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AN ANALYSIS OF TWO-YEAR COLLEGE FUNDRAISING PRACTICES

A Dissertation
presented in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the Doctor of Philosophy Degree
in Higher Education
The University of Mississippi

by

LUKE J. HOWARD

July 2014

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ABSTRACT

This study sought to discover information about the types of fundraising methods being used in community college resource development, determine what methods are most effective for successful development practices, and inform community college development officers of these methods. Specifically, this study addressed the following question:

Are there statistically significant relationships between two-year college size, fundraising method(s), and the amount of funds raised?

Descriptive statistics were obtained, and two-way chi-square analysis was used to illustrate the comparisons between the categorical variables in all hypotheses. Only one hypothesis was rejected based on a computed chi-square ($\chi^2 = 22.507$), which exceeded the critical value ($\chi^2_{cv} = 5.991$). This result indicated the possibility of a significant relationship between fundraising success and the size of a two-year institution's student headcount.

The results of this study aligned with existing research with similar characteristics. The study by Rieves (2005), *An Analysis of Public Two-Year College Fundraising*, which indicated 20% of fundraising efforts can be attributed to the size of the institution, and recommended that foundation officers rethink strategies of engagement to increase student headcount. As well, Gilmore's (1996) study, *An Analysis of Fundraising Activities for the Solicitation of Private Donations at Selected Public Community Colleges*, which identified significant fundraising activities, also found fundraising revenue was positively correlated with the size of the institution's student body.

DEDICATION

To my father, who through commitment and drive set the bar incredibly high; and mother, who through love and support encouraged me to believe I could reach it.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I am indebted to the professors who have served as teachers, mentors, and guides during my time as a doctoral student at the University of Mississippi. My sincere appreciation goes to the original members of my committee: Dr. Dennis Bunch, Dr. Timothy Letzring, Dr. Kerry Melear, and Dr. Whitney Thompson Webb. In addition the original committee members, I would also like to thank Dr. John Holleman for his continual concern, and Kim Chrestman, whose availability I could not have done without.

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Finally, to my wonderful family who have perhaps had to make the largest sacrifices of all. To my Mom and Dad, who may just be happier than I am that this is finally a reality; to my sons, Luke Joel and Bryce Christian, now daddy will have more time to play basketball; and to the essential friends who have gone this way before me, thanks for the bridge.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Since their inception, a major function of community colleges has been to make higher education more accessible to the general public. This accessibility is based on affordability. To maintain their accessibility and affordability, the bulk of community college funding has come from sources other than tuition and fees (Kenton, Schuh, Huba, & Shelley II, 2004). In accordance with Kenton et al., Tollefson (2009) reported only 20% of community college funding was from tuition and fees, with 69% of community college funding being provided by state, local, and federal government. However, according to Cannon (2012), some states have experienced as much as a 21% decrease in state funding from 2001 to 2012. This reduced governmental support, along with a rapidly rising enrollment, has severely threatened the ability of the community college to maintain a mission of affordability and accessibility. As a response to these circumstances, many community colleges are searching for alternative avenues to obtain funds.

The search for these alternative avenues has been met with numerous hindrances and much trepidation. According to Summers (2006), inbreeding, identity, and leadership are all obstacles community colleges must overcome to procure funding from non-governmental sources. Inbreeding, as defined by Summers, is a result of community college administrators' unwillingness to hire employees from entrepreneurial organizations. According to Grant, Shatzberg, and Northcross (2005), this reluctance to "color outside the lines" (p. 612) and use

highly trained professionals in fundraising, hinders many community colleges from transitioning to “state assisted rather than fully state supported” (p. 612).

The community college identity crisis is attributed to its shared traits with both public schools and major universities. The size and collegiality of the community college may tend to be similar to that of a large high school, fundraising needs to be more in line with that of a major university (Summers, 2006). Long gone are the profitable fundraising practices of doughnut drives, hotdog sales, and car washes. According to Strout (2006), it is essential for community colleges to develop fundraising ideas that will compete with other colleges, and charities as well.

