

EXPLORING DONOR-DEFINED EFFECTIVENESS
WITHIN HIGHER EDUCATION PHILANTHROPY

N. Geoffrey Bartlett

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of
the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

Department of Educational Leadership

Central Michigan University
Mount Pleasant, Michigan
December 2014

Copyright by
N. Geoffrey Bartlett
2014

This paper is dedicated to my wife and daughters
who endured the times I was not fully engaged with them.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I thank the members of my dissertation committee for their support and guidance throughout this process -- Drs. Matthew Johnson and Salvatore Alaimo who joined the journey well after it began, yet provided encouragement and direction to the research topic; Dr. George E. Ross for his willingness to add responsibilities to his already full days to work with a doctoral dissertation, and for his ability to open the doors necessary to make this research possible. This work would not have been possible were it not for Dr. Dan Kaczynski. Dr. Kaczynski's encouragement, support, and prodding made me a better researcher. His questions left me wondering in the wilderness, full in the knowledge that I would find my way out and learn something in the process. I am beyond grateful for each of these committee members for allowing me to work with them.

I also thank my fellow classmates in Cohort XII who made this journey with me. Over the years together, we grew as researchers and people. We not only developed professional relationships, but deep friendships. I am particularly indebted to Matt, Jeff and Melissa, without whom the program would not have been the experience it turned out to be. I thank my work colleagues, particularly Bryan, Jenn and Marcy, who listened to my ranting and raving, encouraged me in my research, and enthusiastically waited to hear the outcomes.

Finally, though certainly not lastly, I thank my family -- my father who modeled that life-long learning exists, my mother for her deep belief in my abilities, my daughters, who had to do without me, and finally my wife who did everything that I was not doing and for allowing me to pursue this experience. I love you all. This is for you.

ABSTRACT

EXPLORING DONOR-DEFINED EFFECTIVENESS WITHIN HIGHER EDUCATION PHILANTHROPY

The ability to effectively and efficiently raise money within higher education is the traditional measure of effectiveness. The most common metrics are how much money it takes to raise a dollar, total amount raised, total number of donors who support an organization, and the average gift size. These measurements of effectiveness are most often used because of the relevance to development officers and the organization's leadership, are easily quantifiable, and are standard across the nonprofit world. What is left out of measuring effectiveness from a purely cost-related basis is any sense of whether the donated funds accomplished the purpose with which the money was given. The focus of this study is to gain a better understanding of how the research participants ascribe meaning to the charitable gifts and the outcomes from those charitable acts.

Qualitative methodology and a constructivist lens are employed to better understand how research participants define effectiveness. Applying Lewin's (1951) force field analysis, the study identified factors that influence the current status quo of effectiveness defined primarily from a cost-benefit perspective. Data from a select purposeful sampling of 11 donors, who have each given in excess of \$100,000 to the institution, is gathered along with site documents, observations and memos. Analysis of the research data included open and axial coding.

The findings concluded that effectiveness is a multifaceted construct centered on feelings of being valued by the institution. Research participants discussed access, recognition, trust, outcomes, and shared values as integral components that define how the research participants construct the meaning of feeling valued. Tangible results, the notion of "seeing" outcomes,

intangible benefits, and the idea of “doing good,” are vital to the understanding of how donors define outcomes as being successful. Surprisingly, only a few of the research participants used cost-benefit language in defining effectiveness.

The use of Lewin’s (1951) force field analysis provided a model to apply the findings to the question of how donors define effectiveness. The model illustrated that the study’s findings have the capacity to undermine the restraining forces. Enhanced communication strategies, asking for donor’s opinions, identifying non-financial performance metrics for development staff and establishing a donor ombudsperson are offered as specific calls to action to enhance the donor’s feeling valued by the organization.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES	ix
LIST OF FIGURES	x
CHAPTER	
I. INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY	1
Background to the Study.....	2
Practitioner Utilization of the Research.....	5
Purpose.....	11
Focus	12
Research Questions.....	12
Terms and Definitions.....	13
Considerations.....	14
Significance of the Study	15
Overview of the Study	15
II. LITERATURE REVIEW	17
Historical Overview of Fund Raising in Higher Education.....	19
Lewin’s Force Field Analysis	24
Conclusion	39
III. METHODOLOGY	40
Study Setting.....	40
Introduction to the Study	40
Qualitative Research Process.....	42
Data Sources	43
Ethical Considerations	47
Data Gathering Strategies	47
IV. RESEARCH FINDINGS	55
Overall Response to the Study.....	55
Emergent Themes	59
Research Findings Summarized.....	91
V. DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS.....	93
Discussion.....	103
Call to Action.....	106
Further Research	112
Conclusion	114

APPENDICES	115
REFERENCES	121

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE	PAGE
1. Data Gathered	56
2. Validation as an Emerging Theme.....	63
3. Connecting the Findings to the Research Questions.....	93

LIST OF FIGURES

FIGURES	PAGE
1. Theoretical Framework.....	18
2. Literature Review Utilizing Force Field Analysis	25
3. Revised Force Field Analysis with Findings from Study	105
4. Call to Action.....	108

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

An article written by a donor who shared her experience of creating a scholarship in honor of her father illustrates an issue in the philanthropic world – whether institutions fulfill the intent of the donor’s charitable gift or focus only on their own metrics of success (Kronstadt, 2011). The donor intended to establish a scholarship to provide one full-tuition scholarship annually. The donor assumed that her charitable gift would continue to generate sufficient funds to fulfill the intent of the gift, despite inflation and tuition increases.

The donor discovered that the proposed endowment would only pay out a fraction of the charitable gift each year. While paying out only a portion of the charitable gift would allow the endowment to grow and remain intact for perpetuity, it also meant that the gift would not provide the full-tuition scholarship the donor wanted to provide. The donor concluded that this was an “unacceptable betrayal” (Kronstadt, 2011, para. 4) to her intention and choose to create a scholarship outside of the university.

Kronstadt (2011) takes to task the institutional discrepancies between implied expectations of donors and the reality of the institutions’ practices. Institutions are negligent in focusing on the intent of the donor. Rather, institutions are caught up in declaring successful fundraising campaigns based upon the amount of money that is contributed and the number of donors. This leaves donors like Kronstadt feeling unappreciated by the organization.

Today’s philanthropists are interested in transforming society with their charitable gifts. By making charitable gifts, donors are no longer interested in simply providing cash contributions to organizations. Instead donors are actively becoming more involved and aware of the outcomes their charitable gifts create. This study explores why donors make charitable

gifts and what donors are attempting to accomplish with their charitable gifts. The study focuses on a better understanding of how donors define the success or effectiveness of their charitable gifts in fulfilling the intent of the gift.

Background to the Study

Fundraising performance is the traditional measure of organizational effectiveness (Brooks, 2004). Two of the most common measures are how much money it takes to raise a dollar and the number of donors. These measurements are easily quantifiable and standard across the nonprofit world (Brittingham & Pezzullo, 1990). Brittingham and Pezzullo (1990) concluded, “while they [the cost to raise a dollar and number of donations] represent a rather narrow focus for research, they also appear to be the most fundamental issues to professional fund raisers and to those who make institutional policies regarding fund raising...” (p. 79). This is the paradigm that currently exists. When an organization’s leadership asks about the effectiveness of the fundraising program, it consists of the overall amount raised, the number of donors, and other cost-related metrics.

Fund raising professional organizations reinforce this metric. To assist organizations in capturing benchmarking data, the Association of Fundraising Professionals conducts the Fundraising Effectiveness Survey Report, an annual study to measure fund raising effectiveness. The project is designed to “measure, compare and maximize” annual growth in fund raising programs, which allow organizations “to make better-informed, growth-oriented budget decisions to boost donor revenue” (p. 2). This approach may be fundamental to the organization, but it is a short-term, bottom-line approach that limits the organizations ability to build greater capacity by focusing on long-term, donor-centered fund raising (Burk, 2003; Joyaux, 1997).

What is left out of measuring effectiveness from a purely cost-related basis is any sense of whether the charitable gift accomplished the intent of the donor. Today's donors "enlists a new paradigm for the donor relationship," namely a transformational stage of changing, where donors view themselves as partners with organizations to create change (Strickland, 2007, p. 108). The philanthropist Eli Broad echoed this sentiment in an interview by saying that new foundations have "been started by entrepreneurs that want a return on the investment, whether it is improved student achievement, greater attendance at museums, scientific and medical breakthroughs, and the like" (Bermudez, 2012, May 31, p. 236). This shift in practice among donors has yet to be recognized by institutions. There are disconnects between how organizations define effectiveness and increasingly how donors define effectiveness.

Accountability

Stakeholders demand greater accountability from institutions of higher education (McCormick, 2010; Zumeta, 2011). Simply defined, accountability is "responsibility for one's actions to someone or to multiple parties as a result of legal, political... financial, personal, or simply morally based ties" (Zumeta, 2011, p. 133). While American higher education has traditionally been subject to the nature and whims of the American public, the current focus on greater effectiveness and public accountability is rooted in a new sense of what the public wants from its institutions (Cohen & Kisker, 2010; Zumeta, 2011).

One of the reasons for this change of expectation by stakeholders is that higher education is "increasingly viewed as a private consumer good" rather than as a public one (Weerts, 2007, p. 80). The expectation is that donors do not simply give because of the benevolence the donor

feels for an institution. Rather, donors consider their charitable gift as an investment and a way to advance their “private vision for society” (Ostrander, 2007, p. 366).

Higher education is faced with increased pressure from many stakeholders, including donors, to demonstrate effectiveness in meeting both societal and stakeholder’s needs (Hoole, 2005; Powell, Gilleland, & Pearson, 2012). The Spellings Commission (U.S. Department of Education, 2005), in particular, cemented the idea of greater accountability in higher education when it stated that there is a:

...remarkable shortage of clear, accessible information about crucial aspects of American colleges and universities, from financial aid to graduation rates. Because data systems are so limited and inadequate, it is hard for policymakers to obtain reliable information on student’s progress through the education pipeline. This lack of useful data and accountability hinders policymakers and the public from making informed decisions and prevents higher education from demonstrating its contribution to the public good. (p. 4)

While the Spellings Commission (2005) may have moved the assessment paradigm to the forefront, the commission was not alone in calling for greater assessment in higher education.

Today, numerous ideas are being proposed to the public.

Two such proposals are coming from The Lumina Foundation and Education Sector. The Lumina Foundation (2012) is advocating for a “redefinition” of quality in higher education; one “rooted, not in the concept of inputs (large endowments, impressive facilities, highly selective admission policies, steep tuition costs), but in the idea of outputs” (p. 3). Education Sector (2010), meanwhile, advocates a market-oriented system where “choice is made by informed consumers,” which requires transparent systems of accountability (p. 2). Whether it is a new compact with the American public (Kallison & Cohen, 2010) or the creation of a voluntary benchmark model (Powell, Gilleland & Pearson, 2012), foundations and think-tanks are responding to the public’s demand for increased scrutiny of higher education.

One of the issues in determining effectiveness is the difficulty in how to measure it. Effectiveness transcends efficiency and deals with something potentially less tangible. How an organization measures its social benefit is at the crux of determining how to define effectiveness. Higher education institutions, in particular, can relay the number of graduates or the number of students taking a class. But the question of whether those students actually learned anything is a potentially more difficult question to answer. While this research project does not deal directly with these issues, the questions help to frame the study, because nonprofit donors are paying attention to these issues, and are asking organizations to justify their continued support (Brooks, 2004; Kramer, 2009; McCormick, 2010; Sloan, 2009).

In this new paradigm, institutions and donors “share the responsibilities for executing and supporting” the mission of the university (Weerts, 2007, p. 96). With this added responsibility, donors are expecting more from their philanthropic experience. Higher education institutions that are able to “provide significant and meaningful donor experiences, more fully integrating the donor with the organization” may realize greater philanthropic support (Chung-Hoon, Hite, & Hite, 2005, p. 36) This new approach engages donors to reconsider how charitable gifts are reassessed (Arrillaga-Andreessen, 2011; Boverini, 2006; Burkhardt, 2007).

Practitioner Utilization of the Research

The current standards of how to define effectiveness has left donors, at best, confused about how their charitable gifts accomplish their intent. This is leading to greater demands for accountability, requiring nonprofit organizations to identify how performance results correspond to budgetary decisions (Carman, Fredericks, & Introcaso, 2008). Attention to stakeholders must remain integral to the organizational structure of the institution, because satisfying key

stakeholders according to their definition of what is valuable, translates to greater success. As Rainey (cited in Bryson, 2004) stated, “Public agencies are born of and live by satisfying interests that are sufficiently influential to maintain the agencies political legitimacy and the resources that come with it” (p. 25). Accountability is impacting non-profit organizations at all levels, whether this means measuring performance or outcomes (Minich, Howe, Langmeyer, & Corcoran, 2006).

Nonprofits and their donors are, therefore, more focused on creating assessment processes. Most organizations that conduct evaluations “do not understand or distinguish between reporting, monitoring, and management practices and evaluation” (Carman, 2003, p. 72). Yet, these data gathering strategies make the assessment process beneficial for the organization. Carman and Fredericks (2008) described what this process looks like among today’s nonprofits, and concluded that nonprofits tend to evaluate in three ways: as a distraction, as a promotional tool, and as a strategic management tool. In the cases when the evaluation is a distraction, Carman and Fredericks (2008) concluded that donors are often in a position to encourage the organization to reconsider how the evaluation may be used more effectively. Carman and Fredericks (2008) continued by stating that donors may also work with the non-profit organization to reconsider the types of data that are being required in the evaluation. Rather than “focusing on the numbers,” Carman and Fredericks (2008) concluded that donors and organizations must come together and decide on metrics which help “make specific program-related decisions... incorporating data into their public outreach and public awareness campaigns, or helping secure and leverage additional funding by including this information in future grant proposals” (p. 68). In the end, Carman and Fredericks (2008) stated that donors should not be asking non-profit organizations to conduct evaluations, which simply demonstrate

that organizations are doing “good work,” but should require the organization to conduct evaluations “so that they can do *better* work” (p. 68).

Regardless of how this is accomplished, the process is almost entirely focused on the evaluation from the organization’s stand-point. As discussed in Chapter II, the current literature rarely seems to include any evaluations which consider the process from the donor’s point of view. Despite a growing body of professional literature that discusses donor-intent and motivation, there appears a lack of research which focuses on outputs and assessment from the donor’s point of view. In fact, in the traditional view of determining effectiveness, donors generally are not considered qualified to determine how their donations are used, rather donors are “asked to pay for programs they often could neither touch nor comprehend, deferring to the wisdom” of the nonprofit (Barman, 2007, p. 1419).

The interactions between donors and organizations are beginning to change as more donors grow accustomed to choice in the marketplace and demand the same from philanthropic organizations. This demand from donors leads them to be more critical of how charitable gifts are utilized, and requires greater accountability from the nonprofit organization (Barman, 2008; Steiner-Khamsi, 2008). What remains to be explored is greater understanding of how donors determine if their financial contributions accomplished the purpose.

Researcher Lens

Qualitative research is “systematic empirical inquiry into meaning” (Shank, 2002, p. 5). Empirical inquiry is defined as an form of inquiry “that depends on the world of experience” to understand what is being studied (Shank, 2002, p. 6). My experiences determine how I conduct this research study, gather, view and analyze the data. In order to be truthful in this process, it is

important that readers of the study understand the lens that I am viewing the research process through. My researcher lens is akin to Shank's window, the metaphorical visual device that provides structure to the research study (Shank, 2002). An understanding of my researcher lens provides greater understanding of my experiences, biases, and transparencies to understand how I view the research process and data.

My experiences as both a researcher and a professional fund raiser provide me a unique basis to explore these types of issues. In my professional capacity, I often act as a go-between, representing both the institution's and donor's needs. In many respects, I have come to embody the *being-in* concept developed by Moustakas (1995). He described this process as "focused on being aware and understanding the other from her or his frame of reference" (p. 82). This understanding is vital to a successful fund raiser. Fund raisers engage with a number of people, each with perspectives, obligations, and expectations of what the intent of the donor's gift will accomplish. At the same time, the fund raiser is a representative of his or her organization. Therefore, it becomes pertinent that the fund raiser be accomplished enough to represent both the institution and the donor during the transaction. *Being-in* allows the fundraiser to encourage and support the donor's interests – what it is, how it may come to be, and where it is going, all within the structure of the organization's mission (Moustakas, 1995).

In my professional capacity I develop relationships with the donors. I get to know donors, not only as donors who have the financial capacity to invest in the organization, but as people with life stories that influence their decisions. These experiences lead me to understand that donating to an organization is a personal decision. When programs are identified for support, there is either a strong connection to the program, or the donor's support is tied to a larger motivation. Donors I have personally solicited often have a personal relationship with a

program (a favorite professor, for example) and wish to support the program based upon that relationship. Other times, the motivation for giving is based upon a personal belief and the understanding that the project would support that belief – a donor was an educator wishing to establish a scholarship for an education student or a military veteran who is interested in supporting veterans-related causes.

Balanced against this, though, is the organizational position I hold. I am, therefore, constantly balancing the wants of the donors and the wants of my organization. Each year, development officers are required to set goals. These are dollar goals based on what I believe I can raise in the coming year. In creating these goals, I look at the number of donors I believe are ready to be solicited, how much I think I can raise from them, all of which are negotiated with the college dean or program director. Goals are not based upon the perceived interests of the donor, nor are the outcomes of previous gifts considered. Goals fall very much in the current status quo of organizational effectiveness. Goals are based only upon how much money the fund raiser believes can be raised.

Goal setting is one of the reasons that I am interested in exploring donor's perceptions and attitudes. Over the years, I have come to think that creating goals based only on fiscal metrics misses a key perspective – the donor. While I am not indicating that donors should be consulted in establishing goals, I do believe that organizations are more interested in how much money can be raised, rather than how the money is used, and the outcomes that come from the support.

I have also observed that there appears to be a shift taking place with donors having specific expectations for what charitable gifts will accomplish. While the idea of supporting one's *alma mater* remains a viable reason to give, there is a change occurring among high-end

donors. These donors are becoming more interested in utilizing their philanthropic gifts to create lasting change, and therefore closely base their decisions on outcomes and assessment measures. Patton (1997b) stated that to make evaluations beneficial, evaluations should incorporate the perspectives from the groups who are most likely to benefit from the assessment. As donors have greater impact on the institutional mission, and the execution of that mission, it becomes more imperative that institutions understand the expectations donors are placing on their charitable gifts.

While higher education institutions are becoming more aware of the public's concern for accountability, there does not yet seem to be an equal realization that donors are changing how their support is used, and the process donor's use to determine outcomes. It is this attitude change I intend explored more deeply in the research project. I believe that my professional experience coupled with my research interests allows me to add a unique understanding of the problem as outlined.

Constructivism

Helping to frame this research project is my contention that everyone comes to an issue with particular perspectives arrived at from personal experiences. This constructivist's approach recognizes that within a social research undertaking there are likely to exist a range of opinions, attitudes and perceptions, often associated with assumed consequences, held by interest groups and individual actors (Doherty, 2009, p. 116). Guba (1990) clearly defined the constructivist paradigm when he wrote it "is governed by ideas that people develop concerning desirable or obligatory ways in which their coexistence should be structured" (p. 254). Knowledge, according to the constructivist, is "developmental, internally constructed, and socially and

culturally mediated by partners and stakeholders” (Weerts, 2007, p. 88). The constructivist approach not only deals with multiple perspectives being combined into greater understanding, but by doing so, provides an overarching structure from which to understand what is occurring.

Multiple perspectives of understanding are useful in exploring how a donor constructs meaning. Multiple perspectives are especially useful when discussing project outcomes with donors, as Patton (2002) wrote:

...constructivist evaluators could compare clients’ perceptions and social constructions with those of funders or program staff and could interpret the effects of differences on attainment of stated program goals...In constructivist evaluations, then, the claims, concerns, and issues of stakeholders serve as organizational foci (the basis for determining what information is needed. (p. 98)

By framing the research through a constructivist lens, the intent of the study is to explore how donors ascribe outcome and assessment measures to determine if their gift accomplished the intent. As Schwandt (2007) defined it, one way to consider the meaning of constructivism is “that human beings do not find or discover knowledge so much as construct or make it (p. 38). In the act of giving, each donor financially contributes to an organization for a personal and individual reason. Constructivism frames the study to critically look at how donors view themselves and to describe the donors’ purpose in making a gift.

Purpose

Modern day philanthropists, like Arrillaga-Andreessen (2011) encourage donors to move beyond simply making a donation to an organization. Rather, these new philanthropists set out to transform the issues they are interested in, considering the outcomes more important than the organizations. Using words like *empower*, *transform* and *transparency*, Arrillaga-Andreessen and others encourage donors to be proactive, rather than reactive, when making donations.

Donors are encouraged to be strategic, to find ways that “will educate, empower and inspire anyone who wants to give... to do so – and more effectively” (Arrillaga-Andreessen, 2011, p. 5).

One of the keys to being strategic is to focus on outcomes and assessments.

This study builds upon Brest’s (2012) argument that organizations seek “to achieve clearly defined goals...where both parties monitor progress toward outcomes and assess their success in achieving them in...” (p. 42). Development officers and the leaders of their organizations are behind the curve. They are concerned with how to encourage someone to give, to match their interests with their organizations. Instead, these institutional representatives need to understand not only why a donor gives, but what the donor is attempting to accomplish and how success or failure of charitable gifts are to be measured. Exploring the perspective of the donor allows the organization to gain a new perspective on how to determine and measure success. This changing philanthropic environment demands that institutions become more aware of the needs a donor has when making a gift, in order to understand the expectations placed upon charitable gift.

Focus

The researcher hopes to gain a better understanding of how the research participants define effectiveness. The focus of this study is to explore how donors ascribe meaning to their charitable gifts and the outcomes from those charitable acts.

Research Questions

1. How does a donor construct meaning from their charitable gift?
2. How does a donor define an *effective* use of their charitable gift?

3. If there is an expectation of the outcomes a donor anticipates when he or she contributes to an organization, what are the expectations?

Terms and Definitions

Charitable Gift – The financial contribution made by a donor to a philanthropic institution. While charitable gifts may include gifts-in-kind or other non-monetary donations, for the purposes of this study a charitable gift primarily refers to monetary contributions.

Development – The process of raising funds for a nonprofit organization.

Donor intent – “The explicit intentions of a philanthropist for how a certain gift or bequest should be used or allocated. In less specific cases, the donor intent might simply be the ideas and values the philanthropist hopes will be honored in future allocation of the resources in question” (Arrillaga-Andreessen, 2011, p. 274).

Effectiveness – It is not the intent of the researcher to define effectiveness. Rather, the term is interpreted by the researcher through an understanding of the gathered data and in honor and respect of the research participants during the course of the study.

Major donor – For the purpose of this study, a major donor to Whatsamatta U. is defined as someone who contributed in excess of \$100,000.

Strategic philanthropy – “A type of philanthropic practice that may include, but is not limited to, the following elements: having clear goals, a strategy by which to achieve those goals, and measurement metrics to assess progress toward those goals and the resulting social return on investment” (Arrillaga-Andreessen, 2011, p. 283).

Venture philanthropy – “A form of high-engagement and high-impact giving that includes...investment of financial, intellectual, and human capital; multiyear grants designed to build organizational capacity; outcomes-based measurements of mutually determined...strategic objectives; annual evaluation; exit strategy; and mutual accountability between the grantor and grantees” (Arrillaga-Andreessen, 2011, p. 284).

Considerations

This study is limited by its purpose and focus to major donors to Whatsamatta U., a pseudonym. “Major donor” is defined differently at different institutions. Whatsamatta U. defines a major donor as someone who has given either an outright gift of \$25,000 or more, or has made at least a \$25,000 pledge. A survey of peer institutions to Whatsamatta U. found that many of the universities define “major donor” in a similar fashion. However, given the nature of the study, the research participants will include donors who have contributed at least \$100,000 to Whatsamatta U. Findings, therefore, should not be generalized to any other institution or donor base.

A strength of qualitative research is the ability of the donor to engage in the inductive nature of the inquiry. The study provided the means for the researcher to immerse himself into another’s perspective, remaining flexible and open to what the process yielded. It is important to note that, while the study presents thick and rich descriptions of the setting and research participants, the intent is not for the findings or conclusions to be generalized to other settings.

