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**CREATING A CULTURE OF GIVING: AN EXPLORATION OF
THE ROLE OF YOUNG ALUMNI IN INSTITUTIONAL
PHILANTHROPIC EFFORTS**

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**CREATING A CULTURE OF GIVING: AN EXPLORATION OF
THE ROLE OF YOUNG ALUMNI IN INSTITUTIONAL
PHILANTHROPIC EFFORTS**

by

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Dissertation

Presented to the Faculty of the Graduate School of
The University of Texas at Austin
in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements
for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

The University of Texas at Austin

December 2011

Dedication

I dedicate this dissertation, an incredibly poignant personal milestone, to my
parents.

To my mother, Christine Page

It is often said that ‘a mother’s love knows no bounds;’ for you, this especially rings true. There has never been a moment that I have not felt the warmth of your love and encouragement, even as I have moved far away from home. Your passion for teaching is unmatched, and I only hope that I will have as profound of an impact upon the lives of my students as you have had on yours. You are a woman of many roles (e.g., wife, grandmother, daughter, sister, aunt, teacher, colleague, and friend), but I am incredibly lucky to have had you in the best one: mom.

To my father, Warner Page

You are my anchor, the force that helps me to maintain balance and find peace in my life. I have never felt less than your fullest support in any endeavor that I have embarked upon, regardless of how daunting the task may have been. Your sense of humor, humility, and zest for life are just a few of the many gifts I feel honored to have inherited from you. I was proud to have such a terrific role model as a child, and I’m equally as proud to have such a terrific friend as an adult. You have always pushed me to be a better man and, for that, I am eternally grateful.

Acknowledgements

The pursuit of the Doctor of Philosophy degree is, without question, a labor of love. In his series of pamphlets entitled *The American Crisis* (1776-1783), Thomas Paine famously referred to the burgeoning struggle for American independence as “the times that try men’s souls.” While the original context of Payne’s words is obviously specific to the fight against British colonialism, I do believe that they are equally apropos when describing the journey that one must take while pursuing a doctoral degree. The feelings of uncertainty, frustration, and loneliness that I was forced to combat were largely mitigated by the support that I received from a wonderful network of family, friends, mentors, and colleagues. I firmly believe that it is impossible to breed success in solitude, and, as such, this section pays homage to all of those who offered a guiding hand along the way.

First and foremost, this dissertation would not have been possible without the sustained support of my fabulous dissertation committee. Dr. Marilyn Kameen, my dissertation supervisor, provided tremendous support in navigating the complexities of the dissertation process. I thank Dr. Soncia Reagins-Lilly, my dissertation co-supervisor, for her compassion and unwavering encouragement. During the times when I questioned my abilities, you had faith that I would be successful in my endeavors. Thank you for believing in me. Dr. Ed Sharpe has served as a source of inspiration and a personal role model since the start of my UT Austin experience. It was through his guidance that I

became a better writer and thinker. I also thank Dr. James Vick for his willingness to mentor new generations of scholars and institutional administrators. It is my fervent hope that I, too, may someday have an impact upon an institution as great as you have had on UT Austin. Dr. Gale Stuart exhibited great patience in helping a decidedly qualitative researcher find joy in the complexities of quantitative analysis. It was through our interactions that I discovered a passion for assessment that will serve me well as both a scholar and an administrator.

I would like to thank Kim Gundersen of the Texas Exes and Carolyn Connerat of UT Austin's University Development Office for affording me an opportunity to participate in the *UT Alumni Satisfaction Survey* project. This dissertation would not have been possible without their gracious support. It is my hope that this study, in some small way, shines a light on the dedicated work of alumni relations and institutional development professionals throughout the United States. Thank you, Kim and Carolyn, for your efforts in ensuring that UT Austin remains one of the finest universities in the world.

I also owe a large debt to the wonderful faculty and staff of UT Austin's Higher Education Administration program, including Dr. Patricia Somers, Dr. Richard Reddick, Dr. Bill Lasher, Dr. Victor Saenz, Dr. Juan González, and Dr. Gregory Vincent. My life has been enriched through my interactions with all of you. A special thank you is reserved for Dr. Martha Ovando, Hortensia Palomares, and Linda Overton, who all graciously answered my *many* questions and skillfully assisted me in navigating the murky quagmire that is the dissertation process. I am grateful, too, for the support,

advice, and friendship of my fellow Higher Ed. Admin. doctoral students; in particular, I would like to extend my heartfelt appreciation to Dr. Smita Ruzicka, Dr. CeCe Ridder, Dr. Laura Cortez, Dr. Audra Sneed, Dr. Tracy Arámbula Ballysingh, Dr. Suchitra Gururaj, Diane Ginsburg, Krystal Peralez, Mindy Sutton, Meredith Taylor, Amardeep Kahlon, John Carroll, Enrique Romo, and Steve Alvarez.

I am obliged to my colleagues in UT Austin's Office of the Dean of Students for their unwavering support throughout the duration of my journey. I could not have asked for a more understanding and supportive supervisor than Martha Compton, who often served as a shoulder to cry on and a voice of reason. Dr. Marc Shook has been a terrific mentor and has offered valuable guidance in the pursuit of a career within the field of student affairs. I also thank Linda Álvarez Alcántara, Jason Thibodeaux, Norma Serrato, and Stephanie Locklear for their camaraderie and wonderful senses of humor. I feel blessed to work with such an amazing group of individuals dedicated to the co-curricular success of all UT Austin students. This university is a better place because of you.

I owe sincere and earnest thankfulness to all of the friends that have provided a guiding hand along the way. I thank the members of my Penn State family, including Elena Caracappa Maddox, Maria Higgins Hubbard, Elizabeth Spinweber, Rachel Steranko, Judy Cooper, Andy Adams, and Mike Maddy, for a lifetime of happy memories. I also owe a large debt to Emily Turner Bradley, whose support and companionship enabled me to successfully complete my master's program at UW-Madison. I also thank my new friends in Austin, including Dee and Tony Sanchez and

April and Andrew Childers, for creating a sense of family in a city that felt, at times, as if it were a million miles from home.

Finally, I would like to express my heartfelt thanks to my family, whose endless love and encouragement provided the catalyst necessary to sustain me throughout this journey. I thank Jason Campbell, who has always challenged me to push myself and never settle for mediocrity. Even though we may not share the same parents, I will always consider you my brother. My cousins Dan and Tracy Lorenzini, as well as their son Dominic, provided countless laughs and served as partners-in-crime during all family vacations. I would also like to thank my grandparents, Warner and Mary Page and Gino and Margaret Lorenzini, for their unconditional love and encouragement. I could not have asked for better role models as a child, and I hope that my actions as an adult have made them proud.

I thank my sister, Whitney, for serving as my closest confidant and voice of reason. Even though I will always consider you to be my 'baby' sister, you should be extremely proud of the woman that you have become. My life is better because you are in it. My brother-in-law, Micah, is greatly appreciated for his boundless enthusiasm, positivity, and gregarious personality. My beautiful nieces Ella and Bryn serve as constant sources of happiness. I only hope that my journey inspires them to dream big, too. I thank Tom, Judi, Staci, Kurt, and Stefani Kienzle for the encouragement and cheese curds necessary to sustain me throughout this journey. I also thank Binx and Libby, my pups, for serving as sources of unconditional love and much needed diversion.

And last, but certainly not least, I am truly indebted to Troy for supporting me in every endeavor and helping me to reach for the stars. Thank you for being my partner, cheerleader, counselor, and best friend.

CREATING A CULTURE OF GIVING: AN EXPLORATION OF THE ROLE OF YOUNG ALUMNI IN INSTITUTIONAL PHILANTHROPIC EFFORTS

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The University of Texas at Austin, 2011

Co-Supervisors: Marilyn C. Kameen and Soncia Reagins-Lilly

Consistent reductions in state and federal financial support for America's public colleges and universities have resulted in an increased institutional reliance upon non-traditional revenue sources. Budgetary shortfalls precipitated by the loss of appropriations led many institutions to seek out alternative sources of revenue. While many of these strategies have proven to be controversial with institutional stakeholders (e.g., annual tuition rate increases), one appears to be both popular and effective: alumni giving.

Colleges and universities rely heavily upon alumni to enhance the institution by subsidizing operational costs; this is especially crucial in times of great financial stress. In order to ensure strong, lifelong relationships between alumni donors and their alma maters, institutions must consistently evaluate the methods through which alumni giving is solicited. It is not enough to merely expect alumni to become philanthropically engaged upon graduation; institutions must create a culture of giving amongst its student body.

The study explored how colleges and universities may foster increased alumni participation in institutional philanthropy. By gauging the perceptions of young alumni, institutions will be able to determine if existing efforts are effective in encouraging future alumni giving. Grounded in altruistic (i.e., prosocial), social exchange, student development, and donor motivation theories, this study utilized a quantitative survey methodology to uncover prevailing alumni perceptions toward contemporary institutional philanthropic efforts. Study participants were asked to reflect upon their undergraduate experiences and the relationships they maintain with their alma mater after graduation.

The study found that specific variables (e.g., alumni association membership, gender, financial contributions, engagement in alumni activities, satisfaction with the undergraduate experience, and institutional connectivity post-graduation) were statistically significant in predicting membership within three distinct donor groups. After all data were collected and analyzed, recommendations were made to assist institutions in developing programs that are most likely to encourage active alumni participation and create a culture of giving amongst student bodies.

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Chapter 1: Introduction

A man of humanity is one who, in seeking to establish himself, finds a foothold for others and who, desiring attainment for himself, helps others to attain.

-Confucius

SETTING THE STAGE: PRESSING ISSUES IN HIGHER EDUCATION

The pressing issues currently facing the field of American higher education are, at a cursory glance, seemingly too numerous to count. From the historical marginalization of non-traditional students to the academic unpreparedness of many incoming students, the nation's colleges and universities have been forced to adjust to ever-evolving social, political, and economic conditions. In answering this call, institutional leaders began to slowly emerge as a new breed of professional 'miracle workers;' they have been charged with discovering new ways to balance growing demands on higher education with a steadily shrinking pool of resources. Like the heroes of the gridiron, institutions must tackle their challenges head-on, charging forward at full-speed with the goal line squarely within their sight.

The ability of the nation's higher education system to adapt to changing conditions has proven to be especially crucial in times of great economic turmoil, as postsecondary institutions play a pivotal role in national economic recoveries (Hurley, McBain, Harnisch, & Russell, 2009). Much of the recent national discourse regarding higher education has been centered squarely on the topic of educational funding. Public

higher education has come under attack from a variety of angles, with many of the most vociferous detractors questioning the value of public education and calling for increased accountability (St. John, Kline, & Asker, 2000). The turning tide away from public support for higher education is bound to have major ramifications on a majority of the nation's college students; in 1994 alone, "approximately ten million, or 83%, attended public institutions, with 46% of these in 4-year colleges and universities, and 54% in community colleges" (Heller, 1997, p. 648). Annual reductions in state appropriations, coupled with growing demand for higher education, have led many public colleges and universities to seek alternative sources of funding as a way to bolster diminished public financial support.

Although the current global financial crisis has severely affected higher education systems throughout the world, American colleges and universities have, traditionally, enjoyed a stable alternative source of revenue: private philanthropy. Johnstone (2004) notes that this tradition is grounded in "four pillars" of American institutional philanthropy: (1) donative wealth, (2) favorable tax regulations, (3) strong internal university support, and (4) a culture of giving (p. 1). The increased push for the privatization of higher education reached a fever pitch during the mid-1980s as the Reagan Administration began to strongly advocate for the divestiture of governmental support from social programs (Bremner, 1988, p. 207). Although this argument was strongly rejected by the philanthropic community, it nonetheless set the stage for an increased role of private giving in institutional financing practices that continues to this day. However, before delving deeply into the role of philanthropy in higher education, it

is important to first provide a thorough overview of the history of philanthropy, the evolution of a distinctively American version of giving, and its influence on the field of education.

INTRODUCTION TO PHILANTHROPY

Philanthropy is, arguably, as ancient a concept as humanity itself. It is the concern for one's fellow man, an expression of compassion, and an interest in the betterment of the community. Philanthropy often takes many forms, from weekly monetary donations to a house of worship to serving meals at a local soup kitchen. While the method and scope of the act may differ greatly, the vast majority are aimed at achieving a similar result: loving what it means to be human. Further, for many, philanthropy isn't necessarily an end product- it is the experience achieved through the journey to a desired outcome that produces the greatest benefit (especially to the donor). Although philanthropy benefits both the donor and the recipient, the donor receives an extra benefit that isn't necessarily granted to the recipient of the gift: a sense of accomplishment for making a difference in the lives of others.

Philanthropy in a Historical Western Context

This is, perhaps, best illustrated by an etymological analysis of the word 'philanthropy' itself. Our traditional definition of the word has roots in the greatest civilizations of antiquity. The English word is an adaptation of the Greek 'philanthropos' (φιλόανθρωπος). This is an amalgam of two traditional Greek words: (1) 'philos' (φίλος, or "love for others"), and (2) 'anthropos' (ἄνθρωπος, or a "sense of humanity") (Mish, 1997, p. 872). 'Philanthropos' encompasses the totality of motivations and acts

associated with philanthropy. It is not just an expression of love for humanity in general- it is also an expression of love for ones' own sense of humanity. In this context, philanthropy encompasses the motivation(s) behind an act, the thought processes utilized to conceptualize the act (including a cost-benefit analysis), and an analysis of the repercussions of the act.

The roots of traditional Western philanthropy may be traced directly back to the ancient Greek city states. In his *Nicomachean Ethics*, Aristotle argued that 'philos' is a truly altruistic concept; instead of committing an act based solely on one's selfish reasons, an individual acting within the spirit of 'philos' does so in what he thinks is in the best interest of others (Aristotle, 1998). During the rise of the Roman Empire, philanthropy shifted into an increasingly individualistic context. Roman philanthropists (e.g., Epictetus, Marcus Aurelius, and Seneca) often reflected upon their own actions before paying consideration to the actions of others in their lives.

The fall of the Western Roman Empire and the subsequent onset of the Dark Ages led to a sharp rise in ecclesiastical philanthropy. The majority of charitable acts committed during this period were done solely at the bequest of the Church. However, as Europe progressed out of the Dark Ages and into the Renaissance, the increased involvement of the laity and civic institutions in providing the funding for civic and social concerns (e.g., the plight of the poor, the funding of universities, and the establishment of hospitals) began the secularization of philanthropy throughout Europe (Miller, 1993; Roberts, 1996). While religiously-affiliated charitable organizations continued to exert a great deal of influence in many European nations well into the

twentieth century, the rise of individual and public sector giving would mark a new era in the realm of philanthropy.

Philanthropy in an American Context

As is true with most segments of American culture, American philanthropy is unique. It is an amalgam of multiple socio-cultural approaches to giving, a “mosaic of cultural influences, emanating primarily from the ancient Middle East and from classical civilization, but also from Native American tribes and from the Far East” (Payton & Moody, 2008, p. 131). Philanthropy on the North American continent was not simply a byproduct of European colonialism; instead, “the Native Americans’ assistance to the early French, Dutch, and English settlers reflected ancient patterns of forming helpful partnerships more than the embrace of the Europeans themselves or an openness to their different values and lifestyles” (Friedman & McGarvie, 2003, p. 24). Reciprocity (and gift exchanges, in particular) formed the basis of many of the political and military alliances between the native peoples and the European colonists. These relationships would endure well after the establishment of the Thirteen Colonies.

The colonial era marked a major turning point in the field of American philanthropy. Although the reciprocal relationship between the Native Americans and European colonists helped to establish sound military, political, and economic systems on the continent, religious beliefs quickly began to strongly influence social philanthropy. The Puritans, by the turn of the seventeenth century, had firmly established themselves as Britain’s most generous donors (McCarthy, 2003, p. 14). Their deep commitment to the notion of charity stemmed, primarily, from their own personal faith and a strong desire to

serve others. Charity was an opportunity for an individual to make a positive contribution to society at large. Philanthropy, like religious faith, was a deeply personal endeavor that was grounded in spiritual, ethical, and moral beliefs.

However, the faith-based charitable philanthropy that had been a hallmark of colonial America shifted dramatically at the conclusion of American Revolution. At the dawn of the nineteenth century, “the story turns to the rise of benevolent organizations and the crusading spirit of reform, culminating in the missionary, temperance, and antislavery movements of the antebellum era” (Friedman & McGarvie, 2003, p. 30). A rise in pragmatic thought led to a new, efficient approach to social philanthropy. The increased demand for basic civic services motivated reformers within the community to fund the creation and maintenance of basic services in these communities (Ciconte & Jacob, 2009, p. 2). Many of these services would, ultimately, become the major educational, medical, and cultural institutions of their day.

By the first three decades of the nineteenth century, philanthropy had become firmly entrenched within the fabric of American society. De Tocqueville was struck by the charitable nature of the American people during his 1831 tour of the United States. Although he had originally intended to provide the French government with a comprehensive analysis of the nation’s prison system, his studies evolved to encompass all aspects of American society. Of the American philanthropic spirit, De Tocqueville (1840/2007) noted:

Americans of all ages, all conditions, and all dispositions,
constantly form associations. They have not only

commercial and manufacturing companies, in which all take part, but associations of a thousand other kinds—religious, moral, serious, futile, extensive, or restricted, enormous or diminutive. The Americans make associations to give entertainments, to found establishments for education, to build inns, to construct churches, to diffuse books, to send missionaries to the antipodes; and in this manner they have found hospitals, prisons, and schools. (p. 29)

The major characteristics of American philanthropy identified by de Tocqueville were, perhaps, reflections of the Age of Enlightenment. Civic reformers, abolitionists, and advocates for the poor began to merge faith and efficiency in tackling many of the nation's pressing social issues. Leading American industrialists (e.g., Andrew Carnegie and John D. Rockefeller) donated much of their personal wealth to charitable causes, even in an era where workers' rights, sanitation, and housing conditions were all targeted for reform. While some would argue that the motivations behind the gifts of the great industrialists were more personal than charitable, these individual acts of philanthropy had positive social benefits (e.g., the establishment of the Carnegie libraries, New York's Carnegie Hall, and the Rockefeller Foundation).

The formation of a uniquely American approach to philanthropy is, indeed, no small coincidence. Like many aspects of American society, charitable giving in this nation is an adaptation of traditional systems that did not always reflect the values,

history, or beliefs of the American people. American philanthropy was highly influenced by the separation between church and the state; however, unlike many European countries that maintained one state religion, volunteers in the United States were responsible for the creation and maintenance of such charitable and educational institutions as hospitals, art galleries, colleges, and welfare institutions (Curti, 1958, p. 427). The emphasis upon philanthropy as a conscious choice (as opposed to a state duty) continues to serve as the foundation for many of this nation's charitable actions.

Philanthropy in an Educational Context

As has history has demonstrated, philanthropy is not a word devoid of emotion. It “envisions acts motivated by selfless love for others” (Burlingame, 2004, p. 141). The principles most often associated with the Greek ‘philanthropos’ (e.g., love for humanity, wisdom, and self-development) also served as the foundation for Classical Greek education. These ideals continue to influence modern educational systems across the globe, from an emphasis upon moral and ethical behavior (i.e., ‘ethos’) and balance in ones’ life (i.e., the Golden Mean, similar to Confucianism’s Doctrine of Mean and Buddhism’s Middle Way). McCully (2008) argues that, historically, formal education would not exist in its current form without philanthropy: “the connection of philanthropia with education was obvious and immediate- in fact they were thought to be one and the same” (p. 6).

Although it is not an exclusively American phenomenon, higher education philanthropy plays an important role in the formation, maintenance, and evolution of colleges and universities within the United States. The strong bond between alumnus/a

and institution is often the major motivating factor in the donation of a gift. The relationship between alumnus/a and institution is often continues long after a commencement ceremony; in fact, that bond is further solidified through the passage of time. The task of fostering strong emotional bonds between alumni and their alma maters is often delegated to an institution's auxiliary units, including alumni associations, intercollegiate athletics, and student organizations (Lawrence, 2006; Tromble, 1998). These units utilize a variety of methods to solidify these bonds, including homecoming festivities, class reunions, and regional alumni groups.

The rise of alumni influence over institutional governance has greatly impacted the methods through which institutions interact with their individual stakeholder groups. Although the size and scope of institutional fundraising efforts increased dramatically throughout the course of the twentieth century (and especially after the post-1945 higher education boon), they were primarily targeted at former students. Rarely was any consideration afforded to current students. This only began to change at the end of the twentieth century, when school leaders and non-profit organizations recognized that early exposure to philanthropy affords students the opportunity to view the importance of giving from both the donor's and the recipient's perspectives (Provenzo & Renaud, 2009, p. 356). Although advancements in student-centric philanthropic endeavors have been made in recent years, it is clear that alumni philanthropy is the preferred institutional method of securing private funding. Alumni often become lifelong donors after making their first gift, and the institutions that are able to generate large amounts of alumni

philanthropy are often held in high regard amongst their peers (Shadoian, 1989; Taylor & Martin, 1995).

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

It is clear that philanthropy within American higher education is here to stay; however, less clear is the role that institutions and their stakeholders may play in fostering increased participation in philanthropic-based endeavors. While institutional leaders know that they must engage in philanthropic efforts, little consideration has been given to the methods in which private giving is solicited: "the emphasis is more often on practice, while research and theory are limited in content" (Burlingame, 2004, p. 352). Although interest in the study of philanthropy has increased steadily since 1980, the profession continues to be devoid of "a conceptual framework of theory and research that is powerful enough to critically examine the process of fundraising and develop a body of knowledge that is transferable and scientifically based" (Jacobson, 1986, p. 38).

Traditionally, the bulk of this research has been conducted by doctoral students within the fields of educational administration and communications (Rowland, 1983). What little research has been conducted on this topic has been "sporadic, scatter-gun, and often pedestrian... it seems evident that serious research on fundraising should not be conducted by practicing fundraisers or those in related institutional advancement areas" (Carbone, 1986, pp. 22 -23). Although many practitioners were interested in the introduction of scientific inquiry into the field, research work was often set aside in favor of career interests (e.g., credentials for a promotion or new employment), "resulting in little publication of the findings or any systematic building of knowledge" (Kelly, 1991,

p. 115). Due to the strong competition between academic and professional interests, graduate students are now responsible for the bulk of research being conducted within this field.

It is clear that there is a burgeoning interest in the inclusion of scientific inquiry into the practice of higher education philanthropy. However, until practitioners receive proper training and are afforded the resources necessary to conduct studies on a regular basis, research will never truly become an integral component of higher education philanthropy. The consistent lack of current data regarding trends in higher education philanthropy prevents practitioners from being truly effective in their duties. While Cascione (2003) argues that specialized research is crucial in understanding the many reasons why people give, few institutional development offices have dedicated significant resources to intensive research efforts. By introducing scientific inquiry into daily practice, institutional fundraisers will further ensure that they are utilizing techniques that have proven to be successful, are targeting the most receptive populations, and have a firm understanding of donor motivation.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study was to explore alumni perceptions of the role(s) they do/do not play in institutional philanthropic efforts. The study investigated the types and strengths of affiliation that alumni form with the institution and tested if different affiliation types correlate with different levels of giving back to the university. Further, the study explored the impact of particular curricular and co-curricular programming and experiences on developing skills needed for work, graduate school, and life after college.

Four specific frames comprised the theoretical framework of this study: (1) the 'personal' frame, (2) the 'relational' frame, (3) the 'social' frame, and (4) the 'professional' frame. These frames are grounded in previous academic research and provide institutional leaders with a roadmap that may be used to navigate the complex network of factors that must be addressed in any attempt to solicit alumni participation in fundraising efforts.

It is important to note that, while this theoretical framework may be adapted to suit the unique composition of any college or university, this study analyzed the perceptions of alumni at a major public comprehensive research university. This type of institution was chosen as it meets three specific criteria that are key to the study in question: (1) a large population of former students, (2) a centralized institutional development office, and (3) multiple contemporary fundraising efforts that target both alumni and students. The institution that served as the location for this study was The University of Texas at Austin (UT Austin). Home to over 50,000 students, UT Austin is the flagship institution of The University of Texas System, as well as the largest institution of higher education in the State of Texas (Kever, 2009). As a leading public university, UT Austin often sets the benchmark for its peer institutions across the country. Therefore, this study was designed in a manner that made its replication at other institutions as convenient as possible.

Although the size of the institution undoubtedly proved to be advantageous in the solicitation of participants, it was by no means the only reason why UT Austin was selected for analysis. Unlike many of its peer institutions, UT Austin has, traditionally, maintained a limited development program. Due to the resources generated through the

establishment of the Permanent University Fund (PUF) in 1876, concentrated institutional fundraising efforts did not begin in earnest until the University's Centennial Observance in 1981 (Block, 2000; *History of the University's*, 1996). A major reduction in the PUF's contribution to UT Austin's annual budget in 1984 led to an increased investment in the university's Development Office, culminating in a major expansion and reorganization in 1994 (Block, 2000; Jones, 1997). Today, the University Development Office plays a crucial role in overseeing UT-Austin's philanthropic efforts, including the coordination of capital campaigns and student-based giving initiatives (e.g., Students Hooked on Texas).

An additional factor that influenced the decision to select UT-Austin is the size of the university's alumni base. The majority of alumni-related institutional efforts are coordinated by the Texas Exes, an independent organization charged with maintaining strong ties between the university and its former students. Since 1885, the Texas Exes has played influential roles in state politics (e.g., the creation of a legislative advocacy program), institutional access (e.g., funding of over \$2 million in scholarships annually), and philanthropy (e.g., the spearheading of many institutional fundraising campaigns) (*Texas Exes: History*, 2010). Institutional pride is apparent in the number of regional and special interest chapters scattered throughout the United States. While the large numbers of students and alumni associated with UT-Austin are indicative of the strong affinity that institutional stakeholders feel for their university, it, ultimately, proved to be most beneficial in the solicitation of potential study participants. It must be noted that not every student or graduate chooses to be engaged with their institution; however, a large

population will ensure that the sample is as representative of the entire UT-Austin community as possible.

The Author intended to use this study to examine a major contemporary issue facing American higher education, as well as the roles that students and alumni may play in the advancement of academia. It was clear that there was a pressing need for further scholastic research regarding philanthropy in higher education; as private giving continues to comprise an important percentage of institutional funding, it is crucial that fundraising professionals are provided with the scientific research and theoretical concepts necessary to inform their everyday practice. In addition to addressing existing gaps in the literature, the Author hoped that this study would help to guide institutional administrators and practitioners in the fields of student affairs and alumni relations, as well as identify prevailing stakeholder attitudes to institutional philanthropic endeavors.

Although his previous exposure to the fields of institutional development and alumni relations has been limited, the Author did retain pertinent experience as a student affairs professional. In this position, he received anecdotal information regarding prevailing student attitudes toward engagement on the UT Austin campus. While some students expressed skepticism when asked if they believed that active engagement produces an ultimate return on investment, the majority of students indicated that engagement encourages the development of new friendships, prepares them for their future careers, and has a positive impact upon the community. It is hoped that institutional fundraisers may use this knowledge to both evaluate the effectiveness of

existing programs and develop new programs geared toward increasing student and alumni participation in institutional philanthropic campaigns.

In order to achieve an accurate sample of prevailing stakeholder perceptions of institutional philanthropy, a quantitative methodology was utilized. Qualitative analyses provide researchers with rich data that is often stated in the participant's own voice; conversely, quantitative analyses allow researchers to make broad statements that may be generalized and applied to a variety of situations. In this study, a comprehensive survey was distributed via e-mail to a small group of UT Austin alumni. Although the e-mail addresses of perspective participants were obtained from the University Development Office, the confidentiality of each participant was protected throughout the course of the study. The results of each survey were thoroughly analyzed to uncover potential trends and themes embedded within the data. A complete description of this study's methodology will be presented in Chapter Three.

ASSUMPTIONS

At the onset of this study, several assumptions were made regarding contemporary American higher education philanthropy. These assumptions were:

1. The rise of political, economic, and social conservatism in the late twentieth century was highlighted by an effort to reduce the role of the public sector in higher education funding.
2. As demand for postsecondary degrees continues to grow, public and private institutions will be increasingly forced to compete for a limited amount of resources.

3. Consistent reductions in federal and state financial support for public higher education have led many colleges and universities to seek alternative sources of revenue (e.g., private gifts).
4. Private giving affords “some institutions crucial flexibility in their operations” (Brewer, Gates, & Goldman, 2009, p. 17).
5. As private gifts become an important component of operating budgets, institutions must find ways to balance their traditional missions with (often competing) donor requirements.
6. Alumni donations, one of the most common types of private gifts received by a college or university, now constitutes a significant source of institutional revenue (Clotfelter, 2003; Monks, 2003).
7. Philanthropically engaged undergraduate students are likely to become philanthropically-engaged alumni.
8. Alumni that maintain strong emotional bonds to their alma maters after graduation are most likely to be receptive to institutional philanthropic efforts.
9. While donors consciously choose to engage in philanthropic acts, targeted campaigns may encourage further participation by appealing to each donor’s subconscious altruistic inclinations.
10. The decision to become philanthropically engaged is dependent upon prior exposure to the philanthropic actions of others (e.g., family members, peers, and mentors).

11. Although the philanthropic experiences of undergraduate students are often limited, future philanthropic activity may be fostered through the creation of student-focused philanthropic campaigns and the behavioral modeling of philanthropic alumni.
12. The inclusion of multiple stakeholder groups (e.g., alumni, faculty, staff, and students) in institutional philanthropic efforts is one of the most important factors in the creation of a campus culture of giving.
13. The quantitative research methodology used in this study will uncover trends in alumni giving and inform recommendations for programmatic improvement.
14. Quantitative research studies may be executed quickly, ensuring that the results presented provide answers to the most pressing questions (Grossnickle & Raskin, 2001).

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The holes that emerged during the compiling of the literature review for this study demonstrated a pressing need for additional scientific research within the field of higher education philanthropy. Although many studies have explored the roles that various stakeholder groups (e.g., students, faculty, staff, and alumni) play in institutional fundraising efforts, few have sought to ask individual stakeholders (especially alumni) to reflect upon their own philanthropic experiences and suggest how those may better inform institutional practices. This study attempted to address many of the existing gaps in the literature by answering the following research questions:

1. What, if any, characteristics are common amongst young alumni who choose to be philanthropically engaged? What, if any, characteristics are common amongst young alumni who choose not to be philanthropically engaged?
2. Do young alumni believe that their undergraduate educational experiences contributed to the development of their personal definitions of philanthropy?
3. What role(s) do young alumni believe they play in institutional philanthropic efforts?
4. Does engaging in philanthropic activities while an undergraduate student increase the likelihood that one will become a philanthropically engaged alumnus/a?
5. Do young alumni believe that there is value in being a philanthropically engaged undergraduate student?

LIMITATIONS

Although the Author took great pains to ensure that this study is as scientifically sound as possible, it must be noted that a specific group of limitations were taken into consideration when reviewing the literature, methodology, data collection, data analysis, results, and recommendations.

1. There are inherent weaknesses in all research designs and methodologies.
2. The scope of quantitative analyses is often limited; these research projects "typically address one small part of a large issue or problem" (McNabb, 2008, p. 111).

3. "The standardization of questionnaires and interviewing techniques tends to limit testing to predetermined hypotheses... questionnaires have respondents react to specific questions and answer lists created by the researcher" (Grossnickle & Raskin, 2001, p. 88).
4. The results of this study are specific to UT Austin and may not necessarily be generalized to all American postsecondary institutions.
5. Participation in this study was limited to those who received an undergraduate degree from UT Austin between 2002 and 2009.
6. This study did not attempt to include UT Austin alumni that only received a graduate degree or those that received an undergraduate degree before 2002; it is assumed that these alumni had an undergraduate experience that differed significantly from those that fall within the aforementioned target population.

DEFINITION OF TERMS

This section provides comprehensive definitions of the most significant terms that will appear throughout the body of this study. It is important to note that, while there may not be complete consensus on the definition of many of these terms, this study is framed in the context of the following definitions.

1. Alma Mater: The University of Texas at Austin (UT Austin).
2. Alumni Relations: "a comprehensive and systematic approach to encourage alumni/ae to serve their alma mater, and to encourage their alma mater to serve its alumni(ae)" (Bongila, 2008, p. 24).

3. Co-curricular: educational experiences that occur both inside and outside of the classroom.
4. Currently Enrolled Students: individuals who are currently enrolled for classes and actively pursue an undergraduate degree from UT Austin.
5. Donor: an individual who has previously donated their time, talent, or treasure to UT Austin.
6. Engagement: a multidimensional construct that encompasses individual feelings, beliefs, thoughts, and behaviors in an educational context (Appleton, Christenson, & Furlong, 2008). This context may be further subdivided into four interconnected concepts: (1) academic engagement (i.e., engagement in the classroom), (2) behavioral engagement (i.e., engagement outside of the classroom, such as extra-curricular activities), (3) emotional engagement (i.e., relationships with others that are fostered within an educational setting), and (4) cognitive engagement (i.e., investment in personal goals and perceptions of the future value of educational experiences) (Appleton et al., 2008; Griffiths, Sharkey, & Furlong, 2009).
7. Fundraising: the organized solicitation of private financial resources. Although the alternative spellings "fund raising" and "fund-raising" have been used in previous studies, this study will utilize "fundraising" as the official spelling.
8. Institutional Development: "the area of the college and university administration that usually includes development, public relations, and alumni

activities (and sometimes also mistakenly includes athletics, admissions, and even placement)" (Fisher & Koch, 1996, p. 213); in the context of this study, 'institutional development' refers to the UT Austin University Development Office.

9. Institutional Stakeholders: individuals or organizations that exert influence over the internal governance of a college or university (e.g., students, faculty, staff, alumni, and the general public) (Magalhães, 2004; Mallory & Clement, 2009; Mortimer & Sathre, 2006).
10. Philanthropy: an action designed to add to the 'greater good' that is motivated by a multitude of complex psychological, sociological, political, and economic factors. It is the process of "identifying, building, and maintaining relationships with individuals, corporations, and foundations who, characteristically, give" (Kelly, 1998, p. 41). Philanthropic acts often fall into one of two categories: (1) financial (e.g., a monetary donation), and (2) non-financial (e.g., volunteerism at a food pantry).
11. Student Philanthropy: the inclusion of currently enrolled students in philanthropic practices. It is the conscious sharing of a student's time, talent, and treasure while enrolled within a college or university with the intent of contributing to the common good. Drawing upon their own beliefs, values, and experiences, students assume roles as donors and consciously strive to achieve an outcome that is beneficial to others.

12. Young Alumni/ae: individuals who received an undergraduate degree from UT Austin between 2002 and 2009.

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

This study attempted to address existing gaps in the literature by exploring the intersection of scientific inquiry and institutional fundraising. Although many studies have clearly demonstrated the importance of understanding donor motivation, few have asked participants to reflect upon their own personal philanthropic experiences. Participants indicated the factors that influenced their decision to give/not to give, contemplated the development of their personal definition of philanthropy, and reflected upon the role of students in institutional philanthropic practices. Further, the study sought to explore the multiple roles that alumni may play in the development, implementation, assessment, and perpetuation of institutional philanthropic efforts.

Although the participation of key stakeholder groups is crucial in ensuring the ultimate success of most institutional efforts, one group appears to wield the most influence within the realm of higher education philanthropy: alumni. The rise of alumni influence is strongly correlated to both the rise of the number of college graduates in the United States and reductions in state appropriations for higher education. In many states, public colleges and universities have been forced to turn to private sources of revenue to replace the loss of state and federal financial support; in Michigan, the University of Michigan turned to tuition hikes and research revenue during the late twentieth century to offset a 27 percent reduction in the institution's operational budget (Prince, 2003).

The value of alumni financial contributions cannot be overstated. Not only do they help to bolster sagging institutional budgets, they provide alumni with an opportunity to stay connected to their alma maters. Alumni may also make important non-monetary contributions to institutions, including the volunteering of time and the mentorship of current students. While the type of contribution (e.g., time, talent, and/or treasure) is important in the short-term success of an institution, sustained alumni engagement is, ultimately, the desired outcome for any alumni-institutional interaction.

Singer and Hughey (2002) note that active alumni engagement in institutional affairs provides has two major benefits: (1) currently enrolled students are able to observe and mimic modeled philanthropic behavior, and (2) alumni gain a better understanding of the contemporary issues facing higher education. These partnerships afford students an opportunity to observe and model the behaviors and actions of alumni, including those directly associated with charitable giving (Worth, 2002). The inclusion of philanthropy within many of the programs and services that appeal to broad cross-sections of current students (e.g., new student orientation and high-profile social media advertising campaigns) is a good first step in the creation of an institutional culture of giving. However, in order for this effort to be truly successful, institutions must foster opportunities for actively engaged alumni to model their philanthropic behaviors for the entire student body.