The issue of community college leadership, as it relates to fundraising, can often be attributed to a community college’s affinity for hiring presidents or chancellors without considerable fund-raising experience. To overcome these obstacles, community colleges have developed offices and foundations with the sole purpose of establishing successful fundraising mechanisms and models (Strout 2006). Some community colleges have begun providing professional development workshops for faculty and staff to make them aware of the significance of the mission of fundraising. According to Strout, if community colleges are to successfully obtain funds from sources other than the government, tuition, and fees, it is imperative they educate faculty, staff, and college leaders about the importance of raising money.

Statement of the Problem

An increasingly large challenge for the American community college is balancing blossoming enrollment and withering financial support from state and local governments (Cohen & Brawer, 1996; Katsinas, Tollefson, & Reamy, 2008). In some areas, state funding for community colleges has dropped as much as 10% or 8.2 million dollars (Strauss, 2009). To

combat this decline, many community colleges resort to drastic measures in an effort to offset the decreased budget. Some examples of these measures include:

1. Freezing faculty and staff salaries;
2. Hiring adjunct faculty to fill positions normally held by full-time faculty;
3. Eliminating full-time faculty, which in turn, eliminates courses; and
4. Capping enrollment and turning away students, which will challenge the community college's open enrollment status.

Although from 2001 to 2012, state funding for American community colleges increased from \$144 million to \$164 million; when adjusted for inflation by using the Higher Education Price Index, what looks like a \$20 million increase actually represents nearly a \$60 million decline (Cannon, 2012). According to Gonzalez (2012) not only has state support decreased, but the federal government has balked on a 2009 promise of a \$12 billion American Graduation Initiative centered on rebuilding community college facilities, improving remedial education, and raising the number of students who graduate and transfer from community colleges. The law that ultimately passed awarded only two billion dollars, which is less than 20% of the \$12 billion initially promised. As public community colleges are primarily funded through the government and tuition (Thomas, 2006), cutbacks in government assistance have left many community college leaders scrambling for additional ways to obtain funds. As stated earlier, the time is coming when the most successful community colleges will be those that have transitioned from state supported to state assisted (Grant et al., 2005). The intention of this survey research was to evaluate the effectiveness of the alternate avenues community colleges used to raise the funds needed to make this transition.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this survey research study was to examine two-year colleges and their fundraising methods in an effort to identify how these methods affect the amount of funds raised.

Research Question

This study sought to discover information about the types of fundraising methods being used in community college resource development, determine what methods are most effective for successful development practices, and inform community college development officers of these methods. Specifically, this study addressed the following question:

Are there statistically significant relationships between two-year college size, fund raising method(s), and the amount of funds raised?

Hypotheses

According to Hinkle, Wiersma, and Jurs (2003), hypotheses are tested in the null form, which is the hypothesis assuming no significant difference or relationship among variables. This quantitative dissertation study includes four separate hypotheses to determine whether differences exist in funds raised among the sample groups.

1. There is no significant relationship between the amount of money raised through fundraising and community college student headcount.
2. There is no significant relationship between the amount of money raised through fundraising and number of community college fundraising officers.
3. There is no significant relationship between the amount of money raised through fundraising and community college fundraising structure(s).
4. There is no significant relationship between amounts of money raised through fundraising due to community college outsourcing.

Significance of the Study

A study providing insight to researchers and fundraising practitioners concerning alternative fundraising practices of two-year colleges is important for several reasons. First, the study addresses the need for two-year colleges to prepare to cope with reduced governmental funding (D'Amico, Katsinas, & Friedel, 2012). Second, the study obtains data about two-year colleges and their fundraising methods in an effort to statistically determine how those methods affect fundraising. Third, the study provides contemporary information to interested researchers and a tool for fundraising practitioners to use in future fundraising efforts.

