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**The Giving Tree:
Trends in Philanthropic Giving in Texas Community Colleges**

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**The Giving Tree:
Trends in Philanthropic Giving in Texas Community Colleges**

by

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Dissertation

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Dedication

To God be the Glory!

To my children who have been a constant force of encouragement,

To my father who did not have a college degree,

but was the smartest man I know,

I give all the love and glory back to you!

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**The Giving Tree:
Trends in Philanthropic Giving in Texas Community Colleges**

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Carole Diane Errett, Ph.D.
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Supervisor: John E. Roueche

A developing recession, coupled with growing enrollment pressures, has created increasing economic strains for Texas' community colleges. The College Board reports that community college tuition increases averaged 5.8 percent during the 2001-2002 academic year.

The open door policy of community colleges threatens to close on students in marginal economic circumstances when absolute limits on tuition and fee charges are not maintained. Research indicates that funding from traditional sources will continue to decline.

Economic and fiscal challenges require community college leaders to improve the performance of existing college foundations and fundraising endeavors to sustain their very existence. Identifying the motivational reasons for why corporate entities and

alumni of community colleges become philanthropic donors and matching that information with the beliefs of community college administrators about donor giving likely can improve vastly the economic state of community colleges in Texas.

This study utilized quantitative research through a survey sent to the 51 two-year community colleges in Texas, and qualitative methodology through the Interactive Qualitative Analysis (IQA) process developed by Dr. Novell Northcutt and Dr. Danny McCoy at The University of Texas at Austin. The IQA protocol was used to form definitions (affinities) and causal relationships from two focus groups --- a community college administrators' group whose members were not actively involved in philanthropic giving at their respective colleges and a focus group of alumni and corporate donors to community colleges. Additional qualitative research was conducted using the IQA technique with four interviewees --- a community college alumna, a corporate executive donor, an administrative foundations director, and a foundation trustee.

The research explored the motivations, benefits, and rewards that led to philanthropic giving by alumni and corporate donors, comparing them to the beliefs of community college administrators. Characteristics that led to philanthropic giving by donors to community colleges were reputation of the college, allegiance to the college, and company employee involvement. Primary rewards were a return to the community and to the alumni/company. Research concluded with a model for success in obtaining donor philanthropic giving for community colleges.

Table of Contents

List of Tables	xviii
List of Illustrations	xxxiii
THE GIVING TREE:	
TRENDS IN PHILANTHROPIC GIVING IN TEXAS COMMUNITY COLLEGES	1
CHAPTER ONE: Introduction to the Study	1
Introduction: <i>Why Should Community Colleges Research Philanthropic Giving?</i>	1
Statement of the Problem: <i>What Can Community Colleges Do?</i>	3
Significance of the Problem: <i>How Can Community Colleges Increase Philanthropic Giving?</i>	6
Definition of Terms.....	7
Contextual	8
Methodological – Statistical Terms	9
Methodological – IQA Terms	10
Purpose of the Study	12
Research Questions	13
Assumptions.....	14
Limitations	15
Concluding Statement.....	15
CHAPTER TWO: Literature Review	17
Roots of The Giving Tree	17
Historical Background of Philanthropic Giving to Community Colleges	17
Branches of The Giving Tree.....	27
Roles of Presidents, Boards of Trustees, and Development Officers	

in Philanthropic Giving in Higher Education	27
Principles of Fundraising	29
<u>Cardinal Principle I</u> : Institutional or organizational objectives must be established first.....	29
<u>Cardinal Principle II</u> : Development objectives must be established to meet institutional goals.	29
<u>Cardinal Principle III</u> : The support needed determine the kinds of fundraising programs.	30
<u>Cardinal Principle IV</u> : The institution must start with natural prospects.	30
<u>Cardinal Principle V</u> : The case for the program must reflect the importance of it to the institution.....	31
<u>Cardinal Principle VI</u> : Involvement is the key to leadership and support.....	31
<u>Cardinal Principle VII</u> : Prospect research must be thorough and realistic.....	32
<u>Cardinal Principle VIII</u> : Cultivation of the key players in the community is the key to successful solicitation.....	32
<u>Cardinal Principle IX</u> : Solicitation is successful only if Cardinal Principles I through VIII have been followed.....	33
Fundraising Activities	34
<u>The Capital Campaign</u>	34
<u>The Annual Fund</u>	35
<u>Corporate and Business Support</u>	35
<u>Deferred or Planned Giving</u>	37
<u>Special Events</u>	39
<u>Major Gifts</u>	39
Methods of Fundraising	40
Leaves of The Giving Tree	43
Roles of Alumni, Corporations, Foundations, and Donors in Philanthropic Giving in Higher Education	43
Alumni	44

Corporations.....	45
Foundations.....	46
1. <u>Independent Grant-making Foundations</u>	47
2. <u>Corporate Foundations</u>	47
3. <u>Community Foundations</u>	48
4. <u>Operating Foundations</u>	48
Donors.....	48
Donor Segmentation.....	51
1. The Communitarians: “Doing Good Makes Sense”.....	52
2. The Devout: “Doing Good is God’s Will”.....	53
3. The Investor: “Doing Good Is Good Business”.....	54
4. <u>The Socialite: “Doing Good is Fun”</u>	55
5. The Altruist: “Doing Good Feels Right”.....	55
6. <u>The Repayer: “Doing Good in Return”</u>	56
7. The Dynast: “Doing Good Is a Family Tradition”.....	57
CONCLUSION.....	59
CHAPTER THREE: Research Methodology	61
Introduction.....	61
Review of the Literature	63
Design of the Study.....	64
Methodology	65
Subjects for Survey (Quantitative).....	65
Subjects for Focus Groups and Interviews (Qualitative).....	65
Data Collection (Quantitative).....	66
Statistical Information Process	67
Dillman’s Survey Technique	70
Dillman’s Principles for Writing Survey Questions	71
Data Collection (Qualitative).....	74
Phase One: Identification of Factors (Affinities).....	76
Silent nominal brainstorming phase.....	76
Different silent nominal methods.....	76
Clarification of meaning.....	77
Affinity grouping (inductive coding).....	78
Affinity naming and revision.....	78
Phase Two: Identifying Relationships Among Factors	80
Theoretical Coding.....	80

Constructing the Group Interrelationship Diagram (IRD).....	82
Steps in Theoretical Coding to create an Interrelationship Diagram (IRD).....	82
Significance of Arrows on an IRD.....	83
Phase Three: Constructing an Interview Protocol and the Interview Procedure	84
Axial.....	85
Theoretical.....	85
Conducting Interviews.....	86
Typical interview setting.....	86
Typical interview procedure.....	87
Phase Four: Data Analysis	87
Interview Analysis.....	87
Axial coding.....	88
Theoretical coding.....	90
Summarizing and tabulating the theoretical codes.....	91
Constructing a SID from the interview data for a single interview...	91
Constructing a SID from the composite interview data.....	93
Summary	94
CHAPTER FOUR: Statistical Methodology & Analysis	95
Overview.....	95
Data Collection	97
Survey Response.....	101
The Research Questionnaire	102
Analysis of Results	103
Demographics	104
• The foundation gift income in whole dollars for 2002	104
• Where the institution was located--- Urban or Rural.....	105
• Enrollment groups by total head count	106
Job Title of Surveyees.....	108
Survey Results	109
1. <i>Do community college administrators' and departmental issues influence philanthropic giving?</i>	109
2. <i>What are the perceived philanthropic motivations of donors according to community college administrators?</i>	122

3. <i>What methods do Texas community colleges</i>	
<i>use for fundraising?</i>	150
4. <i>What are the fundraising trends in Texas community colleges?</i> ..	170
Qualitative Responses	188
Conclusion	188
CHAPTER FIVE: Interactive Qualitative Analysis	192
Overview	192
Problem Statement	192
Research Questions	193
IQA Constituencies	194
Data Collection and Affinity Identification	194
Focus Group One	194
Silent Nominal Process	194
Axial Coding	196
Focus Group Two	198
Silent Nominal Process	198
Axial Coding	198
AFFINITY WRITE UP	203
Finding: Composite Affinity Descriptions	
Administrator Focus Group	203
Detailed Affinity Relationship Table	207
Finding: Composite Affinity Descriptions	
Donor Focus Group	207
Theoretical Coding	212
Affinity Relationship Table	212
Theoretical Code Frequency Table	216
Summarizing and Tabulating the Theoretical Coding	219
INTERRELATIONSHIP DIAGRAM	224
Tabular IRD	225
SID Construction	229

Affinity Relationship Analysis --- Administrators	232
Affinity Relationship Analysis --- Donors.....	237
Feedback Loops	242
INTERVIEW PROTOCOL	246
Axial Code Tables.....	248
Theoretical Interview	250
Theoretical Frequency Table(s)	253
Interrelationship Diagram	257
SID Construction	259
Affinity Relationship Analysis	261
Feedback Loops	265
Conclusion	266
CHAPTER SIX: Analysis, Implications, and Recommendations	269
Research Recap.....	269
Research Implications.....	272
<i>Roots of the Giving Tree</i>	272
<i>Branches of the Giving Tree</i>	275
<i>Leaves of the Giving Tree</i>	276
Comparison of Administrators' IQA and Survey Statistical Analysis	279
Examination of the Survey Responses compared to the Donor IQA.....	291
Affinities Comparison and Contrast --- Interviewee Studies.....	294
Recommendations---Conclusions	312
Further Research	315
Concluding Remarks.....	316
Appendices.....	318
Appendix A. Texas Community College Survey of Philanthropic Giving	
Code Book/Legend Denoted in Burnt Orange.....	318
Appendix B: First Survey Letter To Colleges	332
Appendix C: Second Survey Letter to Colleges	333
Appendix D: Third Survey Letter to Colleges.....	334

Appendix E: Fourth Survey Letter to Colleges.....	335
Appendix F: Thank You Letter to Presidents and Representatives	336
Appendix G: Best Practices of Texas Community Colleges	337
appendix H: Writing up an IQA Study	340
Appendix I: E-mail from the Director of Development at The University of Texas at Austin	342
Appendix K: Guided Imagery Exercise.....	345
Appendix L: Focus group one ---affinity write up.....	346
Appendix M: Focus Group Two ---Affinity Write up	353
Appendix N: First E-mail Letter to Donor Focus Group.....	358
Appendix O: Second E-mail to Donor Focus Group Interactive Qualitative Analysis: Part 1	359
Appendix R: Fifth E-mail Letter to Donor Focus Group Interactive Qualitative Analysis: Parts 5 and 6.....	363
Appendix S: Sixth E-mail Letter to Donor Focus Group Interactive Qualitative Analysis: Part 7	366
Appendix T: Interview Tips.....	368
Glossary	371
Contextual.....	371
Methodological – Statistical Terms	372
Methodological – IQA Terms	374
References.....	378
Vita	389

List of Tables

Table 3.1: Affinity Relationship Table (ART).....	81
Table 3.2: Tabular Interrelationship Diagram (IRD) ---	
Sorted in Descending Order of Delta	84
Table 3.3: Interview Axial Code Table.....	89
Table 3.4: Interview Theoretical Code Affinity Relationship Table.....	90
Table 4.1: INCOMGRP: Foundation income by groups	104
Table 4.2: LOCATION College Urban/Rural Area	105
Table 4.3: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* LOCATION College Urban/Rural Area	105
Table 4.4: ENROLGRP Enrollment Groups for colleges	106
Table 4.5: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* ENROLGRP Enrollment Groups for colleges	107
Table 4.6: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* GENDER Gender of Surveyee.....	108
Table 4.7: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* JOBTITLE Job Title of Surveyee	108
Table 4.8: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V7 1_A Number of full-time staff involved in	
foundation/fundraising.....	109
Table 4.9: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V8 1-B Number of part-time staff directly involved in	
foundation and fundraising efforts	110
Table 4.10: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	

* V9 1-C Number of volunteers directly involved in foundation and fundraising	110
Table 4.11: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V10 2-A Directly report to:	111
Table 4.12: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V11 3-A Marketing Responsibility	112
Table 4.13: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V12 3-B Institutional Research Responsibility.....	113
Table 4.14: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V13 3-C Alumni Responsibility	113
Table 4.15: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V14 3-D Public Relations Responsibility	114
Table 4.16: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V15 3-E Media Responsibility.....	114
Table 4.17: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V16 3-F Grants Responsibility.....	115
Table 4.18: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V17 3-G No other responsibility	115
Table 4.19: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V18 3-H Other... unlisted responsibility	116
Table 4.20: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V110 17-A Turnover rate of staff in last 12 months	117
Table 4.21: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V111 17-B Total staff members in 2002.....	117
Table 4.22: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	

* V112 17-C Wide variety of job tasks attributed reason for turnover	118
Table 4.23: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V113 17-D Lack of Continuing Education attributed to turnover	119
Table 4.24: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V114 17-E Low Pay attributed to turnover	119
Table 4.25: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V115 17-F Lack of Support from Foundation Members attributed to turnover	120
Table 4.26: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V116 17-G Lack of Support of Pres. attributed to turnover	120
Table 4.27: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V117 17-H Lack of Support of College Faculty/Staff attributed to turnover	121
Table 4.28: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V118 17-I Unable to Take Rejection from Potential donors attributed to turnover	121
Table 4.29: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V119 17-J "Burn-Out" attributed to turnover	122
Table 4.30: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V45 10-A Surveys used to learn about prospective donors	123
Table 4.31: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V46 10-B Experience used to learn about prospective donors	123

Table 4.32: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V47 10-C Word-of-mouth used to learn about prospective donors	124
Table 4.33: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V48 10-D Alumni used to learn about prospective donors ...	124
Table 4.34: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V49 10-E Community Involvement used to learn about prospective donors	125
Table 4.35: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V50 10-F Board Members used to learn about prospective donors	125
Table 4.36: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V51 10-G Consultants used to learn about prospective donors	126
Table 4.37: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V52 10-H Databases(s) used to learn about prospective donors	126
Table 4.38: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V53 10-I "Other" methods to learn about prospective donors	127
Table 4.39: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V54 11-A College Reputation motivates donors	128
Table 4.40: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V55 11-B "Good Experience" while attending college motivation.....	128

Table 4.41: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V56 11-C Value to Donor motivation.....	129
Table 4.42: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V57 11-D Value to Community motivation	129
Table 4.43: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V58 11-E Efforts of College Pres. motivation.....	130
Table 4.44: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V59 11-F Efforts of Foundation Board Members	
motivation	130
Table 4.45: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V60 11-G "Good Feeling" to Donate motivation	131
Table 4.46: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V61 11-H Efforts of Development office motivation.....	131
Table 4.47: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V62 11-I Social Importance to Donor motivation.....	132
Table 4.48: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V63 11-J Return to College for providing quality employees	
motivation	132
Table 4.49: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V64 11-K Return to Community motivation.....	133
Table 4.50: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V65 11-L Loyalty to college from graduate motivation	133
Table 4.51: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V66 11-M Faculty/Staff Involvement motivation.....	134
Table 4.52: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	

* V67 11-N Pre-tax Advantage motivation	134
Table 4.53: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V68 11-O Deferred Gift Advantage motivation	135
Table 4.54: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V69 11-P Guilt motivation.....	135
Table 4.55: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V70 11-Q Ego/The Need to Affiliate motivation	136
Table 4.56: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V71 11-R Self-preservation motivation.....	136
Table 4.57: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V72 11-S Belief in Education motivation	137
Table 4.58: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V73 11-T Reaction to Pressure motivation	137
Table 4.59: MEANS --- Donor Motivations for Giving.....	138
Table 4.60: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V74 12-A College Reputation influence on successful fundraising.....	139
Table 4.61: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V75 12-B Value to Donor influence on success of fundraising.....	140
Table 4.62: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V76 12-C Value to Community influence on success of fundraising.....	140
Table 4.63: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V77 12-D Efforts of College President influence	

on success of fundraising.....	141
Table 4.64: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V78 12-E Efforts of Foundation Board Members	
on success of fundraising.....	141
Table 4.65: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V79 12-F Efforts of Development Office	
on success of fundraising.....	142
Table 4.66: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V80 12-G Loyalty to College from Graduates influence	
on success of fundraising.....	142
Table 4.67: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V81 12-H Faculty/Staff Involvement influence	
on success of fundraising.....	143
Table 4.68: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V82 12-I Pre-Tax Advantage influence	
on success of fundraising.....	143
Table 4.69: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V83 12-J Deferred Gift Advantage influence	
on success of fundraising.....	144
Table 4.70: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V84 12-K Fiscally Sound College influence	
on success of fundraising.....	144
Table 4.71: Means --- Influence on Fundraising.....	145
Table 4.72: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V98 15-A College President "real leader" of fundraising.....	146

Table 4.73: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V99 15-B College Foundation Members "real leaders"	
of fundraising	146
Table 4.74: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V100 15-C Alumni "real leaders" in fundraising	147
Table 4.75: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V101 15-D College Development Staff "real leaders"	
in fundraising	147
Table 4.76: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V102 15-E Corporate/Business Leaders as "real leaders"	
in fundraising	148
Table 4.77: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V103 15-F College Staff/Faculty "real leaders"	
in fundraising	148
Table 4.78: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V104 15-G Board of Trustees "real leaders"	
in fundraising	149
Table 4.79: MEANS --- "Real Leaders" in Fundraising	150
Table 4.80: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V29 8-A Capital Campaign success level	151
Table 4.81: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V30 8-B Annual Fund Drive success level	151
Table 4.82: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V31 8-C Corporate Support success	152
Table 4.83: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	

* V32 8-D Deferred/Planned Giving Success.....	152
Table 4.84: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V33 8-E Special Events Success	153
Table 4.85: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V34 8-F Major Gift Campaign Success	153
Table 4.86: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V35 8-G Alumni Events Success.....	154
Table 4.87: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V36 8-H "Media Blasts" Success.....	154
Table 4.88: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V37 9-A Capital Campaigns usage.....	155
Table 4.89: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V38 9-B Annual Fund Drive Usage	155
Table 4.90: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V39 9-C Corporate Support Usage	156
Table 4.91: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V40 9-D Deferred/Planned Giving Usage	156
Table 4.92: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V41 9-E Special Events Usage.....	157
Table 4.93: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V41 9-E Special Events Usage.....	157
Table 4.94: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V42 9-F Major Gift Campaign Usage	158
Table 4.95: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V43 9-G Alumni Events Usage	158

Table 4.96: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V44 9-H "Media Blasts" Usage	159
Table 4.97: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V85 13-A Capital Campaigns planned in next year	159
Table 4.98: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V86 13-B Annual Fund Drive planned in next year	160
Table 4.99: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V87 13-C Corporate Support planned in next year	160
Table 4.100: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V88 13-D Deferred or Planned Giving planned in next year	161
Table 4.101: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V89 13-E Special Events planned in next year	161
Table 4.102: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V90 13-F Major Gift Campaign planned in next year	162
Table 4.103: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V91 13-G Alumni Events planned in next year	162
Table 4.104: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V92 13-H "Other" planned fundraising events in next year	163
Table 4.105: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V131 19-A Capital Campaigns likelihood of usage in future	163
Table 4.106: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V132 19-B Annual Fund Drive likelihood of usage in future	164
Table 4.107: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V133 19-C Corporate Support likelihood of usage in future	164
Table 4.108: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	

* V134 19-D Deferred or Planned Giving likelihood of usage in future.....	165
Table 4.109: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V135 19-E Special Events likelihood of usage in future	165
Table 4.110: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V136 19-F Major Gift Campaign likelihood of usage in future.....	166
Table 4.111: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V137 19-G Alumni Events likelihood of usage in future	166
Table 4.112: MEANS --- Successful fundraising endeavors	167
Table 4.113: MEANS --- Fundraising Activities NOT Used	168
Table 4.114: MEANS --- Fundraising Activities Planned Next Year	169
Table 4.115: MEANS ---Activities most likely to use in the future	170
Table 4.116: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V19 4-A Member of professional fundraising organization .	171
Table 4.117: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V20 4-B Member of CRD	171
Table 4.118: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V21 4-C Member of CAE/CASE	172
Table 4.119: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V22 4-D Member of AFP.....	172
Table 4.120: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V23 4-E Member of "Other" organization	173
Table 4.121: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V24 5-A Participant in Survey of Voluntary Support	173

Table 4.122: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V25 6-A Track donors electronically	175
Table 4.123: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V93 14-A Use of a fundraising consultant	176
Table 4.124: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V94 14-B Determine Prospects use of consultant.....	176
Table 4.125: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V95 14-C Board Training use of consultant	177
Table 4.126: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V96 14-D Fundraising Activities use of consultant.....	177
Table 4.127: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V97 14-E Feasibility Studies use of consultant.....	178
Table 4.128: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V105 16-A Corporate/Industry partnerships	178
Table 4.129: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V106 16-B Four Year Universities/Colleges partnerships	179
Table 4.130: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V107 16-C School Districts partnerships.....	179
Table 4.131: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V108 16-D Other Tax Entities partnerships.....	180
Table 4.132: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V109 16-E "Other" partnerships	180
Table 4.133: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V120 18-A Scholarships supported	
by percent of raised monies.....	181

Table 4.134: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V121 18-B Faculty/Staff Development supported	
by percent of raised monies.....	182
Table 4.135: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V122 18-C Equipment supported	
by percent of raised monies.....	182
Table 4.136: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V123 18-D Research supported	
by percent of raised monies.....	183
Table 4.137: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V124 18-E Library supported	
by percent of raised monies.....	183
Table 4.138: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V125 18-F Student Assistance Programs supported	
with percent of raised monies	184
Table 4.139: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V126 18-G Athletics supported by percent of raised monies	184
Table 4.140: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V127 18-H Endowments supported	
by percent of raised monies.....	185
Table 4.141: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V128 18-I New Buildings support	
by percent of raised monies.....	185
Table 4.142: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V129 18-J Property Maintenance supported	

by percent of monies raised.....	186
Table 4.143: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	
* V130 18-K Matching Gifts supported	
by percent of raised monies.....	186
Table 4.144: MEANS --- Use of raised monies	187
Table 5.1: Combined Simple Affinity Relationship Table	
Focus Group 1 Administrators.....	213
Table 5.2: Combined Simple Affinity Relationship Table	
Focus Group 2 Donors.....	215
Table 5.3: Combined Theoretical Affinity Relationship Table	
Focus Group 1 Administrators.....	217
Table 5.4: Combined Theoretical Code Frequency Table	
Focus Group 2 Donors.....	218
Table 5.5: Pareto and Power Analysis Focus Group 1 Administrators.....	220
Table 5.6: Pareto and Power Analysis Focus Group 2 Donors.....	222
Table 5.7: Interrelationship Diagram (IRD)	
Focus Group 1 Administrators.....	225
Table 5.8: Interrelationship Diagram (IRD) Focus Group 2 Donors	227
Table 5.9: Combined Interview Axial Code Table	249
Table 5.10: Theoretical Affinity Relationship Table	251
Table 5.11: Combined Theoretical Code Frequency Table	
Focus Group 2 Donors.....	252
Table 5.12: Interviewees' Combined Theoretical Code Frequency Table ...	254
Table 5.13: Interviewees' Pareto and Power Analysis Table.....	255
Table 5.14: Interviewees' Combined Tabular IRD	257

Table 6.1: LOCATION College Urban/Rural Area	282
Table 6.2: Anova Table --- Significant Donor Motivations by Location	283
Table 6.3: Mean Measures of Association of Donor	
Motivations by Location.....	285
Table 6.4: Enrollment Groups for colleges.....	286
Table 6.5: ANOVA Table of Significant Donor	
Motivations by Enrollment	286
Table 6.6: Mean Measure of Association of Donor	
Motivation by Enrollment.....	288
Table 6.7: Foundation income by groups	289
Table 6.8: ANOVA Table --- Significant Donor	
Motivations by Foundation Income	289
Table 6.9: Mean Measure of Association of Donor	
Motivation by Foundation Income.....	291
Table 6.10: Motivations for Giving --- Means.....	293
Table 6.11: Motivational Influences on Fundraising --- Means	293

List of Illustrations

Illustration 5.1: Affinity Naming	197
Illustration 5.2: Detailed Affinity Relationship Table for Focus Group 2	200
Illustration 5.3: Focus Groups' Affinities	202
Illustration 5.4: Focus Group 1 --- Administrators Cluttered SID	230
Illustration 5.5: Focus Group 2 --- Donors Cluttered SID	231
Illustration 5.6: Focus Group 1 --- Administrators Uncluttered SID	232
Illustration 5.7: Focus Group 2 --- Donors Uncluttered SID	237
Illustration 5.8: Feedback Loop 1--- Donors	243
Illustration 5.9: Feedback Loop 2 --- Donors	244
Illustration 5.10: Feedback Loop 3 --- Donors	244
Illustration 5.11: Feedback Loop 4 --- Donors	245
Illustration 5.12: Axial Code Affinities	247
Illustration 5.13: Combined Interviewees' Cluttered SID	259
Illustration 5.14: Combined Interviewees' Uncluttered SID	260
Illustration 5.15: Feedback Loop 1 --- Interviewees	265
Illustration 6.1: Focus Group 1 --- Administrators Uncluttered SID	280
Illustration 6.2: Focus Group 2 - Donors Uncluttered SID	294
Illustration 6.3: Alumna Interviewee Uncluttered SID	295
Illustration 6.4: Alumna Feedback Loop 5-1-7	297
Illustration 6.5: Alumna Feedback Loop 7-6-2-3	297
Illustration 6.6: Alumna Feedback Loop 2-8-4	299
Illustration 6.7: Corporate Executive Interviewee Uncluttered	301
Illustration 6.8: Administrator Interviewee Uncluttered SID	304

Illustration 6.9: Administrator Feedback Loop 2-8-4-5-3.....	305
Illustration 6.10: Trustee Interviewee Uncluttered SID.....	308
Illustration 6.11: Trustee Feedback Loop 1-5-6-7-3-4.....	309
Illustration 6.12: Trustee Feedback Loop 6-2-8.....	310

THE GIVING TREE: TRENDS IN PHILANTHROPIC GIVING IN TEXAS COMMUNITY COLLEGES

CHAPTER ONE: Introduction to the Study

“Once there was a [philanthropic giving] tree ... and she loved a
[community college].”

Shel Silverstein, *The Giving Tree*, 1964

INTRODUCTION: *WHY SHOULD COMMUNITY COLLEGES RESEARCH PHILANTHROPIC GIVING?*

Community colleges in the past have relied heavily upon state and local tax support to maintain and counterbalance their growing enrollment budgets. No longer can they continue in this manner. With tax cuts, unforeseen enrollment growths, rapidly changing needs in technology, and an ongoing recession, a new “culture of development” must be created. Community colleges are forced now to look to their foundations and to philanthropic giving from alumni and corporate sponsors to fill the gaps in their budgets. How can these colleges determine the reasons behind philanthropic giving that will aid their dwindling budgets? Findings of research into the giving motivations of alumni and corporate donors can help community college development officers, trustees, and administrators determine if they are meeting donors’ needs, and if not, what they can do to meet them.

Between 1987 and 1996, the cost of attending a community college climbed an average of 169% - from \$2,125 in 1987 to \$5,717 in 1996 (National Commission on the Cost of Higher Education, 1998, p. 22). The 11-member Commission on the Cost of

Higher Education set up by Congress to look into tuition costs, found that tuitions have been growing faster than household incomes and the cost of consumer goods (Advocate OnLine, 2003, p. 1). The cost of higher education is currently outpacing inflation. The College Board estimated that college costs grew at a rate of 4.7 percent for the 1999-2000 school year (Provo, 2003, p. 1).

Continued cost increases for students could render the community college open-door admissions policy meaningless. In 10 of the last 12 years, higher education budgets, as a portion of state general fund budgets, decreased nationwide. Community college leaders must now seek new resources for funding (Lasher & Greene, 2000, p. 2; Lasher, 2000, p. 1; and Roueche, Ely & Roueche, 2001, p. 117).

In 1959, only 20 percent of American workers needed at least some college work to do their jobs well. Today, more than 80 percent of the working population needs college training (Roueche, 2002). College credentials are fast becoming the dividing line between a job that pays a family-supporting wage and a life of entry-level employment and poverty. These economic trends, accompanied by changes in the composition of new community college students, make a traditional approach to education an inadequate response to the students' needs (MetLife Foundation, 2002).

A developing recession, coupled with growing enrollment pressures, is creating increased economic strains for community colleges. *The State Fiscal Outlook for FY 2002: October Update* reported that 44 of 50 states were faced with revenues that fell short of projections. In 28 states, budget cutbacks were being discussed. Additionally, the October report does not capture the impact of the September 11th tragedy on philanthropic giving (Selingo, 2001; Roueche, Roueche, & Johnson, 2002, p. 10).

The College Board reports that community college tuition increases averaged 5.8% during the 2001-2002 academic year. This compares to an average increase of 3.4% during 2000-2001. Students in some states face double-digit tuition increases (Brownstein, 2001). The open-door threatens to close on students in marginal economic circumstances when absolute limits on tuition and fee charges are not maintained. Actual budget cuts in states such as Illinois, Iowa, Maine, North Carolina, California, and Utah, have exacerbated the strain. Operational costs continue to spiral. For example, health insurance premiums for community college employees have been increasing at double-digit rates; a trend that promises to continue (Roueche, Roueche, & Johnson, 2002, p. 12). Community colleges, now more than ever, are challenged to meet technological demands to provide state-of-the-art training for their students and clients (Daniel, 2002). However, research indicates that funding from traditional sources will continue to decline (Lasher & Greene, 1993, 2001). Thus, new entrepreneurial methods of enlarging community college coffers must be found through the discovery of giving motivations of alumni and corporations.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM: *WHAT CAN COMMUNITY COLLEGES DO?*

Since the first community college foundation was established at Long Beach City College (CA) in 1922, many other community colleges have created 501(c)(3) foundations (Johnson & Turner, 2001). Ned J. Sifferlen, current president of Sinclair Community College (OH), summarizes the common creation pattern of community colleges' foundations:

Although the Sinclair Foundation was created in 1969, we did not staff it until 1990. Even then, there was no big push to raise money because Sinclair received millions of dollars in state and local funding through the 1980s and 1990s that helped construct buildings and keep our tuition low.

But now, like many colleges, Sinclair has experienced the ‘boom or bust’ pattern of public funding over the past several years. It confirmed for us the reality that public funding in the future would not only be scarcer, but also much more unpredictable (Craft & Guy, 2002, p. 29).

Nationally, the percentage of university budgets derived from state appropriations fell from 41.6% in 1986, to 32.5% in 1997. University presidents have come to understand the dimensions of the opportunity and the scope of the fundraising challenge; more than half surveyed indicated they would like to have additional training in fundraising (*New York Times*, 2001). Community college leaders, faced with these same fiscal challenges, would be well advised to follow the precedence set by university presidents.

Economic and fiscal challenges will require that community college leaders improve the performance of existing college foundations and create new and more innovative forms of fundraising to sustain their very existence. Effective philanthropic fundraising strategies offer much-needed financial support for the future. Today, innovative fundraising programs are less concerned about the means by which gifts are solicited than about project design, marketing, and evaluation of those gifts.

The sweeping changes in the Tax Reform Act of 2001 generated as much opportunity as confusion for fundraisers. Regardless of temporal economic trends, individuals are making plans for the disposition of their wealth upon their deaths. Colleges are responding by building their capacity to help with these plans. The best community colleges will grab the opportunities and garner creativity to maintain vital programs.

However, reputation will not be the only motivation for attracting serious support. Creative colleges must build a “culture of development,” involving faculty and staff in the fundraising process. Community colleges can no longer have a governance board and a fundraising board working independently. They must recognize that building informed boards is an important key to success. The future belongs to those colleges with a clear focus on the communities and constituencies they serve and to those who adapt quickly (Hammock, 2002).

Janet Levine, Executive Director, El Camino College Foundation (CA), throws down the gauntlet to community college leaders:

To bring in private money, community colleges need to empower their foundations to make the required donation requests. Colleges must invest in their foundations, provide appropriate levels of staffing, assist in developing case statements for giving, and demonstrate a willingness of presidents to be involved in the fundraising effort. If we do this, we will turn threats into opportunities and develop our own silver linings (Levine, 2001, p. 3).

In these economic times, community colleges should ascertain what motivates donors to give to community colleges. Foundation directors, trustees, and administrators must understand those motives and determine how community college leaders can best use them. The problem of not reaching potential philanthropic donors is an eminent one.

There is tension at the very heart of community colleges: with their broad institutional missions to meet the varied educational needs of their constituents, community colleges must match their limited resources with their open-door admissions policies either by doing more with less or finding more resources. This tension has been exacerbated by America’s economic difficulties in the late 1980s and early 1990s

(Burstein, 1996). As federal and state funding decreases, community colleges must find new resources to financial assist with their large growths in student enrollment, increases needed for additional services and facilities, and rising costs for improved technology (Catanzaro & Miller, 1994).

Community colleges have been latecomers to the philanthropic fundraising scene. Fundraising performance among America's community colleges has been uneven and not particularly noteworthy. The Council on Aid to Education's Survey of Voluntary Support to Education (SVSE), the only consistent data source for all aspects of voluntary giving to educational entities nationwide, reveals that less than 15 percent of America's community, junior, and technical colleges provide the council with data on fundraising (1996, p. 1). These same community, junior, and technical colleges are faced with even more severe financial pressures than most small universities. Community colleges' dual missions of open access and student success promise to require greater amounts of resources and community support in the future. Reaching new philanthropic donors and increasing support from present ones will be mandatory for community colleges to survive in the 21st century.

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE PROBLEM: *HOW CAN COMMUNITY COLLEGES INCREASE PHILANTHROPIC GIVING?*

In 1990, community colleges reported that less than two percent of their annual revenue came from private sources. There are many reasons for the relatively low levels of charitable giving to community colleges, but the most significant is that community colleges have difficulty developing and maintaining alumni contacts (that four-year

institutions find so valuable). Compounding this reality is the fact that successful community college graduates often are also graduates of four-year schools that are more aggressive in their pursuit of gifts. Additionally, potential corporate donors believe public two-year institutions need gifts less than other institutions because they receive ample state funding and local tax revenues (The Council for Aid to Education, SVSE, 1996, p. 2).

Community college foundations can respond to meet alumni and corporate needs by ascertaining why donors do or do not give at the community college level. Through increased donations, scholarships can be provided for students, capital campaigns for building needs of aging facilities can be mounted, professional development for training staff and faculty to become more student-centered can be enhanced, and constantly changing technological demands can be met.

Community college administrators, trustees, and development officers must ascertain and then meet the needs of donors or the monetary demands of the college will not be fulfilled. To tap the potential giving of donors, community colleges first must determine why donors do or do not give to the colleges; otherwise, community colleges will continue in their “hit or miss” approaches to securing these critical resources.

DEFINITION OF TERMS

Some of the terms used in this document may be unfamiliar or are used outside their normally accepted context, therefore, they warrant defining. The definitions in this study are divided into “contextual” terms relating to the topic studied and “methodological” terms specific to the quantitative and qualitative research techniques

employed. Only the most significant and unfamiliar terms are listed in this part of the dissertation. Other relevant and more familiar terms can be found in the Glossary section following the Appendices in this paper.

Contextual

1. **Alumni (Alumnus/Alumna/e):** Alumni are graduates of a particular school, community college or university (Drozdowski, 2002).
2. **Corporate Giver:** A corporate giver is a company who distributes fund to enhance the programs of a college or university. These funds are usually designated for tax sheltered giving by the company (Drozdowski, 2002).
3. **Development (Resource):** Development usually refers to the raising of financial resources through the process of fundraising by an institution to enhance its programs, etc. (Drozdowski, 2002).
4. **Donor:** A donor is a person who donates or gives money, supplies, or resources of any kind to another person or institution (Drozdowski, 2002).
5. **Foundation:** (See Institutional Foundation and Private Foundation).
6. **Foundation Director:** A foundation director is a staff member who is charged with fundraising and assists in determining how the funds will be dispersed (Drozdowski, 2002).
7. **Fundraising:** Fundraising is a concept of soliciting money or items of monetary value for an institution through multiple and different avenues (Drozdowski, 2002).
8. **Institutional Foundation:** An institutional foundation is sometimes confused with a private foundation; however, these foundations are associated with state

universities and institutions of higher learning. The institutional foundation is financed by donations, legacies, or endowments to aid research, education, or the arts (Drozowski, 2002).

9. **Philanthropy:** Philanthropy is the emotional impetus behind giving, marked by the desire to improve humankind through charitable acts and donations; also, it is the giving of time or valuables (money, securities, property for public purposes) (Drozowski, 2002; Salamon, 1999).
10. **Private Foundation:** A private foundation is affiliated with nonprofit organizations established to give away money generated by an endowment; however, it is not affiliated with a state university or institution of higher education (Drozowski, 2002).
11. **Trustee:** A trustee is an elected or appointed board member who oversees an institution's finances and policies (Drozowski, 2002).

Methodological – Statistical Terms

1. **ANOVA:** The acronym for analysis of variance used to create tables for data (Pedhazur & Schmelkin, 1991, p. 492).
2. **Eta Ratio:** Eta is a measure of how strong the relationship is between the demographic variable and the item. If the relationship is perfect (linear), Eta will be “1”, and the lowest value would be “0” (Northcutt, 2003, e-mail).
3. **F-ratio:** The F-ratio is found by dividing the mean square regression by the mean square residuals to yield an F-ratio with degrees of freedom (df) for its numerator and denominator equal to the “df” for the mean square regression and the mean square residuals respectively (Pedhazur & Schmelkin, 1991, p. 384).

4. **Inductive Research:** An inductive research strategy example is where data are collected and examined, and then a theory is constructed to explain the relationships found among the variables (Babbie, et. al., 2003, p.13).
5. **Mean:** The mean is a commonly used descriptive statistic that indicates the average performance of a group on a measure of some variable (Gay, 1996, p. 328).
6. **Significance “Sig”:** Statistical significance refers to whether the obtained coefficient is significantly different from zero and reflects a true relationship, not a chance relationship. The decision concerning statistical significance is made at a given level of probability (Gay, 1996, p. 299).
7. **SPSS:** Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) is a computer software package used in data analysis (Babbie, et al., 2003, p. 5).
8. **Total Design Method:** The Total Design Method (TDM) is a new system of interconnected procedures for conducting high-quality mail and internet surveys with a greatly improved potential for obtaining acceptable response rates (Dillman, 2000, p. 5).
9. **Validity:** Validity describes an indicator of a concept; in other words, an indicator is said to be valid if it really measures the concept it is intended to measure (Babbie, et al., 2003, p. 20).

Methodological – IQA Terms

All of the following methodological terms were taken from the Course Supplement, *IQA: A Systems Method for Qualitative Research* (Northcutt and McCoy, 2002).

1. **Affinity:** Categories of meaning of a phenomenon, also known as themes elements. Each affinity is a set of textual references created by clustering statements or words having a common theme. This clustering into categories is known as “affinity analysis.”
2. **Affinity Relation Table (ART):** A structured table in which the researcher records the relationship among each pair of affinities, as determined by the focus group and later by each individual interviewee. (See “theoretical coding.”)
3. **Conceptual Map or System Influence Diagram (SID) or Mindmap:** A diagram designed to represent how an interviewee or a focus group perceives a particular phenomenon. The diagram of the system consists of boxes representing the categories or meaning (affinities) connected by arrows to display the perceived causal relationships among the affinities.
4. **Focus Group:** A group composed of individuals who have experienced a common phenomenon. These constituents are involved in the initial stage of the IQA method during which they are assisted by the researcher to generate, combine, and organize their thoughts into common themes or affinities. They help the researcher define the affinities and collectively reach consensus on the relationships among the affinities.
5. **Interactive Qualitative Analysis (IQA):** A qualitative research method that originated from Total Quality Management (TQM) processes designed to capture knowledge from organizational members through use of group and individual interviews. The IQA techniques assist group members in describing and labeling

their experiences and the relationships among these experiences to produce a theory in perception.

6. **Interrelationship Diagram (IRD):** A two-dimensional grid that represents all possible relationships among the affinities by displaying arrows to represent which affinity in a pair is a *cause* and which is an *effect*. This table is used to categorize the affinities as drivers (*causes*) or outcomes (*effects*).

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

In the broadest sense, the purpose of this study addresses the understanding of alumni and corporate philanthropic giving to community colleges who may benefit, or not, from the reasonings behind the giving. The more narrow three-fold purpose of this study is: 1) identifying patterns of philanthropic giving by comparing the patterns of community college donors to the literature review in Chapter Two of this research; 2) comparing beliefs of community college administrators about donor philanthropic giving; and 3) comparing the realities of potential donor giving to the perceptions of community college administrators, development officers, and trustees.

A quantitative statistical survey and the Interactive Qualitative Analysis (IQA) methodologies were used for all comparisons. A more detailed explanation of the methodologies is made in Chapter Three.

The objectives of the research are to determine: (1) why donors give to community colleges and (2) what community college administrators believe about donor giving to community colleges. A quantitative survey and an IQA mindmap were utilized to explain the motivational beliefs of the administrators, and an IQA mindmap was used

to explain the motivational beliefs of the donor group. Additionally, interviewee mindmaps and case studies were created for each of the following to add “richness” to the qualitative study: one community college administrator, one community college trustee, one corporate donor, and one alumna potential donor.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The questions that spurred this researcher’s data collection were focused on the motivations of donors and non-donors for philanthropic giving to community colleges. Answers were amassed from the extensive literature review, the quantitative survey, and the IQA mindmaps.

- 1. What is the history of philanthropic giving as determined by the following questions?**
 - a. According to the literature reviewed in Chapter Two, what has motivated donors, both alumni and corporate, to philanthropic giving in the past?**
 - b. According to the literature reviewed in Chapter Two, what are the current trends in philanthropic giving?**
- 2. What do community college administrators in Texas perceive are the reasons for donor giving, as determined by quantitative survey statistics and qualitative mindmaps?**
- 3. What is the reality of why donors, both alumni and corporate in Texas, give to community colleges, as determined by qualitative mindmaps?**

4. **Do similarities and/or differences exist between the perceptions and realities of these groups as determined by the quantitative statistics and IQA mindmapping?**

ASSUMPTIONS

The researcher in this study made several assumptions:

1. The participants would be honest and open with the interviewer during the survey, focus groups, and interviews concerning their perceptions of philanthropic giving.
2. The participants would not object to their specific community (junior) college participating in the study.
3. The participants would share pertinent information about their community college with the researcher.
4. The participants would share pertinent information about themselves with the researcher.
5. The participants would be honest about their reasons for trying to develop philanthropic giving within their community college.
6. Administrators, development officers, trustees, and other educators would be interested in the perceived reasons for philanthropic giving compared to the realities for philanthropic giving of alumni and corporate donors, and would use this information to motivate potential donors and current donors.

LIMITATIONS

This study was limited primarily by its geographic confines. Studying philanthropic giving in only one area of the nation may skew the research of the motivations of donors because of the size of the community, the percentage of corporate donors in the Austin, Texas, area compared to other areas of the nation, the lack of a community college alumni association in the Austin area, and the differing philanthropic attitudes of people from one region of the country to another.

A major limitation was the number of focus groups conducted. With limited focus groups, only a sampling of community college administrators, trustees and development officers, as well as potential donors, could be interviewed.

Time restraints and funding were additional limitations on this research. The time for multiple interviews and the cost of transcribing those interviews prohibited the researcher from doing a more extensive study of the topic.

CONCLUDING STATEMENT

The Chronicle of Philanthropy (March 21, 2002, p. 13) reported on a survey by the Citigroup Private Bank that the terrorist attacks of September 11th, and their aftermath, led 44 percent of those responding to the survey to increase or change the focus of their charitable giving. Of those taking part in the survey, 68 percent said the state of the economy had some influence over their giving, but only seven percent said the economy was “a determining factor.”

According to The American Association of Fundraising Counsel (AAFRC), virtually every national crisis over the last 60 years has been accompanied by an increase

in private giving. Ray Clements, CEO of The Clements Group, works with over 400 community colleges in their fundraising efforts. Clements states: “Those organizations that have a compelling rationale for support will find that giving goes up and volunteerism will increase [during a time of crisis]” (Transue, 2002, p. 3).

Community colleges must act now by utilizing their fundraising and foundation resources to respond creatively to the economic pressures of the times. *The Chronicle of Higher Education* states that higher education institutions raised more than \$23 billion during 1999-2000 through philanthropic fundraising (Pulley, 2001, p. A28). Community colleges must now more than ever before vie for their share of the philanthropic pie. Major successes on the fundraising front have counterbalanced the long-term decline in the relative level of state and local support for some community colleges, but these endeavors must continue.

Community college administrators, development officers, and trustees must be prepared to listen closely to their constituents’ demands and adhere to the needs of their community. In so doing, community colleges will reap the reward of a stronger foundation, enabling them to maintain their open-door policy and focus on their students’ success.

CHAPTER TWO: Literature Review

ROOTS OF THE GIVING TREE

Historical Background of Philanthropic Giving to Community Colleges

“Cut down my trunk and [create philanthropic funding],” said the tree. “Then you
can sail away ... and be happy.”
Shel Silverstein, *The Giving Tree*, 1964

Philanthropy is defined as: “... the giving of time or valuables (money, securities, property) for public purposes” (Salamon, 1999, p. 10; Ostrower, 1995, p. 4).

More than a century and a half ago, the Frenchman Alexis de Tocqueville identified the nonprofit sector as one of the most distinctive and critical features of American life. When de Tocqueville wrote (in 1835) of his travels in America, he commented on the uniqueness of the American habits of private generosity. He observed in his diary that “...when Americans saw the need for a school or a hospital or a church or a cultural service, a few local citizens formed an ‘association’ (or a committee) to meet the need, provide the leaders, and then support it” (Salamon, 1999, p. 10).

According to numerous scholars, the earliest example of educational philanthropy appears to be the benefactions associated with the Academy of Socrates and Plato. The Greek philanthropist Cimon helped to finance the Academy; and Plato, through an endowment of property, provided income for the Academy which continued for some 900 years (Cook & Lasher, 1996). Along this same line of educational philanthropy, Alexander the Great provided funds for a vast library in Alexandria, Egypt, during the

fourth century B.C., and reportedly financed the Lyceum of Aristotle so generously that at one time Aristotle has a thousand men scattered throughout Asia, Egypt, and Greece, seeking data for his writings on natural history (Marts, 1953, cited in Cook & Lasher, 1996, p. 34).

Miller (1994) states that fundraising for higher education can be traced directly to the opening of the medieval universities in twelfth century Europe. As these institutions opened for the first time and grew, college founders were forced to secure the money and resources necessary for the college's operations. In order to accomplish this early fundraising, the college founders and "presidents" (i.e., rector, principal, master, etc.) solicited businessmen, merchants, and other college supporters for cash and in-kind contributions (p. 4).

The spirit of private philanthropy evolved from the attitude of first settlers who came to America from England. Most of them had lived through the years during which private gifts of English merchants and bankers had saved England from social dissolution. Marts (1966) traces the direct roots of American generosity to England, with strong assistance from the Netherlands (p. 14).

The early history of philanthropy in American colleges and universities is an exciting story. While private giving to American colleges has a history measured in centuries, philanthropy in community colleges is a relatively recent phenomenon. Beginning with Harvard University (MA) and the College of William and Mary (VA), Americans contributed generously to provide their children with educational opportunities. Most early colleges were designed to train both clergymen and laymen;

therefore, most private and many public educational institutions can trace their founding to denominational giving (Broce, 1979).

Four-year colleges and universities, created after the Morrill Act of 1863, eventually followed the practices of private schools by creating mechanisms for philanthropic donations (Miller, 1994). Systematic solicitation of the general public began in the early 1900s, and most of the first fundraisers were paid solicitors who worked for a fee. Then, as now, paying fundraisers a percentage of the gift income was disastrous. Donors have never been comfortable knowing that the solicitors will retain some of their gift dollars. Though some argue that gift dollars help pay the costs of fundraisers, the uneasiness of the earliest Americans about this issue still proves true (Broce, 1979).

The nation's entry into World War I set in force new kinds of philanthropy. The American Red Cross campaigns established innovative trends. Corporate philanthropy emerged during the war; and foundation giving, spurred by the generosity of Andrew Carnegie and John D. Rockefeller, added impetus to fundraising programs (Broce, 1979).

Higher education in America actively emerged in the fundraising picture during the 1920s. Campaigns replaced begging presidents and paid solicitors. The earliest campaigns focused on buildings, football stadiums, and endowment funds (Broce, 1979).

World War II brought new challenges to fundraising professionals. Capital programs that had begun gathering steam as economic conditions improved were again deferred or cancelled. College enrollments dropped as the draft and other manpower requirements increased, and many social agencies were replaced by wartime agencies under government sponsorship (Broce, 1979).

After World War II fundraising reached new heights during the 1950s, an era of greater sophistication among professionals and donors. Beginning in the early 1950s, public giving to religious, health, welfare, and educational institutions reached new proportions. The momentum established then has never decreased. It was during the 1950s that private philanthropic foundations first began to set patterns of massive giving. The Ford Foundation's Special Program in education provided to colleges and universities significant challenge grants that raised donor sights to new levels. Ford's program established the importance of the major challenge grant as an incentive to other contributors (Broce, 1979; Cook & Lasher, 1996).

Federal funding programs for higher education began in 1944 with the Serviceman's Readjustment Act, which became known as the G.I. Bill. During the 1950s, higher education witnessed the emergence of large federal funding programs. In 1958, the National Defense Education Act (NDEA) was passed in response to the Russian satellite Sputnik and the need for the United States to improve scientific and technical education.

Following the NDEA, The Higher Education Act (HEA) of 1965 was the next significant educational legislation (Minnesota, 2001). Such programs proved to be both beneficial and detrimental to the recipients. The benefits lay in the government's ability to pour out funds far greater than those most private donors could contribute. The trouble came when the federal government closed down or curtailed most of the massive aid programs, leaving hospitals, educational institutions, and others overbuilt and overly dependent on federal aid. The nation did not recover from this adverse effect until the early 1970s (Broce, 1979). In 1976, Wattenbarger wrote: "Historically, community

colleges have been supported from three major sources of funds: local taxes, state taxes, and tuition fees.federal funds have played only a minor role in this financial structure” (Broce, 1979, p. 21).

The first foundation in higher education was established at the University of Kansas in 1893 (Sharron, 1982; Sears, 1919). Inspired by the success of Harvard University’s \$82 million foundation program, other major private universities launched capital campaigns, many seeking in excess of \$100 million (Broce, 1979, p. 13).

The identity of the first community college to establish a fundraising program is unclear, but some junior college foundations, according to Angel and Gares (1989) and Duffy (1980), were organized in the first decade of the 20th century. However, the first community college to create a foundation of any major significance was Long Beach City College (CA), in 1922. Other community colleges that early on established foundations were Vincennes University (IN), a two-year institution, in 1942, and Santa Monica College (CA), in 1955. According to Hollingsworth (1983), more than 80 percent of the currently operating community college foundations began after the late 1960s (p. 10).

The number of community colleges multiplied dramatically in the 1950s and 1960s (Gleazer, 1980). Still, few of these institutions actively pursued private sector financial support (Smith, 1993). However, the passage of the 1965 Higher Education Act proved to be the needed impetus for establishment of external fundraising operations at many community colleges (Schuyler, 1997; Keener, 1984).

When the concept of locally based community colleges became popular in the 1950-1970s, there was an assumption that these schools would be wholly supported through public measures. Kenneth B. Woodbury (1989) wrote: “Community colleges

have tended to neglect the potential of private philanthropy to fill the gaps in their tax support. For every dollar received by private colleges from nongovernmental sources, community colleges have pocketed one penny” (p. 172).

During the 1960s, there was little interest among public two-year colleges to establish operations to solicit private giving. Bremer’s 1965 dissertation reported only 23 community, junior, or technical colleges that had formalized foundations. In 1967, Alan Robertson, then president of Santa Fe Community College (FL), stated: “As one considers the benefits which accrue to a college from having a successful foundation, it becomes more difficult to understand why so many community colleges are inactive in this area” (Ryan, Hall, & Smith, 1987, p. 3).

In the beginning stages, community colleges sought grant funding from governmental sources. Leaders at most institutions demonstrated little interest in pursuing private sector philanthropic fundraising. According to Anderson and Snyder (1993), early fundraising efforts typically focused on capital campaign donations. However, many community colleges soon found that federal, state, and local funding levels would not provide adequate support. In response, beginning in the mid-1970s, community college leaders began to expand their external fundraising operations. New foundations were created, and leaders began to experiment with the systematic cultivations of corporate and individual donors (Schuyler, 1997).

During this period of phenomenal growth of community colleges in the 1960s and 1970s, government support accounted for about two-thirds of institutional budgets, and tuition accounted for the remainder (Smith, 1989). Since the 1971-72 fiscal year, four-year institutions nationwide have supplemented their budgets with voluntary support that

ranged from 6.3 to 8.3 percent of their total expenditures. In comparison, community colleges ranged for 0.8 to 1.4 percent in private support dollars as a portion of their institutional budgets (Council for the Aid to Education, 1992, pp. 8-9).

A new definition of resource development for community colleges emerged in the mid-seventies. This approach combined all external funds programs under a resource development function. In turn, the expanded role required a new entity to represent the community college in private fundraising. Thus, community colleges moved to establish not-for-profit foundations (Ryan, Hall, & Smith, 1987, p. 4).

Even the terms used to describe external funding are in flux. However, the evolution of two distinct and descriptive terms is especially important to our dialogue about generating resources for two-year institutions --- “development” and “institutional advancement.” “Development” describes a continuous process committed to the long-term financial and physical growth of an institution. The word “resource” frequently precedes the word “development” when used in community colleges. “Institutional advancement” is a broader umbrella encompassing resource development and other ways to advance an institution. Its purpose is “to create among all constituencies an understanding of the institution’s mission, services, and accomplishments” (Willmer, 1993, as cited in Jackson & Keener, 2002, p. 2).

Since the mid-1970s, when the growth of newly created community colleges slowed, publicly supported higher education has seen increased costs and decreased government support. Even in current times of limited financial resources, many American community college enrollments are rising steadily. These colleges now face

greater pressure to do more with less (Hodgkinson et al., 1997; *Outpacing Four-Year Colleges*, 1992; Roueche & Roueche, 2000).

The few community colleges that have been willing to be active in seeking private gifts are reaping the benefits. Ryan, Hill, and Smith (1987) concluded:

Community colleges that have mounted aggressive educational fundraising programs have been richly rewarded for their efforts. As the leaders of community colleges look beyond the 1980s to the 21st century, private resource development looms as a crucial element of college operations. The private sector may hold the greatest potential for increased financial support (p. 3).

External funding for higher education declined from 7.3 percent in 1975, to 7.1 percent by 1995 (Salamon, 1999, p. 96). Decreases in state funding in the 1990s provided additional impetus for finding other sources of funding for higher education. The percent of all state appropriations to higher education in the early 1990s ranged from 12 to 15 percent, and by mid-decade had fallen to about 8 to 11 percent.

Contributing factors for this decline included the recession of the early 1990s, a fiscally conservative stance at all government levels, a near moratorium on raising taxes, and increasing public demand for services causing states to absorb the additional burden for funding public programs. Increased spending for medical services, corrections, K-12 education, welfare, and various public agencies, additionally compressed the funds available for higher education (Alfred, 1996; Leslie & Fretwell, 1996). Government spending on education grew very slowly during this period, lagging well behind the growth of the economy as a whole. Fees and private philanthropic support grew faster for public higher education institutions, but these represent smaller sources of support.

The nation's public educational institutions, therefore, had to adjust to a declining share of the nation's wealth (Salamon, 1999).

Public two-year colleges are different from four-year colleges and universities in their approaches to fundraising. Consequently, while many of the operational aspects of traditional fundraising can be applied to two-year colleges, community colleges have a very different institutional mission than four-year colleges and universities. Garms (1977) summarized four distinctive traits of community colleges from four-year institutions:

- a. Community colleges provide access to post-secondary education for those who find access to traditional institutions difficult or impossible, primarily because of factors of cost, low academic achievement, and distance.
- b. Community and junior colleges serve those who are beyond the traditional age of college students.
- c. Community colleges provide courses and programs that are not provided by four-year institutions, such as vocational courses, avocational programs, short-term programs, distance learning, non-degree programs, as well as, transfer programs.
- d. Community colleges have a commitment to meet the educational needs of the community, as determined by that community (p. 37).

A deterrent to active and successful solicitation of private funding has been that community colleges have relatively limited staffing for resource development. Furthermore, much of the attention of the few professional-level development specialists has been aimed at procuring government grants. While grant writing remains an important component of institutional advancement, in some cases the emphasis on

competitive grants has overwhelmed, or at least diluted, efforts to seek philanthropic support from the private sector.

Today, community colleges that have relied on federal grant programs have found competition for dwindling appropriations even more intense than before. Keener (1984) summarized the prevailing community college attitude that “relatively few community colleges [have become] involved in the ‘other’ external fundraising function—private gifts” (pp. 3-4).

Large campaigns, conducted by teams of workers operating with short deadlines, have currently spread throughout the nation. By 1988, Ryan reported that over 700 colleges had created foundations. According to Muller (1986), a new philosophy of fundraising had emerged: Money tends to flow to promising programs rather than to needy institutions. Most organizations, therefore, have dropped the word “need” from their fundraising vocabulary and replaced it with “opportunity.”

A distinguished faculty, successful students, and good management are essential ingredients of a good community college, but they depend on the availability of adequate resources. The task of institutional advancement personnel in community colleges is to make these virtues familiar to the sources supporting their entire academic enterprise.

Community colleges are learning from the long history of effective relationships of their four-year constituencies, such as Harvard, Stanford, and The University of Texas, that successful educational fundraising takes place within a framework of image building and image projection (Pickett, 1986).

BRANCHES OF THE GIVING TREE

Roles of Presidents, Boards of Trustees, and Development Officers in

Philanthropic Giving in Higher Education

“... but you may cut off my branches and build a [philanthropic foundation]. Then you will be happy.”

Shel Silverstein, *The Giving Tree*, 1964

As representatives of the community college, the college president, board of trustees, and development officer can be the catalysts for securing private funds. Peter Drucker (1990) warns all not-for-profit organizations that to be successful fundraising must be totally integrated into the mission and the culture of the nonprofit organization.

