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# **MULTI-STAKEHOLDER MARKET ORIENTATION AND MUSEUM PERFORMANCE: THE ROLE OF INNOVATION**



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Submitted in fulfilment of the requirements of the  
Degree of PhD in Management  
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## Abstract

This study introduces a novel multi-stakeholder approach to market orientation tailored for non-profit museums, addressing the unique demands of cultural institutions operating within resource-constrained environments like those in Indonesia. Recognising that practical market orientation requires more than a narrow focus on customers and competitors; this research expands the scope to include a broad range of stakeholders—such as donors, volunteers, visitors, and community partners—integrating them into strategic planning to foster adaptability, innovation, and socio-economic impact.

Using a Sequential Exploratory Design (SED), the study began with a systematic literature review to identify critical constructs within market orientation, viewed through stakeholder theory. In the qualitative phase, in-depth interviews with museum stakeholders helped to develop a framework highlighting the influence of diverse stakeholder relationships on market orientation. These insights led to hypotheses regarding the mediating role of innovation in the relationship between multi-stakeholder market orientation (MSMO) and performance, particularly in the non-profit context. In the quantitative phase, a survey tested these hypotheses, proving that innovation is a crucial intermediary, translating MSMO into measurable performance improvements.

Key findings indicate that innovation mediates the relationship between MSMO and performance and enhances museums' ability to meet stakeholder expectations and improve service delivery. Additionally, integrating MSMO with brand orientation (BO) strengthened stakeholder engagement, brand consistency, and mission alignment, supporting socio-economic impact and institutional resilience. This alignment allows museums to build stakeholder trust, differentiate their brand, and drive mission-aligned performance outcomes.

This study introduces MSMO as a strategic framework and offers practical guidance for museum leaders in Indonesia and similar developing markets. It demonstrates that a balanced approach incorporating both social objectives and economic sustainability can position museums as resilient, community-centred cultural institutions. These findings advance the literature on strategic orientations in non-profits and underline the role of MSMO and BO in enhancing museum performance and innovation.

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## Abstract

This study introduces a novel multi-stakeholder approach to market orientation, tailored for non-profit museums, addressing the unique demands of cultural institutions operating within resource-constrained environments, such as those in Indonesia. Recognising that effective market orientation requires more than a narrow focus on customers and competitors, this research expands the scope to include a broad range of stakeholders, such as donors, volunteers, visitors, and community partners, integrating them into strategic planning to foster adaptability, innovation, and socio-economic impact.

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as well as all other museums that have not yet had the opportunity to discuss and share knowledge.

*“...And when ye are told to rise up, rise up. Allah will raise up, to (suitable) ranks (and degrees), those of you who believe and who have been granted (mystic) Knowledge. And Allah is well-acquainted with all ye do” [Quran, 58:11].*

*“Proclaim! (or read!) in the name of thy Lord and Cherisher, Who created – Created man, out of a (mere) clot of congealed blood: Proclaim! And thy Lord is Most Bountiful, He Who taught (the use of) the pen, Taught man that which he knew not” [Quran, 96:1-5].*

## **Author's Declaration**

“I declare that, except where explicit reference is made to the contribution of others, that this dissertation is the result of my own work and has not been submitted for any other degree at the University of Glasgow or any other institution.”

Printed Name: Rizal Hari Magnadi

Signature:

## **Abbreviations**

BO - Brand Orientation

MO - Market Orientation

MSMO - Multi-Stakeholder Market Orientation

PLS - Partial Least Square

SED - Sequential Exploratory Design

SEM - Structural Equation Modelling

SLR - Systematic Literature Review

TLS - Transformational Leadership Style

# Chapter 1 Introduction

The field of market orientation has traditionally focused on for-profit organisations, resulting in a substantial body of literature (Blasco López et al., 2018; Recuero et al., 2017). However, research exploring market orientation within the nonprofit sector, particularly in museums, remains sparse. This thesis seeks to address this gap by empirically investigating and validating the constructs of multi-stakeholder market orientation within the museum context, providing a robust framework for nonprofit market orientation that incorporates a broader range of stakeholder needs. Through a sequential exploratory mixed-methods approach, a quantitative phase followed the qualitative data collection to validate the psychometric properties of the multi-stakeholder market orientation instrument (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2017). This thesis identifies six constructs of multi-stakeholder market orientation derived from an exhaustive literature review, all of which were quantitatively validated, thereby contributing a new model to the literature applicable and measurable within the nonprofit museum sector.

As nonprofit organisations, museums face unique performance measurement challenges due to their mission-based objectives, often evaluated through complex, multifaceted metrics. Unlike conventional market orientation approaches that focus solely on customer and competitor orientation, multi-stakeholder market orientation enables museums to consider broader stakeholder aspirations, addressing the satisfaction of visitors, donors, community members, and governmental entities. This broader orientation is essential in nonprofits, as traditional approaches may inadequately address the mission-based objectives that drive nonprofit success and sustainability (Ngo et al., 2023). Moreover, fostering innovation—a critical resource for sustainability—requires a supportive organisational culture, including transformational leadership and active stakeholder engagement.

Innovation is increasingly recognised as essential for performance in the nonprofit museum sector. Museums' performance, in particular, is evaluated through both social impact and economic sustainability. Social impact reflects a museum's contribution to the community's understanding of historical, present, and future contexts. The ability of a museum to present exhibitions that satisfy intellectual curiosity and provide meaningful experiences for visitors has a significant impact on visit frequency and community engagement. This reciprocal relationship fosters a unique branding dynamic where community trust and reputation are fundamental to museum sustainability (Voss & Voss, 2023).

However, relying solely on social impact may limit a museum's independence, as it depends on stakeholders' willingness to provide ongoing financial support. To ensure social and economic sustainability, museums must integrate market orientation with a performance framework supporting dual objectives. This shift necessitates a redefined approach to market orientation, combining social impact with financial self-sufficiency to create a balanced and resilient operational model.

Transformational leadership plays a crucial role in this process, enabling museums to establish strong multi-stakeholder market orientation while aligning organisational values with those of key stakeholders. Leaders who adopt a transformational approach can drive stakeholder engagement by cultivating a shared vision and promoting collaborative partnerships, facilitating a mutual understanding of the museum's goals and fostering long-term loyalty (Wang et al., 2022). Studies show that such leadership amplifies the effects of multi-stakeholder market orientation, fostering an innovative environment essential for nonprofit sustainability (Kaplan & Haenlein, 2022; Harrison et al., 2023).

Thus, the shift from purely social objectives toward a combined focus on social and economic outcomes demands a strategic alignment of multi-stakeholder market orientation, brand orientation, and transformational leadership. These elements enable museums to remain adaptable and innovative, securing financial and social sustainability through digital engagement, community outreach, and educational initiatives. Ultimately, this integrated approach positions museums to leverage market orientation effectively within a nonprofit framework, enhancing both performance and mission-driven impact in ways that align with the evolving expectations of diverse stakeholders (Kaplan & Haenlein, 2022).

## **1.1 Research Background**

Nonprofit organisations (NPOs), or non-business entities or nonprofit institutions, are legally structured to serve a collective, public, or social benefit rather than generating profit for owners or shareholders (Ciconte & Jacob, 2009; United et al. Division, 1993). Such organisations typically embody five defining characteristics: they are organised in an institutionalised manner, separate from government, non-profit-distributing (reinvesting any profits into their mission), self-governing, and voluntary in terms of participation (Salamon & Anheier, 1992, 1997). The National Council of Voluntary Organisations (NCVO) further emphasises that nonprofits should meet additional criteria, including formality, independence from the state, public benefit, and reliance on voluntary participation.



Nonprofit organisations must demonstrate performance to fulfil their accountability, attract resources, and provide direction for their mission while enhancing their competitive advantage (Herman & Renz, 2008). Stakeholders—donors, beneficiaries, and community members—expect transparency in the allocation of resources and the outcomes achieved. Practical performance demonstrations build trust with stakeholders and enable nonprofits to effectively communicate their impact, attracting further support and establishing a competitive edge within the sector. Strategic marketing is central to this process, helping align organisational messaging with stakeholder expectations to showcase success, attract resources, and maintain mission focus (Ebrahim & Rangan, 2014; Modi & Mishra, 2010; Andreasen, 2006).

Recent literature underscores advancements in nonprofit marketing, particularly in multi-stakeholder engagement. Effective stakeholder relationships are crucial for ensuring sustained support and understanding the dynamic needs and aspirations of diverse stakeholder groups. However, existing studies often focus on limited stakeholder groups, failing to capture the complex landscape nonprofits navigate (Shehu et al., 2024). Technological advancements, particularly in digital platforms, have also significantly influenced nonprofit marketing, necessitating a shift in resource allocation toward online presence to maintain relevance (Liu et al., 2024). Furthermore, shifts in generational behaviour, particularly among millennials with a preference for advocacy and prosocial actions, present new opportunities for nonprofit engagement (Chell et al., 2024). Nevertheless, stakeholders often express concerns about appearing disingenuous or self-promotional in their support for causes, a perception that nonprofits must address to sustain authentic relationships (Yang & Hsee, 2022).

In today's landscape, nonprofits and for-profit entities increasingly address social needs, often through collaboration on socially beneficial projects (Berry et al., 2024). This partnership has the potential to encourage diverse stakeholder engagement, enhancing nonprofits' capacity to address complex social issues and bolstering volunteer engagement through brand management that focuses on stakeholder interests (Mitchell, 2023). However, nonprofits must address the evolving concerns of long-term supporters, balancing hope and fear as they involve stakeholders in organisational programs (Chowdhury & Septianto, 2023).

In dynamic environments where social needs, donor expectations, and regulations constantly evolve, innovation is crucial for nonprofits to remain relevant. Innovation fosters sustainable solutions, optimises resource use, and enhances program outcomes, allowing nonprofits to achieve their missions and promote long-term resilience. By exploring new engagement strategies and revenue-generation avenues, nonprofits adapt to changing contexts and strengthen

their capacity to serve diverse stakeholders effectively. Leadership plays a central role in fostering this innovative culture, with leaders who encourage curiosity and collaborative problem-solving driving significant performance improvements (Kaplan & Haenlein, 2022).

Marketing within museum contexts presents unique challenges. Traditional marketing approaches focusing solely on physical exhibitions are insufficient; museums must now consider the broader social relevance of their collections and programming. Museum stakeholders are increasingly valuing an institution's connection to current societal issues, demanding more involvement in shaping museum offerings to align with public interest (San-Jose et al., 2022). Museums are thus transforming to become more responsive to stakeholder relationships, particularly with the rise of digital platforms that expand public access and interaction (Nguyen et al., 2023). This shift necessitates a strategic market orientation, coupled with effective brand management, to engage a broader range of online and offline stakeholders (Ranfagni et al., 2023).

Effective museum management must strike a balance between traditional exhibition practices and innovative approaches that address contemporary social issues and incorporate advanced business models. While digital tools have successfully supported museum exhibitions, limited resources, particularly in terms of human capital and leadership capabilities, remain a persistent challenge (Wang & Meng, 2023). For museums to remain relevant, they must adopt a strategic market orientation that considers the diverse values and expectations of their stakeholders, focusing on understanding and addressing each group's unique needs and desires (Gurel & Michaud, 2024; Wang et al., 2024).

Strategic marketing in nonprofits is increasingly viewed through the lens of stakeholder theory. Freeman's Stakeholder Theory (1984) argues that an organisation should prioritise the interests of all stakeholders, not just those of shareholders, making stakeholder satisfaction fundamental to long-term success. Hillebrand, Driessen, and Koll (2015) build on this, asserting that stakeholder orientation in strategic marketing enhances adaptability and reputation. In nonprofits, stakeholder-driven marketing strategies are crucial, as they align mission-focused efforts with the needs of donors, volunteers, and the community, thereby enhancing trust and support (Modi & Mishra, 2010; Brennan et al., 2011; Liu et al., 2020).

Unlike many other institutions, museums attract visitors from diverse backgrounds, each with unique values and expectations, making their marketing efforts particularly challenging. To appeal to traditional audiences and newer demographics unfamiliar with museum culture,

museums require sophisticated marketing strategies, including audience analysis, resource allocation, and long-term planning (Anderson, 1982; McLean, 1995). Relationship marketing within museums further strengthens visitor loyalty by fostering trust and meaningful partnerships (Chong, 2007; Rentschler & Radbourne, 2008). Digital platforms and social media offer cost-effective ways for museums to enhance these interactions; however, many institutions lack formal digital strategies, which limits visitor engagement (Lehman & Roach, 2011). Thus, effective digital presence, carefully planned and strategically implemented, is vital for cultivating museum-visitor relationships and encouraging retention (Camarero & Garrido, 2011; López et al., 2010).

The evolution of market orientation research has primarily centred on for-profit sectors (Shoham et al., 2006). However, nonprofit organisations face unique challenges when implementing market orientation, particularly balancing mission-driven goals with stakeholder engagement. Research on nonprofits has begun to explore how multi-stakeholder market orientation (MSMO) broadens traditional market orientation by encompassing not only customers and competitors but a more comprehensive array of stakeholders critical to organisational success (Line & Wang, 2017; Ferrell et al., 2010). In the nonprofit domain, MSMO is essential, as it allows organisations to reconcile diverse stakeholder needs and achieve social and economic sustainability (Padanyi & Gainer, 2004; Reynolds-Pearson & Hyman, 2020).

By strategically aligning MSMO with brand orientation, nonprofits can leverage market and stakeholder engagement to achieve an enhanced impact. This thesis proposes that innovation mediates the relationship between multi-stakeholder market orientation and organisational performance. To optimise performance, a multi-stakeholder market orientation should be complemented by brand orientation, aligning external market demands with the internal organisational identity. Moreover, transformational leadership and stakeholder engagement are posited to strengthen this alignment, facilitating innovation and enhancing the resilience of nonprofits. In this framework, leadership fosters a supportive culture that promotes innovation, which is vital for achieving mission-oriented success in a rapidly changing environment (Chad et al., 2013; Wymer et al., 2015; Hersberger-Langloh, 2020).

This thesis argues that a complementary strategic orientation—integrating outside-in (market orientation) and inside-out (brand orientation) perspectives—drives nonprofit performance by creating a cohesive approach to stakeholder engagement and innovation. This combination

addresses the unique challenges nonprofits face, allowing them to adapt and thrive in competitive landscapes while meeting the complex needs of diverse stakeholders.

## 1.2 Research Objectives

Based on the background discussed, this thesis pursues several key research objectives:

- To develop a comprehensive framework for multi-stakeholder market orientation tailored explicitly to the museum context, addressing nonprofit museums' unique stakeholder landscape and strategic imperatives.
- To design and validate a measurement instrument for assessing museums' stakeholder orientation, advancing traditional nonprofit market orientation models to reflect museum stakeholders' diverse roles and positions within a market-oriented framework.
- To construct an integrated framework encompassing innovation, transformational leadership, and stakeholder engagement as essential drivers of museum performance, providing a theoretical foundation for enhancing strategic alignment and impact within the nonprofit museum sector.

These objectives aim to bridge existing gaps in market orientation literature within the nonprofit domain by introducing a tailored approach for museums that aligns stakeholder orientation with innovation and leadership strategies to drive organisational performance.

## 1.3 Research Methodology

This study employs an exploratory sequential mixed-methods design guided by a pragmatist paradigm to achieve its research aims. Sequential exploratory mixed methods are particularly useful in research contexts where preliminary qualitative insights are necessary to inform subsequent quantitative measures. This design allows for an in-depth exploration of complex phenomena and the subsequent validation of findings across broader samples (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018; Shannon-Baker, 2016). Here, qualitative methods, including in-depth interviews, were initially conducted to conceptualise a model integrating multi-stakeholder market orientation with brand orientation to enhance museum organisational performance. Following this, quantitative surveys were administered to test the derived conceptual model among a sample of museum managers in Indonesia, where the study is set.

Indonesia, the largest economy in Southeast Asia, spans over 17,000 islands and boasts extensive ethnic diversity, with more than 1,300 recognised tribes and 300 local languages, embodying a rich cultural heritage (Indonesia.go.id; BBC News, 2019). Since its independence in 1945, Indonesia has maintained a vibrant cultural identity, where museums play a pivotal role in preserving and promoting this heritage. Tourism significantly contributes to Indonesia's economy, adding approximately USD 19.7 billion to the GDP in 2019, with museums acting as critical educational and cultural sites for locals and international visitors (World Bank, 2020). However, many Indonesian museums face challenges in management, performance, and visitor engagement, despite their cultural value. Of the 435 registered museums, nearly 100 are underperforming, primarily due to limited resources and management issues, especially among government-owned museums that constitute around 80% of the total (setkab.go.id; lipi.go.id).

In response to these challenges, this study proposes that Indonesian museums must prioritise creativity, innovation, and strategic thinking to foster better visitor engagement and financial sustainability. While physical renovations are beneficial, museums in Indonesia must also focus on service quality improvement to remain competitive and relevant in today's dynamic tourism and cultural landscape (Antara News, 2021; Liputan6, 2021). Experts in Indonesia have increasingly called for museums to adopt a strategic approach to management, emphasising the need for operational innovation and a multi-stakeholder perspective in achieving sustainable performance outcomes (news.unair.ac.id).

This investigation employs a sequential exploratory mixed methods approach, beginning with in-depth qualitative interviews to develop a model that emphasises the importance of implementing a multi-stakeholder perspective in market orientation. This model further proposes the synergistic role of market orientation (MO) and brand orientation (BO) in driving organisational performance, with innovation as a mediating factor. Subsequently, Indonesian museum managers tested this conceptual model quantitatively to validate its efficacy. By drawing on theories from services marketing, nonprofit marketing, stakeholder theory, and organisational theory, this study aims to (1) examine the complementary effects of multi-stakeholder market orientation and brand orientation on organisational performance, (2) highlight the crucial role of innovation within market orientation literature, and (3) explore the moderating effects of transformational leadership style and stakeholder engagement on the relationship between strategic orientation and innovation.

In the proposed model, transformational leadership style and stakeholder engagement are posited as moderators, enhancing the effects of the complementary strategic orientation

(MSMO and BO) on museum performance. The literature review critically evaluates foundational theories on market orientation and its impact on performance in both for-profit and nonprofit contexts, followed by a systematic literature review to address research gaps related to each key variable.

This thesis proposes a more precise conceptualisation of market orientation in nonprofit contexts specifically tailored for museums. This research offers prescriptive insights for managers, suggesting strategic approaches to optimising organisational performance through combined strategic orientations while underscoring the essential mediating role of innovation.

## 1.4 Expected Contributions

This thesis contributes to the growing body of research on nonprofit innovation by examining how a synergy between strategic orientations—specifically, multi-stakeholder market orientation (MSMO) and brand orientation—can enhance nonprofit performance while promoting innovation. Nonprofit innovation is increasingly recognised as essential for organisational resilience and sustainability in a dynamic environment (Ngo et al., 2023). By examining the role of innovation as a mediating factor, this study adds to current understandings of nonprofit performance. It highlights innovation as a core component that allows organisations to adapt to changing social needs while remaining mission-focused.

The synergy between market orientation and brand orientation emerges as a significant focus of this thesis, offering a new perspective within nonprofit marketing studies. According to Voss and Voss (2023), combining these orientations can create a strategic balance that enhances the organisation's ability to meet stakeholder expectations and drive social impact. Brand orientation, particularly in conjunction with market orientation, enables nonprofits to strengthen stakeholder relationships by consistently clarifying and communicating their mission and values across various stakeholder groups (Kaplan & Haenlein, 2022). This alignment improves trust and contributes to a distinctive, mission-aligned brand identity that attracts support and fosters long-term sustainability.

Furthermore, this thesis expands the application of stakeholder theory within nonprofit marketing by advancing a multi-stakeholder perspective that considers the complex and varied needs of internal and external stakeholders. Traditionally focused on customer and competitor orientations, market orientation in the nonprofit sector must accommodate a broader range of stakeholders to achieve social and economic goals. This thesis builds on Freeman's Stakeholder

Theory (1984) by applying it within a nonprofit context. It examines how a multi-stakeholder approach to market orientation can meet diverse stakeholder expectations and improve resource alignment for increased impact (Harrison et al., 2023). Recent studies also underscore that incorporating stakeholder engagement within strategic orientations can foster a shared mission, motivating employees and external supporters toward innovative solutions that enhance nonprofit performance (Modi & Mishra, 2023).

Additionally, this research addresses a critical gap in market orientation literature regarding the moderating roles of transformational leadership and stakeholder engagement. Transformational leadership emerges as essential in facilitating a supportive culture that promotes collaboration and innovation, thereby bridging the aspirations of internal and external stakeholders (Wang et al., 2023). By integrating these perspectives, this thesis not only extends the application of stakeholder theory to nonprofit marketing but also proposes a nuanced model of strategic orientation synergy that is directly relevant to the nonprofit sector's unique challenges.

## **1.5 Thesis Structure**

This thesis comprises seven chapters structured to guide the reader through the research focus, theoretical foundation, methodology, findings, and contributions. Chapter 1 introduces the research focus, identifies critical gaps in the literature, outlines the research objectives, describes the methodology, anticipates the contributions, and provides an overview of the thesis structure. Chapter 2 provides a comprehensive literature review, synthesising market orientation studies across for-profit and nonprofit contexts and examining the relationship between market orientation and organisational performance. This chapter also highlights gaps within the market orientation literature, setting the stage for the research's focus on the nonprofit sector.

Chapter 3 details the methodological approach, covering the philosophical foundations, research aims, design, contextual background, role of the researcher, research questions, and the chosen methods. Chapter 4 identifies the diverse stakeholders in the museum sector and explores their influence on museum market orientation, performance, and innovation through interviews conducted with various stakeholders within Indonesia's museum industry.

Chapter 5 presents an in-depth analysis and discussion of the findings, linking them to the literature reviewed in Chapter 2. It compares qualitative and quantitative findings, highlighting areas of convergence between existing literature and empirical evidence from this research. This chapter also proposes a future research agenda based on the insights gained from the study.

Chapter 6 serves as the conclusion, summarising the research questions, discussing critical findings about the identified literature gaps, and outlining the study's theoretical and managerial contributions. Additionally, this chapter addresses the study's limitations and suggests implications for practice and further research avenues.



## **Chapter 2 Literature Review**

### **2.1 Introduction**

In the introduction chapter, the goals and purpose of the thesis were explained, along with why it was essential to look at marketing activities and specifically practical examples of the Market Orientation (MO) approach and implementation in contemporary museums, which has not been done much in the past. In the first part of this chapter, the evolution of MO studies over the past fifteen years is reviewed, especially the main findings from essential studies, including research articles and literature review works. After reviewing the original MO construct in for-profit and non-profit settings, the chapter discusses the idea of stakeholder orientation in museums. The chapter goes on to talk about how innovation has grown in nonprofits and museums. The critical evaluation of transformational leadership style, stakeholder engagement, and possible moderating factors will also be discussed. At the end of the chapter, the main points are summed up, and the research gaps concerning previous studies are pointed out.

A museum needs to adopt MO to achieve performance by helping it better understand and respond to the needs and preferences of diverse stakeholders, including visitors, donors, and the community. MO helps museums align their offerings with stakeholder needs, increasing visitor satisfaction, donor support, and community engagement. By adopting a market-oriented approach, museums improve their competitiveness and strengthen their role as cultural institutions within their communities, ultimately enhancing their sustainability and mission impact.

### **2.2 Market Orientation: Systematic Literature Review**

#### **2.2.1 SLR Protocol**

A new systematic literature review (SLR) is necessary to address critical gaps in market orientation research, particularly within the context of nonprofit organisations and museums. Over the past decade, the landscape of nonprofit organisations has evolved significantly, influenced by increased competition for funding, greater scrutiny on transparency, and the growing expectation for these organisations to demonstrate measurable social impact (Modi & Mishra, 2010; Shoham et al., 2006). Traditional market orientation research primarily focuses on for-profit contexts, which may not directly translate to mission-driven organisations such as museums, where value is created not through profit but through public service, education, and cultural preservation (Nguyen et al., 2023). Additionally, studies like those of Voss and Voss

(2000) suggest that museums operate in unique environments where market demands must be balanced with curatorial responsibilities. An updated SLR is essential to capture the nuances of market orientation in these sectors, providing insights that align more closely with their distinct operational, financial, and strategic challenges.

Further, existing market orientation literature on nonprofits and museums is fragmented, with limited synthesis of findings across diverse study contexts. For example, applying market orientation within nonprofit settings has revealed conflicting perspectives on whether the emphasis should be on donor satisfaction, community engagement, or operational efficiency (Harrison & Moore, 2023). A new SLR would systematically analyse and integrate these findings to identify patterns, gaps, and emerging themes. This synthesis is critical as digital transformation and social innovation have reshaped how nonprofits and museums engage with stakeholders, raising questions about how market orientation frameworks can evolve to incorporate digital and social goals (Liao et al., 2021). An updated SLR would provide a valuable, evidence-based foundation for future research and practice, offering nonprofit managers and museum directors actionable strategies for building market-oriented cultures adaptable to modern demands and aligned with their missions.

When compared to empirical reports, literature reviews can address more general and abstract issues, engage in more post hoc theorising without running the risk of profiting from chance, support the null hypothesis more persuasively, and recognise and employ methodological variety more effectively (Baumeister & Leary, 1997). The rate of knowledge production in business research is increasing dramatically, yet it is still fragmented and interdisciplinary. This makes it challenging to stay on the cutting edge of research, to remain current with best practices, and to evaluate the body of evidence in a specific field of business research (Snyder, 2019). A systematic review process is taken to produce a reliable knowledge stock and enhanced practice by developing context-sensitive research (Tranfield et al., 2003). Furthermore, systematic reviews are a vital methodology for clarifying whether and how research findings replicate and for explaining possible inconsistencies (Siddaway et al., 2019).

This chapter describes the techniques and steps involved in conducting a systematic literature review, beginning with locating pertinent reviews after selecting keywords and using a dependable literature database. The collected articles were then meticulously reviewed for their titles, abstracts, and keywords before being curated. After carefully analysing several inclusion and exclusion criteria, the articles are chosen. The substance of each article is checked in its entirety once the articles have been reduced. The last stage is to critically evaluate the final

selection of articles to find areas that need more investigation and lay the groundwork for the following chapter. The SLR research questions to guide the review are:

- To review the market orientation literature that covers both the for-profit and nonprofit sector
- To discuss and integrate the implementation of market orientation and its relation with performance with innovation as the mediating variable
- To discuss and integrate the conceptualisation and implementation of market orientation using a stakeholder perspective

This section of the systematic literature review draws mainly from the selected market orientation literature from the last 17 years. It is composed to obtain a better overview of the current knowledge concerning MO, especially regarding not-for-profits and museums. To get an overview of the most recent developments in the literature since the early 1990s, the systematic literature review on market orientation will concentrate on the previous seventeen years, from 2007 to 2024.

**Figure 2-1 Systematic Literature Review Protocol for Market Orientation**

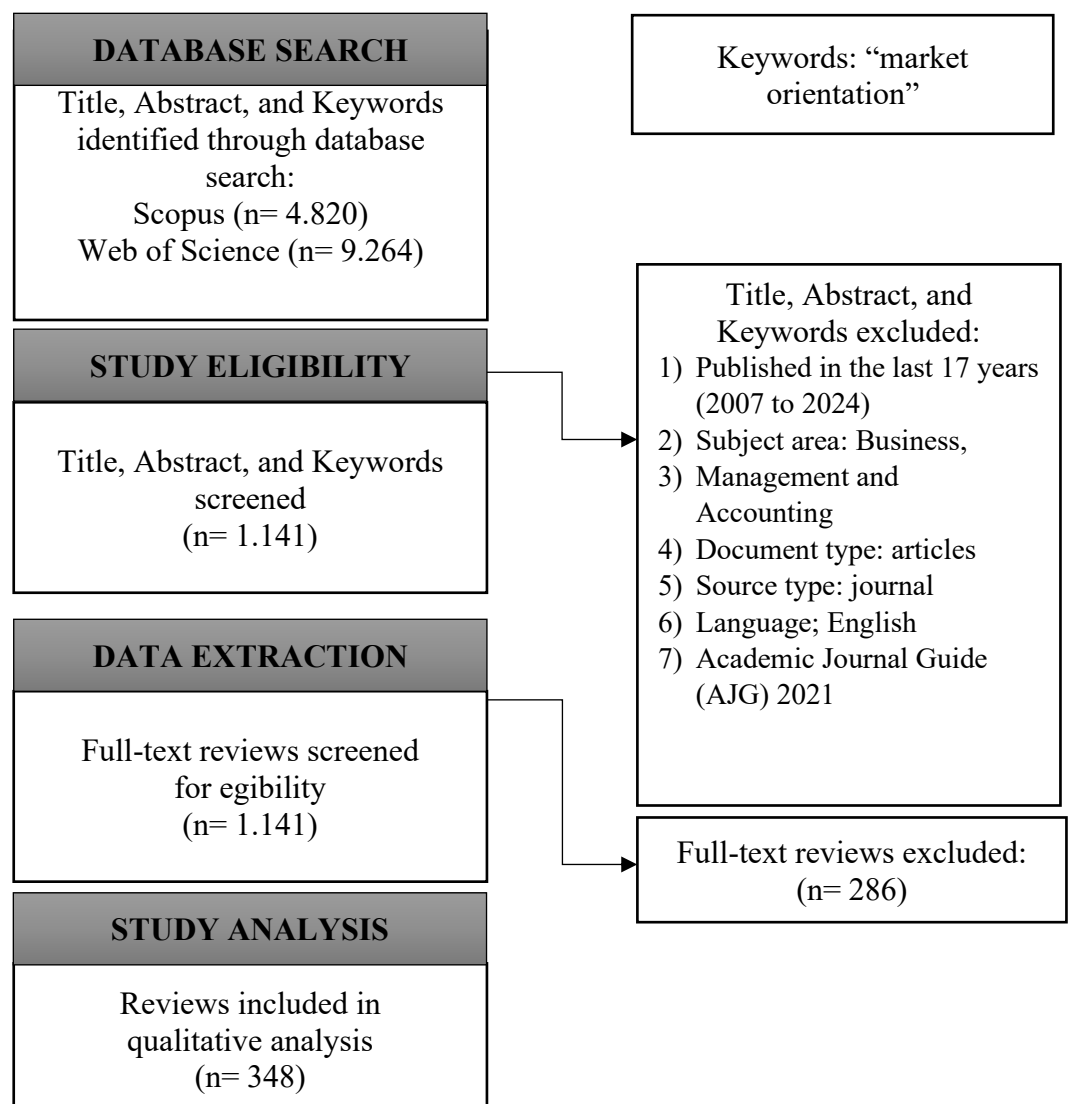


Figure 2-2 SLR Inclusion Criteria and Background

SLR Inclusion Criteria	Criteria Details	Reasons
Year of Publication	2007-2024	Existing systematic reviews, meta-analyses, and bibliometric studies on market orientation in both for-profit and nonprofit sectors primarily focus on the period up to 2006. This range (2007-2024) allows for including more recent insights that reflect current developments in market orientation.
Subject Area	Business, Management, Social Sciences, Economics, Econometrics, Finance, Decision Sciences, Arts and Humanities	To ensure comprehensive coverage of the for-profit and nonprofit sectors, including various disciplines such as management, social sciences, and the arts, allows for a wider scope of market-oriented applications, themes, and settings.
Document Type	Article	Articles in peer-reviewed journals are selected as they meet rigorous academic standards, enhancing reliability and quality.
Source Title	ABS Journal Rank 2021	Journals ranked by ABS are recognised globally for their originality, significance, and methodological rigour, ensuring that the review

SLR Inclusion Criteria	Criteria Details	Reasons
Source Type	Journal	encompasses high-impact and credible sources.
		Journal articles are selected for their accessibility, standardisation, and peer-reviewed quality, facilitating reliable data synthesis.
Language	English	English-language publications are included to ensure accessibility to a global audience and facilitate broad academic dissemination and discussion.

## 2.2.2 SLR Results

### 2.2.2.1 The Evolution of MO

In the marketing literature, market orientation can be considered one topic of growing interest to many researchers and practitioners. Practitioners in marketing, in particular and management, in general, have been supporting the idea of creating superior value for customers as a goal of the company through MO, as it can show the marketing department's contribution to a firm (Verhoef & Leeflang, 2009), especially in a way to achieve organisation performance (Frosen et al., 2016). To successfully implement a market orientation approach, the company must develop its marketing capabilities and maintain a competitive advantage (Murray et al., 2011). Firms implementing market orientation will potentially satisfy customer's current and future needs (Ketchen et al., 2007).

Table 2-3 summarises the most widely accepted and used definitions of MO. The first conceptualisation of market orientation was in a study by Kohli and Jaworski (1990), who took an activities-based view and defined market orientation as “*the organization-wide generation of market intelligence about current and future customer needs, dissemination of the intelligence across departments, and organization-wide responsiveness to it.*” (Kohli and Jaworski, 1990, p.6) They considered market orientation as a set of firm-level behaviours; therefore,

organisational performance can be improved by managing the behaviour correctly. Many studies will follow the initial work on MO by Kohli and Jaworski (1990), which can be categorised as a behaviour market orientation school of thought. (Rokkan, 2023)

Meanwhile, Narver and Slater (1990) focused on the culture of the organisation and defined MO as “the organisation culture that most effectively and efficiently creates the necessary behaviours for the creation of superior value for buyers and, thus, continuous superior performance for the business”. Narver and Slater (1990) also identified three behavioural components of MO, “competitor orientation, a customer orientation, and inter-functional coordination”. Using the 15-item MKTOR scale, they identified that higher levels of market orientation resulted in business performance improvement.

This means that managers and employees believe customer value creation will likely be performance-driven (Harris & Ogbonna, 2001; Homburg & Pflesser, 2000). Hence, it is essential to note that two contrasting perspectives are used when studying market orientation: corporate culture versus firm-level behaviours. The definition of MO, later refined by Slater and Narver (1995) later article is “*the culture that (1) places the highest priority on the profitable creation and maintenance of superior customer value while considering the interests of other key stakeholders, and (2) provides norms for behaviour regarding the organisational development of and responsiveness to market information.*” (Narver, 1995, p.67). The work by Narver and Slater (1990) also will be followed by many studies (Deshpande & Farley, 1998; Homburg & Pflesser, 2000; Harris, 1999; Gatignon & Xuereb, 1997)) and can be categorised as a cultural market orientation school of thought.

Another significant perspective of MO was described by prominent market orientation studies, such as Ruekert (1992), Deshpande et al. (1993), Day (1994), and Shapiro (1998). According to Ruekert (1992), a firm can obtain and use customer information, develop a strategy to meet customer needs and wants, and implement an appropriate responsive strategy. Meanwhile, Deshpande et al. (1993) defined market orientation as “*the set of beliefs that puts the customer’s interest first, while not excluding those of all other stakeholders, such as owners, managers, and employees, to develop a long-term profitable enterprise.*” (Deshpande et al. 1993, 27). Day (1994, p. 4) defined market orientation as a business culture characterised by superior skills in understanding and satisfying customers.

**Figure 2-3 Definitions of Market Orientation**

<b>Studies</b>	<b>Definitions</b>
Narver and Slater (1990)	Market orientation is “the business culture that most effectively and efficiently creates the necessary behaviours for the creation of superior value to customers.” (p.20). Market orientation “consists of three behavioural components: customer orientation, competitor orientation, and inter-functional coordination; and two decision criteria: long-term focus and profitability.” (p.21)
Kohli and Jaworski (1990)	“Market orientation is the organization-wide generation of market intelligence about current and future customer needs, dissemination of the intelligence across departments, and organization-wide responsiveness to it.” (p.6)
Ruekert (1992)	Market orientation is the business unit having the degree to which the business unit (1) obtains and uses information from customers, (2) develops a strategy which will meet customer needs, and (3) implements that strategy by being responsive to customer needs and wants (p.228)
Deshpande, Farley, and Webster (1993)	Market orientation is a business culture that considers customer orientation as “the set of beliefs that puts the customer’s interest first, while not excluding those of all other stakeholders such as owners, managers, and employees, to develop a long-term profitable enterprise.” (p.27)
Day (1994)	Market orientation is a business culture represented by superior skills in understanding and satisfying customers” (p.37)
Shapiro (1998)	Market orientation is a company considering “information on all important buying influences permeates every corporate function” (p.120) “Strategic and tactical decisions are made inter-functionally and inter-divisionally” (p.121), and divisions and functions make well-coordinated decisions and execute them with a sense of commitment (p.122)

Lastly, Shapiro (1998, p.120-122) defined market orientation as a company that considers “information on all important buying influences permeates every corporate function,” “Strategic and tactical decisions are made inter-functionally and inter-divisionally,” and “divisions and functions make well-coordinated decisions and execute them with a sense of commitment.” In

later developments, many researchers have demonstrated the importance of MO and its strong link to the company's performance (Goldman & Grinstein, 2010; Liao et al., 2011).

In Market Orientation literature, researchers (Kohli and Jaworski (1990); Narver and Slater (1990); Deshpande, Farley, and Webster (1998); Ruekert (1992), and Saphiro (1988) believe in the superior value of customers as the fundamental of organisational performance, regardless of the different perspectives to achieve it. This will lead to the reconciled school of thought in market orientation that views behavioural and cultural approaches as being integrated and complementary.

In the literature on market orientation, scholars have explored the integration of behavioural and cultural perspectives, recognising that these approaches can complement and enhance each other. Organisational culture influences market-oriented behaviours, which in turn affect performance outcomes. There is an interplay between cultural values and behavioural practices in fostering market orientation (Homburg & Pflesser, 2000). Therefore, integrating these perspectives provides a more comprehensive understanding of how market orientation influences firm performance (Kirca et al., 2005). Additionally, firms must develop market orientation through cultural transformation and behavioural change.

Cultural shifts are essential for sustaining market-oriented behaviours, underscoring the complementary nature of both approaches (Gebhardt et al., 2006). A strong market-oriented culture fosters behaviours that enhance business performance, suggesting that cultural and behavioural elements are interdependent (Harris, 2001).

In the initial phase of market orientation literature, the emphasis was on defining market orientation and its dimensions. Defining market orientation subsequently involves analysing it in various contexts to achieve generalisation and broader acceptance. Numerous studies have systematically reviewed significant research and documented the development of market orientation from 1990 to 2007, including the contributions of Hurley and Hult (1998), Homburg and Pflesser (2000), Lafferty and Hult (2001), Cano et al. (2004), Kirca et al. (2005), and Ellis (2006). The subsequent summary of several literature reviews will serve as the foundation for the current systematic review in this thesis.

The first literature work presented here is the work by Hurley and Hult (1998). In market orientation literature, the relationship between market orientation (MO) and innovation is one of the most important studies, which supports a firm in accommodating a learning organisation. In



the conceptual paper from 9.658 employees and 56 non-profit organisations in the USA, Hurley and Hult (1998) find that a “higher level of innovativeness in a firm’s culture is associated with a greater capacity for adaptation and innovation”. Additionally, Hurley and Hult explain that the culture supporting innovation is one that focuses its attention on learning activities, continually develops, and facilitates participatory decision-making.

Previously, Slater and Narver (1995) stated that a market-oriented organisation is also an ongoing learning activity that changes firms’ members’ behaviour to find ways to improve firms’ performance. Furthermore, as customers’ needs change dynamically, innovative products are how market-oriented firms respond. With a speed to respond and an effective way to fulfil the needs after implementing a learning activity, the chance to achieve more significant performance is higher. In response to their findings, Hurley and Hult (1998) attempt to fill a gap left by Narver and Slater (1995) by separating innovation and learning. Hurley and Hult (1998) define innovation as the implementation of new ideas, products, or processes and learning as the development of knowledge and insights (Hurley & Hult, 1998).

Hurley and Hult (1998) explain that organisational innovativeness is critical to market orientation, especially in dynamic environments where customer needs continuously evolve. According to their research, an innovative organisation must encourage participative decision-making, foster a culture that prepares members to be adaptable innovators, and actively engage in the change process to set new behaviours that build a competitive advantage (Hurley & Hult, 1998). In line with this, Harris and Ogbonna (2001) emphasise the role of leadership in cultivating a market-driven organisation that responds effectively and efficiently to its external environment. Leaders must actively build an organisation capable of adjusting to external changes, promoting a market-oriented culture that can anticipate and adapt to shifts in customer and competitive demands (Harris & Ogbonna, 2001).

Lafferty and Hult (2001) proposed an integrative effort that combines five established perspectives on market-oriented literature, as presented by Kohli and Jaworski (1990), Narver and Slater (1990), Deshpande et al. (1998), Ruekert (1992), and Shapiro (1988). They classified these five perspectives into five categories: decision-making perspective, market intelligence perspective, culturally based behavioural perspective, strategic perspective, and customer orientation perspective. In this vein, the decision-making perspective is related to a significant aspect of information known as shared information. All functions or divisions must recognise, confirm, and use the shared information to make an open decision-making process. Open decision-making extends to the contribution and collective agreement of all functional divisions

involved. Consequently, all organization members must commit to the decisions made through an open decision-making process. The second perspective, market intelligence, focuses on the information value disseminated from a source to users. The process consists of three steps: generating, distributing, and responding to information. The three steps form a system for managing information, ensuring everyone has access and uses it to achieve organisational objectives. The culturally-based behavioural perspective has three elements or dimensions: customer orientation, competitor orientation, and inter-functional coordination. Customer orientation is related to an understanding of the current and future needs of the customer. Competitor orientation is the ability to recognise and analyse the position taken by competitors and make specific decisions for the company. Inter-functional coordination is related to resources available (members and departments/divisions) and their contribution to creating a certain level of value for the customer. The dynamic among all departments involved needs to be improved over time. The strategic, focused perspective differentiates itself by focusing solely on the strategic business unit, whereas the other perspective is more focused on corporate or individual levels of analysis. External information related to the customer is then processed internally to set the objectives and allocate resources available at the business unit level. After that, the business unit level sets the plan to focus on the customer. Finally, the organisation will respond to the business unit-level plan to implement and execute a decision. The customer orientation perspective does not include competitors who focus on market orientation. However, inter-functional coordination is considered a part of customer orientation and is included in this perspective. According to this perspective, customer orientation is a component of corporate culture, as defined by Narver and Slater (1990).

After synthesising the similarities and differences of all available perspectives, Lafferty and Hult (2001) list them into four conditions. (1) all emphasis on customers, (2) the importance of shared knowledge (information), (3) inter-functional coordination of marketing activities and relationships, and (4) being responsive to market activities by taking the appropriate action.

The relationship between MO and business performance has been analysed on five continents after a meta-analysis by Cano et al. (2004). Cano et al. (2004) examine several moderating variables of the relationship between MO and business performance, such as business objectives, industry type, and socio-economic development. Some significant findings proposed are the high level of correlation between market orientation and business performance for (1) non-profit compared to profit, and (2) service firms compared to manufacturing firms. Cano et al. (2004) also find several moderating factors in the relationship between MO and performance, including contextual and measurement types. Moderators labelled as contextual

include cultural dimensions, profit/non-profit objectives, and service versus manufacturing. On the other hand, measurement moderating factors include MKTOR and MARKOR, the two well-established scale measurements in MO literature.

The third literature review work summarised here is the study by Kirca et al. (2005). One of the marketing contributions to a firm's strategic direction is the relationship between market orientation and performance (Kirca et al., 2005). Firms will have the ability to realise significantly more significant pay-offs in business performance terms when critical marketing input in all areas of the strategy formation process (from goal setting to strategy selection) is utilised in comparison with those firms where marketing does not make such a meaningful contribution to strategy formation (Morgan et al., 2000). Executives of firms need to have a clear understanding of the essential marketing capabilities the company must possess to achieve optimal performance (Tollin and Schmidt, 2015).

Ellis's meta-analysis (2006), a fourth literature review summarised here, identifies significant findings compared to those of Cano et al. (2004). Ellis (2006) discovered that the MARKOR scale outperformed the MKTOR scale based on statistical tests. Market orientation also correlates significantly more strongly with subjective performance than with objective performance. Another finding on measurement moderators is that market orientation affects both market and financial performance measures.

Ellis (2006) proposes the importance of cultural distance, market size, and economic development regarding contextual moderators. He reveals that market orientation has a significantly greater impact on performance in Western countries compared to Asia and Eastern Europe. Market size (large-small) is the most significant source of variation influencing cross-country effect size. Studies in mature markets reveal stronger links between market orientation and performance compared to those in developing economies.

Kirca et al. (2005) analysed the antecedents and consequences of market orientation and the mediating factors between market orientation and performance using a meta-analysis. The study comparing manufacturing and industrial services concludes that the relationship between management orientation (MO) and performance is more substantial in manufacturing firms with low power distance and uncertainty avoidance cultures, as well as subjective performance measures.

Both Jaworski and Kohli (1993) and Kirca et al. (2005) classify the antecedents of MO as top management factors, inter-departmental factors, and organisational systems. The degree of market orientation is positively affected by pressure from the top management of the organisation (Narver and Slayter, 1990). Interdepartmental factors consist of interdepartmental connectedness and conflict. Organisational systems include (1) formalisation-centralisation and (2) market-based reward systems and market-oriented training. According to Jaworski and Kohli (1993), the consequences of market orientation include organizational performance, customer, innovation, and employee consequences.

Hult et al. (2004) examine the relationship between innovativeness and business performance, investigating the roles of market orientation, entrepreneurial orientation, and learning orientation as essential antecedents to innovativeness. With industrial firms as the research object, they identify the effect of market orientation on organisational innovativeness and conclude that innovativeness, at least partially, mediates individual association among market orientation, entrepreneurial orientation, learning orientation, and business performance. In addition, entrepreneurial orientation is the main factor in achieving firm innovativeness, compared to other strategic orientations tested.

Strategic orientations are further explained as principles that direct and influence a firm's activities, generating the behaviours intended to ensure its viability and performance (Hakala, 2011, p. 199). Furthermore, a firm's strategic orientation is its philosophy for conducting business, deeply rooted in a set of values and beliefs that guide the firm's pursuit of superior performance (Gatignon & Xuereb, 1997; Zhou et al., 2005; Lee et al., 2019).

Inspired by Kohli et al.'s (1993) market orientation construct, Homburg and Pflesser (2000) reveal that in highly dynamic markets, the effect of market orientation on financial performance, indirectly through market performance, is high, and organisational artefacts play a crucial role in determining behaviour within organisations. Besides, market-oriented culture has different layers and components, including values, norms, artefacts, and behaviours related to higher and lower levels of market orientation implementation.

The eight values and norms dimensions of market orientation are success, innovativeness, flexibility, the openness of internal communication, quality and competence, speed, inter-functional cooperation, the responsibility of the employees, and the appreciation of employees. Artifacts of market orientation culture consist of stories about market orientation heroes, market

orientation problems, market orientation arrangements, market orientation rituals, market-oriented language, and non-market-oriented language (Homburg & Pflesser, 2000).

Organisations' innovation processes and innovative solutions become the main ingredients for fulfilling customer-expressed and latent needs, leading to improved business performance, including profitability, sales growth, and new product success (Slater & Narver, 1998). In a predictable business environment, one of the key characteristics is a stable market that is customer-led, focusing on the expressed needs of the customer, which has become a rational marketing decision for companies. Market orientation has required more effort in trying to understand both expressed and latent needs. In order to understand more latent needs, the company cannot rely on a single or limited source of information, but on diverse sources of information from their business environment.

The literature review outlined above serves as the foundation for this study, identifying several key areas in market orientation (MO) research from 2007 to 2024 that require further analysis and documentation. Although the definition of market orientation has advanced significantly, encompassing behavioural, cultural, and integrative/reconciled schools of thought (Narver & Slater, 1990; Kohli & Jaworski, 1990; Kirca et al., 2005), substantial variation remains in how MO is conceptualised across different industries. Notably, a recent study by Kumar et al. (2022) suggests that industry-specific factors play a crucial role in shaping MO implementation, underscoring the need for further research that refines and contextualises MO frameworks to capture industry-specific dynamics and challenges accurately.

Secondly, there are still significant gaps in the literature regarding the organisational factors necessary for effective MO implementation. Studies like Hult, Ketchen, and Slater (2005) have examined innovation as a mediating factor between MO and performance. However, more recent research, such as Liao et al. (2021), highlights that the relationship between MO and innovation can vary widely across sectors. This divergence suggests that a one-size-fits-all approach is inadequate, as the specific mechanisms that connect MO and innovation differ depending on organisational context, industry type, and market dynamics (Zhou et al., 2023).

An additional under-researched area involves the narrow focus of existing MO literature on two primary stakeholders: customers and competitors. This limited focus excludes other stakeholders, such as employees, suppliers, and community groups, thereby restricting the framework's applicability in complex, multi-stakeholder environments (Hersberger-Langlosh, 2022). Expanding MO to incorporate these additional stakeholders aligns with the findings of

Freeman et al. (2020), who argue that addressing the needs of multiple stakeholder groups allows organisations to utilise resources more effectively, achieve greater alignment with broader organisational goals, and maximise stakeholder value.

This systematic literature review will analyse MO theories across various industries, with each perspective contributing uniquely to the development of MO theory based on sector-specific characteristics. The review will also highlight innovation's pivotal role in maintaining MO's relevance within dynamic market environments and examine its potential to drive broader adoption of MO practices, particularly in nonprofit organisations (NPOs), where resource constraints and stakeholder diversity demand tailored approaches (Modi & Mishra, 2010; Shoham et al., 2006). Stakeholder theory will be employed as a guiding framework to explore how a multi-stakeholder approach to MO, including considerations for various stakeholder needs, could enhance resource allocation, stakeholder satisfaction, and overall organisational value.

The current systematic market orientation literature review results document several research themes. Innovation has continued to be a number one research theme as it can bridge different implementations of market orientation in each industry. The second theme is the emerging and further investigation of other strategic orientations that complement market orientation to achieve superior performance, such as entrepreneurial orientation, learning orientation, internal market orientation, and brand orientation. The third research theme that is placed in the third place is the relationship between market orientation and performance. This research theme becomes the main reason for the criticism of market orientation literature, which is dominated by only two stakeholders: customers and competitors. The last research theme that dominated MO literature is the contextual application of market orientation, such as industries context specific (for-profit and non-for-profit context) or country setting (developing and developing/emerging countries setting).

#### **2.2.2.2 Market Orientation Among Other Strategic Orientations**

Strategic orientations align a company's resources and strategies with market conditions. Developing complementary sets of orientations is critical, especially in dynamic business environments. (Mu & Di Benedetto, 2011). Market Orientation and other strategic orientation complements have received substantial conceptual and empirical attention in the marketing and management literature, and the combinations have consistently been linked to more robust organisational performance. (Bhattacharya et al., 2019). An empirical analysis is essential to

determine the most effective strategic approach and its combination with market orientation for optimal resource allocation. Each strategic approach has a different focus and contributes differently to performance, making it necessary to consider their complementarity with market orientation for optimal performance. (Deutscher et al., 2016).

While most research has focused on singular orientations without considering their complementarity for a firm's outcomes, examining multiple strategic orientations is getting more critical in today's competitive business environment (Wales et al., 2020). Building strategies on multiple strategic orientations can benefit many firms, but the impact of these orientations on performance varies depending on the industry or country. (Hong et al., 2012; Liu et al., 2011). Further research is necessary to identify the most practical combination of strategic orientations for specific industries and countries to achieve optimal performance (Laukkanen et al., 2013; Yang et al., 2012).

Collaboration between MO and other strategic orientations is crucial in today's competitive and dynamic global markets. Developing a robust strategic orientation combination is closely related to the interfirm environment and how interfirm networks react, compete, or collaborate on innovation, ultimately leading to higher performance (Monferrer et al., 2021). Combining different strategic orientations is a challenge due to resistance and conflicts from stakeholders. However, such resistance and conflicts are necessary for transformational learning and changing identities (Gromark, 2020).

Innovation is essential for superior performance. Combining market orientation with other strategic orientations is industry-dependent, as each orientation might have a different effect on innovation (Spanjol et al., 2011). More research is needed to identify the most effective combination for long-term performance (Paladino, 2008). Innovation type varies with industry and business environment. Organisations must decide which innovation to consider based on available resources and assets. (Paswan et al., 2009).

Regarding innovations, the company's strategic orientations must be based on internal capabilities such as leadership, which enable the company to achieve innovation success and sustained competitive advantage (Leskovar-Spacapan & Bastic, 2007). Previous studies have demonstrated that leaders who adopt specific approaches can foster a culture of innovation within their organisation. As a result, transformational leaders at the top are encouraged to utilise these orientations to cultivate a dynamic and forward-thinking workplace (S. Kraft & Bausch, 2016).

Additionally, there is evidence that organisational characteristics such as size also affect innovation, especially on specific dimensions of MO, such as customer orientation (Laforet, 2009). Large companies excel at handling multiple strategic orientations at once. Smaller companies may encounter inefficiencies. Firms that prioritise services over goods significantly benefit from combining different strategic orientations (Morgan & Anokhin, 2020).

Combining market orientation with other strategic orientations is imperative to manage a nonprofit organisation effectively. Stakeholder groups have divergent interests in strategic assets such as stakeholder information and brand perception, and ignoring these factors can lead to failure. Therefore, it is crucial to consider these factors and manage the organisation accordingly to meet the needs of all stakeholders (Ormrod & Henneberg, 2011). Market orientation is the primary strategic orientation that drives improved performance for for-profit organisations and is also a crucial factor in helping charities stay competitive in today's rapidly evolving market (Chad, 2013). A previous study on the not-for-profit context has examined market orientation's impact on organisation performance on sub-types such as social enterprise; however, generalisation has yet to be achieved on another sub-type of not-for-profit organisation as the study is still limited (Liu et al., 2014).

### **2.2.2.3 From Narrow-Focused Market Orientation to Multi-Stakeholder Market Orientation**

The shift from a narrow-focused market orientation (MO) — which traditionally emphasises customer and competitor orientation — to a multi-stakeholder market orientation (MSMO) is increasingly urgent for nonprofit organisations (Padanyi & Gainer, 2004; Sargeant et al., 2002). Unlike for-profit entities that primarily focus on satisfying customers to drive profit, nonprofits serve diverse stakeholders, including beneficiaries, donors, employees, volunteers, regulatory bodies, and their communities (Kara et al., 2004). Each stakeholder has unique expectations, values, and contributions to the organisation's success, making a narrow MO insufficient to address the complexity of nonprofit objectives and performance measures (Modi & Mishra, 2010).

There is a comprehensive critique of current market orientation literature dominated only by two stakeholders as the focus: customer and competitor. Although each dimension of market orientation has been proven to pass the empirical examination, there is some argumentation regarding its contribution individually and as a complement to the accomplishment of organisational performance. A study to investigate the effect of decomposing market orientation into only customer orientation and competitor orientation has shown shocking results



(Sorensen, 2009). However, a critical dimension, Inter-functional Coordination, represents the company's dynamic capability in implementing a market orientation strategy (Ruiz-Alba et al., 2020). Furthermore, the idea of coordinating internally has been proposed to be extended to inter-organizational coordination or external coordination between a company and its business partner. However, this idea has been in limited support, especially from for-profit authors (Chen et al., 2013). Surprisingly, more studies have been focused on the independent measurement of each market orientation dimension, including inter-functional coordination (Ward et al., 2006; O'Dwyer & Gilmore, 2009).

In the marketing literature, especially marketing strategy, some authors believe that there are differences and similarities between market orientation and stakeholder orientation. Market orientation only indirectly focuses on other than customers and competitors, while stakeholder orientation does not only designate a specific stakeholder as more important than another, but the degree of prioritisation may change depending on the issue or, in other words, the orientation for all stakeholder groups is dynamics (Ferrell et al., 2010). Some studies use only stakeholder orientation, but others use internal and external stakeholder orientation (Schlosser and McNaughton, 2007). Each organisation, for-profit and non-profit, has diverse stakeholder groups, and each has interests related to an organisation's existence.

In the non-profit context, the concept of stakeholders and recognising the relevant strategic groups have been why they exist (Hsieh et al., 2008). Non-profit organisation sustainability depends on aligning strategic orientations and fulfilling the designated stakeholder group that becomes the organisation's target.

In the context of non-profit organisations (NPOs), it has been recognised that the birth of all NPOs is based on their stakeholders' existence, which is why the organization forms and maintains. In a study on charities in Australia, Chad et al. (2013) found that in the middle of the competition to improve fundraising and service delivery performance, adopting effective business practices could potentially alienate potential stakeholders. Because NPO is socially oriented and in several situations, competitors in the non-profit sector sometimes work together to provide synergy in service delivery. Changing the word “customer” in the original MO construct and modified into “stakeholders” will be needed. There is also a need to introduce “collaboration” into the MO concept as these activities become more common among and between non-profit organisations.

In a study of local credit institutions, Tortosa-Edo et al. (2010) found that employees as internal customers will be crucial to achieving higher external customer satisfaction. Satisfied contact personnel in the services industry setting will stimulate their more significant commitment to constructing a fruitful relationship with external customers. Refocusing from only several stakeholders (customer and competitor) in the original market orientation construct to broader coverage of more diverse stakeholders will require internal understanding regarding marketing capabilities and assets (Zhou et al., 2008; Morgan et al., 2009; Cacciolatti et al., 2016). Higher profitability will benefit all available marketing capabilities and assets (Day, 2011). However, organisations need also to develop specific capabilities, such as employee capabilities (Orr et al., 2011). Several studies have found the need to improve marketing capabilities and assets in various countries (Takata, 2016) and industries (Alnawas et al., 2019).

Internally, marketing capabilities and assets depend on employees, so this leads to how market orientation should pay attention to the internal side of this strategic orientation. Internal market orientation has been the focus of several studies following the growing adoption of market orientation in various industries. Services industries that depend on the capacity and capability of their employees have been the source of the development of internal market orientation and its construct. Another industry had specific assets, such as networking in the field of retail.

#### **2.2.2.4 Stakeholder Orientation in Management and Marketing Literature**

Studies in the early 2000-an have contributed to the initial understanding of stakeholder orientation both from profit-oriented and non-profit organization points of view. Stakeholder orientation is defined as the extent to which management focuses on and integrates multiple stakeholders' interests in its decision-making (Bettinazzi & Feldman, 2021). As most stakeholder orientation has been related to corporate social responsibility (CSR) issues, adopting a stakeholder-oriented strategy from this research stream may not fully answer aspects of nonprofit organizational identity.

Employee orientation is often intertwined with internal market orientation, particularly in service industries, where it emphasizes the importance of treating employees as an internal "market" (Tortosa et al., 2009). While the term "internal market orientation" is widely used in for-profit institutions, especially in service and hospitality fields, stakeholder orientation includes employee orientation as a vital component, categorizing employees as non-consumer stakeholders who are integral to organizational success (Greenley & Foxall, 1996). When combined with market orientation within a broader strategic orientation framework, employee

orientation is closely linked to innovation, as employees actively contribute ideas and improvements that drive company growth and adaptation (Grinstein, 2008).

The concept of stakeholder orientation evolved through research on how top management perceives and prioritizes various stakeholder groups, with attention levels varying based on leadership roles, such as CEOs versus non-CEOs and internal versus external directors (Wang & Dewhirst, 1992). Top management's efforts to understand stakeholder expectations recognize that stakeholders value more than just financial performance (Dooley & Lerner, 1994). Emphasizing all stakeholder groups, including employees, is believed to strengthen a company's reputation, support financial goals, and maintain productive relationships by aligning organizational objectives with stakeholder demands and fostering a culture of trust and collaboration (Fryxell & Wang, 1994).

As part of showing that a company practices more ethical operations, especially in running its business in society, the company is becoming more concerned with the social aspect that stakeholders demand instead of only focusing on financial performance (Logsdon & Yuthas, 1997). Although there is a paucity of studies on stakeholder orientation at the end of the nineties and early two thousand, in the last ten years, the trend has risen, especially with the addition of innovation that fused into either general strategic orientation or each type of strategic orientation such as market orientation, learning orientation, and currently including brand orientation (Zhang, 2010). In line with the development of internal marketing and internal marketing orientation, there is also concern from several studies in the stakeholder theory related to the importance of the employee as a primary stakeholder in a company and various organizations (Gambeta et al., 2018).

One of the main contributors to stakeholder orientation studies has come from studies in the field of tourism (Imran et al., 2014; Sautter & Leisen, 1999; Stokes, 2008) and industrial/manufacturing studies (Adbi et al., 2018; Aßländer et al., 2016). In the field of tourism, stakeholder management is related to the comprehensive coverage of operations and interconnection between diverse institutions in the tourism industry (Imran et al., 2014). Industrial, manufacturing, and international business has also included extended institutions as its operation, mainly the production activities, might supported by suppliers and distributors, not only in the country where it operated but also abroad partner (Aßländer et al., 2016; Soundararajan et al., 2019). The current study on stakeholders in the for-profit institution has added the importance of innovation in managing the relationship with stakeholders (Gambeta et al., 2018).

In the current development of stakeholder orientation, the nonprofit field has also contributed as there is a shifting paradigm that nonprofit organization has to show their accountability to stakeholders (Rouault and Albertini, 2022)

#### **2.2.2.5 Stakeholder Perspective on MO Study**

Since its introduction in the early nineties, MO studies have focused on different stakeholders in a company that might be strongly related to its strategic orientation. However, most studies have focused on narrow stakeholders such as customers and competitors. Most of the studies on for-profit market orientation and its relation with stakeholders are related to discussions regarding ethical practices in the business, such as business sustainability (Crittenden et al., 2011; Hult, 2011). Another research stream focuses on aspects related to corporate social responsibility (Brower & Rowe, 2017). An important progression regarding spotlighting the importance of stakeholders in market orientation is coming from the services field (Gounaris et al. (2010).

In recent studies on market orientation (MO) within the for-profit sector, particularly in tourism and destination management, a stakeholder-oriented approach has gained traction, acknowledging the importance of various stakeholders such as local government and related institutions (Caballero et al., 2015; Pike & Page, 2021). This multi-stakeholder approach reflects a shift from traditional, customer-centric models of MO to frameworks that incorporate broader community and institutional needs, especially relevant in sectors where stakeholder alignment is crucial for sustainable development. In contrast, within the nonprofit domain, research on political parties—considered a unique sub-type of nonprofit organizations—has increasingly focused on engaging a wider array of stakeholders, from party members and voters to interest groups and media (Choudhury et al., 2019; Ormrod et al., 2010).

The expansion of MO in both the for-profit and nonprofit contexts underscores the growing recognition that a traditional MO perspective, centered solely on customers or competitors, is insufficient for addressing today's complex, multi-stakeholder environments (Freeman et al., 2020; Vargo & Lusch, 2016). By adopting a multi-stakeholder approach, organizations can better align with broader social and political aspirations, reflecting the evolving dynamics in both market-driven and mission-driven sectors (Hersberger-Langloh, 2022; Nguyen et al., 2023). This shift suggests a need for MO frameworks that are adaptable and capable of engaging diverse stakeholders to support long-term organizational sustainability and relevance.

**Market Orientation and Stakeholder.** In the for-profit entity, the discussion about the role of stakeholders has been circulated in the area of business ethics and dominated by studies about Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) and its impact on marketing activities. Previous studies show that CSR initiatives generate stakeholder support (Maignan and Ferrell, 2004).

Another related theme between MO and stakeholders is issues related to sustainability, when the alignment of strategy could lead to competitive advantage (Crittenden et al., 2011). Furthermore, an organization achieves market-based sustainability to the extent that it strategically aligns itself with customers' market-oriented product needs and wants and the interests of multiple stakeholders concerned about social responsibility issues involving economic, environmental, and social dimensions (Hult, 2011).

The progressive idea that proposed the need to include wider stakeholders in market orientation literature has been rooted in the narrow focus of current MO literature into two main stakeholders: customer and competitor, and just indirectly to another strategic group (Ferrell et al., 2010). However, previous studies have underlined several issues that need to be further explored and examined related to wider stakeholder accommodation to market orientation and its impact on performance (Greenley and Foxall, 1998). On one side, a firm might have limited resources and capabilities to cover all stakeholder's needs and wants or at least their aspirations, but there is a role for the firm's leaders to manage the dynamics (Greenley et al., 2005). Evidence shows that by adding more focus to wider stakeholder groups, firms can gain superior and sustainable performance (Stocker et al., 2021).

In for-profit organizations, attracting and involving stakeholders in their activities relies on a cause such as the initiative of Corporate Social Responsibility. However, CSR cannot be well implemented if it only relies on social concern and market orientation, if not also the pressure of the stakeholders (Santini et al., 2021). Additionally, employees as internal stakeholders of a company might loosely commit to CSR because of their perception that CSR is only beneficial for the company's reputation and has less impact on the employees personally (Felix, 2015). If stakeholders are not aligned with the company strategy, including CSR that is supported by brand management, market orientation still cannot be fully successfully implemented (Asberg and Ugglä, 2019).

The question of which stakeholders naturally become dominant in specific social issues has become challenging in the non-profit organization after they implement a market orientation approach (Liyanaarachchi et al., 2021). Initially, market orientation is being absorbed and

adopted by NPOs with the potential consequence of being asked about its mission focus and resistance from the inside. Broader coverage of stakeholders is in today's NPO practice (Ormrod, 2020).

The relationship between an organisation and its stakeholders in implementing market orientation needs to be explored further. A systematic literature review on stakeholder engagement in non-profit organizations is needed to understand the definition and another development in the literature.

Several themes gained considerable attention:

#### 1. Communication Between Organization and Stakeholder

Some specific medium to communicate is further discussed, including a medium that is becoming common for today's NPO activities following its counterparts, websites. Besides the website, another medium to engage with stakeholders directly could be built and maintained through an event (Ruperto and Kerr, 2009). Now, social media is becoming the most important medium for NPOs to cover not only existing supporters but also potential stakeholders (Lovejoy et al., 2012; Xu and Saxton, 2019).

The latest study on online communication between non-profit organisations and their stakeholders shows some interesting findings. One of the interesting findings is that a medium such as Twitter often becomes the platform to promote an organisation's messages. Surprisingly, the message that an NPO promotes via Twitter has the potential to spread beyond its own follower base (Nelson, 2019).

#### 1. Level of Engagement Between Organisation and Stakeholder

The lowest level of engagement with stakeholders is only to maintain communication. A further level of engagement is the involvement of stakeholders in the organization's activities. The higher level of involvement is when stakeholders actively participate in organization activities. The highest level of engagement is a collaboration that can be started from the planning of activities and continue in all parts of organization activities. All levels of engagement will need a framework regarding relationship management.

#### 2. Motivation of Organisation to Engage with Stakeholder

The motivation by organisations to engage with stakeholders is diverse, and public relations is one of them. Although public relations sometimes being perceived as a technique to fabricate some identity or public perception, advocacy for certain social issues needs a focus on communication, such as public relations. A series of campaigns might needed to introduce an issue and make the public aware so that, in the long term, the organization will still gain its legitimacy as a social services organization. One of the examples of legitimacy that nonprofits achieve from the public is by the contribution of volunteers. With the support from a volunteer, the nonprofit becomes more legitimate for their stakeholder because of the activities of not only being engaged in all activities to support the organisation mission but also how the engagement becomes the process of co-creation (Merrilees et al., 2020)

NPOs always depend on social capital as it can lead to important resources that organisations need. By maintaining social capital, the resources can be secure, and at the same time, relationships can be built with stakeholders.

### 3. Role of Leader in the Stakeholder Engagement

The most important role of a leader to maintain stakeholder engagement is to build and maintain a diverse network that organisations currently have and potentially might have. A leader of an NPO also makes sure that the diffusion of innovation is accepted not only by its employees or volunteers but also by stakeholders involved in the organization. A quality of the leader of an NPO also includes the ability to make the organization become adaptive to changing dynamics in society. If an engaged condition with an organization's stakeholders is a part of the organization's culture, the role of the leaders is absolutely vital as its existence also represents an organization's identity.

Proper leadership development in an NPO could cultivate one type of innovation, a social innovation, that represents the organization's identity as a social mission-driven organization (Shier and Handy, 2020).

#### **2.2.2.6 Multi-Stakeholder MO**

The shift from a shareholder-centric market orientation (MO) to a multi-stakeholder approach marks a profound change in business strategies, driven by the need for organizations to align their objectives with broader societal values (Freeman, 1984; Narver & Slater, 1990). Historically, companies focused predominantly on maximizing shareholder returns, a model

based on the notion that profitability directly reflected organizational success. However, current studies argue that such a limited focus often neglects essential external factors impacting an organization's long-term sustainability, such as environmental and social concerns (Jaworski & Kohli, 1993; Kohli et al., 2023). Freeman's (1984) seminal work on stakeholder theory, which has been foundational in business studies, underscores that organizations must engage a broader network of stakeholders—including employees, customers, suppliers, and communities—to address their diverse interests. By embracing this broader orientation, firms can achieve resilience, enhance societal impact, and ultimately align their success with public expectations (Ramaswamy & Ozcan, 2020).

The shift to a multi-stakeholder MO is reinforced by research advocating that organizations must not only address social and environmental considerations but also adopt a more holistic approach that integrates these elements into their core business objectives (Donaldson & Preston, 1995; Homburg et al., 2015). Academic discourse, emphasizes that companies which engage with multiple stakeholders do not merely mitigate risk but also foster innovation, benefiting from a diversity of insights that supports sustainable business practices (Karnani, 2011). Expanding on Narver and Slater's (1990) foundational customer-centric framework, this broader stakeholder-centric model has been increasingly advocated in contemporary research, suggesting that multi-stakeholder MO can drive both competitive advantage and societal contributions, creating value beyond financial gains (Harrison & Wicks, 2013).

The application of multi-stakeholder MO varies across industries, tailored to each sector's distinct stakeholder environment. In the technology sector, for example, companies like Apple and Google prioritize data privacy, regulatory compliance, and user experience to address growing public concerns around digital rights (Acemoglu & Restrepo, 2022). This approach demonstrates how multi-stakeholder MO must be customized to meet industry-specific needs, aligning technology-driven innovation with ethical considerations. In the healthcare industry, a multi-stakeholder approach integrates patients, providers, insurers, and regulatory entities, fostering collaborative models that prioritize patient-centered care and regulatory compliance (Berkowitz, 2016). Such an orientation is especially crucial in healthcare, where interdependent relationships define the industry's operational effectiveness and responsiveness to public health demands.