The role of alumni in institutional development efforts cannot (and must not) be understated. College administrators and development officers across the country have readily admitted to the importance of alumni philanthropy. At many institutions, alumni

philanthropy is crucial in the direct funding of vital programs and services (Kennedy, 2001; Okunade & Berl, 1997). While it is clear that active alumni engagement is crucial in ensuring the ultimate success of various institutional efforts, many colleges and universities do not establish protocols that are aimed at continually assessing their philanthropic endeavors. Institutional development “needs to be undertaken with a widely understood process and clearly articulated goals” (Miller, 2010, p. 72).

In order to gauge the effectiveness of institutional philanthropic efforts, outcomes-based assessment must become a routine practice within development offices. This is particularly apropos for efforts that solicit active alumni involvement. Parkyn (1991) argues that alumni-based outcomes assessment is important for four reasons: (1) provides an opportunity for "detached objectivity" (i.e., freedom from the immediacy of the college environment), (2) effectively measures the perceptions of the participants (e.g., asks for the graduate's perception of his or her college experience), (3) differentiates between development outcomes resulting for the undergraduate experience and experiences garnered post-graduation, and (4) provides an appropriate context for longitudinal study (pp. 7-8).

The introduction of scientific inquiry into the field of higher education philanthropy will accrue a multitude of benefits. First, a thorough examination of the factors that lead to active philanthropic giving will enable institutional development offices to establish practices that best appeal to specific donor groups. Anderson, Sweeney, and Williams (2010) note that, "if administrators could determine the factors that influence increases in the percentage of alumni who make a donation, they might be

able to implement policies that could lead to increased revenues" (p. 526). Second, research will allow for an exploration of the factors that prevent potential donors from becoming philanthropically active. It is important to remember that not all alumni feel obligated to give to their alma maters; this is especially apropos for those who report having a negative undergraduate experience. By identifying these factors, gearing practices to address existing disconnects, and highlighting the numerous methods and benefits associated with giving, institutional development offices will further expand their pool of potential donors.

The lack of comprehensive research efforts within the field of higher education served as the main catalyst for this study. This trend is troubling, especially as institutional fundraising has rapidly developed into one of the most critical sources of alternative revenue. The inclusion of research into the field ensures that contemporary institutional fundraising practices are grounded in scientific method and practitioners are provided with the most accurate and timely data possible. This study addressed this issue by examining contemporary trends within higher education philanthropy, exploring the factors that both encourage and discourage private giving, and offering suggestions for the inclusion of more stakeholders (especially alumni and currently enrolled students) in institutional philanthropic efforts.

Although previous studies have attempted to provide institutional development offices with suggestions for the capturing of non-donors in fundraising practices, the majority ignored the bonds that are forged amongst alumni, students, and other stakeholder groups. This study sought to expand upon the existing body of knowledge by

directly gauging prevailing alumni attitudes toward institutional philanthropy. Participants were also asked to reflect upon their own philanthropic experiences and provide suggestions for the improvement of existing development programs. These responses helped to inform a series of recommendations aimed at fostering more effective, efficient institutional philanthropy, the greater inclusion of students in institutional development programs, and the creation of cultures of giving on campuses throughout the United States.

Chapter 2: Review of the Literature and Theoretical Framework

I am of the opinion that my life belongs to the community and, as long as I live, it is my privilege to do for it whatever I can. I want to be thoroughly used up when I die, for the harder I work, the more I live. Life is no “brief candle” to me. It is a sort of splendid torch, which I have got hold of for a moment, and I want to make it burn as brightly as possible before handing it on to future generations.

-George Bernard Shaw

THE ROLE OF PHILANTHROPY IN HIGHER EDUCATION

Throughout the course of human history, civilizations have risen and fallen as quickly as grains of sand pass through the hourglass. The composition (and, perhaps, duration) of each civilization has been directly influenced by the prevailing mores, values, and rules of law of the citizens of which it was comprised. In the *Social Contract*, Rousseau (2008) argues that, “although they have perhaps never been formally set forth, they are everywhere the same and everywhere tacitly admitted and recognized, until, on the violation of the social compact, each regains his original rights and resumes his natural liberty” (p. 23). Civilizations only exist if those residing within it agree to abide by a prescribed set of legal, political, economic, and social rules and standards.

While many of these rules and standards consistently appear throughout the course of history, one standard that is a common component of many of history’s greatest

civilizations is philanthropy. From the Hellenistic Greeks to the British Empire, philanthropy commanded an important social rule; not only did it afford individuals an opportunity to give back to their communities, it also bolstered those areas in which the public sector was unable and/or unwilling to contribute. Philanthropic giving has been used to pay for many educational and public service programs, including libraries, museums, hospitals, concert halls, and public parks (Andrews, 1978; Bremner, 1988).

One of the segments of society in which philanthropy has historically played an important role is higher education. Although the social context in which charitable giving varies between cultures, philanthropic giving is responsible for the establishment of many of the world's higher education systems: "out of all these direct and indirect forces grew a system of higher education held together considerably more by voluntary agreements, imitation, internal competition, and generalized rules of conduct than by legislation" (Cohen & Kisker, 2010, p. 169). Private philanthropy often acted as the catalyst in the establishment of universities across the globe; as many states lacked the financial capital necessary for the creation of postsecondary institutions, the charitable gifts of private citizens were substituted for public funds. Philanthropy was directly responsible for the creation of many of the world's first universities, and it continues to serve as an important alternative source of funding for colleges and universities today.

HISTORY OF HIGHER EDUCATION PHILANTHROPY

It is undeniable that philanthropy has played a major role in the establishment of colleges and universities throughout the world. Prior to the late twelfth century, the study of fields such as theology, law, medicine, and the arts were concentrated in monastic

schools (Riché, 1976). The steady urbanization of the European continent led to an increased demand for an educated, professional clergy; therefore, these monastic schools provided local bishops with clergy who were versed in more than basic liturgy and prayer. As individual clergy members became highly versed in canonic studies, students began to flock to the monastic schools in which these scholars taught. As the demand for study under these master scholars quickly outstripped the resources of the small monastic schools, separate institutions soon developed in large cities that provided students training in a decidedly more secular atmosphere.

By the start of the thirteenth century, three major universities had been established on the European continent: Bologna (1088), Paris (1150), and Oxford (1167). The scholastic endeavors of these universities drew greatly upon the influence of Arab scholars (who reintroduced the works of Aristotle and the other scholars of antiquity) and were legitimized through Pope Gregory IX's *Parens Scientiarum* (1231), which "authorized the university to make its own statutes and punish the breach of them by expulsion from the universitas that established the newly emerging institution as a body corporate" (Gürüz, 2008, p. 52). Instructors were forbade from charging fees for granting teaching licenses and the institutions were only permitted to grant licenses to those who were deemed as qualified to teach.

As these pioneering universities began to flourish, they became increasingly removed from ecclesiastical authority. The waning influence of the Church, while essential for the nurturing of independent thought, resulted in many financial difficulties. Essentially, the first universities acted as private corporations created, funded, and

managed by the instructors and their students (Pedersen, 1997). In order to subsidize the lack of ecclesiastical patronage, institutions turned to two distinct methods of revenue generation: (1) endowments, and (2) fees.

The first major source of revenue for these early colleges and universities, endowments, consisted chiefly of real property derived from patrimony. This often included “manors, lands, rectories, house properties, shops, etc.” (de Ridder-Symoens, 1996, p. 185). Institutions also relied on other gifts, including library resources, foodstuffs, and the usage of building space (Miller, 1993). The second major source of revenue for the first colleges and universities was fees. These consisted primarily of “students’ matriculation and graduation fees, fines... the acquisition of books, of educational material, or of furniture” (de Ridder-Symoens, 1996, p. 185).

While attempts were made to secure funding through endowments and fee collection, many institutions struggle to stay financial buoyant. The consistent opening and closing of institutions during this era is, perhaps, indicative of the difficulties in securing adequate financial resources. In order to supplement their budgetary shortfalls, many institutions turned to private donations as an alternative source of revenue. Private benefactors gave small individual gifts, often with a stipulation as to how the gift was to be used by the institution (de Ridder-Symoens, 1996). Students also employed a variety of tactics (e.g., panhandling) in petitioning local townspeople for their assistance in paying their requisite fees (Pedersen, 1997).

Although the professionalization of higher education would not be complete until the eighteenth century, it is clear that financial instability has been one of the hallmarks

of the field from its earliest inception. The advent of direct state funding helped to secure the financial position of many of the world's higher education systems; however, private financing remained an important source of institutional revenue. Charitable gifts enable colleges and universities to fund programs, projects, and initiatives that may not have been possible due to the budgetary constraints of traditional revenue sources. Institutional leaders must not underappreciate the generosity of benefactors. As donors tend to become donors for life, it is critical that administrators identify potential benefactors, cultivate a good rapport between both parties, and secure an alternative source of funding to buffet itself against any future problems it encounters in its traditional revenue streams.

History of American Higher Education Philanthropy

Historically, philanthropy within American higher education has been viewed as a practitioner-based profession. Although the development of a comprehensive historical analysis of academic fundraising has occurred at a relatively slow pace, contemporary budgetary constraints have generated renewed interest in philanthropy amongst institutional stakeholders (Miller, Newman, & Seagren, 1994). As traditional sources of revenue (e.g., state and federal appropriations) began to negatively impact their financial bottom line, public colleges and universities began to turn renewed attention to their philanthropic endeavors.

The study of higher education philanthropy has garnered growing interest from scholars and professionals throughout the course of the twentieth century. A n examination of the impact of philanthropy upon the field of higher education would be

incomplete without a thorough exploration of historical development of this field, from its inception in the mid-seventeenth century to the present day. Prior analyses of higher education philanthropy were often categorized by the historical era in which they occurred. This enables the reader to trace the evolution of the field over time, as well as understand the social, cultural, economic, and political context in which the advancements occurred. The following section divides the analysis of American higher education philanthropy into five distinct historical eras: (1) Colonial period, (2) Early National period, (3) Late National period, (4) Interwar period, and (5) Cold War period.

Colonial Period (1636-1788)

From John Harvard's early seventeenth century bequest to the Massachusetts Bay Colony to the multi-billion dollar institutional capital campaigns of today, philanthropy has traditionally played an important role in American higher education. The colonial period marked the establishment of the nation's first postsecondary institutions; however, in order to establish the colonial colleges, a substantial amount of capital was required (Brittingham & Pezzullo, 1990; Millett, 1952). As the early American economy was not fully capable of financing the establishment of the colleges, private donations were solicited in order to compensate for the budgetary shortfalls: "individual benevolence was nonetheless in the English tradition, and the colonial colleges therefore naturally looked to it for sustenance" (Rudolph, 1990, p. 178).

Early attempts at securing private donations yielded decidedly mixed results. In 1640, Harvard College commissioned the publication of what may be considered the first higher education fundraising pamphlet: *New England's First Fruits*. This pamphlet

encouraged the residents of the colony to assist in the creation of a strong educational system, arguing that it was a moral imperative to “advance learning and perpetuate it to prosperity” (*New England’s First*, 1640/1865, p. 23). Colleges would continue to seek private financial support as their inability to adequately pay for the construction of academic facilities and the funding of instructors’ salaries often resulted in deficit spending (McAneer, 1952).

The financial difficulties encountered by the nation’s first colleges were somewhat alleviated through the use of unrestricted private donations. Although there was great disparity in the amount of charitable gifts received by each institution, college administrators appealed to the general public (and alumni, in particular) to recognize the positive impact that postsecondary institutions have on society (e.g., the creation of an educated workforce, generation of new thought, interaction between town and gown, etc.). Rudolph (1990) noted that administrators were keen to soliciting modest gifts from the public, as “it permitted an appeal to local pride or to some special interest... and it had the rather important effect of suggesting that the support of higher education was a popular responsibility, regardless of one’s wealth” (p. 182).

While these early administrators were charged with filling many roles within their institutions, many relished in their ability to establish strong bonds with the general public. Thelin (2004) argues that “it was in the external relations of college-founding and then college-building and political involvement that the leaders of the colonial colleges most conspicuously displayed their genius and expended their energies” (p. 33). When soliciting gifts, many leaders chose to forgo investments in the future of their institutions

(i.e., creation of endowments) by dedicating the funds received through philanthropy for pressing contemporary matters: the construction of new buildings, the funding of scholarships, and the payment of instructors' salaries. Curti and Nash (1965) noted that these actions set the stage for the role of philanthropy in higher education, in which "higher education and its philanthropic support were planted as ideas and actualities in American soil" (p. 41).

The first American postsecondary institutions were an experiment in action. Each of the nine colonial colleges was small and operated with meager resources on scant funds. Due to their financial instability, these institutions represented "rather a promise than a performance" (Becker, 1943, p. 7). The requirements necessary to gain entrance into these institutions were few and the programmatic offerings beyond a baccalaureate degree were severely limited. Further, enrollments at these institutions remained small well into the eighteenth century. Brubacher and Rudy (2004) noted that the student enrollments at Yale and Harvard only increased from 36 students and 123 students in 1710 to 338 students and 413 students in 1770, respectively (p. 22). Further, only 600 students attended Harvard during the whole of the seventeenth century, with only 465 recorded as having graduated (Brubacher & Rudy, 2004, p. 22). Despite the best efforts of institutional leaders in soliciting public support for higher education, growth of the nation's first colleges remained slow up to the conclusion of the eighteenth century.

Early National Period (1789-1865)

It is clear that the establishment of America's first postsecondary institutions was not an endeavor free from difficulty. Limited social mobility, a lack of expendable

income, and difficulties in travel are just a few examples of the many impediments to the growth of the student bodies experienced at many colleges and universities. However, as the nation began to quickly develop at the dawn of the Industrial Age, a system of higher education was required to keep pace with the evolving needs of the private (and public) sector. The stagnation that had been a hallmark of the Colonial period would soon give way to a rapid transformation of many aspects of American society, including its educational systems.

Following the American Revolution, the nation found itself in an interesting position. As much of its society was modeled after England, the newly emancipated United States of America embarked on a difficult process of balancing the social systems established under colonial rule with systems that reflected the needs of the new nation. One of the first targets of social reform was higher education. The colonial colleges founded under charter by the English Crown, while vital in establishing a national higher education system, were not capable of flourishing under a system that relied heavily upon private investment. A concerted effort was made to reduce the influence of ecclesiastical denominations on colleges and, in turn, replace it with public investment.

The push toward public higher education was, in part, a reflection of the Great Awakening that had swept across the nation in the mid eighteenth century. As this movement spurred an interest in civil liberties, classism, and personal development, Americans were urged by their ministers to support the nation's educational systems. Institutional leaders found some of their most ardent supporters in evangelicals, who urged individuals to pursue a quality education (Fogel, 2000). However, by the early

nineteenth century, the congenial relationship between postsecondary institutions and evangelical churches began to sour. College administrators often became the targets of revivalist ire, and many ministers began to view the secularization of higher education as detrimental to student moral development (Dunn, 1983; Rudolph, 1990).

The decline in support of higher education by church leaders throughout the country led many institutional leaders to reevaluate their traditional revenue streams. As institutions began to lose charitable gifts from the clergy and laity, many turned to state and territorial governments for financial support. Institutions began to affiliate themselves with the states in which they were located. State appropriations began to exceed private gifts as the main form of revenue for many of the nation's colleges and universities. Although private philanthropy remained a crucial alternative source of funding, the newly created public colleges and universities (e.g., the University of Georgia in 1785 and the University of North Carolina in 1789) enjoyed more financial security than many of their peer institutions.

The emerging (and complex) relationship between postsecondary institutions and the state became a topic of national interest when one of the nine colonial colleges sought to exert its independence from its state legislature. Dartmouth College, the Crown chartered postsecondary institution for the Province of New Hampshire, became embroiled in a bitter struggle between multiple parties for institutional administrative and financial control. During the midst of a religious controversy, the state legislature attempted to alter the College's original charter in order to reinstate its deposed president, cede authority to appoint positions to the governor, adding additional trustees, veto

trustee decisions, and remove the corporate seal (Olivas, 2006, p. 32). Opponents of the state's action argued that the state legislature had no control over the operation of a private institution. Due to the impasse between both parties and the groundbreaking nature of the facts, the lawsuit was brought before the U.S. Supreme Court in 1819.

As one of the U.S. Supreme Court's first major decisions, *Dartmouth v. Woodward* established a firm delineation between American public and private postsecondary institutions. The Court found that, as a contract had been created through the granting of a charter during the Colonial period, the state's attempts at subverting institutional authority resulted in a violation of the federal Constitution (Olivas, 2006, p. 33). As *Dartmouth* was a private institution, the state had egregiously breached the original charter by substituting its own will for the will of the donor in every institutional decision. This case stated that no contract, regardless of when it was created (e.g. colonial v. postcolonial rule), can be violated through state legislative action. As such, all private donations made to the College did not automatically become the property of the state.

Dartmouth v. Woodward is just one of many of major advancements that were made in the field of American higher education during the nineteenth century. Groundbreaking movements set the stage for the development of the modern research university as we know it today. Although attempts were made to defend the traditional structure and curriculum of colleges and universities (most notably through the publication of the Yale Report of 1828), the antebellum period marked the moment in which higher education became accessible to a broader swath of American society. The

backlash against attempts at solidifying the power of a classical education resulted in “separate ‘scientific’ courses substituting more instruction in science, modern languages, and history... larger institutions, such as Yale and Harvard, developed separate schools to augment the collegiate department” (Reuben, 1996, p. 26).

The push for modern, restructured colleges and universities gained federal recognition by the midpoint of the century. The Morrill Land-Grant Colleges Acts of 1862 and 1890, authored by Vermont Representative Justin Smith Morrill, set a new precedent in American higher education. Instead of solely concentrating on a curriculum heavily influenced by classical history and literature, public lands were set aside to foster the creation of institutions devoted to the study of agriculture and the mechanical sciences. States would then use the revenue generated through the sale of these lands to fund new colleges and universities. Ultimately, more than 100 public colleges and universities were established through the passage of the Morrill Acts (Miller, 1993; Carleton, 2002).

Late National Period (1865-1918)

The rise of America’s public colleges and universities may be directly attributed to the Morrill Acts. These new institutions forwent the classical curriculum that had been the hallmarks of the colonial colleges and provided a broader segment of the population that was grounded in practice, not theory. Access to higher education was expanded to include many who would have been previously denied admission to more traditional, elite universities. New public institutions were established that catered to the professions that were in high demand at the time, including agriculture, mechanical technology, and

teacher education. The rapid growth of the nation's public colleges and universities would continue well into the late twentieth century; by 1997, 80 percent of all students participating in the nation's higher education system were enrolled at a public institution (Rhodes, 1997).

The rise of public institutions also had a direct impact upon the ways in which institutions solicited charitable gifts. Geiger (1995) noted that, due to the personal fortunes that were being amassed during the gilded age, "a few acts of philanthropy produced institutions that clearly would not have otherwise have appeared when they did" (p. 68). Examples of institutions created by private philanthropy during this era include the Buchtel College (1870), University of Cincinnati (1870), Ohio Agricultural and Mechanical University (1873), Case School of Applied Science (1882), and Western Reserve University (1882) (Geiger, 1995). Although all of these institutions are located in the state of Ohio, they are representative of a trend that swept across the nation at the conclusion of the Civil War.

Buchtel College provides an interesting example of the power of philanthropy in determining an institution's future. In 1870, businessman and philanthropist John R. Buchtel made a bequest for the establishment of a college in his name. This institution, known today as the University of Akron, was originally chartered affiliated with the Universalist Church; however, as the institution grew, it began to shed its denominational affiliation. The severing of ties between the institution and the Church led to a reduction in charitable gifts pledged to the College, leaving Buchtel in a dire financial situation

(Kolbe, 2009). Although a coordinated capital campaign raised \$90,000 in 1911, it was clear that the citizens of Akron did not feel a strong connection with the College.

As the only institution of higher education in the City of Akron, Buchtel's leadership felt that it was imperative to preserve an institution that had a direct positive benefit on the community, arguing that "the time had come for the city at large to assume the responsibility of maintaining an institution which was being conducted largely for the welfare of her own citizens" (Kolbe, 2009, p. 5). Following a similar precedent set forth by the University of Cincinnati forty years earlier, Buchtel's Board would transfer the institution and its assets to the City of Akron. It would also pay off the College's debts and ensured that a percentage of the institution's value would be placed in an interest producing endowment (Kolbe, 2009, p. 6). The philanthropic act of Buchtel's Board of Trustees ensured the institution's continued financial viability, leading to its current status as one of the state's leading public universities.

The charitable giving exhibited by Buchtel and other philanthropists during the late nineteenth century marked a turning point for philanthropy within higher education. Similar bequests led to the establishment of many of the nation's most prestigious postsecondary universities, including Cornell (1865), Johns Hopkins (1876), Chicago (1890), and Stanford (1891). The successes experienced in the creation of new colleges and universities led many institutional leaders to recognize the value of concerted fundraising efforts. By the advent of the twentieth century, systematic and organized fundraising had become commonplace within American higher education (Cutlip, 1965).

The increased interest in institution-led philanthropic initiatives forever changed the way in which higher education finance is viewed within the United States. While private philanthropy had traditionally been restricted to small gifts to institutions, the boon in the establishment of public colleges and universities shifted the conversation of higher education funding from private sources (e.g., philanthropic gifts, tuition, and student fees) to public funds (e.g., state appropriations and public philanthropy). Many institutional leaders began to view philanthropy as a means of supplementing their traditional sources of revenue while simultaneously extolling the positive impact of their institutions on society and establishing strong bonds between the institution and its stakeholders. Although it did not officially become common practice until the twentieth century, philanthropic giving became an entrenched practice within many institutions following the conclusion of World War I.

Interwar Period (1919-1940)

Although philanthropy has played an important role within American higher education since the creation of its first colonial institutions, the historical study of this topic only began in earnest in the early twentieth century. Jesse Barnard Sears' *Philanthropy in the History of American Higher Education* (1922) was the first true comprehensive study of philanthropy within the nation's colleges and universities. Sears, a doctoral student at the Columbia University Teachers College, examined the role that philanthropy played in the formation of the nation's higher education system and concluded that strategically important gifts provided the resources necessary for the establishment of the first colonial colleges (Geiger, 1922/1990, p. x). Thelin (2004)

argues that “Sears’ book provided the groundwork of chronology and rudimentary statistical compilations about institutional endowments and major gifts” (p. 396).

Sears’ charge for the importance of philanthropy in higher education garnered a great deal of support by the early twenties. At Harvard, institutional leaders embarked upon an ambitious campaign in 1919 aimed at increasing the size of the University’s endowment. The Harvard Endowment Campaign, led by William Baldwin and John Price Jones (a Harvard alumnus), was geared toward easing the financial burden on the institution and would net \$23 million by 1923 (Bethell, 1998). Harvard’s success in generating philanthropic support for the institution would, ultimately, “set the pattern for the capital fund drives of the twenties” (Cutlip, 1965, p. 269). Similar endeavors were soon launched at Smith, Fiske, Stanford, Mount Holyoke, and Colorado College, resulting in many of these institution’s first million-dollar capital campaigns (Cutlip, 1965).

The institutional education philanthropic endeavors that occurred during the twenties and thirties differed from earlier efforts primarily in the type of gift received by the college or university. Many of the earliest gifts were restricted in their use; however, by the early twentieth century, donors increasingly afforded institutions flexibility in determining the best use for each gift. This flexibility enabled institutional leaders to specifically devote funds toward improvements in their physical plants. At Harvard, the Harvard Endowment Campaign directly benefitted “the cramped and undermanned chemistry department and the schools of dental medicine and education” (Bethell, 1998, p. 92).

This increased emphasis upon institutional philanthropy, while beneficial in obtaining financial resources outside of their traditional revenue streams, did not always result in a strong connection between the institution and the donor. Many of the earliest charitable gifts to colleges and universities were small, one-time donations designated to fund specific projects or endow programs. However, as more institutional leaders became aware of the potential financial boon associated with philanthropy, an increased effort was made to foster a good rapport with potential (as well as existing) donors. A good rapport is crucial, as “the best fundraisers appreciate the connection between the prospect and the cause or institution they represent, as well as the importance of developing and/or reengaging relationships for the benefit of both the donor and the charity” (Peacock, 2007, p. 12). By fostering good relationships with donors, institutions will ensure that they have secured alternative sources of revenue that will stand the test of time.

Once the importance of institutional philanthropic efforts was identified, colleges and universities began to examine each of their stakeholder groups to determine which would be most receptive to giving. Ideally, the target group would have a preexisting connection to the institution, would have ready access to expendable income, and would be capable of comprehending the positive impact of charitable giving. While many groups were vetted, it became clear that alumni would be the best targets for institutional philanthropic efforts. The bonds between alma mater and alumni was first cultivated at Harvard in the mid-seventeenth century and were strengthened through the establishment of the first formal alumni associations in the early nineteenth century (Worth, 2002, p.

25). However, alumni philanthropic support of colleges and universities did not become commonplace until the twentieth century.

Many of the nation's first alumni associations were formed to help ensure the survival and growth of those institutions most heavily reliant upon private sources of revenue (Mueller, 1980). However, while alumni remained active within their institutional communities well into the twentieth century, they did not begin to play a key role in the execution of many of the capital campaigns until the twenties. Like Harvard's concurrent initiative, Princeton's Endowment Campaign of 1919-1920 was led by Ivy Lee, a founder of the modern public relations industry and an alumnus of the institution (Cutlip, 1965).

Inspired by their increased role in institutional philanthropy, alumni of colleges and universities across the country began to play a more active role in the operations of their institutions. They championed brick and mortar projects, endowed scholarships, and gained representation on institutional governing boards (Cutlip, 1965; Miller, 1993). This increased reliance upon alumni for governance representation and fundraising efforts led to a significant strengthening of influence of alumni over institutional operations. Although separate from colleges and universities, alumni associations became important players in institutional daily decision-making processes, strategic planning, development activities, intercollegiate athletics, and civic engagement projects by the early forties.

Post-World War II and Cold War Period (1946-1991)

The rise of alumni relations and the severe socio-economic hardships endured during the Great Depression had a profound effect on institutional philanthropy. No longer was charitable giving seen as solely the domain of the wealthy; instead, by the start of World War II, the average American citizen participated in some sort of philanthropic endeavor. Mirroring the successful fundraising campaigns of the American Red Cross, colleges and universities across the country began to establish development offices in earnest (Burlingame, 2004).

Many of these efforts were slow to materialize, however, as federal funding for higher education increased through the fifties. New pieces of legislation (e.g., the Servicemen's Readjustment Act) associated with the nation's higher education system resulted in an influx of funds devoted specifically to colleges and universities. Private donations were unable to keep pace with this funding and failed to close the gap when the federal revenue streams eventually ended (Burlingame, 2004). In order to breach this gap, new professional organizations (e.g., National Society of Fund Raisers) were created to assist in the development, organization, and operation of organizational philanthropic activities. These organizations were especially adept at providing organizations with operational and technical support in conducting their annual and capital campaigns.

By the late sixties, the relationship between student bodies, institutions, and alumni had changed dramatically. A major factor in this shift was the Vietnam War; as small, localized campus protests began to rapidly spread across the nation, alumni became increasingly wary of the "new generation" of American college students. The

December 1968 edition of The University of Texas at Austin's *The Alcalde* alumni magazine contained an editorial that directly addressed the evolving relationship:

Until recent years, nobody paid much attention to the relationship of the institution to its alumni. Traditionally, alumni were expected to demonstrate a certain loyalty to alma mater by showing up for class reunions, cheering at football games and responding with some generosity when called upon for financial assistance. To suggest, however, that The University also had a continuing obligation to alumni was as heretical, say, as suggesting that students should have a role in governing the institution. This attitude is changing. (Maguire, 1968, p. 7)

The seventies witnessed a renewing of interests in charitable giving. New fundraising strategies (e.g., telethons and door-to-door campaigns) began to compete with more traditional fundraising efforts (e.g., mailed brochures and telephone calls) (Burlingame, 2004). These new fundraising strategies would face their first major test just one decade later.

Throughout the 1980s, the Reagan Administration utilized five major policy positions in crafting its national education policy: diminution, deregulation, decentralization, disestablishment, and de-emphasis (Clark & Amiot, 1981). As such, funding was curtailed to the nation's public colleges and universities. Many institutions began to turn to philanthropy as a response to the loss of federal funding (Burlingame,

2004). Although there was some initial hesitation to the turn toward private financing, many institutional leaders saw charitable giving as an untapped source of revenue. While the competition for donations was fierce, the reductions in federal (and, later, state) appropriations resulted in the entrenchment of institutional development offices in institutions throughout the country.

PROFESSIONALIZATION OF INSTITUTIONAL PHILANTHROPY

The concerted philanthropic endeavors of colleges and universities across the country in the early twentieth century resulted in the creation of a new profession within the field of higher education: institutional development. What had originally been a practice solely reserved for the nation's elite institutions (i.e., soliciting stakeholders for charitable gifts) now spread to colleges and universities nationwide. Although some private colleges and universities had begun philanthropic efforts as early as the seventeenth century, the professionalization of institutional philanthropy did not begin in earnest until 1970.

The two decades that spanned the 1970s and 1980s were, arguably, the 'golden age' of higher education philanthropy. Consistent reductions in public sector funding for higher education, combined with the rise of interest in charitable giving, led to a boon in the establishment of development offices at many of the nation's colleges and universities. Brittingham and Pezzullo (1990) noted that "almost all coordinated and centralized development activity in higher education is less than 40 years old, with only 25 percent of all institutions reporting a centralized development function as recently as 1970" (p. 82). This 25 percent consisted, primarily, of private institutions. Although the

establishment of The Ohio State University Development Fund Association in 1940 ushered in a new era of philanthropy for public institutions, support for the creation of development programs at public institutions was slow to grow. By 1987, development programs at public colleges and universities were, on average, little more than a decade old (Kelly, 1998).

While the establishment of institution-wide development offices did not begin in earnest until the late twentieth century, many individual academic units had already embarked upon their own philanthropic endeavors. Many schools of law had long viewed charitable giving as an intrinsic component of their cultures. Law deans are charged with being both academic leaders and active fundraisers; however, in order to combat rising costs, these deans are often forced to delegate their academic duties in order to focus their efforts on fundraising and public relations (Read, 2001; Streib, 1994). Other institutional units that have had similar lengthy experiences with fundraising include schools of business and engineering. On average, up to 40 percent of a business school's operational budget may be comprised of alumni giving (Hanawini, 2005).

Private philanthropy has also become big business within the realm of intercollegiate athletics. The strong emotional bond between student and institution that develops during an undergraduate education is often fostered long after graduation through an interest in athletics. Institutional athletic departments may use this bond to their advantage when seeking donations to their programs. Goff (2004) noted that "some benefactors are interested in both athletics and general university welfare but have a fixed amount of money they are willing to donate... in such cases, increased athletic success

may help steer these donations toward athletic giving and away from general gifts” (p. 73). The amount of charitable giving designated specifically for athletics has enabled many intercollegiate athletics programs to become self-sufficient, operating free from the constraints of public financing.

The expansion of institutional philanthropy from individual academic/operational units (e.g., professional schools and intercollegiate athletics programs) to the establishment of development offices resulted in a set of standards for the fundraising professionalism. Lindahl (2010) argued that three key indicators demonstrate the professionalization of fundraising. First, organizations must ground their philanthropic endeavors on a specific ethical statement (e.g., a Donor Bill of Rights). Second, the development of graduate-level programs of study that concentrates on philanthropy assist in the normalization of standards at institutions throughout the nation. Third, an ever-expanding body of knowledge (both theoretical and practical) records the evolution of the field and influences its future growth. Together, these are three strong indicators that the oft fragmented practice of individual gift solicitation has developed into a true professional field.

Further, Worth (2002) has identified three major trends that have established development as one of academia’s most vital administrative units. First, institutional leaders have shied away from using professional fundraising consulting firms and established in-house development offices. In doing this, the chief development officer position has become extremely influential on many campuses. Second, the increased emphasis placed upon philanthropic efforts has afforded development offices to grow in

size and scope of mission. Third, large single gifts have become more desirable than small continuous gifts, as large gifts enable institutional leaders to fund projects deemed most urgent. As traditional revenue streams continue to shrink, public universities have increasingly turned to individual gifts as a means of providing institutions with one of their few means of discretionary funds (Leslie & Ramey, 1988; Worth, 2002).

The development of institutional philanthropy as a profession has had a major impact upon the ways in which colleges and universities present themselves to their stakeholders and the general public. Ciconte and Jacob (2009) argued that institutions must be cognizant of existing relationships with stakeholders (i.e., potential donors) before embarking upon fundraising efforts. They must also continue to cultivate these relationships after concluding capital campaigns in order to ensure participation in future philanthropic initiatives. As history has demonstrated, not all institutional fundraising efforts have proven popular with stakeholders (e.g., Stanford University's research partnership with ExxonMobil); as such, it is the development office's responsibility to conduct its efforts in a transparent manner and demonstrate how it is in alignment with the institution's core value and mission (Tempel, 2008).

Institutional development offices may circumvent potential challenges and gain increased credibility with potential donors through the legitimization of their profession. In order to gain full legitimacy, a profession must "generate a body of specialized knowledge, inculcate members with a service orientation, seek control over an entity, issue a code of ethics, and organize a professional association" (Bloland, 1997, p. 99). The inclusion of research endeavors also plays a role in legitimizing a profession. By

conducting research, grounding their practices in theory, fundraisers help to gain legitimacy for their profession. The professionalization of institutional development has led to its position as a valued campus administrative unit and greatly assists institutional leaders in tackling many of the challenges facing higher education today.

CONTEMPORARY TRENDS WITHIN HIGHER EDUCATION PHILANTHROPY

The rapid professionalization of institutional philanthropy is just one of the many changes that have occurred within the nation's higher education system over the course of the last three decades. Since 1970, American colleges and universities have had to dramatically reevaluate (and, in some cases, reinvent) the ways in which they operate. Demographic changes in the nation's population, increased access to higher education, and growing demand for a postsecondary degree all presented new challenges to leaders of public colleges and universities.

In response to these evolving trends, institutions across the country began to scrutinize their existing policies to ensure that they were aligned with the needs of the populations they serve. Many of the nation's largest public colleges and universities are now considered "multiversities," or institutions that "average more than 20,000 students each and have become the dominant institutional form for universities in the Anglo-American world and powerfully influential institutions in our society" (Fallis, 2007, p. 3). Krücken, Kosmützky, and Torca (2006) argue that the notion of the multiversity trumps the traditional definition of the university as it addresses contemporary issues: "the 'new multiversity' emerges because universities all over the world devise diverse solutions in

the face of global trends that may appear standard, but that are never standard in their effects” (p. 8).

The influx of students (especially those from non-traditional backgrounds) into the nation’s higher education system began to place a strain on institutions, leading many institutions to develop programs aimed at increasing student success. Innovative admission and retention programs, bolstered by landmark legal rulings such as *Regents of the University of California v. Bakke* (1978) and *Grutter v. Bollinger* (2003), were established with the intent of fostering an institutional composition that mirrored the population of the state. Although many legal challenges to diversity-focused policies were mounted, these rulings demonstrate that institutional diversity is both desirable and constitutional.

The Contemporary Financial Status of American Higher Education

While access, retention, diversity, and student success were all major topics of discussion during the late twentieth century, one issue often dominated the conversation regarding the current state of American higher education: finances. Traditionally, the majority of financial resources made available to public colleges and universities were derived directly from the state. However, the wave of conservatism that swept across the country in the early 1980s forever altered the ways in which these institutions received their funding. The subsequent reductions in federal and state support for higher education has resulted in the de facto privatization of many of the nation’s private colleges and universities.

The privatization of American higher education may be directly attributed to a reduction in public support for colleges and universities. Although undergraduate enrollment rates remained strong well into the new millennium, support for higher public education has waned. Prior to 1980, federal and state governments provided the resources vital in funding student aid programs and promoting the common good; however, by the year 2000, reductions in governmental support forced many major American public colleges and universities to mimic their private counterparts, including the introduction of merit-based aid and arbitrary tuition increases (St. John & Parsons, 2004; Alexander, 2007). This problem was further exacerbated through steadily rising inflation rates and higher education costs. In many states, higher education was no longer considered a public good; instead, tuition increases replaced per-student state funding, access expansion efforts were curtailed, and some public institutions openly advocated for their disassociation from the state (Alexander, 2007, p. 338).

