et al. (2002)	The overall utility that the customer associates with the use and consumption of the brand, including associations expressing both functional and symbolic utilities.	Product functional utility, Product symbolic utility, Brand functional utility, Brand symbolic utility

Source: Adapted from Brahmbhatt and Shah (2017), Chieng and Lee (2011) and Diogo (2008)

Table 26 – Advantages of Brand Equity

Author and year	**Advantages of brand equity**
Aaker (1991)	Favorable exposition and distribution. Resistance to price wars from competitors.
Aaker (1991), Kapferer (1998), Keller (1993) and Shapiro (1985)	Enhanced brand loyalty and reduced perceived risk.
Aaker (1991) and Farquhar (1989)	Successful brand extensions. Ability to establish premium prices.
Aaker (1991), Dodds, Monroe and Grewal (1991), Kapferer (1998) and Keller (1993)	Higher perception of product quality.
Aaker and Jacobson (1994)	Higher stock returns.
Agarwal and Rao (1996)	Increased market share.
Cobb-Walgren et al. (1995)	Increased customer preference and purchase intentions.
Erdem and Swait (1998) and Ritchie et al. (1999)	Brand credibility and trustworthiness.
Farquhar (1989)	Greater resilience against competitors and innovations of the same sector, as well as shifts in consumer tastes and crises.

Hoeffler and Keller (2003) and Keller (2000)	Cost and demand advantages, through lower operating and communication expenses.
Mahajan et al. (1994)	More successful merges and acquisitions.
Simon and Sullivan (1993)	Higher stock prices.
Srivastava and Shocker (1991)	Long-term cash flows and future profits.
Tapp (1996)	Greater dissemination and attention to the organization's presence and/or message.
Wong and Merrilees (2005)	Higher differentiation from competitors. Increased reputation and high esteem. Connection with target stakeholders.

Source: Adapted from Brahmbhatt and Shah (2017), Chieng and Lee (2011) and Diogo (2008)

Table 27 – Brand Orientation Models for Nonprofits

Author and year	**Main conclusions**	**Variables of brand orientation**
Apaydin (2011)	The proposed research aims to highlight the importance of branding and brand orientation for nonprofit organizations and to bring to the surface the antecedents and the outcomes of being brand-oriented in the nonprofit sector. A comprehensive literature review is presented and a conceptual model is proposed in this study.	Antecedents (internal environment), Mediators (external environment), Outcomes of brand orientation for NPOs
Chapleo (2015)	An exploratory study to examine the factors necessary within nonprofit organizations for successful branding and the challenges for its implementation. Conducted through in-depth interviews, the study created a structure to inform and support an understanding of brand management within the nonprofit context.	Brand-oriented leadership, Employee understanding, Clear brand vision, Emotional and experiential branding
Ewing and Napoli (2005) and Napoli (2006)	Both study findings suggest that there is a positive association between the dimensions of nonprofit brand orientation and nonprofit organizational performance, with successful nonprofit organizations tending to be more brand-oriented than their less successful counterparts.	Orchestration, Interaction, Affect
Garg et al. (2019)	The study proposes integrated branding effectiveness measurement metrics for nonprofit organizations, combining the brand image (brand awareness, brand understanding, brand associations) and brand identity (management profile, vision, culture) approach, while linking the two through brand performance parameters.	Brand image, Brand identity, Brand performance
Hankinson (2000)	The study explores, through qualitative research, the levels of brand orientation in charity organizations and concludes that those committed to branding gathered the most benefits in the achievement of their organizational goals (e.g. raising awareness, building trust, fundraising and parliamentary lobbying). The author also leaves recommendations for the nonprofits not making the best use of their brands.	Visual communicators, Message communicators, Behavioral communicators
Kylander and Stone (2012)	This study presents a brand orientation model, based on 73 nonprofit staff interviews, specifically constructed for the needs and characteristics of nonprofit organizations, while capturing the pride in their social mission, participatory processes, shared values and key partnerships.	Brand identity, Brand democracy, Brand ethics, Brand affinity
Laidler-Kylander et al. (2007)	Based on current thinking in nonprofit management and detailed interviews with close to 100 executives of 10 international nonprofit organizations, this study draws strategic lessons on brand-building and brand valuation activities of nonprofit organizations, outlining best practices for the field.	Brand identity, Brand valuation