Cook and Lasher (1996) in their study, *Toward a Theory of Fundraising in Higher Education*, on fundraising and educational leaders, found that there are certain aspects of leadership - such as salesmanship, integrity, and willingness/desire to be involved in fundraising - that fall within a “personal forces” category. Other aspects of leadership, such as effective management, stewardship, and donor recognition, are more institutional in nature (p. 40). Although the president of an academic institution is typically the central player on the fundraising team, presidents have a limited number of cards they can play with donor prospects. Included in this “presidential hand,” Cook and Lasher listed: a) the stature of the presidential office or position; b) the quality and prestige of the institution being represented; c) the importance of higher education to society; d) interpersonal and human relations skills such as, sales ability, the ability to listen, basic courtesy and respect, and the ability to articulate mission and vision; e)

appeal to donor motives; f) the strength of the relationship between the donor and the institution or between the donor and institutional representatives; and g) the stature and prestige of members of the solicitation team. The implication for presidents is that they must make sure they have something of substance to sell to donors, whether it is the commitment to maintain quality or achieve quality.

Cook and Lasher (1996) conducted their study to enhance the understanding of the presidential role in fundraising and related processes. The primary conclusions they made: a) fundraising is a team effort, b) an institution's president is the central player on the fundraising team, c) presidents should focus their fundraising attention and efforts on major gifts and administrative leadership, d) academic quality and institutional prestige are of critical importance in higher education fundraising, and e) fundraising is institution specific and context - or situation - specific (p. 33).

Presidents must have sense of what is possible and desirable for their institutions, and this vision can only come through strategic planning in consultation with both internal and external sources to the campus - such as faculty, staff, alumni, trustees, students, and community leaders. Fundraising should be thought of and studied more as a team effort than as the responsibility of any one person or position. Although basic aspects of fundraising, such as types of programs and giving vehicles, methods of cultivation and/or solicitation, prospect research, and other technical aspects are transferable from one institution to another; fundraising is situation-specific and can be understood fully only in terms of a particular context. In agreement with Cook and Lasher (1996), it is important for community college presidents to differentiate between fundraising effectiveness and fundraising success (p. 46).

Principles of Fundraising

Broce (1979), reinforced by Smith (2000), crystallizes the concept of fundraising by creating nine Cardinal Principles:

Cardinal Principle I: *Institutional or organizational objectives must be established first.*

Before any successful fundraising program can take place, the institution or organization seeking funds must determine, define, and articulate its purpose and objectives. College presidents may dismiss the problem, saying that the goals “are in the catalogue,” though those goals might not have been reviewed in the last 15 years. Perhaps the goals are still valid; but for success to be assured, periodic review is wise. The goals must be current, believable, and salable. It should be remembered that institutional planning beyond five years, according to Broce (1979), “...doesn’t work, because change is always with us, especially in dynamic organizations” (pp. 17-18) (also Bartley, 1988; Miller, 1994; Smith, 2000).

Cardinal Principle II: *Development objectives must be established to meet institutional goals.*

Donors give gifts to meet objectives, not simply to give money away. Few spokesmen for American institutions can answer, in two minutes or less, the question: “How would you spend one million dollars if it were given to you today?” Yet, if they cannot answer that question, how can they solicit gifts from donors (Broce, 1979; Smith, 2000)?

Cardinal Principle III: *The support needed determine the kinds of fundraising programs.*

Whether an institution should spend its staff's time and resources on an aggressive foundation solicitation program, or on an aggressive annual gifts program, can only be determined by the kinds of gift support it needs. This decision also is based on the institution's goals. When a development program is started, those persons responsible must determine the kinds of gifts needed to meet the institution's objectives and the kinds of programs that will attract those gifts best. The donors most likely to support those programs can then be identified, and the development programs can be launched. Institutions should not spend hard-earned dollars on nonproductive programs. Therefore, an institution with a small endowment, but a great need for additional operating support, should place its prime emphasis on aggressive annual gift programs. This type of institution also should be active in corporate supported programs, and planned giving programs, and be attracting endowment funds; but its primary staff and dollar concentration should be on securing operating funds from individuals and corporations (Broce, 1979; Smith, 2000).

Cardinal Principle IV: *The institution must start with natural prospects.*

The "rock in the pond" principle where potential donors are selected randomly is not effective in serious fundraising. An institution cannot expect others to invest in it until those who are closest to the center of the institution do. To illustrate: A distinguished private university did all its pre-campaign work before launching an ambitious program. On the day the campaign plan was presented to the board, the

trustees listened attentively, voted unanimously to launch the effort, and then wished the president and his development staff well in their efforts. The staff soon found that the prospects were indeed interested and asked, “How much has the board contributed?” When told that the trustees had not yet made gifts, the prospects told the solicitors to come back when the trustees decided that this was an important enough program for them to support. In establishing priority prospect assignments, it is always necessary to start at the center and work out. The farther from the center, the weaker the interest; this should also include involving faculty and staff (Broce, 1979; Roueche, Baker, & Rose, 1989; Smith, 2000).

Cardinal Principle V: *The case for the program must reflect the importance of it to the institution.*

The term “case” is used in fundraising to describe the need of the institution and the program being conducted to support it. For most programs a “case statement” is prepared to convey the value and need to prospective donors. The case statement must be brief and tastefully prepared, and it must communicate – i.e., it must reflect clearly the value of the institution, the worthiness of its objectives, and the undeniable need for funds to meet those objectives (Broce, 1979).

Cardinal Principle VI: *Involvement is the key to leadership and support.*

If individuals or groups are to be stimulated to make a commitment to a program, they must have the opportunity to be involved in its planning and its operation. Control over privately raised funds, according to Catanzo and Miller (1994), falls to a legally

separate foundation board in many community colleges, an entity whose members may or may not work in concert with those of the governing board of the institution. This potential - and sometimes real — conflict can seriously hamper institutional advancement efforts. The best trustees of a college are those who are involved meaningfully. Every executive involved in the life of an organization must work with sincerity and consistency in keeping good people involved (Broce, 1979; Smith, 2000).

Cardinal Principle VII: Prospect research must be thorough and realistic.

Before significant fundraising can take place, staff members must identify and evaluate those persons, foundations, corporations, and organizations from which the college reasonably can expect to receive support. “Blue-sky” prospect identification is dangerous. Because a foundation has made a gift to one college in a state does not mean that it will automatically support another. The reason for giving may be no more than geographic, but there must be a reason. Prospect identification and evaluation should be continuous functions. Such research includes collecting information on which to base determinations about the right prospects for the project, as well as, the right time to solicit from those prospects (Broce, 1979; Miller, 1994).

Cardinal Principle VIII: Cultivation of the key players in the community is the key to successful solicitation.

Cultivation of prospects and potential prospects is a process, not a one-time effort. It must be as deliberate and well planned as all other phases of fundraising. Prospects are those: 1) ready to be solicited, 2) interested in the institution but not yet meaningfully

involved, and 3) with potential but no known relationship. Prospects in categories 2 and 3 are brought into category 1 by a process of “cultivation” (Broce, 1979; Smith, 2000,).

Cardinal Principle IX: Solicitation is successful only if Cardinal Principles I through VIII have been followed.

Solicitation is the final step in the fundraising process. It is at this point that a well-motivated donor, thoroughly informed and involved, seizes the opportunity to make an investment in an institution in whose present operation or future growth he has significant interest and concern (Broce, 1979; Kerns & Witter, 1997).

Fundraising, as a professional process, is understood best when considered in the light of the broader process of “development.” The latter term encompasses the entire operation from goal identification to gift solicitation. Fundraising should not be confused with the “tin cupping” of the blind man on the corner, but rather is the professional process involved in securing significant support (Broce, 1979).

Loane and Kaplan in 1994 reiterated Broce’s principles by condensing them to six basic steps for successful fundraising: 1) preparation, including obtaining adequate approval for fundraising and compiling information on one’s own institution and project; 2) identification such possible sources of funding as personal friends, financial advisors, corporations and foundations, business and industry clients, advisory committee members, special event audiences, staff, faculty, students, and past donors; 3) research on prospective donors to determine their ability to give; 4) cultivation of donors by involving them in campus or project activities; 5) solicitation making sure to thank the prospect, actively involving them in the cultivation and solicitation process, determining

their knowledge of the college or program, inviting them to become a partner, and indicating how to achieve that; and 6) appreciation of the person's time.

Two of the most challenging realities facing fundraisers are: 1) they are always operating in the future, and 2) they are always concerned with enriching the quality of the human condition. The excitement in fundraising comes, as Broce (1979) states, "...when the person with the skills to make things happen comes in contact with a person with the resources to make an investment that will pay significant benefits to many generations" (p. 3).

Fundraising Activities

Specific fundraising activities are selected only after mission, needs, priorities, feasibility, and potential donors are understood. The activities available to community college development officers for fundraising are ones that have proven to be fruitful in many other not-for-profit organizations. Some of the common approaches for solicitation of funds found by Miller (1994) in community colleges include:

The Capital Campaign

Traditionally, the term capital campaign was given to fundraising efforts that focused on building projects as opposed to operational support. However, the term now is applied to major efforts for funding capital, endowment, and programmatic operations. What distinguishes capital campaigns from others are the dimensions of size, purpose, duration, and organization (Coldren, 1982). A capital campaign is most likely to succeed when the institution has some large, cornerstone gifts that will

symbolize for other donors that the community college is a worthy cause (Miller, 1994, p. 78).

The Annual Fund

Donations obtained for direct, unrestricted operational support often are collected through the annual fund drive. Typically, such a drive occurs yearly, employing proven fundraising techniques as donor clubs, direct mail solicitation, phonathons, and special events. Rising postage costs and an increase in nonprofit organizations using direct mail are constricting mail usage by more and more organizations. Many groups hope the Internet will one day become the best way to solicit donors; however, today's e-mail is still a long way from replacing direct mail. A survey of 733 people who had made an online contribution to a large organization found that 80 percent of those donors go online every day; 56 percent do their banking or pay bills online, and 36 percent have high-speed broadband access at home. Donors online tend to be "superadopters" of the Internet, not beginners (Schwinn, 2002; VanDerWere, 1999).

Other successful annual fund events include golf tournaments, art auctions, art poster sales, entertainment, and gala dinner and breakfast events. Broce (1979) identifies the personal participation of the institutional leadership in such events as critical to campaign success.

Corporate and Business Support

Reflecting on the future of community colleges, Edmund Gleazer (2002) urged that current fundamental values could provide guidance into the 21st century. One of the

guiding values that Gleazer stressed is “connection,” linkages or partnerships; “there are two ways in which we need to connect...first, with the conditions in the community...and secondly, in relating to other community organizations active in these areas” (p. 14).

According to the Council for Aid to Education, “friends” of the college are the most important source of gifts to the community college. Community colleges are more successful in attracting support from the individuals who live in their service areas than are four-year colleges and universities. Approximately 49.8 percent of all gifts to community colleges come from individuals who are not alumni, as opposed to the high percent of alumni gifts to four-year institutions.

Also community colleges are more successful in making their case to the business community. In fiscal year 1997, businesses made 28 percent of the gifts to community colleges, but only 19 percent of those gifts to all colleges and universities (Ironfield, 2001). Demonstrating the economic value of the institution to the community, community colleges can lead corporate or business entities to philanthropic giving successfully. Consequently, corporate giving projects have been used widely by colleges because they can be conducted with low operating overhead (Miller, 1994).

Shifting the focus of energies and resources to partnerships from tax levies often can produce significantly greater results than those attained through traditional approaches. Chattanooga State Technical Community College (CSTCC) (TN), for example, has found that strategic alliances can be as productive as fund drives or other common approaches. The involvement of the leadership of the college at CSTCC increasingly has been directed at the cultivation of community and regional partnerships,

which have reaped benefits for both the college and the community (Catanzaro & Miller, 1994).

Deferred or Planned Giving

Deferred or planned giving is defined as a deliberate, well-thought-out act of contributing an asset or assets to a charitable organization. According to Weinberg (1999), planned giving has been an untapped resource for community colleges. Weinberg states that there are four basic categories of planned gifts: outright gifts of appreciated assets which result in tax consequences in their giving (stocks, real estate); gifts which retain an income or benefit for the donor (trusts); gifts which pass assets to heirs (trusts); and gifts left to the college through a will or bequest (p. 9). In a 1999 survey of development professionals conducted by the Council for Resource Development (CRD), planned giving was identified as the most critical area for needed training (Hammock, 2002, p. 15).

Donations that come through planned or deferred giving do not pass simply and quickly from the donor to the community college. Planned gifts come in a variety of forms, each with specific legal and financial benefit to the donor. According to Hurwitz (1986), “A properly planned gift will enable a donor to take advantage of the tax incentives included in tax laws and help resolve some of the complexities of a financial portfolio by considering financial needs and charitable goals” (p. 17).

Transferring assets to the institution upon death can be accomplished through simple bequests, life income trusts, insurance policies, or the donation of unrealized assets. Although a very complex area legally and financially, planned giving promises to

be an important development component. However, because of its complexity, the area of planned giving is often not undertaken by development operations until after annual and capital programs are well established (Walters, 1987).

Under the topic of planned giving is the area of gift annuities. Gift annuities date back to 1843, when the American Bible Society created the first one. Most charities that issue gift annuities today began doing so only in the last decade. Designed for older people, a gift annuity is a nonrevocable gift to a charitable, educational, or religious organization that provides fixed payments to the donor for life. The annuity usually has a minimum of \$5,000 and offers attractive rates of return and certain tax advantages (O'Shaughnessy, 2002). Community college foundations would be well advised to look more closely at the advantages of gift annuities as the "baby boomer" population nears retirement.

Models developed by Prof. Paul Schervish and John J. Havens at the Social Welfare Research Institute of Boston College predict that \$40 trillion to \$136 trillion will migrate between generations over the next 50 years, depending on economic growth rates. A large percentage of those funds will end up in charitable endeavors. Professor Schervish estimates that \$19.2 trillion to \$50.2 trillion will be spent on philanthropy by 2052, again depending on the growth of the economy. He warns charities, including community colleges, that much of that money will find its way to new philanthropic ventures:

New philanthropists are setting higher standards for charities and seeking to be more involved in the application of their money, so it would behoove foundations and other charities, like community colleges, to begin finding a model for fundraising that allows donors to engage in the mission of the organization (Strom, 2002, p. 1).

Special Events

An effective fundraising technique is the special event planned to involve people whose participation leads them to contribute to the college. Art auctions, celebrity auctions, telethons, poster sales, golf tournaments, and special theme dinners are but a few of the options for event-based fundraising frequently used in annual fund drives. Martin (1990) identified two primary benefits of this approach: 1) its ability to meet and communicate with donors and potential donors, and 2) its ability to involve people in a well-planned and well-managed event that demonstrates the ability of the organization's advancement team.

In 1999, the Council for Resource Development (CRD) conducted a survey of its 1,200 members to profile community college resource development. The survey revealed that foundation staff spent more time on special events than any other activity. In the fall of 2000, the League for Innovation learned from its Alliance member colleges that special events was among the top three most effective methods for fundraising. Special fundraising events vary greatly, but the best are distinctive to the community, appropriate to the college culture, and guaranteed to succeed in raising funds (Milliron, 2001, p. 1). Added benefits for community colleges are that the institution may gain from publicity of and media attention to its major fundraising events.

Major Gifts

A major gifts campaign is simply one where the goal is targeted at a few large donations. Whether for a bricks-and-mortar project, or for a significant endowment enhancement, the major gifts effort is focused upon very large gifts from a few top

prospects. According to Lindahl (1991), the best prospects for major gifts are those who have shown a commitment to the institution through prior giving. An example of this type of giving is the recent gift of \$25 million to Duke University in North Carolina by Peter and Ginny Nicholas, of Boston, and their family, who all graduated from Duke (Hruby, 2002).

McNamara (1989) suggests that a \$5,000 gift to a two-year school can have a major impact and a \$10,000 donation a tremendous impact. Recognition and appreciation for gifts of this size are far and above what would occur at the four-year college or university where donations in this range may be common.

“A strong argument can be made that qualitative factors might be more important to the assessment and attainment of potentially [large] gifts, than the quantitative ones,” writes Leslie (1987, p. 29). For example, the effective involvement of the CEO, deans, the trustees, or members of the principal volunteer development group is paramount to significant fundraising results. Spirit, energy, and competency do not lend themselves to easy measurement, but they are the characteristics that will offset other deficiencies, such as a small number of alumni or professional schools. The institution’s CEO and its volunteer cadre can do more to influence the realizations of potential donors than any other factor (cited in Baxter, 1987).

Methods of Fundraising

The primary way for community colleges to raise funds is through the formation of affiliated nonprofit foundations that obtain and distribute cash and other donations for the good of the college. Typically, funds raised are allocated for student scholarships,

faculty and staff development, capital construction, equipment, and unrestricted operations (Council for the Aid to Education, 1992; Robison, 1981; Ryan, 1988,).

G. Jeremiah Ryan perhaps has conducted the most extensive investigations of fundraising in American community colleges through national surveys of development operations (Keener & Ryan, 1992; Ryan 1989). His 1989 survey found that over 80 percent of the institutional fundraisers identified specific variables associated with successful fundraising:

1. Involvement on the part of the college's CEO.
2. The reputation of the institution as the second essential component of successful fundraising. Motivations of pity, helping a public cause and philanthropy, and making a positive difference to a worthy cause were also considered significant factors in fundraising in community colleges.
3. The talents and energy of the development officer and a professional advancement staff. A supporting study conducted by the National Association of College and University Business Officers showed that the dollars generated by a professional development staff exceed the operational costs by a factor of ten, an excellent return (Ryan, 1990).
4. A successful foundation board of directors. Composition of the foundation board must fit the donor community, and board members must be active in raising money – i.e., this means an active board made up of people who understand that their job is to obtain money, but not to decide how it will be spent.

It is evident that, as community colleges move toward more sophisticated methods of fundraising, the level of understanding of who the potential donors are and

how they can be motivated to give will be better understood. Some development professionals are already using consulting firms and computer databases that assist in identifying potential donors. McNamara (1989) advocates the use of fundraising counsel or consultants as a means of bridging the gap between meager resources and expertise and a successful solicitation program.

The right consultant can be the key to success for the community college with a limited budget and an under-prepared, but enthusiastic development officer. The right consultant can make a significant contribution to a community college with an inexperienced development staff and a president who is committed to the program but has little experience and knowledge about fundraising....The best consultant may be a successful development officer from another community college....A good consultant can move an institution from base zero to a program that is sophisticated and successful (p. 164).

Paul Gianini, president of Valencia Community College (FL), best described the impact of development professionals: "Resource development [officers] can create a positive impact on faculty and staff if they believe in the resource development [officer's] capability and enjoy their involvement.... they will be willing to dream larger dreams and share their dreams." Leslie and Ramey (1988) sum up the significance of the role of the key players in community college fundraising by stating: "...voluntary support frequently provides the margin of excellence and the element of vitality that separates one institution from another..." (Gianini & Hook, 1991, p. 115).

LEAVES OF THE GIVING TREE

Roles of Alumni, Corporations, Foundations, and Donors in Philanthropic Giving in Higher Education

“Take my apples, [College], and sell them in the city. Then you will have money and you will be happy.”

Shel Silverstein, *The Giving Tree*, 1964

Arnaud C. Marts (1966), a distinguished member of the fundraising profession and a serious student of philanthropy, concluded that private philanthropy is one of the most durable factors of American life. In 1996, Americans contributed an estimated \$139 billion to various charitable causes. Of this amount, about 85 percent came from individuals, about 9 percent from foundations, and about 6 percent from corporations; \$12.7 billion went to public or governmental institutions, particularly higher education institutions (Salamon, 1999, p. 23).

Our community and technical colleges are perceived by many corporate and foundation funders as attractive recipients of donations because they provide solutions to the economic and social difficulties we face as a nation. Another factor that influences our colleges, according to Transue (2002), is that donors are scrutinizing the stewardship of their contributions more closely. Community colleges can demonstrate a high level of benefits in relationship to contributions. Moreover, community college alumni tend to stay in their communities. Here they apply the skills they have gained at the community college to their work, pay taxes, and contribute to community life (Jackson & Keener, 2002).

Alumni

One success factor that may have marginal importance for some community colleges is the cultivation and solicitation of alumni for donations. Melchiori (1988) acknowledges that community colleges have a particularly difficult time in defining, tracking, and soliciting their alumni. Pokrass (1989) advocates strengthening alumni relations as a means of improving community relations. Alumni should be made to feel a part of the community college first and then asked for money. Former students can make powerful statements about their educational experiences, and they can become active volunteers. Pokrass concludes: “If a college communicates regularly with its alumni, treats them with respect, and provides the necessary encouragement and support when they become involved, the institution’s alumni association is assured of loyal volunteers whose priority for service remains with their alma mater” (p. 200).

Community colleges have been at a disadvantage in the past because they do not have strong, active alumni associations that are typical of four-year colleges and universities. Two-year colleges lack the kind of alumni loyalty that four-year colleges and universities tap for donations. Community college students are typically older, frequently attend on a part-time basis, and often are engaged in raising families. Furthermore, most two-year community colleges do not include resident living, athletics, and the “collegiate culture” that four-year college and university students’ experience. Often, community college students who transfer to a four-year school transfer their affiliation and loyalty, as well (Pokrass, 1989).

Finally and significantly, community colleges do not track alumni as diligently as do senior institutions. They simply do not know much about their alumni and their alumni's desires or abilities to give to their two-year alma mater (Melchiori, 1988).

Corporations

Fundraising consultant specialist Carol Conine believes that private sector businesses may hold the greatest potential for increased financial support to community colleges (TACCTA Conference, 2001). Community colleges often can appeal to business and industry for support because the colleges provide assistance to the businesses with technical educational and training (Miller, 1994). Affirming this, Stout wrote: "Some donors, especially those in business and industry, are enamored with the occupational orientation of the community college..." (1973, p. 78).

One of the best ways to find out if a certain company grants in-kind donations is by searching the company's web page. Additionally online volunteer matching can also be found on the corporation's web page, allowing the leaders of the community college to access important revenue streams within the company (TeamTech, SF, 2002).

Even though giving by companies has increased in recent years, the Conference Board in New York cautions that some trends in the 2000 data point to less growth and even a decline in future giving. For example, company giving as a percentage of pre-tax profits fell from 1.2 percent on average, in 1999, to one percent in 2000. In addition, total giving per employee was \$336 in 2000, down 23 percent from 1999 (Whelan, 2002, p. 11). Community colleges would be wise to research companies carefully and watch giving trends by specific industries to trace future cash and in-kind donations.

Foundations

Early in the 20th century, large industrial-based foundations became the major sources of American philanthropic giving. These foundations grew out of the wealth and tax laws of the 1900s, which gave specific tax exemption to religious organizations and expanded these benefits by making gifts to colleges deductible (Dermer, 1972). Since then, corporate foundations have made an enormous impact on higher education, particularly for private institutions and community colleges. Today, philanthropic foundations continue to be important sources for alternative funding in education. Similar in some respects to grants from governmental agencies, proposals to private foundations are usually less cumbersome; however, the competition for these dollars is always very intense (Miller, 1994).

David Riesman observes that a foundation involved with higher education invests in individuals rather than in institutions. Riesman states that because of the power of leadership some of the most interesting and promising new developments in higher education emerge in some of the most unlikely places. Individual presidents and deans are the most important people in the developmental life of a college because they know how to enlist and utilize the talent that is available (as cited in Payton, 1986, p. 2).

Private foundations (e.g., Ford Foundation, Rockefeller Foundation, and W.K. Kellogg Foundation) are among the most visible components of the nonprofit sector – so much so that there is a tendency to overstate their role and confuse them with the public-serving nonprofit sector as a whole, primarily because in the U.S., unlike some other countries, the term foundation is reserved for organizations with the more specialized

function of making grants to other nonprofit organizations, typically out of the earnings from an endowment (Salamon, 1999).

In 1996, there were over 41,000 foundations in the United States with total assets of \$267.6 billion. Hruby reported that educational organizations received the largest share of foundation dollars in the year 2000, capturing a quarter of all grant dollars (2002; Pulley, 2002).

Foundations tend to take on four different forms:

1. Independent Grant-making Foundations

This is the most important type of foundation for philanthropic giving. It is set up to administer an endowment typically left for charitable purposes by a single individual, and to distribute all or some of the earnings from that endowment to nonprofit organizations pursuing public purposes. Nearly 90 percent of all foundations, in 1996, were independent foundations that controlled 85 percent of all foundation assets and accounted for 77 percent of all foundation grants (Salamon, 1999, p. 24).

2. Corporate Foundations

Corporate foundations are able to maintain more professional and stable giving programs because the foundations can receive excess funds during years of corporate prosperity to build up endowments for use when corporate profits are lower. In 1996, corporate foundations controlled four percent of all foundation assets and accounted for 13 percent of all foundation grants, excluding direct charitable giving by the corporations (Salamon, 1999, p. 25).

3. Community Foundations

Community foundations receive their funds from a number of sources in any community instead of from one source. Wealthy individuals pool their bequests in a community foundation - i.e., the Austin Community Foundation, which will put their money to its best use through the decisions of a local citizens' board. In 1996, 411 community foundations were in existence, and they accounted for nearly six percent of all foundation assets and over seven percent of all foundations grants—up from five percent in 1989 (Salamon, 1999, p. 27).

4. Operating Foundations

Most American foundations specialize in grant making. In 1996, there were 2,323 foundations that functioned both as grant-makers and operators of actual charitable programs, a pattern that is more common overseas. These foundations accounted for six percent of foundation assets and two percent of all foundation grants. Although the number of foundations is quite large, the foundations individually are quite small, and the overall scale of foundation assets pales in comparison to the assets of other institutions in American society - i.e., life insurance companies, etc. Private foundation grants, while important, hardly represent the dominant share, even of private philanthropic support, that American nonprofit organizations receive (Salamon, 1999).

Donors

Why do people give to a cause? Soroker (1994) writes that five pressures motivate donors: **guilt, ego and the need to affiliate, self-preservation, belief in the**

cause, and a reaction to pressure. Soroker (1994), Connolly and Blanchette (1986), and Lindahl (1991) suggest that Americans give as a result of complex interactions between the donor and the cause. Emerson Andrews, described in Baxter's 1987 dissertation as a major contributor to the understanding of educational philanthropy, looked closely at the question of why individuals donate to causes. He maintained that people give when they have a sincere desire to improve society in a manner that is addressed by the fundraiser. If the donors are sympathetic to the appeal because they have an interest in or knowledge of the cause, and when solicitation is presented in personal terms (people give money to people), then there is a match of institution and donor. This is particularly true if the donor is "intimately involved with the institution as a result of donor cultivation and receives as much satisfaction in giving as the institution receives from the gift" (cited in Baxter, 1987, p. 17).

Catanzaro and Miller (1994) present a somewhat different view of giving by stating that the key factors of giving are **donor perceptions of prestige and image.** Unfortunately, community colleges frequently have failed to make the prestige argument or to use the many contributions they make to the local economy and to the development of their communities to their advantage. Because the competition for philanthropic dollars is so intense, especially in a time of low interest rates, with numerous worthy not-for-profit organizations pursuing the same dollars from the same donors, new community college entrants to the fundraising arena often find the philanthropic pie already divided.

In *The Seven Faces of Philanthropy*, Prince (1994) stated that donor segmentation determine nonprofit organizations to which affluent individual donor segments offer the

best potential for long-term and major gift support, and enables organizations to tailor their communications with these donors.

Panus (1984, cited in Prince, 1994)) interviewed 20 individual donors who give more than a million dollars in any given year. His research identified 22 motivations. These motivations included such factors as **community responsibility and civic pride, tax considerations, and religious or spiritual affiliation of the institution.**

In a follow-up survey, nonprofits were asked to rate how important they thought each of the twenty-two motivations was to philanthropists. Consistent, significant differences were found between what donors said motivated them and what nonprofits thought motivated donors. For example, donors rated the **fiscal stability** of the nonprofits high on a 10-point scale, while nonprofits estimated donors would rate it much lower (p. 3).

Boris (1987, cited in Prince, 1994) also collected data on the motivations of donors. From his research, a factor's analysis was used to reduce 20 reasons to six motivational dimensions: **Altruism, Beliefs, Instrumental Motives, Memorial, Community, and Peer Pressure** (p. 4).

Odendahl (1990, cited in Prince, 1994), however, used anthropological methods to determine patterns in philanthropic motivation. An emphasis on cultural factors, religious orientation, and lifestyle factors resulted in Odendahl defining four donor groupings: **Dynasty and Philanthropy, Lady Bountiful, First Generation Man, and Elite Jewish Giving.** Odendahl's work showed the importance of distinguishing between philanthropists operating out of a multi-generation family tradition of giving inherited assets and those with first-generation wealth who give personally earned assets

for reasons unrelated to specific family values. His work also indicated the importance of **religious motivations** in giving (p. 4).

Rather than focus on a specific giving event, Schervish (1988; 1991, cited in Prince, 1994) explored aspects of values, life experiences, communication patterns, and interaction style preferences with nonprofits. The conceptualization of philanthropy as a social relationship was then developed into a taxonomy of 16 identifiable interaction patterns. These patterns or strategies ranged from personal-engagement strategies (donors personally involved in delivering services to constituents) to mediated-engagement strategies such as brokering (fundraising from other donors) (p. 5).

A recent examination of the reasons donors establish charitable trusts provides an additional point of departure for the *Seven Faces Study* (Cermak, File, and Prince, 1991, cited in Prince, 1994). In the *Seven Faces Study*, a set of 36 benefit-oriented items were used to create segments based on the benefits donors sought in creating major trusts. Cluster analysis of the items resulted in four donor segments: *Affiliators*, who look for social and business linkages through nonprofit-related activities; *Pragmatists*, who seek personal financial advantages through support of nonprofits; *Dynasts*, who are heirs to family affluence and to a tradition of philanthropy; and *Repayers*, who want to reciprocate benefits they or someone close to them received from a nonprofit (pp. 5-6).

Donor Segmentation

Nonprofit organizations already segment their donors in a number of ways depending on their objective. The segmentation approach with the most current relevance for nonprofits is the **motivational segmentation** approach. As defined by

Kotler (1991), *motivational, or benefit, segmentation* “calls for identifying the major benefits that people look for..., [and] the kinds of people who look for each benefit” (p. 273).

In Prince’s (1994) *Seven Faces Study*, an affluent donor was defined as a person who maintains one million dollars or more in a discretionary investment advisory account and who contributed \$50,000 or more to a single nonprofit within the last two years (p. 9).

The *Seven Faces Study* placed each affluent individual donor into one of seven distinct segments based on **needs, motivations, and benefits** the individuals said were most important to him or her. The seven segments provided a framework for understanding major donors.

Each segment represented: a characteristic and distinctive way donor-groups approach philanthropy, a set of typical attitudes and beliefs, a range of considerations, a process of evaluation, and a style of involvement with nonprofits. This segmentation is revealing because one set of motivations tends to dominate people’s decisions, even though close questioning will reveal that any individual donor will also feel additional motivations (p. 13). *The Seven Faces* as described by Prince (1994) are:

1. The Communitarians: “Doing Good Makes Sense”

Communitarians, the largest segment (26.3%), give because it makes good sense to do so. Communitarians typically are local business owners who find that service on boards and committees of local nonprofits can be good for business because of the relationships that often develop in such settings. The other reason Communitarians

believe active philanthropy makes good sense is that they can help their own communities prosper by supporting local charities. They are owners of home-town businesses (75.6%), and most are male (91.1%). Most Communitarians' businesses were founded after WWII, and their formal education is lower on the average.

Communitarians give because nonprofits are more effective than government programs. They believe wealthy donors give because they want to, not out of a sense of obligation. They also give because it is in their best interest. They support local chapters and local organizations. They look for solid management practices and proven track records of results and effectiveness. They also use advisors extensively in making donation decisions.

Communitarians want to influence how donations are used and to be assured that the nonprofit recognizes why they are giving. They expect nonprofits to look out for their needs and want individualized attention. They want public acknowledgment (p. 29).

2. The Devout: "Doing Good is God's Will"

The Devout are motivated to support nonprofits for religious reasons; they say they believe it is God's will for them to help others. Almost always members of a local church, which is part of a regional or national religious group, they channel nearly all (96.4%) of giving to religious institutions. The Devout make up the second largest group (20.9%) of major donors.

Everything about the Devout stems from deep religious orientation. Since they attribute their affluence to gifts from God, they feel a deep desire to share gifts with others within the religious community. In the minds of the Devout, the gift of

philanthropy is to be shared in the same way it came – selflessly, uncritically, and trustfully. The Devout expect to be treated well by the nonprofit. However, they insist this treatment be grounded equally in religious and moral motives to strive to treat all people well and not emanate from any felt obligation to reciprocate. The Devout do not mind recognition, as long as it is small-scale and kept within the religious community (p. 42).

3. The Investor: “Doing Good Is Good Business”

Investors are affluent individual donors who give with one eye on the nonprofit cause and one eye on personal tax and estate consequences. Investors calibrate their giving to take advantage of tax and estate benefits and, therefore, want to work with nonprofits that understand these concerns. To achieve their tax, estate, and philanthropic interests, Investors donate to a wide range of nonprofits and are the segment most likely to support umbrella nonprofits such as community foundations (22.5%). About 15.3 percent of major donors are Investors.

Investors believe acts of philanthropy, not motivation, define the philanthropist. They approach the nonprofit interaction principally as a business relationship. The size and timing of major donations are driven by business results as well as tax and estate considerations. Investors spend considerable effort assuring themselves that a given nonprofit is sufficiently well managed to make a suitable target for their generosity. In return, Investors expect nonprofits to behave in businesslike ways, such as being results oriented, and acknowledging major donors in the same way business owners cater to major customers (p. 55).

4. The Socialite: “Doing Good is Fun”

Socialites find social functions benefiting nonprofits an especially appealing way to help make a better world and have a good time doing it. Socialites are members of local social networks with which they interact to select nonprofits for support and to leverage in fundraising activities. They seek opportunities to create fundraisers and social events benefiting nonprofits, and are less interested in participating in the day-to-day operations of the nonprofit or activities directed at constituents. Socialites, who tend to support the arts and education as well as religious nonprofits, make up 10.8 percent of major donors. Generally, they are women with college degrees who are very focused on the fundraising aspect.

For Socialites, charitable giving and the associated fundraising activities constitute a significant component of their overall personal identity, which is a social self. For Socialites, the act of selecting a nonprofit to support is a social activity, one the Socialite will principally rely on for his or her social network. Nonprofits working with socialites need to acknowledge them as part of a donor system, rather than just interact with them as individual givers (pp. 67 & 68).

5. The Altruist: “Doing Good Feels Right”

Altruists embody the popular perception of the selfless donor - the donor who gives out of generosity and empathy to urgent causes and who modestly “wishes to remain anonymous.” Altruists give because they believe it is a moral imperative and because it helps them grow as human beings or evolve spiritually. Altruists make giving decisions without the input of advisors and are not usually interested in active roles in the

nonprofits they support. A far greater proportion of Altruists than any other group focuses their philanthropy on social causes. Nine percent of major donors are Altruists.

Altruists work alone seeking personal growth and development, and they see philanthropy as a natural component of that development. Striving for the highest morality as they define it, they view giving as a moral imperative. For the Altruist, that giving has to be pure and free of self-serving motivations. In making their giving decisions, Altruists work on their own, rarely consulting advisor or a social network. All Altruists want in return is personal attention, marked by spontaneous generosity and goodwill. Altruists resent being mistaken for other philanthropic personalities and dislike the usual rewards of nonprofits - honors, publicity, and status (pp. 79-80).

6. The Repayer: “Doing Good in Return”

Repayers tend to have been constituents first and donors second. A typical Repayer has personally benefited from some institution, often a school or medical center, and now supports that institution from a feeling of loyalty or obligation. Repayers concentrate their philanthropy on medical charities and educational institutions. Repayers are 10.2 percent of major donors.

Repayers have had some experience that changed their life, an experience which created in them a feeling of obligation or gratitude. These experiences encircle educational institutions and medical events, and Repayers focus their giving on these two nonprofit types. Repayers do not seek recognition for themselves; as a general rule, they prefer that nonprofits focus on constituents. They are appreciative when the officers of

the nonprofit are sensitive to their reasons for being philanthropic as well as their own personal situations (p. 93).

7. The Dynast: “Doing Good Is a Family Tradition”

Unlike other segments, Dynasts typically inherit their wealth. The philanthropic motivation of Dynasts stems from their socialization. Giving is something their family has always stood for, and they believe it is expected of them to support nonprofits. However, younger Dynasts will seek out different philanthropies than did their parents. Although Dynasts have been significant figures in philanthropy for some time, they now comprise only 8.3 percent of major donors (pp. 14-16).

Many Dynasts represent the “old money” class where giving is a tradition and philanthropy is an important part of socialization in their family. Increasingly, Dynasts of the new generation show signs of going their own ways, not breaking the tradition of giving, but in the type of nonprofits supported. Dynasts have a more diverse giving portfolio than any other segment. They are methodical in selecting nonprofits to support and often use professional advisors in the process. Once having selected, however, Dynasts usually prefer a role in the wings, expecting only that the nonprofit continue to perform on their behalf (p. 105).

The key to identifying and developing the seven faces of philanthropy for community colleges and creating prospective donors is referrals made through charity networks. One way of working through networks is by capitalizing on the relationships the community college has with current major donors; another is by accessing intermediary channels composed of the legal, financial, and philanthropic advisors to the

affluent (Prince, 1994). The seven faces of philanthropy will be utilized in Chapter Six to benchmark donor-giving motivations and to compare to the focus group mindmaps created by the Interactive Qualitative Analysis system.

Donors view certain institutions as having a greater claim on their contributions, and educational institutions are among those privileged in this regard. Graduates' feelings of indebtedness and loyalty to their alma maters contribute to sustaining a broad support of higher education. As one avid supporter of his college explained, "The thing I think it's easiest to do is [to give to] the university, because people feel that they've got to plough some money back into their educational background." Another donor said, "I give to [my alma mater] because I really feel a sense of obligation. I had a wonderful experience there and had such good teachers. I wanted to [contribute] to the cost of maintaining another student" (Ostrower, 1995, p. 87).

One man said he gives because "that's where I went to college and law school, and I believe that I owe some responsibility to see that the education of the young ones now is continued with help." Even some donors who are ambivalent about their schools have given them a large gift. One woman gave to her college even though she does not "feel good about it" because her family "strongly believes that if we as graduates don't support our schools, who then will" (Ostrower, 1995, p. 5)?

Philanthropic advisers, fundraisers, and benefactors agree that donors are increasingly more likely to specify in writing exactly how they want their money spent. Donors more frequently are demanding seats on committees that oversee the projects their money supports and are insisting that charities report to them on how they spend their gifts.

Few charity officials, unfortunately, will disclose their names or details about their experiences negotiating with donors, or allow their institutions to be named in *The Chronicle of Philanthropy* (Blum, 2002). This concept was formed as this researcher had difficulty finding foundation directors who would agree to their donors participating in the research for this dissertation.

Philanthropy observers, according to Blum (2002), state that the reason for donors' new interests in seeking greater control over their contributions is known as **strategic philanthropy**, something that has been practiced by corporations and grant-makers for a long time. Other observers believe that with the collapse of Enron and the belief that following the September 11th attacks the American Red Cross was misleading contributors, has created a heightened interest in accountability.

According to Ostrower, to understand why the wealthy give one must understand the nature and significance of their connection to nonprofit institutions (1995; Blum, 2002). The purpose of the gift, or the nature of the activity engaged in by the recipient organization, is a central element in how donors think about and carry out their philanthropy.

CONCLUSION

In fundraising, the primary distinction between community colleges and their four-year counterparts is that community colleges have different constituencies. Since donor prospects arise from various connections to the institution, community colleges, unlike senior institutions, must address their potential prospects from a pool that is not alumni-based. Identifying the potential donor base and then positioning the community college to appeal to that group are missions of institutional advancement. Ultimately, the

college should be able “to ask for a gift that is both realistic in terms of the prospective donor’s financial ability and consistent with his or her interests” (Worth, 1991, p. 43).

As president of Piedmont Technical College (SC), Lex Walters had the opportunity to become a leader in advancing his institution. In equating the benefits of fundraising for community, junior, and technical colleges with the “margin of excellence,” he wrote:

There are many wealthy people and philanthropic foundations who will gladly share their assets with our colleges, if we identify our needs and communicate those needs to potential benefactors. Their dollars can be of assistance; we simply need to get that message to them (Ryan et al., 1987, p.1).

Worth (1991) summarized this line of thinking by stating: “*Donors want to give to a successful organization that makes good use of their money, not to a needy, desperate one*” (p. 43).

Let the quest for *The Giving Tree* begin.

CHAPTER THREE: Research Methodology

INTRODUCTION

Chapter Three describes the context used in this study for determining the motivations of donors to give philanthropically to community colleges. The chapter defines both the quantitative and qualitative methodologies incorporated for data collection, analysis, and reporting.

Gay (1996) offers the following distinctions between the basic characteristics of qualitative research and quantitative.

- ***Overall purpose***

Qualitative research is used to explain, and gain insight and understanding of, phenomena through extensive collection of narrative data, while quantitative research is used to explain, predict, and/or control phenomena through focused collection of numerical data.

- ***Approach to Inquiry***

Inductive, value-laden (subjective), holistic, and process-oriented are characteristics of qualitative research, while quantitative characteristics are those of deductive, value-free (objective), focused, and outcome-oriented.

- ***Hypotheses***

Hypotheses for qualitative research are tentative, evolving, and based on a particular study, while hypotheses for quantitative are specific, testable, and stated prior to a particular study, frequently in an “If” “Then” statement.

- ***Review of Related Literature***

In qualitative research, the review of literature is limited and does not significantly affect the particular study. However, in quantitative research the review of literature is extensive and does significantly affect the particular study.

- ***Research Setting***

The qualitative research setting is one of naturalistic (as is) to the best degree possible. Quantitative research settings, however, are controlled to the highest degree possible.

- ***Sampling***

Sampling in qualitative research is purposive: the intent is to select “small,” not necessarily representative, samples in order to acquire in-depth understanding. In quantitative research, sampling is random: the intent is to select “large,” representative samples in order to generalize results to a population.

- ***Measurement***

Measure in qualitative research is non-standardized, narrative, and ongoing. Measurement in quantitative research is standardized, numerical, and at the end (p. 214).

Because of the two-fold aspect of this research, both qualitative and quantitative research methodologies were explored; however, the results of the research in this study are primarily analyzed and defined through the qualitative Interactive Qualitative Analysis (IQA) process.

The quantitative methodology used was to conduct a study, not to test a hypothesis. To accomplish this purpose, a series of questions in the form of a survey presented to Texas community college development officers was administered. The questions were designed by the researcher and were to elicit information from the development officers about their perceived beliefs of donor motivations for philanthropic giving.

According to Sherman and Webb (1988; cited in China, 1998), “The use of qualitative analysis is based on the view that reality is constructed by individuals in their social worlds.” The Interactive Qualitative Analysis (IQA) used in this study developed a systematic description of the separate points of view of community college administrators, community college development officers and trustees, and philanthropic donors to community colleges. The purpose of using the IQA was to determine if community college administrators, development officers, and trustees are aware of and are meeting the needs of donors and non-donors alike, and if those needs can be met more accurately to increase philanthropic giving.

The IQA process used in this research constructed a **theory of meaning** through “**mindmapping**” by articulating the nature of both the affinities comprising research paradigms and the relationships among them (Northcutt & McCoy, 2001, p. 10).

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Chapter Two provided an extensive review of the literature available on philanthropic giving: its history, roles of donors, and roles of community college administrators. This initial literature review helped expand the researcher’s knowledge of

motivations for donor philanthropic giving. Glesne and Peshkin emphasize the importance of looking closely at the literature: “In qualitative inquiry, reviewing the literature is an ongoing process that cannot be completed before data collection and analysis” (1992, p.18, Burrows, 2002, p. 57).

DESIGN OF THE STUDY

The design of the study utilized a quantitative survey, based on Dillman’s (2000) technique as described in his book *Mail and Internet Surveys: Total Design Method*. The survey was sent to the foundation representatives of the 50 Texas community colleges, plus the two-year Texas State Technical College. The qualitative design was the IQA system of selected focus groups and interviews creating “mindmaps.”

According to Dillman (2000), the first step in the total design method for mail and internet surveys is guided by a **theoretical view** about why people respond to questionnaires. The second step is guided by an **administrative plan** that insures the survey is implemented according to design intentions (p. 1). The intention of the survey utilized in this study was to collect information about the foundations or development offices in the 51 Texas junior or community colleges and to glean from the survey the motivations for donor giving that administrators believed to be true.

To implement the IQA part of the research, two focus groups were formed consisting of ten participants each. The first focus group consisted of community college administrators participating in the Community College Leadership Program at The University of Texas during fall 2002. The second focus group was a select group, conducted on-line through e-mail, of community college alumni and corporate executives

who were potential philanthropic donors to their local community college. All focus groups were selected from the same geographic area of Texas.

The focus groups established themes, or affinities, on the subject of motivations for philanthropic giving as understood by community college administrators, development officers, and trustees. These values could then be compared to the established themes, or affinities, of donors' beliefs about philanthropic giving to community colleges. The affinities established the protocol used next to conduct four individual interviews with an alumna of a local community college, a corporate executive, a community college foundation director, and a community college trustee to add richness to the stated affinities.

METHODOLOGY

Subjects for Survey (Quantitative)

The subjects of this study were the administrators of the foundations or development offices at the 51 two-year colleges in the state of Texas. Participants were selected for their roles concerning philanthropic giving to the colleges.

Subjects for Focus Groups and Interviews (Qualitative)

The subjects of the first focus group for the research were community college administrators studying in a doctoral program at The University of Texas at Austin in spring 2002. Ten participants in this group defined the baseline affinities used in the research, adding to those found in the literature review. Alumni of community colleges living in Austin, Texas, and corporate executives with the capability to contribute to

community colleges in the Austin area formed the second focus group. Interviewees chosen for the study were an alumna of a community college, an executive of a large corporation within a community college service area, an administrator of a community college foundation, and a trustee of a community college foundation.

Data Collection (Quantitative)

Data collecting for the quantitative research of this study was conducted through a survey (see **Appendix A**) mailed to the administrators of the 51 two-year college foundations or development offices. A letter of introduction (see **Appendix B**) was sent by e-mail to the presidents of each college, followed by a United States postal mailed copy and an e-mailed copy of the survey (see **Appendix C**). The presidents were requested to forward the survey to the administrator of their college's foundation or development office. Two weeks after the initial survey was mailed, a follow-up letter (see **Appendix D**) was e-mailed to the presidents of the colleges. Three weeks after the initial survey was mailed, contact was made with the colleges that had not yet responded to the survey (see **Appendix E**), asking for another contact name or the name of the administrator to whom the survey was forwarded. A month after the initial survey was sent, personal calls were made to the presidents or administrators who had not completed the survey. Conclusion of the data collection occurred when a 78 percent return of the surveys was achieved. A "thank-you" letter (see **Appendix F**) was then sent to the presidents and administrators.

Following the return of the surveys, the collected information was coded (see **Appendix A**) in an Microsoft Excel spreadsheet and then transferred into the Statistical

Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) research computer software program. From SPSS, independent and dependent variables were compared, and frequencies, significant, etc., and means were determined. Additionally, values were recoded as necessary by compressing the information in the independent variables in the survey's demographics.

Statistical Information Process

According to Babbie, et al. (2003), social research is the detective work of big questions. Social scientific research extends to all aspects of anything that concerns the life of an individual. Social and behavioral scientists' use of data-processing machinery to enhance their research has evolved over the last 50 years. From the late 1800s when the various "social sciences" disciplines were developing, there also developed a need for the organizing and analyzing of observations of social phenomena (pp. 3 - 4).

Today, within socio-behavioral sciences, the use of computers for data management and analysis has become widely accepted. The diverse uses for computers in research are virtually limitless, including information retrieval and exchange, presentation of stimuli in research settings, simulations, artificial intelligence, authoring systems, computer assisted instruction, computerized testing, and counseling applications (Pedhazur & Schmelkin, 1991, p. 342). However, the use of computer software statistical programs in this research was primarily for data analysis.

In the past, hand calculations were highly susceptible to all sorts of errors, including inversion of numbers, misplacement of decimal points, reversal of signs, and omission of portions of formulas. Relegating the tediousness of data analysis to the

computer diminishes the possibility of such errors, not to mention the efficient use of time (Pedhazur & Schmelkin, 1991, pp. 342 - 343).

The widespread availability of user-friendly software has made the most complex statistical analyses relatively easy for just about any researcher today. In the 1960s, software programs were created to assist social scientists in data analysis; however, there was no standardization for these programs. Later, in Chicago (IL) and in Michigan, a program package was developed to resolve the issue of lack of standardization allowing researchers to calculate statistics and modify or recode data, create indexes and scales, and employ many other techniques to assist them with their individual research (Babbie, et al., 2003, pp. 4 - 5).

Sechrest (1985) alluded to the problem of “error free” computers by implying that, “... it appears that a new standard of proof has been admitted into mathematics. This being in effect, ‘the computer told me so’...”(p. 84). It is important, therefore, that all data be verified prior to any analyses and any suspicious findings investigated.

Today, there are two statistical packages widely used by social scientists - ***SPSS*** (**the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences**) and ***SAS*** (**the Statistical Analysis System**). *SPSS* was selected for this research because it has a reliability record dating back to the 1960s, it is well recognized by social scientists, and it provides a tutorial on all the basic issues of using a statistical package that is IBM compatible. (Babbie, et al., 2003, p. 5).

According to Pedhazur & Schmelkin (1991), most statistical software programs similar to *SPSS* share several major components:

1. **Data Description:** Under data description are subsumed strategies for identifying and naming variables, defining the format of the data, designating the external data file to be used when necessary, providing extended labels for variables and/or values, and indicating missing values.
2. **Data Transformations and Manipulations:** This component includes means for sorting data according to some desired criterion, recoding or transforming data, creating new variables, and merging two or more data files.
3. **General Purpose Utilities:** General purpose utilities are used for managing output: its destination, display format, and optional comments and titles.
4. **Data Analysis:** At the core of all programs is data analysis that contains assorted procedures for descriptive and inferential statistics (p. 346).

Scientific inquiry is said to be a matter of both observing and reasoning. Therefore, data analysis by social scientists is fundamentally used to learn something of general value about human social behavior. This commitment lies in the realm of theory that helps explain, understand, and make sense of our social world (Babbie, et al., 2003).

Dillman's Survey Technique

Questions for the quantitative research survey were formed utilizing the techniques described by Don Dillman in his *Mail and Internet Surveys: The Tailored Design Method* (2000). Dillman (2000) recommends that the following eight questions be addressed in forming survey questions.

1. Does the question require an answer (p. 36)? For example, the question of the location of the college, requires the response - ***urban*** or ***rural***.
2. To what extent do survey recipients already have an accurate, ready-made answer for the question they are being asked (p. 36)? Respondents should have a ready-made answer to questions like: *What is the income of your foundation for the year 2002?* However, they would not have a ready-made answer to the question, *What do you think your income will be for the year 2010?*
3. Can people accurately recall and report past behaviors (p. 37)? Administrators may well remember what caused a donor to give yesterday, but may not recall what the donor's giving pattern was over the last ten years.
4. Is the respondent willing to reveal the requested information (p. 38)? Many administrators would be unwilling to reveal their donors names, but would be willing to reveal potential motivations for donors' giving.
5. Will the respondent feel motivated to answer each question (p. 39)? Respondents will be more motivated to answer questions on a scale of one to five, instead of the larger scale of one to ten possible choices.

6. Is the respondent's understanding of response categories likely to be influenced by more than words (p. 39)? If the foundation administrator does not perceive themselves as successful in fundraising, they might have difficulty rating the level of success of their foundation.
7. Is survey information collected by more than one mode (p. 39)? Participants might respond differently to United States postal mailed surveys in hard copy form and e-mailed surveys if they are not familiar with the computer technology required to answer by e-mail.
8. Is changing a question acceptable to the survey sponsor (p. 40)? Questions that pose a problem to survey participants will need to be deleted or amended before the final survey is submitted.

Dillman's Principles for Writing Survey Questions

Dillman (2000) emphasized, "Writing questions for a particular questionnaire means constructing them for a particular population, a particular purpose, and placement next to another particular question" (p. 51). To achieve this goal, 19 principles are given:

1. One should choose simple rather than specialized words. Words should be no longer than six or seven letters. Combinations of words should be simplified (pp. 51 - 52).
2. The surveyor should choose as few words as possible to pose the questions. The longer the question, the more the reader skips over words in a hurry to read the survey. The result from long questions is ultimately less understanding of the question (p. 53).

3. The questionnaire should use complete sentences, not fragments, to ask questions (pp. 54 - 55).
4. The surveyor should avoid vague quantifiers when estimates that are more precise can be obtained. Dillman suggests the use of numerical categories i.e., “1” equals “no motivation” and “5” equals a “strong motivation,” to avoid this problem (pp. 54 - 55).
5. The surveyor should avoid specificity that exceeds the respondent’s potential for having an accurate, ready-made answer, such as, not asking for information that requires recall over an extended period of time (p. 56).
6. The surveyor should use equal numbers of positive and negative categories for scalar questions (p. 57). If there are three levels of high success, there should be three levels of low success, with the possibility of a mid-point of success.
7. The surveyor should distinguish “undecided” from “neutral” by placement at the end of the scale. Researchers have found that by placing “undecided” in the middle of the choices; respondents were more likely to pick that choice than if it were at the end (p. 59).
8. The surveyor should avoid bias from unequal comparisons, such as, comparing the success of fundraising and which fundraising events are used (p. 60).
9. The surveyor should state both sides of attitude scales in the question stems. A question should not be worded “do you agree,” but “do you agree or disagree” (p. 61).
10. The surveyor should attempt to eliminate check-all-that-apply question formats to reduce primacy effects (p. 62).

11. The surveyor should develop mutually exclusive response categories (p. 64).
“Are you the foundation director OR the development director?” would cause confusion for administrators performing both roles.
12. The surveyor should use cognitive design techniques to improve recall (p. 67). If respondents are asked to construct important events in their current roles as administrators before being asked to reconstruct less significant events, they will better reconstruct the less significant events.
13. The respondent should be provided with appropriate time referents (p. 69). An example would be to ask administrators “What fundraising events did you use during the last year?” This question is more specific than asking, “What fundraising events have you ever used in your career?”
14. The surveyor should be sure that each question is technically accurate (p. 70). Questions about administrators having received a traffic ticket may color the responses of the respondents on other questions because of emotions created by this question’s irrelevance.
15. The surveyor should choose question wordings that allow essential comparisons to be made with previously collected data (pp. 71 - 72). In this research, questions were asked to compare to the IQA methodology and the literature review in analysis of philanthropic giving.
16. The surveyor should avoid asking respondents to say “yes” in order to mean “no” (p. 73). As an example, a surveyor might ask, “Do you agree that guilt was not a motivation for philanthropic giving?” While the surveyor actually meant to ask, “Do you agree that guilt is a motivation for philanthropic giving?”
17. The surveyor should avoid “double-barreled” questions (p. 74). A question that asks if the respondent believes that guilt is a motivation for giving and that it

causes larger capital campaign contributions is really two questions and should be divided.

18. The surveyor should soften the impact of potentially objectionable questions (p. 75). Reasons for employee turnover should be directed toward the cause of the turnover and not toward the administrators.
19. The surveyor should avoid asking respondents to make unnecessary calculations. If the surveyor can easily make percentage calculations from the information obtained, asking the participants to make those calculations should be avoided (p. 77).

Data Collection (Qualitative)

To collect data creating mindmaps of the beliefs and perspectives of community college representatives and community college donors, the researcher utilized the Interactive Qualitative Analysis (IQA) research methodology developed by Northcutt, McCoy, and associates at The University of Texas at Austin (see **Appendix H**). Data were gathered through two focus groups - community college administrators and community college potential donors. Additional information was acquired from individual interviews of a community college development officer, a community college trustee, a corporate executive, a community college alumna - to add richness to the data and provide case studies for the research.

All of the information describing the IQA process was obtained from the course supplement for EDA 381Q: Qualitative Research Designs, fall 2001 and fall 2002, at The University of Texas at Austin, *IQA: A Systems Method for Qualitative Research*, or from resources distributed by Dr. Norvell Northcutt during the same titled course

(Northcutt & McCoy, 2001, 2002). The book by Drs. Northcutt and McCoy was at this time in the editing process, therefore, accurate page numbers were unattainable.

IQA data collection techniques originated from Total Quality Management (TQM). TQM is based upon the belief that the people who are closest to the job, or issue at hand, best understand “what is wrong and how to fix it.” IQA data collection techniques assist group members in describing and labeling their experiences and relationships to produce a theory in perception or a conceptual map (a collective one, in the case of a focus group). This system consists of categories of meaning called **affinities** and the perceived **causal relationships** among the affinities. The IQA system studies a group of related individuals with two components applied: ***elements and relationships among the elements*** (Northcutt & McCoy, 2001, p. 2).

The primary objective of this IQA research was to construct a rich depiction of the reasoning behind philanthropic donations to community colleges and to make that information available to community college administrators, development officers, and trustees to enhance the methods of obtaining further donations. A general theory was developed from the literature review in Chapter Two of this research about reasons for donors to give philanthropically to causes. A hypothesis was made that community colleges were not reaching all potential donors because they had not questioned why those potential donors did *not* give to the community college where they had attended or was in their corporate community.

To elucidate the IQA research methodology, the researcher divided the analysis into four phases with a general overview of each phase. Illustrated examples are given to increase the reader’s understanding.

Phase One: Identification of Factors (Affinities)

Silent nominal brainstorming phase

The first step in creating a **conceptual map** (or **mindmap**) is to assist the focus group in organizing their thoughts into a manageable number of categories or **affinities**. Affinities are sets of textual references that have an underlying common meaning or theme synonymous to factors or topics. During affinity production, the participants were given an opportunity to silently reflect on their experiences with philanthropic giving to community colleges.

Different silent nominal methods

The facilitator/researcher presented the issue statement to the group members. The facilitator may use guided imagery, context-specific visual stimuli, or ambiguous visual stimuli to achieve this purpose. In guided imagery, the facilitator “tells a story” that portrays the issue in episodic form and invites participants to recall their experiences relative to the issue, reminding them to remember the words, phrases, mental pictures or other memories of experiences. Context-specific visual stimuli use images to serve as stimuli for discussion and reflection prior to the nominal group process. While in ambiguous visual stimuli, a dozen or so color photographs in a reasonable time are used to consider the topic. Pictures of people in different situations are mounted to a board or on slides and participants are asked to select a picture in response to a question from the facilitator and to discuss why they selected the picture.