The quality of the study is directly related to the issue of trustworthiness. As Gibson and Brown (2009) presumed, trustworthiness focuses on the context of data gathering and the methods of the generation of data, rather than an inherent truthfulness. As such, the notion of

truth becomes open to interpretation by the researcher, research participants and readers of the study. I attempted to avail myself at all times by providing context, thick and rich descriptions and a trail of documented reflections to allow the reader an understanding of my thought-processes.

Significance of the Study

The donor mentioned at the beginning of this chapter is but one example of donors who hope to make a difference in society through their charitable gifts, only to be thwarted by either institutional processes that do not empower donors or by the institution focusing on the wrong measures of success. Too often, university administrators and development professionals fail to see the needs, wishes and expectations of the donors.

This study allows organizations to gain new perspectives on how donors determine and measure success. By including donors who have contributed over \$100,000 to the institution, the study drew upon the experiences of donors who have made significant investments in the university. The beliefs, expectations, and conclusions of these individuals provided greater understanding of what is important to donors who have the significant capacity to transform organizations.

Overview of the Study

The study consists of five chapters. Chapter I introduces the study, provides its background and defines the purpose and focus of the proposed study. Chapter II summarizes the studies which frame and provide context to the problem. The chapter begins by providing a historical context to philanthropy in the establishment of higher education. Chapter II then adapts Lewin's (1951) force-field analysis illustrate the current and competing forces on the

definition of effective fund raising. Chapter III details the methodological approach for the study. The chapter outlines the units of analysis, and describes the data gathering procedures and analysis strategies. Chapter IV includes the findings of the study. Chapter V discusses the findings and offers practical implications based upon the findings.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

From the very first gift to an American college by John Harvard in 1638, American colleges and universities have relied upon the generosity of donors to support higher education institutions (Bremner, 1988). Illustrating the growing importance of fund raising in higher education, former University of Michigan president James Duderstadt stated that public university “used to be state-supported, then state-assisted, and now are state located” (Cash, 2003). Since Duderstadt made this comment, the reliance upon fund raising has becoming more pronounced due to greater accountability among stakeholders of higher education (Farrell, 2003, Oct. 31; Mann, 2007).

The role of philanthropy has always been integral to the success of the institution. What has changed in the last fifty years is a shift from an amateur model where passionate alumni banded together to assist their *alma mater* to a professionalized cadre of development officers who act as facilitators and engage with donors on behalf of the university (Friedman & McGarvie, 2003; Worth, 2002). With this shift also occurred a new understanding of how effective fund raising was measured.

A professionalized development operation has required structured and stringent methods to determine effectiveness (Hwang & Powell, 2009). Today, effectiveness is measured by determining if an organization is adept at raising money, not how the money is used. Through outcome-based management initiatives at the federal level, however – specifically the Government Performance and Results Act and the Program Assessment Rating Tool (Carman, Fredericks, & Introcaso, 2008), nonprofit organizations that receive federal monies must report

how the money is used, and whether the donated monies meet the expectations of the government (i.e., the donor) and the nonprofit.

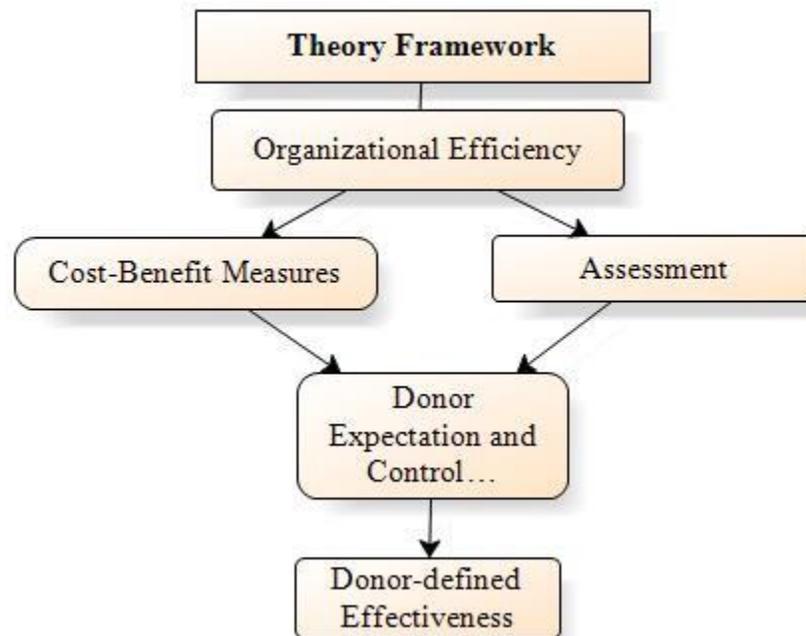


Figure 1. Theoretical Framework

The purpose of this study was to examine and understand how donors construct these expectations and assess the effectiveness of the outcomes. A review of the literature provides an overview of the historical perspective of philanthropy and its integral role in the establishment of higher education. Adapting Lewin's (1951) model of force-field analysis (see Figure 1), the prevalent, practitioner view of an effective fund raising program and the forces at play today to redefine this term is explored. Greater demand on how institutions define effectiveness from a cost-benefit perspective is also examined. Finally, current forces, namely the impact of donor behavior and the new venture and strategic philanthropy movements, illustrate how effectiveness is reconsidered to reflect donor-defined outcomes (see Figure 2). Relevant literature illustrates

that greater understanding occurs when the donor's point of view is included in the overall definition of effectiveness.

Historical Overview of Fund Raising in Higher Education

Philanthropy has been an integral part of higher education since the very first American colleges were created (Cohen & Kisker, 2010; Friedman & McGarvie, 2003). Yale became the first college to organize an alumni society (1828), which contributed approximately \$100,000 to the college in its first few years (Cohen & Kisker, 2010). By 1869, Harvard had raised \$2.2 million (Cohen & Kisker, 2010). By 1870, the entire amount of money raised collectively for all American colleges was between \$8 and \$9 million per year from private donations (Cohen & Kisker, 2010). By 2011, this number had increased to almost \$30.3 billion, \$13.5 billion of the total from individuals (Biemiller, 2012, Feb. 15). What these figures describe is the “machinery of benevolence” (Bremner, 1988, p. 86) impacting education.

A better understanding of history becomes critical for understanding how this machinery has worked to create the system of philanthropy as we know it today. Just as the great philanthropists of the 19th Century hoped to impact their society, today's philanthropists hope to partake in transformational giving, which is distinguished from other motivations to give by “their unique capacity to alter the programs, perceptions and future of an organization” (Grace & Wendroff, 2001b, p. 15). By moving beyond a general description of giving to a deeper understanding of how individual gifts are able to transform communities through the creation and support of educational institutions, this literature review intends to provide both an historical understanding and structure to how expectations and assessment have evolved to today's current discussions.

A Brief Early History of Educational Philanthropy

Fund raising for higher education has its roots in Twelfth Century with the advent of medieval European universities (Miller, 1991). Henry Dunster, the first president of Harvard College, initiated fund raising for higher education in America in 1640, a process that has gone unbroken to this day (Cook & Lasher, 1996). Until the start of the Civil War, American university fund raising consisted of an amalgamation of private and public support (Bremner, 1988; Cash, 2003, 2005; Friedman & McGarvie, 2003). Most fund raising was conducted by the college president or faculty members, and often relied upon subscriptions and in-kind gifts to sufficiently fund the annual operational costs (Cash, 2005; Cohen & Kisker, 2010).

Scientific-philanthropy

After the American Civil War, these patterns of support began to evolve. The “rapid growth of industrial wealth, the move toward urbanization and westward expansion, the Protestant culture of American exceptionalism, and a secular understanding of the aims of education” strengthened the interests and desires to support colleges and universities (Cash, 2005, p. 344). Carnegie (2006) best summed up the tenure of the times when he wrote:

...the best means of benefiting the community is to place within its reach the ladders upon which the aspiring can rise – parks, and means of recreation, by which men are helped in body and mind; works of art, certain to give pleasure and improve the public taste; and public institutions of various kinds, which will improve the general condition of the people – in this manner returning their surplus wealth to the mass of their fellows in the forms best calculated to do them lasting good. (p. 12)

Donors of the post-Civil War period intended to transform society in their own image. Private support of public institutions allowed individuals to support both those who hoped to advance their lot in life, while also “caring for those who failed in the competitive struggle for wealth” (Hamer, 1998).

Carnegie is the quintessential example of this new approach to philanthropy. Carnegie “urged the millionaire class to concentrate its philanthropic efforts on the able and industrious,” advice that suited the temperament of the times by advocating the idea of the self-made man (Bremner, 1988, p. 103). He identified the best fields in which to give, including libraries, art museums and universities – all places that could educate and uplift inquiring minds (Carnegie, 2006).

Carnegie was not the only philanthropist during this period whose charitable giving was focused on intersecting social and educational aims. Leland Stanford’s “avowed purpose was to create a new kind of university which would give a practical rather than theoretical education” (Bremner, 1988, p. 105). Carnegie approved of Stanford’s creation, saying “here is the noble use of wealth” (Carnegie, as cited in Bremner, 1988, p. 105). John D. Rockefeller, too, was an ardent supporter of higher education. In 1889, Rockefeller donated \$600,000 to the University of Chicago, and followed that initial gift with \$1million in 1890 and a similar sum in 1892 (Bremner, 1988). While Carnegie believed he had a responsibility to society to help those who were less fortunate, Rockefeller’s philanthropy was rooted in his religious belief. Feeling it an obligation to use the money God granted him to enrich society, Rockefeller established his foundation to help support worthy beneficiaries (Bremner, 1988; Cash, 2005; Curti, Green, & Nash, 1963).

Institutions of higher education were often beneficiaries of these charitable gifts support because of their ability to make immediate and lasting effects on individuals and society:

...what is distinctive about the rich donors in America in the late nineteenth century is that they aimed their giving squarely at causes and not at symptoms; or to put it another way, they practiced what we can call philanthropy rather than charity. (Katz, 2005, p. 126)

Relying upon wholesale and not retail philanthropy, the philanthropists of this period looked, not at making small-scale charitable gifts that helped individuals, but large-scale philanthropic gifts that focused on changing segments of society (Friedman & McGarvie, 2003).

Post-World War II

Educational fund raising in the mid to late-Twentieth Century “came of age” with the development of professional development staffs and “accompanying techniques” (Cook & Lasher, 1996, p. 35). Following World War II, as the GI Bill allowed greater numbers of returning servicemen to attend university, universities realized the need for additional resources, and a professional staff to conduct the necessary campaigns. While the profession in its current form began to form during this period, fund raising was primarily conducted via outside consultants who worked in tandem with university administrators and alumni organizations (Worth, 2002).

In 1958, however, more than seventy presidents, trustees, advancement officers and representatives from business, professional fund raising and public relations organizations met at the Greenbrier Hotel (Cook & Lasher, 1996; Richards & Sherratt, 1981). The corresponding report recommended that public relations, fund raising and alumni relations be integrated into one coordinated function – institutional advancement:

The Greenbrier report was a comprehensive effort to define and improve the management of institutional advancement and its elements...The report advised institutions to select an organizing pattern for their programs that would encourage coordination of all advancement functions that would lighten the responsibilities of the president. The report recommended the appointment of an “administrative coordinator” at each institution who would work in harmony with the president to oversee alumni relations, fund raising, and public relations. (Richards & Sherratt, 1981, p. 11)

With this new model firmly in place, fund raising at universities took on a heightened profile on the university campus.

Cutlip (as cited in Worth, 2002) illustrates the increased reliance, and expectation, placed on university fund raisers. The Harvard University campaign of 1904-5 raised \$2.5 million, while a 1919-1920 campaign raised more than \$14 million. In 1956-1960, Harvard raised a “staggering sum” of \$82,775,553 (p. 33). In 1999, Harvard was the first university to break the \$2 billion barrier by raising \$2.3 billion in less than 5 years. These gifts are more than simply a successful organization able to mobilize vast numbers of alumni to donate. It represents a new and increasing expectation by donors that their gifts somehow make a difference in shaping the world (Forbes, 2012, September 18).

Contemporary Philanthropy

Contemporary philanthropists, like Bill and Melinda Gates and Eli Broad, represent the continuing trend of transformative giving begun by Carnegie and his contemporaries. Gates emphasized that his philanthropy seeks to support “change agents” with good ideas, stressing measured results (Preston, 2012, June 26, para. 9). While Gates has become the preeminent philanthropist today, Broad, too, has affected philanthropy by not just donating money, but by expecting change. Often being defined as unreasonable, Broad has adopted the mantle to make it his own philosophy of philanthropy and change:

The art of being unreasonable is the art of demanding and getting the very best out of people. It’s the art of seeing the things that need to change, of seeing the institutions that need to be built, and of proposing the things that need to be done. It’s the art of asking hard questions, of demanding to know *why* or *why not*. It’s the art of working with a passion and not being concerned about pushback from people who are unwilling to move forward. (Philanthropy, 2012, Summer, para 3)

In summarizing philanthropy in the late-19th Century, Cash (2005) wrote that “reliance on private gifts appeared to increase at a time that institutions responded to changing social and educational aims” (p. 354). If one looks at the amount of money being donated today, one might conclude similar societal changes are occurring. Gates, Broad, and Warren Buffett are only a few of the billionaires who are utilizing their amassed fortunes to address the roots of issues they are concerned about. This approach, very similar to the 19th Century philanthropists, are imbedded in their beliefs that concentrated efforts in specific areas of need are more effective – and therefore able to effect grater change – than a wide-spread approach to help numerous organizations.

Lewin’s Force Field Analysis

The remainder of the literature review will adopt Lewin’s force field analysis (see Figure 2). The model is appropriate because the purpose of the study is to change the paradigm from a cost-benefit definition of effectiveness to a more donor-centered definition. Lewin’s force field analysis provides a strategy to accomplish this paradigm change. Lewin (1951, 1997) posited that there is an imaginary point or line representing the current status of a situation or issue. On one side of this line are the restraining forces that hold in check the driving forces, or the competing notions which threatens to change the equilibrium. The equilibrium line is dynamic, freezing and un-freezing depends upon which forces are outweighed by the other (Lewin, 1997).

This approach is often used in planning analysis and organizational change (Baulcomb, 2003; Norsworthy & Gerstein, 2003; Schwering, 2003; Snyder, 2009). The process remains the same:

1. identify both the restraining and driving forces

2. attempt to unfreeze the equilibrium by emphasizing the driving forces or undermining the resisting forces, and shifting the attitudes or behaviors in the desired direction
3. once this new level of stasis has been reached, refreeze the equilibrium by stabilizing the desired effect (Lewin, 1951, 1997).

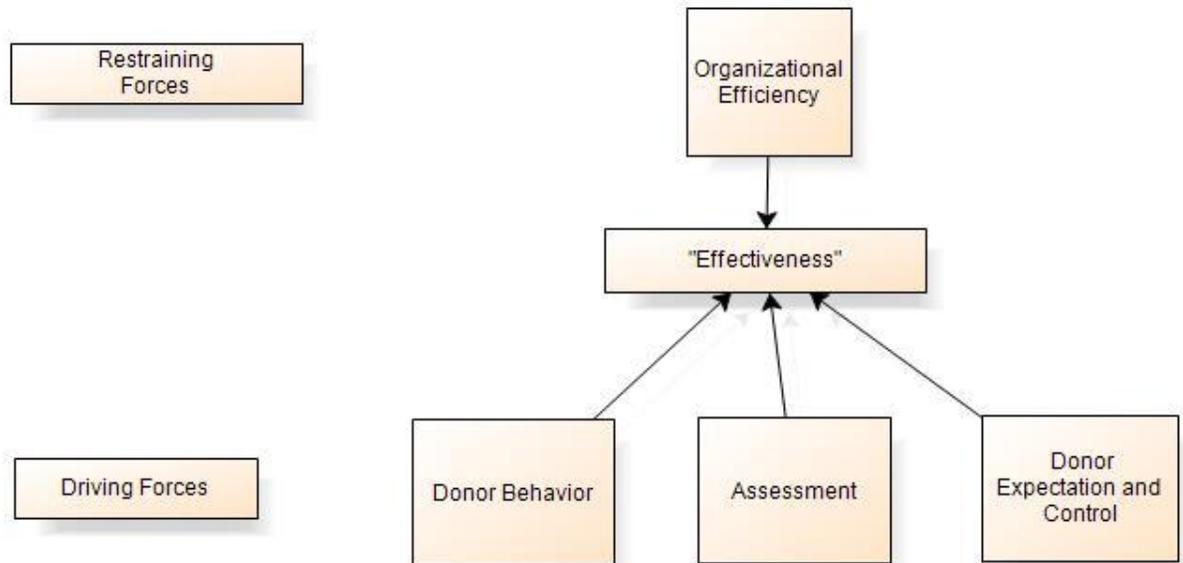


Figure 2. Literature Review Utilizing Force Field Analysis
 Adopted from Lewin, K. (1951). *Field theory in social science*. Ann Arbor, MI: Research Center for Group Dynamics.

The goal, therefore, is to either decrease the restraining forces, or increase the driving forces in order to create a new *status quo*. Lewin’s model allows one to consider the “dynamic balance of forces” at work in an environment (Lunenburg, 2010, p. 5). Force field analysis does not strengthen or reduce the resisting forces. Rather, the model provides a “mechanism for identifying and assessing the various forces working for and against strategic change” (Thomas, 1985, p. 56).

Lewin’s model has attracted criticism. Critiques have argued that Lewin’s force field analysis assumes that organizations operate in stable states, ignoring organizational power and

politics (Dunphy & Stace, 1993). Dunphy and Stace (1993) concluded that Lewin's approach is a top-down, or management-driven approach to change. Garvin (as cited in Boohene & Williams, 2012) contended that Lewin's model was too simplistic in an environment of continuous and open-ended change.

Alternative methods of changing culture exist. Bolman and Deal (2008) posited that change necessitated framing the issues; that is, change takes place when the ideas and assumptions of a culture are reconsidered through different understandings and perspectives. Morgan (2006) similarly stated that organizational change required an understanding of the culture before change can occur. Kotter (1996) presented an eight-stage process for creating change which included creating a climate for change, engaging the organization and implementing and sustaining the change. Schein (2010) offered a model that focused on "psycho-social dynamics" to fix concrete problems (p. 299). To Schein (2010), transformative changes requires that groups must "unlearn" something while learning something new (p. 301). Each of these approaches are unique to their respective authors. Yet, the overall basis resides in Lewin's (1951) unfreezing, changing, and refreezing the status quo. Schein (2010), in fact, used similar language as Lewin, including unfreezing and refreezing in discussing how to reinforce culture change (p. 311). Change, then, requires some motivation or stimuli to change, the learning of new concepts or the undermining of old, and finally the internalization of the new standards (Kotter, 1996; Lewin, 1951; Schein, 2010).

Lewin's force field analysis provides a way to structure the study. The status quo is effectiveness defined in cost-benefit terms (Brooks, 2004). The status quo is being challenged by donor's who want greater assessment, expectation and control over how charitable gifts are

used and what defines effectiveness. These driving forces are attempting to create a new definition of effectiveness.

Restraining Forces

Organizational Efficiency: The Current Paradigm.

When the current practitioner literature is reviewed, accountability and assessment of success is viewed through a cost-benefit lens. Two of fund raising's national organizations have contributed to this discussion with the advent of national surveys that consider fund raising performance. One survey, conducted by the Association of Fundraising Professionals and the Center on Nonprofits and Philanthropy at the Urban Institute was piloted in 2006, and has been continued annually. The Fundraising Effectiveness Survey "enables participating groups to measure and compare their fund raising gain and loss ratios to those of similar organizations" (Institute, 2012, p. 2). The premise behind the survey is to conduct research on "fundraising effectiveness" and to help nonprofits "increase their fundraising results at a faster pace" (Institute, 2012, p. 2).

While this may be one of the most systematic approaches to defining effectiveness, it is not the sole one. Much of the practitioner literature approaches the concept of effectiveness in the same way. Two how-to guides published by the Council for Advancement and Support of Education (CASE) listed total dollars raised, alumni participation rates, budget size, direct mail responses and other quantifiable data as the best strategy to benchmark against (Schroeder, 2000; Wylie, 2004). Even Penelope Burk, who has established herself as a donor's advocate in creating her donor-centered fund raising approach stated that effective management of fund

raising “means managing for overall results in donor cultivation, donor movement, and growth in gross and net revenue across the collective fundraising portfolio” (Burk, 2003, p. 174).

Practitioner training, too, adopts this line of assessment. One such example is The Fundraising School at Indiana University. In their core course for the Certificate in Fund Raising Management, the sole area that discusses measuring returns lists average gift, participation and the cost to raise a dollar as three metrics to utilize (*Principles and Techniques of Fundraising*, 2004). Another comes from the Association for Healthcare Philanthropy which defined development outcomes in a similar style – number of gifts, median gift size, return on investment cash costs, return on investment production costs (McGinly & Kaufman, 2006). This is collectively defined as the “rate of return on philanthropy investment” (McGinly & Kaufman, 2006, p. 7).

These measurements of success may be due to the organizational structure of universities. Bergquist and Pawlak (2008) identified six cultures of higher education, the most dominant of which is the managerial culture. Managerial cultures are identified by their “clearly specified [outcomes] and criteria for judging performance” and cost-containment (Bergquist and Pawlak, 2008, p. 44). The managerial culture adopts a leadership approach of efficient and effective managers of human and financial resources (Bergquist & Pawlak, 2008). The managerial culture parallels Bolman and Deal’s (2008) structural model, whose central concept revolves around rules, roles, goals and policies. Six assumptions underscore Bolman and Deal’s (2008) structural frame, including a focus on increased “efficiency and enhanced performance,” “coordination and control,” and a high reliance upon structures which provide support for the system (p. 47).

Effectiveness from the current standpoint is tied, almost exclusively, on how efficient an organization is at raising money. Grace and Wendroff (2001b) and Dietlin (2010) define this

type of organization as focusing on transactional giving. Transactional giving is defined as fund raising with an emphasis on the transaction – the “internally driven process” and activities that emphasize the organizations procedures rather than donor connectedness (Grace & Wendroff, 2001, p. 14). The managerial culture of higher education is especially attracted to transactional giving because transactional giving is typically defined in terms of organizational need (Grace & Wendroff, 2001). Goals are established “from the planning processes that are the result of looking in mirrors at institutional needs rather than through windows at the community” (Grace & Wendroff, 2001, p. 18). As Brooks (2004) wrote, utilizing the metrics associated with this type of thinking are the easiest and most straight forward way of comparing success among peer institutions. These metrics are very much in keeping with the managerial culture of today’s higher educational institutions (Bergquist & Pawlak, 2008). What is not included in this approach is how institutions engage their donors by tapping their individual interests and showing how those interests can be accomplished through the nonprofit’s mission.

Driving Forces

Assessment

While a majority of assessment and evaluation processes are limited to the social service sector, a greater public expectation of assessment is beginning to have a trickledown effect to other nonprofit organizations outside social service organizations. As individual donors, as opposed to government and foundation donors, are becoming more critical of how charitable gifts are utilized, all nonprofits, including colleges and universities, are recognizing this new paradigm in accountability (Carman, et al., 2008).

Carman (2003) argued that the growing movement for accountability in the non-profit sector has forced nonprofit organizations to evaluate the effectiveness of their organizations. Yet, many of these organizations do not distinguish between various evaluation activities. Carman (2003) concluded that much improvement is needed to understand the purpose of evaluations and how to best improve the evaluation practice within the organization to ensure its utilization. Carman and Fredericks (2008) described what this evaluation process looks like among today's nonprofits, including the types of evaluations nonprofits conduct, as well as the data gathered and how that data is used. The authors concluded that nonprofits tend to evaluate in three ways: as a distraction, as a promotional tool, and as a strategic management tool. The authors recommended that nonprofit managers rethink how the evaluation process is viewed in order to use the results more effectively.

A recent line of inquiry reconsiders how to define the evaluation process. A study conducted by Mitchell (2013) concluded that organizational leaders are beginning to define effectiveness based upon outcomes. This redefinition is driven, in part, by the expectations of stakeholders who apply outcome measurements to assess organizations (MacIndoe & Barman, 2012). Organizational leaders must respond to the desire of stakeholders to assess the success of organizations.