In consumer goods, where supply chain complexity presents unique ethical challenges, multi-stakeholder MO supports adherence to ethical labor and production standards. Companies like Nike, for instance, have adopted stringent measures to ensure ethical compliance within their



supply chains, responding to public demand for responsible production practices and addressing labor conditions as part of a broader risk mitigation strategy (Harrison & Wicks, 2013).

Aligning MO with stakeholder-driven ethical standards helps companies build trust and consumer loyalty, indicating that firms responsive to ethical practices are better positioned to meet evolving consumer expectations (Karnani, 2011). These findings suggest that aligning market strategies with sustainable practices can reinforce long-term brand loyalty, furthering both social responsibility and profitability.

While multi-stakeholder MO offers substantial benefits, including enhanced resilience and sustainability, it also presents significant challenges. Research highlights that companies with robust stakeholder relationships are often better prepared to navigate market fluctuations and economic downturns, as stakeholders continue to support organizations they trust (Maak & Pless, 2006). However, balancing divergent stakeholder interests can lead to challenges, especially when environmental initiatives increase operational costs, potentially conflicting with shareholders' short-term profit expectations (Clarkson, 1995). Companies must therefore develop transparent communication channels to navigate these conflicts effectively, a capability that remains underdeveloped in many firms, according to recent studies (Freeman et al., 2004).

Another complexity of the multi-stakeholder approach is the potential to slow decision-making, particularly in fast-paced industries such as technology, where rapid innovation is essential. Companies that operate in dynamic sectors often face challenges when balancing multiple stakeholder perspectives, as it can delay responsiveness and innovation (Lawrence & Weber, 2021). Scholars argue that while multi-stakeholder MO aligns with contemporary values, its inherent complexity necessitates frameworks that allow for efficient, inclusive decision-making. Thus, while the advantages of a multi-stakeholder approach to MO are clear, so are the trade-offs, particularly in competitive, rapidly evolving industries where agility is a key factor for success.

In the nonprofit sector, multi-stakeholder MO has become increasingly relevant as organizations seek to address complex social issues through collaborative approaches. Nonprofits operate within a network of stakeholders, including donors, beneficiaries, volunteers, and partner organizations, making stakeholder alignment essential to achieving mission-driven goals (Barman, 2013). Without a profit metric, nonprofits rely on stakeholder alignment as a measure of effectiveness, with research showing that organizations which successfully balance the expectations of diverse stakeholders can create more impactful and sustainable programs (Ebrahim, 2010).

Furthermore, the nonprofit sector's embrace of multi-stakeholder MO reflects a growing emphasis on accountability and transparency. As public scrutiny around nonprofit effectiveness intensifies, stakeholders demand measurable outcomes and greater impact justification, particularly from donors and regulatory bodies (Frumkin & Kim, 2001). Studies suggest that involving stakeholders in decision-making enhances program relevance, builds trust, and ultimately strengthens a nonprofit's ability to secure funding and resources (Mitchell et al., 1997). Consequently, multi-stakeholder MO is likely to remain a critical strategy in the nonprofit sector, supporting mission-aligned outcomes and fostering sustainable impact. This focus on stakeholder inclusivity signals a broader trend toward integrated, accountable approaches, positioning multi-stakeholder MO as a cornerstone of nonprofit effectiveness.

### **2.2.2.7 MO in Non-for-Profit Organisations**

Following the literature development of MO in the for-profit area, studies about the strategic orientation that includes MO with other orientations are also being developed. A conceptual paper by Chad et al. (2013) underlines service delivery improvement as a factor differentiating MO implementation in the NPO. However, this finding will later discover its challenging situation as each NPO sub-sector has a dynamic relationship with its stakeholders.

A study by Choi (2014) in a Nonprofit community centre in Korea emphasises internal collaborations as a successful effort to be a learning organisation. Innovation, such as how NGOs can compete with other NGOs and lessen government subsidies, has become the consequence of Learning Orientation. Market Orientation represents a moderating variable between Learning Orientation and Innovation.

By making a comparison between Profit and Non-Profit Riding Schools, Wiegand and Spiller (2013), borrowing Avlonitis and Gounaris's (1999) concept of managing an organisation, including the human resource aspect as an influential aspect, find that the crucial factors from the implementation of Market Orientation are the attitude and behaviour of the internal stakeholders.

To achieve the organisational performance of an NPO, Modi and Sahi (2018) introduce Internal Market Orientation, as in the daily NPO activities, the relationship between employee and employer or, in the NPO case, between leader and staff or volunteer has to be beneficial for both. Thus, staff retention has become the most significant factor in satisfying beneficiaries. Furthermore, the perceived service quality related to the IMO implementation should be

achieved to improve the NPO service quality expressed by beneficiaries' satisfaction. The Modi and Sahi (2018) framework of IMO for NPO in India case is developed from the works by Lings and Greenley (2005).

As NPOs have a dependency on their external resources (Modi & Sahi, 2021), one of the crucial factors is confirming staff retention to attract scarce resources and the size of NPO that relates to opportunities to access donor's resources (Padanyi and Gainer (2004). Modi and Sahi (2021) further explain the need for NPOs to transform their organisational culture to fulfil their customer and employee needs, as recruiting and keeping the organisation's staff is difficult, even for volunteers who might be involved in their daily operations.

Meanwhile, in market orientation for NPOs, growing attention to including or combining MO with other strategic orientations has attracted many studies. For example, Pinheiro et al. (2021), modifying the MO framework from Kohli and Jaworski (1990), proposes Social Entrepreneurial Orientation (SEO), a modification of EO, with Market Orientation as a mediating variable between SEO and Social Enterprise Performance (SEP). The study on a social enterprise in Portugal concludes that an institution needs to achieve social purpose while still paying attention to the organisation's financial stability, besides focusing on value creation with its stakeholders. The significant point of Pinheiro in conjunction with entrepreneurial/entrepreneurship orientation is the dimensions of proactiveness and innovativeness, the aspects found in learning organisation and innovation - MO sub-research stream. While other studies try to figure out the performance of NPOs rather than financial performance, some choose economic performance, as Hersberger-Langloh (2022) used in their study of NPOs in Swiss.

Fillis (2006) adopts the dimension of market orientation of Narver and Slater (1998) by considering the characteristics of Non-Profit Organizations, such as focusing on product-oriented to be compared with customer-oriented and taking the similarity between arts or cultural products and high technology that also depend on the product-oriented activity, or the focus is more on product-oriented than market orientation. In this case, peer-oriented has an essential aspect as stakeholders do. Through centering the focus on the product, the whole creation and production activities (idea to end products or works) are exposed to attract stakeholders'

In an NPO context, MO has been tested to determine whether it can be a mediating variable between learning orientation (LO) and organisational performance. In a study of a community

centre in South Korea, Choi et al. (2014) pointed out that several factors can be the background of the complementary condition of both strategic orientation, market orientation, and organisational learning. First, while MO makes a tactical adjustment in a short period, LO facilitates fundamental change in a long time. In the meantime, LO leads to double-loop learning, whereas MO is single-loop learning. Thirdly, MO is an outside-in market information process, while LO is an inside-out. Lastly, MO could create incremental innovation, and LO is radical innovation.

One important finding relates to another dimension employed as an MO: competitor orientation. After being examined individually regarding its relation with innovation, competitor orientation shows no relation with innovation. This reveals that competing with rivals does not facilitate innovation in the context of NPO. Inter-organizational collaboration has been a concern and has been proposed as one of the MO dimensions for the NPO context, as seen in the study by Sargeant et al. (2002) and Guo and Acar (2005). Choi et al. (2014) also found that LO is directly linked to innovation, not via MO. The study results show more support for the complementary between MO and other strategic orientations. Choi et al. (2014) also underlined the limitation of the study related to the target of the survey while suggesting that selecting the right respondents will add more accurate information in the context of NPO.

In order to maintain the relationship with their stakeholders, non-profits need to make two separate strategic decisions, namely, resource acquisition and allocation (Gonzalez et al., 2001). By having less competition and various types of stakeholders, one of the dimensions from a cultural perspective in MO, inter-functional coordination, can be adopted. However, another dimension has to be modified or added Liao et al. (2000). All those points of view raised more urgency to define MO in the NPO context.

In the context of NPOs, traditional MO frameworks, which emphasise customer orientation, competitor orientation, and inter-functional coordination, require adaptation to address the sector's unique characteristics. Liao et al. (2001) argue that the conventional MO dimensions are insufficient due to the nonprofit sector's reduced emphasis on competition and its diverse stakeholder base. They propose a "societal orientation" that better aligns with nonprofit objectives.

Therefore, the study by Choi et al. (2014) defined MO as “organisational efforts to create and sustain competitive advantage through sensitive responsiveness to market changes under the superior value for customers.” Choi et al. (2014) borrowed the construct of MO from an

organisational culture perspective. They developed a nonprofit MO scale with three dimensions that consist of (a) customer orientation, (b) resource orientation, and (c) competitor orientation. Another option of the dimensions of MO for NPO came from Sargeant et al. (2000), who proposed five dimensions of nonprofit MO: (a) stakeholder focus, (b) competitor focus, (c) collaboration, (d) inter-functional coordination, and (e) responsiveness. Even though several dimensions of MO in the NPO context have been proposed and exist, a conclusive MO scale has been achieved.

A British and Japanese social enterprises study examined the mediating role of market effectiveness and consumer satisfaction in both entrepreneurial orientation and market orientation (Liu et al., 2014). To balance an effort to achieve social and commercial objectives, strategic orientation effects on performance have been evidenced by the implementation of a strategic management aspect in a social enterprise.

Strategic orientation behaviours refer to the process, practices, principles, and decision-making styles that guide organisations' activities when reacting to the external environment and generate the behaviour intended to ensure the organisation's viability and performance (Voss & Voss, 2000; Zhou & Li, 2010). Strategic orientation becomes more urgent to be used as it can maximise how commercial activities can generate revenue that can be used to improve SEs' social activities. The organisation can then enhance its ability to generate more revenue; however, it may create structural tension. The tension might exist as it becomes a reaction to NPO organisation characteristics that are different from business entities regarding the uncertain activities compared with the business (Liu et al., 2014).

Besides using quantitative methods to study MO, many authors, such as Lee et al. (2020), apply case study methods to NPOs (NGOs) in China and Hong Kong. They find that the source of funding moderates MO and the performance of the NPO and needs a fit organisational structure in which the seniors can keep the younger staff to understand the mission, especially to attract funding. Wymer et al. (2015) use qualitative research regarding the domination of the quantitative approach in the MO, for-profit, and non-profit. Their study in Canada and Germany identifies other strategic orientations complementing Market Orientation, such as societal orientation, brand orientation, supporter orientation, commercial orientation, and service orientation. Another qualitative research by Gupta, using the Theory of Constraint approach, shows that Internal and External orientation in the Market Orientation can be one bundle of strategies. It cannot be separated, but simultaneously satisfy their employee and customers/stakeholders while achieving the social mission.

The study of Lee et al. (2020) and Hersberger-Langloh (2020) has become one of the marketing philosophies in MO development, emphasising relationship marketing. Previously, Molander et al. (2018), studying transportation for the public in collaboration with the Swedish government, argued that stakeholders appreciate local government market orientation strategy as long as both actors develop mutual understanding, collaborative actions, and relationships. Before, Chen and Hsu (2013) proposed another strategic orientation, entrepreneurial orientation, as the MO complementary to get more donors and sponsorships. Chad (2013) also mentioned MO when combined with other orientations because some organisational barriers still exist. Therefore, recognising the other orientation will hopefully transform the NPO organisational culture.

Rodrigues and Pinho (2012) have put Internal and External Market Orientation as a sub-dimension of Market Orientation as a whole strategic orientation. Organisations must create, maintain, and improve value for employees and customers. Their study on public sector organisations in Portugal concluded that various MO dimensions impact financial and non-financial performance differently. If information runs smoothly inside and among departments, it is easy to achieve financial and non-financial performance. However, information from outside to inside organisations relates to non-financial performance, while information gathering and responsiveness are only related to financial performance. This suggests that collaboration and teamwork connecting all departments in an institution are associated with the method to achieve non-financial performance, the way NPOs gather that reputation as its characteristics.

At this point, non-financial performance measurements are implemented compared to financial achievement. Liao et al. (2001) underline that the focus of some NPO subtypes is on social performance compared to profit institutions. They argue that the term market orientation does not fit with the whole basic foundation of NPO, and therefore, they propose another term called societal orientation.

Nonprofit organisations (NPOs) exhibit unique characteristics, particularly in resource acquisition and allocation, which set them apart from their for-profit counterparts. Unlike profit-driven businesses, NPOs adopt a different approach to exchanges, focusing on value that extends beyond customers to include broader societal benefits. Customer orientation is considered essential, but NPOs also prioritise societal welfare as a central component of their market orientation. Liao's (2001) work underscores the importance of service orientation in NPOs, emphasising that "the role of the employee is paramount," highlighting the critical influence of staff and volunteer interactions in delivering the organisation's mission.

Furthermore, while competition may drive market orientation in for-profit sectors, NPOs often view collaboration as more valuable, engaging multiple stakeholders to achieve shared objectives. Additionally, inter-functional coordination in NPOs requires adaptation to incorporate volunteers who play a vital role alongside employees, making collaboration across roles essential to achieving organisational goals.

**Figure 2-4 Selected Studies on Nonprofit Market Orientation**

Study	Focus	Key Findings	Context
Chad et al. (2013)	Market Orientation (MO) in NPOs	MO implementation in NPOs differs by sub-sector due to diverse stakeholder relationships and service needs.	Conceptual Paper
Choi (2014)	Learning and Market Orientation	Internal collaboration and learning orientation help NPOs adapt; MO moderates between Learning Orientation and Innovation.	Korean NPO
Wiegand & Spiller (2013)	MO in Riding Schools	Internal stakeholders' attitudes and behaviours are crucial in MO implementation.	Comparison: Profit & Non-Profit
Modi & Sahi (2018)	Internal Market Orientation (IMO)	IMO improves employee relations, enhancing NPO service quality and beneficiary satisfaction.	Indian NPO
Modi & Sahi (2021)	NPO Sustainability	Emphasises the need for cultural transformation to retain staff and attract resources.	General NPOs
Pinheiro et al. (2021)	Social Entrepreneurial Orientation	MO mediates Social Entrepreneurial Orientation (SEO) and Social Enterprise Performance, balancing social goals with financial stability.	Portuguese Social Enterprise
Fillis (2006)	Market vs. Product Orientation	Product orientation is critical in cultural NPOs; peer orientation is also essential in attracting stakeholders.	Arts and Cultural NPO

Study	Focus	Key Findings	Context
Choi et al. (2014)	MO and Learning Orientation Synergy	MO offers short-term adjustments, while Learning Orientation drives long-term fundamental changes.	South Korean Community Center
Sargeant et al. (2002) and Guo & Acar (2005)	MO in NPOs	Propose collaboration as a key MO dimension in NPOs, rather than focusing solely on competition.	General NPOs
Gonzalez et al. (2001)	Resource Management in NPOs	NPOs make strategic decisions in both resource acquisition and allocation to engage stakeholders effectively.	General NPOs
Liao et al. (2001)	Societal Orientation vs. Market Orientation	Traditional MO is adapted to focus on societal orientation and collaboration over competition.	General NPOs
Sargeant et al. (2000)	MO Dimensions in NPOs	Proposed five MO dimensions: stakeholder focus, competitor focus, collaboration, inter-functional coordination, and responsiveness.	General NPOs
Liu et al. (2014)	Entrepreneurial and Market Orientation	MO and Entrepreneurial Orientation mediate market effectiveness, balancing social and commercial objectives.	British and Japanese NPOs
Wymer et al. (2015)	Strategic Orientation in NPOs	Identified complementary orientations to MO, including societal, brand, and service orientations.	Canada and Germany NPOs
Rodrigues & Pinho (2012)	Internal and External MO	Internal and external MO impact financial and non-financial performance differently, emphasizing collaboration and teamwork.	Portuguese Public Sector
Liao et al. (2001)	Societal Orientation for NPOs	Advocated for a societal orientation over traditional MO, emphasising social performance rather than profit.	General NPOs



According to Gainer and Padanyi (2002), employing business-like practices in non-profit organisations might divert the organisation from its traditional mission and values as the nature of NPO depends on multiple constituencies, such as donors and clients. Two kinds of NPO constituencies are divided into four types of clusters: high-client-oriented, low-client-oriented, high-funder-oriented, and low-funder-oriented. However, since MO in the non-profit setting is under research (Modi & Mishra, 2010), efforts to have a specific MO measurement scale have been made by several studies, such as Vazquez et al. (2002) after adapting and modifying the scale of Kohli and Jaworski (1990) by expanding the dimension of market intelligence to including beneficiaries, donors, competitive alternatives, and potential collaborators.

Kohli and Jaworski's (1990) for-profit model has been modified by Gonzalez, Vijande, and Casielles (2002, p. 63), who divide customers into donors and beneficiaries. Meanwhile, the MO scale and dimension of Narver and Slater (1990) have also been modified by Duque-Zuluaga and Schneider (2008) by separating the original 'customer orientation' into three subsets: beneficiary/recipient, donor, and volunteer/employee. Sargeant, Liao, and Foreman added a new component titled 'collaboration' as some competitors within the nonprofit sector may work together to develop mutually beneficial synergies, and 'customer' is renamed 'stakeholder' to reflect a broader definition of customer in the nonprofit context (Liao et al., 2001; Sargeant et al., 2002).

Although MO in NPO will benefit by generating more funds in an increasingly competitive environment, NPO research in museums' context is limited compared to healthcare, charities, and cultures. The fact is that museums are facing fierce competition with other leisure attractions to gain financial objectives. Museums also deal with stakeholders who have different needs and aspirations. In the NPO research field, the Museum has not yet been explored with its characteristics application of the marketing concept, operationalised by introducing market orientation, a relatively under-researched area within the non-profit sector.

Regarding the wide range of NPOs, the investigation has emphasised the fundamental aspect of MO in specific nonprofit sub-sectors, such as charities, for some reasons. Firstly, to review and examine the market orientation framework and its associated research. Secondly, justify the relevance of market orientation in some form for the nonprofit sector. Thirdly, as the majority of market orientation research is in the commercial, for-profit sector and given the transferability of market orientation in some form to the nonprofit sector whose *raison d'être* is different from for-profit organisations, we develop a market orientation research agenda for the nonprofit sector - an important contribution to the literature.

However, concerning the characteristics of NPO For-Profit organisations, although studies have already started to transfer the knowledge from the profit to the not-for-profit field, obstacles or barriers on the organisational side are the subjects of investigation.

Studies about measuring various constructs in the MO for NPO have been conducted, such as the preliminary work by Modi and Mishra (2010), non-profit marketing, and not-for-profit market orientation, but both as a whole and in particular, still mainly under research.

Meanwhile, Harris and Ogbonna (2012) emphasise the importance of handling organisational barriers to developing market orientation. Therefore, a study to conceptualise and resolve the barriers, such as leadership, is a contingency factor for market and brand orientation. They have a different focus but fill one to another (inside-out and outside-in focus). Thus, the finding will be an essential step in market orientation literature. The present study is the first attempt to approach the non-profit market orientation in the museum context in combination with brand orientation as the alternative strategic orientation and transformational leadership as the moderating variables.

In the Non-Profit Organization (NPO) area, the works of Liao et al. (2001) have successfully challenged the usage of several measurements of market orientation and then replicated it in the non-profit organisation after understanding their characteristics. Kotler and Levy (1969) became the first to shift the economic motive from the definition of marketing and change it into the exchange, an activity between two parties who want to have value.

People working in the nonprofit sector may find it challenging to accept the idea of marketing because many think their primary job responsibility is as social workers, not marketers.

Regarding this, detractors have expressed concern that exploitative, manipulative attitudes may accompany marketing and practices and push aggressive profit-driven techniques that are at odds with the spirit of their profession and the nonprofit sector (Boehm et al., 2011). This increased in studies that concentrate on the function of nonprofit leaders and their leadership philosophies, such as transformational leadership style (Menguc et al., 2007; Kraft & Bausch, 2016), bridging organisational identity, and the requirement for nonprofit employees to adopt a market orientation (Chiou & Chang, 2009).

While the construct of nonprofit market orientation has been developed in earlier studies (Wymer et al., 2015; Chad et al., 2013; Modi, 2012; Duque-Zuluaga & Schneider, 2008; Modi & Mishra, 2010), the construct of brand orientation has never been examined as a complement

to market orientation, despite the necessity of additional strategic orientation beyond just market orientation being suggested by several studies (Chad, 2014; Modi & Sahi, 2018; Choi, 2014).

### **2.3 Brand Orientation: Systematic Literature Review**

Brand orientation is one of the various strategic orientations that have been studied in the last decade (Huang & Tsai, 2013). However, brand orientation has been under-researched compared to other strategic orientation types, such as market and entrepreneurial orientation (Gatignin & Xuereb, 1997).

Brand Orientation and Market Orientation relation have been explicitly discussed as the early researchers on Brand Orientation have shared that an MO study inspires the development of BO (Urde et al., 2013). In further development, both market orientation and brand orientation have become the subject of an ongoing study on the strategic orientation field that combines a different type of strategic orientation and its challenges (Laukkanen et al., 2013; Reijonen et al., 2012)

The nonprofit sector has received significant attention in brand orientation, with studies such as the one by Ewing and Napoli (2005) producing articles on a brand orientation scale specifically for nonprofits. However, the nonprofit context has been subject to limited research on brand orientation, particularly its implementation in response to the growing interest in internal marketing. As the nonprofit sector expands, discussions around internal stakeholders, particularly employees, have become increasingly critical. This is especially evident in studies related to talent management in general business management discussions (Liu et al., 2017). The employees and volunteers are significant characteristics of nonprofit organisations, and adopting internal branding as part of brand orientation can foster loyalty and commitment among employees, encouraging them to continue serving the organisation (Liu et al., 2015). After the publication of Nonprofit Brand Orientation by Evans et al. (2012), there is now a current study that focuses on the development of brand orientation in its general study and includes nonprofit context as a part of it.

Although several studies on brand orientation have discussed partially about stakeholders' impact on brand orientation implementation, the main concern is still related to the overall brand management, which is heavily related to stakeholder perception of a company (Balmer, 2013; Balmer & Wang, 2016). Another research stream on stakeholder approach brand orientation discussed that brand orientation is dynamics and change over which strategic

thinking to continue to understand what stakeholders perceive about the company is essential (Balmer, 2021). For a nonprofit organisation, its mission has been strongly related to the brand and also the choices of innovation that will be taken concerning the mission (McDonald, 2007).

The antecedents and consequences of brand orientation have been subject to the study by (Huang & Tsai, 2013). However, given the diversity of the organization that is the focus of the study and the literature coverage of the study, many aspects of nonprofit organizations have not yet been fully explored.

Brand orientation (BO) is essential in museums, enabling them to build a robust and mission-driven identity that resonates with diverse stakeholders, including visitors, donors, and community partners (Pinheiro et al., 2021). This focus on brand is crucial as museums aim to balance cultural preservation with engagement and financial sustainability (Merrilees & Miller, 2019).

Ewing and Napoli (2005) highlight that a strong brand increases donor confidence, as it communicates that the museum is well-organized and mission-focused, encouraging long-term support. For museums, this is essential to secure funding and sustain operations, mainly when relying on contributions and sponsorships. Hemsley-Brown and Oplatka (2010) suggest that BO is a crucial factor in museums' ability to create memorable and mission-driven experiences that appeal to target audiences. By focusing on BO, museums can tailor their programming and exhibitions to reinforce their brand identity, creating a more cohesive and impactful visitor experience.

Brand orientation is increasingly essential for museums as they navigate a competitive cultural landscape, strive to differentiate themselves, build visitor loyalty, and secure sustainable funding. Unlike for-profit brands focused on commercial objectives, museums must convey complex values encompassing cultural heritage, education, and public service. Brand orientation allows museums to define and communicate these unique values, creating a consistent identity that resonates with diverse stakeholders, including visitors, donors, and community partners (Chong, 2021; Hatch & Schultz, 2019). In the context of brand orientation, museums can build trust and credibility by presenting a cohesive narrative, crucial for visitor engagement and funding in an era where cultural institutions face increased pressure to demonstrate relevance and impact (Balmer & Greyser, 2020).

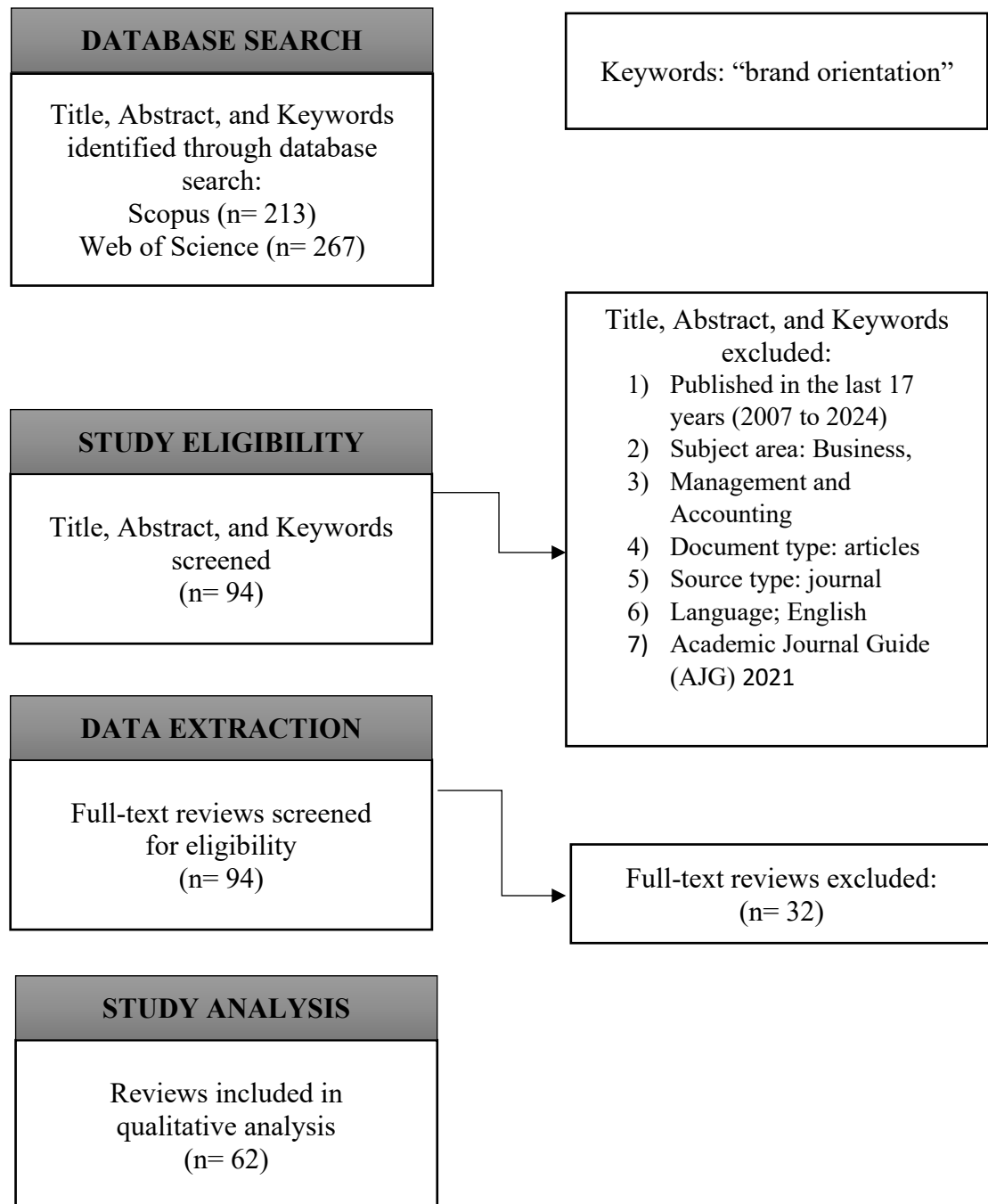
Research shows that brand-oriented museums are better equipped to foster visitor loyalty and long-term engagement, as a strong brand provides visitors with clear expectations and a memorable experience (Schroeder, 2022). For example, museums with strong brand orientation are often able to create distinctive programs and exhibitions that reflect their mission and values, reinforcing the museum's identity and ensuring that it stands out within the crowded cultural sector (Caldwell & Coshall, 2021; Josiassen et al., 2019). Additionally, brand orientation supports museums' fundraising and partnership efforts, as a clear brand identity attracts potential donors and partners who align with the museum's values and mission (Hatch & Schultz, 2019). As museums increasingly rely on external support, having a well-defined and communicated brand becomes essential to establishing long-term relationships and securing the resources necessary for sustainable operations.

Brand and market orientation's concurrent performance impacts are empirically understudied (Laukkanen et al., 2016). Firms can combine different strategic orientations, such as brand and market orientation, to achieve excellent performance since strategic orientations inform managerial choices and affect performance. The early literature linking market orientation and brand orientation is connected to the interaction between business and consumer communication, particularly with the expanding use of integrated marketing communication (Reid et al., 2005). Market and brand orientation can be balanced for managerial control as well as strategic planning and implementation, according to a study by Baumgarth (2010) in B2B settings. Additionally, by balancing market and brand orientation, brand orientation will positively impact market and economic performance (Baumgarth, 2010). According to a 2011 study by O'Cass and Voola, market orientation and brand orientation could coexist in the nonprofit sector because they both centred on the effective and efficient use of organisational strategic assets and skills. A nonprofit organisation will stand out from other organisations and display a greater level of performance due to the complementarity between these characteristics (O'Cass & Voola, 2011).

### **2.3.1 SLR Protocol**

Following the findings from the current systematic literature review about developing another strategic orientation to complement MO, this study will further investigate the development of BO as one of the complementary options. The SLR protocol will be presented first, followed by explaining the SLR findings. This section will explore BO's connectedness with market orientation, and the development of the business in the specific context will be underlined.

**Figure 2-5 Systematic Literature Review Protocol for Brand Orientation**



After the final articles were reviewed, there were several descriptive findings. Firstly, the main outlets of brand orientation studies are these ten journals: Journal of Brand Management, Journal of Marketing Management, Journal of Business Research, European Journal of Marketing, Journal of Strategic Marketing, Journal Of Product And Brand Management, Industrial Marketing Management, Journal Of Nonprofit And Public Sector Marketing, Marketing Intelligence And Planning, and International Journal Of Hospitality Management. From all articles reviewed, there were several themes as definition and dimensions, internal capabilities, performance, strategic orientation, leadership, and stakeholder.

### 2.3.2 SLR Results

There were five main themes documented in Brand Orientation literature in the last fifteen years between 2007 and 2024: (1) the relationship of Brand Orientation with Market Orientation, (2) Brand Orientation as part of Brand Management, (3) the discussion about Internal Branding and Brand Orientation, (4) the relation of Brand Orientation with Performance, (5) Brand Orientation and Innovation; and (6) Brand Orientation and Strategic Orientation Literature. Each theme will be discussed below to find the ongoing discussion, spot gaps, and predict future studies. This sub-section will focus on the definition of brand orientation before discussing its development over the last fifteen years.

#### 2.3.2.1 The Evolution of BO

Motivated to describe an integrated organisational focus on developing and sustaining brands, Urde (1994) proposed a new term called brand orientation. Urde (1994) defined brand orientation as *“an approach in which the processes of organisation revolve around the creation, development, and protection of brand identity in an ongoing interaction with target customers to achieve lasting competitive advantages in the form of brands”* (Urde, 1999, p.10). A seven-dimensions paradigm of brand orientation is conceptualised by Urde (1994), which includes target group, corporate identity, corporate name, product, trademark, brand vision, and positioning. Urde's (1994, 1999) works concentrated on the orientation of implemented behaviours and activities, which can be called the behaviour approach to brand orientation.

Following the advancement from previous relevant studies, Piha et al. (2021) re-conceptualizes brand orientation and takes a broader operationalisation to capture the main organisational behaviours manifested by strategically brand-oriented companies. Measuring a holistic approach to branding in an organisation, Piha et al. (2021) reported five complementary studies that show the development of a new brand orientation scale. Four dimensions were introduced as a part of the scale to measure brand orientation: brand importance, brand consistency, brand differentiation, and brand intelligence. Piha et al. (2021) found that brand orientation is more substantial in companies in which the power of the marketing department in organisational decision-making is high, and brand orientation also mediates the effects of marketing department power and market orientation on financial performance.

Brand orientation was positively related to organisation performance in terms of its ability to serve stakeholders better than its competitors (Napoli, 2006). There were three themes of brand orientation, which include creating a unique brand identity as a means for differentiation

(uniqueness), monitoring the organisation's reputation as perceived by its existing and prospective members (reputation), and delivering consistent messages about the organisation's image to the surrounding community (orchestration) (Mulyanegara, 2011). An organisation that endeavours to build a strong brand should ensure that it has a sufficient understanding of customers/members as organisation stakeholders and utilises the various resources of the organisation to deliver superior values (Mulyanegara, 2011).

**Table 2-1 Definition of Brand Orientation**

Study	Definition of Brand Orientation
Urde (1994)	an approach in which the processes of organisation revolve around the creation, development, and protection of brand identity in an ongoing interaction with target customers to achieve lasting competitive advantages in the form of brands
Piha (2021)	Organisational behaviours manifested by strategically brand-oriented companies that consist of four dimensions as a part of the scale to measure brand orientation named brand importance, brand consistency, brand differentiation, and brand intelligence being introduced

Brand orientation relates positively to an organisation's performance in terms of its ability to serve stakeholders (Napoli, 2006). Three themes of brand orientation are creating a unique brand identity as a means for differentiation (uniqueness), monitoring the organisation's reputation as perceived by its existing and prospective members (reputation), and delivering consistent messages about the organisation's image to the surrounding community (orchestration) (Mulyanegara, 2011). An organisation that builds a strong brand should ensure a sufficient understanding of customers/members to deliver superior values (Mulyanegara, 2011).

Previous research has examined the relationship between market orientation and brand orientation, focusing on managers, brand executives, and employees as the study participants (O'Cass & Ngo, 2009; Tuominen et al., 2009). Previous studies on the public relations of museums gave additional insight into how the public has a certain level of understanding regarding the brand of a non-profit organisation. The level of market orientation controlled by museum leaders or managers can impact the museum's image in the public (Gurel & Kavak, 2010). A certain level of public attention needs to be balanced by museums from inside to outside efforts such as brand orientation.



To establish systematic brand management, which in recent business practices has become more crucial, brand orientation will be a good foundation for communicating and absorbing the possibility of being innovative in the market (Santos-Vijande et al., 2013). In a competitive industry such as services, both studies by Santos-Vijante et al. (2013) and Huang and Tsai (2013) found that through a strategic orientation that focuses on the brand, all capabilities and assets (the marketing one) could be the best act of finding a new way of offering an innovative product. In the small-medium enterprise context, some resources to having brand orientation activities to produce innovative products might be limited.

After briefly introducing the definition of brand orientation, including its earlier development, the systematic literature review results will be discussed further.

### **2.3.2.2 Brand Orientation and Market Orientation**

The simultaneous performance effects of brand and market orientation are empirically under-explored (Laukkanen et al., 2016). As strategic orientations underpin the firm's managerial decisions and influence its performance, firms can combine multiple strategic orientations to achieve superior performance, including brand and market orientation (M'zungu et al., 2017). Furthermore, the examination of the combination effect between brand orientation and market orientation shows that the primary strategic orientation of the firm determines the type of hybrid orientation. M'zungu et al. (2017) study underlined that different capabilities are needed to guide and implement the two types of hybrid orientation strategy. These findings open the possibility of the need to propose and further examine factors that facilitate the combination of brand orientation and market orientation.

The early literature bridging between market orientation and brand orientation is related to the activity of communication between company and customer, especially with the growing application of integrated marketing communication (Reid et al., 2005). The meaning of a product and brand and the process of communication need to be facilitated in an integrated way. However, the balance between market orientation and brand orientation is important (Baumgarth, 2010). Study by Baumgarth (2010) in B2B settings shows that the balancing market and brand orientation can be used for management control as well as strategic planning and implementation. Furthermore, by balancing market and brand orientation, it will lead to positive influence of brand orientation on market and economic performance (Baumgarth, 2010).

In the nonprofit sector, a study by O’Cass and Voola (2011) found that the integration between market orientation and brand orientation could happen as both are rooted in the same point: effective and efficient usage of an organization's strategic assets and capabilities. The complementarity between these capabilities will make a nonprofit organization different from other organizations and show a higher degree of performance (O’Cass and Voola, 2011). However, Mulyanegara (2011) underlined the need to underline that the paradigm of complementing both market orientation and brand orientation is about maintaining stakeholder’s perception of the organization. Moreover, Mulyanegara (2011) also adds another critical point that with stakeholders' diverse and might be competing needs, an organization needs to have a tool or even a good system to absorb and analyze stakeholders' needs, not only existing but also potential needs.

### **2.3.2.3 Brand Orientation and Internal Branding Activities**

Internal branding is viewed as a facilitator for brand orientation and strategic brand management process, which ultimately impacts the brand performance (Iyer et al., 2018). Interestingly, the study about the relation of brand orientation strategy to the area of human resources, which includes a company-wide vision of internal branding, is coming from the nonprofit sector (Liu et al., 2015). A study by Liu et al. (2015) found that the characteristics of nonprofit employees' emotions that are strongly attached to the organization's mission and high involvement in the service activities with its beneficiaries have made internal branding activities more important in the nonprofit context. However, the leadership style of an organisation leader has become another crucial aspect, especially in facilitating the way organisations recognise and maintain highly performance employees (Liu et al., 2015). Employee perception of organisational performance sustainability informed by the organisation’s leader will strengthen employee motivation to have a higher commitment to the organisation (Biedenbach & Manzhynski, 2016). Brand orientation affects in- and extra-role employee brand-building behaviour when strong interfunctional communications exist, which, in most cases, is facilitated by an organisation leader through their leadership style (Liu et al., 2017). Organisation leaders can turn employees into brand ambassadors and motivate everyone toward brand-supportive behaviours (Piha & Avlonitis, 2018; Schmidt & Baumgarth, 2018).

### **2.3.2.4 Brand Orientation Consequences to Performance**

In the literature, brand orientation has been mainly examined to affect brand performance. However, in the ongoing discussion to add brand orientation in the broader strategic orientation

study, brand orientation is also examined to affect company-level performance, such as marketing and financial performance (Tajeddini & Ratten, 2020).

Brand orientation combines practices, including understanding, communicating, and strategic use (Hankinson, 2001). A brand is essential for a nonprofit organisation when communicating to multiple publics about organisation values, not only an identifier through its name and logo. Organisational values that are consistently communicated to the public or stakeholders will help an effort to be differentiated from other similar nonprofits (Hankinson, 2001). The literature review revealed a paucity of studies on brand orientation in the museum sector, even though brand orientation has been applied to the museum sector for at least the last fifteen years; for instance, Baumgarth (2009), Rentschler et al. (2011) and Evans et al. (2012).

### **2.3.2.5 Brand Orientation and Innovation**

Similar to the discussion about innovation's role in the market orientation studies, innovation has been examined primarily in the study about its effect on performance. Learning from many practical cases of branding failures, there is a question about whether firms must continuously strive to be brand-oriented or focus on innovation (Lee et al., 2016). However, innovation can contribute to closing the strategy–performance gap (Wong & Merrilees, 2007).

Both brand and innovation can help organisations differentiate themselves from their peers and other organisations, as both brand and innovation are the ingredients of the value creation process (Wong & Merrilees, 2007). However, combining and simultaneously being an oriented organisation as a consequence, it may lead to innovation; there were several organisational barriers to achieving organisational performance: leadership aspect and employee understanding of the organisation's brand and why the organisation needs to have a certain level of innovation (Wong & Merrilees, 2008).

### **2.3.2.6 Brand Orientation in the Strategic Orientation Literature**

As part of the more extensive discussion on Strategic Orientation and with various orientations being discussed, Brand Orientation also draws from the resource-based view theory (Luxton et al., 2017). To test the effects of a combination of strategic orientations available in the literature, brand orientation is also being examined with other strategic orientations, such as learning orientation and market orientation (Luxton et al., 2017). BO is nested in and complementary to learning and market orientation and thus cannot stand alone. Appropriate resourcing is critical for success, as it has implications for developing other resources and

capabilities. An examination to test brand orientation with entrepreneurial orientation has shown that a company's size affects the capability to combine, and additional capabilities need to be employed to support and complement strategic orientation (Anees-ur-Rehman & Johnston, 2019). Moreover, brand orientation is more substantial in companies in which the power of the marketing department in organisational decision-making is high (Piha et al., 2021).

### **2.3.2.7 Brand Orientation and Nonprofit**

Similar to the development of MO literature, the nonprofit context started to attract the publication of several studies related to this field with brand orientation. The application of the Brand Orientation strategy has been studied in several sub-sectors of nonprofits, such as charities (Hankinson, 2001), churches (Mulyanegara, 2011), and museums (Baumgarth, 2009). Though for-profit organisations have long adopted brand building to gain strategic advantages in a competitive market (Anees-ur-Rehman et al., 2016; Freitas & Almeida, 2017; Hahn et al., 2016; Hankinson, 2000; Lee, 2013; Iyer et al., 2018), studies into its relevance and attributions in the nonprofit sector are starting to grow recently (Ewing & Napoli, 2005; Hassay & Peloza, 2009; Modi & Mishra, 2010; Stebbins & Hartman, 2013). Nonprofit organisations serve diverse stakeholders, such as revenue providers, clients, beneficiaries, employees, and volunteers, and, at the same time, might feel competition with other similar organisations for funding, such as government funds, private and corporate donations, volunteer support, and clients (Apaydin, 2011; Chad et al., 2013). What that background, brand orientation is relevant for these organisations (Anees-ur-Rehman et al., 2016; Hankinson, 2000; Kumar et al., 2011; Paço et al., 2014), representing broader attributions and providing guidance both internally and externally (Anees-ur-Rehman et al., 2016; Laidler-Kylander et al. 2007; Laidler-Kylander & Simonin, 2009).

It can be observed that many Nonprofit Organizations have adopted a brand orientation strategy as an element of organisational competitiveness. By doing so, nonprofits try to convey their values to their target stakeholders in order to differentiate themselves from similar organisations (Hankinson, 2001; Lee, 2013; Stebbins & Hartman, 2013), get more significant support and also trust from society, improve fundraising performance, and better fulfil its role in society (Apaydin, 2011; Chad, 2013; Hankinson, 2000; Kylander & Stone, 2012). In this sense, the nonprofit sector increasingly adopts the brand as a strategic resource to obtain resources and attract volunteers (Apaydin, 2011; Kylander & Stone, 2012; Paço et al. 2014). Michel and Rieunier (2012) mention that the more favourable the brand, the greater the potential for attracting donations. Brand orientation can contribute to the development of stakeholder

confidence, strengthening potential and existing stakeholder awareness and the dissemination of the activities of these organisations and their values to stakeholders (Hankinson, 2001; Wymer et al., 2016).

Brand orientation of a nonprofit organisation strategy can help the organisation improve its communication with existing and potential stakeholders, especially those who give donors. This strategy puts the brand at the centre of an organisation and is understood as the degree to which a nonprofit organisation considers itself a brand (Urde, 1999; Hankinson, 2000). Brand orientation refers to how the organisation deliberately creates, develops, and protects its brands to achieve its objectives (Liu et al., 2015). Orientation of a nonprofit to its brand can help nonprofit stakeholders understand the organisation with its mission, past credibility, and transparency. Furthermore, brand orientation is based on creating, developing, and protecting the organisation's brand (Urde, 1994, 1999). The brand is seen as the centre of the organisation and as a driver of decision-making by the organisation. Previous study has shown the positive effect of brand orientation on organisational aspects such as brand performance (Chang et al., 2018; Laukkanen et al., 2013; Wong & Merrilees, 2015), brand value (Baumgarth & Schmidt, 2010; Zhang et al., 2016), employee commitment (King & So, 2015; Liu et al., 2015), consumer engagement (Wirtz et al., 2013), and organisational performance (Liu et al., 2015; Wong & Merrilees, 2015).

Brand of a nonprofit organization also represents the cause defended by that organization (Hankinson, 2000). The brand orientation strategy of a nonprofit organization is linked to a brand's understanding and communication, the use of the brand as a strategic resource, and how to manage those resources (Hankinson, 2001). Moreover, when a nonprofit organization has focused on developing the brands (Hankinson, 2001), for example, it can influence partnerships with other stakeholders that also share the same values to build a cause-related marketing strategy (da Silva et al., 2020b). A study by Ewing and Napoli (2005) proposed a model to measure NBO based on interaction. The interaction which is linked to an organization's dialogue with stakeholders and the ability to adapt to the environment; orchestration, which is connected to communication alignment both internally and externally; and affection, related to understanding stakeholder satisfaction with the organisation.

Implementing NBO makes it possible not only to bring more financial and human resources to an NPO, either through partnerships with for-profit companies or by attracting more individuals who will donate their time and money but also to improve the alignment between internal employees and NPO objectives (King et al., 2013; Liu et al., 2015, 2017; Sepulcri et al., 2020).

As in the for-profit sector, NPOs can also benefit from working consistently with their brands, better connections with their target audiences, improving reputation, political impact, and trust levels among stakeholders, and differentiating themselves from other non-profit organisations (Boenigk & Becker, 2016; Curran et al., 2016; Durgee, 2016; Khan & Ede, 2009; Laidler et al., 2009; Michel & Rieunier, 2012; Voeth & Herbst, 2008; Wong & Merrilees, 2005). Brand orientation improves an organisation's performance in the non-profit sector (Liu et al., 2015; Napoli, 2006).

Several studies have examined brand orientation and organisational performance in the non-profit sector. A study by Liu et al. (2015) examined the mediating effects of staff's emotional brand attachment, staff service involvement, and the moderating effect of charismatic leadership on the brand orientation-performance relationship. The findings suggested that staff emotional brand attachment and staff service involvement are linked to brand orientation and organisational performance. Moreover, the strength of the linkage increased because of the charismatic leadership that the study took from various non-profit organisations in the UK. The survey by Cassidy (2014) in the higher education sector in Australia took student perspective to learn how brand orientation moderates service quality and loyalty to Word of Mouth (WOM) communication behavior.

Following the advancement of brand orientation literature in the for-profit context, several studies have proposed the dimensions of brand orientation of nonprofit organisations. One of the proposed dimensions of nonprofit brand orientation consists of orchestration, interaction, and effect (da Silva et al., 2020). The orchestration dimension analyses the capacity of Nonprofit Organizations to develop activities capable of communicating the exact image of the organisation to its internal and external stakeholders, allowing nonprofit brand managers to act appropriately and perform their activities better (Hankinson, 2001; Ewing & Napoli, 2005). Furthermore, the literature indicates that a more significant agreement in the stakeholders' perception usually improves the clients' attitudes toward the organisations and influences their purchase intentions (Ellen et al., 2006; Barone et al. 2007). Orchestration can be understood as an antecedent of the attitude towards charity and the donation intention, responsible for ensuring that the communication activities of Nonprofit Organizations are reflected externally in society (Paço et al., 2014), which comprises current and potential donors.

In the non-profit context, close interaction between organization staff and beneficiaries or another part of society on specific social issues has shown that innovation or new findings in social services can start from the process of showing interest and attitude toward some issue and

followed by an intention (Da Silva et al., 2020). Furthermore, the study also found that improving the services will require brand orientation orchestration from the organisation's staff.

In a profit setting, a previous study has shown that through an engagement condition, brand orientation will have a more substantial relation with firm performance (Wong & Merrilees, 2015). An engagement between the firm and its customer is a dual concept and reciprocal condition (Aksoy et al., 2021). Another study regarding engagement between the firm and their customer was conducted in larger companies and small and medium enterprise cases. The engagement between the firm and its customers as important stakeholders has been proven to help the company achieve its distinctiveness compared to other firms (Renton & Richard, 2019), starting with the growing positive reputation (Blackburn et al., 2018). Furthermore, combining the efforts to engage through offline and online initiatives to interact between the firms and the customers has even increased the performance, establishing a new competitive advantage (Viglia et al., 2018).

Medium to engage, including how the firm communicates to its customers, will contribute to the level of engagement. In a study in the hotel industry context, Kucukusta et al. (2019) found that communication with a high-quality message will lift up the degree of engagement between the company and the customer. High-quality messages will spread more efficiently and faster, especially with the availability of new interactive information technology, such as the Internet, with its various choices of social media to interact and communicate. Not only external customers but also employees as internal stakeholders have become another source of achieving firm performance when they engage organically with the firm they are working with (Biedenbach & Manzhynski, 2016).

A recent study on the relationship between brand orientation and organisational performance in a not-for-profit context found that internal stakeholder engagement is essential in strengthening that relationship (Merrilees et al., 2021). In a non-profit organisation, volunteers become another “non-regular” staff that the organisation has. The volunteer has an essential role for an NPO as a stakeholder and becomes a unique characteristic to be compared with for-profit organisations, mainly because of the potential of their involvement in value co-creation through engagement (Curran et al., 2016). Both the organisation and the internal stakeholder (including volunteers) each have some form of identity and will co-joint to show that both partners are engaged (Cassidy et al., 2019). Co-creation resulting from stakeholder engagement will also lead to potential innovation (Loureiro et al., 2020; Shams et al., 2020).

An activity by a not-for-profit organisation to achieve its performance will be supported by stakeholder engagement as the process will involve its stakeholders in various product life cycles (Mitchell & Clark, 2019). A similar condition happens in the political field when a political party recognises that an engagement with voters and supporters is closely related to the marketing mix decision of a political party at different levels of growing political issues that they have (Hughes and Dann (2009). However, in some cases, a dialogic engagement through the product life cycle followed by the marketing mix will potentially contain some tensions and temporalities if not managed well (Passetti et al., 2019).

### **2.3.2.8 Brand Orientation in Museum Context.**

Following other studies of nonprofit brand orientation, recent studies in the museum context are growing, although still limited. Taking a lesson from the museums with a wide reputation as a famous museum, the study by Rentschler et al. (2011) found that museum stakeholders demand more dynamic organisational design, more diverse collections, and special exhibitions related to the value that the public has from a museum. Brand orientation is something that a museum implements strategically, and with the changing composition of employees and leaders, more stakeholders pressure museums to have more robust brand building and development. At the same time, a museum must have an identity for internal and external stakeholders; an image from stakeholders became a vital outcome (Rentschler et al., 2011). Another critical driver of brand orientation was the recognition that brands are part of the consumer psyche and, therefore, have great value. Brands are part of the everyday human experience, and the Gallery now recognises that its audiences use brands as decision-making heuristics.

The idea from Urde (1994) has been criticised because there is the diverse existing conceptualisation of brand orientation, fragmented constituents, an inability to answer several context-specific issues, and diverse choices of brand orientation scale. Ewing and Napoli (2005) defined brand orientation as “the organization-wide process of generating and sustaining a shared sense of brand meaning that provides superior value to stakeholders and superior performance to the organisation. The concept of brand orientation in marketing literature has been recognised as one of the strategic orientations with significant effects on the success of a business entity (Baumgarth, 2010; Wong & Merrilees, 2007). Wong and Merrilees (2005, 2007, 2008) examine brand orientation in the context of small and medium enterprises and define it as “a mindset that ensures that the brand will be recognised, featured, and favoured in the marketing strategy” (Wong & Merciless, 2008, p.374).



**Brand Orientation and Leadership.** Organisational leaders must understand their organisation's brand and how it will be needed to fulfil its mission and performance (Hankinson, 2012). As the brand continues to be built and grow, an organisation needs to implement all resources related to brand building and maintenance from the direction of organisation leaders (Nedergaard & Gyrd-Jones, 2013). Furthermore, the study by Nedergaard and Gyrd-Jones (2013) found that the role of leaders of an organisation can make the effort to be a brand-oriented organisation lead to innovation.

Brand orientation is also a powerful tool to persuade staff to buy into the organisation's brand value and transform it into a reality through emotional attachment and involvement (Liu et al., 2015). In the nonprofit sector, the role of organisation leaders to bring a brand management approach and strengthen it with such an orientation will affect their employees in general and the leaders on the boards as a team (Balmer & Wan, 2016; Liu et al., 2015).

A study by Boso et al. (2016) shows interesting conditions that inter-functional coordination and collaboration are clues that the organisation, also being market-oriented, needs to be combined with a particular leadership style to achieve organisational performance. Moreover, as an organization-wide action, brand orientation with the direction of the organisation leader and complemented by good inter-functional coordination and collaboration will help all parts of the organisation to comprehend the organisation's identity, keeping and monitoring fellow employees perceptions about the organisation's brand, employee-organization identification (Balmer & Wan, 2016).

**Brand and Organization's Stakeholders.** Rentschler et al. (2011), in a study of big names in the museums sector in Australia, found that in a competitive sector, meeting the expectations of multiple stakeholders is crucial. At the same time, when museums started to manifest in the museum, the role of stakeholders can be diverse from each managerial process of a museum, such as planning, exhibition evaluation, and potential network of sponsors (Rentschler et al., 2011). The partnership between a nonprofit organisation and its stakeholders will need suitable communication activities and a design for interacting between the organisation and its stakeholders (Hankinson, 2012; Renton & Richard, 2019). A study by Hankinson (2012) shows that a leadership role in bridging the relationship between the organisation and stakeholders will make all brand investments effective and efficient. An organisation's Brand orientation efforts can touch stakeholders' personal and emotional levels and make them understand the brand as they continue to be involved in various organisational activities (Evans et al., 2012).

The degree of involvement by stakeholders in the organisation will complete the understanding between the organisation and its stakeholders as a brand will make the organisation's identity bold (Balmer, 2013). Internal and external stakeholders will experience and see firsthand through their contribution and involvement that the organisation is adapted, which might generate reactions from all stakeholders (Lee, 2013; Gromark, 2020). Lee's (2013) study on nonprofit organisations found that the reactions can be positive and negative because each stakeholder has its expectations. Hence, organisations have to keep balancing and maintaining relationships with their stakeholders. Moreover, continuing to have dialogue and providing access to stakeholders to contribute and involve their attachment to the organisation's identity will be more robust (Urde, 2016).

Both market orientation and brand orientation have been examined in relation to organisational performance. NPO, the focus of the current study, has been discussed in both market orientation and brand orientation literature. However, further investigation is needed, especially to understand how NPO performance is being defined, measured, and exposed to the linkage of MO and BO to organization performance. The next section will focus on the NPO organisation's performance.

## **2.4 Innovation in Non-for-Profit Organisations**

In nonprofit organisations, innovation will need an environment that supports the initiative to become innovative and produces as much innovation as required. Nonprofit organisations can provide supporting organisational culture, and one of the critical aspects is the role of the leader (Jaskyte, 2004). An organisational culture that creates a climate for producing innovation could be provided by a nonprofit leader who is already carefully selected even from the recruitment process, as this type of leadership has at least characteristics that support innovation for himself and the people surrounding him before joining the organisation (McMurray et al., 2013).

Besides the leadership and organisational aspect that supports different types of innovation employed, previous studies have brought another point of view related to the capacity of nonprofit organisations based on their organisational size, which includes several conditions such as personnel size, board size, and organisation age (Jaskyte, 2013).

## **Nonprofit Innovation: Systematic Literature Review**

Innovation within an NPO is closely linked to its foundational purpose and mission (McDonald, 2007). An NPO's mission guides all employees and, more broadly, all stakeholders in concentrating their efforts on achieving objectives through the use of available resources.

Collaboration has become one characteristic of innovation in a nonprofit organization context (Brecher and Wise, 2008). The resources from both sides will be cumulated, and innovation will become something as a result of using the resources together as a team. The collaboration and the joint access to resources will lead to a relationship that might at least be one of these possibilities: adversarial, complementary, and supplementary. Nonprofits serve as agents or advocates, attempting to persuade the government to reform public policy if the relationship is in the adversarial model. In the complementary model, nonprofits serve as partners with the government, helping to deliver public services, primarily with government support. If the nonprofit collaboration is in the supplementary model, the organization will satisfy niches in delivering public services that the government otherwise unfulfilled (Brecher and Wise, 2008).

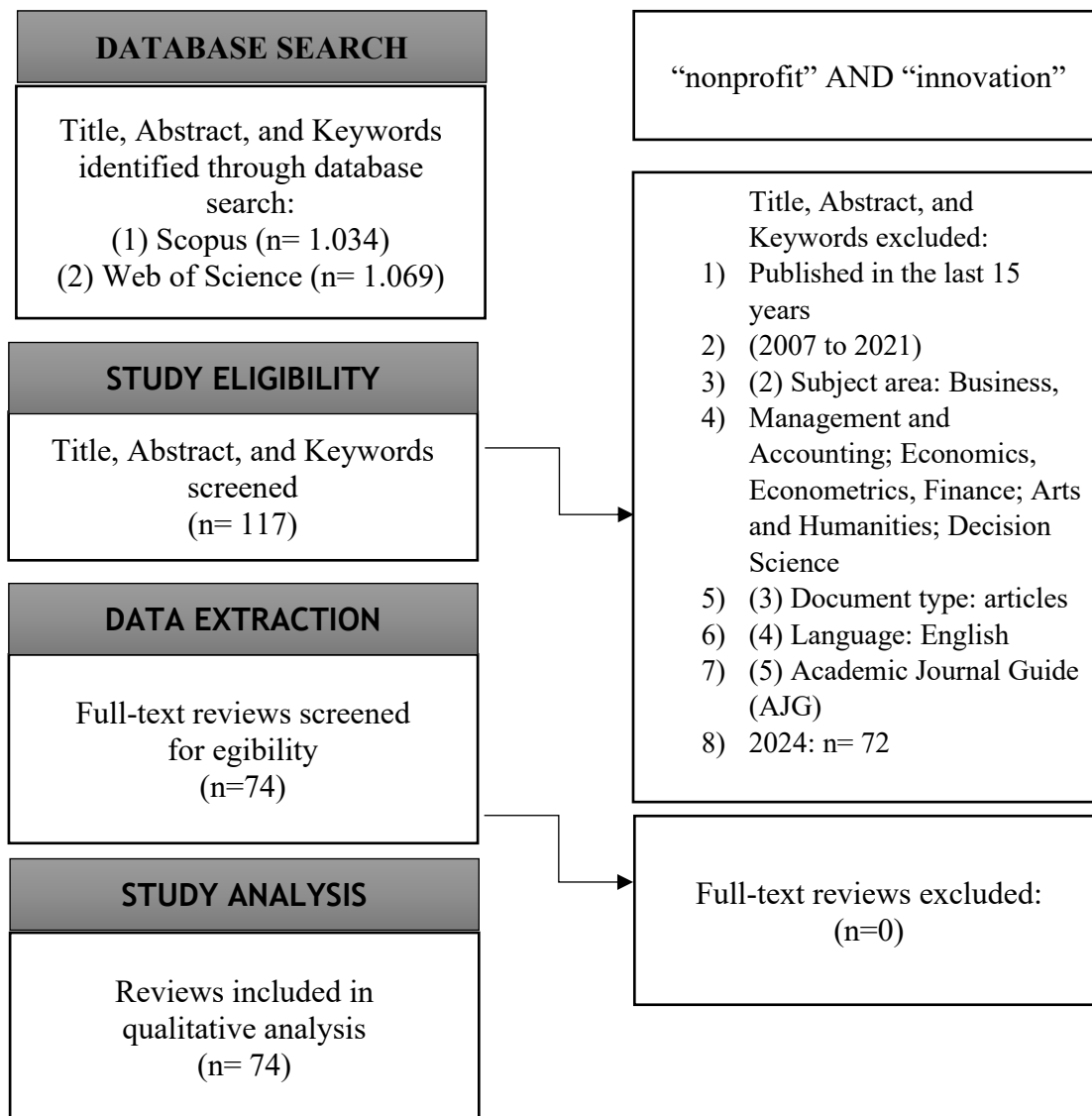
In the long term, innovation will result naturally in organisational performance (McDonald, 2007). As a nonprofit organisation that is always tied to its mission, innovation results from understanding the nonprofit's stakeholder needs and fulfilling them as part of the mission. For example, when a philanthropy chooses to support a funding organisation, the information about what kind of funding organisation is doing that the philanthropy has been limited and non-essential. How could an innovation exist if the amount of information as a resource is not balanced among stakeholders and nonprofit organisations (Simon, 2008)? The value creation as an output of collaboration between a nonprofit organisation and its stakeholders will depend on the trust between the two (Simon, 2008).

One primary type of innovation in a nonprofit organisation context is social innovation. Previous literature has related social innovation with social entrepreneurship. The previous research illustrates that social entrepreneurship is a unique nonprofit behaviour that occurs at the intersection of innovation, pro-activeness, and risk-taking (Helm & Andersson, 2010). Social entrepreneurs can be defined as change agents in the social sector by “adopting a mission to create and sustain social value (not just private value), recognising and relentlessly pursuing new opportunities to serve the mission, engaging in a process of continuous innovation, adaptation, and learning, acting boldly without being limited by resources currently in hand, and

exhibiting a heightened sense of accountability to the constituencies served and for the outcomes created” (Helm & Andersson, 2010, p.4).

Innovation in a non-profit organisation results is from an excellent organisational transformation (Jaskyte et al., 2010). What organisational transformation means here is that it is related to a work environment that supports creativity and innovation. The organisational transformation efforts contributed to significant changes in the culture, leadership attitudes and behaviours, coworker relationships, and the physical work environment. In the long run, the transformation, especially creativity and innovation, will contribute to positive organisational outcomes.

**Figure 2.4 SLR PROTOCOL OF Non-Profit Organisation (NPO) and Innovation**



The primary research outlet for Nonprofit Innovation are Voluntas, Nonprofit And Voluntary Sector Quarterly, Nonprofit Management And Leadership, Journal of Business Research,

Administration in Social Work, International Review on Public And Nonprofit Marketing, Public Administration Review, International Review of Public Administration, Journal Of Business Ethics, European Planning Studies, Industrial Marketing Management, International Journal Of Nonprofit And Voluntary Sector Marketing, International Journal of Public Administration, Organization Science, Journal of Nonprofit And Public Sector Marketing, Technovation.

From all lists of journals and articles documented from the SLR analysis process, four main themes were discussed in the nonprofit innovation literature (2000-2024):

1. Type of NPO innovation: social innovation, business model innovation, open innovation
2. Leadership and Human resource management: organisation climate, organisation culture, board effectiveness
3. Strategic orientation: market orientation, customer orientation, performance, value creation
4. Collaboration: coopetition, brand alliances, business-nonprofit partnership, cross-sector partnership, stakeholders (inc. engagement), donor, CSR

The evolving relationship between nonprofit organisations (NPOs) and innovation has garnered increasing academic attention, particularly in light of the complex societal challenges and growing demands for accountability, adaptability, and impact. Traditionally viewed as mission-driven entities focused on delivering social value, nonprofits now face pressures to innovate in service delivery and their organizational models, funding structures, and stakeholder engagement strategies (Weerawardena & Mort, 2012). Nonprofit innovation encompasses a range of forms, including social innovation, business model innovation, and open innovation, each with unique implications for organisational strategy, leadership, and culture (Shier et al., 2019; Taylor et al., 2020). Social innovation, defined as creating new approaches that address pressing societal needs, is particularly pertinent in the nonprofit context, where the emphasis is often on generating sustainable social impact rather than financial gain (Lovaas et al., 2020). Meanwhile, business model innovation (BMI) involves rethinking how NPOs create, deliver, and capture value, which is critical for long-term sustainability in resource-constrained environments (Weerawardena et al., 2021). Open innovation, which involves leveraging external resources and knowledge, further highlights the importance of cross-sector partnerships and collaboration in NPOs' innovation strategies (Choi, 2019).

Leadership and human resource management (HRM) are central to driving innovation within NPOs, as effective leadership can foster an organisational climate conducive to experimentation, creativity, and change (McMurray et al., 2013). Transformational leadership,

in particular, has been associated with greater organisational innovation in NPOs, as it encourages employees to embrace new ideas and engage in collaborative problem-solving (Brimhall, 2019). This leadership style is often essential in navigating the complexities of balancing mission-driven work with the need for adaptability and innovation (Shier and Handy, 2020). Furthermore, an innovation-oriented organizational culture and climate are crucial for sustaining creative efforts within NPOs. Creating an environment where employees feel empowered to contribute to the organization's mission promotes innovation and enhances overall job satisfaction and retention, which are essential given the often limited financial resources for competitive salaries in the nonprofit sector (Ronquillo et al., 2021).

A strategic orientation towards market and customer needs has also become increasingly relevant for NPOs, as organizations strive to enhance performance and value creation in competitive and often resource-scarce environments (Lee et al., 2020). While market orientation has traditionally been associated with for-profit enterprises, recent studies emphasize its relevance for NPOs, where understanding donor expectations, client needs, and community dynamics is vital to fulfilling the organization's mission and securing financial stability (Velter et al., 2020). Customer orientation, in particular, enables NPOs to tailor their services to meet the unique needs of their target populations more effectively, which can be a key driver of social impact and operational efficiency (Ahmed et al., 2021). This shift towards market-driven approaches within NPOs aligns with the broader trend towards performance measurement and impact assessment, where organizations are increasingly held accountable for demonstrating tangible outcomes and social value (McDonald, 2007). NPOs with a clear, motivating mission tend to focus their innovation efforts on initiatives that support mission accomplishment, ensuring that performance improvements are aligned with organizational goals (McDonald, 2007).

Collaboration and partnership have emerged as critical components of NPO innovation, as resource limitations and the complexity of societal challenges necessitate cooperation across sectors (Dahan et al., 2010). Cross-sector partnerships, including alliances with corporations, government agencies, and other nonprofits, enable NPOs to access complementary resources, expertise, and networks, facilitating innovation and enhancing the scalability of social programs (Shier and Handy, 2020). Strategic alliances, such as business-nonprofit partnerships, allow NPOs to benefit from private-sector competencies in technology, operations, and marketing, while corporations gain reputational benefits and potential access to new markets (Ahmed et al., 2021). Additionally, brand alliances and Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) partnerships often enhance an NPO's visibility, credibility, and donor engagement, which can be pivotal in

securing financial resources and expanding impact (Dahan et al., 2010). However, such partnerships also present challenges, as they require alignment between diverse organizational goals and often entail complex negotiations around intellectual property and brand usage (Choi and Contractor, 2019).

The board of directors plays an instrumental role in supporting innovation by providing governance oversight and fostering strategic alignment with the NPO's mission (Jaskyte, 2015). Board effectiveness, in terms of skills, diversity, and engagement, is particularly relevant to nonprofit innovation, as board members can offer valuable insights, professional networks, and expertise that enhance the organization's innovation capacity (Weerawardena and Mort, 2012). Effective boards contribute to fostering a culture of innovation by encouraging strategic risk-taking and providing resources that enable organizational learning and experimentation (Shier et al., 2019). An engaged board can serve as a bridge between the NPO and its stakeholders, facilitating partnerships and ensuring that innovation efforts align with community needs and donor expectations (Alberti et al., 2017). However, NPO boards may sometimes prioritize stability over innovation, especially in organizations with limited funding, as a means to ensure resource conservation and financial sustainability (Lecy et al., 2012).

Human resources, including employee engagement and development, are essential to fostering an innovative climate within NPOs (Ronquillo et al., 2021). Intrinsic motivators, such as job satisfaction, organizational reputation, and mission alignment, are critical in nonprofits where financial incentives may be limited (Suh, 2008). Encouraging a culture that values flexibility, creativity, and collaboration among employees can drive innovation and help organizations respond more effectively to changing environmental demands (Ronquillo et al., 2021). However, smaller NPOs often face challenges in recruiting and retaining skilled talent, which can limit their capacity to implement and sustain innovative practices (Jaskyte et al., 2010). Fostering an organizational culture that encourages continuous learning, adaptability, and inclusivity can offset some of these challenges, enhancing employee motivation and organizational resilience (McMurray et al., 2013).

Nonprofit business model innovation has also been a focal area in recent studies, as organizations seek sustainable approaches to create social and economic value while addressing resource constraints (Weerawardena et al., 2021; Reficco et al., 2021). From traditional, donation-dependent models to more dynamic social enterprise structures, NPOs are exploring revenue-generating activities that align with their mission, such as social ventures, hybrid models, and fee-based services (Ahmed et al., 2021). By diversifying their revenue streams,

NPOs enhance financial sustainability and increase their capacity for innovation, as these models offer greater flexibility in allocating resources toward innovative initiatives (Reficco et al., 2021). Implementing business model innovation requires a strong learning capability within the organization to adapt to new opportunities and effectively manage the balance between social and financial goals (McDonald et al., 2021).

Social innovation remains at the heart of nonprofit activities, especially as NPOs increasingly tackle complex societal issues that require new approaches to social change (Shier et al., 2019). Social innovation focuses on developing solutions that enhance social inclusion, address the needs of vulnerable populations, and drive systemic change, often through cross-sector collaborations (Taylor et al., 2020). As nonprofits prioritise social impact, social innovation reflects a transformational leadership approach emphasising collaboration, stakeholder engagement, and responsiveness to community needs (Shier & Handy, 2020). Given the need for broad societal impact, social innovation initiatives in nonprofits frequently rely on extensive stakeholder engagement and community partnerships, highlighting the importance of an inclusive approach that considers diverse perspectives and needs (Velter et al., 2020).

In conclusion, innovation within NPOs is multifaceted, encompassing social, business model, and open innovation approaches that require strategic alignment, effective leadership, and a supportive organisational culture. For NPOs to succeed in their innovation efforts, they must foster a climate that encourages creativity, collaboration, and adaptability while ensuring alignment with their social mission and values (Weerawardena et al., 2021; Ronquillo et al., 2021). Partnerships across sectors provide essential resources and expertise yet require careful management to align goals and navigate potential conflicts. Moving forward, nonprofits that strategically balance innovation with mission-focused performance are likely to enhance their social impact, financial sustainability, and organisational resilience, positioning them to effectively address the complex societal challenges of the future (McDonald, 2007; Rentschler & Gilmore, 2021).