The researcher used *guided imagery* (see **Appendix K**) with both focus groups by stating: *Please take a few moments of silent meditation, with or without your eyes closed, to dwell upon the reasons you believe philanthropic donors contribute or do not contribute to community colleges. Form your thoughts in simple words or short phrases as you process your thinking.*

The focus group must be made aware that they are free to express their thoughts without penalty and that their identity will be protected and no reprisals will occur due to their participation. The participants are then given a black marker, and they silently write down each individual thought on a 5 X 8 index card, as many as they can create (average of 25 each). This is referred to as the **nominal group technique**.

Clarification of meaning

The group members randomly tape the index cards on the walls in rows or columns. The thoughts of the group as a whole are combined and organized into common themes of affinities by the group, with the aid of the facilitator. The group then collectively names the affinities and helps the researcher create a detailed written description or definition of each affinity. The goal is to produce the smallest number of affinities with the greatest amount of detail or “richness.”

One of the group members or the facilitator leads the group in a discussion to clarify their understanding of the responses on each card and to eliminate any ambiguity and vagueness associated with the meanings of the words or phrases. Each response is read aloud for the entire group to consider and clarify. The purpose of this exercise is to arrive at a socially constructed, shared meaning of each card among members of the

group. It is also to reduce any vagueness or ambiguity associated with the meaning of the words or phrases on the cards. After the clarification process, the participants may choose to add more reflections and thoughts to the original idea expressed on the index cards.

Affinity grouping (inductive coding)

Northcutt and McCoy (2002) define **coding** as the name given by qualitative researchers to the way in which text is represented by abstractions. Coding demands both induction and deduction processes.

The **silent nominal process** is when participants are asked to silently: 1) review the entire cards on the wall, and 2) group them into similar themes/affinities. Participants are instructed to cluster and group the cards into whatever categories they may choose. The participants arrange and rearrange the cards until everyone is satisfied with the categories or groups.

The facilitator at this point assists the participants in identifying an appropriate label for each cluster or affinity and any possible subcategories. The intent of this process is to categorize data into thematic groupings, referred to as ***affinities***.

Affinity naming and revision

According to Northcutt and McCoy (2002), ***axial coding*** seeks to name, reorganize, clarify, and refine the affinities. The process is achieved through group discussion and consensus. The descriptions are refined and narrowed until each participant agrees on the definition of the affinity.

Affinities are then given titles that accurately reflect their meaning, which are documented on header note cards and placed at the top of each column. The final arrangement of the categories forms the affinity diagram.

A well-identified affinity has the following characteristics:

- It is homogeneous (one construct).
- It is easy to define.
- It describes characteristics.
- It has context (relationship) to other things.
- It is not a person, place, or physical thing: it describes constructs or characteristics of categories of meaning.
- It should have a range of meaning within its definition.

After each affinity has been named and categorized, the facilitator/researcher must define the affinity using the data to capture its meaning. The researcher, or a participant, at this point writes a paragraph description representing the general content of the affinities and sub-affinities. Paragraphs are **descriptive** and “**grounded**” in the text through reference to specific quotes or examples.

Affinity descriptions should provide in-depth coverage of the data included. Each description should have four basic elements:

- Detail
- Contrast (what the affinity is not)
- Comparison (how it relates to other affinities)
- Richness (elaboration and examples).

It is important that each affinity be described clearly, directly using the language of the focus group members, and follows the sense of what the participants were saying. Participant input, can be key if further clarification is necessary.

Phase Two: Identifying Relationships Among Factors

Theoretical Coding

Phase Two of the Interactive Qualitative Analysis process involves “**theoretical coding**,” designed to determine the group’s perspective regarding the relationships among the affinities that were identified and defined in Phase One. The goal of this phase is to identify which affinity is the **driver** (*cause*) and which is the **outcome** (*effect*) for each possible pair of affinities. The direction of each relationship or the fact that there is no perceived relationship between some affinities is recorded on the “**Focus Group Affinity Relationship Table**” (see **Table 3.1**). The purpose of IQA is to draw a picture of the system (**Systems Influence Diagram or SID**) that represents the perceptual image or the mind map of a group with respect to a phenomenon represented by the issue statement.

Table 3.1: Affinity Relationship Table (ART)

Affinity Name	Possible Relationships
1. Allegiance to Community College	$A \rightarrow B$
2. Benefits to Community College	$A \leftarrow B$
3. Benefits/Improvement of Education	$A \diamond B$ (No Relationship)
4. Benefits/Return to Company/Alumni	
5. Involvement of Company Employees	
6. Partnerships	
7. Reputation of College	
8. Rewards/Benefits to the Community	

Combined Affinity Relationship Table Focus Group 2 --- Donors		
Affinity Pair Relationship		Affinity Pair Relationship
1 \rightarrow 2		3 \leftarrow 6
1 \rightarrow 3		3 \leftarrow 7
1 \diamond 4		3 \rightarrow 8
1 \leftarrow 5		4 \diamond 5
1 \rightarrow 6		4 \leftarrow 6
1 \diamond 7		4 \diamond 7
1 \rightarrow 8		4 \leftarrow 8
2 \rightarrow 3		5 \rightarrow 6
2 \leftarrow 4		5 \leftarrow 7
2 \leftarrow 5		5 \rightarrow 8
2 \leftarrow 6		6 \leftarrow 7
2 \leftarrow 7		6 \rightarrow 8
2 \rightarrow 8		7 \rightarrow 8
3 \rightarrow 4		
3 \leftarrow 5		

Constructing the Group Interrelationship Diagram (IRD)

An **Interrelationship Diagram (IRD)** is produced to create the **Systems Influence Diagram (SID)** which is a picture drawn using a set of rules for rationalization input as a summary of the theoretical codes (IRD). Theoretical coding refers to gleaning the perceived cause and effect relationships (influences) among all of the affinities in the system. In the focus group, this is accomplished by building hypotheses linking each possible pair of affinities, then using a technique, such as multi-voting, to arrive at consensus. The group **Interrelationship Diagram (IRD)** (see **Table 3.2**) summarizes the results of the group theoretical coding phase.

Steps in Theoretical Coding to create an Interrelationship Diagram (IRD)

1) Analyze all possible pairs (only 3 possibilities; either $A \rightarrow B$, or $B \rightarrow A$, or no arrow/relationship).

The group or individual will determine which affinity drives (influences) the other in a series of possibilities. If the group or individual determines that there is no relationship between the affinities, then the chart is left blank. The information utilized is found summarized in the **Affinity Relationship Table (ART)**, which is a matrix containing all of the perceived relationships in the system. Using a force directional choice in a specific order, it can be determined if there is a direct cause/effect relationship or no relationship exists.

2) When the direction is not obvious, but there seems to be a relationship, a separate list is kept.

This list is kept to help decipher the relationship of the affinity if there proves to be ambiguity from the group about the relationship. It can also add to the richness and the value of the relationship by showing the significance of the lack of the relationship.

3) Summarizing the results in a tabular IRD

Northcutt (2002) defines the IRD as “---a table that represents all the relationships among the affinities.” The IRD is created by placing arrows into a table that show the direction of the relationships. Any time an arrow points from one affinity to another, it indicates that “the affinity the arrow points from is a cause and the affinity an arrow points to is an effect.”

Significance of Arrows on an IRD

The order and value of **delta** (total of out and in arrows) determines if the affinity is a driver or outcome and to what degree (see **Table 3.2**). An affinity marked by a high positive delta or number resulting from many **Outs**, but no **Ins**, is a **Primary Driver** (a significant cause that affects many other affinities, but is not affected by others). The **Secondary Driver** is a relative cause or influence on affinities. It is identified when there are both Outs and Ins, but there are more Outs than Ins. The **Circulator/Pivot** occurs when there are an equal number of Ins and Outs. The **Secondary Outcome** reveals a **Relative Effect**. It is identified when there are both Ins and Outs, but there are more Ins than Outs. A **Primary Outcome** is when an affinity is marked by a high negative number resulting from many Ins, but no Outs. The following is an example of a sorted IRD in descending order by delta.

Table 3.2: Tabular Interrelationship Diagram (IRD) --- Sorted in Descending Order of Delta

Tabular IRD – Sorted in Descending Order of Δ											
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	OUT	IN	Δ
1		↑	↑	↑	←	↑	↑	↑	6	1	5
5	↑	↑	↑	↑		↑	←	↑	6	1	5
7	←		←	↑	↑	↑		↑	4	2	2
6	←	↑	↑	↑	←		←	↑	4	3	1
3	←	←		↑	←	←	↑	↑	3	4	-1
2	←		↑	←	←	←		↑	2	4	-2
4	←	↑	←		←	←	←		1	5	-4
8	←	←	←		←	←	←		0	6	-6

Phase Three: Constructing an Interview Protocol and the Interview Procedure

The structure of the interview in IQA corresponds exactly to the manner in which the data will be analyzed (see **Appendix H**) (to identify elements of meaning, and to describe the perceived cause and effect relationships among them, thereby creating a system called a mindmap). The “I” and the “A” in IQA stand for interactive and analysis, which is meant to communicate the systemic relationship of data to analysis, as well as, the relationship between the facilitator and the participant.

The product of an IQA interview is twofold:

1) A rich, detailed, and exemplified description of each affinity from the participants’ point of view; and 2) a mindmap of the phenomenon for the facilitator and participants.

a) Use of the affinities as the topical skeleton of the interview

The purpose of the **interview protocol** is to use the affinities identified through the focus group data collected and analyzed to form and shape the second round of data gathering. Structuring the interviews with the same questions around affinities discussed in a prescribed order allows the researcher to ensure that each affinity is explored thoroughly and consistently.

b) The two sections of an IQA interview

The Interview protocol consists of two parts: 1) the open-ended axial interview designed to provide rich description of affinities by the respondents in an Axial Code Table, and 2) the structured theoretical interview designed to identify relationships between affinities in a Theoretical Code Table and an Interview Affinity Relationship Table (see **ART Table 3.1**).

Axial

The axial interview section is derived from the affinity write-up. The affinity write-up is the basis of the open-ended questions of the interview. The interviewer seeks to address, “*What does the affinity mean to you? Tell me about your experience with this affinity.*”

Theoretical

The theoretical interview is presented in the Affinity Relationship Table (ART). The table provides a quick reference of all of the possible relationships between the affinities. Presented with a copy of the table, the respondents are asked if they believe there is a relationship between each affinity and asked to explain why.

Conducting Interviews

Typical interview setting

It is important to establish a relaxed atmosphere that encourages the interviewee to respond to each question sincerely. A quiet place with no interruptions is mandatory to achieve the properly desired responses. A conversational flow should transpire so that the questions and answers are sincere. The IQA system uses a standardized open-ended interview style that allows free flowing informal conversation to occur.

Additionally, it is important for the facilitator/researcher to make sure that there is careful set-up of the logistics of the interview. This would include performing an equipment and sound check for recording the interview, securing a new tape and batteries to eliminate potential problems, and having printouts of the Affinity Relationship Table with a quick reference list of affinities for the interviewee.

The researcher should memorize, or become extremely familiar with, the interview protocol. This allows for a more natural questioning period and for the researcher to maintain better eye contact and genuine interest. The researcher should introduce them self and provide basic information regarding the project. The researcher should also explain the confidentiality of the interviewee's responses and get to know something about the respondent by gathering some general information. This is especially important for demographic or other information that may be used in later breakouts of the data. To recapitulate, the researcher should explain the purpose, stress confidentiality, request permission to tape, and restate the issue statement.

Typical interview procedure

The researcher gives the interviewee a list of the names and descriptions of each affinity. The interviewee is then given the opportunity to read and digest the information about each affinity. This information relies strongly on the write up of the affinity and any supporting examples from the focus group.

The interviewee is then asked to reflect on his or her personal experience about the affinity by the researcher querying: **“tell me about your experience with this....”** The researcher then asks follow-up questions and uses probes to elicit examples of the affinity in the interviewee’s experience, as well as extracting from the interviewee the meaning of the affinity.

After the affinities have been discussed, the second part of the interview is conducted. This part uses the interviewee’s responses on how he or she perceives the connections between all possible pairs of affinities listed in the Affinity Relationship Table (see **Table 3.1**). It is important for the researcher not to forget to incur discussion about any sub-affinities in the list.

When at all possible, it is good for the researcher to conduct a debriefing session with the interviewee. This allows the researcher to obtain more insight into the systemic interactions and to increase the researcher’s interpretive vocabulary by using descriptors and metaphors from the respondents.

Phase Four: Data Analysis

Interview Analysis

The interview is transcribed word for word. The transcript is titled to reflect the code given the interviewee to protect confidentiality, and a filing system is developed for efficient retrieval. Key words are ***bolded*** to draw the researcher's eye to important codes. The first time the researcher mentions the affinity in the axial interview or the affinity pairs in the theoretical interview, they should be *bolded*. The transcript also has line numbers added. Coding an interview is the first step in creating a mindmap.

Axial coding

After the transcript has been created, the researcher analyzes the text of the transcript for axial codes. These codes are specific examples of discourse that illustrate or allude to an affinity. Examples are then recorded by placing the affinity number on the line of transcript referring to that affinity. The researcher then documents the line number and affinity number in the **Individual Interview Axial Code Table (ACT)** (see **Table 3.3**). There are frequently multiple axial quotes for each affinity; therefore, each quote is represented by a separate row in the ACT.

Table 3.3: Interview Axial Code Table

Combined Interview Axial Code Table (Sample) Interviewee 101- 104			
Affinity	Transcript Line	Axial Quotation	Researcher Notes
1. Allegiance to Community College	28-33	Of course the better experience that you have at a community college would create a higher allegiance. When I graduate, if I have a good kind of “taste in my mouth” when I leave, then I would be more inclined to help future students at that community college.	Getting at the “cause” of Allegiance
	79-81	And in our case, once we have all come through a process of creating that “friendship” [with donors] their allegiance is given to the community college.	“Friendship” building of donors.
	120-123	In other words, by looking to improve education in the community, I’ve got six other choices in addition to the community college that I might be able to contribute to.	Deterrent to allegiance.

Theoretical coding

Theoretical codes are also identified through the IQA interview process. According to Northcutt and McCoy (2002), "... theoretical codes illustrate a relationship between two or and more affinities." After the researcher identifies the relationship(s), it is recorded by placing the appropriate arrow in the **Individual Interview Theoretical Code Affinity Relationship Table** (see **Table 3.4**). Phrases or statements from the interviewee's transcript that illustrate a link between affinities are placed in the table along with the transcript line.

Table 3.4: Interview Theoretical Code Affinity Relationship Table

RESPONDENT #101			
INTERVIEW THEORETICAL CODE AFFINITY RELATIONSHIP TABLE			
AFFINITY PAIR RELATIONSHIP	LINE NUMBER	THEORETICAL QUOTATION	RESEARCHER NOTES
3 ← 5	229-230	"Well, once again if company employees are involved in what goes on, they'll lobby their friends in their donation department to come up with some gifts...."	Use of company employees to obtain donations

Summarizing and tabulating the theoretical codes

When all of the individual theoretical code tables have been completed, they can be combined on a **Combined Interview Theoretical Code Affinity Relationship Table**. The Combined Interview ART is created using the same process as in the **Individual Interview Theoretical Code Affinity Relationship Table** (see **Table 3.4**), except that a count of each theoretical code is entered. This table lists both directions for relationships due to differing individual opinions. The researcher counts the number of interviewees who identified the relationship in the same direction and places the tally in the frequency column. The researcher then does the same for all interviewees who identified the relationship in the opposite direction and tallies those totals in the frequency column. An IRD is then created from the composite results on the **Combined Interview Theoretical Code Affinity Relationship Table**, which is analogous to an Affinity Relationship Table used for focus groups. To use this chart the researcher examines each Individual Interview Theoretical Code Table, and tallies the frequency of each relationship in a table, and examines each affinity pair to determine the direction of the relationship. The **Pareto Principle** that 80 percent of the relationships can determine the direction of all of the relationships is applied. The researcher, however, must examine the codes for conflicts where the relationship is divided equally or close to being equal in number (e.g., 1 to 4 and 4 to 1). Upon observation of this conflict, the researcher flags the affinity pair as “?” for later consideration as a recursion.

Constructing a SID from the interview data for a single interview

Once all of the interviews have been coded and placed in an Affinity Relationship Table, an IRD and SID are created by the researcher for each individual. A **System Influence Diagram (SID)** for an individual is called a **mindmap**, and it reflects the individual's experience with the phenomenon.

The SID is a visual representation of an entire system of influences and outcomes. It is created by representing the information in the IRD as a system of affinities and the relationships between them. The graphic representation allows the researcher to see how the system maintains its dynamics and where it might change its outcomes. The SID also highlights the relationships between the affinities that might be responsible for the system's dynamics so that analysis, intervention, or improvement may be made to the system.

Recursions called **feedback loops** are especially helpful in analysis. These loops require at least three affinities that have no beginning and no ending. As a visual representation of the mind map develops from the data, the SID, according to Northcutt and McCoy (2002), may be considered "... a set of qualitative structural equations or a path diagram." It is distinguishable, however, from other traditional path diagrams, in that recursion of feedback loops is allowed.

To construct a SID, the affinities are placed in four columns, depending upon their deltas and their assigned titles, from left to right (**Primary Driver, Secondary Driver, Secondary Outcome, and Primary Outcome**). Each affinity is then blocked or circled for identification. Beginning with the primary drivers, links are drawn from the

affinity that is the cause, to the affinity that is its effect. The researcher works from left to right until all of the relationships are recorded. This creates a **Cluttered SID**. The SID is best created with an appropriate software program, such as *Inspiration*, as used in this research.

To create an **Uncluttered SID** that will clarify the relationships between the affinities, the researcher must eliminate all redundant links. The researcher then will be able to identify and interpret any recursive relationships or “**recursions**,” as well as the significance of the affinity relationships.

For each interview, the researcher should develop: a transcript, an axial code table, a theoretical code table, an IRD, and a SID.

Constructing a SID from the composite interview data

To construct a SID from the composite interview data, the researcher uses the same procedure as in the individual SID, except the researcher would use the data from the IRD of the Combined Theoretical Code Table. The affinities determined by the group would be placed in order according to their deltas and their assigned titles from left to right. Using the same process with links starting from the Primary Driver(s) to the Primary Outcome(s), a Saturated SID will be created. By eliminating all redundant links in the Composite Cluttered SID, a Composite Uncluttered SID is created for interpretation.

SUMMARY

An affinity is described as a process to categorize data into a thematic grouping. By processing these data into groups, the researcher can glean from the survey, focus groups, and the individual interviewees similar affinities and relationships. Results from collecting, analyzing, and reporting data should determine and specify certain donor behaviors, defining why donors would be motivated to philanthropic giving to community colleges.

CHAPTER FOUR: Statistical Methodology & Analysis

OVERVIEW

Chapter Four discusses the quantitative statistical research for this study. The research tool was a survey, *Texas Community College Survey of Philanthropic Giving*, sent to the 51 two-year colleges in the state of Texas. The researcher utilized the literature reviewed in Chapter Two as the foundation for the survey. To discuss the results of the survey it is first necessary to have an understanding of the overall concepts of quantitative research for social sciences. A synopsis of these concepts follows. Other relevant terms can be found in the glossary.

According to Babbie, et al. (2003), a **theory** is a statement or set of statements describing the relationships among concepts. Theories provide for the social scientists explanations about the patterns found in human social life.

More importantly, however, to the researcher are **concepts**, the building blocks of theories. Concepts are general ideas or understandings that form the basis of social scientific research. Therefore, developing social theories is a matter of discovering concepts that are causally related to one another (Babbie, et al., 2003).

While theory is an important starting point, the empirical relationships predicted by the theory must in social science research always be tested. **Testing** is accomplished by shifting the focus from relationships between concepts to relationships between variables, and from theories to hypotheses (Babbie, et al, 2003).

The **hypothesis** developed for this research to discover these important relationships is: “**If** community college administrators better understood the reasons donors give to community colleges, **then** they could increase their foundation’s coffers by meeting those reasons or needs.” After developing the hypothesis, the researcher had to determine how to design and conduct the scientific study, inductively or deductively, to test whether there was a relationship (Northcutt, 2001).

Inductive research is a strategy for collecting and examining data and then constructing a theory to explain the relationships found among the variables. The alternative approach, **deductive** research, begins with social theory where a specific hypothesis is deduced from the theory and tested to discover whether there is evidence to support it. The simplest way to distinguish between inductive and deductive research approaches is by where they “begin.” Inductive research begins with data analysis and then moves to theory, while deductive research begins with theory, then proceeds to data analysis and back to theory. Simply, deduction can be seen as reasoning from general understandings to specific expectations, while induction can be seen as reasoning from specific observation to general explanations (Babbie, et al., 2003; Northcutt, 2001).

Measurement is another fundamental aspect of social science research in forming an analysis. It may be seen as the transition from concepts to variables—from sometimes ambiguous mental images to precise, empirical measures (Babbie, et al., 2003).

The term **validity** has a very precise meaning in social research as a tool of measurement. It describes an indicator of a concept. In other words, an indicator is said to be valid if it really measures the concept it is intended to measure. In large, the question of validity is settled on *prima facie* grounds. Judgments are made as to whether

an indicator is relatively valid or invalid on its face value (Babbie, et al., 2003). The validity of this research was based on the measurement of whether community colleges' foundation incomes were affected by any of the variables in the statistical survey.

Reliability is a different but equally important quality of measurement. Reliability refers to the quality of a measuring instrument that would cause it to report the same value in successive observations of a given case. Conceptually, the test of reliability is whether respondents would give the same answers repeatedly, if the measurement could be made in such a way that their situations had not changed, and they could not remember the answer they gave before. Both validity and reliability are important in the analysis of data (Babbie, 2003, p. 20).

DATA COLLECTION

Gay (1996) states that "A survey is an attempt to collect data from members of a population with respect to one or more variables" (p. 251). To create a survey, the researcher first had to explore whether or not there had been a survey of this kind previously, and if so, by whom and what questions were asked. To find this information, the director of the Development Office at The University of Texas at Austin was contacted. The Director, Ms. Johnnie Ray, and her Assistant Director, Ms. Jada Garrison, stated that to their knowledge there had not been a survey of benchmark philanthropic giving for universities. The universities, including The University of Texas, use word-of-mouth, *The Chronicle of Philanthropy*, and networking experiences such as conferences, to discover benchmarks and motivation of donors. The only survey of any kind of which

they were aware, and participated in, was the *Survey of Voluntary Support* developed by the Council for Aid to Education (CAE) (see **Appendix I**) (Ray & Garrison, 2003) .

Next, the researcher contacted several of the directors of larger foundations in Texas community colleges. None of the directors was aware of a survey on philanthropic giving among community colleges, especially not in Texas. Few had heard of the CAE *Survey of Voluntary Support* (see survey question #5 results for confirmation) (Piewetz, 2003; Russell, 2003).

The research collection process for this dissertation was deductive, from the general (theory) to the specific (data collection) and back to theory again. In so doing, a survey was developed using Dillman's (2000) technique from his *Mail and Internet Surveys: The Tailored Design Method* to deduce what community college administrators believe are the motivations for philanthropic giving by donors. The **Tailored Design Method (TDM)** is the development of survey procedures that create respondent trust and perception of "increased rewards and reduced costs" (Dillman, 2000, p. 9 and p. 29).

Dillman (2000) stresses the significance of having a survey reviewed by knowledgeable colleagues and analysts. The survey for this research was reviewed and edited by both colleagues, fellow Community College Leadership Program (CCLP) blockers and development officers, such as Ms. Eileen Piewetz (Midland College, TX) and Dr. Kim Russell (Tyler Junior College, TX), and quantitative analysts, Dr. Novell Nothcutt and Dr. David Eaton (both from The University of Texas at Austin, TX), and Dr. Gary Hanson (Arizona State University, AZ). The survey was evaluated for clarity, interpretation by respondents, readability, and data entry format.

Titled *Trends in Philanthropic Giving in Texas Colleges*, the survey was sent by U.S. postal mail and e-mail to the 51 two-year colleges in the state of Texas. Dillman (2000) concurs with this process by citing that “While U.S. Postal Service delivery and retrieval of paper questionnaires remains essential for some surveys, the possibilities for electronic delivery are increasing rapidly” (As cited in Dillman, 2000, p.7).

Dillman (2000) believes that one of the ways to illicit trust from the respondents is to have the request for survey response come from an authoritative source (p. 20). Therefore, in the first survey letter (see **Appendix B**) presidents of the colleges were solicited for their support in the completion and return of the survey. Also, the letter was signed by the researcher and Dr. John Roueche, Community College Leadership Program (CCLP) Director, a well-respected name in the community college world. The purpose of a pre-notice letter, according to Dillman (2000), is to provide a positive and timely notice requesting the recipient to help with an important survey. Research has shown that a pre-notice letter will greatly improve response rates to mail surveys.

Dillman (2000) stresses that the survey must make the task appear important and invoke other exchange relationships. The first letter sent to the Texas community college presidents, included the significance of the survey for the completion of the researcher’s dissertation. In addition, the researcher stated that the results of the survey and the qualitative research in the study would be available to the presidents and their foundation directors, if requested. This created a significant relationship with the foundation directors, since their interest lay in benchmarking their foundations against the other Texas community colleges.

The second contact, the questionnaire mail out, according to Dillman (2000), should be sent only a few days after the pre-notice and have a cover letter no more than one page in length attached. The questionnaire for this research was sent out four days after the original pre-notice with a cover letter, again to the presidents. A deadline was given in the cover letter for the return of the survey (see **Appendix C**). The challenge of having deadlines met for surveys has in recent years led to the development of fax and e-mail as supplemental, but crucial, methods used generally, and by this researcher (Dillman, 2000).

Confidentiality is stressed not only by Dillman (2000) but by The University of Texas at Austin's Office of Research Support and Compliance (see **Appendix J, Consent Form**). Therefore, the second letter and all information sent to the community colleges emphasized the confidentiality of the survey (see **Appendix C**). Only the researcher would be aware of the identity of the individual responses. In this light, all colleges were identified with a code number and made aware that answering the survey was voluntary; and mail merge was used for e-mail correspondence to eliminate the possibility that respondents would know the identity of other respondents.

The follow-up letters to increase the response rate to the survey, as Dillman (2000) suggests, contained information on who to contact with questions, a real signature in contrasting ink, and mixed-mode ways of responding i.e., U.S. mail, e-mail, and facsimile, to provide an opportunity to compensate for the weaknesses of each mode (pp. 164, 218, 368, & 369). Without follow-up contacts (see **Appendix D and E**), Dillman (2000) states that response rates will usually be 20-40 percent lower than those normally attained, regardless of the quality of the questionnaire.

The last contact should be one to thank the participants, and gently nudge those who have not responded. This researcher sent a “thank-you” letter via e-mail to all of the presidents and foundation directors (see **Appendix F**) (Dillman, 2000).

SURVEY RESPONSE

Of the 51 two-year colleges in the state of Texas sent the survey, 40 responded. This provided a response rate of 78 percent. According to Dillman (2000), survey response rates range from 58 percent to 92 percent, with an average of 74 percent. Those who used the TDM obtain response rates of 77 percent, versus 71% if certain components were omitted (p. 27). According to Gay (1996) for smaller populations, say $N = 100$ or fewer, there is little point in sampling; the entire population should be surveyed (p. 125). Therefore, since the population for this survey consisted on only 51 colleges there was no sample population used.

The survey was sent to the community college presidents through the U.S. postal mail and electronically by e-mail. Of the survey responses, 28 (70 percent) were returned through the U. S. Postal System, while 12 (30 percent) were returned by e-mail. Dillman (2000) suggested that early use of Internet surveys would be limited to survey populations with high rates of computer use, such as, businesses, universities, large organizations, and groups of professionals. However, he offers the caveat that having access to a computer does not mean that people know how to use it to complete a questionnaire. For some computer users, the request to complete a survey via e-mail forces them into a new experience in which needed computer skills have to be learned,

thereby, having to make the choice of learning new computer skills to complete the survey or printing it out and returning it by U.S. mail (Dillman, 2000; Roueche, 2003).

THE RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE

Dissertation research questions answered by the statistical information gathered from the *Texas Community College Survey of Philanthropic Giving* are as follows:

2. What do community college administrators in the state of Texas perceive are the reasons for donor giving?

4. Do similarities and/or differences exist between the perceptions and realities of these groups as determined by quantitative statistics and IQA mindmapping?

Questions on the survey (see **Appendix A**) were created to correspond with specific questions developed to aid in answering research questions 2 and 4.

1. Do community college administrators' and departmental issues influence philanthropic giving?

Correlating survey questions are Question 1, Question 2, Question 3, and Question 17.

2. What are the perceived philanthropic motivations of donors according to community college administrators?

Correlating survey questions are Question 10, Question 11, Question 12, and Question 15.

3. What methods do Texas community colleges use for fundraising?

Correlating survey questions are Question 8, Question 9, Question 13, and Question 19.

4. *What are the fundraising trends in Texas community colleges?*

Correlating survey questions are Question 4, Question.5, Question 6, Question 14, and Question 16.

5. *What are the “best practices” for fundraising utilized by Texas community colleges?*

Correlating survey questions are Question 18 and Question 20.

While specific survey questions relate to specific research questions, the main question broached by this research dealt with the perceived motivations of donors according to community college administrators (Research Question 2).

ANALYSIS OF RESULTS

Gay (1996) recommends that when presenting the results of a questionnaire study, the response rate for each item should be given, as well as the total size of the returns. The simplest way to analyze the results of a survey questionnaire is to indicate the number or percentage of responders who selected each alternative for each item. In addition, relationships between variables can be investigated by comparing responses on one item with responses on all other items. Thus, possible explanations for certain beliefs of community college administrators can be explored by identifying factors concerning donor motivations that seem to be related to the community colleges' foundations income.

DEMOGRAPHICS

The researcher chose to use the demographic figures for the community colleges' foundations income for the year 2002 as the independent variable for all correlations. All other variables were cross-tabulated with the foundations' income, according to **small income** (\$6,000-\$250,000), **medium income** (\$250,001-\$707,078), and **large income** (\$707,079-\$18,000,000). There were 13 colleges in each income group. Foundation income was not submitted for one of the 40 colleges. The software program *Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS)* was then used to collect and analyze the data.

The demographics obtained from the survey included:

- **The foundation gift income in whole dollars for 2002**

Table 4.1: INCOMGRP: Foundation income by groups

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	3.00 Large income	13	32.5	33.3	33.3
	2.00 Medium income	13	32.5	33.3	66.7
	1.00 Small income	13	32.5	33.3	100.0
	Total	39	97.5	100.0	
Missing	System	1	2.5		
Total N		40	100.0		

- **Where the institution was located--- Urban or Rural.**

Table 4.2: LOCATION College Urban/Rural Area

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid 2 Rural	21	52.5	52.5	52.5
1 Urban	19	47.5	47.5	100.0
Total N	40	100.0	100.0	

The survey results show that community colleges in Texas are almost equally divided into groupings of **urban** and **rural** location. However, there was not a designated population number attached to the definitions of urban and rural. The researcher allowed the participants to make the distinction. For future studies, quantitative definitions for urban and rural would provide more accurate responses.

Table 4.3: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * LOCATION College Urban/Rural Area

		LOCATION College Urban/Rural Area		Total
		1 Urban	2 Rural	
INCOMGRP	1.00			
Foundation income by groups	Small income	4	9	13
	2.00			
	Medium income	9	4	13
	3.00			
	Large income	6	7	13
Total N		19	20	39

Analyzing the correlation of foundation income by groups and the location of the colleges (urban vs. rural), illustrates that the location of the college appears to have little influence upon the size of the foundation income. Both urban and rural colleges have large income foundations. However, small income foundations are predominantly located in rural areas, and the majority of medium income foundations are located in urban areas.

- **Enrollment groups by total head count**

The enrollment by total head count of each college was divided into subsets of **small enrollment** (930–3,999), **medium enrollment** (4,000–8,896), and **large enrollment** (8,897–60,000). All 40 colleges reported their enrollments.

Table 4.4: ENROLGRP Enrollment Groups for colleges

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	3.00 Large enrollment	13	32.5	32.5	32.5
	2.00 Medium enrollment	13	32.5	32.5	65.0
	1.00 Small enrollment	14	35.0	35.0	100.0
	Total N	40	100.0	100.0	

Table 4.5: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * ENROLGRP Enrollment Groups for colleges

		ENROLGRP Enrollment Groups for colleges			Total
		1.00 Small enroll- ment	2.00 Medium enrollment	3.00 Large enroll- ment	
INCOMGRP	1.00				
Foundation income	Small income	5	5	3	13
by groups	2.00				
	Medium income	6	1	6	13
	3.00				
	Large income	3	6	4	13
Total N		14	12	13	39

After cross-tabulating foundation income by groups with enrollment by groups, the researcher concluded that the size of student enrollment also has little significance on the size of the foundation's income. However, there is a noticeable reverse correlation between small income foundations with large college enrollments and large income foundations with small enrollments.

The research survey also included demographics that were not utilized specifically in determining philanthropic giving, but proved to be of interest. They were the gender of the surveyees and their institutional titles. The results of these demographics are listed in **Tables 4.6 and 4.7**.

- **Gender of Foundation/Fundraising Surveyee**

Table 4.6: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * GENDER Gender of Surveyee

		GENDER Gender of Surveyee		
		1 Male	2 Female	Total
INCOMGRP	1.00			
Foundation income by groups	Small income	9	4	13
	2.00			
	Medium income	6	7	13
	3.00			
	Large income	4	9	13
Total N		19	20	39

Male and female survey respondents were almost equally represented. Large income foundations showed over twice as many females responsible for foundations as males. (Dare we surmise that females are better fundraisers than males?)

- **Job Title of Surveyees**

Table 4.7: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * JOBTITLE Job Title of Surveyee

	JOBTITLE Job Title of Surveyee						
INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	1 Exec. Dir.	2 Pres.	3 Dean	4 Dir.	5 Exec. Assistant to the Pres.	6 Vice- Pres.	7 Vice Chancellor
1.00 Small income	3	1	1	7	1	0	0
2.00 Medium income	3	2	0	6	0	1	1
3.00 Large income	6	1	0	3	0	2	1
Total N	12	4	1	16	1	3	2

The majority of foundation administrators were titled “Director.” It appears, though, that the more lucrative foundations have an “Executive Director,” perhaps giving some social reward for creating a larger foundation income. It is also interesting that the president is head of the foundation at one of the colleges with a large foundation income. Further research through a qualitative interview would possibly enlighten us to the reason behind this phenomenon.

SURVEY RESULTS

1. Do community college administrators’ and departmental issues influence philanthropic giving?

Correlating survey questions are Question 1, Question 2, Question 3, and Question 17.

Question 1A: Number of full-time staff directly involved in foundation and fundraising efforts

Table 4.8: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V7 1_A Number of full-time staff involved in foundation/fundraising

		V7 1_A Number of full-time staff involved in foundation/fundraising			Total
		1 0-3	2 4-6	3 7-or more	
INCOMGRP	1.00				
Foundation income	Small income	12	1	0	13
by groups	2.00	12	1	0	13
	Medium income				
	3.00	9	3	1	13
	Large income				
Total N		33	5	1	39

Question 1B: Number of part-time staff directly involved in foundation and fundraising efforts

Table 4.9: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V8 1-B Number of part-time staff directly involved in foundation and fundraising efforts

		V8 1-B Number of part-time staff directly involved in foundation and fundraising efforts		
		1 0-3	3 7- or more	Total
INCOMGRP	1.00			
Foundation income by groups	Small income	13	0	13
	2.00			
	Medium income	13	0	13
	3.00			
	Large income	12	1	13
Total N		38	1	39

Question 1C: Number of volunteers directly involved in foundation and fundraising efforts

Table 4.10: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V9 1-C Number of volunteers directly involved in foundation and fundraising

		V9 1-C Number of volunteers directly involved in foundation and fundraising			
		1 0-3	2 4-6	3 7- or more	Total
INCOMGRP	1.00				
Foundation income by groups	Small income	5	0	8	13
	2.00				
	Medium income	2	1	10	13
	3.00				
	Large income	3	0	10	13
Total N		10	1	28	39

The researcher concluded from the previous tables that staffing for foundations is small, with most colleges reporting from 0-3 full-time employees involved with fundraising. At larger income foundations, the numbers were also low for both full- and part-time staff, exemplifying that community colleges are striving to do a lot with a few. Even the number of volunteers is nominal. The research survey did not specify if the volunteer numbers included board members, but this is probably a reality. This being so, the number of volunteers at community colleges for fundraising is appalling. Students could easily be utilized in this role to solicit funds from alumni, faculty and staff, and to market the college. Most universities and four-year institutions, such as The University of Texas at Austin, have entire departments devoted to development and fundraising, as well as each college within the university having development divisions. It would behoove community colleges to look at their human resources as they strive to increase their foundations' income.

Question #2: To whom do you directly report?

Table 4.11: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V10 2-A Directly report to:

		V10 2-A Directly report to:			Total
		1 President	2 Executive Vice- President	4 *Other	
INCOMGRP	1.00				
Foundation income	Small income	10	1	2	13
by groups	2.00	12	1	0	13
	Medium income				
	3.00	8	0	5	13
	Large income				
Total N		30	2	7	39

Most surveyees report directly to the presidents of the colleges, allowing for a watchful eye by the presidents on the foundation's income and development processes. The close contact with the president of the college is vital for growth of the foundation, community contacts, development of a good reputation of the college, and college needs prioritized for the foundation. Some of the larger foundation administrators report directly to the foundation presidents (*other), as well as, or in lieu of, the college president.

Question #3: What other functions(s) is your office responsible for?

Table 4.12: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V11 3-A Marketing Responsibility

		V11 3-A Marketing...Responsibility		Total
		0 Not responsible for marketing	1 Responsible for marketing	
INCOMGRP	1.00			
Foundation	Small income	7	6	13
Income	2.00			
by groups	Medium income	9	4	13
	3.00			
	Large income	10	3	13
Total N		26	13	39

Table 4.13: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V12 3-B Institutional Research Responsibility

		V12 3-B Institutional Research Responsibility		Total
		0 Not responsible for Institutional Research	1 Responsible for Institutional Research	
INCOMGRP	1.00			
Foundation	Small income	10	3	13
income	2.00			
by groups	Medium income	13	0	13
	3.00			
	Large income	11	1	12
Total N		34	4	38

Table 4.14: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V13 3-C Alumni Responsibility

		V13 3-C Alumni Responsibility		Total
		0 Not responsible for Alumni	1 responsible for Alumni	
INCOMGRP	1.00			
Foundation	Small income	6	7	13
income	2.00			
by groups	Medium income	2	11	13
	3.00			
	Large income	4	9	13
Total N		12	27	39

Table 4.15: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V14 3-D Public Relations Responsibility

		V14 3-D Public Relations Responsibility		Total
		0 Not responsible for public relations	1 Responsible for public relations	
INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	1.00 Small income	6	7	13
	2.00 Medium income	8	5	13
	3.00 Large income	8	5	13
	Total N	22	17	39

Table 4.16: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V15 3-E Media Responsibility

		V15 3-E Media Responsibility		Total
		0 Not responsible for Media	1 Responsible for Media	
INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	1.00 Small income	8	5	13
	2.00 Medium income	11	2	13
	3.00 Large income	10	3	13
	Total N	29	10	39

Table 4.17: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V16 3-F Grants Responsibility

		V16 3-F Grants Responsibility		Total
		0 Not responsible for grants	1 Responsible for grants	
INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	1.00 Small income	8	5	13
	2.00 Medium income	4	9	13
	3.00 Large income	3	10	13
	Total N	15	24	39

Table 4.18: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V17 3-G No other responsibility

		V17 3-G No other responsibility		Total
		0 Responsible for other areas	1 Not responsible for other areas	
INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	1.00 Small income	12	1	13
	2.00 Medium income	12	1	13
	3.00 Large income	12	1	13
	Total N	36	3	39

**Table 4.19: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V18 3-H Other...
unlisted responsibility**

		V18 3-H Other... unlisted responsibility		Total
		0 No other unlisted responsibility	1 Other unlisted responsibility	
INCOMGRP	1.00			
Foundation	Small income	8	5	13
income	2.00			
by groups	Medium income	8	5	13
	3.00			
	Large income	10	3	13
Total N		26	13	39

In addition to the areas of responsibilities listed in the survey, foundation participants submitted the following as “unlisted responsibilities”: legislative relations, student services, (executive) director of the foundation, scholarships, human resource development, international programs, special projects, off-campus center, special events, community relations, and photography and printing for the college. From the results of the survey, community college foundation and fundraising administrators overall have multiple hats to wear. These additional duties appear to decrease as the foundations increase in size, demonstrating a reverse correlation between the two variables. The only areas of responsibility on the survey that do not support this concept were “alumni” and “grants.” These areas are closely related to increasing foundation income, unlike some of the other listed duties; therefore, we find a direct correlation between the two variables. One could logically conclude from the survey results that community college foundations administrators are over-worked and under-staffed.

Question 17 (Part 1): What is the turnover rate of staff members in your department in the last 12 months out of how many staff members?

Table 4.20: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V110 17-A Turnover rate of staff in last 12 months

		V110 17-A Turnover rate of staff in last 12 months				Total
		0 Turnover	1 Turnover	2 Turnover	3 Turnover	
INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	1.00 Small income	7	3	2	1	13
	2.00 Medium income	9	3	0	1	13
	3.00 Large income	12	1	0	0	13
Total N		28	7	2	2	39

Table 4.21: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V111 17-B Total staff members in 2002

		V111 17-B Total staff members in 2002			Total
		1 Staff members	2 Staff members	3 Staff members	
INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	1.00 Small income	11	2	0	13
	2.00 Medium income	10	2	1	13
	3.00 Large income	9	3	1	13
Total N		30	7	2	39

Of the 39 colleges reporting on turnover rates, 28 reported no turnover, creating a relatively low turnover rate of 28 percent. It is significant to recall that community college foundations have low staff numbers and colleges with larger foundation incomes, as stated previously, tend to have larger staffs. The following statistics define the reasons for staff turnover according to the participants.

Question 17 (Part 2): If so, what reason(s) do you attribute to this turnover?

Table 4.22: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V112 17-C Wide variety of job tasks attributed reason for turnover

		V112 17-C Wide variety of job tasks attributed reason for turnover		
		0 Not attributed	1 Attributed	Total
INCOMGRP	1.00			
Foundation income by	Small income	13	0	13
groups	2.00			
	Medium income	12	1	13
	3.00			
	Large income	13	0	13
Total N		38	1	39

Table 4.23: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V113 17-D Lack of Continuing Education attributed to turnover

		V113 17-D Lack of Continuing Education attributed to turnover		Total
		0 - Not attributed	1 Attributed	
INCOMGRP	1.00			
Foundation income by groups	Small income	13	0	13
	2.00			
	Medium income	12	1	13
	3.00			
	Large income	13	0	13
Total N		38	1	39

Table 4.24: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V114 17-E Low Pay attributed to turnover

		V114 17-E Low Pay attributed to turnover		Total
		0 Not attributed	1 Attributed	
INCOMGRP	1.00			
Foundation income by groups	Small income	11	2	13
	2.00			
	Medium income	10	3	13
	3.00			
	Large income	13	0	13
Total N		34	5	39

Table 4.25: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V115 17-F Lack of Support from Foundation Members attributed to turnover

		V115 17-F Lack of Support from Foundation Members attributed to turnover	Total
		0 Not attributed	
INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	1.00 Small income	13	13
	2.00 Medium income	13	13
	3.00 Large income	13	13
Total N		39	39

Table 4.26: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V116 17-G Lack of Support of Pres. attributed to turnover

		V116 17-G Lack of Support of Pres. attributed to turnover		Total
		0 Not attributed	1 Attributed	
INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	1.00 Small income	11	2	13
	2.00 Medium income	12	1	13
	3.00 Large income	13	0	13
Total N		36	3	39

Table 4.27: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V117 17-H Lack of Support of College Faculty/Staff attributed to turnover

		V117 17-H Lack of Support of College Faculty/Staff attributed to turnover		Total
		0 Not Attributed	1 Attributed	
INCOMGRP	1.00			
Foundation income by groups	Small income	13	0	13
	2.00			
	Medium income	12	1	13
	3.00			
	Large income	13	0	13
Total N		38	1	39

Table 4.28: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V118 17-I Unable to Take Rejection from Potential donors attributed to turnover

		V118 17-I Unable to Take Rejection from Potential donors attributed to turnover	Total
		0 Not attributed	
INCOMGRP Foundation	1.00		
income by groups	Small income	13	13
	2.00		
	Medium income	13	13
	3.00		
	Large income	13	13
Total N		39	39

Table 4.29: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V119 17-J "Burn-Out" attributed to turnover

		V119 17-J "Burn-Out" attributed to turnover		
		0 Not attributed	1 Attributed	Total
INCOMGRP	1.00			
Foundation income by	Small income	11	2	13
groups	2.00	11	2	13
	Medium income			
	3.00	13	0	13
	Large income			
Total N		35	4	39

According to the survey, the participants listed the following reasons for turnover: wide variety of tasks (1), lack of continuing education (1), low pay (5), lack of support of the president (1), lack of support of faculty/staff (1), and “burn-out” (4). Looking at the statistical information from the survey, one can draw the conclusion that low pay and “burn-out” are the predominate causes of turnover of foundation/fundraising staff. Comparing this information to the information obtained previously, the researcher concluded that a low number of staff members doing a large amount of varied tasks will lead to “burn-out,” coupled with low pay, especially in small and medium income foundation groups, will lead to turnover.

2. *What are the perceived philanthropic motivations of donors according to community college administrators?*

Correlating survey questions are Question 10, Question 11, Question 12, and Question 15

Question 10: How do you learn about prospective donors?

Table 4.30: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V45 10-A Surveys used to learn about prospective donors

		V45 10-A Surveys used to learn about prospective donors		Total
		0 Do not use	1 Use	
INCOMGRP	1.00			
Foundation income by groups	Small income	11	2	13
	2.00			
	Medium income	10	3	13
	3.00			
	Large income	11	2	13
Total N		32	7	39

Table 4.31: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V46 10-B Experience used to learn about prospective donors

		V46 10-B Experience used to learn about prospective donors		Total
		0 Do not use	1 Use	
INCOMGRP	1.00			
Foundation income by groups	Small income	5	8	13
	2.00			
	Medium income	1	12	13
	3.00			
	Large income	4	9	13
Total N		10	29	39

Table 4.32: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V47 10-C Word-of-mouth used to learn about prospective donors

		V47 10-C Word-of-mouth used to learn about prospective donors		Total
		0 Do not use	1 Use	
INCOMGRP	1.00			
Foundation income by groups	Small income	1	12	13
	2.00			
	Medium income	0	13	13
	3.00			
	Large income	2	11	13
Total N		3	36	39

Table 4.33: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V48 10-D Alumni used to learn about prospective donors

		V48 10-D Alumni used to learn about prospective donors		Total
		0 Do not use	1 Use	
INCOMGRP	1.00			
Foundation income by groups	Small income	6	7	13
	2.00			
	Medium income	5	8	13
	3.00			
	Large income	3	10	13
Total N		14	25	39

Table 4.34: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V49 10-E Community Involvement used to learn about prospective donors

		V49 10-E Community Involvement used to learn about prospective donors		Total
		0 Do not use	1 Use	
INCOMGRP	1.00			
Foundation income by	Small income	1	12	13
groups	2.00	0	13	13
	Medium income			
	3.00	1	12	13
	Large income			
Total N		2	37	39

Table 4.35: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V50 10-F Board Members used to learn about prospective donors

		V50 10-F Board Members used to learn about prospective donors		Total
		0 Do not use	1 Use	
INCOMGRP	1.00			
Foundation income by	Small income	1	12	13
groups	2.00	0	13	13
	Medium income			
	3.00	0	13	13
	Large income			
Total N		1	38	39

Table 4.36: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V51 10-G Consultants used to learn about prospective donors

		V51 10-G Consultants used to learn about prospective donors		Total
		0 Do not use	1 Use	
INCOMGRP	1.00			
Foundation income by	Small income	11	2	13
groups	2.00	12	1	13
	Medium income			
	3.00	11	1	12
	Large income			
Total N		34	4	38

Table 4.37: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V52 10-H Databases(s) used to learn about prospective donors

		V52 10-H Databases(s) used to learn about prospective donors		Total
		0 Do not use	1 Use	
INCOMGRP	1.00			
Foundation income by	Small income	11	2	13
groups	2.00	9	4	13
	Medium income			
	3.00	7	6	13
	Large income			
Total N		27	12	39

Table 4.38: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V53 10-I "Other" methods to learn about prospective donors

		V53 10-I "Other" methods to learn about prospective donors		
		0 Do not use	1 Use	Total
INCOMGRP	1.00			
Foundation income by	Small income	13	0	13
groups	2.00	10	3	13
	Medium income			
	3.00	10	3	13
	Large income			
Total N		33	6	39

Among the methods used by the foundation surveyees to learn about prospective donors, the most significant, across the board from small income foundations to large income foundations were: drawing from their personal experiences (the foundation staff member's) (74 percent), word-of-mouth (92 percent), alumni referrals (64 percent), community involvement (of the foundation staff and president) (94 percent), and board member referrals (97 percent). Few of the community colleges used the resources of a consultant, possibly due to consultants' high costs and colleges' cuts in budgets.

Question #11: Indicate on a scale of 1-5 what motivates donors to give to your community college. (1 representing no motivation, 3 representing moderate motivation, 5 representing strong motivation)

Table 4.39: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V54 11-A College Reputation motivates donors

	V54 11-A College Reputation motivates donors			
INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	0 Did not respond	3 Moderate Motivation	4 Good Motivation	5 Strong Motivation
1.00 Small income	1	2	4	6
2.00 Medium income	0	3	5	5
3.00 Large income	0	3	3	7
Total N	1	8	12	18

Table 4.40: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V55 11-B "Good Experience" while attending college motivation

INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	V55 11-B "Good Experience" while attending college motivation					
	0 Did not respond	1 No motivation	2 Some motivation	3 Moderate motivation	4 Good motivation	5 Strong motivation
1.00 Small income	2	1	1	2	3	4
2.00 Medium income	0	2	1	7	1	2
3.00 Large income	0	1	2	2	2	6
Total N	2	4	4	11	6	12

Table 4.41: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V56 11-C Value to Donor motivation

INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	V56 11-C Value to Donor motivation				
	0 Did not respond	2 Some motivation	3 Moderate motivation	4 Good motivation	5 Strong motivation
1.00 Small income	2	1	4	4	2
2.00 Medium income	0	1	6	6	0
3.00 Large income	0	2	4	3	4
Total N	2	4	14	13	6

Table 4.42: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V57 11-D Value to Community motivation

INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	V57 11-D Value to Community motivation				
	0 Did not respond	2 Some motivation	3 Moderate motivation	4 Good motivation	5 Strong motivation
1.00 Small income	1	0	1	7	4
2.00 Medium income	0	0	1	7	5
3.00 Large income	0	1	2	3	7
Total N	1	1	4	17	16

Table 4.43: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V58 11-E Efforts of College Pres. motivation

	V58 11-E Efforts of College Pres. motivation					
INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	0 Did not respond	1 No motivation	2 Some motivation	3 Moderate motivation	4 Good motivation	5 Strong motivation
1.00 Small income	2	0	1	1	5	4
2.00 Medium income	0	1	2	3	5	2
3.00 Large income	0	0	1	3	3	6
Total N	2	1	4	7	13	12

Table 4.44: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V59 11-F Efforts of Foundation Board Members motivation

	V59 11-F Efforts of Foundation Board Members motivation					
INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	0 Did not respond	1 No motivation	2 Some motivation	3 Moderate motivation	4 Good motivation	5 Strong motivation
1.00 Small income	1	0	1	5	4	2
2.00 Medium income	1	0	2	3	2	5
3.00 Large income	0	1	0	5	4	3
Total N	2	1	3	13	10	10

Table 4.45: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V60 11-G "Good Feeling" to Donate motivation

	V60 11-G "Good Feeling" to Donate motivation				
INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	0 Did not respond	2 Some motivation	3 Moderate motivation	4 Good motivation	5 Strong motivation
1.00 Small income	2	1	4	5	1
2.00 Medium income	0	2	6	5	0
3.00 Large income	0	2	2	4	5
Total N	2	5	12	14	6

Table 4.46: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V61 11-H Efforts of Development office motivation

	V61 11-H Efforts of Development office motivation					
INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	0 Did not respond	1 No motivation	2 Some motivation	3 Moderate motivation	4 Good motivation	5 Strong motivation
1.00 Small income	1	1	1	1	9	0
2.00 Medium income	0	0	0	3	5	5
3.00 Large income	0	0	1	2	7	3
Total N	1	1	2	6	21	8

Table 4.47: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V62 11-I Social Importance to Donor motivation

INCOMGRP Foundation Income by groups	V62 11-I Social Importance to Donor motivation					
	0 Did not respond	1 No motivation	2 Some motivation	3 Moderate motivation	4 Good motivation	5 Strong motivation
1.00 Small income	2	0	2	5	3	1
2.00 Medium income	1	1	3	3	5	0
3.00 Large income	0	2	4	3	3	1
Total N	3	3	9	11	11	2

Table 4.48: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V63 11-J Return to College for providing quality employees motivation

INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	V63 11-J Return to College for providing quality employees motivation					
	0 Did not respond	1 No motivation	2 Some motivation	3 Moderate motivation	4 Good motivation	5 Strong motivation
1.00 Small income	2	0	6	5	0	0
2.00 Medium income	0	1	5	3	3	1
3.00 Large income	0	0	2	5	4	2
Total N	2	1	13	13	7	3

Table 4.49: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V64 11-K Return to Community motivation

INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	V64 11-K Return to Community motivation				
	0 Did not respond	2 Some motivation	3 Moderate motivation	4 Good motivation	5 Strong motivation
1.00 Small income	2	1	3	6	1
2.00 Medium income	0	3	1	5	4
3.00 Large income	0	1	2	6	4
Total N	2	5	6	17	9

Table 4.50: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V65 11-L Loyalty to college from graduate motivation

INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	V65 11-L Loyalty to college from graduate motivation					
	0 Did not respond	1 No motivation	2 Some motivation	3 Moderate motivation	4 Good motivation	5 Strong motivation
1.00 Small income	3	1	3	4	1	1
2.00 Medium income	0	2	4	3	4	0
3.00 Large income	0	2	6	1	2	2
Total N	3	5	13	8	7	3

Table 4.51: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V66 11-M Faculty/Staff Involvement motivation

INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	V66 11-M Faculty/Staff Involvement motivation				
	0 Did not respond	2 Some motivation	3 Moderate motivation	4 Good motivation	5 Strong motivation
1.00 Small income	2	2	7	1	1
2.00 Medium income	1	7	3	1	1
3.00 Large income	0	4	7	1	1
Total N	3	13	17	3	3

Table 4.52: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V67 11-N Pre-tax Advantage motivation

INCOM GRP Foundation income by groups	V67 11-N Pre-tax Advantage motivation					
	0 Did not respond	1 No motivation	2 Some motivation	3 Moderate motivation	4 Good motivation	5 Strong motivation
1.00 Small income	2	2	2	2	4	1
2.00 Medium income	0	1	3	7	2	0
3.00 Large income	0	3	2	4	2	2
Total N	2	6	7	13	8	3

Table 4.53: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V68 11-O Deferred Gift Advantage motivation

INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	V68 11-O Deferred Gift Advantage motivation					
	0 Did not respond	1 No motivation	2 Some motivation	3 Moderate motivation	4 Good motivation	5 Strong motivation
1.00 Small income	2	4	3	2	2	0
2.00 Medium income	1	2	5	5	0	0
3.00 Large income	1	2	5	4	0	1
Total N	4	8	13	11	2	1

Table 4.54: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V69 11-P Guilt motivation

INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	V69 11-P Guilt motivation			
	0 Did not respond	1 No motivation	2 Some motivation	3 Moderate motivation
1.00 Small income	3	7	0	3
2.00 Medium income	1	9	2	1
3.00 Large income	1	8	1	3
Total N	5	24	3	7

Table 4.55: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V70 11-Q Ego/The Need to Affiliate motivation

INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	V70 11-Q Ego/The Need to Affiliate motivation				
	0 Did not respond	1 No motivation	2 Some motivation	3 Moderate motivation	4 Good motivation
1.00 Small income	3	3	5	1	1
2.00 Medium income	1	3	3	4	2
3.00 Large income	1	3	5	2	2
Total N	5	9	13	7	5

Table 4.56: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V71 11-R Self-preservation motivation

INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	V71 11-R Self-preservation motivation				
	0 Did not respond	1 No motivation	2 Some motivation	3 Moderate motivation	4 Good motivation
1.00 Small income	3	4	2	3	1
2.00 Medium income	1	6	3	3	0
3.00 Large income	1	5	3	4	0
Total N	5	15	8	10	1

Table 4.57: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V72 11-S Belief in Education motivation

INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	V72 11-S Belief in Education motivation				
	0 Did not respond	2 Some motivation	3 Moderate motivation	4 Good motivation	5 Strong motivation
1.00 Small income	1	0	1	6	5
2.00 Medium income	0	1	0	9	3
3.00 Large income	0	0	2	3	8
Total N	1	1	3	18	16

Table 4.58: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V73 11-T Reaction to Pressure motivation

INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	V73 11-T Reaction to Pressure motivation					
	0 Did not respond	1 No motivation	2 Some motivation	3 Moderate motivation	4 Good motivation	5 Strong motivation
1.00 Small income	3	3	3	3	1	0
2.00 Medium income	1	6	2	3	0	1
3.00 Large income	2	2	6	2	1	0
Total N	6	11	11	8	2	1

Because Question 11 lies at the heart of this research, a deeper statistical analysis of this research question will be discussed in Chapter Six. However, a cursory discussion is warranted at this time. Using the table below of the **mean** responses, we can determine the significance placed on each variable about the perceived beliefs of community college administrators concerning donor motivations for philanthropic giving. These motivations will be compared in Chapter Six by analyzing the quantitative statistical research and comparing it to the IQA mindmaps of the administrator focus group, the donor focus group, and the individual interviewees.