Limitations of the Study

As community colleges are not required to report fundraising efforts to any particular national entity, many community colleges do not (Rieves, 2005). Those public community colleges choosing not to report fundraising efforts may not recognize the significance in participating in this study. The data for this study was limited to a population that included two-year colleges in those 41 states holding membership in the Council of the Advancement and Support of Education (CASE) in 2012. These 301 institutions and foundations were identified through the CASE as interested in strengthening the combined efforts of alumni relations, fundraising, and marketing.

The following foundations or districts represented several colleges: (a) Alamo Community College District Foundation, (b) Coast Community College District Foundation, (c) Coastal Blend College Foundation, (d) Colorado Community College System Foundation, (e) Eastern Iowa Community College District, (f) Northern Wyoming Community College District, (g) Peralta Community College District, Riverside Community College District Foundation, (h) San Mateo County Community College District, (i) Seattle Community College District, (j) West

Valley-Mission Community College District, and (k) Yosemite Community College District. The individual institution represented by these foundations or districts were excluded in order to avoid sampling bias occurring from a single institution being represented in multiple surveys (Gay, 1996).

Data was further limited to those development practitioners whose email address and professional title were available through each institution's website at the time of review by the researcher. Institutions that had not made this information available via their website were not included in the survey. This study was also limited to the participants' capability and willingness to answer the survey truthfully. Due to these limitations, the ability to generalize the conclusions of this study was restricted. In all, 301 fundraising officers received an invitation to participate in this study, and 102 individuals participated.

Glossary

Annual Giving – A program that seeks repeated gifts on a yearly basis from some constituency (Rosso & Tempel, 2003).

Community College – An associate degree-granting institution that is publicly supported by means of tuition, local taxes, and state revenues (Rieves, 2005). For the purpose of this research, the terms community college and two-year college are used interchangeably.

Foundations – An institution's auxiliary organization devoted to raising and administering external funds (Thomas, 2006).

Major Gift – A significant amount of money given as a gift in accordance with an organization's goals (Rosso & Tempel, 2003).

Outsourcing – A form of privatization that refers to the concept of transferring the provision of a campus service to a private company (Gupta, Herath, & Mikouiza, 2005).

Philanthropic/Corporate Gift – A relocation of resources to a population with less wealth than the donor or donors (“A Critical Look,” 2011).

Planned Gift - Contract between donor and institution in which donors specify in their last will and testament exactly what is being left to the institution (“Fundraising Mechanics,” 2011).

Restricted Gifts – Donated funds or items where the donor uses a legal document to designate to the institution how donated funds or items are to be used (“Philanthropy and Fundraising,” 2011).

Qualtrics –An internet based software that allows the user to create surveys and generate reports (Qualtrics, 2014).

Unrestricted Gifts – Donated funds or items that can be used at the institution’s discretion (“Philanthropy and Fundraising,” 2011).

Conclusion

This survey research study examined two-year college fundraising, in an effort to identify how various sizes and methods affect the amount of funds raised, by utilizing survey data intended to collect descriptive data from chief fundraising officers concerning fundraising, procedures, practices, and goals. Fundraising methods included the use of fundraising officers, outsourcing, and the fundraising structures outlined in hypothesis three. Chapter I provided an introduction to the field of community college fundraising and the research conducted for this study. Chapter II serves as the literature review, including an exploration of the history of fundraising in community colleges, an explanation of current trends of community college fundraising, and a review of the alternate avenues that community colleges use to raise funds. Chapter III describes the research as it was conducted in detail. This description includes detailed

information about the survey instrument derived for this research and the quantitative data analysis used by the researcher. Chapter IV provides a review of the results obtained through data analysis, including relevant charts and tables. Discussion of the results occurs in Chapter V.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The review of the literature introduces, examines, and discusses what is viewed as best practices for alternative avenues of community college fundraising. The review is presented as follows. First, there is an introduction and overview of the history of community college funding. Next, community college funding trends and challenges are examined. Finally, alternate avenues in the areas of alumni giving, fundraising, and gift giving are adduced.