**Table 2-2 Type of Innovation and Its Definition**

<b>Study</b>	<b>Type of Innovation</b>
Hull and Rothenberg (2008)	Social innovation attempts to understand the basis of successful value creation to solve social problems.
Weerawerdena & Mort (2012)	
Shier et al. (2019)	
Weerawerdena et al. (2021)	Business model innovation is defined as the architecture and process by which it
McDonald et al. (2021)	



Study	Type of Innovation
Reficco et al., (2021)	creates, delivers, and captures value. It can be a platform for the enterprise to capitalize more on opportunities or protect itself against threats from environmental changes.
Mergel and Desouza, (2013)	Open innovation is using purposive inflows and outflows of knowledge to innovate
Inauen et al (2011)	
Wemmer & Koenigstorfer (2016)	
Camarero et al (2011)	Technology innovation is Information and Communication technology that complements good services provided by the museums' management to the visitors that can either strengthen the experience or complete those experiences while the visitors are in the museums or before and after visits
Camarero et al (2012)	
Guccio et al. (2020)	
Lee (2012)	Service innovation
Casini et al (2018)	
Dou et al. (2020) – museum	
Kershaw et al. (2020) – museum	

An interesting point of view related to how to drive NPOs to gain innovation quickly is to configure a hybrid organisation; however, this idea will face reluctant and avoidance by NPO staff and members that still stick around the idealism of an NPO to achieve the noble mission (White et al., 2021). The blurred distinction between the public, private, and not-for-profit sectors will confuse its stakeholders. However, the idea of market orientation and other strategic orientations to be adopted into NPO is common in today's practice (Chad, 2014; Chad et al., 2014).

One type of innovation in the NPO that continues to grow is social innovation. Social innovation attempts to understand the basis of successful value creation to solve social problems (Weerawerdena & Mort, 2012). They find that innovation-based competitive strategies of socially entrepreneurial non-profit organisations substantially contribute to achieving social value. Innovation-based strategies are uniquely characterised by a focus on differentiation, with

innovations directed at product, process, and system change levels (Hull & Rothenberg, 2008). They tend to be actively involved in both externally and internally focused learning. Social innovation refers to the efforts of individuals and organisations to help create opportunities that have a broader impact on a social system and the experiences of a vulnerable social group (Shier et al., 2019). Non-profit organisations' innovation strategies are strongly influenced by their organizational characteristics, particularly the need to build sustainable organisations. The three-factor model includes socially transformative, product, and process-related social innovations (Shier & Handy, 2014).

The growing interest in social innovation might be due to its potential positive effects on well-being and sustainable development (Sanzo-Perez et al., 2015). Drawing from a transformative service research framework and adopting a resource-based perspective, Sanzo-Perez et al. (2015) identify two factors supporting dynamic capabilities, i.e. internal market orientation and information and communication technology competence. They affect how these organisations develop products, processes, marketing, and organisational social innovations. Innovation activities on the organization's transformational performance increased access to new targets. A study by De Wit et al. (2019) focuses on volunteers' roles in the generation, implementation, and diffusion of social innovations. While volunteer contributions to social innovations are encouraged by decentralised organisational structures, systematic "scaling up" of ideas, providing training, and giving a sense of ownership, they are hindered by a reluctant attitude and a lack of resources.

Another type of innovation in the non-profit sector is open innovation. As a relatively new approach, even for For-Profit Organizations, the relevancy of open innovation to the NPO has been rooted in the reason why NPO exist, including the collaboration and contribution of each stakeholder (Mergel & Desouza, 2013; Inauen et al., 2011). Wemmer and Koenigstorfer (2016) define open innovation as using purposive inflows and outflows of knowledge to innovate. They develop a framework describing open innovation activities in non-profits as facets of four superordinate dimensions: permeability of the organisation's boundary, application and implementation of open innovation practices, managerial competencies, and the environmental and organisational surroundings in which the organisation operates. Subordinate facets such as the commitment of the organisation's leader and the strategic use of cooperative environments explain how and why NPOs are successful at implementing innovations and how their non-profit status (e.g., volunteer work) contributes to (or is in conflict with) innovation.

### **2.4.1 Innovation in Museum Context**

Museums strive to fulfil their mission primarily through collections and programming, ranging from exhibitions to various community activities. Innovation is crucial in this process and is closely linked to entrepreneurial marketing practices that help museums engage audiences and remain relevant in a dynamic cultural landscape (Fillis et al., 2017). Within the museum setting, innovation is not merely a product of internal factors—such as employee motivation, organisational culture, and effective leadership—but is also strongly influenced by relationships with external stakeholders, including local communities and the broader public (Garrido & Camarero, 2014).

Adapting to museum innovations often requires organisational change and ongoing skill development, particularly as technology and audience expectations evolve (Navarrete, 2014). However, for museums to successfully implement these changes, support from internal stakeholders alone may not be sufficient. Instead, collaboration with external partners is often essential, providing the resources, expertise, and community connections needed to bring innovative initiatives to life (Arrigoni et al., 2020). This collaborative approach enables museums to build sustainable, inclusive programming that aligns with their mission while addressing the diverse interests of their stakeholders. The museum cannot distance itself from the community because its collection reflects its life with all its history. It also needs to continue its life through reflection and learning from past events (Krmopotich & Peers, 2011). There were several knowledge groups in the museum innovation literature, including the type of innovation, the role of stakeholders in the innovation process, and organisational issues related to innovation initiatives in the museum field.

### **2.4.2 Innovation and Market Orientation**

Studies by Camarero and Garrido (2008) examined market orientation as an antecedent of museum performance, with innovation as its mediating variable. However, another study has a different point of view because museums have multiple stakeholders, not only visitors and beneficiaries (Vicente et al., 2012). This debate has been rooted in the narrow focus of the market orientation approach derived from the profit sector and mainly focuses on customer orientation (Camarero et al., 2015).

The museum has its exhibition, although it is the central part, and offers additional services, including a café and merchandise shop. Business model innovation is essential for museums as they have diverse stakeholders with their needs (Trunfio & Campana, 2020). In this current

situation, when there is a significant transformation, mainly driven by the advancement of technology and information systems, museum management needs to transform and redefine the museum service model (Trunfio et al., 2020). The youngest generation that visits museums today is engaged in museums primarily online and with different demands to experience digital enjoyment (Agostino et al., 2020).

#### **2.4.3 Museum organisational characteristics and innovation.**

Museums are still considered organisations trapped in the conventional way of delivering their services to society because the public still perceives museums as about exhibitions. However, society's dynamic has pressured museums to transform, including digital transformation (Arrigoni et al., 2020). The public has questioned museum collections and exhibitions' authenticity with the combination of technology in displaying collections, such as immersive technology (Dueholm and Smed, 2014). Collaboration between museum management and other institutions will help the transformation of museums as a part of collaborative action (Li & Ghirardi, 2019; Li & Coll-Serrano, 2019).

#### **2.4.4 Definition of Museum Innovation.**

In the last fifteen years, from 2007 to 2024, there has been an increasing trend of studies on museum innovation. If the fifteen-year trend is divided into five years, it can be seen that the highest was in the last five years. Several researchers have been led to contribute to museum innovation studies, such as Carmen Camarero (Universidad de Valladolid, Spain) and Jose Maria Garrido (Universidad de Valladolid, Spain), who both have several articles published in both non-profit focused journals and also museum-specific journals. Other researchers have contributed productively to museum innovation literature in the last ten years, such as Mariapina Trunfio (Parthenope University of Naples, Italy) and Eva Vicente (Universidad et al.).

Museum innovation studies have not only entered more mainstream journals in the marketing and management academic outlet, such as the International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management and the European Journal of Innovation Management but have been covered in more diverse journals that focus on policy sectors related to tourism, for example, International Journal of Cultural Policy and European Planning Studies. However, as it has become the primary outlet for museum management study, Museum Management and Curatorship Journal have been the leading and dominant journal for museum innovation study.

Museum innovation has been studied, primarily related to the dynamics in the management of museums. Museum innovation has also been an essential aspect of a museum that represents some important cultural and heritage sites that a country has. The studies of museum innovation are primarily conducted in developed countries, especially in Europe, such as Italy, Spain, France, and the United Kingdom. The studies also covered two countries from Northern America, Canada, and the United States, and there is still a limitation regardless of the study on developing countries, especially Asia and Africa continents.

Following the growing trend of innovation studies in the museum sector over the last seventeen years (2007-2024), several researchers have introduced several definitions. The literature on innovation in museum management reflects diverse definitions, each shedding light on different aspects of what innovation entails within this unique sector. These definitions highlight the complexity and adaptability of innovation, showing it as both a driver of engagement and a critical factor in competitiveness and societal impact. As museums adapt to an evolving cultural landscape, their interpretations of innovation increasingly reflect a blend of traditional values and modern, interactive elements, aiming to enrich visitor engagement and organisational sustainability.

Dawson (2008) offers a foundational perspective, defining innovation as encompassing the offerings a company creates, the customers it serves, the processes it uses, and the points of presence it establishes to deliver these offerings to the market. This approach emphasises innovation's functional and operational aspects, particularly in reaching and engaging with audiences. By focusing on these practical connections, Dawson's business-oriented view positions innovation as a multi-dimensional tool for enhancing organisational reach and responsiveness, which resonates strongly with museums seeking to connect with diverse visitor demographics in today's digital age.

Building on this, Baregheh et al. (2009) describe innovation as a multistage process of transforming ideas into new or improved products, services, or processes, which allows organisations to advance, compete, and differentiate themselves. This definition frames innovation as a transformative journey, emphasising the developmental steps required for organisations to stand out in competitive environments. For museums which operate within a crowded cultural landscape, Baregheh et al.'s view underscores the importance of innovation as a tool for securing visitor engagement, funding, and visibility. Here, innovation is seen as a process that supports museums in achieving differentiation and resilience, essential traits in a rapidly evolving sector.

Taking a different angle, Calcagno and Biscaro (2012) focus on innovation as providing services and tools that support the construction of meaning. They argue that museum innovation often involves redesigning language and engagement methods to involve visitors in sense-making, emphasising interactive and interpretive experiences. This definition aligns closely with current trends in the museum sector, where enhancing visitor involvement and fostering interactive learning are increasingly central. Calcagno and Biscaro's approach positions innovation as a mechanism for deepening visitor engagement by actively involving audiences in cultural and historical interpretation.

Coblence and Sabatier (2014) introduce the concept of "cultural innovation," defining it as an organisation's ability to design, implement, and distribute products that bring new aesthetic and symbolic value. This definition suits museums, as it captures their unique role in advancing cultural and artistic expression. Coblence and Sabatier's framework goes beyond technology and processes, suggesting that museums can serve as hubs of cultural renewal where innovation drives the creation and dissemination of new aesthetic and symbolic propositions. This perspective highlights museums' dual role as preservers of tradition and as creators of new cultural narratives.

Expanding on these definitions, Goulaptsi et al. (2020) propose a comprehensive view of innovation as the intentional introduction and application of new ideas, processes, products, or procedures within any role, group, or organisation. They emphasise that innovation is essential for enhancing individual and organisational performance, securing competitive advantage, and fostering economic development. This definition's broad applicability suggests that innovation should be embedded at all levels of museum operations, from curatorial practices to visitor engagement strategies, allowing for a pervasive impact that benefits both internal processes and external outcomes. For museums, Goulaptsi et al.'s approach encourages an integrated view where innovation supports sustainability and adaptation across all organisational areas.

Finally, Nogare and Murzyn-Kupisz (2021) take a holistic view of innovation, defining it not only as scientific and technological change but also as encompassing organisational, financial, and commercial advances. This inclusive definition reflects a deep understanding of innovation as a multi-faceted driver of competitiveness, crucial for adapting to changing production and market dynamics. For museums, this perspective aligns well with the sector's emphasis on sustainability and financial resilience, advocating for innovation that transcends exhibits and visitor experience to include strategic approaches that strengthen the organisation's overall viability.

**Table 2-3 Type of Innovation and Its Definition**

Study	Definition
Dawson (2008)	The offerings a company creates, the customers it serves, the process it employs and the points of presence it uses to take its offerings to markets
Baregheh et al (2009)	The multistage process of transforming ideas into new/improved products, services, or processes in order to advance, compete, and differentiate organisations successfully in the marketplace
Calcagno and Biscaro (2012)	The offer of services and tools to support the construction of meanings is also the result of a redesign of the language offered to users, and it aims to involve them in the process of sense-making.
Coblence and Sabatier (2014)	Cultural innovation is the organisation's ability to design, implement, and distribute products that support renewed aesthetic and symbolic propositions.
Goulaptsi et al. (2020)	The intentional introduction and application within a role, group, or organization of ideas, processes, products, or procedures new to the relevant unit of adoption and designed to significantly benefit the individual, the group, the organization, or broader society constitutes a vital determinant for successful performance, competitive advantage, economic development, and long-term survival in any organization.

Study	Definition
Nogare and Murzyn-Kupisz (2021)	Not just scientific and technological change but also organisational, financial, and commercial changes that make firms more competitive through novel approaches to production and markets

In summary, the definitions of innovation in museum management reveal a progressively expansive and multidimensional concept. Early definitions, such as Dawson's, emphasise innovation's operational and outreach aspects. These views are then expanded by Baregheh et al. and Calcagno and Biscaro, who frame innovation as both a transformative and an interactive process, catering to the evolving needs of visitor engagement and competition. Later definitions by Coblenz and Sabatier, Goulaptsi et al., and Nogare and Murzyn-Kupisz add depth by exploring innovation in cultural, organisational, and strategic contexts, indicating that innovation in museums is as much about internal resilience and sustainability as it is about external engagement. Collectively, these definitions illustrate that innovation in museum management has evolved to include a broad range of approaches, encompassing technology, visitor engagement, cultural expression, and organisational resilience, thereby underscoring its vital role in ensuring that museums continue to thrive and adapt to contemporary challenges.

As seen in Table 1, essential notes can be taken to propose a new and integrative definition of innovation for the museum sector. Firstly, innovation is related to the offerings of the museums' products (Dawson, 2008; Calcagno & Biscaro, 2012). Secondly, from all available definitions, a process of innovation involves all related stakeholders, internally and externally (Goulaptsi et al., 2020). Thirdly, the museum will experience a process of change, a transformation that includes the organisation's ability to manage assets and capabilities to achieve some level of competitiveness and sustainable condition (Baregheh et al., 2009; Coblenz & Sabatier, 2014; Nogare and Murzyn-Kupisz, 2021). With all those essential aspects from several available museum innovation definitions, a new proposal of integrative museum innovation definition is: *“an offering from museums that includes all relevant stakeholders in the process of transforming museum assets and capabilities to be a sustainable organisation.”*

As a cultural organization, a museum must innovate managerially to transform the thinking that museums are only related to their collection into a broader audience and stakeholders'



perspective (Bearman & Geber, 2008). Although their existing visitors, donors, and sponsors are essential, they also bring more demanding pressure regarding output and outcome, transparency, and accountability (Dainelli et al., 2013). Therefore, museum management has to be innovative and more flexible to satisfy all available and potential stakeholders (Lusiani & Zan, 2010).

The relationship between collaboration and innovation has been an emerging topic among studies in this area lately. In the process of innovation, collaboration has been a crucial factor in achieving technological and cultural innovation in museums (Li & Coll-Serano, 2019). They show that museums can choose different forms of collaboration, such as teamwork, outsourcing, consortium, and conversation, to gain innovation. There are several motivations behind those initiatives to collaborate with museum stakeholders, including supplementing human resources, compensating for the scarcity of knowledge, and improving demand-driven innovation (Harrison, 2005; Waibel & Erway, 2009).

In a study that focuses mainly on one dedicated stakeholder of museums, the visitors, Camarero et al. (2015) prove that museums need to balance being innovative and keeping their role as custodian keepers or keepers of the tradition respond to the visitors' expectations. An investment or focus on technological advancement as their innovation focus will gain financial and economic performance. The study also identifies an exciting finding regarding museums' size and relationship with a focus on innovation and tradition. Museums with bigger sizes have more significant resources and are more accessible to have a focus on custodial focus. In small and medium size museums, organisations still focus on attracting more visitors and wider potential donors and sponsors. Moreover, a study by Camarero et al. (2011) in four countries demonstrates that museum size does prove relevant in the commitment to engage in innovation but that public funding of museums does not encourage innovation. About innovation and performance, this study also finds that organisational and technological innovations, as well as innovation in value creation in museums, enhance economic, market, and social performance.

In terms of technological innovation, although a museum has already invested in information and communication technology (ICT), the study by Guccio et al. (2020) shows that ICT is still a complement to good services provided by the museums' management to the visitors. However, all support from ICT to museums can either strengthen the experience or complete those experiences while the visitors are in the museums or before and after visits.

Museums, with their exhibitions (Rentschler et al., 2014), are also part of innovation in exploiting available collections and sometimes explore possibilities to collaborate with other institutions regarding exhibition themes and titles. Some major exhibitions are sometimes called blockbusters among museum stakeholders. As an innovation, a museum's exhibitions contain pro-activeness, entrepreneurial aspects, and risk-taking behaviour. If innovation has been part of its museum brand management, an exhibition could be a sub-brand with its specific effort alongside its brand. By making space for families in exhibitions that are considered blockbusters, in terms of the high value of objects being exhibited or the well-known artist and their phenomenal artworks, the museum could also provide their audience with experience and show the practice of democratisation on exhibition. Family, as one crucial segment of the museum visitor, need a room that is active, inclusive (spaces physically) and intellectually democratised exhibition (O'Reilly & Lawrenson, 2021).

Besides the blockbuster exhibition, some museums worldwide are regarded as achieving superstar status. A superstar museum's brand will lead to some degree of innovation and sometimes might lead to a controversial idea. As a superstar museum, the Louvre has been identical to France as the museums located there can build its brand alongside the branding of place and nation in France. The management of the Louvre agreed to build an agreement that includes the national agreement of France and the United Arab Emirates. In late 2017, The Louvre Abu Dhabi was inaugurated ten years after the agreement was signed. After years of challenging times to offer an exhibition and programs that could complement the existing Louvre in France and then add a new touch and new vision to The Louvre Abu Dhabi, this case study shows an example of radical managerial innovation that is close to high risk but necessary for the brand as big as Louvre to keep innovating (Gombault & Selles, 2018).

The museum can be an outlet for a product to leverage its brand by showing and exhibiting a legacy of the famous innovative product. An example of a museum that supports and strengthens brand value and equity is Salvatore Ferragamo with its corporate museum. A corporate museum could strengthen the brand and promote the company's heritage (Caru et al., 2017). Consumers' search for authenticity has contributed to the proliferation of corporate museums more than in the old days. The study by Caru et al. (2017) shows that, through the design and operation of Salvatore Ferragamo's corporate museum, the authenticity associated with the Salvatore Ferragamo brand is getting bigger and stronger. Furthermore, it can be observed and proved that a corporate museum can be viewed as an effective authentication tool, both within the company (family members and management representatives) and outside it (opinion leaders and visitors).

One of the newest technological innovations that museums have also responded to and started to implement is augmented reality (AR). The experience visitors will have the initial purpose of this new technology; however, cultural traits and cultural differences of the visitors in using AR have become a challenge for its implementation (Jung et al., 2018). Augmented Reality contains several characteristics, as new technology could be an aesthetic and hedonistic object in terms of visitor acceptance to use it. Jung et al. (2018) study of two countries (South Korea and the Republic of Ireland) that have contrasting cultural dimensions based on Hofstede's framework shows that the aesthetics of AR strongly influence perceived enjoyment. It also found that high power distance, collectivism, and high uncertainty avoidance culture, such as South Korea, perceive stronger dependence on social influence and the hedonic characteristics of AR.

Introducing new technology to an institution with a fundamental goal related to the custodian of heritage or education has started with a demand for authenticities (Dueholm & Smed, 2014). The dilemma can be described around how the object or museum collection is being interpreted and continued with how the experience is going (Ciolfi et al., 2008). On the other side, there is some thought that the challenge or barrier of implementing a new strategic orientation, such technology reflects a conservatism in the museum and heritage sector (Dueholm & Smed, 2014). Dueholm and Smed's (2014) study based on an exploratory case setting in Denmark proposes that different conceptions of authenticity can co-exist within the tourist setting, whereby new technologies can be implemented to strengthen heritage sites as tourism attractions while still paying attention to authenticity and ongoing authentication processes. Furthermore, the study also found that understanding levels and patterns of authenticity among various groups of actors is central to discussions of authenticity and its role in tourism settings.

Besides authenticity, a museum's relevance to visitors, the community, and other important existing and potential stakeholders is another difficulty. A transformation will be needed to be relevant to today's conditions (Bearman & Geber, 2008). The transformation also needs several scenarios, but some essential supporting systems must be established first, including the human resources management system.

Another institution, especially in the cultural and creative industry, has been perceived to receive knowledge spillover from a museum to keep more innovative after having some projects or even as a part of the museum supply chain (Dalle et al., 2021). In their study of Polish museums, Dalle Nogare and Murzyn-Kupisz (2021) also suggest that the traditional missions of museums, in particular education and conservation, need to be more thoroughly assessed in

terms of their direct and indirect contributions in order to fully capture the impact of museums on innovation on the broader economy.

Cross-sector collaboration between museums and other institutions could be a resource for innovation. In a case study set in a Danish context, Sondergaard and Veirum (2012) found a joint venture model for culture-driven innovation in a public-private consortium that addresses these institutional barriers and has proven successful in Denmark. Furthermore, culturally driven innovation and cross-sector collaboration have been crucial in Sondergaard and Veirum's (2012) study, as institutional barriers currently restrict interaction between museums, universities, and SMEs.

The role of market orientation and innovation in achieving the museum's sociocultural and economic performance has been challenging in keeping it competitive among leisure attractions (Lopez et al., 2019). Market orientation implementation and effort to gain innovation in a museum setting also need the influence of manager attitudes to make decisions. The study by Lopez et al. (2019), as a cross-national study in Spain and Latin America, shows that museum performance is influenced by innovation and market orientation. However, the most significant link shown by the proposed model is between market orientation and innovation.

#### **2.4.5 Innovation and Stakeholder Role**

The involvement of stakeholders in innovation has kept growing and has significantly contributed to organisational sustainability in the long term (Kock & Gemünden, 2020; Leonidou et al., 2020). Stakeholder engagement could make an organisation strategically align all available resources with organisation elements to support strategic clarity, thereby creating shared value and enhancing competitive advantage (Herrera, 2015).

The type of innovation that is enormously being connected to the study of stakeholder engagement is social innovation, which rooted in collaboration between institutions to address social-related issues that become broader societal concerns (Mirvis et al., 2016). All stakeholders involved in the social innovation initiatives have contributed and are involved deeply, resulting in the co-creation of innovation (Loureiro et al., 2020). However, the opportunity to become part of a dyadic engagement between all stakeholders involved needs a process to identify common specific social issues (Chen & Liu, 2020).

The resilience to stick to the vision to make innovation has also resulted from long-term and tight engagement among stakeholders (Santoro et al., 2020). In the long-term and tight

engagement, each stakeholder involved has made adaptations in some or even all organisational aspects to keep the relationship existing and continuing (Veronica et al., 2020). Moreover, although more stakeholders involved will add to a more complicated perspective alignment between stakeholders, some studies found that more involved stakeholders are more sustained in their engagement in specific innovation commitments (Ferraris et al., 2020).

The proactivity of each stakeholder involved in innovation will contribute to higher value creation, which in the long term will attract many supporters and prospective stakeholders to be later involved (Pucci et al., 2020). Another factor that increases the engagement level between stakeholders is the diversity of the stakeholders involved, as each might contribute something that is not had by the other (Babu et al., 2020). However, the collaboration among stakeholders in a proactive manner and under diverse conditions is not trouble-free as each stakeholder might lose or have taken a different strategic movement and become a different organization than it was before; in other words, changing identity (Lehtinen et al., 2019).

Changing the organisation's strategic direction might impact the organisation's way of achieving sustainability, especially in the area related to financial sustainability, in which each organisation might have its business model (Herrera, 2016). Maintaining an understanding of its own identity and at the same time contributing to more extensive innovation initiatives among stakeholders will need a balance between internal and external stakeholders, which each have different aspirations and needs, including to be more open or close to engagement level among stakeholders involved (Grama-Vigouroux et al., 2020).

## **2.5 Nonprofit performance**

Still, in 2006, another essential work discusses the distinction between how for-profit and non-profit have assessed themselves and are later being assessed by their stakeholders regarding the impact on stakeholders and measured performance (Baruch & Ramalho, 2006). Partially, it has also been answered with the characteristics of nonprofits that depend on the accumulation of social capital resulting from the organisation's tight relationship with the stakeholders (Bryce, 2006). Nonprofit organisation's relationship with the stakeholders has built distinct organisation identities that differentiate nonprofits from their counterpart (Z. G. Voss et al., 2006).

Furthermore, there is an indication that innovation will become the crucial linkage that bridging long-term vision from both the overall organisation stakeholder and especially the organisation leader (G. B. Voss et al., 2006) with organisation performance (Shoham et al., 2006) After

Shoham et al. (2006) published SLR related to nonprofit performance and organization marketing, no single publication focused on generalisation findings of nonprofit performance.

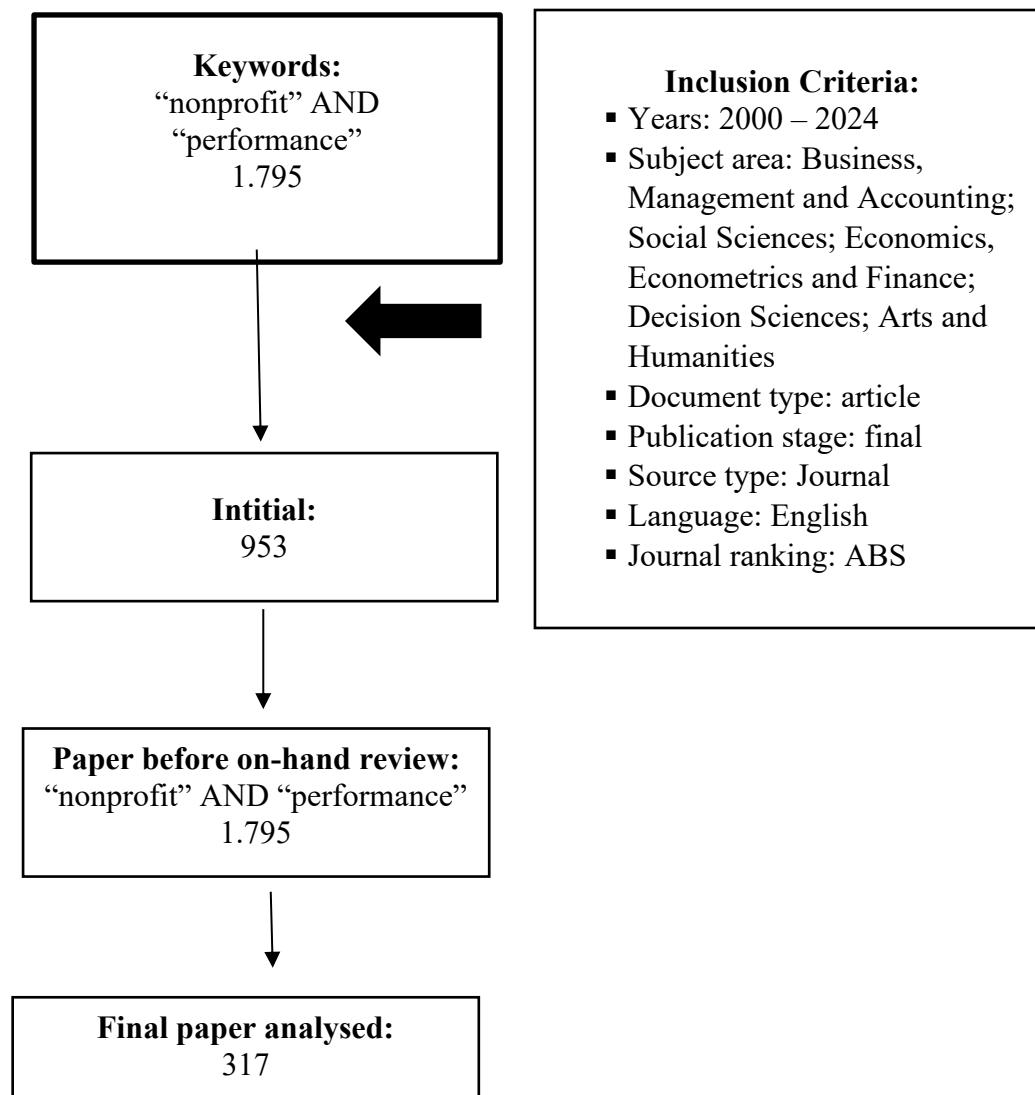
By using two keywords, “nonprofit” AND “performance”; it can be seen that the studies on nonprofit management have been distributed into different journals such as (1) Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly, (2) Journal of Business Ethics, (3) Decision Sciences, (4) Industrial Marketing Management, and (5) Journal of Marketing Research during 2007 and 2021. Although the trend is rising, researchers' attention to distributing their works in mainstream journals is still limited.

Museums endeavour to achieve their mission through core resources, primarily their collections and programming, encompassing exhibitions and various community-focused activities. Innovation is essential in these efforts, often interwoven with entrepreneurial marketing strategies that enable museums to engage diverse audiences and maintain cultural relevance in an ever-evolving landscape (Fillis et al., 2017). However, the successful implementation of innovation in museums is not solely the result of internal factors, such as employee motivation, organisational culture, and leadership; it also heavily relies on the institution’s interactions with external stakeholders, including local communities and the broader public (Garrido & Camarero, 2014).

Implementing innovation within museums often necessitates organisational change and the development of new skills, especially as technological advancements and audience expectations shift (Navarrete, 2014). Furthermore, while internal support from stakeholders is critical, museums often require collaborative partnerships to adopt and sustain these changes successfully. Collaboration with external partners offers additional resources, expertise, and community connections that enrich museum initiatives and facilitate the creation of programs aligned with the institution’s mission (Arrigoni et al., 2020). This collaborative approach fosters sustainable and inclusive programming and ensures that museums remain responsive to the interests and needs of a broad spectrum of stakeholders.

Nonprofits have characteristics that differentiate them from their counterparts, the for-profit. With the development of NPO performance literature, a dedicated systematic literature review was needed to identify the essential aspects found in the existing literature. Three primary research databases, Scopus, World of Science, and Google Scholar were used to mine current literature using “nonprofit” and “performance” as keywords.

Figure 2-6 SLR Protocol of Nonprofit Performance



Nonprofit organizational performance studies have been published in several main research outlets. The list of journals that studies this subject are Nonprofit Management and Leadership, Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly, Voluntas, Public Administration Review, Journal of Nonprofit and Public Sector Marketing, Journal Of Sport Management, International Journal Of Nonprofit And Voluntary Sector Marketing, Management Science, Journal Of Business Ethics, Journal Of Business Research, Organization Science, Public Management Review, International Review On Public And Nonprofit Marketing, Journal Of Marketing Research, Journal Of Strategic Marketing, Public Organization Review, Decision Sciences, Industrial Marketing Management, Journal Of Marketing, Journal Of Operations Management, Management Decision, Museum Management And Curatorship, Service Industries Journal, Sport Management Review, Academy Of Management Journal, Asia Pacific Journal Of Management, and Australasian Marketing Journal.

From all articles related to nonprofit performance, several insights can be found as essential insights and main themes: (1) accountability, (2) organizational leadership, (3) organization mission, (4) Cross-organization collaboration, and (5) Stakeholder involvement.

### **2.5.1 Nonprofit Organisation and Accountability**

NPOs struggle to manage organisational concerns like effectiveness and efficiency (Rey-Garcia et al., 2018). There is still disagreement on how organisations define effectiveness in the nonprofit literature; on the one hand, several organisations describe effectiveness as minimising overhead, while on the other, effectiveness is linked to outcome accountability (Mitchell, 2013). Most NPO members and its head agree that efficiency is best defined by the phrase "economic efficiency" in this context (Costa et al., 2011). Although NPO stakeholders now naturally expect effectiveness and efficiency as a condition of their support, maintaining and improving NPOs' limited capacity remains a significant challenge. This problem has been partially resolved by the spirit of internal and external collaboration (Abouassi et al., 2016).

Several factors have been identified as having an impact on NPO performance, including those relating to organisational accountability (Morrison & Salipante, 2007), the close connection between an NPO and its mission (McDonald, 2007), the mission of an NPO and its resource streams (Kaplan, 2001; Sawhill & Williamson, 2001), and the reliance on and maintenance of public support (Moulton & Eckerd, 2012). The issue is that managers and staff misunderstand or have severe concerns about marketing. Employees refer to it as "turning to the dark side" in extreme situations (Chad et al., 2014).

According to the literature on nonprofit management, board governance practises are directly influenced by the gender and racial diversity of the board. Performance in a nonprofit organisation is divided into organisational, managerial, and individual components (Doherty & Hoyer, 2011; Becker et al., 2011). The impact of the board's gender and racial diversity on internal and external governance practises is moderated by board inclusion behaviours, diversity policies, and practises. Additionally, we discovered an interaction effect that suggests that the detrimental effects of racial diversity on governance practice are lessened when boards have higher gender diversity. The results indicate that a more diverse board membership can improve board governance, but only if the board acts inclusively and practises and rules allow the diverse members to have an impact (Buse et al., 2016). Numerous organizational-level characteristics, including financial performance, have been studied. Financial performance has



been measured in various ways, including public support, fundraising effectiveness, and budgetary performance (Ritchie et al., 2007).

The operational activities and human resources of the nonprofit organisation are essential. Due to this, much research on nonprofit management concentrates on organisational and human resource issues, such as a shift to more businesslike practices or managerialism (Ridder et al., 2012). include some particular uses of human resources, such as temporary volunteer work. Volunteers are recognised as those who invest much time offering social groups their unpaid services. Volunteers have three crucial responsibilities at nonprofit hospitals. They help and tend to patients first. Second, they produce strategic value through their involvement in marketing, community relations, and fundraising. Third, they save the organisation money by lowering hospital expenses (Meyer et al., 2013).

### **2.5.2 Organisational Leadership and Organisational Performance in the Nonprofit Sector**

In order to address the issue of NPO efficiency, NPO studies have included more leadership-related topics in their research. Several studies have concentrated on particular leadership philosophies, including entrepreneurial (Ruvio et al., 2010), benevolent (Chan et al., 2012), transformational (Rowold & Rohmann, 2009), and transactional (Rowold & Rohmann, 2009). (Rowold and Rohmann, 2009). Various leadership approaches and traits may be used. However, NPOs will encounter certain aspects of human resources management practice, such as employees' pay and volunteer motivations (Solansky et al., 2008).

### **2.6.3 Nonprofit Organizational Goals**

The purpose of the NPO is crucial, and any performance evaluation will not be as required by the NPO's stakeholders since it has been emotionally linked to its current operations from its inception (Kirk & Beth Nolan, 2010). The primary source of worry among NPO stakeholders is the likelihood that the organisation may stray from its mission, or at least the idea that it will, is the primary source of worry (Hersberger-Langloh, 2020).

### **2.6.4 Collaboration between Nonprofit Organisations**

NPOs have experience working with comparable organisations and their peers but also value working with other unique counterparts, like the government. To accomplish socially motivated objectives, NPOs and governments have swapped competencies and resources; NPOs have their

knowledge and capacity, while governments have financing (Gazley & Brudney, 2007). NPOs may also be able to collaborate with the private sector in other ways. For instance, if an NPO lacks information technology competence, a private corporation may be able to fill that gap through collaboration (Hackler & Saxton, 2007).

NPOs must maintain accountability to their stakeholders in person and through various digital communication channels, such as social media and their website (Saxton & Guo, 2011). Setting up a performance measurement as part of stakeholder involvement in an NPO involves both internal and external stakeholders (MacIndoe and Barman, 2013). Stakeholders inside and outside the NPO are inspired to join because they feel connected to its objective. A well-designed mission statement is associated with more extraordinary organisational performance because it offers a context for decision-making, influence over employee and volunteer motivation, and a method of communicating organisational legitimacy to stakeholders (Kirk & Beth Nolan, 2010).

The participation of stakeholders in an NPO can also be observed in their representation on the board, and it may be related to the organisation's effectiveness (Gazley et al., 2010). An NPO leader is advised to keep a collaborative attitude because this will encourage stakeholder involvement in determining the organisation's accountability (Morrison & Salipante, 2007). In some circumstances, these organisations' infrastructure restricts community involvement, such as board representation. This situation will worsen if hearings or the budgetary process do not include larger stakeholders, such as the community, in decision-making (Handley & Howell-Moroney, 2020).

Information and communication technologies have increased NPOs' opportunities to interact more closely with their stakeholders; nevertheless, this chance to do so is influenced by organisational culture, which counts internal stakeholders as supporters (Ihm & Kim, 2021). Add something interactive to the NPO website and give a forum for two-way communication in line with the social media qualities (Kinsky et al., 2014). There is a severe risk that some NPOs would ignore the content, such as stakeholders' perceptions, to gauge their popularity (Lee, 2021).

The concept of becoming a hybrid organisation, which has replaced earlier delicate terminology like "marketisation" and "business-like adoption" for an NPO in modern usage, will get more support from NPO stakeholders as a result of stakeholder involvement and engagement (Carre et al., 2021). Increased stakeholder involvement in NPO activities offers the chance to get

funding for more creative solutions (Besana, 2012). One illustration is volunteering. An NPO cannot function without volunteers since they help the organisation's primary objective of serving the public through their commitment and emotional investment in the organisation (Meyer et al., 2013).

As the museum has been chosen as the focus of the current study, further investigation of museum performance is needed to find similarities and differences between museums and other nonprofit subsector.

### **2.5.3 Museum performance**

The review of the museum's specific academic outlets focuses on several journals: (1) Museum Management and Curatorship, (2) International Journal of Heritage Studies, and (3) Journal of Cultural Economics. Between 2007 and 2021, the discussion on museum performance has been focused on several research streams. Efficiency as a nonprofit organisation has been one of the main discussions as the contribution to broad stakeholders into museum existence. There is a progressive shift in the area strongly related to public services, including museums, with new paradigms such as new public management and managerialism. The rising concern from museum people and its organisational environment has also resulted from professionalism.

In the middle of pressure to become more efficient and professional among other similar institutions and as a subtype of the nonprofit organisation, museums need to show their accountability to their current supporter. The leader of the museum has been a person who is perceived as bridging stakeholders' aspirations for museum performance and, at the same time, knowing the condition of museums, including all the assets and capabilities to achieve long-term goals and sustainability. Innovation is one of the main topics discussed in museum performance to achieve certain types of performance.

Efficiency is another essential aspect that has become a big challenge for museums and their management. To be efficient as an organisation that focuses mainly on nonprofit matters and is dependent on resources from current or potential stakeholders, the museum has to show its ability to handle all the available resources carefully, including its talent and collection.

As non-profit organisations, museums require funding to support their operations and demonstrate that their value to the public is evolving and staying relevant. (Simmel & Bittner, 2009). They rely on stakeholders to provide resources for curatorial work, visitor services, and public programs. A museum's location is also crucial to its success.

Although several studies have argued that a single and focused mission will help the museums to effectively and efficiently achieve their goals, another study has challenged this thinking with the existence and potential stakeholders with diverse aspirations (Jacobsen, 2013). Furthermore, there is also significant transformational change as museums face modern world challenges, including collecting valuable objects and responding to social issues with all available resources, including employee expertise and organisational network. (Hatton, 2012).

From the continuing studies on nonprofit performance, two factors became museum performance captured from market orientation studies. The first performance measurement for a museum is social performance. A museum is being assessed regarding its social performance, mainly from the education and recreation aspect.

From all museum performances reviewed, several gaps exist, including the role of museum leader and leadership style that facilitate the performance achievement and focus on the long term, unique value and cohesive (Griffin, 2008; Nunes et al., 2021). Another critical gap concerns the type of performance assessment that could reach generalisation levels for the different types of museums and in the various cultural contexts, especially by using a market-oriented approach. (Blasco López et al., 2018).

Museums are cultural institutions and economic entities that need to achieve their financial and non-financial goals. They require a comprehensive strategy that aligns economic and socio-cultural interests. By balancing these objectives, museums can ensure their long-term sustainability and contribute to society's growth and development, as Blasco López et al. (2018) noted. The museum's economic performance can be measured over the years, as it also has a social impact on residents, the surrounding area, and the collection improvements. Scholars such as Garrido & Camarero (2014) have measured museums' economic performance through increased revenue, benefits and visitors and their socio-cultural performance through improved visitor satisfaction, reputation, tourism resources, and residents' standard of living, as noted by Blasco López et al. (2018). In this thesis, Museum Performance is defined as a measure of how effectively and efficiently a museum uses its resources to achieve its purpose (Jacobsen, 2014).

A systematic literature review identified essential themes in the museum performance literature using three research databases, Scopus, Web of Science, and Google Scholar, and found 45 eligible articles. All articles have been published in several leading publications such as Museum Management and Curatorship, Journal of Cultural Heritage, International Journal of Heritage Studies, International Journal of Cultural Policy, and Journal of Cultural Economics.

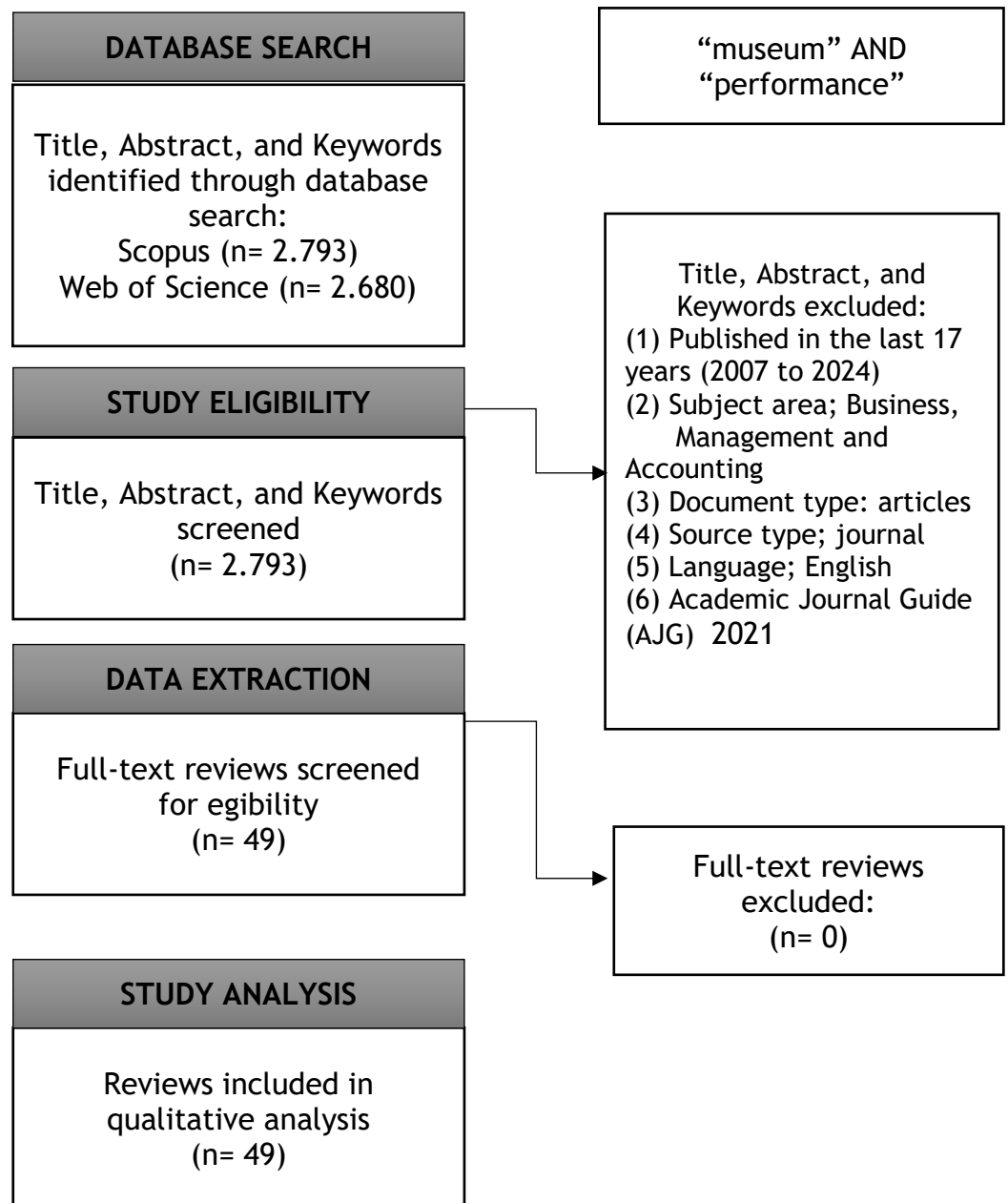
Several main themes include performance measurement, organisational characteristics, innovation, accountability, and leadership.

Efforts to measure an organisation's performance are related to its degree of autonomy with resource providers, such as a local museum with the local government (Placek et al., 2021). The degree of autonomy between a museum and its funders raises essential issues, such as maximising the achievement of social values as a goal demanded from the public (Kann-Rasmussen & Hvenegaard Rasmussen, 2021).

The International Council of Museums (2007) defines a museum as a non-profit making, permanent institution in the service of society and of its development, and open to the public, which acquires, conserves, researches, communicates, and exhibits for purposes of study, education and enjoyment, material evidence of people and their environment'. The definition of a museum gives a clue about who is responsible for measuring the museum's performance. Society and the public are the main stakeholders and act to measure museum performance, especially in fulfilling needs such as education and information related to the museum collection and activities.

Furthermore, according to Hatton (2012), museum management and marketing literature continue searching for contemporary relevance, yet continue to dichotomize collecting stewardship, and scholarship vs services to various publics, and only settling relatively on the all-purpose paradigm in the late twentieth century. Thus, museums have to 'speciate' into distinctly different institutions with different aims, outgrowing their twentieth-century default paradigm and allowing leadership to embrace the evolution of purpose, generating significant transformational change (Hatton, 2012). Meanwhile, According to Gstraunthaler & Piber (2007), the growing museum performance literature pressures the museum to become more accountable. As more stakeholders are involved in museum operations, for example, the government acting as the museum's donor and sponsor requires museums to report numbers of figures and some related to accounting measurement.

Figure 2-7 Museum Performance SLR Protocol



In practice, many museums operate as community service museums, fulfilling several different purposes that are beneficial and desired by the community beyond the purpose stated in their mission. Museums must develop the rationale for measuring the value and performance of community service museums that serve multiple missions rather than a single mission, with each museum unique in its balance of purposes (Jacobsen, 2014).

#### **2.5.4 Museum Performance Measurement**

This paradigm shift was accompanied by the rise of techniques used by market-orientated managers to lead the enterprise and control the use of resources. As soon as enterprises and museums were put on the same level, these management techniques started to shape the culture of the former bureaucracies (Gstraunthaler & Piber, 2007). Different interests also shape the performance of a museum. For performance measurement, it is vital to clarify the meaning of 'performance' in a specific context. As museums act in different social fields and fulfil various cultural functions, the notion of performance also embraces aesthetic dimensions. Managers need to agree on how to measure performance to define what is being measured and how it will be measured, as well as establish models of good practice to help deliver measurable improvements (Zorloni, 2010).

Different availability of assets and capabilities has encouraged the museum to apply a specific strategic orientation to attract visitors, leading to improving museum performance (Wilson, 2004). With its traditional and stereotypical image, some visitors perceive the museum as a place of authority and truth (Sutherland Clothier, 2014). The museum's authenticity, together with its collection, then stimulates visitors' experiences and knowledge, as the museum commodifies by packaging and presenting all collections in such a specific way (Hallewood & Hannam, 2001). The objects or stories presented affect museum visitors' interpretation as part of the learning process (Clark & Amati, 2019). Thus, the museum, for example, the curator, has to set a mission to provide a direction for visitors' interpretation (Carr, 2001), which is part of the museum's performance.

In addition to visitors' interpretation, the number of visitors visiting the museum mirrors the museum's performance. The increased number of visitors motivates the museum to complete and advance the visitor experience by continuing the education activity through the museum store (Toepler & Dewees, 2005). Private owners and local authorities prefer a different variation of strategy that, for example, consists of product management, quality management, and training development (Ebberts et al., 2021). As a supporting business activity that focuses on selling items related to the exhibition, collection, and brand of the museums, some products can be sold, such as books (Mottner & Ford, 2005).

#### **2.5.5 Museum size, organisational capacity, and pressure to be accountable.**

Camarero et al. (2011) argue that the organisation's size affects museum management, and stakeholders measure the museum's performance. The size of the museum organisation leads to

more stakeholders' involvement regarding their different reasons and contributions to achieving museum goals. Another factor affecting the degree of complexity in measuring the museum performance, such as more complex demand outcomes, is the funding source. Public and private funding have the consequence of a commitment from both sides (the museum and the funders) to specific goals they try to achieve (Hughes & Luksetich, 1999; Lindqvist, 2012). Meanwhile, the performance management regime that has impacted local and national authority museums in distinct ways creates different organisational cultures. These impacts pertain to museums' professional and organisational autonomy, with significant differences between small local authority museums and large national museums. This has severe implications for how different types of museums relate to new managerialism and their mode of functioning (Tlili, 2014).

Table 2-4 **Museum Performance Definitions**

Study	Definition
Gstraunthaler and Piber (2007)	The performance of a museum is also shaped by different interests. For performance measurement purposes, it is vital to clarify the meaning of 'performance' in a specific context. As museums act in different social fields and fulfil a variety of cultural functions, the notion of performance also embraces aesthetic dimensions.
Griffin (2008)	Financial efficiency, focus on the long term, unique value, cohesive leadership, visitor-focused public program, concern for quality.
Legget (2009)	Added value, relationship with external environment, put mission ahead of profit, the access, social inclusion, and life-long learning agenda; Education in the community, utilisation of collections, reputation, accountability
Zorloni (2010)	Artistic quality, reputation, innovation, building external relationship, competitor intelligence, quality of management
Camarero et al (2011)	Economic, market, and social performance. In addition to including resource acquisition, the economic perspective should take account of other aspects such as boosting visitor numbers, increasing member numbers, job creation, or generating funds through temporary exhibitions. All of these



Study	Definition
Blasco Lopez et al (2019)	<p>economic goals are aimed at safeguarding the museum's survival and profitability. For its part, market performance refers to visitor perception and evaluation of the museum in terms of satisfaction and interest in its activities or reputation. Finally, the social perspective of performance addresses the mission orientation of cultural organizations</p> <p>Museum performance entails the accomplishment of both financial and non-financial goals, including both economic and socio-cultural objectives. Studies on this field have understood museums' economic performance in terms of increased revenue, benefits and visitors, whilst the museums' socio-cultural performance has been measured mainly by the improvement of visitors' satisfaction, the museum's reputation, increased tourism resource and a corresponding rise in residents' standard of living</p>
Nunes et al (2021)	<p>the extent to which one organization generates social and economic benefits for society at an acceptable cost, the value of its assets, and its longevity</p>
Orea-Giner et al (2021)	<p>Economic and socio-cultural value of a museum from local community and tourist perceptions. First, economic impact studies are focused on measuring the income produced by cultural goods; attempt to reactivate the local economy, to conserve or expand a public good.</p>
Placek et al (2021)	<p>Museum performance: focus on expositions, exhibitions, attendance, publications, and technical efficiency.</p>

Referring to the practice in the service sectors, mainly the tourism industry, museum performance can be assessed through techniques measuring visitors' perception as the customer, such as Importance-Performance Analysis (IPA) (Rivera et al., 2009). The results of IPA implementation in the current challenges of nonprofit sector management can provide helpful insight into management's decision-making (Lin, 2009; Rivera et al., 2009). The attribute assessed by IPA hints at how the most appropriate decision is in line with the level of customer

satisfaction that, furthermore, might become valuable information for the standard quality of the exhibition (Lin, 2009).

The culture of excellence is not only sourced from the internal museum. In today's practice, several museums have made a common standard of museum performance by learning from each other's experiences (Zorloni, 2010). The study has been interesting, seeing how institutions such as museums become part of a more comprehensive network, such as a heritage chain, and can learn from each other as a more extensive interconnected system. The concept can address problems and inconsistencies within an individual case and, from a comparative perspective, to understand how heritage became structured differently in different countries (Zan & Bonini Baraldi, 2013). In other words, museum performance can be achieved through and characterised by focusing on the long-term, unique value and cohesive leadership, which builds supportive but challenging relationships within the enterprise (Griffin, 2008).

Camarero and Garrido (2007) investigate museums in Spain and three strategic orientations affecting economic and social performance. The findings reveal that social effectiveness relates highly to product and customer orientation, whereas economic effectiveness mainly depends on sales orientation and inter-functional coordination. The results suggest that applying a marketing orientation centred on the product and knowing the visitor is critical for successfully fulfilling the conservation and culture diffusion objectives. Therefore, the organization needs to focus on sales, internal customers, and coordination between the managing institutions to achieve satisfactory economic results. Meanwhile, the museums' focus is to notice the visitor as an essential stakeholder and to balance museum management with the traditional view that museum roles are related to preservation, research, and the presentation of the object in the exhibition room (Mairesse & Eeckaut, 2002).

## **2.6 Leadership Style**

The study of leadership styles in marketing has evolved considerably, with a growing recognition of leadership's pivotal role in shaping organisational culture, driving performance, and adapting to market dynamics. Early studies often focused on transactional leadership, where leaders emphasised clear structures, rewards, and penalties to motivate employees toward achieving specific marketing goals (Bass, 1985). However, as market conditions have become more complex, transformational leadership has gained prominence in the marketing literature. Transformational leaders inspire employees to exceed expectations by fostering an environment of creativity, adaptability, and shared vision, essential for navigating the rapidly changing

demands of consumer markets (Avolio & Yammarino, 2013). Recent studies have also explored the impact of transformational leadership on brand equity and customer loyalty, showing that such leaders effectively promote customer-centric cultures that align with long-term brand values (Kumar & Pansari, 2016). This shift highlights the evolving understanding that effective leadership in marketing extends beyond immediate performance metrics to include a broader, value-based approach that cultivates employee engagement and customer loyalty.

In nonprofit marketing, exploring leadership styles has paralleled developments in for-profit sectors but with unique contextual considerations. Nonprofits operate in resource-constrained environments and are primarily mission-driven, which affects how leadership is practised and understood. Transformational leadership has been particularly impactful in the nonprofit sector, as it enables leaders to inspire commitment to the mission, motivating employees and volunteers to contribute beyond transactional rewards (Brimhall, 2019). Studies in this area indicate that transformational leaders in nonprofits improve internal cohesion and enhance the organisation's ability to engage with external stakeholders, including donors and community partners, which is crucial for achieving strategic goals (Jaskyte, 2015). Furthermore, transformational leadership has fostered a culture of innovation within nonprofits, helping them adopt creative approaches to address social challenges and secure sustainable funding (Suar & Khuntia, 2010). This has positioned transformational leadership as a critical model for nonprofits striving to remain resilient and responsive to societal needs.

The literature also suggests that servant leadership is increasingly relevant in marketing and nonprofit marketing, emphasising ethical practices, empathy, and a commitment to serving others (Greenleaf, 1977; Eva et al., 2019). Servant leadership's focus on supporting employee well-being and customer satisfaction aligns with the values-driven goals of nonprofit organisations, making it an effective style for building trust and long-term relationships with stakeholders (Parris & Peachey, 2013). In the marketing domain, servant leadership has been associated with positive brand reputation and customer loyalty, as leaders who prioritise the welfare of their employees and customers create an ethical brand image that resonates with socially conscious consumers (Liden et al., 2014). For nonprofits, servant leaders foster inclusive environments that encourage collaborative decision-making and transparency, which can strengthen relationships with donors and volunteers (van Dierendonck, 2011). Thus, the appeal of servant leadership lies in its potential to cultivate trust-based relationships, which are essential for customer retention in for-profit settings and stakeholder engagement in nonprofit contexts.

Additionally, the role of adaptive and agile leadership styles has become more prominent in recent marketing and nonprofit leadership studies, particularly in response to increasing digitalisation and global crises (Uhl-Bien & Arena, 2017). Adaptive leaders are characterised by their flexibility and ability to respond swiftly to changing environments, which is crucial in competitive markets and the dynamic nonprofit sector. In marketing, adaptive leadership supports quick responses to market changes, enabling organizations to innovate in customer engagement strategies and harness emerging digital tools effectively (McCarthy et al., 2020). For nonprofits, where limited resources often constrain adaptability, adaptive leadership can facilitate strategic pivots and innovative resource allocation in times of crisis (Day & Antonakis, 2012). Agile leadership, emphasising collaborative and iterative processes, further complements this approach, particularly in nonprofit organisations that must navigate complex stakeholder landscapes (Dinh et al., 2014). These adaptive styles underscore the evolving needs of both sectors for leaders who can respond effectively to unpredictability, manage diverse stakeholder needs, and foster a culture of resilience and adaptability.

### **2.6.1 Nonprofit Leadership**

The main publication outlet for the study of nonprofit leadership is the *Nonprofit Management and Leadership* journal, followed by *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly* (NVSQ), *Voluntas*, and *Administration in Social Work*. Other journals that support the discussion of nonprofit leadership include the *Leadership and Organization Development Journal*, the *International Journal of Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Marketing*, the *Journal of Arts Management Law and Society*, the *Public Administration Review*, and the *Academy of Management Journal*.

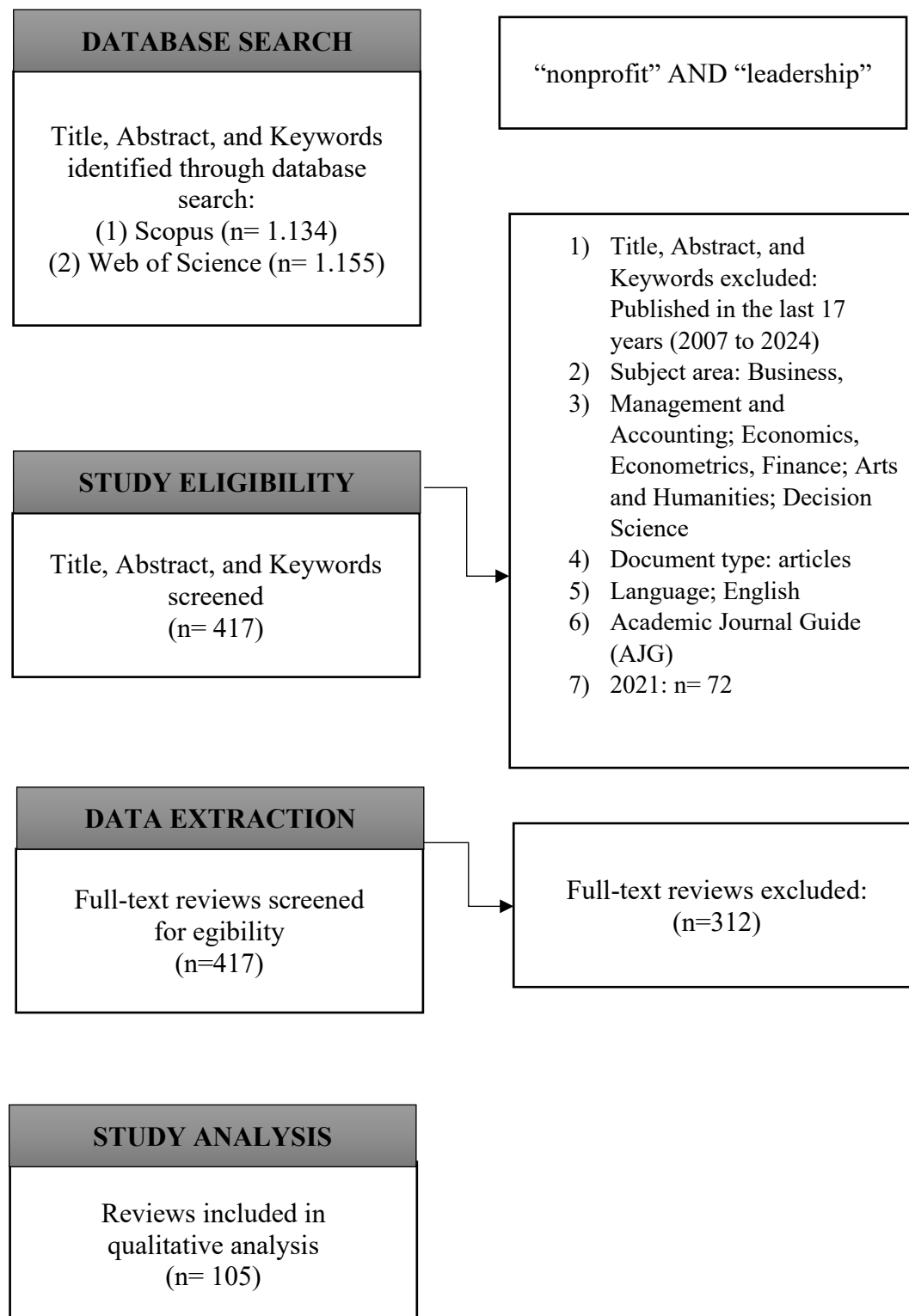
Several research themes are coming from the period 2007 to 2024 that include,

- Firstly, the domination of nonprofit leadership in the Western world or developed countries. Most of the studies come from the United States, followed by other countries from Europe.
- Secondly, the study of nonprofit leadership is related to how leadership facilitates collaboration between organisations and stakeholders.
- Thirdly, several discussions in the nonprofit leadership literature focus on managing human resources in the organisation, especially to find, nurture, and maintain leaders' loyalty. The process of managing leaders in the NPO context started with the design of training, which could cover unique areas where the NPO is, social issues, and its relation with stakeholders. There is a fact that it is difficult to find high-quality leaders in the

existing NPO field, as it limits how nonprofit organisations find the right leaders, including the design of succession from the internal of the organisation. There is also decreasing attraction from the new generation to become leaders in nonprofit organisations, as currently, the leaders are from a much older generation.

- Fourthly, the leader of a nonprofit organisation has the difficult task of bringing the organisation into organisational dynamics with appropriate culture.

**Figure 2-8 SLR Protocol of Nonprofit Leadership**



### 2.6.2 Transformational Leadership.

A historical study has often been conducted to find the list of available leadership typologies since it was introduced to the most recent development (Pearce et al., 2003). Following those typologies study, Pearce et al. (2003) successfully listed four typologies of leadership: directive leadership, transactional leadership, transformational leadership, and empowering leadership. The study by Pearce et al. (2003) supports that, until recently, transactional and transformational styles have dominated the leadership style research stream. The domination of transactional-transformational leadership has motivated several studies concerned with the nature of leadership and given additional discussion and debate regarding complex factors surrounding it (Yukl, 1998; Anderson & Sun, 2017). By using the evolutionary study of leadership, the work by Seters and Field (1990) has shown that every decade, different “trends” of leadership theory have been used to keep pace with the dynamics in those eras. Seters and Field (1990) also underlined the need for both practitioners and authors to carefully pay attention to the complexity of not only the internal factors of the organisation but also their complete business ecosystems, such as its competition, customer, and economic dynamics.

Several studies show that by implementing both transactional and transformational styles, a leader can explain the outcomes of all human resource management activities and succession from the existing leader to their future leader (Kuntz et al., 2019). Transactional-transformational theorists face another challenge: implicit leadership theory, which also results in the research of leadership using different cultural contexts, such as the GLOBE study (Verlage et al., 2012).

As a widely studied leadership style, transformational leadership is characterised by four dimensions; idealised influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualised consideration. The contrasting side of transformational leadership is the transactional type of leader’s innovation, transformational leadership, and innovation, the intrinsic one. Intrinsically motivated managers are more likely to be more transformative (Avolio & Bass, 2004).

Transformational leadership has proven to have the greatest influence on affective commitment and will need a dedicated communication activity among all stakeholders to communicate organisation principles, ideas, and vision (Rowold et al., 2014). Transformational leaders will give subordinates a conceptual map of where the organisation will head by inspiring them with a shared vision (Allen et al., 2003). These kinds of leaders will try to bind their follower’s

commitment to the organisation's vision. The transformational style of leaders will transform the organisation and the persons within the organisation. The leader who has transformational leaders is to change the organization for the better. A shortage of qualified leaders in the non-profit sector is imminent (Johnson, 2009).

The degree to which an organisation commits to specific marketing activities will be set by its top management's leadership, which is performed by its top management (Chad et al., 2013). In the most recent meta-analysis, transformational leadership positively correlates with outcomes from all followers in the hospitality organisation. The perception from the followers about the kind of relationship with their leaders is shown to be the most significant factor, followed by two other dimensions: attitudes and behaviours (Gui et al., 2020). In the same study, there were also exciting findings that cultural differences between leaders and followers expressed in the workplace can only partially moderate the relationship between transformational leadership and organisational performance. A more collective culture embedded in a hospitality context will increase cooperation and harmony among team members. Extra-role behaviour and organisational citizenship behaviour became articulated attitudes and behaviours. To act beyond his/her self-interest and work for the collective good (Avolio & Yamarino, 2002). Hence, a potential result of a practice of transformational leadership is a performance beyond expectations.

Transformational leadership theory highlights transformational leaders' vital role in enhancing organisations' overall performance levels (Yammarino et al., 2005). It proposes several approaches in which transformational leaders may influence team and organizational performance as well. Transformational leaders also demonstrate their confidence that the team they have will attain their goals and bring on a higher level of team potency and team cohesion (Bass, 2003). Higher levels of team potency and cohesion will enable the coordination and cooperation of all group members.

Research on transformational leadership has been dominated by the context of for-profit organisations (Rowold et al., 2014), and more studies on the context of non-profits will be enriched in the existing leadership literature. Thach and Thompson (2007) found that there are similarities and differences between leadership practices in for-profit and non-profit organisations. By conducting in-depth interviews with leaders of for-profit and non-profit organisations in California, Thach and Thompson (2007) discovered that both types of organizations have similarities in the focus of both their customers and employees and leaders' jobs are to ensure their satisfaction. The priority is the differentiation between leadership

practices in those two types of organisations. Non-profit organisations focus on their employee's satisfaction, and for-profit is the reverse. The size of the organisation, along with the degree of competition in the not-for-profit context, has pushed its lead to implement another soft skill embedded in its leadership style called entrepreneurship (Cardamone & Rentschler, 2006). As an outcome of entrepreneurship-embedded leadership, innovation will hopefully support the whole marketing and management activities in a non-profit context.

### **2.6.3 Leadership Style and Market Orientation Implementation**

In implementing MO, a barrier sometimes exists, such as managers facing resistance from employees and systems in the company (Harris & Piercy, 1999). Several studies managed to identify the barriers to MO implementation, such as management beliefs, short-term focus, difficulty in changing traditional thinking, organisational structure, apathy, the self-interest of staff, lack of cooperation between functional units, and lack of understanding of potential benefits (Bisp, 1999; Harris, 1996, 1998, 2000; Harris & Watkins; Mason & Harris, 2005). Existing research on Market Orientation has not yet found maximum achievement as it still deals with an organisational issue such as the leadership aspect

Raaij and Stolhorst (2008) list several organisational barriers to achieving an implemented MO that consist of structure, process design, information systems, reward systems, leadership, behavioural norms and values, and competence management. Those various barriers in an organisation can be addressed by the managers utilising participative and supportive leadership (Börjesson & Dahlsten, 2004; Harris & Ogbonna, 2001). Furthermore, managers in the top positions will need to act as role models to middle managers, other work-group expert peers, and frontline workers. This process can smoothly diffuse market orientation through all layers of the organisation.

There is evidence that an organisational barrier influences the extent of market orientation in an organisation. On the other hand, there is large attention from the studies exploring employee barrier and their influence on market orientation development (Harris, 2000). Participative, Supportive, and Instrumental Leadership is an example of a leadership style chosen as an antecedence of market orientation (Harris & Ogbonna, 2001). Participative and Supportive leadership styles have proved to be strongly positive to market orientation, while the Instrumental Leadership style was negatively linked (Yukl, 1989, 1999, 2008; Yukl et al., 2002). Leadership style is one of the organizational barriers still understudied. Including organization learning and learning organization that also becoming one significant research



stream on MO research. The recent research on leadership style has also moved forward into the aspect of being a leader and member of an organisation to achieve both organisational objectives and individual satisfaction.

The characteristics of the non-profit organisation, such as external pressure from its stakeholders and values from community and society (Baluch & Ridder, 2020), and all of the research outlined above regarding barriers and antecedents to the introduction of MO have been conducted within a for-profit context except the research of Gainer and Padanyi (2005). Transformational leadership could be the proper leadership style for non-profit organisations and needs further examination.

To improve market orientation implementation, such organisational transition will happen, which is supported by the specific attitudes of a manager (Ruekert, 1992). The specific attitudes of a manager include leadership style, which will ensure all staff involved in market orientation activities will show their commitment and support as a part of the organization. The role of a leader definitely will be more critical in the long term. In the early literature on market orientation, both Kohli and Jaworski (1990) and Day (1999) have underlined this role of leadership support in market orientation development; however, up until now, only limited of study focus on the issue of leadership (Harris & Ogbonna, 2001; Kasper, 2002; Lancaster & Van Der Velden, 2004). A meta-analysis of the relationship between market orientation and performance in five continents has also revealed the vital role of leadership (Cano et al., 2004).

This leadership style will need to cover multiple stakeholders that a firm has, not only the traditional view of market orientation that focuses only on customers and competitors. Later, there is also a growing number of studies that fill these gaps by proposing and proving other stakeholders, surprisingly, inside the firm, their employees, as another important stakeholder (Lings, 2005).

Marketing capabilities (Cacciolatti & Lee, 2016) that are embedded in the quality of market-oriented firm leaders have been a part of a discussion of the type of leadership style needed. A study by Dennis and Macaulay (2007) even borrows nuance from a jazz music setting, stating that a leader and leadership style will play a role as a band leader in successful song playing. Leader role has also been related to the issue of a learning organisation, that a market-oriented leader will guide all employees to be eager to learn all market information to achieve a condition of innovativeness (Slater & Narver, 1995). Rather than leadership style, another study

uses the term leadership quality as the focus is on how effective and efficient a specific type of leadership is in achieving organisational goals (Zhou et al., 2008).