Source: Self-authorship

Table 28 – Brand Equity Models for Nonprofits

Author and year	Main conclusions	Variables of brand equity
Becker-Olsen and Hill (2006)	This study shows how nonprofits build value for their brands through strategic sponsorship programs, that can increase their reputation and resource donations. While high-fit sponsorship programs allow to positively influence brand identity, meaning, response and relationships, low-fit sponsorships programs are likely to hinder these brand equity dimensions. Finally, the results reveal that nonprofits can use supportive communication to counter the risks of strategic alliances containing a low-fit between them.	Brand identity, Brand meaning, Brand response, Brand relationship
Bennett and Gabriel (2003)	This research questions 161 members of the general public about the image and reputation of major UK charities. Brand image and brand reputation were not seen as the same concept. The factors underlying charity image were related to compassion, dynamism, idealism, focus on beneficiaries and being seen as non-political. Charity reputation, conversely, was largely determined by the variables found in the Fortune corporate reputation index and by whether a charity was regarded as well-known by respondents. It appeared that a charity's image and reputation exerted a strong influence on donor behavior.	Brand image (compassion, dynamism, idealism, focus on beneficiaries and non-political character), Brand reputation (Fortune corporate reputation index and being well-known)
Boenigk and Becker (2016)	The scholars provide insights into the conceptualization and operationalization of customer-based nonprofit brand equity and derive an initial measurement scale, empirically researching trust in nonprofit brand equity for the first time. The nonprofit brand equity measurement scale, based on partial least squares path modeling and drawn from a sample of 40 best-known nonprofit brands from Germany, provides the basis for other nonprofits to compare their brands' performance over time and develop accordant marketing strategies to build brand equity.	Brand awareness, Brand trust, Brand commitment
Camarero et al. (2010)	The scholars aim to explore determinants of brand equity for cultural activities, in Spain, from the perspective of internal and external visitors (brand co-creation by different stakeholders). Findings suggest that external visitors attach greater importance to brand image than do internal visitors, whereas for the latter brand values are the main source of significance.	Past visitor brand loyalty, Perceived quality of the exhibition, Brand image, Event's brand values
Dickinson and Barker (2007)	The study researches evaluations of brand alliances and the subsequent spillover effects for brand partners. The research provides empirical support relating to reactions to brand alliances between nonprofit and commercial organizations, in terms of how pre-brand attitudes, the familiarity of the original brand, and perceived brand fit impacts brand alliance evaluations. While collaboration is important and has potential benefits for each partner, their success rests on partner selection and fit between them.	Brand attitudes, Brand familiarity
Faircloth (2005)	Based on a telephone survey, this exploratory research provides empirical evidence of the influence of brand equity on increasingly constrained resource provider decisions, after controlling the effects of altruistic volunteerism. An extension of the branding literature is made, adapted from the more common customer-based conceptualizations of Aaker (1991) and Keller (1993), while suggesting that brand equity has potential efficacy in the nonprofit context. Therefore, the scholars conclude that there is an opportunity for nonprofits to compete for vital resources by nurturing and leveraging their brand equity.	Brand personality (respect and differentiation), Brand image (character and scale), Brand awareness (recall and familiarity)
Hou et al. (2009)	This study researches the effects of nonprofit brand equity and the individual donor self-concept on individual giving intention. Based on a survey of 393 valid respondents in China, the empirical results indicated that 1) the three brand equity dimensions analyzed have a positive impact on individual giving intention, 2) brand personality and brand awareness of the nonprofit has a positive direct impact on the individual donor self-concept, 3) the individual donor self-concept has a positive direct impact on individual giving intention, 4) and the individual donor self-concept mediates significantly the relationships between brand personality, brand awareness and individual giving intention, while not significantly between brand image and individual giving intention.	Brand personality, Brand image, Brand awareness
Juntunen et al. (2013)	The study examines brand equity co-creation of a nonprofit entity, the Finnish Defense Forces Military Driving School. The research develops a successful model of co-created brand equity for nonprofits, based on the study of Davis et al. (2008). The research concluded that brand equity can be co-created by different stakeholders, both internal and external, with	Brand awareness, Brand image