Stakeholder assessment is a common theme among these studies. While organizations recognize the need to measure their success, there remains confliction as to the best way to define success. Cost-benefit metrics are easily defined by the organization, and therefore popular measurements of effectiveness. However, as MacIndoe and Barman (2012) concluded, stakeholders are beginning to press organizations for greater assessment based upon outcomes.

Regardless of the approach, stakeholders are demanding assessment metrics to determine organizational success.

Donor Behavior

Why a donor chooses to make a charitable gift is paramount to understanding the current study. As previously noted, the current measure of effectiveness is centered on the number of donors to an organization and the amount that is contributed. Professional fund raisers, therefore, are focused on motivational strategies to engage and encourage donors to continue donating to their organizations (Burdenski, 2003; Panas, 2008; Schroeder, 2000; Wylie, 2004). Bielefeld, Rooney and Steinberg (2005) concluded that nonprofit professionals are able to influence levels of giving by focusing on “macro-level economic, political and sociocultural” variables when constructing appeals (p. 139). This messaging is designed to engage the donor to make the gift. By considering a donor’s behavior from the perspective of the organization, Bielefeld, Rooney and Steinberg (2005) concluded that it is possible to motivate a donor by the appeal’s message.

Alternative academic studies view the donor’s behavior from the donor’s perspective. These studies generally classify donor behavior, or motivation, in one of three ways – altruistic, reciprocal or due to direct benefits (Bruggink & Siddiqui, 1995; Mann, 2007). Leslie and Ramey (1986) were early advocates of research that determined what motivated a donor to make a charitable gift. Leslie and Ramey (1986) considered how donor groups react when making decisions to support institutes of higher education and concluded that alumni most often respond to the institutional prestige and the financial security of their alma mater, while non-alumni donors make decisions based upon institutional quality. Leslie and Ramey (1986) also

concluded that fund raising efforts were “reactive” (p. 1) and follow a pre-subscribed pattern (i.e., formulaic strategies designed to yield the greatest return on the cost to raise a dollar metric). Donors, too, act in a predictable manner, yet may be swayed by emotional appeals. It has a direct bearing on why a donor chooses to make a donation, and therefore how the donor may define the effectiveness of the gift (Leslie & Ramey, 1986).

Cook and Lasher (1996) considered motivation from neither a performance nor outcome-based perspective. Rather, Cook and Lasher (1996) asked simply why a donor makes a charitable gift. Cook and Lasher (1996) concluded that donor behavior was moving away from an altruistic model, and has adapted an exchange model which is based upon *quid pro quo* and recognition. This recognition can take various forms, including the consideration of tax incentives (Cook & Lasher, 1996). While wealthy donors may respond to changes in deductibility of their donations, middle- and lower-class donors seem unaffected by tax incentives, and are often motivated more by the intrinsic value received by making a donation (Cook & Lasher, 1996). From an effectiveness perspective, the study is important to remind the researcher that there are various reasons and motivations for why someone donates, and therefore how donors may deem their donations to be used effectively.

Additional lines of inquiry have utilized financial metrics to determine why donors make charitable gifts. Kitching (2009), for example, examined whether donors favor charities that use high quality auditors, and whether a donor’s decision to donate was affected by the quality of the audit process. The author found that a quality audit does affect the decisions of donors to donate to a nonprofit organization, and that charities can benefit from the positive reputation provided by their auditing process (Kitching, 2009). While Kitching’s (2009) approach addresses both accountability and donor motivation, he did not address the effectiveness of the organization,

stating only that when standard accounting principles are employed, a donor's decision to make additional gifts may be affected. Sloan (2009), however, questioned the "reality of whether such standards make a difference to donors" (p. 220). She concluded "that positive accountability ratings" did increase donors' contributions to a nonprofit (Sloan, 2009, p. 229). However, the primary responsibility to hold nonprofits to strict accountability must be borne by the donor. This mirrors some of the work that Alaimo (2008) did a year earlier, when he concluded that financial accountability dictates a donor's motivation to make a charitable gift.

While the perspective of the donor is increasingly becoming part of the process, Alaimo (2008), Kitching (2009) and Sloan's (2009) studies continue to focus on the concept of effectiveness as a way to engage, encourage, and even cajole a donor into making a gift. Kitching (2009) and Sloan's (2009) studies remain firmly rooted in the cost-benefit paradigm.

Researchers are beginning to see a shift in perspective, however. Change in understanding donor behavior appears to take place when donors begin to demand more from their charitable interests. As donors demand greater control over the use of their gifts, a "free market" of competing nonprofits begins to take shape (Barman, 2007, p. 1426). Donors, therefore, effectively begin to shape what and how things are funded. Research indicated that nonprofits will begin to shape their mission to conform to the expectations of their donors (Barman, 2008).

Concerns for organizations in adapting to greater donor control

Ostrander (2007) posited three reasons to be concerned with the growing trend of donors who demand greater control over their gift, though. First among these is the loss of discretionary judgment by the nonprofit organization. Ostrander (2007) concluded, "the valuable on-the-

ground knowledge that recipient groups [nonprofits] have to offer is diminished or entirely lost and along with it the opportunity for that knowledge to enhance philanthropy's effectiveness in dealing with social issues and social need" (p. 358). While Ostrander is concerned with the growing influence of donor choice, she opens up a new research vein to determine how outcomes are defined as successful.

Balanced against this view of the philanthropic relationship is a growing understanding of the trust a nonprofit has with donors (Sargeant, Ford, & Hudson, 2008; Sargeant & Lee, 2004). As a donor becomes more emotionally engaged with the mission and outcomes of a nonprofit, the greater the impact the donor looks to have with the organization. Yet, there have been few attempts to explore this aspect of the relationship (Sargeant & Lee, 2004).

Donor Expectation and Control

The growing demand for accountability from organizational stakeholders has led to a new style of philanthropy. Generally defined as strategic philanthropy, it harkens back to the desire of philanthropists like Carnegie to base their charitable support on particular outcomes. Strategic philanthropy is simply defined as philanthropy that has clear goals, a strategy associated with reaching the goals, and metrics to measure success (Arrillaga-Andreessen, 2011). The intent of strategic philanthropy is to create a system in which the donor is able to make transformative gifts based upon their vision of society rather than general gifts that support an organization.

These transformative gifts are financial contributions that have the "unique capacity to alter the programs, perceptions, and future" of an organization (Grace & Wendroff, 2001b, p. 15). Transformational gifts are more than charitable gifts to support an organization (Grace & Wendroff, 2001b). Rather transformative gifts are investments in the shared values of the donor

and the organization (Dietlin, 2010; Grace & Wendroff, 2001b). This distinction is subtle. Grace and Wendroff (2001b) describe the difference between a charitable gift which supports an organization and transformative gifts which are investments in values shared by the donor/investor and the organization. The donor/investor demands financial-stability, consistent and accurate information, and involvement with the organization and levels which exceed those of a normal donor (Dietlin, 2010; Grace & Wendroff, 2001b).

Strategic Philanthropy in Higher Education.

Strategic philanthropy garners little notice in higher education (Boverini, 2006). This is due, in large part, because projects which may be attractive for strategic philanthropy are often designed to improve greater social conditions and allow individuals and organizations to find innovative ways of partnering (Bornstein, 2001, September/October). Higher educational institutions are typically not designed to be flexible to the needs of society or the desires of the individual donor (Boverini, 2006).

Yet higher educational institutions may be forced into becoming more nimble in a more highly-competitive and market-driven environment. The changing environment that colleges and universities find themselves in demands that the organization become more adaptable. With that, institutions of higher education must be more accountable to their donor's desires.

Strategic philanthropist do not “want to do those narrow, project-oriented things, but they wanted to have an impact” (Saidel, 2002, p. 491). The strategic philanthropy model, therefore, has the capacity to leverage significant gifts for higher education, if donors find acceptance of their ideas and opinions – not just their money (Weerts, 2007). For the strategic philanthropist, one of the most important qualifications is whether the organization has the ability to listen and

respond to the philanthropist's ideas in creative and thoughtful ways (Boverini, 2006). If this takes place, the charitable support of the strategic philanthropist has the potential to "alter the direction of the mission of the university itself" (Weerts, 2007, p. 83).

Of course, the challenge to this approach lies in rejecting the traditional view of university-stakeholder relationships, namely that the "university produces knowledge and, if applicable, stakeholders consume it" (Weerts, 2007, p. 86). This is the challenge that higher education has today. Not only must colleges and universities revise their outcomes measures, but their entire approach to working with donors. As Katz (2005) stated:

...fundamental changes in philanthropic commitment...represents a potentially deep change in the social role of new philanthropy. To this extent, there is indeed something new in the new philanthropy. And the higher education community would do well to worry about it. (p. 131)

Higher education is on the brink of new and exciting partnerships that will not only provide potential significant funding, but will allow its institutions to facilitate societal change.

Venture Philanthropy

Of particular interest to some of these new philanthropists is venture philanthropy. Initially developed by Grossman, Letts, and Ryan (1997), venture philanthropy begins by asking the question, "what good is a great program if the organization is collapsing" (p. 36). In introducing the concept of venture philanthropy, Grossman, Letts and Ryan (1997) wrote that the traditional perspective of foundations, specifically, was to make grants based upon potential efficiency of a program. This view did not encourage them to assess strengths, goals and the needs of their own organizations, however.

Rather, Grossman, Letts, and Ryan (1997) considered venture capitalists to create a new model of support. Foundations and venture capitalists have similar challenges in "selecting the

most worthy recipients of funding, relying on young organizations to implement ideas, and being accountable to the third party whose funds they are investing” (Grossman, et al., 1997, p. 36). Grossman, Letts, and Ryan (1997) proposed that today’s philanthropists, who hoped to effect change through their donations, should be less focused on making multiple donations to a variety of organizations. Rather, donors should look to invest in organizations where the donor’s investment can influence program and organizational success.

While Grossman, Letts, and Ryan (1997) considered foundations in their description of venture philanthropy, individual donors are adapting many of the accountability practices of today’s foundations (Oguntoyinbo, 2012). Venture philanthropy, therefore, is becoming a more significant options for individuals. This value-added approach to philanthropy includes a “close relationship between investor and investee” and “requires a long-term commitment between donor and institution” (Boverini, 2006, p. 85). Venture philanthropists seek “to measure both the means and the ends of their contribution” with clear benchmarks (Boverini, 2006, p. 86).

Venture philanthropy is identified by three practices;

1. close relationships between investor and investee,
2. a long-term commitment and
3. an emphasis on outcomes (Boverini, 2006; Burk, 2003; Grossman, et al., 1997; Weerts, 2007).

It is high-impact philanthropy (Grace & Wendroff, 2001b), with a desire for “clear benchmarks of performance” (Boverini, 2006, p. 86).

By adopting strategic or venture philanthropy practices, proponents believe that donors help non-profits gain the capacity to serve more people effectively by building infrastructure and management capacity. This capacity is accomplished by achieving superior performance in a

specific area; choosing unique positioning; engaging in unique activities; and forgoing some grant-making opportunities in order to focus on others (Porter & Kramer, 1999).

Though this approach offers unique opportunities for both the donor and the organization, both parties must also be aware of the change in operation. Organizations must be cognizant that the relationship with donors is not a repackaged strategy to raise major gifts for a preset agenda. This is an inauthentic approach. In order for venture philanthropy to succeed, both the donor and fundee must adopt a new way of accomplishing goals. Rebecca Rimel of the Pew Charitable Trusts defined it as such:

For us, strategic grantmaking has a well-defined goal that is larger than that of a single project. A single grant cannot be ‘strategic’ in itself. It must be part of a cluster of grants that have a focus. At the same time, that single grant has an explicit and achievable objective. Strategic grant making also has a discernible impact on a problem. We have to do more than offer Band-Aids and, ideally, work on more than symptoms. We aim to identify underlying cause, because attacking them is the only way that finite resources can make a difference. (Rimel, as cited in Katz, 2005, p. 125)

What this means is that strategic philanthropy has tremendous opportunities for partnerships, but demands that organizations and donors adapt to new ways to doing things. Maintaining the status quo means that institutions and external stakeholders will continue to operate in “separate cultures, unable and unwilling to create a unified vision for improving quality of life...” (Weerts, 2007, p. 98).

Measuring effectiveness

The non-profit sector has developed few internal mechanisms to ensure accountability (Katz, 2007). Frumkin, as cited in Katz (2007), argued that “questions about effectiveness have been weakly transformed into conversations about the performance of grantee organizations rather than focused on the more central issue of achievement of the donor’s philanthropic

mission and objective” (para. 29). The shift taking with the advent of strategic philanthropy allows donors to understand how their charitable gifts are being used to further their interests.

Conclusion

Effective philanthropy is difficult to define, but what particularly seems to characterize it is that it seeks to measure its impact and by so doing increase that impact...it focuses on the measurement and evaluation of foundation efforts, programs, impact, and performance...” (Katz, 2005, p. 127)

As shown, the status quo is centered on defining effectiveness as a measure of cost-benefit ratios. There are, however, driving forces, to utilize Lewin’s term, that are pushing against the status quo to redefine how organizations address assessment and donor expectations.

This literature review provided an overview of the significant periods of philanthropy in American history, showing that transformational acts by individuals are often tied to their personal beliefs. Utilizing Lewin’s force-field analysis, the literature review then provided the opposing sides in a growing debate over assessing an organizations success, concluding that individuals are becoming much more involved in organizational success, and in return expect greater accountability for their donations.

Sargeant and Lee (2004) considered how donors view the work of nonprofits. Sargeant and Lee (2004) stated that examination of specific organizations is needed to bridge the knowledge gap. The intent of this study on donor-defined effectiveness of a nonprofit organization is to provide a pillar for this bridge.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Study Setting

Whatsamatta U., a pseudonym, is located in a mid-size Midwestern town. Founded over 100 years ago, Whatsamatta U. has grown into a comprehensive university. Whatsamatta U. has approximately 210,000 alumni. Approximately 15 percent of those alumni donate to one or more programs within the university.

Like many regional universities in the United States, Whatsamatta U. has increased its fund raising or development operations during the last two decades. The growth of the operation has translated to increased financial support of the university. During the 2013-2014 fiscal year, \$13 million dollars were raised. Most of these donations were designated for specific projects or general funds for departments. Whatsamatta U.'s endowment is approximately \$97 million, most of which is designated for scholarship support.

While these dollars remain small, at approximately 3% of the annual university budget, charitable gifts significantly impact specific areas, including scholarships and discretionary funds for deans and department chairs. As universities solicit more support, however, donors are increasingly demanding that their donations be used for more narrowly-defined purposes (Barman, 2008; Burk, 2003; Ostrander, 2007).

Introduction to the Study

Whatsamatta U. is not alone in this demand by donors. A changing philanthropic environment, where assessment and outcomes are becoming more important to donors, demands that institutions become more aware of the needs a donor has when making a gift (Arrillaga-

Andreessen, 2011; Brest, 2012; Burk, 2003; Grace & Wendroff, 2001a, 2001b; Powell, et al., 2012). This change has caught organizations flat-footed. Rather than redefine how effectiveness is defined, organizations have responded by reinforcing their cost-benefit matrix to determine if their efforts are successful. Higher educational institutions must be cognizant of this changing philanthropic environment and become more aware of the needs a donor has when making a gift, in order to understand the expectations donors place on charitable gifts. The purpose of this study is to move beyond the cost-benefit definition of effective nonprofit organizations currently use in order to present an alternative definition that is more donor-centric. Research was focused on what an individual donor expected to accomplish with their charitable gifts and how whether the gift was used effectively. The study explored the process donors utilized to understand how their philanthropic support was used.

An inductive naturalistic inquiry was used. As Patton (2002) wrote, “the strategy of inductive design is to allow the important analysis dimensions to emerge from patterns found in the cases under study without presupposing in advance what the important dimensions will be” (p. 56). To accomplish this, elements of social constructivism was used to inform the study. Social constructivism is interested in understanding how an individual constructs meaning. By exploring the process from the donor’s perspective, the researcher gathered “multiple voices” which needed “to be heard and valued as a manifestation of diversity” that provided the researcher insight into what the donor believed to be pertinent to the overall program (Patton, 2002, p. 98). Incorporating multiple perspectives can be especially useful when discussing project outcomes with donors (Patton, 2002).

It may seem that donors’ voices are being heard. After all, donors decide when and where to make a donation. Yet, brief observations of a university phonathon illustrated that the

donors' interests and motivations are often informed by the personalities of the callers. In an interview with a student caller, she said that her role was "to cater that phone call to what the person's going to want to hear" in order to get them to donate (personal communication, #10, 4/20/2011). As Patton (2002) wrote, "what is defined or perceived by people as real is real in its consequences" (p. 96). Utilizing a constructivist framework, therefore, allowed the researcher to gain understanding into how one's perceptions and decisions evolved as new insights were gained. The idea that, "truth is partial, dependent on position and context," lead the researcher to believe that a donor's understanding of how their donations were utilized, and how a donor defined whether their charitable gift are used effectively, was dependent upon the information the donor received at various points after the donation is made (Maher & Tetreault, as cited in Lueddeke, 1999, p. 247).

Qualitative Research Process

Most studies that discuss effective nonprofits utilized a quantitative approach (Carman, et al., 2008; Christie & Alkin, 2003; Drezner, 2008; N. Drezner, 2009; N. D. Drezner, 2009; Sargeant & Lee, 2004). Quantitative methodologies were used primarily because of the scale of the studies and incorporated surveys to gather data and present hypotheses (Carman & Fredericks, 2008). The current paradigm of cost-benefit measurements of determining effectiveness is consistent with utilizing quantitative methods (Brooks, 2004; Ebrahim, 2003; Sloan, 2009; Tinkelman & Mankaney, 2007).

This study utilized a qualitative approach to explore meaning deeper than quantitative methods allowed (Drezner, 2008). This approach was supported by Sargeant, Ford and Hudson (2008), who stated "when the goal of research is to understand the meanings that individuals give

to their actions rather than to predict their behavior, qualitative methods are often the most appropriate methodology” (p. 472).

Qualitative researchers must articulate the philosophical underpinnings of the study (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005). As previously discussed in Chapter I, a constructivist’s lens is an appropriate perspective when attempting to understand how an individual constructs meaning and knowledge (Eastman, 2012; Kyriakidou, 2011; Lee, 2012; Lueddeke, 1999).

Data Sources

Sample Population

A select purposeful sampling of donors was identified. The purposeful sampling utilized a critical case sampling protocol, with elements of criterion sampling (Patton, 2002). Patton (2002) defined critical cases as “those that can make a point quite dramatically or are, for some reason, particularly important in the scheme of things” (p. 236). He described the strength of criterion sampling as being able to “understand cases that are likely to be information rich” (Patton, 2002, p. 238). The combination of select purposeful and critical case samplings ensured that deep and rich descriptive cases were identified and yielded the greatest amount of information relevant to the research study, based upon pre-determined criteria.

The changing philanthropic environment, as outlined in Chapters One and Two, demands that institutions become more aware of the needs a donor has when making a gift in order to understand the expectations the donor may place on their charitable gift. Utilizing a select purposeful sampling to identify donors who have the capacity to make transformative gifts provided critical cases for the research project.

The select purposeful sampling eventually included 11 major donors to Whatsamatta U in the study. Whatsamatta U. defines a major donor as someone who has given either an outright gift of \$25,000 or more, or has made at least a \$25,000 pledge. A survey of peer institutions to Whatsamatta U. found that many of them define “major donor” in a similar. The research participants, however, included donors who have contributed at least \$100,000 to Whatsamatta U. Purposefully selecting donors who have given at this level adds credibility to the research findings. The focus of gaining a better understanding of how donors define effectiveness was enhanced by involving those donors who have made transformative gifts to WU.

Data Gathering

Data was gathered utilizing three methods – interviews with the research participants, observations of interactions between donors and others associated with Whatsamatta U., and site documents which provide insight into the donor stewardship and cultivation process (see Appendix 1). The data was gathered at various sites, including Whatsamatta U. Some data, including the interviews and observations, were gathered at locations based upon the availability of the research participants.

Data Triangulation

Patton (2002) wrote, “studies that use only one method are more vulnerable to errors linked to that particular method...than studies that use multiple methods in which different types of data provide cross-data validity checks” (p. 248). Triangulation is at a key aspect of trustworthiness. The research data was triangulated through interviews, observations and document analysis to confirm if emerging themes appeared to be reasonable.

The triangulation process looked not only for consistency between the various types of data, but also among the various participants (Patton, 2002). The hallmark of qualitative research, thick and rich descriptions, was constructed by triangulating the interviews, observations, and documents, including gift agreements and stewardship communications, and observations between donors and recipients of their charitable gifts.

Interview Protocol

Through the interviews, the intent was to get research participants to determine how they defined effectiveness and to gain a greater understanding of the concepts which donors use. The interviews followed a general interview guide (see Appendix 2). This method of interview allowed for a more flexible interview structure, allowing the researcher to *take the forks in the road* of emergent design (Patton, 2002). A general interview guide was used, and included key topics, an outline of questions, a clear focus, and multiple paths. Upon being approved by the university IRB, a recording of the interview occurred which allowed for verbatim transcripts during the analysis phase.

Electronic Recording Equipment.

A hand-held digital recorder was used to record the interviews. The recordings were downloaded onto a secure, password protected, laptop. Transcripts were created from the audio recordings. Transcripts were also stored on a secure, password protected, laptop. Upon conclusion of this research project, identifying data was deleted.

Observations

A select criteria was used to determine the events and activities where observations took place (Patton, 2002). The criteria limited events to those that were focused on stewardship activities. Stewardship events are those that are designed to recognize and acknowledge donors for their contributions to WU. I also looked for events where donors were observed interacting with faculty, staff, students and other donors. These events included the annual scholarship luncheon at Whatsamatta U., a donor recognition reception and various development staff meetings. Given my role as a development officer, I attempted to observe activities that allowed me access to observe donor interaction, yet downplayed my professional role.

Observations were conducted while interviewing research participants. I performed simultaneous observations while interviewing the research participants which allowed me to capture the non-verbal reactions of research participants during the interview process (Gibson & Brown, 2009). All observations were taken either by handwritten notes or audio notes using a hand-held digital recorder.

Site Documents

Site documents provided insight into the donor cultivation, solicitation, and stewardship process at Whatsamatta U. Site documents were initially chosen using a select criteria only as the chosen documents related to alumni and development at WU (Gibson & Brown, 2009; Patton, 2002). Documents included annual reports, college newsletters, alumni magazine issues, copies of yearly endowment reports, copies of phonathon solicitation scripts, and samples of solicitation mailings. Site documents also included charitable gift processing and other policies

and procedures. Any site documents which had personal information were redacted so identifiable information could not be discerned.

Ethical Considerations

Ethical issues and confidentiality were assured through two main processes. Approval by the university's Institutional Review Board (IRB) was sought and accepted. The researcher assured the IRB committee that all identities would be protected by issuing codenames and all electronic files would be secured on a password-protected laptop. All research participants were given pseudonyms for the study. The actual identities of the research participants were listed in a secured file. All database management and analysis systems used only the pseudonyms.

An additional layer of confidentiality was provided through informed donor consent. The purpose of the study and what information was sought was provided to all research participants (Patton, 2002). Research participants were ensured that their responses would remain confidential and that their participation in the study could end at any point.

Data Gathering Strategies

The research project was designed, as Patton (2002) wrote, "to allow us [the researcher] to enter into the other person's perspective" (p. 341). The data gathering process, therefore, was designed to capture the perspectives of the research participants in order to gain greater insight and knowledge into how donors determine if their charitable gifts are used effectively.

The data gathering process began with interviews of the research participants (see Appendix 2). These interviews were one-on-one interviews. An interview guide was created to ensure that the individual interviews remained consistent throughout the process, which helped to ensure trustworthiness throughout the project. Probes were established for each question to

elicit additional information or clarification of the response (Creswell, 2009). This allowed for greater insight and understanding through the interview process, while allowing for the flexible nature of naturalistic inquiry.

All interviews were kept confidential. Each participant was asked to sign a confidentiality agreement, stating that the research participant may terminate the interview at any point. Interview participants are not identified by name. Participants are only identified as a pseudonym. The pseudonym was kept in an electronic field log which is password protected to ensure security and confidentiality of the participant.