In an NPO, the type of leader needs to be recruited from the small scope of the NPO field and well trained, especially to understand the organisation's mission and how to achieve it, including market orientation scope (Chad, 2013). Senior management characteristics have become one main ingredient and are then complemented by how an organisation designs the training and reward management (Cervera et al., 2001; Gainer & Padanyi, 2002). Another exciting finding includes an examination of market orientation in a church setting when the leader of a church and how his leading certain characteristic of style will help its church members' satisfaction (White & Simas, 2008).

Leadership is the activity of accelerating and affecting followers to achieve common objectives (Yukl, 2010). Hence, leaders must understand and acknowledge what should be accomplished and how to do it (Yukl, 2012). Leaders' positive, helpful, and encouraging behaviours are mirrored in employees' positive behaviours (Chen & Peng, 2019). Leadership style has a relationship positive relationship with work engagement (Rabiul & Yean, 2021). Leadership style also relates to knowledge management (Oubrich et al., 2021), which becomes an important aspect of organisational sustainability. Another recent study on leadership style shows its relation with employee engagement, although country differences may become the moderating factor (Li et al., 2021). One of the leading themes in specific industries, such as hospitality, is LMX leadership research (Arici et al., 2021).

The transformational leadership theory deals with the leader's relationship with subordinates in relation to the organisation's results. Organisational members will have motivation and morality after achieving more significant results than expected with motivation given by organisation leaders (Bass & Avolio, 1994). At the individual level, transformational leadership has a significant positive effect on creativity related to organisational innovation (Gumusluoglu & Ilsev, 2009) and impacts performance (García-Morales et al., 2012).

Three dimensions of transformational leadership, individualised consideration, intellectual stimulation, and idealised influence behaviour, significantly contribute to transformational leadership and organisational performance. Moreover, transformational leadership style is a significant factor in NPOs due to the characteristics of NPOs, the context in which NPOs operate, and the difficulties for NPOs to obtain resources (Felicio et al., 2013). Positive

emotions are closely related to transformational leadership, leading to bigger subordinates' satisfaction, extra efforts, and effectiveness (Rowold & Rohmann, 2009).

Transformational leadership is offered as a moderating variable between market orientation and organizational performance. This contribution advances the application of transformational leadership to solve the organisational barrier to market orientation development (Harris & Ogbonna, 2001; Harris & Piercy, 1999).

Most of the moderating variable tested in the MO literature has more focus on external environmental factors, mainly because the nature of MO focuses on understanding customer needs (Wang et al., 2012). However, several internal factors of an organisation are still under research, for instance, poor coordination among departments, event rivalry and distrust, and low understanding from managers of marketing issues.

**Table 2-5 Table Selected Study of Leadership Style in the Nonprofit Organization**

Type of Leadership Style	Study	Type of NPO
Benevolent Leadership	Chan and Mak (2012)	Youth organisation
Leader-Member Exchange (LMX)	Chan and Mak (2012) Rowold et al (2014)	Youth Organisation, Nonprofit Fire Department, Religion Organisation, Nonprofit Organisation
Servant Leadership	Linda Parris and Welty Peachey (2012) Allen et al (2018) Nghah et al (2021)	Foundation, Community And Youth Organisation, University
Transactional Leadership	Fazzi and Zamaro (2016) Aboramadan and Dahleez (2020) Aboramadan and Kundi (2020) Sloan (2021)	Youth development, Dissabled and elder carer, Human services organisation, Charity, Foundation
Transformational Leadership	Jaskyte (2011) Lutz Allen et al (2013) McMurray et al (2013)	Religious organisation, Higher education, Orchestra, Religious

Type of Leadership Style	Study	Type of NPO
	Mitra (2013) Taylor et al (2014) Fazzi and Zamaro (2016) Yildiz and Simsek (2016) Do Nascimento et al (2018) Brimhall (2019) Kammerhoff et al (2019) Aboramadan and Dahleez (2020) Aboramadan and Kundi (2020) Lovaas (2020) Peng et al (2020) Brimhall (2021) Sloan (2021)	organisation, Healthcare/Hospital, Foundation

In the museum context, both studies by Letourneau et al. (2020) and Nunes et al. (2021) examined transformational leadership as complementing each other findings. A study by Letourneau et al. (2020) focuses on how the top leader of an NPO distributed its leadership to different departments to facilitate collaborative action between them and simultaneously involve diverse stakeholders to solve organisational problems. A study by Nunes et al. (2021) underlined that collaborative action facilitated by transformational leaders makes it easier for an organisation to choose between responsive or proactive to tackle problems, which results in innovation.

The study related to the leader of an NPO is dominated by how an NPO finds the right person, internally or externally. Not all NPOs have started to design a career path for their employee to be possible and potential leaders in the future, especially through the combination of experience and educational background (Stewart & Kuenzi, 2018). Suppose a leader is already taking care of organisational operations and a career path already planned before. In that case, the transition is another challenging situation because of the current deficit of NPO leaders (Froelich et al., 2011). There is already a shift in how people are motivated to contribute and work in a socially driven organisation (Wilson & Lau, 2011).

As human resources have become the most critical organisation asset and the capacity needs to be improved to survive in the dynamic environment (Carman, 2011), there is already an effort to invest in the employee and leader capacity through training (Austin et al., 2011). Nonprofit organisations involve the current origin sharing on leaders in sharing their experience with the new generation in their organisation and in setting up future succession interns. The (Santora et al., 2011) network capacity and skills found potential candidates from external organisations (Gothard & Austin, 2013).

Nonprofit leaders need to understand and maintain his/her and the organisation's engagement with all stakeholders (Leardini et al, 2019). There has been a big shift in engagement, not only in regularly talking and communicating with organisation stakeholders but also how to motivate participation, especially in all programs and events related to the main organisation's mission (Hardini, 2011). Innovation is something that is widely demanded by existing supporters and sponsors of the organisations and the broad public, and their involvement is essential (Jaskyte, 2011).

Leaders of nonprofit organisations need to involve organizational stakeholders to answer questions about legitimacy and accountability, significantly to help stakeholders understand organisational, and administrative innovation (Austin et al., 2013) and technology adoption as the newest assets and resources (Zorn et al., 2011).

Several critical studies have recently focused on social innovation in the literature on nonprofit leadership. To achieve social change in society, the leader of an NPO needs to bridge social issues that still become public concerns and respond to them through organisation innovative organisational activities (Shier & Handy, 2020). Evidence shows that the transformational leadership style fits with innovation activities in nonprofit organisations, especially social innovation (Taylor et al., 2010). However, the focus on the latest social issues through organisational innovation still be questioned by stakeholders as a possibility of another mission drift and practice of managerialism. Leaders of nonprofit organisations still need to explain their initiative to respond to the latest social issues to the stakeholders, including by showing a transformational spirit to the organisation (Beaton, 2021).

Empirical studies have overlooked external environmental factors related to organisation or firm performance. These factors include market turbulence, technology turbulence, and competitive intensity, to name a few. Different environmental factors affect diverse types of organisations.

Organisations will respond to those environmental factors as they change rapidly in complexity, uncertainty, and impact on the organisation.

#### **2.6.4 Strategic Orientation and Leadership Aspect**

The leadership aspects have dominated the study regarding strategic orientation in the nonprofit. Nonprofit leaders will make a significant contribution as they will employ organisation resources that fit the organisation's mission achievement furthermore, all strategic assets and capabilities need to be communicated to all stakeholders in order to get further support from them (Brown & Iverson, 2016). Still, in the area of strategic orientation and leadership contribution, the study by Ridder and McCandless (2010) shows that the characteristics of a nonprofit organisation have demanded the need for an organisational leader and its characteristics to meet the organisation's mission and motivate stakeholders to maintain their support.

#### **2.6.5 Museums Leadership**

In a study of art museums in Australia, Canada, the United States, and the United Kingdom, Suchy (1999) found that it is important for a museum leader to have Emotional Intelligence-based Leadership as a part of the charismatic leadership style. Using personal interviews with museum leaders in the case study research methods, Suchy (1999) also found that their passion is the important aspect of showing a museum leader has Emotional Intelligence. Passion, in this case, is a passion for the primary product, a passion for the social vision, a passion for education, a passion for entrepreneurship and innovation, and a passion for constructive discontent. Passion can be regarded as a characteristic that museum leaders have and can differentiate them from the characteristics of leaders in for-profit organisations who only have energy and creativity (Suchy, 1999). Suchy (1999) also argues that charismatic leadership, part of transformational leadership, comes from the emotional intelligence that the leader has as a learnable skill. Passion is a part of maintaining a relationship (network) with people in the same field, such as relationships with various and diverse museum stakeholders and describing various aspects of museum leadership.

Other studies about museum leadership by Griffin and Abraham (2000), show another leadership style called a cohesive leadership style. The characteristics of cohesive leadership are patience and consideration, managing change effectively, translating external needs to internal vision and then to employee action, integrating tasks, structures, processes, and systems at the

technical, political, and cultural levels, and integrating management practices to build internal and external unity. By interviewing museum directors and senior managers located in five countries, the study found that team cohesion will be much more needed in a museum with a good reputation. A museum's reputation consists of concern for quality, shared goals, good communication, attention to training, and strategic allocation of resources. Team cohesion is working collaboratively towards common goals in the context of shared values. The standard features of team cohesiveness include senior managers working together as a team, goals of the museum supported by staff, goals of departments cohesive and well-integrated, staff encouraged to respect the skills and contribution of others, and a high degree of commitment by staff along with a high sense of involvement.

Those senses and actual competition with other NPOs will motivate or wake up all museum staff, especially the leadership role, to choose a proper strategy that is more effective and efficient with museum characteristics that used to depend only on the preciousness or rarity of their collection as an attraction but also depend on some marketing strategy with more market-oriented behaviour and culture need to be implemented. Both studies above have indicated several dimensions of transformational leadership, as seen in charismatic leadership (Suchy, 1999) and cohesive leadership. Griffin and Abraham (2000) can be based to propose an appropriate leadership style that might be beneficial for museums and will need an empirical examination through the present study.

In the museum, where several job positions have a distinction from one to another, such as curator, conservator, educator, marketing, and public relations, there is a need to have an accepted leader that at least covers all different individual interests (Goulaptsi et al., 2019). However, a leader's working experience and related educational and training background, in some cases, become a problem as each museum employee has a different aspiration based on their specific work, although they contribute in the same direction to the museum's mission in society (Hausmann & Stegmann, 2021).

The museum field has been more complicated than in previous eras, and with more stakeholders, the role of a leader is to decrease the museum's ambiguity regarding its dynamics and adaptability to the organisational environment by still holding on to its mission. (Jamin & Gombault, 2021). The museum's organisational culture has also been built through the combination of organisational structure, communication systems, and, most importantly, the role of the museum leader. (Jung, 2015). The museum's organisational culture might provide a

supportive workplace with its leaders consistently communicating the museum mission to the employees and inviting participation from museum employees (Dragouni & McCarthy, 2021).

Museum leaders especially that bringing a transformational leadership style is an important aspect that supports the museum's market orientation to achieve both innovation and performance (Camarero & Garrido, 2007). The decision to respond to museum environment dynamics, such as innovation that is employed by peer museums and innovation that comes from internal museums, might be facilitated by the museum's leaders through its transformational leadership. (Nunes et al., 2021).

## **2.7 Stakeholder Engagement**

Although several definitions of stakeholder engagement exist, studies on this subject are still mostly in the conceptual stage.

Stakeholder engagement is an interactive, experiential process based on actors' engagement with a focal organization but more intensively with other stakeholder community members (Viglia et al., 2018). Additionally, another study defines stakeholder engagement as 'trust-based collaborations between individuals and/or social institutions with different objectives that can only be achieved together' (Andriof and Waddock, 2002; Foo et al., 2011)

Stakeholder engagement (management) is related to the processes whereby stakeholders are identified, their interests surfaced, and interactions are managed (Hanna and Rowley, 2011). By building stakeholder engagement, a company is creating a system of interactive relationships based on trust, respect, and cooperation with the stakeholders. Furthermore, through stakeholder engagement, a company could maintain an interactive process based on dialogue that requires two-way communication and real collaboration between the company and its stakeholders (Ragusa, 2011).

A nonprofit organization could select and maintain a relationship with stakeholders, especially if the stakeholder is potentially related to the organization's mission. The nonprofit organization is dependent on the resources that each stakeholder owns, and by creating certain conditions with its stakeholders, for example, the level of engagement and social capital of an NPO will rise. Involving stakeholders to maintain the organization's sustainable goals achievement will include innovation and long-term performance, such as social and economic effectiveness.



Nonprofits need to develop and maintain stakeholder engagement to foster their legitimacy within the community (Leardini et al, 2019). As an example, local stakeholders will feel that they are being engaged with the organization when a member of the board is directly designated with the formal mechanism. Gaining and maintaining stakeholder engagement is really closely related to legitimacy from the stakeholder. A nonprofit organization will have credibility and legitimacy as a part of stakeholder engagement conditions as long as the nonprofit organization fulfills transparency and accountability.

Besides external stakeholders, an internal stakeholder has been something that is studied in the market orientation literature early on in its theory development. However, there is also an awareness from brand researchers to consider that building a strong brand can be done through internal stakeholder engagement and a process of co-creation (Merrilees et al., 2021). As it is considered as an internal stakeholder, volunteers have been the object of a recent study on internal branding, especially because volunteers' engagement, commitment, altruism, values-congruency, and brand reputation will support an effort to have a co-creation activity.

Until recently, there was no study related to stakeholder engagement, especially in the museum context. However, the study of the relationship between stakeholder orientation and innovation continues to grow in the nonprofit marketing literature (Swanson, 2013; Leardini et al., 2019).

Museums keep their engagement with the stakeholders for many different purposes, such as creating and maintaining stakeholder motivation for the museum's mission (Taheri, 2014). Another purpose of maintaining engagement between the museum and stakeholders is to make a strategic decision regarding the museum's abilities and assets to design the most pleasant service offerings, such as permanent and temporary exhibitions. An initial way to build a certain level of engagement between the museum and stakeholders is to set up the frequency of engagement. It was found that less frequent engagement in museums has a positive association with satisfaction (Wheatley & Bickerton, 2017). Museum has a wide range of issues related to their collection and mission, some related to the history or cultural achievement of a place (Velázquez Marroni, 2017), and several museums have been focused on specific themes such as human rights (Shermatova, 2017) or event refugee and immigration (Saunders & Hunter, 2018; Pegno, 2019).

Several museums try to maintain engagement with the local community to absorb and understand issues arising in the community and then respond with a design program primarily related to museums' collections or other resources, such as networks (Perkin, 2010). A local

artist who represents local community talent on some related occasion (for example, fit with curatorial direction) has a residency appointment and then exhibits the works in part of a temporary exhibition (Butler, 2014).

Museums are still struggling to attract younger generations to visit, individually or by motivation from their parents or as a part of the educational institution program where the younger generation studies (Kusuma & Wyrick, 2014; Allison, 2019). Still, until now, there are some statistics and observations that in their lifetime, a person can visit at least once time, and by starting to introduce museums to the younger generation, the number of visits can be higher and more frequent. It can lead to another form of support in the future (Martell, 2017). Occasions such as summertime programs or interactive program designs, such as camping, are examples of how museums choose innovative ways to attract the younger generation to engage with the museum world (Eterginoso, 2017; Martell, 2017).

To improve the level of engagement between museums and stakeholders, a study found that all features and included tools available as a part of an exhibition or program will help stakeholders interpret some issues (Kwan, 2017). Further interaction with stakeholders, active (visiting the exhibition and joining the museum program) or passive (following news or information from newspapers or websites), could help the interpretation and follow with motivation to be involved in the museum's mission. However, a curatorial frame and the expertise of museum employees and people to present the best exhibition and program still become the main ingredients to motivate and keep the level of engagement between the museum and stakeholders (Swinney, 2017).

The most recent phenomena of how museums try to engage with wider stakeholders are through collaboration and building solid digital presentations through the website and or social media (Pestana & Alissa, 2021; Landau-Donnelly & Sethi, 2021; Santo et al., 2021). In today's global networking, museums work closely with their peer or cultural organizations in small regions and between nations and continents (Santo et al., 2021). As the museum has traditionally related its program with what story behind its collection, working closely with more researchers and scientists from universities around the world is already become standard practice (Vitelli, 2015; Bell et al., 2016; Addario & Langer, 2016). Some museums still learn and prepare to respond to the idea of migrating their successful onsite experiences to online counterparts. Some museums still found it hard to smoothly divert their focus to a digital community that was unknown and little explored up to that point since the museum had previously prioritised the onsite experience. However, there are also concerns from museum people about the museum's limited

technical capabilities and available budget related to the digitalisation of the collection and program (Azócar & Hauyon, 2021).

To take more closely to the issue of museum capabilities and the latest phenomena of technology and information advancement, museums must engage with more diverse stakeholders, primarily through online presentations via the Internet (Shea, 2014). The effective ways and techniques to having public engagement in museums are initial and developing. However, several prominent museums have been starting a few years ahead of their small-size peers in the same region or other parts of the world (Alpert, 2016). Museums need to balance educational and entertainment properties, and how exhibits and their accompanying explanatory material must cater to audiences of mixed ages and experiences (Abdel Salam et al., 2017).

The trend of nonprofit stakeholder engagement studies has grown fast in the last ten years. Although it is gaining attention from researchers, especially those focusing on nonprofit marketing and management, the discussion is still ongoing and has not yet reached maturity. The *Journal of Nonprofit and Public Sector Marketing*, *Nonprofit Management and Leadership*, and *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly* dominate the publication outlets for nonprofit stakeholder engagement studies. The review of nonprofit stakeholder engagement in the last fifteen years (2007-2021) resulted in several main focus of discussion.

Firstly, communication between organizations and the public has become the main discussion. The literature covers several mediums of communication (and interaction). This medium of communication is dominated by the rise of social media (Carboni & Maxwell, 2015) and followed by websites (Hoefler & Twiss, 2018) and community-based events (Ruperto & Kerr, 2009). The public, the subject of the studies, has been mentioned as an internal and external stakeholder.

Secondly, the literature on nonprofit stakeholder engagement has described the different levels of engagement between the organisation and its stakeholders. As relationship marketing became a central influence on the discussion, it included several levels, including regular communication, stakeholder involvement, stakeholder participation, and collaboration between the organization and stakeholders (McCaskill & Harrington, 2017; Jordan et al., 2019; Manetti & Toccafondi, 2014; Swanson, 2013).

Thirdly, the literature also spotlights the motivation to engage an organisation with its stakeholders. Though it has still become standard practice, the earliest motivation of an NPO to

engage with stakeholders is as a public relations activity (Clark et al., 2016). Additionally, public relations is essential as it can stimulate action from the exposed stakeholders about advocacy of the social issues that NPOs focus on and being campaigned to its public and stakeholders (Nelson, 2019). Furthermore, public relations with an engagement framework between the organisation and its existing and potential stakeholders are related closely to its legitimacy as an organisation with its social mission (Leardini et al., 2019).

Discussion about the motivation of an organisation to the stakeholders has also covered two essential foundations related to NPO's reason to exist in society. Social capital must be accumulated through building engagement with stakeholders and maintaining the relationship sustainably (Swanson, 2013). Another foundation covered is how nonprofit organisations must be resource-dependent on their stakeholders (Campbell & Lambright, 2020). Both social capital and resource dependence will need a certain degree of engagement and the motivation of an NPO to engage with stakeholders strongly related to resources owned by each stakeholder.

A nonprofit organization has a strong motivation to engage with its stakeholders to maintain its accountability as one of the organization's performance measurements (Miković et al., 2020). The accountability of a nonprofit organization will lead to organizational sustainability as it continues to build and maintain stakeholder support (Manetti and Toccafondi, 2014). As an organization has focus on specific and unique social issues that are strongly related to the stakeholder, several parts of the decision-making process in the organization need to involve stakeholders (Watson et al., 2020). The involvement of stakeholders in the decision-making process will lower the unsuccessful program (Park et al., 2021).

Fourthly, the discussion in the nonprofit stakeholder engagement is by underlining the role of the leader in the stakeholder engagement activity. A nonprofit organization's leaders have an important role in building the network between the organization and its potential stakeholders and maintaining the network for the organization's sustainable position (Xu and Saxton, 2019). A leader of a nonprofit organization has another important task, which is to make sure the diffusion of innovation is accepted not only by internal stakeholders such as employees, volunteers, and board members but also by external stakeholders, existing or potential (Shier and Handy, 2020). A nonprofit leader has a personal quality to adapt to the dynamic of the organization's environment (Watson et al., 2020), and through his or her ability to be an adaptive person, the organization's culture will maintain and follow an adaptive organization (Miković et al. 2020).

An NPO will have credibility and legitimacy as a part of stakeholder engagement conditions as long as the non-profit organization fulfills transparency and accountability (Verbruggen and Christiaens, 2011). For that reason, NPOs must develop and maintain stakeholder engagement to foster their legitimacy within the community (Leardini et al., 2019). For example, local stakeholders will feel engaged with the organization when a board member is directly designated with the formal mechanism (Anheier et al., 2013), gaining and maintaining stakeholder engagement closely related to legitimacy from the stakeholder, either internal or external (Connolly et al., 2013).

Stakeholder engagement is also related to the communication between organizations and their stakeholder (Park et al., 2021). Communication between stakeholders and organizations includes a medium, such as activities, to support communication, for example, presenting an event (Ospina et al., 2002; Lovejoy et al., 2012). An event will moderate the conversation and communication if a relevant issue is related to both parties (Waters and Jones, 2011). This, an organization must design a two-way communication model and receive feedback from its stakeholders to demonstrate how they integrate their stakeholder's concerns.

## Chapter 3 Methodology

This chapter outlines the research design strategy by reintroducing the research objectives and their implications for data collection. It presents the philosophical framework, justifying the adoption of a pragmatist paradigm and Sequential Exploratory Design. Mixed method approaches are detailed, utilising in-depth interviews in the initial phase and an e-survey in the subsequent phase. Finally, the chapter summarises the research phases and discusses the procedures for data analysis.

### 3.1 Thesis Aims and Research Objectives

The thesis aims to explore the concept of nonprofit market orientation for museums and measure its impact on organisational performance with innovation as a moderating variable. To achieve these objectives, the results from both the qualitative part and quantitative part will be considered.

Based on the background discussed, there were several research objectives of this thesis,

- To develop a comprehensive framework for multi-stakeholder market orientation tailored explicitly to the museum context, addressing nonprofit museums' unique stakeholder landscape and strategic imperatives.
- To design and validate a measurement instrument for assessing museums' stakeholder orientation, advancing traditional nonprofit market orientation models to reflect museum stakeholders' diverse roles and positions within a market-oriented framework
- To construct an integrated framework encompassing innovation, transformational leadership, and stakeholder engagement as essential drivers of museum performance, providing a theoretical foundation for enhancing strategic alignment and impact within the nonprofit museum sector

The literature review from the previous chapter has identified that the market orientation study for the museum context is under-researched, especially its relation with socioeconomic performance as a nonprofit organization (Camarero et al., 2012) with innovation as a mediating variable (Modi, 2012; Choi, 2014). Additionally, the synergy between market orientation and brand orientation as a complementary strategic orientation to achieve performance is still considered in the conceptual phase in the general marketing literature (Urde et al., 2013). The role of both transformational leadership and stakeholder engagement as moderating variables

between complementary strategic orientation has not been proposed as an integrated approach to the existing literature, although previous studies have examined separately (Menguc et al., 2007; Menguc and Auh, 2008; Hsieh et al., 2008; Line et al., 2019; Ferrell et al., 2010; Greenley et al., 2005).

Accordingly, due to the unexplored nature of nonprofit and museum market orientation, this thesis is designed to re-conceptualize nonprofit market orientation within the museum context using a multiple-stakeholder approach (Hersberger-Langloh, 2022). After that, this thesis measures the impact of multi-stakeholder market orientation and brand orientation on performance by conducting a quantitative study (Study 2) that builds on the findings of the qualitative study (Study 1). This is aimed at satisfying the research objective of this thesis, which relates to the need to understand better the contribution of stakeholder theory in the conceptualization of nonprofit and museum market orientation.

Considering the model proposed in the previous chapter, this thesis should adopt an exploratory approach as its initial steps. The following section presents all available philosophical research paradigms and the justification for the pragmatist approach.

## **3.1 Mixed Method as Theory Building Tools**

### **3.1.1 Research Paradigm**

#### **3.1.1.1 Philosophy and Interpretation**

As many research designs are available in the literature, philosophical ideas are the background for a researcher to choose the most suitable one (Creswell, 2009; Easterby-Smith et al., 2012). Moreover, the philosophical background of a resignation design will position the researcher to achieve further studies that have been done before in the same field (Easterby-Smith et al., 2012). Every philosophical stance can be differentiated from one to another, and by understanding the one that is being chosen, a researcher can have presumptions about how to acquire knowledge (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011).

Gaining or claiming required knowledge will guide the researcher's preposition on how and what they need to learn after deciding to focus on a research theme (Creswell, 2009). The claim shows the researcher's belief about the nature of reality, which includes related knowledge and values. Various terms represented the claims of knowledge, such as worldview (Kuhn, 1962;

Creswell, 2009), philosophical assumptions-epistemologies-ontologies (Easterby-Smith et al., 2012), or paradigms (Guba & Lincoln, 2005).

Regarding the choices between being on the quantitative or qualitative side as a researcher, there is an ongoing debate as a part of paradigm wars at the epistemological level (Bryman, 2006). Each side has put aside the other point of view and even ignored its existence (Easterby-Smith et al., 2012). The first part of the next section will provide an overview of post-positivism and social constructivism as the two most dominant philosophical stances in social science research (Creswell, 2009; Easterby-Smith et al., 2012) and will continue with another part that justifies the choices of this thesis to be in pragmatist paradigm side.

### **3.1.1.2 Pragmatist Paradigm**

This section will discuss the domination of postpositivist and social constructivist approaches in social science research before providing justification for why this thesis will choose the pragmatist paradigm.

Labelled as empirical science by some, post-positivism is the answer to previous thinking that underlines the principle of “value-free” claims, which heavily depend on quantitative methods and are difficult to justify in research that involves humans as a subject (Creswell, 2009; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). Post-positivism is a new generation that shifts the previous, the pure positivism brought by Comte in the 19th century (Easterby-Smith et al., 2012), which claims that a social world exists externally and can be measured through objective methods. Using ontology terms, the reality is external and objective. In this situation, epistemological knowledge is insignificant except when observed from reality (Comte, 1686; Easterby-Smith et al., 2012). In many parts of the 20th century, positivism and its variations have dominated social science research (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009).

Determinism has been the main feature of post positivism and adding with the effort of showcasing all potential causality and a reflection to identify and follow with an assessment of the cause that influences the outcomes, as an example is the development of experiment research (Creswell, 2009). Based on the post-positivist point of view, Creswell (2009) explained that reality would remain objective and can be measured, and the more critical numeric measure of observations, including studying the behaviour of the individuals. In most cases, post-positivists will propose a hypothesis using a deductive approach where the process starts with a



theory and follows with developing a hypothesis using a small and discrete set of ideas through statistical data analysis to test the theory (Creswell, 2003; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009).

As time has passed, the alternative to post-positivism has surfaced and is being used as an alternative research paradigm. The alternative research paradigm has been named constructivism or interpretivism (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009; Creswell, 2009). An individual's experience of building subjective meanings from the world in which they live becomes an alternative idea to replace the previous research paradigm (Creswell, 2009). While post-positivists choose to be a reductionist, constructivists as many available points of view as rich resources and research goals strongly related to the participant as an individual in any situation being studied (Creswell, 2009). Furthermore, Creswell (2009) explained that subjective meaning is negotiated socially and historically from interaction with others, so it is then called social constructivism, which includes historical and cultural norms that happen in individual lives.

Constructivist researchers assume that individuals will try to understand the world where they live by building subjective meanings around their experiences (Creswell, 2009). In opposition to reductionist approaches in post-positivism, constructivist researchers have tried to find a plurality of points of view. All the possibilities related to research goals will rely on the participant's views on any situation being studied (Creswell, 2009). From a constructivist point of view, subjective meaning is negotiated socially and historically and formed through interaction between individuals and others, something that becomes the background of this paradigm, which is called social constructivism. In the social constructivism paradigm, research is generally conducted through an inductive method in which theories or patterns of meaning can be developed (Comte, 1868; Creswell, 2009). Furthermore, methods from a constructivist point of view are mainly associated with data gathering, data analysis, data interpretation, and presentation of results in a narrative information setting (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). The differences between the two philosophies and its implications are summarised,

**Table 3-1 Post-positivism and Social Constructivism Differences**

<b>Research Assumption(s)</b>	<b>Post-positivism</b>	<b>Social Constructivism</b>
Ontology	Reality is single, tangible, and fragmentable	Reality is multiple, constructed, and holistic
Epistemology	Knower and known are independent, a dualism	Knower and known are interactive and inseparable
Axiology	Inquiry is value-free	Inquiry is value-bound
Human interest	Should be irrelevant	The main drivers of science
Explanations	Must demonstrate causality	Aim to increase general understanding of the situation
Research progresses through	Hypotheses and deduction	Gathering rich data from which ideas are induced
Concepts	They need to be operationalised so that they can be measured	Should incorporate stakeholder perspectives
Unit of analysis	Should be reduced to the simplest terms	May include the complexity of the “whole situation”
Generalisation through	Statistical probability	Theoretical abstraction
Sampling requires	A large number selected randomly	A small number of cases were chosen for specific reasons

Sources: Easterby-Smith, Thorpe, and Jackson, 2012, p.24; Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009, p.86

The notion of competing paradigms was popularised via the works of Thomas Kuhn (1970), and the paradigm debate demonstrates how competitors of each paradigm disagree about the relative merits of their positions (Guba & Lincoln, 1994; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). Partially, disagreement comes from qualitative researchers' critique of their counterparts. The debate between the two sides also lies in ontology, epistemology, and axiology (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). The crucial aspect of being part of the debate is that mixing both qualitative and quantitative is considered inappropriate, especially when considering both sides' ontology, epistemology, and axiology differences.

Recently, mixed methods have become widely popular and are labelled the third research approach (Creswell, 2014; Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). Supporters of mixed methods argue

that the approach builds on the strengths and minimises the weaknesses of using a single research approach (Johnson et al., 2007; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009).

### 3.1.1.3 Evaluating Previous Research Designs

This section evaluates the previous research methods in the context of market orientation For Profit and Non-Profit organisations. The evaluation also includes the research methods and measurements developed and used until recently. Evaluating the research methods and measurements will provide comprehensive insights from previous research. Additionally, those insights will help to achieve an effectiveness of organisational performance through a market orientation strategy approach. The limitations and potential use of previous research methods and measurements can be clarified through the evaluation process from this chapter. Relating these limitations and the potential of prior research to the empirical outcomes of current research can help this study avoid similar imperfections and, at the same time, absorb the benefits of several research practices. Consequently, the following subsections will initially provide an overview of previous research methods and measurements of market orientation in for-profit and non-profit organisations before demonstrating the limitations of research methods in previous studies.

### 3.2.1.4 Summary of Previous Research Methods

This subsection will summarise previous research methods and measurements in the systematic literature review in Table 3.1. As specified in Table 3.2, quantitative studies have dominated previous research investigating market orientation in for-profit and non-profit organisations.

**Table 3-2 Previous Research Methods**

Research Methods	Number of Papers
Quantitative	283
Qualitative	31
Mixed Methods	7
Conceptual Papers	17
Literature Review	10

**Table 3-3 Diverse Research Methods in MO Literature**

<b>Research Methods</b>	<b>Author(s)</b>
Conceptual Paper	Ketchen Jr. et al. (2007); Connor (2007); Dennis and Macaulay (2007); Rust (2020)
Literature Review: Meta-analysis	Grinstein (2008)a; Grinstein (2008)b, Peng et al (2020)
Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Baker and Sinkula (2007), Min et al (2007), Paladino (2007), Racela et al (2007); Jiménez-Jiménez and Cegarra-Navarro (2007); Schlosser and McNaughton (2007), Quintana-Deniz et al (2007), Armario et al (2008), Olavarrieta and Friedmann (2008); He and Wei (2011), Auh and Merlo (2012), Boso et al (2012); Cadogan et al (2012) Calantone and Di Benedetto (2012), Cheng and Krumwiede (2012), Ripolles et al (2012), Shin et al (2012), Theodosiou et al (2012), Wang et al (2012), Yonnopoulos et al (2012), Boso et al (2013), Hau et al (2013), Hong et al (2013), Kibbeling et al (2013), Laukkanen et al (2013), Jogaratnam (2017); Ozdemir (2017); Makri et al (2017); Lin et al (2017); Hinson et al (2017) , Kachouie et al (2018), Bhatarraai et al (2019), Gotteland et al (2020), Morgan and Anokhin (2020), Martín-Santana et al (2020), Yuan et al (2020), Bicen et al (2021), Pascual-Fernandez et al (2021), Mo et al (2021), Monferrer et al (2021)
Quantitative: Path Analysis	Kim et al (2013)
Quantitative: Hierarchical Regression	Chung (2012), Wang and Chung (2013), Fang et al (2014), Gounaris et al (2020)
Quantitative: Partial Least Square (PLS)	O’Cass and Ngo (2007), Menguc and Auh (2007), Antioco et al (2008), Ngo and O’Cass (2012), Luxton et al (2017), Acosta et al (2018)

Research Methods	Author(s)
Quantitative: MANOVA	Song et al (2007), Zhou et al (2008)
Quantitative: Ordinary Least Square	Baugland et al (2007), Jancenelle et al (2018)
Quantitative: Multiple Regression Analysis	Beck et al (2011), Wu et al (2011), Sorensen and Madsen (2012), Liu et al (2017), He et al (2018), Jiang et al (2020)
Quantitative: Fuzzy-set Qualitative Comparative Analysis	Deutscher et al (2016), Frambach et al (2016), Frosen et al (2016), Renko et al (2020), Wu et al (2020), Du and Him (2021)
Qualitative: Multiple case study	Beverland and Lindgreen (2007), Webb and Lambe (2007); Elg (2007), Sharp (2018), Andersson et al (2020)
Qualitative: Single case study	Garcia de Madariaga and Valor (2007); Gylling et al (2012), Sharp (2018), Maciel and Fischer (2020), Randhawa et al (2021)
Qualitative: Longitudinal Case Study	Rajala et al (2012)
Qualitative: Ethnography	Humphreys et al (2018)
Qualitative: Content analysis	Zachary et al (2011)
Computer Aided Test Analysis (CATA)	Bhandari et al (2020)
Textual based method (text analysis)	Andreou (2020)
Mixed method	Lettice et al (2014), Falahat et al (2021)

Moreover, according to Table 3-3, regarding the diversity of research methods, structural equation modelling has overtopped all quantitative research methods. A partial least square (PLS) approach has been the second most widely used quantitative research method. On the other side, in the qualitative research method,

**Table 3-4 Countries Distribution of Market Orientation Studies**

Continents	Countries	Studies
Africa	Ghana	Boso et al (2013)
Asia	Hongkong	Wong and Ellis (2007)
	Taiwan	Li (2020), Wu (2011), Cheng and Krumwiede (2012), Wang and Chung (2013), Fang et al (2014),
	Turkey	Wu et al (2020)

Continents	Countries	Studies
Europe	China	Kirca (2011), Ozturan et al (2014) Ju et al, (2011), He and Wei (2011), Wang et al (2012), He et al (2013), Wei et al (2012), Irun (2020), Jiang et al (2020), Yuan et al (2020), Du and Kim (2021) Dwairi et al (2007)
	Jordan	Shin et al (2012), Hong et al (2013), Choi (2014)
	Korea	Hau et al (2013) Che-Ha et al (2014), Falahat et al (2021) Agnihotri and Bhattacharya (2021)
	Vietnam	Dimitrovski (2020)
	Malaysia	Andersson et al (2020), Renko et al (2020), Gromark (2020), Bhandari et al (2020)
	India	Gylling et al 2012), Laukkanen et al (2013), Renko et al (2020), Wales et al (2020), Bhandari et al (2020)
	Serbia	Laukkanen et al (2013)
	Sweden	Sorensen and Madsen (2012), Bhandari et al (2020)
	Finland	Wales et al (2020)
	Hungary	Quitana-Deniz et al (2007), Armario et al (2008), Ripolles et al (2012), González-Benito et al (2014), Campo et al (2014), Ruizalba and Bermúdez-González (2014), Navarro-Garcia et al (2014), Martín-Santana et al (2020), Hernandez-Linares et al
	Denmark	
	Rusia	
	Spain	

Continents	Countries	Studies
North and Central America	United Kingdom	(2021), Pascual-Fernandez et al (2021), Monferrer et al (2021)
	Belgium	Walker et al (2011), Boso et al
	Netherlands	(2012), Dimitratos et al (2012),
	Greece	Lettice et al (2014), Gounaris et al (2020), Gupta et al (2020)
		Beck et al (2011)
		Beck et al (2011), Kibbeling et al (2013)
		Theodosiou et al (2012)
	United States	Baker and Sinkula (2007), Antioco et al (2008), Zachary et al (2011), Dimitratos et al (2012), Shin et al (2012), Kim et al (2013), Abebe and Angriawan (2014), Nath (2020), Renko et al (2020), Feng et al (2020), Andreou et al (2020), Bicen et al (2021), Tang et al (2021)
	Canada	Yonnopoulos et al (2012)
	Mexico	Gutierrez et al (2014)
South America	Australia	O'Cass and Ngo (2012), Ngo and O'Cass (2012), Auh and Merlo (2012), Kachouie et al (2018),
Oceania	New Zealand	Randhawa et al (2020)
		Henry (2012), Chung (2012)

From the table, several insightful findings can be taken. Several European countries considered as developing countries have been the country setting for recent market orientation studies. There is a growing number of research in the Asia continent, especially in China and Taiwan.

These two countries have been a tight alliance with Western countries as a place of production that might be adopting market orientation from their partner from the Western world.

**Table 3-5 Control Variables in Market Orientation Study**

<b>Firm Level Control Variable</b>	<b>Author(s)</b>
Firm size was measured in terms of the number of employees	Mu et al (2017), Jogaratnam (2017), Wang et al (2017), Makri et al (2017), Lin et al (2017), Nakata et al (2018), Yayla et al (2019), Nakos et al (2019), Alnawas and Helmsley-Brown (2019), Martín-Santana et al (2020), Pascual-Fernandez at al. (2021), Abbu and Gopalakrishna (2021), Golgeci et al (2021)
Firm experience	Makri et al (2017), Nakos et al (2019)
R&D Intensity	Mu et al. (2017),
Firm age was measured in terms of the number of years in existence	Mu et al. (2017), Jogaratnam (2017), Ozdemir (2017), Lin et al. (2017), Yayla et al. (2019), Bhatarrai et al. (2019), Nakos et al. (2019), (Alnawas & Helmsley-Brown, 2019), Abbu and Gopalakrishnan (2021)
Competition intensity	Ozdemir (2017), Hinson et al (2017)
Industry dummies	Mu et al. (2017)
Environmental dynamism	Mu et al. (2017)
Market potential	Mu et al (2017), Nakata et al (2018)
Tech turbulence	Nakata et al (2018)
Market turbulence	Hinson et al (2017)
Individual Level Control Variable: Education, Tenure, Position	Mu et al. (2017)
Sales turnover	Pascual-Fernandez at al. (2021)
Ownership type	Abbu and Gopalakrishnan (2021)

### 3.2.1.4 The purpose of the mixed method

There were several purposes for using the mixed method approach. Firstly, mixed methods are used to gain complementary views about the same phenomena or events. Secondly, mixed



method research design is used to ensure a complete picture (as detailed as possible) of the phenomenon under study. Thirdly, inferences of one type of research are being used as questions for another type of research. Fourthly, mixed methods are being implemented in order to provide explanations or expand the understanding obtained in previous research. Fifthly, mixed methods are used in order to confirm the findings from another study. Sixthly, the weakness of one method can be compensated by the use of another. Lastly, mixed methods are used in order to obtain divergent views on the same phenomena.

The combination of qualitative and quantitative research method and put into a sequential steps is to achieve generalization and verifiable framework (Patterson et al., 2021; Kersey-Stapleton, 2023). The qualitative step will help to understand better about the implementation of a theory and the quantitative side will investigate the statistical aspects (Waldner et al., 2020).

Using a mixed-method approach contributed to uncovering community orientation perceptions and conceptualization and provided the opportunity to test the community orientation scale as a reliable instrument for future use. The model developed and tested opens a path for future research on community orientation development and measurement and its potential effect on marketing of higher education and the community (El Alfy, 2021).

The use of mixed methods in business management research has evolved significantly over recent decades, mirroring trends in broader social sciences. Early foundational work by Creswell and Plano Clark (2007) established a theoretical framework for combining qualitative and quantitative research to address complex business questions, noting that the multifaceted nature of organizational problems benefits from diverse data sources. Since then, seminal contributions by Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003) emphasized the value of methodological pluralism, catalyzing an increase in mixed methods within business and management journals. Researchers such as Greene, Caracelli, and Graham (1989) have also contributed to refining mixed methods frameworks, cementing their relevance in studies dealing with nuanced managerial and organizational challenges. Consequently, the incorporation of both qualitative and quantitative approaches has emerged as a robust pathway to generate more comprehensive insights into business phenomena.

The acceptance of mixed methods in business research is primarily attributed to their versatility in capturing the complexities of organizational contexts. Bryman (2006) argued that mixed methods allow researchers to overcome the limitations inherent in purely qualitative or quantitative designs by leveraging the strengths of both approaches. This acceptance also stems

from the practical benefits mixed methods offer in addressing "what," "how," and "why" questions, thus producing richer data. For instance, mixed methods can elucidate quantitative trends with qualitative insights, providing a clearer understanding of workforce dynamics and consumer behavior (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). This methodological diversity enables researchers to present well-rounded findings, which have contributed to its widespread adoption in the business field.

Mixed methods research addresses several critical gaps left by purely qualitative or quantitative studies, especially in capturing the dynamic nature of organizational phenomena. According to Sale, Lohfeld, and Brazil (2002), single-method approaches can miss vital contextual factors that influence outcomes, whereas mixed methods create a more holistic view. This approach allows researchers to corroborate findings across methods, strengthening the validity of the research (Morse, 1991). For example, quantitative data might reveal correlations in management practices, while qualitative data can provide deeper insights into underlying causes. Mixed methods can thus reconcile the empirical rigor of quantitative research with the contextual sensitivity of qualitative work, enhancing the robustness of business management studies.

Mixed methods designs typically fall into exploratory or explanatory frameworks, each serving distinct research purposes within business management studies. Creswell (2014) defined exploratory designs as those that start with qualitative research to develop hypotheses, followed by quantitative analysis to test them. In contrast, explanatory designs begin with quantitative data collection, which is subsequently clarified through qualitative insights (Ivankova, Creswell, & Stick, 2006). For instance, in exploratory studies of consumer behavior, qualitative interviews can generate hypotheses about market preferences, which are then tested through surveys. Conversely, explanatory designs are beneficial when quantitative results need contextual understanding, as seen in employee engagement studies. These frameworks offer flexibility in addressing the study's objectives while catering to the complexity of business contexts.

Quality in mixed methods research hinges on methodological rigor, transparency, and coherence between qualitative and quantitative elements. To maintain quality, researchers must ensure the integration of methods is deliberate and systematic (Fetters, Curry, & Creswell, 2013). For instance, Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009) advocated for triangulation and the clear delineation of each phase in mixed methods studies to avoid bias. Additionally, ensuring alignment between research questions and methodological approaches is crucial for producing reliable and valid outcomes. Implementing strategies such as pilot testing, coding, and constant

comparative analysis further enhances quality, enabling researchers to handle the complexities of business studies with confidence.

The advantages of mixed methods include comprehensive data interpretation and enhanced reliability, which have driven their popularity in business studies. However, there are also notable challenges. For example, Morgan (2007) emphasized the increased time, resources, and expertise required to execute both qualitative and quantitative components effectively. Researchers may face practical difficulties, such as managing vast data and reconciling conflicting findings between methods. Additionally, qualitative purists argue that mixed methods risk diluting the depth of qualitative analysis (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Despite these concerns, the growing interest in mixed methods demonstrates their efficacy in delivering nuanced insights, especially in complex business environments.

Certain fields within business management, particularly organizational behavior, human resource management, and marketing, benefit significantly from mixed methods approaches. In exploring organizational culture or leadership styles, for instance, quantitative surveys can provide baseline data on employee satisfaction, while qualitative interviews offer context-specific insights (Yin, 2003). Additionally, complex theories such as transformational leadership and innovation diffusion require multi-layered data to capture both statistical trends and human factors (Cameron, 2009). Mixed methods are also critical in international business studies, where diverse cultural contexts necessitate both statistical rigor and contextual understanding to accurately interpret managerial practices.

The trajectory of mixed methods in business management suggests a growing focus on integrating advanced technologies and analytical tools. Scholars predict a rise in the use of digital tools for data triangulation and the integration of artificial intelligence for coding and categorizing qualitative data (Hesse-Biber, 2015). Another trend is the increased adoption of participatory and action-based mixed methods approaches, aimed at fostering practical impact (Greene, 2007). As business management research continues to address global and interdisciplinary challenges, mixed methods are likely to play an increasingly central role, enabling researchers to leverage diverse data sources to solve real-world problems comprehensively.

In sum, mixed methods offer unique strengths and nuanced insights, making them highly suitable for addressing the intricate, multi-faceted nature of business management studies. This adaptability, combined with a robust theoretical foundation, positions mixed methods as a valuable approach that aligns well with the evolving demands of business research.

The application of mixed methods in business management research has steadily evolved, with foundational texts by Creswell and Plano Clark (2007) establishing theoretical and methodological frameworks for combining qualitative and quantitative data. Cameron (2011) further contributed to this development with the "Five Ps" framework (Purpose, Paradigm, Process, Proficiency, and Presentation), which helps guide the structured implementation of mixed methods, addressing complex business phenomena. Likewise, Tashakkori and Teddlie's (2003) emphasis on methodological pluralism has propelled the use of mixed methods in business journals, providing a foundation for nuanced exploration of management challenges. These foundational works underscore the importance of diverse data sources to capture the intricacies of organizational contexts.

Mixed methods have gained acceptance in business research due to their adaptability in analyzing multifaceted organizational issues. Bryman (2006) argued that combining qualitative and quantitative approaches allows researchers to overcome the limitations of single-method studies, offering a richer understanding of complex phenomena. This perspective aligns with insights by Harrison and Reilly (2011), who demonstrated that mixed methods in marketing provide comprehensive data by addressing "what," "how," and "why" questions, bridging the strengths of both methodologies. Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) further supported this view, presenting mixed methods as an integrative approach to gather balanced findings, particularly relevant in studies of workforce dynamics and consumer behavior.

Mixed methods address critical limitations found in purely qualitative or quantitative studies, enhancing the validity and robustness of research outcomes. Sale, Lohfeld, and Brazil (2002) discuss how single-method studies often miss contextual influences that mixed methods can capture. Venkatesh, Brown, and Bala (2013) similarly highlighted that mixed methods fill methodological gaps in information systems research, enabling a holistic view of organizational practices. For example, quantitative data can identify correlations in managerial approaches, while qualitative insights offer deeper understanding into causative factors, thereby bridging empirical rigor with contextual relevance in business studies.

Exploratory and explanatory mixed methods designs serve distinct roles in business management research, each tailored to specific research needs. Creswell (2014) defines exploratory designs as beginning with qualitative data to generate hypotheses, followed by quantitative validation. Conversely, explanatory designs begin with quantitative data, which is then contextualized through qualitative analysis, as shown in Ivankova, Creswell, and Stick's (2006) work. For instance, Cameron (2011) notes that qualitative interviews can establish preliminary insights in consumer studies, later confirmed through quantitative analysis, while

quantitative findings on employee engagement can be better understood through follow-up qualitative investigations. Such flexibility facilitates tailored approaches to complex research questions in business contexts.

Quality assurance in mixed methods research demands deliberate integration and methodological rigor. Fetters, Curry, and Creswell (2013) proposed systematic guidelines for achieving integration, reinforcing the need for coherence between qualitative and quantitative elements. Cameron's (2011) "Five Ps" framework also highlights the importance of proficiency and presentation in maintaining research quality. Similarly, Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009) advocated for clear, stepwise triangulation in mixed methods, ensuring alignment with research objectives. These principles underscore the importance of transparency and systematic design, particularly in business research, where methodological rigor directly impacts the reliability and validity of findings.

Mixed methods offer a balanced approach to complex business research, though they also present notable challenges. The advantages include comprehensive data interpretation and increased reliability, as demonstrated in Morgan (2007), but they also require substantial time, resources, and expertise. Harrison and Reilly (2011) acknowledge that handling and integrating diverse data sources is demanding, potentially diluting the depth of qualitative insights if not managed carefully. Additionally, some qualitative purists, such as Guba and Lincoln (1994), critique mixed methods for potentially undermining qualitative depth. Nonetheless, the versatility and adaptability of mixed methods continue to drive their adoption, particularly in complex organizational studies.

Certain areas within business management—such as organizational behavior, marketing, and human resource management—are particularly suited for mixed methods research. Molina-Azorín and Cameron (2010) demonstrate how mixed methods can capture both statistical trends and in-depth qualitative insights in organizational studies. This approach is especially valuable in fields like international business, where cultural contexts complicate research, and transformational leadership studies that demand layered data for comprehensive understanding. Yin's (2003) case study methodology is often cited alongside mixed methods for its flexibility in organizational research, allowing for robust investigation of leadership styles, employee satisfaction, and innovation diffusion in diverse settings.

The future of mixed methods in business research is marked by technological integration and methodological innovation. Hesse-Biber (2015) predicts a rise in digital tools and AI-driven data analysis to streamline data triangulation and manage large datasets. Greene (2007) also

points to adopting action-based mixed methods approaches, emphasizing practical, real-world impact in business studies. These trends suggest that mixed methods will continue to evolve in response to global and interdisciplinary challenges, offering business researchers a robust framework to address increasingly complex questions in dynamic environments.

This review integrates core works within mixed methods literature, demonstrating their application and relevance in contemporary business management research. Each reference provides foundational insight and guides researchers in navigating the nuanced demands of mixed methods in business contexts.

## **3.2 Qualitative Study - Study 1**

Thematic analysis is a qualitative method widely valued for its systematic approach to identifying patterns and themes within data (Braun & Clarke, 2006). It is particularly suited for exploring complex qualitative data because it involves in-depth analysis and reflexivity, where the researcher actively engages with the data to derive meaning. Thematic analysis is not a linear process but a recursive one, requiring multiple stages of data engagement to ensure robust, reliable themes that reflect the data's depth (Nowell et al., 2017). Researchers often apply thematic analysis to large qualitative datasets to systematically capture and organize nuanced findings (Clarke & Braun, 2013). This method is instrumental in studies where understanding participants' perspectives and lived experiences is essential.

Thematic analysis can be conducted inductively or deductively, depending on the study's purpose and theoretical framework. Inductive thematic analysis allows themes to emerge organically from the data, unshaped by predefined theories, making it ideal for exploratory studies where flexibility is essential (Patton, 2002). In contrast, deductive analysis is theory-driven, meaning themes and codes are identified based on prior research or theoretical frameworks before data analysis begins (Boyatzis, 1998). This approach is often used in studies with a more confirmatory focus, where hypotheses or pre-existing theories guide data interpretation. The choice between these approaches depends on the research objectives and helps to shape the rigor and direction of the analysis process.

Braun and Clarke (2006) identify three main approaches within thematic analysis—coding reliability, codebook, and reflexive approaches—each differing in terms of researcher involvement and coding framework. The coding reliability approach emphasizes consistency and alignment between coders, reducing subjective influence, while the codebook approach provides predefined categories, enhancing the objectivity of data interpretation (Crabtree &

Miller, 1999). In contrast, the reflexive approach positions the researcher's interpretations as central, allowing for more flexible and subjective engagement with the data. Reflexivity in thematic analysis, as highlighted by Braun and Clarke (2019), involves continuous self-awareness of the researcher's own influence on data interpretation, adding depth and authenticity to the findings.

The analytical process in thematic analysis typically starts with familiarizing oneself with the data, followed by generating initial codes. Familiarization involves reading and rereading the data, making notes on potential patterns, and forming preliminary impressions (Tuckett, 2005). Once familiar with the data, researchers proceed to code it, identifying segments that are relevant to the research questions and aligning them with theoretical concepts when using a deductive approach. These initial codes are then systematically reviewed, grouped, and refined into themes, which are essential to capturing the data's core messages. According to Braun and Clarke (2006), these themes should not only summarize but interpret the data, leading to deeper insights.

Semi-structured interviews are a valuable data collection method in qualitative research, as they provide a balance between guidance and flexibility (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009). This structure allows participants to express themselves freely while the interviewer directs the conversation around core research themes. Semi-structured interviews enable participants to share their subjective theories—rich, personal insights that include both explicit beliefs and implicit assumptions regarding the research topic (Flick, 2013). This format is especially useful in settings where complex issues are investigated, as it allows for a depth of understanding that structured interviews or surveys may not capture.

An interview guide typically supports semi-structured interviews, containing different types of questions to ensure a comprehensive exploration of the subject matter. Open-ended questions allow participants to respond based on their experiences, providing insights grounded in their perspective, while theory-driven questions are structured around existing literature or conceptual frameworks (Bryman, 2012). Confrontational questions are also included to prompt participants to critically examine or even reconsider their views, fostering a more nuanced understanding of the topic. Sekaran and Bougie (2016) suggest that using diverse question types enhances the richness and validity of interview data, as it allows researchers to capture both the obvious and underlying beliefs of participants.

Expert interviews, a specific form of semi-structured interviewing, leverage the specialized knowledge and experience of individuals with high-level insights into the research topic

(Meuser & Nagel, 2009). Experts provide unique perspectives shaped by their professional roles, contributing to a deeper understanding of the study context (Hair et al., 2011). Expert interviews are particularly suitable in this study, where museum executives are interviewed to explore insights into museum operations in Indonesia. Because of their specialized knowledge, expert interviewees are carefully chosen based on their relevance to the study objectives, and the interview process is designed to maximize information-gathering within time constraints, as experts may have limited availability.

The sampling strategy for this study involves purposive sampling, where participants are intentionally selected based on their expertise in museum operations (Palinkas et al., 2015). For recruitment, national news sources are scanned to identify prominent figures in the Indonesian museum sector, and additional online resources are used to gather contact information. Potential participants are then approached through initial correspondence, where the study's purpose and procedures are briefly outlined. Once participants agree, a schedule is established for interviews, ensuring a convenient and mutually agreeable timeframe. This process is essential to establishing rapport and setting clear expectations regarding participation.

Before each interview, participants receive a Participant Information Sheet (PIS) and Consent Form, ensuring they are fully informed about the study's objectives, procedures, and ethical considerations (Silverman, 2016). Maintaining regular communication with participants from initial contact through to the interview session helps to build trust, demonstrate professionalism, and ensure a positive researcher-participant relationship. This process also reinforces ethical standards, as participants are made aware of their rights, including the option to withdraw from the study at any time. Such measures are crucial in qualitative research, where trust and rapport significantly impact the quality and depth of the data collected.

### **3.3 Quantitative Study - Study 2**

The fastest-growing type of surveying in the world involves surveys that are entirely performed electronically and rely solely on email contact to get replies from respondents on the Internet (Dillman et al., 2014). Because of its speed, low cost, and economies of scale, the Web is drawing increased attention as a standalone means of data collection. The fact that more people are used to carrying out numerous daily tasks online may be advantageous for survey researchers who are interested in doing web surveys (Saris and Gallhover, 2014). Online surveys are now more frequently completed by people.



On the other hand, since people's interactions with computers and mobile devices continue to develop, web survey practises likewise undergo ongoing change. Survey creators must rethink certain parts of questionnaire design in light of the rise of mobile devices to account for the smaller screen. Designing and implementing web surveys is now more difficult than it was even a few years ago due to the wide variety of devices (desktop, notebook, tablet, smartphone, etc.), operating systems, browsers, and any other customised settings available to users (Nardi, 2018).

**Convenience Sampling.** For the quantitative part, the list of potential survey participants is based on the data that is available as part of the 2012 Indonesia Museum Directory (Direktori Museum Indonesia), the 2018 Indonesia Museum Catalogue (Katalog Museum Indonesia), and the 2021 Indonesia Cultural Statistics (Statistik Budaya Indonesia). After cross-checking the available data in those publications, the number of museums used as a sampling frame was 250 participants (museum directors). The participants will be above 18, no upper working age limits will be set. The initial correspondence to inform the purpose of the research, including the introduction of the researcher profile, is taken and continues with confirming several contacts with the museum directors directly. After the potential participants in the survey, the museum managers agreed to participate in the process of preparing the questionnaire then set. Between the initial correspondence and the window period when the online questionnaire can be accessed and filled out, the researcher maintains communication with the survey participants through the communication platform (email and/or phone) that was agreed upon before. In this quantitative part, the criteria for the participant implemented is someone who has a current position as manager of the museums and with an age above 18; no upper working age limits will be set. The proportion of the whole museum accommodates different types of museums based on their size, type of collection, and age, which meet the requirements for this research. Specifically, 250 museum leaders working at various levels of museum management will be approached.

**Table 3-6 Mixed Methods Approach within Market Orientation Research**

Study	Purpose of Study	Priority
Luo et al (2007)	Develop a conceptual framework that details (1) the curvilinear influence of competitor alliance's intensity on firm profitability and (2) the role of competitor orientation	QUAN □ QUAL

Study	Purpose of Study	Priority
	(strategies and objectives) in facilitating or hindering this influence.	
Paarlberg (2007)	To explore the impact of “customer service” orientation on government employee performance	QUAN □ QUAL
Ruokonen et al (2008)	to analyse the role of market orientation in the internationalisation of small software firms	QUAL □ QUAN
Reijonen and Komppula (2010)	to offer an integrated view of the adoption of market orientation in SMEs and what kind of marketing capabilities are necessary for a small firm to act in a market-oriented way	QUAN □ QUAL
Taghian (2010)	reviews the implementation of market orientation, and investigates the associations between market orientation and marketing planning and their associations with business performance	quan □ QUAL
Jaw et al. (2010)	To understand how service characteristics, market orientation, and efforts in innovation together drive new service development (NSD) performance	QUAL □ QUAN

Study	Purpose of Study	Priority
Polo Pena et al. (2012)	To predict the behaviour of these firms (rural tourism sector) when adopting the MO	QUAL □ QUAN
Wei et al (2012)	Examining the relationship between participation-based reward systems, market orientation, and new product performance	QUAL □ QUAN
Lettice et al (2014)	to understand the relationship between market orientation and performance in a law firm's context during an economic crisis.	QUAN □ QUAL
El Alfy (2021)	Identifying perceptions and influence of CO within an educational setting	QUAL □ QUAN

According to Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009), the precedence of the individual strands can be either equal, quantitative, or qualitative. Using SED, Creswell and Plano Clark (2011) state that both qualitative and quantitative methods "play an equally important role in addressing the research problem" (p. 65). Table 3-2 provides instances of mixed-methods research projects with a market focus that use an SED to prioritise various qualitative and quantitative strands. For example, the table demonstrates that several market-oriented researchers (such as Ruokonen et al., 2008; Jew et al., 2010; Polo Pena et al.) have selected a SED with equal qualitative and quantitative strands priorities. The research issue in this thesis depends on a more profound comprehension of market orientation, particularly in the context of for-profit and charity organisations. Therefore, the quantitative study that uses the qualitative study's findings to measure all the proposed and later tested variables is equally as important as the qualitative study that conceptualises forms of market orientation in nonprofit contexts, particularly museums.

## **Pre-testing**

All questions that went through cognitive interviews will be pre-tested by potential respondents who will become part of the quantitative part. The pretest is conducted further to purify the instrument and test for factor structure. It will be conducted with selected museum directors who become members of Asosiasi Museum Indonesia (Indonesia Museum Association) and Asosiasi Museum Indonesia Daerah (Regional Chapter of Indonesia Museum Association).

The invitation to participate in the pretest will be sent to each selected museum. The pretest data were used to assess the internal consistency and the factor structure of each first-order dimension of the proposed museum multi-stakeholder market orientation construct. Upon confirming the internal consistency of each of the five first-order constructs, factor analyses were conducted to better understand the structure of each proposed first-order construct. Items reflective of each dimension of the museum's multi-stakeholder market orientation construct will be analysed using Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA).

## **Data Collection**

The data that will be used for the final stage of construct validation were collected from a large sample of museum directors in Indonesia. A questionnaire containing the final set of measurement items will be emailed to 432 museums in Indonesia. Each emailed survey will be addressed to the museum director and include a link to an online survey using Qualtrics software inside a formal email letter.

## Chapter 4     Study 1 – Qualitative Study

This chapter initiates the Sequential Exploratory Design, beginning with qualitative research to support the framework developed in the literature review, which used a systematic approach to identify relevant constructs. Aligned with Research Objective 1, this qualitative phase aims to refine and expand the conceptual framework for a multi-stakeholder market orientation tailored to the museum context. Through in-depth interviews with key stakeholders—including academics, museum community members, directors, and managers—the qualitative research will validate and contextualise constructs that emerged from the literature review. This approach addresses nonprofit museums' unique stakeholder landscape and strategic imperatives, laying the groundwork for a comprehensive market orientation framework.

The conceptual framework derived from the literature review has identified multiple constructs that pertain to nonprofit market orientation, which serve as a foundation for addressing Research Objective 2: designing and validating a measurement instrument for stakeholder orientation in museums. To ensure this framework accurately captures the roles and positions of various museum stakeholders, the qualitative phase will also gather preliminary data to identify potential indicators and inform the design of the measurement tool. This process is essential to validate the proposed framework and to adjust it according to the insights of museum-specific stakeholders, ensuring that the measurement instrument reflects a holistic and museum-focused approach to market orientation.

In furtherance of Research Objective 3, this qualitative exploration examines the relationships among innovation, transformational leadership, and stakeholder engagement, identifying them as key drivers of museum performance. The constructs from the literature review are complemented by proposed hypotheses connecting these elements, grounded in the latest developments in nonprofit marketing and organizational leadership theory. Qualitative research will validate and localize these connections, ensuring that the framework integrates innovation and leadership styles pertinent to museums. This will provide a robust theoretical foundation for understanding how strategic alignment among stakeholder needs, leadership, and innovation can enhance performance and impact within the nonprofit museum sector.

Overall, this qualitative phase is essential for refining and contextualizing the initial constructs, leading to a validated, museum-specific market orientation framework and a measurement instrument that advances current models. Additionally, it will solidify the integrated framework that links market orientation with innovation and leadership as strategic imperatives for museums.

As each nonprofit organization has a different role for its stakeholders and demands to fulfill various needs and wants of each stakeholder, nonprofit characteristics of the organizational performance need to be defined and explored its precise constructs. From the previous literature review chapter, the exploration and review of specific studies in nonprofit organizations show that a nonprofit organization's performance has a strong relation with the organization's mission and characteristics. For a museum, identifying and understanding its role among its stakeholders needs to be checked and gathered to ensure that market orientation implementation covers its essential role and affects stakeholder aspirations.

The qualitative component of this study addresses the first research objective: to develop a comprehensive framework for multi-stakeholder market orientation in the museum context. By expanding the concept of market orientation within the nonprofit sector, particularly for museums, this research emphasizes the need to include a broader array of stakeholders essential to nonprofit success. It critically examines and argues for the reconfiguration of traditional market orientation models, which have typically emphasized customers, competitors, and employees, in order to capture the diverse stakeholder landscape unique to museums. This effort aims to tailor market orientation specifically to the strategic imperatives of nonprofit museums, providing a foundational framework that reflects their distinct stakeholder dynamics.

Aligned with the second research objective, Study 1 of the Sequential Exploratory Design focuses on designing and validating a measurement instrument to assess museum stakeholder orientation. This study systematically investigates the critical stakeholders for museums and analyses how museums strategically allocate marketing resources to meet the varied aspirations of these stakeholders. This comprehensive measurement approach advances traditional nonprofit market orientation models by integrating museum stakeholders' diverse roles. It influences a market-oriented framework, ensuring it captures the breadth of stakeholder interactions within the museum context.

Finally, to support the third research objective, this research constructs an integrated framework incorporating innovation, transformational leadership, and stakeholder engagement as essential drivers of museum performance. Study 1 explores explicitly and categorises the types of innovations museums develop and examines how strategic marketing resources support these innovations. Additionally, it investigates the influence of museum leadership styles and stakeholder engagement on innovation outcomes, providing a theoretical foundation for enhancing strategic alignment and impact within the nonprofit museum sector. This integrated

framework offers a robust basis for understanding and improving museum performance by aligning stakeholder needs, leadership, and innovation with the museum's strategic objectives.

## **4.1 Thematic Analysis in Business Management Studies**

Thematic analysis has become a prominent method for qualitative research in business management studies, allowing researchers to identify, analyse systematically, and report patterns within data (Braun & Clarke, 2006). This approach is beneficial for exploring complex phenomena, as it provides a structured framework to understand recurring themes in qualitative data. Thematic analysis helps researchers in business management to move beyond surface-level observations, drawing deeper insights critical for understanding behaviours, motivations, and organisational culture (Clarke & Braun, 2013). Given its flexibility, thematic analysis is widely applied across diverse topics within business management, from leadership studies to customer experience.

In business management studies, thematic analysis serves as a method to explore the human aspects of organisations, such as employee perceptions, leadership effectiveness, and organisational change. Coding and categorising data based on themes allow researchers to interpret patterns that may reveal insights into workplace behaviours and managerial practices (King, 2004). This approach is especially relevant in business contexts where understanding employees' perspectives and experiences is crucial for organisational effectiveness (Miles et al., 2014). For instance, thematic analysis has been used to explore themes in leadership studies, providing insights into how different leadership styles impact employee satisfaction and productivity (Day et al., 2014).

One of the main strengths of thematic analysis in business management research is its adaptability. Unlike more rigid qualitative methods, thematic analysis can be conducted in either a deductive or inductive manner, making it suitable for exploratory and confirmatory studies (Braun & Clarke, 2006). For instance, inductive thematic analysis is commonly applied in exploratory studies where the researcher seeks to understand patterns without prior assumptions. This method helps study emerging topics such as digital transformation or corporate social responsibility (Boyatzis, 1998). This flexibility is beneficial in business research, where dynamic markets and evolving organisational practices require adaptable methods.

Thematic analysis also allows business management researchers to work with large, complex datasets by breaking down data into manageable themes. For instance, in studies involving

interviews with numerous stakeholders across different organisational levels, thematic analysis enables researchers to identify critical patterns across various groups, allowing for a holistic understanding of organisational dynamics (Gioia et al., 2013). By identifying cross-cutting themes, researchers can better understand how different organisational members perceive changes or challenges within the company, offering insights into areas such as change management and corporate culture (Saldaña, 2021).

However, the flexibility of thematic analysis also raises concerns about rigour, particularly in ensuring consistency and reliability in theme development. Recent studies have emphasised the importance of systematic coding and theme-checking processes to mitigate subjectivity (Nowell et al., 2017). Ensuring rigour is essential in business research, mainly when themes are used to make managerial recommendations. Methodologists such as Braun and Clarke (2021) suggest that researchers establish clear criteria for theme inclusion and maintain transparency in their coding processes to enhance credibility in thematic analysis.

Despite these challenges, thematic analysis is beneficial in business management for bridging theory and practice. The approach enables researchers to link empirical observations with theoretical constructs, thereby offering insights that are both practically relevant and theoretically informed (Gioia et al., 2013). This attribute is particularly advantageous in applied fields like business management, where findings often must be translated into actionable recommendations. Using thematic analysis, researchers can explore how theoretical concepts such as organisational justice or transformational leadership manifest in real-world settings (Patton, 2015).

In addition, thematic analysis supports an interdisciplinary approach in business management, allowing for integrating perspectives from psychology, sociology, and economics. This methodological versatility makes thematic analysis suitable for studies examining employee motivation, consumer behaviour, and organisational resilience (King & Brooks, 2017). The ability to draw on different disciplines enhances the richness of the analysis, providing business researchers with a comprehensive understanding of multifaceted issues.

Thematic analysis is valuable in business management studies, offering flexibility, depth, and practical relevance. The method's capacity to reveal patterns and insights within qualitative data makes it indispensable for understanding organisational dynamics and decision-making processes (Braun & Clarke, 2021). As business environments become increasingly complex, the need for methods to capture and interpret nuanced data becomes critical. Thematic analysis



meets this need by enabling researchers to systematically examine rich qualitative data and generate insights that inform theory, policy, and practice (Miles et al., 2014).

In cases where research questions are highly specific or theory-driven, a priori or deductive thematic analysis offers advantages. This method uses pre-existing themes based on theoretical constructs or prior studies to guide data analysis. It is beneficial when the researcher aims to test or expand on existing knowledge. Studies in business research emphasise that deductive thematic analysis is beneficial when exploring established constructs like leadership styles or organisational justice, as it allows researchers to focus on particular aspects of the data that relate directly to the theoretical framework (Joffe, 2012). By using deductive thematic analysis, researchers in business management can provide insights that directly contribute to refining theories and concepts relevant to their field.

The decision to use a priori thematic analysis is also influenced by the research's practical application needs, as it ensures that the findings are directly relevant to real-world business challenges (Crabtree & Miller, 1999). For instance, in studies evaluating organisational culture or customer satisfaction, using a deductive approach helps researchers quickly identify data points that align with key performance indicators. This method is especially effective in applied business research, where time constraints and the need for actionable insights often necessitate a focused approach. By combining thematic analysis with a priori themes, researchers can maintain a structured, goal-oriented approach supporting theoretical advancement and practical decision-making in the business sector (Miles et al., 2014).

## **4.2 Deductive / A Priori Thematic Analysis**

Deductive, or a priori, thematic analysis is a structured approach to qualitative research that involves identifying and categorising data based on pre-existing themes or theoretical frameworks. This method contrasts with inductive approaches, allowing themes to emerge naturally from the data. Deductive thematic analysis relies on the researcher's knowledge and prior understanding of relevant theories or frameworks, serving as a lens to interpret and organise data systematically (Braun & Clarke, 2006). This approach is beneficial in studies where a theoretical structure is already established, providing a framework to guide data analysis and interpretation to enhance alignment with existing literature (Boyatzis, 1998).