In order to adjust to these changing economic, political, and social conditions, American public colleges and universities have scrambled to restructure their traditional funding sources. The trend toward reliance upon the student body for financial support may be irreversible, especially as state legislatures have demanded accountability from their public institutions while simultaneously reducing appropriations. Further public scrutiny of the nation's colleges and universities has been fueled by an increased emphasis upon cost containment, improved performance, and public accountability (Rhodes, 1997). In order to maintain essential programs and ensure their long-term survivability, institutions throughout the nation have been forced to reexamine many

aspects of their traditional operations, including their historic missions and cost-sharing arrangements.

Johnstone and Marcucci (2010) argue that, although the costs of public higher education have been traditionally shared between governments (i.e., taxpayers), parents, students, and philanthropists, much of the financial burden has steadily shifted from the government to students and their parents (p. 2). While this is slowly reducing some of the financial pressure placed upon institutions, inflation continues to outpace appropriation levels in many states. The growing financial burden placed upon students and their families has been compounded by minimal cost of living increases and increasing education costs.

However, although students and their families have been asked to make great sacrifices in order to achieve a postsecondary degree, many institutions and state governments have failed to live up to their ends of the bargain by not substantially decreasing their costs on an annual basis and refusing to account for inflation in appropriations levels (Lasher & Greene, 2001). This burden is, perhaps, most evident in the rise in tuition costs over the course of the past three decades: “between 1980 and 1995, the average tuition (including required fees) at public and private four-year colleges grew by 91 percent and 83 percent, respectively, even after taking account of general changes in consumer prices” (Kane, 1999, p. 58).

In order for this nation to remain globally-competitive, it must maintain a vibrant, healthy higher education system. Colleges and universities are significant sources of economic and scientific advancement. They produce the skilled labor force and

technological innovations necessary to sustain this nation's status as an international superpower. In Texas alone, the annual impact of The University of Texas System member institutions on the state was over \$12.8 billion in FY2004 (Cline, Bridges, & McKinley, 2005). Institutional expenditures and skilled alumni entering the workforce bolster state and national economies. Consistent reductions in appropriations may result in a dramatic decrease in the quality of learning at public colleges and universities, thus damaging an already fragile national economic recovery. Private giving to the academic enterprise provides institutions with an alternative source of revenue, ensuring both a sound higher education system and a vibrant national economy.

The push toward the privatization of American higher education has, once again, thrust non-traditional sources of revenue into the public consciousness. Although state appropriations still continue to comprise the largest percentage of revenue received by public institutions, private philanthropy has steadily become one of the most trusted methods of mitigating reductions in state appropriations. Philanthropic gifts afford institutions the ability to fund scholarships, endow faculty positions, and finance capital projects when other sources of revenue are at a premium; likewise, these gifts may be used to reduce the financial burden on students by keeping down the cost of tuition (Johnstone & Marcucci, 2010; Priest, St. John, & Boon, 2006).

Philanthropy as a Source of Institutional Funding

The steady withdrawal of public support for the nation's colleges and universities has altered the way in which institutions identify new sources of revenue. Although many diverse sources of funds have been explored, one of the most important outcomes

of this situation has been the rise of private philanthropy. As external sources of revenue have become necessary to ensure continued institutional financial solvency, institutional leaders have elicited continued financial support from multiple stakeholder groups. Institutions may find success whenever they appeal to the charitable nature of individuals; however, the group that is most receptive to participating in philanthropic campaigns is alumni.

Alumni philanthropy has become a hot topic within the field of higher education. Much of the original interest in this topic has been written by working professionals and, as such, has been highly practical in nature. Although there was a rapid development of fundraising infrastructure at many colleges and universities, there was not a corresponding gain in its body of knowledge (Kelly, 1998, p. 108). However, the interest in theoretical and empirical research within this field is growing rapidly, with much of the relevant research contained in doctoral dissertations examining fundraising efforts at private institutions (Taylor & Martin, 1995).

Due to their emotional connection to their alma maters, alumni giving may be found at the core of institutional fundraising endeavors. The revenue generated through alumni giving may help to fund institutional priorities not funded through state appropriations (e.g., scholarships, construction/renovation projects, etc.). It is also tangible proof that alumni maintain a strong connection to their alma mater after graduation, thus encouraging potential donors to contribute and ensuring the future success of their institution. Alumni philanthropy directly benefits not only the recipient institution, but the donors themselves. Examples of direct benefits to alumni donors

include special privileges (e.g., reserved access to institutional events), public recognition (e.g., gift listed in promotional materials), and name recognition (e.g., name appearing on plaques, labs, or buildings) (Bruggink & Siddiqui, 1995).

The increased emphasis placed upon private philanthropy within higher education has resulted in the rise of a new, multi-billion dollar industry. A recent report published by the Giving USA Foundation states that giving to the nation's education systems increased from \$2.01 billion (current dollars) in 1965 to \$38.56 billion in 2006, an increase of 1,818 percent (Brown, 2006). As federal and state funding for public education continues to fall, the nation's colleges and universities have been forced to compete amongst themselves for limited financial resources. The same may be said of private philanthropy. As donors tend to give frequently over the course of their lifetimes, the identification and solicitation of new gifts has become increasingly difficult.

As such, institutional fundraising offices are critical to ensuring that alternative revenue sources are always available, especially in times of great financial turmoil. Although the solicitation of private gifts is not always an easy task, it must be considered an investment in an institution itself. As with any investment, fundraising is not free; on average, institutions spend up to 16 cents directly on fundraising per dollar raised, and alumni relations expenses amount to up to eight percent of every dollar raised (Ryan, 1990). Additional costs are incurred in the production and dissemination of promotional material, staff member salaries, office space, and miscellaneous supplies (Klein, 2007).

While fundraising offices require, on average, a significant capital investment in their establishment and operation, the benefits accrued through the solicitation of private

gifts are often worth the associated costs. Herrmann and Herrmann (1996) state that private funds introduce a “margin of excellence” into institutional operations; although state appropriations provide the funding necessary to maintain academic programs at public colleges and universities, private gifts add an additional layer of quality by affording institutions the ability to attract highly-regarded faculty, offer scholarships and grants to students, and fund the construction of state-of-the-art facilities.

The rise of institutional philanthropy, coupled with the precipitous decline in state support for higher education, has had a profound impact upon the financial status of American public colleges and universities. While individual, foundational, and corporate philanthropy has been the traditional forte of private institutions, public colleges and universities have turned to private gifts as a major source of institutional revenue. Private gifts enable public institutions to generate revenue without placing an extra burden on taxpayers, loosen the reins of legislative management, and bolster individual programs that have suffered from a chronic lack of funds (Salerno, 2009, p. 169). Public colleges and universities must continue to invest in institutional fundraising efforts to ensure their continued survival and, ultimately, fulfill their mission of teaching students, engaging in research, and serving the general public.

Philanthropic Motivations

The benefits associated with private philanthropy are clear. Private gifts allow public colleges and universities to fund top institutional priorities and bolster the overall student experience in times of great financial difficulty. As such, the establishment and maintenance of fundraising offices must be a top institutional priority. However, it must

be noted that these offices will not be successful in their endeavors if they ignore a key component of philanthropy: donor motivation. Williams (2004) notes that a systematic analysis of donor motivation “will influence the fundraiser’s own donor research, the selection of prospects, the identification of appropriate cases (needs), and the design of solicitation vehicles” (p. 82). By understanding the factors that motivate donors to give, fundraising professionals will ensure that their efforts are concise, cost-effective, and, ultimately, successful.

Cultures of Giving

In order to be successful in business, one must first have a good working knowledge of their client base. This knowledge encompasses a broad range of issues, from basic demographic information to each client’s long-term goals. However, before tackling the ‘big picture’ items, it is crucial for fundraising professionals to acknowledge that every client is unique. As each client has an individual set of priorities, goals, and values, fundraising professionals must develop strategies that are tailored to meeting these unique cultures of giving. These cultures of giving may be analyzed individually by examining four basic factors that are contained within each: (1) demographics, (2) institution, (3) participation, and (4) community.

The first factor associated with cultures of giving is demographics. Much research has been conducted on the giving patterns of different groups of donors. Although many colleges and universities have been historically reticent to actively cultivate minority donors, recent research has suggested that institutions may encounter a great deal of success in targeting underrepresented donor populations by first

acknowledging their unique giving patterns, values, and beliefs (Nichols, 1990; Prince & File, 1994).

One of the demographic factors that features heavily within scholarly literature is race/ethnic group. It is crucial for fundraising professionals to avoid the pitfall of simply dividing donors into two separate categories: (1) Caucasian donors, and (2) non-Caucasian donors. Each group is unique and, therefore, must receive efforts targeted to their individual needs, goals, and values. This argument is further bolstered by Winters (1993), who argues that ‘people of color’ are interested in private philanthropy and must be provided an opportunity to give. Often, this participation extends far beyond financial contributions and includes the sharing of time and other personal resources.

Fairfax (1995) states that African-American philanthropy has been shaped by the realities of life on the North American continent; as such, traditional notions of the rich obliged to assist the less fortunate must be eschewed for programs aimed at encouraging everyone to improve the community as a whole. The notion of non-monetary philanthropy is further echoed by Smith, Shue, Vest, and Villarreal (1994), who suggest that Latinos value the honoring of traditions and reliance upon extended family networks more than individual monetary donations. Further, giving has become an institutionalized component of Asian and American Indian cultures. Although there is a great deal of diversity amongst these cultures, philanthropic acts are focused on social harmony, specific to their own communities, and ritualistic in nature (Burlingame, 2004; Shoa, 1994).

As public colleges and universities are making great strides in creating inclusive environments on their campuses, institutional fundraising offices must also ensure that they are soliciting private gifts from all subcultures. Institutions must also recognize that their own institutional culture plays a major role in the way that they approach their fundraising endeavors. At many private institutions, philanthropy has become such a major component of institutional culture that it is assumed that all alumni will give after receiving a degree. However, at many public institutions, the inadequate tracking of students post-graduation left many fundraising offices unable to stay in contact with their alumni base. Fortunately, public institutions have made great strides in tracking alumni and keeping them connected with their alma maters (Melchiori, 1988).

In order to accrue higher rates of alumni giving, public colleges and universities must mirror the fundraising practices of their private counterparts. Traditionally, alumni giving was concentrated within large, wealthy, established, and reputable institutions; however, as the nation's higher education system has diversified, a broad range of institutions (e.g., community colleges to large public research universities) have begun to heavily invest in fundraising endeavors (Duronio, Loessin, & Borton, 1988). Additional institutional factors that have been demonstrated to encourage alumni philanthropy include value (e.g., direction, mission, size of endowment, and leadership), uniqueness (e.g., reputable niche programs), composition (e.g., size of library, number of graduate students, and percentage of faculty holding a doctoral degree), and strength of fundraising efforts (e.g., a strong chief development officer and a demonstrated history of gift solicitation) (Williams & Hendrickson, 1986; Young & Fischer, 1996).

The third factor associated with cultures of giving is participation. Cascione (2003) states that “the experience of a collegiate education comprises a number of facets, depending on both institutional and individual factors” (p. 56); therefore, in order to foster an atmosphere that is conducive for alumni giving, institutions must do their utmost to ensure that all students have a positive undergraduate experience. Leslie and Ramey (1988) take this one step further, arguing that self-esteem, altruism, connectivity to the institution post-graduation, and the economy also play a role in motivating donor gifts.

Kraus (1991) found that “the feeling that an alumna has for her college, the importance of the Alumni Association as a conduit of ideas and information, and the opinion of alumnae as to whether they should contribute and whether the school deserves their support stood out as strong predictors” for alumni giving (p. 160). Individuals that engage in extra-curricular activities, community service, and volunteerism during the course of their undergraduate studies may develop a stronger emotional bond with their alma maters than students who choose not to be involved.

Institutions may utilize this bond between engaged alumni and alma mater to their advantage. Previous studies have demonstrated that “students who are engaged in campus life are more likely to feel a stronger connection to the school once they become alumni” (Snyder, 2002, p. 65). Engaged alumni are crucial for the success of fundraising efforts, as high levels of involvement amongst both students and alumni serve to enhance long-term institutional support. Further, fundraising offices may look for a specific set of involvement factors in their attempt to identify long-term donors. These factors include

instances of past giving, membership in an alumni association, and donor perceptions of how they are treated by the institution after the gift was made (Kelly, 2002). By exploiting alumni involvement to their advantage, fundraising offices will secure a donor base that is committed to the long-term prosperity of their institutions.

The fourth factor associated with cultures of giving is community giving. Typically, analyses of the motivations behind charitable giving to colleges and universities are limited to donors with direct connections to the institutions in question. However, this assumption does not always hold true. Many of those who give to public colleges and universities are not alumni, but family members of alumni, fans of particular athletic programs, or concerned local citizens. Donors may also give so that “their children that are applying will receive additional consideration from the admissions committee” (Schimler, 2005, p. 167).

When soliciting gifts from non-alumni donors, it is important to recognize that fundraising efforts targeted at alumni may not prove to be as successful with non-alumni. Fink and Metzler (1982) argue “dealing primarily with non-alumni through advertising involves more visits, more persuasion, and perhaps less sentiment” (p. 55). These donors are less likely to have a strong emotional attachment to the institution and, as such, are more concerned with striking the best deal than giving out of a sense of obligation to their alma mater (Fink & Metzler, 1982). Although there are many reasons why non-alumni choose to give to specific colleges and universities, the associated institutional fundraising offices must recognize the gift and do their utmost to foster a continued positive relationship between donor and institution.

Altruism

Individual acts of philanthropy are often impacted by the culture of giving that has had the greatest impact upon the donor. However, another powerful motivating factor in charitable giving is altruism. Altruism is the assistance provided to others that results from purely non-egotistic motives (Davis, 1994). Philanthropic gifts motivated by the spirit of altruism are free from the conditions associated with other motivating factors. Altruistic donors make charitable gifts because they feel personally compelled to give. Schervish (1997) states that “charitable giving is largely a consequence of forging a connection between the existing inclinations and involvement of individuals and the needs of recipients” (p. 130). Fundraising professionals act as the intermediary between the donor and the recipient institution, ensuring that the donor is matched with an institutional entity (e.g., academic unit, student group, scholarship fund, etc.) that both mirrors the donor’s interest and may benefit greatly from philanthropic support.

While altruism is a powerful motivating factor in philanthropy, it is important to note that there is often an underlying factor behind the donation of a charitable gift. Flesch (2007) argues that ‘true altruism,’ or the purest form of altruism, “is by definition irrational... an act of true altruism abjures the optimal outcome and is therefore irrational” (p. 22). It is rare, if not impossible, to commit a philanthropic gift solely out of a concern for others. There is often an underlying factor (e.g., desire for public recognition, personal satisfaction, etc.) that pushes donors to make a gift. In order to be truly successful in their endeavors, fundraising professionals must fully understand the

spectrum of motivations that lead to philanthropic acts and establish a good rapport with donors.

Personal Recognition

The desire to help one's fellow man is a powerful motivating factor in the field of philanthropy. Altruism may be considered the ethical standard by which actions are assessed; as such, "is never far away from the moral and political assessments we make in everyday life" (Seglow, 2004, p. 1). However, additional psycho-social factors must also be considered when examining philanthropic motivations. Sherry (1983) states that philanthropic motivations may be broadly classified into two distinct categories: (1) altruistic (i.e., maximizing the pleasure of the recipient), or (2) agnostic (i.e., maximizing the pleasure of the donor). Beatty, Kahle, and Homer (1991) further validated this finding by finding that active donors gave either out of a genuine desire to help others or a personal interest in the public recognition generated via a philanthropic gift.

Philanthropic giving is often a product of a very personal decision-making process. Many of the gifts received by public colleges and universities are from individual donors. While large donors are often able to contribute without any adverse affect on their financial bottom lines, it is often much more difficult for individual donors (especially young alumni) to part with any financial resource. As such, institutions must do their utmost to demonstrate to all donors that a gift is both important and appreciated. Private or personal donor recognition may include personal thank-you notes, public recognition of service to the institution, and dedication of a physical space or scholarship in the donor's name (Daubert, 2009; Cascione, 2003; Moore & Philbin, 2005). Not every

donor may require institutional recognition of their gift; as such, fundraising offices must be diligent in identifying the preferences of each donor and act accordingly once the gift is received.

Memorials

Another motivating factor that must be considered when examining charitable giving is the memorial. Gifts made *in memoriam* afford donors the opportunity to express their own philanthropic desires, but in honor of an individual to whom they feel a strong affinity. Silber (1998) notes that "innumerable donations are made 'in memory' of a (usually deceased) close relative, and with the double intent of not only contributing to a specific cause or organization, but also somehow perpetuating his or her memory" (p. 144). Memorials are often a desirable philanthropic practice as they both accomplish the goal of the donor and leave a lasting tribute to the honoree.

It is important to note that memorials may not always honor individuals; they may honor the memory of an event or experience as well. Cascione (2003) reminds us that private philanthropy is often fueled by personal emotion: "the memory of previous experiences of generosity compelled many... major donors to reciprocate for what they have received" (p. 69). Donors may give because they had previously benefitted from an act of kindness and wanted to pay that generosity forward. Conversely, donors may give because they had been precluded from achieving a goal due to circumstances beyond their control (e.g., financially unable to obtain a postsecondary degree, institutional segregation, etc.). Memorials serve as a powerful method to honor the memory of an individual or event and ensure future recognition of the motivation behind a gift.

Tax Breaks

Tax breaks serve as an opportunity for individuals to give charitably while simultaneously recouping some financial benefit. These are an added incentive that may turn occasional donors into lifelong philanthropists. Monroe (1996) argues that "tax breaks and duty can encourage charitable giving among people who might otherwise not give" (p. 168). Although it may not be the purest form of altruism, financial incentives may serve to push those who want to give but are hesitant to finally make a gift. Fundraising professionals must always be aware of the prevailing tax rates as they influence both the overall cost of giving and the amount of capital that donors have to invest. This is especially important for those who advocate for public higher education. State legislatures play an important role in the encouragement of private giving by keeping tax rates high, thus lowering the actual price of giving and creating a greater incentive to give (Abramson, Salamon, & Steuerle, 2006).

Community-Based Giving

Although financial incentives (e.g., tax breaks) often play an important role in philanthropy, perhaps a more important motivating factor behind charitable giving is community-based giving. This type of giving differs from altruism in that it is specifically targeted at an individual institution. Those who engage in community-based giving may not be alumni of particular colleges or universities, but feel compelled to give because they are members of the community in which the institutions are located. Silber (1998) notes that "there is evidence that individual giving is not only shaped by totally idiosyncratic tastes and preferences, but also by the religious, ethnic, or even economic

and professional group to which the individual belongs or with which they choose to identify" (p. 144).

Although it is widely assumed that there are significant differences in alumni and non-alumni giving patterns, past research has indicated that these patterns are actually quite similar. Both alumni and non-alumni respond positively to institutional academic and athletic success, but fluctuations in these do not always impact giving patterns (Stinson & Howard, 2007; Zimbalist, 2006). Only slight variations were found in the scope of giving; on average, non-alumni give larger gifts than alumni, but on a less frequent basis (Stinson & Howard, 2007).

Community-based giving first rose to prominence in the United States during the early twentieth century. The United Way, realizing the importance of maintaining a strong donor network, began to pool its charitable gifts into a large fund that would be used to finance projects within communities (Gary & Kohner, 2002). The popularity of community-based giving remained strong during the sixties and became especially important by the end of the twentieth century as state and local governments dramatically curtailed funding for social programs. This type of philanthropy continues to afford donors an opportunity to directly support local programs that they consider vital to the community. Whether giving to a college or university, a foundation, or a grassroots organization, the desire to improve one's own community is a powerful motivating factor in the conducting of private philanthropy.

Emergence of Student Philanthropy

Individuals who choose to engage in charitable giving do so for a variety of reasons, from a familial commitment to philanthropy to a personal desire to serve those within a community. While it is crucial for fundraising professionals to have a firm understanding of the motivations behind giving, it is equally important to ensure that the notion of private philanthropy is introduced to prospective donors at an early age. This is perhaps most apropos of students enrolled in an undergraduate course of study. It has already been established that alumni comprise a substantive percentage of donors to colleges and universities; however, less attention has been paid to the phenomenon of student philanthropy.

Traditionally, institutional fundraising offices have been reluctant to focus their efforts on student donors. Students were expected to be 'institutional boosters' by contributing to their class gift, drumming up school spirit (especially at athletic and community-based events), and solicit annual gifts from alumni (Elliott, 2006). Many practitioners within the field operated under the assumption that students were not the prime solicitation target as they would give back to their alma maters, but only when they were firmly established post-graduation and had adequate financial resources. However, as institutional budgets began to contract in the late twentieth century, alumni gifts (regardless of size) became to be viewed as important sources of alternative institutional revenue. As such, it is imperative that institutional fundraising offices identify and cultivate potential donors at the undergraduate level. By fostering a student's sense of

connection to the institution, it is hoped that students will eventually become lifelong donors to their alma maters.

Students as Donors

While countless fundraising efforts across the country have student development and achievement as the desired final outcome, few have actively sought to solicit active student participation. Provenzo and Renaud (2009) argue that it is important to include students in discussions regarding educational philanthropy, as "fundraising can also be seen from the perspective of student giving rather than receiving, through programs that encourage student philanthropy" (p. 356). As interest in the field of student philanthropy has grown exponentially since the late twentieth century, private donors have begun to dedicate their financial support to programs that actively include students in philanthropic endeavors. Private foundations have also played a major role in advocating for student philanthropy; between 1988 and 2003, the W. K. Kellogg Foundation contributed over \$100 million in grants to "fund and engage students in social, civic, and community building through volunteerism and philanthropy" (Provenzo & Renaud, 2009, p. 356).

The funds provided by the W. K. Kellogg Foundation and other foundations enable fundraising professionals, educators, and institutional leaders to impart the importance of philanthropy upon the student body. It is crucial for students to understand that philanthropy is more than simply making a financial donation; it also encompasses donation's of one's time, effort, talent, and support. Like many traditional service-learning models, student philanthropy affords students an opportunity to become civically-engaged lifelong philanthropists without disrupting their academic experiences

(Codispoti, 2004). The topic of philanthropy may be introduced to students at all points within the educational spectrum as well. Outreach efforts may be tailored to match the needs of students at all levels, from community service projects at elementary schools (e.g., mentoring partnership with local nursing homes) to service learning projects at colleges and universities (e.g., advocacy projects aimed at informing local communities about pressing issues).

Student-Institutional Connectivity

One of the potential benefits of exposing students to philanthropy at an early age is the establishment of a lifelong commitment to charitable giving. Student philanthropy is a powerful tool in fostering an appreciation for civic engagement as it allows the participant to fully comprehend the causality between private giving and the helping of others. Each student brings his or her unique perspective and personal experiences to the practice of philanthropy; as such, it is important to remind students that philanthropy encompasses much more than a simple monetary transaction between two parties (i.e., donor and recipient). Kelly (1998) urges fundraising offices to consistently reinforce the notion that "fundraising is not begging, unsavory manipulation, or part of metaphysical phenomena, but identifying, building, and maintaining relationships with individuals, corporations, and foundations who, characteristically, give away money" (p. 41).

Many colleges and universities across the nation have been hesitant to implement student philanthropy programs as charitable giving is still seen as solely reserved for alumni financial contributions. However, some institutions have made great strides in encouraging student participation in philanthropic endeavors. The Mayerson Student

Philanthropy Project at Northern Kentucky University encourages students to expand their notion of self by becoming actively involved with local community organizations. Students are tasked (via course curricula) with identifying a pressing need within the community, partner with civic leaders to design a course of action, encourage organizations to apply for Project-associated grants, and assess outcomes post-implementation (Ferrante, 2008). It is hoped that participation in this project will instill an appreciation for philanthropy and civic engagement in students that will last throughout the course of their lives.

Perhaps the most visible example of student philanthropy in action is the Penn State IFC/Panhellenic Dance Marathon. The Dance Marathon, colloquially referred to as "THON," is reportedly the largest student-run philanthropy in the world. Established in 1973 by 68 members of the Penn State Greek community, THON raised approximately \$2,000 for a local non-profit organization. By 2010, THON has grown to encompass "more than 300 Captains, 700 dancers, 3,300 Committee Members, and 15,000 student volunteers," raising more than \$7.8 million in private donations (*THON: Penn State*, 2010). All proceeds generated through THON are donated to the Four Diamonds Fund, a pediatric cancer foundation headquartered at the Penn State Hershey Children's Hospital (Freedman & Feldman, 2007).

Due to the significant investment of time, talent, and treasure necessary to stage a successful event, THON has garnered a quasi-religious reputation amongst the Penn State student body. In fact, for many students, THON is the ultimate embodiment of their undergraduate experience; it helped to foster their sense of belongingness to the

institution (Deuink & Seiler, 2009). This spirit of connectivity to one's alma mater plays an important role in creation of a culture of student philanthropy. This connection is first established when the student accepts an offer of admission, is heavily fostered while the student is completing a course of student, and continued after graduation. Institutions must remain in continuous contact with alumni in order to find success in their fundraising efforts; if not, alumni may take offense at solicitations for philanthropic support and may be unaware of the contemporary challenges facing the institution (Bee, 2001).

The inclusion of both current students and alumni in philanthropic endeavors is crucial in ensuring an institution's long-term survivability. Feters, Greene, and Rice (2010) argue that the individual components of a college or university act as a unique ecosystem in which each unit is both responsible for and reliant upon others in order to function successfully: "they serve as resources for case writing, campus panels, speakers at receptions and admissions tours, affinity groups based on entrepreneurship, investors and board members for student-generated businesses" (pp. 28-29). Alumni also serve as philanthropic role models for students, sharing stories about their own personal giving experiences, how their undergraduate education prepared them to become donors, and how students may become philanthropically engaged while still completing their studies.

Emergence of the 'Engaged Alumnus/a'

Institutions may encounter a great deal of difficulty in meeting their fundraising goals without the inclusion of alumni, students, and supportive non-alumni in their endeavors. In order to combat potential donor apathy, fundraising professionals may

utilize one of the most effective weapons in their arsenal: institutional connectivity. Caboni and Eiseman (2003) state that “identification with an alumnus’s alma mater might explain the connection between institutional loyalty, emotional attachment, and alumni giving” (p. 6). This sentiment is echoed by Snyder (2002), who notes that “the partnerships facilitated between student and alumni programs have benefits for sponsoring institutions... these programs provide opportunities to expose currently enrolled students to the behavior and actions of involved alumni (p. 66). By observing the philanthropic actions of alumni, it is hoped that students will model this behavior in their own lives.

Institutional leaders also play an important role in the creation of an engaged alumni population. Previous research has indicated that students that are satisfied with their undergraduate educational experience are more likely to become loyal and engaged alumni (Mullen, 2007, p. 199). Therefore, institutional leaders must ensure that existing student support services are both functional and successful in their operation. Public colleges and universities may implement programs aimed at developing an engaged student-alumni population, including alumni relations liaisons within student affairs divisions and young alumni engagement coordinators tasked with fostering institutional connectivity within the student body (Rissmeyer, 2010).

There are a multitude of strategies that institutions may use to help establish a network of engaged alumni. Offering a paid one-year membership to an alumni association to all graduating students assists in the maintenance of a direct link between young alumni and their alma maters; this is further solidified if a reduced membership

rate is offered at the conclusion of the first year. Further, alumni may serve as volunteer mentors for undergraduate students, affording students (especially those from disadvantaged socioeconomic backgrounds) an opportunity to shadow alumni that are currently employed within a field of interest (Gupton, Castilo-Rodriguez, Martinez, & Quintanar, 2009). As with any endeavor within the field of higher education, the chances for success in institutional philanthropy are dependent upon expectations. Extremely high expectations for success with little practical support are doomed to failure. However, by actively engaging both current students and alumni, institutional efforts may go a long way if engagement, connectivity, charitable giving, and strengthening the institutional community are the ultimate goals (De Wolf, 2010).

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The theoretical framework for this study is grounded in the research identified in the literature review. In this section, a collection of interrelated concepts will be presented to the reader that will inform the terms and relationships in which the research questions are formulated and solved. The theoretical framework helps to guide the research, determine what will be measured, and what statistical relationships will be examined. It functions as a window through which the researcher may establish a vantage point into the perspective or set of lenses that will be used to examine the topic in question. The following section provides a conceptual foundation for exploring how higher education institutions may use research to their advantage in influencing their future philanthropic endeavors.

Prosocial Behavior

The first component of the theoretical framework used in this study is prosocial behavior. Shaffer (2009) broadly defines prosocial behavior as “any action that is intended to benefit other people” (p. 325). Although altruism and prosocial behavior are two terms that are often used interchangeably, distinct differences do exist. Eisenberg and Mussen (1989) argue that altruism is a type of prosocial behavior that is intrinsically motivated (p. 3). It is important to note that there are a multitude of other motivations that may influence prosocial behavior (e.g., fear of punishment, peer pressure, etc.). Professional fundraisers may use this knowledge to their advantage by creating philanthropic efforts specifically targeted to each type of donor.

Prosocial behavior also plays an important role in the ways in which individual donors may be identified and cultivated by institutional fundraising offices. Previous research has shown that self-reflective thinking and moral reasoning develops as a person matures (Eisenberg, Miller, Shell, McNalley, & Shea, 1994). Young children and adolescents rely upon extrinsic forces to assist in their personal ethical development; as such, adults play a crucial role in establishing preferable standards of moral behavior. This type of behavior may be taught through a variety of methods, including direct teaching, positive reinforcement, and behavioral modeling (Musser & Leone, 1992; Rushton, 1982).

The direct teaching of prosocial behavior enables the student to learn by receiving a verbal instruction instead of observing the actions of others (Musser & Leone, 1992). Previous studies have demonstrated that parents who explicitly demand prosocial

behavior from their children are more likely to have children who exhibit prosocial behavior (Bryant & Crockenberg, 1980; Olejnik & McKinney, 1973). Similarly, the social reinforcement of prosocial behavior (e.g., praise and attention) has been shown to be especially effective if it comes from a warm, nurturing person that exhibits prosocial behavior themselves (Yarrow, Scott, & Waxler, 1973). Children begin to view this behavior as 'good,' and then attempt to act altruistically accordingly.

Further, having the ability to observe a role model and rehearse their actions in the model's presence is another effective way for children and young adults to learn prosocial behavior (Musser & Leone, 1992). While physically observing a philanthropic role model in action is a powerful method of learning behavior, verbal modeling (e.g., models describe how they intend to act behaviorally) is an equally important tool in the philanthropist's arsenal. By becoming active within a campus community (e.g., participation in an institutional-based mentoring program), alumni are able to model philanthropic behavior amongst the student body. It is hoped that this behavior will then be learned and modeled by students, thus resulting in the creation of a culture of student philanthropy.

It is important to note, however, that institutional fundraising offices may not encounter similar levels of success with extrinsic behavioral influences while working with adult populations. Unlike young children and adolescents, adults begin their undergraduate studies with a firmly established ethical code. Kohlberg (1973) argues that moral reasoning is divided into three sequential levels: (1) preconventional, (2) conventional, and (3) postconventional. The majority of adults fall into the conventional

level, in which individuals are concerned with how they appear to others and obedience to established laws (Kendall, 2010). Institutional fundraising efforts that appeal to donors' established intrinsic values are sure to find success.

Although there are many extrinsic factors that motivate donors to give (e.g., small gifts, invitations to campus activities, listing of names in annual reports, and belief that alumni participation will increase institutional reputation), intrinsic factors may play an equally important role in soliciting philanthropic support (Drezner, 2008; Worth, 2002). Factors that play to traditional notions of social justice, fairness, and equality (e.g., alumni giving to a scholarship fund that helps others attend college) may appeal more to those donors more concerned with student success than institutional rank (Harbaugh, 1998). Intrinsic motivation may also be used to encourage increased student philanthropy. Rushton (1982) notes that active participation within an organization that practices philanthropy regularly directly influences a student's identity, thus leading to increased prosocial behavior.

While both extrinsic and intrinsic factors are important in the fostering of cultures of giving, true success in higher education-based philanthropy may lie in the consistency of message presented to institutional stakeholders. The choice to give (or not to give) to an alma mater is strongly influenced by one's own personal experiences; however, this issue is much more difficult for undergraduate students. Often, they feel as if they do not possess the knowledge, experience, skills, or funds necessary to engage in philanthropy. The direct teaching of prosocial behavior, positive reinforcement, and behavioral modeling all enable fundraising professionals to 'plant a seed' of charitable giving

amongst the student body, an important first step in the creation of a culture of student philanthropy.

Continuity plays an important role in higher education philanthropy; those who have made gifts in the past are most likely to repeat that behavior in the future (Cascione, 2003; Lindahl & Winship, 1992; Worth, 2002). Therefore, in order to establish a strong network of life-long philanthropists (i.e., a 'community of donors'), institutions must ensure that they are doing their utmost to promote student philanthropy amongst their student bodies. Prosocial behavior is the foundation upon which many fundraising efforts are built; however, there are additional factors that must be considered when embarking upon new institutional fundraising campaigns.

Relationship Marketing and Social Exchange Theory

Although a thorough understanding of the prosocial behaviors influencing charitable giving is vital in the creation of a donor pipeline, fundraising professionals must also possess a working familiarity with theories from a variety of disciplines. These theories serve as the conceptual foundations for many unique fundraising efforts. As technology evolves and markets experienced increased deregulation, non-profit organizations around the world have been forced to compete more for dwindling resources. American colleges and universities are not immune from this trend. The reduction in public funding for higher education has led to a pseudo-Cold War in institutional fundraising, a world in which institutions consistently vie for the best students, the best faculty, and the best facilities.

The new complex relationships between institutions, their stakeholders, and the general public are perhaps best conceptualized in the theory of relationship marketing. Drezner (2008) defines relationship marketing as "the idea of establishing long-term relationships with alumni in order to maintain their loyalty, involvement, and donations" (p. 25). Institutions may use relationship marketing to their advantage by considering donors as customers. Customers exchange funds for goods or service; if a positive return on investment is received, customers are likely to remain loyal to a specific brand for the rest of their lives. This sentiment is in alignment with Cascione (2003) and Worth (2002), who argue that those who have established a giving relationship are more likely to give continuously.

Institutional fundraising offices must exercise great caution when establishing relationships with new donors. As these individuals tend to be loyal to one specific institution, a solid case must be made as to why a college or university is most deserving of their support. By familiarizing themselves with relationship marketing theory, fundraising professionals will be able to focus on the purpose of the relationship, the value of the relationship to the customer, customer loyalty and satisfaction, and, ultimately, long-term profitability. It must always be remembered that philanthropic fundraising is all about people, and a fundamental understanding of what donors want must always lie at the heart of any institutional-donor relationship (Sargeant & Jay, 2004).

Payne, Christopher, Clark, & Peck (1999) use relationship theory as the basis for their 'six markets' model. In this model, six unique markets must all work in unison in

order to meet the needs of the customer: (1) referral markets, (2) internal markets, (3) recruitment markets, (4) influence markets, (5) supplier markets, and (6) customer markets (see Figure 2.1). As customer marketing is directly linked to profitability, organizations use referrals (e.g., recommendations from satisfied customers), employee buy-in, their own clout, and ability to spread their message to recruit new customers (i.e., donors) to their doorstep. The management of relationships between each market may "contribute to or, if badly managed, impede overall marketplace performance and competitiveness" (p. 6).

The six markets framework

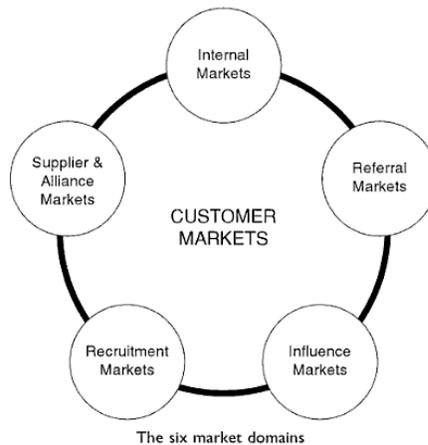


Figure 2.1. The six markets framework for relationship marketing. Adapted from "Relationship Marketing for Competitive Advantage: Winning and Keeping Customers" by A. Payne, M. Christopher, M. Clark, and H. Peck, 1999, p. 1. Copyright 1999 by Butterworth-Heinemann.

Although the six markets framework was originally developed for use by private industry, it has major implications for the field of higher education philanthropy. In order to be successful in their endeavors, institutional fundraising offices must navigate a complicated network of interconnected networks between donors and organizations. However, by paying careful attention to the needs of customers, strong relationships will begin to form between donors and the recipient charities. The establishment of these bonds is especially important for long-term giving, as donor loyalty is a major contributing factor in the shift away from single gifts and into planned giving (McKinnon, 1999).