Data was also gathered through observations. Observations took the form of both unstructured and structured observations (Gibson & Brown, 2009). As initially planned, unstructured observations initially were used to provide an *emic*, or insider, understanding of what the donor is experiencing at the respective event (Gibson & Brown, 2009). This was particularly true while observing at the annual scholarship lunch and the donor recognition event. The observations focused on the context of the setting in order to understand why things took place and reflected on the relationship between what was being observed and how it related to the purpose of the research study.

While Patton (2002) described a variety of ways that field notes may be taken, what he stated is that field notes are not optional for the field researcher. Therefore, field notes were used to describe what was being observed, including who was present, what the setting was like, what interactions occurred – all of which were used for analysis of the data. As Patton (2002) laid out the strength of the field note, the field notes did not contain words which were vague or over-generalize. Rather, field notes contained detailed and concrete notes to add to the thick and rich descriptions of the setting (Patton, 2002).

Site documents from Whatsamatta U. were used to provide an additional data point to gain understanding. Documents were from alumni and development staff at Whatsamatta U. As defined earlier, these documents were primary or secondary sources and often highlighted donor's stories, university successes and explicitly outlined the donor's intent when making the charitable gift. Documents will be destroyed upon completion of the research project.

Reflective, analytical and methods memos were used to record the researchers processes, perspectives and thoughts throughout the study. As Corbin and Strauss (2008) wrote, the purpose of memos is to explore the data, identify concepts, make comparisons and ask questions, elaborate on relationships, actions and consequences and to develop a story line. In other words, the proposed use of memos captured my thinking for the express purpose of providing a map and timeline to ensure trustworthiness of the final product (Gibson & Brown, 2009).

Emergent Design

Underlying the data gathering strategies is the concept of emergent design. Berg (2004) illustrated the process emergent design takes by laying out a continuum from ideas through theory, design, data gathering, analysis, and findings. He drew lines which jumped back and forth to reflect the idea of emergent design, or the idea that the process is on-going and moves back and forth between steps as new ideas and information becomes available. Berg's (2004) illustration is based upon the idea of the researcher not knowing what he or she does not know (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). When a study is conducted in a naturalistic inquiry, an element of emergent design must be incorporated because:

Meaning is determined by context to such a great extent; because the existence of multiple realities constrains the development of a design based on only one (the investigator's) construction; because what will be learned at a site is always dependent on the *interaction* between investigator and context, and the interaction is also not fully

predictable; and because the nature of mutual shaping cannot be known until they are witnessed. (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 208)

Therefore, the study included continuous data analysis, taking into account everything that was learned and compared it to what had been previously discovered, in order to ascertain connections or patterns, while always reflecting upon the need for additional data to further delve into the process.

Researcher as Instrument

Trustworthiness is addressed through a variety of measures – triangulation, multiple donor perspectives, rich and thick observational description, researcher memos to provide understanding of the researcher’s motives and my understanding of what was occurring. Memos that incorporated my involvement with the research participants act as an audit trail, allowing readers to gage the credibility and trustworthiness of the study (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

The concept of researcher as instrument is an integral aspect to the process. As Hill (2007) wrote, the researcher needs "courage to suspend their own beliefs and to really immerse themselves in the experience of others" (p. 30). As a professional fund raiser I remained cognizant of my personal biases throughout the process. When I realized my personal bias was impacting how I interpreted data or responded to a research participant, I wrote a reflective memo to both write about the experience and to strengthen the audit trail.

The process of memoing was especially critical since the research participants were alumni and donors to Whatsamatta U. This “backyard research” takes place when the researcher studies an environment that he is a part of (Creswell, 2009, p. 177). As a backyard researcher, I had to recognize that a conflict of interest may be present. Secondly, I had to recognize my bias

to the study and clearly disclose to the participants how the research will be utilized and ensure confidentiality (Creswell, 2009).

Coupal (2005) concluded that the *practitioner-research* is a viable perspective to have. The backyard-researcher bridges the worlds of theory and practice, allowing the researcher to “closely examine and learn from their own experiences and those of their colleagues” while having a direct impact on the understanding of their workplace (Introduction section, para. 8). Greenwood and Levin (2005) conclude that, “given the complexity of the problems addressed, only local stakeholders, with their years of experience in a particular situation, have sufficient information and knowledge about the situation to design effective social change processes” (p. 54). The backyard-researcher also benefits from greater understanding of long-term knowledge and the contexts where issues may arise (Greenwood & Levin, 2005).

As both the researcher and a practitioner, I was able to create rapport with the research participants that other researchers may not be able to create. Glesne and Peskkin (1992) defined rapport as “a distance-reducing, anxiety-quieting, trust-building mechanism that primarily serves the interest of the researcher” (p. 94). While this may appear to be self-serving, one goal of qualitative research is to be perceived as someone who is willing to “invest the time to truly understand” the research participants (p. 97). The researcher can “develop a greater understanding of the experiences and social realities of the members of [the] community, as they occupy the same physical spaces, engage each other in shared activities and discourses, and encounter the same rules and regulations” (Coupal, 2005, 2.2 Epistemological concerns section, para. 3). These shared experiences, therefore, allowed me greater levels of trust within the community than an outsider may have been able to develop.

As Patton (1997) stated in his discussion on program evaluation, to make evaluations truly valuable, the evaluations must incorporate the perspectives from the groups who are most likely to benefit from them. As a fund raiser at Whatsamatta U., I am positioned to utilize the findings from the study to enact changes based upon the findings of the study. The proposed action steps in Chapter V ultimately allows for greater input by donors to Whatsamatta U., which relies upon these same donors to fund projects on campus.

Member Check

A final consideration in data gathering strategies is the concept of member check. As discussed, the core idea of the social constructivist in a qualitative research project is to tell the story and give voice to someone else. I believe that the various realities each person creates are based upon their own perceptions of experiences. As Dewey (1930, February 25) stated, “ Each one experiences life from a different angle than anybody else, and consequently has something distinctive to give others if he can turn his experiences into ideas and pass them on to others (p. 3). It was a vital component of the overall strategy of this research project to confirm and ensure that my perspective and interpretation of what I heard and observed is validated by the research participants who shared the information (Kyriakidou, 2011; Patton, 2002).

Member checking was conducted by returning to the research participants after transcriptions were made and I moved from the inductive to the deductive phase of analysis to ensure that the data gathered articulated the participants’ beliefs and statements (Gibson & Brown, 2009; Lincoln & Guba, 1985). I reviewed preliminary findings with research participants to ensure that the research participants’ views were properly gathered and interpreted in the study’s preliminary findings. Research participants confirmed that their views were

articulated and interpreted appropriately. When the research participant indicated that the findings did not necessarily match their experiences, I notated that and reconsidered the interpretation that I had drawn.

Analysis Strategies

The analysis in an emergent qualitative study can take a number of routes. As Patton (2002) wrote, “there are no formulas for determining significance” (p. 433). Therefore it is up to the researcher to determine the best way to analyze and report the findings and conclusions one makes. Because of this, the researcher lens remains an integral component of the research process at the analytical level:

Be reflective and reflexive. Include in your field notes and reports your own experiences, thoughts and feelings. Consider and report how your observations may have affected the observed as well as how you may have been affected by what and how you’ve participated and observed. Ponder and report the origins and implications of your own perspective. (Patton, 2002, p. 331)

The research project was analyzed using open coding which used code key concepts, words and phrases that began to lend insight into themes emerging from the data. The analysis process incorporated inductive reasoning, where open-coding allowed patterns, themes and categories to emerge from the data, creating insight and understanding from the process (Patton, 2002). The analysis process eventually incorporated axial coding and deductive reasoning where the researcher interpreted the emerging themes into recurring regularities and substantive significance (Patton, 2002).

To aid in the analysis stages, I utilized NVivo qualitative data analysis software ("NVivo qualitative data analysis software," 2012). The software allowed me to incorporate all aspects of the research project, including research data and literature, into a single data management

system. From this data management system, I conducted queries, word searches and modeling concepts and organized the research data and literature into patterns, themes, and categories.

CHAPTER IV

RESEARCH FINDINGS

As previously stated, this study builds upon Brest's (2012) statement that philanthropy seeks "to achieve clearly defined goals...where both parties monitor progress toward outcomes and assess their success in achieving them in..." (p. 42). Exploring the perspective of the donor allows the organization to gain a new understanding of how to determine and measure success. The changing philanthropic environment demands that institutions become more aware of the needs a donor has when making a charitable gift in order to understand the expectations donors may place on their financial contribution. Through this research I gained a greater understanding of how the research participants define effectiveness. The focus of this study is to explore how donors ascribe meaning to the charitable gifts and the outcomes from those charitable acts.

Overall Response to the Study

Personal interviews, observations and site documents were gathered, yielding data for the project (see Table 1). Over 11 hours of one-on-one interviews took place between May and August, 2013 with member checking taking place between March and September, 2014. Transcripts exceeded 225 pages from the one-on-one interviews. Analytical, methodological and reflective memos were written between March 2011 and September 2014. With the addition of literature, the NVivo file grew to be approximately 997,000 KB. Taken together, the available data provided thick and rich descriptions.

Table 1. Data Gathered

Type of Data	Number of Data Gathered
Interviews	11
Observations	3
Site Documents	216
college or program newsletters	67
alumni magazine	50
development annual report	14
athletic development web pages	19
scholarship profile web pages	14
stewardship and recognition web pages	8
development web pages	16
donor thank you letters	4
solicitation brochures	11
development stewardship brochures	6
event invitations	7
Memos (written between 2011-2014)	104
Analytical memos	45
Design memos	25
Researcher memos	34

Interviews

A purposeful sampling of donors to Whatsamatta U. initially identified 15 potential research participants. Each met the study requirements of contributing at least \$100,000 to the university. Letters were sent to each participant by the president of Whatsamatta U. (see Appendix 3). The letters indicated the purpose of the study, stated that all responses would be confidential and that participation was voluntary.

The letter to participate in the study was followed by phone calls from me to the 15 research invitees. From this call, 12 responded that they would participate, and 11 eventually participated in interviews lasting between 30 minutes and 90 minutes. The remaining three invitees did not return repeated attempts to contact them. The 12th research participant informed

me of a conflict the day of the interview. The interview was not rescheduled. Interviews were conducted primarily in either the researcher participants's home (Julie Rogers, Harold Fields), office (Andrew Stephens, Jim Andersen, Charles Snow, Cheryl Snow), or the university library (Helen Oglethorpe, Katherine Buckley, Robert Painter, Edward Adams). One research participant chose to talk via telephone (Stephen Smyth) due to distance.

Informal conversations with donors and staff members were captured in memos. The participants of these conversations were not part of the formal interview structure. Rather, these conversations were aside conversation which provided additional insight into both donors' and staff thinking and expectations. Memos generated from these information conversations often paralleled my thinking as I worked through both the inductive and deductive process. In many ways, these informal conversations acted as a barometer for my own changes in how I defined donor issues and expectations.

Issues of Confidentiality

The issue of confidentiality became particularly relevant when one research participant, Andrew Stephens, indicated that he would only participate if he was guaranteed that his responses would remain confidential. Stephens said that if his responses were not confidential, he would likely respond as he thought I wanted the questions answered. I assured him that the interview would only be reviewed by me and that I was interested in his honest responses. My assurances appeared to waylay his concerns and he agreed to participate. When we met, I reiterated that only I would have access to the taped interview. He responded that it was good, because he didn't want his comments to get back to the president "he might not invite me to his suite otherwise." No other research participants appeared concerned with confidentiality.

Helen Oglethorpe, however, did state that my role as a researcher, rather than as a development officer, made her more comfortable to be honest and truthful in her responses. She said she would not have been as forthcoming if I had been speaking with her in my professional capacity. The reason appeared to stem from her desire not to sound as though she was talking about issues with someone other than the development officer with whom she worked.

Observations

Two observations where donors interacted with representatives of the institution took place. The first was WU's annual scholarship lunch, one of the key donor stewardship events of the year. The second observation was a donor recognition event at the opening of a new campus facility. A third observation was the interaction between WU's development staff at a monthly meeting, where a strategy session took place.

Site Documents

Site documents were numerous (see Table 2). Documents included both .pdf copies of college and university newsletters, university annual reports, thank you letters from department, college and university representatives, and invitations to special events. Web page screen shots were gathered, including athletic pages, university developments pages, including stewardship, "why give" and scholarship information. Most college or program pages redirected to university pages, with the exception of athletics, which had a number of pages on how and why to give, and associated benefits.

Emergent Themes

Research participants stated that being valued by the institution is paramount in their minds. If donors feel valued, if they are communicated with and see that their charitable gifts are used for the purposes given, then donors are more likely to view their charitable gifts as effective. Being valued is composed of issues related to access, recognition, shared values, and outcomes all of which are manifested in the level of trust the donors have for the institution.

Cost-Benefit Decisions

Cost-benefit decision processes are not part of the definition of being valued. Yet the data indicated that financial measurements are part of the process in determining success. Financial metrics are often used by the development staff to indicate success. While these are exceptions to the components of being valued, financial metrics are important and provide additional context in which to view how donors define effectiveness.

Many of the metrics that I am judged upon as a development officer define success in financial terms – proposals submitted, dollars raised, contacts made. During one recent meeting, our associate vice president mentioned that a review of the organization by an outside consultant concluded that we were “not asking enough” from donors, and in order to make our annual goals we needed to challenge donors to make larger contributions (personal communications, Jonathan Smith, 8 September 2014).

I had not anticipated that donors would be worried if I made my financial goal, but I did expect that more conversations with research participants would be centered on financial success. After all, financial success is often communicated with alumni. A review of site documents confirms that financial metrics are used by development staff to indicate success.

WU's college of business administration, for example, routinely communicates financial metrics. One business alumni magazine article indicated a "200-plus-percent increase in fundraising," (WU College of Business Magazine, Spring 2012, p. 17) while a second article included a graph of dollars raised and donors to the college over a five year period (WU College of Business Magazine, Winter 2011). The college of business administration was not the only college to use financial measurements as ways to engage alumni. The university-produced annual reports highlighted donors who made charitable gifts (WU Honor Roll of Donors, 2000-2001; 2005-2006; 2006-2007; 2007-2008). The annual reports also included figures that illustrated the total amount of charitable gifts and total number of donors during the previous fiscal year. By using financial metrics, the university is able to promote successful fund raising initiatives based upon the response of alumni to the solicitation.

Financial measurements are not limited to the institution, however. A few participants (Julie Rogers, Robert Painter, Edward Adams and Harold Fields) discussed their interactions with the university in financial terms. These comments provide additional information on the topic and are included as exceptions to the main findings. As Edward Adams summed up:

When I look at the outcomes of something, sure you want to feel good about it but to me, I want to see if I think they've gotten good value for what I gave them and for what they're spending on and it's again because I'm a numbers guy and it's just a different perspective, you can have a humanities person who wants to look at all the soft outcomes of this and that's their right, it's just that I don't look at it that way.

Robert Painter expanded his definition of effectiveness to include, "overhead, or lack of... cause and effect, time horizon, expectations, the goal and purpose of the gift..." Painter also talked about the research he does before making a donation, including wanting to know what the financial outcomes will be prior to supporting the project:

I'm a cynic when I don't understand the economics of the decisions, I wanna know the economics, sometimes the economics are not supposed to be understood, if you're out there to help subsistence, it's not an economic decision, but when I'm making one on an economic decision, I want to see the economics, if people tell me there is economics, show me them.

When asked how those definitions relate to charitable giving, Robert Painter responded "that they do those measures, they communicate well with me, I know what to expect, they know what to expect, there's no hidden expectations..." Even though Painter started out using more cost-benefit terms, he ultimately tied his definition of effectiveness into being valued enough by the organization to keep him informed.

Harold Fields was the most outspoken proponent of financial elements entering his decision-making process. When asked how he defines effectiveness, he responded, "I think most donors would like to see the charity grow..." When asked how he defines growth, he stated that donors:

[I] want to see the charity supporting the programs, creating newer programs and having some savings for the rainy day, that's how I see the financial health of the organization. I think that's an important thing to consider, some other things donors would look for is effective administration, governance, governance structure, accountability, transparency, whistleblower policy, audit committees.

The financial management by the institution was also mentioned by other participants. A sense that the institution is financially healthy appeared to be important, especially as it relates to endowment spending, "I expect the money, if I'm giving money, to be invested and that get to the returns..." (Helen Oglethorpe). For Oglethorpe and Fields especially, the financial health of the organization is an indicator that the organization is successful. When endowment returns are high, programs receive greater amounts of financial support. As financial resources grow, the potential exists that the organization, too, will grow. The financial well-being of the organization is therefore translated by donors as allowing the organization to continue actively

supporting its mission. When this occurs, donors see their financial investments in organizations worthwhile and effective.

I Feel Valued

The significant, over-arching theme to emerge from the data was the concept of being valued. Donors determine charitable gifts are used effectively if the donors are valued by the institution. Research participants shared examples of when they were and were not valued by the university and how that affected their views on charitable giving.

Kaczynski, Salmona and Smith (2014) offered a visual approach to organizing these emerging themes (see Table 2). Being valued can be sub-divided into components that impact how donors interpret their relationship with the institution. Access illustrates whether donors are considered insiders to the organization and the level of contact donors have with decision makers. Shared values emerged as a key component as research participants discussed their personal values, and whether these values are manifested through the organization. The type of recognition a donor received after making a charitable gift affected whether research participants believed the organization valued them. Outcomes and donor intent are vital to the understanding of whether donors view their charitable gifts as being used effectively. Outcomes can be sub-divided into tangible results and intrinsic benefits. Finally, being valued is impacted by the concept of trust. The data indicated that trust is either strengthened or jeopardized by the level of action and communication.

In the following sections, the components of being valued are explored more fully. The data lead me to conclude whether a donor believes he or she is valued by the institution significantly affects whether the donor believes their charitable gift is used effectively.

Table 2. Being Valued as an Emerging Theme

	Access	Shared Values	Recognition	Trust	Tangible Results	Intrinsic Benefits
Andrew Stephens	*		*	*	*	
James Andersen		*	*		*	*
Stephen Smyth	*			*	*	*
Helen Oglethorpe		*	*	*		*
Julie Rogers		*	*		*	*
Katherine Buckley	*	*	*	*	*	
Robert Painter	*		*	*	*	
Harold Fields		*		*	*	*
Charles Snow		*			*	*
Cheryl Snow		*			*	*
Edward Adams		*		*		*

Adopted from Kaczynski, D., Salmona, M., and Smith, T (2014), Qualitative research in finance, Australian Journal of Management, 39(1), 127-135.

Access

In its simplest form, access is a manifestation of whether a donor is viewed as an insider. As members, or former members, of the university’s Board of Trustees, Development Board members, or faculty members, research participants are all insiders. The university promotes this insider access in college and university communications. The athletics department, for example, stated on its basketball website that donors who become friends of the basketball team “would receive exclusive access” to the annual invitational basketball tournament. The university library includes an article and pictures from its annual donor’s luncheon and numerous university newsletters highlight donor events that are exclusive for donors or those who are being cultivated for their potential to become donors (WU Alumni Magazine, Spring 2011; University Library Newsletter 2006, 2009, 2012, 2013).

Oglethorpe indicated that these type of events help to build “informal relationships” between members of the institution and the donors. Relationships allow for increased personal

contacts. Andrew Stephens, for example, shared how the connection he has with a faculty member keeps him informed, “he sent me information, he just keeps you very much in tune with what’s happening.” Julie Rogers stated, “I was involved on a weekly basis, and, so that’s how I knew...” when she discussed how being an insider allowed her increased information to determine what was taking place with a program she supported. Robert Painter said it most succinctly when he said:

They see me as just a worker and I’m taking in the whole picture, how effective was this, did the scholarships get the good students, did they go on and become productive citizens, did it help people, did I ever hear back from those students.

By developing a relationship with the organization that is more than just as a donor, Painter has an opportunity to observe the inner workings of the organization, and see for himself what the outcomes are from his financial support. Jim Anderson echoed the sentiment when he said, “you see that building and you say ‘this was worthwhile.’” He continued:

I serve on a lot of the boards, the [WU] development board as well as a lot of other different special committees that I’ve been asked to serve on and am happy to do so. But also the community foundation board, the hospital board, the hospital foundation, church board, um, so it’s easy for me to see the results in what’s happening.

The access research participants received provides a behind-the-scenes look at what is transpiring at WU. This access to staff and administrators provide research participants greater understanding of how their charitable gifts are used.

Access as Power.

An additional theme to emerge related to the power a donor has because of their charitable gifts. The social interactions discussed by Ogletorpe or mentioned on the athletics website are centered on the social relationships donors receive. Access as power is about the donor’s ability to make changes because the institution wants to keep the donor happy. It does

not necessarily relate to specific outcomes or donor-intent. Rather it is the ultimate *I feel valued* by the institution. Andrew Stephens personifies this type of access. Stephens discussed having a monument, rather than a sign for a favorite program of his on campus:

When I was on campus, we had a beautiful facility right in the middle of campus, I said, look at what they have now, it's just junk, I mean, it's the remnants of the old college, and they get no recognition what so ever, I said the university doesn't actively publicize the program...[the president] said you want a sign, I said yea, I want a nice sign that would be source of pride for them, and when people walk by or drive by they see it, he said, ok, so he called up and they brought the campus engineer and the director of public relations to meet with me, and I described to them what I would like if they wanted to do it, we'll do it, ok, so, I don't know, two, three months later I was back there for another meeting, and they said we want to show you the sign, they had a skinny little sign, it was probably this long and that wide [hand gesture approximately 2x3] that said [department name], period, ok, so I went back up and they had a metal sign that was probably this, this big -- [department name] -- that's my new sign, I said that sucks, and I said [it] looks like a big parking sign, and I said you can't even see it, and I said what source of pride is that for the university, for that, for that entity, I said none, so the campus engineer said we have a signage ordinance, that's the biggest sign we can make, I said ok, do you have a monument ordinance, he said no, I said good, let's build a monument, I said, I'll even pay for it.

Even as the president of the university attempted to make Stephens feel valued, institutional processes became barriers to Stephens actually feeling valued. Only through his strength of personality and willingness to pay for the monument, did Stephens receive what he wanted.

Katherine Buckley furthered defined how access is manifested into power. When Buckley decided that she wanted to drive a Bobcat skid-steer loader, she purchased one for WU, on the condition that she was allowed to drive it:

I was going to buy the Bobcat and they would insure me to drive it one day, you know, I could drive it one time and the guy would teach me how to use it and you know and then it was a done deal but I mean that's how I, they got a Bobcat at WU because I wanted to drive one...It was twenty-five thousand dollars, okay, I want that, I can check that off my bucket list and why that really is something I wanted to do.

The ability to purchase a piece of equipment, simply because she wanted the experience of driving it, illustrates that, because of her position as an insider, she can affect change in ways that others may not be able to.

While the research project did not intend to discuss power, it appeared important to identify power as an exception of the other emergent themes. Charles and Cheryl Snow discounted access when I met them to member check the preliminary findings. Snows stated that they did not need to make a donation to have access, “because we already have access to the president.” What seemed lost on the Snows is how charitable gifts do provide a key to access. The ability that Stephens, Buckley, the Snows and others have to make changes to a project because of the access and relationship they have to the university is manifested because of their positions as insiders. A donor’s insider status is granted, in part, because of the charitable gifts the donor makes to the university. It is the ultimate way that an institution can make a donor feel valued.

Recognition

Recognition can take different forms – from letters acknowledging a donor’s charitable gift, to invitations to events, or being listed in the alumni magazine. Research participants stated that recognition is important as an outward expression that the institution values them (Jim Andersen, Katherine Buckley, Robert Painter, Cheryl Snow, Charles Snow). Stephens summed up what most research participants indicated when he stated, “you do a good job, it’s nice to have someone recognize it, if you do something significant it’s nice to receive some recognition.” Jim Anderson echoed the sentiment when he said:

Sometimes it’s just nothing more than a letter saying “Hey, we really appreciate your support on this particular project. Here’s where we’re at, here’s where we’re going,

here's what we've done. And I think that, that is critical..., people like to get a pat on the back, people like to hear a word of thanks when they're contributing to something... That makes you feel good, and it makes you sit down and write out another check.

In general, research participants stated that the university generally does a good job at acknowledging donor's financial contributions. Research participants specifically noted the Honor Roll of Donors listed in the alumni magazine each year and occasional events that are held on campus for donors.