On a scale of 1–5, ratings with 2.5 representing the mid-point, we can determine that the items ranking below 2.53 in the following chart, especially self-preservation and guilt have little or no motivational influence on donors as believed by college administrators. Additionally, it can be determined that these same administrators believe that the most significant motivations for donor philanthropic giving are 1) college reputation, 2) value to the community (of the donation), and 3) a strong belief in education (by the donor).

Table 4.59: MEANS --- Donor Motivations for Giving

	Mean
11-A College Reputation motivates donors	4.18
11-D Value to Community motivation	4.18
11-S Belief in Education motivation	4.18
11-H Efforts of Development office motivation	3.78
11-E Efforts of College Pres. motivation	3.68
11-K Return to Community motivation	3.63
11-F Efforts of Foundation Board Members motivation	3.50
11-C Value to Donor motivation	3.40
11-G “Good Feeling” to Donate motivation	3.40
11-B “Good Experience” while attending college motivation	3.33
11-I Social Importance to Donor motivation	2.80

11-J Return to College for providing quality employees motivation	2.80
11-N Pre-tax Advantage motivation	2.75
11-M Faculty/Staff Involvement motivation	2.68
11-L Loyalty to college from graduate motivation	2.53
11-O Deferred Gift Advantage motivation	2.08
11-Q Ego/The Need to Affiliate motivation	1.98
11-T Reaction to Pressure motivation	1.83
11-R Self-preservation motivation	1.68
11-P Guilt motivation	1.33

Question 12: Indicate on a scale of 1-5 the degree of influence on the success of your fundraising endeavors by the following attributes. (1 representing no influence, 3 representing moderate influence, 5 representing strong influence).

Table 4.60: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V74 12-A College Reputation influence on successful fundraising

		V74 12-A College Reputation influence on successful fundraising				
		0 Did not respond	2 Some influence	3 Moderate influence	4 Good influence	5 Strong influence
INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	1.00 Small income	1	0	1	6	5
	2.00 Medium income	0	1	2	3	7
	3.00 Large income	0	0	2	3	8
Total N		1	1	5	12	20

Table 4.61: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V75 12-B Value to Donor influence on success of fundraising

		V75 12-B Value to Donor influence on success of fundraising					
Foundation income by groups		0 Did not respond	1 No influence	2 Some influence	3 Moderate influence	4 Good influence	5 Strong influence
1.00 Small income		2	1	1	2	4	3
2.00 Medium income		0	0	0	6	5	2
3.00 Large income		0	0	1	5	3	4
Total N		2	1	2	13	12	9

Table 4.62: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V76 12-C Value to Community influence on success of fundraising

		V76 12-C Value to Community influence on success of fundraising			
		0 Did not respond	3 Moderate influence	4 Good influence	5 Strong influence
INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	1.00 Small income	1	1	4	7
	2.00 Medium income	0	2	5	6
	3.00 Large income	0	1	7	5
Total N		1	4	16	18

Table 4.63: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V77 12-D Efforts of College President influence on success of fundraising

		V77 12-D Efforts of College President influence on success of fundraising					
Foundation income by groups		0 Did not respond	1 No influence	2 Some influence	3 Moderate influence	4 Good influence	5 Strong influence
1.00	Small income	2	0	1	2	5	3
2.00	Medium income	0	2	1	2	6	2
3.00	Large income	0	0	0	3	4	6
Total N		2	2	2	7	15	11

Table 4.64: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V78 12-E Efforts of Foundation Board Members on success of fundraising

		V78 12-E Efforts of Foundation Board Members on success of fundraising					
INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups		0 Did not respond	1 No influence	2 Some influence	3 Moderate influence	4 Good influence	5 Strong influence
1.00	Small income	1	1	1	2	5	3
2.00	Medium income	1	0	1	3	4	4
3.00	Large income	0	1	1	2	3	6
Total N		2	2	3	7	12	13

Table 4.65: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V79 12-F Efforts of Development Office on success of fundraising

	V79 12-F Efforts of Development Office on success of fundraising					
INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	0 Did not respond	1 No influence	2 Some influence	3 Moderate influence	4 Good influence	5 Strong influence
1.00 Small income	1	1	1	1	6	3
2.00 Medium income	0	0	1	0	5	7
3.00 Large income	0	0	1	2	4	6
Total N	1	1	3	3	15	16

Table 4.66: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V80 12-G Loyalty to College from Graduates influence on success of fundraising

	V80 12-G Loyalty to College from Graduates influence on success of fundraising					
INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	0 Did not respond	1 No influence	2 Some influence	3 Moderate influence	4 Good influence	5 Strong influence
1.00 Small income	2	2	3	3	2	1
2.00 Medium income	0	1	5	3	4	0
3.00 Large income	0	3	3	3	3	1
Total N	2	6	11	9	9	2

Table 4.67: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V81 12-H Faculty/Staff Involvement influence on success of fundraising

INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	V81 12-H Faculty/Staff Involvement influence on success of fundraising					
	0 Did not respond	1 No influence	2 Some influence	3 Moderate influence	4 Good influence	5 Strong influence
1.00 Small income	2	1	3	4	2	1
2.00 Medium income	0	0	6	5	1	1
3.00 Large income	0	0	5	5	2	1
Total N	2	1	14	14	5	3

Table 4.68: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V82 12-I Pre-Tax Advantage influence on success of fundraising

INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	V82 12-I Pre-Tax Advantage influence on success of fundraising					
	0 Did not respond	1 No influence	2 Some influence	3 Moderate influence	4 Good influence	5 Strong influence
1.00 Small income	2	4	2	3	2	0
2.00 Medium income	0	0	4	7	2	0
3.00 Large income	0	4	1	5	1	2
Total N	2	8	7	15	5	2

Table 4.69: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V83 12-J Deferred Gift Advantage influence on success of fundraising

	V83 12-J Deferred Gift Advantage influence on success of fundraising					
INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	0 Did not respond	1 No influence	2 Some influence	3 Moderate influence	4 Good influence	5 Strong influence
1.00 Small income	2	6	2	2	1	0
2.00 Medium income	1	1	4	7	0	0
3.00 Large income	1	3	5	3	0	1
Total N	4	10	11	12	1	1

Table 4.70: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V84 12-K Fiscally Sound College influence on success of fundraising

	V84 12-K Fiscally Sound College influence on success of fundraising					
INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	0 Did not respond	1 No influence	2 Some influence	3 Moderate influence	4 Good influence	5 Strong influence
1.00 Small income	2	2	2	2	0	5
2.00 Medium income	0	0	2	2	4	5
3.00 Large income	0	0	1	2	5	5
Total N	2	2	5	6	9	15

Along with Question 11, Question 12 is of major significance to this study. The factors which influence donors in the community colleges' fundraising endeavors, as perceived by administrators, help determine if the needs of the donors are being met. Some of the items that could be broached by community college foundations, such as deferred gift advantage and pre-tax advantage which are widely used by universities, are not considered as strong influences for community colleges. Further study in this area as to the use or lack of use of these advantages to the donor would prove to be insightful.

One can observe from **Table 4.71** (below) that community college administrators again strongly believe that the influence on the community from the donors' philanthropic giving and the reputation of the college are strong determiners in fundraising endeavors.

Table 4.71: Means --- Influence on Fundraising

12-C Value to Community influence on success of fundraising	4.28
12-A College Reputation influence on successful fundraising	4.25
12-F Efforts of Development Office on success of fundraising	4.00
12-D Efforts of College President influence on success of fundraising	3.68
12-E Efforts of Foundation Board Members on success of fundraising	3.65
12-K Fiscally Sound College influence on success of fundraising	3.65
12-B Value to Donor influence on success of fundraising	3.55
12-H Faculty/Staff Involvement influence on success of fundraising	2.73
12-G Loyalty to College from Graduates influence on success of fundraising	2.60
12-I Pre-Tax Advantage influence on success of fundraising	2.53
12-J Deferred Gift Advantage influence on success of fundraising	2.00

Question 15: Indicate on a scale of 1-5 the “real leaders” of your fundraising efforts. (1 represents not a leader, 3 representing somewhat a leader, 5 represents a strong leader)

Table 4.72: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V98 15-A College President "real leader" of fundraising

		V98 15-A College President "real Leader" of fundraising				Total
		2 Somewhat a leader	3 Moderate leader	4 Good leader	5 Strong leader	
INCOMGRP	1.00					
Foundation income by groups	Small income	0	2	3	8	13
	2.00					
	Medium income	3	3	1	6	13
	3.00					
	Large income	0	3	0	9	12
Total N		3	8	4	23	38

Table 4.73: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V99 15-B College Foundation Members "real leaders" of fundraising

		V99 15-B College Foundation Members "real leaders" of fundraising					Total
INCOMGRP	Foundation income by groups	0 Did not respond	1 Not a leader	2 Somewhat a leader	3 Moderate leader	4 Good leader	5 Strong leader
	1.00						
	Small income	0	0	0	7	3	3
	2.00						
	Medium income	1	0	1	3	2	6
	3.00						
	Large income	0	1	0	3	4	5
Total N		1	1	1	13	9	14

Table 4.74: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V100 15-C Alumni "real leaders" in fundraising

INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	V100 15-C Alumni "real leaders" in fundraising						Total
	0 Did not respond	1 Not a leader	2 Somewhat a leader	3 Moderate leader	4 Good leader	5 Strong leader	
1.00 Small income	1	4	0	5	3	0	13
2.00 Medium income	0	2	6	2	3	0	13
3.00 Large income	0	4	2	4	2	1	13
Total N	1	10	8	11	8	1	39

Table 4.75: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V101 15-D College Development Staff "real leaders" in fundraising

	V101 15-D College Development Staff "real leaders" in fundraising				Total
INCOMGRP Foundation Income by groups	2 Somewhat a leader	3 Moderate leader	4 Good leader	5 Strong leader	
1.00 Small income	0	4	3	6	13
2.00 Medium income	1	0	0	12	13
3.00 Large income	1	2	0	10	13
Total N	2	6	3	28	39

Table 4.76: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V102 15-E Corporate/Business Leaders as "real leaders" in fundraising

INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	V102 15-E Corporate/Business Leaders as "real leaders" in fundraising						Total
	0 Did not respond	1 Not a leader	2 Somewhat a leader	3 Moderate leader	4 Good leader	5 Strong leader	
1.00 Small income	1	0	4	3	4	1	13
2.00 Medium income	0	0	2	3	6	2	13
3.00 Large income	0	1	0	6	5	1	13
Total N	1	1	6	12	15	4	39

Table 4.77: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V103 15-F College Staff/Faculty "real leaders" in fundraising

INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	V103 15-F College Staff/Faculty "real leaders" in fundraising						Total
	0 Did not respond	1 Not a leader	2 Somewhat a leader	3 Moderate leader	4 Good leader	5 Strong leader	
1.00 Small income	1	2	2	5	3	0	13
2.00 Medium income	0	1	3	4	4	1	13
3.00 Large income	0	0	4	5	4	0	13
Total N	1	3	9	14	11	1	39

Table 4.78: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V104 15-G Board of Trustees "real leaders" in fundraising

	V104 15-G Board of Trustees "real leaders" in fundraising						Total
INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	0 Did not respond	1 Not a leader	2 Somewhat a leader	3 Moderate leader	4 Good leader	5 Strong leader	
1.00 Small income	1	2	2	3	5	0	13
2.00 Medium income	0	1	3	3	3	3	13
3.00 Large income	0	1	2	4	4	2	13
Total N	1	4	7	10	12	5	39

Table 4.79 below clearly shows that community college administrators feel that the internal sources of the college are the drivers for fundraising. Missing are the advantages of utilizing staff and faculty, corporate mentors, foundation board members and trustees, and the even larger groups of alumni (and current students) to increase their fundraising efforts, increase foundations' coffers, and delegate some of the responsibilities from the already stretched foundation administrators and presidents.

Table 4.79: MEANS --- “Real Leaders” in Fundraising

	Mean
V101 15-D College Development Staff "real leaders" in fundraising	4.48
V98 15-A College President "real leader" of fundraising	4.26
V99 15-B College Foundation Members "real leaders" of fundraising	3.80
V102 15-E Corporate/Business Leaders as "real leaders" in fundraising	3.35
V104 15-G Board of Trustees "real leaders" in fundraising	3.10
V103 15-F College Staff/Faculty "real leaders" in fundraising	2.88
V100 15-C Alumni "real leaders" in fundraising	2.45
Valid N	40

3. *What methods do Texas community colleges use for fundraising?*

Correlating survey questions are Question 8, Question 9, Question 13, and Question 19.

Because these variables are so intertwined and interdependent, they will be correlated and discussed at the end of the Question 19 statistics.

Question 8: Indicate on a scale of 1-5 your success level with the following activities used in fundraising (1 representing no success, 3 representing moderate success, 5 representing great success.)

Table 4.80: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V29 8-A Capital Campaign success level

INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	V29 8-A Capital Campaign success level						Total
	0 Do not use capital campaign	1 No Success	2 Some Success	3 Moderate Success	4 Good Success	5 Great Success	
1.00 Small income	5	4	1	2	0	1	13
2.00 Medium income	4	3	0	5	0	1	13
3.00 Large income	2	3	1	4	1	2	13
Total N	11	10	2	11	1	4	39

Table 4.81: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V30 8-B Annual Fund Drive success level

INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	V30 8-B Annual Fund Drive success level						Total
	0 Do not use Annual Fund Drive	1 No Success	2 Some Success	3 Moderate Success	4 Good Success	5 Great Success	
1.00 Small income	3	3	2	2	1	2	13
2.00 Medium income	3	0	4	3	1	2	13
3.00 Large income	1	5	2	2	1	2	13
Total N	7	8	8	7	3	6	39

Table 4.82: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V31 8-C Corporate Support success

	V31 8-C Corporate Support Success						Total
INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	0 Do not use corporate support	1 No Success	2 Some Success	3 Moderate Success	4 Good Success	5 Great Success	
1.00 Small income	1	1	3	3	5	0	13
2.00 Medium income	0	0	4	2	4	3	13
3.00 Large income	0	0	3	6	3	1	13
Total N	1	1	10	11	12	4	39

Table 4.83: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V32 8-D Deferred/Planned Giving Success

	V32 8-D Deferred/Planned Giving Success						Total
INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	0 Do not use deferred giving	1 No Success	2 Some Success	3 Moderate Success	4 Good Success	5 Great Success	
1.00 Small income	2	3	3	4	1	0	13
2.00 Medium income	1	2	1	7	2	0	13
3.00 Large income	2	3	4	2	1	1	13
Total N	5	8	8	13	4	1	39

Table 4.84: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V33 8-E Special Events Success

INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	V33 8-E Special Events Success						Total
	0 Do Not use special events	1 No Success	2 Some Success	3 Moderate Success	4 Good Success	5 Great Success	
1.00 Small income	1	1	2	5	2	2	13
2.00 Medium income	2	1	2	5	2	1	13
3.00 Large income	1	0	1	4	3	4	13
Total N	4	2	5	14	7	7	39

Table 4.85: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V34 8-F Major Gift Campaign Success

INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	V34 8-F Major Gift Campaign Success						Total
	0 Do not use major gift campaigns	1 No Success	2 Some Success	3 Moderate Success	4 Good Success	5 Great Success	
1.00 Small income	3	5	3	1	0	1	13
2.00 Medium income	3	3	1	4	2	0	13
3.00 Large income	0	3	1	5	2	2	13
Total N	6	11	5	10	4	3	39

Table 4.86: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V35 8-G Alumni Events Success

	V35 8-G Alumni Events Success						Total
INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	0 Do not use Alumni Events	1 No Success	2 Some Success	3 Moderate Success	4 Good Success	5 Great Success	
1.00 Small income	3	4	2	3	1	0	13
2.00 Medium income	2	6	3	2	0	0	13
3.00 Large income	3	3	3	1	2	1	13
Total N	8	13	8	6	3	1	39

Table 4.87: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V36 8-H "Media Blasts" Success

INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	V36 8-H "Media Blasts" Success						Total
	0 Do not use "Media Blasts"	1 No Success	2 Some Success	3 Moderate Success	4 Good Success	5 Great Success	
1.00 Small income	4	4	4	1	0	0	13
2.00 Medium income	7	4	1	0	1	0	13
3.00 Large income	2	5	2	2	1	1	13
Total N	13	13	7	3	2	1	39

**Question 9: Which of the following fundraising activities have you NOT
used at your community college?**

Table 4.88: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V37 9-A Capital Campaigns usage

		V37 9-A Capital Campaigns usage		Total
		0 Do not use	1 Use	
INCOMGRP	1.00			
Foundation income by groups	Small income	5	8	13
	2.00			
	Medium income	7	6	13
	3.00			
	Large income	8	5	13
Total N		20	19	39

Table 4.89: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V38 9-B Annual Fund Drive Usage

		V38 9-B Annual Fund Drive Usage		Total
		0 Do not use	1 Use	
INCOMGRP	1.00			
Foundation income by groups	Small income	7	6	13
	2.00			
	Medium income	10	3	13
	3.00			
	Large income	7	6	13
Total N		24	15	39

Table 4.90: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V39 9-C Corporate Support Usage

		V39 9-C Corporate Support Usage		Total
		0 Do not use	1 Use	
INCOMGRP	1.00			
Foundation income by groups	Small income	9	4	13
	2.00			
	Medium income	13	0	13
	3.00			
	Large income	12	1	13
Total N		34	5	39

Table 4.91: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V40 9-D Deferred/Planned Giving Usage

		V40 9-D Deferred/Planned Giving Usage		Total
		0 Do not use	1 Use	
INCOMGRP	1.00			
Foundation income by groups	Small income	7	6	13
	2.00			
	Medium income	13	0	13
	3.00			
	Large income	8	5	13
Total N		28	11	39

Table 4.92: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V41 9-E Special Events Usage

		V41 9-E Special Events Usage		Total
		0 Do not use	1 Use	
INCOMGRP	1.00			
Foundation income by groups	Small income	11	2	13
	2.00			
	Medium income	12	1	13
	3.00			
	Large income	12	1	13
Total N		35	4	39

Table 4.93: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V41 9-E Special Events Usage

		V41 9-E Special Events Usage		Total
		0 Do not use	1 Use	
INCOMGRP	1.00			
Foundation income by groups	Small income	11	2	13
	2.00			
	Medium income	12	1	13
	3.00			
	Large income	12	1	13
Total N		35	4	39

Table 4.94: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V42 9-F Major Gift Campaign Usage

		V42 9-F Major Gift Campaign Usage		Total
		0 Do not use	1 Use	
INCOMGRP	1.00			
Foundation income by groups	Small income	4	9	13
	2.00			
	Medium income	8	5	13
	3.00			
	Large income	10	3	13
Total N		22	17	39

Table 4.95: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V43 9-G Alumni Events Usage

		V43 9-G Alumni Events Usage		Total
		0 Do not use	1 Use	
INCOMGRP	1.00			
Foundation income by groups	Small income	5	8	13
	2.00			
	Medium income	8	5	13
	3.00			
	Large income	8	5	13
Total N		21	18	39

Table 4.96: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V44 9-H "Media Blasts" Usage

		V44 9-H "Media Blasts" Usage		
		0 Do not use	1 Use	Total
INCOMGRP	1.00			
Foundation income by groups	Small income	4	9	13
	2.00	2	11	13
	Medium income			
	3.00	6	7	13
	Large income			
Total N		12	27	39

Question 13: What fundraising activities or events are you planning within the next year at your college?

Table 4.97: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V85 13-A Capital Campaigns planned in next year

		V85 13-A Capital Campaigns planned in next year		
		0 Do not plan	1 Plan	Total
INCOMGRP	1.00			
Foundation income by groups	Small income	5	8	13
	2.00	10	3	13
	Medium income			
	3.00	10	3	13
	Large income			
Total N		25	14	39

Table 4.98: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V86 13-B Annual Fund Drive planned in next year

		V86 13-B Annual Fund Drive planned in next year		Total
		0 Do not plan	1 Plan	
INCOMGRP	1.00			
Foundation income by groups	Small income	3	10	13
	2.00			
	Medium income	1	12	13
	3.00			
	Large income	4	9	13
Total N		8	31	39

Table 4.99: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V87 13-C Corporate Support planned in next year

		V87 13-C Corporate Support planned in next year		Total
		0 Do not plan	1 Plan	
INCOMGRP	1.00			
Foundation income by groups	Small income	5	8	13
	2.00			
	Medium income	2	11	13
	3.00			
	Large income	3	10	13
Total N		10	29	39

Table 4.100: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V88 13-D Deferred or Planned Giving planned in next year

		V88 13-D Deferred or Planned Giving planned in next year		Total
		0 Do not plan	1 Plan	
INCOMGRP	1.00			
Foundation income by	Small income	5	8	13
groups	2.00	5	8	13
	Medium income			
	3.00	6	7	13
	Large income			
Total N		16	23	39

Table 4.101: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V89 13-E Special Events planned in next year

		V89 13-E Special Events planned in next year		Total
		0 Do not plan	1 Plan	
INCOMGRP	1.00			
Foundation income by	Small income	5	8	13
groups	2.00	2	11	13
	Medium income			
	3.00	2	11	13
	Large income			
Total N		9	30	39

Table 4.102: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V90 13-F Major Gift Campaign planned in next year

		V90 13-F Major Gift Campaign planned in next year		Total
		0 Do not plan	1 Plan	
INCOMGRP	1.00			
Foundation income by groups	Small income	9	4	13
	2.00			
	Medium income	9	4	13
	3.00			
	Large income	5	8	13
Total N		23	16	39

Table 4.103: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V91 13-G Alumni Events planned in next year

		V91 13-G Alumni Events planned in next year		Total
		0 Do not plan	1 Plan	
INCOMGRP	1.00			
Foundation income by groups	Small income	9	4	13
	2.00			
	Medium income	4	9	13
	3.00			
	Large income	6	7	13
Total N		19	20	39

Table 4.104: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V92 13-H "Other" planned fundraising events in next year

V92 13-H "Other" planned fundraising events in next year		0 Do not plan	1 Plan	Total
INCOMGRP	1.00			
Foundation income by groups	Small income	12	1	13
	2.00			
	Medium income	11	2	13
	3.00			
	Large income	11	1	12
Total N		34	4	38

Question 19: Indicate on a scale of 1-5 activities that you would most likely use in the future to help in the growth of your community college's foundation. (1 representing least likely to use, 3 representing somewhat likely to use, 5 representing most likely to use)

Table 4.105: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V131 19-A Capital Campaigns likelihood of usage in future

INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	V131 19-A Capital Campaigns likelihood of usage in future						Total
	0 Did not respond	1 Least likely	2 Somewhat likely	3 Moderately likely	4 More likely	5 Most likely	
1.00 Small income	1	1	1	2	3	5	13
2.00 Medium income	0	0	2	4	3	4	13
3.00 Large income	1	5	0	0	3	4	13
Total N	2	6	3	6	9	13	39

Table 4.106: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V132 19-B Annual Fund Drive likelihood of usage in future

INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	V132 19-B Annual Fund Drive likelihood of usage in future					Total
	1 Least likely	2 Somewhat likely	3 Moderately likely	4 More likely	5 Most likely	
1.00 Small income	1	2	2	2	6	13
2.00 Medium income	0	0	1	4	8	13
3.00 Large income	2	0	1	2	8	13
Total N	3	2	4	8	22	39

Table 4.107: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V133 19-C Corporate Support likelihood of usage in future

INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	V133 19-C Corporate Support likelihood of usage in future					Total
	1 Least likely	2 Somewhat likely	3 Moderately likely	4 More likely	5 Most likely	
1.00 Small income	1	1	1	4	6	13
2.00 Medium income	0	1	2	2	8	13
3.00 Large income	0	0	2	3	8	13
Total N	1	2	5	9	22	39

Table 4.108: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V134 19-D Deferred or Planned Giving likelihood of usage in future

INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	V134 19-D Deferred or Planned Giving likelihood of usage in future					Total
	1 Least likely	2 Somewhat likely	3 Moderately likely	4 More likely	5 Most likely	
1.00 Small income	1	1	6	4	1	13
2.00 Medium income	0	3	0	5	5	13
3.00 Large income	0	3	5	0	5	13
Total N	1	7	11	9	11	39

Table 4.109: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V135 19-E Special Events likelihood of usage in future

INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	V135 19-E Special Events likelihood of usage in future						Total
	0 Did not respond	1 Least likely	2 Somewhat likely	3 Moderately likely	4 More likely	5 Most likely	
1.00 Small income	1	1	0	2	3	6	13
2.00 Medium income	0	1	1	1	6	4	13
3.00 Large income	0	2	0	4	3	4	13
Total N	1	4	1	7	12	14	39

Table 4.110: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V136 19-F Major Gift Campaign likelihood of usage in future

INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	V136 19-F Major Gift Campaign likelihood of usage in future						Total
	0 Did not respond	1 Least likely	2 Somewhat likely	3 Moderately likely	4 More likely	5 Most likely	
1.00 Small income	1	1	2	3	1	5	13
2.00 Medium income	0	1	0	1	7	4	13
3.00 Large income	0	3	1	1	3	5	13
Total N	1	5	3	5	11	14	39

Table 4.111: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V137 19-G Alumni Events likelihood of usage in future

INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	V137 19-G Alumni Events likelihood of usage in future						Total
	0 Did not respond	1 Least likely	2 Somewhat likely	3 Moderately likely	4 More likely	5 Most likely	
1.00 Small income	2	1	3	4	2	1	13
2.00 Medium income	0	1	4	3	3	2	13
3.00 Large income	1	1	0	6	1	4	13
Total N	3	3	7	13	6	7	39

On a scale of 1-5 with 2.5 as the determining point of the means, community college administrators do not feel, according to the statistics drawn from Question 8, that they have been as successful as they would like in any of the areas of fundraising listed on the survey. This may or may not be a reality, due to self-imposed goals set by the foundation administrators. The only areas in which they consider themselves somewhat successful were in obtaining corporate support and in special events. Since special events require a large amount of time and volunteers, it was of interest to this researcher that this was one of the two designated significant areas of success. Due to small staffs and smaller volunteer support groups at the colleges, as determined by the results of Question 1, this preponderance may require further study.

Table 4.112: MEANS --- Successful fundraising endeavors

	Mean
V31 8-C Corporate Support success	3.17
V33 8-E Special Events Success	3.03
V30 8-B Annual Fund Drive success level	2.18
V32 8-D Deferred/Planned Giving Success	2.18
V34 8-F Major Gift Campaign Success	2.10
V29 8-A Capital Campaign success level	1.90
V35 8-G Alumni Events Success	1.65
V36 8-H "Media Blasts" Success	1.33
Valid N	40

The only fundraising activity listed in Question 9 of the survey not utilized by a large percentage of community colleges is the “Media Blast.” As computers are more

widely available to donors, according to this researcher, use of “Media Blast” will change.

Table 4.113: MEANS --- Fundraising Activities NOT Used

	Mean
V44 9-H "Media Blasts" Usage	.67
V37 9-A Capital Campaigns usage	.48
V43 9-G Alumni Events Usage	.48
V42 9-F Major Gift Campaign Usage	.45
V38 9-B Annual Fund Drive Usage	.40
V40 9-D Deferred/Planned Giving Usage	.28
V39 9-C Corporate Support Usage	.13
V41 9-E Special Events Usage	.10
Valid N	40

Question 13 addressed the fundraising activities that community colleges are planning for the next year (2003-2004). Annual fund drives will be used more as fundraising tools than in the past. Special events and increased corporate support will be more highly utilized. As budget short-falls increase, funding from alumni and deferred or planned giving will be needed for support.

Table 4.114: MEANS --- Fundraising Activities Planned Next Year

	Mean
V86 13-B Annual Fund Drive planned in next year	.80
V89 13-E Special Events planned in next year	.77
V87 13-C Corporate Support planned in next year	.75
V88 13-D Deferred or Planned Giving planned in next year	.60
V91 13-G Alumni Events planned in next year	.50
V90 13-F Major Gift Campaign planned in next year	.40
V85 13-A Capital Campaigns planned in next year	.38
V92 13-H "Other" planned fundraising events in next year	.10
Valid N	40

On a scale of 1 to 5 with 2.5 as the determining point of significance of the means, ALL of the activities listed in question 19 are likely to be used in the future by community college foundations for fundraising. Among the top activities defined was increasing funding from corporate support. This fundraising activity was important to this research because of the significance of corporate donors and their IQA mindmapping as discussed in Chapter Five.

The researcher attributes the placement of alumni events at the bottom of Table 4.113 (below) because of the difficulty with tracking alumni of community colleges, their lack of allegiance to the community colleges, and the knowledge that those alumni who attend four-year institutions tend to take their loyalties to that institution.

Table 4.115: MEANS ---Activities most likely to use in the future

	Mean
V133 19-C Corporate Support likelihood of usage in future	4.28
V132 19-B Annual Fund Drive likelihood of usage in future	4.13
V135 19-E Special Events likelihood of usage in future	3.75
V134 19-D Deferred or Planned Giving likelihood of usage in future	3.60
V136 19-F Major Gift Campaign likelihood of usage in future	3.60
V131 19-A Capital Campaigns likelihood of usage in future	3.40
V137 19-G Alumni Events likelihood of usage in future	2.98
Valid N	40

4. What are the fundraising trends in Texas community colleges?

Question. 4; Question. 5; Question 6; Question14; Question16

Question 4: Are you a member of any professional fundraising organization? If so, please designate to which you belong.

Table 4.116: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V19 4-A Member of professional fundraising organization

		V19 4-A Member of professional fundraising organization		Total
		1 Yes	2 No	
INCOMGRP	1.00			
Foundation income by groups	Small income	9	4	13
	2.00			
	Medium income	10	3	13
	3.00			
	Large income	12	1	13
Total N		31	8	39

Table 4.117: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V20 4-B Member of CRD

		V20 4-B Member of CRD		Total
		0 Not member of CRD	1 Member of CRD	
INCOMGRP	1.00			
Foundation income by groups	Small income	4	9	13
	2.00			
	Medium income	4	9	13
	3.00			
	Large income	3	10	13
Total N		11	28	39

Table 4.118: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V21 4-C Member of CAE/CASE

		V21 4-C Member of CAE/CASE		Total
		0 Not member of CAE/CASE	1 Member of CAE/CASE	
INCOMGRP	1.00			
Foundation income by groups	Small income	12	1	13
	2.00			
	Medium income	9	4	13
	3.00			
	Large income	10	3	13
Total N		31	8	39

Table 4.119: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V22 4-D Member of AFP

		V22 4-D Member of AFP		Total
		0 Not member of AFP	1 Member of AFP	
INCOMGRP	1.00			
Foundation income by groups	Small income	11	2	13
	2.00			
	Medium income	8	5	13
	3.00			
	Large income	8	5	13
Total N		27	12	39

Table 4.120: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V23 4-E Member of "Other" organization

V23 4-E Member of "Other" organization		0 Not member of "other"	1 Member of "other"	Total
INCOMGRP	1.00	9	4	13
Foundation income by groups	Small income			
	2.00	10	3	13
	Medium income			
	3.00	9	4	13
	Large income			
Total N		28	11	39

According to these statistics, 79 percent of the foundations' administrators belong to some professional fundraising organization. Of these, the majority (71 percent), equally distributed among the different foundation income groups, belong to the Council for Resource Development (CRD).

Question #5: Has your institution participated in the Survey of Voluntary

Support from the Council for Aid to Education? Why or why not?

Table 4.121: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V24 5-A Participant in Survey of Voluntary Support

V24 5-A Participant in Survey of Voluntary Support		1 Yes	2 No	Total
INCOMGRP	1.00			
Foundation income by groups	Small income	1	12	13
	2.00			
	Medium income	1	12	13
	3.00			
	Large income	3	10	13
Total N		5	34	39

Only 13 percent of the community college foundation administrators had participated in the *Survey of Voluntary Support* developed by the Council for Aid to Education. Since this is the only survey known to the researcher on philanthropic giving, and which is utilized by most universities (Ray & Garrison, 2003), this proved to be an interesting statistic. Some of the comments made by administrators when asked why they did or did not participate in the survey were: “Did not know about it(responds 4X)”; “Wanted to be included in a national survey”; “Not asked”; “Unaware”; “Time constraints (response 3X)”; “Not familiar with the publication”; “Did not receive”; “Had no information to do so”; “Too much time [to complete the survey], too few people”; “Requested by college president”; “When I started in this position, the foundation had already committed to doing the Survey. It turned out to be a good learning experience for me”; “You aske.”; “No reason”; “Never saw the survey”; “Have not received it”; “Professional courtesy”; “XXX College does not participate in CASE. The perception that CASE is more closely aligned to four-year institutions prevails.”

The majority of the responses were that the foundation administrators were unaware of the survey or that it was too lengthy. The quote about CASE being aligned more with four-year institutions could explain the knowledge of the survey by Ray and Garrison (2003) but not by the majority of the community college administrators.

Question 6: Do you track donors electronically? If so, what software do you use?

Table 4.122: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V25 6-A Track donors electronically

		V25 6-A Track donors electronically		Total
		(1) Yes	(2) No	
INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	1.00 Small income	9	4	13
	2.00 Medium income	11	2	13
	3.00 Large income	10	3	13
	Total N	30	9	39

Seventy-six percent of the foundation administrators stated that they tracked donors electronically. Some of the common programs used by the administrators were as follows: 1) Paradigm; 2) JSI; 3) Donor Perfect; 4) Raiser's Edge; 5) In-house systems; 6) Peachtree; 7) POISE; 8) Donor Quest; 9) Excel and Access; 10) Donor 2; and 11) E-Tapestry. Although the different computer programs are distributed relatively evenly throughout the community colleges, Raiser's Edge, followed by Paradigm, is used more consistently among the large income foundations.

Question 14: Have you ever used a fundraising consultant? If so, for what purposes?

Table 4.123: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V93 14-A Use of a fundraising consultant

		V93 14-A Use of a fundraising consultant		Total
		(1) Yes	(2) No	
INCOMGRP	1.00			
Foundation income by	Small income	5	8	13
groups	2.00	9	4	13
	Medium income			
	3.00	6	7	13
	Large income			
Total N		20	19	39

Table 4.124: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V94 14-B Determine Prospects use of consultant

		V94 14-B Determine Prospects; use of consultant		Total
		(0) No	(1) Yes	
INCOMGRP	1.00			
Foundation income by	Small income	11	2	13
groups	2.00	10	3	13
	Medium income			
	3.00	10	3	13
	Large income			
Total N		31	8	39

Table 4.125: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V95 14-C Board Training use of consultant

		V95 14-C Board Training; use of consultant		Total
		(0) No	(1) Yes	
INCOMGRP	1.00			
Foundation income by	Small income	11	2	13
groups	2.00	9	4	13
	Medium income			
	3.00	12	1	13
	Large income			
Total N		32	7	39

Table 4.126: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V96 14-D Fundraising Activities use of consultant

		V96 14-D Fundraising Activities; use of consultant		Total
		(0) No	(1) Yes	
INCOMGRP	1.00			
Foundation income by	Small income	12	1	13
groups	2.00	9	4	13
	Medium income			
	3.00	11	2	13
	Large income			
Total N		32	7	39

Table 4.127: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V97 14-E Feasibility Studies use of consultant

		V97 14-E Feasibility Studies; use of consultant		
		(0) No	(1) Yes	Total
INCOMGRP	1.00			
Foundation income by groups	Small income	8	5	13
	2.00			
	Medium income	7	6	13
	3.00			
	Large income	8	5	13
Total N		23	16	39

Fifty-one percent of the community college foundations have used consultants for various purposes. Eighty percent of those, however, utilized consultants only for feasibility studies to improve foundation growth. Community colleges could enhance their fundraising endeavors by wisely choosing consultants that could train their boards, and increase their productivities.

Question 16: What partnerships have you formed to aid with development at your college?

Table 4.128: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V105 16-A Corporate/Industry partnerships

		0 No partnership	1 Partnership	Total
V105 16-A Corporate/Industry partnerships				
INCOMGRP	1.00			
Foundation income by groups	Small income	4	9	13
	2.00			
	Medium income	2	11	13
	3.00			
	Large income	1	12	13
Total N		7	32	39

Table 4.129: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V106 16-B Four Year Universities/Colleges partnerships

		V106 16-B Four Year Universities/Colleges partnerships		Total
		0 No partnership	1 Partnership	
INCOMGRP	1.00			
Foundation income by groups	Small income	8	5	13
	2.00			
	Medium income	5	8	13
	3.00			
	Large income	5	8	13
Total N		18	21	39

Table 4.130: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V107 16-C School Districts partnerships

		V107 16-C School Districts partnerships		Total
		0 No partnership	1 Partnership	
INCOMGRP	1.00			
Foundation income by groups	Small income	9	4	13
	2.00			
	Medium income	7	6	13
	3.00			
	Large income	5	8	13
Total N		21	18	39

Table 4.131: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V108 16-D Other Tax Entities partnerships

		V108 16-D Other Tax Entities partnerships		Total
		0 No partnership	1 Partnership	
INCOMGRP	1.00			
Foundation income by	Small income	12	1	13
groups	2.00			
	Medium income	8	5	13
	3.00			
	Large income	10	3	13
Total N		30	9	39

Table 4.132: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V109 16-E "Other" partnerships

		V109 16-E "Other" partnerships		Total
		0 No partnership	1 Partnership	
INCOMGRP	1.00			
Foundation income by	Small income	13	0	13
groups	2.00			
	Medium income	9	4	13
	3.00			
	Large income	8	5	13
Total N		30	9	39

Many partnerships have been formed at the community colleges surveyed to aid with development. Corporate partnerships alone account for 51 percent of those partnerships. Other significant partnerships created to increase funding have been with four-year institutions and independent school districts (ISD).

5. What are the “best practices” for fundraising utilized by Texas community colleges?

Correlating survey questions are Question 18 and Question 20.

Question 18: Indicate on a scale of 1-5 the percentage of the money raised through your development office/foundation that supports the following activities. (1 representing zero percent, 3 representing 50 percent, 5 representing 100 percent.)

Table 4.133: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V120 18-A Scholarships supported by percent of raised monies

		V120 18-A Scholarships supported by percent of raised monies					Total
		1 Zero percent	2 25 percent	3 50 percent	4 75 percent	5 100 percent	
INCOMGRP	1.00						
Foundation	Small income	0	0	3	5	5	13
income by	2.00 Medium	0	2	0	8	3	13
groups	income						
	3.00						
	Large	1	1	1	8	2	13
	income						
Total N		1	3	4	21	10	39

**Table 4.134: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V121 18-B
Faculty/Staff Development supported by percent of raised monies**

		V121 18-B Faculty/Staff Development supported by percent of raised monies					Total
		1 Zero percent	2 25 percent	3 50 percent	4 75 percent	5 100 percent	
INCOMGRP	1.00	8	2	2	1	0	13
Foundation	Small income						
income by	2.00 Medium	7	5	1	0	0	13
groups	income						
	3.00	5	7	0	0	1	13
	Large income						
Total N		20	14	3	1	1	39

**Table 4.135: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V122 18-C Equipment
supported by percent of raised monies**

		V122 18-C Equipment supported by percent of raised monies					Total
		1 Zero percent	2 25 percent	3 50 percent	4 75 percent	5 100 percent	
INCOMGRP	1.00	7	3	2	1	0	13
Foundation	Small income						
income by	2.00 Medium	5	6	0	2	0	13
groups	income						
	3.00	5	7	0	0	1	13
	Large income						
Total N		17	16	2	3	1	39

Table 4.136: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V123 18-D Research supported by percent of raised monies

		V123 18-D Research supported by percent of raised monies		
		1 Zero Percent	2 25 Percent	Total
INCOMGRP	1.00			
Foundation income by	Small income	12	1	13
groups	2.00	13	0	13
	Medium income			
	3.00	11	2	13
	Large income			
Total N		36	3	39

Table 4.137: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V124 18-E Library supported by percent of raised monies

		V124 18-E Library supported by percent of raised monies			
		1 Zero Percent	2 25 Percent	3 50 Percent	Total
INCOMGRP	1.00				
Foundation income	Small income	9	3	1	13
by groups	2.00	10	3	0	13
	Medium income				
	3.00	6	7	0	13
	Large income				
Total N		25	13	1	39

Table 4.138: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V125 18-F Student Assistance Programs supported with percent of raised monies

		V125 18-F Student Assistance Programs supported with percent of raised monies				Total
		1 Zero Percent	2 25 Percent	3 50 Percent	4 75 Percent	
INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	1.00 Small income	7	2	2	2	13
	2.00 Medium income	6	3	3	1	13
	3.00 Large income	6	4	2	1	13
	Total N	19	9	7	4	39

Table 4.139: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V126 18-G Athletics supported by percent of raised monies

		V126 18-G Athletics supported by percent of raised monies				Total
		1 Zero Percent	2 25 Percent	3 50 Percent	4 75 Percent	
INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	1.00 Small income	7	4	1	1	13
	2.00 Medium income	11	1	1	0	13
	3.00 Large income	7	5	1	0	13
	Total N	25	10	3	1	39

Table 4.140: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V127 18-H
Endowments supported by percent of raised monies

V127 18-H Endowments supported by percent of raised monies		1	2	3	4	5	Total
		Zero Percent	25 Percent	50 Percent	75 Percent	100 Percent	
INCOMGRP	1.00						
Foundation	Small	2	2	3	4	2	13
income by	income						
groups	2.00 Medium	2	3	0	5	3	13
	income						
	3.00	2	0	2	6	3	13
	Large income						
Total N		6	5	5	15	8	39

Table 4.141: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V128 18-I New
Buildings support by percent of raised monies

		V128 18-I New Buildings support by percent of raised monies					Total
		1 Zero Percent	2 25 Percent	3 50 Percent	4 75 Percent	5 100 Percent	
INCOMGRP	1.00						
Foundation	Small	9	1	2	1	0	13
income by	income						
groups	2.00 Medium	8	2	1	1	1	13
	income						
	3.00	6	4	1	1	1	13
	Large income						
Total N		23	7	4	3	2	39

Table 4.142: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V129 18-J Property Maintenance supported by percent of monies raised

		V129 18-J Property Maintenance supported by percent of monies raised			Total
		1 Zero Percent	2 25 Percent	3 50 Percent	
INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	1.00 Small income	13	0	0	13
	2.00 Medium income	11	0	2	13
	3.00 Large income	10	3	0	13
	Total N	34	3	2	39

Table 4.143: INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups * V130 18-K Matching Gifts supported by percent of raised monies

		V130 18-K Matching Gifts supported by percent of raised monies				Total
		1 Zero Percent	2 25 Percent	3 50 Percent	5 100 Percent	
INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	1.00 Small income	6	3	3	1	13
	2.00 Medium income	5	5	3	0	13
	3.00 Large income	4	7	1	1	13
	Total N	15	15	7	2	39

From the statistical information collected in Table 4.142 below, with number “1” representing zero percent of the foundation funding invested and number “5” representing 100 percent investment, it can be proposed that community college

foundations use their raised monies predominately for scholarships and endowments. While these are worthy causes, foundations in the near future may be called upon to raise monies for other endeavors, such as those listed in **Table 4.144**.

Table 4.144: MEANS --- Use of raised monies

	Mean
V120 18-A Scholarships supported by percent of raised monies	3.95
V127 18-H Endowments supported by percent of raised monies	3.40
V130 18-K Matching Gifts supported by percent of raised monies	2.03
V125 18-F Student Assistance Programs supported with percent of raised monies	1.92
V128 18-I New Buildings support by percent of raised monies	1.90
V122 18-C Equipment supported by percent of raised monies	1.87
V121 18-B Faculty/Staff Development supported by percent of raised monies	1.67
V126 18-G Athletics supported by percent of raised monies	1.48
V124 18-E Library supported by percent of raised monies	1.38
V129 18-J Property Maintenance supported by percent of monies raised	1.18
V123 18-D Research supported by percent of raised monies	1.08
Valid N	40

Question 20: Briefly describe any “Best Practices” your college does in the area of philanthropic giving.

Best Practices are discussed under Qualitative responses. (see Appendix G for a complete list).

QUALITATIVE RESPONSES

Best Practices presented by the community colleges focused on the concepts of donor recognition and “friendship” building. Several of the colleges stated that it was important for the donors to be a part of the “buy-in” and to know where their money was going.

Other practices avowed to develop quality foundations were: involving faculty and staff in fundraising; writing grants for additional funding, creating valuable partnerships within the community, “connecting” with the community, developing strong scholarship programs, “friend-ship” building events, involving the foundation boards and trustees, and a willing president who can “tell the [college’s] story.”

CONCLUSION

The objective of this component of the research was to use quantitative statistics found in the *Texas Community College Survey of Philanthropic Giving* to deductively answer the hypothesis, “If community college administrators better understood the reasons donors give to community colleges, then they could increase their foundations’ funds by meeting those reasons or needs.” In so doing the following questions were formulated and answered.

1. Do community college administrators' and departmental issues influence philanthropic giving?

Small staff and limited volunteers can influence the productivity of the community college foundations strongly. While the majority of the foundation administrators report directly to the president, creating a close and working relationship, if the president is NOT a fundraiser then the efforts of the foundations will be hampered.

Foundation administrators wearing multiple hats, especially in foundations with small incomes, can decrease the efforts of the foundation's growth. To counter this problem, foundation administrators have increased their foundation's coffer by investing time in external grant writing and utilizing alumni for fundraising activities.

The turnover rate of foundation administrators is 28 percent. The reason for this turnover, especially at small and medium income foundations, is low pay and "burnout," concluding that as the staff size decreases the turnover rate increases.

2. What are the perceived philanthropic motivations of donors according to community college administrators?

Texas community college administrators perceive the reason for donor giving as threefold: 1) a good college reputation, 2) value to the community (of the donor's contribution), and 3) a strong belief in education (by the donor).

Many foundation administrators rely heavily on their personal experiences of working with foundations to learn about future donors. Other ways to learn about potential donors were word-of-mouth, alumni referrals, community involvement, and board member referrals.

3. What methods do Texas community colleges use for fundraising?

Community college foundation administrators do not feel that their efforts in fundraising are as successful as they would like. However, they do feel productive in their efforts with soliciting corporate support and development of special events.

Most foundations currently have not utilized “Media Blasts” for their fundraising efforts. Successes in annual fund drives, special events, and increased corporate support efforts are being examined to further increase philanthropic giving.

4. What are the fundraising trends in Texas community colleges?

Seventy-nine percent of the Texas foundation administrators belong to some professional organization with 71 percent belonging specifically to the Council for Resource Development (CRD). Few of the colleges have participated in the *Survey of Voluntary Support* (CAE), possibly because of CAE’s close association with four-year, and not two-year, institutions.

Seventy-six percent of the foundations track donors electronically. The colleges use several different computer software programs, with Raiser’s Edge and Paradigm in the lead.

Only slightly more than half of the foundations have used a consultant. When a consultant was used, it was predominately for feasibility studies to improve growth of the foundation and not board training or specific fundraising endeavors.

Community colleges are known for their strong partnerships with corporate entities; therefore, it was not surprising that the colleges’ foundations had developed close ties to the corporations in their service areas. Other strong partnerships created were with four-year institutions and ISDs.

5. What are the “best practices” for fundraising utilized by Texas community colleges?

The “best of the best” fundraising practices in Texas community colleges, emphasized by foundations of all sizes of income, centered on donor recognition and “friend-ship” building.

In conclusion, the survey addressed the researcher’s questions and validated the hypothesis of the research. Chapter Six will proceed to utilize the statistical information gathered in this chapter and compare it to the qualitative research in Chapter Five to find answers to the research questions posed in this dissertation.

CHAPTER FIVE: Interactive Qualitative Analysis

OVERVIEW

The research for the Interactive Qualitative Analysis (IQA) component of this dissertation occurred over a year's time. A traditional IQA focus group of ten community college administrators, none working directly with the foundation or fundraising aspect of their home college, was conducted. Another focus group of four alumni and six corporate executives took place via e-mail and facsimile. Four interviews were completed - a community college alumna, a corporate executive community college donor, a community college foundation director, and a community college trustee.

The IQA process was utilized for the focus groups and interviews. Informational *System Influence Diagrams (SID)* were developed and conclusions were drawn as to the meanings of the diagrams. The conclusions were then compared with the statistical deductions from the survey in Chapter Four. The analysis between the two methodological processes used in this study, quantitative and qualitative, is discussed in Chapter Six.

PROBLEM STATEMENT

In these economic times, community colleges should ascertain what motivates donors to give philanthropically to community colleges. Foundation directors, trustees, and administrators must understand these motives and determine how community college leaders can best assess them. The problem of not reaching potential philanthropic donors is a growing one that must be met to further the causes of community colleges today.

While the topic of philanthropic giving to community colleges had not been well researched or documented before the last decade, the economic downturn has made it

necessary to look closer into increasing community college foundations' coffers. Foundations can respond to meet alumni and corporate needs by ascertaining why donors do or do not give at the community college level. Through increased donations scholarships can be provided for students, capital campaigns for building needs of aging facilities can be mounted, professional development for training staff and faculty to become more student-centered can be enhanced, and constantly changing technological demands can be met.

This study attempts to illustrate the motivational-benefit dynamic of donors and its potential impact on community college foundations, specifically, by analyzing the relationships of affinities identified through the focus groups and interviews. Then, in Chapter Six, comparisons of the interactive qualitative analysis to the statistics from the quantitative research found in this study are made. Using this process, new light can be shed on philanthropic giving to community colleges.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Of the four research questions for this study, all but the first was addressed through the qualitative research.

Research Question 2. What do community college administrators in the state of Texas perceive are the reasons for donor giving, as determined by quantitative survey statistics and qualitative mindmaps?

Research Question 3. What is the reality of why donors, both alumni and corporate in the state of Texas, give to community colleges, as determined by qualitative mindmaps?

Research Question 4. Do similarities and/or differences exist between the perceptions and realities of these groups as determined by quantitative statistics and IQA mindmapping?

IQA CONSTITUENCIES

According to Northcutt and McCoy (2002), “A focus group is a group of people who share some common experience, work or live with some common structure, or have a similar background” (p. 5). The first part of the qualitative research was the formation of a focus group of community college administrators who were students in the Community College Leadership Program (CCLP), Higher Education Administration, at the University of Texas at Austin. The group consisted of ten participants, none with foundation or fundraising responsibilities at their home colleges, for a three-hour session held at The University of Texas, George I. Sanchez Building, Austin, Texas.

The second part of the IQA research was done using technology. A focus group was conducted by e-mail and facsimile. A group of ten, four community college alumni and six corporate executives from Austin, Texas, participated. Additionally, one alumna, one corporate executive donor, one foundation director, and one trustee of a community college were later interviewed to add richness to the study.

DATA COLLECTION AND AFFINITY IDENTIFICATION

Focus Group One

Silent Nominal Process

Utilizing the IQA process for conducting a focus group, the community college administrators were gathered for one three-hour evening session. The participants were

to determine the research affinities with the following directive, *“Tell me about your thoughts on philanthropic giving to community colleges. Reflect on all the thoughts that came to you. Write these thoughts down on the cards. Write one thought or one experience per card, using words, phrases, sentences, or pictures. Tell me about your thoughts.”*

Index cards and magic markers were placed on the table. The focus group was informed of the nature of the research, the interest in their perceptions, and that this process would identify a rich detail of common themes. With assurance that they would be allowed to brainstorm without the censorship of ideas presented, the group was asked to think of words, phrases, mental pictures, or memories of their thoughts on philanthropic giving and its impact on community colleges.

The focus group was then instructed to take a stack of blank index cards and a marker, and to write in silence their thoughts on the cards: one experience per card, no right or wrong answers, using words, phrases, sentences, or pictures. Participants were assured that whatever they wrote on the cards would stay confidential because all cards would be clustered together on the wall. There was no limit on how many cards they could complete. Once the writing stopped, a participant was asked to collect the cards, mix them up, and randomly tape them to the wall.

Focus group members were asked to silently review the cards. The researcher/facilitator then conducted a clarification exercise, reading each card aloud. The group was asked if each card made sense. If a card was unclear or ambiguous, the author, or any member of the focus group, was asked if s/he wanted to explain what was intended.

Axial Coding

Upon completion of the clarification exercise, the group was asked to, silently and individually, begin to move the cards into columns with a similar theme until the group felt that each card was in a logical placement. During this process, the participants were free to move a previously placed card to a different column. If a card's meaning and placement seemed ambiguous to any of the members, they were assured that it would be clarified in the next step. After completion of this step, the group was given an opportunity to write out any new cards that came to mind after seeing all the cards in the columns. There were several new cards produced and taped in the appropriate columns. The group then proceeded to the affinity naming.

The facilitator began with the column that seemed to be the easiest in terms of identifying a theme and asked the group to give it a name. A color-coded card reflecting the name was placed above the column. This process was repeated until all columns of cards had been named.

The group members were then directed to review the categories of cards to see if they could identify the dialectic of a higher theme. For example, while cards identifying *Effective Foundations* and *Ineffective Foundations* may have been placed initially in separate columns, it becomes evident that they share the common theme of *Foundations*. In this example, the original columns of *Effective Foundations* and *Ineffective Foundations* became sub-affinities of the new affinity, *Foundations*.

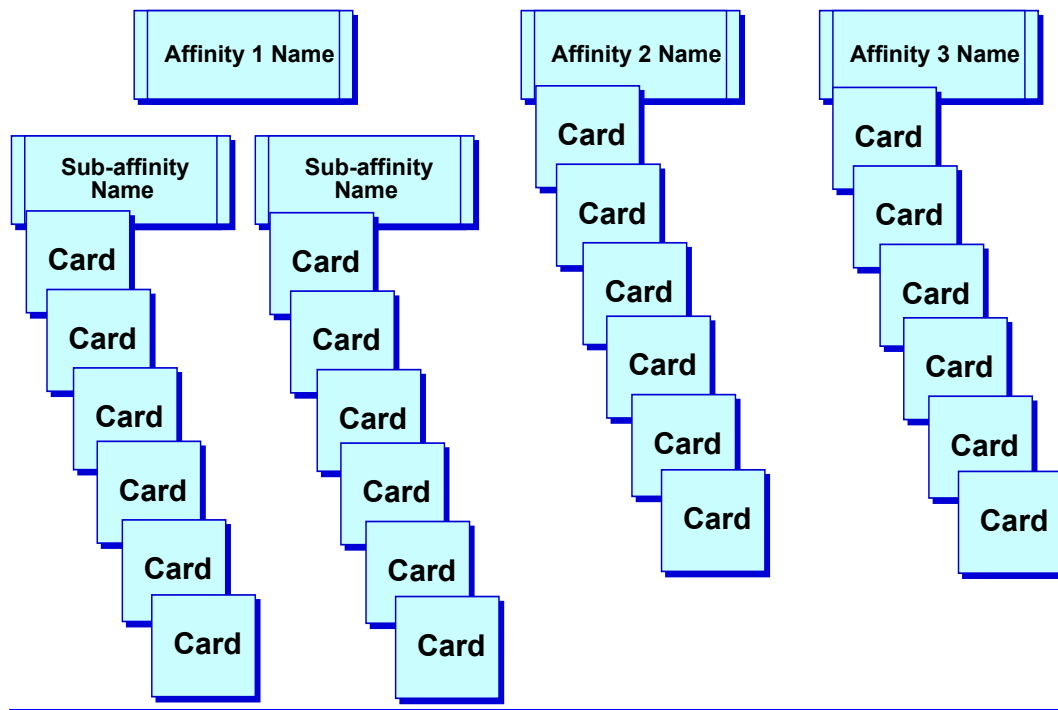


Illustration 5.1: Affinity Naming

Finally, each card was reexamined to ensure appropriate placement. In addition, if categories seemed to be too broad or contained a disproportionately large amount of cards, the group was instructed to see if sub-categories were necessary. If so, each column was then rearranged to include the new sub-categories and each sub-category was given its own name. With the cards categorized and affinities named, the affinity production exercise was complete. Focus group affinities were then written to provide an overview of the cards that were generated (see **Appendix L**). The affinities became a primary tool of this study, serving as the nucleus for the development of the administrators' focus group mindmap.

Focus Group Two

The second focus group was conducted primarily through e-mail. This procedure was determined by the researcher as the most effective, due to the severe time constraints on corporate executives and the easy access of the participants to the Internet through their places of employment or educational institutions. The focus group of donors, four alumni and six corporate executives, was sent an invitational letter by e-mail (see **Appendix N**), using mail merge to protect the anonymity of the participants. Once the group members were determined, each participant was given an identification number and sent a consent form (see **Appendix J**) and **Part 1** (see **Appendix O**), via e-mail requesting them to sign then fax the form back to the researcher.

Silent Nominal Process

When all of the consent forms were returned, **Part 2** (see **Appendix P**) of the focus group protocol was sent, again via e-mail. Part 2 asked the participants to use the **guided imagery** process (see **Appendix K**) and create a list of descriptive terms that came to mind when they thought about philanthropic giving to community colleges.

Axial Coding

Upon return of the words and phrases developed by the participants, the researcher compiled them into one list. The participants were then e-mailed the list as seen in the e-mail letter **Part 3** (see **Appendix Q**). Much like the face-to-face focus group, the e-mail focus group in Part 3 was asked to identify any terms that were not

clear to them, or they wished to clarify; then they were given the opportunity of adding any new thoughts that they may have had after reading the entire list.

Part 4 (see **Appendix Q**) requested that the participants group the words or phrases in the list that they had created according to similar identities. All being over-achievers, participants not only grouped the lists, but gave each grouping a name (affinity). Therefore, the participants combined Part 4 and **Part 5** without direction. The researcher assumed from this action that the procedure was a natural one and that the process was orderly.

Since the group had satisfied Part 5 of the focus group protocol, the researcher next directed the participants to complete **Part 6** (see **Appendix R**). Part 6 requested that the group members look over the combined groupings and headings (affinities) from the compiled list. The participants were asked to move any word or phrase from one group to another, combine groups (which they did and reduced the affinities from nine to eight), and question any affinity names that were not clear or required clarification. The group members were to highlight, place in parenthesis, or use a different color of ink to mark their changes.

The last part, **Part 7** (see **Appendix S**), of this focus group's protocol requested that the participants complete an individual **Detailed Affinity Relationship Table (DART)**. This is not an acronym used in the IQA system, but a liberty the researcher took for expediency. Only about half of the group members wrote any examples of the relationships on the DART; however, the responses that were given were used to add to the richness of the affinity descriptions. **Illustration 5.2** shows the format for the participants' responses.