Relationship marketing theory explores the business connections between donors and organizations; however, it does not explain the psycho-social perspective present in interpersonal relationships. Payne, Christopher, Clark, and Peck (1999) argue that "the world is a buyers' market, where increasingly discerning customers are freer than ever to select from their global marketplace" (p. 2). Therefore, institutions must consistently reinforce the message that the rewards associated with charitable giving are worth the cost. Through the possession of a valuable resource, donors gain increased social capital. They are able to decide which organization is (or is not) worthy of their gift. Within a social exchange, the rewards associated with prosocial behaviors (e.g., charitable giving) are positively reinforced, thus culminating in increased social value (Emerson, 1976).

Social exchange has had an especially profound impact upon the bonds between alumni and their alma maters. Kelly (2002) notes that, "based on social-exchange theory, the mixed motive model of giving describes two levels of donor motivation: (1) raising

the amount of common good, and (2) receiving some private good in return" (p. 46). The social exchange model is replacing altruistic donations as donors explicitly identify what they will give in exchange for certain items, tokens, or honors. While this concept may receive mixed reviews from alumni and development programs, "research shows young alumni are looking for the benefit that comes from involvement" (Bee, 2001, p. 174). The divergent motivations for charitable giving that are present within social exchange theory (e.g., those who give much expect to receive much in return) are consistent with the extrinsic and intrinsic motivations influencing prosocial behavior that were previously discussed in this chapter (Drezner, 2008; Harbaugh, 1998; Homans, 1958).

Social Identity Theory and Organizational Identification

The previous two sections provide a thorough explanation of how personal attitudes (i.e., prosocial behavior) and the desire to find the value in a charitable gift (i.e., exchange theory) play important roles in the management of institutional fundraising efforts. However, in order to fully comprehend donor motivation, an examination of how individuals choose the recipient of their gift must also be conducted. Sargeant and Shang (2010) note that there are three theoretical traditions in the human experience of identification: (1) social-category-based identification, (2) group-attraction-based identification, and (3) organization-based identification. Proponents of these theories strongly believe that personal identity often expands far beyond the physical boundaries of the person and encompasses many social and environmental factors, including organizational affiliation.

It is important to note that "simply recognizing that one belongs to a social category does not guarantee that an individual will adopt that identity;" in order to accomplish this task, one must integrate that ability with their own self-concept (Sargeant & Shang, 2010; Turner, 1981). Institutional fundraisers must consider the different identities that may be important to donors and influential in their decision to support a particular college or university. Fundraisers may also use this opportunity to thoroughly discuss each identity, why they are important, and how donors will find satisfaction in their gift (Sargeant & Shang, 2010). While donors may be initially motivated to give for one particular reason (e.g., personal interest in a charitable cause), they may encounter other motivations that further encourage their charitable giving (e.g., a broadened sense of civic engagement). These additional benefits will enhance the donor's loyalty to an organization and lead to the creation of a long-term donor-recipient relationship.

Group-attraction-based identification takes the notion of social identification one step further by arguing that some donors may be most strongly influenced to give due to their identification with different sets of communities or groups (Sargeant & Shang, 2008). In higher education philanthropy, donors may identify with the institution, the city or state in which the institution is located, a specific academic department, current and/or former students, institutional personnel (especially those regarded as role models), or with fellow donors (Sargeant & Shang, 2010). Mael and Ashforth (1992) note that the statements "I am a student at..." or "I am an alumnus of..." are excellent examples of organizational identification. Group identification develops through shared emotional bonds between members and, ultimately, influences the individual's overall perception of

their collegiate experience. Fundraising professionals must consider what it means to be a member of a particular group and create specific solicitation efforts that play to the values and behaviors that are most important to each group.

Social identity theory indicates that individuals choose to affiliate with organizations that best reflect their personal values and will support those institutions with which they identify most (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). Organizational identification is directly influenced by aspects of both the institution and the donor, resulting in an 'organizational' motivation to support a specific college or university. Previous studies have suggested that, "while alumni like their alma maters, most remain apathetic and uninvolved" (Reichley, 1977; Spaeth & Greeley, 1970). The increased reliance upon private giving as a significant alternative source of institutional funding has made the fostering of organizational identification a key component of higher education fundraising.

In order to provide institutional leaders with a framework for influencing the behaviors of their constituents, Mael and Ashforth (1992) proposed correlates of organizational identification that directly influence individual support for organizations. These correlates (see Figure 2.2) assume that "alumni identification with their alma mater will predict such behaviors as making financial contributions to the alma mater, advising offspring and others to attend the alma mater, and participating in alumni and general institutional functions" (Mael & Ashforth, 1992, p. 109).

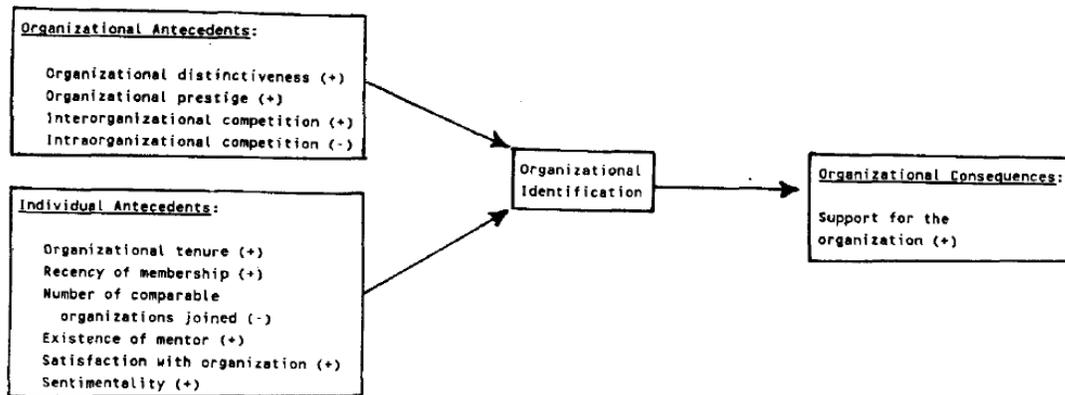


Figure 2.2. Proposed correlates of organizational identification. Adapted from "Alumni and Their Alma Mater: A Partial Test of the Reformulated Model of Organizational Identification" by F. Mael & B.E. Ashforth, 1992, *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 13, p. 107. Copyright 1992 by John Wiley & Sons.

Using this framework as a foundation for a study of alumni perceptions of their alma maters, Mael and Ashforth (1992) found that "individuals who identify with the organization are apt to support the organization in various ways, and that identification can be encouraged through various means" (p. 117). Institutional leaders may manipulate various aspects of institutional culture (e.g., symbols, traditions, rituals, myths, and physical setting) to provide alumni with a compelling image of what the organization represents (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). Various organizational antecedents (e.g., distinctiveness and reputation) were shown to positively influence organizational identification, while competition within an institution for alumni identity and participation has a negative impact (Mael & Ashworth, 1992). Further, individual characteristics (e.g., length of time spent at an institution, the existence of a mentor, and

satisfaction with an organization) play an equally important role in developing individual connections to organizations (Mael & Ashworth, 1992).

Mael and Ashworth's (1992) findings appear to be in congruence with research that has been conducted within the field of higher education philanthropy. Burdenski (2003) notes that an institution's "historical reputation for excellence, combined with an annual giving program that has carefully and deliberately established a culture of volunteer commitment, produces volunteers who often ask to be involved and donate significant amounts of time helping the program reach its fundraising goals" (p. 73). Student involvement also appears to play a significant role in charitable giving; alumni engaged in philanthropic activities while undergraduate students are more likely to give than those who did not participate in similar activities (Elliott, 2006; Gaier, 2005; Snyder, 2002). Additional factors include the economic success of alumni, emotional connection to one's alma mater, and overall happiness with the undergraduate experience (Cascione, 2003; Drezner, 2008; Gaier, 2005; Spaeth & Greeley, 1970).

Fundraising Theories on Donor Motivation

Although many factors play important roles in influencing institutional fundraising efforts, few are as fundamental to the profession as donor motivation. Broadly stated, donor motivation "encompasses the entire operation from goal identification to gift solicitation" (Broce, 1986, p. 27). However, while it is crucial for fundraising professionals to fully comprehend the reasons why donors give, much of the literature written on this topic has not been grounded in theory (Schervish, 1997). Many of these texts fail to address the "human dynamic" of giving; little attention is paid to

donor motivation and is often focused solely on annual giving (Sargeant & Shang, 2010). The careful examination of donor motivation and the theoretical foundations of successful fundraising efforts "will allow practitioners to enhance their fundraising programs, expanding them to new prospect pools by better understanding how donors choose to participate prosocially" (Drezner, 2008).

In order to find success in their efforts, fundraising professionals must always carefully consider the reasons why donors give and tailor their efforts to reflect these motives (Sargeant & Jay, 2004). Successful gifts are those that balance donor motivation with proper institutional cultivation and solicitation. Charitable giving is strongly influenced by both intrinsic and extrinsic factors, including egotism, desire to help those of limited means, repayment of past debts, belief in institutional mission, and a desire to buy social prestige (Cascione, 2003; Pezzullo & Brittingham, 1993). Grace (2005), however, offers a word of caution when considering donor motivation in the acceptance of a private gift: "the motivation of individuals and institutions who seek recognition and/or benefit to themselves from making a major or stretch gift should be examined against the standards and values of the organization" (p. 132). There is no harm in accepting a gift provided that the motivation behind the gift is genuine and has a positive impact upon the institutional community.

Institutional fundraising offices must never ridicule or denigrate donors for the motivating factors behind their gifts (Grace, 2005). Instead, they are obligated to link specific types of motivation to areas within the institution that may be of interest to the donor and in need of philanthropic support. Cascione (2003) notes that many donors that

have a strong desire to repay their alma maters based on the support they received during their undergraduate studies may be most inclined to endow an academic scholarship or fellowship. Similarly, those students lucky enough to have a faculty member serve as a role model should be directed to programs that facilitate student-faculty collaboration (Cascione, 2003).

Peacock (2007) argues that donor solicitation efforts must also "invoke principles that summon and respect individuality" (p. 20). As such, the designation of a private gift should ultimately rest with the donor (unless they designate that authority to the institution). While many donors may view philanthropy as a linear process (i.e., a charitable gift is a basic transaction between two parties), it is important to remind donors that philanthropy may instead be viewed as a "network of continuous overlapping cycles" (Newman, 2002, p. 22). The philanthropic process incorporates the intrinsic/extrinsic factors that influence the decision to make a gift (i.e., prosocial behavior), the perceived and actualized benefits associated with giving (i.e., relationship marketing and social exchange), the donor's continued connectedness to the institution (i.e., organizational identification), and the various motivations that lead to the size, scope, composition, and destination of the gift (i.e., donor motivation). By obtaining a firm understanding of each component of the process, institutional professionals are sure to find increased success in all of their endeavors.

Summary

The research contained within this chapter is grounded in literature concerning philanthropy within the field of higher education, as well as theoretical frameworks that

have been borrowed from fields outside of education, including psychology, sociology, and marketing. The evolution of institutional fundraising within the United States (including the development of institutional fundraising as a profession) underscores the importance of this study, as much of the everyday practice of institutional fundraisers remains devoid of theory. Numerous factors that contribute to private giving were discussed, with careful consideration given to those individual and institutional factors that positively correlate to institutional philanthropy. The next chapter, the methodology, will focus directly on both the research design and the constructs underlying this study.

Chapter 3: Methodology

Never doubt that a small group of thoughtful, committed citizens can change the world. Indeed, it is the only thing that ever has.

-Margaret Mead

ANALYTICAL FRAMEWORK

One of the greatest challenges faced by the Author in the earliest planning stages of his study was the decision as to which research methodology would be used in guiding this study. It was decided that the first step would be an examination of the methodologies of past studies that focused upon higher education philanthropy. While conducting this research, the Author discovered that a majority of these studies utilized qualitative methodologies. Social scientists often choose to conduct these types of studies as they provide additional layers of richness to data that may not be generated through strict numerical tabulation and analysis (Ten Have, 2004). These studies allow for greater flexibility in the research design, provide data that may not have been considered by the researcher, and minimize socially desirable responses (Mariampolski, 2001; Soriano, 1995). Ragin (1994) bolsters this position by noting that "most quantitative data techniques are data condensers and qualitative methods, by contrast, are best understood as data enhancers" (p. 92).

Quantitative Analyses

It is clear that there are a plethora of benefits associated with qualitative analyses. However, while one particular methodology may be utilized with more frequency than others, it does not mean that it is appropriate for every study. It is the responsibility of each individual researcher to decide which methodology best suits the scope and goals of his or her particular research project. After careful consideration, the Author decided that a quantitative methodology is best suited in accomplishing the goals of his study. While there is tremendous benefit in affording participants an opportunity to provide responses in their own voices, quantitative analyses allow researchers to aggregate data and produce results that may be generalized to a broader population. Quantitative methodologies may also be used by researchers to forgo descriptive statistics by focusing upon analytic statistics, or those that use "probabilistic methods in order to test hypotheses, analyze the strength of relationships, determine trends over time, and make predictions for future... behavior" (Mariampolski, 2001, p. 22).

The roots of quantitative analysis lie in the works of the seventeenth century French philosopher René Descartes. Descartes, a prolific author, mathematician, and physicist, argued that the elimination of corruption and the presence of evidence were the only means of achieving the truth (Snape & Spencer, 2003). This philosophy was expanded upon by many of history's greatest philosophers (e.g., Newton, Bacon, Hume, Comte, Kant, and Weber) and would, ultimately, serve as the foundation of scientific inquiry within the social sciences. By the early twentieth century, "survey research methods... became more widespread and quantitative researchers were increasingly

influenced by positivism, modeling their approach on the methods of the natural sciences" (Snape & Spencer, 2003, p. 8). The increased emphasis placed upon positivism (i.e., an epistemological perspective that advocates for the utilization of the scientific method in analyzing physical occurrences) resulted in its ascension as the dominant paradigm within academic research.

Before proceeding further, it is important to note that not all academic researchers embraced positivism. Many challenges to traditional quantitative analyses were launched throughout the late twentieth century, especially from adherents to burgeoning qualitative perspectives (e.g., post-structuralism, deconstruction, critical theory, and feminism). The rejection of positivism (and the concept of a definitive explanation, in particular) created a crisis for social researchers; as there are no fixed meanings, it is virtually impossible for a researcher to give a definitive account of their experiences or the experiences of others (Angrosino, 2005; Snape & Spencer, 2003). The debate over the merit of quantitative and qualitative methodologies continued to grow unabated well into the new millennium, as proponents of each methodology exerted much energy in their attempts to discredit the scientific rigor of the other.

The discord that has become commonplace within academic research is, in the Author's opinion, antithetical to the historic mission of the nation's public colleges and universities. Instead of wasting valuable resources in attempts to advocate for one methodology over another, researchers within the field of higher education should recognize the benefits associated with each methodology and use those to compliment the other's efforts. Compromise is key in ensuring the continued survival of higher education

research, and one potential methodological compromise appears to be especially promising: multiple methods research. A multiple methods approach allows researchers to "combine methods not only to gain their individual strengths, but also to compensate for their particular faults and limitations" (Brewer & Hunter, 1989, pp. 16-17). Although some researchers may argue that quantitative and qualitative methodologies are mutually exclusive, proponents of a mixed methodology counter that, "since... both offer views of the same world, they may turn up the same findings and usefully reinforce one another" (Kratwohl, 2004, p. 619).

A Post-Positivist Approach

The multiple methods approach holds tremendous promise in bridging existing gaps between quantitative and qualitative researchers. It may prove to be especially apropos in studies in which the survey instrument may be refined through conducting personal interviews. While the Author strongly advocates for consideration of multiple methods research, he chose to utilize a slightly different approach in the design of his study. Instead of melding quantitative and qualitative methodologies, this study is quantitative in nature. However, it is designed from a post-positivist perspective. The Author chose this perspective as it accepts the scientific method, but rejects the rigidity of classical positivism; for post-positivists, "the scientific method is a way of objectively learning about the external world" (Willis, 2007, p. 96).

Post-positivism is grounded in the belief that knowledge is not based upon unchangeable foundations, but on human conjecture (i.e., a proposition that appears to be true and has not yet been disproven) (Groff, 2004; Zammato, 2004). This approach has

been heavily influenced by the works of Karl Popper and Thomas Kuhn, two vocal critics of classical positivism. Both Popper and Kuhn focus their critiques of positivism on the belief that it is unrealistic to expect researchers to completely exclude their own values, beliefs, and interests from their research activities. Phillips and Burbules (2000) echo the notion that research efforts should balance scientific inquiry and human nature, noting that:

"What protects science from intrusion by nonepistemically relevant values is the fact that science is organized as a communal activity, with a tradition of open inquiry and discussion, of replication, of peer review, and so forth... it is the openness of work to criticism that is the best (though not perfect) safeguard that we have that errors, assumptions, values, and biases will get rooted out and exposed to the light for discussion." (p. 60)

The structure of this study was firmly grounded within a post-positivist frame. However, unlike studies that utilize a classical quantitative methodology, the methodology utilized in this study afforded the Author some flexibility in identifying and addressing potential challenges, limitations, and biases. Further, this study addressed a void in the existing body of knowledge by examining contemporary issues within higher education philanthropy through a unique analytical lens. Drezner (2008) notes that "much of the philanthropic literature, both in and out of higher education, is primarily based on large-scale quantitative surveys and does not focus on how young alumni

choose to make their first gifts to an institution" (p. 50). This study attempted to bridge this gap by utilizing a quantitative methodology to explore young alumni attitudes toward institutional philanthropic efforts. The Author believed that the methodological design of the study would, ultimately, prove to be beneficial as it provides a fresh analytical perspective on a topic that has rapidly evolved into one of the most pressing issues within the field of higher education.

Research Questions

Havens, O'Herlihy, and Schervish (2006) note that "there are areas of philanthropy where more quantitative research needs to be done on trends and patterns in charitable giving" (p. 562). This study sought to address this shortage of quantitative data by exploring the roles that a specific stakeholder group (i.e., young alumni) play in institutional fundraising efforts. Individual stakeholders were asked to reflect upon their own philanthropic experiences and suggest how those may better inform institutional practices. The research questions that guided this study are:

1. Are there any sets of common characteristics (e.g., demographics, type of giving, level of giving, etc.) that identify philanthropically active (or inactive) alumni?
2. Does participation in co-curricular activities at the undergraduate level encourage greater philanthropic activity after graduation?
3. Does engaging in philanthropic activities while an undergraduate student increase the likelihood that one will become a philanthropically active alumnus/a?

4. Is there a correlation between strength and type of affiliation with an institution and the level of philanthropic activity?
5. Does a positive undergraduate experience increase the likelihood of increased philanthropic activity among alumni?

RESEARCH DESIGN

There are many important aspects of the design of a study that must be carefully considered and finalized before a researcher may begin to actively collect and analyze data. Miller and Salkind (2002) state that, "when selecting a problem for possible research consideration, the complete research design and all its elements must be considered and formally evaluated... the choice of a research design is of great importance because it influences all the outcomes of the study" (p. 18). The research design is crucial in determining the ultimate shape and direction of a study; like the blueprints that inform the construction of a structurally-sound building, the design of a study ensures "that the evidence obtained enables us to answer the initial question as unambiguously as possible" (De Vaus, 2001, p. 9). This section provides the reader with a thorough overview of three key components of the study's design: (1) survey administration, (2) survey instrument, and (3) sample selection.

Survey Administration

As the design of this research study was crafted from a decidedly post-positivist perspective, the Author felt that a quantitative survey strategy would serve as the most appropriate method of data collection. Quantitative surveys are influenced by a study's objectives and research questions and, in turn, define the variables of interest. Punch

(2003) notes that, "if the individual person is the unit of analysis, the essential idea of the quantitative survey is then to measure a group of people on the variables of interest and to see how those variables are related to each other across the sample studied" (p. 23). The data generated through quantitative surveying may be used to persuade the reader by deemphasizing individuality and stressing the use of established procedures, thus leading to more generalized and precise results (Firestone, 1987; Miles & Huberman, 1994).

The major technological advancements of the late twentieth century (e.g., the pervasiveness of the Internet and cellular telephones) have changed not only American society, but also the methods through which researchers designed and administered their studies. Willis (2005) states that the range of administration methods has expanded dramatically and now encompasses face-to-face, telephone, mail, Internet, e-mail, and mixed-mode surveys (p. 178). Although each method possesses its own unique combination of benefits and drawbacks, the Author chose to utilize an electronic method in the administration of the survey instrument: an Internet-based, e-mailed-distributed survey.

After electing to utilize a quantitative survey methodology, the Author immediately faced an important decision: to (1) develop a new survey instrument, or (2) expand upon an existing study. This decision proved important as it dictated how and when the Author would collect the data used to inform this study. While there were many positive and negative aspects to both options, the Author ultimately chose to focus his analysis on an existing study: the *UT Alumni Satisfaction Survey*.

The *UT Alumni Satisfaction Survey* asked approximately 14,000 U T Austin alumni to reflect upon their undergraduate experiences and gauge the impact that those experiences have had on their lives post-graduation. The survey instrument was distributed electronically to the sample population on M arch 21, 2 011, and was administered by Convio, an Austin, TX-based software company that provides electronic business management and marketing services to non-profit organizations (*Texas Exes: About Us*, 2011). The researchers chose Convio as it has a long-standing partnership with the university and its affiliates (e.g, the Texas Exes and the University Development Office), is experienced in administering institutional surveys, and was amenable in meeting specific deadlines requested by the researchers. One reminder notice was sent to all non-respondents on April 5, 2011 (the researchers elected not to send weekly reminders), and the survey was officially closed on April 21, 2011.

The Author chose to use data uncovered via the *UT Austin Alumni Satisfaction Survey* for a multitude of reasons. First, the survey directly addressed many of the questions that lie at the core of this study, including (but not limited to) donor demographic information, the intersection of connectivity and giving, and analyses of the factors that result in philanthropic engagement. Second, the use of a preexisting dataset minimized the risk of oversampling the same population. Third, at the request of the researchers, the survey instrument contained items that had been directly developed by the Author. The Texas Exes and University Development Office graciously afforded the Author an opportunity to participate in the project if he was willing to assist in the development and distribution of the survey instrument, as well as the subsequent data

analyses. This invitation was eagerly accepted, and the resulting survey data served as the foundation for this study.

By utilizing the survey data secondarily, the Author was able to conduct an in-depth analysis of the section of the survey that was of particular interest to him: young alumni philanthropy. An initial analysis of the data revealed that a majority of respondents believed that the benefits they received while attending the institution were worth the cost, felt a strong connection to their alma mater as alumni, and were satisfied with most aspects of their co-curricular experiences, and were engaged in at least one form of philanthropic activity related to UT Austin. These findings had implications for not only alumni relations and development professionals, but for all of those whose work directly impacts the student experience (e.g., faculty and staff).

Survey Instrument

The survey instrument utilized in the *UT Austin Alumni Satisfaction Survey* was developed through a cooperative effort of a small group of professionals committed to the exploration of contemporary alumni attitudes toward UT Austin. These professionals represented a variety of institutional departments and affiliated units, including the University Development Office and the Texas Exes. Each section of the survey instrument is designed to address the questions that were deemed to be of greatest importance to the aforementioned departments and units. The final survey instrument was also designed to serve multiple purposes; not only does it generate the data necessary to complete this study, it also enables the institution to make a strong case to stakeholders (e.g., state legislators) that it is a great asset to the state of Texas.

A copy of the completed survey instrument is shown in Appendix A. It is important to note that two distinct versions of the survey were created: Version A was distributed to 10,000 UT Austin older alumni (i.e., those who received an undergraduate degree between 1971 and 2000), while Version B was distributed to 8,000 young UT Austin alumni (i.e., those who received an undergraduate degree between 2001 and 2009). Version A was utilized by the Division of Student Affairs, the University Development Office, the Office of Information Management and Analysis, and the Texas Exes to evaluate existing programs, inform future practices, and demonstrate the university's value to the state. The Author utilized Version B as the primary data collection method for his study. Participants received the survey that corresponded with the year in which they received their undergraduate degree.

Version B began by asking respondents to describe their current principal/primary activity. If the respondent indicates that employment (either full or part-time) is their principal activity, they answered subsequent questions aimed at obtaining information regarding the respondent's field of employment, correlations between undergraduate major and future career field(s), overall level of career satisfaction, and perceived impact of the undergraduate experience on workforce preparedness. The next section shifted the focus from professional experience to educational pursuits. Respondents were prompted to list any degrees they may have pursued and/or obtained after obtaining their undergraduate degree from UT Austin. Respondents were also prompted to indicate if they believe that their undergraduate experiences (both academic and co-curricular)

influenced their decision to obtain an additional degree and/or prepared them for the rigors of graduate-level studies.

The next five questions measured alumni satisfaction with the costs and effort incurred in the attainment of their undergraduate degree. The first two questions asked respondents to identify the level of financial debt accrued throughout the entire course of their undergraduate studies, as well as indicate if attending UT Austin was worth the associated costs. The next three questions measured respondents' perceptions of how prepared they were for life after college. Answers to each question were measured using a five-point Likert scale. The scales for each question differed as the question topics varied slightly; for example, the scale for Question 16 r angled from "very good preparation" to "N/A, no prep," while the scale for Question 18 r angled from "very satisfied" to "very dissatisfied."

The next section asked respondents to best describe their current perceptions of UT Austin. Likert scales are again utilized to describe current levels of connectedness between young alumni and their alma mater (e.g., "extremely connected" to "not at all connected"), the influence of specific items on the level of connectedness (e.g., "very significant" to "very insignificant") and the degree to which the respondent identifies with the institution (e.g., "it is the core of my identity" to "I do not identify with UT at all"). Respondents were also prompted to describe their current primary connection to their alma mater (e.g., academic, athletic, extra-curricular, or interpersonal) and the primary factors that motivate their interactions with UT Austin (e.g., belief in the mission

of the university, the university is in need of my support, my family and friends have always encouraged philanthropy, etc.).

The next group of questions comprised the bulk of data that are most applicable to the topic of the study. These questions attempted to uncover data that may prove beneficial in developing programs aimed at encouraging increased alumni philanthropy. The first two questions utilized a multiple choice option to determine the factors that influence personal definitions of philanthropy and the actions that are encompassed by the term “philanthropy.” Respondents were also asked if they had engaged in specific philanthropic activities at the undergraduate level and/or as alumni. Finally, Likert scales were again used to measure the level of importance respondents place on specific activities that fall within their personal definitions of philanthropy, rate their level of familiarity with the term “student philanthropy,” and determine if respondents would have engaged in philanthropic actions at the undergraduate level if options were made available to them. The survey concluded with a short section soliciting the respondents’ basic demographic information.

Although the finalization of the survey instrument marks a major milestone in the research process, the Author could not proceed further without first validating the instrument. This was accomplished through the administration of a pilot study. A pilot study is “a small-scale version of the real thing, a try-out of what you propose so its feasibility can be checked” (Robson, 2002, p. 185) . In order to pilot the survey instrument, a call for potential participants was distributed electronically via e-mail (e.g., the Office of the Dean of Students’ list-serv) and social networking websites (e.g.,

Facebook). A total of 30 individuals participated in the pilot study: 10 in an in-person session held on the UT Austin campus and 20 via the Internet. The feedback provided by the respondents was used to edit the instrument to ensure that it was accessible to a broad range of individuals, including those with limited knowledge of institutional philanthropy.

Sample Selection

The finalization of the survey instrument and its subsequent administration marked another an important milestone in the implementation of this study. The Author was enabled to articulate *what* questions he wished to have answered and *how* it would be presented to potential participants. However, what remained unclear was *who* would comprise the target population. Punch (2003) argues that a researcher must stop at this point in the process and follow four general steps: (1) decide what sample is wanted, (2) decide what the balance should be between demanding a representative sample and demanding a deliberately chosen sample, (3) decide on the specific parameters of the study (e.g., size and selection method), and (4) decide on the strategy for gaining access to the sample (p. 62). This helped the Author to ensure that his study is structurally sound and does not pose a major hindrance in the study's administration, analysis, and completion.

In order to achieve a statistically representative sample, this study focused upon the alumni population of one specific institution: UT Austin. Further, as this study examines young alumni perceptions of contemporary institutional philanthropic efforts, the targeted sample population only included those alumni who received an

undergraduate degree between 2001 and 2009. While this study focused on a small group of young alumni, the Author believed that it was important to ensure that the data generated via this study may be generalized to the whole population. This goal was accomplished through the utilization of a probability sampling technique, which involved random sampling.

There are many techniques available to researchers that allow them to sample a small group of individuals and generalize those results to the entire population. While one particular sampling method may be most appropriate for a specific type of study, Khan (1998) notes that three sampling strategies are frequently utilized in the conducting of quantitative studies: (1) random sampling, (2) systematic sampling, and (3) stratified sampling. In order to achieve his stated research goals, the Author chose to utilize a random sampling method in the administration of his survey instrument. A random sampling method is "a precise, scientific procedure for selecting research respondents" (Rubin & Babbie, 2010, p. 132). This method ensured that: (1) statistically sound inferences were made about the general population through an examination of the sample population, (2) external validity was guaranteed by measuring bias and error, and (3) administration costs were held in check by reducing the sample size to a small, manageable population.

DATA COLLECTION

After finalizing the survey instrument, the method of instrument administration, and the sampling methodology, the researcher must turn his or her attention to the methods through which the data would be collected. Traditionally, data is collected

quantitatively via observation, interview, case study, story recording, and analyses of written documents and physical artifacts (Landy & Conte, 2010; McNabb, 2008). Maxwell (2005) states that the research questions and objective of the study are the components that directly link all other components of the research design; as such, the decision as to which data collection methodology to use is directly influenced by the ultimate aim of the study itself.

The survey instrument administered in this study was designed to collect information that describes young alumni experiences with philanthropy, levels of connectivity to the alma mater after graduation, and prevailing perceptions of institutional philanthropic efforts. The survey instrument was the primary method of data collection used in the administration of this study. Historically, survey methodologies have demonstrated their value to researchers in the administration of quantitative analyses. First and foremost, they are cost-effective as surveys are relatively cheap, quick, and easy to administer. Surveys also afford participants an expectation of privacy: "assurances of anonymity can be built into questionnaires, so questionnaires are usually better for handling sensitive issues and getting the respondents' confidential views on these issues" (Brown, 2001, p. 77). Surveys, by nature, may be carefully designed to control biases, completed by respondents at their own pace, and generate standardized responses. Although there are some disadvantages in utilizing this data collection method (e.g., low return rates, surveys returned incomplete, and a sense of impersonality when compared to personal interviews), it was believed that quantitative surveying was the most appropriate (and effective) method of collecting data for his study.

Identifying Participants

As this study was focused upon the opinions and attitudes of young alumni, the targeted sample population was composed of individuals who received an undergraduate degree from UT Austin between 2001 and 2009. This population was chosen as it was best able to speak to the main topic of this study: young alumni perceptions of institutional philanthropic efforts. The aforementioned time span was chosen as the Author believes that graduates from earlier decades had significantly different collegiate experiences and, thus, were significantly less likely to have been exposed to philanthropy at the postsecondary level. Also, current undergraduate students were excluded from the sample as they are less likely to have had personal philanthropic experiences prior to their participation in the study.

Potential participants that fell within the aforementioned sample were by the University Development Office. The University Development Office maintains comprehensive records of all UT Austin alumni, including names, demographic and contact information, and any charitable gifts they may have made to the university or its affiliates after graduation. After the sample was selected, unique identifiers were generated for each individual. Each participant responded anonymously via a personal link, which enabled the Author to later cross-reference responses with participant demographic information during the data analysis phase. This was done in the interest of ensuring participant confidentiality and ease of data analysis.

Survey invitations were distributed electronically to participants via the corresponding e-mail addresses that had been maintained within the University

Development Office's database. The electronic survey was distributed and analyzed by the Texas Exes via the University Development Office's Convio donor management software. It is also important to note that great caution was taken in the selection of potential participants. The list of young UT Austin alumni was cross-referenced against a list of alumni who had received an invitation to participate in an alumni survey conducted by the Texas Exes in 2009. This was done to ensure the greatest response rate possible and mitigate any potential 'survey burnout' amongst UT Austin's alumni population.

Participant Background Data

One of the many benefits associated with the utilization of the University Development Office's database was the ability to thoroughly identify a specific set of variables for each potential study participant. The variables that were utilized for the purposes of this study included (but were not limited to): (1) age, (2) ethnicity, (3) gender, (4) dates of enrollment, (5) date of graduation, (6) degree field, (7) grade point average, (8) highest educational level of parents/guardians, (9) honors status, (10) postgraduate degree attainment, (11) marital status, (12) alumni association membership, (13) date of last gift made to the university, (14) maximum gift amount, and (15) preferred contact information. These variables enabled the Author to correlate responses to specific questions to respondent demographic information, thus informing potential recommendations for future philanthropic practices.

After careful analysis of data provided by the University Development Office, the researchers elected to limit the study's sample size to approximately 8,000 young alumni. This number was chosen as it large enough to provide an accurate representation of the

population as a whole, yet of a size manageable enough for the Author to analyze the data himself. Further, great pains were taken in ensuring a truly accurate representation of the entire population. The random sampling methodology utilized in this study afforded the Author an opportunity to "determine or control the likelihood of specific individuals being selected for the study" (Rubin & Babbie, 2010, p. 132). As such, members of the population that may be least likely to participate were over-selected for participation (e.g., additional men and alumni of color were added to the sample, and the number of females and Caucasians was limited). This decision was made in the interest of ensuring that the sample was truly representative of the overall institutional alumni population.

DATA ANALYSIS

While the collection of data is one of the most crucial components of the research process, data in its natural, unstructured format must undergo analysis in order for it to be of use to the researcher. Data analysis is "the process whereby researchers take the raw data that have been entered into the data matrix and create information that can be used to tackle the objectives for which the research was undertaken" (Kent, 2001, p. 74). Data analysis is an important step in the research process; heavily influenced by the processes used in study design and data collection, quantitative data analysis proves itself to be an asset to researchers by "showing the generality of specific observations, correcting the 'holistic fallacy' (monolithic judgments about a case), and verifying or casting new light on qualitative findings" (Miles & Huberman, 1994, p. 41).

Blaikie (2003) argues that quantitative methods of data analysis can be divided into four main types: (1) univariate descriptive analysis, (2) bivariate descriptive analysis,

(3) explanatory analysis, and (4) inferential analysis (p. 47). First, univariate descriptive analysis summarizes the characteristics of phenomenon by examining the distribution of variables. Next, bivariate descriptive analysis describes the strength of associations between variables and compares variables within or between populations. Further, explanatory analysis examines the strength of influence between variables. Finally, inferential analysis estimates “whether the characteristics or relationships found in a sample... could be expected to exist in the population or populations from which the sample or samples were randomly drawn” (Blaikie, 2003, p. 48) . Inferential analysis allows researchers to generalize sample statistics to the larger population from which the sample was derived.

The data analysis phase begins in earnest once the data collection efforts have been completed. After receiving a dataset stripped of potential respondent identifiers from the Texas Exes, the Author chose to begin this effort by electing to perform all statistical analyses using SPSS version 19. Descriptive statistics were utilized to measure the frequency distribution of statistical variables, which will be discussed in greater detail in the following sections. Further, chi squares and One-Way ANOVAs were used to determine the statistical significance of the relationships between the dependent variable and each of the three independent variables.

Dependent Variable

A major component of the data analysis is an examination of the variables being explored in the study. Variables assist the researcher in distinguishing between two types of quantities being considered. These variables are separated into two groups: (1) those

present at the beginning of the study, and (2) those created through the administration of the study. Or, as Hoy (2010) states, the dependent variable is "the presumed effect variable in a relationship," while the independent variable is "the presumed causal variable in a relationship" (p. 32). The independent variables represent the value that is being manipulated, while the dependent variable is the observable byproduct of this manipulation.

The level to which individual alumni have interacted philanthropically with UT Austin after graduation constituted the dependent variable for this study. Alumni philanthropic engagement data were obtained from the survey instrument created for use in this study, as well as from the University Development Office. The data directly reflect any engagement that occurred between the years 2001 and 2009, as well as individual attitudes toward and perceptions of philanthropy that had been developed prior to the start of their undergraduate studies. From this point forward, the dependent variable will be referred to as "donor group."