Research participants also provided examples of times when WU did not recognize them sufficiently, if at all (Andrew Stephens, Helen Oglethorpe, Katherine Buckley). The challenge came in whether donors believed appropriate stewardship was displayed for the charitable gift. Robert Painter became animated when he began to discuss organizations that he felt did not meet these expectations:

What I don't like is someone say you're going to be recognized, and then not recognize ya, or otherwise I tell ya I want this anonymous gift, and then you put me in the program, either one of those is a, excuse my, cardinal sin as far as I'm concerned, so communicate what you're going to do, ask what the donor wants out of this, do they want to be recognized or not, don't assume they want to be recognized, some do, some don't, how would you like to be recognized.

He concluded by saying, "you guys got to be better stewards of money...you can't, you cannot neglect to respond to donors, that they think, wow, you didn't give a hoot about my money..."

Unfortunately, WU neglects donors. Andrew Stephens shared a time when a program chair visited him. When the chair began to ask Stephens why he appeared upset over his treatment, Stephens curtly responded, "I said 'let me tell you what I've gotten in return, you've never invited me to a [department] function, even though I'm the largest donor to the program.'" This, fortunately, appears to be an extreme case of lack of recognition by WU. However, Stephens was not alone in sharing frustration.

Many of the research participants stated that the letters received from the President are “form letters,” (Stephens, Oglethorpe and Buckley) (see Appendix 5). Buckley in particular expressed her feelings about the letters she receives from the President:

It isn't a personal thing and you know I know it becomes an overwhelming thing when they have all these donors, but I mean, if I'm just a low person on the totem pole they must be raking in the money, you know what I mean, at twenty, even if I only do twenty five thousand a year I still think that's a big enough gift that there should be some kind of communication.

Instead, Buckley shared three types of recognition that she stated were the most meaningful to her. In one instance, Buckley talked about a plaque that was placed on property she helped the university purchase, “I have my rock with my name on it, I'm really proud.” She also described the experience she received after donating money to buy a Bobcat, “I didn't need a thank you note, I didn't need anything else, I had that experience.” But the one recognition experience that seems to make the most impact was a wooden axe handle:

He [the program director] had it engraved for me – you know ax handle from the [property] in honor of Katherine Buckley – you know I was kind of excited about that, it didn't cost... he had it done somewhere at the University but that was cool to me just that recognition, it wasn't a huge purchase or a money thing it was just recognition.

Helen Oglethorpe echoed the idea that the more personal the recognition, the more meaningful when she stated that:

We get a letter from the recipient, that's personalized, that's pretty darn cool, because to me, all my stuff here, whether it's money, time, whatever I give, is because I care about the kids here...just to have someone say here's what I'm going to do, and I want to say go, you know, cool, that's what this is for, that motivates me to want to do more, and when you don't hear anything it's like [why] did that, so, it kind of goes both ways, so that would be one that was, is, was and is very positive.

Julie Rogers stated a similar notion when she discussed that the outcome is really the key motivation and much more important than the recognition, “I want to be thanked, obviously, you know what I mean...but that's [the outcome] much more important to me, much more important

than my name listed somewhere, I just don't think that's why you should do things.

Recognition is a key-component to the communication donors receive from WU. Research participants indicated that recognition impacted whether the institution valued them and their donation. When the research participants had positive experiences, these experiences were interpreted as being valued by the university. However, as Stephens, Buckley and Oglethorpe shared, when donors do not have a positive experience, it made them question just how much the institution appreciates and values the donor.

Shared Values

An unanticipated theme emerged through the conversations of a few research participants that enhance the concept of being valued (Andrew Stephens, Charles Snow, Cheryl Snow). The concept of shared values relates to the sense of community and willingness to support that community. Andrew Stephens stated "you look at my office and what's here, military, family, Whatsamatta U, I mean, that's the whole thing, you know." Charles and Cheryl Snow perhaps summed it up the best when they related their frustration and disappointment that WU's football coach moved to another community to live. The Snows were adamant that their support of football would cease:

We're very upset about that and let them [the university administration] know it, which I think show you the emotion of the community. I'm upset with him not because he may win or lose more games but because he doesn't see our community as his home and I don't like that. I've been here 70 years so if our community's not good enough for him I don't see where Whatsamatta U should have him as a coach to tell you the truth. It's just the way I feel about it, I don't care how many games he wins, you know, I just don't think there's any dedication there; [you] gotta back your community, if you don't your heart's not in it...He doesn't represent us; he's not a part of our community...let [the other community] support him if he wants donations... so will a championship make me feel different the answer's absolutely not, I don't give a damn how many things he does. I just think he's crapped on our community and I'm not happy with it.

The fact that the football coach, who otherwise would be a highly recognized member of WU's community, is no longer viewed as one because of where he chose to buy a home, is striking. It illustrates the level of commitment research participants have when supporting what the Snows view as their community.

While this might be an extreme example from the data, it is not the only one. Others discuss their level of commitment to the institution, and view their donations as ways of furthering that community. Helen Oglethorpe, for example, stated where her desire to support WU stems from:

It matters, it reminds you that this is, by the time you're giving money, it's because you want to give back, it's because you want to leave a legacy, it's because you want to invest what you've earned in a way to make the world as you'd like to see it, and so if there's a way to see that, feel that, touch that, that's pretty cool.

Julie Rogers and Harold Fields had similar sentiments. Rogers described why she became involved with another organization "...I got involved because I believed, I really believed, in what they were doing..." Fields meanwhile stressed that:

This specific project that the organization is undertaking aligns with my values and a direction I want to see the community move toward...I think with most of the donors that's one of the things they look for, the cause they would like to see effected made in their interest or their family's interest.

What appears to be most important in the concept of shared values as it relates to being valued is that the research participant's values are validated through their support of the organization. All the research participants indicated they were compelled to support the organization to fulfill both its mission and the research participant's vision of what their support helps to accomplish.

However, as Charles and Cheryl Snow indicated, this is not always the case. When donors do not believe that their values are represented through the institution's actions, they may

choose to speak out and force the organization back into alignment. If this does not occur donors may decide that they will no longer financially support the organization.

Outcomes

Research participants discussed the intended outcomes of their charitable donations, and what the donor received in exchange. Most participants couched this discussion in donor intent language – why was the charitable gift made, what was the reason for making the charitable gift – with little thought to actual outcomes.

Rather, outcomes focused more on doing good and helping students as opposed to supporting a certain number of students, or decreasing the need for loans by some percentage. Although Robert Painter did discuss the cause and effect of his charitable gift, he was an exception in making direct, tangible links to the donation he made and the outcomes that occurred because of that charitable gift. Yet even in this instance, Painter eventually equated his donations with more intangible benefits of doing good:

I like to see, as much as possible, the cause and effect...I've got to believe in the mission and what they're doing, I've got to believe that, not to try and get hokey here or anything, you know [you're] put on the face of this earth to help other people, and [for] some of us is it's our time, and some of us it's our time and our monies, others it's a combination of, but it's critical of everybody to try and help one another...and that's why I try to look for something that, you know the med school, I thought very good cause...it's going to help my alma mater, it's a by-product, it's not the central thought, the central product is that it's going to help the economic well-being, it's going to bring a better quality of life to everyone, we're going to get access to medical care, which is going to be a very big challenge over the next several years, my belief, the amount of studies I've looked at, there's some economic benefits to that, I can use my relationships out there to encourage other people to give, I can ask people to think about the greater good.

While Painter initially discusses his charitable support in terms of outcomes, he ultimately describes those outcomes in less tangible and more intangible ways, i.e., the greater good. The research led me to conclude that this is not uncommon. To the research participants,

outcomes are a combination of tangible results and intangible benefits. Tangible results are partially formed by the institution. Buildings get built, or departments share with donors what was accomplished in the previous year *because of the support of our many friends and donors.*

The intangible benefits are those that, as Jim Andersen stated are “hard to measure.” Yet all of the research participants stated that they benefited the most from giving. When I concluded the first interview session with Helen Oglethorpe, I asked her if I had missed anything. She asked if I had asked her how it felt, then stated, “it feels amazing.” The data again led me to conclude that intangible benefits are integrated into how donors determine outcomes by framing the outcomes in positive or negative ways.

Tangible Results

Tangible results are a primary way that the research participants answered the question of how effectiveness is determined. Research participants stated that their charitable gifts are used effectively because they “can see it” (Jim Andersen, Andrew Stephens, Stephen Smyth, Julie Rogers, Edward Adams). Their personal experiences are proof that the donations are accomplishing the intent of the gift.

This process appears to be informal, and based on one’s assumptions. As discussed, being an insider to the organization is a significant part of this process (Katherine Buckley, Jim Andersen). All participants stated, in one way or another, that their being on campus and having access to information that may not be available otherwise, helps them define outcomes.

Research participants stated they were happy with the outcomes of projects they supported. Reactions ranged from doing “good” to “making a difference” in the lives of students, regardless of the project (Helen Oglethorpe, Julie Rogers). When I asked how research

participants could tell, most responded by saying that they “see” the results (Jim Andersen, Charles Snow, Cheryl Snow) or that they “trusted” (Andrew Stephens) the people they worked with, and believed that things were done according to the expectations the donor had when making the charitable gift.

This appears to be based on the insider nature of the research participants. A few research participants noted (Jim Andersen, Helen Oglethorpe, Andrew Stephens) that they were on campus regularly and didn’t see anything for them to conclude that projects did not meet their expectations. Jim Andersen, in particular, stated that he liked to support capital projects he could “actually see it, and touch it and feel it.”

Edward Adams echoed other research participants. Adams has made a number of significant charitable gifts to the university, both capital and programmatic. One charitable gift was to establish a scholarship. As an insider to the institution, he stated that “I can see where the money’s coming off and it’s always within the school so I’ve had a lot of ways to observe that.”

Another of his charitable gifts to the library was to name a room:

I gave money to this library for space and as far as I can tell it’s being utilized for one of those study rooms or group conference rooms and that’s, as far as I can tell it’s been effectively used for what I was promised it was to be used for.

When he was asked if his ability to monitor the outcomes of his charitable gifts is based solely on his proximity to campus, he stated, “Yeah, in the case of Whatsamatta U, what I’ve given to [Midwestern] University it’s just strictly what they report back...”

Adams said that his proximity allows him to have a better sense of how donations are used, and not only that the project is completed:

Just for example, and this is a simplistic example, a person gives money for space and they could do that space in low, medium or high quality. Now in the donor’s mind it may not be, again it would depend on the donor, the donor might say they probably aren’t very

efficient if they do it in the lowest end way 'cause the stuff won't last and they gotta redo it later on. On the other hand if they used the very most expensive stuff, they probably can't stretch the resources and do as much as they could as if they had hit the sweet spot and looked at both the quality as was the cost of what they're putting into this space.

He [the donor] may have gone in there with the attention they were going to use mid-grade stuff and all of a sudden it looks like they used the cheapest of everything type of material in there.

Adams used this example of how a donor's expectations define their reaction to the outcome. He continued by stating whether the donor feels valued based upon what is observed:

Well they may not be happy because maybe he [the donor] thought that was an inefficient use of the gift. On the other hand they could gold plate it, so to speak, and maybe not do as much with the facility as they could have if they would have done a medium grade and built it out more. So, I mean, I don't know, that's trying to illustrate something that might be hard to get at but I mean, every donor, if they gave a significant amount for space will have a perception of whether they use that effectively and efficiently or not.

As an insider, Adams is in a position to conclude if his charitable gifts were used effectively.

The donor's expectations are the lens used to determine if the charitable gift was used effectively. Adams indicates that if the outcomes meet the donor's expectation, then the donor is more likely to determine the gift was used effectively and that the institution valued the donor's charitable gift.

Research participants expressed that many of their conclusions are based upon their own understandings of outcomes (Charles Snow, Katherine Buckley, Robert Painter). Edward Adams, for example, stated that his expectation of costs help him to determine whether his charitable gifts are used effectively:

They don't give me an annual spending report as to what they're spending it on and I'd like to see that because...I have a perspective of maybe what things should cost and how you should get efficiency out of the operation of an organization more than the average person does and so I think I would have on that situation I'd have a better perspective.

Therefore, the idea of the tangible result, the “I can see it” (Jim Andersen) notion becomes more impactful as the donor begins to make determinations on the effectiveness of their financial contributions.

When tangible results are not available to make determinations, it negatively impacts how donors draw conclusions. Helen Oglethorpe, Katherine Buckley and Stephen Smyth shared instances when the university did not communicate changes to projects that were supported by donations made by each of them. In the case of Oglethorpe, the university did not install equipment during a building renovation that she had purchased:

And if someone had said come back, and said thanks for your gift, you know we've kind of changed, here's what we're doin', would it be okay, or we moved this money and here's how we're using it, then I would say cool, it went to a good cause, and it's not recognition, it's not kowtowing to me, it's knowing, it's my ROI, it's, I gave you ten thousand dollars, that's a week or two weeks or whatever of net pay for me, I'd like to know the two hours, or two weeks of work that I did, that I gave to you, got used productively, that's all.

Katherine Buckley had a similar experience:

They couldn't report to me... what mine was used for so there was a big scuttlebutt about where that hundred thousand went because I had specifically said this is what I wanted it for and I could not see that that was the case so they scrambled and gave me, you know, unknown figures where, but they could not prove where that money went and I was afraid that the University took it rather than it going specifically to [the department] and so there were some hard times feeling there... I restated what I wanted done and I was, I was really specific, I mean I was really angry about it, I mean I told them replace the screws in a particular bathroom and it had better be done and that was before we had the [meeting] there so I had this pool of money and I was like the [board] meeting is coming this day and all of these things better be done and this is how much money I feel it should cost and that's how much money and they did do 99 percent of it by [the board meeting].

Stephen Smyth also shared a similar experience. He and his family donated \$100,000 to a building project at WU. It was suggested by the dean that a specific project within the building campaign would be a high-profile recognition opportunity, and Smyths agreed to support the project. Smyth and his family went to the building after it had been opened for a couple of years

and did not find the project that they supported:

And you go there and look outside the building and it's a plot of grass with day lilies around the outside and weeds growing in them. So, well, I talked to, ah, the people at the [college] [voice gets more animated] but nobody has any money to do anything. So, you know, if, if, if that was a broken promise, I'd say yes. That, that's the only feedback I've gotten and was really initiated by me, because we went by to look at it, and we wanted to show our kids, ah, you know, the plaque on the Smyth Learning Garden at the building, and, and it's kind of laughable.

If donors can see if their financial contributions are used, how the contributions were used, and what the outcomes were, donors are able to make immediate decisions as to the effectiveness of their financial contributions. Tangible results were the easiest way to conclude if the outcomes met the expectations of the donors.

Intrinsic Benefits

Outcomes are not only measured through tangible results, however. Many research participants discussed the personal satisfaction of supporting the institution and its students. This sense of joy was apparent when the researcher observed WU's annual scholarship lunch. Each spring, donors and scholarship recipients are invited to a lunch to have the opportunity to meet. I overheard more than one person comment that the luncheon is her favorite event of year because the donor gets to meet "her student." From the observation and overheard comments, this level of joy appears to be unmatched by other stewardship activities the university offers throughout the year.

Interestingly, a review of site documents rarely reflects the emotions of donors. Some college newsletter articles include comments from donors as to why the donor made certain donations (WU College of Business Magazine, Winter 2012). Other articles quote faculty and staff on why the donation is important to the program (WU College of Business Magazine,

Winter 2013; WU College of Health Studies, 2007). Often when donors are quoted, however, it is in the context of the university promoting additional charitable gifts (WU Alumni Magazine, Fall 2013; WU Alumni Magazine, Summer 2013; WU Alumni Magazine, Winter 2012; donor society brochure, Fall 2012).

This appears to be a missed opportunity by the university to continue making donors feel valued. Research participants often displayed outward joy when discussing the benefits received by making a financial contribution. While many of these displays were limited to smiles and happiness being reflected in one's face, others, such as Edward Adams, had stronger emotional reactions to making charitable gifts.

One of the more interesting moments came when Adams was relaying a study that considered who donated more – the wealthy or the poor. As Adams shared with me the results of the study, indicating that the poor are more likely, per capita, to donate, I noticed that Adams eyes appeared to be tearing up. As he went on, he kept repeating “the working poor,” and finally had to stop talking, apparently attempting to keep his composure. When I asked him what he was feeling, he responded “It makes me wonder why you don't give away more.” It was the strongest indicator that the subject of charitable giving, and the impact it can have on oneself, is an extremely personal reaction.

While other research participants did not have the strong emotional reaction to charitable giving that Adams did, their reactions are no less significant. Jim Andersen shared his thoughts on making a charitable gift:

You can see that, you get a letter from that young person, or you're contacted by that young person to say “thanks.” Man, that's a great feeling. You know, I couldn't have gotten through school without your help, we really appreciate it, that's an awful good feeling.

Helen Oglethorpe described her reaction to charitable giving when she stated:

It's unbelievable, to be able to contribute to something you think that does matter, and will make a difference, is an unbelievable high, and that's why you do it, and to harness into that and understand that people who are doing it are not doing it for the name on the plaque, are not doing it for the pen with the engraving, but are doing it because they really care about whatever that thing is, and to know how good it feels to be able to be in a position, what an honor it is to be able to say I can help make something happen, is unbelievable.

Helping students was a common theme when research participants discussed the reason for making charitable donations. These actions appear to enhance the intangible benefits the donors receives, especially when combined with recognition by the student. These experiences appear to allow donors to determine whether the outcomes of their charitable gifts are successful.

Research participants also noted the idea of improving the school as an outcome.

Although most commented, like Stephen Smyth did, that these metrics are “more qualitative than quantitative.” Smyth stated that he views his endowed scholarship as positively shaping the university:

So we always have a large number of people vying for that scholarship, and we've attracted some very, very good students to WU, pretty high ACT scores, and, ah, there doesn't seem to be an end to that whole process. So, scholarships were high on our priority, especially for those people in [the northern region of the state]...you don't really have a lot of data, but you can see our average ACT scores are going up every year, our graduation rates are, you know all the metrics you look at, universities that are successful, I think we're doing, we have some, some soft spots that I think always need attention, but I think we're headed in the right direction.

Charles Snow echoed this sentiment when he stated:

In four or five years you're going to see graduates coming out of it [the college], you're going to see where they go, you're going to see how successful they are, how much they give back to our school, those are successful measurements.

Donors appear driven by these intangible benefits of giving back and making a difference. It frames how donors feel about the donation and how donors also feel about the organization. As

Jim Andersen stated:

What it's going to mean and you have faith in that person and the people involved, uh, and, you say 'yes, they're doing good things, it's going to have a good outcome, good results, they're going to produce these good things, we're going to give to this.'

While research participants discussed the impact their financial support has on students and the organization in general, the intangible result, the feeling that the donor also benefits in some way by making a financial contribution, was no less significant. It appears that these interactions with the institution allows for increased positive feelings for the organization, that the donor's contribution is positively affecting the organization, and therefore makes the donor conclude the their financial contribution was effective.

Trust

Trust appears to be the fulcrum on which everything balances. As Andrew Stephens put it, he "trusts" the people at the university. When things do not meet his expectations, he is confident the organization will correct the issue to his satisfaction. This provides increased credibility by the institution which continues to build trust.

According to the data, when people see results and hear positive things from the organization, trust is built up between the donor and the organization. The data indicates that communication and credibility are the key components to trust. The next section explores these two topics further. It provides examples of when donors believe they have received positive and negative communication from the organization and how that builds credibility and trust with the organization.

Communication

Communication is a key component of building trust. The data led me to conclude that positive communications from the institution strengthened trust. Research participants pointed out that it was not the formalized institutional channels of communication that had the more positive effects on building trust, however. Rather informal communication from a variety of individuals on campus strengthens the relationship donors have with the organization. Research participants stated that personal relationships with individual faculty and staff are the most important in communicating with research participants. As Andrew Stephens said when he mentioned a contact with a program he financially supports, "...he makes me feel like I'm the most important guy on campus." It is this essence, that donors are valued and treated as such, that drives how donors determine whether their charitable gifts are used. In another instance, Stephens stated that he is kept abreast of a number of projects from staff and faculty members, making him feel as though he has insider knowledge of what is taking place:

I get probably twenty or thirty emails a year from Gary, just an update of his research or what kind of awards he's getting, what they're doing, he doesn't need to do that, but he does, he stays in very, very close contact.

Stephens comments exemplifies the communication style that the research participants said are most informative – personal and informal lines of communication that have been cultivated through relationships made with faculty and staff (Andrew Stephens, Katherine Buckley, Jim Andersen, Cheryl Snow).

Institutional communications, however, are the communication vehicle organizations often employed to illustrate the success of their programs. Institutional communication is defined as the official communications distributed by the university – alumni newsletters, college

newsletters, college and university websites, annual reports and other communications initiated by the institution. Helen Oglethorpe commented on her perception of these pieces in this way:

They're kind of like getting fliers for the car you bought two years ago, you know, the new model, you kind of flip through the pictures, and say, yeah, that's what I bought, isn't it cool, and so it validates, it's not how I make my investment decisions going forward, so, I get something from the college of fine arts, or the business school, I will flip through it to see if, it's a little hard because I'm such an insider anymore that I may not be a good person to judge...but I flip through and say oh yeah, there's [the business dean], oh yeah, there's whoever talking, I might stop if I know a donor, or a friend who's featured, fine, whatever, I don't think they're a big draw for me.

How donors perceive the value of the communication received from an organization is vital to how donors determine if charitable gift is used effectively. If the organization is unable to adequately illustrate and promote what has been accomplished, donors will determine that the charitable gift is used effectively and that the donor is valued. Cheryl Snow succinctly made the connection between communication and value when she said, "...my point is those women saw value, they continue to see value, the first pledge ran out, they re-up because they see value and there's a lot of communication about the value [of their pledge]."

Institutional communication

A review of these university-produced communications clearly illustrated a lack of follow-up with donors to show how their donations are utilized. While university documents are full of examples of donors being recognized for the charitable gifts that have been contributed, rarely do these communications include what the charitable gift accomplished.

Occasionally institutional communications do illustrate the outcome from the person's donation. One such example of this was found in a 2003 university alumni magazine when a scholarship recipient shared how the scholarship affected his university experience:

I never realized how much my scholarship would impact my life. It has opened up many doors and allowed me to take advantage of wonderful opportunities that have come my way. My scholarship also has taught me the importance of giving back to the community that helped me make my way to WU. This past summer I was given the opportunity to be a resident assistant for the WU sponsored College Education Enhancement Program, which gives a deserving group of students a second chance at being admitted to WU. It also helps the students make a smooth transition to college. The program taught me how to work with diverse groups of people and how to be a good leader.

Exceptions like this one are few and far between from the document review of WU, however.

University communications appear to adequately acknowledge donations, but rarely are outcomes illustrated.

The university's athletic program is an exception in communicating how a donor's charitable gifts are used. The men's basketball team, for example, posted on its website that donations were used in:

Residence Halls - placement of all on campus players in the new [residence] Hall...
Office improvements - Advancements and Décor for offices/lobby area to include new televisions and computers...Basketball Historical Display Entrance - collage of some of the best players in program history...Locker room improvements - Advancements and décor for locker room area to include new television, stereo, furniture, photos, frames, logo, etc.

The marching band also indicated that donations supported their success:

In 2009 our trombone section had the benefit of professional quality instruments and the entire band traveled with the team to Mason City...Both initiatives were made possible through contributions to the championship fund.

It is notable that the athletics department does at least have a place on its website where successes can be posted. Colleges and other university departments do not have one place that is easily accessible to find how donations were used or how those donations supported the college or department.

Rather, college websites give lip service to how charitable gifts are used. "We can only achieve our collective vision for excellence with your continued loyalty and trust," is just one

statement that is provided in encouraging charitable gifts on the WU website. While in another area, the website states “...consider other funding arrangements which will best serve the wishes of the donor and the interests of Whatsamatta U...” The message is that the donor has a vital role in creating success of the university. Yet nowhere in institutional communications does it state how this success is achieved, or the direct connection a donor makes in helping to create this success.