Illustration 5.2: Detailed Affinity Relationship Table for Focus Group 2

Affinity Name	Possible Relationships
1. Allegiance to Community College 2. Benefits to Community College 3. Benefits/Improvement of Education 4. Benefits/Return to Company/Alumni 5. Involvement of Company Employees 6. Partnerships 7. Reputation of College 8. Rewards/Benefits to the Community	$A \rightarrow B$ (A influences B) $A \leftarrow B$ (B influences A) $A \diamond B$ (No Relationship) (You can copy and paste the relationship signs above to the chart below.)

Example: $1 \rightarrow 2$: If I have a strong allegiance to the community college, then it will benefit the community college.

$1 \leftarrow 2$: If there are benefits to giving to the community college, then it will cause a strong allegiance.

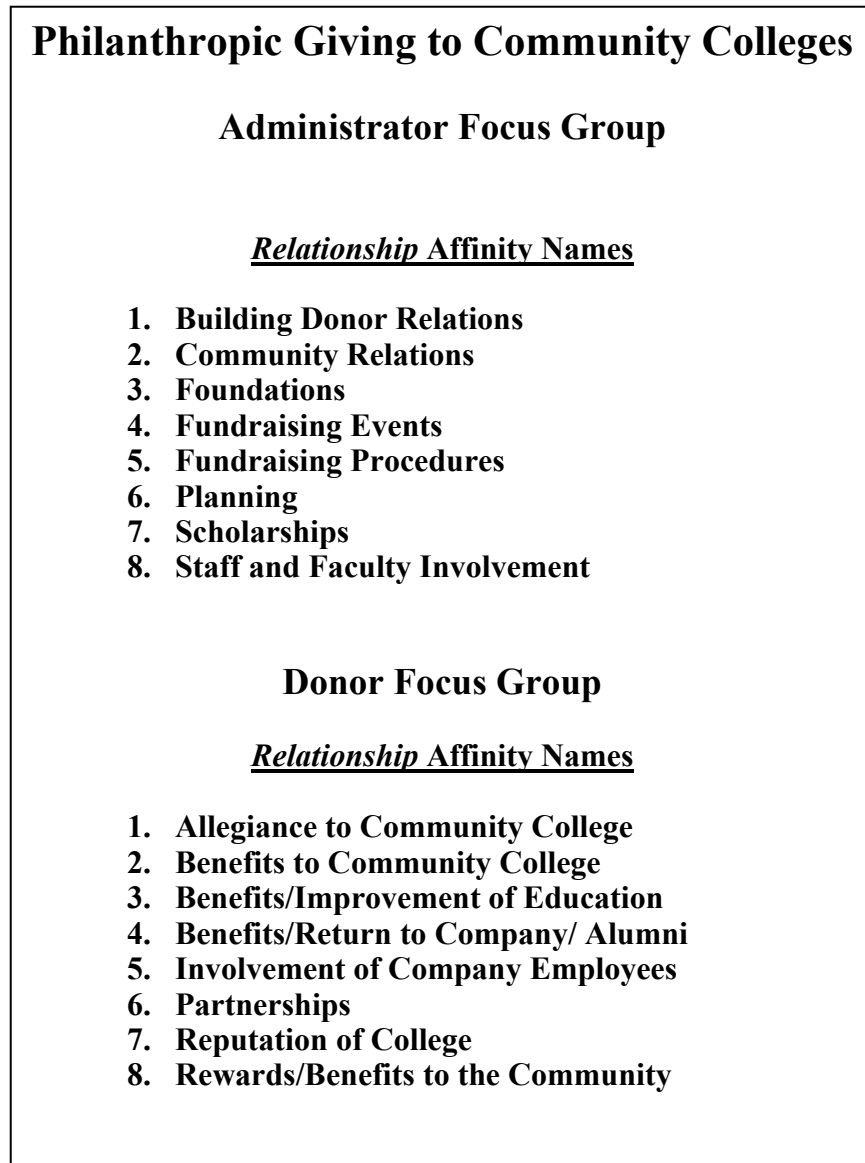
$1 \diamond 2$: I see no relationship between these two affinities.

Focus Group Affinity Relationship Table		
Affinity Pair Relationship		Example of the relationship either in natural language or in the form of an IF/THEN statement of relationship
1	2	
1	3	
1	4	
1	5	
1	6	
1	7	
1	8	
2	3	
2	4	
2	5	

2	6	
2	7	
2	8	
3	4	
3	5	
3	6	
3	7	
3	8	
4	5	
4	6	
4	7	
4	8	
5	6	
5	7	
5	8	
6	7	
6	8	
7	8	

The focus groups' affinity production exercises resulted in the identification of eight affinities from each group, as shown alphabetically in **Illustrations 5.3**:

Illustration 5.3: Focus Groups' Affinities



Of the two groups of affinity names, those created by the donor group (Focus Group 2) were the ones used for axial and theoretical interviews. Subsequent details, including interview excerpts and all tables and mindmaps (SIDs) generated in this

research, are based upon the resulting affinities of the two focus groups and their descriptions.

AFFINITY WRITE UP

After the list of affinities was assimilated, due to time constraints on the parts of the participants, the researcher/facilitator created the Affinity Write Ups used throughout the rest of this qualitative research. The responses from the DART created by Focus Group Two were employed to contribute a rich context to its' focus group affinities.

Finding: Composite Affinity Descriptions --- Administrator Focus Group

Focus Group One was used to determine and benchmark the thoughts of community college administrators, who were not part of their college's foundation or fundraising departments, on philanthropic giving. The researcher did not have access to a *Detailed Affinity Relationship Table* from this group to develop a richer affinity write up; therefore, only the information obtained from the focus group affinity production exercise was utilized. The *primary relationship* affinity descriptions developed from Focus Group One --- Administrators, are as follows (see also **Appendix L**):

FOCUS GROUP ONE AFFINITY WRITE UP--- Philanthropic Giving to Community Colleges

Community College Administrators

1. Building Donor Relations

This dichotomic affinity encompasses the characteristics for building relationships between community college administrators and the college's donors. Both the opposing perspectives of the group members that donors believe that "community colleges get

more than [they] need from [local] taxes and state [funding];” and that community college’s “need to ask for money” are displayed. The administrators expressed concern that donors are not approached properly; “...need to communicate the innovative things happening at the college, so people will want to give;” and that the donors were not properly appreciated, “thank donors;” and are not included in “what their money will accomplish.” These views lead one to believe that, according to community college administrators, donors are not considered to be major role players in philanthropic giving, but only the source of funding.

Community college administrators seem to understand the reasons to “court” donors and some of the ways to build those relationships far better than they understand the actual “causes” for donor giving. The administrators’ concerns seem to focus on their needs and not those of the donors.

2. Community Relations

This affinity describes the administrators’ perspective on ways to create better community relations. The impetus appears to be that if the community college and its foundation representatives reach out to more businesses in the community and make their needs known, then the community will respond to those needs. The only point made by the group members that shows the college’s responsibility to the community in return is “that the college will have to be responsive to community needs.”

3. Foundations

This affinity, a dialectic consisting of the two extremes of *effective* and *ineffective* foundations in community colleges, describes the administrators’ experiences with

college foundations. Community college administrators either have known the positive outcomes of an effective foundation or experienced the negative outcomes of a slack foundation or no foundation at all.

4. Fundraising Events

Most community college administrators were aware of fundraising activities through either life experiences or events at their own colleges. This affinity described events and ideas that were typical of those found in the literature, such as, “capital campaign(s),” “yearly theme auctions,” and “fundraising dinners/galas.” Two important issues that were identified by the administrators, however, concerning donors and potential donors (alumni) are: “How does the college give back to the community?” and, “How to involve students in the process [of philanthropic giving]?”

5. Fundraising Procedures

Common fundraising procedures in community colleges were identified by this affinity. The administrators strongly believe that the foundation and foundation staff should be the responsible parties for fundraising. They clearly state that, “I don’t want to have to do it [fundraising]”; and, if they are required to raise funds, they want to make sure that the foundation and its staff have all of the information they need, all of the policies and procedures in place, and all of the goals set, before they will participate in the fundraising process. “Accountability” to donors is significant in that administrators do not want to fundraise without being able to answer important questions from the donors, such as, “Why do you [community colleges] need extra money?”; and, “Where and how did you [community colleges] spend [the donors] money?” Administrators feel

that the foundation boards and directors must have answers to these questions and convey them to others before effective fundraising can occur.

6. Planning

Analogous to policies and procedures, community college administrators expressed that the affinity of planning is imperative to fundraising. They emphasized that fundraising should be “tied to the [college] mission,” and that “relationship planning” with donors is necessary. Planning for fundraising by the colleges and their foundations was determined to be the framework for philanthropic giving. Administrators believe that community colleges should create sound goals and plans for soliciting donors and those plans should be delivered thoroughly and efficiently to reach all potential donors.

7. Scholarships

The community college administrators determined the affinity of “scholarships” as the primary reason for developing donor relationships. Scholarships are made available through philanthropic giving that will further the mission of the college by providing for the success of students primarily, and faculty secondarily.

8. Staff and Faculty Involvement

The last affinity designated by the community college administrators was staff and faculty involvement. It seems that faculty and staff involvement is a keystone in the minds of the administrators to successful philanthropic giving. The administrators stressed “...train[ing] faculty to promote their programs...,” “...involve[ing] faculty in the process,” and “...asking the faculty and staff for donations” as important ways to further the foundations and philanthropic giving to the colleges. The metaphor that

“charity begins at home” seems to describe best the feelings of the administrators concerning faculty and staff involvement.

Detailed Affinity Relationship Table

As with the Administrators’ Focus Group, once the group axial coding from Focus Group 2 - Donors was complete, the researcher examined all quotes contributed on the *Detailed Affinity Relationship Table* by affinity and organized them into sub-themes with each sub-theme reflecting a common theme describing that affinity. Numerous pertinent individual quotes were intertwined into the composite affinity descriptions (see **Appendix M**).

Finding: Composite Affinity Descriptions --- Donor Focus Group

The resulting *primary relationship* affinity descriptions for Focus Group 2 - Donors are as follows:

Focus Group Two Affinity Write Up--- Philanthropic Giving to Community Colleges

Community College Donors

1. Allegiance to Community College

Allegiance to the community college was the affinity that best described the relationship between the college and its alumni. This dichotomic affinity encompasses both the relationships of alumni and corporate donors; however, each group experienced this allegiance from a different perspective.

Alumni donors experienced a sense of “ownership” of the college. If they had positive experiences through learning, mentoring, and extra-curricular activities, they

expressed an “ownership” or “connection” with the college. These donors felt a high “alliance” or “affiliation” with the college.

In contrast, corporate donors at some point felt a negative allegiance to community colleges. This was expressed by statements such as “[The] money either I or my company contributes may go to something or some program I [we] might disagree with, therefore, we would not contribute under these circumstances.”

Both groups of potential donors felt that if the college, and what it represents, was high on their priority list for giving then they would contribute to it, otherwise, other causes that had a more significant value to them would receive their money.

2. Benefits to Community College

Potential donors, particularly corporate donors, desire for community colleges to appreciate the benefits of their donations. Corporate donors want community colleges to recognize the “other” significant donations they can provide, besides monetary donations for scholarships and endowments. Corporations have much to offer community colleges through in-kind donations that can greatly benefit the colleges’ programs. The companies can provide much needed equipment and software that their industry produces at a discount to the college or as a direct gift. Internships for both faculty and specially designated students to assist with cutting-edge technology can be provided as in-kind gifts to supply a quality faculty, as well as, well-trained students. In addition, companies can provide significant input through time donations as consultants for courses or training programs that need their guidance for workforce initiatives in their respective industries.

3. Benefits/Improvement of Education

Donors verbalized strong feelings about the benefits and improvements that should be made to education through their giving. This affinity described concerns about donor monies reaching underserved groups, as well as, making sure that a diverse community can obtain an education. Donors want to make sure that their money is spent on education that proves itself of value. Potential donors also want to know what actual educational benefits are funded with their gifts. Encouraging more students to achieve a higher education and funding facilities were of highlighted by the donors.

4. Benefits/Return to Company/Alumni

This affinity defines the benefits or returns expected by the donors. Companies anticipate that their employees will see their contributions as “giving back” to the community. Donors also see their gifts as a return to the community college in exchange for the benefits the company or the alumni receive from their donations, such as, increased business, a good education, free advertisement around the campuses, and mobilization of materials from in-kind donations. Donors specifically wanted to be recognized for their gifts. More importantly, donors stressed that there must be as much reward returned to them - through recognition, returned business, or in having a say in how the money is spent - as there is to the college from their contributions. The donors wanted more than a “hand shake” and “thank you” note for their contributions.

5. Involvement of Company Employees

Company donors particularly found this affinity to be of extreme importance. Company giving is directly tied to the return they receive from employees. Many of their employees are community college students or have been students. When companies look for new hires, they look closely at community college students because they require no

relocation fees, are more flexible in their work schedules, and have reasonable salary expectations. Company donors stressed the strong need for an educated workforce and, if provided this by their local community college, they were more likely to become donors of the college.

6. Partnerships

Both companies and alumni looked at the affinity “partnerships” as significant. Alumni desire a partnership with the community college that will develop and maintain a close relationship. Alumni want to be “in the know” about what is happening at “their” college, while companies stress the “win-win” aspect of partnerships. Companies want to have more “say” in the initiatives that are being undertaken with their donations, while alumni are content with contributions to scholarships and endowments. Regardless, of whether the donation is from an alumni or corporation it was important that both partners must mutually appreciate (benefit from) the donation.

7. Reputation of College

This affinity, a dialectic consisting of the two extremes of community colleges with **good** and **bad** reputations, describes the alumni and corporate donors’ experiences with both. It was of major importance to the donors that they be affiliated with a community college that maintained a good reputation in the community, while they would NOT be linked to a community college with a bad reputation. Both groups of donors wanted to be assured of the quality of education that students were receiving from the college before they would invest their monies.

- **Good College Reputation**

Colleges with good reputations were said to have integrity within the community, they were known for their successful and well-trained students, their tuitions were not too high for the general student population, and the college role was clear to the community.

- **Bad College Reputation**

Donors strongly emphasized that they would NOT give to a community college with a bad reputation. Both corporate donors and alumni stated that they would not want to be aligned with a college that had a bad reputation in the community. If students were over-charged by the college, not trained well in workforce needs, the image of the college was not clear or was poor in the community, or the college was known for degrading a particular industry, then donors would not be inclined to give to the college.

Additionally, it is important to the donors that they are given a clear purpose from the college about their donations. Most corporate donors felt that community colleges do a poor job of spelling out their needs for funding.

7. Rewards/Benefits to the Community

Donors tend to look at the big picture and want to know specifically how their donations to the community college ultimately will benefit the community. Both alumni and corporate givers were skeptical about donations to “just any community investment.” Donors wanted to know “up front” where their money was spent and how it would make a difference in the community.

Corporate donors especially desired to see their monies “come back” to them through a better-trained workforce, economic development in the community, and initiating new programs that benefit the community. Both alumni and corporate donors were inclined to give because they wanted their money to stay in their community and for

education to be improved in that same community. The altruistic feelings, that “donating is a good thing to do” and that “rewards come back to the community” from their donations, ranked high among donors.

THEORETICAL CODING

Theoretical coding in the IQA is the process by which **mindmaps** or **systems consisting of concepts and relationships among these concepts** are created (Northcutt & McCoy, 2002, p. 2). To achieve theoretical coding after the affinities were clearly defined by the focus groups, they were asked to analyze the nature of relationships between each of the affinities. The participants were told to analyze all possible pairs of relationships using only three possibilities: either $A \rightarrow B$, or $B \rightarrow A$, or no relationship. The group members were asked to give their responses through different protocols. Focus Group 1 --- Administrators were asked to raise their hand for each relationship where they determined that one affinity influenced the other, while Focus Group 2 – Donors were sent by e-mail a Detailed Affinity Relationship Table (DART) on which to record their responses.

Affinity Relationship Table

The facilitator/researcher recorded the responses for each possible relationship voted on by the focus group members on a **Simple Affinity Relationship Table (ART)** until the table was complete. Following is the Combined Simple Affinity Relationship Table (**Table 5.1**) showing the responses of Focus Group 1- Administrators:

**Table 5.1: Combined Simple Affinity Relationship Table Focus Group 1
Administrators**

Affinity Name 1. Building Donor Relations 2. Community Relations 3. Foundations 4. Fundraising Events 5. Fundraising Procedures 6. Planning 7. Scholarship 8. Staff and Faculty Involvement	Possible Relationships $A \rightarrow B$ $A \leftarrow B$ $A \diamond B$ (No Relationship)
--	--

Combined Affinity Relationship Table Focus Group 1--- Administrator		
Affinity Pair Relationship		Affinity Pair Relationship
1 \leftarrow 2		3 \rightarrow 6
1 \leftarrow 3		3 \rightarrow 7
1 \leftarrow 4		3 \rightarrow 8
1 \leftarrow 5		4 \leftarrow 5
1 \leftarrow 6		4 \leftarrow 6
1 \rightarrow 7		4 \rightarrow 7
1 \leftarrow 8		4 \leftarrow 8
2 \leftarrow 3		5 \leftarrow 6
2 \leftarrow 4		5 \rightarrow 7
2 \leftarrow 5		5 \rightarrow 8

2 ← 6		6 → 7
2 → 7		6 → 8
2 ← 8		7 ← 8
3 → 4		
3 → 5		

Responses from the Focus Group 2 --- Donors were submitted through e-mail to the researcher. Responses were then accumulated, tallied, and documented in a **Combined Simple Affinity Relationship Table (ART)** (see **Table 5.2**).

Table 5.2: Combined Simple Affinity Relationship Table Focus Group 2 --- Donors

Affinity Name	Possible Relationships	
1. Allegiance to Community College 2. Benefits to Community College 3. Benefits/Improvement of Education 4. Benefits/Return to Company/Alumni 5. Involvement of Company Employees 6. Partnerships 7. Reputation of College 8. Rewards/Benefits to the Community	A → B	
	A ← B	
	A ◇ B (No Relationship)	

Combined Affinity Relationship Table Focus Group 2 --- Donors		
Affinity Pair Relationship		Affinity Pair Relationship
1 → 2		3 ← 6
1 → 3		3 ← 7
1 ◇ 4		3 → 8
1 ← 5		4 ◇ 5
1 → 6		4 ← 6
1 ◇ 7		4 ◇ 7
1 → 8		4 ← 8
2 → 3		5 → 6
2 ← 4		5 ← 7
2 ← 5		5 → 8
2 ← 6		6 ← 7
2 ← 7		6 → 8
2 → 8		7 → 8
3 → 4		
3 ← 5		

Theoretical Code Frequency Table

Once the relationships were established individually by Focus Group One - Administrators' members using the democratic protocol (a simple majority vote), the *combined theoretical code ART* was developed to illustrate the perceptions of the relationships between the eight affinities. A *theoretical code frequency table* was fashioned listing both directions for all the possible relationships based upon the final number of affinities identified by the focus group members, plus the frequency (accumulated tally of votes) for each relationship. The number of respondents who identified each relationship in the same direction was then tallied and documented. In addition to recording the direction of the relationship and frequency of those relationships, the *combined theoretical code frequency* table allows the researcher to observe possible *recursions (feedback loops)* recording them with a “?”.

Table 5.3: Combined Theoretical Affinity Relationship Table Focus Group 1 --- Administrators

Combined Theoretical Code Frequency Table Focus Group 1 --- Administrators					
Affinity Pair Relationship	Frequency	Theoretic Coding	Affinity Pair Relationship	Frequency	Theoretic Coding
1 → 2	4		3 → 5	8	
1 ← 2	6		3 ← 5	2	
1 → 3	1		3 → 6	5	?
1 ← 3	9		3 ← 6	5	
1 → 4	1		3 → 7	10	
1 ← 4	9		3 ← 7	0	
1 → 5	1		3 → 8	8	
1 ← 5	9		3 ← 8	1	
1 → 6	0		4 → 5	1	
1 ← 6	10		4 ← 5	9	
1 → 7	10		4 → 6	1	
1 ← 7	0		4 ← 6	9	
1 → 8	4	?	4 → 7	9	
1 ← 8	5		4 ← 7	1	
2 → 3	2		4 → 8	4	?
2 ← 3	8		4 ← 8	6	
2 → 4	3		5 → 6	1	
2 ← 4	7		5 ← 6	9	
2 → 5	2		5 → 7	9	
2 ← 5	8		5 ← 7	1	
2 → 6	0		5 → 8	9	
2 ← 6	10		5 ← 8	1	
2 → 7	8		6 → 7	10	
2 ← 7	1		6 ← 7	0	
2 → 8	0		6 → 8	8	
2 ← 8	9		6 ← 8	1	
3 → 4	4		7 → 8	0	
3 ← 4	1		7 ← 8	10	

Table 5.4: Combined Theoretical Code Frequency Table Focus Group 2 --- Donors

Combined Theoretical Code Frequency Table Donors --- Focus Group 2					
Affinity Pair Relationship	Frequency	Theoretic Coding	Affinity Pair Relationship	Frequency	Theoretic Coding
1 → 2	8		3 → 5	3	
1 ← 2	2		3 ← 5	6	
1 → 3	6		3 → 6	3	
1 ← 3	3		3 ← 6	7	
1 → 4	4	?	3 → 7	5	?
1 ← 4	4		3 ← 7	5	
1 → 5	3		3 → 8	8	
1 ← 5	5		3 ← 8	2	
1 → 6	7		4 → 5	4	?
1 ← 6	3		4 ← 5	5	
1 → 7	5	?	4 → 6	3	
1 ← 7	4		4 ← 6	5	
1 → 8	6		4 → 7	4	?
1 ← 8	3		4 ← 7	5	
2 → 3	7		4 → 8	1	?
2 ← 3	3		4 ← 8	3	
2 → 4	1		5 → 6	6	
2 ← 4	6		5 ← 6	2	
2 → 5	2		5 → 7	4	?
2 ← 5	8		5 ← 7	5	
2 → 6	1		5 → 8	6	
2 ← 6	9		5 ← 8	2	
2 → 7	3	?	6 → 7	4	
2 ← 7	4		6 ← 7	6	
2 → 8	6		6 → 8	8	
2 ← 8	2		6 ← 8	1	
3 → 4	7		7 → 8	8	
3 ← 4	2		7 ← 8	2	

SUMMARIZING AND TABULATING THE THEORETICAL CODING

Another and more precise way of creating a group composite is in using the *Pareto Protocol* for theoretical coding. The Pareto Principle, named after the 19th century economist Wilfredo Pareto, states that something like 20 percent of the variables in a system will account for 80 percent of the total variation in outcomes (Northcutt, 2001). To apply the Pareto Protocol to this research, theoretical code relationships were tabulated by sorting them in descending order of frequency. *Cumulative frequencies* were calculated both as a percent of total relationships (56 relationships in both focus groups) and as a percent of the total number of nominations (275 for the Administrator's focus group and 247 nominations for the Donor's group). *Power* was computed as the difference between these two percents.

Due to the theoretical code tabulations, assessments were made utilizing the cumulative frequency, cumulative percent frequency, and cumulative percent relationship numbers. A data cut-off point was then reached according to the Pareto Principle. The power of the resulting data was illustrated by observing the point where the data curve started to flatten out, thus weakening. Data with an 80-plus percent frequency and a 30-plus power rating is deemed reliable and valid. These composites account for maximum variation in the system while minimizing the number of relationships (Northcutt & McCoy, 2002, p. 14).

The researcher chose 80.0 percent cumulative frequency and 35.4 Power as the cut off points for Focus Group 1 - Administrators. For Focus Group 2 – Donors, a 68.4 percent cumulative frequency and 20.2 Power was utilized. It is important to note that

the cut-off for the Donor Focus Group of the data was at 68.4 percent and 20.2 Power because: 1) the power rate for the donor's focus group begins to descend significantly at this point, 2) there is a high rate of recursion among the affinities, and 3) the desire of the researcher to remain true to the 80/20 Pareto Principle.

The following tables (see **Tables 5.5 and 5.6**) contain the information necessary for the power analysis using the Pareto Protocol:

Table 5.5: Pareto and Power Analysis Focus Group 1--- Administrators

Affinity Pair Relationship	Frequency Sorted (Descending)	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent (Relation)	Cumulative Percent (Frequency)	Power
1 < 6	10	10	1.8	3.6	1.9
1 > 7	10	20	3.6	7.3	3.7
2 < 6	10	30	5.4	10.9	5.6
3 > 7	10	40	7.1	14.5	7.4
6 > 7	10	50	8.9	18.2	9.3
7 < 8	10	60	10.7	21.8	11.1
1 < 3	9	69	12.5	25.1	12.6
1 < 4	9	78	14.3	28.4	14.1
1 < 5	9	87	16.1	31.6	15.6
2 < 8	9	96	17.9	34.9	17.1
3 > 4	9	105	19.6	38.2	18.5
4 < 5	9	114	21.4	41.5	20.0
4 < 6	9	123	23.2	44.7	21.5
4 > 7	9	132	25.0	48.0	23.0
5 < 6	9	141	26.8	51.3	24.5
5 > 7	9	150	28.6	54.5	26.0
5 > 8	9	159	30.4	57.8	27.5

2 < 3	8	167	32.1	60.7	28.6
2 < 5	8	175	33.9	63.6	29.7
2 > 7	8	183	35.7	66.5	30.8
3 > 5	8	191	37.5	69.5	32.0
3 > 8	8	199	39.3	72.4	33.1
6 > 8	8	207	41.1	75.3	34.2
2 < 4	7	214	42.9	77.8	35.0
1 < 2	6	220	44.6	80.0	35.4
4 < 8	6	226	46.4	82.2	35.8
1 < 8	5	231	48.2	84.0	35.8
3 > 6	5	236	50.0	85.8	35.8
3 < 6	5	241	51.8	87.6	35.9
1 > 2	4	245	53.6	89.1	35.5
1 > 8	4	249	55.4	90.5	35.2
4 > 8	4	253	57.1	92.0	34.9
2 > 4	3	256	58.9	93.1	34.2
2 > 3	2	258	60.7	93.8	33.1
2 > 5	2	260	62.5	94.5	32.0
3 < 5	2	262	64.3	95.3	31.0
1 > 3	1	263	66.1	95.6	29.6
1 > 4	1	264	67.9	96.0	28.1
1 > 5	1	265	69.6	96.4	26.7
2 < 7	1	266	71.4	96.7	25.3
3 < 4	1	267	73.2	97.1	23.9
3 < 8	1	268	75.0	97.5	22.5
4 > 5	1	269	76.8	97.8	21.0
4 > 6	1	270	78.6	98.2	19.6
4 < 7	1	271	80.4	98.5	18.2
5 > 6	1	272	82.1	98.9	16.8
5 < 7	1	273	83.9	99.3	15.3
5 < 8	1	274	85.7	99.6	13.9

6 < 8	1	275	87.5	100.0	12.5
1 > 6	0	275	89.3	100.0	10.7
1 < 7	0	275	91.1	100.0	8.9
2 > 6	0	275	92.9	100.0	7.1
2 > 8	0	275	94.6	100.0	5.4
3 < 7	0	275	96.4	100.0	3.6
6 < 7	0	275	98.2	100.0	1.8
7 > 8	0	275	100.0	100.0	0.0
Total Frequency	275	Equal Total Frequency	Equals 100%	Equals 100%	Power = E-D

Table 5.6: Pareto and Power Analysis Focus Group 2 --- Donors

Affinity Pair Relationship	Frequency Sorted (Descending)	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent (Relation)	Cumulative Percent (Frequency)	Power
2 < 6	9	9	1.8	3.6	1.9
1 > 2	8	17	3.6	6.9	3.3
2 < 5	8	25	5.4	10.1	4.8
3 > 8	8	33	7.1	13.4	6.2
6 > 8	8	41	8.9	16.6	7.7
7 > 8	8	49	10.7	19.8	9.1
1 > 6	7	56	12.5	22.7	10.2
2 > 3	7	63	14.3	25.5	11.2
3 > 4	7	70	16.1	28.3	12.3
3 < 6	7	77	17.9	31.2	13.3
1 > 3	6	83	19.6	33.6	14.0
1 > 8	6	89	21.4	36.0	14.6

2 < 4	6	95	23.2	38.5	15.2
2 > 8	6	101	25.0	40.9	15.9
3 < 5	6	107	26.8	43.3	16.5
5 > 6	6	113	28.6	45.7	17.2
5 > 8	6	119	30.4	48.2	17.8
6 < 7	6	125	32.1	50.6	18.5
1 < 5	5	130	33.9	52.6	18.7
1 > 7	5	135	35.7	54.7	18.9
3 > 7	5	140	37.5	56.7	19.2
3 < 7	5	145	39.3	58.7	19.4
4 < 5	5	150	41.1	60.7	19.7
4 < 6	5	155	42.9	62.8	19.9
4 < 7	5	160	44.6	64.8	20.1
5 < 7	5	165	46.4	66.8	20.4
1 > 4	4	169	48.2	68.4	20.2
1 < 4	4	173	50.0	70.0	20.0
1 < 7	4	177	51.8	71.7	19.9
2 < 7	4	181	53.6	73.3	19.7
4 > 5	4	185	55.4	74.9	19.5
4 > 7	4	189	57.1	76.5	19.4
5 > 7	4	193	58.9	78.1	19.2
6 > 7	4	197	60.7	79.8	19.0
1 < 3	3	200	62.5	81.0	18.5
1 > 5	3	203	64.3	82.2	17.9
1 < 6	3	206	66.1	83.4	17.3
1 < 8	3	209	67.9	84.6	16.8
2 < 3	3	212	69.6	85.8	16.2
2 > 7	3	215	71.4	87.0	15.6
3 > 5	3	218	73.2	88.3	15.0
3 > 6	3	221	75.0	89.5	14.5
4 > 6	3	224	76.8	90.7	13.9

4 < 8	3	227	78.6	91.9	13.3
1 < 2	2	229	80.4	92.7	12.4
2 > 5	2	231	82.1	93.5	11.4
2 < 8	2	233	83.9	94.3	10.4
3 < 4	2	235	85.7	95.1	9.4
3 < 8	2	237	87.5	96.0	8.5
5 < 6	2	239	89.3	96.8	7.5
5 < 8	2	241	91.1	97.6	6.5
7 < 8	2	243	92.9	98.4	5.5
2 > 4	1	244	94.6	98.8	4.1
2 > 6	1	245	96.4	99.2	2.8
4 > 8	1	246	98.2	99.6	1.4
6 < 8	1	247	100.0	100.0	0.0
Total Frequency	247	Equal Total Frequency	Equals 100%	Equals 100%	Power = E- D

INTERRELATIONSHIP DIAGRAM

The purpose of the IQA, according to Northcutt and McCoy (2002), is to draw a picture of the system or a *Systems Influence Diagram (SID)* that represents the perceptual landscape or the *mind map* of a group with respect to an experience represented by the issue statement. The SID is a picture drawn using a set of rules for rationalization (p. 4). “Rationalization is a set of rules, independent of the nature of the elements of the system, by which elements are first sorted into zones and then connected with the minimum number of relationships consistent with the data” (Northcutt & McCoy, 2002, p. 17).

To achieve this rationalization the IQA protocol utilizes an *Interrelationship Diagram (IRD)*, produced by the focus group. The IRD helps define the perceived cause

and effect relationships (influences) among all of the affinities in the system. The combined IRD for the group summarizes the results of the group theoretical coding.

The following Tabular Interrelationship Diagrams (see **Tables 5.7 and 5.8**) were developed using the results of the administrators' focus groups' Combined Theoretical Code Table and the Donors' Combined Theoretical Code Table to show the direction of each relationship between affinities. The Pareto Protocol facilitated the development of the tables to create a more accurate and precise picture of each group.

Tabular IRD

Table 5.7: Interrelationship Diagram (IRD) Focus Group 1--- Administrators

Affinity Name	
1.	Building Donor Relations
2.	Community Relations
3.	Foundations
4.	Fundraising Events
5.	Fundraising Procedures
6.	Planning
7.	Scholarship
8.	Staff and Faculty Involvement

Tabular IRD											
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	OUT	IN	Δ
1			←	←	←	←	↑		1	4	-3
2			←	←	←	←	↑	←	1	5	-4
3	↑	↑		↑	↑		↑	↑	6	0	6
4	↑	↑	←		←	←	↑		3	3	0
5	↑	↑	←	↑		←	↑	↑	5	2	3
6	↑	↑		↑	↑		↑	↑	6	0	6
7	←	←	←	←	←	←		←	0	7	-7
8		↑	←		←	←	↑		2	3	-1

Count the number of up arrows (↑) or *Outs*

Count the number of left arrows (←) or *Ins*

Subtract the number of *Ins* from the *Outs* to determine the (Δ) *Deltas*

$$\Delta = \text{Out} - \text{In}$$

Tabular IRD – Sorted in Descending Order of Δ											
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	OUT	IN	Δ
3	↑	↑		↑	↑		↑	↑	6	0	6
6	↑	↑		↑	↑		↑	↑	6	0	6
5	↑	↑	←	↑		←	↑	↑	5	2	3
4	↑	↑	←		←	←	↑		3	3	0
8		↑	←		←	←	↑		2	3	-1
1			←	←	←	←	↑		1	4	-3
2			←	←	←	←	↑	←	1	5	-4
7	←	←	←	←	←	←		←	0	7	-7

Tentative SID Assignments	
3	Primary Driver
6	Primary Driver
5	Secondary Driver
4	Circulator/Pivot/?
8	Secondary Outcome
1	Secondary Outcome
2	Secondary Outcome
7	Primary Outcome

The **delta** order, which is used as a marker for the relative positions of the affinities within the system, is provided in this table, with drivers at/near the top and outcomes near/at the bottom. According to the data provided, ***Foundations (3)*** was a **primary driver** or cause, along with ***Planning (6)***, and both were equally significant. These data validate the **No Ins Rule**: Any affinity with no *Ins* is always a Primary Driver.

Quite often as exemplified by this IRD, affinities will have equal numbers of *Ins* and *Outs*, such as *Fundraising Events* (4). This affinity indicates a position in the middle of the system, suggesting a “**circulator**” or “**pivot**” position in the final representation of the system.

The data from this IRD also illustrate that *Scholarship(s)* (7) was a primary outcome or effect, confirming the principle of the No Outs Rule: Any affinity with no *Outs* is always a Primary Outcome.

Table 5.8: Interrelationship Diagram (IRD) Focus Group 2--- Donors

Affinity Name	
1.	Allegiance to Community College
2.	Benefits to Community College
3.	Benefits/Improvement of Education
4.	Benefits/Return to Company/Alumni
5.	Involvement of Company Employees
6.	Partnerships
7.	Reputation of College
8.	Rewards/Benefits to the Community

Tabular IRD											
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	OUT	IN	Δ
1		↑	↑	↑	←	↑	↑	↑	6	1	5
2	←		↑	←	←	←		↑	2	4	-2
3	←	←		↑	←	←	↑	↑	3	4	-1
4	←	↑	←		←	←	←		1	5	-4
5	↑	↑	↑	↑		↑	←	↑	6	1	5
6	←	↑	↑	↑	←		←	↑	4	3	1
7	←		←	↑	↑	↑		↑	4	2	2
8	←	←	←		←	←	←		0	6	-6

Count the number of up arrows (↑) or *Outs*

Count the number of left arrows (←) or *Ins*

Subtract the number of *Ins* from the *Outs* to determine the (Δ) *Deltas*

$$\Delta = \text{Out} - \text{In}$$

Tabular IRD – Sorted in Descending Order of Δ											
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	OUT	IN	Δ
1		↑	↑	↑	←	↑	↑	↑	6	1	5
5	↑	↑	↑	↑		↑	←	↑	6	1	5
7	←		←	↑	↑	↑		↑	4	2	2
6	←	↑	↑	↑	←		←	↑	4	3	1
3	←	←		↑	←	←	↑	↑	3	4	-1
2	←		↑	←	←	←		↑	2	4	-2
4	←	↑	←		←	←	←		1	5	-4
8	←	←	←		←	←	←		0	6	-6

Tentative SID Assignments	
1	Primary Driver
5	Primary Driver
7	Secondary Driver
6	Circulator/Pivot/?
3	Secondary Outcome
2	Secondary Outcome
4	Secondary Outcome
8	Primary Outcome

The **delta** order for Focus Group 2 - Donors deviates from the general *No In Rule*. According to the data provided, *Allegiance to the Community College (1)* AND *Involvement of Company Employees (5)* were both **primary drivers** or causes; however, each had **one In** arrow. This does *not* mean that 1 and 5 are not primary drivers, instead, it indicates that the affinities have a strong relative cause but still are influenced by other affinities. The data from the IRD also illustrate that *Rewards/Benefits to the Community*

(8) was the **primary outcome** or effect, again confirming the principle of the **No Outs Rule**.

SID Construction

A *System Influence Diagram (SID)* is a visual representation of an entire system of influences and outcomes, and is created by representing the information in the IRD as a system of affinities and their relationships (Northcutt & McCoy, 2002, p. 29). Constructing a *Systems Influence Diagram (SID)* from the IRD data involves a transfer of the information found in the *Tentative SID Assignments* table found at the end of the *Tabular IRD*. These two tables provided the necessary data to design the Focus Groups' SIDs. *Inspiration*® software was used to show the affinities in the SID format as seen in **Table 5.8**. *Inspiration*® was also used to design the flow of the affinities—drivers to outcomes, moving from left to right, drivers to outcomes, cause to effect. Relationship pairs, found in the IRD, were drawn as links with the resulting graphic called a *Cluttered SID*.

Illustration 5.4: Focus Group 1 --- Administrators Cluttered SID

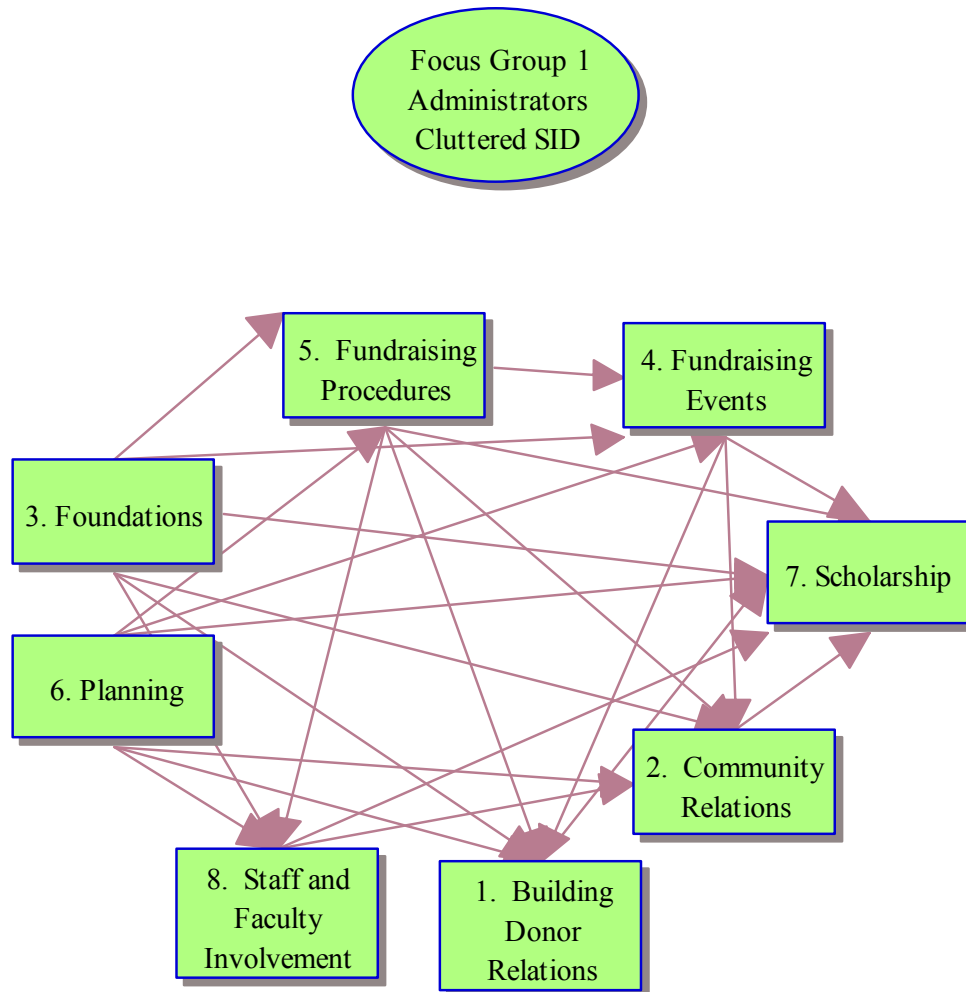
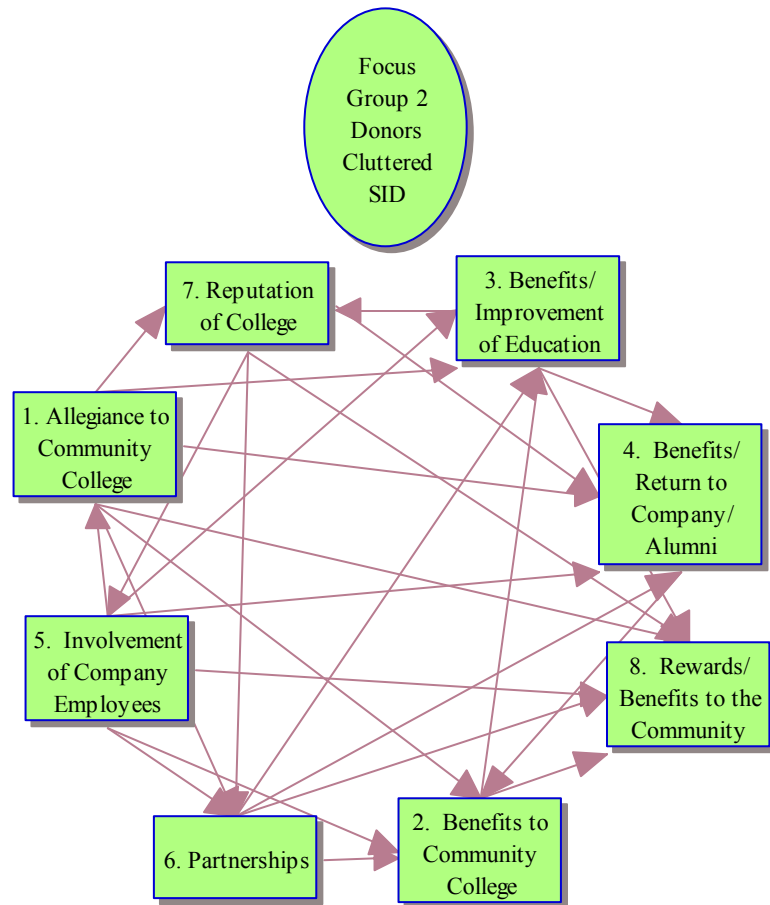
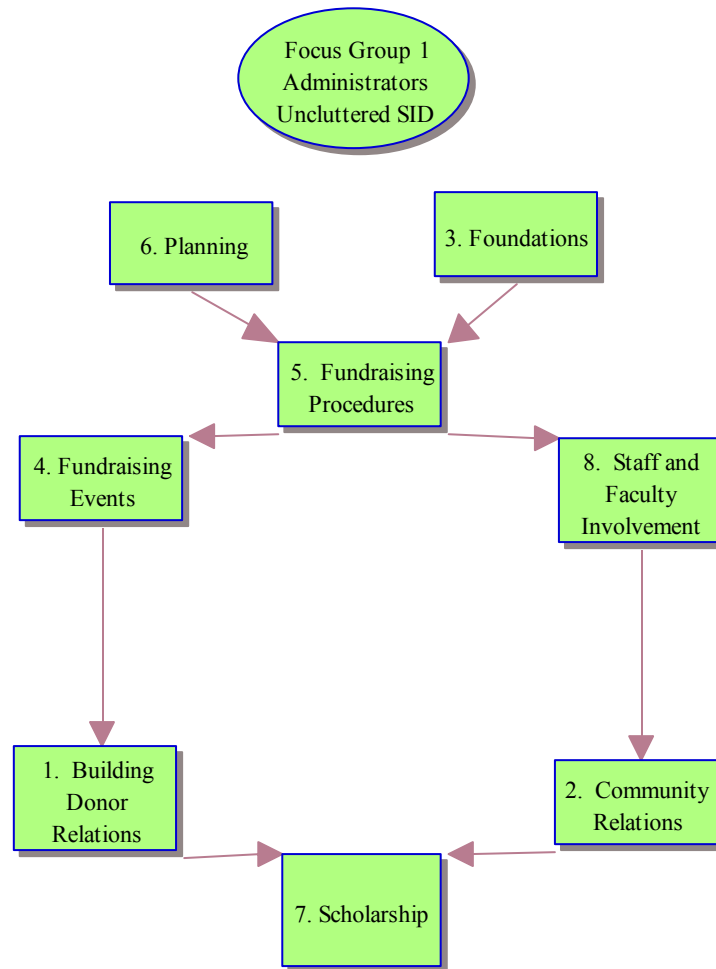


Illustration 5.5: Focus Group 2 --- Donors Cluttered SID



The **Unsaturated SIDs** were also created using *Inspiration*® software, this time by deleting redundant links from one affinity to the next.

Illustration 5.6: Focus Group 1 --- Administrators Uncluttered SID



AFFINITY RELATIONSHIP ANALYSIS --- ADMINISTRATORS

With the Administrators' Uncluttered SID developed and obvious relationships between affinities illustrated, such results demonstrated that the Administrators' focus group had determined the following affinity relationships:

Planning and *Foundations* were the primary drivers to get to the ultimate goal or outcome of *Scholarships*, according to the Administrator Focus Group. To achieve this target *Foundations* must plan carefully with their ultimate objective in mind.

Both the affinities, *Planning* (by Foundations) and *Foundations*, according to the Uncluttered SID, were primary drivers **influencing** directly the affinity *Fundraising Procedures*. The community college administrators emphasized that the affinity *Planning* for fundraising should be “tied to the [college] mission,” and that “relationship planning” with donors is a necessity. Administrators believe that community colleges should create sound goals and plans for soliciting donors and those plans should be carried out effectively over a long term. Since *Foundations* was a dialectic affinity incorporating *Effective Foundations* and *Ineffective Foundations* one can conclude that *Effective Foundations* with good *Planning* will create effective *Fundraising Procedures* to increase community college coffers, while *Ineffective Foundations* will not.

The administrators recognized the importance of the foundation to be “articulate representative[s] to the community” and to understand the “culture of [the] giver”; however; they appear to be quite oblivious as to what is actually that culture. They stressed the significance of “consistency of [internal] policies and procedures” and “creat[ing] an environment that supports giving” by the foundation board and director, but failed to address the reasons why donors would want to contribute to their community college.

On the other hand, the administrators were quite adept at recognizing the reasons that “foundation[s] [are] necessary to remain competitive in tough financial times”; and

that foundations appear to be ineffective when they have “little knowledge as to why donors give (Might we not conclude the same about community college administrators?)”

Fundraising Procedures, according to the administrators, should be the sole responsibility of the foundation staff and board. Since most foundations have relatively small staffs, as found in this research’s survey statistical data, this does not sound like a feasible or logical conclusion. However, administrators clearly stated that, “I don’t want to have to do it [fundraising].” If they [administrators] are required to fundraise, they want to make sure that the foundation and its staff has all of the information needed, all of the policies and procedures in place, and all of the goals set, before they will participate in the fundraising process. “Accountability” to donors was significant because administrators did not want to fundraise without being able to answer important questions from the donors, such as, “Why do you [community colleges] need extra money?” and “Where and how did you [community colleges] spend [the donors] money?” Administrators felt that the foundation boards and directors must have answers to these questions and convey them to others before effective fundraising can occur.

The affinity **Fundraising Procedures**, according to the Administrators’ Uncluttered SID, directly influences the affinity **Fundraising Events**. Most community college administrators were aware of fundraising activities through either life experiences or events at their own colleges. Events concurrent to those stated in the literature i.e., capital campaigns, fundraising dinners/galas, etc. were listed. Two important questions were raised by the administrators concerning **Fundraising Events**: “How does the college give back to the community?” and “How to involve students in the process [of philanthropic giving]?”

Fundraising Procedures also directly influences the affinity ***Staff and Faculty Involvement***. As previously stated, administrators felt strongly that the fundraising procedures must be clear and accurate before they would be willing to participate in fundraising. The affinity of ***Fundraising Procedures*** appeared to be a cornerstone for successful fundraising in the minds of the administrators. The administrators stressed "...train[ing] faculty, as well as board members, to promote the foundation programs...", "...involve[ing] faculty in the process," and "...asking the faculty and staff for donations," as important ways to further the foundation's plans and philanthropic giving to the colleges. The metaphor, "charity begins at home," best describes the feelings of the administrators concerning ***Faculty and Staff Involvement***.

The process of foundation planning by creating sound fundraising procedures leading to ***Fundraising Events***, according to the Administrators' Uncluttered SID, influences ***Building Donor Relations***. The affinity Donor Relations is dichotomic encompassing the characteristics for building relationships between community college administrators and the college's donors. Both the opposing perspectives that donors believe that "community colleges get more than [they] need from [local] taxes and state [funding]" and that community college's "need to ask for money" are displayed. That the donors are not properly appreciated, "thank donors", and are not included in "what their money will accomplish," leads one to believe that donors, according to these administrators, are not considered as major players in the philanthropic process.

Community college administrators seem to understand the reasons to "court" donors and some of the ways to build those relationships far better than they understand the actual "causes" for donor giving. The administrators' concerns seem to be focused on

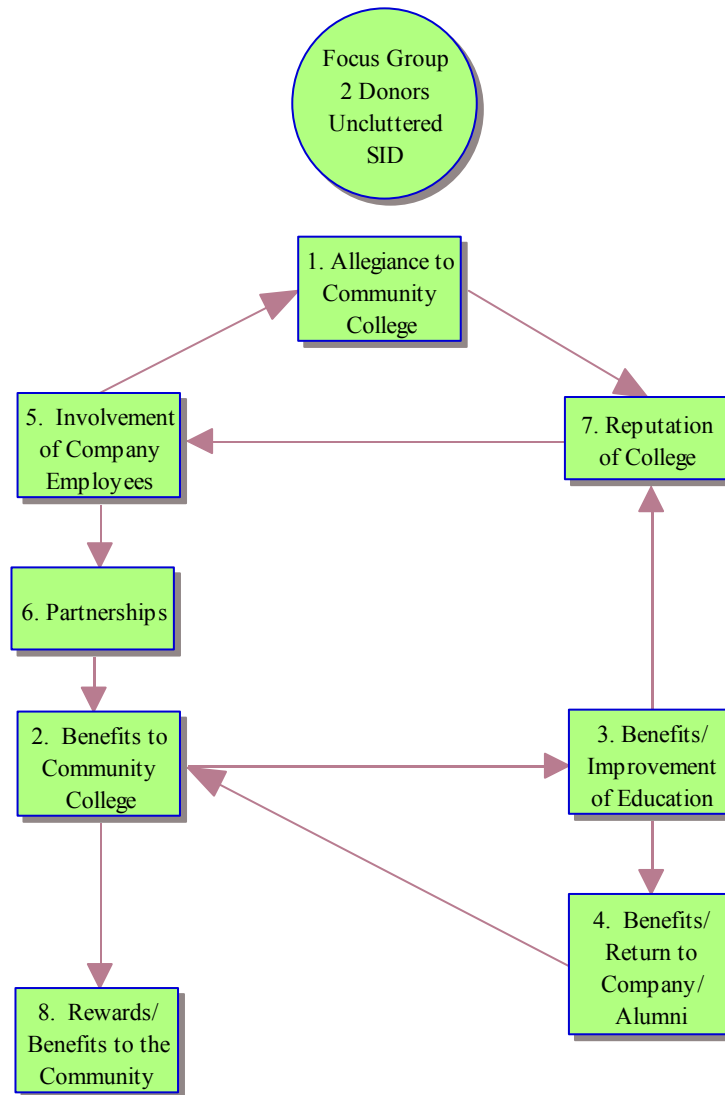
their needs and not those of the donors. This particular analogy will be more closely inspected in Chapter Six.

While fund raising events were seen by the administrators to influence donor relations, the affinity *Staff and Faculty Involvement* directly influenced the affinity *Community Relations*. The impetus appears to be that if the community colleges' staff and faculty, and its foundation representatives, reach out to the business community and make those needs known, then the community will respond. Only one point made in this affinity write up "that the college will have to be responsive to community needs" shows the college's responsibility to the community in return for the community's response to the college's needs.

Both affinities *Building Donor Relations* and *Community Relations*, according to the administrators' focus group, influence the affinity *Scholarship*. The affinity *Scholarship(s)* is the primary outcome on the *Administrator's Tabular IRD, Tentative SID Assignments*. Scholarships, according to the administrators, will be made be available through donor philanthropic giving to further the mission of the college to provide for the success of its students, primarily, and faculty, secondarily.

While all roads lead from *Foundation Planning* to *Scholarships*, the dilemma that occurs, as determined by the administrators' mindmap, is that there are no recursions. If any part of the process breaks down, especially the creation of viable Fundraising Procedures, then the process will be stalled or completely stopped. Scholarships will not be available to students and the foundation's goals, accordingly, will not be attained.

Illustration 5.7: Focus Group 2 --- Donors Uncluttered SID



AFFINITY RELATIONSHIP ANALYSIS --- DONORS

Using the *Donors Combined Uncluttered SID*, relationships between affinities were illustrated. These results demonstrated that the donor focus group had determined the following affinity relationships:

According to the *Donor Combined Tabular IRD Tentative SID Assignments*, the affinity ***Allegiance to Community College*** was the **primary driver** on the Donor mindmap with the affinity ***Rewards/Benefits to the Community*** as the **primary outcome**. However, it is important to note that the affinity ***Allegiance to Community College*** is also part of a recursion or feedback loop.

Allegiance to Community College is a dichotomic affinity encompassing both the relationships of alumni and corporate donors; however, each group experienced this allegiance differently.

Alumni donors to the community college felt a sense of ownership of the college. Their experiences, if they had been positive through learning, mentoring, and extra-curricular activities, caused them to express an “ownership” or “connection” with the college. These donors also felt a high “alliance” or “affiliation” with the college.

In contrast, corporate donors at some point felt a negative impact on their allegiance to community colleges. This was expressed by statements such as “[The] money either I or my company contributes may go to something or some program I [we] might disagree with, therefore, we would not contribute under those circumstances.”

Both groups of donors felt that if what the college “stands for” meshed with their priorities and values, then they would contribute philanthropically; otherwise, other causes that might carry a more significant value to them would receive their monies.

Allegiance to Community College on the Donors’ mindmap **influenced** the ***Reputation of College***. This affinity, a dialectic consisting of the two extremes of community colleges - good and bad reputations, described the alumni and corporate donors’ experiences with each. It was of major significance to the donors that they be

affiliated with a community college that maintained a good reputation in the community, however, they would NOT be linked to a community college with a bad reputation. Both groups of donors wanted to be assured of the quality of education that students were receiving from the college before they would invest their monies. One corporate donor expressed this influence by stating: “If I look to the community college first for potential solutions to my training problems and help the community college develop the training by providing the funding/support to develop the training, then the reputation of the community college will improve because of the validity of the curricula.”

The affinity ***Reputation of College*** influenced or led to the ***Involvement of Company Employees***. Company donors particularly found this affinity to be of extreme importance. If the Reputation of (the) College was good, it would cause the company employees to become more involved in the college as students, instructors, board members, or donors. If the Reputation of (the) College was bad, then company employees would not attend the college, participate as a member of a board, or become involved in philanthropic giving to the college. **Company giving is tied directly to the return the company receives for their employees.** It is also significant that frequently employees of a company are community college students or have been students.

Involvement of Company Employees affinity **influences** or causes in the Donor mindmap a feedback loop to ***Allegiance to (the) Community College*** and also **influences** the affinity ***Partnerships*** leading to another **recursion**. ***Involvement of Company Employees*** in a college with a good reputation **causes** the employees, and therefore the companies, to deepen their ***Allegiance to (the) Community College***. Company donors

stressed the strong need for an educated workforce, if provided this by their local community college; they were more apt to give to that college.

The **influence** of *Involvement of Company Employees* on *Partnerships* stems from company employees who are strong supporters of the college who, therefore, will encourage their companies to form partnerships with the college. Conversely, partnerships will be formed to create a better workforce for the company. The affinity *Partnership* was looked at as significant to both companies and alumni. Alumni desired a partnership with the community college that would develop and maintain a close relationship. Alumni want to be “in the know” about what is happening at “their” college, while companies stress the “win-win” aspect of partnerships. Regardless, of whether a donation is from an alumni or corporation it was important to both types of partners that they are mutually appreciated (benefit from the relationship).

The affinity *Partnerships* **influences** the affinity **Benefits to Community College**. Partnerships with community colleges can create more funds for the college, add additional equipment through in-kind gifts, enhance the colleges’ instructor pool, especially in the cutting-edge technology fields, and can increase scholarships for underserved and diverse student populations. According to one corporate donor, “If partnerships exist between companies and the community college, then the community college will benefit with more relevant curricula.”

Benefits to Community College, as part of another feedback loop, **influences** *Benefits/Improvement of Education*. Both alumni and corporate donors felt that if the community college benefited from their giving, then there would be an improvement to the education provided by the college.

The affinity ***Benefits/Improvement of Education***, according to the Donor mindmap, **influences** two different feedback loops. It appears to be a pivotal point that leads back to the ***Reputation of College*** affinity or moves into a new recursion to influence ***Benefits/Return to Company/Alumni***. If the Benefits/Improvements of Education are enhanced through donor giving, ultimately it will improve the ***Reputation of (the) College***, as a college that provides more student scholarships, better curriculum and instruction, and newer technology. Thus, we travel along the feedback loop from ***Benefits/Improvement of Education*** improving or enhancing the ***Reputation of the College*** influencing the ***Involvement of Company Employees***, possibly simultaneously causing a stronger ***Allegiance to the College***, leading to more ***Partnerships*** with donors which can ***Benefit the Community College*** causing ***Benefits/Improvements to Education***.