Independent Variables

The independent variables for this study are: (1) demographic and experiential backgrounds of (non)donors, (2) personal definition of philanthropy, (3) level of connectedness to the alma mater after graduation, and (4) level of personal identification with the alma mater. These variables were selected as they have been previously identified as positive predictors of increased philanthropic engagement. A thorough review of existing literature on this topic consistently demonstrated a causal relationship between an individual's undergraduate educational experiences and their future

philanthropic activities as alumni. Data uncovered through an analysis of these variables may prove to be especially beneficial to institutional development offices, student affairs divisions, and alumni associations, as it may be used to develop more effective strategies in soliciting alumni support for institutional development activities.

RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY

Two important concepts that must be considered by researchers when conducting quantitative analyses are reliability and validity. McCoach (2010) defines the validity of an instrument as the extent to which the instrument measures what it is designed to measure; it is a matter of degree rather than an absolute state. Similarly, the reliability of the instrument is defined as the consistency of measurements “from time to time, from form to form, from item to item, or from one rater to another (McCoach, 2010, p. 337). Specific cautions were taken in order to ensure the validity and reliability of this study, including the selection of a diverse sample population, the crafting of a sound survey instrument, and a careful, objective analysis of data generated via the administration of the study.

It is important to note that, although threats to validity and reliability can never be completely eliminated, the effects of the threats may be mitigated by the researcher through “careful sampling, appropriate instrumentation, and appropriate statistical treatments of the data” (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007, p. 133). Miles and Huberman (1994) argue that researchers must ask themselves specific questions when evaluating the reliability (e.g., “were the data collected across a full range of appropriate settings, times, respondents, and so on suggested by the research questions?”), internal

validity (e.g., “is the account rendered a comprehensive one, respecting the configuration and temporal arrangement of elements in the local context?”), and external validity (e.g., “is the sampling theoretically diverse enough to encourage broader applicability?”) (pp. 278-279). This study incorporated these questions into all phases of the research design, from the analytical and conceptual frameworks to the analysis of data.

LIMITATIONS

In order for a piece of scholarly research to be considered scientifically sound, the researcher must first demonstrate the study’s validity and reliability. This is often accomplished through a detailed description of the steps the researcher took to curtail the undue influence of negative factors (e.g., bias, deception, and censorship) in the design, implementation, and analysis of their study. In order to further bolster audience confidence in a study, the researcher must explicitly detail the steps taken to limit the influence of these negative factors. While the complete eradication of threats to research will never be achieved, the researcher is obligated to provide the audience with a comprehensive overview of the actions taken to ensure objectivity within all facets of scientific inquiry.

The Author embedded many safeguards within the research design in an attempt to limit undesirable influences. First, the Author chose to limit the scope of the study to a small percentage of alumni of a major American research university. While the sample size (i.e., 8,000 young alumni) only represents a fraction of the tens of thousands of living institutional alumni, the Author firmly believed that the sample was sufficiently representative of the entire alumni population. Further, the focus on only one university

enabled the Author to concentrate his efforts on a manageable population that shares educational experiences within a unique institutional culture. While the consideration of additional institutions falls outside of the scope of this study, it may serve as the foundation for future research on this topic.

Another limitation that was addressed is the type of instrument used to collect data. Quantitative surveys are often utilized as they provide researchers with a wealth of information at relatively little cost. Surveys may be easily distributed to participants via a variety of methods (e.g., mail and e-mail) and produce uniform data that may be generalized to a larger population. However, while this methodology affords participants the ability to complete the survey at their own leisure, researchers must be aware that surveys often yield poor response rates. The Author felt strongly that three specific factors would motivate young alumni to participate in his study: (1) institutional pride runs deep within the UT Austin community, (2) the survey instrument was short in length, and (3) the instrument was administered in late January, a traditionally low-stress time of the year. While it is impossible to fully isolate a piece of academic research from potential threats, these steps ensured that every possible precaution was taken to limit their impact.

RESEARCH ETHICS

In order to ensure the validity and reliability of any scientific study, the researcher must explicitly describe the precautions taken to safeguard their efforts from potential threats and challenges. However, it must be noted that there are additional actions that may be undertaken to demonstrate the scientific soundness of a study. The researcher's

actions must always follow a prescribed moral and ethical standard. Ethics is a crucial component of the scientific method, but it is often only casually referenced in many studies. Ethical behavior must serve as the foundation for any action within the research process; if a researcher commits an act in direct defiance to established moral and ethical standards, the validity and reliability of his or her research must immediately be called into question.

Hesse-Biber and Leavy (2010) suggest that four ethical questions must be asked by the researcher at the onset of any study: (1) "what moral principles guide your research?," (2) "how do ethical issues enter into your selection of a research problem?," (3) "how do ethical issues affect how you conduct your research- the design of your study, your sampling procedure, and so forth?," and (4) "what responsibility do you have toward your research participants?" (p. 59). By answering these questions at the beginning of each study (and consistently revisiting them throughout the course of the research process), the researcher makes great strides in further validating his or her research efforts.

Trustworthiness

Although the aforementioned questions are of great value to the researcher when establishing the ethical underpinnings of a study, they may prove to be less effective in assuring a skeptical audience. Therefore, the Author undertook four steps to gain the trust of the audience: (1) protection of participant anonymity, (2) evaluation of bias, (3) peer debriefing, and (4) inclusion of a statement of participant rights. The first step, the safeguarding the anonymity of study participants, is especially crucial as the University

Development Office database contains sensitive data, such as personal financial and demographic information. Participants may be more inclined to be honest if they have been assured that their responses will be kept in the strictest confidence.

It is also important for the Author to acknowledge that he is fully aware of the role that personal biases may play in the interpretation of data. Johnson and Christensen (2008) argue that researcher bias may be mitigated through the practice of reflexivity, or “critical self-reflection about his or her potential biases and predispositions” (p. 275). Through the practice of reflexivity, “researchers become more self-aware, and they monitor and attempt to control their biases” (Johnson & Christensen, 2008, p. 275). The Author actively engaged in critical self-reflection to ensure that his personal views and perspectives did not influence his research methods.

While the acknowledgement of potential biases is an important step in establishing this study’s credibility, it was not the only technique utilized by the Author. Peer debriefing allows the researcher to validate their work by “discussing the study with a trusted and knowledgeable peer who can give informed feedback to assist the researcher in exploring aspects of the study that have, until this point, remained hidden” (Given, 2008, p. 200). This strategy encourages researchers to collaborate with peers in order to truly confront their biases and consider new approaches to their studies. Although it is a technique that is almost exclusively used by qualitative researchers, the Author has found peer debriefing to be incredibly beneficial in the past and believed that it proved to be equally beneficial in his continued evaluation of his study.

Finally, potential participants were provided with a statement of their rights within the research process. Participants were informed that they had a right to expect the confidentiality of their identities and that they may elect to terminate their participation in the study at any time. This statement was included in the initial e-mail that was sent to the entire sample population. This statement supplemented the other actions taken by the researcher to increase audience confidence in the study (e.g., statements of bias and ethics and discussions of limitations and threats to validity). Combined, these four strategies should have allayed any concerns audience members may have regarding the validity of this study.

Statement of Bias

In the interest of further increasing audience confidence in the study, the Author decided to include a statement regarding his own personal biases. The first major bias that the Author confronted while developing this study is the fact that the Author is currently enrolled as a student at UT Austin. However, as he did not receive his undergraduate degree from nor maintain a strong emotional attachment to the institution, the Author was confident that his current enrollment status would not impair his ability to remain objective.

The next bias encountered by the Author is the belief that only a select segment of the sample population would find interest in and complete the survey instrument. These individuals would share a group of similar traits, including gender, ethnicity, socioeconomic status, and level of co-curricular engagement while an undergraduate student. The Author firmly believed that the vast majority of respondents would be

female, Caucasian, not economically disadvantaged, and co-curricularly engaged at the undergraduate level. Certain components of the research design (e.g., the survey instrument) were reviewed via peer debriefing in order to ensure that the scope of the study was applicable to a broad spectrum of alumni.

Similarly, the Author was forced to confront his long-standing inclinations toward the field of institutional philanthropy. This is a topic that has always been of interest to the Author; he strongly ascribes to the notion that participation in philanthropic-related activities at the undergraduate level ultimately results in the establishment of a philanthropic, civically-engaged alumni population. However, he is always careful to keep this bias separate from his research efforts (and this study, in particular). While his passion for the topic lies at the heart of the study, the Author was careful to remain objective during all phases of the research process.

This evaluation of biases also revealed many basic assumptions that the Author harbored about his own attachment to his alma mater and future career interests. An actively engaged undergraduate student himself, the Author developed a strong bond with his alma mater immediately upon his graduation. He has since become a philanthropically engaged alumni, donating funds to the university's general scholarship fund and annually renewing his status as a football season ticket holder. While these actions have proven to be financially-trying at times (especially during his tenure as a doctoral student), the Author is confident that the charitable gifts he provided are an attempt at paying forward the kindness he received while he was an undergraduate student.

Diamond and Kashyap (1997) note that the central construct in prosocial behavior at the postsecondary level is obligation: "the strongest determinant of obligation was individual attachment to the university," which has proven to be "an antecedent of intention to contribute, actual contributions, intention to attend reunions, and intention to work for an alumni organization" (pp. 923-924). The Author's philanthropic actions have been heavily motivated by his emotional attachment to his alma mater, thus influencing his continued prosocial behavior. The Author was cognizant of this situation and was confident that his own inclinations would not interfere in his ability to conduct an objective analysis of institutional philanthropy.

RESEARCH CHALLENGES

The Author's own biases were not the only challenges faced during the development of this study. One of the greatest challenges encountered during a study's initial planning stages is anticipated participant apathy. Quantitative researchers are often very concerned that an oversaturation of surveys sent to participants by an institution and/or its affiliate organizations discourages participation in the study. Technology is, truly, a double-edged sword; while the Internet has proven to be an extremely beneficial tool for researchers (e.g., easy and swift distribution of materials to sample populations), it is of little value if potential participants grow wary of multiple researcher solicitations.

Another challenge confronted in the development of this study was the achievement of a truly random sample. Those who were actively engaged at the undergraduate level may be more likely to respond to the survey invitation than those

who chose (or were unable) not to be engaged. The Author was concerned that a high percentage of respondents would be comprised solely of engaged alumni, thus skewing the results generated by the survey instrument. There is no way for the Author to screen potential participants for their postsecondary level of engagement prior to their completion of the survey instrument. However, these potential biases were addressed in two ways: (1) the survey instrument was distributed to 8,000 young alumni (a sample size that was sure to include both engaged and non-engaged alumni), and (2) the Author explicitly acknowledged this challenge to the audience.

Mertens (2005) states that a number of challenges confront quantitative researchers in the analysis of data and the interpretation of results, including “the influence of randomization on statistical choices, the analytic implications of using intact groups, the influence of sample size on achieving statistical significance, statistical versus practical significance, issues related to cultural bias, and variables related to generalizability” (p. 410). These challenges must be directly addressed during the research design process. By identifying potential and incorporating strategies aimed at overcoming them, the researcher made great strides in ensuring the scientific soundness of a study.

Chapter 4: Survey Outcomes

What we do for ourselves dies with us. What we do for others and the world remains and is immortal.

-Albert Pine

INTRODUCTION TO THE RESPONSE RATE AND RESPONDENTS

The original administration of the *UT Alumni Satisfaction Survey* spanned a period of four weeks during the spring of 2011 (i.e., March 21-April 21). In order to ensure the highest response rate possible, a reminder notice was sent to all non-respondents at the approximate halfway point of the administration period. At the conclusion of the administration period, all responses were collected by the Texas Exes via Convio and were distributed to institutional operational units (e.g., the University Development Office) electronically for initial data analyses. Upon the completion of these analyses, the Author submitted a request to the survey administrators to obtain the survey data for his own analyses. Once permission had been granted, the responses were stripped of identifiers and forwarded to the Author via WebSpace, the University's secure, Web-based data clearinghouse. The Author utilized his personal user ID and password to log in to the WebSpace and download data to his secured home computer.

Response Rate

Initially, the UT Alumni Survey was distributed to 8,000 young alumni; however, due to the presence of invalid e-mail addresses contained within the VIP database, the

survey instrument was delivered to 6,189 young alumni. By the conclusion of the survey administration period, 499 young UT-Austin alumni had elected to participate in the study. This represented a response rate of 6.24 percent. Previous studies have demonstrated that many surveys with response rates below 25 percent have yielded similar or more accurate results than surveys with higher response rates (Curtin, Presser, & Singer, 2000; Keeter, Kennedy, Dimock, Best, & Craighill, 2006; Visser, Krosnick, Marquette, & Curtin, 1996).

The preliminary data analysis conducted by the University Development Office offered two particular explanations for the low response rate. First, the response rate is directly reflective of the instrument's 'open' and 'click-through' rates. An open rate (OR) indicates the percentage of individuals who opened the e-mail containing the survey instrument, while a click-through rate (CR) is defined as "the percentage of units accessing the Web questionnaire among all invited or exposed to invitations" (Manfreda & Vehovar, 2003, p. 5). These rates were highest on the days in which the survey was distributed: March 21 (OR=19.3%; CR=4.5%) and April 5 (OR=22%; CR=5.8%). However, these rates steadily declined as recipients chose not to open the invitation or complete the survey in its entirety.

The second explanation was centered upon the time of the year in which the survey instrument was distributed. The Legislature of the State of Texas operates under the biennial system and convenes its regular sessions in early January of odd-numbered years (Tucker, 1989). Unless the governor convenes a special session, legislators are afforded 140 days to draft, debate, and pass state laws that will be enforced until the

subsequent legislative session is held. The 2011 Texas Legislative Session was particularly contentious, with much of the debate focused on proposed reductions in funding for the state's higher education systems (Berard, 2011a; Haurwitz, 2010; Hoppe, 2011). As one of the state's two flagship public universities, UT Austin (as well as its affiliate organizations) provided alumni with frequent updates regarding the budgetary battle throughout the course of the legislative session. Therefore, the researchers made a conscious decision to prevent the oversaturation of alumni by limiting the number of survey follow-up reminders to one.

Respondent Representativeness

The response rate is just one of the many variables that a researcher must consider when analyzing data uncovered through the administration of a survey instrument. Upon receipt of the information provided by the Texas Exes and the University Development Office, the Author began his own analyses with a comparison of the survey's respondents (i.e., $n=499$) to the overall sample population (i.e., $N=8,000$). A brief overview of both groups is shown in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1. A profile of subjects.

		Population (N=8,000)		Respondents (n=499)	
		Freq	%	Freq	%
Gender					
	Female	4,304	53.8%	277	55.5%
	Male	3,696	46.2%	222	44.5%
Ethnicity					
	African American	386	4.8%	18	3.6%
	Asian American	1,506	18.8%	65	13.0%
	Caucasian	4,051	50.6%	294	58.9%
	Foreign	206	2.6%	6	1.2%
	Hispanic	1,667	20.8%	105	21.0%
	Native American	184	2.4%	11	2.2%
Residency					
	Texas	6,152	81.3%	365	73.1%
	Outside of Texas	1,848	18.7%	134	26.9%
Texas Exes Member					
	Yes	1,743	21.8%	208	41.7%
	No	6,257	78.2%	291	58.3%
UT Austin Donor Status					
	1+ Lifetime Gift	2,426	30.3%	255	51.1%
	No Gift	5,574	69.7%	244	48.9%

When comparing the respondent group to the overall sample population, it was apparent that the respondents were good representatives of the population in two specific variables: (1) gender, and (2) ethnicity. The composition of these variables was constant between the two groups, with the exception of an 8.3 percent increase in the percentage of Caucasians within the respondent group. However, problems were identified with the three remaining demographic variables: (1) residency, (2) Texas Exes membership, and (3) UT Austin donor status. The representation of non-Texas residents and Texas Exes members within the respondent group increased by 8.2 percent and 19.9 percent, respectively. While these differences did not pose an insurmountable problem when comparing both groups, the analysis of UT Austin donor status proved to be a more difficult task. As the representation of donors within the respondent group increased by 20.8 percent over the overall sample population, a decision was made to weight the data. This was done in an attempt to obtain more representative responses. A detailed explanation of the data weighting process will be discussed in the following section.

WEIGHTS

The increased percentage of donors within the respondent group may be attributed to an increased willingness amongst engaged young alumni to participate in a variety of institutional outreach efforts (e.g., survey participation solicitation). While this information is positive affirmation of the work of alumni relations and development professionals, it complicated the analyses utilized during the course of this study. The data were weighted in order to ensure that the respondent group was as representative of the overall sample population as possible. These weights were calculated with the intent

of mitigating problematic data within specific variables, including the increased presence of donors within the respondent group. In order to calculate weights that would account for the increased presence of donors within the respondent group, a new variable was created: donor status.

Development of Donor Categories

Previous studies that explored the topic of alumni giving had assigned different definitions to the term ‘donor status,’ based, in large part, upon the individual variables that served as the units of analysis. For the purposes of this study, ‘donor status’ referred to the number of financial contributions an alumnus/a has made to UT Austin after graduation. Hoyt (2004) argues that donor status may be predicted via analyses of specific groups of variables, including willingness to give, alumni involvement, receipt of a scholarship, perceived need, perceptions of the economic environment, and the capacity to give. This study, too, explored the relationship between specific variables and the individual willingness to become philanthropically engaged (i.e., donor status).

In order to examine any potential impact that the variables referenced in this chapter may have on a young alumnus/a’s willingness to become philanthropically engaged, the respondent group was first separated into three distinct donor groups: (1) large gift donor, (2) small gift donor, and (3) non-donor. Small gift donors were identified as those whose maximum lifetime financial donations (including donations to UT Athletics) to UT Austin totaled between \$1 and \$199, while large gift donors were identified as those whose maximum lifetime financial donations to UT Austin totaled \$200 or more. Conversely, non-donors were identified as those who had never made a

financial donation to UT Austin. The Author developed these groups using information obtained from the University Development Office's VIP database (socioeconomic status was not considered as employment information was not included in the VIP database), and placement into the donor groups was based solely upon an individual's lifetime gift amount (i.e., total dollar amount, not frequency of giving) to UT Austin. A comparison of the respondents to the overall population by the number of individuals present within each donor group is shown in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2. Comparison of respondent group to overall population, by donor group.

	Population (N=8,000)		Respondents (n=499)	
	Freq	%	Freq	%
UT Austin Donor Status				
Small Gift Donor	1,351	16.9%	125	25.0%
Large Gift Donor	1,075	13.4%	130	26.1%
Non-Donor	5,574	69.7%	244	48.9%

The inclusion of non-donors within the sample population was a conscious effort by the researchers to prevent engagement-related biases from contaminating the data. As donors were perceived as more willing to engage in alumni-related activities (e.g., participation in institutional surveys), the amount of non-donors in the sample was increased to encourage the highest non-donor response rate possible.

Although a conscious effort was made to control for an anticipated increase in the percentage of donors within the respondent group, donors still comprised 51.1 percent of all survey respondents. Therefore, the data were weighted to ensure that the responses were as representative of the overall sample population as possible. Provided in Table 4.3 is an overview of the calculations used to weigh the study's data set.

Table 4.3. Overview of the weighted data.

	Population (N=8,000)		Respondents (n=499)		C/G DonorGroup Weight
	Freq	%	Freq	%	
UT Austin Donor Status					
Small Gift Donor	1,351	0.16887500%	125	0.25050100%	0.67414900
Large Gift Donor	1,075	0.13437500%	130	0.26052104%	0.51579327
Non-Donor	5,574	0.69675000%	244	0.48897796%	1.42491086
Total	8,000	1.00000000%	499	1.00000000%	

Once the weighted data were obtained and added to the data set, the Author utilized SPSS to run new frequencies on the original demographic variables. The future use of these weighted data ensured that the responses of the respondent group was more representative of the overall sample population, even if the majority of respondents were institutional donors. A final comparison of the overall sample population to the original and weighted respondent groups is found in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4. A final profile of subjects.

	Population (N=8,000)		Respondents (n=499)		Respondents (Weighted) (n=499)		
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	
Gender							
Female	4,304	53.8%	277	55.5%	278	55.6%	
Male	3,696	46.2%	222	44.5%	221	44.4%	
Ethnicity							
African American	386	4.8%	18	3.6%	19	3.9%	
Asian American	1,506	18.8%	65	13.0%	73	14.7%	
Caucasian	4,051	50.6%	294	58.9%	285	57.2%	
Foreign	206	2.6%	6	1.2%	7	1.4%	
Hispanic	1,667	20.8%	105	21.0%	105	21.0%	
Native American	184	2.4%	11	2.2%	9	1.8%	
Residency							
Texas	6,152	81.3%	365	73.1%	366	73.3%	
Outside of Texas	1,848	18.7%	134	26.9%	133	26.7%	
Texas Exes Member							
Yes	1,743	21.8%	208	41.7%	151	30.3%	
No	6,257	78.2%	291	58.3%	348	69.7%	
UT Austin Donor Status							
Small Gift Donor	1,351	16.9%	125	25.0%	84	16.9%	
Large Gift Donor	1,075	13.4%	130	26.1%	67	13.4%	
Non-Donor	5,574	69.7%	244	48.9%	348	69.7%	

FINAL REPRESENTATIVENESS

A comparison of the weighted respondent group to the overall sample population indicates strong congruence between both groups. The overrepresentation of Texas Exes members and donors within the original respondent group was mitigated via the usage of weights. With weights, the gender, ethnicity, residency, Texas Exes membership, and donor status of the respondent pool is a better representation of the overall population than the unweighted data. The analyses and results in this study hereafter consider only weighted data.

Variable #1: Gender

While it is clear that a majority of the young alumni who chose to respond to the survey invitation were female, gender did not appear to play a significant role in the decision to participate in the *UT Austin Alumni Survey* project. The percentages of both females and males remained fairly consistent between the respondent group and the overall population (i.e., 53.8 to 55.6 percent). The percentage of females and males who chose to respond to the survey invitation were very close to the percentages of the overall population, and with weights, this relationship was not seriously affected. With regards to gender, the respondent group was representative of the overall population.

Variable #2: Ethnicity

The ethnic composition of the sample was an accurate reflection of the cohort of UT Austin alumni who received their undergraduate degrees between 2001 and 2009. While the percentage of students of color continues to increase annually, Caucasian

students comprised a majority of UT Austin young alumni during the first decade of the new millennium. The weighted ethnic composition of the respondent group closely reflects the overall population, being within about four percent of the sample population. Caucasians and Hispanics comprised a majority (i.e., 57.2 percent and 21 percent, respectively) of the respondents, as well as a larger combined percentage of the respondent group (i.e., 78.2 percent) than the overall population (i.e., 71.4 percent). The four other groups accounted for 21.8 percent of the respondent group, compared to 28.6 percent in the population. Based upon these data, the respondent group appeared to be within the realm of representativeness to the overall population.

Variable #3: Residency

In the weighted data set, 73 percent of respondents resided in Texas. This compares fairly well with the sample population, in which 81 percent were Texas residents. It is interesting to note that a larger percentage of non-Texas residents responded to the survey. This is a slight reduction from the number of current Texas residents within the overall population (i.e., 81.3 percent). This data is slightly problematic, as non-Texas respondents appeared to be more engaged than Texas residents. While residency is a variable that appears to play a role in young alumni engagement, it is not as important as other demographic variables.

Variable #4: Texas Exes Membership

In the sample population, 22 percent of subjects were active members of the Texas Exes. A disproportionate number of Texas Exes responded to the survey, and even after weighting the data, the percentage of Texas Exes members who responded was 30

percent. This increase in Texas Exes members' participation may be due to the fact that this group is more actively engaged with their alma mater. It could also be due to the fact that they are more accustomed to receiving and reading e-mail sent from the Texas Exes. Although the final weighted respondent group has an eight percent over-representation of Texas Exes members, this inequity is not considered large enough to challenge the accuracy of the overall weighted results.

Variable #5: Donor Status

Of the 8,000 young alumni included in the *UT Alumni Satisfaction Survey*, 69.7 percent were identified as those who had never made a financial contribution to UT Austin (i.e., non-donors). As might be expected, respondents who had made some sort of monetary gift to the University were more likely to respond to the survey invitation. This response pattern was in alignment with previous research that demonstrated a positive relationship between donor status and alumni engagement level. By weighting the data to control for the increased representation of donors within the original respondent group, the percentage of non-donors within the weighted respondent group returned to 69.7 percent (see Table 4.4). This action ensured that the survey responses were representative of the donor status of the overall sample population.

Background Information

In order to fully understand the composition of the respondent group, additional background variables were also considered. Variables considered included academic college of major, parental education level, and principal/primary activity at the time of

survey participation. An overview of the additional variables considered for analysis is found in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5. Comparison of respondent group to the overall population, by additional background variables.

	Population (n=8,000)		Respondents (W.) (n=499)					
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
Academic College of Major								
Cockrell School of Engineering	898	11.2%			51	10.3%		
College of Communication	1,000	12.5%			74	14.8%		
College of Education	444	5.6%			22	4.3%		
College of Fine Arts	272	3.4%			13	2.5%		
College of Liberal Arts	2,581	32.3%			182	36.5%		
College of Natural Sciences	1,229	15.4%			59	11.8%		
Jackson School of Geosciences	100	1.3%			7	1.5%		
McCombs School of Business	1,167	14.6%			70	14.1%		
School of Architecture	100	1.3%			14	2.8%		
School of Nursing	109	1.4%			3	0.6%		
School of Social Work	100	1.3%			4	0.8%		
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
Parental Education Levels								
	<u>Father</u>		<u>Mother</u>		<u>Father</u>		<u>Mother</u>	
No High School	165	2.1%	186	2.3%	13	2.6%	15	3.0%
Some High School	210	2.6%	221	2.8%	8	1.6%	8	1.6%
High School Diploma	593	7.4%	796	10.0%	37	7.4%	53	10.7%
Some College	1,141	14.3%	1,565	19.6%	71	14.2%	95	19.1%
Associate Degree	2,157	27.1%	2,460	30.8%	142	28.5%	162	32.6%
Bachelor Degree	2,300	28.9%	1,388	17.4%	159	31.9%	96	19.3%
Graduate/Professional Degree	1,400	17.6%	1,370	17.1%	69	13.8%	68	13.7%

The first additional background variable considered for analysis was academic major. U T Austin is comprised of 12 academic schools and colleges that offer undergraduate degree programs; of these, 11 were represented within the respondent group. The respondents received their undergraduate degrees in 87 academic majors; the most common major of respondents was Government, at 8.6 percent, followed by Psychology at 5.3 percent, and Advertising, Economics, Finance, and Radio-Television-Film at 3.6 percent. The percentage of academic colleges within the respondent pool was well representative of the overall distribution of colleges within the sample (e.g., Liberal Arts majors comprised the largest percentage of sample members, respondents, and donors). Further, it is interesting to note that a majority of small gift and large gift donors received undergraduate degrees from the academic colleges that maintain the largest alumni outreach programs (e.g., Liberal Arts, Business, and Communications), thus demonstrating the effectiveness of young alumni engagement efforts after graduation.

The second additional background variable considered for analysis was parental educational level. The *UT Alumni Satisfaction Survey* asked respondents to indicate the highest level of education that had been attained by their father and mother. The most common response for father's educational level was bachelor degree (i.e., 37.1 percent), while the most common response for mother's educational level was associate degree (i.e., 37.8 percent). This variable was an important consideration as philanthropic engagement is strongly correlated to individual levels of education: "because parents transmit... education to their children, it may be that the apparent transmission of volunteering is due to the transmission of... education" (Bekkers, 2007, p. 101). In an

attempt to discover if this study was in congruence with the findings of previous studies that have linked parental education level and willingness to give as an adult, the Author analyzed parental levels of education by donor status. This analysis will be provided in Chapter Five.

The third additional background variable considered for analysis was pursuit of a postgraduate degree. This variable explored the multiple paths that the respondents chose to pursue upon their graduation from UT Austin. Provided in Table 4.6 is an overview of the respondents' principal/primary activities at the time of survey participation.

Table 4.6. Principal/primary activity at the time of survey participation.

Principal/Primary Activity*	Respondents (W.) (n=499)	
	Freq	%
Employment, Full-Time Paid	360	72.4
Employment, Part-Time Paid	16	3.2
Enrolled in Grad./Prof. School, FT	78	15.7
Enrolled in Grad./Prof. School, PT	1	0.2
Enrolled in Addl. Undergrad. Coursework	1	0.2
Military Service	4	0.8
Volunteer Activity	5	1
Starting or Raising a Family	11	2.2
Other	21	4.3

This variable did not compare the respondent group to the overall sample population as this question was only included within the survey instrument. However, a majority of respondents (i.e., 72.4 percent) indicated that they chose to pursue full-time professional employment upon the completion of their undergraduate studies. The large

gap between entering the workforce and all other options may be indicative of a variety of factors, including contemporary market conditions, educational debt repayment, familial financial support, and eagerness to begin a professional career. These data demonstrate that a majority of young alumni within the respondent group have begun to accumulate wealth and, therefore, may possess the ability to give financially to their alma mater. However, the time commitments associated with full-time employment may also prevent potential donors from becoming fully philanthropically engaged. The University must do its utmost to demonstrate the value of all gifts (regardless of size), and encourage alumni to begin their engagement as early as possible (e.g., upon graduation).

DESCRIPTION OF DONORS

Before developing programming aimed at encouraging increased young alumni participation in institutional philanthropic efforts, alumni relations and development professionals must make every effort to fully understand their target population. The first step in accomplishing this task is an examination of the variables that comprise the donor group. Shown in Table 4.7 is a comparison of each donor group to the overall sample population.

Table 4.7. Comparison of the donor groups to the overall sample population.

	Population (n=8,000)		Respondents (Weighted) (n=499)										
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%			
	<u>Small Gift Donors</u>		<u>Large Gift Donors</u>		<u>Non-Donors</u>		<u>Small Gift Donors</u>		<u>Large Gift Donors</u>		<u>Non-Donors</u>		
Gender													
Female	778	57.6%	505	47.0%	3,021	54.2%	55	64.7%	32	47.7%	191	54.9%	
Male	573	42.4%	570	53.0%	2,553	45.8%	30	35.3%	35	52.2%	157	45.1%	
Ethnicity													
African American	65	4.8%	29	2.7%	292	5.2%	5	6.0%	1	1.5%	14	4.0%	
Asian American	225	16.7%	105	9.8%	1,176	21.1%	11	13.1%	4	5.9%	58	16.7%	
Caucasian	732	54.2%	670	62.3%	2,649	47.5%	47	56.0%	46	67.6%	192	55.3%	
Foreign	20	1.5%	12	1.1%	174	3.1%	1	1.2%	0	0.0%	6	1.7%	
Hispanic	284	21.0%	225	20.9%	1,158	20.8%	18	21.4%	14	20.6%	73	21.0%	
Native American	25	1.9%	34	3.2%	125	2.2%	2	2.4%	3	4.4%	4	1.2%	
Residency													
Texas	1,025	75.9%	888	82.6%	4,239	76.0%	60	65.9%	57	73.1%	245	74.2%	
Outside of Texas	326	24.1%	187	17.4%	1,335	24.0%	31	34.1%	21	26.9%	85	25.8%	
Texas Member													
Yes	472	35.0%	823	77.0%	448	8.0%	42	49.4%	56	83.4%	54	15.5%	
No	879	65.0%	252	23%	5,120	92.0%	43	50.6%	11	16.6%	294	84.5%	

An examination of the donor groups revealed congruence between the weighted respondent group and the overall sample population. There were strong similarities amongst all donor groups in all four demographic variables. The only discrepancies were identified in ethnicity (e.g., Caucasians represented 33.1 percent of non-donors within the overall sample population and 38.5 percent of non-donors in the respondent group), residency (e.g., non-Texas residents accounted for a slightly higher percentage of all three donor groups) and Texas Exes membership (e.g., the respondent group was 5.2 percent greater than the sample population). These results indicated that the weighted respondent group was fairly representative of the overall sample population, thereby adding confidence in the validity of the data.

RESPONDENT PERSPECTIVES REGARDING PHILANTHROPIC ENGAGEMENT

The variables presented in the preceding sections were directly related to the topic of the research study. Perhaps most importantly, these variables provided a direct link between the overall population, the respondent group, and the theoretical framework presented in Chapter Two. However, in order to gain a full appreciation of the data uncovered via an analysis of the *UT Alumni Satisfaction Survey*, it was also important to explore the other variables that potentially influenced young alumni to (or, not to) become philanthropically engaged. As these variables seek the respondents' opinions, the Author was unable to contrast the responses to the overall sample population; however, these data gave voice to the respondents' perceptions of their undergraduate experiences, their connection to UT Austin, and the role that they play in institutional philanthropic efforts

Levels of Preparedness

The first group of non-demographic variables considered for analysis was the respondent's perceived level of preparedness for career or postgraduate school after graduation. Knowledge of satisfaction with all aspects of the undergraduate experience enables alumni relations and development professionals to create outreach efforts that highlight those experiences that rate highly, and also enables institutional professionals to identify weaknesses. This feedback is critical for academic and/or student affairs units to assess the effectiveness of existing programs and make potential adjustments that may best serve the needs of current students. The respondents' reported levels of preparedness for career and postgraduate school based upon their academic and extra-curricular experiences during their undergraduate careers is found in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8. Levels of preparedness.

	Population (n=8,000)		Respondents (W.) (n=499)	
	Freq	%	Freq	%
Level of Career Preparedness	<u>Academic</u>		<u>Extra-curricular</u>	
Extremely	66	16.6%	64	18.5%
Very	139	34.9%	88	25.4%
Moderately	119	29.9%	99	28.6%
Slightly	49	12.3%	38	11.0%
Not at All	25	6.3%	57	16.5%
Level of Postgraduate Preparedness	<u>Academic</u>		<u>Extra-curricular</u>	
Very Well	79	36.4%	55	27.8%
Generally Well	95	43.8%	72	36.4%
Adequately	26	12.0%	47	21.7%
Not Well	13	6.0%	14	6.5%
Not at All	4	1.8%	10	4.6%

Of those who entered the workforce after graduation, 51.5 percent stated that their undergraduate academic experiences prepared them ‘extremely’ or ‘very well’ for their chosen careers. However, 43.9 percent of respondents stated that their undergraduate extra-curricular experiences prepared them ‘extremely’ or ‘very well’ for their chosen careers. Of those who pursued a postsecondary degree, 80.2 percent agreed that their undergraduate academic experiences prepared them ‘very well’ or ‘generally well’ for graduate and/or professional school. Similarly, 64.2 percent of respondents agreed that their undergraduate extra-curricular experiences prepared them ‘very well’ or ‘generally well’ for graduate and/or professional school. Although the small size of the respondent group made generalizations to the entire population difficult, a majority of respondents indicated that they believed that their UT Austin experiences had prepared them well for their chosen careers and for graduate and/or professional school.

Satisfaction with Undergraduate Experience

Along with levels of preparedness, the *UT Alumni Satisfaction Survey* asked participants to rate their levels of satisfaction with specific aspects of their overall UT Austin undergraduate experience. A four-point Likert scale enabled respondents to rate their experiences from highest (i.e., “very satisfied”) to lowest (i.e., “very dissatisfied”). In Table 4.9 are responses to nine experiential items.

Table 4.9. Levels of satisfaction with aspects of the overall UT Austin experience.

	Respondents (W.) (n=499)							
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
Levels of Satisfaction with overall UT Austin experience								
	<u>Very Satisfied</u>		<u>Satisfied</u>		<u>Dissatisfied</u>		<u>Very Dissatisfied</u>	
Grade Point Average	118	28.7%	193	47.0%	79	19.2%	21	5.1%
Overall Academic Experience	171	41.7%	207	50.5%	24	5.9%	9	2.2%
Overall Social Experience	202	49.1%	172	41.8%	25	6.1%	11	2.7%
Academic Challenge of Major Coursework	179	43.7%	196	47.8%	26	6.3%	8	2.0%
Opportunities to Interact with Major Faculty	109	26.5%	184	44.8%	99	24.1%	19	4.6%
Caring and Helpfulness of Staff	111	27.0%	233	56.7%	52	12.7%	15	3.6%
Course Scheduling	103	25.1%	257	62.5%	37	9.0%	13	3.2%
Course Availability	100	24.3%	233	56.7%	65	15.8%	12	2.9%
Quality of Collections in the Libraries	177	43.1%	227	55.2%	6	1.5%	1	0.2%

Approximately 92 percent of respondents marked that they were either ‘very satisfied’ or ‘satisfied’ with their overall UT Austin academic experience. Similarly, 90.9 percent of respondents indicated that they were either ‘very satisfied’ or ‘satisfied’ with their overall social experience at UT Austin. These latter numbers spoke to the effectiveness of institutional efforts in encouraging a positive co-curricular undergraduate experience on the UT Austin campus. While the University received high marks in aspects of the overall experience, the highest levels of dissatisfaction were associated with: (1) opportunities to interact with faculty within their major (i.e., 28.7 percent), (2) grade point average (i.e., 24.3 percent), and (3) course availability (i.e., 18.7 percent).