Good communication

A review of the site documents illustrated that the institution appears to do an adequate job of recognizing donors who contribute to the institution. College and university newsletters regularly acknowledge charitable gifts from donors. These are usually simply phrased and include basic information. For example, one college newsletter included two scholarship acknowledgements that stated, “A \$30,000 gift from retired finance and law professor Susan Smith to create an endowed scholarship to benefit the Finance Management Association as well as the Management Science Fund – both tremendous student-based initiatives” was echoed in another statement, “[the college was] the receipt of a \$500,000 gift from the estate of Dr. George Vernon that will be used for a variety of scholarships for [business] students.” These institutional communications showcase the donors who make charitable gifts and the intent of these gifts.

There is value in these communications, as Jim Andersen pointed out. In discussing the now defunct annual report, he stated, “I can look in there and see who’s given what annually, who’s given, what their cumulative gifts have been over the years, who’s given a million, five hundred thousand, two hundred fifty thousand...” According the Andersen, the value is

showcasing and recognizing the donors who make significant contributions.

While this may be important to Andersen, the data indicates that the more effective form of communication is more personal, informal, communications. Katherine Buckley stated the importance of these interactions when she said:

A gift one time does not make for future donations, you might get that one donation but if you're really cultivating it, for another four bucks, a little postcard, a picture, a little note, you write a sentence on it and send it out...I just think that they could do "thinking of you" six months after, you don't have to say it was directly for the gift just a thinking of you.

Helen Oglethorpe perhaps summed this idea up best when she simply said, "the more personal, the more of the draw..." Research participants indicated that genuine expressions of gratitude, the more valued it was.

Andrew Stephens shared a number of similar experiences receiving these informal communications, and the impact this type of communication has on his perceptions:

[Sally] sent me this wonderful note and said would you basically as a reward, but she worded it very tactfully, she said 'we'd be honored if you'd be an honorary coach for our game against [university]' and she gave me the date of it, to sit on the floor with her and the players, I mean I thought that's class, I mean that was a smart cookie.

Stephens gave other examples, from being copied on emails that kept him informed on projects, to the value of short, handwritten notes that make him "feel good."

Charles Snow, Helen Oglethorpe, and Jim Andersen also indicated these informal communications strengthen their trust in the institution. Strengthened trust leads to renewed confidence and feelings of being valued. Charles Snow stated:

You keep sending them letters, you keep sending, not always about giving gifts but about 'here's something about the new medical school' 'here's something that Education's done here' over a period of time they buy in just like teaching a kid you've gotta stay with it you've gotta keep communicating you've gotta keep showing value.

Jim Andersen echoes Snow's comments:

Sometimes it's just nothing more than a letter saying "Hey, we really appreciate your support on this particular project. Here's where we're at, here's where we're going, here's what we've done. And I think that, that is critical... , people, people, like to get a pat on the back, people like to hear a word of thanks when they're contributing to something.

Meanwhile Helen Oglethorpe discussed the positive reaction she had when she received a thank you note from the recipient of an endowed scholarship she funded:

We get a letter from the recipient, that's personalized, that's pretty darn cool, because to me, all my stuff here, whether it's money, time, whatever I give, is because I care about the kids here...but just to have someone say here's what I'm going to do, and I want to say go, you know, cool, that's what this is for, that motivates me to want to do more, and when you don't hear anything it's like [why] did that, so, it kind of goes both ways, so that would be one that was, is, was and is very positive.

Communication channels identify what is most important to the university and the donors.

When these channels are used effectively, powerful stories can be told and connections are strengthened.

Poor communication

But the opposite can also happen, and the lack of communications can negatively affect donor perception. While Jim Andersen stated he received very positive communications from Whatsamatta U., this unfortunately was not the experiences of all research participants. Robert Painter summed up his frustration with institutional communication when he said, "sometimes a letter, sometimes a phone call, sometimes a combination, sometimes you don't hear anything...you cannot neglect to respond to donors." This lack of communication is a deterrent in building a culture of trust between the individual and the institution. Too often in the study, research participants shared times when communication was limited, or even nonexistent, after making a charitable gift.

Katherine Buckley provided numerous examples of what she saw as poor communication. As an insider of a particular program at WU, Buckley is well-versed in the many aspects of the program. She shared a few instances when felt that she did not receive communication, which affected her level of trust with the current program director. In one example, she mentioned that she believed it was a mistake not to tell donors that a major investment in the program, a new boat, was operational:

I don't even know if it's in the water yet, so that's a negative you know, the science people, could, when that boat went into the water, whether you donated it or not...it would have been nice to get an email, the boat got launched yesterday, you know on our maiden voyage, kind of thing.

Buckley continued by relaying an instance when she made a donation to buy a piece of equipment for the boat, and her frustration in not knowing if the equipment was used, or even purchased:

Maybe they didn't feel that they had to notify anybody but I'd still like to know that the equipment was up and running for this summer cause that boat was ready in December, so are we, I don't think donors want to see a lag, you know, if that boat was supposed be in the water this spring, then it should be in the water and it should be publicize.

As Buckley summed up, poor communication issues do not allow “donors to get that comfy feeling that they're included.” Buckley continued by stating as an insider, she had access that allowed her to find out information that is not included in institutional communications, but that other donors may not receive:

I don't think a lot of other people get that as donors, they might not hear all year as a donor especially if they're not on some committee, the board, or something, I'd think they feel neglected you know you know when as far as when I talk to people and they've given a gift and they're not actually involved in the University, I think they are kind of neglected, you know a gift one time does not make for future donations you know what I mean?

Charles Snow echoes Buckley's statement when he said, "we don't get much feedback [from the college] and it's really too bad 'cause when we go into another project then we have to bring everybody up to date see the best way to do it is to bring us up to date all the time." Helen Oglethorpe was more succinct when she stated that, "I've never heard a word since, nothin'," after finding out that a donation she made was used differently than the intended purpose.

Meanwhile, Andrew Stephens shared his frustration at a new dean when the dean instilled a financial requirement to be part of his advisory board:

I mean I got a couple of form letters, and then he sends me a letter saying, um, to be on my advisory board, you have to contribute mandatory five thousand dollars a year, all right, basically said bag-it...but to tell a guy, either you give me five grand or you take a walk, that's not very astute, so I have nothing to do with the school of business now...I've had virtually no contact with that dean, I've voiced the same opinion to his development officer, and said you know, I'm the only million dollar donor, there's only one bigger donor to that building than me, and that's [the company], and I said it's really sad that I never, ever hear from you people, she, well, I'm going to talk to the dean about it, well, the next time I ran into him, he said we're going to have a, I don't remember what, some function, and that was the only time, the only contact, I don't even know his name, um, that's the only contact I had with him, I mean, somebody should sit these guys down, the day they put them in these positions of importance and say what are your priorities, academics first and foremost, but fund raising has got to be [secondary].

These lapses in communication can be summed up by saying that communication issues do not build trust between the donor and the institution. Poor communication does not allow the donor to feel like an insider.

Both Stephens and the Snows commented that the university did a sufficient job of stewarding major donors. Stephens suggested that it might be beneficial for him to attend a development staff meeting and share his thoughts and experiences as a major donor to the institution. Charles Snow went so far as to offer Cheryl as a substitute for the director of stewardship because Cheryl "knows how people want to be treated." In both of these instances, the research participants were responding to issues of communication as it related to being

valued by the organization. Katherine Buckley perhaps stated it the most simply, “Sometimes I’m hurt by it, there’s certain things I’m hurt by...”

Too often throughout the study research participants shared examples of missed opportunities to build and strengthen relationships between the institution and their donors. The examples of poor communication took two forms – either no communication at all, or communication that does not strengthen the relationship. Robert Painter summed his frustration up best when he stated, “...you get the form letters that come out and say, thank you for your gift, and if it’s big enough, you might get a phone call on top, but generally no one has ever asked ‘tell me a bit more about what you’re doing here.’” When communication does not positively build and enhance the relationship, it does not build and enhance trust with the donors.

Credibility

Along with issues of communication, credibility is a main component of trust. Research participants stated trust in the institution exists as long as the donor could determine that donations were used as intended. As Stephen Smyth stated, “things have to [be] handled so the donor goes away with a positive feeling, not a negative one.” When this did not occur, as it happened too frequently, then credibility was damaged and future interactions were viewed more critically.

After having a negative experience of supporting a program, only to find out that the institution changed how the donation was used, Helen Oglethorpe stated how this affected her view of the organization:

But as a donor I say hmm, when they come back to me and ask me to give more money, what’s the credibility, credibility’s not very good, and I’ve heard a number of colleagues over the years, some pretty big givers, who have had similar experiences.

She continued by stating that, though she has continued to support the university, this experience has made her more aware of issues “it certainly is there, did it impact it, no obviously we got over it, but did I remember it, yeah.”

Other research participants shared Oglethorpe’s experience. One of the most compelling examples of a breakdown in credibility was shared by Andrew Stephens. A friend of Stephens passed away and he chose to name something in honor of his friend. He called up the development officer for a particular project:

And I said what do you suggest? He said why don’t you name a pillar in the building? I said what’s that cost, he said ten thousand, I said okay, consider it done... I said here’s what I’d like you to do, I said Jim worked for the university, he was an avid fan, I’m going to pay for the pillar, not his family, I said for his family, this is going to be a big, big deal, very, very important, and I said, in the Spring when Jan gets back from Florida, I said please, I said contact her in advance, pick a date, have some sort of, even if it’s two or three development officials and, and make it some sort of formal ceremony with his wife and children and grandkids present, to make them feel that Jim was very important to the university, I have not heard from Joe about that in months, and he’s got his money...and I don’t think Jane has been talked to, I mean, to me that’s weak, you know, you told me what the requirement was, I complied with it, now get off your ass and do your job, I like Joe, but he dropped the ball on this, I asked him to do that multiple times, to the best of my knowledge it’s never happened.

Rather than creating a celebration that would have allowed the donor and his friend’s family to feel valued by the university’s actions, inaction and a lack of communication led to distrust.

Stephens experience was not the lone one to be shared. Edward Adams relayed an instance when the purpose of a room was changed, without notifying the donor who funded the original purpose:

But I specifically asked about that, did so-and-so ever get consulted, cause the person’s still alive that gave all that money for that, and they said no, we didn’t, I guess maybe we should contact the person, I thought, well yeah, six months after the fact that it’s been re-purposed and they had no intention of talking to him or her about re-purposing until it was done.

This experience affected Adams so strongly, he stated that he is not “motivated” ever to donate to capital improvements. Oglethorpe summed up the experience she and others have had with WU when she stated “I’m frustrated when those outcomes are stated up front and then don’t happen, that causes a negative reaction, not even a neutral, but a negative reaction.”

In a second instance, Oglethorpe went so far as to say that she feels “like shit” for the way the institution treated her when she made a second significant charitable gift to the university. She donated to a project and planned to have her company match the donation. She chose to name a room based upon the combined amount, only to find out that the institution’s policies did not recognize company matching gifts for naming opportunities:

She [the development officer] had to call and tell me that they could only credit me for sixty-five thousand, so they gave me a new list of things to pick out from, now I’d just committed the most money I’ve ever committed in my life, to somebody, and now I felt like I wasn’t good enough, so I had to pick the booby prize rooms, and remember I don’t care about the rooms to begin with, but how did I feel, I had been pushed down to a lower level, because the thirty-five from [the company] might not come in, so they couldn’t credit me for that, really, hmm, and I got off the phone, and, and I was just okay, yeah, I’ll pick some, it’s like don’t bother, I don’t care, just whatever, suddenly what had been a very special thing, now was distasteful, and that was a pretty ugly thing, my brother who worked for the Boy Scouts in major fund raiser, you know, worked at national and all that kind of stuff, so he knows fund raising, and he was the one who said, oh, you have to tell them, you have to call [the president], you know you can’t let this go, cause if they’re doing it to you, they’re doing it to everybody else, this is horrible, it’s like that’s not my style...how do you feel, I feel like shit, said how do you think every other donor is going to feel, they’re probably going to be pissed, said right, so I called [the president]...and I said I hate to call you about this he said what, so I just blurt, and as I started talking I just started getting more and more angry, cause, you know, it was happening that fast, and needless to say within three days it was all fixed, and we ended up with a bigger room than we probably should have again it didn’t matter, but how I felt about it, and how I was treated, and again the communication process, was, I went hmm, is this how we do fund raising at WU, really, so, that was an unfortunate, and it wasn’t about the room, it was about basically being respected and valued as a contributor, and appreciated, and somebody in there, you know, dotting I’s and crossing T’s role forgot about what the intent was, so, hate to be negative, but those kind of things happen more than you know.

Whatsamatta U's processes dictate what a donor receives in exchange for charitable gifts. Missing in this transactional arrangement are donors' intentions and expectations. Both Oglethorpe's and Stephen's comments capture the importance of exploring donors' perspectives and expectations. WU's processes do not allow for donor's expectations and interests to be recognized. Rather, university policies create a wedge between the donor and the institution. Worse, WU does not recognize that its reliance upon a transactional giving approach is harming the relationship it has with the research participants. Oglethorpe and Stephens comments are the canary in the coalmine alert that change must occur. Adoption of transformational giving by WU creates a culture that puts the donor at the center of gift-giving rather than the institution. WU must change its culture to be more inclusive of the donor by adopting a transformational giving approach.

Research Findings Summarized

Oglethorpe's comment regarding someone "dotting I's and crossing T's...forgot about what the intent was..." may be the perfect way to summarize how donors interpret their relationship with the institution. When donors believe the institution does not value them, donors do not believe their financial contributions are effective. Throughout this study, research participants shared their frustrations with Whatsamatta U. Rather than taking positive experiences from contributing charitable gifts, research participants shared the disappointment, frustration, and in some cases, anger at WU.

When donors feel valued, however, they believe they are making positive contributions to the organization. Donors who feel valued see tangible results, and perhaps more importantly, experience intangible benefits that give them the "comfy feeling" Buckley described. Donors

who feel valued by the institution are listened to and are provided access that allows them to establish relationships with people at the institution. The institution sends communications that highlight successes, not just lists of financial metrics. Finally, donors who feel valued by the institution have established trust that the organization is going to do what was promised.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Data from the study, including the conversations I had with research participants, led me to conclude that effectiveness is a multifaceted construct (Herman & Renz, 1997, 1999, 2008). Effectiveness is a multifaceted construct because no one element clearly defines the term. Each donor defines the term differently depending upon the circumstances of the organization, the charitable gift, the purpose and the expectation.

However, one overriding concept did emerge from the data – that donors who are valued by the institution are more likely to define their philanthropic support as effective. In discussing how donors determine whether their charitable gifts are used effectively, research participants couched their responses in terms that included access, recognition, trust, tangible results, intangible benefits and shared values. This language allowed research participants to express both positive and negative reactions to their experiences as donors to WU.

Table 3. Connecting the Findings to the Research Questions

	Access	Shared Values	Recognition	Trust	Tangible Results	Intrinsic Benefits
Research Question #1		*		*	*	*
Research Question #2	*	*	*	*	*	*
Research Question #3	*					*

Adopted from Kaczynski, D., Salmona, M. (in press). Confronting barriers to learning qualitative data analysis software: Making the doctoral research process visible. *Educational Technology Research & Development*.

Table three illustrates how this chapter explores access, recognition, trust, tangible results, intangible benefits and shared values as the components relate to the research questions that framed the study (Kaczynski & Salmona, in press). The chapter includes a summary of the

findings and discusses how the elements combine to define effectiveness as a feeling of being valued. The chapter provides a call to action and finishes with recommendations for future research in the topic of donor-defined effectiveness.

Research Questions

This study built upon Brest's (2012) argument that increased expectations by donors has created an environment where both donors and the organization are focused on defined goals and are jointly responsible for monitoring the progress of outcomes and assessing success. Three research questions provided a structure to conduct the study and explore how donors define effectiveness. Each question was designed to explore what donors consider when determining if their charitable gifts accomplished what the donor intended.

Research Question #1

The first question addresses if effectiveness is a social construct. Using a constructivist's paradigm to explore effectiveness leaves one to contemplate how effectiveness is not only defined, but why it is defined in the way that it may be. Lincoln and Guba (2013) explored the relativism of constructivism by stating:

In the human sciences, entities are matters of definition and convention; they exist only in the minds of the persons contemplating them. They do not "really" exist. That is, they have ontological status only insofar as some group of persons...grant them that status. (p. 39)

Herman and Renz (1999) similarly stated in their study of organizational effectiveness from the nonprofits perspective that "most people develop judgments about effectiveness, but many have a difficult time bringing to mind what information or impressions they have used to reach that judgment" (p. 119). My decision to utilize constructivism in studying donor-defined

effectiveness echoes these two statements. I was interested in gaining greater understanding of not only how donors defined effectiveness, but also in understanding why. Baldwin (as cited in Lueddeke, 1999) stated that decisions “tend to evolve while new insights are created” (p. 247). The findings illustrate that donor-defined effectiveness is highly affected by insights the research participants searched out for themselves.

The research participants are peers. Many have served together in various roles at Whatsamatta U. My assumption was that this interaction would shape the research participants notion of effectiveness. Instead, all of the research participants rejected the notion that understanding is gained from others. When I inquired whether research participants discussed their charitable giving with people outside of their immediate family, research participants all stated that these discussions did not occur.

Rather, research participants’ definitions of effectiveness are based entirely upon their personal experiences with the institution. As Jim Andersen, Andrew Stephens, Stephen Smyth, Julie Rogers and Edward Adams all stated, the experiences each had after making a donation allowed them to determine if their philanthropic donations were, or were not, accomplishing the intended affect.

The research participants discussed how charitable donations align with shared values. Often discussions around shared values were couched in terms of “legacy,” “making the world as you’d like to see it,” belief “in what they [the organization] was doing,” and supporting organizations that “affect...their [the donor] interest and their family’s interest” (Oglethorpe, Rogers, Fields). A belief that the organization shares the donor’s values is critical in determining how a donor interprets the use of their gift. As Oglethorpe, Rogers and Fields each discussed,

charitable gifts are made in order to transform an organization's ability to affect society. This provides a lens through which the donors construct meaning.

In the case of supporting capital projects, this is easily done (Charles Snow, Cheryl Snow, Jim Andersen). The notion of *I can see it* influences the construction of their beliefs. Research participants stated that the construction of a building is easily determined as successful. The building gets built and students use the building.

Constructing meaning from a project that is not tangible becomes more difficult. Research participants stated that they "believed," or "felt" that their charitable gifts had significantly affected the institution (Jim Andersen, Stephen Smyth, Edward Adams). This is particularly true as it relates to scholarships. Some donors stated that they received notes from the recipients of their scholarships. These notes led them to believe that the charitable gift had positively impacted students (Helen Oglethorpe, Robert Painter). As insiders, the research participants also received communications from the institution that illustrated how grade-point and GPA was increasing; which led the research participants to believe their donations had positive influence on the institution (Stephen Smyth, Andrew Stephens, Julie Rogers). The data also illustrated that some research participants (Andrew Stephens, Julie Rogers, Katherine Buckley) expressed that they had interactions with faculty which helped to keep the research participants aware of projects.

Communication also occurs when donors to endowed scholarships receive investment reports on their endowments and a list of scholarship recipients. These communications are exceptions to the rule, however. The institution recognizes and acknowledges charitable gifts when received, but does not provide donors with concrete examples of the impact their charitable gifts make on the institution. The document review of the institution bore this out. While the

university prepares lists of donors once a year, there is not a process to highlight how donations are used by the institution. Instead, research participants stated that they are left to their own devices when determining if their charitable gifts were used effectively.

The university misses opportunities to make research participants and other donors feel valued by communicating outcomes. Rather than the university highlighting how charitable gifts transform the institution, the data concluded that individuals are left on their own to determine what outcomes their charitable gifts made. This “collective generation of meaning” underpins social construction and leads me to conclude that donor-defined effectiveness is a social construct (Lee, 2011, p. 405). Weerts (2007) stated that knowledge is “socially and culturally mediated by partners and stakeholders” (p. 88). In the case of Whattsamatta U., this mediation process is informal and reliant upon individual donors to take the initiative to determine how their charitable gifts were used.

Research Question #2

The second research question addresses how a donor defines an effective use of their donation. Early studies of effectiveness that consider a donor’s perspective were centered on financial measurements. Kitching (2009), for example, concluded that donors favor charities that use high quality auditors, while Sloan (2009) concluded that cost-benefit measurements are paramount in a donor’s mind. She stated that “positive accountability ratings increase donor’s contributions to a nonprofit” (p. 229). Some research participants agree with Kitching (2000) and Sloan’s (2009) findings. Julie Rogers, Robert Painter, Edward Adams and Harold Fields all discussed outcome measurements that included some type of cost-benefit perspective. As Painter stated, “I’m a cynic when I don’t understand the economics of the decision, I wanna

know the economics...” Fields, too, stated that donors are concerned with the “financial health” of the organization and base their definition upon “effective administration, governance, governance structure, accountability, transparency, whistleblower policy, audit committee...” Clearly, the financial management of the institution is integral for some research participants.

Painter and Fields comments appear to be exceptions in the data, however. When the remaining research participants discussed effectiveness, it had less to do with financial definitions, and more to do with whether the donor felt valued by the institution. Feeling valued, not financial successes, is paramount to how donors define effectiveness. The components of feeling valued support a multifaceted construct of effectiveness (Herman & Renz, 1997, 1999, 2008).

Feeling valued begins with donor intent and the associated outcomes of the charitable gift. As Helen Oglethorpe stated, “did they meet the stated purpose, so were they [donations] used in the way that was, again, intended, maybe not expressly stated, but intended...” Painter and Fields initially discussed financial metrics in determining success. Yet they also tied success to outcomes. Robert Painter stated that his idea of effectiveness is simply “seeing the money applied to helping the organization. Meanwhile Fields defined success as, “...like a contract before you make the donation, you discuss with the organization and this is what we agree upon accomplishing, and this is what I am evaluation...” Julie Rogers defined effectiveness as “this is what we were able to with the funding; this is the impact that has been made thus far...” The data led me to conclude that research participants want to be more informed of how their donations supported the institution.

Recent studies support the notion of stakeholders focusing measuring success based upon outcomes. MacIndoe and Barman (2012) in particular concluded that stakeholders measure the

success of the organization based upon an assessment of the organization's outcomes. Mitchell (2013) found that organization's leaders are revising how success is defined. MacIndoe and Barman (2012) and Mitchell (2013) are exceptions to the current literature. The studies and practitioner literature reviewed remain focused on motivational strategies that are centered on effectiveness as the number of donors to an organization and the amount that is contributed to the institution (Bielefeld, Rooney, & Steinberg, 2005; Burdenski, 2003; Panas, 2008; Schroeder, 2000; Wylie, 2004).

The data led me to determine that Whatsamatta U. remains in the mindset of most studies of effectiveness – that the number of donors and amount of the donations are more important than what the charitable gift provides. A review of university documents confirms that donors are not provided direct communication regarding the use of their charitable gifts. College newsletters, annual reports, and other general correspondence are typically used to recognize new charitable gifts. These communication pieces offer the promise the charitable gift may provide, but are not used to follow-up and present specific examples of what changes occurred because of the charitable gift.

Instead donors must determine if the intent of the gift was fulfilled. As Katherine Buckley said, “we’ll, I’m still giving,” indicating that she has not been lead to believe the expectations and outcomes she has for projects are not being met. However, throughout the study Buckley revealed that she did not believe she had always been kept informed of how her donations were supporting the projects she donated toward.

How outcomes are communicated affect the level of trust donors have in the institution. According to the data, when donors observe results and hear positive comments about what has transpired because of a charitable gift, the donor is more likely to determine that the gift was

used effectively. As Smyth stated, “things have to [be] handled so the donor goes away with a positive feeling...” Andrew Stephens supported Smyth’s comment when Stephens discussed how his frequent interactions on campus builds the credibility he has with a program:

That group totally dazzles me, I can walk in that health sciences building at seven or eight o’clock at night, and I can walk in there on a Saturday afternoon, and I always find at least six of those researchers there, I mean, I don’t know when these guys sleep, they’re the most dedicated group, it’s unbelievable.

The credibility and trust donor’s build with the institution is supported by the access the donors receive. As insiders, research participants are allowed increased opportunities to view how their charitable gifts are used, whether the intent of the charitable gift was met, and whether the charitable gift was effective. The data indicates that the more research participants observed their charitable gifts being used, were listened to and communicated with, the more valued the donor felt by the institution. As research participants felt more valued, they were more likely to determine their charitable gifts were used effectively.