Introduction

The American junior college, today's community college, was primarily intended to provide the first two years of a four-year college curriculum (Cohen & Brawer, 1996). During these early years, the unilateral mission of the community college allowed the college to have a simple makeup and focus. In 1901 the first junior college, a high school in Peoria, Illinois, operated using what today is considered as dual enrollment. Qualified students were given an opportunity to take collegiate courses in hopes they would transfer the credit for these courses to nearby University of Chicago. Most early junior colleges were housed in either high schools near universities, or small four-year institutions that dropped the junior and senior years of study from their curriculum (Fatherree, 2010).

According to Burke (2008), community colleges received their earliest boost from initiatives outlined by President Truman in his Commission on Higher Education for American democracy in 1947. During this time, it had become clear to President Harry Truman that the

facilities of higher education were being overstrained by hundreds of thousands of veterans returning to college. Based on the recommendations of The Truman Commission, as it is often referred, the federal government increased community college funding and bolstered the community college mission. After the Truman Commission, community colleges not only prepared students for furthering studies at four-year colleges or universities, but also broadened their mission to include programs for student occupational development and provisions for adult or nontraditional education (Fatherree, 2010). Due to the enriched mission and the development of multifaceted curricula and programs, community college enrollments began to swell to the point at which they began to enroll almost half of the people who entered college each year (Cohen & Brawer, 1996).

According to Cohen (1993), at least 50% of American high school graduates could profit from attending grades 13 and 14. This is the main reason President Truman made it a high priority to outline initiatives that would boost community colleges in his Commission on Higher Education for American Democracy in 1947 (Burke, 2008). The Truman Commission provided enrichment to community college funding, and thus enhanced the community college mission.

As accessibility has consistently been a major function of community colleges, their primary funding has always been from sources other than tuition and fees (Kenton et al., 2004). According to Tollefson (2009), only 20% of community college funding was from tuition and fees in 2001. This same report attributed 69% of community college funding to either state, local, and/or federal government. Although since 1996 community colleges have been specifically mentioned in every State of the Union presidential address, this attention does not necessarily translate into hard dollars (Katsinas, Tollefson, & Reamy, 2008). The survey used in Tollefson's

(2009) research highlighted 15 key findings, 10 of which dealt directly with community college funding. The 10 findings keying on community college funding are as follows:

1. Community college state funding is susceptible to the recession.
2. There is a strong competition for fleeting state tax dollars.
3. Community college funding formulas are not usually fully funded.
4. Community colleges are forced to raise tuition to compensate for scarce resources.
5. There is a rise in tuition across the board for postsecondary institutions.
6. Community colleges are struggling with a rise in enrollment due to university enrollment caps.
7. Total state operating budgeting increases will not be enough to address the financial needs of the community colleges.
8. Deferred maintenance has been negatively affected.
9. The greatest financial strain is with rural community colleges.
10. Community colleges face new accessibility issues with the growing influx of displaced workers.

Kenton et al. (2004) reported that insufficient amounts of funding were reported across the board from community colleges attempting to use sales and educational services as a means of fundraising. Income from gifts, grants, and endowments were also negligible in the 212 community colleges researched. In most cases, the most useful means for compensating for loss of governmental funding was to raise tuition. However, raising tuition goes against the accessibility efforts community colleges have been striving for since their inception.

According to Kenton et al. (2004), the effect of the loss of state appropriations differs widely from state to state but is uniformly negatively correlated with a rise in tuition and fees.

Community college governing boards, according to Kenton et al., should make efforts to align themselves with state and local governments. These efforts would provide a regular level of government funding, leading to a stabilization of tuition and fees.

During this time of financial strain, many American community colleges have been forced to make significant financial cutbacks (Tollefson, 2009). Community colleges have resorted to hiring freezes, salary freezes, and furloughs to help assuage the pressures felt by budget limitations. Due to this decrease in public funding, many community colleges are searching for alternative funding avenues to finance new projects, as well as maintain current services.