A key advantage of deductive thematic analysis is its ability to structure large, complex datasets by focusing on predefined themes, making it easier to connect with prior research. Researchers utilising deductive approaches often begin with a coding framework based on relevant

literature, theories, or previous studies, allowing them to examine specific aspects of the data with a clear focus (Crabtree & Miller, 1999). This approach helps streamline the analysis process, particularly in studies with defined research questions or hypotheses, by directing attention to theoretically significant patterns and variations (Fereday & Muir-Cochrane, 2006).

However, deductive thematic analysis can be limiting in terms of flexibility and openness to unexpected findings. Because themes are predetermined, this approach may overlook novel or unanticipated patterns that emerge from the data, potentially limiting the richness of the analysis. According to Terry et al. (2017), relying solely on a priori themes may restrict the researcher's ability to capture emergent insights that deviate from established theories. This limitation has led some researchers to advocate for a combination of deductive and inductive approaches, allowing for structured analysis and openness to unexpected findings.

Despite these limitations, deductive thematic analysis remains widely used in fields where theoretical constructs are critical in shaping research focus and questions. For example, in health and psychology research, deductive analysis is valuable for examining specific behaviours or attitudes within established theoretical frameworks, such as social cognitive theory or health belief models (Braun & Clarke, 2012). This structured approach ensures that findings are situated within relevant theoretical domains, enhancing the validity of interpretations and allowing researchers to make informed comparisons with existing studies (Joffe, 2012).

The process of conducting deductive thematic analysis typically involves several key steps, beginning with the development of a codebook based on the chosen theoretical framework or research objectives. This codebook acts as a guide for identifying relevant themes within the data and provides consistency in coding across the dataset (Miles et al., 2014). Researchers then apply these predefined codes to the data, revisiting and refining them to ensure alignment with the study's focus. This systematic approach facilitates rigorous analysis by ensuring that coding remains consistent and theoretically grounded.

Moreover, deductive thematic analysis has gained traction in applied research, where practical implications and policy recommendations are vital outcomes. In fields like education, public health, and organizational studies, using predefined themes based on existing models allows researchers to generate directly relevant insights for practitioners and policymakers (Gale et al., 2013). For instance, deductive analysis to assess educational practices can help align findings with established frameworks, such as Bloom's taxonomy, ensuring that recommendations are grounded in recognised educational principles.

Despite its systematic nature, deductive thematic analysis also requires reflexivity, as researchers must continuously evaluate how well their predefined themes capture the data's complexity. Reflexivity ensures that researchers remain open to nuances and contradictions within the data, promoting a more balanced analysis. King and Brooks (2017) emphasise the importance of flexibility in deductive analysis, encouraging researchers to adjust their coding framework when data reveal patterns that may not fully align with initial expectations. This reflexive approach allows for integrating unexpected insights while maintaining theoretical rigour.

Deductive thematic analysis is a robust method for examining data through the lens of established theories, offering clear benefits regarding structure, focus, and theoretical alignment. While it may limit the discovery of novel themes, it remains a valuable tool for studies seeking to build on existing knowledge or apply theoretical frameworks to new datasets. By balancing predefined themes with a reflexive approach to data interpretation, researchers can enhance the rigour and relevance of their findings, particularly in fields where theoretical constructs are central to research objectives.

### **4.3 Propositions**

Market orientation traditionally emphasises understanding and responding to customers' needs and monitoring competitors to achieve a competitive advantage. This approach is practical in for-profit sectors where customer satisfaction and market share are primary objectives (Hsieh et al., 2008). However, as nonprofit institutions, museums operate in a broader, more complex stakeholder environment, including visitors, donors, government agencies, educational organisations, and the surrounding community. Given these multiple stakeholders, museums must adopt a market orientation that is more nuanced than what is typically employed in the for-profit sector. This adjustment allows museums to align with these diverse groups' specific needs and expectations, thus ensuring their relevance and long-term sustainability (Sandberg et al., 2019).

In a museum context, traditional market orientation can overlook the diversity of stakeholder relationships critical to nonprofit success. While visitors often seek enriching and educational experiences, donors are more likely focused on the institution's mission alignment, impact on the community, and financial transparency, and government agencies may emphasise cultural preservation and public accessibility. Studies in nonprofit marketing highlight that a stakeholder-oriented approach is vital to successfully managing these various interests. For instance, research by Camarero, Garrido, and Vicente (2019) underscores the importance of

relationship marketing in fostering sustained partnerships with both internal and external stakeholders, an approach particularly pertinent in the museum setting.

Moreover, the intangible nature of museum offerings, such as cultural enrichment and educational value, poses challenges to applying traditional market orientation metrics like sales or profitability. Instead, museums often measure success through visitor engagement, community impact, and educational contributions. Gonsales (2020) argues that traditional for-profit metrics fall short in nonprofit contexts and advocates for museums to develop customised indicators aligned with their mission-driven objectives. This argument highlights that museums should focus on qualitative metrics that capture the broader societal impact of their programs rather than conventional profit-driven measures (Zan et al., 2007; Colbert, 2003; Tobelem, 1997).

To implement a market orientation accommodating this complexity, museums can adopt a relationship-marketing strategy, building long-term, mutually beneficial relationships with all stakeholder groups. For instance, engaging educational institutions through collaborative programs enhances the museum's role as an educational partner, while transparent communications with donors foster trust and encourage ongoing support. Relationship marketing is an effective strategy for nonprofits, particularly for institutions like museums that must balance multiple stakeholder's demands (Gonsales, 2020). By adopting a stakeholder-oriented and relationship-focused marketing strategy, museums can better fulfil their cultural and educational missions, remaining sustainable and relevant within their communities (Sandberg et al., 2019; Hsieh et al., 2008).

While traditional market orientation focuses on customers and competitors, museums require a more nuanced approach considering their diverse stakeholder landscape. By adopting a stakeholder-oriented and relationship-focused marketing strategy, museums can better fulfil their cultural and educational missions while ensuring sustainability and relevance in the community.

***Proposition 1:*** *Organisations' Market orientation usually targets specific stakeholders, such as customers and competitors, but museums must adapt it to accommodate their diverse stakeholders.*

Museum performance encompasses the diverse expectations of various stakeholders, including visitors, donors, government bodies, educational institutions, and the broader community. Each group has distinct interests: visitors seek engaging and educational experiences; donors prioritise mission alignment and financial transparency; government agencies focus on cultural

preservation and public accessibility; and educational institutions value collaborative opportunities. Effectively meeting these multifaceted expectations is crucial for museums to fulfil their cultural and educational missions while ensuring sustainability and relevance within the community (Hsieh et al., 2008).

Adopting and adapting market orientation—a business philosophy that centres on understanding and satisfying customer needs—can significantly enhance museum performance. In the nonprofit context, this approach involves a broader stakeholder orientation, recognising the unique needs of each group and aligning museum offerings accordingly. A recent study emphasises that a stakeholder-oriented approach enables museums to balance varied interests, sustaining their operations and fulfilling their missions (Sandberg et al., 2019).

Implementing a market orientation in museums requires shifting from traditional success metrics, such as attendance numbers, to more qualitative indicators reflecting stakeholder satisfaction and engagement. Museums should develop customised performance indicators aligned with their unique objectives and stakeholder expectations. This includes assessing visitor satisfaction, community engagement, educational impact, and donor relations, providing a comprehensive view of museum performance beyond financial metrics (Zan et al., 2007).

Furthermore, fostering strong stakeholder relationships through effective communication and collaboration is integral to a market-oriented approach. Engaging with educational institutions through joint programs can enhance the museum's educational impact, while transparent communication with donors can build trust and encourage ongoing support. Relationship marketing is vital in nonprofit settings, highlighting how building long-term, mutually beneficial relationships with stakeholders can improve museum performance outcomes (Colbert, 2003).

By adopting and adapting market orientation to address the unique needs of their diverse stakeholders, museums can enhance their performance. This approach involves understanding and aligning with stakeholder expectations, developing tailored performance indicators, and fostering strong relationships through effective communication and collaboration. Such strategies enable museums to fulfil their cultural and educational missions while ensuring sustainability and relevance in the community.

***Proposition 2a:*** *Museum performance, shaped by stakeholder expectations, can be improved by adopting and adapting market orientation in management.*

As cultural institutions, museums require performance measurement approaches distinct from other nonprofit organisations due to their unique focus on preserving cultural heritage, educating the public, and enhancing community engagement. Unlike other nonprofits that may emphasise purely service delivery or impact metrics, museums must balance public engagement with mission-driven outcomes, such as cultural preservation and accessibility. Museums must incorporate tangible and intangible measures—evaluating visitor satisfaction and attendance, educational impact, and cultural value (Colbert, 2003; Zan et al., 2007). These tailored metrics help museums align their performance goals with their dual roles as custodians of culture and educational centres, distinguishing them from other nonprofits that often have less complex performance requirements.

Given the complexity of museum goals, a Market Orientation alone may be insufficient for meeting performance objectives. Market Orientation, typically centred on understanding and responding to customer needs, should be complemented by Brand Orientation to fully support the museum's mission and strategic objectives. Brand Orientation focuses on building a consistent identity that aligns with the museum's core values, cultural mission, and reputation. Research shows that in the nonprofit sector, strong Brand Orientation can enhance an organisation's ability to connect with diverse stakeholders, maintain authenticity, and create long-term trust (Balmer, 2013). This brand-driven approach ensures that the museum's identity remains distinct and resilient in the face of external pressures, helping to secure donor support and public engagement over time.

The synergy of Market Orientation and Brand Orientation can drive museum performance by enhancing stakeholder satisfaction and organisational resilience. For example, adopting a Brand Orientation enables museums to communicate their mission and values consistently, while Market Orientation ensures they respond to evolving visitor needs and community expectations. This combination allows museums to engage audiences effectively while retaining authenticity, which is especially critical in the highly competitive cultural sector. In support of this approach, research demonstrates that museums with solid brand identities are more successful in building long-term relationships with donors and visitors, supporting sustainable performance outcomes (Ewing & Napoli, 2005).

Furthermore, recent studies highlight the importance of integrating Brand Orientation into performance measurement systems, allowing museums to track the impact of brand-related efforts on overall success. For instance, a strong brand enables museums to differentiate themselves in the nonprofit landscape, making them more resilient to economic shifts and funding fluctuations (Kylander & Stone, 2012). By complementing Market Orientation with

Brand Orientation, museums meet stakeholders' diverse expectations and build a sustainable foundation for long-term success. This approach enables museums to meet their educational and cultural mandates while achieving performance goals aligned with market demands and brand consistency.

***Proposition 2b: To improve its organisation's performance, museums should combine Market Orientation with Brand Orientation, as they have unique performance measurements compared to other non-profits.***

Innovation is critical for museums that enhance organisational performance, mainly as they operate within increasingly competitive and resource-constrained environments. Museums face unique challenges in balancing cultural preservation with audience engagement and financial sustainability. Innovation in digital engagement and interactive exhibits allows museums to offer dynamic visitor experiences while expanding their reach beyond physical boundaries. Museums employing digital tools and interactive displays see improved visitor satisfaction and increased engagement, which is essential for their educational mission and public relevance (Colbert, 2003; Simon, 2010). Thus, innovation can be crucial in transforming how museums deliver value to audiences, contributing directly to organisational performance.

Innovative approaches also enable museums to diversify their revenue streams, an increasingly necessary strategy given the volatility of traditional funding sources. Museums adopting creative revenue strategies, such as hosting virtual exhibits or creating immersive experiences, are better positioned to withstand economic challenges (Balmer & Greyser, 2006). These innovations allow museums to attract new visitors, generate additional income, and remain financially resilient. Moreover, by rethinking traditional business models, museums can balance mission-driven goals with financial sustainability, aligning with cultural institutions' dual mandate to educate and generate income (Hume & Mills, 2011).

Organisational innovation in museums also extends to improving internal processes and stakeholder engagement. By adopting innovative management practices, museums can enhance collaboration, improve operational efficiency, and strengthen relationships with donors, educational institutions, and community partners. Museums implementing participatory management approaches—such as engaging stakeholders in exhibit planning or fundraising initiatives—benefit from increased community support and donor loyalty (Napoli, 2006). These internal innovations improve operational performance and build a more substantial community presence, essential for long-term sustainability.

Finally, embracing innovation enables museums to adapt to evolving societal needs and technological advancements, positioning them as forward-thinking institutions capable of remaining relevant in changing times. Adaptive innovation is essential, noting that museums that frequently refresh their content, adopt new technologies, and respond to cultural shifts are more likely to engage diverse audiences and maintain public interest (Kylander & Stone, 2012). By fostering a culture of innovation, museums can meet the demands of contemporary audiences while upholding their educational and cultural missions, resulting in enhanced organisational performance and more significant community impact.

***Proposition 3a:*** *Museums need innovation to improve organisational performance.*

Museums engage in unique types of innovation that differentiate them from other nonprofit organisations due to their dual mandate of preserving cultural heritage and engaging the public in educational experiences. Unlike other nonprofits, whose primary focus might be on service provision or direct social impact, museums must constantly balance historical preservation with contemporary audience engagement. This need for dual focus drives museums to adopt innovation in exhibit design, visitor interaction, and curation, often blending traditional collections with cutting-edge technology. Museums adopt “conservative innovation”—where the core mission remains intact while the delivery methods, such as digital collections and interactive exhibits, are continually updated to engage new audiences (Colbert, 2003; Simon, 2010).

The types of innovation in museums frequently involve technology adoption, which enables them to expand access and create immersive experiences for diverse visitor demographics. For example, many museums have embraced virtual, augmented reality, and online collections to reach audiences beyond physical visitors. Digital innovations allow museums to extend their educational reach and attract global audiences, helping them maintain relevance in the digital age (Balmer & Greyser, 2006). This focus on digital innovation is particularly unique to museums, as it allows them to preserve their collections in new formats and offer remote access to art, history, and science, ensuring both preservation and access in ways that other nonprofits do not typically prioritise (Hume & Mills, 2011).

In addition to technology-driven innovation, museums often engage in experiential and participatory innovations, encouraging visitors to interact directly with exhibits and content. Unlike other nonprofits, museums have the opportunity to transform passive spectators into active participants, an approach that fosters more profound connections with the material. Museums have a role in participatory innovation, where hands-on exhibits, community-driven



curation, and interactive installations help enhance visitor engagement and satisfaction (Napoli, 2006). This type of innovation is specific to museums, as it aligns with their educational mission while encouraging community involvement and personal connection to cultural content.

Lastly, museums pursue innovation in audience engagement and outreach, building strong community relationships through targeted programs and initiatives. Unlike other nonprofits, museums often foster long-term cultural impact through educational partnerships and collaborative projects with schools, libraries, and community organisations. This form of innovation in community engagement is particularly vital for museums, as it helps build sustained interest, encourages repeat visits, and nurtures future generations of museum-goers (Kylander & Stone, 2012). By developing tailored programs that foster ongoing community relationships, museums distinguish themselves in the nonprofit sector, creating a unique innovation that serves educational and cultural goals.

***Proposition 3b:*** *Museums have a specific type of innovation compared to other non-profit organisations.*

Combining Market Orientation and Brand Orientation is essential for museums seeking to innovate effectively while staying true to their unique mission within the nonprofit sector. Market Orientation involves understanding and addressing the needs of visitors, donors, and other stakeholders, ensuring that museums remain responsive and relevant in an evolving cultural landscape. However, unlike other nonprofits, museums carry a solid historical and cultural identity that must remain consistent to maintain trust and appeal. While Market Orientation drives museums to adapt and meet external demands, Brand Orientation ensures that these adaptations do not compromise the institution's core values and identity (Ewing & Napoli, 2005). This combination allows museums to innovate in ways that resonate with their audiences while preserving their distinct cultural mission.

The integration of Market and Brand Orientation is crucial for museums as it supports the development of innovations that cater to current audience expectations and the institution's long-term positioning. Museums that balance these orientations are better equipped to create authentic visitor experiences that enhance their brand reputation while responding to changing visitor needs (Balmer, 2013). For instance, museums that engage in digital transformation projects or interactive exhibits, guided by market insights and a commitment to brand values, are more likely to attract diverse audiences without alienating traditional supporters (Hume & Mills, 2011). This approach helps museums to leverage innovation as a strategic tool to extend their reach while reinforcing their identity.

Furthermore, Market and Brand Orientation fosters innovations that enable museums to achieve financial sustainability, a critical goal in a challenging funding environment. Museums that align brand values with market-driven strategies can innovate revenue streams through branded merchandise, exclusive memberships, and themed events, attracting new funding sources without diluting their mission (Kylander & Stone, 2012). This approach is especially relevant for museums, as they must balance the need to generate income with the imperative to provide free or low-cost public access. By grounding financial innovations in market demand and brand integrity, museums can sustainably grow revenue while maintaining accessibility and fulfilling their public service mission.

Finally, museums that combine market and brand orientation can innovate in audience engagement by developing programming responsive to public interests and aligned with the museum's unique brand identity. Museums can use Market Orientation to identify emerging cultural trends, while Brand Orientation helps ensure that new programs remain authentic to the museum's values and historical significance (Colbert, 2003). This balance is essential for museums that serve diverse communities, as they must create inclusive and relevant content without compromising their core identity. By leveraging both orientations, museums can produce innovations that foster community connection, enhance visitor loyalty, and reinforce their role as cultural stewards.

***Proposition 4a:*** *Museums should merge market and brand orientation to drive innovations that align with the characteristics of museums as a sub-type of a non-profit organisation.*

Innovation in museums relies significantly on the role of museum leaders, as they are central to establishing strategic directions that balance mission preservation with responsiveness to new ideas. Leaders prioritising innovation shape a culture that fosters exploring and implementing new approaches, such as digital transformation, experiential learning, and community-driven initiatives. Recent studies underscore that innovative leadership in museums enables institutions to remain culturally relevant and technologically adept, with leaders fostering an open, risk-friendly environment that inspires staff to bring forward creative solutions (Bolton & Carr, 2019). Adaptable, forward-thinking leadership in nonprofits encourages initiatives that meet mission goals and contemporary audience demands (Kylander & Stone, 2012).

Furthermore, museum leaders play a crucial role in sustaining relationships with various stakeholders, each with distinct interests that shape museum innovations. As museums operate within a network of stakeholders—including visitors, donors, educational partners, community groups, and governmental bodies—effective engagement helps leaders gather insights into

evolving needs and secure resources for new projects. This engagement supports innovation and helps align projects with community interests, as recent research highlights that reciprocal stakeholder relationships provide critical support for public-facing initiatives and community-driven programming (Yang et al., 2020). These relationships allow museum leaders to tailor innovations that resonate with their community and donor base, enhancing their programs' relevance and reach (Balmer & Greyser, 2006).

In addition to stakeholder engagement, the collaborative leadership style of museum directors is instrumental in driving successful innovation. Leaders who engage staff and stakeholders in decision-making foster a shared commitment to new projects, strengthening internal support and ensuring alignment with the institution's values and mission. Current studies emphasise the importance of participatory leadership, finding that directors who promote teamwork create an environment where diverse perspectives fuel more holistic, well-rounded innovations (Colbert, 2003; Smith & Jackson, 2021). This collaborative approach builds a collective sense of purpose, enabling museums to implement projects that meet audience expectations and reflect shared goals across all levels of the organisation.

Finally, cultivating long-term partnerships is crucial for sustaining museum innovation. Museum leaders who build lasting relationships with educational institutions, corporations, and community organisations secure continuous support that fosters innovation and adaptability. Partnerships with local and global stakeholders provide museums with financial and intellectual resources that enable ongoing experimentation with and refinement of innovative programs (Ewing & Napoli, 2005; Roberts & Becker, 2021). By continually engaging with partners and stakeholders, leaders ensure that innovation remains an ongoing process rather than a one-time endeavour, helping the museum adapt and grow while maintaining its cultural and educational mission.

***Proposition 4b:*** *Museum innovation depends on effective leadership and strong stakeholder relationships.*

## 4.4 Analysis of Data: Coding and Themes

To conduct a deductive a priori thematic analysis, researchers draw on pre-existing theories or frameworks to shape the initial themes applied to qualitative data, aligning their analysis with specific research questions and theoretical perspectives (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Fereday & Muir-Cochrane, 2006). This method, rooted in a structured process, allows researchers to

analyse data in light of established concepts, testing or exploring theory applicability while accommodating unique insights from the data (King, 2004; Joffe, 2012).

#### **4.4.1 Define Research Questions and Framework (A Priori Themes)**

First, researchers establish straightforward research questions that orient their analysis and define a priori themes based on relevant theories or literature. Fereday and Muir-Cochrane (2006) emphasise the importance of this foundational step, suggesting that initial themes serve as guiding constructs for coding and subsequent analysis. Setting a Coding Framework follows, where researchers specify themes and sub-themes to examine nuances within the data. This preliminary framework is central to ensuring thematic focus and coherence throughout the analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Crabtree & Miller, 1999).

#### **4.4.2 Data Familiarization**

Before applying codes, researchers undergo data familiarisation, immersing themselves in the material to appreciate its full scope. Immersion entails reading and re-reading transcripts or notes to identify content that may expand or contradict a priori themes (Nowell et al., 2017). This step is critical for identifying context and patterns that inform coding while staying open to data elements that challenge initial assumptions (King, 2004).

#### **4.4.3 Initial Coding Using A Priori Themes**

In the initial coding phase, researchers apply codes aligned with pre-established themes. Braun and Clarke (2006) highlight the value of this deductive process, where themes guide analysis, yet flexibility remains to accommodate emergent, unanticipated patterns. Researchers should annotate and contextualise insights during coding, as these annotations can later support refined interpretations (Joffe, 2012).

#### **4.4.4 Review and Refine Codes**

Following initial coding, researchers evaluate the fit of codes within themes, reviewing whether initial codes align with the theoretical framework or require adjustments (Braun & Clarke, 2013). This step may involve refining definitions, merging overlapping codes, or adding new themes based on recurrent patterns (Crabtree & Miller, 1999). Consistency checks are essential here, mainly when multiple coders are involved, to ensure reliability and coherence (Nowell et al., 2017).

### **4.4.5 Organize Codes into Themes**

Researchers then organise related codes under broader themes, consolidating the coding into comprehensive categories that align with the research objectives (Braun & Clarke, 2006).

Defining each theme about the research question ensures each category's relevance and coherence (Fereday & Muir-Cochrane, 2006). Sometimes, creating sub-themes captures finer nuances, adding depth to the analysis (Nowell et al., 2017).

### **4.4.6 Write-Up and Interpretation**

The final stage involves a thematic write-up and interpretation, where researchers describe each theme with data excerpts and explain their theoretical implications. Themes are linked to research questions and theoretical assumptions, providing insights into whether and how the data supported or challenged a priori themes (Braun & Clarke, 2013). The write-up includes discussing unexpected findings, reflecting on their relevance for the framework, and their implications for future research (Fereday & Muir-Cochrane, 2006; Nowell et al., 2017).

## **4.5 Interview Process**

### **4.5.1 Interview Protocol**

Creating a comprehensive interview protocol is crucial for executing efficient qualitative research in business management, as it provides an organised, methodical method for data collecting that improves the reliability and depth of insights gathered. Numerous studies emphasise that a meticulously designed interview methodology guarantees uniformity between interviews while permitting adaptability to investigate unforeseen revelations, which is especially advantageous in intricate organisational settings (Kallio et al., 2016; Creswell & Poth, 2018). By following standardised protocols, researchers can diminish interviewer bias, decrease variability, and concentrate discussions on essential research enquiries.

Patton (2015) underscores the significance of open-ended and probing enquiries to reveal nuanced viewpoints, allowing participants to convey comprehensive narratives that elucidate organisational dynamics. Moreover, protocols that include confidentiality and consent procedures, as delineated by Jacob and Furgerson (2012), foster an ethical and reliable research environment, prompting participants to articulate their thoughts openly. Post-interview reflection, as recommended by Seidman (2019), facilitates the acquisition of significant contextual information and non-verbal signals essential for interpreting findings. A

comprehensive interview process is essential for producing dependable, high-quality qualitative data to guide evidence-based business management insights.

The introduction and goal of an interview protocol must be clear and structured to ensure ethical, focused data collecting. A brief introduction should introduce the researcher and give participants context and purpose for the study. After that, explaining the study's aims may assist participants in giving more relevant and insightful responses. Confidentiality creates trust by ensuring replies are private, and data is anonymised. This assurance can encourage participants to speak freely, enriching data. Verifying informed permission and emphasising participants' rights enables ethical conduct and autonomy. Explaining the interview duration shows respect for participants' time, and requesting permission to record the interview, which improves data analysis, is essential for qualitative research transparency and completeness. Kallio et al. (2016) note that a well-structured interview guide improves data dependability and creates a professional and respectful environment for qualitative business management research.

The interview begins with a brief opening statement, where the researcher introduces themselves and provides an overview of the study to set a professional and welcoming tone. Next, the researcher clearly explains the purpose of the study, outlining the research objectives to help the participants understand the study's focus and relevance. Following this, confidentiality assurance is provided; here, the researcher reassures the participant that all responses will remain confidential, explaining any data anonymisation practices in place. This step is crucial for building trust and encouraging honest responses. The researcher then moves to the consent process, confirming that informed consent has been obtained and reminding the participants of their rights, such as the right to withdraw or refuse to answer specific questions.

To manage expectations, the researcher informs the participant of the anticipated interview duration, ensuring that the participant knows the time commitment involved. Finally, the researcher requests permission to record the interview, explaining that recording enhances the accuracy of transcription and analysis. Each step in this process contributes to establishing a structured, ethical, and respectful interview environment foundational for effective qualitative data collection in business management research.

The interview process includes a warm-up phase that begins with general, non-threatening questions designed to build rapport and make participants feel comfortable. Starting with questions such as, “Can you tell me about your role within the museum?” or “How long have

you been with the museum?” help set a conversational tone, making participants feel at ease and open the door for more in-depth responses later in the interview. These initial questions allow participants to discuss familiar topics—such as their job role, tenure, or career motivations—which are easy to discuss and require minimal reflection. This warm-up phase is essential in qualitative research, as it gradually introduces participants to the interview setting, helping reduce any anxieties about the process. Jacob and Furgerson (2012) underscore the value of these opening questions, noting that they ease participants into the interview, which is critical for eliciting genuine, uninhibited responses later in the conversation.

In the context of a research study on market orientation with a multi-stakeholder approach and innovation within the museum sector, the main interview questions should focus on understanding the management and leadership practices specific to the unique environment of museums. By exploring how market and brand orientation combine to drive innovation and the role of transformational leadership and stakeholder engagement, the study can gather comprehensive insights into how these factors work together to support museum innovation. Initial questions, like “Can you describe the management practices you find most effective in your museum?” and “What are some of the biggest challenges you encounter in managing your team or projects?” aim to gather foundational insights into the general management and operational priorities in museums, especially as they relate to balancing market-driven and brand-oriented strategies.

The research-specific questions delve deeper into each focus area, tailored to the museum context. When exploring leadership, questions like “How would you describe the prevalent leadership style in the museum?” and “Can you share an example where leadership significantly impacted organisation outcomes?” target the influence of transformational leadership within museum management. This line of inquiry seeks to uncover how museum leaders use their vision to inspire a culture that balances commercial and cultural objectives, a balance necessary for fostering stakeholder engagement and achieving innovative outcomes that resonate with diverse audiences. According to Patton (2015), probing questions are particularly effective for obtaining richer, more nuanced insights, allowing museum professionals to articulate specific leadership strategies that enable innovation.

For innovation-specific questions, such as “How does your organisation encourage or manage innovation?” and “What barriers exist to implementing new ideas?” the focus is on uncovering practices that museums adopt to foster innovative experiences, exhibits, or services. These questions also explore how museums manage the dual pressures of maintaining cultural integrity while pursuing market-driven initiatives that appeal to a broad audience. In a multi-

stakeholder approach, museums must align with the interests of internal stakeholders, like staff and curators, and external stakeholders, such as visitors, sponsors, and government bodies. Practical market orientation, supported by brand orientation, requires strategies that balance these diverse needs and transform them into innovative, mutually beneficial initiatives.

The additional probing questions, such as “Could you elaborate on that experience?” or “Can you provide an example where this approach was particularly successful?” allow for an in-depth exploration of how specific strategies helped museums innovate, engage stakeholders, and maintain a coherent brand identity. Patton (2015) emphasises that probing questions encourage interviewees to provide more profound and contextual insights, making them essential in qualitative research focused on complex environments like museums. These structured yet open-ended questions and follow-up probes enable researchers to uncover the intricate dynamics between market orientation, brand orientation, stakeholder engagement, and transformational leadership that contribute to sustainable innovation within museums.

#### **4.5.2 Interviewees Recruitment**

In this study, recruiting museum directors as interviewees presents unique challenges, mainly as each director operates within distinct bureaucratic frameworks influenced by regional governance and institutional culture. Accessing directors from various types of museums requires purposeful sampling, a strategy Patton (2015) emphasises as essential for gathering rich, relevant insights in qualitative research. By targeting directors listed in the Ministry of Education and Culture’s directory, this study could systematically identify and select participants with the necessary experience in balancing market and brand orientation, aligning with the study's goals of exploring these dynamics within museum leadership. The recruitment process must carefully consider the differences in each director's bureaucratic environment, as this variability can shape perspectives on stakeholder engagement, innovation, and transformational leadership within the museum context.

Conducting interviews exclusively via Zoom, each lasting approximately one hour, allows for standardised interview conditions. However, it may limit opportunities for observing non-verbal cues often accessible in in-person settings (Creswell & Poth, 2018). Nevertheless, online interviews help overcome logistical challenges and geographic limitations, making engaging with museum directors from diverse locations feasible. Tracy (2013) notes the importance of establishing rapport in such settings, especially when the participants come from hierarchical, bureaucratic backgrounds. With this in mind, the study incorporates careful, respectful communication to ensure directors feel comfortable and engaged throughout the interview.



Achieving data saturation is another challenge, given the diversity of museum structures. Guest, Bunce, and Johnson (2006) suggest that the number of interviews required to reach saturation varies, with some research necessitating a larger sample size due to contextual variability. This study addresses this by closely monitoring the depth of data across interviews, with an awareness of when data saturation might occur, as Hennink, Kaiser, and Marconi (2017) described in their work on code and meaning saturation. By remaining attuned to both unique and common themes across different bureaucratic settings, this approach ensures that the study captures a comprehensive view of market and brand orientation in the museum sector while considering the influence of each museum's specific bureaucratic context.

### **4.5.3 Conducting the Interview**

Conducting interviews for this study required careful scheduling and planning to accommodate the participation of a diverse range of stakeholders from the museum sector. Each interview was scheduled within three months, a period selected to ensure flexibility and availability for participants, given their high-level roles and responsibilities within the museum sector. This timeframe allowed for individual scheduling that accommodated each participant's unique needs while ensuring that data collection was completed in a cohesive and timely manner. The phased scheduling approach aligned with Creswell and Poth's (2018) recommendation to allow ample time for participants to engage fully, particularly in qualitative research where participants may have substantial professional obligations.

The diversity of interviewees was a crucial aspect of this study, aiming to capture a comprehensive perspective on market and brand orientation within museums. By including representatives from various types of museums, as well as individuals affiliated with museum associations, academia, consulting, and community groups that collaborate with museums, the study sought to gather insights across the full spectrum of museum stakeholders. Patton (2015) notes that diverse sampling is vital in qualitative research when studying complex organizations, as it helps uncover the varied viewpoints and operational priorities that different stakeholders bring to the table. This diversity allows the study to address a broader range of insights into the ways that market orientation and brand orientation manifest within museum leadership and management practices.

Including representatives from museum associations, academics, and consultants provides external perspectives that are invaluable for understanding the challenges and innovations within the museum sector. Tracy (2013) highlights the importance of engaging with both internal and external stakeholders in qualitative research to obtain a balanced view of the factors

influencing organisational practices. Additionally, engaging community representatives who work closely with museums offers critical insights into stakeholder engagement, which is increasingly central to the museum sector's efforts to build sustainable, community-centred innovation. This diverse participant pool aligns with the study's goals of capturing the complexities and nuances of museum management and supports an in-depth exploration of the multi-stakeholder approach.

## 4.6 Analysis

To build and manage a multi-stakeholder market orientation, it is essential to have a clear understanding of the construct. This requires careful examination of the existing literature, as Netemeyer et al. (2003) stated. Our study began with a comprehensive review of the market orientation literature to organise current knowledge and focus on the integrative approach that organisations should take. Following measurement theory guidelines (Netemeyer et al., 2003), a qualitative study will then be conducted to supplement the literature review findings (Papadas et al., 2017). To enhance the accuracy and comprehensiveness of the construct's domain, 34 carefully planned in-depth interviews are conducted with experts from relevant populations in the Indonesian museum field. These experts included academia, leaders of the museum community, and museum leaders. Using the Ministry of Education and Culture list, potential interviewees were contacted via email and phone to outline the purpose of the study. A time setting is arranged for the interview to be conducted upon acceptance to participate. The interviews were concluded when multi-stakeholder orientation themes reached saturation (Lee et al., 1999). This thesis contributes to the existing literature on market orientation, especially in a nonprofit context. A clear understanding of the construct's domain can be gained by conducting thorough research and following established guidelines. This knowledge can be used to build and manage multi-stakeholder market orientation in an integrative way, benefiting organisations and their stakeholders.

All interview transcripts were then subjected to detailed content analysis (Paisley, 1969) to identify and assess the presence and meanings of common themes (Kassarjian, 1977) related to multi-stakeholder market orientation. More precisely, a conceptual content analysis is conducted for all interview transcripts, through which we can identify the main multi-stakeholder market orientation themes and develop relevant conclusions (Krippendorff, 1980). NVivo software systematises, categorises, and codes the interview data. Several factors dictated the choice of NVivo, including the sample size (34 interviews), the type of interviews (semi-structured), and the plan for high proximity to the data and meaningful engagement in the

analysis process and data interpretation (Sotiriadou et al. 2014). Transcripts were coded with the concepts identified by the individual researchers and the relevant literature.

#### **4.6.1 Full List of Themes and Codes**

The list of themes and codes from the analysis of the transcript are presented as,

##### **Theme 1: *Multi-Stakeholder Market Orientation in Museums***

###### **Codes:**

- Adapting traditional market orientation for multiple stakeholders (e.g., visitors, donors, governments)
- Differences between market orientation for customers and competitors vs. museum stakeholders
- Diversity in museum stakeholder groups (e.g., educational partners, cultural communities)
- Unique museum challenges compared to other organisations in applying market orientation

##### **Theme 2: *Museum Performance and Stakeholder Expectations***

###### **Codes:**

- Museum performance as a reflection of stakeholder needs and expectations
- Market orientation linked to improved museum operations and visitor satisfaction
- Adapting marketing strategies to meet diverse stakeholder performance expectations
- Key performance indicators (KPIs) for museums influenced by market orientation

##### **Theme 3: *Brand Orientation's Role in Museum Performance***

###### **Codes:**

- The integration of brand orientation to enhance market orientation in museums
- The importance of brand identity for museum positioning and performance
- Brand-oriented strategies enhancing museum reputation and stakeholder trust

- Differences between nonprofit performance measurements and museum-specific performance indicators

**Theme 4:** *Innovation for Museum Performance*

**Codes:**

- Necessity of innovation in museum practices to drive organizational success
- Innovative approaches in museum programming, exhibitions, and visitor engagement
- How museum-specific innovation differs from other nonprofit sectors
- Role of technology and creativity in museum innovation

**Theme 5:** *Unique Forms of Innovation in Museums*

**Codes:**

- Tailoring innovation to museum-specific goals and visitor experiences
- Examples of museum-specific innovations (e.g., digital exhibits, interactive tours)
- Differences between nonprofit innovation and museum innovation models
- Balancing tradition and innovation in museum operations

**Theme 6:** *Synergy Between Market and Brand Orientation for Innovation*

**Codes:**

- The intersection of market and brand orientation as a driver for museum innovation
- How aligning market and brand strategies leads to museum-specific innovations
- Balancing external market demands with strong internal brand identity
- Importance of coherent market-brand strategy for long-term innovation success

**Theme 7:** *Leadership and Stakeholder Collaboration for Innovation*

**Codes:**

- Leadership's role in fostering a culture of innovation in museums
- Building and maintaining relationships with diverse stakeholders for innovative projects
- Stakeholder collaboration (e.g., partnerships with cultural institutions) to support innovation
- Museum leadership styles (e.g., transformational) driving innovation and stakeholder engagement

**Table 4-1 Thematic Analysis: Frequency of Files and References**

Name	Files	References
Multi-Stakeholder Market Orientation in Museums (P.1)	32	101
Museum Performance and Stakeholder Expectations (P.2a)	27	52
Brand Orientation's Role in Museum Performance (P.2b)	24	48
Innovation for Museum Performance (P.3a)	26	44
Unique Forms of Innovation in Museums (P.3b)	22	39
Leadership and Stakeholder Collaboration for Innovation (P.4b)	22	53
Synergy Between Market and Brand Orientation for Innovation (P.4a)	15	22

The thematic analysis of museum performance and innovation identified several core themes. Multi-Stakeholder Market Orientation in Museums (P.1), found in 32 files with 101 references, emerged as the most frequently discussed theme. This theme highlights the importance of a multi-stakeholder approach, suggesting that museums can benefit significantly from understanding and addressing the needs of diverse stakeholders to improve sustainability and performance. Closely related is the Museum Performance and Stakeholder Expectations (P.2a) theme, noted in 27 files with 52 references, which emphasizes aligning museum performance with stakeholder expectations as a key to maintaining relevance and satisfaction. Brand Orientation's Role in Museum Performance (P.2b), referenced in 24 files, further underscores the role of brand alignment in enhancing visitor engagement and organizational effectiveness.

The analysis also explored various facets of innovation in the museum context. Innovation for Museum Performance (P.3a), appearing in 26 files, reflects the critical role of innovative practices in driving museum success and adapting to audience needs. Leadership and Stakeholder Collaboration for Innovation (P.4b), discussed in 22 files, underscores the collaborative role of leaders and stakeholders in fostering a culture of innovation. This aligns with the Synergy Between Market and Brand Orientation for Innovation (P.4a) theme, which suggests combining market and brand orientation can create a conducive environment for innovation, as noted in 15 files. Finally, Unique Forms of Innovation in Museums (P.3b), found in 22 files, points to the distinct, customised forms of innovation that museums may develop to address their unique challenges and opportunities. Together, these themes provide a comprehensive understanding of how brand, market orientation, and stakeholder collaboration drive museum performance and innovation.

#### **4.6.2 Multi-Stakeholder Market Orientation in Museums (P.1)**

When asked about their museum's stakeholders, almost all of the informants started to open the discussion about the types of museums and the characteristics of their stakeholders. It seems that the different types of museums in Indonesia, especially when it comes to museums that the government owns, become the centre of comparison and continue with their differentiation with private-owned museums as these informants share,

*“Public-owned and private-owned museums have different main stakeholders that are being served. The public-owned museum has the most diverse stakeholders as they serve not only the visitor but also other museums with a similar collection, and they have events held annually such as a joint exhibition.” (01-ACD)*

Another informant added information,

*“Public-owned museums have mostly their financial support from the government as their main sponsors; however, in the last ten years, many more corporations, especially State-Owned Enterprise have been involved in a joint exhibition or other events such as International Museums Day.” (03-COM)*

However, almost all informants share that the primary stakeholder that museums serve, both public-owned and privately-owned, are their visitors. A typical answer by many of the informants is,

*“Our museum’s visitors are especially elementary and high school students. They visit the museum as a part of their class activities.” (23-PRI-SC).*

An informant added more information regarding this elementary and high school visit to the museum by sharing that the visitation will open the opportunity to word of mouth to a broader audience as the student will inform their visit their parents, family, and friends, which will attract more people to come to the museum, as one of the informant shares,

*“The students are attracting more people to visit museums. Their parents, family, and friends came the other day. The growing number of visitors also attracted our sponsors when we proposed an event that links their Corporate Social Responsibility with our programs.” (21-PUB-GC).*

The concept of market orientation traditionally revolves around two primary elements: a focus on customers and competitors. However, in the context of museums, the idea of market orientation extends beyond just customers and competitors to include a broader and more complex array of stakeholders. Unlike traditional businesses, museums operate within a network of diverse stakeholders, each with unique interests and influences on the institution’s goals and activities. This stakeholder orientation includes visitors (the “customers” in a traditional sense) and government bodies, corporate sponsors, educational institutions, other cultural organisations, community groups, and even the general public.

The sponsor, such as a State-Owned Enterprise, has directed some of their Corporate Social Responsibility activities to support museums that they observe have a high volume of visitors and or they learn about the programs that the museum offers to society as confirmed by an informant,

*“Many companies, especially national-wide operation companies, are taking the opportunity to reach as much public attention as possible with their support for our museum. Sometimes, their staff also gives an idea about what kind of event might fit with either museum's mission and their vision about their company’s Corporate Social Responsibility initiative.”*  
(17-PRI-SC)

One of the informants shared their continuing collaboration with other museums, and some of the sponsors agreed to support their programs because they also collaborate with many other museums across the country.

*“In the last five years, when museum associations regularly have an annual joint exhibition supported by the Indonesia Ministry of Education and Culture, some companies continue to support the program in the annual bassist. This year has been their third time supporting our collaborative event with some of Indonesia's famous museums from many provinces in Indonesia” (13-PUB-GC).*

These findings underscore the complex and varied network of stakeholders associated with Indonesian museums. Government support, corporate sponsorship, educational institutions, and collaboration with other museums each play a distinct role in shaping museum activities and visitor engagement.

#### **4.6.3 Museum Performance and Stakeholder Expectations (P.2a)**

The second theme from the interviews shows that the museum's management understands that its performance is being assessed by stakeholders' expectations about its existence in society.

*“In the era of social media, the museum has observed many of the conversations on social media, such as comments or stories. Sometimes, we can understand our audience's aspirations. However, on another occasion, we attended an event by many of our local well-known people; we listened to their voices and aspirations about how the museum should provide to society. They said the museum is not only visitors but also connected with the university.”*  
(12-PUB-GC)

An informant adds more thought about the phenomena,

*“In the era when people search information about our museum collection not by coming by themselves to museums, but they know us from the internet, we need to carefully design many of our programs after paying attention to their response to another museum program that we observe from our peer museum social media account.”*



(10-PRI-SC)

Public programs have been one-way museums understand how the public responds to their activities in society. In this type of communication with the public, most public programs also invite society representatives, such as local leaders and other respective figures in the area where museums operate.

*“The city mayor told us that we needed to research one of the local heritage sites because many tourists asked the mayor’s staff, who focuses on tourism, why the information was limited. The city mayor suggest a collaboration with our nearest university in the city” (08-PUB-GC)*

Furthermore, the informant said that many of their programs need to be adjusted after listening to their stakeholder’s aspirations,

*“The suggestions of stakeholders, our visitors, the local government, and the university have been our resources to discuss with my staff. This information will mostly turn into ideas for our museum’s programs, and later, we invite those who give us ideas for our event or exhibition. I keep our relationship tight with these people. They are our sources of idea” (08-PUB-GC)*

Some of the museums have then concluded that many of their performance indicator not only consist of the number of visits but also the impact on society, such as the positive response from society at large,

*“Only relying on visitation is an old practice. We now receive many unnamed messages in social messenger; our WhatsApp is full of responses from the public about our events and exhibitions. Public response is an important clue that our society accepts our museums in good image.” (06-PUB-GC)*

The distinction between traditional market orientation (focused on customers and competitors) and museum stakeholder orientation is rooted in the complexity of the museum's operating environment and its mission-driven objectives. While businesses prioritise customer satisfaction and competitive advantage, museums balance the needs of diverse stakeholders, emphasising collaboration, mission alignment, and multi-source funding. This broader stakeholder-oriented

market approach allows museums to fulfil cultural, educational, and social roles while meeting the expectations of visitors, funders, government entities, and community groups alike.

#### 4.6.4 Brand Orientation's Role in Museum Performance (P.2b)

The third theme adds to the previous findings regarding the relationship between brand orientation and museum performance. Brand oriented museum strategies focus on creating a clear, consistent, and appealing identity that resonates with visitors and other stakeholders, such as sponsors, government bodies, and community organisations.

An informant shares their thought about their museum's brand and its relation with public trust,

*"I am the fifth director since the museums started. Each director has shared their experience about the museum's image from their serving periods. One of them even contributes to the design of our first logo. A few years ago, our museum collaborated with a local artist, the contest winner, on the museum's logo, and I proposed the new logo to society. They like it, and I am proud and happy about it." (05-PRI-SC)*

Nonprofit performance measurements often focus on assessing the organisation's impact, efficiency, and financial health, using indicators like fund utilisation, program outcomes, and donor retention to gauge effectiveness. In contrast, museum-specific performance indicators include unique metrics tailored to cultural and educational goals, such as visitor engagement, exhibition attendance, and educational outreach success. Museums also consider qualitative indicators like visitor satisfaction, knowledge gained, and community impact, reflecting their mission-driven purpose to educate, preserve, and inspire rather than purely generate revenue. Additionally, museums may assess their success in building partnerships, securing diverse funding sources, and maintaining artefact preservation standards, all of which contribute to their cultural and societal contributions beyond traditional nonprofit metrics.

Informants share their experience to represent their service to the public to elaborate on the condition above,

*"Our governor, our province leader, has compared us with our province hospital, compared us with our local library. I always remember that he mentioned each organization, especially one that serves the public, and has a different purpose. However, he also adds that museums deserve more attention as they are places where*

*people can learn about their culture. Hospitals or healthcare facilities are important, and so are universities and libraries, but museums are special.” (03-PUB-SC)*

Other informants give opinions about museum performance measurement to be compared with other institutions, such as universities,

*“Museums have attracted many visitors, and universities have attracted many college or university students. However, we attracted many tourists, and the universities may have visitors from abroad, such as international researchers, but the museum has attracted people from abroad in weekly and monthly bassist.”*  
(04-PRI-SC)

Several informants discuss that their logo and tagline help people who first visit a museum be attracted to its meaning after their visit.

*“Our logo has been seen in the front of our building. Our visitor has seen it. We also put a logo on our leaflet or book published by us. They recognise this logo when we have events such as temporary exhibitions or public seminars.”*  
(11-PRI-SC)

One of the informants shared their argument that without knowing their stakeholders' needs and wants, their logo and decision to focus on some of their museum's iconic collections and masterpieces might not be well-known in the public mind.

As the informant said,

*“Our masterpiece collection has been our main attraction, and we also put this iconic collection to our logo. The logo and the masterpiece collection is a matching medium that our audience loves because it's also our local identity” (15-PUB-SC)*  
*By strategically managing the museum's brand through activities like high-quality exhibitions, educational programs, community engagement, and effective communication, museums can enhance their reputation as trusted cultural institutions. A strong, recognisable brand helps build credibility, signalling to stakeholders that the museum is reliable, professional, and aligned with its mission. This, in turn, fosters trust among stakeholders, encouraging ongoing support, financial sponsorship, and*

*collaborative partnerships, all of which are essential for the museum's long-term sustainability and influence.*

#### **4.6.5 Innovation for Museum Performance (P.3a)**

The fourth theme from the interviews is how innovation is connected with Museum Performance. Several informants share how museum-specific innovation differs from other nonprofit sectors,

*"We have this only collection. We cannot find it anywhere else as it only produces three pieces in the world. The first and the second are diminished by volcanic eruptions a long time ago. One of the residents kept it before handing it down to us a few years ago. We then arrange a special exhibition about that special collection. We invited researchers from universities and abroad to discuss their research related to our collection. The other day, the university rector said that they did not have any information previously; the collection opened an opportunity for the university to do further research" (17-PRI-SC)*

An informant shares innovative approaches in museum programming, exhibitions, and visitor engagement based on their latest public seminar,

*"In the latest seminar about our antique fabric collection, many attendants shared their fascination with it, as many of their ancestors were wearing this fabric as they saw it from an old picture, painting, or photo." (22-PRI-SC)*

Furthermore, an informant gives their experience of adapting some information and collaborating with their strategic partner to implement a technology that supports museum exhibitions,

*"The immersive version has attracted public attention. We have been overwhelmed by the public response. It flows like water; our visitors even need a daily quota. Our staff connected us with our partner, who provides this technology. If we hired the professional vendor, it would be so expensive." (24-PUB-SC)*

#### 4.6.6 Unique Forms of Innovation in Museums (P.3b)

The fourth theme from the interviews highlights the role of innovation in enhancing museum performance. Informants shared how museum-specific innovations, such as unique exhibitions and collaborations, set museums apart from other nonprofits. One informant described a special exhibition centred on a rare artefact, which attracted researchers and sparked new academic interest, illustrating how such innovations can broaden research opportunities. Another informant recounted a public seminar on antique fabric, which captivated attendees with a personal connection to their heritage. Additionally, an informant explained how an immersive technology partnership drew significant public interest, leading to a daily visitor quota, demonstrating the powerful impact of creative, resourceful approaches to museum engagement.

The fifth theme gathered from the interviews concerns the unique forms of innovation in museums. Many of the informants share that their organisational culture needs to be transformed into a new one that will respond to the shifting dynamics in society, such as information technology and other social trends, such as Instagramable spots or providing visitors with the chance to ask for additional materials for their vlogs.

*“A few days ago, one of our visitors was doing vlogs. They are asking for several of our collections that might not yet become public attractions but have the potential to be put online. We then asked our curator, and I saw this morning that the vlogs had been published on YouTube. The public seems to have their demand. We must transform the museum into something cool, such as trending topics.” (21-PUB-GC)*

An informant tried to make a comparison of this trend with other public institutions, such as libraries or healthcare activities in the same region they operate,

*“Our colleague in the local library follows our way; they also do vlogs and actively update their Facebook. Not long ago, there was a visit from the public relations staff of healthcare facilities near our site. They ask about how to promote museum events and choosing which one needs to be promoted” (21-PUB-GC)*

An informant underlined that some of their innovations are adaptations from other museum innovations,

*“Their programs are always amazing for us and sources of inspiration. Our peer museum has conducted programs that are only suitable for museums like us. Their program matches our audience's characteristics. I find it difficult to have another example. Although I tried to learn from practice by another nonprofit, they are different.” (25-PRI-SC)*

However, one of the informants that have long served as chairwoman of the local museum association gives a critical note,

*“Innovation has been our way to stay relevant. Society has evolved fast, and only innovation leads us to successful organisations. What we need to do is to tailor innovation to museum-specific goals and based on visitor experiences.” (20-PUB-SC)*

#### **4.6.7 Leadership and Stakeholder Collaboration for Innovation (P.4b)**

The fifth theme from the interviews reveals that museums are embracing unique forms of innovation to stay relevant. They are adapting their organisational culture to respond to societal trends like social media engagement and visitor interactions for vlogging. Informants noted that such innovations, inspired by other museums and tailored to museum-specific goals, help museums evolve with societal shifts and enhance visitor experiences.

The synergy between market and brand orientation is crucial in fostering innovation within museums. Market orientation allows museums to stay attuned to visitor preferences, societal trends, and stakeholder expectations, creating a foundation for relevant and engaging programs. On the other hand, brand orientation helps museums maintain a consistent identity, reputation, and mission-driven focus, enhancing credibility and trust among stakeholders. These orientations enable museums to develop innovative initiatives that resonate with their audience while reinforcing their unique cultural brand, leading to sustainable growth and long-term community impact. This can be seen in the sixth theme of the interviews.

An informant shared his feeling that,

*“Museum needs to balance external response to our programs with the ability to have a strong brand identity, through our exceptional collection, our events, and event our research for specific subject related with our collection” (19-PUB-SC)*

This opinion is backed by opinions from academics with a focus on museum management,

*“In my museum management class that was attended by many junior museum staff, I shared many examples about public responses to museum programs; some are a success, others are only copied from their peer, and only a few were able to gather attention from big companies as their sponsor” (01-ACD)*

An informant with a background as a leader of a museum volunteer community shared his experience collaborating with a well-known museum,

*“Before we join to collaborate, their leader contacts us. If I am not mistaken, the museum director is not new in the museum field. I heard his name as a consultant. The museum is successful in aligning its market potential with its brand strategies. This fantastic blend leads them to have a museum-specific innovation. Their iconic collection has become rejuvenated as a nationwide treasure. Previously, people have forgotten about this important collection” (02-COM)*

Other opinions from the informant add more insight,

*“For the last 3 years, several new museums have started to operate. The new museum built its market-brand strategy, hoping to have long-term innovation success. I heard they have an international consultant” (03-ACD)*

An informant who works for one of the oldest museums in Indonesia shares his thoughts,

*“From time to time, our museum survives from one leader to another to one government to another because we believe that our understanding of our stakeholders has to be aligned with our brand. Stakeholders and the brand image that they have about our museum are key. Many of our innovations come from this capability that we have; there is no other key to success. That is it” (26-PRI-SC)*

The sixth theme from the interviews highlights how the synergy between market and brand orientation supports museum innovation. Market orientation enables museums to stay responsive to visitor interests, societal shifts, and stakeholder expectations, creating a solid base for engaging programs. Complementing this, brand orientation helps museums maintain a

strong identity and mission-driven focus, building stakeholder credibility and trust. These orientations allow museums to create meaningful, innovative initiatives that resonate with their audiences while reinforcing their unique brand, fostering sustainable growth and a lasting impact on the community.

#### **4.6.8 Synergy Between Market and Brand Orientation for Innovation (P.4a)**

The last theme, the leadership aspect and stakeholder collaboration for innovation, opens more discussion about the importance of having a tight and well-designed engagement strategy with the support of the Excellence Museum's director.

An informant said,

*“Without leadership, the museum will only have a few companies to support as our sponsors. However, it looks like, even if we only share an initial raw idea with her network for too long, one of their staff proposed an invitation to respond to their new Corporate Social Responsibility programs. At the event, we can choose which program fits our best. This is amazing, a luxurious condition compared with our peers; they keep struggling, we know, and sometimes we ask our peer to join.”*

One of the informants shared the importance of building and maintaining relationships with diverse stakeholders from an even wider audience provided by their leader.

*“We have several projects that can be considered innovative projects because ideas keep flowing from our network. I share this network as I worked previously in the hotel industry.” (21-PUB-GC)*

The museum director, with a background working in various industries, shared that,

*“I learned from many of my mentors, the previous leader in my previous company and organisation, that leaders have an important role in fostering a culture of innovation in a company or organisation. How and what is the next? I think we have the experience to be shared not only for our success but for the other museums to adopt” (22-PRI-SC)*



## 4.1 Summarizes of Findings

The chapter's objectives were to confirm several constructs and propose a conceptual framework, as proposed in the previous chapter, the literature review. Three qualitative studies were chosen to capture different points of view from nonprofit organisations in the context of museums in Indonesia.

Both public and private museums, represented by their leaders, have considered museum visitors to be the main stakeholders of the museum. For most public museums, especially those implementing tickets, visitor numbers have become the primary key performance indicators, especially for local or central government, as they are strongly related to each museum's budget allocation. The new museum has tried many approaches, especially by starting to build relationships with various types of communities, which, as an outcome, will attract more visitors. Long-serving museums can more frequently conduct various public programs with more idealistic degrees as they have already built a reputation and brand compared with their new peer.

New museums are already building their brands even though they are in the introduction phase. The heavy use of many social media channels has helped new museums use their way of communicating, attracting the younger generation that is concerned about museums. The old museum has depended on its collection and consistency to maintain several regular public programs, such as workshops and seminars, to build its brand. Most museums from different types of ownership, collections, and ages have relied on their iconic or masterpiece collections to make the public aware and then inform the wider society using word of mouth.

Museum ownership, which includes diverse donors, has assessed museum performance differently. Public museums have mostly demanded to attract more visitors as the government (local or national) often compares the visitation of a museum with other institutions that represent government existence in society. The private museum has many sources of financial and other resources from diverse existing and potential stakeholders. Several public museums also demand the donor (or sponsor) to design and conduct specific public programs, which might have slightly different outcomes from its collection. However, public and private have similar performance measurements that relate to how they are socially attached to society. The education of its collection stakeholders is the primary purpose and the main performance measurement of museum existence in society.

Besides measuring their social impact on society, museums have also been related to economic impact, especially as museums have been closely positioned as tourism spots. As a tourist spot, museums have become connected with a broader tourism ecosystem that ranges from tourist guides and other services, such as the hospitality industry, to other products, such as souvenirs and merchandise. Several museums that have successfully attracted visitors have also attracted other business entities to locate their businesses and rely on the museum crowd to sustain their industry.

## 4.2 Discussion

This qualitative study advances empirical research on the museum's market orientation, especially its relation with innovation, responding to calls from Blasco López et al. (2018) and (Camarero & Garrido, 2011). Using a qualitative with the museum's stakeholders, such as academia, communities, and most importantly, museum directors, this study confirms the previous conceptual framework as a result of the literature review; although an adaptation to previous variables is accepted however, several adjustments need to be implemented on several variables and indicators.

Stakeholders have been the primary concern of the informant other than single stakeholders such as visitors or sponsors; this has led to the usage of the term multi-stakeholder market orientation as more appropriate in a museum context. Previous studies on other contexts, such as tourism destinations as a representation of for-profit institutions, have used the terms; however, the dimensions used only represent the destination's stakeholders and cannot be generalised to other contexts (Line & Wang, 2016). The current study also adds dimensions that should represent the museum's stakeholders: visitor orientation, sponsor orientation, employee orientation, peer orientation, community orientation, and inter-functional coordination.

Further investigation regarding the museum's innovation has shown several significant findings. The current literature on museum innovation has been dominated by service innovation (Blasco López et al., 2018; Camarero & Garrido, 2011; Recuero et al., 2017) whereas in nonprofit innovation, literature has been dominated by social innovation (Taylor et al., 2020) and business model innovation (Reficco et al., 2021; Weerawardena et al., 2021). In the current study on the museum context, innovation has been proven to consist of social, business model, and service innovation. These three dimensions of innovation will be used as the dimensions of museum innovation for the further quantitative parts of this thesis.

The inclusion of brand orientation as strategic orientation complements market orientation. The respondents confirmed that it helps museums communicate organisational identity to their stakeholders and differentiates the museum from its peers. This finding extends the works by Line and Wang (2016), who previously proposed the idea of multi-stakeholder market orientation, and also the works by Urde et al. (2013) regarding the synergy between market orientation and brand orientation to achieve performance.

Lastly, the current study has been extending the market orientation and innovation research stream, especially the role of the transformational leadership style (Menguc et al., 2007; S. et al., 2016; Stathakopoulos et al., 2019) and the relationship with organisation stakeholders (Leonidou et al., 2020; Loureiro et al., 2020).

There is a long paucity of studies on transformational leadership style in market orientation literature; when in the early development of market orientation, there were several aspects that needed to be considered to make market orientation become part of a company's culture and not only dominated by the role of the marketing department to implement market orientation (Menguc et al., 2007). However, the addition of a transformational leadership style to market orientation has been only focused on the more widely used resource-based view approach to broader marketing literature (Auh & Menguc, 2009). The current study has shown that a transformational leadership style, especially in museums, is essential to forming innovation initiatives. The finding confirms the latest work on museum market orientation, proving that transformational leadership is essential to a nonprofit organisation as it becomes crucial to achieving its mission (Nunes et al., 2021).

Stakeholders' contribution to innovation has attracted many studies, not only for-profit but also non-profit organisations, significantly when the competition is intensified, and customers have been dynamically changed in response to innovation (Leonidou et al., 2020; Riad Shams et al., 2020). Nonprofit organisations have recognised their stakeholders as the primary source of their existence and essential to service creation (Ferraris et al., 2020). Furthermore, the study of diverse types of nonprofit organisations is still limited (Xu & Saxton, 2018). The current research has proven that every kind of stakeholder in a museum contributes to the creation of museum innovation, especially in social issues, response, the business model needed to sustain its operation, and service upgrades to its beneficiaries.

The respondents in this qualitative part have contributed to a general understanding of the museum's strategic marketing practice. However, their different backgrounds, academia, museum community, and museum leaders have each given specific aspirations.

Academia has been the one mainly concerned with a museum's impact on its stakeholders. There are two main aspirations from academia regarding museum performance: the first is the educational role, and the second is as an institution responding to social issues still being questioned by the public. Those two aspects have also been underlined by museum communities represented by its leaders; the primary concern of the museum community is also related to the economic impact of the museum on society, especially those located near the museum.

The museum community also includes the association of several professions related to museum activities, such as tourism guides. Adding innovation has helped them reach a wider public and stakeholders through many public programs in museums. The museum community has also pointed out that the museum's leader's role is crucial, especially in directing and employing as many museum resources as possible to achieve successful innovation.

Based on the interviews, almost all respondents underlined that each museum has differentiation based on its ownership between public (government as main and only donor) and private (many sources of finances) as the main factors that might give variation to strategic marketing activities with different degree of innovation level and also a way to assess each category of the museum. Museums also implement various marketing activities, depending on the number of collections they have. The last consideration is regarding the museum age. Longing to serve is becoming an essential aspect as the museum ages; the museum has proven its ability to adapt to different settings. Furthermore, although the new museum has strong financial support, it still faces challenges, especially as it might share the same or similar types of visitors and the public. Ownership type, collection size, and museum age can be considered control variables to further the quantitative part and complete the mixed-methods approach.

A pre-test regarding the dimensions of each variable, adopted from various relevant literature and adapted after considering many constructive findings from the Indonesian museum context, is needed, as included in this chapter.

**List of Interviewees Qualitative Stage:***Abbreviations*

PUB: Public Museum

PRI: Private Museum

SC: Speciality Collection

GC: General Collection

ACD: Academia

COM: Museum Community

**List of participants and interview**

No.	Code	M/ F	Age	Working Experience	Museum	Position	Date of Interview	Interview Duration
1.	01-PUB- SC	M	63	14 years	City/Private Museum	Director and Owner	5 <sup>th</sup> November 2023	88 minutes
2.	02-PRI- SC	M	46	8 years	City/Private Museum	Manager	7 <sup>th</sup> November 2023	67 minutes
3.	03-PUB- SC	M	54	5 years	Province/Public Museum	Director	9 <sup>th</sup> November 2023	74 minutes
4.	04-PRI- SC	F	64	17 years	City/Private Museum	Director	10 <sup>th</sup> November 2023	94 minutes
5.	05-PUB- SC	M	52	7 years	Province/Public Museum	Director	12 <sup>th</sup> November 2023	75 minutes
6.	06-PRI- SC	M	35	3 years	City/Private Museum	Manager	13 <sup>th</sup> November 2023	60 minutes

No.	Code	M/ F	Age	Working Experience	Museum	Position	Date of Interview	Interview Duration
7.	07-PUB-SC	M	57	4 years	City/Public Museum	Director	13 <sup>th</sup> November 2023	56 minutes
8.	08-PUB-GC	F	44	7 years	City /Public Museum	Manager	14 <sup>th</sup> November 2023	102 minutes
9.	09-PUB-SC	M	53	3 years	City/Public Museum	Director	20 <sup>th</sup> November 2023	65 minutes
10.	10-PUB-SC	M	51	7 years	City/Public Museum	Manager	20 <sup>th</sup> November 2023	92 minutes
11.	11-PUB-GC	M	56	22 years	Province/Public Museum	Director	23 <sup>rd</sup> November 2023	109 minutes
12.	12-PUB-SC	M	54	9 years	Province/Public Museum	Director	23 <sup>rd</sup> November 2023	95 minutes
13.	13-PRI-SC	M	50	16 years	Province/Private Museum	Director and Owner	24 <sup>th</sup> November 2023	45 minutes
14.	14-PRI-SC	M	42	3 years	Province/Private Museum	Director	24 <sup>th</sup> November 2023	65 minutes
15.	15-PUB-SC	M	45	9 years	City/Public Museum	Director	26 <sup>th</sup> November 2023	70 minutes
16.	16-PRI-GC	F	67	7 years	Private Museum	Director and Owner	7 <sup>th</sup> December 2023	98 minutes
17.	17-PUB-GC	F	49	6 years	Province/Public Museum	General Manager	8 <sup>th</sup> December 2023	66 minutes

No.	Code	M/ F	Age	Working Experience	Museum	Position	Date of Interview	Interview Duration
18.	18-PUB- GC	F	54	13 years	Province/Public Museum	General Manager	13 <sup>th</sup> December 2023	90 minutes
19.	19-PUB- SC	F	51	15 years	Province/Public Museum	General Manager	14 <sup>th</sup> December 2023	70 minutes
20.	20-PUB- GC	F	48	4 years	City/Public Museum	Director	15 <sup>th</sup> December 2023	82 minutes
21.	21-PUB- SC	F	52	10 years	City/Public Museum	Director	22 <sup>nd</sup> December 2023	86 minutes
23.	22-PUB- SC	F	56	15 years	City/Public Museum	Director	5 <sup>th</sup> January 2024	77 minutes
24.	23-PUB- GC	M	52	17 years	Province/Public Museum	Director	8 <sup>th</sup> January 2024	82 minutes
25.	24-PUB- SC	F	47	14 years	National Museum	Manager	9 <sup>th</sup> January 2024	57 minutes
26.	25-PRI- SC	M	40	4 years	Private Museum	Manager	9 <sup>th</sup> January 2024	60 minutes
27.	26-PRI- SC	M	46	6 years	Private Museum	Manager	15 <sup>th</sup> January 2024	50 minutes
28.	01-COM	F	51	15 years	Museum Community	Coordinator	15 <sup>th</sup> January 2024	93 minutes

<b>No.</b>	<b>Code</b>	<b>M/ F</b>	<b>Age</b>	<b>Working Experience</b>	<b>Museum</b>	<b>Position</b>	<b>Date of Interview</b>	<b>Interview Duration</b>
29.	02-COM	M	54	17 years	Museum Accreditation Assessor/Museum Competencies Assessor	Coordinator Assessor	17 <sup>th</sup> January 2024	60 minutes
30.	01-ACD	M	64	21 years	Lecturer	Lecture Curator	19 <sup>th</sup> January 2024	66 minutes
31.	02-ACD	M	52	8 years	Lecturer	Lecture	19 <sup>th</sup> January 2024	57 minutes
32.	03-ACD	F	53	5 years	Lecturer	Lecture Consultant	22 <sup>nd</sup> January 2024	50 minutes
33.	03-COM	M	58	16 years	Museum Profession Association	Coordinator Edukator	23 <sup>rd</sup> January 2024	70 minutes
34.	04-ACD	F	54	14 years	Museum Consultant	Conservator Lecture	23 <sup>rd</sup> January 2024	64 minutes



## Chapter 5     Study 2 - Quantitative Study

This chapter addresses the second study of the Sustainable Economic Development (SED) project, a quantitative study aimed at fulfilling the following research objective: to design and validate a measurement instrument for assessing museums' stakeholder orientation.

This would advance traditional nonprofit market orientation models to reflect museum stakeholders' diverse roles and positions within a market-oriented framework.

This study has comprehensively understood key contributions to museums' multi-stakeholder approach to enhancing market orientation, innovation, and brand management.

As several scholars have noted, museums, unlike many other nonprofit organisations, engage with diverse stakeholders, including visitors, donors, government agencies, educational institutions, and local communities (e.g., Freeman et al., 2023).

This diversity exemplifies the relevance of stakeholder theory in the museum sector and highlights the need for museums to build supportive and mutually beneficial relationships with each stakeholder group (Jones et al., 2024). Such relationships are foundational for developing long-term, sustainable engagement and contribute directly to the institutional goals of knowledge sharing, cultural preservation, and community impact.

Moreover, museums are distinguished by their innovative approach to stakeholder engagement, often blending cultural preservation with new technological and experiential elements to attract a broader audience. Several studies (Anderson & Ostrom, 2024) support the notion that innovation in nonprofit organisations requires a careful balance between heritage preservation and creative modernisation. Museum leadership is central to managing this balance. Museum leaders craft their relationships with stakeholders through specific styles and strategies, directly impacting the institution's ability to foster loyalty, advocacy, and a resilient brand presence (Kellerman & Hambrick, 2024). A collaborative approach to stakeholder engagement characterises effective leadership in the museum sector. This builds trust and commitment and enables adaptive innovation strategies that align with evolving visitor expectations and societal needs.

This qualitative study provides significant insights into museums' distinct ways of applying stakeholder engagement principles, bridging the gap between qualitative and quantitative analyses. This study offers a nuanced perspective on how museums optimize their stakeholder relationships and innovative potential by identifying factors such as leadership styles, stakeholder relationship design, and the unique combination of innovation strategies. These findings contribute to the broader literature by illuminating how museums leverage stakeholder diversity and innovation capacities to develop a robust, market-oriented brand presence (Smith et al., 2023). This informs future quantitative assessments, guiding further investigation into the measurable impacts of stakeholder diversity, leadership dynamics, and innovation on museum sustainability and brand strength. This chapter continues the exploratory sequential mixed method approach after the previous step, the qualitative part. The current step, the quantitative part, has gained much constructive input. These inputs, which began with the systematic literature review, have been instrumental in identifying and addressing the gaps in the literature on market orientation, ensuring the thoroughness of our research.

The most important finding from the qualitative part is the identification of museum stakeholders and how the museum has implemented its marketing resources to fulfil those different stakeholders' aspirations. The conceptual model being tested in this quantitative chapter has included several museum stakeholders, such as visitors, donors, peers, and employees. The market orientation literature has also supported examining different organisations' stakeholders, although it comes from different studies in different contexts. The qualitative study provides crucial insights that inform the design and focus of the subsequent quantitative analysis, particularly in understanding the role of brand and market orientation in museums.

Almost all informants in the qualitative phase highlighted that while engaging with stakeholders is vital, effective brand management is equally essential for a museum's success. They emphasised that museums connect deeply with their audiences through unique attributes—such as collections, programs, and architectural features—central to their brand identity. This qualitative insight aligns with brand orientation and stakeholder

management theories, suggesting that museums use these unique elements to forge enduring relationships with their communities (Freeman, 2023).