Research participants who specifically stated that access was important (Andrew Stephens, Jim Andersen, Stephen Smyth, Helen Oglethorpe) offered an *I know it when I see it* essence to whether charitable gifts are used effectively. Effectiveness is not supported by specific, measurable outcomes. Rather, as Stephen Smyth responded, “it’s guttural, I mean it’s just the impression you come away with”. Helen Oglethorpe responded in a similar manner by defining effectiveness as having “any sense that it was actually used as intended.” Andrew Stephens meanwhile, answered by saying he:

Hadn’t thought of that, first and foremost is the effective use of the money, that it’s not squandered, it’s not wasted, to the best of my knowledge, any money that I’ve given, nobody takes a percentage, nobody keeps any of it, it all goes for whatever the program it was designed for, ah, I think that first and foremost.

When I followed up by asking how Stephens knows the money is used for the intended reason, he stated “I make the assumption.”

The data concluded that effectiveness is based upon a donor feeling valued by the institution. Through a combination of recognition, access, outcomes, communication and shared values, donors determine whether their charitable gifts fulfilled the intended purpose.

Unfortunately, this determination is often left to the donor to initiate. The university does a poor job of communicating successes with donors. The lack of action on the part of the university is detrimental to creating a trusting environment for donors.

Research Question #3

The final research question asks whether there is an expectation of the outcomes a donor anticipates when he or she contributes to an organization, and if so, what are the expectations.

Ostrander (2007) provided a perspective on this when she stated:

The path to funding decisions begins in the deepest and innermost regions of the self and culminates in the donor’s self-generated private vision of public good. Philanthropy is primarily offered as an opportunity to embark on a personal journey and to fulfill a private vision for society. (p. 366)

My research supports this notion of a “private vision for society” (Ostrander, 2007, p. 366).

Andrew Stephens exemplifies this private vision. Consider the discussion he shared with establishing the monument to recognize one of his favorite programs. Even though the university had a definition of what a sign should look like, he was able to work around those restrictions. As you walk across WU’s campus, this monument sticks out. It is out of place among the other signs on campus and seems to send a message to the campus community – get a high-powered donor to be your champion, and you, too, may get a fancy sign in front of your building.

The idea of a private vision for society also issues a challenge to the university and the development staff. If donors, in fact, have their own concepts of what to support, what is the responsibility of the institution to provide these opportunities? This study leads me to believe that donor's view the effectiveness of their financial contributions based upon whether the donor feels valued. What occurs when this feeling of being valued comes in conflict with the mission and vision of the institution? In the case of Stephen's monument, it may seem overblown to say his monument issued a challenge to the mission and vision of the university. Yet to other programs on campus, the exception this program received because of the access the donor had may be an issue. It seemingly places the donor's favorite program outside of the basic policies of the institution.

This level of expectation is an exception of a private vision in the data. Most research participants stated that their decision making was altruistic and focused on supporting students. While Cook and Lasher (1996) concluded that philanthropic decision making was moving away from altruistic models to more exchange models, the researchers stated that intrinsic benefits to making donations remains important. The data concluded that intrinsic benefits are an important aspect to decision making. Oglethorpe, Smyth, Rogers and Painter discussed the desire to support students through their donations, and the positive feelings each received by doing so. As Oglethorpe stated:

It's unbelievable, to be able to contribute to something you think does matter, and will make a difference, is an unbelievable high, and that's why you do it, and to harness into that and understand that people who are doing it are not doing it for the name on the plaque, are not doing it for the pen with the engraving, but are doing it because they really care about whatever that thing is, and to know how good it feels to be able to be in a position, what an honor it is to be able to say I can help make something happen, is unbelievable.

All of the research participants stated similar beliefs. Their main reason for making a charitable gift was to support students and leave personal legacies at the university (Oglethorpe, Stephens, Snow, Smyth). While a few research participants had specific, measurable outcomes in mind when charitable gifts were made (Fields, Painter, Rogers), the reason for making the charitable gift more often was couched in intrinsic benefits defined by the reactions of the research participants themselves.

In some respects, this ties back to the first research question. Ostrander's (2007) comment about the "path to funding decisions begins in the deepest and innermost regions of the self and culminates in the donor's self-generated private vision of public good" is clearly constructivist language (p. 366). Donors make decisions based upon their own wants and needs. Success of their charitable gifts is defined, not on an established metric, but by whether the donor is valued by the institution. Outcomes, metrics, successes and effectiveness are all self-defined by the donor based upon the intended outcome. Effectiveness truly is a multifaceted construct.

Discussion

As the data highlighted, research participants do not appear to fully believe the institution values them. The study's data highlighted stories of donors who were promised one thing, only for something else to happen, if at all. This ran the gamut from unintentional oversights of recognition, to intentional changes of how donations were used, without any communication back to the donor stating how plans had changed. Unfortunately, research participants stated that these sorts of interactions were all too common by the institution.

Rather than communicate changes, participants said that they often found out about changes to their gift long after the decisions were made. All stated that communication had

broken down in these instances. If the institution communicated changes, or were more up-front as to what could or could not be accomplished, the participants stated that trust would be enhanced. Instead, research participants indicated that their trust in the institution was challenged at times.

Research participants stated that trust is built through individual relationships. These relationships sustain the connection to the institution when donors are let down. The trust that participants built with individuals appears to have waylaid some of the ill-will the research participants have with the institution. But all agreed how much more cautious they were in future interactions with the institution.

The notion of trust becomes the fulcrum in determining whether a donor feels valued, and therefore considers their donation effective. As Stephens stated, he trusts the people he works with at the university. When things go awry, he has trust that the issue will be resolved. Trust, then, is one of the keys to undermining the status quo in the force field analysis considered at the beginning of the study (see Figure 3).

The use of Lewin's force field analysis allowed me to frame the study by considering the current paradigm and the driving forces of change. Currently the status quo is institutional-centric. The literature describes effectiveness as institutionally-defined using cost-benefit metrics (Cook & Lasher, 1996; Institute, 2012; McGinly & Kaufman, 2006; Schroeder, 2000; Wylie, 2004). Even more recent studies that do begin to move away from these measures and to incorporate the donor's perspective do so only in asking if the donors believe the outcomes met the donor's intent of the charitable gift (Dunphy & Stace, 1993; Greenwald, 2013; Liket, Rey-Garcia, & Maas, 2014; MacIndoe & Barman, 2012; Mitchell, 2012). The data illustrated that outcomes, while part of an overall definition of being valued, are not exclusive to how donors

define effectiveness. These current studies stop short of getting a full definition of what matters to donors.

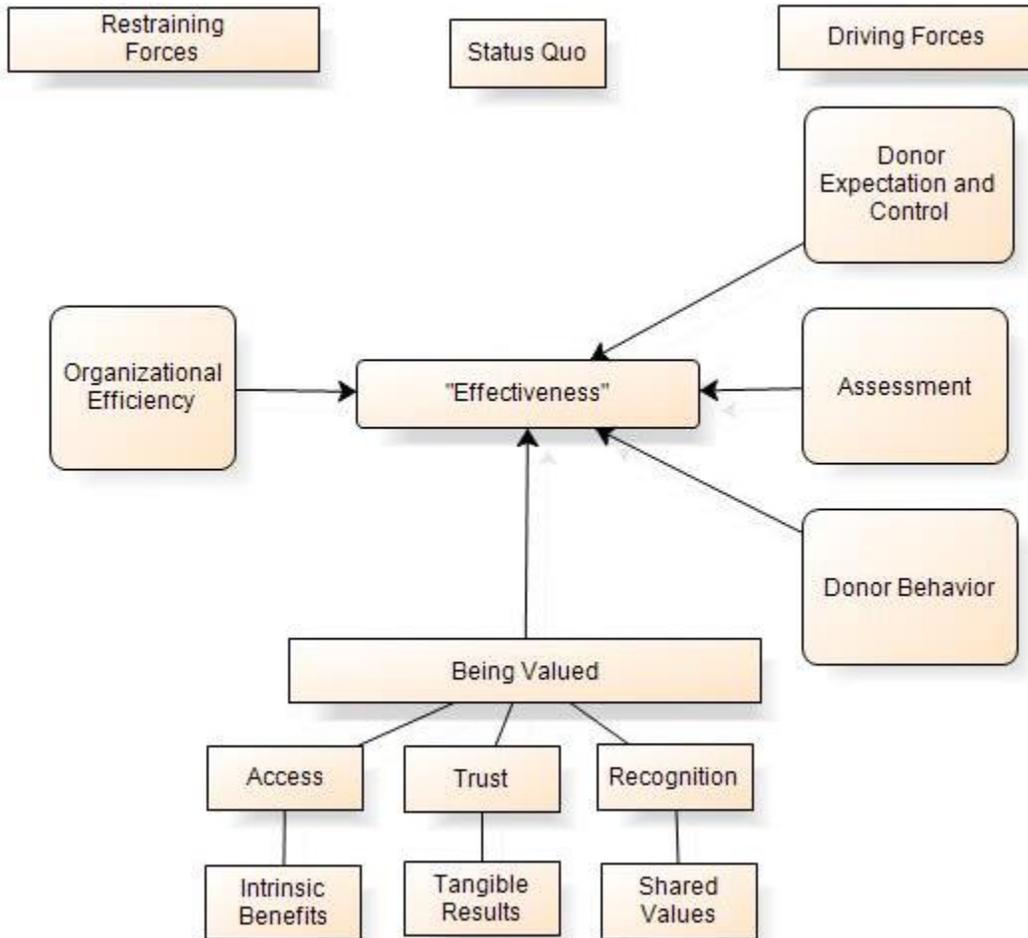


Figure 3. Revised Force Field Analysis with Findings from Study

This study set out to correct these shortcomings. The study was designed to undermine the institutional definition of effectiveness, to unfreeze, move and refreeze the *status quo* (Lewin, 1951, 1997). As I concluded from the data, the key to undermine the status quo is to ensure that the donor feels valued by the institution (see Figure 3). This is accomplished by adopting a stewardship strategy that incorporates the components that define being valued – access, trust,

recognition, shared values, tangible results and intrinsic benefits. The data illustrated that when these components exist in the relationship, donors are more likely to feel valued by the organization. Feeling valued leads to donors determining their philanthropic support has accomplished what the donor intended, and therefore for the donor to determine their philanthropic support was effective. Using the components of feeling valued as described in this study undermines the status quo and moves the definition of effectiveness away from an institutional definition. It places the donor's perspective at the center of the decision-making process.

Call to Action

At the core of the proposed strategy is a conversion from transactional to transformational giving (Dietlin, 2010; Grace & Wendroff, 2001b). Transformational gifts change the organization (Dietlin, 2010). Transformational gifts have “the unique capacity to alter the programs, perception, and future of an organization” (Grace & Wendroff, 2001b, p. 15). More importantly, transformational giving requires a new breed of donor – one who wants organizations to hear their ideas, not just to accept their donations, who want to be intimately involved with the organization and are results oriented (Grace & Wendroff, 2001b). To accommodate transformational donors, institutions must change their culture.

A managerial culture is firmly rooted in WU's transactional giving culture (Bergquist & Pawlak, 2008). Fortunately, the management culture contains elements that allow the transition from a transactional to transformational culture possible. Managerial cultures are focused on outcomes (Bergquist & Pawlak, 2008). Leaders are tasked with fiscal management while being responsive to community pressures (Bergquist & Pawlak, 2008).

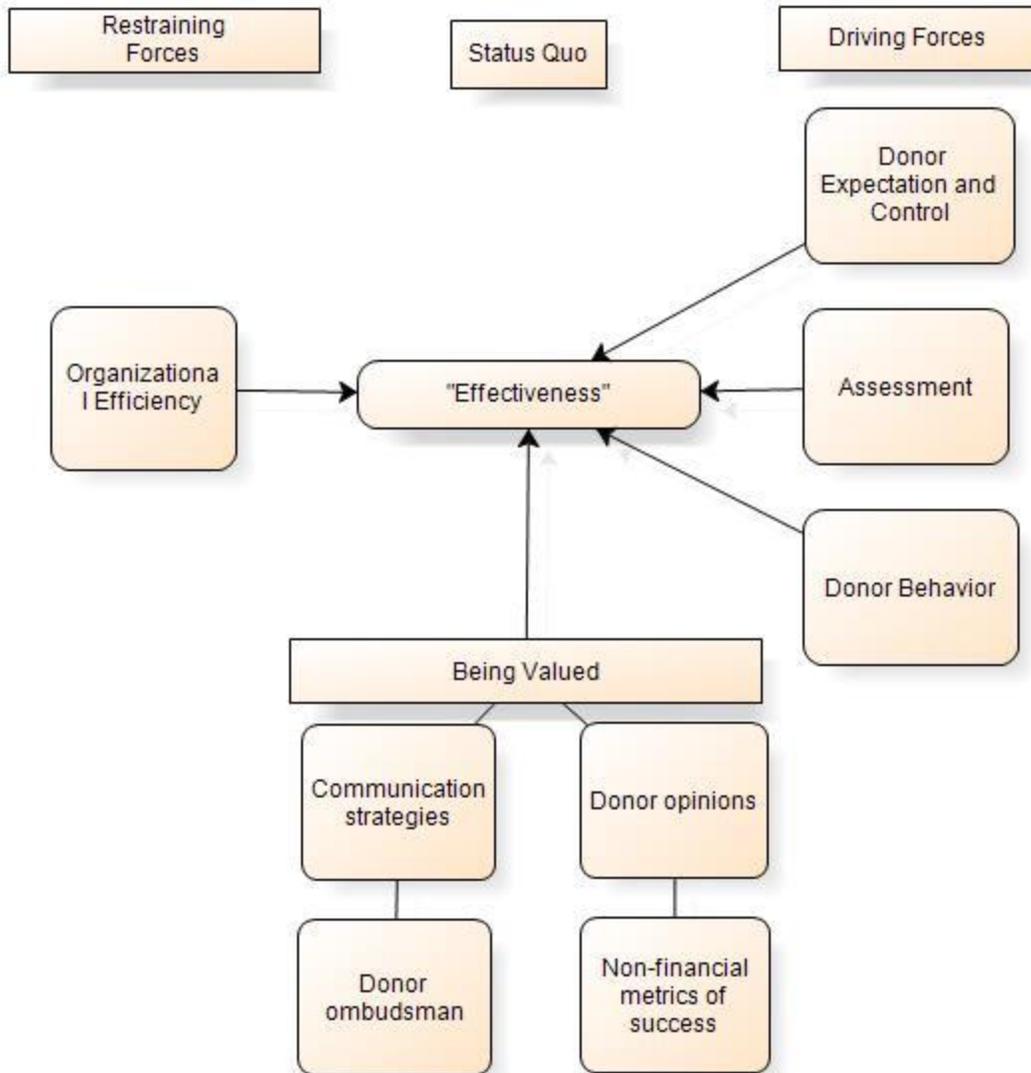
Because power is vested in the upper administration in the managerial culture, only a change in perspective from the board of trustees and senior administration will create the change in status quo needed for the organization to be more cognizant of the transformational donor's needs (Bergquist & Pawlak, 2008). This will occur only when the senior administration and trustees recognize that the institution is at a point where incremental change cannot sustain the institution (Schein, 2010).

The donor's stories in this research indicate that WU is at this point. Rather than minor changes in operating processes, the university must recognize that its largest and most valued donors are frustrated with their experiences with the institution. Change requires that the senior administration and board of trustees to initiate a process that forces the organization to unlearn the patterns of transactional giving and adopt new patterns of transformational giving (Lewin, 1951; Schein, 2010).

The proposed strategy to undermine transactional giving, an institutional-centered perspective of effectiveness, includes a combination of communication strategies, asking donor's for their opinions, the establishment of a donor ombudsperson and the inclusion of less financially-focused performance metrics for development staff (see Figure 4). These practical changes will refocus effectiveness metrics to be more donor-centric.

Communication Strategies

The university must create a plan to communicate the successes which occur because of charitable gifts. Research participants stated that communications that outline how their



charitable gifts are used is not received. Instead donors must rely upon their own experiences to make decisions. The donor's experiences potentially are incomplete or do not fully illustrate the transformational nature charitable gifts have on the institution and students.

Figure 4. Call to Action

The institution must also be more personal in their approach and communication with donors. As Chung-Hoon et al. (2005) stated, it is incumbent on the institution to provide donors with meaningful and personal experiences that integrate the donor more closely with the organization. The proposed change in culture must encourage staff and faculty at all levels to develop communication with donors to faculty or staff's department. When this occurs, the donor feels more valued by the institution, and is more likely to provide additional support. Charles Snow echoed this statement when he said that he was disappointed in WU's College of Education. He believed the college did not communicate with him sufficiently. When it came time to ask the Snow's for additional charitable gifts, Snow believed that the college had not done the work necessary to keep them apprised of the successes and needs of the college.

Donor's Opinions

During member checking, Robert Painter made an aside comment that no one had ever asked him what his preferred way to be communicated was – whether via telephone, email, or face-to-face. Like all the research participants, Painter is an insider to the institution. He sits on WU's development board. I would think that this would not be an issue. Yet, here was a donor saying that something as simple as being asked what his preferred method of communication was does not occur at WU.

Painter's comment caught me off guard and made me think about the university's recognition processes. The stewardship office is responsible to overseeing recognition and acknowledgment. The stewardship office is generally charged with keeping donors engaged after donations are made. To assist members of the office, a flowchart was developed to illustrate who is to be thanked, how the donor is to be thanked, and by whom the donor is to be

thanked (see Appendix 4). The flowchart provides significant detail about when the vice-president sends a note to when the president makes a phone call to the donor. Yet Painter's comment made me, again, realize that too often our work is designed around the institution and not donors.

The lack of considering the donor's opinions is reflected in the research participants' comments about being valued by the institution. One way this may be counteracted is through the creation of an evaluation process. Research participants indicated that an evaluation would both inform them of the impact of their charitable gift, but would also provide an enhanced commitment with the organization. Helen Oglethorpe, especially, stated an evaluation, "would make me reengage, instead of just feeling good, it would make me think about it more..." But she also provided a caveat:

Do you really want all that data? If you ask me what do you think, you're going to get input, maybe more than you need in terms of me as the donor...it probably wouldn't be bad because it would give me...a chance, or us a chance, to say well done, thank you back, or gee, this was off what I thought, what can we do next time, yeah, that would be kind of a...it's such a novel idea, to be asked.

As Patton (1997a, 1997b) stated, evaluations should incorporate the perspectives of the groups who are most likely to benefit from them. Donors want to be valued by the institution. An evaluation process that includes them would further solidify to donors that their opinions are valued.

Donor Ombudsperson

During the course of this study it occurred to me how limited I am in ensuring that a donation is used by the department or program which it is given. Because development officers are responsible for establishing relationships, we are often the people who donors turn to when

they want to find out what happened with their charitable support. Because development officers don't have control over how, or when, those financial contributions are used, development officers are often caught in the middle if the charitable gift is not used in the way the donor intended.

This is a significant issue the institution must address. Too often, research participants shared examples of when donations were made to specific projects, and those projects were changed, not completed, or used for other purposes. As a development officer, I may not even be aware that there are issues with a project until it is brought to my attention by the donor.

The creation of an ombudsperson or donor-advocate that does not have fund raising responsibility may eliminate some of these transgressions. While it would seem that the development officer would be responsible for this stewardship, the institutional expectation on development officers is focused on their continuing to raise donations. Use of the donation is not part of their responsibility, and too often, recognition becomes a secondary issue when development officers are being evaluated on the amount of money brought in, not in the non-financial aspects of the relationship.

The creation of a donor-advocate or ombudsperson would provide a clear line of inquiry for donors. While the development officer assigned to the donor could certainly be part of the process, having an office that is solely responsible for responding to donor inquiries would ensure that these inquiries would be addressed without consideration of future charitable gifts. The creation of this office would also provide an additional example of how the institution values their philanthropic investment in the organization.

Non-Financial Metrics

Development officers are measured on the number of solicitations made during a year, the number of contacts with donors and the amount of money that is raised. Whatsamatta U.'s associate vice president made a comment about a recent report from a consultant that illustrates these measurements. The consultant concluded that development staff did not ask for enough from donors, and took too long to make the ask. What the consultant's report did not address were the issues that the research participants addressed – being valued by the institution, and seeing how their charitable gifts supported the institution.

In order to emphasize donor's concerns, the university must create metrics that are non-financial and focus more on strengthening stewardship relationships. The current system of performance measurements creates a system where the solicitation is more important than how the charitable gift is used. However, as has been illustrated throughout this study, this causes frustration for the donor. The donor is more concerned with what is accomplished, but the university does not give weight to these outcomes in determining the performance of the development officer.

Further Research

This study is a point in time reflection of the research participant's views on the topic, available opportunities for observations and existing site documents. The study should not be generalized to other participants or institutions. To get a broader understanding of the topic, further investigations could expand the study beyond the initial dozen participants or to other institutions. By doing so, future research will expand the focus of how donor's define effectiveness.

Additional research on the nature of culture and change is also needed. Transformational giving remains a relatively new concept in the literature, especially within higher education research. Further study of transactional and transformational cultures will allow organizations and administrators greater understanding of how these terms are manifested and the type of culture needed to fully appreciate transformational donors.

An aspect that is not fully explored is the idea of power, both who holds power at various points in the relationship, and how power is wheeled by both donors and the institution. A few research participants clearly used their donations to create access to administration, with the intent that programs could be changed (Stephens, Buckley). It is important to note that this does not mean that research participants were not intentional in their desire to support the institution and its students. Rather, all of the participant's actions appeared genuinely focused on doing what the donor thought was best to support students and increase the prestige of the institution. Further exploration into issues of power may lead to increased understand of how power and being valued are mediated.

A final item for research is the continued influence that Lewin had on the study. Lewin's famous equation that behavior is a function of the person and his or her experiences ($B=f(P-E)$) appears to parallel some of the findings of this study (Shoda, 2004). In fact, I initially toyed with the idea of creating my own formula based upon the main emergent themes of the study. In this scenario, effectiveness may have been described using the formula $E=f[v,e]^t$ where effectiveness (E) is a function of being valued (v) and expectation (e) raised by the power trust (t). The formula could illustrate the relationships of the factors, recognizing that trust has a multiplying effect on the other two aspects of effectiveness. However, this may be only related to the research participants. As the study was not designed to be generalized, it is not possible to make

this categorical statement. Continued study to generalize the findings from this research by expanding the study to additional institutions may give credence to this line of thinking.

Conclusion

At one point in my conversation with Robert Painter, he discussed why he makes charitable gifts, "...if you were going to write your epithet today, what would you like it to say, [pause] and what did you do to make this world better, how would you fill that in..." All of the research participants stated similar sentiments regarding the decision to make a charitable gift. While the reasons differ for each person and circumstance, the underlying reasons are consistent – people make charitable gifts in order to make the world a better place.

Representatives of nonprofit organizations must bear this sentiment in mind when they work with donors. Donors want to see their charitable gifts used as they intended, they want to be communicated with, and they want to build relationships based upon trust with the organization. These components define whether donors feel they are valued by the institution. When donors believe the institution values them, donors are more likely to conclude that their charitable support was used effectively.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

CROSS-WALK CHART CONNECTING RESEARCH QUESTIONS WITH DATA GATHERED

Research Question	Why do I need to know this?	Interview Questions*	Observations	Documents*
How does a donor construct meaning from their support?	Frames the study. How does the donor interact with their environment	2, 3, 4, 5, 6,7, 9, 10, 11		B, C, D
How does a donor define an <i>effective</i> use of their donation?	To discover the donor's perspective on the concept of effectiveness, and their interpretation	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 9	Find opportunities to observe interactions between donors and the projects they support	A, B, C, D
If there is an expectation of the outcomes a donor anticipates when he or she contributes to an organization, what are the expectations?	Determines what a donor's expectations are, and how outcomes are associated with "effectiveness."	1, 2, 3, 4, 5		D
How do these expectations shape the donor's engagement with the organization?	Examines the roles of the organization in affecting how a donor may define "effectiveness."	6, 7, 8, 11	Focus on the interactions between donors and members of the university staff and/or students	A, B, C, E, F

*See Appendix 2

APPENDIX B

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

1. When you hear the word “effective,” what comes to mind?
2. How do you measure the effectiveness your charitable giving?
3. What prompts you to make a charitable gift?
4. Consider the last “significant” gift you made to an organization. What was the motivation behind the gift?
5. When you make a charitable gift, are you under the impression that it will result in a specific outcome?
6. Are these outcomes communicated to you? If so, how are they communicated?
7. Are you provided some type of evaluation or other communication which discusses the impact of your charitable gift?
8. How much personal contact do you have with the organization after you make a charitable gift?
9. Do you and your peers discuss the outcomes of charitable gifts you make?
10. Do you consider organizations or specific projects to fund that match your long-term charitable interests?
11. Are you influenced by recognition of your gift?
12. What is the process you use to determine if you will make an additional gift to an organization?