If the affinity ***Benefits/Improvement of Education***, however, takes another direction, it will **influence** a new affinity, ***Benefits/Return to Company/Alumni***. This affinity defines the benefits or return expected by the donors. Donors see their gifts as a return or ***Benefit to the Community College*** for the remuneration the company or the alumni receives for their donations, such as, increased business, a good education, free advertisement around the campuses, and mobilization of materials from in-kind donations. Donors want to be recognized for their gifts specifically. More importantly, donors stressed that there must be as much reward returned to them - through recognition, returned business, or in having a say in how their money is spent - as there is to the college from their contributions. In this light, we return to ***Benefits to the Community***

College and begin the feedback loop through *Benefits/Improvement of Education* to *Benefits/Return to Company/Alumni* back to *Benefits to Community College*.

Ultimately, we arrive at the affinity, *Benefits to Community College* and begin our journey to the **primary outcome, Rewards/Benefits to the Community**. Donors tend to look at the big picture and want to know specifically how their donations to community colleges will ultimately benefit the community. Both alumni and corporate givers were skeptical about giving to just any “community” investment. Donors want to know “up front” where their money will be spent and how it will make a difference to the community.

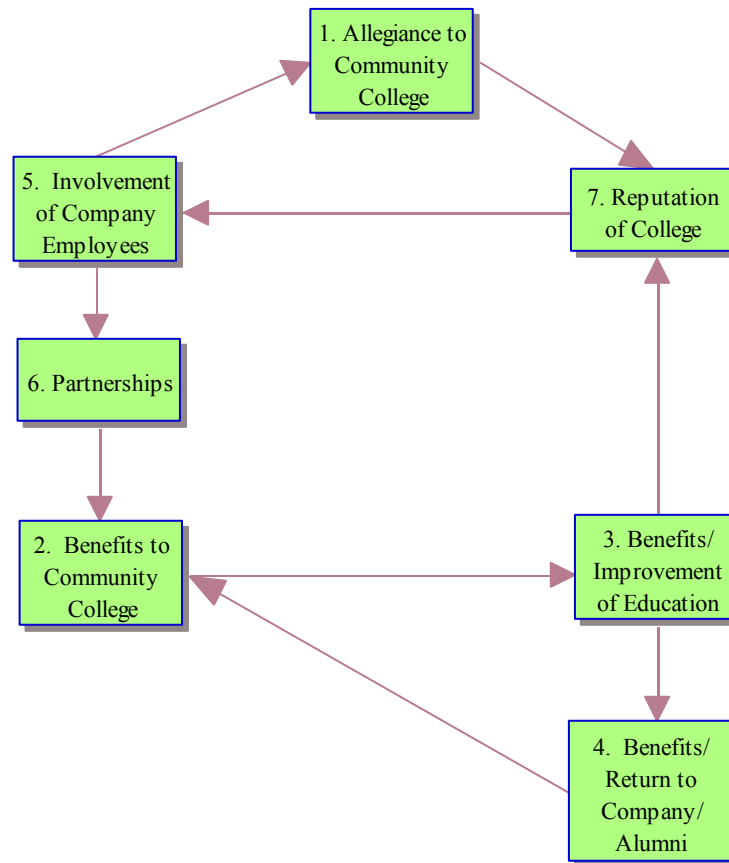
Corporate donors especially desired to see their monies “come back” to them through a better-trained workforce, economic development in the community, and initiating new programs that reach out to the community. Both alumni and corporate donors were inclined to give because they wanted their money to stay in their community and for education to be improved in their community. The altruistic feeling that donating is a good thing to do and that rewards came back to the community from their donations ranked high as a motivation for giving.

FEEDBACK LOOPS

Of interest in the donors’ focus group’s mindmap is the fact that there are **three major feedback loops**. On the macro level, there is the loop that includes the majority of the mindmap: 1→7→5→6→2→3→4→2 (see **Illustration 5.8**). Every affinity is touched as this *Motivations* loop connects with the *Benefits* loop and finally progresses

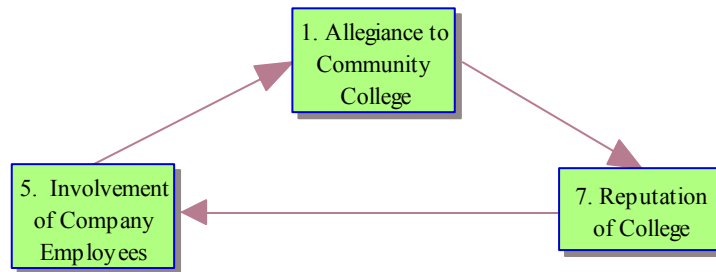
to the **Rewards**. These feedback loops are reflective of the motivations affecting donors and the perception of how those motivations lead to benefits that affect the rewards.

Illustration 5.8: Feedback Loop 1--- Donors



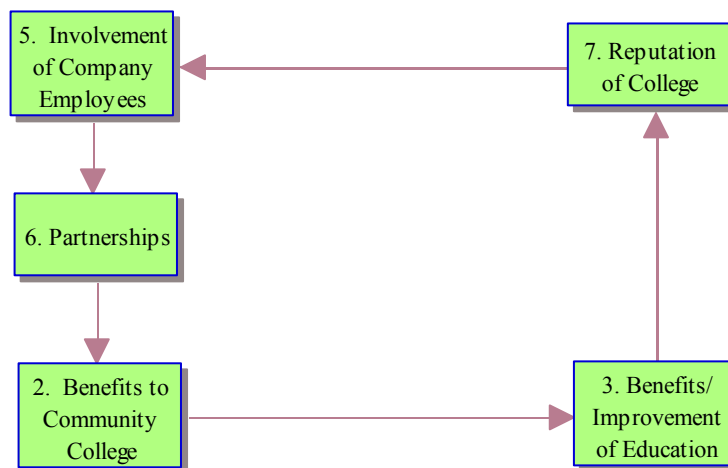
On a micro level, there are three obviously smaller feedback loops. The first is **1→ 7→ 5→1** (see **Illustration 5.9**), which include the affinities of *Allegiance to Community College* to *Reputation of College* to *Involvement of Company Employees*. These affinities can be seen as **Motivational affinities**.

Illustration 5.9: Feedback Loop 2 --- Donors



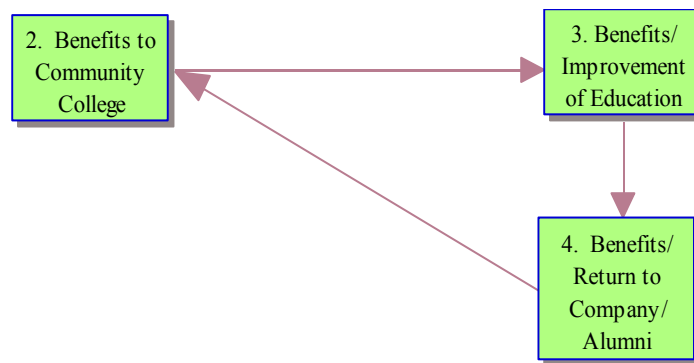
The next feedback loop, including these same affinities, is $7 \rightarrow 5 \rightarrow 6 \rightarrow 2 \rightarrow 3 \rightarrow 7$ (see **Illustration 5.10**). This affinity loop includes *Reputation of College*, *Involvement of Company Employees*, *Partnerships*, *Benefits to Community College*, and *Benefits/Improvement of Education*. This recursion is significant to community colleges as one that must be maintained constantly to promote both motivations for donors and benefits to the community colleges if they are to ultimately return the rewards/benefits to the community.

Illustration 5.10: Feedback Loop 3 --- Donors



The last feedback loop in the donor mindmap consists of affinities 2→3→4→2 (see **Illustration 5.11**). This loop includes the affinities *Benefits to Community College*, *Benefits/Improvement of Education*, and *Benefits/Return to Company/Alumni*. These affinities define the **Benefits loop** or benefits received from donor giving, as well as those received by the donors.

Illustration 5.11: Feedback Loop 4 --- Donors



Since part of the name of our colleges is “community,” it is only befitting that the ultimate outcome, *Rewards/Benefits to the Community*, denoted by the donor focus group, is a return to the “community” through philanthropic giving. While feedback loops can be dangerous if donors get caught in a negative loop, such as contributing to a college with a poor reputation in the community, they also represent an opportunity for intervention if the college loses sight of its goal: *Rewards/Benefits to the Community*.

INDIVIDUAL INTERVIEWS

Since IQA is a systems approach to qualitative research, affinities developed from the focus group were also the focal points for the interviews. The researcher conducted

interviews using the affinities developed by the members of Focus Group 2 - Donors. Four interviewees were selected representing a cross-section of donors and foundation administrators: an alumna, a corporate executive, a foundation director, and a foundation trustee. The interviews were transcribed, word for word, for coding. During the axial interviews, respondents were asked to discuss what each of the eight affinities meant to them in terms of their relationship with the philanthropic giving experience. Then during the theoretical interviews, respondents were asked to discuss the relationships between each of the affinities.

The interviewees were assigned a random number from 101-104. During the interviews, they referred to themselves only by that number. Only the interviewer/researcher and the interviewee knew each other's identity. The researcher secured all interview transcripts, tables, and mindmaps by using the interviewee's number.

INTERVIEW PROTOCOL

The affinities created by Focus Group 2 - Donors were the foundation for the interview protocol. Following is an example of the interview protocol used in this study to codify interviewee's responses to the affinities (see **Illustration 5.12**). Interviewees were given this list of the affinities and their meanings to assist with the axial coding part of the interview.

Illustration 5.12: Axial Code Affinities

Donor Focus Group Relationships

Axial Interview

The donor focus group identified several common themes or affinities that described their experiences with philanthropic giving to a community college. Please look at each of these themes one at a time while you tell me about your experiences with each of them.

1. Allegiance to Community College

Alumni and corporations felt that a sense of high alliance or affiliation with the college led to higher donations. Both groups also felt that if this affinity were missing, donations would not occur.

2. Benefits to the Community College

Alumni and business representatives felt that this affinity was not clear-cut. It was recognized that community colleges receive money for scholarships and endowments, but they also receive in-kind gifts of equipment, potential internships at companies for both faculty and students, courses for faculty members to train in current technology, and gifts of time from experts in course designing.

3. Benefits/Improvement of Education

One of the more recognized affinities is that of the benefits to education that occur from donations. These benefits were important to the focus group because they pointed out specific purposes for their donations. Some of the benefits recognized were improved facilities, allowing more students to attend higher educational institutions, creation of better diversity in higher education, and assistance to underserved groups in the community.

4. Benefits/Return to Company/Alumni

This affinity is best described by the business term ROI (Return On Investment). Both alumni and corporate donors require something in return for their donations, whether it is recognition, services, or a say in the destination of their money.

5. Involvement of Company Employees

This affinity describes how company employees' benefit by the workforce skills taught at the community colleges. In return, the employees see the donations of their company to the community colleges as "giving back" to the community.

5. Partnerships

The focus group expressed with this affinity that both the donors and the community college, require a "win-win" situation from donations. There must be joint interests and initiatives created and close relationships maintained before donations are given.

6. Reputation of College

The focus group described this affinity as one where the college's role is clear to and in the community. If the college has a poor reputation or integrity, donors are less inclined to give.

7. Rewards/Benefits to the Community

This affinity had to do with the significance of rewards to the community-at-large created by donations to the community college. Economic development of the community, money staying in the community, community-oriented activities which initiate new programs for the community, plus the fact that students come from that same community, were some of the donations which "give-back."

Axial Code Tables

Interview transcripts addressing the affinities enabled the researcher to conduct an axial code analysis, in which direct quotes from the interviewees were highlighted as they corresponded to a certain affinity. The affinities, quotes, and transcript line numbers were placed in the *Individual Interview Axial Code Table (ACT)* for organization and future referencing purposes. A column is provided in the *ACT* for researcher notes. Upon completion of all axial coding from the interviews, the data (quotes) were used to create a composite of the interviewees' perceptions of the relationships. To accomplish this, axial code data were transferred from each *ACT* to a *Combined Interview Axial Code Table* (see **Table 5.9**), thereby creating a comprehensive (all interview quotes) database coded to reflect quotes per affinity, with transcript line references and researcher notes.

Table 5.9: Combined Interview Axial Code Table

Combined Interview Axial Code Table (Sample) ---Interviewees 101- 104			
Affinity	Transcript Line	Axial Quotation	Researcher Notes
1. Allegiance to Community College	28-33	Of course the better experience that you have at a community college would create a higher allegiance. When I graduate, if I have a good kind of “taste in my mouth” when I leave, then I would be more inclined to help future students at that community college.	Getting at the “cause” of Allegiance
	79-81	And in our case, once we have all come through a process of creating that “friendship” [with donors] their allegiance is given to the community college.	“Friendship” building of donors.
	120-123	In other words, by looking to improve education in the community, I’ve got six other choices in addition to the community college that I might be able to contribute to.	Deterrent to allegiance.

Theoretical Interview

After the axial interviews had been completed, the theoretical interviews followed. The purpose of the theoretical interview is to have the respondent examine and discuss the relationships between the variables that were elaborated upon in the axial interview. Possible relationship directions were affinity A influences affinity B, affinity B influences affinity A, or no relationship. Following is an example of the theoretical interview protocol used in this study (see **Table 5.10**).

Table 5.10: Theoretical Affinity Relationship Table

Philanthropic Motivational Relationships

Theoretical Interview

Many of the themes or affinities identified have some kind of relationship; one affects or causes the other. Let's look at each theme and decide if or how it relates to each other theme. Tell me about your experiences with such relationships. Please give specific examples of how the relationships have affected your experience.

Interviewees' Affinity Relationship Table			
Affinity Pair Relationship			Affinity Pair Relationship
1	2		3 6
1	3		3 7
1	4		3 8
1	5		4 5
1	6		4 6
1	7		4 7
1	8		4 8
2	3		5 6
2	4		5 7
2	5		5 8
2	6		6 7
2	7		6 8
2	8		7 8
3	4		
3	5		

The results of the individual interviewee's affinity relationship tables were compiled into one *Combined Affinity Relationship Table* (see **Table 5.11**) and utilized for the continuing Theoretical Coding.

Table 5.11: Combined Theoretical Code Frequency Table Focus Group 2 --- Donors

Interviewees' Combined Affinity Relationship Table		
Affinity Pair Relationship		Affinity Pair Relationship
1 → 2		3 ← 6
1 → 3		3 ← 7
1 → 4		3 → 8
1 → 5		4 ← 5
1 → 6		4 ← 6
1 ← 7		4 ← 7
1 → 8		4 ← 8
2 → 3		5 → 6
2 → 4		5 ← 7
2 ← 5		5 → 8
2 ← 6		6 → 7
2 ← 7		6 → 8
2 → 8		7 → 8
3 → 4		
3 ← 5		

Theoretical Frequency Table(s)

Similar to the theoretical coding aspect for the focus groups, the following protocol was used in developing the interviewees' *Theoretical Frequency Tables*. The responses recorded in the interviewees' *Combined Affinity Relationship Table* were recorded and tallied. The frequencies of the interviewees' responses were tabulated, and the *Pareto Protocol* was applied to determine the tabulation analysis and power. A *Combined Theoretical Frequency Table* (see **Table 5.12**) and a *Pareto and Power Analysis Table* (see **Table 5.13**) were created to assist in the interpretation of the data. The Pareto Table used the data cut-off points of Cumulative Frequency 80.4 percent and Power 30.4 to create the *Interviewee Combined Interrelationship Diagram (IRD)* (see **Table 5.14**). Both are well within the range for validity and accuracy, even though there were only four interviewees.

Table 5.12: Interviewees' Combined Theoretical Code Frequency Table

Combined Theoretical Code Frequency Table --- Interviewees						
Affinity Pair Relationship	Frequency	Theoretic Coding		Affinity Pair Relationship	Frequency	Theoretic Coding
1 → 2	4			3 → 5	0	
1 ← 2	0			3 ← 5	4	
1 → 3	3			3 → 6	1	
1 ← 3	1			3 ← 6	3	
1 → 4	2	?		3 → 7	1	
1 ← 4	1			3 ← 7	3	
1 → 5	3			3 → 8	3	
1 ← 5	1			3 ← 8	1	
1 → 6	2	?		4 → 5	1	?
1 ← 6	1			4 ← 5	2	
1 → 7	1			4 → 6	0	
1 ← 7	3			4 ← 6	2	
1 → 8	3			4 → 7	0	
1 ← 8	1			4 ← 7	2	
2 → 3	3			4 → 8	1	?
2 ← 3	1			4 ← 8	2	
2 → 4	2	?		5 → 6	3	
2 ← 4	1			5 ← 6	1	
2 → 5	0			5 → 7	1	
2 ← 5	4			5 ← 7	3	
2 → 6	1			5 → 8	3	
2 ← 6	3			5 ← 8	1	
2 → 7	0			6 → 7	2	?
2 ← 7	3			6 ← 7	2	
2 → 8	4			6 → 8	4	
2 ← 8	0			6 ← 8	0	
3 → 4	3			7 → 8	4	
3 ← 4	1			7 ← 8	0	

Table 5.13: Interviewees' Pareto and Power Analysis Table

Affinity Pair Relationship	Frequency Sorted (Descending)	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent (Relation)	Cumulative Percent (Frequency)	Power
1 > 2	4	4	1.8	3.9	2.1
2 < 5	4	8	3.6	7.8	4.3
2 > 8	4	12	5.4	11.8	6.4
3 < 5	4	16	7.1	15.7	8.5
6 > 8	4	20	8.9	19.6	10.7
7 > 8	4	24	10.7	23.5	12.8
1 > 3	3	27	12.5	26.5	14.0
1 > 5	3	30	14.3	29.4	15.1
1 < 7	3	33	16.1	32.4	16.3
1 > 8	3	36	17.9	35.3	17.4
2 > 3	3	39	19.6	38.2	18.6
2 < 6	3	42	21.4	41.2	19.7
2 < 7	3	45	23.2	44.1	20.9
3 > 4	3	48	25.0	47.1	22.1
3 < 6	3	51	26.8	50.0	23.2
3 < 7	3	54	28.6	52.9	24.4
3 > 8	3	57	30.4	55.9	25.5
5 > 6	3	60	32.1	58.8	26.7
5 < 7	3	63	33.9	61.8	27.8
5 > 8	3	66	35.7	64.7	29.0
1 > 4	2	68	37.5	66.7	29.2
1 > 6	2	70	39.3	68.6	29.3
2 > 4	2	72	41.1	70.6	29.5
4 < 5	2	74	42.9	72.5	29.7
4 < 6	2	76	44.6	74.5	29.9
4 < 7	2	78	46.4	76.5	30.0
4 < 8	2	80	48.2	78.4	30.2
6 > 7	2	82	50.0	80.4	30.4

6 < 7	2	84	51.8	82.4	30.6
1 < 3	1	85	53.6	83.3	29.8
1 < 4	1	86	55.4	84.3	29.0
1 < 5	1	87	57.1	85.3	28.2
1 < 6	1	88	58.9	86.3	27.3
1 > 7	1	89	60.7	87.3	26.5
1 < 8	1	90	62.5	88.2	25.7
2 < 3	1	91	64.3	89.2	24.9
2 < 4	1	92	66.1	90.2	24.1
2 > 6	1	93	67.9	91.2	23.3
3 < 4	1	94	69.6	92.2	22.5
3 > 6	1	95	71.4	93.1	21.7
3 > 7	1	96	73.2	94.1	20.9
3 < 8	1	97	75.0	95.1	20.1
4 > 5	1	98	76.8	96.1	19.3
4 > 8	1	99	78.6	97.1	18.5
5 < 6	1	100	80.4	98.0	17.7
5 > 7	1	101	82.1	99.0	16.9
5 < 8	1	102	83.9	100.0	16.1
1 < 2	0	102	85.7	100.0	14.3
2 > 5	0	102	87.5	100.0	12.5
2 > 7	0	102	89.3	100.0	10.7
2 < 8	0	102	91.1	100.0	8.9
3 > 5	0	102	92.9	100.0	7.1
4 > 6	0	102	94.6	100.0	5.4
4 > 7	0	102	96.4	100.0	3.6
6 < 8	0	102	98.2	100.0	1.8
7 < 8	0	102	100.0	100.0	0.0
Total Frequency	102	Equal Total Frequency	Equals 100%	Equals 100%	Power = E- D

Interrelationship Diagram

The following *Tabular Interrelationship Diagrams* (see **Table 5.14**) were developed using the results of the *Interviewees' Combined Theoretical Frequency Code Table* and the *Pareto and Power Analysis Table*, to show the direction of each relationship between affinities and to create a more accurate and precise picture.

Table 5.14: Interviewees' Combined Tabular IRD

Interviewee Tabular IRD											
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	OUT	IN	Δ
1		↑	↑	↑	↑	↑	←	↑	6	1	5
2	←		↑	↑	←	←	←	↑	3	4	-1
3	←	←		↑	←	←	←	↑	2	5	-3
4	←	←	←		←	←	←	←	0	7	-7
5	←	↑	↑	↑		↑	←	↑	5	2	3
6	←	↑	↑	↑	←		↑	↑	5	2	3
7	↑	↑	↑	↑	↑	←		↑	6	1	5
8	←	←	←	↑	←	←	←		1	6	-5

Count the number of up arrows (↑) or *Outs*

Count the number of left arrows (←) or *Ins*

Subtract the number of *Ins* from the *Outs* to determine the (Δ) *Deltas*

$$\Delta = \text{Out} - \text{In}$$

Tabular IRD – Sorted in Descending Order of Δ											
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	OUT	IN	Δ
1		↑	↑	↑	↑	↑	←	↑	6	1	5
7	↑	↑	↑	↑	↑	←		↑	6	1	5
5	←	↑	↑	↑		↑	←	↑	5	2	3
6	←	↑	↑	↑	←		↑	↑	5	2	3
2	←		↑	↑	←	←	←	↑	3	4	-1
3	←	←		↑	←	←	←	↑	2	5	-3
8	←	←	←	↑	←	←	←		1	6	-5
4	←	←	←		←	←	←	←	0	7	-7

Tentative SID Assignments	
1	Primary Driver
7	Primary Driver
5	Secondary Driver
6	Circulator/Pivot/?
2	Secondary Outcome
3	Secondary Outcome
8	Secondary Outcome
4	Primary Outcome

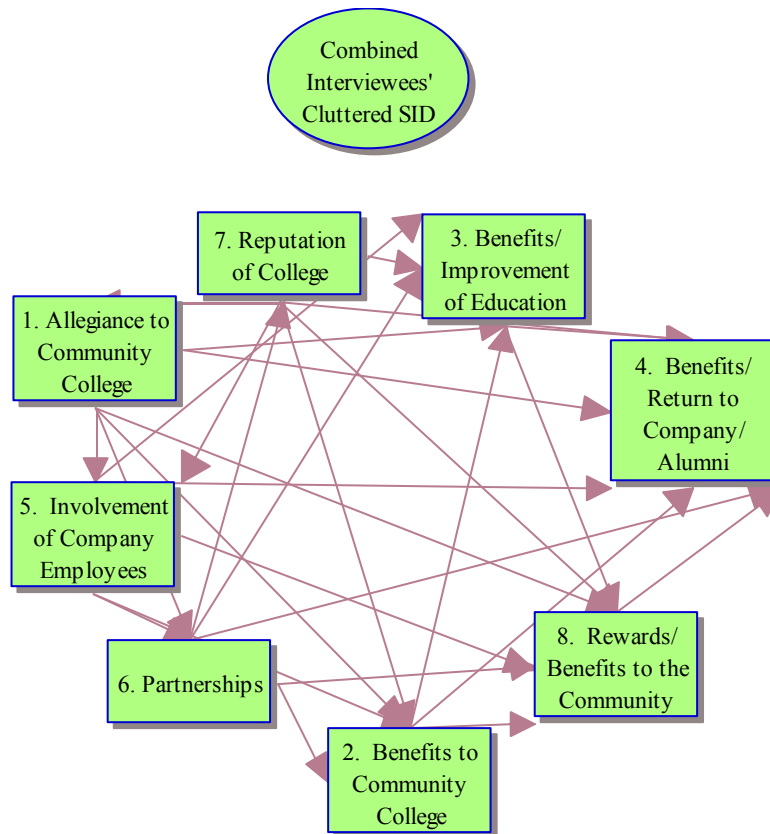
The **delta** order for the *Interviewees' Combined Tabular IRD* also deviates from the general *No Ins Rule*. According to the data provided, and noticeably like the *Donors' Combined Tabular IRD*, *Allegiance to the Community College (1)* AND *Involvement of Company Employees (5)* were both **primary drivers** or causes; however, each had one **In** arrow. This does *not* mean that 1 and 5 are not primary drivers; instead, it indicates that the affinities have a strong relative cause but still are influenced by other affinities. Unlike the *Donor Combined Tabular IRD*, the data from the *Interviewee Tabular IRD* illustrate that *Benefits/Return to Company/Alumni (4)* was the **primary outcome** or effect, again confirming the principle of the **No Outs Rule**.

SID Construction

As in the focus group protocol, a *System Influence Diagram (SID)* was created by representing the information in the *IRD* as a system of affinities and their relationships (Northcutt & McCoy, 2002, p. 29). Constructing a *Systems Influence Diagram (SID)* from the *IRD* data involves a transfer of the information found in the *Tentative SID Assignments* table found at the end of the *Tabular IRD* (see **Table 5.14**).

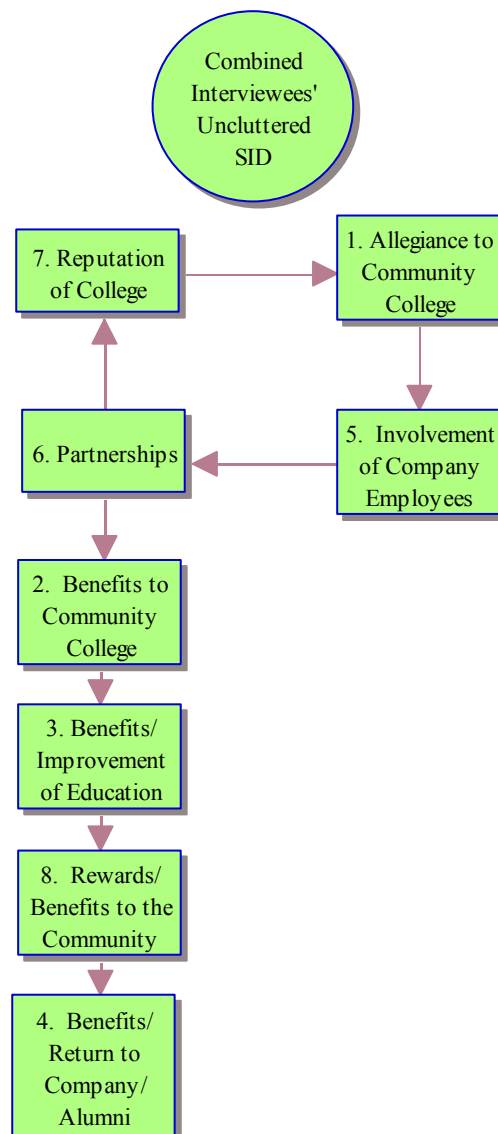
Inspiration® software was utilized again to show the affinity relationships and to design the flow of the affinities. Relationship pairs, found in the *IRD*, were drawn as links with the resulting graphic called a *Cluttered SID* (see **Illustration 5.13**).

Illustration 5.13: Combined Interviewees' Cluttered SID



The *Unsaturated Interview SID* (see **Illustration 5.14**) again was created using *Inspiration*® software, by deleting redundant links from one affinity to the next.

Illustration 5.14: Combined Interviewees' Uncluttered SID



Affinity Relationship Analysis

With the *Interviewee Combined Uncluttered SID* (see **Illustration 5.14**) developed and obvious relationships between affinities illustrated, such results showed that the combined interviewees' *Tentative SID Assignments* was a clearer and more concise version of the Donor Focus Groups' SID.

As with the Donor Focus Group, the *Combined Interviewees SID* led the researcher to surmise that the **primary driver** was the affinity *Allegiance to Community College*. However, the interviewees weighted the *Reputation of College* equally with *Allegiance to Community College*. Although the interviewees placed *Rewards/Benefits to the Community* as a **secondary outcome**, unlike the Donor Focus Group, they determined that the *Benefits/Return to the Company/Alumni* was the **primary outcome**.

The interviewees as a group saw the following relationships among the affinities:

Reputation of (the) College influences the Allegiance to (the) Community College. The alumna stated that she wanted to be aligned with a community college that had a good reputation, not a bad one, and if the reputation changed so would her allegiance. Similarly, corporate executives stressed: "We're not going to have an allegiance with a group that doesn't have a good reputation."

The alumna interviewee highlighted the recursion caused by the affinity *Reputation of College* by stating, "You can't really say, 'The better the reputation, the more benefits are going to come to the alumni,' because that would mean that the alumni would have to be giving to the college anyway and alumni who give to the colleges base that giving on reputation."

“If somebody has allegiance to a college, they have a more positive view of the reputation to [of] the college and are more inclined to defend it [to] critics or whoever might not understand what’s going on” was conveyed by the community college trustee. All interviewees felt that donors are going to know about the college’s reputation, good or bad; if it is a bad reputation, they are not going to have an allegiance to the community college; and if it is a good reputation, they will.

Allegiance to Community College influences Involvement of Company Employees. Donors felt that the more involved the employees were with the college, the more loyalty they would create within their company toward the community college. The corporate interviewee summed up this affinity relationship by stating, “If we support any group financially or other ways, in-kind donations, etc., then we are always going to look at opportunities to get our employees involved.”

The trustee interviewee felt that there is a symbiotic connection between these affinities because “... if somebody has an allegiance to the college, they are more inclined to participate [become involved] in some way, such as, on an advisory committee, helping with a fundraising event, or helping pass a bond.” The foundation director felt that if a company has a relationship with a community college, they became more like “family” to the college’s needs. Therefore, through a donor’s on-going relationship or their allegiance to the college, they know that the college will use their employees’ time in a productive way, such as, volunteers for a certain program or as adjunct faculty.

Involvement of Company Employees influences Partnerships. All interviewees expressed that if company employees are more involved, then more partnerships will be

fostered. The corporate interviewee stated: “Involvement of company employees is integral to our partnerships.”

Both community college interviewees believed that almost any win-win relationship has to go both ways. The employees are part of the mix that make the partnership work, but it has to be symbiotic. Without the partnerships the company employees would not be involved.

Partnerships can **recurse** to **influence** the ***Reputation of College*** or can **influence** ***Benefits to Community College***. The more partnerships there are, the greater the reputation created. The alumna felt that a certain amount of integrity and loyalty fostered by the community college is necessary when people are willing to partner with them, and this in return will affect the reputation of the college. This analysis best described the recursion loop back to the *Reputation of College* affinity. The corporate interviewee expressed that partnerships benefit the community college, such as, her company’s summer academy, scholarships, and workforce development programs. The corporate donor summarized this affinity by stating, “I see the donors and the college working ‘hand in hand.’ ”

Partnerships enhance the reputation of the college. Both parties have to feel that they benefit from the relationship. The foundation director expressed this belief by stating: “Partnerships increase our donations, both cash and in-kind. It can also help us expand programs.”

Benefits to Community College influence Benefits/Improvement of Education. All interviewees felt that when the community college benefits, all education benefits. “Anything that improves the college is going to improve the overall level of education,”

according to the community college trustee. Education was defined as wider than a specific community college. Individual donors or corporate donors who are interested in education are going to look to their community colleges for that education.

Benefits/Improvements of Education influences Rewards/Benefits to the Community “The more educated that the students are upon graduation, the more that they can get out in the community and be that educated community” was how the alumna understood this affinity relationship.

The community college foundation director felt that it is the benefits to the community that lead to the benefits for education. The trustee best summarized this affinity relationship by stating: “Again, it’s the public and private support of the college because the state support is rapidly fading away. So, it’s the community, what the community sees it’s getting out of the college that drive the contributions to the college. If they improve our programs, getting more people in, getting more people out, that will basically help the bottom line of our economy. We will have [created] a higher educated workforce.”

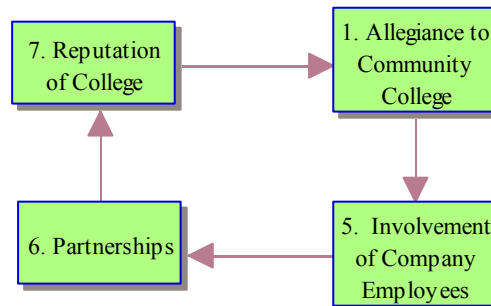
Rewards/Benefits to the Community influences Benefits/Return to Company/Alumni Again, interviewees felt that this affinity relationship had mutual benefits to the company and rewards to the community. The community has an impact on the company. The stronger the community, the better it is for everyone in that community. “When we look at it like our employees, we all are part of the community first. Everything around the company affects us and we need to support it”; according to the corporate interviewee.

The community college foundation director and trustee sensed that the benefits of the company would basically drive the rewards to the community and then back to the company through better trained employees that are productively engaged and exemplifying what the community values. This thought was verbalized by the director when she stated: “Looking good in the eyes of the community always benefits the company.” However, the most intuitive viewpoint on this relationship was by the trustee interviewee when he observed: “In other words, if a company contributes a dollar, they’ll expect five dollars back.”

Feedback Loops

Of interest in the interviewees’ combined mindmap is the fact that there is one strong feedback loop (see **Illustration 5.15**). The interviewees saw the **Motivational loop** as a continuous and on-going process. The **Benefits**, although not in a loop, were determined as secondary or primary outcomes.

Illustration 5.15: Feedback Loop 1 --- Interviewees



The feedback loop was a recursion pivoting on the affinity Partnerships. The loop included affinities 7→ 1→ 5→ 6→ 7. The affinities in this loop are identified as *Allegiance to Community College, Involvement of Company Employees, Partnerships,* and *Reputation of College*. This feedback loop expresses the interviewees view that

influential **motivations** in their giving to the community college lie within this loop. One affinity does not supercede the other, but all are important in soliciting donor contributions and in receiving the rewards or benefits from those contributions.

CONCLUSION

The objective of the qualitative analysis of the research was to use the methodology found in the Interactive Qualitative Analysis protocol to answer specific questions posed by the researcher. In so doing, the following questions were formulated and answered. The following are only preliminary answers to the research questions. Deeper discussion will occur in Chapter Six of this study.

Research Question 2. *What do community college administrators in the state of Texas perceive are the reasons for donor giving, as determined by quantitative survey statistics and qualitative mindmaps?*

Administrators in community colleges that are NOT involved with foundations or philanthropic giving believe that the reason donors give to colleges is the planning of the foundations for fundraising events. Accordingly, the fundraising procedures developed by the foundation will or will not cause philanthropic giving to occur. If the procedures are clear and articulated to all, then staff and faculty will become involved, fundraising events will surface, community relations will be enhanced, donor relations will be built, and, ultimately, scholarships will be created. If the procedures are not clear to all, the plans of the foundation will fail or be forever entrapped in the process.

Research Question 3. *What is the reality of why donors, both alumni and corporate in the state of Texas, give to community colleges, as determined by qualitative mindmaps?*

The reality of why donors, both corporate and alumni in the state of Texas, give to community colleges is that they expect benefits to come out of or “be returned” for their donations. The benefits may be in the form of improved curriculum, better facilities, better education for underserved students, a well-trained workforce, education returned to the community-at-large, any “return on investment” (ROI) to the donor, or simply an altruistic “thank you!”

Research Question 4. *Do similarities and/or differences exist between the perceptions and realities of these groups as determined by quantitative statistics and IQA mindmapping?*

In this chapter the researcher looked only at the IQA or qualitative aspect of this question. Chapter Six will expand into the combined quantitative and qualitative methodologies and discoveries.

According to the qualitative IQA mindmaps, there appear both similarities and differences between the groups. The administrator group used in the IQA study looked at philanthropic giving through a narrow scope, looking internally at the efforts of the foundation to resolve all issues of philanthropic giving. Support was not there for foundation staff from other administrators. “Telling the college story” was left to the president and the foundation board.

The administrators, inadvertently, did conclude that staff and faculty involvement would lead to better community relations and thereby scholarships. They also deduced that fundraising events, if properly planned, would lead to building stronger donor relations and again to scholarships.

In comparing the two groups, there appeared to be very little knowledge or desire to know by the administrators of successful motivations for philanthropic giving to community colleges. Additionally, the administrators were limited in their understandings of what contributions could be given by donors, other than scholarships. From this research emerged the knowledge that Texas foundation directors and community college presidents must look inwardly and train their administrators in donor motivations to increase their reach to donors. Motivating staff and faculty can be as significant to increasing donor giving, as motivating alumni and corporate entities. While continuing to work with small staffs and few volunteers, foundation administrators also must increase their outward community and donor partnerships, thereby increasing their coffers in this time of economic downturn.

CHAPTER SIX: Analysis, Implications, and Recommendations

RESEARCH RECAP

According to Brittingham & Pezzullo (1990), studies comparing different resource development programs have coupled **effectiveness** to **capacity** (number and wealth of alumni), **history** (maturity of fundraising program), and **effort** (institutional priority including commitment of resources). These effectiveness factors hardly describe community colleges with their lack of alumni organizations, relatively short foundations' history, and one-person shops called development offices. Thus, researching the reasons for donor motivation and matching those reasons with the beliefs of development officers in the state of Texas about philanthropic giving and fundraising methods are imperative for community colleges' foundations growth.

The research for this study was conducted during 2001-2003. The research issues and questions were identified, and pertinent literature was reviewed. The researcher then determined that the methodologies to be used in the study would be both quantitative and qualitative. The quantitative methodology utilized was a twenty-question survey, *Texas Community College Survey of Philanthropic Giving*, developed by the researcher using the literature review as the primary source for its creation. The survey was edited and enhanced by various professionals in the field before it was sent to the 51 two-year colleges in the state of Texas. Statistical results from the survey were captured in Chapter Four of this study.

Gay (1996) stated the following about the interpretation of quantitative results:

The result of the application of a test of significance is a number and only a number, a value which is statistically significant or not statistically

significant. *What it actually means requires interpretation by the researcher.* The results of statistical analyses need to be interpreted in terms of the purpose of the study, the original research hypotheses, and with respect to other studies that have been conducted in the same area of research (p. 519).

The researcher analyzed the quantitative information with the aid of the software program *SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences)* to compare variables within the survey. Evaluations were then made and conclusions drawn about the significance of the study in answering the specified research questions, as well as the hypothesis: “If community college administrators better understood the reasons donors give to community colleges, then they could increase their foundation’s funding by meeting those reasons or needs.”

After the inception of this study, the researcher was made aware of a national survey on resource development in community colleges. The survey was developed through the sponsorship of the Council for Resource Development (CRD), the Clements Group, and the Association of Community College Trustees (ACCT). Billed as the first national survey on resource development efforts in the public community college setting, the 60-item survey was sent to 1,100 community colleges with a 34 percent response rate. Similar topics as in this research survey were broached, such as enrollment at the colleges, foundation income, staffing, and location covering both grant and foundation offices. Data collected supported findings for operational budgets, revenue from selected sources, and staffing (Keener, Carrier, and Meaders, 2002, p. 7). Although parallel to the research in this study, particularly the demographics of the community colleges, the topic of motivation of donors was not encountered. Perhaps the next step should be to combine the two surveys for national reporting.

The qualitative research for this dissertation utilized the *Interactive Qualitative Analysis* process discovered by Drs. Norvell Northcutt and Danny McCoy from The University of Texas at Austin. The software program *Inspiration*® was used to create mindmaps for two focus groups, community college administrators and community college donors, and four interviewees.

Gay (1996) adhered to the principle that the researcher must decide whether the results support the research hypotheses and why or why not. The researcher also must determine whether the results are in agreement with other findings and why or why not (p. 519). Following Gay's direction, this researcher compared and contrasted the information discovered through the quantitative methodology with the information found in the qualitative methodology to determine if the following research questions were addressed.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

- 1. What is the history of philanthropic giving as determined by the following questions?**
 - a. According to the literature reviewed in Chapter Two, what has motivated donors, both alumni and corporate, to philanthropic giving in the past?**
 - b. According to the literature reviewed in Chapter Two, what are the current trends in philanthropic giving?**

2. **What do community college administrators in the state of Texas perceive are the reasons for donor giving, as determined by quantitative survey results and qualitative mindmaps?**
3. **What is the reality of why donors, both alumni and corporate in the state of Texas, give to community colleges, as determined by qualitative mindmaps?**
4. **Do similarities and/or differences exist between the perceptions and realities of these groups as determined by quantitative statistics and IQA mindmapping?**

RESEARCH IMPLICATIONS

Roots of the Giving Tree

Research Question 1: What is the history of philanthropic giving as determined by the following questions?

- a. **According to the literature reviewed in Chapter Two, what has motivated donors, both alumni and corporate, to philanthropic giving in the past?**

Several different interpretations of donor motivations were observed in the review of the literature for this study. Soroker (1974) wrote that five pressures motivate donors: **guilt, ego and the need to affiliate, self-preservation, belief in the cause, and as a reaction to pressure.** Soroker (1974), Connolly and Blanchette (1986), and Lindahl (1991) suggested that Americans give as a result of **complex interactions between the donor and the cause.** Catanzaro and Miller (1994) present a somewhat different view of

giving by stating that the key factors of giving are **donor perceptions of prestige and image.**

Panus (1984, cited in Prince, 1994)) interviewed 20 individual donors who gave more than a million dollars in any given year. His research identified 22 motivations. These motivations included such factors as **“community responsibility and civic pride,” “tax considerations,”** and **“religious or spiritual affiliation of the institution.”**

In a follow-up survey, nonprofits were asked to rate how important they thought each of the 22 motivations was to philanthropists. Consistent, significant differences were found between what donors said motivated them and what nonprofits thought motivated donors. For example, donors rated the **fiscal stability** of the nonprofits high on a 10-point scale, while nonprofits estimated donors would rate it much lower (Panus, 1984, p. 3).

Boris (1987, cited in Prince, 1994) also collected data on the motivations of donors. For his research, a factor’s analysis was used to reduce 20 reasons to six motivational dimensions: **Altruism, Beliefs, Instrumental Motives, Memorial, Community,** and **Peer Pressure** (p. 4).

Odendahl (1990, cited in Prince, 1994), however, used anthropological methods to determine patterns in philanthropic motivation. An emphasis on cultural factors, religious orientation, and lifestyle factors resulted in Odendahl defining four donor groupings: **Dynasty and Philanthropy, Lady Bountiful, First Generation Man,** and **Elite Jewish Giving.**

In the *Seven Faces Study*, a set of 36 benefit-oriented items were used to create segments based on the benefits donors sought in creating major trusts. Cluster analysis of

the items resulted in four donor segments: *Affiliators*, who look for social and business linkages through nonprofit-related activities; *Pragmatists*, who seek personal financial advantages through support of nonprofits; *Dynasts*, who are heirs to family affluence and to a tradition of philanthropy; and *Repayers*, who want to reciprocate benefits they or someone close to them received from a nonprofit (Prince, 1994, pp. 5-6).

Although the reasons given are diverse, the major theme threaded throughout the literature was that donors are motivated to philanthropic giving by some type of “return.” Whether it is altruistic or tangible, donors expect a “reward” for their contributions to the non-profit, specifically the community college.

b. According to the literature reviewed in Chapter Two, what are the current trends in philanthropic giving?

Philanthropic advisers, fundraisers, and benefactors all agree that donors in the future are increasingly likely to specify in writing exactly how they want their money spent. Donors are also beginning to demand seats on committees that oversee the projects their money supports and are insisting that community colleges report to them on how they use their gifts.

Philanthropy observers, according to Blum (2002), state that the reason for donors’ new interest in seeking greater control over their contributions is known as strategic philanthropy, something that has been practiced by corporations and grant-makers for a long time. Other observers believe that with the collapse of Enron and the belief that following the September 11th attacks that the American Red Cross was misleading contributors, that a heightened interest in “accountability” has been created (p. 8).

Volunteer activities, particularly board memberships, are of importance for giving among the wealthy. Among the elite, contributions of money are part of an overall involvement with nonprofit organizations. According to Ostrower (1995; Blum, 2002), to understand why the wealthy give, one must understand the nature and significance of their connection to the nonprofit institution. The purpose of the gift, or the nature of the activity engaged in by the recipient organization, is a central element in how donors think about and carry out their philanthropy.

Current trends in philanthropic giving among donors, according to the literature, pivot on their relationship with the community college. The donors mandate a stronger presence at the community college. The donors must know the purpose of the gift, and the community colleges must be “accountable” for what they do with that gift, if they are to receive others.

Branches of the Giving Tree

Research Question 2. What do community college administrators in the state of Texas perceive are the reasons for donor giving, as determined by the quantitative survey results and the qualitative mindmaps?

Foundation administrators at community colleges in Texas, as determined by the quantitative survey results, perceived the reasons for donor giving as threefold, 1) **a good college reputation**, 2) **value to the community** (of the donor’s contribution), and 3) **a strong belief in education** (by the donor).

Administrators in community colleges who are not involved with foundations or philanthropic giving believe that the reason donors give to colleges is the **planning by the foundations for fundraising events**, as determined by the qualitative Focus Group 1 --- Administrators' mindmap. By drawing conclusions based on the IQA mindmap, the researcher surmised that the fundraising procedures developed by the foundation could cause philanthropic giving to occur, or not. If the procedures are clear and articulated to all, then staff and faculty will become involved, fundraising events will occur, community relations will be enhanced, donor relationships will be built, and, ultimately, scholarships will be created. If the procedures are not clear to all involved, the plans of the foundation will fail or be forever entrapped in the process.

Leaves of the Giving Tree

Research Question 3. What is the reality of why donors, both alumni and corporate in the state of Texas, give to community colleges as determined by the qualitative mindmap?

The *Seven Faces of Philanthropy* was utilized by the researcher to benchmark donor giving motivations and compared with the mindmaps created by the Interactive Qualitative Analysis system. The corporate donors fell into the category of *Affiliators*, who look for social and business linkages through nonprofit-related activities; and the Alumni were seen as members of the *Repayers*, who want to reciprocate benefits they or someone close to them received from a nonprofit (Prince, 1994, p. 5 & 6).

Philanthropic segmentation, defined by Kotler (1991), is a **motivational**, or **benefit**, segmentation that “calls for identifying the major benefits that people look for..., [and] the kinds of people who look for each benefit” (p. 273). Worth (1991) summarized this best by stating: “Donors want to give to a successful organization that makes good use of their money, not to a needy, desperate one.”

The reality of why donors, both corporate and alumni in the state of Texas, give to community colleges as determined by the qualitative IQA mindmap, is that they are **motivated by benefits “returned”** from their donations. The IQA created from the donors’ focus group clarifies this point by showing benefits in the form of improved curriculum, better facilities, better education for underserved students, a well-trained workforce, return of education to the community-at-large, any “return on investment” (ROI) to the donor, or simply an altruistic “thank you!”

Further explanation of these donor motivations is developed in this chapter, as each interviewee’s mindmap is analyzed in comparison to the donors’ focus group’s mindmap. The interviewees’ mindmaps lend a clarity and credibility to the research.

The Giving Tree

Research Question 4. Do similarities and/or differences exist between the perceptions and realities of these groups as determined by quantitative statistics and IQA mindmapping?

The literature best defines variables believed to increase fundraising through the beliefs of G. Jeremiah Ryan. Ryan has conducted perhaps the most extensive investigations of fundraising in American community colleges through national surveys

of development operations (Keener & Ryan, 1992; Ryan 1989). His 1989 survey found that over 80 percent of the institutional fundraisers identified the following specific variables associated with successful fundraising:

1. **Involvement on the part of the college's CEO.**
2. **The reputation of the institution** as the second essential component of successful fundraising. Motivations of pity, helping a public cause and philanthropy, making a positive difference to a worthy cause, were also stated as significant factors in fundraising in community colleges.
3. **The talents and energy of the development officer and a professional advancement staff.** A supporting study conducted by the National Association of College and University Business Officers showed that the dollars generated by a professional development staff exceed its operational cost by a factor of ten, an excellent return (Ryan, 1990).
4. **A successful foundation board of directors.** Composition of the foundation board must fit the donor community, and board members must be active in raising money. This means an active board made up of people who understand that their job is to get money, but not to decide how it will be spent.

According to the qualitative IQA mindmaps, there appear both similarities and differences between the focus groups. The administrator group used in the IQA study looked at philanthropic giving introspectively, concluding that it was the responsibility of the foundation to resolve all issues of philanthropic giving. Support was not there for foundation staff from other administrators. "Telling the college story" was left to the president and the foundation board.

The administrators, however unintentionally, did conclude that staff and faculty involvement would lead to better community relations and thereby scholarships. They deduced that fundraising events, if properly planned by the foundation, would lead to building stronger donor relations and again scholarships.

In comparing the two groups, there appeared to be very little knowledge or desire to know by the administrators of successful motivations for philanthropic giving to community colleges. Additionally, the administrators were limited in their understandings of what contributions could be given by donors, other than scholarships.

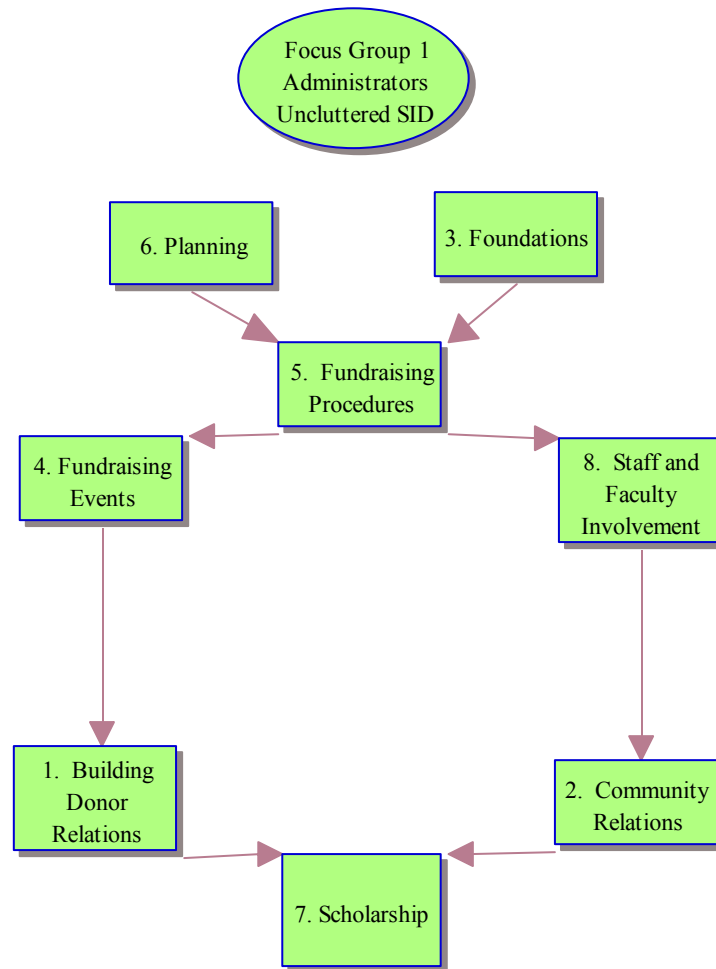
From the research emerged the knowledge that Texas foundation directors and community college presidents must look inwardly and train their administrators in donor motivations, while continuing to work with small staffs and few volunteers, to increase their outward community and donor relations thereby increasing their coffers in this time of economic downturn.

Additionally, community college administrators, development officers, and trustees must be prepared to listen closely to their constituents' demands and adhere to the needs of their community. In so doing, community colleges will reap the rewards of a strong foundation, enabling them to maintain their open-door policy and focus on their students' success.

COMPARISON OF ADMINISTRATORS' IQA AND SURVEY STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

It is important to look again at the Administrators' mindmap before drawing comparisons to the survey's statistical analysis of the foundation administrators.

Illustration 6.1: Focus Group 1 --- Administrators Uncluttered SID



The administrators who were not affiliated with fundraising pictured philanthropic giving beginning with the foundation's planning and establishing of fundraising procures. To them, the entire weight of fundraising responsibility lay on the shoulders of the development officers. Development officers were to create outstanding fundraising events, thereby building strong donor relations. The development office was additionally charged to create fundraising procedures that would enlighten staff and faculty and encourage a strong involvement that would increase community relations.

All procedures planned by the foundations would ultimately lead to increased scholarships for students, primarily, and faculty, secondarily.

Comparing the administrators' mindmap with the analysis of the following statistics from the development officers, illustrates several similarities and differences between the groups. The development officers at the 51 Texas two-year colleges agreed, out of either necessity or frustration, that the size of the foundation income depended almost solely on the efforts of the development office. This concept held true in both rural and urban community colleges.

While the administrators were evidently unaware of the benefits derived from providing quality employees to businesses through the college workforce education programs (see **Illustration 6.1**), the development officers ranked this attribute high as a motivation for increased philanthropic giving (see **Tables 6.8 and 6.9**). Again, we see the **motivational loop** emphasized through the foundations' efforts and the **benefits loop** signified by the return to the companies of qualified employees. Return of qualified employees to the companies was highly ranked by the colleges with large foundation incomes, indicating that they have discovered the connection to companies in their communities and the connection as defined in the benefits loop of the IQA study.

Although Soroker (1974) stated that "guilt" is a motivation for donors and there is shown a high *frequency* and *eta* rate statistically for "guilt" (see **Table 6.2**) the *mean* measures of association do not validate this correlation (see **Table 6.3**). Further study of "guilt" as a donor motivation, especially in comparison to location and enrollment at the colleges, will be needed to make this determination.

Enrollment of the college also determined through the aid of the Anova Table statistics that "Pre-tax Advantage" and "Reaction to Pressure" were motivations for giving. Since "Reaction to Pressure" was only shown as significant in colleges with a

medium size enrollment, it could be concluded that small and large enrollment college foundations do not use or see this as a motivation for giving or that the reaction to pressure is a motivation more vocalized and noticeable in colleges with medium enrollments. Further study would also be required to make this determination.

“Pre-tax advantage” as a motivation for giving is strongly aligned with colleges that have a medium enrollment and slightly less with colleges with large enrollments (see **Table 6.5**). One can conjecture that colleges with medium and large enrollments are in communities with access to larger numbers of corporations, as well as a more lucrative population, that would consider the “pre-tax advantage” as a motivation for giving.

Interestingly, we can conclude when comparing the two groups that the administrators who were not involved with philanthropic giving did not understand the depth and breadth of the development offices’ duties and responsibilities. Nor did they comprehend the broad scope of benefits that could be received by the college through the efforts of the development office. If fundraising is “friend-raising,” it would stand to reason that involvement of all administrators, faculty, and staff is necessary to increase the funds flowing into the colleges’ efforts.