Due to their complex and symbolic nature, these findings suggest museums may benefit from adopting a more integrated strategic orientation approach. Specifically, in dynamic environments where audience expectations constantly evolve, market orientation alone may be insufficient to address stakeholders' needs fully (Narver & Slater, 2024). The qualitative data, therefore, prompts a hypothesis in the quantitative study: combining market orientation with brand orientation could be more effective in fulfilling both strategic and relational goals for museums.

By introducing brand orientation as a complementary strategy to market orientation, the qualitative study informs the quantitative investigation in two key ways. First, it provides a basis for measuring the effects of combined orientations on stakeholder engagement and museum effectiveness. Second, it lays the groundwork for testing whether this dual approach enhances museum brand strength and sustainability, responding to the complex demands of contemporary audiences (Kapferer, 2022). Consequently, the quantitative chapter explores the impact of this combined strategic orientation, guided by insights derived from the qualitative phase's emphasis on brand identity, audience connection, and stakeholder engagement.

Study 1 also surfaced an important aspect: a museum with appropriate characteristics such as leadership style has been successfully bringing museums not only support from both internal and external stakeholders but also the ability to produce many innovations. However, the qualitative step participants informed different types and combinations of innovation. The diverse type of innovation has also been identified in nonprofit marketing, and the museum context literature, and this information needs further examination in this quantitative study.

The last outcome of the qualitative study is that different types of museums might take a different marketing approach based on characteristics such as collection, ownership, and employee size. This has led to the proposed control variables being added to the conceptual model and statistical analysis. The qualitative study tried to explore the extended approach

of market orientation in the nonprofit context, especially museums, to check and further explore the role of more comprehensive types of stakeholders, which becomes essential to nonprofit organisations. The qualitative part identified and provided argumentation that other aspects need to be considered to re-configure the current model and construct market orientation, which still only considered narrow coverage of stakeholders that only consist of customers, competitors, and employees. To consistently maximise stakeholder theory and its consideration, several qualitative research methods have been taken to understand this thesis's multi-stakeholder market orientation approach. The quantitative part examined the confirmed construct from the qualitative step and literature review.

## **5.1 The Study Conceptual Framework: Development of Research Hypotheses**

### **5.1.1 Multi-stakeholder Market Orientation and Innovation**

Several choices of strategic orientation can be implemented in the company as an individual or combination to achieve innovation, such as market orientation, learning orientation, and entrepreneurial orientation, besides another option of strategic orientation that still has not yet become scholars' attention. The types of innovation that are being studied in the strategic orientation and innovation research stream include product and service innovation, business model innovation, incremental innovation, and breakthrough innovation.

Companies are under pressure to innovate due to their strong focus on the market (Hahn, 2019). Moreover, nonprofit organisation effectiveness is now evaluated through multi-stakeholder market orientation and its impact on innovation (Rey García et al., 2012).

Previous research has shown that each internal and external stakeholder contributes differently to the organisation's innovation. In the long term, these contributions will foster a strong relationship between the organisation and its stakeholders (Gambeta et al., 2018). However, it is crucial to prioritise stakeholders who contribute to innovation by utilising the organisation's assets and capabilities (Zhang, 2010). Encouraging multi-stakeholder

orientation can enhance innovative productivity, but contextual factors and industry-specific conditions must be considered (Flammer & Kacperczyk, 2016).

The innovations used in this objective measure will be generated from exploratory study interviews and refined with the pretest. Rather than focus on any single innovation, this thesis will use a list of three innovations: social, services, and business model innovation. Many nonprofit organisations and museums are currently developing or adopting these three innovations.

*Hypothesis 1: Multi-stakeholder market orientation has a positive effect on organisational performance*

### **5.1.2 Multi-stakeholder Market Orientation and Performance**

Organisations must identify their current and potential stakeholders and prioritise their assets and capabilities accordingly (Brower & Rowe, 2017). Moreover, they should adopt a specialised strategic orientation that comprehensively covers all aspects of their business (Grinstein & Goldman, 2011). Additionally, the organisation needs to ensure that the performance affects internal and external stakeholders by coordinating all departments involved in service delivery, internally and with all associated networks (Asseraf & Shoham, 2019; Mu et al., 2017).

Multi-stakeholder market orientation (MSMO) is proposed and operationalised to reflect the extent to which a nonprofit organisation might implement the marketing concept across the stakeholder spectrum (Line & Wang, 2016). Stakeholders affected by organisation activities are identified and given appropriate strategic orientation. The competitive advantage can be gained sustainably by combining social and economic performance (Crittenden et al., 2011).

### **5.1.3 Brand Orientation and Innovation**

There is much interest in the role of marketing contributing to firm performance, which includes the need to implement brand orientation to produce innovation, which gives

direction to more marketing strategies by the organization (Wong & Merrilees, 2007). Brand orientation will help an organization produce an innovation that can make the organization and the product distinctive from other organizations using certain marketing strategy formulations (Wong & Merrilees, 2008). Although there is an effort to integrate the brand and innovation at the same strategic level, innovation has resulted from strategically directed organisation capabilities and assets (Lee et al., 2016).

Senior management's leadership is an essential determinant of an organisation's brand orientation (Hankinson, 2012). Leadership perspectives give strategic direction to the organisation, and they become aware that organisations can produce innovation through branding approaches and orienting brand assets. If the leaders bring a transformational leadership style, the organisation will strengthen (Tollin et al., 2014).

A company needs brand orientation to keep growing and continuously innovate (Nedergaard & Gyrð-Jones, 2013). Although previous studies have explored the interaction effect between brand orientation and other orientations, there is still a significant gap in knowledge about the impact of brand orientation as a sole strategic orientation on performance (Lee et al., 2016). The literature suggests that brand orientation guides companies in keeping their products close to their customers through continuous innovation (Nedergaard & Gyrð-Jones, 2013).

Creating a solid brand identity for a nonprofit requires a long-term commitment. Hasty imitation will not help build a unique brand. Prioritising brand building strategically and allocating resources effectively is crucial. Nonprofits must address this challenge.

Building a solid brand identity for a nonprofit organisation is a continuous process that requires a long-term commitment and dedication in all aspects of the organisation's operations. While many nonprofits may be eager to adopt various forms of innovation, hastily copying others will not help build a unique brand in the public's mind. Nonprofit organisations need to prioritise brand building strategically and find ways to integrate and allocate their resources more effectively to support this effort. This is an inevitable challenge that every nonprofit organisation must address.

When a company shares information about its new ideas and products, stakeholders are more engaged and discerning. Stakeholders sometimes become the primary supporters of innovation, even amid an economic crisis (Hatch & Schultz, 2010). In the long-term collaboration between a company and stakeholders, social capital accumulates, leading to more collaborative action and innovation (Schofield et al., 2018). Engaging stakeholders is key to enhancing solutions. Innovation requires their involvement and support for brand orientation. Success is driven by each stakeholder's unique characteristics and accumulated support (Merrilees et al., 2021).

Leaders with their leadership style will support company efforts to maintain innovation after reaching the same understanding with all company stakeholders (Schofield et al., 2018). The voice of the customer will be responded to and brought by the leader of the company to be included in the innovation initiative (Robbins & O'Gorman, 2014).

Brand orientation based on stakeholder alliances is common among nonprofit organisations seeking to launch innovations. Stakeholders evaluate the innovations, so partner selection is also crucial in adopting a stakeholder-based approach to make an innovation using brand orientation (Crisafulli et al., 2020).

Previous studies have argued that market orientation alone cannot achieve maximum innovation. It needs a complementary strategic orientation, such as brand orientation, which can contribute to both guiding and driving such innovation processes (Nedergaard & Gyrð-Jones, 2013).

*Hypothesis 2: Brand Orientation has a positive effect on innovation*

#### **5.1.4 Brand Orientation and Performance**

One of the biggest challenges nonprofit organisations face is developing a marketing strategy that differentiates their business in the community and drives profitability (Lofgren et al., 2006). Given the multiplicity of "customers" in the nonprofit sector, the need for nonprofits to ensure that their strategic orientation matches stakeholders' expectations is difficult yet paramount. Nonprofit organisations serve several stakeholder

groups, each making organisation performance assessments that may affect performance evaluations, donations, volunteerism, and brand-related decisions (Jones & Shandiz, 2015).

Many approaches have been developed to assess the performance of for-profit brands. However, similar approaches for nonprofit brands are limited, and there is a lack of consensus on what constitutes a strong brand orientation in the nonprofit sector (Boenigk & Becker, 2016). The relation between brand orientation and performance has been tested in different profit-oriented settings such as international business (Yin Wong et al., 2007), business-to-business (Baumgarth & Melewar, 2010), large company (Gromark & Melin, 2011), services (Santos-Vijande et al., 2013).

Several sub-types of nonprofit organisations, such as higher education, have been examined for brand orientation and organisational performance; however, more needs to be known about implementing brand orientation in other nonprofit organisations (Casidy, 2014). Previous studies have provided knowledge regarding the specific process by which brand orientation influences organisational performance, and further examination of other contexts of nonprofit organisations is needed (Liu et al., 2015).

*Hypothesis 7: Brand Orientation has a positive effect on museum performance*

### **5.1.5 Innovation and Performance**

Considering early work that studies nonprofit performance and its relation with innovation and strategic assets employment in a nonprofit context, Voss and Voss (2000) underlined that each type of nonprofit organisation might attach to a certain kind of innovation to accomplish its mission. Moreover, in their follow-up work, there is a strong relationship between the type of innovation and the main stakeholder of the nonprofit organisation (G. B. Voss et al., 2006). Nonprofits must innovate to survive and expand their mission amidst limited public funding (Tsourvakas et al., 2016).

Nonprofit innovation is linked to the organisation's mission and how stakeholders measure performance (McDonald, 2007). Nonprofit organisations that innovate to improve performance will fulfil stakeholders' demand for accountability (Saxton & Guo, 2009) and



show the organisation's commitment to working for the public interest or issues (Moulton & Eckerd, 2011).

Although some part of the study in nonprofit innovation has exposed that the ability of a nonprofit organisation to innovate has been a result of continuing collaboration between the nonprofit field and their counterstudy, the for-profit, under the Business-Nonprofit Partnership research stream (Al-Tabbaa et al., 2021; Sanzo et al., 2014), another research stream argues that innovation in a nonprofit organisation is embedded in its existence and continuing sustainability as an organisation (G. B. Voss et al., 2006; Voss & Voss, 2000).

The most important type of innovation in a nonprofit organisation is social innovation, which relates to why the organisation exists and initially attracts stakeholders to learn and support it (Taylor et al., 2020). However, there are still questions from nonprofit organisation stakeholders about the initiative to dynamically respond to any social issues instead of the initial social issue, as the organisation's reason to exist might still lead to any form of commercialisation. (Tsai et al., 2020). Nevertheless, another study found that adaptive nonprofit organisations that continually transpose their focus on specific social issues and combine it with current social problems that become societal concerns are unavoidable in the effort to stay relevant not only for the current but, most importantly, potential stakeholders (Vassallo et al., 2019). Social innovation is a distinct type of innovation that refers to the efforts of individuals and organisations that help create opportunities that have a broader impact on a social system and the experiences of a vulnerable social group (Shier et al., 2019).

The nonprofit study's most current discussion of innovation is the business model innovation. (Weerawardena et al., 2021). The nonprofit organisation has suffered for at least two reasons: lack of funds and difficulty growing and operating at scale (Reficco et al., 2021). Moreover, a nonprofit organisation's innovative business model has saved it from rapid dynamic changes such as high competition and the need to gather stakeholder support (McDonald et al., 2021).

*Hypothesis 3: Innovation has a positive effect on performance*

### 5.1.6 The Role of Leadership in Museums Innovation

The leader of an organisation and its leadership style will help the organisation pace with organisational environmental change (Halbesleben et al., 2003) through its impact on employees' job attitudes (Zhou et al., 2005). One of the leadership styles, transformational leadership, has become a primary factor in managing different combinations of strategic orientations, which result in specific innovation by an organisation (Kraft & Bausch, 2016). Concerning strategic orientation, leadership style has become an essential factor in providing dynamic capabilities for the company to manage its resources (Lopez-Cabrales et al., 2017). The dynamic capabilities of businesses are subject to current studies related to agility in responding to dynamic changes in the business environment (Golgeci et al., 2020; Brege & Lindstrom, 2020). In managing an organisation's strategic orientation and achieving a certain degree of innovation, the leadership style can prevent the members of the organisation and the organisation itself from making decisions (Denis et al., 2011).

In a nonprofit context, leadership has been critical in maintaining employees' emotional attachment and service involvement to support innovation initiatives (Liu et al., 2015). Furthermore, leadership will be able to attract not only limited stakeholders, such as employees and customers but all relevant and potential stakeholders (Balmer & Wang, 2016). However, the examination in the nonprofit context needs further effort (Balmer, 2021). Furthermore, there is limited knowledge about museum leadership to innovation (Goulaptsi et al., 2019) and strategic orientation (Camarero & Garrido, 2007).

In their research on museum leaders' recruitment, Hausmann and Stegmann (2021) addressed several issues regarding museum organisation, especially strategic aspects, innovation, and performance. It appears that museums prioritise formal leadership qualifications over skills related to innovation and intellect. Little is known about how individuals and social processes impact employees' adoption of innovation, especially regarding leadership (Goulaptsi et al., 2019).

Transformational leadership of museums' top managers influences museums' performance (Nunes et al., 2021) and is essential to explaining museum employees' innovativeness (Goulaptsi et al., 2019). A transformational approach to leadership effectively

communicates a shared organisational mission, which positively impacts worker attitudes. Practical measures are suggested on how museum leaders can achieve such outcomes by inviting worker participation in decision-making, promoting a sense of task significance, highlighting the impact on museum beneficiaries, and reducing role ambiguity (Dragouni & McCarthy, 2021).

To achieve satisfactory economic results, the museum organisation needs to focus on sales, on the internal customer, and the coordination between the managing institutions (Camarero & Garrido, 2007). Furthermore, the leadership aspect of a museum can answer the modern museum dilemma of balancing society's various social and economic purposes (Hatton, 2012).

*Hypothesis 6a: Transformational Leadership moderating the relationship between museum stakeholder orientation to innovation*

*Hypothesis 6b: Transformational Leadership is moderating the relationship between brand orientation and innovation*

### **5.1.7 The Role of Stakeholder Engagement in Museums Innovation**

Recent stakeholder engagement literature has moved away from its original focus of making trade-offs between interests towards exploring the complementarity between stakeholders' resource allocations (Henisz et al., 2014) and the synergistic links between the demands of business and society (O'Riordan & Fairbrass, 2014). There is growing recognition that engaging with stakeholders can “deliver innovative solutions that benefit a particular stakeholder group while increasing the pie for all stakeholders” (Eccles et al., 2014, p. 2848) and that stakeholder diversity can be harnessed to drive innovation (Dawkins, 2015; Watson et al., 2018).

Strong evidence suggests that stakeholder engagement is crucial for maintaining a company's innovation efforts (Arnold et al., 2011). Companies with high levels of engagement show stable innovation efforts and foster a proactive culture among their

employees (Kock & Gemunden, 2021; Brege & Kindstrom, 2020). Therefore, companies must prioritise stakeholder engagement to remain competitive and innovative (Watson et al., 2020).

Organisations that develop strong engagement with their stakeholders will open opportunities for gaining stronger brands (Renton & Richard, 2019). However, the interaction between internal and external stakeholders might arise (Gromark, 2020), and keeping stakeholders focused on creating innovation is a win-win solution for potentially conflicting aspirations (Evans et al., 2012). Stakeholders' understanding of the organisation's brand will help unify their different needs and wants into one focus to create more innovation for museums (Balmer, 2013).

In the nonprofit market orientation studies, the concept of market orientation is almost identical if not strongly related to relationship management practice. Moreover, without inline understanding between all stakeholders involved with the nonprofit organisation regarding how to engage each other to achieve long-term outcomes such as economic and social impact to society, the nonprofit organisation will suffer from its characteristics of resource dependence on its stakeholders (Weaver et al., 2019). The level of engagement also becomes the source to minimise conflicting aspirations between all stakeholders and change the diversity of those aspirations to realistically contribute to the organisation's mission and vision (Sharp, 2018).

*Hypothesis 7a: Stakeholder Engagement moderating the relationship between museum stakeholder orientation to innovation*

*Hypothesis 7b: Stakeholder Engagement moderating the relationship between brand orientation and innovation*

### **5.1.8 Control Variables**

The museum's size can be based on its many collections and artefacts. Another measurement of the size of a museum can be from how many employees it has if we are using management or organisation factors. Museum employees can be from different

levels, from staff to the board of directors. Using the size measurement from tourist attractions, the size could be meters or kilometres per square based on its land and building measurement.

Museums can also be categorised based on their age. For instance, some museums were established at the inception of a country to preserve collective memory and explain its historical aspects. The age of a museum also reflects its sustainability, as it continues to attract public attention and expand its collection, often with support from the public and sponsors. Museums can also be distinguished based on their collection characteristics or ownership. They can be historical, art-focused, private, public, university-affiliated, or a combination of these types. Each type has unique characteristics in terms of collection, presentation, and stakeholder involvement, reflecting their specific focus and purpose.

The museum's size, closely related to its resources and social and economic pressure from the organisation's environment, pushes it to be more innovative (Vicente et al., 2012; Garcia-Muina et al., 2019). Although several prominent international museums have become references for innovative museum management practices, many others are still considered non-innovative (Rentschler et al., 2011).

**Table 5. 1 Museum Categorization**

<b>Study</b>	<b>Museum context</b>	<b>Definition of Size</b>
Camarero et al (2011)	Public and private museums are in France, Italy, Spain, and the United Kingdom.	Number of employees ranges from 1 employee to 900
Vicente et al (2012)	art and history museums in four European countries (France, Italy, Spain and the United Kingdom)	Small museums: employing only one or two full-time employees Large museums: more than two full-time employees
Garcia-Muina et al (2019)	Small and medium-sized museums Public-owned museums in Spain	Small: a museum that having fewer than five employees Medium-sized: 6 to 20 employees

Small and medium-sized museums cannot access the resources to carry out innovation, as most of them are public property (Garcia-Muina et al., 2019). Previous studies have empirically shown a negative relationship between public ownership of cultural institutions and their innovativeness (Kirchner et al., 2007). All factors related to the characteristics of small and medium-sized museums explain the weaknesses of most museums in being innovative organisations (Vicente et al., 2012). Besides internal variables, traditional innovation processes are unsuitable for cultural institutions as new threats emerge from potential markets and stakeholders that are getting more diverse, demanding, and technology-intensive (Prahalad & Ramaswamy, 2004).

Museum innovation is affected by their type and funding source (Camarero et al., 2011). As new requirements are demanded by more diverse stakeholders and changes in the country, funding for many public museums changes, leading to declines. This circumstance

has led to a greater emphasis on multiple funding sources, client orientation, and the search for management efficiency in such institutions (Vicente et al., 2012). The previous study has categorised the type of museum based on their ownership and funding as public and private (Garcia-Muina et al., 2019) and owned revenue; unearned revenue; endowments, donations and revenue through sponsorship; and revenue through patronage or sponsorship from firms through commercial agreements with museums (Vicente et al., 2012).

In this research, the museum is categorised into publicly funded museums (most of the income derives from grants and subsidies) and privately funded museums (most of the revenue comes from own income, donations, sponsorship, and patronage). The type of funding may determine the innovation of a museum, although few studies have explored the impact of funding on cultural organisations' innovation and marketing policies (Arnold and Tapp, 2001, 2003; Kirchner et al., 2007). For example, an innovation by Museum National (Indonesia National Gallery) is responding to the global trend of immersive technology display to complement its current exhibition. Another museum in Indonesia that is managed privately and is becoming a significant game changer is Museum Macan. Museum Macan has been a pioneer in designing public activities such as workshops and training related to current social issues in Indonesia and the world. Another relatively new museum that offers a new system to visit is the Tumurun Museum. Tumurun Museum management decided that to maintain visitor experience and satisfaction, the visitation is being given a daily quota.

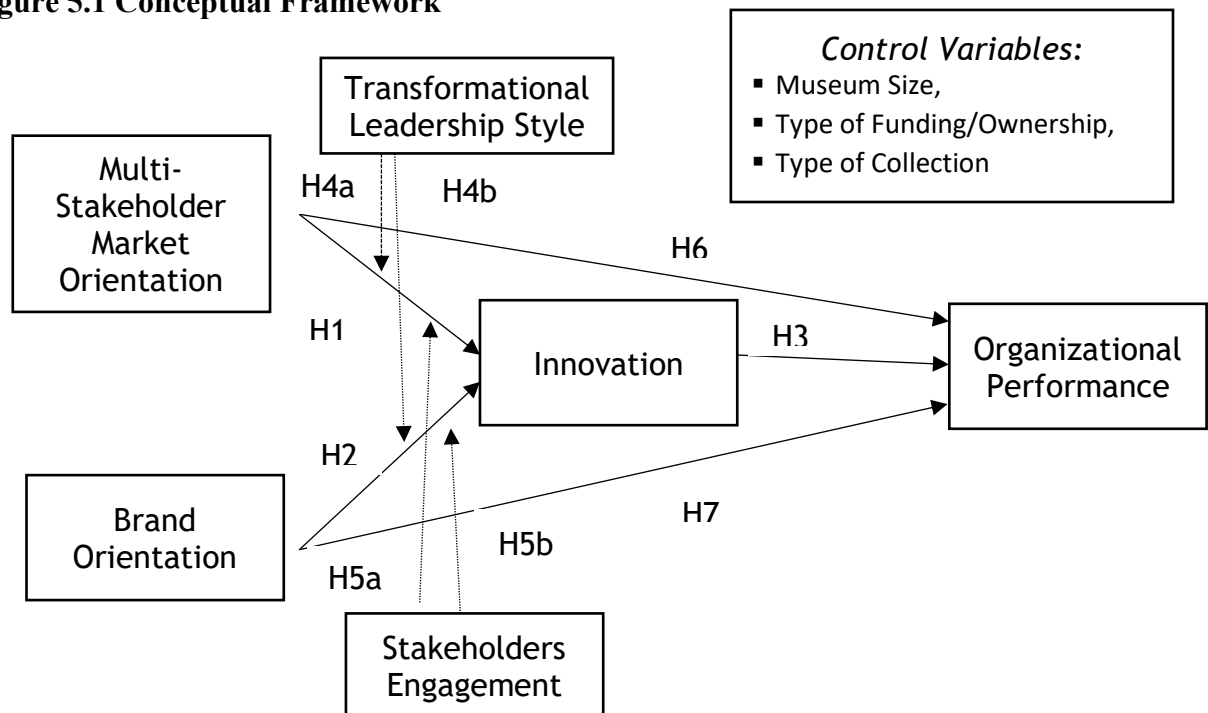
Previously, Camarero et al. (2011) established that museum size does prove relevant in the commitment to engage in innovation but that public funding of museums does not encourage innovation. This finding is appealing, primarily if related to a condition such as in a developing country where size and public funding are starting to be more diverse than before, with the growth of economics and socio-cultural conditions to follow. Therefore, this study will add collection as the control variable to the size and type of museums. The consideration is that even though museums differ from one another, they occasionally collaborate based on specific and unique characteristics of their collection. This combination of control variables tries to answer a call from the previous study that only

considers one or two control variables as their research limitation (Camarero et al., 2011; Vicente et al., 2012; Garcia-Muina et al., 2019).

All the variables to be tested in this study will later be examined using these three control variables to understand the impact of each characteristic on the whole research model. The Museum's size, sources of funding, and type of collection were included as control variables.

*Control Variables: Museum Size, Age, Source of fund, and Type*

**Figure 5.1 Conceptual Framework**



## 5.2 Double Back Translation Procedure

The "double-back translation" (or "back-translation") method is a translation validation technique frequently used in cross-cultural research to ensure that translated materials accurately reflect the intended meaning in both the original and target languages (Brislin, 1970). This process involves translating text from the original language (in this case, English) into a target language (Bahasa Indonesia) and then independently translating it back to the original language by different translators. The purpose of using separate



translators for each step is to reduce bias and avoid contamination of meaning across languages, enhancing the reliability and validity of the translation.

This method is beneficial in cross-cultural studies to maintain linguistic and conceptual equivalence (Behling & Law, 2000), essential for ensuring that participants across different cultural contexts interpret survey items or interview questions similarly. In your study, by involving ten participants with relevant linguistic and cultural backgrounds, the double-back translation activity aligns with best practices in translation methods to ensure robust cross-cultural validity (Chen & Boore, 2010).

In summary, the structured "double-back" translation process followed here—with breaks between sessions to allow fresh perspectives—is designed to improve accuracy and reduce semantic drift, which is crucial for maintaining the fidelity of the original material in cross-cultural research contexts.

### **5.2.1 The Findings of Double Back Translation Step**

Firstly, the translators can find several contextual words that need to be consistently used, such as terms from business management, organisational studies, and museum field. The back translation step was conducted at the end of June, from 24<sup>th</sup> to 28<sup>th</sup> June. The participants are Indonesian master's students from various schools at the University of Glasgow. The English version of the questionnaire was translated into Bahasa Indonesia in a 2-hour session attended by those ten students as translators. With a one-day break to prepare for the Bahasa Indonesia version from the previous step, the second step follows to translate from Bahasa Indonesia to English. The translators noticed several points, such as the choice of words and sentence arrangement. However, the definition of each variable and the original questionnaire/scale are still the primary considerations for the pre-test questionnaire version.

## **5.3 Pre-Testing Procedure**

After all of the questions have been translated carefully with two steps from the original version in the English language version into the Bahasa Indonesia language version and

then follow with the step of translating back the Bahasa Indonesia version to the English version, both versions have been confirmed to have the same meaning as it means based on the supported literature and backed up with the qualitative step to all relevant stakeholders.

The pre-testing step participants are PhD students from various universities with different backgrounds. However, their previous experience and the current subject being studied need to be relevant to this thesis theme. The outcomes expected from the pre-testing procedures are to determine the best questionnaire format, which considers several factors such as the length of the questionnaire (items and pages), the moments that the respondents' attention might be checked, the sequence of questions, and the final check about the questions in the Indonesian version as an output from the back translation process.

All pre-test participants were put in the online setting and given a link at the beginning of the session. The time spent finishing all the questions was documented and became input for the average time of questionnaire completion.

### 5.3.1 The Findings of Pre-Testing Step

After finishing the back translation step and analysis, the pilot test was conducted for the questionnaire the following week. The participants in this step are PhD students who are given the link to the questionnaire. After completing the questionnaire, a one-hour Zoom session follows to discuss their feelings and opinions. There are several notes from this step, such as their concentration (suggestion about the position of the attention check questions) and the order of the questions on each variable (for example, the order of questions in the Organizational Performance variable).

**Validity and Reliability.** The double-back translation method contributes to face validity by ensuring that translations reflect the intended meaning in both languages, which is crucial for cross-cultural research (Brislin, 1970). Recent studies further emphasise this approach, noting that back-translation helps enhance face validity by preserving linguistic and cultural nuances (Behr, 2017). This step is critical as face validity is a foundation before moving into statistical validity testing, such as discriminant and convergent validity.

**Convergent and Discriminant Validity in Construct Validity.** Convergent and discriminant validity falls under construct validity, which is fundamental in assessing how well an instrument measures the theoretical construct it aims to assess. Convergent validity was introduced by Campbell and Fiske (1959) in their classic "multi-trait, multi-method matrix," which highlights the need for correlations among theoretically related constructs. More recent studies, such as those by Hair et al. (2019), elaborate on Average Variance Extracted (AVE) calculation to evaluate convergent validity, where high AVE values confirm that indicators reflect the same construct.

**Convergent Validity.** The measure must show strong correlations with other instruments assessing the same construct to evaluate convergent validity. High convergent validity indicates that the instrument accurately measures the intended construct, as supported by Fornell and Larcker's (1981) criterion, which uses AVE to confirm that the variance captured by the construct is sufficient relative to the variance from other constructs. Hair et al. (2021) recommend AVE values of 0.5 or higher to demonstrate satisfactory convergent validity in structural equation modelling.

**Discriminant Validity.** On the other hand, discriminant validity requires low correlations between measures of different constructs to ensure that they capture distinct concepts. This is evaluated using techniques such as the Fornell-Larcker criterion and the Heterotrait-Monotrait ratio (HTMT), widely used in current research (Henseler et al., 2015). Henseler et al. (2015) argue that discriminant validity is essential to confirm that constructs in a model are genuinely distinct.

**Internal Consistency and Reliability.** Internal consistency, often assessed using Cronbach's alpha, reflects the extent to which items within a construct are correlated, ensuring they collectively represent the same underlying concept. Nunnally and Bernstein (1994) set a standard for reliability coefficients of 0.7 or higher, a threshold still used in psychometric research today. More recent work by Hair et al. (2019) reaffirms the importance of internal consistency, suggesting additional reliability measures like

Composite Reliability (CR) to provide a more nuanced assessment of scale reliability in complex constructs.

These references provide a comprehensive framework for understanding how double-back translation aids in maintaining face validity. In contrast, subsequent convergent and discriminant validity testing ensures that instruments are accurate and distinct in measuring theoretical constructs.

**Table 5-1 Cronbach's Alpha and Internal Consistency**

<b>Cronbach's Alpha (<math>\alpha</math>)</b>	<b>Internal Consistency</b>
Above 0.9	Excellent
0.8 – 0.9	Good
0.7 – 0.8	Acceptable
0.6 – 0.7	Questionable
0.5 – 0.6	Poor
Less than 0.5	Unacceptable

## **5.4 Partial Least Square Structural Equation Modelling**

The Partial Least Squares (PLS) approach to Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) has gained substantial traction among researchers for its capacity to address complex and exploratory research models effectively. Hair et al. (2014) describe PLS as a "silver bullet" for estimating causal models, particularly in small sample sizes or models with fewer than three measurement constructs. PLS-SEM is robust in these contexts as it provides reliable estimations of relationships without the stringent requirements for normality common in covariance-based SEM (CB-SEM) (Reinartz et al., 2009; Hair et al., 2014). This makes it particularly suitable for the current study, which is exploratory and deals with a complex, formative model structure.

Furthermore, PLS-SEM's variance-based, iterative approach focuses on maximising the variance explained by the independent variables, which is ideal when the primary research

goal is the prediction and identification of key drivers rather than strict theory confirmation (Chin, 1998; Hair, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2011). In contrast to CB-SEM, which is optimised for theory testing and comparison, PLS-SEM enables a more flexible examination of complex models, allowing for formative constructs that may better capture the nuanced relationships within the study's context, such as the interplay between ethical climate and work-family enrichment (Hair et al., 2011).

The choice of PLS-SEM in this study is also supported by practical considerations related to sample size and distribution. PLS-SEM performs well with small and non-normally distributed samples, making it suitable for the non-normal data in this research (Hair et al., 2011; Cabral & Dhar, 2019). This methodological flexibility is further underscored by studies such as Muntean et al. (2023) and Lupoae et al. (2023), who highlight SEM's ability to model cause-and-effect relationships between latent constructs, supporting its quasi-standard role in analysing complex relationships.

Mixed methods approaches, combining PLS-SEM with qualitative methods, have proven particularly effective in enhancing the ecological validity of quantitative findings, which can be limited when based solely on survey data (van Heerde et al., 2021). In this context, PLS-SEM allows researchers to quantify relationships within complex models, while qualitative comparative analysis can offer richer insights into interrelationships, as seen in studies by Duarte and Pinho (2019) and Lee et al. (2022). This combination benefits exploratory research, where mixed methods enhance model interpretation by providing context and depth that quantitative data alone may not capture.

Based on Ordinary Least Squares (OLS), PLS path modelling involves two main steps: analysing the measurement model to assess validity and reliability and evaluating the structural model to test hypotheses. In this study, the measurement model was evaluated using established thresholds for reliability indicators such as Composite Reliability and Cronbach's alpha (Hair et al., 2017), with all average variance extracted (AVE) values meeting or exceeding the 0.50 threshold (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Discriminant validity was also confirmed using the Fornell-Larcker criterion and the Heterotrait-Monotrait

(HTMT) Ratio of Correlations (Henseler et al., 2015), which further validates the robustness of the constructs within this exploratory model.

The use of PLS-SEM in this study is not only methodologically sound but also aligns with best practices for exploratory research, where complex models, non-normal data, and formative constructs require a flexible and prediction-oriented approach (Sarstedt et al. et al., 2022). These features and the ability to integrate qualitative insights make PLS-SEM an ideal choice for advancing understanding within this research context.

**Table 5-2 Studies Using Mixed Method and PLS**

Study	Context	About using PLS in a Mixed Method Setting
Leischnig et al. (2016)	manufacturing and service firms	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Able to obtain more detailed and nuanced insights into the complex causal patterns between antecedent conditions and an outcome of interest</li> <li>▪ Relationships among constructs not only rely on simple but, most commonly, complex causality</li> </ul>
Cao et al. (2019)	Multi-industry	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Successfully provided a comprehensive conceptualization of the construct and a measurement scale with strong psychometric properties</li> <li>▪ The formative index structure of the survey is especially valuable when a research concept is not theoretically established (Hair et al., 2014)</li> </ul>
Singh and Suderlund (2020)	Retail	to develop a conceptual framework, providing a causal explanation for the relationships between the constructs

Study	Context	About using PLS in a Mixed Method Setting
Ruiz-Equihua et al. (2022)	Hospitality industry	the usefulness of jointly applying analytical techniques complements the results especially for theory development
Stathakopoulos et al. (2022)	Multi-industry	The purpose of this study is to provide both prediction and theory testing regarding the relationships of MDS with key antecedents and firm-level outcomes. The proposed conceptual model entails analysis of multiple multi-item latent variables, among which complex hypothesized structural relationships exist, based on a relatively small sample that stems from a targeted population. Since the model examines a theory that is less developed or still developing, an analytical approach that provides high statistical power is useful.
Alrawadieh et al. (2023)	Nonprofit organization	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Ideal for relatively small sample size</li> <li>▪ Well fit with mixed method approach</li> </ul>
Chatterjee et al. (2023)	hospitality industry	Supporting constructively to find precise antecedents and consequences of a construct
Lim et al. (2023)	hospitality industry	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ exploratory and endeavors to enhance the prediction of the</li> <li>▪ the sample of this research is non-normal (PLS-SEM) rather than normal (CB-SEM) in terms of sample distribution</li> </ul>
Dragan et al. (2024)	Multi-industry	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ useful when the user's goal for a given phenomenon is to determine the</li> </ul>

Study	Context	About using PLS in a Mixed Method Setting
		independent net effect of some conditions on the target-dependent variable
Kurtaliqui et al. (2024)	Retail	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ exploratory studies help produce relevant contingent concepts for PLS-SEM testing.</li> <li>▪ Building on PLS-SEM findings, a final qualitative study offers fine-grained intervention insights.</li> </ul>

#### 5.4.1 Final Version of Measurement and Scale

In the second week of July, the questionnaire began sending to the museums' contact list and starting the data collection. Of the 442 museums registered in the Ministry of Education and Culture, only 231 are accredited on types A, B, and C, which became the sampling frame of this study. After sending the questionnaire to the sampling frame, two reminder emails were sent to the participants; the first was on the 27th of July, and the second reminder was on the 10th of August. The data that was successfully collected was from 153 museums.

Although the reliability and validity analysis has been tested for the data collected in the pre-testing steps, it is also necessary to check the reliability and validity of actual quantitative approach data collection. After data cleaning, especially to check the quality of data being implemented. There were several procedures, from removing irrelevant cases to converting data types, detecting and eliminating duplicates, fixing structural issues like typos, generating value sets from text variables, correcting outliers, and dealing with missing values.

#### 5.4.2 Outer Model Assessment

This research aims to evaluate the influence of Multi-stakeholder Market Orientation and Brand Orientation on performance through the role of innovation, with Transformational Leadership and Stakeholder Engagement as moderating variables. In addition, control



variables such as museum size, type of funding, and type of collection are also included to understand the additional influence on performance. To verify the research model, the outer model analysis is used to ensure the validity and reliability of the constructs being measured.

### Construct Validity Assessment

Table 5.5 Construct Validity Assessment Output

Variables	Dimensions	Loading Factor	Results	AVE		
Multi-stakeholder Market Orientation	Visitor Orient	0,966	Valid	0,868		
	Donor Orient.	0,968	Valid			
	Peer Orient	0,848	Valid			
	Employee Orient.	0,944	Valid			
	Interfunc. Coordina	0,929	Valid			
Brand Orientation	Interaction	0,992	Valid	0,982		
	Orchestration	0,987	Valid			
	Affection	0,994	Valid			
Innovation	Social Innov	0,975	Valid	0,911		
	Business Model Innov	0,897	Valid			
	Technological Innov	0,983	Valid			
	Organizational Innov	0,960	Valid			
Transformational Leadership	Idealized Influence	0,932	Valid	0,932		
	Inspirational Motivation	0,979	Valid			
	Intellectual Stimulation	0,969	Valid			
	Individual Consideration	0,979	Valid			
	Stakeholder Engagement	Stakeholder Diversity	0,848		Valid	0,976
	Performance	Economic Performance	0,998		Valid	
	Social Performance	0,998	Valid			

Based on the results of the outer model evaluation, all measured constructs show high validity with loading factor values exceeding the threshold of 0.7, indicating that each indicator is able to explain its construct dimension effectively. For example, the dimensions of Multi-stakeholder Market Orientation, such as Visitor Orientation, Donor Orientation, Peer Orientation, Employee Orientation, and Inter-functional Coordination, have loading factors ranging from 0.848 to 0.968, all of which meet the validity criteria. In addition, the AVE for this construct is 0.868, indicating that the construct explains more than 50% of the variance. Similarly, Brand Orientation with the dimensions of Interaction, Orchestration, and Affection has very high loading factor values, each above 0.98, with an AVE of 0.982, reflecting robust construct validity.

For the Innovation construct, dimensions such as Social Innovation, Business Model Innovation, Technological Innovation, and Organizational Innovation also demonstrate strong validity with loading factors ranging from 0.897 to 0.983 and an AVE of 0.911. The same applies to Transformational Leadership, where all dimensions have loading factors above 0.93 and an AVE of 0.932. Stakeholder Engagement has a loading factor of 0.848 with an AVE of 0.976, indicating good validity. Lastly, performance, measured through economic and social performance, also shows very good validity with a loading factor of 0.998 for both dimensions and an AVE of 0.997.

### **Discriminant Validity Assessment**

In the evaluation of discriminant validity, the main objective is to ensure that each construct in the research model can be empirically distinguished from other constructs. Two common approaches used to assess discriminant validity are the Fornell-Larcker criterion and cross loading. The Fornell-Larcker criterion compares the square root of the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) for each construct with the correlations between constructs, where discriminant validity is met if the square root of the AVE is higher than the correlations with other constructs. In addition, cross-loading is used to check whether an indicator has a higher loading on the measured construct than on other constructs.

**Table 5-3 Discriminant Validity Assessment Output (Fornell Lacker Criterion)**

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6
<b>1 Brand Orientation</b>	0,991					
<b>2 Innovation</b>	0,346	0,954				
<b>3 Multi-stakeholder Market Orientation</b>	-0,285	0,208	0,932			
<b>4 Performance</b>	0,127	0,492	0,143	0,998		
<b>5 Stakeholder Engagement</b>	0,361	0,301	-0,372	0,078	0,940	
<b>6 Transformational Leadership</b>	0,167	0,331	0,206	0,386	-0,055	0,965

Based on the results of the Fornell-Larcker test in Table 5.2, discriminant validity has been met for all constructs. The square root of the AVE for each construct is greater than the correlations among other constructs. For example, the square root of the AVE for Brand Orientation is 0.991, which is higher than its correlations with other constructs, such as Innovation (0.346) and Multi-stakeholder Market Orientation (-0.285). The same applies to the Innovation construct, which has a square root of the AVE value of 0.954, higher than its correlations with other constructs. Thus, each construct significantly differs, indicating good discriminant validity.

**Table 5-4 Discriminant Validity Assessment Output (Cross-loading)**

Variable	MSMO	BO	INN	TRL	SE	Perf
Visitor Orient	0,966	-0,199	0,184	0,217	-0,306	0,102
Donor Orient.	0,968	-0,276	0,166	0,229	-0,324	0,168
Peer Orient	0,848	-0,178	0,003	0,080	-0,187	0,041
Employee Orient.	0,944	-0,344	0,283	0,195	-0,453	0,165
Interfunc. Coordina	0,929	-0,210	0,103	0,130	-0,268	0,082
Interaction	-0,270	0,992	0,305	0,154	0,375	0,116
Orchestration	-0,300	0,987	0,390	0,200	0,335	0,157
Affection	-0,272	0,994	0,319	0,134	0,370	0,096
Social Innov	0,217	0,311	0,975	0,383	0,334	0,555

<b>Variable</b>	<b>MSMO</b>	<b>BO</b>	<b>INN</b>	<b>TRL</b>	<b>SE</b>	<b>Perf</b>
Business Model Innov	0,109	0,327	0,897	0,250	0,169	0,339
Technological Innov	0,179	0,349	0,983	0,270	0,338	0,495
Organizational Innov	0,266	0,340	0,960	0,341	0,275	0,451
Idealized Influence	0,156	0,075	0,376	0,932	0,018	0,422
Inspirational Motivation	0,230	0,177	0,307	0,979	-0,093	0,339
Intellectual Stimulation	0,203	0,241	0,285	0,969	-0,061	0,368
Individual Consideration	0,217	0,177	0,291	0,979	-0,095	0,346
Stakeholder Diversity	-0,372	0,361	0,301	-0,055	0,960	0,078
Economic Performance	0,145	0,120	0,490	0,383	0,072	0,998
Social Performance	0,141	0,133	0,493	0,388	0,084	0,998

The cross-loading results in Table 5.3 support the Fornell-Larcker test results. Each indicator has a higher loading on the measured construct compared to the loading on other constructs. For example, the Visitor Orientation indicator has the highest loading on Multi-stakeholder Market Orientation (0.966) compared to the loading on other constructs, such as Brand Orientation (-0.199) and Innovation. (0,184). This indicates that the indicator better represents the measured construct than other constructs, strengthening the discriminant validity of this research model. Overall, these results ensure that each construct in the model can be distinguished, allowing for further analysis to test the relationships between variables more accurately.

### Reliability Assessment

Reliability evaluation is conducted to assess the internal consistency of the constructs measured in the research model. Cronbach's Alpha and Composite Reliability (CR) are two main measures used to test reliability. A construct is considered reliable if the values of Cronbach's Alpha and Composite Reliability are greater than 0.7, indicating that the indicators within each construct have good internal consistency and can be relied upon to measure that construct.

**Table 5-5 Reliability Assessment Output**

Variable	Cronbach's Alpha	Composite Reliability	Output
Brand Orientation	0,991	0,994	Reliable
Innovation	0,967	0,976	Reliable
Multi-stakeholder Market Orientation	0,967	0,971	Reliable
Performance	0,997	0,998	Reliable
Stakeholder Engagement	0,967	0,982	Reliable
Transformational Leadership	0,976	0,982	Reliable

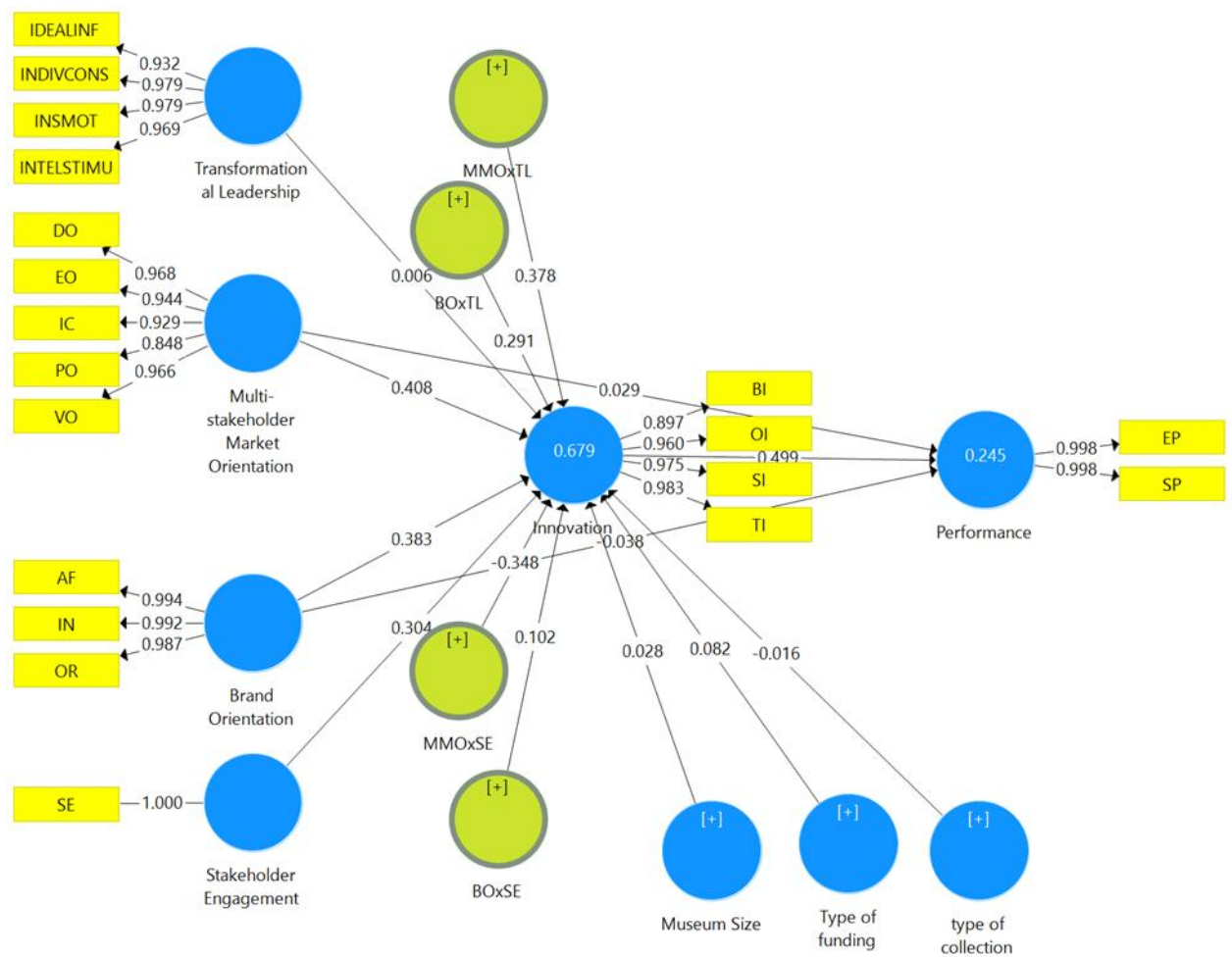
Based on the reliability evaluation results presented in Table 4, all variables in this study meet the reliability criteria with high values of Cronbach's Alpha and Composite Reliability. For example, Brand Orientation has a Cronbach's Alpha value of 0.991 and Composite Reliability of 0.994, indicating that the indicators used to measure Brand Orientation have excellent internal consistency. A similar situation is observed in the Innovation construct, which has a Cronbach's Alpha of 0.967 and a Composite Reliability of 0.976, indicating a very high level of reliability.

Additionally, the Multi-stakeholder Market Orientation variable demonstrates strong reliability with Cronbach's Alpha and Composite Reliability values of 0.967 and 0.971, respectively. The Performance, Stakeholder Engagement, and Transformational Leadership variables also have very high values, with Stakeholder Engagement even reaching a perfect score (Cronbach's Alpha and Composite Reliability both at 1.000).

Thus, these results indicate that all constructs in this study have very good internal consistency, ensuring that the indicators within each variable are reliable in measuring the relevant constructs. The strong reliability results support the validity of the measurement and provide a solid foundation for continuing the analysis of the relationships between variables in the structural model.

### 5.4.3 Inner Model Assessment

Figure 5-1 Full Model



The evaluation of the inner model aims to assess the strength and quality of the structural model in research. R Square and Goodness of Fit (GoF) are the primary metrics used. R Square measures the extent of the contribution of independent variables to the dependent variable in the model, where a higher R Square value indicates that the independent

variables better explain the variability of the dependent variable. Meanwhile, Goodness of Fit integrates R Square and communality to provide an overall picture of the model's fit. In addition, the  $Q^2$  value is also used to measure the predictive relevance of the model, with higher values indicating a more predictive model.

**Table 5-6 R Square Assessment Output**

<b>Dependent Variables</b>	<b>R Square</b>
<b>Innovation</b>	0,679
<b>Performance</b>	0,245

Based on Table 5.5, the R Square evaluation results indicate that the independent variables in this study provide a fairly substantial contribution to the dependent variable. The R Square value for Innovation is 0.679, which means that Multi-stakeholder Market Orientation, Brand Orientation, Transformational Leadership, and Stakeholder Engagement can explain 67.9% of the variability in Innovation. This indicates that the model has a good explanatory power for the Innovation variable. Meanwhile, the Performance variable has an R Square value of 0.245, which indicates that the innovation variable and the moderating variables can explain 24.5% of the variability in Performance. Although this value is lower, the independent variables still significantly influence performance.

$$Q^2 = 1 - (1 - R_1^2) * (1 - R_2^2) Q^2 = 1 - (1 - 0,679) * (1 - 0,245) Q^2 = 0,758$$

Furthermore, the  $Q^2$  calculation yields a value of 0.758, indicating that the model is highly relevant. A  $Q^2$  value close to 1 suggests that this model has a very good predictive ability for the variables of Innovation and Performance.

**Table 5-7 Goodness of Fit Output**

Variable	R square	Communality
Brand Orientation		0,888
Innovation	0,679	0,828
Multi-stakeholder Market Orientation		0,787
Performance	0,245	0,782
Stakeholder Engagement		0,896
Transformational Leadership		0,852
<b>Average</b>	<b>0,462</b>	<b>0,856</b>
<b>Goodness of Fit</b>	<b>0,629</b>	

The Goodness of Fit (GoF) evaluation in Table 5.4 shows that the obtained GoF value is 0.629. This value falls into the good fit category, indicating that the structural model in this study has a good overall fit. This is supported by the high communality values for most variables, such as Innovation (0.828) and Performance (0.782), indicating that the indicators for these variables can represent the construct well.

Overall, the inner model's evaluation results indicate that the model used in this study has good explanatory power, high predictive relevance, and adequate model fit, making it reliable for testing the proposed hypotheses.

#### **5.4.4 Hypothesis Testing**

##### *Results of the Direct Effect Test*

Testing the direct effect hypothesis aims to identify the direct relationship between independent and dependent variables without involving intervening or moderating variables. This analysis was conducted using path coefficient testing, where the significance of the relationships is measured based on the t-statistic and p-value. A relationship is considered significant if the p-value is below 0.05, indicating a direct influence from one variable to another.



**Table 5-8 Direct effect test output**

Path	Coef.	St. Dev	T-Stat	P-Value	Notes
MSMO → Innovation	0,408	0,189	2,157	0,031	Significant
Brand Orientation → Innovation	0,383	0,100	3,816	0,000	Significant
MSMO → Performance	0,029	0,109	0,263	0,793	Not significant
Brand Orientation → Performance	-0,038	0,088	0,431	0,667	Not significant
Innovation → Performance	0,499	0,087	5,732	0,000	Significant
<b>Control Variable</b>					
Museum Size → Innovation	0,028	0,054	0,524	0,600	Not significant
Type of funding → Innovation	0,082	0,071	1,159	0,247	Not significant
Type of collection → Innovation	-0,016	0,053	0,307	0,759	Not significant

Notes: MSMO= Multi-Stakeholder Market Orientation

Based on the direct effect test results presented in Table 5.5, MSMO has a positive and significant impact on Innovation with a path coefficient of 0.408 and a p-value of 0.031. This indicates that an orientation involving various stakeholders can directly enhance organisational innovation. Brand Orientation also shows a positive and significant influence on Innovation, with a coefficient of 0.383 and a p-value of 0.000. This result shows that a strong brand orientation can drive innovation in museums.

However, the relationship between MSMO and Performance is insignificant, with a coefficient of 0.029 and a p-value of 0.793. Similarly, Brand Orientation does not significantly affect Performance, with a coefficient of -0.038 and a p-value of 0.667. These results indicate that multi-stakeholder and brand orientation do not substantially impact museum performance.

Meanwhile, Innovation has a significant and positive influence on Performance, with a coefficient of 0.499 and a p-value of 0.000. This emphasises that the innovations implemented by the museum significantly contribute to improving overall performance. The control variables in this study, namely museum size, funding type, and collection type, do not significantly affect innovation, with all p-values above 0.05. These results indicate that these control variables do not determine museums' innovation levels.

### *Results of the Indirect Effect Test*

The indirect effect test determines whether the variable Innovation mediates the relationship between the independent variables (Multi-Stakeholder Market Orientation and Brand Orientation) and the dependent variable (Performance). This test aims to understand whether the influence of the independent variables on Performance occurs directly or through the mediating role of Innovation. Interpreting these results is critical to identify whether Innovation plays a significant role as an intervening variable. The mediation effect that will be evaluated is total, partial, or no mediation, depending on the significance of the direct and indirect paths.

**Table 5-9 Results of the Indirect Effect Test**

Path	Coef.	St. Dev	T-Stat	P Values	Notes
MSMO → Innovation → Performance	0,203	0,102	1,996	0,046	Significant
Brand Orientation → Innovation → Performance	0,191	0,060	3,163	0,002	Significant

Notes: MSMO= Multi-Stakeholder Market Orientation

Based on the results of the indirect effect test presented in Table 5-6, it was found that Innovation significantly mediates the relationship between Multi-stakeholder Market Orientation (MMO) and Performance, with a path coefficient of 0.203 and a p-value of 0.046. This indicates that most of the influence of MMO on Performance occurs through Innovation. In other words, MMO enhances innovation in museums, improving museum performance. Since the direct effect of MMO on performance in the direct effect test is insignificant, this mediating effect can be categorised as complete mediation. This means that MMO only affects performance through innovation, not directly.

Similarly, Brand Orientation also shows a significant mediating effect through Innovation, with a path coefficient of 0.191 and a p-value of 0.002. Innovation is an essential mediator in this relationship, indicating that brand orientation affects museum performance primarily through enhancing innovation. Since the direct effect of Brand Orientation on Performance is insignificant in the direct effect test, this mediating effect is also a complete mediation. Overall, these results affirm the importance of Innovation as a mediator that connects multi-stakeholder orientation and brand orientation with museum performance.

Innovation is key in transforming inputs from strategic orientation into performance improvement.

#### *Results of the Moderation Test*

The moderation test is conducted to evaluate whether the relationship between the independent variables (Brand Orientation and Multi-Stakeholder Market Orientation) and the variable Innovation is influenced by the moderating variables (Stakeholder Engagement and Transformational Leadership). This test aims to see if the effect of the independent variables on Innovation changes according to the values of the moderating variables. The moderation effects analysed include pure moderation, quasi-moderation, homologue moderation, and predictor moderation, which will be identified based on the significance of the moderation results and the direct relationships between variables.

**Table 5-10 Results of the Moderating Effect Test**

Path	Coef.	St. Dev	T-Stat	P Values	Notes
BOxSE_ → Innovation	0,102	0,102	0,991	0,322	Not significant
BOxTL → Innovation	0,291	0,104	2,789	0,005	Significant
MMOxSE → Innovation	-0,348	0,159	2,198	0,028	Significant
MMOxTL → Innovation	0,378	0,127	2,971	0,003	Significant
Stakeholder Engagement → Innovation	0,304	0,118	2,581	0,010	Significant
Transformational Leadership → Innovation	0,006	0,086	0,067	0,947	Not significant

Notes: BO= Brand orientation; MSMO= Multi-Stakeholder Market Orientation; SE= Stakeholder Engagement; TL= Transformational leadership

The results of the moderation test presented in Table 5-7 revealed several significant moderations. First, the interaction between Brand Orientation and Transformational Leadership shows a significant moderating effect on Innovation (coefficient 0.291, p-value 0.005), indicating that transformational leadership strengthens the relationship between brand orientation and innovation.

In this case, Transformational Leadership serves as complete moderation because, besides playing a significant moderating role, the direct relationship between Transformational Leadership and Innovation is not significant. Furthermore, the interaction between Multi-stakeholder Market Orientation (MMO) and Stakeholder Engagement shows substantial results with a coefficient of -0.348 and a p-value of 0.028. This result indicates that the higher the stakeholder engagement, the weaker the relationship between MMO and innovation. Since Stakeholder Engagement also has a significant direct effect on Innovation, this type of moderation can be classified as quasi-moderation.

The interaction between Multi-stakeholder Market Orientation and Transformational Leadership also shows significant results. (coefficient 0,378, p-value 0,003). This indicates that Transformational Leadership strengthens the relationship between MMO and Innovation, meaning that it moderates this relationship. Because there is a significant direct relationship between MMO and innovation and no direct influence of transformational leadership on innovation, the type of moderation is complete moderation.

On the other hand, the moderation of Brand Orientation and Stakeholder Engagement in Innovation does not show significant results. (p-value 0,322). This indicates that stakeholder involvement does not moderate the relationship between brand orientation and innovation. Thus, it can be concluded that there is no moderating effect in this context. Overall, the results of this moderation test indicate that Transformational Leadership plays a vital role as a moderator, strengthening the influence of brand orientation and MMO on innovation. Meanwhile, Stakeholder Engagement has an interesting moderating effect on the relationship between MMO and innovation but not on Brand Orientation.

## Chapter 6 Discussion

Integrating qualitative and quantitative findings is a cornerstone of mixed-methods research, offering a more holistic understanding of complex research questions by validating findings from multiple perspectives (Bryman, 2007; Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). Recent studies underscore the value of this approach, particularly in examining multi-dimensional constructs like market orientation (MO) and stakeholder relationships (Gupta & Awasthy, 2015; Ivankova, 2015). This chapter synthesises findings from both qualitative (Study 1) and quantitative (Study 2) phases, demonstrating how their combined insights meet the thesis's objectives and broaden our understanding of nonprofit market orientation and strategic orientation within the context of museums. Through this synthesis, the chapter contributes to the existing literature by highlighting the multi-stakeholder perspective in MO and integrating brand orientation (BO) as a strategic complement, enhancing innovation and performance.

The chapter first examines the multi-stakeholder approach to market orientation (MSMO) developed in this research. This perspective is especially relevant in museums where stakeholder diversity and complexity shape organisational performance. Scholars have noted that a multi-stakeholder approach to MO is crucial for addressing diverse expectations and achieving long-term sustainability in nonprofits (Heinonen & Strandvik, 2018; Vargo & Lusch, 2016). The chapter then explores how innovation mediates MO and performance, illustrating that innovation channels stakeholder insights into impactful outcomes. Finally, the chapter discusses how this research enriches the strategic orientation, nonprofit marketing, and stakeholder theory literature by demonstrating the importance of MSMO and BO integration for nonprofit institutions, providing theoretical and practical implications for future studies.

Although stakeholder perspectives in market orientation are not new, the approach has evolved significantly since its initial conceptualisation in the 1990s. Nonprofits, especially museums, operate within a complex framework of mission-driven objectives and resource dependencies that involve numerous stakeholders. Recent research affirms that these organisations benefit from a multi-stakeholder approach to market orientation, which aligns organisational goals with diverse stakeholder needs (Gebauer, 2020; Balaji & Roy,

2017). This study's contribution lies in applying MSMO to museums and demonstrating how integrating MO and BO can foster innovation, ultimately supporting economic and social objectives. The findings suggest that museums benefit from strategic alignment with both orientations, making this thesis the first to integrate market orientation, stakeholder theory, and innovation studies within a mixed-methods framework, thereby providing an empirically grounded basis for future research on MSMO in other nonprofit contexts, such as libraries and educational institutions.

The findings indicate that MSMO represents a refined version of traditional MO, tailored to address the specific requirements of nonprofits with diverse stakeholder groups. This approach advances MO literature and suggests practical applications for MSMO in other nonprofit sub-sectors, as seen in recent studies advocating for mission-aligned innovation in varied nonprofit settings (Martínez et al., 2020; Camilleri, 2021). Innovation emerged as a crucial element in the museum context, functioning as both a strategic tool and a practical necessity for meeting multi-stakeholder needs and enhancing organisational performance. This study's sequential model development demonstrates a structured progression: from MO's impact on performance to innovation's role as a mediator to BO's complementary role, and finally to the moderating influences of leadership style (LS) and stakeholder engagement (SE). The qualitative and quantitative findings enhance an understanding of how museums can leverage these orientations to achieve sustainable, impactful innovation and performance.

## **6.1 Integration of Qualitative and Quantitative Findings**

### **6.1.1 Multi-stakeholder Market Orientation and Performance**

The quantitative study shows that innovation mediates the relationship between multi-stakeholder market orientation (MSMO) and performance. Innovation mediates the relationship between MSMO and performance by allowing for-profit and nonprofit organisations to translate stakeholder insights into actionable improvements. However, the effectiveness of this mediation depends on managing potential complexities, such as competing stakeholder needs and resource limitations. For nonprofits, the focus on mission-driven innovation to improve impact and operational efficiency highlights the

value of this mediating relationship in delivering sustainable performance benefits (Hult et al., 2018; Hull & Lio, 2006).

The museum's stakeholders, who became the informants of the qualitative study, gave different points of view about the importance of innovation to museums. However, all agree that having a focus market orientation and knowing clearly about how museum stakeholders are assessing museum performance will lead to significant and impactful innovation; for example,

*“Our volunteer community that has a long experience working with the museum has become the witness that museums that are not having impactful innovation will no longer exist. We also have a problematic collaboration with museums that do not understand their reasons for existing, think that their collection is the most important, and do not combine it with good services, great social programs, and adopting new technology.” (02-COM)*

Informants who have a background in academia add several conditions that might lead to a successful museum innovation,

*“Several case studies about how several museums have unique and exciting innovations. When I brought these cases to my class, several students then asked me if there is a contact with the museums as they were really motivated to discuss with museum management or even want to have an internship later in their part of study at our university.” (04-ACD)*

Informant from museum management, adding more information that,

*“Innovation also motivates us as employees to improve our work in museums. We have tried our best to communicate and always ask everyone who is a visitor, our partners, and stakeholders about what is their idea and what is new in other places, such as museums or other leisure places, that we can absorb and implement as museum innovation; not only technology as it might need a big investment but more importantly our services, our way to serve our stakeholders.” (22-PUB-SC)*

Multi-stakeholder market orientation, which involves a firm's commitment to addressing the needs and expectations of various stakeholders (e.g., customers, employees, suppliers, and communities), inherently fosters an environment that can drive innovation. In turn, innovation bridges MMO and improved organisational performance, as innovative activities enable firms to respond more effectively to stakeholder demands and adapt to changing market conditions (Narver & Slater, 1990; Hult et al., 2018).

Innovation is a crucial intermediary in the relationship between MMO and performance. Hult et al. (2018) argue that firms with a solid multi-stakeholder orientation are better equipped to gather diverse insights, which drive their innovation processes. By leveraging these insights, companies can innovate more effectively, resulting in new products, services, and processes that improve organizational performance.

Additionally, Menguc and Auh (2006) highlight that firms with a strong MMO are more likely to develop incremental and radical innovations, which, in turn, contribute to performance metrics such as market share, customer satisfaction, and financial returns. By mediating the MMO-performance relationship, innovation allows firms to create value across multiple stakeholder groups, enhancing their reputation and market standing.

The mediating role of innovation in the MMO-performance relationship is particularly relevant in the nonprofit sector, where mission-oriented goals and diverse stakeholder needs play a central role. Nonprofits often face resource constraints and benefit significantly from innovative solutions that help them deliver services more effectively while meeting stakeholder expectations.

In nonprofit organisations, innovation aligned with MMO can lead to more significant social impact, a core performance measure. Nonprofits that use stakeholder insights to develop new service delivery models, outreach strategies, or funding mechanisms are often better positioned to achieve their missions (Hull & Lio, 2006). Innovation that resonates with stakeholder needs can significantly enhance a nonprofit's performance by improving donor engagement and volunteer retention. When nonprofits use MMO to drive innovations that increase their transparency, efficiency, and impact, they are more likely to attract continued stakeholder support, which drives organisational sustainability (Lettice et al., 2010).



Innovation enables nonprofits to streamline operations, allowing them to do more with fewer resources. By adopting stakeholder-informed innovations, nonprofits can reduce operational costs, increase service reach, and improve stakeholder satisfaction, enhancing performance outcomes regarding mission accomplishment and social impact (Hull & Lio, 2006).

### **6.1.2 Brand Orientation and Performance**

The quantitative study shows that innovation is a crucial intermediary in the connection between brand orientation and performance, suggesting that brand orientation influences museum performance primarily by fostering innovation.

The relationship between brand orientation, innovation, and performance has specific implications in the nonprofit context. Museums and other nonprofits often face intense resource constraints and are mission-driven rather than profit-driven. Innovation in this context can help these organisations achieve mission-aligned performance outcomes such as social impact, community engagement, and educational value. In museums, brand-oriented innovation can enable mission-driven initiatives that expand community access, promote education, and enhance social impact. Mulyanegara et al. (2011) found that nonprofit organisations, including museums, benefit from using brand identity to guide innovations that enhance their social contributions, a critical performance measure in the nonprofit sector.

Museums rely on brand-consistent innovations to attract donors, grant funding, and other financial support. Donors and grant-makers are often drawn to innovative programs that align with the museum's mission and values (Kim & Sullivan, 2019), meaning that brand-oriented innovation can directly contribute to financial stability. Brand-driven innovation can also help museums fulfil goals of inclusivity and accessibility by offering programs tailored to diverse community needs. Taylor et al. (2021) found that museums with a strong brand focus are more likely to invest in innovations that broaden access and remove barriers, enhancing community engagement and inclusivity.

Innovation is a crucial intermediary between brand orientation and museum performance by enabling these institutions to translate brand values into visitor-centered experiences,

operational efficiencies, and community-relevant programming. The literature highlights that while a strong brand orientation can foster innovation aligned with performance goals, it may also constrain creativity if it leads to excessive conformity. For nonprofit museums, mediating innovation is essential for achieving mission-aligned performance outcomes, strengthening their impact, sustainability, and relevance within their communities (Urde, 1999; Bresciani & Eppler, 2010; Martínez et al., 2020).

In the qualitative study, several museum directors who serve as informants argued why innovation would help their museum achieve its performance by considering the museum brand. An informant gives a point of view that,

*“We have our collection and many events, such as public seminars and school visits. Our staff also has an idea about inviting as many communities as possible into our museums to have activities that collaborate resources. Innovation has a deep connection with how our stakeholders perceive our museums. By understanding our brand, we can choose what kind of innovation fits and helps the museum's image to its stakeholders. On the other side, having a collaborative event with many communities helps to communicate to our public that either the museum or the community has an identity and mission to accomplish together. We build our museum brand by having the right and impactful innovation.” (09-PUB-SC)*

One of the informants, an academic on museum sectors, added the opinion that,

*“In my experiences helping museums to innovate through many platforms, a museum's good image can be seen with the response from at least the visitors and spreading word of mouth into another museum. Some museums might copy the idea, but the first museum implementing the innovation will still have a good impression on society, not only their sponsor, funder, or visitors. So, innovation must affect the museum's brand. This will also help the museum achieve its goals and provide many more opportunities for its stakeholders to achieve different needs and wants.” (02-ACD)*

Recent research by Martínez et al. (2020) found that museums with strong brand orientation can better foster brand-consistent innovations, improving visitor satisfaction

and loyalty by creating cohesive and meaningful experiences. This connection is supported by Kohli and Jaworski's (1990) foundational work on market orientation, which established that organisations with a clear brand focus can better direct innovation in ways that enhance overall performance.

Mulyanegara et al. (2011) suggest that brand-oriented museums leverage their identity to inspire innovative initiatives that reflect their unique mission and values. This alignment helps museums stay competitive by offering differentiated experiences that resonate deeply with visitors and stakeholders. Kim and Sullivan (2019) argue that innovation, driven by brand orientation, enhances visitor engagement by making museum experiences more interactive and memorable. Innovations aligned with brand identity help build a loyal visitor base, directly impacting museum performance.

Research by Martínez et al. (2020) emphasises that brand orientation encourages innovation in programming, enabling museums to create exhibitions and events that reflect the brand's core values. This approach attracts new visitors and reinforces the museum's image in the community, boosting attendance and reputation. Taylor et al. (2021) found that innovation driven by brand orientation enables museums to adopt new technologies and processes that improve operational efficiency. Such innovations, whether in ticketing, visitor tracking, or digital engagement, contribute to financial sustainability, a key performance measure for museums. Bresciani and Eppler (2010) noted that innovation grounded in brand orientation enables museums to develop socially relevant programming that appeals to a broader audience. This enhances the museum's social impact, an increasingly important measure of success for nonprofit organisations.

However, there were several challenging perspectives that museums also need to pay attention to. The first point is that a rigid focus on brand identity may limit museums' ability to pursue radical innovation. Innovation that diverges from the established brand might be discouraged, leading to a conservative approach that stifles creative potential and limits adaptability (Urde, 1999). Another point of view is that implementing brand-driven innovations requires resources, which can be challenging for museums with limited budgets. Taylor et al. (2021) argue that resource constraints might prevent museums from fully capitalising on the brand-innovation relationship, especially in smaller institutions.

Bresciani and Eppler (2010) caution that a brand-oriented approach may alienate broader audiences if innovations are too closely aligned with niche brand values. For instance, a museum focused on a highly specialised theme might struggle to attract diverse audiences, potentially limiting its impact and performance.

The findings of the quantitative study underscore the significance of innovation as a mediator linking multi-stakeholder orientation and brand orientation to museum performance. Innovation is crucial in converting strategic direction inputs into enhanced performance. The findings of the qualitative study also provide numerous significant elements to facilitate innovation and indicate how museums must allocate their resources to enhance performance. Museums must evaluate innovative approaches and combinations that resonate with stakeholder preferences and correspond with their brand identity.

Kim and Sullivan (2019) highlight that multi-stakeholder orientation in museums enables gathering diverse stakeholder insights, which innovation processes can then translate into brand-aligned exhibits, programming, and visitor experiences. This innovation-focused approach ensures that stakeholder inputs are directly transformed into enhanced museum performance, such as increased visitor satisfaction and loyalty. Martínez et al. (2020) further argue that brand orientation strengthens the consistency and coherence of these innovations. Museums with a strong brand focus can better align new initiatives with their core values and mission. This brand-consistent innovation enhances the museum's reputation and visitor loyalty, which are key performance metrics in the nonprofit sector.