	nonprofit brands having an important role in mediating relationships for co-creating meaning and experiences between stakeholders. While for internal stakeholders, military recruits actively engaged in the organization, brand awareness is more significant, for external stakeholders, logistic service providers (LSP) who have been a part of the organization, brand image has more importance.	
Laidler-Kylander and Simonin (2009)	This study creates an empirical model of brand equity for international nonprofit organizations, based on grounded theory and system dynamic approaches. The authors propose the first brand equity model designed by nonprofits and for nonprofit organizations. While highlighting the importance of internal branding, this research offers new guidelines for nonprofit brand-building activities that differ from those existing in the for-profit sector.	Consistency, Focus, Trust, Partnerships
Michaelidou et al. (2015)	Nonprofit brand image plays an important role in shaping stakeholders' charitable donations, and, therefore, nonprofits must be aware of how customers perceive them. This research examines nonprofit brand image while reporting on the findings from three previous empirical studies, including Michel and Rieunier's (2012) research, and aims to offer a better conceptualization and measurement of brand image within the nonprofit sector, consisting of six dimensions that are significantly related to the intentions of donating time and money to nonprofits.	Brand image (usefulness, efficiency, affect, dynamism, reliability and ethicality)
Michel and Rieunier (2012)	This research, applied to five different nonprofit organizations, examines the influence of brand image and nonprofit typicality on giving behavior, while creating a scale to measure the brand image of charities. The study concluded that brand image explains up to 31% of intentions to give money and 24% of intentions to give time. Nonprofit typicality explains up to 29% of intentions to give money and 23% of intentions to give time. The scholars, therefore, concluded the significant role that brand image and nonprofit typicality play in affecting donor behavior within nonprofits.	Brand image (usefulness, efficiency, affect and dynamism), Typicality of the nonprofit
Sargeant et al. (2007)	Charity brands have been found to assist income generation by enhancing donor understanding of an organization and what it stands for. This research, based on a large-scale postal survey of donors to 9 UK nonprofits, concluded that traits associated with benevolence, progression and conservatism were incapable of distinguishing between the study's participating brands. However, traits associated with emotional engagement, voice, service and tradition were capable of serving as the basis for differentiation and were linked to individual giving behavior.	Brand personality (benevolence, progression, conservatism, emotional engagement, voice, service and tradition)
Sargeant et al. (2006)	This paper provides the first marketing model of donor perceptions within nonprofit organizations and the resulting impact on donations. The roles played by trust and commitment in the nonprofit sector are different from those previously identified in the commercial context. Trust appears unrelated to the direct benefits (demonstrable, emotional and familial utility) that occur to donors in consequence of their donations. Instead, trust, and indirectly commitment, are based on the perceived benefits supplied to beneficiaries and how the impact of these benefits are communicated back to donors (performance and communication of the organization). In addition, the sequential dependency of commitment on trust found in the for-profit sector has not been fully replicated. Trust is found to be important, but there can be commitment in the nonprofit sector with just emotional and familial utilities.	Brand trust (demonstrable, emotional and familial utility), Brand commitment (performance, responsiveness and communication of the nonprofit organization)
Sargeant et al. (2008)	The study focuses on the values portrayed by the brand personality of nonprofits and its relationship with donor behavior. The scholars conclude, through a series of nine focus groups, that dimensions of personality apply at the nonprofit sector, both at the casual and organizational levels, and that the perception of specific categories of traits may be linked to individual giving behavior, such as emotional stimulation and performance.	Brand personality (emotional stimulation and performance)
Sargeant and Lee (2004)	This article explores the relationship between trust, commitment and giving behavior within nonprofit organizations. It operationalizes trust and commitment by developing measurement scales for each construct. The technique of structural equation modeling is used to determine whether trust directly affects giving behavior or whether its effects are mediated by commitment. It is concluded that commitment plays a mediating role and implications for nonprofit fundraising practice are discussed.	Brand trust, Brand commitment

Venable et al. (2005)	This research conducted six multimethod studies to examine, measure and validate the role of brand personality in nonprofit organizations as a means to strengthen their brands and market position, through differentiation and influencing potential donors' likelihood to donate.	Brand personality (sophistication, ruggedness, integrity and nurturance)

Source: Self-authorship

Table 29 – FLAD's Sample Gender

Gender	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Female	131	64,5	64,5	64,5
Male	72	35,5	35,5	100
Total	203	100	100	

Table 30 – FLAD's Sample Participation in the Foundation's Support

Have you ever benefited or applied for grants, awards and/or support from FLAD?	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
No	158	77,8	77,8	77,8
Yes	45	22,2	22,2	100
Total	203	100	100	

Table 31 – FLAD's Sample Qualifications

Qualifications	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Middle School	1	0,5	0,5	0,5
High School	11	5,4	5,4	5,9
Bachelor's	42	20,7	20,7	26,6
Post-Graduation	32	15,8	15,8	42,4
Master's	53	26,1	26,1	68,5
PhD	64	31,5	31,5	100
Total	203	100	100	

Table 32 – FLAD's Sample Nationality

Nationality	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Belgian	1	0,5	0,5	0,5
Spanish	1	0,5	0,5	1
British	1	0,5	0,5	1,5
Portuguese-British	1	0,5	0,5	2
Portuguese-Canadian	1	0,5	0,5	2,5
Another from the EU	1	0,5	0,5	3
American	2	1	1	4
Portuguese-American	2	1	1	5
Portuguese	193	95	95	100
Total	203	100	100	

Table 33 – FLAD's Sample Age

Age	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
≤ 25 years old	34	16,8	16,8	16,8
26-35 years old	37	18,2	18,2	35,0
36-45 years old	37	18,2	18,2	53,2
46-55 years old	52	25,6	25,6	78,8
56-65 years old	35	17,2	17,2	96,0
+ than 65 years old	8	4,0	4,0	100
Total	203	100	100	

Table 34 – FLAD's Sample Professional Activity

Professional Activity	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Academic	110	54	54	54
Non-Academic	93	46	46	100
Total	203	100	100	