Table 6.1: LOCATION College Urban/Rural Area

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	2 Rural	21	52.5	52.5	52.5
	1 Urban	19	47.5	47.5	100.0
	Total	40	100.0	100.0	

Table 6.2: Anova Table --- Significant Donor Motivations by Location

		F	Sig.	Eta
V61	11-H Efforts of Development office motivation * LOCATGRP Location of colleges	6.845	.013	.391
V69	11-P Guilt motivation * LOCATGRP Location of colleges	5.017	.031	.342
V65	11-L Loyalty to college from graduate motivation * LOCATGRP Location of colleges	2.847	.100	.264
V63	11-J Return to College for providing quality employees motivation * LOCATGRP Location of colleges	2.614	.114	.254
V70	11-Q Ego/The Need to Affiliate motivation * LOCATGRP Location of colleges	2.157	.150	.232
V71	11-R Self-preservation motivation * LOCATGRP Location of colleges	2.090	.156	.228
V55	11-B "Good Experience" while attending college motivation * LOCATGRP Location of colleges	1.710	.199	.208
V64	11-K Return to Community motivation * LOCATGRP Location of	1.703	.200	.207

colleges				
V57	11-D Value to Community	1.339	.254	.184
motivation * LOCATGRP	Location of colleges			
V56	11-C Value to Donor motivation	.840	.365	.147
* LOCATGRP	Location of colleges			
V60	11-G "Good Feeling" to Donate	.809	.374	.144
motivation * LOCATGRP	Location of colleges			
V72	11-S Belief in Education	.736	.396	.138
motivation * LOCATGRP	Location of colleges			
V67	11-N Pre-tax Advantage	.606	.441	.125
motivation * LOCATGRP	Location of colleges			
V66	11-M Faculty/Staff Involvement	.358	.553	.097
motivation * LOCATGRP	Location of colleges			
V73	11-T Reaction to Pressure	.180	.674	.069
motivation * LOCATGRP	Location of colleges			
V59	11-F Efforts of Foundation	.130	.720	.058
Board Members motivation * LOCATGRP	Location of colleges			

V62 11-I Social Importance to Donor motivation * LOCATGRP Location of colleges	.083	.775	.047
V58 11-E Efforts of College Pres. motivation * LOCATGRP Location of colleges	.036	.851	.031
V68 11-O Deferred Gift Advantage motivation * LOCATGRP Location of colleges	.024	.878	.025
V54 11-A College Reputation motivates donors * LOCATGRP Location of colleges	.010	.922	.016

Table 6.3: Mean Measures of Association of Donor Motivations by Location

LOCATGRP Location of colleges		V61 11-H Efforts of Development office motivation	V69 11-P Guilt motivation
1.00 Urban colleges	Mean	4.21	1.00
	N	19	19
	Std. Deviation	.631	.577
2.00 Rural colleges	Mean	3.38	1.62
	N	21	21
	Std. Deviation	1.244	1.071
Total	Mean	3.78	1.33
	N	40	40
	Std. Deviation	1.074	.917

Table 6.4: Enrollment Groups for colleges

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1.00 Small enrollment	14	35.0	35.0	35.0
	2.00 Medium enrollment	13	32.5	32.5	67.5
	3.00 Large enrollment	13	32.5	32.5	100.0
	Total	40	100.0	100.0	

Table 6.5: ANOVA Table of Significant Donor Motivations by Enrollment

	F	Sig.	Eta
V67 11-N Pre-tax Advantage motivation * ENROLGRP Enrollment Groups for colleges	4.074	.025	.425
V73 11-T Reaction to Pressure motivation * ENROLGRP Enrollment Groups for colleges	3.734	.033	.410
V69 11-P Guilt motivation * ENROLGRP Enrollment Groups for colleges	3.240	.050	.386
V60 11-G "Good Feeling" to Donate motivation * ENROLGRP Enrollment Groups for colleges	3.185	.053	.383
V56 11-C Value to Donor motivation * ENROLGRP Enrollment Groups for colleges	3.118	.056	.380
V70 11-Q Ego/The Need to Affiliate motivation * ENROLGRP Enrollment Groups for colleges	2.908	.067	.369
V71 11-R Self-preservation motivation * ENROLGRP Enrollment Groups for	2.754	.077	.360

colleges			
V57 11-D Value to Community motivation * ENROLGRP Enrollment Groups for colleges	2.425	.102	.340
V54 11-A College Reputation motivates donors * ENROLGRP Enrollment Groups for colleges	2.295	.115	.332
V72 11-S Belief in Education motivation * ENROLGRP Enrollment Groups for colleges	2.117	.135	.320
V58 11-E Efforts of College Pres. motivation * ENROLGRP Enrollment Groups for colleges	1.649	.206	.286
V63 11-J Return to College for providing quality employees motivation * ENROLGRP Enrollment Groups for colleges	1.359	.269	.262
V61 11-H Efforts of Development office motivation * ENROLGRP Enrollment Groups for colleges	1.246	.299	.251
V55 11-B "Good Experience" while attending college motivation * ENROLGRP Enrollment Groups for colleges	1.158	.325	.243
V68 11-O Deferred Gift Advantage motivation * ENROLGRP Enrollment Groups for colleges	.888	.420	.214
V62 11-I Social Importance to Donor motivation * ENROLGRP Enrollment Groups for colleges	.727	.490	.194
V65 11-L Loyalty to college from graduate motivation * ENROLGRP Enrollment Groups for colleges	.661	.522	.186

V64 11-K Return to Community motivation * ENROLGRP Enrollment Groups for colleges	.527	.595	.166
V66 11-M Faculty/Staff Involvement motivation * ENROLGRP Enrollment Groups for colleges	.504	.608	.163
V59 11-F Efforts of Foundation Board Members motivation * ENROLGRP Enrollment Groups for colleges	.011	.989	.024

Table 6.6: Mean Measure of Association of Donor Motivation by Enrollment

ENROLGRP Enrollment Groups for colleges		V67 11-N Pre-tax Advantage motivation	V69 11-P Guilt motivation	V73 11-T Reaction to Pressure motivation
1.00 Small enrollment	Mean	2.29	1.43	1.57
	N	14	14	14
	Std. Deviation	1.383	1.016	1.284
2.00 Medium enrollment	Mean	3.54	1.69	2.54
	N	13	13	13
	Std. Deviation	1.198	1.032	1.198
3.00 Large enrollment	Mean	2.46(?)	.85	1.38
	N	13	13	13
	Std. Deviation	1.050	.376	.961
Total	Mean	2.75	1.33	1.82
	N	40	40	40
	Std. Deviation	1.316	.917	1.238

Table 6.7: Foundation income by groups

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1.00 Small income	13	32.5	33.3	33.3
	2.00 Median income	13	32.5	33.3	66.7
	3.00 Large income	13	32.5	33.3	100.0
	Total	39	97.5	100.0	
Missing	System	1	2.5		
Total		40	100.0		

Table 6.8: ANOVA Table --- Significant Donor Motivations by Foundation Income

	F	Sig.	Eta
V63 11-J Return to College for providing quality employees motivation * INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	5.653	.007	.489
V61 11-H Efforts of Development office motivation * INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	2.775	.076	.365
V60 11-G "Good Feeling" to Donate motivation * INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	2.194	.126	.330
V64 11-K Return to Community motivation * INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	1.955	.156	.313
V70 11-Q Ego/The Need to Affiliate motivation * INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	1.179	.319	.248
V58 11-E Efforts of College Pres. motivation * INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	1.002	.377	.230

V55 11-B "Good Experience" while attending college motivation * INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	.923	.406	.221
V56 11-C Value to Donor motivation * INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	.873	.426	.215
V72 11-S Belief in Education motivation * INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	.791	.461	.205
V65 11-L Loyalty to college from graduate motivation * INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	.673	.517	.190
V66 11-M Faculty/Staff Involvement motivation * INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	.525	.596	.168
V57 11-D Value to Community motivation * INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	.510	.605	.166
V68 11-O Deferred Gift Advantage motivation * INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	.344	.711	.137
V54 11-A College Reputation motivates donors * INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	.274	.762	.122
V69 11-P Guilt motivation * INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	.261	.772	.120
V59 11-F Efforts of Foundation Board Members motivation * INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	.184	.832	.101
V67 11-N Pre-tax Advantage motivation * INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	.184	.833	.101
V71 11-R Self-preservation motivation * INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups	.083	.920	.068
V73 11-T Reaction to Pressure motivation *	.063	.939	.059

Table 6.9: Mean Measure of Association of Donor Motivation by Foundation Income

V62 11-I Social Importance to Donor motivation *		.000	1.000	.000
INCOMGRP Foundation income by groups				
V63 11-J Return to College for providing quality employees motivation				
1.00 Small income	Mean			2.08
	N			13
	Std. Deviation			1.038
2.00 Medium income	Mean			2.85
	N			13
	Std. Deviation			1.144
3.00 Large income	Mean			3.46
	N			13
	Std. Deviation			.967
Total	Mean			2.79
	N			39
	Std. Deviation			1.174

EXAMINATION OF THE SURVEY RESPONSES COMPARED TO THE DONOR IQA

In evaluating the motivations for giving and the influences of motivations on the success of fundraising, as determined by the development officers' responses to the statistical survey used in this research, Gay (1996) recommends that one look to the mean values of the statistics.

Comparing the means (see **Table 6.10**) to the Focus Group 2 - Donors Uncluttered SID (see **Illustration 6.2**), it can be surmised that both groups ranked the **reputation of the college** as the primary impetus for donor giving, similar to Ryan's study. Although **value to the community** and **belief in education** were looked at as

outcomes (rewards), in the Donor IQA study, the development officers in the statistical survey ranked them high on the motivation list.

The efforts of the development officer, foundation board, and the president were identified as primary drivers by the non-development administrators, also similar to the Ryan study, and were considered of significant by the development officers who participated in the survey. Intriguingly, the donors never mentioned the efforts of the foundation officers as a motivation for giving. However, it is unlikely, without the efforts of the few and the hardy - development officers and presidents - that donors would ever know about the community college, its partnerships, or its scholarship needs.

The donor focus group (see **Illustration 6.2**) concluded that the **Rewards/Benefits to the Community** affinity was the primary outcome for their philanthropic giving. Again, the development officers concurred with the impact of the motivation of **Return to the Community** (see **Table 6.10 and 6.11**). Both groups saw a connection between philanthropic giving and the benefits, return, or value to the donor.

Faculty/staff involvement was not seen as significant as other motivators were. Perhaps with a fresh look by the development officers at the resources available “at their own back door,” both groups can learn from each other and in so doing increase philanthropic giving to the colleges.

Another strong motivator seen by the donors, but not recognized as significant by the development officers, was that of allegiance or loyalty to the community college. If a strong allegiance is formed with both alumni and corporate donors, a continual flow of untapped resources can be created.

Panus (1984) points out in his studies that a fiscally sound institution is important in fundraising. While the development officers agreed with him, the donors incorporated

the financial stability of the college into their consideration of the reputation of the college.

Table 6.10: Motivations for Giving --- Means

	Mean
11-A College Reputation motivates donors	4.18
11-D Value to Community motivation	4.18
11-S Belief in Education motivation	4.18
11-H Efforts of Development office motivation	3.78
11-E Efforts of College Pres. motivation	3.68
11-K Return to Community motivation	3.63
11-F Efforts of Foundation Board Members motivation	3.50
11-C Value to Donor motivation	3.40
11-G "Good Feeling" to Donate motivation	3.40
11-B "Good Experience" while attending college motivation	3.33
11-I Social Importance to Donor motivation	2.80
11-J Return to College for providing quality employees motivation	2.80
11-N Pre-tax Advantage motivation	2.75
11-M Faculty/Staff Involvement motivation	2.68
11-L Loyalty to college from graduate motivation	2.53
11-O Deferred Gift Advantage motivation	2.08
11-Q Ego/The Need to Affiliate motivation	1.98
11-T Reaction to Pressure motivation	1.83
11-R Self-preservation motivation	1.68
11-P Guilt motivation	1.33

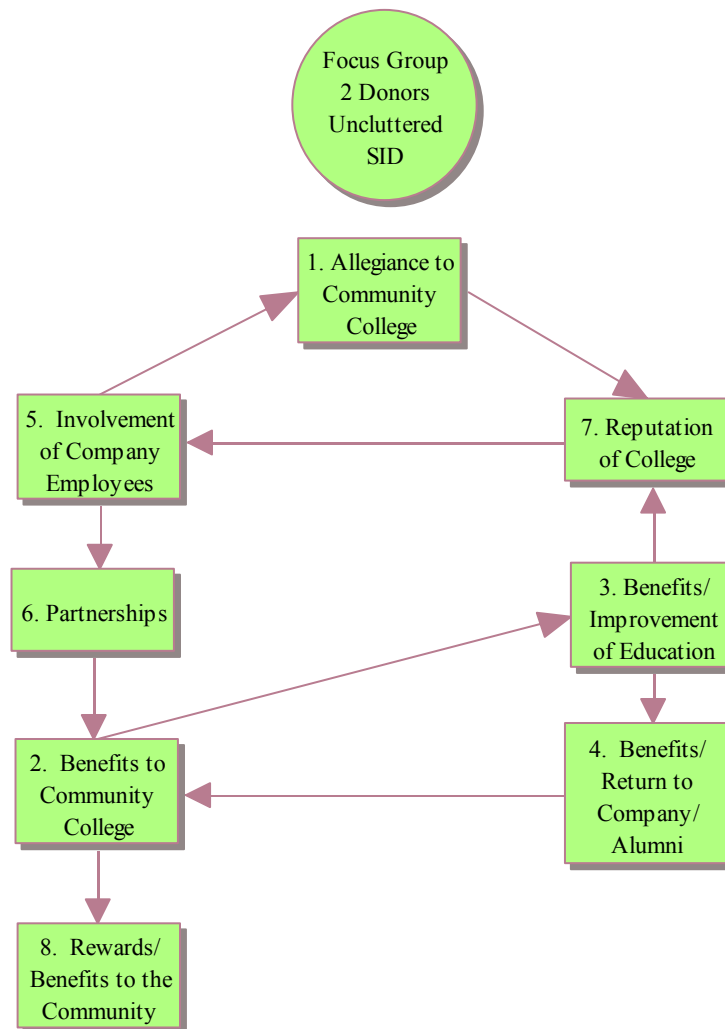
Table 6.11: Motivational Influences on Fundraising --- Means

12-C Value to Community influence on success of fundraising	4.28
12-A College Reputation influence on successful fundraising	4.25
12-F Efforts of Development Office on success of fundraising	4.00
12-D Efforts of College President influence on success of fundraising	3.68
12-E Efforts of Foundation Board Members on success of fundraising	3.65
12-K Fiscally Sound College influence on success of fundraising	3.65
12-B Value to Donor influence on success of fundraising	3.55
12-H Faculty/Staff Involvement influence on success of fundraising	2.73
12-G Loyalty to College from Graduates influence on success of fundraising	2.60
12-I Pre-Tax Advantage influence on success of fundraising	2.53
12-J Deferred Gift Advantage influence on success of fundraising	2.00

AFFINITIES COMPARISON AND CONTRAST --- INTERVIEWEE STUDIES

In order to understand the similarities and differences between Focus Group 2 - Donors and the individual interviewees, we must center on their respective IQA mindmaps.

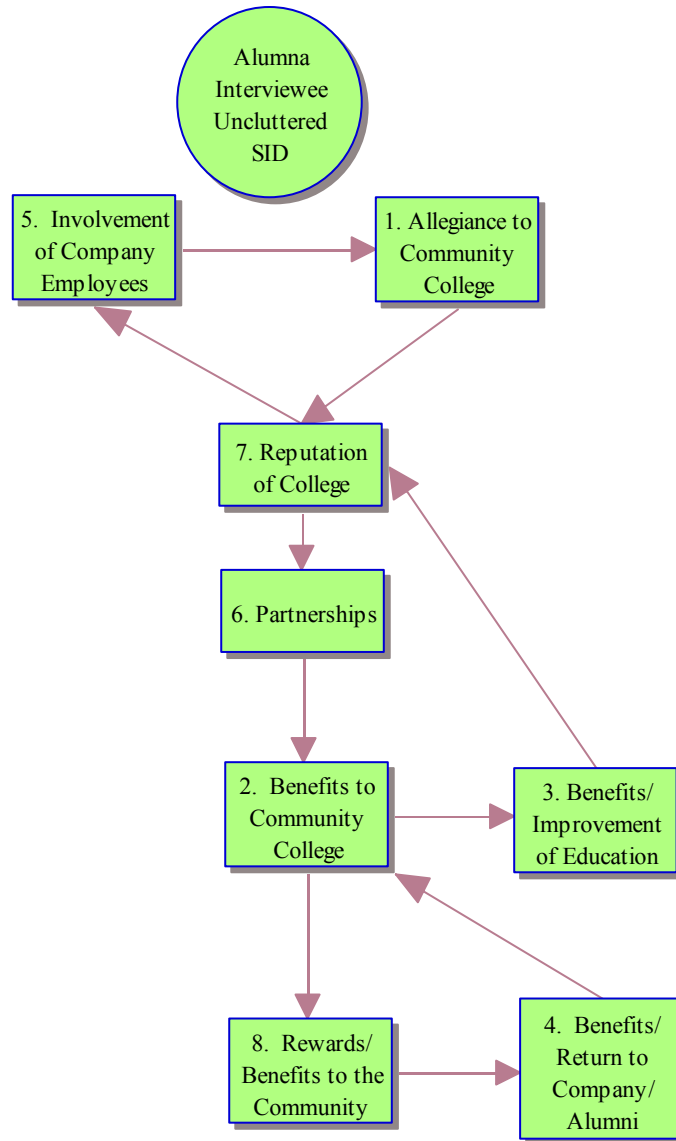
Illustration 6.2: Focus Group 2 - Donors Uncluttered SID



Summarizing the Focus Group 2 - Donors mindmap (see **Illustration 6.2**) determined that Donors believe that *Allegiance to the Community College* and the

Reputation of the College are primary drivers (causes) of the *Reward/Benefits to the Community*, primary outcome (effect).

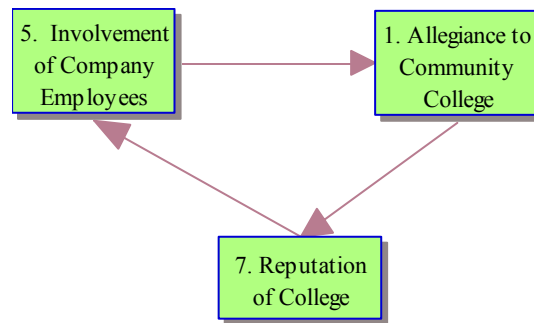
Illustration 6.3: Alumna Interviewee Uncluttered SID



The alumna for this study was a young Asian female who had attended a community college and was now an upper classman at a four-year institution. Our alumna saw the same recursion as the donor focus group (see **Illustration 6.2**) between the affinities *Allegiance to Community College*, *Reputation of College*, and *Involvement of Company Employees*. However, she did not express that the *Reward/Benefits to the Community* was a “stand alone” outcome. Another recursion loop (see **Illustration 6.6**) defines the benefits as she saw them relating through the affinities *Benefits to Community College*, *Rewards/Benefits to the Community*, and *Benefits/Return to Company/Alumni*. Comments articulated by the alumna concerning these drivers and outcomes were: “knowing that your money would be invested in employees that would care about what they were doing or were enthusiastic about it, would make you more inclined to donate just because of the guarantee of your investment, getting a better return would be in better hands”; and,

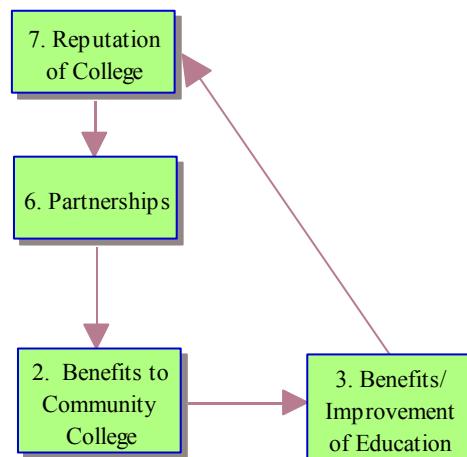
Of course, the better experience that you have with a community college would create a higher allegiance. The kind of quality of the class, the quality of the education, the involvement of the teachers and the administration, all attribute to the kind of experience that a student has from a community college. When I graduate, if I have a ‘good kind of taste in my mouth’ when I leave, then I would be more inclined to help future students at that community college.

Illustration 6.4: Alumna Feedback Loop 5-1-7



The alumna feedback loop **1 to 7 to 5 to 1** (see **Illustration 6.4**) highlights the **Motivation Loop** discovered also in the Focus Group 2 – Donors mindmap. According to the alumna, “the more involved that the company employees are at the community college, then the more of an allegiance that they’ll feel”; and “you want to be aligned with something that has a good reputation and you don’t tend to associate yourself with it if it doesn’t”; stressed the importance of the reputation of the college.

Illustration 6.5: Alumna Feedback Loop 7-6-2-3

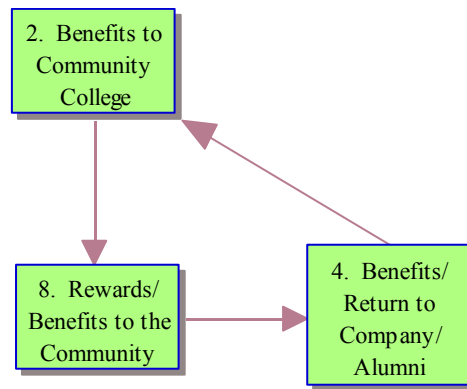


The feedback loop of **7 to 6 to 2 to 3 to 7** (see **Illustration 6.5**) in the alumna mindmap shows the reputation of the college's influence, if it is good, causing stronger partnerships with alumni and corporations, following with benefits to the community college and improvements of education. This **Benefits Loop** is similar to that of the donors, except that the involvement of company employees is a secondary influence on the benefits through the reputation of the college and not the reverse. The alumna states that, "...the more partnerships, ... that the community college can foster in the community, ...in turn ends up benefiting them because the more resources and the more connections they make the more permanent they are in the community... that has to do with their reputation also." Leading back to one of the primary drivers, *Reputation of College*, the alumna succinctly phrased the importance of a good reputation on benefits to the college.

Providing improvements to the general education, according to the alumna, is important because:

...with more people in the community involved, you've provided more jobs, you get more money circulating into the community, in turn, it is going to prosper and from there the result is like a snowball affect that when there's more money in a community, the more businesses are attracted and you get more going and ... education is sort of like the grass roots agent of all of that... of all of that prosperity.

Illustration 6.6: Alumna Feedback Loop 2-8-4

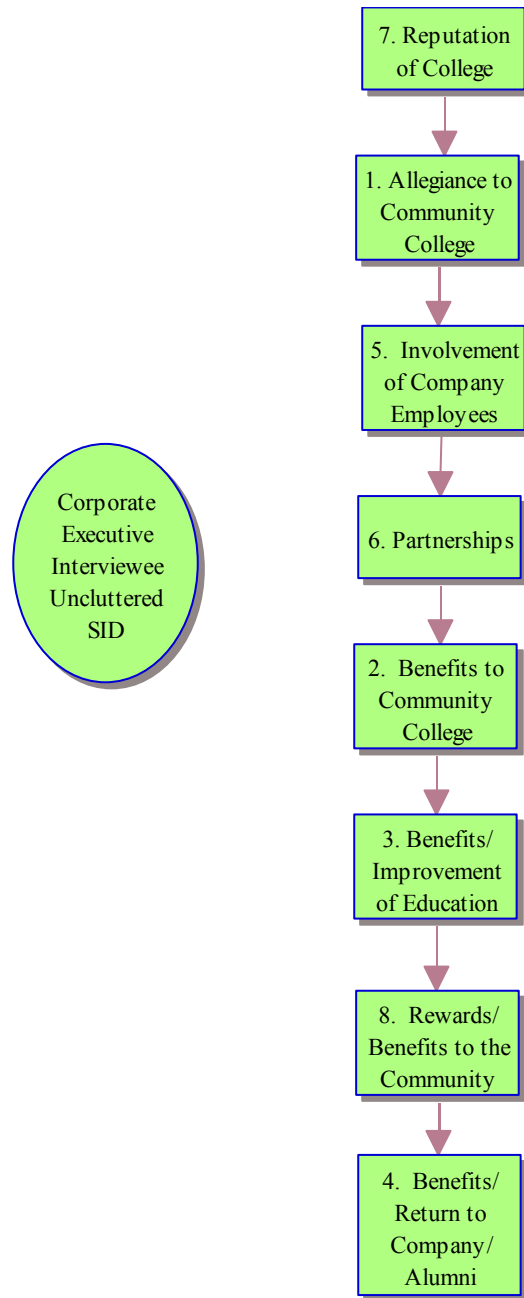


The alumna mindmap defined another feedback loop, 2 to 8 to 4 to 2 (see **Illustration 6.6**), expressing a combination of rewards and benefits. This feedback loop contains *Benefits to Community College* influencing *Rewards/Benefits to the Community* influencing the *Benefits/Return to Company/Alumni* recursing to *Benefits to Community College*. Thoughts expressed about this **Rewards Loop** by the alumna were “...of course alumni are giving, to be more prone to giving back to a community college, if they are getting something in return. You always have the goodwill of giving, but if I was getting something in return, a return on my investment, then I would be more prone to give again and to tell possibly other alumni and open up other opportunities because it makes giving more attractive.”

Because the alumna has three feedback loops in her mindmap, there were multiple ways to get from the motivation of the donor to the rewards. The disadvantage to these pathways is that the alumna could be caught in the **Motivational Loop** due to a college’s bad reputation or lack of a strong allegiance. Significantly, the only difference between

the Alumna mindmap and the Donors' mindmap (see **Illustration 6.2**) is that the alumna sees the benefits as constantly replenishing themselves. As the community college benefits it will be able to share and increase benefits to the community in return broadening the recognition and the significance of giving to the community college. The community will recognize the importance of having a trained workforce and a community college that provides a strong alliance or partnership with its alumni and will in return give to the community college.

Illustration 6.7: Corporate Executive Interviewee Uncluttered



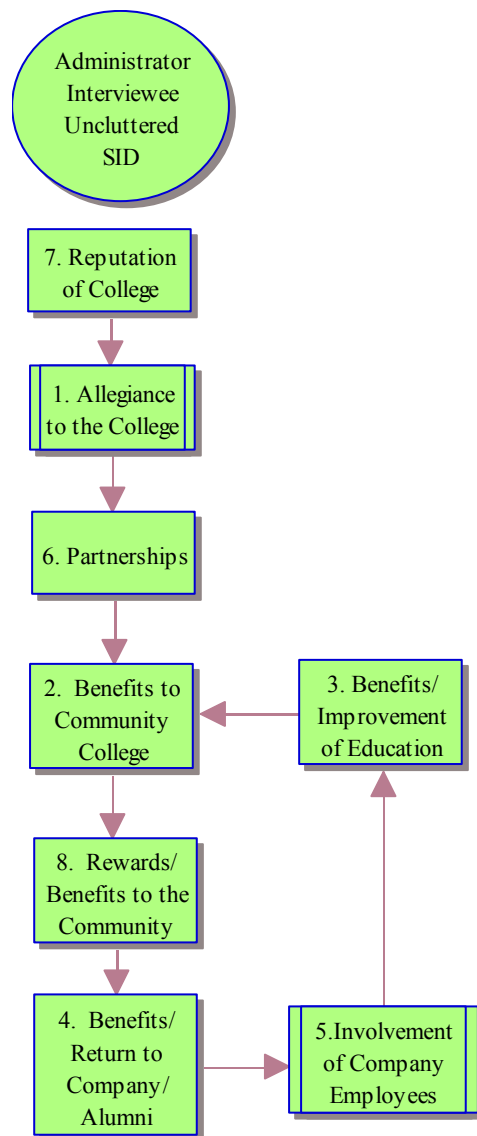
The corporate executive interviewee was a Caucasian female executive in a large corporation that contributes philanthropically to a community college. Looking at the Corporate Executive Interviewee Uncluttered SID (mindmap) (see **Illustration 6.7**), it can be determined that the primary driver is the *Reputation of the College* influencing all other affinities to reach the primary outcome of *Benefits/Return to Company/Alumni*. Comparing this mindmap to that of the Focus Group 2 – Donors (see **Illustration 6.2**), it can be observed that the Donors felt that if the college had a poor reputation there were ways through the Involvement of Company Employees and Allegiance to the Community College that the reputation could be improved and thereby increase giving. However, the Corporate Executive Interviewee felt that the reputation of the college directly influenced the “win-win” involvement of company employees and partnerships. From this one can conclude, according to the Corporate Executive interviewee’s mindmap, if the community college has a bad or poor reputation then there will be no effort toward philanthropic giving from the corporations and their much needed monies would go elsewhere in the community.

The corporate executive verbalized that “... it is the relationships that you have that get you involved in programs, that keep [those] programs going. ...I thing it was ...[reference to a community college administrator] that got us involved with the college and continuing to be involved with them in good times and in challenging times.” Personal relationships of college administrators, in addition to development officers, played an extremely important role in corporate giving as demonstrated by the previous statement.

The corporate executive's mindmap also determined that the main reason or outcome for giving to a community college was the benefit or "return on investment" to her company. She articulated this belief in the following theoretical coding extracts: "... we have to look at what are we [the company] funding, what are we supporting, is that going in the direction that we want it to go in?" and "... if we give out time and money to [the community college], while we don't necessarily say we want something back, we also know that there's going to be a more educated pool [of employees] in the community that we could potentially pull from at some point."

The corporate executive mindmap appears to be clear-cut and a direct path from the reputation of the college, to giving, to a return to the company. However, the danger that lies in a mindmap without feedback loops is that once the process is broken - by the college's reputation changing from good to bad, the company employees becoming disenchanted with working with the community college, or the benefits to the community college not in return benefiting the general education or the community - the giving stops! Community colleges beware; your most fragile relationships, or partnerships that require the most nurturing, are with your community corporations.

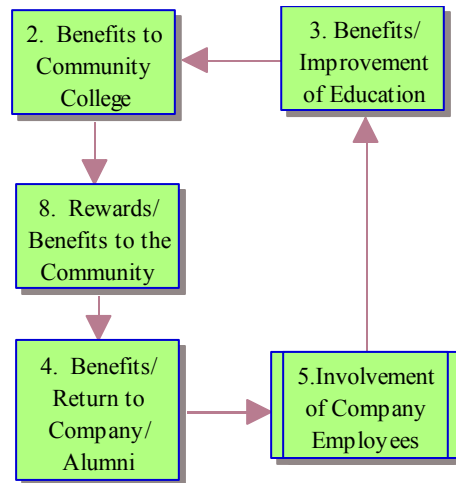
Illustration 6.8: Administrator Interviewee Uncluttered SID



To allow the researcher to create a comparison to the alumni and corporate donors, individual interviews were conducted with a community college development director and trustee using the same affinities created by Focus Group 2 - Donors (see **Illustration 6.2**).

The administrator was a Caucasian female development director at a Texas community college. One can deduce from the Administrator Interviewee’s mindmap (see **Illustration 6.8**) that she has a slightly different mind set than the donors. The foundation administrator sensed that the *Reputation of the College*, “...because you are a steward of the donor’s money, [and] in corporate giving they are looking at the return on investment,” was the primary driver or cause for philanthropic giving. Pointedly, she states: “Usually they’ll [donors] know about the college...good or bad...and if it’s a bad reputation, they’re not going to have an allegiance [with the college]; if it’s a good reputation, they will.” The administrator viewed the primary outcome as a feedback loop of benefits and rewards, - metaphorically speaking, as “one hand washing the other.”

Illustration 6.9: Administrator Feedback Loop 2-8-4-5-3



In analyzing the Administrator’s feedback loop, 2 to 8 to 4 to 5 to 3 to 2 (see **Illustration 6.9**), the Administrator saw “... the involvement of the employees ... help, actually helps, our bottom line. You know, we don’t need to hire adjunct faculty if

they're on loan from the company.” Contrastingly, the Focus Group 2 – Donors (see **Illustration 6.2**), the Alumna (see **Illustration 6.3**), and Corporate Executive (see **Illustration 6.7**) saw the affinity, *Involvement of Company Employees* as a motivation, instead of a benefit. The Administrator explained her outlook on this relationship by stating, “If the company is looking for their return on investment, by enabling their employees to expand their jobs...and get them more involved, the employees see too... they will be happier...and [look] more favorably upon the company.”

The Administrator voiced her opinion about company employees' involvement benefiting the general education by stating, “Again, I look at the company employees as our faculty...having them come in and be able to give...up-to-date information on the latest equipment or the latest techniques helps us in a way we wouldn't have been able to do, if we had someone who was just teaching that course and wasn't working in [the] industry.” The Administrator saw the outcome from the company employees' involvement ultimately as the benefit to the community from that involvement.

It is significant that there is a **Benefits Loop** (see **Illustration 6.9**) in the Administrator's mindmap and no **Motivation Loop** as seen in the Combined Interviewees' Uncluttered SID and the Focus Group 2 - Donors Uncluttered SID (see **Illustration 6.2**). One can conclude that although the benefits/rewards affinities are continually reinforcing each other through donor giving, if there is a breakdown anywhere along the line of the motivations --- reputation, allegiance, partnerships --- there will be no benefits.

Interestingly, the Administrator throughout the interview stressed the significance of her college's scholarships and the role they play in fundraising, matching the primary

outcome affinity, *Scholarships*, of the Focus Group 1 --- Administrators' mindmap (see **Illustration 6.1**). Perhaps the administrators only know of the benefit of Scholarships to the college from donors because that is the primary one stressed by development officers.

The Trustee Interviewee was a Caucasian male community college foundation board trustee. Unlike the community college Administrator Interviewee, the Trustee's Uncluttered SID (mindmap) (see **Illustration 6.10**) included two major feedback loops -- - a **Motivational Loop** and a **Benefits Loop**.

Illustration 6.10: Trustee Interviewee Uncluttered SID

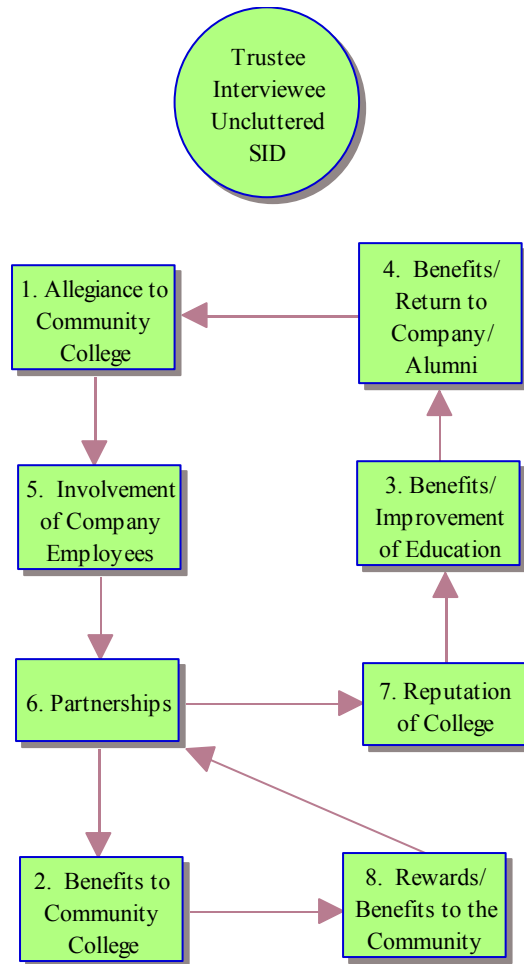
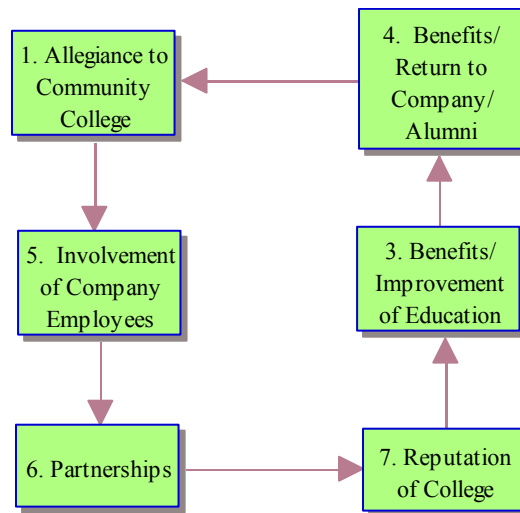


Illustration 6.11: Trustee Feedback Loop 1-5-6-7-3-4



This feedback loop (see **Illustration 6.11**) demonstrates the intertwining of the motivations for donors. The Trustee drew motivational relationships between not only the reputation of the college, the allegiance to the college, and involvement of company employees, but included benefits/improvement of education and partnerships as motivational tools.

The trustee felt that,

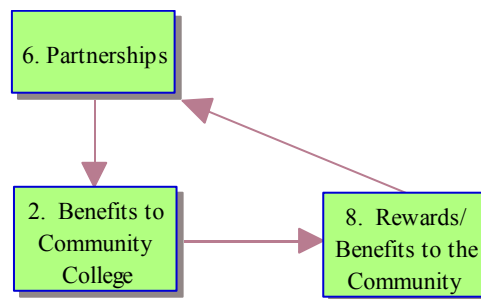
...if their [company] employees [were] involved with the college, the company's were much more inclined to participate as a donor and the reason for that is usually because the company employee, if the employee is involved in a college in some way, shape, or form, they'll go over and lobby the people over in the giving office to say, 'Hey, you know, this is something really good.' Lobbying from a fellow employee is generally more effective than an outside call from somebody else.

The Trustee referred to corporate donors as "enlightened, self-interest contributors." He compared them to the Altruistic donors, those who contribute because "...they know that the cost of non-education shows up in the community in crime,

welfare, [and] all those kinds of problems,” as being more “hands-on” with their donations because the corporate donors on the most part want to know “.... where their money is going as [far as] contributing to an area that will be of benefit to them in the long term.”

Concerning alumni donors, the Trustee postulated that, “... the more connection that they [alumni] see to a college, they [are] much more inclined to give. If they’re a graduate of the college and the college has done a lot for them then they’re going to be more inclined to give, than if theydidn’t know anything about it.”

Illustration 6.12: Trustee Feedback Loop 6-2-8



The Trustee unknowingly described the **Benefits Loop** (see Illustration 6.12) when he commented “... support is sort of a self-contained loop. In other words, if the college is doing something that benefits the company, then the company is going to contribute to the college to try to enhance that benefit ...as a symbiotic relationship.”

Comments about the reputation of the college and its influence on the rewards/benefits to the community by the Trustee were such as,

If they're [donors] directly interested in what kind of graduates will come out of the college, that they might be able to hire in their industry, or if they're [donors] indirectly interested, [such as,] if they know the college needs a certain kind of people in the community and that the college provides these kinds of people [employees] it [the community college] will be something they want to support.

The affinity *Partnerships* as described by the Trustee and in agreement with his Tabular IRD is "circular or symbiotic." "Partnerships have to be 'win-win' relationships." "Both parties have to feel that they made... that they benefited from the arrangement." However, this very intuitive Trustee pointed out the crux of all community college partnerships by concluding that "... if it's going to be a win for one, then it's got to be a win for the other, otherwise the partnership dissolves very quickly."

The Trustee completed the interview by stating the following about philanthropic giving: "... it's the public and private support of the college that is such a needed benefit because the state support is rapidly glooming [fading] away."

RECOMMENDATIONS---CONCLUSIONS

Many community colleges desire a slice of the philanthropic pie. The five overarching themes discovered in this study to assist colleges in obtaining their “slice” were: 1) the link between a college’s reputation and the success of its foundation; 2) the significant weight that strong allegiance to a community college can carry in creating long-term donors; 3) the importance of partnerships between the community colleges and local corporations and alumni; 4) the significant role that company employees can play, both motivationally and beneficially, in creating donors for the community college; and 5) benefits that are derived from these motivations contribute to the community college, education as a whole, the community-at-large, and most importantly, as a return to the companies and alumni who support the college. The process of growing a ***Giving Tree*** by every community college foundation can be developed from these themes.

Illustration 6.13: The Giving Tree

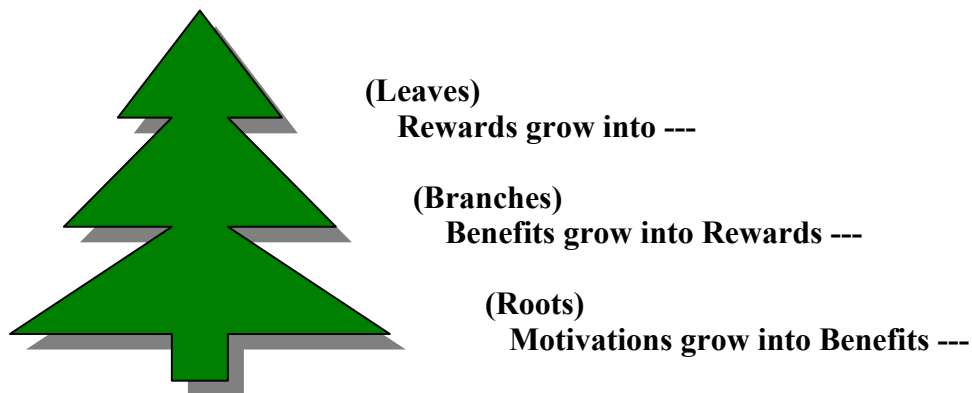
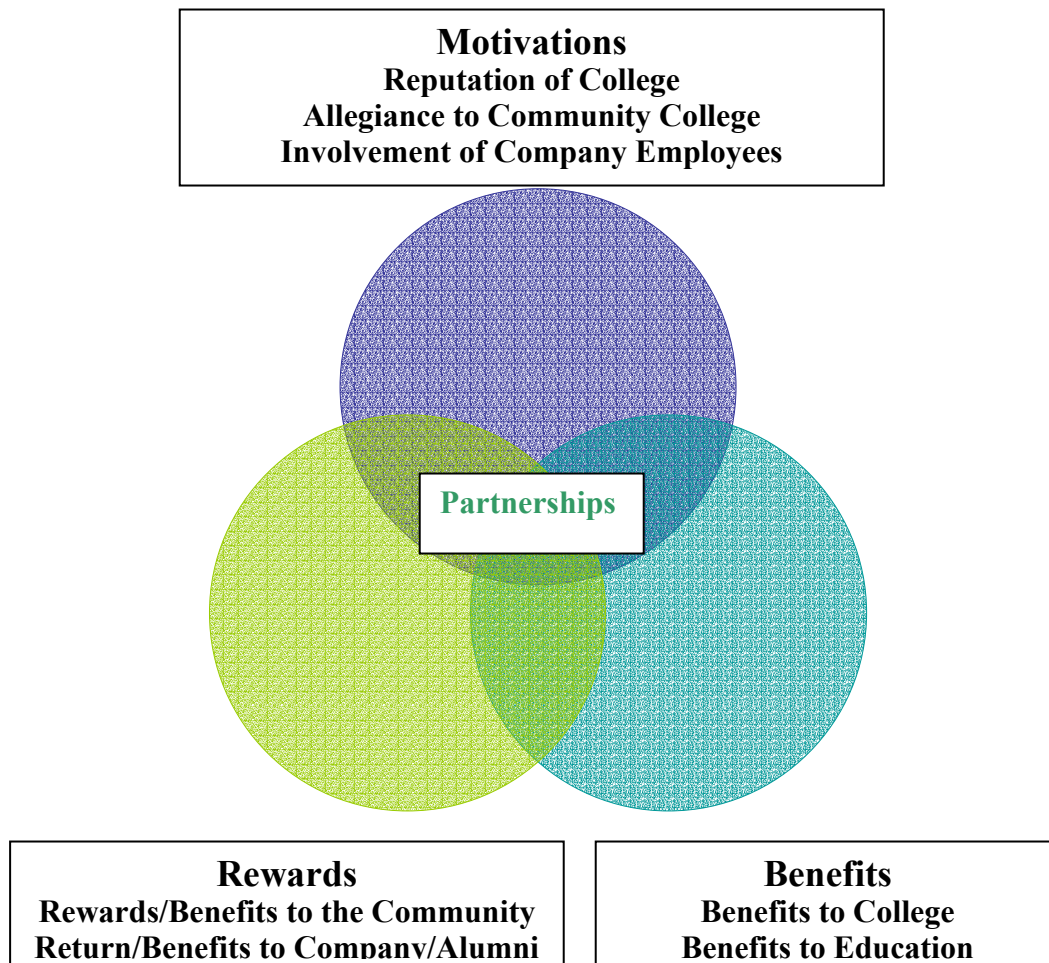


ILLUSTRATION 6.14: ERRETT MODEL OF SUCCESS

**THE ERRETT MODEL OF SUCCESS
FOR DONOR PHILANTHROPIC GIVING**



GROWING YOUR OWN “GIVING TREE” RECOMMENDATIONS:

Community college foundations can assure their success in growing their own **Giving Tree** by focusing on the following:

- Making corporations more aware of the importance that community colleges provide through workforce training;
- Asking alumni to support the college and thereby enabling other students to receive an education at low cost within an open-door policy;
- Reminding community leaders of the importance of the community college;
- Maintaining the highest integrity and providing a reputable name in the community;
- Continuing to stress the significant role that community colleges play in serving the underprivileged and diverse groups of students from the community who would not otherwise have an opportunity to receive an education beyond high school;
- Encouraging community leaders to invest in the college through deferred giving and other tax-advantage gifts;
- Reaching out to the community and soliciting parents of the community college students as resources for revenue because of their vested interest in keeping the tuitions down and the mission of the community college alive;
- Training the foundation board trustees about their responsibilities in fundraising beyond the manual they are given when they join the board;

- Encouraging the staff and faculty to support the college through their personal giving and through their contacts in the community, as well as providing in-house training for faculty and staff to know the “mission” of the foundation;
- Developing strong allegiances with alumni and corporations to provide long-term giving to the college;
- Involving as many company employees as possible on boards, as volunteers, as adjunct faculty, and as mentors to increase donor potential;
- Partnering, partnering, partnering with anyone who has a dollar, whether alumni, corporations, or local neighborhood associations.

FURTHER RESEARCH

The researcher recommends the following areas for further study:

1. Study philanthropic giving by generations or age groups - i.e., baby-boomers vs. X-generation
2. Study philanthropic giving by gender - i.e., male vs. female
3. Study philanthropic giving by large urban areas vs. rural areas
4. Study alumni associations by their philanthropic giving patterns
5. Study individual donors capable of deferred giving or tax-advantage gifts
6. Study of “guilt” and “pressure to give” as motivations for giving
7. Study of “Best Practices” of community college foundations
8. Study of linkage of faculty/staff participation to increases in fundraising

CONCLUDING REMARKS

Fundraising is all about “people” (Meadows, 2002; Roueche & Roueche, 2000). It takes time to establish networking with the community; create the trust, credibility, and reputation that will allow others to give to the community college; and to spread the word about the community college as an important contributor to the community, which in return requires both financial and volunteer support.

Community college administrators, trustees, and development officers must meet the needs of donors or the monetary needs of the college will not be attained. To tap the potential giving of donors, community colleges must ascertain why donors do or do not give to their colleges and then meet those needs. Byron McClenney, former president of the Community College of Denver (CO), stresses the importance of increasing a community college’s financial resources, separate from state funding, by voicing three wishes:

Money, money, and money. I know money can’t buy happiness, but it can buy a lot of education for a lot of people, who then could go out into the community, the state, the nation, and the world and contribute to its quality. Education doesn’t have an impact on just one person, but the education of one person has an impact on all of us (Roueche, Ely & Roueche, 2001, pp. 117-118).

Community colleges need to utilize their fundraising and foundation resources to respond creatively to the economic pressures of the times. Community colleges must invest in their foundations to receive their portion of the philanthropic pie. This investment should include providing appropriate levels of staffing, assisting in developing case statements for giving, and getting their president, board, faculty, and staff more involved in the fundraising effort. If community colleges will follow this

model for success, utilizing the **motivational loop** and **beneficial loop**, as determined in this study, then they will be able to change financial threats into the **reward loop** and develop their own ***Giving Tree***.

Appendices

APPENDIX A. TEXAS COMMUNITY COLLEGE SURVEY OF PHILANTHROPIC GIVING

Code Book/Legend Denoted in Burnt Orange

DIRECTIONS: Please fill in each blank below and mark all answers to questions 1-19 with an "X." Question 20 is a paragraph response. THANK YOU!

College Name: **College # 1-40** _____

Enrollment By Total Head Count **Enrollmt** _____

Where is your institution located? **Location**

____ **(1) Urban**

____ **(2) Rural**

College/Foundation Gift Income in Whole Dollars for 2002 **Income** _____

Your Job Title: **(1) Executive Director**
(2) President
(3) Dean
(4) Director
(5) Executive Assistant to the President
(6) Vice-President
(7) Vice Chancellor

What is your gender?

____ **(1) Male**

____ **(2) Female**

(OPTIONAL) Email address _____

1-A Number of full-time staff directly involved in foundation and fundraising efforts:

____ (1) 0-3

____ (2) 4-6

____ (3) 7-or more

1-B Number of part-time staff directly involved in foundation and fundraising efforts:

____ (1) 0-3

____ (2) 4-6

____ (3) 7-or more

1-C Number of volunteers directly involved in foundation and fundraising efforts:

____ (1) 0-3

____ (2) 4-6

____ (3) 7-or more

2-A To whom do you directly report?

____ (1) President

____ (2) Executive Vice-President

____ (3) Foundation Chair

____ (4) Other: _____ (title)

3. What other function(s) is your office responsible for? (Mark all that apply.)

Responses are denoted as "1" for marked or "0" for not marked.

____ (3-A) Marketing

____ (3-B) Institutional Research

____ (3-C) Alumni

____ (3-D) Public Relations

____ (3-E) Media

____ (3-F) Grants

____ (3-G) None

____ (3-H) Other: _____

4-A. Are you a member of any professional fundraising organization?

____ (1) Yes

____ (2) No

If yes, please designate to which of the following you belong: (Mark all that apply.)

Responses are denoted as “1” if marked or “0” if not marked.

____ 4-B. Council for Resource Development (CRD)

____ 4-C. Council for Aid to Education (CAE/CASE)

____ 4-D. Association of Fundraising Professionals (AFP)

____ 4-E. Other: _____

5-A Has your institution participated in the *Survey of Voluntary Support* from the Council for Aid to Education?

____ (1) Yes

____ (2) No

5-B Why or why not did you choose to participate in the *Survey of Voluntary Support*? _____ Response _____ denoted _____ by _____ an “X.” _____

6-A Do you track donors electronically?

____ (1) Yes

____ (2) No

6-B If so, what software do you use? Response denoted by an “X.” _____

7. How else are computers used in your fundraising?

Responses are denoted as “1” for marked or “0” for not marked.

____ (7-A) Publications

____ (7-B) Monthly Email Newsletters

Other (s) (7-C) _____

8. Indicate on a scale of 1-5 your success level with the following activities used in fundraising. (1 representing no success, 3 representing moderate success, 5 representing great success.)

Responses were recorded 1-5 accordingly; if there was no response, a “0” was recorded.

ACTIVITY	No Success (1)	(2)	Moderate Success (3)	(4)	Great Success (5)
8-A <u>Capital Campaigns</u>	____ 1	____ 2	____ 3	____ 4	____ 5
8-B <u>Annual Fund Drive</u>	____ 1	____ 2	____ 3	____ 4	____ 5
8-C <u>Corporate Support</u>	____ 1	____ 2	____ 3	____ 4	____ 5
8-D <u>Deferred or Planned Giving</u>	____ 1	____ 2	____ 3	____ 4	____ 5
8-E <u>Special Events</u>	____ 1	____ 2	____ 3	____ 4	____ 5

<u>8-F Major Gift Campaign</u>	___ 1	___ 2	___ 3	___ 4	___ 5
<u>8-G Alumni Events</u>	___ 1	___ 2	___ 3	___ 4	___ 5
<u>8-H Media “Blasts”</u>	___ 1	___ 2	___ 3	___ 4	___ 5

9. Which of the following fundraising activities have you NOT used at your community college? (Mark all that apply.)

Responses are denoted as “1” for marked or “0” for not marked.

- ___ **(9-A) Capital Campaigns**
- ___ **(9-B) Annual Fund Drive**
- ___ **(9-C) Corporate Support**
- ___ **(9-E) Deferred or Planned Giving**
- ___ **(9-F) Special Events**
- ___ **(9-G) Major Gift Campaign**
- ___ **(9-H) Alumni Events**
- ___ **(9-I) Media “Blasts”**

10. How do you learn about prospective donors?

Responses are denoted as “1” for marked or “0” for not marked.

- ___ **(10-A) Surveys**
- ___ **(10-B) Experience**
- ___ **(10-C) Word-of-Mouth**
- ___ **(10-D) Alumni**

____ (10-E) Community Involvement

____ (10-F) Board Members

____ (10-G) Consultants

____ (10-H) Database(s)

Other (10-I) _____

11. Indicate on a scale of 1-5 what motivates donors to give to your community college. (1 representing no motivation, 3 representing moderate motivation, 5 representing strong motivation.)

Responses were recorded 1-5 accordingly; if there was no response, a “0” was recorded.

ACTIVITY	No Motivation (1)	(2)	Moderate Motivation (3)	(4)	Strong Motivation (5)
11-A <u>College Reputation</u>	____ 1	____ 2	____ 3	____ 4	____ 5
11-B <u>“Good Experience” While Attending College</u>	____ 1	____ 2	____ 3	____ 4	____ 5
11-C <u>Value to Donor</u>	____ 1	____ 2	____ 3	____ 4	____ 5
11-D <u>Value to Community</u>	____ 1	____ 2	____ 3	____ 4	____ 5
11-E <u>Efforts of College President</u>	____ 1	____ 2	____ 3	____ 4	____ 5
11-F <u>Efforts of</u>					

<u>Foundation Board Members</u>	___ 1	___ 2	___ 3	___ 4	___ 5
<u>11-G “Good Feeling” to Donate</u>	___ 1	___ 2	___ 3	___ 4	___ 5
<u>11-H Efforts of Development Office</u>	___ 1	___ 2	___ 3	___ 4	___ 5
<u>11-I Social Importance to Donor</u>	___ 1	___ 2	___ 3	___ 4	___ 5
<u>11-J Return to College for Providing Quality Employees</u>	___ 1	___ 2	___ 3	___ 4	___ 5
<u>11-K Return to Community</u>	___ 1	___ 2	___ 3	___ 4	___ 5
<u>11-L Loyalty to College from Graduates</u>	___ 1	___ 2	___ 3	___ 4	___ 5
<u>11-M Faculty/Staff Involvement</u>	___ 1	___ 2	___ 3	___ 4	___ 5
<u>11-N Pre-Tax Advantage</u>	___ 1	___ 2	___ 3	___ 4	___ 5
<u>11-O Deferred Gift</u>	___ 1	___ 2	___ 3	___ 4	___ 5

<u>Advantage</u>					
<u>11-P Guilt</u>	___ 1	___ 2	___ 3	___ 4	___ 5
<u>11-Q Ego/The Need to Affiliate</u>	___ 1	___ 2	___ 3	___ 4	___ 5
<u>11-R Self-Preservation</u>	___ 1	___ 2	___ 3	___ 4	___ 5
<u>11-S Belief in Education</u>	___ 1	___ 2	___ 3	___ 4	___ 5
<u>11-T Reaction to Pressure</u>	___ 1	___ 2	___ 3	___ 4	___ 5

12. Indicate on a scale of 1-5 the degree of influence on the success of your fundraising endeavors by the following attributes. (1 representing no influence, 3 representing moderate influence, 5 representing strong influence)

Responses were recorded 1-5 accordingly; if there was no response, a “0” was recorded.

ACTIVITY	No Influence (1)	(2)	Moderate Influence (3)	(4)	Strong Influence (5)
<u>12-A College Reputation</u>	___ 1	___ 2	___ 3	___ 4	___ 5
<u>12-B Value to Donor</u>	___ 1	___ 2	___ 3	___ 4	___ 5
<u>12-C Value to Community</u>	___ 1	___ 2	___ 3	___ 4	___ 5

<u>12-D Efforts of College President</u>	___ 1	___ 2	___ 3	___ 4	___ 5
<u>12-E Efforts of Foundation Board Members</u>	___ 1	___ 2	___ 3	___ 4	___ 5
<u>12-F Efforts of Development Office</u>	___ 1	___ 2	___ 3	___ 4	___ 5
<u>12-G Loyalty to College from Graduates</u>	___ 1	___ 2	___ 3	___ 4	___ 5
<u>12-H Faculty/Staff Involvement</u>	___ 1	___ 2	___ 3	___ 4	___ 5
<u>12-I Pre-Tax Advantage</u>	___ 1	___ 2	___ 3	___ 4	___ 5
<u>12-J Deferred Gift Advantage</u>	___ 1	___ 2	___ 3	___ 4	___ 5
<u>12-K Fiscally-Sound College</u>	___ 1	___ 2	___ 3	___ 4	___ 5

13. What fundraising activities or events are you planning for the next year at your college? (Mark all that apply.)

Responses are denoted as “1” for marked or “0” for not marked.

- ___ (13-A) Capital Campaigns
- ___ (13-B) Annual Fund Drive
- ___ (13-C) Corporate Support
- ___ (13-D) Deferred or Planned Giving
- ___ (13-E) Special Events
- ___ (13-F) Major Gift Campaign
- ___ (13-G) Alumni Events

Other(s) (13-H) _____

14-A. Have you ever used a fundraising consultant?

___ (1) Yes ___ (2) No

If so, for what purpose(s)? (Mark all that apply.)

Responses are denoted as “1” for marked or “0” for not marked.

- ___ (14-B) Determine Prospects
- ___ (14-C) Board Training
- ___ (14-D) Fundraising Activities
- ___ (14-E) Feasibility Studies

15. Indicate on a scale of 1-5 the “real leaders” of your fundraising efforts. (1 representing not a leader, 3 representing somewhat a leader, 5 representing a strong leader.)

Responses were recorded 1-5 accordingly, if there was no response a “0” was recorded.

ACTIVITY	Not A Leader (1)	(2)	Somewhat A Leader (3)	(4)	A Strong Leader (5)
<u>15-A College President</u>	___ 1	___ 2	___ 3	___ 4	___ 5

<u>15-B College Foundation Members</u>	___ 1	___ 2	___ 3	___ 4	___ 5
<u>15-C Alumni</u>	___ 1	___ 2	___ 3	___ 4	___ 5
<u>15-D College Development Staff</u>	___ 1	___ 2	___ 3	___ 4	___ 5
<u>15-E Corporate/Business Leaders</u>	___ 1	___ 2	___ 3	___ 4	___ 5
<u>15-F College Staff/Faculty</u>	___ 1	___ 2	___ 3	___ 4	___ 5
<u>15-G Board of Trustees Members</u>	___ 1	___ 2	___ 3	___ 4	___ 5

**16. What partnerships have you formed to aid with development at your college?
(Mark all that apply.)**

Responses are denoted as “1” for marked or “0” for not marked.

___ **(16-A) Corporate/Industry**

___ **(16-B) Four Year Universities/Colleges**

___ **(16-C) School Districts**

___ **(16-D) Other Tax Entities**

Other(s)(16-E) _____

17. What is the turnover rate of staff members in your department in the last 12 months? **Actual numbers were entered.**

___ **(17-A) staff members left in 2002** of a total of ___ **(17-B) staff members.** (Please place a number in each blank.)

If so, what reason(s) do you attribute to this turnover? (Mark all that apply.)

Responses are denoted as “1” for marked or “0” for not marked.

___ (17-C) Wide Variety of Job Tasks Other Than Development/Fundraising

___ (17-D) Lack of Continuing Education Training for Staff

___ (17-E) Low Pay

___ (17-F) Lack of Support from Foundation Members

___ (17-G) Lack of Support from President

___ (17-H) Lack of Support from College Faculty/Staff

___ (17-I) Unable to Take Rejection from Potential Donors

___ (17-J) “Burn-Out”

18. Indicate on a scale of 1-5 the percentage of the money raised through your development office/foundation that supports the following activities. (1 representing zero percent, 3 representing 50 percent, 5 representing 100 percent.)

Responses were recorded 1-5 accordingly; if there was no response, a “0” was recorded.

ACTIVITY	Zero Percent (1)	(2)	50 Percent (3)	(4)	100 Percent (5)
18-A Scholarships	___ 1	___ 2	___ 3	___ 4	___ 5
18-B Faculty/Staff Development	___ 1	___ 2	___ 3	___ 4	___ 5
18-C Equipment	___ 1	___ 2	___ 3	___ 4	___ 5

18-D Research	___ 1	___ 2	___ 3	___ 4	___ 5
18-E Library	___ 1	___ 2	___ 3	___ 4	___ 5
18-F Student Assistance Programs	___ 1	___ 2	___ 3	___ 4	___ 5
18-G Athletics	___ 1	___ 2	___ 3	___ 4	___ 5
18-H Endowments	___ 1	___ 2	___ 3	___ 4	___ 5
18-I New Buildings	___ 1	___ 2	___ 3	___ 4	___ 5
18-J Property Maintenance	___ 1	___ 2	___ 3	___ 4	___ 5
18-K Matching Gifts	___ 1	___ 2	___ 3	___ 4	___ 5

19. Indicate on a scale of 1-5 activities that you would most likely use in the future to help in the growth of your community college's foundation. (1 representing least likely to use, 3 representing somewhat likely to use, 5 representing most likely to use.)

Responses were recorded 1-5 accordingly; if there was no response, a "0" was recorded.

ACTIVITY	Least Likely To Use (1)	(2)	Somewhat Likely To Use (3)	(4)	Most Likely To Use (5)
19-A Capital Campaigns	___ 1	___ 2	___ 3	___ 4	___ 5

<u>19-B Annual Fund Drive</u>	___ 1	___ 2	___ 3	___ 4	___ 5
<u>19-C Corporate Support</u>	___ 1	___ 2	___ 3	___ 4	___ 5
<u>19-D Deferred or Planned Giving</u>	___ 1	___ 2	___ 3	___ 4	___ 5
<u>19-E Special Events</u>	___ 1	___ 2	___ 3	___ 4	___ 5
<u>19-F Major Gift Campaign</u>	___ 1	___ 2	___ 3	___ 4	___ 5
<u>19-G Alumni Events</u>	___ 1	___ 2	___ 3	___ 4	___ 5

1. Briefly describe any “Best Practices” by college in the area of philanthropic giving.
Response denoted by an “X.”

APPENDIX B: FIRST SURVEY LETTER TO COLLEGES

CAROLE D. ERRETT
C_errett@hotmail.com

3405 Santa Monica Dr.
Austin, Texas 78741

512.422.3734 (Cellular)
512.440.8680 (Home)

August 21, 2003

President
Address

Dear President xxxx:

Allow me to introduce myself. My name is Carole Errett, and I am a doctoral student in the Community College Leadership Program at The University of Texas at Austin. In my dissertation on "Trends in Philanthropic Giving at Texas Community Colleges," I have designed a survey to obtain current information from community colleges about their efforts in philanthropic fundraising.