Participants were also asked if the benefits associated with obtaining a UT Austin degree were worth the costs incurred to themselves and/or their families, as well as the amount of financial debt that they had incurred as a direct result of obtaining their undergraduate degree. Their responses are contained within Table 4.10.

Table 4.10. Costs associated with obtaining a degree from UT Austin.

	Freq	Respondents (W.) (n=499) %
Costs of Attending UT Austin		
Yes, Worth the Cost	375	77.0%
Maybe Worth the Cost	84	17.2%
No, Not Worth the Cost	28	5.7%
Debt Incurred in Obtaining Degree		
None	231	47.3%
\$1 to 9,999	42	8.6%
\$10,000 to 19,999	71	14.5%
\$20,000 to 29,999	55	11.3%
\$30,000 to 39,999	38	7.8%
\$40,000 to 49,999	24	4.9%
\$50,000 or More	18	3.7%
Unable to Estimate	8	1.6%

Two of the most significant findings of the *UT Alumni Satisfaction Survey* were the perception of the value of a UT Austin education and the level of debt incurred while attending UT Austin. Seventy-seven percent of respondents stated that the benefits they received from attending UT Austin were worth the financial costs to themselves and/or their families, while only 5.7 percent believed that the benefits associated with their UT Austin degree were not worth the incurred costs. Further, in stark contrast to national trends that indicate a sharp rise in unsubsidized student loan procurement as a means of tuition payment, 47.3 percent of respondents reported having incurred no debt upon their graduation from UT Austin. These findings were important as it further justified the efforts the University has taken to ensure increased access to and the affordability of a UT Austin undergraduate education.

Connection to Institution

Another group of variables that assisted the Author in further understanding the respondent group was connection to the institution. Young alumni were asked to gauge their overall level of connectivity to the University using a five-point Likert scale, and to also indicate the primary way through which they stay connected to their alma mater. Provided in Table 4.11 are the respondents' identified levels and nature of connectivity to UT Austin.

Table 4.11. Overall level and nature of connectivity to UT Austin.

	Respondents (W.) (n=499)	
	Freq	%
Level of Connectivity to UT Austin		
Extremely Connected	35	9.1%
Very Connected	88	22.8%
Moderately Connected	156	40.4%
Slightly Connected	86	22.3%
Not at All Connected	21	5.4%
Nature of Connection		
Primarily academic (e.g., major)	95	24.6%
Primarily athletics	109	28.2%
Primarily extra-curricular (e.g., student group)	15	3.9%
Primarily interpersonal (e.g., friends)	117	30.3%
None	21	5.4%
Other	29	7.5%

The responses to these questions indicated that strong connections were developed during the undergraduate experience and continued long after graduation. Approximately 95 percent of respondents reported a degree of connectivity to the University, with 'moderately' as the most common level of connectivity (i.e., 40.4 percent). The Author was able to state, with confidence, that a majority of respondents remained connected, in some degree, to the institution after graduation. Further, these variables indicated that young alumni stay connected to UT Austin through a variety of ways. More than 30 percent of respondents also indicated that they stayed connected to the University primarily through the friendships they developed during their undergraduate experiences, while 28.2 percent remain connected through the University's intercollegiate athletics program.

However, a smaller percentage of respondents indicated that their connections were fostered through two major institutional components of the undergraduate experience: (1) academics (i.e., 24.6 percent), and (2) extra-curricular activities (i.e., 3.9 percent). These co-curricular connections, often developed through interactions with faculty, staff, and fellow students, compelled some young alumni to stay connected to the University after graduation. However, while UT Austin has invested many resources in enriching the co-curricular experience (and, thus, fostering future alumni support for the institution), it appeared that young alumni are most impacted by the relationships that they build during their undergraduate experiences.

The respondents were also asked to identify the level of significance that 16 specific factors have played in maintaining connections to the University after

graduation. Potential responses were expanded to include many aspects of the co-curricular undergraduate experience. Shown in Table 4.12 are the levels of significance ascribed to each factor by the respondent group.

Table 4.12. Significance of activity in maintaining connectivity to UT Austin.

	Respondents (W.) (n=499)							
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
	<u>Very Significant</u>		<u>Significant</u>		<u>Only Slightly Significant</u>		<u>Not at All Significant</u>	
Your Academic Dept. or Major	127	33.2%	130	33.9%	89	23.2%	36	9.4%
Your School or College	132	34.6%	133	34.9%	71	18.6%	43	11.3%
Your Class (i.e., Year of Graduation)	43	11.2%	103	26.9%	133	34.7%	98	25.6%
UT as a Whole	246	64.2%	83	21.7%	43	11.2%	6	1.6%
Your Fraternity or Sorority	39	10.2%	24	6.3%	12	3.1%	29	7.6%
Your Undergraduate Clubs	55	14.4%	63	16.5%	71	18.6%	84	22%
Athletics	137	35.8%	79	20.6%	38	9.9%	36	9.4%
Your Residence Hall	23	6.0%	40	10.4%	58	15.1%	132	34.5%
Local Alumni/ae Chapter Meetings (e.g., Texas Exes)	27	7.0%	56	14.6%	100	26.1%	93	24.3%
Friendships from College	237	62.2%	79	20.7%	43	11.3%	16	4.2%
Receiving News from UT	66	17.3%	161	34.3%	108	28.3%	41	10.7%
Attendance at UT-Related Events	80	20.9%	106	27.7%	96	25.1%	67	17.5%
Receiving the Alumni Magazine	59	15.4%	98	25.6%	95	24.8%	81	21.1%
Class Notes/Newsletters	19	5.0%	64	16.7%	105	27.4%	124	32.4%
Class Reunions	10	2.7%	54	14.3%	76	20.2%	135	35.8%
Personal Desire to Assist the University in Achieving its Goals	51	13.3%	135	34.3%	105	27.4%	68	17.8%

One of the most telling outcomes of this survey question was the influence of the overall quality of the undergraduate experience on the level of connectivity between young alumni and the University. Approximately 64 percent of respondents indicated that ‘UT as a whole’ was the most significant factor influencing their continued connectivity to their alma mater. This finding was significant as it confirms that the University is making great strides in developing a co-curricular experience that has proven beneficial to its undergraduate students and, thus, serves as a major connection point between young alumni and UT Austin post-graduation. Conversely, factors that are traditionally used by alumni relations and development offices to solicit alumni participation in institutional support efforts (e.g., ‘attendance at UT-related events,’ ‘receiving the alumni magazine,’ receiving news from UT,’ and ‘year of graduation’) ranked as less significant than the experiential factors. Additionally, the factors that have not traditionally played an important role in the UT Austin experience (e.g., ‘class notes/newsletters,’ ‘residence hall,’ and ‘class reunions’) received the lowest number of ‘very significant’ responses.

These findings appeared to echo previous research that highlighted the importance of undergraduate experiential factors in developing (and maintaining) strong bonds between young alumni and their alma maters. However, while it is intuitive that the relational and experiential factors developed during the undergraduate experience are powerful influences, it is important to recognize that the efforts of alumni associations (e.g., the Texas Exes) also have a significant impact upon the strengthening of bonds between young alumni and their alma maters.

Identity

Another variable considered for analysis was identity. The consideration of institutional affiliation as part of an alumnus/ae's core identity was important as it is directly tied to social identity theory, a major component of this study's theoretical framework. Respondents were asked to indicate the degree to which UT Austin comprises their personal identities. Their responses are shown in Table 4.13.

Table 4.13. Level of identification with UT Austin.

Level of Identification with UT Austin	Respondents (W.) (n=499)	
	Freq	%
It is My Core Identity	13	3.4%
It is a Very Important Part of Who I am	193	49.9%
It is a Somewhat Important Part of Who I am	126	32.6%
It is a Part of Who I am, But Not That Important	48	12.4%
I do NOT Identify with UT at All	6	1.6%

More than 98 percent of respondents stated that UT Austin represented at least a part of their own personal identity (i.e., the sum of all categories except 'I do NOT identify with UT at all'). This finding was perhaps unsurprising as it was assumed that those who consider the University to be an important component of their personal identity would be most likely to respond to the survey invitation. Approximately 50 percent of respondents indicated that the University was a very important part of their identity, while only 1.6 percent did not identify with the institution in any way. These responses offered two important pieces of information regarding the respondent group:

(1) those that completed the survey instrument were likely to strongly identify with UT Austin, and (2) strong personal identifications with an institution may serve as a conduit for philanthropic engagement between young alumni and their alma maters. These findings support the work of Sun, Hoffman, and Grady (2007), who state that identity must be an important consideration within the fields of alumni relations and institutional development as it “predicts that individuals tend to participate in activities that match their social identities and support the institutions representing these identities” (p. 311).

Philanthropic Activity

A final group of background variables considered for analysis were the previous philanthropic activities of young alumni. These variables provided the Author with data regarding the level, frequency, and type of gifts members of the overall population had made to the University after their graduation. Data were accrued from two distinct, yet related, sources: (1) the University Development Office’s VIP database, and (2) the *UT Alumni Satisfaction Survey*. Respondents were asked to identify the extrinsic (i.e., influenced by external forces) and intrinsic (i.e., influenced by internal forces) factors that motivated them to become philanthropically involved with UT Austin. An overview of all responses is contained within Table 4.14.

Table 4.14. Factors that motivate personal philanthropic involvement with UT Austin.

Factors That Motivate Philanthropic Involvement	Respondents (W.) (n=499)	
	Freq	%
I Have Not Been Actively Involved	170	34.0%
I Believe in the Mission of the University	122	24.3%
I Want to Give Back to the University That Gave Me so Much	100	20.0%
It is in My Nature to Help Others	93	18.6%
The University Has a Positive Impact Within My Community	88	17.7%
My Family and Friends Have Always Encouraged Philanthropy	41	8.2%
The University is in Need of My Support	37	7.5%
Other	27	5.5%
Peer Pressure	6	1.2%

In answering this survey question, respondents were able to choose as many factors as they believed motivated their involvement in philanthropic activities. The response that appeared with the greatest frequency was ‘I have not been actively involved,’ at 34 percent. Of those who answered this question and had been actively involved with the University, 24.3 percent indicated that they had done so because they believed in the mission of the University, while 18.6 percent did so because it was in their nature to help others. However, perhaps most concerning to alumni relations and development professionals was a lack of support for the institution as a whole. Only 7.5 percent of respondents believed that the University was in need of their support. This finding was significant as it indicates the influence that intrinsic factors have on decisions to engage in philanthropic behaviors.

As each potential donor maintains a specific set of factors that influence his or her decision to become philanthropically engaged, alumni relations and development professionals should also consider the variables that influence the formation of individual definitions of philanthropy. The *UT Alumni Satisfaction Survey* asked respondents to indicate the individuals and activities that were influential in the development of their own personal definitions of philanthropy. Highlights of the most influential individuals and activities, as indicated by the respondents, are shown in Table 4.15.

Table 4.15. Individuals and activities influencing personal definitions of philanthropy.

		Respondents (W.) (n=499)							
		Freq	%						
Individuals Influencing Personal Philanthropic Definitions									
	Family Members	112	30.6%						
	Friend(s) or Acquaintances	30	8.2%						
	UT Austin Faculty Member(s)	2	0.5%						
Extrinsic -	UT Austin Staff Member(s)	3	0.8%						
	Mentor	5	1.4%						
	UT Austin Student Organization Advisor	1	0.3%						
	Boss or Supervisor	4	1.1%						
	Religious/Spiritual Leader	39	10.7%						
Intrinsic -	Own Personal Belief	158	43.2%						
		Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
Activities Influencing Personal Philanthropic Definition									
		<u>Very Important</u>		<u>Important</u>		<u>Unimportant</u>		<u>Very Unimportant</u>	
	Joining the Texas Exes	47	13.4%	119	33.8%	94	26.7%	61	17.3%
	Purchasing Tickets to an Intercollegiate Athletics Event	37	10.5%	96	27.4%	106	30.2%	79	22.5%
	Becoming a Mentor to a UT Austin Student	38	10.9%	176	50.45	49	14.0%	33	9.5%

Table 4.15 (continued). Individuals and activities influencing personal definitions of philanthropy.

	Respondents (W.) (n=499)							
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
Making a Financial Contribution	35	10%	141	40.35	85	24.3%	48	13.7%
Working as a UT Austin Admissions Volunteer	17	4.9%	111	31.7%	98	28.0%	53	15.1%
Working as a UT Austin Fundraising Volunteer	19	5.4%	86	24.6%	110	31.5%	63	18.0%
Working as Some Type of Volunteer at UT	32	9.2%	145	41.7%	66	19.0%	45	12.9%
Attending a UT Austin Class Reunion	7	2.0%	71	20.3%	128	36.7%	92	26.4%
Seeking a Political Office	8	2.3%	52	14.9%	103	29.4%	113	32.3%
Joining a Social Action or Civil Rights Organization	35	10.0%	89	25.5%	96	27.5%	72	20.6%
Joining a Religious Organization	22	6.3%	61	17.5%	92	26.4%	105	30.2%
Working on a Community Service Project	64	18.3%	158	45.1%	49	14.0%	41	11.7%
Lobbying on Behalf of UT Austin	29	8.3%	102	29.1%	91	26.0%	66	18.9%
Sharing Your Pride in UT Austin with Others	137	39.0%	137	39.0%	33	9.4%	23	6.6%

The greatest personal influence was also the only intrinsic factor considered: 'own personal belief.' This accounted for 43.2 percent of all responses. Family members, at 30.6 percent, appeared to have had the greatest extrinsic impact upon individual definitions of philanthropy. Similarly, one intrinsic activity was identified by the respondents as having a very important association with their own personal definitions of philanthropy: 'sharing your pride in UT Austin with others,' at 39 percent. Of the top five activities deemed to be of greatest importance, only one involved a financial contribution made to the University: 'making a financial contribution,' at 10 percent. Conversely, those activities that were not experienced by all respondents (e.g., 'attending a UT Austin class reunion,' 'seeking a political office,' etc.) were deemed to be of least importance within personal definitions of philanthropy. These findings were in direct congruence with the theoretical framework presented in Chapter Two, in which various motivating factors (e.g., communities of giving, prosocial behavior, level of connectivity, expected return on investment, etc.) strongly influence the formation of personal definitions of philanthropy, as well as the ways in which young alumni engage in philanthropic activities.

The *UT Alumni Satisfaction Survey* not only asked respondents to identify the factors that influenced and are associated with their personal definitions of philanthropy, but also the ways in which they were engaged both during and after their UT Austin undergraduate experience. A description of the ways in which the respondents reported being engaged at the undergraduate level is provided in Table 4.16.

Table 4.16. Engagement at the undergraduate level.

	Respondents (W.) (n=499)	
	Freq	%
Engagement at the Undergraduate Level		
Volunteered Your Time to a Community-Based Service Program	255	71.2%
Volunteered Your Time to a University-Based Service Program	191	53.4%
Made a Financial Contribution	74	20.6%
Served as a Peer Mentor	101	28.5%

The most common method of engagement at the undergraduate level was volunteerism in community-based service programs. While 71.2 percent of respondents chose to become engaged within their communities, only 53.4 percent chose to become engaged within the University community. These numbers bode well for organizations that rely heavily upon volunteerism for their support. Unfortunately, the outlook is considerably less optimistic for development professionals. Only 20.6 percent of respondents indicated that they had made a financial contribution while an undergraduate student. This relatively low percentage was somewhat unexpected, given the high percentage of donors within the respondent group. This response rate was not necessarily reflective of a lack of enthusiasm among undergraduate students for engagement in institutional philanthropy than young alumni; instead, it may be attributed to a number of factors that directly impact undergraduate students, including a lack of disposable income, marginalization from institutional fundraising efforts, and unfamiliarity with non-traditional donor opportunities.

While student giving opportunities have had an increasingly visible profile on the UT Austin campus, specific development programs targeting undergraduate students have not always been available. The *UT Alumni Satisfaction Survey* sought to gauge young alumni perspectives on student giving by asking questions about respondents' personal philanthropic experiences. Respondents were asked if they had ever heard the term "student philanthropy" before, and to state if they would have engaged in student philanthropic during their undergraduate experience if they were provided with an opportunity to do so. The responses to these questions are shown in Table 4.17.

Table 4.17. Prior exposure to the term ‘student philanthropy’.

	Respondents (W.) (n=499)	
	Freq	%
Prior Exposure to the Term 'Student Philanthropy'		
Yes; I Know Exactly What Student Philanthropy Entails	47	13.0%
Yes; I Have Heard of Student Philanthropy, but I'm Not Quite Sure What it Entails	72	19.9%
No; I Can Guess What it Entails, Though	216	59.7%
No; I Have No Idea What Student Philanthropy Entails	28	7.7%
Willingness to Engage in Student Philanthropy		
Yes; I Believe That Student Philanthropy is Important for Both Personal Development and Continued Institutional Prosperity	129	35.8%
Yes; I Believe That Student Philanthropy is Important, but it Would be One of Many Obligations I Would Have as a Student	151	41.9%
No; While I Believe That Student Philanthropy is Somewhat Important, I Had More Pressing Concerns That Would Have Monopolized My Time	72	20.0%
No; I Do Not Believe That Student Philanthropy Makes a Significant Impact Upon the University	8	2.2%

Of the respondents who chose to answer this question, 67.4 percent indicated that they had never heard of the term student philanthropy before. While 59.7 percent of the respondents expressed confidence in positing a definition, 7.7 percent had no idea what the term student philanthropy entailed. Although a percentage of the overall population graduated from the University prior to the establishment of many of its student-focused development efforts, these results demonstrated that there is still work to be done in spreading the word about student philanthropy throughout the UT Austin student body. However, 77.7 percent of respondents indicated that they would have been willing to engage in student philanthropic efforts if given an opportunity to relive their undergraduate experience. Almost 36 percent stated that they believed that student philanthropy positively impacted both personal development and continued institutional prosperity. Only 22.2 percent of the respondents stated that they would not have participated in student philanthropic activities during the course of their undergraduate experiences, and 2.2 percent were firm in their belief that student philanthropy does not have a significant impact upon the University. These responses indicated strong support within the respondent group for student philanthropy, and further validated UT Austin's efforts in providing current students with opportunities to give back to the University.

Chapter 5: An Exploration of the Research Questions

If you want to lift yourself up, lift up someone else.

-Booker T. Washington

INTRODUCTION

This research study aims to address the role that young alumni play in institutional philanthropic efforts. Therefore, in order to fully explore the potential influence that this particular alumni population may have upon institutional operations, careful consideration was given to those alumni who remain most connected to their alma maters after graduation. While Chapter Four presented a comprehensive analysis of the data uncovered via the administration of the *UT Alumni Satisfaction Survey*, this chapter delves deeper into the data by focusing in upon, arguably, the most connected segment of the young alumni population: donors.

Similar to the analyses conducted in the previous chapter, Chapter Five provides a comprehensive exploration of the original research questions using donor group as the major variable. This effort was conducted in order to identify characteristics that were common to both the donor and non-donor groups, demonstrate the role that young alumni donors play in institutional philanthropic efforts, explore the factors that precipitate philanthropic activity, and uncover young alumni perceptions of their own role in philanthropic giving, including the perceived value of such actions. The answers to these questions not only serve as the primary objectives of this research study, but may also be used by alumni relations and development professionals to align their current practices

with the self-reported needs, values, perspectives, and desires of young alumni donors/non-donors.

EXAMINATION OF THE RESEARCH QUESTIONS BY DONOR CATEGORY

One of the greatest challenges facing any institution is the solicitation and maintenance of a large, philanthropically engaged alumni population. This task is crucial as alumni giving is often the largest donor category within many postsecondary institutions (Taylor & Martin, 1995). However, "this source of income has not been fully developed or understood by many institutions" (Hunter, Jones, & Boger, 1999, pp. 526-527). This is especially true of young alumni, who have the opportunity to give longitudinally, but often lack the resources or desire to become and/or remain philanthropically engaged upon receipt of their undergraduate degree(s). In order for alumni giving to become a significant source of institutional revenue, an understanding of the factors that influence such giving is of critical importance (Bristol, 1990).

However, in order to develop programming aimed at encouraging increased young alumni participation in institutional philanthropic efforts, alumni relations and development professionals must make every effort to fully understand their target population. The research questions that serve as the foundation of this study seek to accomplish this task by identifying the 'typical' UT Austin young alumni donor (and non-donor), exploring the level of influence of undergraduate experiences on decisions to become philanthropically engaged after graduation, identifying the role(s) that young alumni believe they play in institutional philanthropy, determining if philanthropic engagement at the undergraduate level influences future philanthropic engagement, and

gauging if young alumni believe that there is value associated with student philanthropy. The solicitation of alumni participation in institutional philanthropy is often a daunting effort; however, by fully understanding the target population and the reasons why alumni choose to become engaged, institutions may further encourage increased alumni involvement in many of their philanthropic efforts.

Research Question 1

One of the most effective ways to increase alumni involvement in institutional philanthropy is to understand their target population. This may be accomplished through an analysis of the characteristics that are common to members of that population. Once these characteristics have been identified, programs and initiatives may be developed that reflect the targeted individuals themselves, or highlight variables that may be of importance to that population. The first research question considered by the Author addressed the characteristics of small gift and large gift donors, his target population, and contrasted those against non-donors in order to highlight differences between the groups. Specifically, the Author sought to answer the following question: “what, if any, characteristics are common amongst young alumni that choose to be philanthropically engaged?” Once these characteristics were identified, they were contrasted against the characteristics of non-donors to uncover potential similarities and/or differences between the groups.

Similar to the analyses discussed in Chapter Four, this research question identified a set of demographic and background variables (e.g., gender, ethnicity, residency, Texas Exes membership, academic college of major, parental education levels, and

principal/primary activity at the time of survey participation) that may be of greatest interest to alumni relations and development professionals, and compiled the results by donor status. These variables will be used to inform the recommendations for practice and future research that will be discussed in Chapter Six. Table 5.1 provides an overview of the demographic and background variables common to each donor group.

Table 5.1. A profile of donor group members.

		Respondents (Weighted) (n=499)					
		Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
		<u>Small Gift Donors</u>		<u>Large Gift Donors</u>		<u>Non-Donors</u>	
Gender							
	Female	55	64.7%	32	47.7%	191	54.9%
	Male	30	35.3%	35	52.2%	157	45.1%
Ethnicity							
	African American	5	6.0%	1	1.5%	14	4.0%
	Asian American	11	13.1%	4	5.9%	58	16.7%
	Caucasian	47	56.0%	46	67.6%	192	55.3%
	Foreign	1	1.2%	0	0.0%	6	1.7%
	Hispanic	18	21.4%	14	20.6%	73	21.0%
	Native American	2	2.4%	3	4.4%	4	1.2%
Residency							
	Texas	60	65.9%	57	73.1%	245	74.2%
	Outside of Texas	31	34.1%	21	26.9%	85	25.8%
Texas Exes Member							
	Yes	42	49.4%	56	83.4%	54	15.5%
	No	43	50.6%	11	16.6%	294	84.5%

Table 5.1 (continued). A profile of donor group members.

	Respondents (Weighted) (n=499)					
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
	<u>Small Gift Donors</u>		<u>Large Gift Donors</u>		<u>Non-Donors</u>	
Academic College of Major						
Cockrell School of Engineering	5	6.0%	9	13.2%	37	10.6%
College of Communication	13	15.7%	8	11.8%	53	15.2%
College of Education	4	4.8%	5	7.4%	13	3.7%
College of Fine Arts	3	3.6%	2	2.9%	7	2.0%
College of Liberal Arts	32	38.6%	21	30.9%	130	37.4%
College of Natural Sciences	7	8.4%	11	16.2%	40	11.5%
Jackson School of Geosciences	3	3.6%	1	1.5%	4	1.1%
McCombs School of Business	13	15.7%	10	14.7%	47	13.5%
School of Architecture	1	1.2%	1	1.5%	13	3.7%
School of Nursing	1	1.2%	0	0.0%	1	0.3%
School of Social Work	1	1.2%	0	0.0%	3	0.9%
Principal/Primary Activity						
Employment, Full-Time Paid	61	73.5%	53	77.9%	247	71.4%
Employment, Part-Time Paid	5	6.0%	1	1.5%	10	2.9%
Enrolled in Grad./Prof. School (FT)	9	10.8%	7	10.3%	61	17.6%
Enrolled in Grad./Prof. School (PT)	1	1.2%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%
Enrolled in Addl. Undergrad. Course	1	1.2%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%
Military Service	1	1.2%	1	1.5%	1	0.3%
Volunteer Activity	1	1.2%	1	1.5%	3	0.9%
Starting or Raising a Family	1	1.2%	1	1.5%	10	2.9%
Other	3	3.6%	4	5.9%	14	4.0%

An examination of the weighted data revealed that there was little difference in the demographic characteristics of small gift donors and large gift donors. Although small gift donors comprised a larger percentage of the overall respondent group than large gift donors (i.e., 17 percent to 13.4 percent), the demographic composition of both groups was similar. However, noticeable differences were identified in two specific variables: (1) gender, and (2) Texas Exes membership.

The percentage of females and males who responded to the *UT Alumni Satisfaction Survey* invitation was fairly consistent among all donors groups. While the weighted respondent group was representative of the overall sample population, the type of gift made appeared to be somewhat dependent upon the gender of the donor ($\chi^2=4.595$, $p=.101$). When UT Austin young alumni choose to become philanthropically engaged with their alma mater, females are slightly more likely to make small gifts (i.e., 64.7 percent), while males are more likely to make large gifts (i.e., 52.2 percent). It is also interesting to note that Texas Exes membership appeared to strongly influence a decision to become a large gift donor ($\chi^2=139.805$, $p=.000$). In the respondent group, Texas Exes members were far more likely to make large gifts than non-members (i.e., 83.4 percent), while non-members were far more likely to be non-donors (i.e., 84.5 percent). This variable proved to be slightly problematic as Texas Exes members appeared to be more willing (or able) to give large gifts; however, their increased representation within the large gift donor group may be attributed to their active engagement with their alma mater and greater knowledge of giving opportunities.

Further, although differences in the giving patterns of each ethnicity were observed, they were not found to be statistically significant. Caucasians constituted the majority of both large gift donors (i.e., 67.6 percent) and small gift donors (i.e., 56 percent). Young alumni of color appeared to prefer small donations over large financial gifts; combined, young alumni of color comprised 44 percent of small gift donors, but only 32.4 percent of large gift donors. The notable exception to this trend was Native Americans, as the percentage of large gift donors was greater than the percentage of small gift donors (i.e., 4.4 percent to 2.4 percent). These results closely reflected the overall sample population, and were in alignment with previous research that indicated a preference for non-financial (e.g., community service, volunteerism, etc.) philanthropy amongst communities of color.

The remaining background variables were also not found to be statistically significant across donor groups. First, Texas residents comprised the majority of each donor group: 73.1 percent of large gift donors and 65.9 percent of small gift donors were Texas residents. This finding is perhaps unsurprising, given both the composition of the sample population and UT Austin's historic mission of serving the residents of the state of Texas. Alumni of the College of Liberal Arts comprised the largest percentage of small gift donors, large gift donors, and non-donors (i.e., 38.6 percent, 30.9 percent, and 37.4 percent, respectively). This finding was also unsurprising, given that alumni of this college accounted for 36.5 percent of the respondent group and 32.3 percent of the sample population. However, more young alumni from the Cockrell School of

Engineering, the College of Education, and the College of Natural Sciences gave large gifts than small or no gifts.

Additionally, 77.9 percent of large donors and 73.5 percent of small gift donors began full-time employment immediately upon their graduation from UT Austin. While increased access to financial resources may increase the ability to participate in institutional philanthropic efforts, it did not necessarily result in a gift to the University. Finally, the level of parental educational attainment appeared to be consistent among all three donor groups. Postsecondary degree recipients (i.e., individuals who had obtained at least an associate degree) comprised the majority of the respondents' parents. The highest concentrations of postsecondary degree recipients were found in the small gift donor (e.g., 78.8 percent of fathers) and non-donor (e.g., 74 percent of fathers) groups. Conversely, individuals who had completed some or no high school did not comprise more than 3.6 percent of any parental category. There appeared to be little variation in the parental education levels of small gift donors and non-donors, while the large gift donor group contained slightly elevated numbers of 'some college' and 'associate degree' recipients, as well as a reduced number of 'graduate/professional degree' holders.

Research Question 2

The second research question posed by the Author considered the potential impact that relational and experiential factors may have on individual perceptions of philanthropic engagement. Specifically, the Author sought to determine if "young alumni believe that their undergraduate educational experiences contributed to the development of their personal definitions of philanthropy?" Personal definitions of

philanthropy often begin to form at an early age, and solidify through the accumulation of life experiences. At the undergraduate level, students may further develop their own personal definitions of philanthropy in two important ways: (1) interactions with others, and (2) engagement in co-curricular activities.

Throughout the duration of an individual undergraduate experience, students are exposed to a variety of institutional stakeholders, including fellow students, faculty members, institutional employees, and alumni. These stakeholders may exhibit philanthropic behaviors that may be observed and modeled by students upon the completion of their studies. Respondents were asked to indicate those individuals who had the greatest impact upon the development of their personal definition of philanthropy. Table 5.2 contains the responses to nine relational items.

Table 5.2. Individual influences on personal definitions of philanthropy.

	Respondents (Weighted) (n=499)					
	Small Gift		Large Gift		Non-Donors	
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
Individuals Influencing Personal Philanthropic Definitions						
Family Members	15	23.4%	15	28.3%	81	34.0%
Friend(s) or Acquaintances	4	6.3%	4	7.5%	23	9.7%
UT Austin Faculty Member(s)	0	0.0%	1	1.9%	1	0.4%
UT Austin Staff Member(s)	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	3	1.3%
Mentor	2	3.1%	1	1.9%	3	1.3%
UT Austin Student Organization Advisor	0	0.0%	1	1.9%	0	0.0%
Boss or Supervisor	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	4	1.7%
Religious/Spiritual Leader	5	7.8%	5	9.4%	29	12.2%
Own Personal Belief	38	59.3%	26	49.1%	94	39.5%

Although individual influences on personal philanthropic definitions were not found to be statistically significant, members of all three donor groups reported that their own personally-held beliefs were the greatest influence on their personal definitions of philanthropy. While other individuals may have had a hand in fleshing out these definitions, 59.3 percent of small gift donors and 49.1 percent of large gift donors stated that their own beliefs, mores, and values were their greatest philanthropic influences. Further, non-donors appeared to value the input of others a bit higher than their donor peers, as they placed almost equal weight in both ‘own personal belief’ and ‘family members’ (i.e., 39.5 percent to 34 percent). Perhaps the most telling result was the relatively small impact that individuals in leadership roles had upon personal definitions of philanthropy. Less than two percent of all respondents agreed that a ‘UT Austin faculty member,’ ‘UT Austin staff member,’ ‘UT Austin student organization advisor,’ or ‘boss or supervisor’ had a significant impact upon the development of their personal definition of philanthropy.

The *UT Alumni Satisfaction Survey* also asked participants to indicate the importance of a specific set of activities in the development of their personal definitions of philanthropy. Table 5.3 highlights the most influential activities, as indicated by the respondents.

Table 5.3. Activities that influence personal definitions of philanthropy.

Activities Influencing Personal Philanthropic Definitions	Respondents (Weighted) (n=499)								Mean (SD)
	Freq		%		Freq		%		
					<u>Small Gift Donors</u>		<u>Very</u>		
	<u>Very Important</u>		<u>Important</u>		<u>Unimportant</u>		<u>Unimportant</u>		
Joining the Texas Exes	8	13.6%	24	40.7%	18	30.5%	9	15.3%	2.5 (.928)
Purchasing Tickets to an Intercollegiate Athletics Event	6	10.5%	12	21.1%	24	42.1%	15	26.3%	2.2 (.945)
Becoming a Mentor to a UT Austin Student	8	15.7%	30	58.8%	9	17.6%	4	7.8%	2.8 (.793)
Making a Financial Contribution	7	11.9%	30	50.8%	15	25.4%	7	11.9%	2.6 (.843)
Working as a UT Austin Admissions Volunteer	2	4.2%	18	37.5%	20	41.7%	8	16.7%	2.3 (.799)
Working as a UT Austin Fundraising Volunteer	3	6.4%	14	29.8%	19	40.4%	11	23.4%	2.2 (.891)
Working as Some Type of Volunteer at UT	5	10.0%	26	52.0%	11	22.0%	8	16.0%	2.6 (.896)
Attending a UT Austin Class Reunion	1	1.9%	13	24.1%	24	44.4%	16	29.6%	3.0 (.777)
Seeking a Political Office	2	3.9%	8	15.7%	19	37.3%	22	43.1%	3.2 (.852)
Joining a Social Action or Civil Rights Organization	3	5.9%	16	31.4%	18	35.3%	14	27.5%	2.8 (.919)
Joining a Religious Organization	3	6.0%	9	18.0%	18	36.0%	20	40.0%	3.1 (.903)
Working on a Community Service Project	10	18.5%	31	57.4%	8	14.8%	5	9.3%	2.1 (.825)
Lobbying on Behalf of UT Austin	5	9.4%	24	45.3%	16	30.2%	8	15.1%	2.5 (.877)
Sharing Your Pride in UT Austin with Others	23	40.4%	22	38.6%	6	10.5%	6	10.5%	3.1 (.969)

Table 5.3 (continued). Activities that influence personal definitions of philanthropy.

Activities Influencing Personal Philanthropic Definitions	Respondents (Weighted) (n=499)								Mean (SD)
	Freq		%		Freq		%		
	<u>Large Gift Donors</u>								
	<u>Very Important</u>		<u>Important</u>		<u>Unimportant</u>		<u>Very Unimportant</u>		
Joining the Texas Exes	18	36.0%	22	44.0%	8	16.0%	2	4.0%	3.1 (.831)
Purchasing Tickets to an Intercollegiate Athletics Event	8	16.7%	21	43.8%	15	31.3%	4	8.3%	2.7 (.852)
Becoming a Mentor to a UT Austin Student	7	15.9%	26	59.1%	9	20.5%	2	4.5%	2.9 (.793)
Making a Financial Contribution	10	20.8%	25	52.1%	9	18.8%	4	8.3%	2.9 (.855)
Working as a UT Austin Admissions Volunteer	4	9.3%	17	39.5%	18	41.9%	4	9.3%	2.5 (.781)
Working as a UT Austin Fundraising Volunteer	4	10.0%	12	30.0%	18	45.0%	6	15.0%	2.4 (.860)
Working as Some Type of Volunteer at UT	6	14.0%	24	55.8%	10	23.3%	3	7.0%	2.8 (.770)
Attending a UT Austin Class Reunion	2	4.7%	12	2.3%	20	46.5%	9	20.9%	2.8 (.823)
Seeking a Political Office	2	4.8%	7	16.7%	18	42.9%	15	35.7%	3.1 (.827)
Joining a Social Action or Civil Rights Organization	2	5.0%	12	30.0%	14	35.0%	12	30.0%	2.9 (.897)
Joining a Religious Organization	4	10.0%	10	25.0%	13	32.5%	13	32.5%	2.9 (.982)
Working on a Community Service Project	9	19.1%	25	53.2%	8	17.0%	5	10.6%	2.2 (.885)
Lobbying on Behalf of UT Austin	7	17.5%	14	35.0%	13	32.5%	6	15.0%	2.5 (.950)
Sharing Your Pride in UT Austin with Others	23	46.0%	22	44.0%	5	10.0%	0	0.0%	3.4 (.667)

Table 5.3 (continued). Activities that influence personal definitions of philanthropy.