Community College Funding History

Nineteenth century town colleges, along with libraries and museums, were originally developed by municipalities to illustrate authentication of higher intellectual, educational, and cultural development (Ratcliff, nd). These colleges were wholly supported by the community in which they were built and were a direct representation of the community. In communities predominately representing a single religion and/or in which particular trade was practiced, a small municipal college was used to train community members to become better tradesmen or to indoctrinate them in religious beliefs. As this was often the case, legislation followed to make finances more readily available to these municipal colleges.

The Panic of 1893, however, sent America into a financial strain which could no longer support this loosely defined and loosely legislated system of funding (Coffey, 2010). During this time, America suffered an unprecedented financial depression due to silver and gold exchange. In response to this financial strain, Reverend J. M. Carroll, president of Baylor University at the time, proposed reducing the financial needs of smaller municipal colleges by allowing them to

offer only the first two years of collegiate training. This adjustment succeeded in lowering the number of faculty, staff, and students to cope with the already limited resources. The result of this modification is known today as community colleges (Coffey, 2010).

Considerable debate exists about where and when the first American public community/junior college originated; most historians agree the first empowerment in establishing community/junior colleges was the Caminetti Bill of 1907 (Tollefson, 2009). Although this bill never actually became law, it was adopted by the California General Assembly and gave high schools the right to offer and charge tuition for courses which would normally be taken during the first two years of study at a university. Ten years later, with the Ballard Act of 1917, this adaptation of the Caminetti Bill became law in the state of California.

With a substantial start in California, the community college movement began to spread eastward and included Arizona, Iowa, Kansas, Louisiana, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Mississippi, and Texas by 1930 (Tollefson, 2009). During the first 40 years of the twentieth century, over 250 public junior colleges were established in 31 states (Tollefson, 2009). However, this movement did not come without opposition. According to Pedersen (2005), most state governments were not in agreement with the growing number of publicly funded junior colleges. This indifference rarely deterred school districts from expanding and establishing these community colleges. An example of blatant disregard to state legislations happened in 1927 when Oscar Carlson, then the Illinois Attorney General, ruled that a municipal board of education had no authority to establish a junior college (Pedersen, 2005). Twelve junior colleges were established in Illinois during this 40-year period (Tollefson, 2009). This expansion was partly due to the fact that state boards of education often lacked the resources to impose their will on the school districts that were under their supervision.

Another reason municipalities may have overlooked state legislatures was because of the nominal support public schools received from the state. According to Pedersen (2005), only 26% of appropriations were received from the state during the 1920s, while 70% were received from local government. However, the most significant blow to the opposition of the establishment of junior colleges probably happened with the ruling in *Zimmerman v. Board of Education* in North Carolina in 1930. In this case, the Supreme Court of North Carolina ruled a community college could be maintained in conjunction with a public school system and therefore allowing state legislators to use tax dollars to support community colleges (Quinterno, 2008).

Fatheree (2010) also found community colleges were established out of a need to serve a particular region. In Mississippi, the first community colleges were established to replace what was seen as a failing agricultural high school system. To insure that these colleges would be able to compete in a fair market, the community colleges could not be within 20 miles of any of the senior colleges existing in Mississippi at that time. These agricultural community colleges received some of the purest form of public funding as all students were promised employment on the school farm or campus to provide payment for any fees they incurred during their enrollment. This work-study plan seemed to work better than expected for Mississippi, and the state was soon facing the problem of having more community colleges than it could afford. To combat this issue and continue state support of community colleges, Mississippi organized and established the first state system of junior colleges in the United States (Fatheree, 2010).

Trends and Challenges

Community college funding has been traditionally governed by a funding formula (Honeyman & Mullin, 2008). In 2008, 42 states used either a funding formula, or unified guidelines to regulate funding to community colleges. According to MGT of America (2001) “a

community college funding formula can be defined as a mathematical depiction of the amount of income or expenditures for a community college as a whole or for any program or department within the community college” (p. 2). According to Honeyman and Mullin, only Alaska, Delaware, Idaho, Maine, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, and Vermont failed to use some sort of guideline to regulate funding. South Dakota did not have any state supported community colleges at the time of the study.