In the next few days, I will be sending the survey to you through the U.S. mail and as an e-mail attachment. I would greatly appreciate your support by forwarding the survey and instructions to the proper person in your college organization. In addition, at the end of my dissertation, I will be making the results available to the colleges that participate.

Thank you for your assistance.

Carole D. Errett
CCLP Doctoral Student

Dr. John E. Roueche
CCLP Director

APPENDIX C: SECOND SURVEY LETTER TO COLLEGES

CAROLE D. ERRETT
c_errett@hotmail.com

3405 Santa Monica Dr.
Austin, Texas 78741

512.422.3734 (Cellular)
512.440.8680 (Home)

August 25, 2003

Dear Dr. XXXX:

Included you will find a copy of the “**Texas Community College Survey of Philanthropic Giving.**” You will also receive a copy of the survey by email as an attachment. Please assist me with the distribution of both copies and the success of this survey by sending it to the proper person(s) in your organization.

The survey should be returned by **September 2, 2003**, either by US mail or email to one of the above addresses.

Confidentiality will be maintained for all participants in the survey! However, if you would like a copy of the results after the study is completed, please send an email address to me separate from the survey.

Thank you for your cooperation in making this survey successful. In this time of financial need, it is hoped that the results obtained will help provide information necessary for the monetary growth of community colleges in the state of Texas.

Sincerely,

Carole D. Errett
CCLP Doctoral Student

APPENDIX D: THIRD SURVEY LETTER TO COLLEGES

CAROLE D. ERRETT
c_errett@hotmail.com

3405 Santa Monica Dr.
Austin, Texas 78741

512.422.3734 (Cellular)
512.440.8680 (Home)

September 8, 2003

President
Address

Dear President xxxx:

I know that this is a special and busy time of the year for all who make community colleges successful. Therefore, I would first like to thank each of you who have participated in my dissertation survey, "Texas Community College Survey of Philanthropic Giving." I have had a great response, with 32 of the 51 college surveys already returned. Thank you and please send this with my deepest appreciation to your wonderful development/foundation officers.

If you have not had the opportunity or time to return the survey, you still may. If you need a new hard copy or electronic version, just respond to this e-mail, and I will send one to you or your development officer immediately.

Thank you again for your assistance,

Carole D. Errett
CCLP Doctoral Student

John E. Roueche
Director of CCLP

APPENDIX E: FOURTH SURVEY LETTER TO COLLEGES

CAROLE D. ERRETT
c_errett@hotmail.com

3405 Santa Monica Dr.
Austin, Texas 78741

512.440.8680 (Home)
512.422.3734 (Cellular)

September 15, 2003

President
Address

Dear Dr. XXXX:

Please forgive my persistence, but that seems to be characteristic of completing a dissertation.

I am contacting you the last time to see if I can assist you in any way in completing or having a staff member complete my survey, "Texas Community College Survey of Philanthropic Giving." If you do not have a foundation or Institutional Advancement division, please reply to this email with that information and I will mark your college accordingly. If you need another copy of the survey, either by US mail or e-mail, I will be happy to provide it.

Thank you again for understanding my persistence in this endeavor.

Respectfully,

Carole D. Errett
CCLP Doctoral Student

APPENDIX F: THANK YOU LETTER TO PRESIDENTS AND REPRESENTATIVES

CAROLE D. ERRETT
c_errett@hotmail.com

3405 Santa Monica Dr.
Austin, Texas 78741

512.440.8680 (Home)
512.422.3734 (Cellular)

September 20, 2003

President
Address

Dear Dr. XXXX:

I would like to take this opportunity to thank you and your wonderful foundation staff for assisting me with my dissertation, *Trends in Philanthropic Giving in Texas Community Colleges*. The results will be compiled and finalized in the near future.

If you would like to have access to the results from the survey of community college administrators and focus groups of philanthropic donors - to share with your board and/or staff, please feel free to contact me.

Warm regards,

Carole Errett
CCLP Doctoral Student

APPENDIX G: BEST PRACTICES OF TEXAS COMMUNITY COLLEGES

- XXX College has involved the faculty and staff at our four locations in the annual fundraising campaign by using an online auction, which has created funds and fun. All items are donated by board members, faculty, and staff. The auction is a facsimile of Ebay. Everyone loves it
- XXX College is fortunate to have one of the premier scholarship programs for Hispanic and African-American students. Twenty-five students each year receive full tuition, fees and books scholarships to attend XXX College for two years. After the students graduate from XXX, the scholarship follows them to their senior-level institution of choice for an additional three years.
- Our program is new (started capital campaign in 2002). Practices thus far include information programs at service clubs; special events for community awareness of campaign; media coverage – thus far— heavy newspaper coverage and lots of pictures; cultivation and “seed planting.”
- We have built an in-house data bank using access. We are now in the process of populating it with 76 years of history and alumni information. We will do our first-ever annual drive this fall. We are also in the middle of a first capital campaign that we launched in November, 2003. The following are critical: involved and committed board of trustees; involved and committed foundation board of directors; excellent president who is willing to tell the “story;” committed development staff; volunteers from all areas of the community; and grant and corporate support; acknowledgement of donors and friendship building.
- Immediate hand delivered photo TY cards to endowed donors day after signing ceremony; Prince Albert of Monaco publicly announced the creation of the

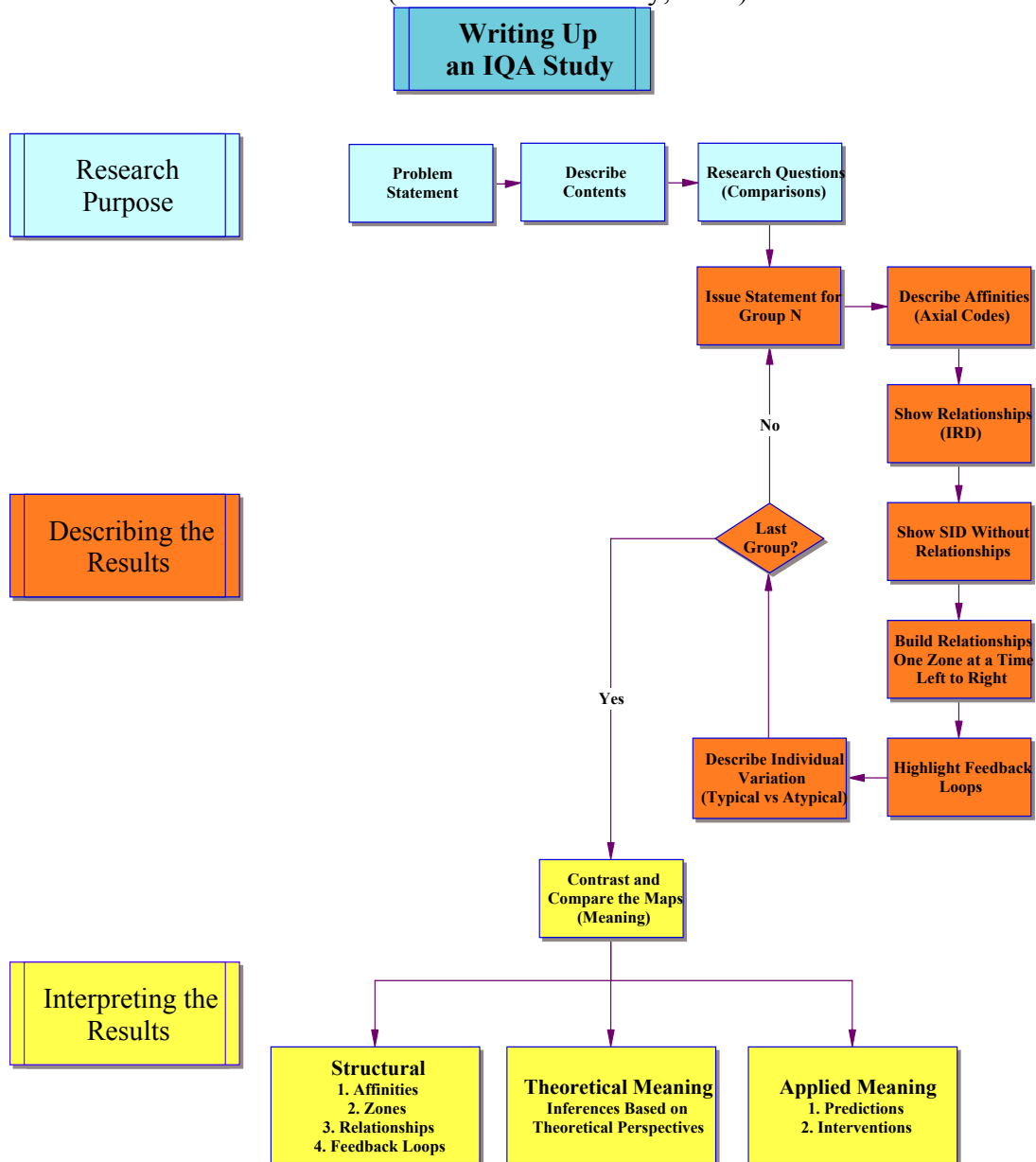
foundation; involvement of major donors to college; personalized memorial letters, and listings in publications.

- Our philosophy has been to show appreciation for gifts, to use them [monies] as designated by donors, and to recognize alumni and friends for their contributions to the local community and the world community. We work to be inclusive and to let people know how we are working to provide excellence in education, and to thank them when they support that effort.
- Target the Annual Campaign, not used for operations expenses. All money goes to scholarships. [We] use the Annual Campaign (non-endowed), Dollars-for-Scholars, to provide scholarship assistance to high school graduating seniors and to the “middle income bracket.” Students who never qualify for financial aid. Targeting these two groups has helped us raise local dollars because they can “identify” with the cause!
- We have a broad base involvement of the college’s Board of Regents, the XXX Foundation Board members, the college president and college faculty and staff in helping to raise funds.
- We have two excellent friend raising events – free to the entire community – a lecture series and a performing arts series.
- Limit “asks” to fall golf tournament, Thanksgiving campaign, and spring fine arts gala.
- We really work to develop partnerships with corporations, foundations, etc.
- Our college president is our “secreat weapon” here. Both his personal efforts and his support of instructional development activities. Economic downturn and state budget crunch are causing major problems.

- See ourselves as a “major player” in the community and so are “big and bold” with our ideas and requests.
- Exceptional accounting; donors trust that their money assists students with need.
- Writing outside grants to fund programs for Capital Campaign and building.
- Meeting with potential donors on a one-on-one basis with lunch and tour of campus with president, staff member, and foundations board member.
- We have a 3.2 million endowment – but no foundation!
- Donor recognition: lifetime philanthropists at cumulative levels; annual meeting and annual report; biannual newsletter; occasional events; “thank-you’s” from foundation directors; and recognition and cultivations by staff.
- In the area of the annual Employee Giving Campaign we partner with the United Way to give employees a simultaneous option to give to both, either, or neither for the gift programs represented by the XXXX Foundation and XXXCollege, and/or the gift programs represented by the health and social service agencies served by the United Way. This approach has increased giving from among employees for three consecutive years (since its inception) to both the United Way and the XXXX Foundation and XXXCollege

APPENDIX H. WRITING UP AN IQA STUDY

(Northcutt and McCoy, 2002)



Each number in the list below is a section of the write-up:

Research Purpose

1. Problem Statement
2. Description of Context/Constituencies
3. Research questions:
 - a. What are the affinities that make up the system?
 - b. How do they relate to each other?
 - c. How do constituencies compare?

Describing the Results

Repeat sections 4-9 for each constituency as necessary

4. Description, with examples from interview, of each affinity
5. Show IRD for a constituency
6. Show SID with affinities in topological zones (no arrows yet) and discuss
7. “Tour the System”: Build up system (insert arrows) 1 zone at a time and discuss how the affinities relate to each other
8. Highlight interesting features; e.g., feedback loops
9. Describe variation (contrast “atypical” individuals to composite)

Interpreting the Results

10. Contrast constituency mindmaps in structural terms: zones, relationships, loops
11. Exercise the systems, either
 - a. Prospectively; i.e., if the drivers are assumed to be in a particular condition, what will be the outcomes?
 - b. Retrospectively; i.e, if a particular set of outcomes is assumed, what configuration of drivers led to this set?
 - c. What are the reasonable effects of outside interventions on the systems?And compare the different results from the different systems.
12. Explain (from some theoretical perspective) the differences between mindmaps
13. Discuss practical (e.g., structural, social, economic, pedagogical, psychological) implications of your analysis

APPENDIX I: E-MAIL FROM THE DIRECTOR OF DEVELOPMENT AT THE UNIVERSITY OF TEXAS AT AUSTIN

Jada,

Would you let Ms. Errett know of the various organizations and other sources of information we use to set benchmarks, etc. I know she would appreciate it very much.

J. Ray

Delivered-To: jdr6@mail.utexas.edu

From: "Carole Errett" <c_errett@hotmail.com>

To: jdr6@mail.utexas.edu

Bcc:

Subject: Re: Your assistance please.

Date: Sun, 05 Jan 2003 09:31:46 -0600

X-OriginalArrivalTime: 05 Jan 2003 15:31:47.0097 (UTC) FILETIME=[8F0C4090:01C2B4CF]

Dear Ms. Ray:

Thank you for your quick response and offer to assist. At this time I have two main questions:

1. How do you obtain information about what other universities and colleges of your size and stature are doing in the area of philanthropy to set benchmarks?

There are several different ways in which we obtain this information. Often times, we will directly contact our counterparts at our peer institutions and ask them to provide the information we are looking for if it is not otherwise readily available. Philanthropic information, including lists of major gifts and the tracking of other institutions like UT Austin that are involved in capital campaigns with goals of \$1 billion+, is published in the *Chronicle of Philanthropy* (<http://www.philanthropy.com/>). Most of the universities that we consider peers maintain websites with good information regarding their development operations. I am not too familiar with community colleges or how extensive their development operations are.

2. Is there an organization, such as CRD, that perhaps you use their survey(s) for information and learning tools?

There are two organizations which may be helpful to you. The first is the Council for Aid to Education (CAE), which annually surveys hundreds of higher education institutions, including community colleges, and publishes a report called *Voluntary Support of Education* that analyzes philanthropic contributions from individuals, foundations, and corporations. As I noted above, these reports are available in the Resource Development Office library. CAE's website is <http://www.cae.org/>.

The other organization I would recommend is the Council for Advancement and Support of Education (CASE); its website is <http://www.case.org/>. Its Resource Center has a section on surveys and benchmarking: <http://www.case.org/resources/surveys.cfm>

Thank you, Carole Errett

APPENDIX J: CONSENT FORM

Trends in Philanthropic Giving in Texas Community Colleges Dissertation by Carole Errett

You are invited to participate in a study of philanthropic experiences with different perspectives from donors and donees. My name is Carole Errett, and I am a doctoral candidate at The University of Texas at Austin. This study is a dissertation research project. You are being asked to participate in the study because of your position in a corporation/business/community college foundation or alumni organization in a community college service area in Texas. If you participate, you will be one of approximately 12 corporations/businesses/alumni or 12 community college administrators in the Austin area in the study.

If you decide to participate, I will conduct an e-mail or local focus group discussion on the topic. The study will be conducted during the month of September. Your participation will allow an Interactive Qualitative Analysis of corporate/business donors, or potential donors, and community college administrators in a community college area in the state of Texas. The results of the study will be used for dissertation purposes only.

Any information that is obtained in connection with this study and that can be identified in anyway with you will remain confidential and will be disclosed only with your permission. Your responses will not be linked to your name in any written or verbal report of this research project.

Your decision to participate or not to participate will not affect your present or future relationship with The University of Texas at Austin.

If you have any questions about the study, please ask in an e-mail response. If you have any questions later, you may call me at 422.3734 (Austin number) or you may call my research supervisor, Dr. Norvell Northcutt, at 512.471.1623 (office at UT). If you have any questions or concerns about your treatment as a research participant in this study, call Professor Clarke Burnham, Chair of the University of Texas at Austin, Institutional Review Board for the Protection of Human Research Participants at 512.232.4383. You will need to print out this consent form for your records and fax a signed copy to me at 512.440.8680 (Austin).

You are making a decision whether or not to participate in a focus group. Your signature below indicates that you have read the information provided above and have decided to participate in this study. If you later decide that you do not want to participate in the study, simply tell me. You may discontinue your participation in this study at any time.

Printed Name of Participant

Signature of Participant

Date

Carole Errett, Investigator

August 18, 2003

APPENDIX K: GUIDED IMAGERY EXERCISE

Focus Group Warm-up Exercise: Guided Imagery

You are in a position to have knowledge of, provide, or influence philanthropic giving to a community college.

Let's explore your current relationships as community college administrators to the philanthropic giving of a community college:

- To begin, try to get as comfortable as you can.
- Close your eyes.
- Putting aside your thoughts of the day, take a deep cleansing breath.
- Now imagine the relationships that you have in your life as an administrator in a community college. (long pause)
- See yourself engaging in the activities of that life. (long pause)
- Focus on what it feels like to be interacting within those significant relationships.

Be there in your mind. (long pause)

Tell me about your relationships affecting your knowledge of philanthropic giving as an administrator in a community college.

Write these thoughts down on the cards, one thought per card.

APPENDIX L: FOCUS GROUP ONE ---AFFINITY WRITE UP

Focus Group One Affinity Write Up Philanthropic Giving to Community Colleges

Community College Administrators' Focus Group

1. Building Donor Relations

This dichotomic affinity encompasses the characteristics for building relationships between community college administrators and the college's donors. Both the opposing perspectives that donors believe that "community colleges get more than [they] need from [local] taxes and state [funding]," and that community college's "need to ask for money" are displayed. The administrators express concern that donors are not approached properly; "...need to communicate the innovative things happening at the college, so people will want to give." That the donors are not properly appreciated, "thank donors;" and are not included in "what their money will accomplish," leads one to believe that donors are not considered as a major role in philanthropic giving.

Community college administrators seem to understand the reasons to "court" donors and some of the ways to build those relationships far better than they understand the actual "causes" for donor giving and how to change those relationships. The administrators' concerns seem to be focused on their needs and not those of the donors.

Donor Characteristics to Address to Build Relationships

- Wide belief in community that school gets more than it needs from taxes and state
- Donor needs to know: "What's in it for me?"
- Donor dollars "invested" to get biggest bang (R.O.I.)
- Opportunity for legacy making – for donors
- What is the money of the donor (needed) to accomplish?
- Oil wealthy givers
- Knowing donor desires/philosophy

Administrator Characteristics to Address to Build Relationships

- Need to communicate the innovative things happening at the college, so people will want to give
- Need to ask for money

- Persuasion
- Persistence
- Patience
- The rich are different (knowledge of donor philosophy)
- College follow-up year to year with donors
- Thank donors
- Tell why (community college) needs the money?
- “Crappy” economics of institution require more fundraising efforts for new programs
- Formal and informal recognition of “givers”
- Target the dollar sources
- Court big donors

2. Community Relations

This affinity describes the administrators’ perspectives on ways to create better community relations. The impetus appears to be that if the community college and its foundation representatives reach out to more businesses in the community and make their needs known, that the community will respond to those needs. Only one point is made “that the college will have to be responsive to community needs” that shows the college’s responsibility to the community in return for the community’s responses to the colleges’ needs.

- Business sponsorships
- Need more local business support
- Include the community in planning process for the foundation
- Community considered apart from or outside of school
(Need for more community involvement)
- Institution’s reputation in the community
- Community buy-in
- College will have to be responsive to community needs
- Educate the community about the college before asking
- Positive community relations so people will give money

3. Foundations

This affinity, a dialectic consisting of the two extremes of effective and ineffective foundations in community colleges, describes the administrators’ experiences with foundations. Community college administrators either have known the positive outcomes of an effective foundation or experienced the negative outcomes of a slack foundation or no foundation at all.

While the administrators recognize the importance of the foundation to be “articulate representative(s) to the community” and to understand the “culture of (the) giver,” they appear to be quite oblivious as to what that culture actually is. They stress the significance of “consistency of (internal) policies and procedures” and “creat(ing) an environment that supports giving” by the foundation board and director, but fail to address the reasons why donors would want to contribute to their community college.

On the other hand, they are quite adept at recognizing the reasons that “foundation(s) (are) necessary to remain competitive in tough financial times;” and that foundations appear to be ineffective because they have “little knowledge as to why donors give [might we not conclude the same about community college administrators].”

Effective Foundations

- Articulate representative to community
- Skill needed in grant writing
- Need to know the wealthy/influential people in your service area
- Writing grants
- Increase grant writing
- Create an environment that supports giving
- Consistency of policies and procedures [for giving]
- Dynamic college representative to make connections
- Mutual trust and respect
- [Know] when to “ask”
- Don’t be shy about asking
- Culture of giver
- Creating fit between donor and project
- Telling the community college story
- Tell about community college mission
- “Used car salesperson” – foundation leader
- Foundation director needs to know how to fund raise
- Conversations [take place with donors]
- The president and executive team need to set a good example
- Strong acknowledgement component needed (for donors) by foundation
- Relationship cultivation
- Salesmanship
- Connections
- Foundation necessary to remain competitive in tough financial times

Ineffective Foundations

- Foundation chair has little education or experience with philanthropy/ higher education
- A nonexistent department (no foundation)

- Lack of wealthy donors
- Lack of fundraising events
- Endowment is low
- Little understanding donations (Why give?)
- Who else is competing for those bucks?
- Low employee participation
- Focus typically only on wealthy in community
- No plan
- [Say] “fundraising is hard”
- Low employee turnout to fundraising events
- Very little understanding among constituency about need for giving
- [Say] “This is not my job” (by faculty/staff)
- Foundation [has] competition from other non-profits
- There aren’t enough foundations generally in the community college
- Fundraising [should be] necessary for the future of community colleges [but isn’t]
- No specific goals for foundation
- Rural area with “unphilanthropic” people

4. Fundraising events

Most community college administrators were aware of fundraising activities either through life experiences or events at their own colleges. This affinity described events and ideas that were typical of those found in the literature, such as, “capital campaign(s),” “yearly theme auctions,” and “fundraising dinners/galas.” Two important issues that were identified by the administrators, however, concerning donors and potential donors (alumni) are: “How does the college give back to the community?” and “How to involve students in the process (of philanthropic giving)?”

- How does the college give back to the community
- Yearly theme auction
- In-kind gifts
- Use cultural events to raise money
- Administrator giving
- Capital campaign
- Use of volunteers to make community connections
- Student stories
- Fundraising dinners
- Auctions: faculty/staff donate services/time/items to be auctioned to raise money
- How to involve students in the process
- Board of Directors raising/giving money
- Alumni association
- Alumni giving

- No alumni contact or involvement at outreach site (over 50% of FTE)
- Bib fundraising events as a kick-off (gala)
- Phon-a-thons
- Campus events
- Have fun events and charge admission to generate money

5. Fundraising procedures

Common fundraising procedures in community colleges are identified by this affinity. The administrators strongly believe that the foundation and foundation staff should be the responsible parties for fundraising. They clearly state: “I don’t want to have to do it (fundraising)” and, if they are required to fundraise, they want to make sure that the foundation and its staff have all of the information they need, all of the policies and procedures in place, and all of the goals set before they participate in the fundraising process. “Accountability” to donors is significant in that administrators do not want to fundraise without being able to answer important questions from the donors, such as, “Why do you (community colleges) need extra money?” and “Where and how did you (community colleges) spend (the donors) money?” Administrators feel that the foundation boards and directors must have answers to these questions and convey them to others before effective fundraising can occur.

- (Accountability) policies/procedures adherence
- Hire someone! “I don’t want to have to do it.”
- Don’t ask before you are ready to support the effort
- Have a stop date/time frames for goals
- Setting time frames (as annual drive...?)
- Who asks for funds?
- Foundation and grants should be two different staffed departments
- Need to hire a professional
- New director
- Need more than one person in foundation office
- Allows for creative uses of money – NO governing rules on spending (unrestricted funding)
- We should assume that people want to help/give
- Why do you need extra money
- “Where and how did you spend my money?” [Donor wants to know]
- Accountability
- Foundation board should be made up of influential citizens

6. Planning

Community college administrators expressed that the affinity of planning is imperative to fundraising. They emphasize that fundraising should be “tied to the (college) mission”

and that “relationship planning” with donors is necessary. Planning for fundraising by the colleges and their foundations was determined to be the framework for philanthropic giving. Administrators believe that community colleges should create sound goals and plans for soliciting donors and those plans should be carried through efficiently over a long term to reach all potential donors.

- Tied to mission
- Knowing college needs
- College should have goals so money will have purpose
- Identify a system (plan)
- What do other institution[s] do successfully?
- What is manageable scope? (Plan)
- Planning and budgeting
- Purpose of dollars
- What happens if goal is met early
- Good research need on college (case statement)
- Building endowment for the future college needs
- Keep good records
- It has to get done and done well
- Develop a “Relationship Plan” (with donors)
- Publish and distribute annual (or more frequent) reports
- Need a plan and direction
- Have fundraising goals
- Goals for dollars (planning)

7. Scholarships

The affinity of “scholarships” was determined by the community college administrators as one of the primary reasons for developing donor relationships. Scholarships would then be available through philanthropic giving to further the mission of the college by providing for the success of students primarily, and faculty secondarily.

- Emergency student fund
- Foundation provides endowed teaching and scholarships
- Scholarship
- Funding designated to help students directly
- Scholarships

8. Staff and Faculty Involvement

The last affinity designated by the community college administrators is staff and faculty involvement. It seems that faculty and staff involvement is a cornerstone in the minds of the administrators to successful philanthropic giving. The administrators stressed "... train(ing) faculty to promote their programs...", "...involv(ing) faculty in the process," and "... asking the faculty and staff for donations," as important ways to further the foundations and philanthropic giving to the colleges. The key that "charity begins at home" best describes the feelings of the administrators concerning faculty and staff involvement.

- Give prizes to faculty, staff, and administration for generating innovative ideas
- Train faculty to promote their programs for [obtaining] money
- Faculty donations
- How to involve faculty in the process
- Faculty role
- Solicitation of staff and faculty with no attempt to explain need
- Ask staff for money
- Involvement of college staff
- Educating faculty about need for cooperation

APPENDIX M: FOCUS GROUP TWO ---AFFINITY WRITE UP

Focus Group Two: Affinity Write Up Philanthropic Giving to Community Colleges

Community College Donors Focus Group

1. Allegiance to Community College

Allegiance to the community college was the affinity that best described the relationship between the college and its alumni. This dichotomic affinity encompasses the relationships of alumni and corporate donors; however, each group experienced this allegiance from a different perspective.

Alumni donors to the community college felt a sense of ownership of the college. Their experiences if they had been positive through learning, mentoring, and extra-curricular activities caused them to express an “ownership” or “connection” with the college. These donors felt a high “alliance” or “affiliation” with the college.

In contrast, corporate potential donors at some point felt a negative allegiance to community colleges. This was expressed by statements such as; “(The) money either I or my company contributes may goes to something or some program I (we) might disagree with, therefore, we would not contribute under these circumstances.

Both groups of potential donors felt that if the college and what it stands for are high on their priority list for giving then they would contribute; otherwise, other causes that carry a more significant value to them would receive their money.

- Sense of ownership
- Must feel a high alliance or affiliation with the college
- Money goes toward something I disagree with (Money must go toward something I agree with)
- Other causes/organizations have higher priority for my giving (College is high priority for giving)

2. Benefits to Community College

Potential donors, particularly corporate donors, desire for community colleges to appreciate the benefits of their donations. Corporate donors want community colleges to recognize the other significant donations they can provide, besides monetary donations

for scholarships and endowments. Corporations have much to offer community colleges through in-kind donations that can greatly benefit the college's programs. The companies can provide much needed equipment and software that their industry produces at a discount to the college or as a direct gift. Internships for both faculty and specially designated students to assist with cutting edge information, needed to provide a quality faculty as well as well-trained students, can be provided as an in-kind gift by corporations. In addition, companies can provide significant input through time donations as consultants for courses or training programs that need their guidance for workforce initiatives in their respective industries.

- Potential internships at companies for faculty and special (designated) students
- In-kind gifts of equipment
- In-kind gifts of software
- In-kind gifts or company courses for faculty members to become technologically aware (savvy)
- Businesses can help fund, or give guidance to, a course or training program
- Influence (workforce) curriculum
- Gifts of time of internal (company) experts to work with faculty in designing courses
- Scholarship/endowments established

3. Benefits/Improvement of Education

Donors felt very strongly about the benefits and improvements that should be made to education through their giving. This affinity describes concern about donor money reaching underserved groups, as well as, making sure that all in a diverse community can obtain an education. Donors want to make sure that their monies are spent on education that proves itself of value. Potential donors also want to know what actual educational benefits are funded. Encouraging more students to achieve a higher education and to fund facilities are of top significance to the donors.

- Money used for educational purposes
- Increase assistance to marginalized (underserved) groups
- Increase/improve facilities
- Encourage more students to attend higher educational institutions
- Need to use money for better diversity in higher education
- Education

4. Benefits/Return to Company/Alumni

This affinity defines the benefits or return expected by the donors. Companies anticipate that their employees will see their contribution as a “giving back” to the community. Donors also see their gifts as a return to the community college for the

benefits the company or the alumni receive from their donations, such as, increased business, a good education, free advertisement around the campuses, and mobilization of materials from in-kind donations. Donors specifically want to be recognized for their gifts. More importantly, donors stressed that there must be as much reward returned to them - through recognition, returned business, or in having a say in how the money is spent - as there is to the college from their contributions. The donors wanted more than a “hand shake” and “thank you” note for their contributions.

- Employees see money as a gift giving back to the community
- My organization benefits from the services of the community college
- Large schools give business in return
- Small colleges have no business upside
- Must receive as much as a significant return for my contribution
- Significant recognition of the donation
- Free advertisement around campuses
- In-kind donations to mobilize materials
- Want a say in how the money is spent

5. Involvement of Company Employees

Company donors particularly found this affinity to be of extreme importance. Company giving is directly tied to the return they receive from employees. Many of their employees are community college students or have been students. When companies look for new hires, they look closely at community college students because they required no relocation fees, are more flexible in their work schedules, and have reasonable salary expectations. Company donors stressed the strong need for an educated workforce; and if they were provided this by their local community college, then they were more apt to be donors of the college.

- Employees are students
- No relocation fees for new workers
- More flexible workforce (provided by the community college)
- Reasonable salary expectations (by students)
- Need for educated workforce
- ROI (return on investment): results in skilled new workers for organization

6. Partnerships

The affinity “partnerships” was looked at as significant by both companies and alumni. Alumni desired a partnership with the community college that would develop and maintain a close relationship. Alumni want to be “in the know” about what is happening at “their” college, while companies stress the “win-win” aspect of

partnerships with the community college. Companies want to have more say in the initiatives that are being undertaken with their donations. Alumni are content with contributions to scholarships and endowments. Regardless, of whether the donation is from an alumni or corporation it was important that both partners must mutually appreciate (benefit from) the donation.

- Both partners must appreciate the donations
- Joint interests/initiatives
- Sense of partnerships
- Need to develop/maintain a close relationship
- Illustrate that business and education communities can work together
- Win-win situation for partners
- Good relationship with college
- Partnership opportunity

7. Reputation of College

This affinity, a dialectic consisting of the two extremes of community colleges with good and bad reputations, describes the alumni and corporate donors' experiences with them. It was of major significance to the donors that they be affiliated with a community college that maintained a good reputation in the community, while they would NOT be linked to a community college with a bad reputation. Both groups of donors wanted to be assured of the quality of education that students were receiving from the college before they would invest their monies.

- **Good College Reputation**

Colleges with good reputations were said to have integrity within the community, they were known for their successful and well-trained students, their tuitions were not too high for the general student population, and the college role is clear to the community.

- **Bad College Reputation**

Donors strongly emphasized that they would NOT give to a community college with a bad reputation. Both corporations and alumni stated that they would not want to be aligned with a college that had a bad reputation in the community. If students were over-charged by the college, not trained well in workforce needs, the image of the college was not clear or was poor in the community, or the college was known for degrading an industry, then donors would not be inclined to invest in the college.

Additionally, it was important to the donors that they be given a clear purpose from the college as to where their donation was going. Most corporate donors felt that community colleges do a poor job of spelling out their needs for funding from donors.

- College has a poor reputation/integrity
- Need to know personal successes of students from the college
- Give only if college is producing “good” (well-trained) students
- Give only if college expenses (tuition, etc.) are not too high
- College role is not (but should be) clear to/in the community
- Community college programs must be in areas of skills needed
- College uses business as a “bad” example of where to work
- Unclear purpose (by college) as to where the donation goes
- Needs (for gifts) are not fully proven

8. Rewards/Benefits to the Community

Donors tend to look at the big picture and want to know specifically how their donations to community colleges will ultimately benefit the community. Both alumni and corporate givers were skeptical about giving to just any “community” investment. Donors want to know up front where their money will be spent and how it will make a difference to the community.

Corporate donors especially desired to see their monies “come back” to them through a better trained workforce, economic development in the community, and initiating new programs which involve the community.

Both alumni and corporate donors were inclined to give because they wanted their money to stay in their community and education to be improved in their community. The esoteric feelings that donating is a good thing to do and that rewards come back to the community from the donations ranked high for reasons for giving.

- Must have a specific reason for investment (Will not give for just “community” investment.)
- Need must be clearly (fully) proven. (Need not fully proven.)
- Rewards come back
- Economic development (of community) helped by training a skilled workforce
- Money stays in the community
- Donations lead to education of community
- Initiate new programs which involve the community
- Good thing to do for the community
- Need is there because students come from the community
- Community-oriented activities

APPENDIX N: FIRST E-MAIL LETTER TO DONOR FOCUS GROUP

CAROLE D. ERRETT
c_errett@hotmail.com

3405 Santa Monica Dr.
Austin, Texas 78741

512.422.3734 (Cellular)
512.440.8680 (Home)

Dear XXXX:

Thank you for agreeing to participate in an e-mail focus group for my dissertation, *Trends in Philanthropic Giving in Texas Community Colleges*. Shortly, you will receive a consent form. Please print it out, sign it, and fax it to me at 440.8680 (Austin) at your earliest convenience.

I cannot express to you how grateful I am that you have agreed to take time out of your very busy schedule to assist me with my dissertation. This should not be too time consuming, and hopefully, will be a little fun!

Thank you again for your assistance,

Carole D. Errett,
CCLP Doctoral Student

Dr. John E. Roueche
CCLP Director

**APPENDIX O: SECOND E-MAIL TO DONOR FOCUS GROUP
INTERACTIVE QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS: PART I**

CAROLE D. ERRETT
c_errett@hotmail.com

3405 Santa Monica Dr.
512.440.8680 (Home and Fax)

Austin, Texas 78741
512.422.3734 (Cellular)

Dear XXXX:

By now you have received your Consent Form for the e-mail focus group for my dissertation. You will notice a number above the title "Consent Form." This will be the only form of identification you will have or use throughout the process. Neither you nor your company will EVER be identified by name.

I have received half of the consent forms and want to thank those of you who have responded so quickly. If you have any concerns or general questions, please feel free to email me at the above hotmail address. If you will not be able to participate in the focus group, hopefully this is not an issue, but if it is, please email me immediately. I will need to find others to replace you because I am required to have a set number of focus group members.

Once I have all of the members' consent forms, we will begin. The process has six parts. Each part should not take more than 15-20 minutes done at your convenience within a set time period, such as two or three days. The first part is the consent form, so you are already one-sixth finished!

I cannot express to you how grateful that I am for your agreeing to participate in this focus group for my dissertation. This should not be too time consuming, and hopefully, will be enjoyable, too!

Thank you again for your assistance,

Carole D. Errett
CCLP Doctoral Student

APPENDIX P: THIRD E-MAIL TO DONOR FOCUS GROUP
INTERACTIVE QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS: PART 2

Dear #1:

Please forgive my delay in this part of the process of the focus group. Some of the members were out of town on business, etc., and I wanted the start-up to be consistent. Thank you for your patience! The focus group consists of five parts, including this one. Please return your list to me using only the number in the greeting above, not your name, in the body of the email. Here we go—

Focus Group Warm-up Exercise:

You are in a potential position to provide philanthropic giving through in-kind gifts, funding, or other resources to a local community college.

Let's explore your relationship as a potential current or future donor:

- To begin, try to get as comfortable as you can.
- Close your eyes. (This may seem silly in front of your computer, but it has been proven to be effective.)
- Putting aside your thoughts of the day, take a deep cleansing breath.
- Now imagine the reasons that you and/or your organization would or would not contribute to a community college.
- Focus on what it feels like to be interacting within those significant reasons and relationships. Be there in your mind.

“Tell me about your thoughts on philanthropic giving to community colleges.”

Write these thoughts down, one word or short phrases, in list form. Write as many as you can think of in 10 to 15 minutes. Time yourself, if necessary.

E-mail the list to me at: **carole_errett@hotmail.com**

**APPENDIX Q: FOURTH E-MAIL TO DONOR FOCUS GROUP
INTERACTIVE QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS: PARTS 3 AND 4**

Dear #10:

Now that we have a list of reasons of philanthropic giving, please read each reason below and determine if it makes sense to you. If it does not, please put your amended description in parenthesis. If it is clear to you, simply leave as is. At this point, add new reasons that may have come to mind.

After all of the reasons seem clear to you, please place the reasons in groups that have similar meanings or themes, i.e., “get business in return” and “the reward comes back to you.”

Please send your lists of groupings back to me. We only have two more steps to go!
Thanks to all!!!! Carole

The reward comes back to you
Money used for education
Money stays in the community
Community colleges have diverse needs and require many resources
I want to have a say in how the money (gift) is used
My organization may benefit from the services of a community college
Employees are student and they may see the gift as giving back to their community/goals
Large school so get business in return
Free advertising around the campus
No relocation fees for new workers
More flexible workforce
Reasonable salary expectations
Joint interests/initiatives
Won't give for just “community investment”
Small college has no business upside
College has a poor reputation/integrity
Money goes towards something disagree with
Donation leads to education of community
Increase assistance to marginalized groups
To increase or improve facilities
To initiate new programs which involve the community
Sense of ownership/partnership
Need for an educated workforce
Need to develop and maintain relationships close by
Need to encourage more students to attend higher education
In-kind donations to mobilize materials
Illustrate that business and education communities can work together for the community
It is a win-win situation for both partners

Both partners appreciate the donations
There is significant recognition of the donation(s)
ROI: Result in skilled new workers for organization
It is a good thing to do for the community
There is economic development by helping train skilled workers
Need to know personal successes of students from the college
Could help fund or give guidance to a course/training program for company needed skills
Influence curriculum to better articulate from high schools into college for specific skills
Give only to programs that offer skills in specific areas within my company
Give only if college is producing good students and expenses are not too high
Would not give if the role of a community college is not made clear
Other causes and organizations with higher priority take donations
Feel a higher alliance or affiliation with another group
Unclear purpose where the donation would go
Would not receive as much in return for my contribution as from another organization
Need is not fully proven to me
Need is always there because students come from the community for many reasons
Good relationship with the college
Gifts of equipment, computers, because of the need to help improve prep courses
Gifts of software, same reason
Gifts of time from internal experts to work with faculty in designing/improving courses
Gifts of course for faculty members at no charge for technology awareness
Potential internships for both faculty and special students
Education
Employee involvement
Community oriented activities
Partnership opportunities
College does not offer classes that prepare students in people and communication skills
College uses my business as a “bad” example of where students should avoid working

**APPENDIX R: FIFTH E-MAIL LETTER TO DONOR FOCUS GROUP
INTERACTIVE QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS: PARTS 5 AND 6**

Dear #3,

I love working with over-achievers! The next part of the focus group was for you to give names to the groupings you had created. Since most of you did that anyway, we will combine steps five and six, leaving only ONE more part to complete!

INSTRUCTIONS FOR PARTS 5 AND 6:

1. Please carefully read the list below
2. If you feel that some of the titles of the groups should be changed, please do so and highlight.
3. If you feel that some of the items should be in a different group or a NEW group, please move them and highlight.
4. If you agree with all, just send me an email stating so.

Thanks, we are almost finished!!!

1. Rewards/Benefits to the Community-at-Large
 - Must have a specific reason for investment (Won't give for just "community" investment.)
 - Needs must be clearly (fully) proven (Needs not fully proven.)
 - Rewards come back
 - Economic development (of community) helped by training a skilled workforce
2. Benefits/Improvement of Education
 - Money used for educational purposes
 - Increase assistance to marginalized (underserved) groups
 - Increase/ improve facilities
 - Encourage more students to attend higher educational institutions
 - Need to use money for better diversity in higher education
 - Education
3. Community Involvement
 - Money stays in the community
 - Employees see money as a gift giving back to the community
 - Donations lead to education of community

- Initiate new programs which involve the community
- Good thing to do for the community
- Need is there because students come from the community
- Community-oriented activities

4. Benefits/Return to Company/ Alumni

- My organization benefits from the services of the community college
- Large schools give business in return
- Small colleges have no business upside
- Must receive as much of a significant return for my contribution
- Significant recognition of the donation
- Free advertisement around campuses
- In-kind donations to mobilize materials
- Want a say in how the money is spent

5. Employee Involvement

- Employees are students
- No relocation fees for new workers
- More flexible workforce (provided by the community college)
- Reasonable salary expectations (by students)
- Need for educated workforce
- ROI (return on investment): results in skilled new workers for organization

6. Partnerships

- Both partners must appreciate the donation
- Joint interests/initiatives
- Sense of partnerships
- Need to develop/maintain a close relationship
- Illustrate that business and education communities can work together
- Win-win situation for partners
- Good relationship with college
- Partnership opportunity

7. Benefits to Community College

- Potential internships at companies for faculty and special (designated) students
- In-kind gifts of equipment
- In-kind gifts of software

- In-kind gifts of company courses for faculty members to become technologically aware (savvy)
- Businesses help fund, or give guidance to, a course or training program
- Influence (workforce) curriculum
- Gifts of time of internal (company) experts to work with faculty in designing courses
- Scholarships/endowments established

8. Allegiance to College

- Sense of ownership
- Must feel a high alliance or affiliation with the college
- Money goes toward something I disagree with (Money must go toward something I agree with)
- Other causes/organizations have higher priority for my giving (College is high priority for giving)

9. Reputation of College

- College has a poor reputation/integrity
- Need to know personal successes of students from the college
- Give only if college is producing “good” (well-trained) students
- Give only if college expenses (tuition, etc.) are not too high
- College role is not (but should be) clear to/in the community
- Community college programs must be in areas of skills needed
- College uses business as a “bad” example of where to work
- Unclear purpose (by college) as to where the donation goes
- Needs (for gifts) are not fully proven

APPENDIX S: SIXTH E-MAIL LETTER TO DONOR FOCUS GROUP INTERACTIVE QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS: PART 7

Dear #10:

Please complete the chart below. The Affinities are in alphabetical order and not order of significance or the order in which you as a group placed them. Think carefully about your answers. It may help to print the chart out first and use it as a worksheet. However, do not try to “over-think” on your answers. Go with your “gut” instincts!

<p style="text-align: center;">Affinity Name</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Allegiance to Community College 2. Benefits to Community College 3. Benefits/Improvement of Education 4. Benefits/Return to Company/Alumni 5. Involvement of Company Employees 6. Partnerships 7. Reputation of College 8. Rewards/Benefits to the Community 	<p style="text-align: center;">Possible Relationships</p> <p>A → B (A influences B)</p> <p>A ← B (B influences A)</p> <p>A ⇄ B (No Relationship)</p> <p style="color: orange; font-style: italic;">(You can copy and paste the relationship signs above to the chart below.)</p>
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Example: 1 → 2 : If I have a strong allegiance to the community college, then it will benefit the community college.

1 ← 2 : If there are benefits to giving to the community college, then it will cause a strong allegiance.

1 ⇄ 2 : I see no relationship between these two affinities.

Focus Group Affinity Relationship Table		
Affinity Pair Relationship		Example of the relationship either in natural language or in the form of an IF/THEN statement of relationship
1	2	

1	3	
1	4	
1	5	
1	6	
1	7	
1	8	
2	3	
2	4	
2	5	
2	6	
2	7	
2	8	
3	4	
3	5	
3	6	
3	7	
3	8	
4	5	
4	6	
4	7	
4	8	
5	6	
5	7	
5	8	
6	7	
6	8	
7	8	

APPENDIX T: INTERVIEW TIPS

Interviewing Tips

Remember, you are conducting the interview so that you can use quotes to describe the affinities and explain relationships. You want to elicit as complete a description of the affinities and the sub-affinities as possible. You will want to know not just that the interviewee thinks there is a relationship between affinities but why they think there is a relationship and examples that they have experienced. Failure to ask these questions means you will not have their reasoning to explain the SID but will have to infer their meaning.

The interview is set up so that when you look at the transcript you can quickly identify the data you are looking for. Introducing your question using the words, “Tell me about... (the affinity)” will help to quickly identify that section.

When performing the theoretical interview, saying the number pairs along with the affinities will allow you to identify that pair more quickly when looking at the transcript.

You probably should take a break after the axial interview. When there are many affinity relationship pairs to work through, you may want to take a break half-way through the theoretical interview. Interviewees will often rush their answers when tired, and logic may not be used.

- Memorize, or become completely familiar with, the interview protocol. This allows the interviewer to ask questions naturally as topics come up during the interview. In addition, the interviewer will be able to maintain more eye contact and genuine interest while the interviewee is responding.

- Test the equipment set up. Make sure the power source is working properly. Test volume levels and clarity.
- Introduce yourself and provide basic information regarding the project.
- Explain the confidentiality of the interviewee's responses. Get permission to tape the interview.
- Get to know something about the respondent by gathering some general information. Do not fail to gather any demographic or other information that may be used in later breakouts of the interview data. Explain the purpose, confidentiality, request permission to tape, restate the issue statement.
- Start with the Primary Driver on the protocol unless, during introductions, the interviewee mentions a "burning topic" which seems naturally to lead with during the interview.
- Proceed by asking questions that follow the protocol. Allow the interviewee to initiate the discussion on certain topics as they are connected to other topics. A natural order will often emerge. If the natural flow ends, introduce a new affinity that seems appropriate.
- Always wait for the interviewee to finish speaking before you probe or move on to the next question.
- Probe for deeper meaning or extended examples. Ask the interviewee questions that elicit thorough responses to avoid moving through the questions in a checklist manner.
- Throughout this process, listen to the responses and make mental notes regarding relationships that emerge between the data. For example, if the interviewee speaks of one topic as a result of another, that relationship should be noted.
- Provide examples if the interviewee does not respond or is unclear.

- Make a prefatory statement to give respondent time to gather thoughts.
- Summarize when making a transition to next topic.
- Tell the respondent what will be asked next - direct announcement format.
- Attention-getting preface – may concern the importance of the question, the difficulty of the question, or openness of question. (Rewrite starting with a verb.)
- Ask probing questions for meaning and examples.
- Remember to include the sub-affinities. If the interviewee does not mention them voluntarily, bring them up by way of example to determine the respondent's views.
- Thank interviewee for their assistance.

Approaches to Avoid

- Talking too much, thereby monopolizing the interview.
- Asking “Yes”/“No” questions that provide too little information.
- Asking questions that may divert the focus of the interview.

Glossary

CONTEXTUAL

1. **Annual Fund:** An annual fund is an ongoing effort to convince donors to make contributions every year. It is considered a barometer of how much alumni appreciate the institution (Drozdowski, 2002).
2. **Benefactor:** A benefactor is a particularly generous donor who makes a bequest or endowment, usually wanting in return his or her name attached to a building, a scholarship, or an athletic facility (Drozdowski, 2002).
3. **Capital Campaign:** A capital campaign is an intensive effort to raise large sums of money or other types of donations in a specific time period (Drozdowski, 2002).
4. **Challenge Grant:** A challenge grant is a commitment from a donor to give money, only if an institution can raise “matching” dollars from other sources (Drozdowski, 2002).
5. **CRIT/CRAT/CRUT:** CRIT/CRAT/CRUT are acronyms for Charitable Remainder Interest Trust, Charitable Remainder Annuity Trust, and Charitable Remainder Unit Trust. All three trusts are estate-planning devices that simultaneously benefit the nonprofit institution and the donor financially (Drozdowski, 2002).
6. **Endowment:** An endowment is an interest-bearing fund whose corpus is retained in perpetuity (Drozdowski, 2002).

7. **Major Gift:** A major gift is a monetary gift usually falling in the \$25,000 to \$500,000 range (Drozdzowski, 2002).
8. **Moves Management:** Moves management is an intricate set of actions, usually utilizing a data base specifically for prospect research, designed to reach potential donors and assist them in donating to their highest capability (Drozdzowski, 2002).
9. **Nonprofit:** A nonprofit organization is one that is usually established as a 501(C)(3) for tax purposes that does not make a profit above standard organizational costs (Drozdzowski, 2002).
10. **Prospect Research:** Prospect research is a sophisticated effort to uncover a potential donor's asset base, thereby determining how large a contribution a fundraiser can expect (Drozdzowski, 2002).
11. **Proposal:** A proposal is a document prepared for an agency with grant funding in which one promises to undertake certain activities with the money received in exchange for the funding (Drozdzowski, 2002).
12. **Unrestricted Gift:** An unrestricted gift is one that has not been predetermined as to where the funds must be spent (Drozdzowski, 2002).
13. **Volunteer:** A volunteer is an individual who works, without compensation, to advance the cause of an organization, i.e., a college or university (Drozdzowski, 2002).

METHODOLOGICAL – STATISTICAL TERMS

15. **Concepts:** Concepts are general ideas or understandings that form the basis of social scientific research (Babbie, et al., 2003, p. 10).

16. **Measurement:** May be seen as the transition from concepts to variables—from sometimes ambiguous mental images to precise, empirical measures (Babbie, et al., 2003, p. 26).
17. **Regression Analysis:** Broadly speaking, regression analysis is a method of analyzing variability of a dependent variable, or a criterion, by resorting to information on one or more independent variables (Pedhazur & Schmelkin, 1991, p. 371).
18. **Reliability:** Reliability refers to the quality of a measuring instrument that would cause it to report the same value in successive observations of a given case (Babbie, et al., 2003, p. 20).
19. **Survey Population:** The survey population consists of all of the units (individuals, households, organizations) to which one desires to generalize survey results (Dillman, 2000, p. 196).
20. **Theory:** A theory is a statement or set of statements describing the relationships among concepts (Babbie, 2003, p. 10).
21. **Variables:** Variables are empirical indicators of the concepts researched. Variables have the ability to take on two or more values, or categories (Babbie, et al., 2003, p. 11).

METHODOLOGICAL – IQA TERMS

All of the following methodological terms were taken from the Course Supplement, *IQA: A Systems Method for Qualitative Research* (Northcutt and McCoy, 2002).

1. **Axial Coding:** The process of refining, reorganizing, and describing a range of meaning for each affinity within the context of the others. During the process, major categories of affinities are reviewed and then may be divided or narrowed into hierarchical systems of sub-affinities.
2. **Axial Interview:** The first part of the IQA interview composed of open-ended questions about the phenomenon designed to solicit rich descriptions of each affinity's meaning, as perceived by the interviewee.
3. **Driver:** A relative cause or influence that has more arrows going *out* than *in*; primary drivers have no *ins* and all *outs*.
4. **Emergent Coding:** Also known as *open coding*; this refers to the dynamic coding process of the group; categories and topics begin to emerge, but categories, topics, meanings, ideas, etc., may change or alter during the coding process; group members begin to group responses to the issue statement in the silent nominal process into categories or affinities; process answers the question, "What are the affinities?"
5. **Feedback Loop:** A feedback loop is present when there is a relationship from an element later in the system back to an element earlier in the system; also known as *recursion*.

6. **Guided Imagery:** Guided imagery is a focus group warm-up exercise designed to exploit the human capability of constructing narratives as a way to understand an experience. Participants are asked to close their eyes and relax while the researcher “tells a story” that portrays the phenomenon in episodic form and invites participants to recall their experiences or imagine themselves in situations related to the issue.
7. **Ideology:** The ways of believing collective ideals among a group about the way things ought to work --- a set of beliefs and associated values (ethics) dealing with what is real that are tied together.
8. **Independent Coding:** An affinity coding process (form of theoretical coding) in which individuals work alone following a two-step analytical process for each pair of affinities; requires the most time to code and the most facilitation.
9. **Issue Statement:** This is a short statement or open-ended question posed during the silent nominal session that is intended to inform the focus group members of the intent of the research; catalyst of the silent nominal process; participants are given a statement or an issue to consider; issue statements may be delivered in three ways.
10. **Open or Inductive Coding:** The logical process of clustering or categorizing the focus groups’ thoughts into affinities based on common themes.
11. **Outcome:** A relative effect which has more arrows going *in* than *out*; a primary outcome has no arrows *out*.
12. **Paradigm:** A paradigm is a model; a very clear and typical example.

13. **Pareto Principle:** A 19th-century Italian economist Vilfredo Pareto's 80/20 *rule* that states that 80 percent of all that happens at work is really the result of 20 percent effort. For example, 80 percent of the IQA study's most reliable and valid data is generated within the top 20 percent.
14. **Phenomenon:** Any state or process known through the senses rather than by intuition or reasoning.
15. **Primary Driver:** An affinity that is a primary cause or influencer marked by a high positive delta or number resulting in many "Outs" but no "Ins"; affects but is not influenced by all other affinities.
16. **Primary Outcome:** An affinity that is a primary effect marked by a low negative delta resulting in many "Ins" but no "Outs"; is influenced by many others.
17. **Recursion:** A recursion results when a relative outcome "feeds back" or influences the state of an element that is a relative driver; see *feedback loop*.
18. **Short Statement:** A statement of the issue, providing clarifying information as necessary to ensure participants' understanding of the topic.
19. **Silent Nominal Process:** The individuals in the focus group silently "brainstorm" by writing individual thoughts and reflections on index cards. These cards each contain a word, short phrase, or some expression of a thought related to the issue statement. After the cards are collected, taped to the wall, and discussed for clarification, the silent nominal process continues as the participants are asked to silently cluster the cards into categories
20. **(SID) System Influence Diagram:** A visual representation of an entire system of influences and outcomes created by the interplay of drivers and outcomes; a form

of a structural or path diagram, distinguishable from traditional path diagrams in that recursive or feedback loops are allowed; diagram is also prepared with data from the IRD but it removes ambiguities and redundancies from the system, and it generates/identifies the pattern of influence or causation among affinities in the system, including recursive relationships. The SID from the group process is compared with that produced from the theoretical coding of the interviews, and any differences are reconciled to create a synthesized SID. The final step is to move back to the group process and to determine systematically which of all the possible recursive relationships are the most viable or likely. The SID with recursion is the final product of the IQA process.

21. **Syllogism:** A statement of cause and effect; a statement of relationships.
22. **System:** A system has two components: *elements* and *relationships* among its elements.
23. **Traditional Focus Group Approach:** This focus group approach states the issue and ask group participants what they think about it; use probing and follow-up questions to elicit data verbally.
24. **Theoretical Coding:** The process of determining causal relationships among the affinities. The participant is asked to decide if a cause/effect relationship can be established for each distinct pair of affinities.
25. **Theoretical Interview:** The highly structured second part of the IQA interview designed to identify the relationships between affinity pairs.
26. **Triad Coding:** An affinity coding process where participants are divided into groups of three to code affinities.

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Vita

Carole Diane Errett was born in Nevada, Missouri, to Harley W. and Viola M. Errett on June 2, 1946. She attended K through 12 schools in Tyler, Texas, and graduated from Robert E. Lee High in 1964. She has one sibling, a younger, but much taller, brother, Michael P. Errett.

Ms. Errett attended Tyler Junior College, Tyler, Texas, from 1964-1966, where she became a strong advocate for the excellent education that can be obtained at a community college. Upon receiving her Associates of Arts degree, she attended Texas Christian University in Ft. Worth, Texas, where she received her Bachelor of Arts in Sociology with minors in Religion and Psychology in 1968.

Working as a Social Worker at Bethlehem Community Center in Ft. Worth after graduating from TCU, she gained the skills that she credits for her love and understanding of children and appreciation for the diversity of mankind.

Ms. Errett then continued her education at the University of North Texas in Denton where she obtained the coursework and credentials to teach in public schools. During this time, she taught in middle school in the Dallas, Texas area.

The year 1972 changed her life because of two major events—the birth of her son, Brent Allen, and moving to Heidelberg, Germany. Ms. Errett spent six years living in the Heidelberg area, where she taught for the University of Maryland and for the military PREP program, while traveling extensively. Upon return to Texas, she completed her Masters of Arts degree in 1972, with highest honors from the University of Texas at Tyler, while teaching and coaching girls' sports in middle school.

Ms. Errett was then accepted into the University of Tulsa (OK), School of Law and completed one year, when her adopted daughter Amanda Dae was born on June 19,

1982. A brief period was then spent in the Corning, New York area, but as the saying goes: “You can’t keep a Texas gal out of Texas!”

After returning to Texas in 1987, Ms. Errett went to work for the Dallas County Community College District, where her love for community colleges was rekindled. In 1991, she moved to Austin, Texas, and is now considered by some a true Austinite. Since moving to Austin, Ms. Errett has owned her own company providing services to small businesses throughout Texas, worked as Director of Customized Training at Austin Community College, and provided consulting work to the Texas State Comptroller’s Office for community colleges’ Texas School Performance Reviews.

In 1999, Ms. Errett was challenged by both Dr. Donald Phelps of CCLP – on the golf course—and Dr. Aubrey Sharpe of Tyler Junior College– at a Texas Association for Continuing Education happy hour – to go get that doctorate! Her greatest moment in life was when she was accepted into the doctoral program in Community College Leadership at the University of Texas at Austin.

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This dissertation was typed by Carole Diane Errett.