Activities Influencing Personal Philanthropic Definitions	Respondents (Weighted) (n=499)								Mean (SD)
	Freq		%		Freq		%		
	<u>Non-Donors</u>								
	<u>Very Important</u>		<u>Important</u>		<u>Unimportant</u>		<u>Very Unimportant</u>		
Joining the Texas Exes	21	9.9%	74	34.7%	68	31.9%	50	23.5%	2.3 (.941)
Purchasing Tickets to an Intercollegiate Athletics Event	23	10.8%	63	29.6%	67	31.5%	60	28.2%	2.2 (.979)
Becoming a Mentor to a UT Austin Student	23	11.5%	120	60.0%	30	15.0%	27	13.5%	2.7 (.846)
Making a Financial Contribution	19	9.3%	87	42.6%	61	29.9%	37	18.1%	2.4 (.891)
Working as a UT Austin Admissions Volunteer	11	5.8%	77	40.7%	60	31.7%	41	21.7%	2.3 (.880)
Working as a UT Austin Fundraising Volunteer	11	5.8%	60	31.6%	73	38.4%	46	24.2%	2.2 (.873)
Working as Some Type of Volunteer at UT	20	10.3%	95	48.7%	46	23.6%	34	17.4%	2.5 (.899)
Attending a UT Austin Class Reunion	4	2.0%	46	22.9%	84	41.8%	67	33.3%	3.1 (.803)
Seeking a Political Office	4	2.2%	37	20.0%	67	36.2%	77	41.6%	3.2 (.826)
Joining a Social Action or Civil Rights Organization	30	14.9%	61	30.3%	64	31.8%	46	22.9%	2.6 (.996)
Joining a Religious Organization	16	8.5%	41	21.7%	61	32.3%	71	37.6%	3.0 (.964)
Working on a Community Service Project	44	20.9%	103	48.8%	33	15.6%	31	14.7%	2.2 (.951)
Lobbying on Behalf of UT Austin	17	8.8%	64	33.2%	61	31.6%	51	26.4%	2.2 (.945)
Sharing Your Pride in UT Austin with Others	91	41.0%	93	41.9%	21	9.5%	17	7.7%	3.2 (.889)

A One-Way ANOVA revealed that there were statistically significant differences found among donor groups in the ways in which young alumni share their UT Austin pride with others. ‘Joining the Texas Exes’ ($F=22.723$, $p=.000$), ‘purchasing tickets to an intercollegiate athletics event’ ($F=8.388$, $p=.000$), ‘lobbying on behalf of UT Austin’ ($F=3.129$, $p=.045$), and ‘making a financial contribution’ ($F=6.666$, $p=.001$) were all found to be statistically significant. Tukey’s post hoc test showed significantly higher importance levels in Texas Exes membership and intercollegiate athletics event attendance among large gift donors, while small gift donors and non-gift donors had approximately the same level of importance. Further, post hoc tests showed a higher level of importance for financial contributions among large gift donors, while small gift and non-donors felt that these activities were less important. These results were consistent with previous research that indicated a preference for formalized institutional philanthropy among individuals interested in making large financial gifts (Wunnava & Lauze, 2001).

Perhaps surprisingly, marginal statistically significant differences were found among the remaining variables, including ‘working as some type of volunteer’ ($F=2.701$, $p=.069$), ‘joining a social action or civil rights organization’ ($F=2.388$, $p=.094$), and ‘sharing your pride in UT Austin with others’ ($F=2.538$, $p=.081$). Only slight differences in the levels of importance assigned to each of these actions were observed among donor groups. Additionally, there were no statistically significant differences across donor groups found among the remaining variables.

Research Question 3

The Author's exploration of the potential relational and experiential factors that influence personal definitions of philanthropy and alumni-institutional connectivity provided him with the background information necessary to understand the philanthropic motivations of young alumni. However, while it is crucial to understand the reasons why individuals choose (not) to give, it is equally important to understand the ways in which donors engage in institutional philanthropy.

In order to explore the ways in which young alumni participate in institutional philanthropic efforts, the Author posed the following question: "what role(s) do young alumni believe they play in institutional philanthropic efforts?" Table 5.4 indicates the overall level and nature of connectivity that the respondents have to UT Austin, as well as a list of the factors that motivate their philanthropic involvement.

Table 5.4. Factors that contribute to young alumni connectivity to UT Austin.

	Respondents (Weighted) (n=499)					
	Small Gift Donors		Large Gift Donors		Non-Donors	
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
Level of Connectivity to UT Austin						
Extremely Connected	7	10.3%	13	22.4%	14	5.4%
Very Connected	13	19.1%	18	31.0%	57	22.1%
Moderately Connected	29	42.6%	21	36.2%	105	40.7%
Slightly Connected	14	20.5%	6	10.3%	66	25.6%
Not at All Connected	5	7.4%	0	0.0%	16	6.2%
Mean (SD)	3.1 (1.07)		3.7 (.956)		3.0 (.970)	
Nature of Connection						
Primarily academic (e.g., major)	15	22.1%	13	22.4%	67	25.6%
Primarily athletics	16	23.5%	17	29.3%	76	29.0%
Primarily extra-curricular (e.g., student group)	3	4.4%	5	8.6%	7	2.7%
Primarily interpersonal (e.g., friends)	24	35.3%	18	31.0%	76	29.0%
None	4	5.9%	0	0.0%	17	6.5%
Other	6	8.8%	5	8.6%	19	7.3%
Factors That Motivate Philanthropic Involvement						
I Have Not Been Actively Involved	27	15.9%	13	7.6%	130	76.5%
I Believe in the Mission of the University	23	19.0%	27	22.3%	71	58.7%
I Want to Give Back to the University That Gave Me so Much	24	24.2%	24	24.2%	51	51.5%
It is in My Nature to Help Others	23	24.7%	17	18.3%	53	57.0%
The University Has a Positive Impact Within My Community	15	16.9%	18	20.2%	56	62.9%
My Family and Friends Have Always Encouraged Philanthropy	8	20.0%	11	27.5%	21	52.5%
The University is in Need of My Support	9	24.3%	11	29.7%	17	45.9%
Other	4	14.3%	5	17.9%	19	67.9%
Peer Pressure	1	16.7%	1	16.7%	4	66.6%

The data appeared to indicate a relationship between the level(s) and nature of alumni-institutional connectivity, and the role(s) in which young alumni see themselves playing in institutional efforts. A One-Way ANOVA revealed a statistically significant difference in the respondents' level of connectivity to UT Austin ($F=18.463$, $p=.000$). Tukey's post hoc test showed significantly higher connectivity levels among large gift donors, while small gift donors and non-donors had approximately the same level of connectivity. Further, it is interesting to note that the nature of the connection to UT Austin after graduation did not appear to strongly influence a decision to become a young alumni donor. In the respondent group, non-donors also maintained connections to their alma mater through their academic major, intercollegiate athletics, and friendships as did small gift and large gift donors (see Table 5.4).

Additionally, the role that young alumni play in institutional philanthropic efforts was not statistically significantly different across donor groups. Instead, these roles may have been dictated by personal perceptions of the University. As shown in Table 5.4, 29.7 percent of large gift donors stated that they had become philanthropically active because they believed that UT Austin was in need of their support. Although 24.3 percent of small gift donors became motivated on the same account, a slightly larger percentage (i.e., 24.7 percent) reported becoming philanthropically active because it was in their personal nature to assist others. Perhaps unsurprisingly, the factors that motivate philanthropic engagement also differed between the three donor groups. While 76.5 percent of non-donors reported not being actively involved in institutional philanthropic efforts, only 7.6 of large gift donors reported the similar activity. This difference may be

attributed to the fact that donors are more actively engaged with their alma mater than non-donors (e.g., attendance at local Texas Exes chapter meetings, receiving the alumni magazine, interacting with other engaged alumni, etc.).

As previous studies have demonstrated a link between the strength of the connection to an institution after graduation and the level of philanthropic engagement by alumni, the Author also attempted to identify the co-curricular experiences that reflect personal philanthropic definitions and the methods through which alumni express their post-graduation institutional connectivity. Table 5.5 identifies the level of significance ascribed to each factor by the respondent group.

Table 5.5. Significance of activity in maintaining donor connectivity to UT Austin.

Significance in Connection to UT Austin	Respondents (W.) (n=499)											
	Freq		%		Freq		%		Freq		%	
					<u>Small Gift Donors</u>							
	<u>Very Significant</u>		<u>Significant</u>		<u>Only Slightly Significant</u>		<u>Not at All Significant</u>		<u>Mean (SD)</u>			
Your Academic Dept. or Major	26	38.2%	24	35.3%	11	16.2%	7	10.3%	3.0 (.981)			
Your School or College	22	33.3%	24	36.4%	13	19.7%	7	10.6%	2.9 (.973)			
Your Class (i.e., Year of Graduation)	5	7.5%	18	26.9%	22	32.8%	22	32.8%	2.1 (.959)			
UT as a Whole	38	57.6%	20	30.3%	6	9.0%	2	3.0%	3.4 (.785)			
Your Fraternity or Sorority	7	35.0%	3	15.0%	3	15.0%	7	35.0%	2.6 (1.315)			
Your Undergraduate Clubs	9	19.6%	11	24.0%	13	28.3%	13	28.3%	2.4 (1.096)			
Athletics	22	46.8%	13	27.7%	5	10.6%	7	14.9%	3.0 (1.097)			
Your Residence Hall	0	0.0%	8	18.6%	13	30.2%	22	51.2%	1.7 (.782)			
Local Alumni/ae Chapter Meetings (e.g., Texas Exes)	4	7.7%	11	21.1%	19	36.5%	18	34.6%	2.0 (.940)			
Friendships from College	36	56.2%	14	21.9%	10	15.6%	4	6.3%	3.3 (.950)			
Receiving News from UT	10	15.4%	29	44.6%	18	27.7%	8	12.3%	2.6 (.898)			
Attendance at UT-Related Events	9	15.5%	23	39.7%	16	27.6%	10	17.2%	2.5 (.964)			
Receiving the Alumni Magazine	10	15.6%	24	37.5%	16	25.0%	14	21.9%	2.5 (1.015)			
Class Notes/Newsletters	3	5.1%	18	31.0%	16	27.6%	21	36.2%	2.1 (.958)			
Class Reunions	3	6.5%	9	19.6%	11	23.9%	23	50.0%	1.9 (.970)			
Personal Desire to Assist the University in Achieving its Goals	9	14.0%	24	37.5%	22	34.4%	9	14.0%	2.7 (.902)			

Table 5.5 (continued). Significance of activity in maintaining donor connectivity to UT Austin.

	Respondents (W.)		Respondents (W.)		Respondents (W.)		Respondents (W.)		Mean (SD)
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	
Significance in Connection to UT Austin					<u>Large Gift Donors</u>				
					<u>Only Slightly Significant</u>		<u>Not at All Significant</u>		
Your Academic Dept. or Major	18	31.6%	23	40.4%	14	24.6%	2	3.5%	3.0 (.981)
Your School or College	17	30.4%	27	48.2%	10	17.9%	2	3.6%	3.0 (.797)
Your Class (i.e., Year of Graduation)	9	16.1%	13	23.2%	23	41.1%	11	19.6%	2.3 (.979)
UT as a Whole	38	69.1%	14	25.5%	3	5.5%	0	0.0%	3.6 (.592)
Your Fraternity or Sorority	7	43.8%	5	31.2%	3	18.8%	1	6.3%	3.2 (.965)
Your Undergraduate Clubs	12	30.0%	10	25.0%	11	27.5%	7	17.5%	2.7 (1.099)
Athletics	25	53.2%	13	27.7%	6	12.8%	3	6.4%	3.3 (.927)
Your Residence Hall	4	12.1%	3	9.1%	9	27.3%	17	51.2%	1.8 (1.050)
Local Alumni/ae Chapter Meetings (e.g., Texas Exes)	10	19.6%	11	21.6%	22	43.1%	8	15.7%	2.4 (.986)
Friendships from College	38	69.1%	10	17.9%	6	11.0%	1	1.8%	3.6 (.732)
Receiving News from UT	11	19.6%	32	57.1%	11	19.6%	2	3.6%	3.0 (.715)
Attendance at UT-Related Events	20	35.7%	19	33.9%	14	25.0%	3	5.6%	3.0 (.920)
Receiving the Alumni Magazine	16	29.6%	22	40.7%	12	22.2%	4	7.4%	2.9 (.910)
Class Notes/Newsletters	6	12.2%	10	20.4%	20	40.8%	13	26.5%	2.2 (.964)
Class Reunions	3	7.5%	9	22.5%	11	27.5%	17	42.5%	1.9 (.970)
Personal Desire to Assist the University in Achieving its Goals	12	21.4%	21	37.5%	18	32.1%	5	8.9%	2.7 (.902)

Table 5.5 (continued). Significance of activity in maintaining donor connectivity to UT Austin.

	Respondents (W.) (n=499)								Mean (SD)
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	
Significance in Connection to UT Austin	<u>Non-Donors</u>								
	<u>Very Significant</u>		<u>Significant</u>		<u>Only Slightly Significant</u>		<u>Not at All Significant</u>		
Your Academic Dept. or Major	83	32.2%	84	32.6%	64	24.8%	27	10.5%	2.9 (.986)
Your School or College	93	36.5%	81	31.8%	47	18.4%	34	13.3%	2.9 (1.039)
Your Class (i.e., Year of Graduation)	29	11.4%	71	28.0%	88	34.6%	66	26.0%	2.2 (.965)
UT as a Whole	170	66.4%	48	18.8%	34	13.3%	4	1.6%	3.5 (.786)
Your Fraternity or Sorority	24	35.3%	16	23.5%	7	10.3%	21	30.9%	2.6 (1.261)
Your Undergraduate Clubs	33	17.8%	41	22.2%	47	25.4%	64	34.6%	2.2 (1.109)
Athletics	90	45.9%	53	27.0%	27	13.8%	26	13.3%	3.1 (1.061)
Your Residence Hall	19	10.7%	29	16.3%	36	20.2%	94	52.8%	1.8 (1.045)
Local Alumni/ae Chapter Meetings (e.g., Texas Exes)	13	7.5%	34	19.5%	60	34.5%	67	38.5%	2.0 (.938)
Friendships from College	162	63.8%	54	21.3%	27	10.6%	11	4.3%	3.4 (.854)
Receiving News from UT	44	17.3%	100	39.2%	80	31.4%	31	12.2%	2.6 (.912)
Attendance at UT-Related Events	51	21.7%	64	27.2%	66	28.1%	54	23.0%	2.5 (1.073)
Receiving the Alumni Magazine	33	15.3%	53	24.5%	67	31.0%	63	29.2%	2.3 (1.041)
Class Notes/Newsletters	10	4.9%	36	17.5%	70	34.0%	90	43.7%	1.8 (.884)
Class Reunions	4	2.1%	36	19.0%	54	28.6%	95	50.3%	1.7 (.844)
Personal Desire to Assist the University in Achieving its Goals	30	12.5%	90	37.5%	66	27.5%	54	22.5%	2.4 (.972)

A One-Way ANOVA revealed that there were statistically significant differences found among donor groups for specific activities in maintaining connectivity to UT Austin. Activities that have traditionally fallen within the realm of alumni associations and institutional development offices were found to reveal the greatest differences between donor groups. Significant differences between donor groups were evident for the following activities: 'local alumni/ae chapter meetings' ($F=7.787$, $p=.001$), 'receiving news from UT Austin' ($F=5.896$, $p=.003$), 'attendance at UT-related events' ($F=8.827$, $p=.000$), 'receiving the alumni magazine' ($F=13.698$, $p=.000$), and 'class notes/newsletters' ($F=3.940$, $p=.020$). Further, 'your undergraduate clubs' ($F=4.176$, $p=.016$) and 'personal desire to assist the University in achieving its goals' ($F=3.856$, $p=.022$) were also found to be statistically significant.

Tukey's post hoc tests showed statistically significantly higher significance levels of local Texas Exes chapter meeting attendance, receipt of UT Austin news, attendance at UT-related events, and receipt of the Texas Exes alumni magazine among large gift donors, while small gift and non-donors had approximately the same levels of significance. Also, the significance levels of undergraduate club affiliation, receipt of class newsletters, and desire to assist the University in achieving its goals were statistically significantly higher for large gift donors than non-donors. This discrepancy may be attributed to the greater influence of institutional connectivity on the willingness of large gift donors to become philanthropically engaged. These individuals may be more likely to give when they engage in activities that increase their connectivity to UT Austin, while the influence of institutional connectivity on small gift donors may not be

as great as the influence of other factors (e.g., gender, preference for non-financial gifts, etc.).

Research Question 4

While the previous research questions analyzed the composition of the members of each donor group, the variances in personal definitions of philanthropy, and the factors that motivate giving, the Author was also interested in exploring the potential impact of philanthropic engagement at the undergraduate level. The first question posed by the Author in this vein was “does engaging in philanthropic activities while an undergraduate student increase the likelihood that one will become a philanthropically engaged alumnus/a?” Previous studies have demonstrated a positive relationship between increased engagement at the undergraduate level, satisfaction in the overall undergraduate experience, and future alumni philanthropic giving (Miller & Casebeer, 1990; Monks, 2003; Weerts & Ronca, 2007). Table 5.6 provides an overview of the levels of undergraduate engagement for members of each donor group.

Table 5.6. Engagement at the undergraduate level.

	Respondents (Weighted) (n=499)					
	Small Gift		Large Gift		Non-Donors	
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
Engagement at the Undergraduate Level						
Volunteered Your Time to a Community-Based Service Program	51	82.3%	34	65.4%	170	69.7%
Volunteered Your Time to a University-Based Service Program	37	58.7%	34	65.4%	120	49.2%
Made a Financial Contribution	21	33.9%	15	28.8%	38	15.5%
Served as a Peer Mentor	16	25.8%	17	32.7%	68	28.3%

Although no statistically significant differences were found between donor groups for these items, it is interesting to note that the respondents who had been actively engaged at the undergraduate level may have been more likely to become donors after graduating from UT Austin. Approximately 34 percent of small gift donors and 28.8 percent of large gift donors had made a financial contribution while undergraduate students, compared to only 15.5 percent of non-donors. The majority of reported undergraduate engagement involved volunteerism to community and university-based service programs. Small gift donors appeared to prefer community-based service programs to university-based service programs (i.e., 82.3 percent versus 58.7 percent), while the preferences of large gift donors were equally divided between community-based and university-based service programs (i.e., 65.4 percent each). As may be expected, the reported engagement levels of non-donors were less than those of donors; while 69.7 percent of non-donors had engaged in a community-based service program as undergraduates, less than 50 percent reported engaging in the remaining three activities (e.g., volunteering time to a university-based service program, making a financial contribution, and serving as a peer mentor).

A second factor that may influence young alumni to become philanthropically engaged is their level of satisfaction with the overall UT Austin undergraduate experience. Table 5.7 contains donor and non-donor responses to nine specific experiential items.

Table 5.7. Levels of satisfaction with the overall UT Austin undergraduate experience.

Level of Satisfaction with Overall UT Austin Undergraduate Experience	Respondents (Weighted) (n=499)								Mean (SD)
	Freq		%		Freq		%		
	<u>Small Gift Donors</u>								
	<u>Very Satisfied</u>		<u>Satisfied</u>		<u>Dissatisfied</u>		<u>Very Dissatisfied</u>		
Your Grade Point Average	23	32.4%	32	45.1%	12	16.9%	4	5.6%	3.0 (.851)
Overall Academic Experience	32	45.1%	35	49.3%	3	4.2%	1	1.4%	3.4 (.627)
Overall Social Experience	32	44.4%	34	47.2%	5	6.9%	1	1.4%	3.3 (.690)
Academic Challenge of Major Coursework	34	47.9%	33	46.5%	3	4.2%	1	1.4%	3.4 (.631)
Opportunities to Interact with Major Faculty	22	31.0%	34	47.9%	12	16.9%	3	4.2%	3.1 (.797)
Caring and Helpfulness of Staff	21	29.2%	40	55.6%	6	8.3%	5	6.9%	3.1 (.803)
Course Scheduling	18	25.4%	45	63.4%	7	9.9%	1	1.4%	3.1 (.647)
Course Availability	19	26.4%	41	56.9%	9	12.5%	3	4.2%	3.1 (.735)
Quality of Collections in the Libraries	32	44.4%	38	52.8%	1	1.4%	1	1.4%	3.4 (.583)

Table 5.7 (continued). Levels of satisfaction with the overall UT Austin undergraduate experience.

Level of Satisfaction with Overall UT Austin Undergraduate Experience	Respondents (Weighted) (n=499)								Mean (SD)
	Large Gift Donors		Large Gift Donors		Large Gift Donors		Large Gift Donors		
	<u>Very Satisfied</u>	<u>Satisfied</u>	<u>Dissatisfied</u>	<u>Very Dissatisfied</u>	<u>Very Satisfied</u>	<u>Satisfied</u>	<u>Dissatisfied</u>	<u>Very Dissatisfied</u>	
Your Grade Point Average	14	23.7%	32	54.2%	11	18.6%	2	3.4%	3.0 (.737)
Overall Academic Experience	30	50.8%	28	47.5%	1	1.7%	0	0.0%	3.5 (.521)
Overall Social Experience	37	61.7%	22	36.7%	1	1.7%	0	0.0%	3.6 (.508)
Academic Challenge of Major Coursework	29	50.0%	26	44.8%	3	5.2%	0	0.0%	3.4 (.598)
Opportunities to Interact with Major Faculty	15	25.9%	28	48.3%	14	24.1%	1	1.7%	3.0 (.761)
Caring and Helpfulness of Staff	19	32.2%	36	61.0%	3	5.1%	1	1.7%	3.3 (.594)
Course Scheduling	16	26.7%	37	61.7%	6	10.0%	1	1.7%	3.2 (.620)
Course Availability	16	27.6%	32	55.2%	9	15.5%	1	1.7%	3.1 (.708)
Quality of Collections in the Libraries	21	35.6%	37	62.7%	1	1.7%	0	0.0%	3.4 (.499)

Table 5.7 (continued). Levels of satisfaction with the overall UT Austin undergraduate experience.

Level of Satisfaction with Overall UT Austin Undergraduate Experience	Respondents (Weighted) (n=499)								Mean (SD)
	Freq		%		Freq		%		
					Non-Donors				
	<u>Very Satisfied</u>		<u>Satisfied</u>		<u>Dissatisfied</u>		<u>Very Dissatisfied</u>		
Your Grade Point Average	81	28.8%	128	45.6%	56	20.0%	16	5.7%	3.0 (.844)
Overall Academic Experience	108	38.4%	144	51.2%	20	7.1%	9	3.2%	3.3 (.718)
Overall Social Experience	134	47.7%	117	41.6%	20	7.1%	10	3.6%	3.3 (.761)
Academic Challenge of Major Coursework	115	41.2%	137	49.1%	20	7.2%	7	2.5%	3.3 (.709)
Opportunities to Interact with Major Faculty	71	25.3%	121	43.1%	73	26.0%	16	5.7%	2.9 (.851)
Caring and Helpfulness of Staff	71	25.3%	157	55.9%	43	15.3%	10	3.6%	3.0 (.741)
Course Scheduling	70	25.0%	175	62.5%	24	8.6%	11	3.9%	3.1 (.701)
Course Availability	66	23.4%	160	56.7%	47	16.7%	9	3.2%	3.0 (.724)
Quality of Collections in the Libraries	124	44.3%	152	54.3%	4	1.4%	0	0.0%	3.4 (.525)

A One-Way ANOVA revealed a statistically significant difference in the satisfaction respondents expressed in their overall academic experience by donor group ($F=5.557$, $p=.004$). Tukey's post hoc test showed significantly higher satisfaction levels among large gift donors, while significantly lower satisfaction levels were shown among non-donors. Similarly, a statistically significant difference was found in the satisfaction respondents expressed in their overall social experience by donor group ($F=6.850$, $p=.001$). Tukey's post hoc test showed statistically significantly higher satisfaction levels among large gift donors, while small gift donors and non-donors had approximately the same level of importance. A statistically significant difference was also found in the satisfaction respondents felt in the caring and helpfulness of UT Austin staff ($F=3.594$, $p=.028$). Tukey's post hoc test showed significantly higher satisfaction levels among large gift donors, while significantly lower satisfaction levels were shown among non-donors.

Research Question 5

The fifth, and final, research question broached the topic of student philanthropy as well, but from a slightly different perspective: "do young alumni believe that there is value in being a philanthropically engaged undergraduate student?" This question enabled the Author to identify the respondents' prior exposure to student philanthropy, and gauge their perceptions of the benefits associated with such activities. Their responses are contained within Table 5.8.

Table 5.8. Prior exposure to and willingness to engage in student philanthropy.

	Respondents (Weighted) (n=499)					
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
	<u>Small Gift Donors</u>		<u>Large Gift Donors</u>		<u>Non-Donors</u>	
Prior Exposure to the Term Student Philanthropy'						
Yes; I Know Exactly What Student Philanthropy Entails	11	17.2%	7	13.5%	29	11.8%
Yes; I Have Heard of Student Philanthropy, but I'm Not Quite Sure What it Entails	15	23.4%	11	21.2%	46	18.7%
No; I Can Guess What it Entails, Though	33	51.6%	30	57.7%	152	61.8%
No; I Have No Idea What Student Philanthropy Entails	5	7.8%	4	7.7%	19	7.7%
Willingness to Engage in Student Philanthropy						
Yes; I Believe That Student Philanthropy is Important for Both Personal Development and Continued Institutional Prosperity	21	31.8%	22	41.5%	87	36.0%
Yes; I Believe That Student Philanthropy is Important, but it Would be One of Many Obligations I Would Have as a Student	33	50.0%	20	37.8%	98	40.5%
No; While I Believe That Student Philanthropy is Somewhat Important, I Had More Pressing Concerns That Would Have Monopolized My Time	11	16.7%	10	18.9%	50	20.7%
No; I Do Not Believe That Student Philanthropy Makes a Significant Impact Upon the University	1	1.5%	1	1.9%	7	2.9%

There were no statistically significant differences among donor groups found using Chi-squared analysis of the aforementioned variables. Although there were no significant differences, these results were still interesting and warranted further consideration. Less than 20 percent of respondents reported having prior exposure to the term 'student philanthropy,' and only 17.2 percent of small gift donors, 13.5 percent of large gift donors, and 11.8 percent of non-donors knew exactly what student philanthropy entailed. Familiarity with this term appeared to be relatively uniform across all three donor groups, with small gift donors having slightly more exposure to student philanthropy than non-donors (i.e., 23.4 percent to 18.7 percent, respectively). However, perhaps most disconcerting for alumni relations and development professionals were the percentages of respondents who reported having had no prior exposure to student philanthropy. While 61.8 percent of non-donors, 57.7 percent of large gift donors, and 51.6 percent of small gift donors stated that they could guess what student philanthropy entails, at no point during their undergraduate experience were any of the donor groups provided with a formal opportunity to become philanthropically engaged. This has important ramifications on the future of young alumni giving, which will be discussed in further detail in Chapter Six.

Also, willingness to engage in student philanthropy appeared to vary slightly by donor group. Although no statistically significant differences were found among the donor groups, 81.8 percent of large gift donors, 79.3 percent of small gift donors, and 76.5 percent of non-donors expressed a willingness to engage in student philanthropy if afforded an opportunity for participation. Unsurprisingly, the greatest percentage of large

gift donors (i.e., 41.5 percent) stated that they believed that student philanthropy is an important component of both personal development and continued institutional prosperity; 36 percent of non-donors and 31.8 percent of small gift donors reported similar sentiments. On a more positive note, only 2.9 percent of non-donors, 1.9 percent of large gift donors, and 1.5 percent of small gift donors stated that they did not believe that student philanthropy has a significant impact upon the University, further justifying the push for increased student involvement in institutional philanthropic efforts.

Summary

While Chapter Four provided a comprehensive overview of the demographic, experiential, and giving compositions of the *UT Alumni Satisfaction Survey's* respondent group, this chapter shifted the focus of the analyses from individual variables to one broad, yet key, variable: 'donor group.' While it was important to thoroughly examine the respondent group to determine its representativeness to the overall sample population, it was equally important to analyze the composition of all three donor groups. These comparisons enabled the Author to identify potential similarities and differences among members of these groups, and to uncover perceptions of and attitudes toward philanthropic engagement that may ultimately prove beneficial in the development of effective alumni relations and institutional development efforts.

The research questions referenced in this chapter provided the Author with a comprehensive overview of the often complex relationships that exist between members of each donor group (i.e., small gift donors, large gift donors, and non-donors) and UT Austin, their alma mater. These analyses enabled the Author to identify the

characteristics of donor and non-donor groups, gauge alumni perceptions of the influence of their undergraduate educational experiences in the development of their personal definitions of philanthropy, explore the role that young alumni may play in institutional philanthropy, determine the impact of undergraduate philanthropic engagement on future alumni giving patterns, and assess the value(s) of sustained student giving. Further, these analyses will as the foundation for the recommendations for practice and future research that will be presented in Chapter Six.

Chapter 6: Conclusion and Recommendations

I have found that, amongst its other benefits, giving liberates the soul of the giver.

-Maya Angelou

SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION OF MAJOR FINDINGS

As public sector financial support for the nation's colleges and universities continues to dwindle at an alarming rate, institutional leaders have turned to non-traditional sources of revenue in order to compensate for increased budgetary restrictions. This problem is especially pressing for public postsecondary institutions, as private funding has now assumed a major role in the financing of public higher education (Dill, 2007). Many institutions have turned to tuition rate increases in response to the continuous reductions in state appropriation levels; however, additional non-traditional sources of revenue (e.g., sponsored research grants, corporate donations, endowment income, and alumni contributions) have also been heavily relied upon to finance annual operational budgets (Monks, 2003).

The increased reliance upon non-traditional sources of revenue has had major implications on the field of alumni relations. What was once a loose amalgam of individual employees dedicated to the preservation of alumni loyalty to their alma mater has developed into a profession charged with cultivating and maintaining relationships with institutional stakeholders, encouraging increased alumni participation in

philanthropic initiatives, and highlighting the institution's worth to a broad audience. This is especially apropos of young alumni, who often retain strong connections to their alma mater, but lack the resources, interest, or opportunities to become philanthropically engaged. By encouraging increased young alumni participation in institutional philanthropic efforts, colleges and universities may make great strides in securing continuous sources of non-traditional revenue (e.g., private gifts, volunteerism, etc.).

Although it was clear that alumni play an important role in the advancement of academia, few studies have attempted to measure these relationships to identify the influence of young alumni. This study addressed this research gap by analyzing data gathered through the administration of the *UT Alumni Satisfaction Survey*, a 34-question survey instrument distributed to 8,000 young UT Austin alumni during the spring of 2011. This study examined survey responses via an analysis of five demographic and seven background variables. Further, an understanding of prosocial behavior, relationship marketing and social exchange theory, social identity and organizational identification, and fundraising theories on donor motivation enabled the Author to identify characteristics that may be common among donor groups, highlight the ways in which young alumni remain connected to their alma mater after graduation, gauge prevailing perceptions of the role of alumni in institutional development efforts, and determine the impact of affording philanthropic opportunities to current undergraduate students.

Importance of Alumni Philanthropy

The introduction of stringent admissions policies (i.e., Texas House Bill 588, or the “Top 10 Percent Rule”) and the changing demographic composition of Texas’s population has presented an array of new challenges to the UT Austin community. As the University’s student body continues to diversify, traditional methods of attracting and retaining students must be continuously reexamined to ensure their effectiveness in reaching the target population. The same holds true for UT Austin’s young alumni. The institutional units charged with alumni relations and development programming must consistently ensure that their outreach efforts are reflective of the population and are targeted at the increased solicitation of non-donors, as well as the maintenance of existing relationships with current donors. The identification of small gift and large gift donors within the respondent group proved to be one of the most advantageous aspects of this study, as donor group appeared to be one of the most powerful predictors of participation in the *UT Alumni Satisfaction Survey*.

Dolbert (2002) notes that alumni relations and development professionals play an important role in cultivating and maintaining alumni connections to their alma mater through an increased emphasis upon a continuum of alumni engagement entitled the “Five I’s:” “Identify, Inform, Interest, Involve, Invest” (p. 5). Each of the aforementioned steps are crucial in the maintenance of alumni-institutional connectivity after graduation; however, the identification and solicitation of potential new donors is, arguably, the most important action that institutions may take in ensuring the development of an actively engaged alumni population.

As membership within a donor group was identified as the most critical unit of analysis, this study identified characteristics that were common among the donor groups and provided empirical evidence that specific demographic and background variables may prove to be predictors of increased young alumni philanthropic engagement post-graduation. Alumni relations and development professionals may use this information to develop programs aimed at increasing young alumni participation in institutional philanthropic efforts.

Identification of Donors and Non-Donors

This study found that differences in key demographic variables might be used to predict future participation in institutional philanthropic efforts. First, within the weighted respondent group, Texas Exes membership was found to be a statistically significant positive influence on young alumni decisions to become philanthropically engaged. Texas Exes members were more likely to becoming large gift donors than small gift or non-donors. These data demonstrated that membership in an alumni association is associated with the likelihood of participation in philanthropic activities, and the making of large gifts in particular. This finding was in alignment with the work of Olson and Kennedy (2006), who argued that alumni association membership has been a strong predictor of participation in university-sponsored philanthropic initiatives as members of alumni associations are more likely to be engaged with their alma mater than their non-member peers. Actively engaged young alumni provide institutions with a passionate, cost-effective resource and must be treated accordingly.

The analysis of the respondent group also revealed statistically significant differences in gender among donors. Females comprised a slightly higher percentage of non-donors and small gift donors, while males comprised the majority of large gift donors. These data were in alignment with previous studies that suggested that male alumni are more likely to give large gifts than their female peers (House, 1987; Oglesby, 1991). The discrepancies in the types of gifts given by gender may be attributed to a number of factors (e.g., professional field, socioeconomic status, ability and desire to give, intent of gift, importance of return on investment, etc.), and bears further consideration as the number of female students matriculating into the nation's colleges and universities continues to grow.

Further, although there were no statistically significant differences across ethnic groups. However, ethnicity remains an important factor to consider when examining the giving patterns of young alumni. The majority of large gift donors were Caucasian, while African American, Asian American, Foreign, and Hispanic young alumni preferred to give small gifts. Native Americans donors, however, appeared to be the only exception to this rule, as they preferred large gifts to small gifts. The gap in giving rates between Caucasians/Hispanics and all other ethnic groups suggested much room for improvement in the engagement of young alumni of color. While it is crucial to continue to establish and maintain strong connections between the university and all alumni post-graduation, it is especially important for institutions with diverse student bodies to actively engage alumni of color. One of the ways in which this goal may be accomplished is through the recognition of the cultural differences that affect philanthropic giving in communities of

color. If the University does not take additional action to encourage the participation of young alumni of color in its philanthropic efforts, it may miss out on a potentially advantageous source of institutional support.

Other results of the study revealed a more tenuous (and statistically non-significant) influence of certain variables on membership within the three donor groups. The majority of respondents within each donor group were identified as residents of the state of Texas. While this finding does not provide direct evidence of the influence of residency on one's willingness to become philanthropically active, the residency of young alumni has potential ramifications on the scope through which institutional alumni relations and development professionals choose to develop and conduct fundraising programming. By remaining in close proximity, alumni will be exposed to pressing issues facing their alma mater via local media, participate in activities sponsored by the institution, and attend sporting events held on campus. However, the active engagement of all alumni, regardless of location, will enable an institution to make great strides in the strengthening of the relationship between itself and its overall alumni population.

Similar to residency, the principal/primary activity of the respondents appeared to be steady across all three donor groups. The majority of small gift donors, large gift donors, and non-donors reported assuming full-time employment immediately upon their graduation from UT Austin. While this information is beneficial in developing initiatives aimed at soliciting financial gifts, it is also helpful in understanding the need for alternative opportunities for philanthropic engagement (e.g., volunteering, mentoring, etc.) for those who may not have a steady source of income. Additionally, this study

found that academic college and parental education levels were consistent across all donor groups. Slight differences were observed in the academic college of degree; engineering, natural science, and education majors preferred large gifts, while liberal arts, business, nursing, and social work majors opted for small gifts. Further, while a majority of respondents' parents had received an associate, bachelor, or graduate/professional degree, their postsecondary experiences did not appear to influence their children's decisions to become future donors. This finding echoes Nirschel (1997), who found that parental socioeconomic status, ethnicity, and religious affiliation may have the greatest impact on the development of individual value systems.

The data showed that, despite a few slight differences, the donor groups were representative of the overall sample population. They supported Monks' (2003) postulation that ethnicity, level of educational attainment, and satisfaction with the overall undergraduate experience were all strong predictors of future alumni giving. Alumni association membership is also one of the most important ways that colleges and universities may increase former student participation in institutional philanthropic activities as members are consistently updated regarding issues facing the institution, as well as potential giving opportunities. Further, these data demonstrated the possible efficacy of philanthropic outreach programs aimed at appealing to specific donor demographic variables (e.g., gender, ethnicity, and residency). By affording young alumni additional opportunities to give in ways that resonate on a personal level, institutions may experience increased success in transforming non-donors into donors.

The Influence of the Undergraduate Experience

While personal demographics appeared to influence decisions to engage (or not engage) in philanthropic activities, another important factor considered by the Author was the overall undergraduate experience. This study found that particular aspects of the undergraduate experience were more influential in future philanthropic engagement than others. Satisfaction with the overall undergraduate experience (and academic and social experiences, in particular) was shown to be statistically significantly different across the donor groups. Additionally, the perceived helpfulness of UT Austin staff was also shown to be statistically significantly different across the donor groups. Large gift donors expressed higher satisfaction levels with these two factors, while small gift and non-donors had significantly lower satisfaction levels. These results should further bolster the University's efforts in fostering a positive undergraduate experience among the entire student body.