Museum innovation allows multi-stakeholder orientation to be more than a strategic posture; it becomes an active, adaptive process. According to Kim and Sullivan (2019), museums that engage stakeholders in their innovation processes can offer more relevant, engaging experiences that meet diverse visitor needs. By acting on stakeholder insights, museums can improve performance metrics such as visitor numbers, engagement levels, and social impact. Innovation enables museums to transform brand orientation into distinctive, memorable experiences that differentiate them from other cultural institutions. Martínez et al. (2020) found that when innovations are grounded in brand identity, they strengthen brand image and increase visitor loyalty, both critical to long-term performance.

In the nonprofit sector, resources are often limited, and innovation provides a mechanism for museums to maximise these resources. Taylor et al. (2021) argue that innovation can lead to more efficient use of funds and human resources by enabling museums to streamline operations and adopt cost-saving technologies. By efficiently deploying resources to enhance the visitor experience, museums can improve financial performance and stakeholder satisfaction. In conclusion, innovation is a crucial intermediary connecting multi-stakeholder and brand orientations with improved museum performance by translating strategic inputs into meaningful experiences, operational efficiencies, and community-focused initiatives. This role is essential in the nonprofit museum sector, where innovation drives performance and aligns with mission-driven goals such as community engagement and cultural impact (Kim & Sullivan, 2019; Martínez et al., 2020). However, careful management of resources and strategic alignment are necessary to prevent mission drift and maximise the long-term benefits of innovation.

### **6.1.3 Multi-stakeholder Market Orientation and Innovation**

Transformational leadership is widely regarded as potent in moderating the relationship between multi-stakeholder market orientation and innovation. Multi-stakeholder market orientation, which emphasizes addressing the needs and expectations of diverse stakeholder groups, aligns well with innovation strategies by fostering inclusivity and adaptability in rapidly changing markets (Hult et al., 2018). Transformational leaders inspire, challenge, and empower employees to exceed typical performance—and are pivotal in leveraging multi-stakeholder insights to drive innovative solutions. Several studies support this notion, highlighting that transformational leadership indeed enhances the impact of multi-stakeholder orientation on innovation by creating a conducive environment for stakeholder-inspired innovation (Sarros et al., 2008; Wang & Rode, 2010).

Almost all of the informants in the qualitative study underlined the crucial factors that have become the foundation of the museum market orientation's success. Museum leaders who understand their stakeholders and can entice them with their needs and wants into the innovation program have a good chance of winning stakeholder support. This can be seen

in one of the comments from the informant about the transformational leadership style of their leader and museum innovation,

*“Many activities held by museums that were considered innovations, such as providing services to visitors, were well supported by all museum stakeholders because as museum director, I need to motivate all museum employees to give my ideas and our employee's ideas about the new, improved services. It seems that our stakeholders, such as the one from the university, heard about the innovation and offered additional technology or other support. As a museum's director, I did this not only once but is continuing action”. (05-PRI-SC)*

Transformational leadership moderates the relationship between multi-stakeholder market orientation and innovation by fostering an innovation-oriented culture highly responsive to stakeholder insights (Hult et al., 2018). For example, Sarros et al. (2008) found that transformational leaders, through their charisma, vision, and motivational capabilities, promote an open communication culture that enables organisations to integrate diverse stakeholder perspectives into innovation initiatives effectively. This approach empowers teams to synthesise varied stakeholder insights, leading to innovations better aligned with market demands and stakeholder expectations.

Additionally, Wang and Rode (2010) point out that transformational leaders enhance this connection by cultivating a learning-oriented environment where employees are encouraged to experiment with new ideas inspired by multi-stakeholder inputs. This leadership style is precious in complex, dynamic markets where stakeholder preferences continuously evolve. In such contexts, transformational leaders can mobilise organisational resources towards stakeholder-informed innovation, driving competitive advantage and fostering sustainable growth.

Transformational leadership facilitates a flexible organisational structure that integrates multi-stakeholder insights into decision-making, making it easier for organisations to adapt and innovate in line with market needs (Hult et al., 2018). Transformational leaders boost employee morale and commitment by encouraging a sense of purpose and inclusivity, which translates into a willingness to embrace risk and pursue stakeholder-informed innovation (Sarros et al., 2008). This fosters a collaborative culture that values multi-

stakeholder perspectives, translating them into actionable innovation strategies.

Transformational leaders often prioritise long-term success over short-term gains, aligning well with the goals of multi-stakeholder market orientation to build sustained, stakeholder-driven innovation pathways (Wang & Rode, 2010). This orientation enables firms to take a strategic view on innovation, investing in projects that align with stakeholder needs and societal expectations over time. However, there were also challenging perspectives about transformational leadership roles in the market orientation and innovation literature.

Literature also warns that transformational leadership may sometimes lead to over-prioritizing stakeholder input, hindering radical innovation. Too much focus on consensus may limit bold decision-making, with leaders opting for safer, incremental innovations instead of pursuing high-risk, high-reward projects (Slater & Narver, 1995). By placing a high emphasis on multi-stakeholder feedback, transformational leaders might inadvertently shift organisational focus away from core competencies, diluting brand identity and possibly confusing organisational priorities (Hult et al., 2018). This can sometimes lead to an innovation strategy that lacks coherence or consistency, as diverse stakeholder interests excessively drive it. Transformational leadership can be resource-intensive, requiring significant investment in training, team development, and communication processes to incorporate and act on multi-stakeholder insights effectively. Organisations may struggle to balance these demands with the financial and operational resources needed to drive innovation (Sarros et al., 2008).

Transformational leadership strengthens the link between multi-stakeholder market orientation and innovation by creating an environment that values diverse perspectives and empowers employees to act on them. However, transformational leaders must manage the balance between multi-stakeholder input and maintaining a clear, coherent innovation strategy to avoid the pitfalls of over-emphasis on consensus and mission drift (Wang & Rode, 2010; Hult et al., 2018).

The quantitative study shows exciting results: the higher the stakeholder engagement, the weaker the relationship between MMO and innovation. As there were diverse responses regarding who the stakeholders that support the innovation for museums based on each

contribution to museum existence and daily operation as the informants had different opinions about stakeholder involvement,

*“The most important stakeholders are our employees, who understand the story behind our collection. Some of us have served for years, even experiencing many museum leaders changing.” (03-PUB-SC)*

Other informants added another side of point of view regarding their sponsor,

*“We have been under the supervision of the company as our leading supporter and funder. The museum and company leaders have discussed many issues, including our plan and innovation ideas. Their support is everything as all the financial sources come from the company, and it means that our engagement with people from funders, our company, is everything. Of course, we also need a good leader who communicates with them about what is happening with our museums.” (05-PUB-SC)*

The assertion that "the higher the stakeholder engagement, the weaker the relationship between Multi-Stakeholder Market Orientation (MSMO) and innovation" reflects a nuanced view of the role of stakeholder influence in innovation. Multi-stakeholder market Orientation (MSMO) is designed to align with the interests of diverse stakeholders, including customers, suppliers, and community groups, to create broader value and drive competitive advantage. However, excessive stakeholder engagement may complicate or dilute innovation processes by introducing competing interests, prolonging decision-making, and encouraging conservative strategies (Deshpandé & Farley, 2004; Slater & Narver, 1995). Several support this viewpoint by illustrating how high stakeholder engagement may impede radical innovation and lead to incremental, risk-averse innovation outcomes (Jones et al., 2020; Skaalsvik et al., 2021).

While moderate stakeholder engagement can enhance MSMO's alignment with market needs, high stakeholder engagement often limits bold, pioneering innovation. Skaalsvik et al. (2021) state that excessive stakeholder input can constrain firms' freedom to pursue disruptive ideas, as stakeholders typically favour stable, predictable outcomes that align with their interests. This leads to an innovation strategy oriented towards incremental



improvements rather than transformative breakthroughs, weakening the connection between MMO and innovation.

Jones et al. (2020) provide further evidence that with high stakeholder engagement, firms face pressures to accommodate a range of often conflicting stakeholder needs, leading to compromise-driven innovations that lack coherence and distinctiveness. This phenomenon, referred to as “innovation conformity,” arises when companies attempt to satisfy multiple stakeholder expectations simultaneously, which restricts their ability to take risks and focus on transformative innovations. In contrast, organisations with lower stakeholder engagement can operate with greater autonomy, allowing them to leverage MMO in a more strategically focused and innovation-driven way.

#### **6.1.4 Brand Orientation and Innovation**

The quantitative study shows that Transformational Leadership strengthens the relationship between brand orientation and innovation. Brand orientation—an organisational focus on creating, managing, and leveraging brand identity and values—naturally complements innovation efforts by fostering differentiation and customer loyalty. Transformational leadership, characterised by vision, inspiration, and motivation, serves as a powerful moderator in this relationship, encouraging employees to innovate in ways that are consistent with the brand’s core values and market positioning (Wang & Rode, 2010; Matzler et al., 2008).

Transformational leaders facilitate a deeper alignment between brand orientation and innovation. For example, Matzler et al. (2008) found that transformational leaders inspire employees to engage in innovative activities that reinforce brand values, creating a distinctive, brand-oriented approach to innovation that enhances competitive advantage. This leadership style fosters an open, supportive culture that empowers employees to take ownership of brand-related goals, resulting in brand-consistent innovations that resonate with customers and reinforce brand loyalty.

Wang and Rode (2010) further highlight that transformational leadership enhances the brand orientation–innovation link by fostering an environment where creativity and learning are encouraged. Transformational leaders empower teams to pursue bold ideas

aligned with the brand's identity, helping mitigate innovation risks by grounding new ideas in a brand's established value framework. This enables companies to confidently pursue innovative strategies, knowing that brand integrity will remain intact.

Previously, in the qualitative study, several informants supported this finding with their slightly different opinions, especially not only mentioning the leadership style but adding information about the museum's leader's background that coincidentally relates with the way their leaders conducted its leadership style,

*“Not all leaders understand our iconic or masterpiece collection and only view that also mentioning our logo meaning to our stakeholders while they are having their formal speech or discussing with the public. We can see that the museum's leader has long experience in a field similar to museums, such as cultural institutions. They can have a warm, supportive leadership style because they know the museum's mission. They know our identity and why that identity is reflected in our ongoing innovation.” (10-PUB-SC)*

There is another opinion from other informants,

*“The public has demanded museums, especially the younger generation, to represent their style innovatively. Educating, yes, but also entertaining. The museum needs a young and energetic director. Of course, we need to be careful and aware at the same time. Be careful that the young museum director must support employees from all age categories and backgrounds and the time they have served the museum. We must also know how many young people are attracted to working in a museum and even taking a leadership role in today's environment. Whether from inside the museums or from other institutions, museum leaders need to transform people. The general public considers the museum an old type organisation.” (24-PUB-SC)*

The literature on brand orientation and innovation offers several perspectives. The supportive perspective mentions the importance of aligning innovation with brand values, enhancing employee motivation for innovation, and the pressure to increase organisational adaptability.

Transformational leaders play a crucial role in ensuring that innovation efforts align with brand identity, thereby increasing the likelihood that new products or services will strengthen the brand's market position (Matzler et al., 2008). This alignment enhances customer perceptions of the brand and contributes to a coherent and distinctive brand narrative. Transformational leaders inspire employees to go beyond their comfort zones, promoting a culture of continuous improvement and brand-consistent innovation (Wang & Rode, 2010). Employees who feel motivated and empowered are likelier to engage in creative problem-solving and take risks that align with the brand's long-term vision. By fostering an innovation-oriented culture, transformational leaders help brand-oriented companies to be more responsive to market changes, allowing them to adapt their brand to evolving customer needs. This adaptability ensures that brand-oriented innovation remains relevant, positioning the brand for sustainable success (Morhart et al., 2009).

However, organisations such as museums need to consider several other conditions, as mentioned in the literature, and have a tone to more challenging opinions about this issue. Some scholars argue that transformational leadership, emphasising brand values, may limit radical innovation by constraining the scope of acceptable ideas. Employees might feel pressured to innovate within the boundaries of brand identity, potentially stifling out-of-the-box thinking and limiting breakthrough innovations (Vallaster & de Chernatony, 2006). Additionally, when transformational leaders heavily emphasise brand alignment, they may inadvertently discourage innovations that do not immediately fit within the established brand framework (Kohli & Jaworski, 1990). This can create a form of "brand myopia," where organisations focus more on brand continuity than experimenting with disruptive, novel innovations that might enhance long-term competitiveness.

Transformational leadership's focus on brand-aligned innovation may lead to resource concentration in brand-centric projects, potentially limiting investment in other types of valuable innovation. Companies may miss cross-sector or exploratory innovations if their focus is too narrowly brand-oriented (Matzler et al., 2008). Balancing transformational leadership's brand orientation with openness to unconventional ideas may help companies leverage brand-oriented innovation while remaining responsive to market shifts (Wang & Rode, 2010; Matzler et al., 2008).

In the qualitative study, there is an indication that when a museum runs a program to show its focus on the museum mission, there will be a sign to attract stakeholders to get involved and contribute, as one of the informant notices,

*“Although we only have a few new programs in a year of activity, every time we propose and announce a new program, some of our closest stakeholders will reach out by sending messages or speaking to us on every available occasion.” (21-PUB-SC)*

Furthermore, in several cases, especially when the stakeholders have a previous involvement in the museum campaign for several social issues and contributed to innovation, such as the design of the programs as a part of sponsorship activities, the stakeholders will cover another opportunity also to be involved with the new programs, for example,

*“When we have succeeded in our previous project, which also includes our contribution to able to propose several ideas in the planning activities when we have our commitment to support as a sponsor, we will pay attention to the museum’s next project after perceiving that they have a good impression in the society.” (15-PUB-SC)*

However, the quantitative study does not show that stakeholder engagement does not moderate the relationship between brand orientation and innovation. Thus, it can be concluded that there is no moderation effect in this context. There were several explanations for why this could happen. Recent studies show that stakeholder engagement is increasingly recognised as a crucial moderator in the relationship between brand orientation and innovation. Brand orientation, an organisation’s focus on building and leveraging brand identity and values (Urde, 1999), often drives innovation by fostering customer loyalty and creating value in competitive markets. However, the impact of brand orientation on innovation can be significantly enhanced or constrained depending on the level and quality of stakeholder engagement (Skaalsvik et al., 2021; Jones et al., 2020).

Stakeholder engagement is a moderating factor that provides critical insights into market needs, which inform and refine brand-driven innovation strategies. For instance, Camilleri

(2022) highlights that engaging with stakeholders such as customers, suppliers, and community members can provide valuable feedback, aligning innovation with market demand and enhancing brand authenticity and loyalty. Similarly, Jones et al. (2020) emphasise that stakeholder feedback mechanisms can lead to a more customer-centred approach to innovation, creating a cycle where brand-driven innovation is continuously validated and improved through engagement.

On the flip side, stakeholder engagement can present challenges to innovation within brand-oriented firms, as Skaalsvik et al. (2021) pointed out. Over-reliance on stakeholder perspectives, particularly from risk-averse stakeholders, can stifle bold, transformative innovations, as companies may prioritise incremental improvements over radical innovations to align with stakeholder expectations. This can result in a conservative innovation strategy in highly brand-oriented organisations that limits disruptive innovation potential.

The literature offered pros and cons regarding the benefits of stakeholder engagement as a moderator between brand orientation and innovation. By incorporating stakeholder insights, companies can align their innovation efforts with current market trends and consumer needs, enhancing the relevance and impact of new products and services (Jones et al., 2020). Additionally, When brands demonstrate responsiveness to stakeholder concerns, they foster stronger relationships, leading to enhanced loyalty and trust, which is essential for brand longevity and competitive advantage (Camilleri, 2022). On the other hand, Excessive stakeholder influence, especially from dominant stakeholders with vested interests, can lead to conformity, where brand-oriented firms avoid risky or unconventional innovations in favour of safer, incremental changes (Skaalsvik et al., 2021). Furthermore, engaging stakeholders meaningfully can be resource-intensive, diverting time and resources from potentially high-impact, rapid innovation projects and instead investing in aligning with stakeholder demands (Jones et al., 2020).

Overall, the moderating role of stakeholder engagement in the relationship between brand orientation and innovation is both an asset and a liability. The literature indicates that firms with a high brand orientation benefit from stakeholder engagement, which provides alignment and relevance in their innovation efforts. However, excessive reliance on

stakeholder input may curb the firm's ability to pursue disruptive innovations, suggesting a balanced approach considering stakeholder insights and innovation autonomy (Camilleri, 2022; Skaalsvik et al., 2021).

### **6.1.5 Control Variables**

The control variables in this study—museum size, funding type, and collection type—exhibit no significant impact on Innovation since all p-values exceed 0.05. The results suggest these control variables do not significantly influence museums' innovation levels. This finding indicates that the disparities in innovation among museums are not attributable to the museum's size, funding type, or collection kind but to elements derived from the primary variables in this study.

Strategic orientations such as brand and market orientation are more impactful in fostering innovation that drives museum performance. This finding emphasises the importance of aligning innovation with stakeholder needs and brand identity rather than relying on structural characteristics (Kim & Sullivan, 2019; Martínez et al., 2020). By focusing on strategic orientation, museums can achieve sustained innovation and improved performance regardless of size or resources.

In the nonprofit museum context, strategic orientation remains the predominant driver of innovation, as size, funding, and collection types are often secondary considerations to mission alignment and stakeholder engagement. Nonprofit museums often operate with a mission-centric approach, where brand orientation and market alignment drive innovations that resonate with their unique cultural and educational goals. By focusing on these strategic goals, museums are better able to innovate in ways that enhance visitor experience and community impact (Mulyanegara et al., 2011).

Museums prioritizing market orientation often see innovation as a means to effectively engage local communities. Kim and Sullivan (2019) found that stakeholder-aligned innovations, rather than those based on size or resources, were more effective in improving performance outcomes in nonprofit settings, as they directly addressed community needs. Nonprofits often face limited funding, making strategic orientation even more critical. Museums emphasising market orientation can better allocate resources to innovations that

drive mission impact and improve operational efficiency, achieving more with less (Bresciani & Eppler, 2010).

Some literature suggests that while strategic orientation is crucial, structural factors like funding can still constrain innovation. For example, Taylor et al. (2021) found that museums with limited funding faced challenges in implementing large-scale innovations, suggesting that financial resources can impact the scale but not necessarily the presence of innovation. Although collection type may not significantly impact innovation according to current research, certain types of collections (e.g., interactive or digital collections) may inherently lend themselves to more innovative programming. Museums with technology-oriented collections may find it easier to integrate digital innovations, though these cases remain exceptions rather than the norm (Martínez et al., 2020). More prominent museums with more resources and established brand reputations may have a comparative advantage in pursuing extensive innovations, such as interactive exhibits or digital expansions. While size may not be a primary driver, the operational capacity associated with larger institutions could still enable more significant innovation potential under certain conditions (Lynch & Baines, 2004). These are examples of studies that have challenged the point of view regarding the control variables that are being proposed; however, there was some enlightening support for the result from the quantitative study.

Studies consistently show that strategic orientations, particularly market and brand orientation, are more influential in driving innovation than size, funding, or collection type. For instance, Martínez et al. (2020) found that brand-oriented museums were more innovative in creating cohesive, engaging visitor experiences, suggesting that brand strategy rather than structural factors was the primary innovation driver. Museums with a strong brand and market orientation are more flexible and responsive, enabling them to innovate even in resource-constrained settings (Kim & Sullivan, 2019). This adaptability is particularly valuable for smaller museums or those with limited funding, as they can leverage strategic focus rather than structural assets to drive innovation. Research by Mulyanegara et al. (2011) indicates that nonprofits, including museums, can innovate successfully despite size or funding limitations if they adopt a strong brand orientation. This finding supports the argument that strategic focus, rather than structural attributes, fosters the capacity to innovate.

Recent studies indicate that structural characteristics like museum size, funding type, and collection variety do not inherently promote or hinder innovation. For instance, Kim and Sullivan (2019) found that museums of various sizes and funding backgrounds showed comparable levels of innovation when their strategic orientation was aligned with market and brand goals. Martínez et al. (2020) further support this, noting that the innovation levels in museums were more closely linked to organisational strategies than structural aspects such as size or funding.

Innovation is primarily driven by market and brand orientation and focuses on stakeholder engagement rather than structural variables like funding or collection types (Lynch & Baines, 2004). Museums with strong brand and market orientations are better positioned to align their innovation efforts with visitor needs, driving performance improvements that are not contingent upon museum size or resources. Narver and Slater (1990) emphasise that organisations with a strong market orientation can better cultivate innovative practices. In the museum context, a strong market orientation facilitates an adaptive approach to program development, exhibitions, and community outreach, enhancing innovation independently of structural factors like funding and size (Matzler et al., 2008).

Taylor et al. (2021) emphasise the role of organisational culture—shaped by brand and market orientation—as a primary determinant of innovation in museums. Museums that foster a culture of learning and adaptability, irrespective of size or funding, are better equipped to implement innovative solutions that resonate with visitors and stakeholders. A study by Bresciani and Eppler (2010) suggests that museums prioritising stakeholder engagement, regardless of size or collection type, achieve higher innovation levels. This finding highlights that strategic alignment with stakeholder needs is a more consistent driver of innovation than structural variables, as it creates a responsive and proactive approach to programming and visitor experience.



## 6.2 Theoretical Contributions

### 6.2.1 Market Orientation with Stakeholder Approach

The evolution of market orientation (MO) to encompass a multi-stakeholder approach responds to critiques of traditional MO's narrow focus on market and competitor orientation, which overlooks the broader ecosystem of stakeholders essential for long-term sustainability (Grinstein & Goldman, 2011; Hult, 2011). Recent studies argue that a stakeholder-inclusive MO is critical for organisations, especially in the nonprofit sector, where social impact is a core goal (Crittenden et al., 2011). In contrast to traditional MO, a multi-stakeholder market orientation (MSMO) recognises the diverse needs and expectations of stakeholders such as beneficiaries, donors, volunteers, and communities, enhancing the organisation's adaptability and relevance (Brower & Rowe, 2017). While some scholars assert that MSMO is best suited to nonprofits due to their intrinsic social missions (Line & Wang, 2017), recent for-profit research also supports the value of this broader MO approach, particularly in turbulent markets where social and environmental considerations influence corporate reputation and legitimacy (Georgiou et al., 2023).

However, critics contend that a multi-stakeholder focus can dilute MO's effectiveness by diverting resources away from core market activities (Asseraf & Shoham, 2019). This thesis proves that a nonprofit-specific MSMO framework effectively bridges market and social goals by aligning with stakeholders' diverse interests. Unlike studies emphasising the difficulties of balancing internal and external stakeholder demands (Blocker et al., 2024), our findings show that MSMO fosters synergistic stakeholder engagement that drives innovation and mission-oriented performance outcomes. This approach highlights the importance of balancing the external-internal MO, particularly within nonprofits, to cultivate an organisational culture that respects stakeholder interests without undermining core operational goals.

### 6.2.2 Strategic Orientation Combination

Combining strategic orientations—such as market orientation, brand orientation, and learning orientation—emerges as a critical enabler of innovation and competitive advantage in the literature (Nguyen et al., 2016; Cheng & Huizingh, 2014). Strategic

orientation combinations enable organisations to leverage internal strengths while responding dynamically to external market changes. This study adds to the body of knowledge by demonstrating that brand orientation (BO) is a crucial complement to MSMO in nonprofit contexts, reinforcing brand consistency and stakeholder trust. Aligning MSMO with BO enables organisations, particularly nonprofits like museums, to maintain a coherent brand image while adapting to stakeholder needs (Alnawas & Hemsley-Brown, 2019). This dual strategic orientation supports the long-term mission by attracting stakeholder engagement and promoting a learning culture conducive to innovation.

Recent literature debates the potential trade-offs between combining strategic orientations versus prioritising a single orientation to achieve greater focus (Kraft & Bausch, 2016). Some studies argue that firms that spread resources across multiple orientations risk weakening their competitive edge (Boso et al., 2016). However, this research suggests nonprofits benefit uniquely from a combination of strategic orientations. Here, combining MSMO and BO allows museums to address the high expectations of their diverse stakeholders while enhancing brand differentiation in the cultural sector. Our findings align with recent calls for integrative frameworks that harness multiple strategic orientations to drive innovation and mission alignment in complex organisational environments (Camilleri, 2021; Gambeta et al., 2018).

### **6.2.3 Nonprofit Innovation**

Nonprofit innovation, particularly in mission-driven contexts, increasingly relies on the synergy between various types of innovation, such as social, service, and business model innovation (Flammer & Kacperczyk, 2016; Saxton & Guo, 2011). This thesis illustrates how nonprofits, like museums, leverage innovation to balance social objectives with economic sustainability, addressing the dual imperatives of financial performance and social impact. Recent literature underscores the importance of a structured approach to nonprofit innovation that aligns with organisational mission and stakeholder needs (Sanzo-Perez et al., 2015). Our findings confirm that stakeholder-driven innovation is integral to nonprofit success, fostering accountability and deepening stakeholder relationships by responding to evolving social and cultural needs (Rey Garcia et al., 2013).

While past research has primarily emphasised innovation's role in driving competitive advantage for for-profit entities (Lee et al., 2019), this study highlights innovation's unique function in nonprofits as a tool for mission enhancement. Unlike the profit-centric perspective, which focuses on product and process innovation to maximise financial returns (Talke et al., 2011), our findings reveal that nonprofit innovation combines social, service, and business model elements, creating a holistic approach aligned with stakeholder expectations. By adopting transformational leadership styles, nonprofits can better manage the internal dynamics of innovation, balancing resource constraints with the drive for social impact. This integrated approach contributes to a deeper understanding of how strategic orientation and leadership styles foster stakeholder-centered innovation, aligning organisational purpose with sustained performance and stakeholder trust (Al-Tabba et al., 2021; Richardson & Kelly, 2024).

## **6.3 Managerial Implications**

### **6.3.1 Utilizing Innovation to Connect Multi-Stakeholder Orientation with Museum Performance**

For Indonesian museums, which often operate with limited financial resources and serve diverse stakeholders, innovation becomes a pivotal mediator in translating multi-stakeholder insights into tangible performance gains. Hult et al. (2018) show that MSMO enables organisations to address varied stakeholder groups' needs, fostering a service-driven innovation climate. Indonesian museums can similarly benefit by prioritising innovation initiatives that respond to feedback from donors, visitors, and community partners, enhancing both social and operational outcomes. Given the mission-driven nature of these institutions, leveraging innovation aligned with MSMO can support museums in meeting educational goals while also improving efficiency and engagement, a core strategy supported by Lettice et al. (2010) for nonprofit sustainability.

### **6.3.2 Combining Market Orientation with Brand Orientation to Bolster Stakeholder Engagement and Financial Stability**

Combining MSMO with BO allows Indonesian museums to deepen stakeholder engagement and strengthen brand reputation. Mulyanegara et al. (2011) demonstrate that a BO helps nonprofits communicate their mission clearly, which fosters loyalty and strengthens visitor relations in the museum context. Indonesian museum managers can strategically integrate stakeholder input into brand-aligned exhibits and programs, increasing donor interest and grant opportunities (Taylor et al., 2021). This combined orientation helps articulate the unique cultural value that museums offer and aligns with stakeholder expectations, encouraging long-term partnerships and reinforcing public trust in museum missions (Kim & Sullivan, 2019).

### **6.3.3 Fostering a Transformational Leadership Style to Drive Stakeholder-Centered Innovation**

The study suggests that transformational leadership significantly enhances the MSMO, BO, and innovation link, making it an essential leadership style for Indonesian museum directors. Sarros et al. (2008) highlight that transformational leaders can inspire and motivate employees to include diverse stakeholder perspectives in their innovative endeavours. Indonesian museum managers should promote a leadership approach that fosters inclusivity and adaptability, engaging staff in meaningful innovation processes. Wang and Rode (2010) emphasise that transformational leaders who establish a learning-oriented culture align staff efforts with stakeholder-driven innovations, which is essential for sustainable growth in resource-limited settings. Museum leaders in Indonesia can achieve similar outcomes by focusing on leadership training that cultivates collaborative, innovative, and responsive strategies, leading to more impactful community-oriented projects.

### **6.3.4 Managing Stakeholder Engagement to Support Innovation without Limiting Creativity**

While stakeholder engagement is essential to support MSMO's innovation potential, this study finds that excessive engagement may hinder more radical forms of innovation by creating competing demands (Jones et al., 2020). A balanced approach to engagement is critical for Indonesian museums, where stakeholder expectations may range widely from educational programs to preservation efforts. Skaalsvik et al. (2021) suggest that too much emphasis on stakeholder expectations may encourage safe, incremental improvements over transformative changes. Indonesian museums can benefit from stakeholder insights without compromising creativity and forward-thinking initiatives by implementing structured, stage-based feedback systems that integrate stakeholder input at key project milestones. This approach allows museums to balance the need for public input with their ability to pursue bolder innovations that attract and retain visitors.

### **6.3.5 Strategic Allocation of Resources to Align Brand-Driven Innovation with Stakeholder Expectations**

In resource-constrained environments like Indonesian museums, managers must allocate resources effectively to align BO with innovation goals. Martínez et al. (2020) discuss how brand-oriented innovation helps foster consistency in visitor experience, building brand loyalty and ensuring financial sustainability. For smaller Indonesian museums, a rigid BO could limit more radical innovations due to financial constraints (Taylor et al., 2021). Therefore, Indonesian museums should focus on affordable, high-impact innovations, such as locally relevant exhibitions or digital engagement tools, that align with brand identity while also attracting wider audiences. This approach ensures that museums remain consistent with their cultural and educational missions while extending reach and maximizing available resources.

### **6.3.6 Integrating Stakeholder-Aligned and Brand-Oriented Innovation for Long-Term Organizational Performance**

Managers of Indonesian museums are encouraged to see MSMO and BO as complementary strategies that drive innovation and organisational performance. Kim and Sullivan (2019) emphasise that stakeholder-aligned innovations reflecting an organisation's brand identity increase visitor satisfaction and loyalty, key performance indicators in the nonprofit sector. Indonesian museums can enhance their appeal by designing programs informed by stakeholder feedback while remaining consistent with their core cultural identity (Bresciani & Eppler, 2010). This approach differentiates museums from other cultural institutions and reinforces public trust and engagement, supporting their long-term mission-driven goals and cultural impact.

## Chapter 7 Conclusion

### 7.1 General Conclusion

This thesis provides a comprehensive framework for understanding how strategic orientations, specifically market orientation (MO) and brand orientation (BO), interact with leadership and stakeholder relationships to foster innovation within museums, a unique nonprofit context. By adapting market orientation principles to fit the nonprofit environment and integrating brand orientation, museums can leverage these strategic orientations to enhance their innovation and performance outcomes. This adaptation, which emphasises the central role of stakeholder relationships and leadership, allows museums to align their innovation efforts more closely with their mission and the diverse needs of their stakeholders.

A key finding of this research is that museum leadership and strong stakeholder relationships are crucial drivers of innovation. Museum leaders who actively engage with stakeholders—such as visitors, donors, peers, and employees—tend to spearhead more effective innovation initiatives. This relationship-centered approach enables museums to create innovations that are not only operationally effective but also better aligned with stakeholder expectations and the museum's mission. Therefore, museum innovation requires leaders who prioritize stakeholder engagement, creating a collaborative environment that enhances the relevance and sustainability of innovations.

In the realm of strategic marketing, this thesis underscores the importance of innovation as a catalyst for improved organizational performance. Unlike other nonprofits, museums must focus on identifying specific innovation types that resonate with their unique goals and assess their impacts on overall museum outcomes. These innovations must be carefully aligned with the museum's mission and stakeholder interests to ensure both social and economic relevance. Consequently, museum innovations—whether service innovations, social innovations, or business model innovations—require a dual focus on mission fulfillment and performance enhancement, a balance that is increasingly essential in today's competitive nonprofit landscape.

This research also makes a significant contribution by combining MO and BO within the strategic orientation and strategic management literature, particularly in nonprofit contexts. Utilizing a sequential exploratory design, this study addresses complex issues that nonprofit organizations face, such as the tension between mission fulfillment and market orientation, and the challenge of balancing innovation with stability. The multi-stakeholder approach to MO proposed here provides a more nuanced framework that enables museums to navigate the complex expectations of beneficiaries, donors, and other stakeholders. This study shows that museums can achieve social and economic performance by integrating brand orientation as a complementary strategic option. Additionally, it highlights that innovation mediates the relationship between multi-stakeholder MO, BO, and organisational performance, a process that is enhanced by transformational leadership and active stakeholder engagement. These findings offer a novel and integrative approach to nonprofit strategic management, aligning organisational mission with market responsiveness and stakeholder value.

## 7.2 Limitation

This research, while insightful, has certain limitations that open avenues for future investigation. The mixed-method approach used here—while advantageous in identifying relevant stakeholders and examining brand orientation, market orientation, and types of museum innovation—could benefit from an expanded multi-method approach. Studies by Johnson, Onwuegbuzie, and Turner (2007) and Venkatesh, Brown, and Bala (2013) emphasise that multi-method designs can enhance the depth of insights, particularly in complex environments like museums. Incorporating a multi-method approach in future studies could better capture museums' dynamic, multifaceted roles and provide a more comprehensive understanding of stakeholder needs and expectations across varied museum types.

Though foundational, the qualitative phase of this research encountered limitations in participant diversity due to practical constraints, especially in reaching donors and sponsors. Diverse stakeholder representation is crucial to ensure an inclusive understanding of stakeholder needs, as indicated in recent research (Anheier & Leat, 2020; Mitchell et al., 2021). Future research could benefit from targeted strategies to engage a



broader range of stakeholders, particularly in private museums where sponsor and donor participation is critical. Such efforts may require a balance between theoretical rigour and practical accessibility to strengthen the inclusiveness and generalizability of findings.

Furthermore, a larger sample size could enhance model robustness, although local regulatory constraints and participation challenges in the nonprofit sector limited recruitment efforts in this study. Research by Lin and Wu (2018) and Fincham (2021) underscores that higher response rates could yield a more accurate representation of complex organisational dynamics. Future studies might consider longitudinal or multi-phase sampling techniques to capture the evolving nature of market orientation, innovation, and leadership across diverse museum settings. A broader sample across museums beyond those with government-standardized levels would also provide additional insights, particularly in understanding stakeholder groups and innovation characteristics across varying museum profiles.

Lastly, this study's focus on multi-stakeholder market orientation through the lens of stakeholder theory offers a foundational step, but it limits exploration into interconnected areas like relationship marketing, which has proven valuable in nonprofit settings (McColl-Kennedy et al., 2017; Palmatier et al., 2021). Future research could expand on this integration, examining how relationship marketing can enhance stakeholder engagement within multi-stakeholder market orientation frameworks. Additionally, a psychometrically validated scale for measuring multi-stakeholder market orientation in museums, as suggested by research on survey fatigue by Pignatiello, Martin, and Hickman (2020), could refine data accuracy and reduce potential bias. This would contribute significantly to capturing diverse perspectives and enhancing the applicability of nonprofit market orientation strategies across organisational levels.

### **7.3 Future Research**

In light of the increasing complexity and demands on nonprofit organisations, a holistic examination of market orientation through the lens of stakeholder theory is essential. Existing literature highlights market orientation as a driver of performance and alignment with beneficiary needs, particularly in for-profit settings, but its nuanced application in the nonprofit sector remains underexplored. Nonprofits operate within a unique ecosystem

where multiple stakeholders—beneficiaries, donors, volunteers, and community members—play a pivotal role in shaping strategic objectives. Addressing how market orientation can be adapted to balance and satisfy diverse stakeholder interests is thus critical for advancing both theory and practice. The following recommendations provide actionable insights for future research, focusing on multi-stakeholder perspectives and strategic orientations in nonprofits, emphasising innovation and leadership, and the distinct contexts of museums and other mission-driven institutions.

Firstly, integrating market orientation and stakeholder theory within nonprofit organisations presents several research opportunities. While market orientation has been extensively studied in for-profit sectors, its application in nonprofits, mainly through a stakeholder lens, remains underexplored. Recent studies suggest nonprofits adopting a market orientation can enhance their performance by aligning services with beneficiary needs (Modi & Mishra, 2010). However, the complex stakeholder environment of nonprofits necessitates a broader approach that considers multiple stakeholder interests beyond just beneficiaries. Future research should investigate how nonprofits can balance diverse stakeholder expectations while maintaining a market-oriented approach, potentially leading to frameworks that guide strategic decision-making in these organisations.

The literature indicates a growing trend toward incorporating multi-stakeholder perspectives into market orientation within the nonprofit context. This approach acknowledges that nonprofits serve various stakeholders, including donors, volunteers, beneficiaries, and the broader community. Studies have highlighted the importance of understanding and integrating these diverse perspectives to achieve organisational objectives (Brady et al., 2011). Despite this recognition, empirical research examining the practical implementation of multi-stakeholder market orientation in nonprofits is limited. Future studies could explore methodologies for effectively integrating stakeholder feedback into strategic planning, enhancing organisational responsiveness and accountability.

Applying market orientation and stakeholder theory is particularly pertinent in the museum sector. Museums operate within a unique environment where they must balance educational missions with financial sustainability, often relying on diverse stakeholder

groups such as visitors, donors, government bodies, and the community. Research has shown that museums adopting a market-oriented approach can improve visitor engagement and financial performance (Camarero & Garrido, 2012). However, the challenge lies in aligning market-oriented strategies with the expectations of multiple stakeholders. Further research is needed to develop models that assist museums in integrating stakeholder insights into their market orientation strategies, ensuring that they meet educational goals while achieving financial viability.

Future research should employ mixed-method approaches, combining quantitative analyses with qualitative insights to advance the understanding of market orientation and stakeholder theory in nonprofits. Longitudinal studies could provide valuable data on how nonprofits adapt their strategies in response to changing stakeholder dynamics.

Comparative studies across different nonprofit sectors, including museums, could also identify sector-specific challenges and best practices. By addressing these research gaps, scholars can offer actionable recommendations that enhance the strategic capabilities of nonprofit organisations, enabling them to serve their stakeholders better and fulfil their missions.

Secondly, The role of leadership in driving innovation within nonprofit organisations remains an area with limited exploration, particularly concerning specific leadership styles such as transformational, transactional, and servant leadership. While studies generally affirm that leadership affects innovation, research rarely dissects how distinct leadership approaches directly impact the development and implementation of innovative practices in nonprofits (Damanpour & Schneider, 2009; Gupta et al., 2004). To address this, future research could analyse the effect of specific leadership styles on nonprofit innovation, potentially uncovering distinct pathways through which leaders can foster a more innovative organisational culture (Li et al., 2015). Such insights would be valuable for academic inquiry and practical application, especially as nonprofits increasingly seek innovation to address complex societal issues.

Stakeholder engagement has also been recognised as a driver of innovation within nonprofit organisations, yet the mechanisms by which stakeholders influence innovation remain underexplored. Although research has established that stakeholder involvement can

promote organisational adaptability and learning (Mason et al., 2007; Harrison & Wicks, 2013), there is limited understanding of how specific stakeholder groups—such as donors, beneficiaries, and volunteers—can contribute to co-creating innovative solutions. Future research could focus on designing participatory engagement models that facilitate meaningful stakeholder involvement in innovation, offering actionable strategies to maximise collaborative innovation efforts (McDonald et al., 2021). Such studies would provide practical insights for nonprofit managers leveraging stakeholder resources to pursue innovative outcomes.

Market orientation remains relevant in the nonprofit sector. It has been associated with innovation, though most research examines its impact in isolation, separate from other strategic orientations like learning or entrepreneurial orientations. Studies suggest that a market-oriented approach can drive nonprofits to become more innovative and responsive to beneficiary needs (Hughes et al., 2008). However, future research should explore the combined effect of market orientation with other orientations, examining how these strategic combinations might enhance innovation performance in resource-constrained nonprofit settings (Lumpkin & Dess, 2001; Eggers et al., 2020). Such integrative studies could offer a more comprehensive framework for nonprofit strategic orientation, facilitating a nuanced understanding of how tailored strategic combinations can drive innovation.

In museums, innovation is increasingly recognised as vital to enhancing public engagement and relevance, yet research on innovation specifically within museums is limited. While studies have noted that leadership style and stakeholder engagement can promote museum innovation, empirical research exploring these relationships remains scarce (Bakhshi & Throsby, 2012; Ariño & Cardús, 2021). Future research could focus on how museum leadership styles, in combination with targeted stakeholder engagement strategies, influence the adoption and success of innovative initiatives. This could provide museums with actionable strategies to foster innovation, enhancing their role in education and cultural preservation while adapting to changing audience expectations.

Thirdly, the current literature has examined individual strategic orientations, such as market and entrepreneurial orientations; however, the synergistic effects among multiple

orientations remain underexplored (Wales et al., 2013; Kreiser et al., 2019). Recent studies have highlighted the potential of combining orientations, such as market and technology orientations, to enhance sustainable innovation, though insights remain fragmented (Lumpkin et al., 2015; Sousa-Zomer & Miguel, 2018). Further research into multi-orientation synergies—explicitly focusing on multidimensional performance outcomes and nuanced interactions across diverse organisational contexts—could offer critical insights. Addressing these limitations may yield actionable implications for optimising strategic configurations to respond more effectively to complex market demands (Li et al., 2021).

Another significant gap involves contextual influences on strategic orientation combinations, as performance outcomes often vary based on industry-specific factors, competitive intensity, and market dynamics (Boso et al., 2013; Eggers et al., 2020). While research has explored entrepreneurial and market orientations concerning firm performance, the combined effects across varied industry contexts remain understudied (Saeed et al., 2014). Future studies could benefit from segmented analyses examining whether the performance effects of strategic orientation synergies differ by industry. This approach would clarify contingencies and provide actionable, industry-specific insights for strategic orientation combinations (Morgan et al., 2019).

Additionally, while traditional orientations are well-researched, emerging orientations such as sustainability and digital orientations are less examined, especially regarding integration with established frameworks (Gürlek & Tuna, 2018). With firms increasingly aligning with sustainability goals, understanding how sustainability orientation interacts with conventional strategies could offer a competitive edge. Future research could explore the synergistic potential of these emerging orientations, offering a more comprehensive perspective on achieving competitive advantage in socially responsible and technologically advancing markets (Camarena Gallardo et al., 2020; Covin et al., 2020).

Finally, limited research examines the temporal evolution of strategic orientation combinations, which could reveal insights into their adaptive capabilities over time (Eshima & Anderson, 2017; Zahoor et al., 2022). Much of the current research relies on cross-sectional designs, thus overlooking the dynamic adaptation of orientations. Employing longitudinal studies to capture these dynamics would illuminate the robustness

and flexibility of orientation synergies, which are particularly valuable for firms seeking sustained competitive positioning in volatile markets. Such methodologies could improve the empirical rigour of strategic orientation research and provide actionable insights for maintaining adaptive strategies over time (Miller & Sardais, 2022).

This study advances strategic orientation theory by exploring the synergistic effects of multiple orientations on firm performance, an area that has been largely overlooked in previous literature. However, while our findings contribute to this understanding, they reveal limitations in current frameworks that future research could address by examining strategic orientation synergies over time or across various industry settings. Building on this partial contribution, future studies could test these combinations under different market conditions, extending the theory to account for industry-specific contingencies and dynamic adaptations. Such exploration would refine strategic orientation theory and provide valuable, context-specific insights for practitioners, aligning theoretical development with the needs of a rapidly changing business landscape.

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# Appendix 1



College of Social  
Sciences

31 October 2023

Dear Rizal,

## College of Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee

**Project Title:** Museum's Strategic Orientation and Organizational Performance: The Role of Innovation as Mediating Variable and Transformational Leadership and Stakeholder Engagement as Moderating Variables

**Application Number:** 400220200

The College Research Ethics Committee has reviewed your application and has agreed that there is no objection on ethical grounds to the proposed study. It is happy therefore to approve the project, subject to the following conditions:

- Start date of ethical approval: 31/10/2023
- Project end date: 1/10/2024
- Any outstanding permissions needed from third parties in order to recruit research participants or to access facilities or venues for research purposes must be obtained in writing and submitted to the CoSS Research Ethics Administrator before research commences: [socsci-ethics@glasgow.ac.uk](mailto:socsci-ethics@glasgow.ac.uk)
- The research should be carried out only on the sites, and/or with the groups and using the methods defined in the application.
- The data should be held securely for a period of ten years after the completion of the research project, or for longer if specified by the research funder or sponsor, in accordance with the University's Code of Good Practice in Research: ([https://www.gla.ac.uk/media/media\\_490311\\_en.pdf](https://www.gla.ac.uk/media/media_490311_en.pdf))
- Any proposed changes in the protocol should be submitted for reassessment as an amendment to the original application. The **Request for Amendments to an Approved Application** form should be used: <https://www.gla.ac.uk/colleges/socialsciences/students/ethics/forms/staffandpostgraduateresearchstudents/>

Yours sincerely,

College Ethics Review Committee

**College of Social Sciences Ethics Review Committee**  
University of Glasgow  
[socsci-ethics-lead@glasgow.ac.uk](mailto:socsci-ethics-lead@glasgow.ac.uk)

## Appendix 2



College of Social  
Sciences

### Semi-structured interviews for Study 1: the Qualitative Study

#### Opening:

*Thank you for agreeing to participate in this interview as a part of data collection for the thesis with title “Museum’s Strategic Orientation and Organizational Performance: The Role of Innovation as Mediating Variable and Transformational Leadership and Stakeholder Engagement as Moderating Variables”. As we both know, museum development in Indonesia has been very interesting to study, especially the marketing aspect and organisational issues related to it. Your response and answer to the following questions will help us understand the current situation in Indonesian museums and confirm several phenomena that might be related to the development in museum marketing and management literature.*

#### Consent:

*This interview should take approximately one hour and will be recorded to accompany the notes in the review and analysis process afterwards.*

#### Questions:

##### *A. Introductory questions*

1. *How did you start your involvement in the museum field?*

##### *B. General (opening) questions:*

2. What is your opinion of museum marketing practices in Indonesia generally? *Probing question 1a: What marketing activities is your museum usually doing?*  
*Probing question 1b: How do we do the marketing? Do we satisfy customer needs?*

##### *C. Main Questions:*

#### **Multi-stakeholder Market Orientation**

3. In your opinion, who should be considered a museum stakeholder and why?  
*Probing question 3: Who is the most important stakeholder in your museum?*
4. What contributions are made by these stakeholders?
5. What efforts does the museum make to understand and measure the impact of its stakeholders?

### **Brand Orientation**

6. Do you think the museum you work for has a strong brand?  
*Probing question 6a:* What branding activities do you have in place?  
*Probing question 6b:* How do you define brand or branding?  
*Probing question 6c:* How do you measure your strong brand?
7. What actions are you doing or will do to strengthen your museum's brand?
8. *What do you do to perform branding?*  
*Probing question 8:* What do you do to conduct marketing activities dedicated to branding your museum?
9. *Are there any characteristics of branding activities in the museums compared with the for-profit one*
10. *What do you know about the brand?*  
*Probing question 10a:* What about brand identity?  
*Probing question 10b:* Can you explain how your museum manages its brand?

### **Stakeholder Engagement**

11. What means of communication does your museum use to communicate and or interact with your stakeholders?  
*Probing question 11:* Would you like to provide me with some examples?
12. Do stakeholders involve, participate, and positively respond to the museum's activities?  
*Probing question 12:* Could you provide me with some examples?
13. What benefits do stakeholders get by involving in your museum's activities?
14. Do you consider potential stakeholders important?  
*Probing 14a:* Do you have an opinion about any potential stakeholders that existing museum people do not yet cover that you might think that they were important? *Probing 14b:* How do you maintain communication with them?

### **Innovation**

13. How can you define innovation in museums?  
*Probing 13a:* What factors play a significant role in a museum's being considered innovative?  
*Probing 13b:* Could you give me an example of an innovative museum in Indonesia?  
*Probing 13c:* What makes it innovative?)
14. How important is it for your museum to be innovative?
15. What are the main innovative elements your museum offers visitors?
16. Do you pursue innovation in other areas?

### **Transformational Leadership**

17. How important is the role of leaders (e.g., museum directors) in a museum's success?
18. What are the characteristics of a successful museum leader?
19. What criteria do the museum's employees use to evaluate the leader's success?

**Museum Performance**

20. What key performance indicators do you use for assessing the museum's performance?  
*Probing question 20a:* Do you have any non-financial indicators?  
*Probing question 20b:* Overall, what should be the indicators of the museum's success?)
21. How do you measure the contribution of the museum to society at large?  
*Probing question 21:* How do you measure overall society satisfaction regarding the existence of your museum?
- D. Closing question:*
22. Would you like to add anything else?

Thank you so much for your time. Your willingness to share your experience will benefit museums in Indonesia and other places seeking to improve museum marketing and management practices in today's dynamic and competitive environment.



## Appendix 3



*Dear respondents,*

You have been invited to participate in this research titled “Museum’s Strategic Orientation and Organizational Performance: The Role of Innovation as Mediating Variable and Transformational Leadership and Stakeholder Engagement as Moderating Variables” because you fulfill the defined criteria for this research. The questionnaire is mainly related to the museum's marketing practice to achieve its performance, especially as part of its societal role. Additionally, questions regarding museum innovation practice in your institution will be asked about museum marketing activities and innovation's impact on museum performance. More specifically, the role of museum leaders and how museums maintain relationships with stakeholders will be further explored in the questionnaire.

If you decide to participate in this research, you will be asked to fill out a questionnaire. Your participation is entirely voluntary. If you choose to participate, you can withdraw your participation anytime. If you opt-out immediately after the interview, the research data will be destroyed and no longer be used in the research project. Answering the questionnaire will take approximately 45 minutes. The survey will not collect any personal information from participants. After data is collected, all survey participants’ identifiers (institution name and location) are replaced by a code. The research data will be used only for research purposes and remain secure in electronic form, while access to computer files will be available only by password.

Confidentiality will be respected according to professional guidelines and best practices for research and in line with ethical and legal requirements. The research ensures anonymity and privacy. The survey is using the Qualtrics e-survey platform. All data from the e-survey will comply with the University of Glasgow's data storage policy for research projects. You must agree by pressing the appropriate button to proceed and answer the study’s online questionnaire.

The College Research Ethics Committee of the University of Glasgow has considered and approved the project. Please note that assurances on confidentiality will be strictly adhered to unless evidence of wrongdoing or potential harm is uncovered. In such cases, the University may be obliged to contact relevant statutory bodies/agencies.

Anyone with concerns regarding the project's conduct can contact the researcher Rizal Hari Magnadi, tel.: +447449475499; email: 2506072m@student.gla.ac.uk, or the College of Social Sciences Lead for Ethical Review (socsoci-ethics-lead@glasgow.ac.uk). Thank you so much for your interest in participating in this research.

If you are interested in taking part, please click the button below:

☐

Yes, I agree

Please provide your unique Qualtrics ID: .....

**INTRODUCTION SECTION**

1. *What is the name of the museum where you work? PIPE QUESTIONS/ANSWERS*

2. *Type of museum:*

- ☐ Public museum
- ☐ Private museum
- ☐ Other, please specify: ....

3. *Type of museum collection:*

- ☐ History related museum
- ☐ Arts museum
- ☐ Mixed collection
- ☐ Science museum
- ☐ Archaeological
- ☐ Ethnography
- ☐ Natural history
- ☐ Other, please specify: ....

4. *Collection size:*

- ☐ < 50.000 pcs
- ☐ 50.000 – 100.000 pcs
- ☐ > 100.000 pcs

5. *How long has your museum been established:*

- ☐ < 25 years
- ☐ 25 – 50 years
- ☐ > 50 years

6. *Number of Employees:*

- ☐ < 25 employees
- ☐ 25 – 50 employees
- ☐ > 50 employees

7. A stakeholder is any group or individual who can affect or is affected by the achievement of the organization's objectives (Freeman, 1984). In its daily operation, museums also have diverse internal and external stakeholders, such as employees (internal) and donors (external). Please list all the stakeholders (you can also include the example above) that your museums have based on your experience and observation:

No.	Stakeholder Group
1.	
2.	
3.	
4.	
5.	

## MAIN SECTION

**PART A:** The first set of questions is about Multi-Stakeholder Market Orientation. Please indicate your agreement or disagreement with each of the statements on a scale from 1 ("strongly disagree") to 7 ("strongly agree") by clicking the relevant number.

### A.1 Visitor Orientation

**I believe that ...**

Museum strategy is based on those aspects that our museum feels may create value for the visitor	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The museum's goals are geared towards visitor satisfaction	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Museum management endeavours to keep abreast of changes to assess their impact on visitors' needs	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Seeking to pinpoint visitors' needs and expectations is a constant process for museum management	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strategies aimed at gaining an advantage over other museums when seeking resources are based on an understanding of visitors' needs by museum management	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

### A.2 Donor Orientation

**I believe that ...**

Museum strategy is designed taking into account those aspects that museum management feels may create value for donors of resources	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The museum's goals are geared toward donor satisfaction	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Museum management endeavours to keep abreast of changes to assess their impact on the expectations of those who provide resources	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Seeking to pinpoint donors' needs and expectations is a constant process for museum management	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strategies aimed at gaining an advantage over other museums when obtaining resources are based on an understanding of donors' expectations	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

### A.3 Peer Orientation

I believe that ...

Our museum regularly analyses the strengths and weaknesses of peer museum	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Information related to strategies of other museums is freely shared across this organization	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Top management regularly discusses opportunities to collaborate with peer museums	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Our organization networks and shares resources with peer museums	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Our strategic objectives are achieved through collaborative efforts with other museums	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

### A.4 Employee Orientation

I believe that ...

In this museum, people are rewarded in proportion to the excellence of their job performance	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Our museum has a promotion system here that helps the best person to rise to the top	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Our museum is characterized by a relaxed, easy-going working climate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
There is a lot of warmth in the relationships between management and workers in this museum	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Our museum's management philosophy emphasizes the human factor, how people feel, etc.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

### A.5 Inter-functional Coordination

I believe that ...

Staff in the various departments in this museum work closely together	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The museum is concerned with ensuring that the activities of all the departments are well-coordinated	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
All departments in this museum are involved in drawing up the museum's plans	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

**Part B: The following set of questions is about Brand Orientation.**

*Please indicate your agreement or disagreement with each of the statements on a scale from 1 (= "strongly disagree") to 7 (= "strongly agree") by clicking the buttons*

**In my view, museum management in this museum:**

Invests adequate resources in service improvements that provide better value to museum stakeholders	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Constantly updates information about current and potential stakeholder's needs	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Focuses on creating a positive service experience for museum stakeholders	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Constantly updates information about the current museum field and general market conditions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Has a system in place for getting stakeholders' comments to the people who can instigate change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Designs integrated marketing activities to encourage visitors directly to use museum services	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Designs integrated marketing activities to encourage key stakeholders to promote museum services to society	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Tried to ensure that managers within the organization were aware of all of the marketing activities involved in this museum	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Develops marketing programs that send consistent messages about our brand to our stakeholders	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Creates a brand/sub-brand structure that is well thought out and understood by our staff	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Develops detailed knowledge of what our stakeholders dislike about this museum	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Develops detailed knowledge of what our stakeholders like about this museum	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

**PART C: The following set of questions is about Innovation.**

*Please indicate your agreement or disagreement with each of the statements on a scale from 1 ("strongly disagree") to 7 ("strongly agree") by clicking the button*

**C.1 Social Innovation**

**In the last 3 years,**

The museum is participating in initiatives that aim to enhance the well-being of the wider community	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The museum is participating in initiatives to change public perceptions of all relevant stakeholders or social problem	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The museum is introducing new methods of changing stakeholders' perceptions of specific issues	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The museum is adapting existing services to meet changing needs among stakeholders	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The museum's management has created new administrative departments or job positions to meet changing needs	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The museum is changing the way that staff members interact with stakeholders	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

**C.2 Business Model Innovation**

Museum's visitors have changed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The services offered to museum visitors have changed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The museum's positioning among its stakeholders has changed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The museum's core competencies and resources have changed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The museum's internal value-creation activities have changed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

The roles and involvement of stakeholders in value-creation have change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The way museums give services to the public has changed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Museum revenue mechanisms have changed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Museum cost mechanisms have changed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
In our type of organization, stakeholder's services preferences change quite a bit over time	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
There is a major technological development in our field	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

### **C.3 Technological Innovation**

At the museum, we are deeply committed to adopting new technologies and resources aimed at enhancing management and administration	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
At the museum, we are deeply committed to using new resources and technologies to assist the visiting public	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
In general, we have incorporated numerous technical innovations at the museum in recent years	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
We are one of the leading museums in the use of technological resources	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
We cooperate with other institutions or firms to improve the technology and innovations implemented at this museum	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

### **C.4 Organizational Innovation**

In general, in recent years, significant changes have been introduced to the museum's organizational structure	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The museum team has a background and training in company management	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The museum management strives to take on staff from a range of training backgrounds	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

**PART D: The following set of questions is about the Transformational Leadership Style.**

*Please indicate your agreement or disagreement with each of the statements on a scale from 1 ("strongly disagree") to 7 ("strongly agree") by clicking the button*

### **I believe that as a museum leader ...**

I tried to make museum employees enthusiastic about assignments	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I have complete faith in all museum employees	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I encourage museum employees to express their ideas and opinions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I tried to become an inspiration to museum employees	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

I tried to give inspiration about loyalty from the employees to the leader	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I tried to give inspiration about loyalty to the organization	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My ideas have forced museum employees to rethink some of their ideas, which they might never have questioned before	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I enable museum employees to think about old problems in new ways	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I provide museum employees with new ways of looking at things, which sometimes might seem to be a puzzle for museum employees	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I give personal attention to museum employees who seem neglected	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I find out what museum employees want and try to help them get it	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Museum employees can count on me to give an appreciation when museum employees do a good job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

**PART E: The following set of questions is about Stakeholder Engagement.**

Please indicate your agreement or disagreement with each of the statements on a scale from 1 (= "strongly disagree") to 7 (= "strongly agree") by clicking the button

**In my view...**

The diversity of the museum's stakeholders (e.g., visitors, donors, peers, employees, etc.) contributes to shaping the museum's strategic direction	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The diversity of the museum's stakeholders (e.g., visitors, donors, peers, employees, etc.) contributes to enhanced fundraising efforts	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The diversity of the museum's stakeholders (e.g., visitors, donors, peers, employees, etc.) contributes to the way museum management maintains its relationships with each stakeholder groups	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

**PART F: The following set of questions is about Museum Performance.**

Please indicate your agreement or disagreement with each of the statements on a scale from 1 (= "strongly disagree") to 7 (= "strongly agree") by clicking the chosen answer button

**In the last 3 years,**

The museum's earning level has risen	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Jobs have been created with the existence of museums	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Visitor numbers have risen	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The museum has fulfilled its economic objectives perfectly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The museum has fulfilled objectives in terms of the conservation or improvement of collections held	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

The museum has contributed to an increased understanding of pieces on show among the community	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The museum contributes to raising visitors' interest (after a visit, they want to find out more)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The museum has become a cultural reference point in the area	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

### PART G: Personal/Professional Details

**Gender:**

Male ☐

Female ☐

**Work experience in the museum field:**

< 5 years ☐

5-10 years ☐

>10 years ☐

**What age group do you belong to?**

18-24 ☐

25-35 ☐

36-45 ☐

46-55 ☐

55+ ☐

**What is your highest-held qualification?**

- ☐ School leaving certificate
- ☐ Degree, or degree level equivalent
- ☐ Higher degree and postgraduate qualifications
- ☐ Other qualification. Please specify: .....

**Thank you very much for your participation**



## Appendix 4

### Market Orientation Studies (2007-2024)

No.	Study	Journals	Context	MO Conceptualisation	Research Method	Theoretical lenses
1	Argouslidis and Baltas (2007)	Journal of Academy of Marketing Science	UK; services: financial institutions	Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative: Least squares; hierarchical regression	Services marketing
2	Baker and Sinkula (2007)	Journal Product Innovation Management	Northern America; Manufacturing	Kohli, Jaworski, and Kumar (1993)	Quantitative: structural equation modelling	Organizational learning, innovation
3	Beverland and Lindgreen (2007)	Industrial Marketing Management	Oceania: Australia, Comodity	Narver and Slater (1990)	Qualitative: Multiple case study	Organisational change
4	Connor (2007)	Strategic Management Journal	-	Slater and Narver (1990), Kohli and Jaworski (1990)	Conceptual paper	Resource-based view
5	De Madariaga and Valor (2007)	Journal of Business Ethics	Europe: Spain	Kohli and Jaworski (1990)	Qualitative: Case	Stakeholder theory; Relationship marketing

No.	Study	Journals	Context	MO Conceptualisation	Research Method	Theoretical lenses
6	Dennis and Macaulay (2007)	European Journal of Marketing	-	Market orientation: Slater and Narver (1995)	Conceptual paper	Marketing planning
7	Dwairi et al (2007)	European Journal of Marketing	Middle East Jordan; Banking industry	Kohli and Jaworski (1990)	Quantitative: Multiple regression	Emerging country; International bussiness
8	Elg (2007)	European Journal of Marketing	Sweden, the UK, and Italy; Retail	MO based on Kohli and Jaworski (1990)	Qualitative	Distribution management
9	Haugland et al (2007)	Journal of Business Research	Europe: Norwegia; Services: hotel industry	Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative: Data Envelopment Analysis	Service marketing
11	Jiménez-Jiménez and Cegarra-Navarro (2007)	Industrial Marketing Management	Europe: Spain, Multi-industries;	Kohli and Jaworski (1990)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Resource-based view of the firm; Organizational learning
12	Ketchen et al (2007)	Strategic Management Journal	Industry focus: automotive, technology, pharmaceutical	Slater and Narver (1999), Atuahene-Gima et al (2005)	Conceptual paper	Resources-based view

<b>No.</b>	<b>Study</b>	<b>Journals</b>	<b>Context</b>	<b>MO Conceptualisation</b>	<b>Research Method</b>	<b>Theoretical lenses</b>
13	Leskovar-Spacapan and Bastic (2007)	Technovation	Slovenia; Manufacturing	Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative: ANOVA	Organisational capability; innovation
14	Menguc et al (2007)	Journal of Bussiness Research	Multi-industries; Canada and South Korea	Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative	Resource-based view; Transformational leadership
15	Min et al (2007)	Journal of Academy Marketing Science	North America; Multi-industries	Matsuno and Mentzer (2000)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Supply chain management
16	O'Cass and Ngo (2007) a	European Journal of Marketing	Australia (Oceania); Multi-industries	Jaworski and Kohli (1993)	Quantitative: structural equation modelling	Organisational culture; Brand management
17	O'Cass and Ngo (2007) b	Journal of Business Research	Multi-industries in Australia;	Kohli and Jaworski (1990)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Industrial Organization; Resource-based View
18	Paladino (2007)	Journal of Product Innovation Management	Oceania: Australia; Multi-industries	Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative: structural equation modelling	Resource-based view; Organizational learning

<b>No.</b>	<b>Study</b>	<b>Journals</b>	<b>Context</b>	<b>MO Conceptualisation</b>	<b>Research Method</b>	<b>Theoretical lenses</b>
19	Quintana-Deniz et al (2007)	International Journal of Hospitality Management	Canary Islands, Spain; Services: Hotel industry	Kohli and Jaworski	Quantitative: ANOVA analysis	Human resource management; Market information Process
20	Racela et al (2007)	International Marketing Review	Asia: Thailand, Multi-industries	Kohli and Jaworski (1990)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	International business; Cross-cultural business
21	Schlosser and McNaughton (2007)	Journal of Business Research	North America: Canada; Financial services	Kohli and Jaworski (1990);	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modeling	Organisational learning; Service marketing
22	Song et al (2007)	Journal of Academy of Marketing Science	USA; Multi-industries	Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative: MANOVA	Resource-Based View; The Miles-Snow (M-S) strategic typology
23	Tokarczyk et al. (2007)	Family Business Review	Northern America: USA; food and forest industry	Kohli and Jaworski (1990), Narver and Slater (1990)	Qualitative: Case study	Resource-based view
24	Webb and Lambe (2007)	Industrial Marketing Management	Northern America: USA; B2B	Conduit & Mavondo (2001); Lings (2004)	Qualitative: Multiple case study	Internal market orientation; Channel conflict

No.	Study	Journals	Context	MO Conceptualisation	Research Method	Theoretical lenses
25	Wong and Ellis (2007)	Journal of World Marketing	Asia, Manufacturing	Market orientation: Kohli and Jaworski (1990)	Quantitative: ANOVA	product life cycle
26	Antiooco et al (2008)	Journal of Academy of Marketing Science	Northern America; Manufacturing	Market orientation: Maltz and Kohli (1996), Griffin and Hauser (1996)	Quantitative: Partial Least Square	Relationship marketing
27	Armario et al (2008)	Journal of Small Business Management	Europe: Spain; Multi-industries	Kohli and Jaworski (1990), Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	International business
28	Cadogan et al. (2008)	Journal of Business Research	Oceania: New Zealand; Manufacturing	Kohli and Jaworski (1990)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Behavioral market orientation
29	Ellinger et al (2008)	Industrial Marketing Management	Northern America: USA; Services: logistics service provider firms	Deshpande et al. (1993)	Quantitative: hierarchical multiple regression equations	Resource-based view; human resources
30	Ghauri et al (2008)	International Marketing Review	Europe; Manufacturing and Services	Jaworski and Kohli (1993)	Qualitative: Case study	International business

<b>No.</b>	<b>Study</b>	<b>Journals</b>	<b>Context</b>	<b>MO Conceptualisation</b>	<b>Research Method</b>	<b>Theoretical lenses</b>
31	Grinstein (2008) a	European Journal of Marketing	-	Narver and Slater (1990), Kohli and Jaworski (1990)	Literature review: meta-analysis	Strategic orientation
32	Grinstein (2008) b	Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science	Competitive market, technology, company size, service, national cultures	Narver and Slater (1990)	Literature review: meta-analysis	Innovation; International business; cross-culture study
33	Hsieh et al (2008) a	Industrial Marketing Management	Asia: Taiwan; Manufacturing	Narver And Slater (1990)	Quantitative: regression	Relationship marketing
34	Hsieh et al (2008) b	Industrial Marketing Management	Asia; Taiwan; Manufacturing	Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative: hierarchical regression analysis	Product management
35	Hughes et al (2008)	European Journal of Marketing	UK; multi-industries	Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Organisational learning, market capabilities
36	Im et al (2008)	Journal of Business Research	Northern America: USA; Manufacturing	Narver And Slater (1990)	Quantitative: regression	Creativity

No.	Study	Journals	Context	MO Conceptualisation	Research Method	Theoretical lenses
37	Laforet (2008)	Journal of Business Research	UK; SME Manufacturer; company size	Narver And Slater (1990)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Innovation
38	Lee et al (2008)	Industrial Marketing Management	Asia; Manufacturing and Services	Narver And Slater (1990)	Quantitative: Partial Least Square	Brand management
39	Li et al (2008) a	Journal of Small Business Management	Asia: Chinese; SME	Kumar, Subramaniam, and Yauger (1998), Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Entrepreneurship
40	Menguc and Auh (2008) a	Industrial Marketing Management	Oceania: Australia; Manufacturing	Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Resource-based view, strategy typology; ambidexterity
41	Menguc and Auh (2008) b	International Journal of Research in Marketing	Oceania: Australia; Manufacturer	Narver And Slater (1990)	Quantitative: hierarchical regression	Transformational leadership; Conflict management
42	Merlo et al (2008)	Marketing Theory	-	Atuahene-Gima et al. (2005); Jaworski et al., (2000); Kumar (1997); Kumar et al. (2000); Narver	Conceptual paper	Problem solving

No.	Study	Journals	Context	MO Conceptualisation	Research Method	Theoretical lenses
				et al. (2004); Slater and Narver (1999)		
43	Morgan and Berthon (2008)	Journal of Management Studies	UK: Bioscience firms in	Kohli and Jaworski (1990)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Organisational learning, innovation
44	Nasution and Mavondo (2008)	European Journal of Marketing	Asia: Indonesia; Services: hotel	Narver et al. (2004)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Organisational culture, human resource management
45	Nwokah (2008)	European Journal of Marketing	Africa: Nigeria; Food and Drink	Narver And Slater (1990)	Conceptual paper	Developing countries context
46	Olavarrieta and Friedmann (2008)	Journal of Business Research	Southern America: Chile;	Narver And Slater (1990)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Knowledge-based; Dynamic capabilities
47	Paladino (2008)	Journal of Product Innovation Management	Oceania: Australia; Manufacturing	Narver And Slater (1990)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Organisational learning, Resource-based view



<b>No.</b>	<b>Study</b>	<b>Journals</b>	<b>Context</b>	<b>MO Conceptualisation</b>	<b>Research Method</b>	<b>Theoretical lenses</b>
48	Qiu (2008)	European Journal of Marketing	Northern America: USA; various industry	Market orientation: Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Entrepreneurship, market driving, market driven
49	Ruokonen et al (2008)	European Journal of Marketing	Small software firms	Narver and Slater (1990)	Mixed methods: Qualitative and Quantitative	International business
50	Schindehutte et al (2008)	Journal of Small Business Management	North America: USA; various industry	Market-driving Proactive market-driven Entrepreneurship	Qualitative: Case study	Entrepreneurship
51	Taylor et al (2008)	Industrial Marketing Management	Asia: Korea; Manufacturer	Kohli and Jaworski (1990), Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	International business, sales management
52	Tsai et al (2008)	Industrial Marketing Management	Asia: Taiwan; Manufacturer	Narver et al (2004)	Quantitative: OLS-based hierarchical regression	Responsive and Proactive Market Orientation
53	Van Raaij and Stoelhorst (2008)	European Journal of Marketing	-	Kohli and Jaworski (1990), Narver and Slater (1990)	Systematic Literature Review	Performance management