Documents

- A. Centralight/college newsletters
- B. annual reports
- C. gift agreements
- D. Endowment reports
- E. Solicitations
- F. other materials

APPENDIX C

EXAMPLE OF LETTER OF INTRODUCTION FROM PRESIDENT OF WHATSAMATTA U.

Dear xxx,

In the next week or so, Geoff Bartlett will be contacting you and asking for your participation in a research project. You may know Geoff as the development officer for CMU Public Broadcasting. What you may not know is that he is also a doctoral candidate in Educational Leadership and is in the process of writing his dissertation.

Geoff's dissertation is focused on exploring how donors determine the "effectiveness" of their donations. It is research that I am supportive of, and look forward to reading.

He plans to interview a select group of donors, and we believe that you will provide rich insight for Geoff's research. Your participation is absolutely voluntary, and I sincerely hope you will consent to contribute to Geoff's project. He anticipates interviews lasting approximately 30 to 45 minutes, with some additional follow up. You, and your responses, will be kept completely confidential. Should you have any questions, Geoff will be more than willing to discuss them when he contacts you.

Thank you for considering participating in this research project.

APPENDIX D

GIFT ACKNOWLEDGEMENT PROCEDURES

Gift Amount	VP Letter	President's Letter	President or VP Call
Private Individuals & Corps/Founds** <i>Criteria:</i>			
Outright Gifts/Gifts-In-Kind, Pledge w/1st Payment & Final Pledge Payments:			
\$1,000-\$5,000	X		
\$5,001+		X	VP call \$25,000-\$49,999
\$50,000+		X	Pres call
Pledges made with no accompanying payment & Incremental Pledge Payments			
Initial Pledges made of \$4,000-\$49,999	X		VP call \$25,000-\$49,999
Initial Pledges made of \$50,000+		X	Pres call
Incremental pledge payments of \$25,000-\$49,999	X		VP call
Incremental pledge payments of \$50,000+		X	Pres call
**Corporate and Foundation Giving - revisiting the current giving thresholds/criteria as of March 2013			
-draft on a case-by-case basis in consultation with CFR and/or corresponding college DO			
-exclude Corps/Founds special event giving/sponsorships			
Estate/Trust/Bequest Gifts - this will be done on a case-by-case basis in consultation with Plnd Gvng			
PRESIDENT AND VICE PRESIDENT DO NOT SEND THANK-YOU LETTERS FOR:			
Sponsorships			
Golf/Outings			
PB Donors PB only gifts			
Alumni Groups			
OR ██████████ memberships/quid pro quo gifts any ?s about Athletic TTs, direct to Asst/Assoc. Athletic, Dev. Directors			
Any gifts smaller than outlined above thank-yous should come from the corresponding college/division			

APPENDIX E

PRESIDENT'S ACKNOWLEDGEMENT LETTER

March 12, 2015

[REDACTED]

Dear [REDACTED]:

On behalf of the entire [REDACTED] community, I thank you for your generous pledge, benefiting the [REDACTED] in the College of Science and Technology. Through the loyal support of many alumni and friends like you, the university continues to strategically grow and serve in the areas of greatest need.

As we celebrate [REDACTED] successes and plan for the future, I am especially grateful for your generous contribution and the faith in [REDACTED] that it represents. Higher education is well worth the investments of those who believe in our graduates and, through them, the future of our region, nation, and world.

Sincerely,

[REDACTED]

President

[REDACTED]/gt

REFERENCES

- A New Vision of Excellence: The campaign for Whatsamatta U. (2001). Whatsamatta U.: University Communications.
- Alaimo, S. (2008). *Program evaluation capacity for nonprofit human services organizations: An analysis of determining factors*. Indiana University, Bloomington, IN. Retrieved from <http://0-proquest.umi.com/catalog.lib.cmich.edu/pqdweb?index=2&did=1679674911&SrchMode=2&sid=1&Fmt=2&VInst=PROD&VType=PQD&RQT=309&VName=PQD&TS=1267490749&clientId=45540>
- Arrillaga-Andreessen, L. (2011). *Giving 2.0: Transforming you giving and our world*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Barman, E. (2007). An institutional approach to donor control: From dyadic ties to a field-level analysis. *American Journal of Sociology*, 112(5), 1416-1457.
- Barman, E. (2008). With strings attached: Nonprofits and the adoption of donor choice. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, 37(1), 39-56.
- Baulcomb, J. S. (2003). Management of change through force field analysis. *Journal of Nursing Management*, 11, 275-280.
- Berg, B. L. (2004). *Qualitative Research methods for the Social Sciences* (5th ed.). Boston, MA: Pearson Education.
- Bergquist, W. H., & Pawlak, K. (2008). *Engaging the six cultures of the academy*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Bermudez, C. (2012, May 31). Eli Broad answers critics of his giving -- and welcomes more., *The Chronicle of Philanthropy*, p. 28.

- Bielefeld, W., Rooney, P., & Steinberg, K. (2005). How do need, capacity, geography, and politics influence giving? In A. C. Brooks (Ed.), *Gifts of time and money: The role of charity in America's communities* (pp. 127-158).
- Biemiller, L. (2012, Feb. 15). Gifts to colleges rose 8.2% in 2011, survey finds. *The Chronicle of Higher Education*. Retrieved from <http://chronicle.com/article/Gifts-to-Colleges-Rose-82-in/130786/> website:
- Bolman, L. G., & Deal, T. E. (2008). *Reframing organizations: Artistry, choice, and leadership*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Boohene, R., & Williams, A. A. (2012). Resistance to organizational change: A case study of Oti Yeboah Complex Limited. *International Business and Management*, 4(1), 135-145.
- Bornstein, R. (2001, September/October). Ventrue philanthropy: A boon to academe? *Trusteeship*, 5(9), 1-4.
- Boverini, L. (2006). When venture philanthropy rocks the ivory tower. *International Journal of Educational Advancement*, 6(2), 84-106.
- Bremner, R. H. (1988). *American philanthropy* (2nd ed.). Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.
- Brest, P. (2012). A decade of outcome-oriented philanthropy. *Stanford Social Innovation Review*, 10(2), 42-47.
- Brittingham, B. E., & Pezzullo, T. R. (1990). The Campus Green: Fund Raising in Higher Education. ASHE-ERIC Higher Education Report 1 (pp. 146-146): ASHE-ERIC Higher Education Reports, The George Washington University, One Dupont Circle, Suite 630, Washington, DC 20036 (\$17.00).

- Brooks, A. C. (2004). Evaluating the effectiveness of nonprofit fundraising. *The Policy Studies Journal*, 32(3), 363-374.
- Bruggink, T. H., & Siddiqui, K. (1995). An economic model of alumni giving; A case study for a liberal arts college. *The American Economist*, 2, 53-60.
- Bryson, J. M. (2004). What to do when stakeholders matter: Stakeholder identification and analysis techniques. *Public Management Review*, 6(1), 21-53.
- Burdenski, R. A. (2003). *Innovations in annual giving: Ten departures that worked*. Washington DC: Council for Advancement and Support of Education.
- Burk, P. (2003). *Donor-centered fundraising: How to hold on to your donors and raise much more money*. Chicago, IL: Cygnus Applied Research, Inc.
- Burkhardt, J. C. (2007). Transformational giving and its relationship to the emerging roles of public colleges and universities. *International Journal of Educational Advancement*, 7(2), 155-164.
- Carman, J. G. (2003). Evaluation practice among community-based organizations: research into the reality. *American Journal of Evaluation*, 28(1), 60-75. doi: 10.1177/1098214006296245
- Carman, J. G., & Fredericks, K. A. (2008). Nonprofit and evaluation: Empirical evidence from the field. *New Directions for Evaluation*, 119, 51-70. doi: 10.1002/ev.268
- Carman, J. G., Fredericks, K. A., & Introcaso, D. (2008). Government and accountability: Paving the way for nonprofits and evaluation. *New Directions for Higher Education*, 119, 5-12.
- Carnegie, A. (2006). *The "gospel of wealth" essays and other writings*. New York, NY: Penguin Classics.

- Cash, S. G. (2003). Private voluntary support to public universities in the United States: An early history. *The CASE International Journal of Educational Advancement*, 4(1), 65-76.
- Cash, S. G. (2005). Private voluntary support to public universities in the United States: Late nineteenth-century developments. *International Journal of Educational Advancement*, 5(4), 343-356.
- Christie, C. A., & Alkin, M. C. (2003). The user-oriented evaluator's role in formulating a program theory: Using a theory-driven approach. *American Journal of Evaluation*, 24, 373-386.
- Chung-Hoon, T. L., Hite, J. M., & Hite, S. J. (2005). Searching for enduring donor relationships: Evidence for factors and strategies in a donor/organization integration model for fund raising. *International Journal of Educational Advancement*, 6(1), 34-53.
- Cohen, A. M., & Kisker, C. B. (2010). *The shaping of American higher education* (2nd ed.). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Cook, W. B., & Lasher, W. F. (1996). Toward a theory of fund raising in higher education. *The Review of Higher Education*, 20(1), 33-51.
- Corbin, J., & Strauss, A. (2008). *Basics of qualitative research: Techniques and Procedures for developing grounded theory* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Coupal, L. (2005). Practitioner-research and the regulation of research ethics: The challenge of individual, organizational, and social interests. *Forum: Qualitative Social Research*, 6(1). Retrieved from <http://www.qualitative-research.net/index.php/fqs/article/view/528/1145>
- Creswell, J. W. (2009). *Research design: Quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methods approaches* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications.

- Curti, M., Green, J., & Nash, R. (1963). Anatomy of giving: Millionaires in the late 19th century. *American Quarterly*, 15(3), 416-435.
- Denzin, N. K., & Lincoln, Y. S. (2005). Introduction: The discipline and practice of qualitative research. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *The Sage Handbook of Qualitative Research* (3rd ed., pp. 1-32). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Dewey, J. (1930, February 25). *Construction and criticism*. Davies Memorial Lecture. Columbia University. New York, NY.
- Dietlin, L. M. (2010). *Transformational philanthropy: Entrepreneurs and nonprofits*. Boston, MA: Jones and Bartlett Publishers.
- Doherty, M. (2009). "Realist' stakeholder analysis in design. *Visible Language*, 43(2), 114-122.
- Drezner, N. (2008). *Cultivating a culture of giving: An exploration of institutional strategies to enhance African American young alumni giving*. Association of Fundraising Professionals.
- Drezner, N. (2009). Why give?: exploring social exchange and organizational identification theories in the promotion of philanthropic behaviors of African-American millennials at private-HBCUs. *International Journal of Educational Advancement*, 9(3), 147-165.
- Drezner, N. D. (2009). Why give?: exploring social exchange and organization identification theories in the promotion philanthropic behaviors of African-American millennials at private-HBCUs. *International Journal of Educational Advancement*, 9(3), 147-165.
- Dunphy, D., & Stace, D. (1993). The strategic management of corporate change. *Human Relations*, 46(8), 905-905.
- Eastman, C. A. (2012). Working with Toshiba, Lewin and Dewey: A journey into the heart of change. *Higher Education, Skills and Work-based Learning*, 2(2), 132-140.

- Farrell, E. (2003, Oct. 31). Public-College tuition rise is largest in 3 decades. *The Chronicle of Higher Education*. Retrieved from <http://chronicle.com/article/Public-College-Tuition-Rise-Is/27825>
- Forbes, M. (2012, September 18). How the next generation of wealth is revolutionizing philanthropy as we know it. *Forbes*. Retrieved from <http://www.forbes.com/sites/moirafortbes/2012/09/18/with-great-wealth-comes-great-responsibility/>
- Friedman, L. J., & McGarvie, M. D. (2003). *Charity, philanthropy, and civility in American history*. Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.
- Gibson, W. J., & Brown, A. (2009). *Working with Qualitative Data*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Grace, K. S., & Wendroff, A. L. (2001a). *High impact philanthropy: How donors, boards, and nonprofit organizations can transform communities*. New York, NY: John Wiley & sons, Inc.
- Grace, K. S., & Wendroff, A. L. (2001b). *High impact philanthropy: How donors, boards, and nonprofit organizations can transform communitites*. New York, NY: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
- Greenwald, H. P. (2013). Increasing the value of evaluations to philanthropic foundations. *American Journal of Evaluation*, 34(4), 504-518.
- Grossman, A., Letts, C. W., & Ryan, W. (1997). Virtuous capital: What foundations can learn from venture capitalists. *Harvard Business Review*, 75(2), 36.
- Guba, E. G. (1990). *The Paradigm Dialog*. Newbury Park, CA: SAGE Publications.

- Hamer, J. H. (1998). Money and the moral order in late nineteenth and early twentieth-century America. *Anthropological Quarterly*, 71(3), 138-149.
- Herman, R. D., & Renz, D. O. (1997). Multiple constituencies and the social construction of nonprofit organization effectiveness. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, 26(2), 185-206.
- Herman, R. D., & Renz, D. O. (1999). Theses on nonprofit organizational effectiveness. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, 28(2), 107-126.
- Herman, R. D., & Renz, D. O. (2008). Advancing nonprofit organizational effectiveness research and theory: Nine theses. *Nonprofit Management & Leadership*, 18(4), 399-415.
- Hill, L. H. (2007). Thoughts for students considering becoming qualitative researchers. *Qualitative Research Journal*, 7(1), 26-31.
- Hoole, E. R. (2005). Through the looking glass: Educational accountability mirrors nonprofit accountability. *Assessment Update*, 17(4), 4-6.
- Institute, A. o. F. P. a. T. U. (2012). 2012 Fundraising Effectiveness Survey Report.
- Joyaux, S. P. (1997). *Strategic fund development: Building profitable relationships that last*. Gaithersburg, MD: Aspen Publishers, Inc.
- Kaczynski, D., & Salmona, M. (in press). Confronting barriers to learning qualitative data analysis software: Making the doctoral research process visible. *Educational Technology Research & Development*.
- Kaczynski, D., Salmona, M., & Smith, T. (2014). Qualitative research in finance. *Australian Journal of Management*, 39(1), 127-135.
- Katz, S. N. (2005). What does it mean to say that philanthropy is effective? The philanthropists' new clothes. *Proceedings of the American Philosophical Society*, 149(2), 123-131.

- Katz, S. N. (2007). Philanthropy's New Math. *The Chronicle of Higher Education*, 53(22), B6.
- Kitching, K. (2009). Audit value and charitable organizations. *Journal of Accounting Public Policy*, 28, 510-524.
- Kotter, J. P. (1996). *Leading change*. Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press.
- Kramer, M. R. (2009). Catalytic philanthropy. *Stanford Social Innovation Review*, 7(4), 30-35.
- Kronstadt, S. (2011). A donor's declaration of independence. *The Chronicle of Higher Education*. Retrieved from <http://chronicle.com/article/A-Donors-Declaration-of/126936/>
- Kyriakidou, O. (2011). Relational perspectives on the construction of meaning: A network model of change interpretation. *Journal of Organizational Change Management*, 24(5), 572-592.
- Lee, C.-J. G. (2011). Reconsidering constructivism in qualitative research. *Educational Philosophy and Theory*, 44(4), 403-412.
- Lee, C.-J. G. (2012). Reconsidering Constructivism in Qualitative Research. *Educational Philosophy and Theory*, 44(4), 403-412. doi: 10.1111/j.1469-5812.2010.00720.x
- Leslie, L. L., & Ramey, G. (1986). Donor behavior and voluntary support for higher education institutions. *Journal of Higher Education*, 59(2), 115-132.
- Lewin, K. (1951). *Field theory in social science*. Ann Arbor, MI: Research Center for Group Dynamics.
- Lewin, K. (1997). *Resolving social conflicts : Field theory in social science. Selected papers on group dynamics*. Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.
- Liket, K. C., Rey-Garcia, M., & Maas, K. E. H. (2014). Why aren't evaluations working and what to do about it: A framework for negotiating meaningful evaluation in nonprofits. *American Journal of Evaluation*, 35(2), 171-188.

- Lincoln, Y. S., & Guba, E. G. (1985). *Naturalistic Inquiry*. Beverly Hills, CA: SAGE Publications, Inc.
- Lincoln, Y. S., & Guba, E. G. (2013). *The Constructivists Credo*. Walnut Creek, CA: Left Coast Press.
- Lueddeke, G. R. (1999). Toward a constructivist framework for guiding change and innovation in higher education. *The Journal of Higher Education*, 70(3), 235-260.
- Lunenburg, F. C. (2010). Forces for and resistance to organizational change. *National Forum of Educational Administration and Supervision Journal*, 27(4), 1-10.
- MacIndoe, H., & Barman, E. (2012). How organizational stakeholders shape performance measurement in nonprofits: Exploring a multidimensional measure. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, 42(4), 716-738.
- Mann, T. (2007). College fund raising using theoretical perspectives to understand donor motives. *International Journal of Educational Advancement*, 7(1), 35-45.
- McCormick, A. C. (2010). Here's looking at you: Transparency, institutional self-presentation, and the public interest. *Change*, November/December, 35-43.
- McGinly, B., & Kaufman, N. (2006). *Benchmarking and financial modeling: Potential for exponential philanthropic growth*. Paper presented at the Association for Healthcare Philanthropy Trustee Leadership and Philanthropy forum.
- Miller, M. T. (1991). The College President's Role in Fund Raising. 20-20. Retrieved from <http://0-search.proquest.com.catalog.lib.cmich.edu/docview/62895293?accountid=10181>
- Minich, L., Howe, S., Langmeyer, D., & Corcoran, K. (2006). Can community change be measured for an outcomes-based initiative? A comprehensive case study of the success by 6 initiative. *American Journal of Community Psychology*, 38, 183-190.

- Mitchell, G. E. (2012). The construct of organizational effectiveness: Perspectives from leaders of international nonprofits in the United States. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, 42(2), 324-345.
- Morgan, G. (2006). *Images of organization*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Moustakas, C. (1995). *Being-in, being-for, being-with*. Northvale, New Jersey: Jason Aronson Inc.
- Norsworthy, K. L., & Gerstein, L. H. (2003). Counseling and building communities of peace: The interconnections. *International Journal for the Advancement of Counselling*, 25(4), 197-203.
- . NVivo qualitative data analysis software (Version 10). (2012). QSR International Pty Ltd.
- Oguntoyinbo, L. (2012). Demonstrating the difference. *CASE Currents*, Nov/Dec 2012.
- Retrieved from
http://www.case.org/Publications_and_Products/2012/NovemberDecember_2012/Demonstrating_the_Difference.html#.UL1RE4awXf0
- Ostrander, S. (2007). The growth of donor control: Revisiting the social relations of philanthropy. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, 36(2), 356-372.
- Panas, J. (2008). *Asking: A 59-minute guide to everything board members, volunteers and staff must know to secure the gift*. Medfield, MA: Emerson & Church, Publishers.
- Patton, M. Q. (1997a). Toward distinguishing empowerment evaluation and placing it in a larger context. *Evaluation Practice*, 18(2), 147.
- Patton, M. Q. (1997b). *Utilization-focused evaluation* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications.

- Patton, M. Q. (2002). *Qualitative Research & Evaluation Methods* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage publications, Inc.
- Philanthropy. (2012, Summer). Mr. Unreasonable: Eli Broad on medical research; modern art; K-12 education; and his new book, *The Art of Being Unreasonable*. *Philanthropy Magazine*. Retrieved from http://www.philanthropyroundtable.org/topic/excellence_in_philanthropy/mr._unreasonable
- Porter, M. E., & Kramer, M. R. (1999). Philanthropy's new agenda: Creating value. *Harvard Business Review*, Nov-Dec, 121-130.
- Powell, B. A., Gilleland, D. S., & Pearson, L. C. (2012). Expenditures, efficiency, and effectiveness in U.S. undergraduate higher education: A national benchmark model. *The Journal of Higher Education*, 38(1), 102-127.
- Preston, C. (2012, June 26). Bill Gates says he'll stick to giving priorities until 'something dramatic' is achieved. *Chronicle of Philanthropy*. Retrieved from <http://philanthropy.com/blogs/the-giveaway/bill-gatess-giving-priorities-wont-change-until-hes-achieved-something-dramatic/2381>
- Principles and Techniques of Fundraising*. (2004). The Fund Raising School. The Center on Philanthropy, Indiana University.
- Richards, M. D., & Sherratt, G. R. (1981). Institutional Advancement Strategies in Hard Times. AAHE-ERIC/Higher Education Research Report No. 2. 55-55. Retrieved from <http://0-search.proquest.com.catalog.lib.cmich.edu/docview/63536332?accountid=10181>
- Saidel, J. R. (2002). An interview: Sara L. Engelhardt of the Foundation Center. *Nonprofit Management & Leadership*, 12(4), 485-498.

- Sargeant, A., Ford, J. B., & Hudson, J. (2008). Charity brand behavior: The relationship with giving behavior. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, 37(3), 468-491.
- Sargeant, A., & Lee, S. (2004). Donor trust and relationship commitment in the U.K. charity sector: The impact on behavior. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, 33(2), 185-202. doi: 10.1177/0899764004263321
- Schein, E. H. (2010). *Organizational culture and leadership* (4th ed.). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Schroeder, F. W. (2000). *Annual giving: A practical approach*. United States of America: Council for Advancement and Support of Education.
- Schwandt, T. A. (2007). *Dictionary of qualitative inquiry* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Schwering, R. E. (2003). Focusing leadership through force field analysis: New variations on a venerable planning tool. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 24(7), 361-370.
- Shank, G. D. (2002). Being a skilled qualitative researcher *Qualitative research: A personal skills approach* (pp. 3-17). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Merrill Prentice Hall.
- Shoda, Y. (2004). Individual Differences in Social Psychology. In C. Sansone, C. C. Morf & A. T. Panter (Eds.), *The Sage Handbook of Methods in Social Psychology*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Sloan, M. F. (2009). The effects of nonprofit accountability ratings on donor behavior. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, 38(2), 220-236.

- Snyder, M. (2009). In the Footsteps of Kurt Lewin: Practical Theorizing, Action Research, and the Psychology of Social Action. *Journal of Social Issues*, 65(1), 225-245. doi: 10.1111/j.1540-4560.2008.01597.x
- Steiner-Khamsi, G. (2008). Donor logic in the era of Gates, Buffett, and Soros. *Current Issues in Comparative Education*, 10(1/2), 10-15.
- Strickland, S. (2007). Partners in writing and rewriting history: Philanthropy and higher education. *International Journal of Educational Advancement*, 7(2), 104-115.
- Thomas, J. (1985). Force field analysis: A new way to evaluate your strategy. *Long Range Planning*, 18(6), 54-59.
- U.S. Department of Education, S. C. (2005). *A test of leadership: Charting the future of U.S. higher education*. (ED-06-C0-0013). Retrieved from <http://www2.ed.gov/about/bdscomm/list/hiedfuture/reports/pre-pub-report.pdf>.
- Weerts, D. J. (2007). Toward an engagement model of institutional advancement at public colleges and universities. *International Journal of Educational Advancement*, 7(2), 79-103.
- Worth, M. J. (Ed.). (2002). *New strategies for educational fund raising*. Westport, CT: Greenwood Publishing Group, Inc.
- Wylie, P. B. (2004). *Data mining for fund raisers: How to use simple statistics to find gold in your donor database -- even if you hate statistics*. United States of American: Council for Advancement and Support of Education.

Zumeta, W. M. (2011). What does it mean to be accountable? Dimensions and implications of higher education's public accountability. *The Review of Higher Education*, 35(1), 131-148. Retrieved from http://0-use.jhu.edu.catalog.lib.cmich.edu/journals/review_of_higher_education/v035/35.1.zumeta.html