Four variables were found to vary significantly between members of the three donor groups (with large gift donors exhibiting the greatest statistically significant impact): (1) Texas Exes membership, (2) attendance at intercollegiate athletic events, (3) lobbying on behalf of the university, and (4) financial contributions. Large gift donors were found to be more likely to engage in these activities than small gift and non-donors. However, in order to appeal to a broader segment of the young alumni population, the University must provide additional opportunities to engage in institutional philanthropy that encompass more than a financial gift (e.g., volunteerism, mentoring, lobbying, community outreach, etc.). Traditionally, undergraduate students have not always been

provided with opportunities to participate in these activities; by enabling students to participate in these activities and personally observe the positive impact of philanthropy, institutions may further grow their engaged young alumni population.

Participation in institutional philanthropy also appeared to be influenced by personal definitions of philanthropy. These definitions did not appear to vary significantly across the donor groups and were influenced by both extrinsic and intrinsic factors. Small gift donors, large gift donors, and non-donors reported that their own values and beliefs constituted their greatest intrinsic influence, while family members, friends, and spiritual leaders were identified as the greatest extrinsic influences. It is also important to note that, perhaps unsurprisingly, financial contributions were shown to be a significant component of large donors' personal definitions of philanthropy. While these results were not shown to be statistically significantly different across donor groups, they do offer insight into the ways in which personal definitions of philanthropy are developed. If these definitions are entrenched before enrolling in an undergraduate course of study, alumni relations and institutional development offices may use this knowledge to their advantage by developing programs that best appeal to personal definitions of philanthropy.

These findings support the theories of Clotfelter (2003), Stutler and Calvario (1996), and Sun, Hoffman, and Grady (2007), who state that the donations that alumni make to their alma mater are significantly impacted by the donor's level of satisfaction with components of their overall undergraduate experience. These data showed that donors are attracted to giving opportunities that reflect positive relational and experiential

factors. By developing institutional philanthropic programs that appeal to personal values and definitions of philanthropy, alumni relations and development professionals may encounter great success in soliciting young alumni participation in their programmatic efforts.

The Role of Young Alumni

The results of the Author's analyses confirmed that level of alumni connectivity is important for the ultimate success of institutional philanthropic efforts. Weerts and Ronca (2007) note that this variable is crucial in the fields of alumni relations and institutional development as "alumni who give and volunteer have formed deeper connections to their alma mater and this may impact their understanding about institutional needs and their role in meeting these needs" (p. 32). The *UT Alumni Satisfaction Survey* revealed that the level connectivity with UT Austin after graduation is statistically significantly different among donors. Unsurprisingly, a One-Way ANOVA found that large gift donors were more likely to be connected to the University than small gift and non-donors. It is clear that donors are more likely to remain connected to their alma mater after graduation; therefore, an increased emphasis must be placed upon the development of programs that encourage the solicitation of non-donor participation in institutional philanthropic efforts.

Other results of the study of alumni connectivity revealed that, although the nature of the connection to UT Austin after graduation did not appear to strongly influence a decision to become a donor, young alumni remained connected to their alma mater in different ways. Small gift and large gift donors maintain their connectivity

through the interpersonal relationships that are developed during the undergraduate experience, while non-donor connections are evenly split between interpersonal relationships and intercollegiate athletics. Toma and Cross (1998) note that institutions may use these connections to their advantage as high-profile intercollegiate athletic programs influence increased participation in institutional advancement, alumni relations, and student recruitment efforts (p. 634). These results indicated that academics and extra-curricular activities, the two major aspects of the undergraduate experience, were not as influential in maintaining young alumni connectivity as other relational and experiential factors (e.g., friendships developed during college, intercollegiate athletics, etc).

Further, this study found that the factors that motivate philanthropic involvement were not statistically significant and did not vary between donor groups. Large gift donors may choose to become philanthropically engaged based upon their personal connection to the University (e.g., belief in the institutional mission), while small gift donors may choose to engage out of a desire to help others. These findings support Scott's (2003) notion that large gift donors often give because they identify with the mission of the recipient organization, not out of guilt or desire for personal recognition. Acknowledgement that UT Austin was in need of support and a desire to give back to the University also had modest influences on decisions to become philanthropically engaged. By identifying the reasons why young alumni choose to give, institutions may utilize assessment to ensure that their programs are truly reflective of these motivations.

The Importance of Connectivity

The identification of significant characteristics common to young alumni donors and non-donors and the ways in which they interact with their alma mater post-graduation are all factors that must be considered when developing and/or evaluating institutional philanthropic efforts. However, another factor that must be considered when analyzing young alumni giving is level of connectivity to the alma mater. This study found statistically significant differences in the level of connectivity to UT Austin among donor groups.

Large gift donors expressed higher levels of connectivity, while small gift and non-donors had approximately the same level of connectivity. Additionally, this study found that the nature of these connections (e.g., academic major, intercollegiate athletics, extra-curricular involvement, interpersonal relationships, etc.) and the factors that motivate individual philanthropic involvement did not appear to strongly influence membership in any of the donor groups. The young alumni that expressed the highest levels of connectivity to UT Austin after graduation were more likely to be large gift donors than small gift or non-donors; therefore, in order to increase the number of large donors within the young alumni population, the University must continuously ensure that its outreach efforts are specifically geared toward the strengthening of bonds between young alumni and their alma mater. While it may be necessary to utilize valuable resources to achieve this goal, the return on investment (i.e., increased alumni philanthropic involvement) may prove to be worth the costs incurred.

Undergraduate Philanthropic Engagement

This study also supports the assumption that there is value associated with the inclusion of undergraduate students in institutional philanthropic efforts. As outlined in Chapter Two, student philanthropy has often proven to be an effective means of grooming undergraduate students to become philanthropically engaged alumni. Olberding (2009) defines student philanthropy as “an experiential learning approach that provides students with the opportunity to study social problems and nonprofit organizations, and then make decisions about investing funds in them” (p. 463). UT Austin currently solicits undergraduate student participation in its fundraising efforts through its ‘Students Hooked on Texas’ initiative, which allows students to build on the opportunities they received by funding new opportunities for the next generation of students (*Students Hooked on Texas*, 2010).

The *UT Alumni Satisfaction Survey* asked participants to report their prior experiences with student philanthropy, as well as their willingness to engage in such activities if they had been provided with an opportunity to do so. This study found that a majority of donors and non-donors had never been exposed to the term 'student philanthropy' in the past, but were able to guess what it entailed. Only 17.2 percent of small gift donors and 13.5 percent of large gift donors stated that they knew exactly what student philanthropy entailed.

Weerts and Ronca (2007) argue that “alumni will give and volunteer if they believe that there is a positive relationship between their efforts, performance, and a desirable outcome” (p. 23). Therefore, in order to secure and maintain continued alumni

philanthropic support, institutions may be wise to demonstrate the positive impact that individual gifts have on their continued success. Although these results were somewhat counterintuitive, it is logical that the survey respondents had progressed through their undergraduate studies without being formally exposed to philanthropic giving opportunities. Further, willingness to engage in student philanthropy appeared to be dependent upon personal perceptions of the value associated with charitable giving. Large gift donors were more likely to report a belief that student philanthropy was important for personal growth and institutional prosperity, while non-donors were more likely to report that student philanthropy was neither a pressing personal concern nor made a significant impact upon the University. These indicators should serve as a warning for institutional leaders that lack of engagement opportunities for undergraduate students and dissatisfaction with the overall undergraduate experience may lead to a lack of future young alumni participation in institutional philanthropic efforts.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR PRACTICE

Although the Texas Exes and the University Development Office are making great strides in increasing alumni connectivity to UT Austin, the *UT Alumni Satisfaction Survey* demonstrated that there is room for improvement in the ways in which the University encourages young alumni participation in its philanthropic efforts. One of the ways in which this task may be accomplished is through the introduction of assessment into regular practice. Hogg and Hogg (1995) suggest that this may be accomplished through the continuous use of surveys aimed at measuring alumni and student needs and expectations. While institutions must take great care in ensuring that the distribution of

survey instruments does not lead to survey fatigue amongst the target population (e.g., limited to an annual or biannual distribution), the use of these instruments may prove valuable in providing alumni relations and development professionals with a solid understanding of the changing reasons why alumni choose to (or not to) give, as well as gauging existing levels of connectivity between alumni and their alma mater.

Targeted Donor Solicitation

Another action that may prove beneficial in increasing institutional philanthropic programming effectiveness is an increased emphasis placed upon targeted donor solicitation. Monks (2003) argues that “sorting alumni classes by characteristics that are sometimes observable to the development office may provide a more targeted and effective strategy for raising alumni contributions” (p. 129). A thorough understanding of the values, beliefs, and preferred philanthropic activities common to different subcultures within the young alumni population allows institutions to craft giving opportunities that may appeal to donors and non-donors alike. Targeted programs may also help to encourage the participation of traditionally underrepresented alumni populations in institutional philanthropic programs. Cauce, Ryan, and Grove (1998) provide recommendations for researchers in their efforts to recruit and retain participants of color, including offering financial incentives, providing referrals from leaders of communities of color, creatively branding studies, and utilizing persistence to increase participation.

The reasons that alumni choose to give large gifts as opposed to small gifts are dependent upon the factors that each individual donor holds most dear; for example, large

gift donors may be motivated by extrinsic factors (e.g., peer competition and donor recognition), while small gift donors may be motivated by intrinsic factors (e.g., institutional loyalty) (Connolly & Blanchette, 1986; Wunnava & Lauze, 2001). Large gifts afford institutions the ability to distribute funds to a greater number of recipients (e.g., programs, initiatives, and scholarships), fund a larger percentage of earmarked gifts, and/or shore up existing (or anticipated) gaps in traditional revenue streams. It is equally important to emphasize the benefit of non-financial giving. While financial gifts provide the University with a valuable alternative revenue source, many young alumni may prefer to donate their time, expertise, or labor instead. By affording all alumni with a myriad of opportunities to participate in philanthropic giving, it is hoped that more will make the decision to become active donors.

Additional consideration should also be paid to the activities of alumni associations and institutional development offices that were shown to have statistically significant impacts on large gift donors. Attendance at local Texas Exes chapter meetings, attendance at UT-related events, receipt of news about the University, reading the alumni magazine, receipt of class newsletters, and personal desire to assist the University in achieving its goals all appeared to be influential in philanthropic engagement decision-making and assisted in maintaining connectivity between young alumni and their alma mater. By concentrating attention on these efforts, institutions may witness increased young alumni participation in their philanthropic outreach efforts.

Utilization of Social Networking

The pervasiveness of digital media within contemporary American society has had many repercussions on the ways in which we communicate with each other. Hand-written letters and long distance telephone calls have been replaced by e-mails and online video chats. Colleges and universities must ensure that the methods through which they communicate with their alumni are those that are most preferred by their target population. This is especially true of young alumni, who may prefer virtual interactions over traditional gift solicitation techniques. This task may be accomplished through the increased use of social networking sites.

Alemán & Wartman (2009) argue that the increased use of social networking is crucial in the field of philanthropy: “in... sectors of the university like alumni relations and development, online social networking sites, especially Facebook, have already impacted operations. The deep penetration of sites like Facebook and LinkedIn in the more recent college and university alumni classes have presented alumni relations offices with opportunities to expand their alumni base and improve their data gathering” (p. 129). Previous studies have shown that alumni are more likely to engage in volunteerism and/or charitable giving if an organization is perceived to be a part of their social network (Brady, Schlozman, & Verba, 1999; Farrow & Yuan, 2011; Wilson, 2000). The popularity of these sites also enables institutions to inform their alumni about possible philanthropic opportunities via an instantaneous medium that is shared by millions of members. By exposing alumni to giving opportunities via social networking sites, institutions may further maximize their donor potential (Farrow & Yuan, 2011).

Playing Upon Institutional Culture

Institutions may also utilize aspects of their own culture to attract potential new donors. Kuh and Whitt (1988) define institutional culture as "persistent patterns of norms, values, practices, beliefs, and assumptions that shape the behavior of individuals and groups in a college or university and provide a frame of reference within which to interpret the meaning of events and actions on and off campus" (p. iv). Institutional culture also encompasses the shared history, tradition, artifacts, rituals, and ceremonies of an institutional community. Rituals and ceremonies (e.g., commencement, homecomings, class reunions, etc.) are often used to foster a connection between current students and institutions, as well as alumni with their alma maters. These rituals "allow people to connect to entities larger than their individual selves... they become essential to college communities because the dynamic of merging the self to a community occurs in few other circumstances" (Manning, 2000, p. 121). These rituals and ceremonies help to foster the notion of 'institutional community' and frame many institutional efforts; as such, their adjustment and/or elimination often results in the estrangement of stakeholders from the institution (Bornstein, 2003; Manning, 1989; Rappaport, 1992). Philanthropic campaigns that prominently feature specific components of institutional culture (e.g., landmark buildings, important rites or ceremonies, historic dates, and school colors) may be most effective in encouraging increased alumni engagement.

Further, the linking of institutional culture to philanthropic giving opportunities affords young alumni a conduit through which they may express their institutional identity. If an alumnus/a believes that the institution is an important component of their

identity, they are more likely to participate in institutionally sponsored philanthropic activities; conversely, those who do not identify with the institution are less likely to engage in these types of activities. If an alumnus/a feels strongly that their undergraduate institution is an important part of who they are, they may choose to engage in with the aspects of the undergraduate experience to which they feel the strongest bonds (e.g., academic college, student group, Greek organization, athletics, etc.). Young alumni must be afforded an opportunity to remain engaged with the aspect of institutional culture that is of greatest importance to them.

Building Campus Partnerships

Alumni relations and institutional development offices may also encounter greater success in their outreach efforts by reducing or eliminating overhead costs. This may be accomplished through the identification of areas in which programmatic efforts overlap. Student affairs and alumni affairs professionals are actively engaged in a number of mutually beneficial institutional activities designed to improve the overall quality of student life, assist students in adjusting to college life, attract new students, and retain them (Garland & Grace, 1994; Singer & Hughey, 2002). However, the decentralized nature of alumni relations efforts at many colleges and universities often results in the solicitation of alumni multiple times by individuals from different institutional units (e.g., academic college, alumni association, institutional development office, etc.). The consolidation of outreach efforts may help to eliminate these overlapping efforts, thus reducing potential donor apathy and increasing operational efficiency.

Further, Miller (2010) notes that additional benefits may accrue from the forging of partnerships between alumni relations and/or institutional development offices and student affairs divisions:

Developing strong relationships with the alumni affairs program is natural for student affairs... connecting alumni to student life can create a strong bond between them and the institution... it can come in the form of alumni help in moving into residence halls or in helping students form career plans... student affairs can help the alumni programs' effort by sharing data about students with the alumni office, ensuring that records of co-curricular experiences are retained.
(p. 72)

There is much that student affairs professionals may learn from their colleagues in alumni relations and institutional development, and vice versa. By ensuring that all institutional units that interact with alumni are working in unison (or, at least toward the same goal), young alumni participation in institutional philanthropy may be further secured.

Introduction of New Programs

Currently, UT Austin undergraduate students and young alumni are afforded many opportunities to become philanthropically engaged. These opportunities run the gamut from annual student giving campaigns (e.g., 'Students Hooked on Texas') to young alumni-targeted development programs in individual academic colleges (e.g., the School of Law's 'Young Alumni Program'). While these programs make great strides in fulfilling an important institutional need, additional programs must be considered in the hope of attracting students and alumni that are not currently engaged. To that end, the Author

proposes two potential programmatic offerings aimed at encouraging increased undergraduate student and young alumni philanthropy: (1) the 'Student Philanthropy Initiative' (SPI), and (2) the 'Ten for Texas' Campaign (Ten4TX).

The first program proposed by the Author is the 'Student Philanthropy Initiative.' The SPI would be a coordinated advertising campaign conducted by the University to increase student awareness of student giving opportunities. It would allow undergraduate students to choose the activities that best reflect their own personal values and beliefs. In keeping with historical precedent, students would be able to make a financial contribution to any academic college/department, administrative unit (e.g., Division of Student Affairs, Division of Diversity and Community Engagement, etc.), or registered institutional organization; however, students would also be afforded an opportunity to donate volunteer hours, participation in community service projects, or mentorship activities. Participants would track their activities electronically and would have an opportunity to post their achievements to their Facebook or Twitter account. They would also be able to challenge others to match their donation or match the donations of others. Additionally, the SPI would be primarily marketed via social networking sites, and would include images and video of UT Austin alumni, faculty, staff, students, administrators, and celebrities engaged in different acts of charitable giving (e.g., cleaning Waller Creek, mentoring a student, working in a soup kitchen, etc.). The Author proposes that the tagline for the SPI would be: "(Insert name here) gives... do you?" Although this initiative compliments much of the work already being conducted on campus, the SPI would provide undergraduate students with additional opportunities to become

philanthropically engaged, while simultaneously modeling their philanthropic behavior to fellow students, friends, and family members.

The second program proposed by the Author, the 'Ten for Texas' Campaign (Ten4TX), is targeted specifically at young alumni. Upon their graduation from UT Austin, all young alumni would be urged to contribute \$10, 10 s ervice hours, or both annually for ten years. They would also be urged to encourage 10 friends to do the same. What may seem an inconsequential activity has the potential for big institutional returns. According to the Texas Higher Education Coordinating Board's (THECB) Accountability System, UT Austin enrolled 33,796 full-time undergraduate students during the Fall 2009 semester, and awarded 8,609 bachelor degrees in 2009 (*Higher Education Accountability*, 2011). If 50 percent of graduating UT Austin seniors (i.e., 4,304) would pledge to join the Ten4TX campaign, their annual participation would result in a \$43,040 annual (or \$430,040, over 10 years) contribution to a new student-centered scholarship fund. Similarly, if 50 percent of graduating seniors pledge to participate via service hours in this campaign, that would result in a 43,040 hour (or, 430,040 hours over 10 years) per year contribution to targeted community or University-based service projects.

It is hoped that positive feedback and word-of-mouth exposure would help this grassroots campaign to grow to encompass approximately 75 percent of young alumni within the first five years of the campaign. The costs associated with this program would be minimal (e.g., one staff member, a small advertising budget, etc.), but the possible returns are great: increased young alumni participation in institutional philanthropy,

greater student exposure to charitable giving, the development of an engaged alumni population, and the creation of a culture of giving.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The major findings and recommendations for practice referenced earlier in this chapter were all developed based upon the results of the *UT Alumni Satisfaction Survey*. This survey marked the first comprehensive alumni survey conducted by UT Austin in several years. It provided information regarding the philanthropic behaviors of this important population after graduation from the University. While the results of the survey were instrumental in the analyses found within this study, they provided only a brief glimpse into contemporary alumni attitudes. In order to ensure that data are as current as possible, additional research must be conducted.

Careful Consideration of Survey Distribution

As mentioned above, it is important to conduct ongoing assessment to ensure that data are as accurate as possible. One way in which alumni relations and development professionals may accomplish this goal is to be strategic in the frequency and timing of survey instrument distribution. If a survey is released too frequently, researchers run the risk of oversaturating their target population (i.e., survey fatigue). Likewise, potential participants may be less likely to respond to survey invitations received during particularly busy and/or stressful times of the year (e.g., major holidays, tax filing deadlines, and the start/conclusion of the academic year).

One of the problems encountered in the administration of the *UT Alumni Satisfaction Survey* was its distribution during an unusually busy spring of 2011. The

release of the survey invitations coincided with a contentious Texas Legislative session, and the sheer volume of messages being distributed to alumni by the University and its affiliate organizations hampered the survey response rate. It might be better to survey young alumni during less stressful dates on the calendar (e.g., January or October) in order to ensure the highest participation rates possible. Because generalizing the survey results to the overall UT Austin young alumni population was not possible due to the low response rate, the distribution of the survey instrument during mid-late winter or early-mid autumn may encourage a greater response rate that would make the generalization of data more feasible.

Longitudinal Studies

Another action that may increase the reliability and validity of institutional alumni surveys is the introduction of longitudinal surveying techniques. Longitudinal studies may elicit greater confidence in their results as they are able to evaluate trends over extended periods of time. The *UT Alumni Satisfaction Survey* provided researchers with data regarding young alumni philanthropic activities during the spring of 2011; however, if the study were to be conducted on an ongoing basis, the researchers would be able to correlate observable changes in specific variables to social, political, and economic changes that may have occurred during the same period of time.

While longitudinal studies may provide researchers with valuable data, they are not without their drawbacks. There are considerable costs involved with the administration of multi-year studies, and researchers may be forced to wait a lengthy periods of time in order to obtain their data (Singer & Spilerman, 1976). However, this

technique may prove to be worthy of any incurred costs if it is able to uncover trends that directly relate to changes in alumni giving and alumni perceptions of their role in institutional philanthropic efforts. The continuous distribution of the *UT Alumni Survey* would provide the University with information regarding changes in philanthropic behaviors and attitudes as young alumni transition into older alumni, and would also allow for the comparison of generational differences in young alumni activities.

Room for Additional Analyses

This study was purposefully focused on the philanthropic behaviors of young UT Austin alumni. While the scope of the study met the Author's needs, it should not serve as the only analysis conducted on this topic. A new study might consider comparing UT Austin's young alumni population to a similar population at another (or multiple) peer institution(s). This study may identify potential similarities and differences, if any, in the philanthropic behaviors and attitudes of young alumni at different institutions. A comparison study could also highlight the impact that differing institutional cultures may have on similar populations.

While there are many ways in which this study may be conducted in the future, it was clear to the Author that young alumni represent an important segment of the UT Austin institutional community. Young alumni have the greatest potential for maintaining strong bonds to their alma mater after graduation, and their connectivity to the University is an often misunderstood, and underutilized, resource. This study demonstrated that knowledge of this population will enable alumni relations and development offices to more effectively encourage increased young alumni participation

in their philanthropic efforts. Researchers and professionals within the field may use certain demographic and background variables, engagement in philanthropic activities, and satisfaction with the overall undergraduate experience to predict future alumni giving. Although future analyses should be conducted to further explore these phenomena in greater depth, this study supported previous research that young alumni are a diverse group and, as such, a thorough understanding of the target population is crucial in encouraging their participation in institutional philanthropic efforts.

Appendix: UT Alumni Satisfaction Survey

Thank you for agreeing to participate in this study. The first set of questions asks about your principal current activities. We realize people often are involved in many activities, but for the purposes of this study, please select only the activity that you consider primary in your life at this time.

1. What is your PRINCIPAL/PRIMARY activity at this time (mark one)?

- Employment, full-time paid (*go to question 2*)
- Employment part-time paid (*go to question 2*)
- Enrolled in graduate or professional school, full-time (*skip to question 9*)
- Enrolled in graduate or professional school, part-time (*skip to question 9*)
- Enrolled in additional undergraduate coursework (*skip to question 9*)
- Military service (*skip to question 6*)
- Volunteer activity (e.g., Peace Corps, Community Volunteer) (*skip to question 6*)
- Starting or raising a family (*skip to question 9*)
- Other, please specify: _____ (*skip to question 6*)

Current Employment

2. If you are currently employed, in what type of organization or sector do you work (mark one)?

- Private for-profit corporation/company/group-practice
- Self-employed, own business, or professional practice (non-group)
- Government, public institution or agency (non-Military)
- Private non-profit (private school or college, arts/cultural organization, etc.)
- Military
- Other, please specify:

3. Is your current position related to your UT Austin Major undergraduate field(s) of study?

- Yes, same field as major(s)
- Yes, related to major(s)
- Not directly related, but my major(s) has(ve) been useful in my current position
- No, not related

Not applicable

4. Is your current position related to your UT Austin undergraduate minor(s)?

Yes, same field as minor(s)

Yes, related to minor(s)

Not directly related, but my minor(s) has(ve) been useful in my current position

No, not related

Not applicable (no minor, etc.)

5. Based on the primary activity you selected above, which occupation category best describes your current position (mark one)?

Architecture and engineering

Arts design, entertainment, sports and media

Building and grounds cleaning and maintenance

Business and financial/accounting

Community and social services

Computer and mathematical

Construction and extraction

Education, training and library

Farming, fishing and forestry

Food preparation and serving related

Healthcare/medical

Homemaker [RECENT GRADS ONLY - skip to Q9]

Law enforcement

Legal

Life physical, and social sciences

Management

Marketing and sales

Military

Office and administrative support

Personal care and service

Student [RECENT GRADS ONLY - skip to Q9]

- Transportation
- Other, please specify

6. Overall, how satisfied are you with the course of your career thus far?

- Very satisfied
- Satisfied
- Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied (neutral)
- Dissatisfied
- Very dissatisfied
- Not applicable

7. How well do you think UT Austin undergraduate academic programming prepared you for your chosen career?

- Extremely
- Very
- Moderately
- Slightly
- Not at all
- Not applicable

8. How well do you think your involvement in extra-curricular programming at UT Austin (out-of-class experiences such as intramural sports, student organization memberships, band, Greek organizations, etc.) prepared you for your chosen career?

- Extremely
- Very
- Moderately
- Slightly
- Not at all
- Not applicable

The next section deals with your pursuit of additional education.

9. Have you enrolled in a degree program since graduating from UT Austin with your undergraduate degree?

- No {Skip to question 14}
- Yes {answer Qs 10-13}

10. Mark all degrees received in Column I and any degree programs in which you are currently enrolled in Column II.

	Degree Received	Currently Enrolled
Professional (Law and Medicine):		
Law (L.L.B. or J.D.)		
Medicine (M.D.)		
Other Medical (D.D.S. D.M.D., D.C., D.C.M., O.D. D.O., Pharm.D., D.P.M., D.P., Pod.D. D.V.M., or other)		
Second Bachelor's Degree		
Master's Degree (M.A., M.S., L.L.M, MBA, MFA, M.Ed, MSW, MSN or other)		
Doctorate (Ph.D., Ed.D., or other)		

11. How did your overall undergraduate experience at UT Austin influence your plans for graduate or professional studies?

- Very positively
- Generally positively
- Neither positively nor negative (neutral)
- Generally negatively
- Very negatively
- Not applicable

12. How well did your overall undergraduate academic (classroom) experience at UT Austin prepare you for graduate or professional school?

- Very well
- Generally well
- Adequately
- Not well
- Not at all
- Not applicable

13. How well did your overall extra-curricular (out of classroom) experience at UT Austin prepare you for graduate or professional school?

- Very well
- Generally well
- Adequately
- Not well
- Not at all
- Not applicable

The next section deals with education related debt.

14. At the time you graduated, what was the approximate total amount you borrowed to finance your undergraduate education? Please include only the amount that you were personally responsible for repaying:

- None
- \$1 to 9,999
- \$10,000 to 19,999
- \$20,000 to 29,999
- \$30,000 to 39,999
- \$40,000 to 49,999
- \$50,000 or more
- Unable to estimate

15. Reflecting back, do you now think the benefits you received from attending UT Austin were worth the financial costs to you and/or your family?

- Yes, worth the cost
- Maybe worth the cost
- No, not worth the cost

This section asks about how well prepared you were for life after college.

16. What type of preparation did you receive from your undergraduate experience at UT Austin to:

	Very good preparation	Good prep	Only Fair prep	Poor prep	N/A, No prep
Write effectively					
Communicate well orally					
Acquire new skills on your own					
Acquire new knowledge on your own					
Use information technology in intellectual and/or professional pursuits					
Think analytically and logically					
Understand the scientific method and how to design experiments					
Understand and apply quantitative principles and methods					
Judge the value of information, ideas, actions, and conclusions based on the soundness of sources, methods, and reasoning					
Understand international perspectives on economic political, social, and cultural issues					
Develop an understanding of and appreciation for the arts					
Use the knowledge, ideas, or perspectives gained from your major field					
Choose behaviors that contribute to positive self-care including healthy diet, regular exercise and emotional well-being					
Engage in ethical leadership					

Become a responsible citizen of your community					
Be a positive role model					
Work effectively as a member of a team					
Be self-confident					
Be an active member of your community					
Be aware of contemporary issues in society, technology, and the natural world, and appreciate the complexity of cause and consequences					
Evaluate and choose between alternative courses of action					
Get along with people of diverse backgrounds and perspectives					

17. When you consider your entire undergraduate experience at UT Austin, indicate how much each area listed below contributed to the skills you use the most in your current or most recent position/situation?

	Extremely	Quite a bit	Moderately	Slightly	Not at all	N/A – did not participate
Subject matter learned in major						
Subject matter learned in courses outside my major						
Interactions with faculty in and out of class						
Interactions with classmates during class						
An academic advisor						
Living and/or working						

in residence halls						
Participation with multi-cultural groups or diversity training						
Participation in campus-related fitness and recreational sports activities/intramural sports						
Participation in athletics						
Participation in academic clubs, academic honor societies or honor clubs						
Participation in student organizations or clubs						
Campus employment/job(s) on campus						
Involvement with a social Greek organization						
Special leadership training received from a campus organization(s)						
Involvement with events planning						
Involvement with a religious campus organization(s)						
Involvement with the Daily Texan, TV, Radio Journalism, Media Marketing or Advertising						
Community service/service learning experiences associated with a class or campus organization						

18. Rate your satisfaction with the following aspects of your UT Austin experience:

	Very satisfied	Satisfied	Neither nor dissat/Neutral	Sat	Dissatisfied	Very dissatis.
Your grade point average						
Your overall social experience						
Your overall academic experience						
The academic challenge of coursework in your major						
The opportunities to interact with faculty in your major outside of class						
The caring and helpfulness of campus staff						
Course scheduling						
Course availability						
Quality of collections in the Libraries						

19. Please indicate if you were involved with any of the following college activities during your undergraduate career at UT Austin, and if so, for how many years?

	Never	Some involvement, up to 1 year	Involved 2 years or more
Academic/Department/Professional student group(s) (e.g., Math Club, Accounting Society, etc.)			
Arts/theater/music/performing arts			
Campus-wide programming/events planning			
Honor Society(ies)			
Media (e.g., Daily Texan, Radio, TV)			
Military			
New Student Transitions (e.g., orientation advisor)			
Resident Assistant			
Academic Tutor			

Peer health educator			
Political student group(s)			
Religious student group(s)			
Service/community service student group(s) (e.g., Alpha Phi Omega, Orange Jackets, Texas Blazers)			
Advocacy group(s) (e.g., Amnesty International, White Rose Society)			
Multi-cultural student group(s) or organization(s) (e.g., African American Affairs, Indian Cultural Association, Queer Student Alliance)			
Greek Social Fraternity and/or Sorority			
Intercollegiate Athletics/Varsity Sports			
Recreational Sports Club(s) (e.g., Soccer, Rugby)			
Intramural sports (e.g., Intramural Flag Football, Intramural Softball)			
Other Recreational Club(s)			
Texas Exes Student Chapter			
Special Interest organization(s) (e.g., Chess Club)			
Legislative or Governance organization(s) (e.g., Student Government, Senate/Cabinet of College Councils, Residence Hall Association)			
On-campus employment during academic year			
Off-campus employment during academic year			
Faculty-led research project(s)			
Study abroad programming			
Resided in on-campus housing			

The next set of items relates to how you feel about UT Austin

20. Today, how connected do you feel to UT Austin?

- ρ Extremely connected
- ρ Very connected
- ρ Moderately connected
- ρ Slightly connected
- ρ Not at all connected

21. When you think about your connection to UT Austin today, how significant is each of the following to you?

	Very	Somewhat	Neither	Somewhat	Very	N/A
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	Sig	Sig	Sig nor Insig	Insig	Insig	
Your academic department or major						
Your school or college						
Your class (year of graduation)						
UT as a whole						
Your fraternity or sorority						
Your undergraduate clubs/organizations						
Athletics						
Your residence hall						
Local alumni/alumnae club meetings (ex. TexasExes)						
Friendships from college						
Receiving news from UT						
Attendance at UT-related events						
Receiving the alumni magazine						
Class notes/newsletters						
Class reunions						
Personal desire to assist the university in achieving its goals						

22. Which of these best describes how you identify with UT Austin?

- It is my core identity.
- It is a very important part of who I am.
- It is a somewhat important part of who I am.
- It is a part of who I am but not that important.
- I do NOT identify with UT at all.

23. Which one of these best describes the nature of your current connection to UT Austin?

- Primarily Academic (e.g., related to your major, etc.)
- Primarily Athletics
- Primarily Extra-Curricular (e.g., student group or other organized activity)
- Primarily Interpersonal (e.g., friends, informal activities)
- Other (please describe)
- None

24. Below is a list of factors that might motivate one to be involved with UT Austin. If you have been actively involved with UT Austin in any way since graduation, what were some of the primary motivating factors behind your actions? (mark all that apply)

	Mark if Yes
I believe in the mission of the university	
I want to give back to the university that gave me so much	
The university is in need of my support	
The university has a positive impact within my community	
My family and friends have always encouraged philanthropy	
Peer pressure	
It is in my nature to help others	
Other (please explain)	

The next set of items asks questions about philanthropy.

Philanthropy is often described as an effort or inclination to increase the well-being of mankind through the volunteering of time, service endeavors, financial contributions, and/or the lending of individual expertise.

25. What/Who has been the biggest influence regarding your personal definition of philanthropy? (mark the one best answer)

Family member(s)	
Friend(s) and/or acquaintances	
Faculty member(s)	
UT staff member(s)	
Mentor(s)	
Student organization advisor(s)	
Boss or supervisor(s)	
Religious/spiritual leaders(s)	
Own personal belief	

26. In your opinion, which of the following activities, if any, does the word “philanthropy” encompass? (mark all that apply)

Work on a community service project	
Join an alumni association	
Purchase tickets to an intercollegiate athletic event	

Become a mentor	
Make a financial contribution	
Work as an admissions volunteer	
Work as a fundraising volunteer	
Attend a class reunion	
Seek a political office	
Join a social action or civil rights organization	
Join a religious organization	

27. Below is a list of activities related to UT Austin. Please rate how important each one is to you and to your personal definition of “philanthropy.”

	Very Important	Important	Neither Important nor Unimportant	Unimportant	Very unimportant
Mentoring an elementary, secondary, and/or college student					
Volunteering time					
Involvement in alumni activities					
Making a financial contribution					
Lobbying on behalf of UT Austin					
Sharing your institutional pride with others					
Encouraging others to take an active interest in UT Austin					
Other					

28. While an undergraduate student, did you ever engage in any of the following?

	Yes	No
Volunteered your time to a community-based service program		
Volunteered your time to a university-based service program		
Made a financial contribution		
Served as a peer mentor		
Volunteered in an institutional fund-raising capacity		

29. Since your graduation, have you engaged in any of the following?

	Mark if Yes
Mentored an elementary, secondary, and/or college student	
Volunteered time	
Involved in alumni activities	
Made a financial contribution	
Lobbied on behalf of the university	
Shared your institutional pride with others	
Encouraged others to take an active interest in the university	
Other (please explain)	

30. Have you ever heard the term *student philanthropy* before?

- Yes; I know exactly what student philanthropy entails
- Yes; I have heard of student philanthropy, but I'm not quite sure what it entails
- No; I can guess what it entails, though
- No; I have no idea what student philanthropy entails

31. Here is one definition of “student philanthropy”: “the conscious sharing of a student’s time, talent, and treasure while enrolled within a college or university with the intent of contributing to the common good.”

Taking into consideration the knowledge and experience you have gained since graduating from UT Austin, did you engage or would you have engaged in specific student philanthropic activities (as defined above) while an undergraduate student if they were available to you?

- Yes; I believe that student philanthropy is important for both personal development and continued institutional prosperity

- ρ Yes; I believe that student philanthropy is important, but it would be one of many obligations I would have had as a student
- ρ No; while I believe that student philanthropy is somewhat important, I had more pressing concerns that would have monopolized my time
- ρ No; I do not believe that student philanthropy makes a significant impact upon the university

The following are a few questions about you personally. All information will be kept completely confidential.

32. From this list, mark the highest level of education completed by your parents (or guardian). Mark one in each column that is applicable:

	Mother	Father	Guardian
No high school diploma or equivalent			
High school diploma or equivalent			
Some college (no degree)			
Associate's degree			
Bachelor's degree			
Graduate/professional degree			
Don't know/Not applicable			

33. What is your citizenship status?

- United States citizen
- U.S. permanent resident visa
- Neither a United States citizen nor a permanent resident

34. In what state/Country do you currently reside?

- Pull down menu (include international option)

This concludes the survey – we appreciate your feedback. Thank you for your participation.

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