No.	Study	Journals	Context	MO Conceptualisation	Research Method	Theoretical lenses
54	Zhou et al (2008)	Strategic Management Journal	Asia: China; Manufacturer	Kohli and Jaworski (1990), Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative : Multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA)	Resource-based view; Human resource management, Emerging country
55	Augusto and Coelho (2009)	Industrial Marketing Management	Europe: Portugal; SME, various industry	Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative: hierarchical multiple regression	Innovation, competitive advantage
56	Auh and Menguc (2009)	Industrial Marketing Management	Oceania: Australia; manufacturing	Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative: moderated regression	Resource-based view, transformational leadership, institutional theory
57	Baker and Sinkula (2009)	Journal of Small Business Management	Northern America: USA; SME: manufacturing	Deshpande and Farley (1998)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Entrepreneurship, innovation
58	Borges et al. (2009)	Journal Business Research	Southern America: Brazil; Information Technology	Kohli and jaworski (1990), Matsuno and Mentzer (2000)	Qualitative: Multiple Case Studies	Technology acceptance, organizational system
59	Eng and Quaia (2009)	Industrial Marketing Management	-	Kohli and Jaworski (1990)	Conceptual paper	Product management, innovation, organisational learning

No.	Study	Journals	Context	MO Conceptualisation	Research Method	Theoretical lenses
60	Foley and Fahy (2009)	European Journal of Marketing	Europe: Ireland;	Kohli and Jaworski (1990), Narver and Slater (1990)	Conceptual paper	Resource-based view, market capability
61	Gonzalez-Benito et al. (2009)	European Journal of Marketing	Europe: Spain;	Kohli and Jaworski (1990)	Quantitative: regression	Entrepreneurship
62	Heusinkaveld et al. (2009)	Technovation	Europe: Netherland; service consultant	Kohli and Jaworski (1990)	Qualitative: case study	Services development management; organisational capabilities
63	Kirca and Hult (2009)	International Marketing Review	Northern America: USA;	Kohli and Jaworski (1990)	Qualitative	Cross-culture study, organisational study
64	Kirca et al (2009)	International Business Research	Schwartz's cultural value dimensions	Kohli and Jaworski (1990)	Conceptual Paper	International business, Cross-culture study
65	Kok and Biemans (2009)	Technovation	Europe: Netherlands; manufacturing	Kohli et al. (1993) and Narver and Slater (1990)	Qualitative: Multiple case study	Innovation, new product management, organizational change
66	Laforet (2009)	European Journal of Marketing	UK; SME: manufacturing	Narver and Slater (1990); Ruekert (1992)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Innovation; Organisational studies; Strategic orientation

No.	Study	Journals	Context	MO Conceptualisation	Research Method	Theoretical lenses
67	Lai et al. (2009)	Industrial Marketing Management	Asia: Taiwan; Manufacturing	Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative: regression analysis	Relationship marketing
68	Ledwith and O'Dwyer (2009)	Journal of Product Innovation Management	Europe: Ireland; SME	Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	New product development
69	Martin et al. (2009)	Journal of Small Business Management	Northern America: USA; SME: Manufacturing	Kohli et al. (1993)	Quantitative: In-depth interview	Leadership
70	Mohr and Sarin (2009)	Journal of Academy of Marketing Science	-	Narver and Slater (1990)	Conceptual paper	Innovation
71	Morgan et al. (2009)	Strategic Management Journal	Northern America: USA; Various industry	Kohli and Jaworski (1990)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Resource-based theory; Dynamic capabilities
72	Ordanini and Maglio (2009)	Decision Sciences	Europe: Italy; Services: Hotel	Atuahene-Gima et al. (2005); Deshpande and Farley	Quantitative: Qualitative Comparative Analysis	New service development; Service-dominant logic

No.	Study	Journals	Context	MO Conceptualisation	Research Method	Theoretical lenses
				(1998); Narver, Slater, and MacLachlan (2000)		
73	O'Sullivan and Butler (2009)	European Journal of Marketing	Europe: Ireland; Various industry	Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Enterprise policy
74	Ozen and Kusku (2009)	Journal of Business Ethics	-	-	Conceptual paper	New institutional theory
75	Paladino (2009)	Journal of Product Innovation Management	Oceania: Australia; Manufacturing	Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative: analysis of variance (ANOVA)	Strategic orientation
76	Paswan et al (2009)	Decision Sciences	-	Kohli & Jaworski (1990); Slater & Narver (1998)	Conceptual paper	Service innovation; Service-Dominant Logic
76	Piercy et al. (2009)	Industrial Marketing Management	UK; Manufacturing	Deshpandé and Farley (1998)	Quantitative: Path Analysis	Sales management
77	Radas and Bozic (2009)	Technovation	Europe: Croatia; SME: various industry	Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Innovation

<b>No.</b>	<b>Study</b>	<b>Journals</b>	<b>Context</b>	<b>MO Conceptualisation</b>	<b>Research Method</b>	<b>Theoretical lenses</b>
78	Renko et al. (2009)	Journal of Small Business Management	USA and Scandinavia; Manufacturing	Jaworski and Kohli (1993)	Quantitative: Multiple linear regression analysis	Innovation, entrepreneurship; strategic orientation
79	Silva et al (2009)	European Journal of Marketing	Europe: Portuguese; Manufacturing	Kohli et al. (1993)	Quantitative: neural network analysis	Marketing intelligence
80	Song et al. (2009)	International Journal of Research in Marketing	Asia: China; Manufacturing	Jaworski and Kohli (1993)	Quantitative: regression	Product management, Marketing strategy
81	Song et al (2009) b	Journal of Academy of Marketing Science	Northern America: USA; Manufacturing	Jaworski and Kohli (1993), Kohli et al. (1993)	Quantitative: ordinary least squares regression	Innovation, marketing strategy
82	Sorensen (2009)	European Journal of Marketing	Europe: Denmark' SME: Manufacturing	Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Market orientation
83	Tortosa et al (2009)	European Journal of Marketing	Europe: Spain; Services: local credit institution	Lings and Greenley (2005)	Quantitative: partial least squares (PLS)	Internal marketing; Stakeholder theory

<b>No.</b>	<b>Study</b>	<b>Journals</b>	<b>Context</b>	<b>MO Conceptualisation</b>	<b>Research Method</b>	<b>Theoretical lenses</b>
84	Tyler and Gnyawali (2009)	Journal of Management Studies	Northern America: USA; Manufacturer	Narver and Slater (1990)	Qualitative: Multi-method case study	Organisational culture
85	Verhoof and Leeftang (2009)	Journal of Marketing	Europe: Holland; various industry	Deshpande and Farley (1997)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Marketing capabilities
86	Wei and Atuahene-Gima (2009)	International Journal of Research in Marketing	Asia: China; manufacturing	Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative: Moderated regression analysis	New product performance, human resource management, innovation
87	Zhou et al (2009)	Journal of Business Research	Multi-countries and continents; Services: hotel	Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Competitive advantage
88	Altinai (2010)	International Journal of Hospitality Management	UK; hospitality firms	Kohli and Jaworski (1990)	Qualitative: in-depth interview	Cross-cultural studies
89	Chatzipanagiotou and Coritos (2010)	European Journal of Marketing	Europe: Greek; services: upscale hotel	Narver and Slater, (1990)	Quantitative: Cluster analysis	Marketing information system

<b>No.</b>	<b>Study</b>	<b>Journals</b>	<b>Context</b>	<b>MO Conceptualisation</b>	<b>Research Method</b>	<b>Theoretical lenses</b>
90	Davis and Golicic (2010)	Journal of Small Business Management	Northern America: USA: Logistics services industry	Kohli and Jaworski (1990)	Quantitative: partial least squares	Resource-Advantage Theory; comparative advantage
91	Davis et al (2010)	Journal of Small Business Management	Northern America: USA; SME: service business	(Kohli and Jaworski, 1990)	Quantitative: multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA)	Gender-based Leadership
92	De Luca et al (2010)	Journal of Product Innovation Management	Europe: Italy; High technology firm	Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative: Hierarchycal regression modelling	Innovation; Knowledge-based view
93	Goldman and Grinstein (2010)	European Journal of Marketing	--	Kohli and Jaworski (1990) and Narver and Slater (1990)	Literature Review	Market Orientation
94	Gounaris et al (2010)	European Journal of Marketing	Europe: Greece; B2B: financial services	Gounaris (2006), Jaworski and Kohli (1993)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling; ANOVA	Internal marketing, Services marketing, Customer value
95	Ingenbleek et al (2010)	Journal of Product	Europe: Netherlands;	Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative: Structural	Value-informed pricing



No.	Study	Journals	Context	MO Conceptualisation	Research Method	Theoretical lenses
		Innovation Management	Manufacturing and Services		Equation Modelling	
96	Jaakkola et al (2010)	Industrial Marketing Management	Europe: Austria, Finland, Germany; Manufacturing	Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Resources-based view; innovation, marketing capabilities
97	Jaw et al (2010)	Technovation	Asia: Taiwan; Services	Narver and Slater (1990)	Mixed methods: in-depth interviews, survey research	Service marketing, innovation, new service development
98	Korhonen-Sande (2010)	Industrial Marketing Management	Europe: Finland; Manufacturing	Kohli and Jaworski (1990)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Information processing
99	Kwon (2010)	International Marketing Review	Asia: China and India; Multi national enterprise	Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Competitive advantage, relationship marketing
100	Lam et al (2010)	Journal of Marketing	Northern America: USA; manufacturer	Voss and Voss (2000)	Quantitative	Social learning theory
101	Li et al (2010) a	Decision Sciences	Asia: China; Manufacturing	Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative: Structural	Strategic orientation

No.	Study	Journals	Context	MO Conceptualisation	Research Method	Theoretical lenses
					Equation Modelling	
102	Li and Zhou (2010)	Journal of Business Research	Asia: China; Manufacturing	Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Competitive advantage
103	Li et al (2010) b	Journal of Management Studies	Asia: China; Vendor/supplier	Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative: Regression	Strategic orientation, Entrepreneurship, organisational learning
104	Naidoo (2010)	Industrial Marketing Management	Asia: China; Manufacturing, SME	Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Competitive advantage, innovation
105	Rhee et al (2010)	Technovation	Asia: South Korea; SMEs: various industry	Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Entrepreneurship, learning organisation, innovation
106	Voola and O'Cass (2010)	European Journal of Marketing	Oceania: Australia; various industry	Deshpande et al. (1993); Narver et al.'s (2004)	Quantitative: partial least squares	Resource-based view, competitive strategy
107	Wagner (2010)	Industrial Marketing Management	Europe: Switzerland; Manufacturing	Kohli & Jaworski, (1990) and Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative: Structural	New product development, relationship marketing

No.	Study	Journals	Context	MO Conceptualisation	Research Method	Theoretical lenses
					Equation Modelling	
108	Beck et al (2011)	Family Business Review	Europe; Multi-industries	Narver et al (2004)	Quantitative: regression analysis	Innovation, family business management
109	Blocker et al. (2011)	Journal of Academy of Marketing Science	Multi-countries; Services	Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modeling	Customer value
110	Brik et al. (2011)	Journal of Business Ethics	Middle East: Uni Emirat Arab; Various industry	Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative: Hierarchical regression analysis	Resource-based view; corporate social responsibility
111	Chu et al. (2011)	European Journal of Marketing	Asia: Taiwan; Manufacturing	Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative: regression	New product development; organisational learning
112	Chung (2011)	Industrial Marketing Management	Asia: Taiwan; Various industry	Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative: Multiple moderate regression	Guanxi, cross-cultural study
113	Crittenden et al (2011)	Journal of Academy of Marketing Science	-	Deshpande et al (1993), Homburg and Pflesser (2000), Matsuno and Mentzer (2000)	Conceptual Paper	Competitive advantage; Resource-Advantage Theory

<b>No.</b>	<b>Study</b>	<b>Journals</b>	<b>Context</b>	<b>MO Conceptualisation</b>	<b>Research Method</b>	<b>Theoretical lenses</b>
114	Day (2011)	Journal of Marketing	-	Kohli and Jaworski (1990)	Conceptual paper	Marketing capabilities, strategic marketing; leadership
115	Dibrell et al (2011) a	Journal of Small Business Management	Northern America, USA; Manufacturing	Narver and Slater (1990) and Lukas and Ferrell (2000)	Quantitative: Moderated regression analysis	Corporate social responsibility, innovation,
116	Dibrell et al. (2011) b	Journal of Business Research	Northern America, USA; Manufacturing	Narver and Slater (1990) and Lukas and Ferrell (2000)	Quantitative: hierarchical moderated regression analysis	Innovation
117	Gaur et al (2011)	European Journal of Marketing	Asia: India; SME: Manufacturing	Narver and Slater's (1990)	Quantitative: Hierarchical regression analysis	Market orientation
118	Grinstein and Goldman (2011)	European Journal of Marketing	Middle East: Israel; Various industry	Deshpande et al., (1993;) Kohli and Jaworski (1990)	Quantitative: OLS hierarchical regression analysis	Stakeholder theory

No.	Study	Journals	Context	MO Conceptualisation	Research Method	Theoretical lenses
119	He and Wei (2011)	International Business Review	Asia: China ; Manufacturing	Beck eCadogan et al (2001)	Quantitative: hierarchical binary logistic regression	Resource-based view
120	Hult (2011)	Journal of Academy of Marketing Science	-	Ferrell et al. (2010); Ketchen et al. (2007)	Conceptual paper	Stakeholder theory; corporate social responsibility
121	Jime'nez-Zarco et al (2011)	European Journal of Marketing	Europe: Spain; services	Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative: ANOVA	Innovation
121	Ju et al (2011)	Journal of World Business	Asia: China; Export company	Kohli and Jaworski (1990)	Quantitative: hierarchical moderated multiple regressions	Monitoring mechanism
122	Kirca (2011)	Journal of World Business	Multi National Company (MNC) in Turkey;	Kohli & Jaworski (1990), Homburg & Pflesser (2000)	Quantitative: Hierarchical regression analysis; Partial least square	Global marketing

No.	Study	Journals	Context	MO Conceptualisation	Research Method	Theoretical lenses
123	Kirca et al. (2011)	Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science	Multi-countries; Manufacturing	Homburg and Pflesser (2000) and Jaworski and Kohli (1993)	Quantitative: Hierarchical regression analysis	Global marketing, institutional theory
124	Kumar et al. (2011)	Journal of Marketing	Variable annuity product; Financial service companies in USA	Jaworski and Kohli (1993)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Relationship marketing, competitive advantage
125	Liao et al. (2011)	Industrial Marketing Management	-	Jaworski, B. J., & Kohli, A. K. (1993), Narver, J. C., & Slater, S. F. (1990)	Literature review	Innovation, learning organisation
126	Liu et al. (2011)	Journal of World Business	Asia: China; various industry	Kumar et al. (1998)	Quantitative: regression	Strategic orientation, entrepreneurship, international business
127	Merrilees et al. (2011)	Industrial Marketing Management	Oceania: Australia; SME: B2B	Farrelly and Quester (2003)	Quantitative: structural equation modelling	Marketing capabilities, resource-based view, branding, innovation
128	Mu and Di Benedetto (2011)	R and D Management	Asia: China; Manufacturing	Slater and Narver (1998), Narver and Slater (1990), Day (1994)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Strategic orientations, organizational learning

<b>No.</b>	<b>Study</b>	<b>Journals</b>	<b>Context</b>	<b>MO Conceptualisation</b>	<b>Research Method</b>	<b>Theoretical lenses</b>
129	Murray et al. (2011)	Journal of Academy of Marketing Science	Asia: China; Export venture	Cadogan et al. (1999); Cadogan et al. (2002)	Quantitative: Hierarchical moderated regression	Marketing capabilities, competitive advantage
130	Nasution et al. (2011)	Industrial Marketing Management	Asia: Indonesia; Services: hotel	Nasution and Mavondo (2008), Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Entrepreneurship, strategic orientation, innovation
131	Nath and Mahajan (2011)	Journal of Marketing	Northern America: USA	Kohli and Jaworski (1990), Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative: generalized estimating equation	Leadership, Top Management Team (TMT)
132	O'Cass and Ngo (2011)	Industrial Marketing Management	Oceania: Australia and Asia: Vietnam; Service firms	Jaworski and Kohli (1993) and Matsuno et al. (2002)	Quantitative: Partial Least Square	Strategic orientation; Firm capabilities
133	Polo Peña and Frías Jamilena (2011)	Journal of Small Business Management	Europe: Spain; Services: Rural tourism	Kohli et al. (1993)	Mixed: Qualitative and Quantitative	Services marketing
134	Raju et al (2011)	Journal of Business Research	SME	Kohli and Jaworski (1990); Narver and Slater (1990)	Conceptual Paper	SME management

No.	Study	Journals	Context	MO Conceptualisation	Research Method	Theoretical lenses
135	Rodriguez-Pinto et al. (2011)	International Journal of Research in Marketing	Europe: Spain; Manufacturing	Matsuno et al. (2000)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	New product management, innovation, product quality
136	Sheth (2011)	Journal of Marketing	-	Kohli and Jaworski (1990), Narver and Slater (1990)	Conceptual paper	International business
137	Smirnova et al (2011)	Industrial Marketing Management	Europe: Russia; Manufacturing	Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Relationship marketing
138	Spanjol et al (2011)	Journal of Product Innovation Management	Northern America: USA; Various industry	Atuahene-Gima et al. (2005), Jaworski and Kohli (1993)	Quantitative: Partial Least Squares	Strategic orientation
139	Stadler (2011)	Journal of Product Innovation	Multi-countries; Oil industry	Rothwell (1994), O'Connor (1998), and Stadler (2004)	Qualitative: Multiple case study	Knowledge-based view, Organisational capabilities
140	Terawatanavong et al (2011)	Journal of Business Research	Oceania: Australia; importer	Baker et al. (1999)	Quantitative: hierarchical multiple regression analysis	Relationship marketing



<b>No.</b>	<b>Study</b>	<b>Journals</b>	<b>Context</b>	<b>MO Conceptualisation</b>	<b>Research Method</b>	<b>Theoretical lenses</b>
141	Trainor et al (2011)	Industrial Marketing Management	Europe: Belgia; Multi-industries	Day (1994); Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative: Partial Least Square	Strategic orientation; Marketing capabilities
142	Webb et al (2011)	Journal of Academy of Marketing Science	-	Market orientation: Narver and Slater (1990) and Kohli and Jaworski (1990)	Conceptual Paper	Entrepreneurship, institutional theory
143	Wood et al (2011)	Journal of Small Business Management	Asia, Africa, Northern America; Manufacturing	Kohli and Jaworski (1990); Slater and Narver (1994); Slater, Olson, and Hult 2006	Quantitative: hierarchical regression	Institutional theory, international business
144	Wu (2011)	Journal of Business Research	Asia; Manufacturing: High tech firm	Jaworski and Kohli (1993)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Global marketing
145	Zachary et al (2011) a	Family Business Review	Northern America: USA; Multi-industries	Narver and Slater (1990)	Qualitative: content analysis	Family business management
146	Zachary et al (2011) b	Journal of the Academy of	Northern America: USA; Multi-industries	Greenley (1995), Zachary et al (2011)	Qualitative: Content analysis	Strategic orientation; Leadership

No.	Study	Journals	Context	MO Conceptualisation	Research Method	Theoretical lenses
		Marketing Science				
147	Auh and Merlo (2012)	Industrial Marketing Management	Oceania; Manufacturing	Kohli and Jaworski (1990) and Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative	Marketing department power
148	Bartl et al (2012)	Journal of Product Innovation Management	Europe: German; consumer goods and services	Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative: multiple regression analysis	The theory of planned behavior (TPB)
149	Boso et al (2012)	International Business Review	UK; Manufacturing	Cadogan (2002) ; Cadogan et al (2002, 2009)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Strategic orientation
150	Cadogan et al (2012)	European Journal of Marketing	Europe: Finland; Manufacturing	Cadogan et al (1999)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	International business, export market orientation
151	Calantone and Di Benedetto (2012)	Journal of Academy of Marketing Science	Northern America: USA; Various industry	Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative: path analysis	Organisational learning, ambidexterity

<b>No.</b>	<b>Study</b>	<b>Journals</b>	<b>Context</b>	<b>MO Conceptualisation</b>	<b>Research Method</b>	<b>Theoretical lenses</b>
152	Chung (2012)	International Marketing Review	Oceania: New Zealand; Manufacturing	Cadogan et al. (1999), Racela et al (2007), Kohli and Jaworski (1990)	Quantitative: hierarchical regression analysis	International marketing
153	Dimitratos et al (2012)	International Business Review	UK and USA; Multi-industries	Narver and Slater (1990), Murray et al (2007)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Entrepreneurship
154	Elg et al. (2012)	Industrial Marketing Management	Europe: Russia and Poland; IKEA corporate supplier	Jaworski and Kohli (1993)	Qualitative: case study	Relationship marketing. Market driving strategy
155	Gylling et al (2012)	European Journal of Marketing	Europe: Finland; Services	Market orientation: Kohli and Jaworski (1990)	Qualitative: case study	Organisational capabilities, strategic flexibility
156	Johnson et al (2012)	Industrial Marketing Orientation	Northern America: USA; Multi-industries	Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative: latent class regression analysis	Strategic orientation
157	Kawakami et al. (2012)	Journal of Product Innovation Management	China, Japan, and the United States; new venture	Jaworski and Kohli (1993)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Learning organisation, organisational studies

<b>No.</b>	<b>Study</b>	<b>Journals</b>	<b>Context</b>	<b>MO Conceptualisation</b>	<b>Research Method</b>	<b>Theoretical lenses</b>
158	Ngo and O'Cass (2012)	Journal of Product Innovation Management	Oceania: Australia; Manufacturing and services;	Jaworski and Kohli (1993) and Matsuno and Mentzer (2000).	Quantitative: Partial Least Square	Resources-based view and organisational capability
159	O'Cass and Ngo (2012)	Industrial Marketing Management	Oceania: Australia B2B firms	Kohli and Jaworski (1990)	Quantitative: Partial Least Square	Innovation, competitive advantage, organisational capabilities
160	Polo Pena et al (2012)	International Journal of Hospitality Management	Europe; Services	Martín-Armario et al. (2008); Kohli and Jaworski (1990)	Mixed Method	Organisational behavior
161	Rajala et al (2012)	European Journal of Marketing	Manufacturing	Javalgi et al. (2005), Narver and Slater (1990)	Qualitative: case study	Resource-based view, innovation, business model innovation
162	Rapp et al (2012)	Journal of Business Research	Europe: Belgium; various industry	Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Sales management
163	Reijonen et al (2012)	Journal of Small Business Management	Europe: Finlandia; SME	Narver and Slater (1990), Gray et al. (1998)	Quantitative: ANOVA	Brand management

<b>No.</b>	<b>Study</b>	<b>Journals</b>	<b>Context</b>	<b>MO Conceptualisation</b>	<b>Research Method</b>	<b>Theoretical lenses</b>
164	Ripolles et al (2012)	International Business Review	Europe: Spain; Multi-industries	Kohli & Jaworski, (1990); Narver & Slater (1990); Blesa and Bigne' (2005)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	International business, entrepreneurship
165	Shin et al (2012)	Journal of Business Research	United States and Korea; SME: Manufacturing	Jaworski and Kohli (1993)	Quantitative	International business
166	Sorensen and Madsen (2012)	International Marketing Review	Europe: Denmark; Manufacturing	Kohli and Jaworski, (1990); Narver and Slater (1990); Homburg and Pflesser, (2000).	Quantitative: Multivariate regression	Strategic orientation, International business, export market orientation
167	Wang et al (2012)	International Journal of Hospitality Management	Asia: Taiwan; Services: hotel	Kohli et al. (1993) and Huber (1991)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Services marketing, Service quality
168	Wei et al (2012)	Journal of Product Innovation Management	Asia: China; Multi-industries	Kohli and Jaworski (1990); Jaworski and Kohli (1993)	Mixed Method	New product performance
169	Yang et al (2012)	Journal of Product	Asia: Chinese; manufacturing and services	Narver and Slater (1990) Gatignon and Xuereb (1997)	Quantitative: cluster analysis and an ordinary	Strategic orientation, innovation

No.	Study	Journals	Context	MO Conceptualisation	Research Method	Theoretical lenses
		Innovation Management			least squares (OLS) regression model	
170	Yonnopoulos et al (2012)	Journal of Product Innovation Management	Northern America: Canada; Manufacturing	Atuahene-Gima (2003)	Quantitative: hierarchical moderated regression	Organisational learning
171	Boso et al. (2013)	Journal of Business Venturing	Africa: Ghana; Exporters from developing countries	Jaworski and Kohli (1993), Cadogan et al. (2002); Li and Zhou (2010)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Strategic orientation, Entrepreneurship, Network theory
172	Chen and Lien (2013)	Journal of Business Research	Asia: Taiwan; manufacturing industries	Greenley (1995) and Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative: moderated regression analysis	Technology acceptance, network externality
173	Dong et al. (2013)	Internal Marketing Review	Northern America: USA; Various industry	Kohli and Jaworski (1990)	Mixed method: quantitative and qualitative	International business, international marketing

<b>No.</b>	<b>Study</b>	<b>Journals</b>	<b>Context</b>	<b>MO Conceptualisation</b>	<b>Research Method</b>	<b>Theoretical lenses</b>
174	Ford and Paladino (2013)	Journal of Product Innovation Management	Oceania; Manufacturing	Market orientation: Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative	Strategic orientation
175	Frosen et al. (2013)	European Journal of Marketing	Europe: Finland; multi-industries	Narver and Slater (1990)	Mixed: Quantitative and Qualitative	Performance management
176	Grewal et al (2013)	Journal of Academy of Marketing Science	Northern America: USA; Manufacturing	Deshpande and Farley (1998)	Quantitative: Ordinary Least Square	Market dynamism
177	Hau et al (2013)	Journal of Business Research	Asia; Multi-industries	Tang and Tang (2003), Langerak (2003), Jaworski and Kohli (1993)	Quantitative	Inside-Out and Outside-In perspective
178	He et al (2013)	Journal of Management	Asia; Manufacturing	Kohli and Jaworski (1990); Kohli et al (1993)	Quantitative	Marketing capabilities
179	Hong et al (2013)	Journal of Product Innovation Management	Asia: Korea; Multi-industries: SME	Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Strategic orientation, entrepreneurship, product management
180	Ingenbleek et al (2013)	International Journal of	Africa	Market orientation: Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative	Value creation

No.	Study	Journals	Context	MO Conceptualisation	Research Method	Theoretical lenses
		Research in Marketing				
181	Kibbeling et al (2013)	Journal of Product Innovation Management	Europe:Netherland; Manufacturing	Deshpande and Farley (1998)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Resource dependence theory, innovation
182	Kim et al (2013)	Journal of Product Innovation Management	Northern America: USA; Manufacturing	Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative: Path analysis	Strategic orientation, knowledge management
183	Lado et al. (2013)	Journal of Small Business Management	Uruguay		Quantitative: interview	Relationship marketing
184	Lamore et al (2013)	Journal of Product Innovation Management	Northern America:USA; Manufacturing	Narver et al (2004)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Innovation
185	Laukkanen et al. (2013)	International Marketing Review	Europe: Hungary and Finland; SME	Farrell et al. (2008)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Strategic orientation; organisational learning, entrepreneurship, brand management



No.	Study	Journals	Context	MO Conceptualisation	Research Method	Theoretical lenses
186	Lengler et al. (2013)	International Marketing Review	Southern America: Brazil; exporting firm	Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative: regression	Export market orientation
187	Martelo et al. (2013)	Journal of Business Research	Europe: Spanish; services: banking industry	Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Organizational capabilities, dynamic capabilities, knowledge management, relationship marketing
188	McManus (2013)	International Journal of Hospitality Management	Oceania: Australia; hotel	Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Strategic management
189	Perez et al (2013)	European Journal of Marketing	UK, US, Spain; Manufacturing	Jaworski et al. (2000); Tuominen et al. (2004)	Qualitative: case-based approach	Learning organisation
190	Perez-Luno and Cambra (2013)	Technovation	Europe; Manufacturing	Narver et al (2004); Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative	Market orientation, ambidexterity
191	Polo Pena et al. (2013)	Journal of Travel Research	Rural Tourism Sector	Kohli and Jaworski (1990), Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative:	Perceived value
192	Roersen et al. (2013)	Journal of Product	Europe: Russia; High-Tech Firms	Narver and Slater (1990)	Qualitative: case study	Market orientation

No.	Study	Journals	Context	MO Conceptualisation	Research Method	Theoretical lenses
		Innovation Management				
193	Santos-Vijande et al. (2013)	Journal of Business Research	Business-to-business branding	Olsen and Sallis (2006); Narver, Slater, and MacLachlan (2004)	Quantitative: Structural equation modelling	Brand management, innovation
194	Shinkle et al (2013)	Strategic Management Journal	Europe: Belarus, Bulgaria, Lithuania, Ukraine; Multi-industries	Peng (2003)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Generic strategy
195	Urde et al (2013)	Journal of Business Research	-	Kohli and Jaworski (1990), Narver and Slater (1990), Deshpande et al (1993), Shapiro (1988)	Conceptual paper	Strategic orientation, brand management
196	Wang and Chung (2013)	Journal of Business Research	Asia; Multi-industries	Kohli and Jaworski (1990); Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative: hierarchical moderated regression	Innovation, international business
197	Abebe and Angriawan (2014)	Journal of Business Research	Northern America: USA; Manufacturing, SME	Narver and Slater (1990) and Im et al (2008)	Quantitative: moderated regression analysis	Organisational learning, entrepreneurship

<b>No.</b>	<b>Study</b>	<b>Journals</b>	<b>Context</b>	<b>MO Conceptualisation</b>	<b>Research Method</b>	<b>Theoretical lenses</b>
198	Campo et al (2014)	International Journal of Hospitality Management	Europe: Spain; Mid-range service, urban hotel	Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Innovation, services marketing
199	Che-Ha et al (2014)	Journal of Business Research	Asia: Malaysia; Multi-industries	Narver and Slater (1990). Slater and Narver (1996)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Organisational learning, innovation
200	Cheng and Huizingh (2014)	Journal of Product Innovation Management	Asia: Taiwan; Service firms	Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Strategic orientation, innovation
201	Chung (2014)	Journal of Small Business Management	Northern America: USA; Retail	Kohli and Jaworski (1990)	Quantitative: Path analysis	Relationship marketing
202	Fang et al (2014)	European Journal of Marketing	Asia: Taiwan; Services	Lings and Greenley (2005)	Quantitative: moderated hierarchical regression analysis	Organisational learning, market capabilities, stakeholder theory, internal market orientation

<b>No.</b>	<b>Study</b>	<b>Journals</b>	<b>Context</b>	<b>MO Conceptualisation</b>	<b>Research Method</b>	<b>Theoretical lenses</b>
203	González-Benito et al (2014)	Journal of Small Business Management	Europe: Spain; Multi-industries	Kohli and Jaworski (1990)	Quantitative: Multiple regression analysis	Strategic marketing
204	Lettice et al (2014)	Journal of Business Research	UK; Services	Cano et al. (2004); Jaworski and Kohli (1993)	Mixed method: Quantitative and Qualitative	International business
205	Navarro-Garcia et al (2014)	Journal of Business Research	Europe: Spain; Multi-industries	Cadogan et al (2009)	Quantitative: Partial Least Square	International business
206	Ozturan et al (2014)	Journal of Marketing Research	Asia: Turkey; Multi-industries	Jaworski and Kohli (1993); Kohli and Jaworski (1990)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Advertising
207	Reid et al. (2014)	Industrial Marketing Management	North American: Canada; High-Tech industry	Narver et al. (2004)	Quantitative: Survey of 198, cluster analysis	Innovation
208	Rodríguez Gutiérrez et al. (2014)	Journal of Small Business Management	Southern America: Mexico; Women-Owned Businesses	Hult et al. (2003)	Quantitative: regression	Strategic orientation, entrepreneurship, learning organisation

<b>No.</b>	<b>Study</b>	<b>Journals</b>	<b>Context</b>	<b>MO Conceptualisation</b>	<b>Research Method</b>	<b>Theoretical lenses</b>
209	Ruizalba et al (2014)	International Journal of Hospitality Management	Europe: Spain; Services: hotel	Lings and Greenley (2005); Gounaris (2008)	Quantitative: Partial Least Square	Internal Market Orientatio, Human Resources Management
210	Zeschky et al. (2014)	Technovation	Europe: Switzerland; Manufacturing	Narver and Slater (1990), Kohli and Jaworski (1990)	Qualitative: multiple case study	Industry coordination
211	Chen et al (2015)	Industrial Marketing Management	Asia: Taiwan; Manufacturing	Piercy et al. (2009), Morgan et al. (2009)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Sales management, innovation, knowledge management
212	Chen et al. (2015) b	Journal of Business Ethics	Asia: China; Manufacturing	Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Green business, resource-based view, strategic orientation
213	Lee et al (2015)	International Journal of Hospitality Management	Asia: Korea; Services	Jaworski and Kohli (1993)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Leadership
214	Martín-de Castro (2015)	Industrial Marketing Management	Europe: Spain	Jiménez-Jiménez and Cegarra-Navarro (2007)	Conceptual paper	Knowledge management, innovation

No.	Study	Journals	Context	MO Conceptualisation	Research Method	Theoretical lenses
215	Nguyen et al (2015)	Industrial Marketing Management	Asia: China; Technological company	Narver et al. (2004)	Quantitative: Hierarchical linear regression	Organisational message; knowledge acquisition; social media management
216	Ozkaya et al (2015)	International Journal of Research in Marketing	U.S.and Chinese;	Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative: path analysis	Strategic orientation, organisational learning, knowledge management
217	Qu and Zhang (2015)	Journal of Business Research	UK; MNC foreign subsidiaries	Kohli and Jaworski (1990)	Quantitative: hierarchical moderated regression	Marketing capabilities
218	Seilov (2015)	International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management	Asia: Khazakstan; Services: Small hospitality business	Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative: Regression	Entrepreneurship
219	Song et al (2015)	International Business Review	Asia: China; Manufacturing	Narver and Slater (1990); Noble et al. (2002)	Quantitative: Moderated regression	Innovation, agency theory
220	Stanko et al. (2015)	Journal of Product	Europe: Spain; Manufacturer	Atuahene-Gima (1995), Hult et al. (2004)	Quantitative: Structural	Resource-based view; organisational learning

No.	Study	Journals	Context	MO Conceptualisation	Research Method	Theoretical lenses
		Innovation Management			Equation Modelling	
221	Story et al (2015)	Journal of Product Innovation Management	Europe and Africa; Manufacturing	Cadogan et al (1999)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Innovation, new product development, international business
222	Wang and Miao (2015)	Journal of Business Research	Northern America: USA; B2B manufacturing sector	Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative: Hierarchical regression	Sales management
223	Wood et al (2015)	Journal of Business Research	small to medium enterprises;	Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Expectancy theory
224	Yaprak et al (2015)	International Business Review	Asia: Turkey; Various industries	Narver and Slater (1990); Kohli, Jaworski, and Kumar (1993), and Deshpande and Farley (2004)	Quantitative: hierarchical linear modeling	Organisational culture, international business
226	Boso et al (2016)	Journal of Business Research	UK, Ireland, Ghana, Bosnia and Herzegovina; SME	Cadogan, Kuivalainen, and Sundqvist (2009)	Quantitative: Structural equation modelling	Strategic orientation, innovation, resource-based theory, international business

No.	Study	Journals	Context	MO Conceptualisation	Research Method	Theoretical lenses
227	Cacciolatti and Lee (2016)	Journal of Business Research	UK; various industry	Deshpandé and Farley's (1998)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Resource-advantage theory, marketing capabilities
228	Cadogan et al (2016)	Journal of Business Research	UK; various industry that exporting their product	Cadogan et al. (2009)	Quantitative	Entrepreneurship, sales management
229	Deutscher et al (2016)	Journal of Business Research	Europe: Germany; High-tech firms	Kohli et al (1993)	Quantitative: fuzzy-set Qualitative Comparative Analysis (fsQCA)	Entrepreneurship, Organisational learning, strategic orientation
230	Didonet et al (2016)	Journal of Small Business Management	Southern America: Chile; SMEs	Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative: Path analysis	Innovation
231	Dong et al (2016)	Industrial Marketing Management	Northern America: USA; Multi-industries	Kohli and Jaworski (1990)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Process-based view



No.	Study	Journals	Context	MO Conceptualisation	Research Method	Theoretical lenses
232	Frambach et al (2016)	Journal of Business Research	Europe: Netherlands; Various industry	Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative: Fuzzy set qualitative comparative analysis	Strategic orientation, configurational
233	Frosen et al (2016) a	Industrial Marketing Management	Europe: Finland; Multi-industries	Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative: Longitudinal regression analysis	Marketing Performance Measurement (MPM)
234	Frosen and Tikkanen (2016)	European Journal of Marketing	Europe: Finland;	Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative: ANOVA	Performance management, business capabilities
235	Frosen et al (2016) b	Journal of Marketing	Europe: Finland; Multi-industries	Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative	Marketing Performance Measurement (MPM)
236	Ghauri et al. (2016)	Journal of Business Research	UK; various industry	Jaworski et al., (2000); Narver et al. (2004)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	International marketing, dynamic capabilities, market driving
237	Gnizy (2016)	Industrial Marketing Management	Asia: Israel; Multi-industries	Pelham and Wilson (1996) and Gnizy and Shoham (2014)	Quantitative: multiple regression	International Marketing, international market orientation (IMO)

No.	Study	Journals	Context	MO Conceptualisation	Research Method	Theoretical lenses
238	Heirati and O’Cass (2016)	Asia Pasific Journal of Management	Asia: Iran;	Zhou et al. (2008)	Quantitative: partial least squares (PLS)	New product development, marketing capabilities
239	Herhausen (2016)	Journal of Business Research	Europe; Manufacturing and services	Market orientation: Narver et al (2004)	Quantitative: Polynomial regression analysis	Ambidexterity
240	Jaeger et al (2016)	International Journal of Research in Marketing	Northern America: USA; various industry	Deshpandé & Farley (1998), Narver et al. (2004)	Quantitative: generalized method of moments (GMM)	Strategic orientation, ambidexterity
241	Kiessling et al (2016)	Journal of Business Ethics	Northern America: USA; various industry	Lam et al. (2010), Ellis (2010)	Quantitative: Regression analysis	Corporate Social Responsibility, strategic orientation
242	Najafi-Tavani et al (2016)	Journal of Business Research	Europe: Sweden; Manufacturing	Morgan et al. (2009) and Jaworski and Kohli (1993)	Quantitative: 188 manufacturing firms in Sweden	Marketing capability, Absorbptive capacity, dynamic capability
243	Nguyen et al (2016)	Journal of Business Research	Asia: China; High tech services	Cadogan, Paul, Salminen, Puumalainen, and Sundqvist (2001), Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative: hierarchical linier regression	Branding, innovation, organisational learning

No.	Study	Journals	Context	MO Conceptualisation	Research Method	Theoretical lenses
244	Pekovic and Rolland (2016)	European Journal of Marketing	Europe: France;	Narver and Slater, (1990); Homburg and Pflesser (2000).	Quantitative: Ordinary Least Square	Contingency theory
245	Perez-Luno (2016)	Journal of Small Business Management	Europe: Spain; Manufacturing: SME	Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Entrepreneurship, organisational learning
246	Rakthin et al (2016)	Journal of Business Research	Northern America: USA; Various industry	Calantone & Di Benedetto, 2007, Narver & Slater, 1990	Quantitative: Partial Least Square	Absorptive capacity, relationship marketing, organisational learning
247	Reed et al (2016)	Journal of Business Research	Northern America: USA; Retailer	Homburg, Workman, and Jensen (2002).	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Organisational internal listening environment
248	Kraft and Bausch (2016)	Journal of Product Innovation Management	-	Narver and Slater (1990), Kohli et al. (1993)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Transformational Leadership, upper echelon social learning theory
249	Skokic et al. (2016)	International Journal of Hospitality Management	Europe: Croatia; Services: Hotel	Narver and Slater (199	Qualitative: in-depth interview	Entrepreneurship

No.	Study	Journals	Context	MO Conceptualisation	Research Method	Theoretical lenses
250	Takata (2016)	Journal of Business Research	Asia: Japan; manufacturing	Jaworski and Kohli (1993); Morgan et al. (2009)	Quantitative: partial least squares structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM)	Marketing capabilities
251	Vega-Vázquez et al (2016)	Journal of Business Research	Europe: Spain; Services: Hotel	Hooley, Greenley, Cadogan, and Fahy (2005)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Strategic orientation, entrepreneurship
252	Brower and Rowe (2017)	Journal of Business Research	Northern America: USA; Multi-industries	Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative: generalized linear model (GLM)	Strategic orientation, stakeholder theory
253	Devece et al (2017)	Psychology and Marketing	Europe: Spain; Manufacturing and Services	Deshpande and Farley (1998)	Quantitative: Partial Least Square	Knowledge-based view, crowdsourcing
254	Eggers et al. (2017)	Journal of Small Business Management	Austria, Germany, Liechtenstein, Switzerland	Narver, Slater, and MacLachlan (2004)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Entrepreneurship, Social network
255	Hinson et al (2017)	International Journal of Contemporar	Africa: Ghana; Services: star-rated hotel	Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative: hierarchical regression	Positioning, international marketing

No.	Study	Journals	Context	MO Conceptualisation	Research Method	Theoretical lenses
		y Hospitality Management				
256	Jogaratnam (2017)	International Journal of Hospitality Management	Northern America: USA; Restaurant industry;	Kohli and Jaworski (1990), Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative: Structural equation modelling	Strategic orientation, resource-based view, entrepreneurship
257	Lin et al (2017)	Industrial Marketing Management	Asia: Taiwan; Manufacturing	Narver et al (2004)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Organisational learning, ambidexterity
258	Line and Wang (2017)	Journal of Travel Research	Northern America: USA; Tourist destination	Kohli and Jaworski (1990), Narver and Slater (1990), Modi and Mishra (2010), and Shoham et al (2006)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Stakeholder theory, services marketing
259	Liu et al (2017)	European Journal of Marketing	Europe: UK; Manufacturing: SME	Spanjol et al. (2012), Narver and Slater (1990) and Gatignon and Xuereb (1997)	Quantitative: Multiple regression analysis	Resource-based theory, innovation, entrepreneurship, new product development
260	Luxton et al (2017)	European Journal of Marketing	Oceania: Australia; Manufacturing	Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Integrated Marketing Communication, organisational learning, brand management, resource-based view

No.	Study	Journals	Context	MO Conceptualisation	Research Method	Theoretical lenses
261	Makri et al (2017)	International Business Review	Europe: Greece; Manufacturing	Kohli & Jaworski (1990)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Innovation, international business, Contingency theory; Resource-based view of the firm
262	Mu et al (2017)	Industrial Marketing Management	Asia: China, High-tech industries	Jaworski & Kohli (1993); Mu & Di Benedetto (2011)	Quantitative: Moderated multiple regression	Strategic orientation, new product development, dynamic capability view of the firm
263	Ozdemir et al (2017)	Industrial Marketing Management	Asia: Turkey manufacturing firms	Atuahene-Gima et al. (2005); Slater & Narver (1998)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Organizational learning perspective, ambidexterity
264	Sahi et al. (2016)	Decision Sciences	Asia: India; Private bank	Narver and Slater (1990), (Zhou, Brown, & Dev, 2009)	Quantitative: regression	Strategic orientation, theory of constraint
265	Turner et al (2017)	International Journal of Hospitality Management	Europe: Switzerland; Services: hotel	Deshpande et al. (1993), Ruekert (1992)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Contingency theory

No.	Study	Journals	Context	MO Conceptualisation	Research Method	Theoretical lenses
266	Wang et al (2017)	Journal of Marketing Research	Northern America: USA; Business-to-business market;	Noble et al. (2002), Slater and Narver (1995)	Quantitative: Bivariate correlation	Social capital, Social network perspective, organizational learning
267	He et al (2018)	International Marketing Review	Asia: China; Manufacturing; exporter	Boso, Cadogan and Story, (2013); Cadogan et al., (2002); Morgan et al., (2009); Murray et al., (2007, 2011); Zhou et al., (2007)	Quantitative: Multiple regression model	Resource-based theory, institutional theory
268	Humphreys and Carpenter (2018)	Journal of Marketing	Northern America: USA; Manufacturing	Carpenter, Glazer, and Nakamoto (1997); Jaworski, Kohli, and Sahay (2000); Kumar, Scheer, and Kotler (2000)	Qualitative: ethnography	Competitive advantage
269	Jancanelle et al (2018)	International Business Review	Multi countries	Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative: multiple ordinary least squares (OLS) regression analysis	Entrepreneurship, signaling theory

No.	Study	Journals	Context	MO Conceptualisation	Research Method	Theoretical lenses
270	Kachouie et al (2018)	European Journal of Marketing	Oceania: Australia; Multi-industries	Narver et al. (2004) and Blocker et al. (2011)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Dynamic capabilities, innovation
271	McKenny et al. (2018)	Journal of Management	Northern America: USA; Multi-industry	Zachary et al. (2011), Narver & Slater (1990)	Qualitative: Content Analysis	Entrepreneurship, ambidexterity
272	Nakata et al (2018)	Journal of Product Innovation Management	South Korea, Japan, and China; Multi-industries	Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Leadership, organisational culture
273	Selmi and Chaney (2018)	Journal of Business Research	Europe: French; Services: Hotel	Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Revenue management
274	Solano Acosta et al. (2018)	International Business Review	Southern America: Mexico; SME: export	Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative: Partial Least Square	Entrepreneurship, network capability
275	Yayla et al (2018)	International Business Review	Asia: Turkey; Manufacturing	Kohli et al (1993), Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative: variance-adjusted weighted least squares	Relational capital, international marketing



No.	Study	Journals	Context	MO Conceptualisation	Research Method	Theoretical lenses
276	Alnawas and Hemsley-Brown (2019)	International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management	UK; services: Hotel industry	Kohli and Jaworski (1990)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Resources-based view, relationship marketing, brand management, services marketing
277	Bhattacharya et al (2019)	International Journal of Research of Marketing	Northern America: USA; various industry	Zachary, McKenny, Short, and Payne (2011)	Quantitative: time series longitudinal approach	Entrepreneurship
278	Birru et al. (2019)	Journal of Small Business Management	Africa: Ethiopia; manufacturing	Murray, Gao, and Kotabe (2011) and Racela, Chaikittisilpa, and Thoumrungroje (2007)	Quantitative: Moderated Multiple Regression	International business, entrepreneurship, export market orientation
279	Cengiz et al (2019)	International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management	Asia: Turkey; Services: hotel	Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Services marketing
280	Gebhardt et al (2019)	Journal of Marketing	Oceania, Asia, Europe, Northern America; Various industry	Kohli and Jaworski (1990)	Qualitative: case study	Market orientation, organisational learning

<b>No.</b>	<b>Study</b>	<b>Journals</b>	<b>Context</b>	<b>MO Conceptualisation</b>	<b>Research Method</b>	<b>Theoretical lenses</b>
281	Iyer et al. (2019)	Industrial Marketing Management	Northern America: USA; various industry	Narver et al. (2004)	Quantitative: Partial least squares	Brand management, ambidexterity
282	Lämsiluoto et al. (2019)	Journal of Small Business Management	Europe: Finland; SME	Kohli, Jaworski, and Kumar (1993)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Performance Measurement System
283	Nakos et al (2019)	International Business Review	Asia: United Arab Emirates; Small medium enterprise (SME)	Frösén et al. (2016) and Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative: regression	Resource-based view. Knowledge-based view, international business, institutional theory
284	Stathakopoulou et al (2019)	Journal Business Research	Europe: Greece; Various industry	Jaworski et al (2000), Herhausen (2016), Narver, Slater, and MacLachlan (2004), and Neuenberg (2010)	Qualitative: in-depth interview	Leadership, personal characteristics
285	Takata (2019)	Industrial Marketing Management	Asia: Japan; manufacturing	Kohli and Jaworski (1990)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Organisational capability

No.	Study	Journals	Context	MO Conceptualisation	Research Method	Theoretical lenses
286	Tang et al (2019)	Asia Pacific Journal of Management	Asia: China; various industry	Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Human Resources Management (HRM) ; entrepreneurship
287	Theoharakis et al (2019)	International Marketing Review	Europe: Greece; Manufacturing and Commerce	Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative: full information maximum likelihood (FIML) method	Resource-based theory
288	Tollin and Christensen (2019)	Journal of Business Ethics	Europe: Sweden and Denmark; Various industry	Market orientation: Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Marketing capabilities, corporate sustainability
289	Wang et al (2019)	Industrial Marketing Management	Asia: China; Manufacturing;	Atuahene Gima (2005) and Han et al (1998)	Quantitative: regression	Upper echelon theory, innovation
290	Wilden et al (2019)	Industrial Marketing Management	Northern America: USA; B2B services	Deshpande et al. (1993); Narver & Slater, 1990)	Qualitative: Abductive research approach	Dynamic capability, strategic orientation
291	Williams and Spielmann (2019)	International Business Review	Europe: France; Manufacturing: SME	Knight and Kim's (2009)	Mixed method: Qualitative and Quantitative	International marketing, institutional theory, entrepreneurship

No.	Study	Journals	Context	MO Conceptualisation	Research Method	Theoretical lenses
292	Wu et al. (2019)	Journal Business Research	Asia: China;	Kohli and Jaworski (1990) and Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Organisational capability, innovation
293	Andersson et al (2020)	International Marketing Review	Europe: Sweden; Commerce	Narver et al (2004)	Qualitative: Case study	International marketing
294	Andreou et al (2020)	British Journal of Management	North America: USA; Multi-industries	Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative: cross-sectional ordinary least squares estimates and generalized least squares random effects (GLS-RE) regressions	Market orientation
295	Bhandari et al (2020)	Journal Business Research	Europe: Nordic; Multi-industries	Narver and Slater (1990); Kumar et al (1998)	Quantitative: Generalized Methods of Moments	Resource-based theory, dynamic capability, ambidexterity, strategic orientation, entrepreneurship
296	Dimitrovski (2020)	International Journal of	Europe: Serbia; Services: travel fair	Rice and Almosawi (2002); Lee et al. (2015)	Quantitative:	Services marketing

No.	Study	Journals	Context	MO Conceptualisation	Research Method	Theoretical lenses
		Contemporary Hospitality Management			Structural Equation Modelling	
297	Feng et al. (2020)	Journal of Business Research	Northern America: USA; various industry	Slater and Narver (1995)	Quantitative: Regression	Strategic orientation, entrepreneurship
298	Gotteland et al (2020)	Industrial Marketing Management	Northern America: USA; Multi-industries	Narver et al (2004)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Strategic orientation
299	Gounaris et al (2020)	European Journal of Marketing	Europe: Greek; Services	Gounaris (2006)	Quantitative: hierarchical research design	Dynamic capability, new service development, internal market orientation
300	Gupta et al (2020)	Journal of Business Research	UK; Commerce	Kohli & Jaworski, (1990); Kozielski, (2019)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Strategic orientation, brand management
301	Homburg et al. (2020)	Journal of Marketing	Northern America: USA; Various industry	Jaworski et al. (1993) Kohli and Jaworski (1990), Zachari et al. (2011)	Multi-method: in-dept interview and text analysis	Marketing-finance interface

No.	Study	Journals	Context	MO Conceptualisation	Research Method	Theoretical lenses
302	Ipek and Bıçakcıoğlu-Peynirci (2020)	International Business Review	-	Cadogan and Diamantopoulos (1995)	Literature Review	Export market orientation
303	Irun et al. (2020)	Journal of Business Research	Asia: China; Various industry	Helfert et al. (2002)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	International business; network market orientation, entrepreneurship
304	Jiang et al (2020)	Asia Pacific Journal of Management	Asia: Chinese; manufacturers	Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative: moderated multiple regression analysis	Dynamic capability
305	Kottika et al. (2020)	Industrial Marketing Management	Europe: Greek; SME	Narver and Slater (1990)	Multi-method: Quantitative	Personal traits, entrepreneurship
306	Li (2020)	Industrial Marketing Management	Asia: Taiwan; B2B manufacturing	Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative: Partial Least Square	Strategic orientation
307	Maciel and Fischer (2020)	Journal of Marketing	Northern America: USA; Manufacturing	Jaworsky, Kohli, and Sahay (2000)	Qualitative: case study	Entrepreneurship, collaboration

No.	Study	Journals	Context	MO Conceptualisation	Research Method	Theoretical lenses
308	Martin-Santana et al (2020)	European Journal of Marketing	Europe: Spain; Multi-industries	Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative	Leadership, social capital, family business study
309	Morgan and Anokhin (2020)	Journal of Business Research	Northern America: USA; Manufacturing	Kohli and Jaworski (1990), Narver and Slater (1990); Deshpande and Farley (1998)	Quantitative	Strategic orientation, entrepreneurship
310	Nath (2020)	European Journal of Marketing	Northern America: USA; various industry	Verhoef and Leeflang (2009)	Quantitative: Partial Least Square	Ambidexterity
311	Peng et al (2020)	Asia Pacific Journal of Management	-	Kohli & Jaworski, 1990), Narver and Slater (1990)	Meta-analysis	Institution-based view; resource-based view, strategic orientation, entrepreneurship
312	Renko et al. (2020)	Journal Business Venturing	Sweden and USA; Manufacturing: High-tech industry	Renko et al. (2009), Kohli et al. (1993)	Quantitative: fuzzy-set Qualitative Comparative Analysis (fsQCA)	Signaling theory
313	Rust (2020)	Industrial Marketing Management	-	Kohli and Jaworski (1990) and Narver and Slater (1990)	Conceptual paper	Market orientation

No.	Study	Journals	Context	MO Conceptualisation	Research Method	Theoretical lenses
314	Taylor et al (2020)	European Journal of Marketing	-	Hunt and Morgan (1995)	Conceptual paper	Services marketing, service quality
315	Wales et al. (2020)	Journal of Business Research	Europe: Finland and Russia;	Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Organisational learning, entrepreneurship
316	Wu et al (2020)	Psychology and Marketing	Asia: Taiwan; Manufacturing: Fashion	Jaworski and Kohli (1993)	Quantitative: Structural equation modeling and fuzzy-set qualitative comparative analysis	Resource-based view
317	Yuan et al (2020)	Asia Pasific Journal of Management	Asia: China; Manufacturing	Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Social capital theory; conflict management theory, innovation
318	Abbu and Gopalakhrisna (2021)	Journal of Business Research	Northern America: USA; Direct marketing service provider industry	Homburg and Pflesser (2000); Kohli et al. (1993)	Quantitative: Conditional process analysis	Organisational transformation



No.	Study	Journals	Context	MO Conceptualisation	Research Method	Theoretical lenses
319	Agnihotri and Bhattacharya (2021)	Industrial Marketing Management	Asia: India; Manufacturing	Narver and Slater (1990); Zachari et al (2011) and Noble, Siha and Kumar (2002)	Quantitative: generalized least square regression analyses	Upper echelon theory
320	Akter et al. (2021)	International Marketing Review	-	Gnizy, 2019; Slater and Narver, 2000	Systematic Literature Review	Strategic orientation, international marketing
321	Bergkvist and Eisend (2021)	Journal of Academy of Marketing Science	-	Kohli and Jarowski (1990), Narver and Slater (1990)	Qualitative: Case study	Brand management; knowledge management
322	Bicen et al (2021)	Journal of Business Research	Northern America: USA; High technology firm	Narver and Slater (1990); Jarvis, Mackenzie, & Podsakoff, 2003	Quantitative: covariance-based structural equation modeling (CB-SEM)	Social contract theory, innovation
323	Du and Kim (2021)	Journal of Business Research	Asia: Chinese; Various industry	Narver & Slater (1990); Morgan & Anokhin (2020)	Quantitative: fuzzy-set qualitative	Configurational theory; entrepreneurship.

No.	Study	Journals	Context	MO Conceptualisation	Research Method	Theoretical lenses
					comparative analysis (QCA)	
324	Gligor et al (2021)	Industrial Marketing Management	Northern America: USA; Manufacturing	Jaworski and Kohli (1993) and Morgan, Vorhies, and Mason (2009)	Quantitative: hierarchical regression analysis	Relationship marketing
325	Golgeci et al (2021)	Industrial Marketing Management	UK, Retail: B2B	Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative: Structural equation modelling	Relationship marketing, brand management
326	Hernández-Linares et al (2021)	Journal of Small Business Management	Europe: Spanish; SMEs	Deshpandé & Farley (1998)	Quantitative: Regression	Dynamic capabilities
327	Hossain et al (2021)	Journal of Business Research	Oceania: Australia	Ketchen Jr, Hult, & Slater, 2007; Srivastava, Shervani, & Fahey, 1998), Deshpandé, Farley, & Webster Jr, 1993)	Quantitative: Partial Least Squares (PLS)	Relationship marketing, Knowledge-based View. Resource-based view, competitive advantage
328	Klein et al (2021)	Journal of Product Innovation Management	Europe: German Manufacturing	Narver & Slater, 1990)	Quantitative: Structural equation modelling	Business model innovation, strategic orientation

No.	Study	Journals	Context	MO Conceptualisation	Research Method	Theoretical lenses
329	Mo et al (2021)	International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management	Asia: Macao; Services: Casino hotel	Gounaris (2006)	Quantitative: structural equation modeling	Internal market orientation, service quality
330	Monferrer et al (2021)	Journal of Business Research	Europe; Manufacturing	Market orientation: Elg (2002); Helfert et al. (2002)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Strategic orientation, dynamic capability, ambidexterity
331	Pascual-Fernandez et al (2021)	International Journal of Hospitality Management	Europe: Spain; Services: Hotel	Market orientation: Jogaratnam (2017); Olsen and Sallis (2006)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling;	Innovation
332	Piha et al (2021)	Journal of Business Research	-	Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative: Scale development	Brand orientation, marketing department power
333	Randhawa et al (2021)	Journal of Business Research	Oceania: Australia Small Medium Enterprise (SME)	Kara, Spillan, & DeShields (2005)	Qualitative: Longitudinal case studies	Business model innovation, ambidexterity, Dynamic capabilities

No.	Study	Journals	Context	MO Conceptualisation	Research Method	Theoretical lenses
334	Tang et al (2021)	Journal of Business Research	Consumer-packaged-goods (CPG) industries	Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Innovation, market dynamism
335	Airani and Karande (2022)	Journal of Business Research	Tweets for movies	Kohli and Jaworski (1990)	Quantitative: Bayesian Network analysis	Customer journey, sentiment analysis
336	Baker et al (2022)	Journal of Business Research	-	Atuahene-Gima (1996), Jaworski and Kohli (1993), Kohli et al. (1993)	Conceptual paper	Strategic orientation, dynamic capabilities
337	Beliaeva et al (2022)	Journal of Business Research	Family firm	Tokarczyk et al. (2007), Shi and Dana (2013)	Literature review: Bibliometric analysis	Brand, reputation, image
338	Bodlaj and Cater (2022)	Journal of Business Research	Europe; SME: various industry	Kohli et al. (1993), Narver and Slater (1990), Narver et al. (2004)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Marketing capabilities
339	Crick et al. (2022)	Industrial Marketing Management	Oceania: New Zealand; Services: tourism and hospitality	Jaworski and Kohli (1993)	Mixed method: explanatory (QUAN-qual)	Resource-based theory and the relational view
340	Day (2022)	Long Range Planning	-	Homburg and Pflesser (2000)	Conceptual paper	Competitive strategy, dynamic capabilities

No.	Study	Journals	Context	MO Conceptualisation	Research Method	Theoretical lenses
341	Falahat et al. (2022)	International Marketing Review	Asia: Malaysia, SME	Silva et al. (2017)	Mixed method: exploratory (QUAL-QUAN)	International business, entrepreneurship
342	Faroque et al. (2022)	Industrial Marketing Management	Asia: Bangladesh;	Narver et al. (2004)	Quantitative: hierarchical regression	Strategic orientation, entrepreneurship
345	Hoque et al (2022)	Journal of Business Research	Asia: Bangladesh; exporting firms	Atuahene-Gima et al. (2005)	Quantitative: Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA)	International business. Resource-based view, dynamic capabilities
346	Mintz et al (2022)	European Journal of Marketing	-	Jaworski and Kohli (1993), Deshpande (1999)	Conceptual paper	International business, customer centricity
347	Miocevic et al. (2022)	International Marketing Review	Oceania: New Zealand; Exporting firms	Cadogan et al. (1999)	Quantitative: Multiple regression	International business
348	Renko et al. (2022)	Journal of Business Venturing	Europe and USA/Northern America; Biotechnology ventures	Renko et al. (2009), Kohli et al. (1993)	Quantitative: fuzzy-set Qualitative Comparative Analysis (fsQCA)	Signaling theory

No.	Study	Journals	Context	MO Conceptualisation	Research Method	Theoretical lenses
349	Schulze et al. (2022)	Industrial Marketing Management	Europe: Germany, Switzerland, Austria; B2B	Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative: Partial Least Square	Strategic orientation, innovation
350	Stremersch et al. (2022)	International Journal of Research in Marketing	Multi countries, various industry	Deshpande and Farley (1997)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Innovation, Leadership style
351	Strobl et al. (2022)	Journal of Business Research	Europe: Austria, Germany, Switzerland; Manufacturing industry	Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative: hierarchical ordinary least square	Strategic orientation, entrepreneurship
352	Tolstoy et al. (2022)	International Business Review	Europe: Sweden; Retailing SME	Jaworski and Kohli (1993); Slater and Narver (1995); Deshpande and Farley (1998)	Quantitative: mediation, bootstrapping	Marketing capabilities; International business; ambidexterity
353	Wasim et al. (2022)	Journal of Small Business Management	UK; SME	Kohli and Jaworski (1990), Day (1994)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Resource-based theory
354	Wilson and Liguori (2022)	Journal of Small	Northern America: USA; technology industry	Narver and Slater (1990), Baker and Sinkula (1999)	Quantitative: regression	Organisational learning

No.	Study	Journals	Context	MO Conceptualisation	Research Method	Theoretical lenses
		Business Management				
355	Yu et al. (2022)	European Journal of Marketing	Asia: China; SME: various industry	Kohli et al. (1993), Lings and Greenley (2005) and Yu et al. (2018)	Quantitative: Partial Least Square	Internal market orientation
356	Cao and Weerawardena (2023)	Industrial Marketing Management	UK: B2B SME	Merriless et al (2011)	Quantitative: Partial Least Square	Stakeholder theory
357	Carpenter (2023)	Industrial Marketing Management	-	Jaworski et al. (2000)	Conceptual Paper	Market-Driven Theory Driving Markets Theory
358	Castell et al. (2023)	Journal of Business Research	-	Kohli (2017)	Literature Review: Systematic Literature Review	Customer Orientation
359	Day (2023)	Industrial Marketing Management	-	Day (1990)	Conceptual paper	Strategic innovation, Market Driven
360	Dean et al. (2023)	Industrial Marketing Management	USA: Manufacturer	Jaworski, B. J., & Kohli, A. K. (1993)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Coopetition, New Product Development

No.	Study	Journals	Context	MO Conceptualisation	Research Method	Theoretical lenses
361	Funke et al. (2023)	Journal of Business Research	Australia: B2B	Jaworski et al. (2000; Schweitzer and Sarin (2023)	Qualitative: Case study	Market Driving Strategy, Business Model Innovation
362	Georgiou et al. (2023)	Journal of Business Research	Cyprus: wine manufacturer	Modi & Sahi (2018), Martín-Santana et al. (2020)	Qualitative: Case study	Family business
363	Hansen et al. (2023)	Journal of Business Research	North America: multi-industries	Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Resource-Advantage Theory
364	Ipek et al. (2023)	Industrial Marketing Management	-	Deshpande et al., (1993), Narver & Slater, 1990), Kohli & Jaworski, 1990)	Literature Review: Meta-analysis	Strategic Orientation
365	Khan et al. (2023)	Industrial Marketing Management	European countries: B2B	Atuahene-Gima et al. (2005), Kohli, A. K., & Jaworski, B. (1990)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Strategic orientation, market driving strategy
366	Lee and Wei (2023)	Journal of Business Research	USA: multi-industries	Ferrell et al. (2010)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Resource-based View, Stakeholder Theory



No.	Study	Journals	Context	MO Conceptualisation	Research Method	Theoretical lenses
367	Mahavarpour et al. (2023)	Journal of Business Research	-	Kohli, A. K., & Jaworski, B. J. (1990), Atuahene-Gima (2000)	Literature Review; Bibliometric	Service innovation
368	Narh et al. (2023)	Journal of Brand Management	Ghana: multi-industries	Cano et al. (2024)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Strategic orientation, services marketing
369	Pfajfar et al. (2023)	International Marketing Review	-	Narver et al. (2004)	Literature Review; Systematic Literature Review	Market orientation, dynamic capabilities
370	Qu and Mardani (2023)	Journal of Business Research	China: Multi-industries	Ellis (2007)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	New product development
371	Wu and Monfort (2023)	Psychology and Marketing	Taiwan: food franchises and chain store firms	Ngo and O'Cass (2012), Smirnova et al. (2011)	Quantitative: structural equation modeling and the fuzzy set qualitative comparative analysis (FsQCA)	Marketing strategy

No.	Study	Journals	Context	MO Conceptualisation	Research Method	Theoretical lenses
372	Zhao et al. (2023)	Industrial Marketing Management	China: Digital Technology company	Baker and Sinkula (2007)	Quantitative: hierarchical regression method	Market orientation, innovation
373	Blocker et al. (2024)	Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science	USA: Multi-industries	Ferrell et al. (2010)	Qualitative	Strategic orientation, Corporate Social Responsibility
374	Gangwani and Bhatia (2024)	Journal of Business Research	USA: multi-industries	Narver & Slater (1990)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Strategic orientation, innovation
375	Grimes-Rose et al. (2024)	Industrial Marketing Management	USA: B2B multi-industries	Narver & Slater (1990)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Customer Value Proposition, B2B marketing
376	Ishii and Kikumori (2024)	International Marketing Review	Japan: exporting manufacturers	Cadogan et al. (1999)	Quantitative: hierarchical regression analysis	International marketing, B2B marketing
377	Lyu et al. (2024)	R&D Management	China: Manufacturing firm	Kim et al. (2013), Najafi-Tavani et al. (2016)	Quantitative: hierarchical regression	New Product Development

No.	Study	Journals	Context	MO Conceptualisation	Research Method	Theoretical lenses
378	Wasim et al. (2024)	Journal of Small Business Management	UK: SME	Kohli et al. (1993)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Resource-based Theory
379	Wijekoon et al. (2024)	European Journal of Marketing	Srilanka: SME	Jaworski and Kohli (1993)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Entrepreneurial marketing, strategic orientation, brand management

#### Non-profit Organization (NPO)

No.	Study	Journals	Context	MO Conceptualisation	Research Method	Theoretical Lenses
1	Zhou et al. (2009)	International Marketing Review	Asia: China; Blood collection center	Kohli et al. (1993)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Social marketing, organisational effectiveness, stakeholder theory
2	Gurel and Kavak (2010)	European Journal of Marketing	Europe: Turkey; museum	Deshpande and Farley (1998), Cano et al. (2004), Camarero and Garrido (2008)	Conceptual paper	Public relation, museum marketing
3	Ormrod and Henneberg (2010)	European Journal of Marketing	UK; Political party	Ormrod and Henneberg (2008)	Quantitative: Partial Least Square	Political market orientation; stakeholder theory

No.	Study	Journals	Context	MO Conceptualisation	Research Method	Theoretical Lenses
4	Robinson (2010)	European Journal of Marketing	Oceania: New Zealand; Political party	O'Cass (2001), Ormrod (2005)	Qualitative: Content analysis	Political advertising
5	Ormrod and Henneberg (2011)	European Journal of Marketing	Europe: Denmark; Political party	Ormrod and Henneberg (2008)	Quantitative: Partial Least Square	Configuration theory, political market orientation
6	Walker et al (2011)	Public Administration Review	Europe; Governmental Sector	Narver and Slater (1990)	Quantitative: autoregressive model	Market orientation
7	Camarero and Garrido (2012)	Journal of Service Research	Europe: UK, France, Italy, Spain; Museum	Narver and Slater (1990); Alvarez, Vijande, and Casielles (2002); Liao, Foreman, and Sargeant (2001), Balabanis, Stables, and Hugh (1997) and Caruana, Ramaseshan, and Ewing (1998)	Quantitative: path analysis	Services marketing, innovation
8	Chad (2013)	Marketing Theory	Oceania: Australia; charity	Kohli and Jaworski (1990), Narver and Slater (1990)	Qualitative: Case study	Strategic orientation, entrepreneurship, Discourse Transformational Framework

No.	Study	Journals	Context	MO Conceptualisation	Research Method	Theoretical Lenses
9	Choi (2014)	Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly	Asia: South Korea; Community center	Gonzalez et al. (2001); Liao, Foreman, & Sargeant (2000); Sargeant et al., (2002)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Organisational learning, strategic orientation, innovation, resource dependence, stakeholder theory
10	Liu et al. (2014)	Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly	UK and Japan; Social enterprise	Kohli and Jaworski (1990); Balabanis et al. (1997); Macedo & Pinho (2006)	Quantitative: hierarchical regression analysis	Strategic orientation, entrepreneurship
11	Caballero et al. (2015)	Long Range Planning	Europe: Spain; University, Higher Education	Gonzalez and Wagenaar (2003), Poon (2012)	Quantitative: MANOVA	Stakeholder theory
12	Bhattarai et al (2019)	Journal of Business Research	Europe: UK; Social Enterprise	Deshpande and Farley (1998); McKelvie and Davidsson (2009)	Quantitative: Structural Equation Modelling	Social entrepreneurship, innovation
13	Weaver et al. (2019)	Journal of Business Research	Northern America: USA; Charity	Duque-Zuluaga & Schneider, (2008); Modi & Mishra (2010); Chad, Kyriazis, & Motion (2013)	Qualitative: in-depth interview and case study	Nonprofit marketing, transformative consumer research, strategic orientation, relationship marketing

No.	Study	Journals	Context	MO Conceptualisation	Research Method	Theoretical Lenses
14	Choudhury et al (2021)	Journal of Business Ethics	Asia: India; Political party	Ormrod (2005); Ormrod and Henneberg (2009)	Quantitative: time-series methods	Political market orientation
15	Haon et al. (2023)	Journal of Business Research	United States: Hospital (Healthcare)	Gebhardt et al. (2006)	Qualitative: ethnographic observation, in-depth	Haon et al. (2023)