Of the states that utilized a funding formula, only five held the community colleges accountable for developing the formula (Honeyman & Mullin, 2008). The majority of the states, 21, gave state higher education bodies governing control of the development and implementation of the funding formula. In some cases, these entities were totally separate from any other of the community colleges’ governing bodies. Although the data from the research suggested a trend toward continued and increased funding formula utilization, other elements were revealed.

One element Honeyman and Mullin (2008) highlighted in their research was the absence of a uniform funding formula for the various community colleges. The researchers suggested this may be a result of the lack of uniformity in the community college mission. A second element was a trend toward funding autonomy in the community college. Community colleges, according to Honeyman and Mullin, were outgrowing the funding practices based on K-12 systems and had begun to develop formulas geared more to the multifaceted elements of higher education. This trend also may have served as a response to the significant increase in scrutiny from state governments in the area of community college funding.

Summers-Coty (1998) not only recognized the myriad of elements needing to be considered in establishing a successful funding formula, but also reported on a funding formula that successfully implemented these elements. By narrowing the focus to seven calculation

components including: (a) instructional need, (b) instructional support, (c) student services (d) administration, (e) energy and physical plant, (f) equipment, and (g) gross target sum need, Summers-Coty revealed how funding formulas have evolved from insufficient to proficient in less than 20 years.

The first funding formulas, according to Summers-Coty (1998), were mostly insufficient due to the lack of available data. Before the 1970s, community colleges had not gathered sufficient information that would allow a single formula to include all of the necessary financial responsibilities. At the onset of the funding formula idea, appropriations were calculated using calendar year equated student (CYES) enrollments. This CYES calculation, which ran from January 1 to December 31, presented obvious complications as it did not coincide with the college's fiscal year, which ran from July 1 to June 30. The change from CYES funding to fiscal year equated student (FYES) funding was instrumental and FYES calculations are still used in funding formula calculations today.

In 2006, Waller, Glasscock, Glasscock, and Fulton-Calkins took a closer look into the funding mechanisms and structures of 20% of America's community colleges. They found these community colleges were dependent upon three primary sources of revenue: ad valorem property taxes, state appropriations, and student tuition. Property taxes were used to facilitate maintenance and operation, and direct instructional costs were maintained by using state appropriations. Student tuition was broken down into three categories, (a) in district, (b) out of district, and (c) out of state. These three categories of funds were used to supplement maintenance, operation, instructional costs, and facility construction.

Calkins et al. (2006) discovered that for these particular colleges, the funding mechanisms were not found to be sufficient in keeping up with the expansion of the institutions

they were meant to serve. Ad valorem property taxes were insufficient due to community colleges exporting services and maintaining facilities located outside of their taxing districts. Student tuition for out of state students caused cost irregularities due to funding practices requiring colleges to count out of state fees as a portion of state appropriations. Also, according to Calkins et al. (2006), community colleges did not establish uniform rates for in district, out of district, and out of state students, which made a funding mechanism comparison impossible to establish.

According to many economists, intellectuals, and higher education leaders, the continual decline in government appropriations should be considered the new norm and not a passing trend (D'Amico et al., 2012). To be prepared for this new standard, many community colleges are adopting alternate fundraising mechanisms allowing them to continue providing the accessibility that they are accustomed to providing to the student. According to D'Amico et al., most higher education authorities have previously argued on the side of either (a) high appropriations - low tuition, or (b) low appropriations – high tuition as the appropriate form of community college funding. However, as the former is now threatened by dedicated state funds, increasing health costs, underfunded retirement systems, and a sluggish economy, the latter seems to be the more viable solution of the two.

Further research from D'Amico et al. (2012) reports approximately 60% of the National Council of State Directors of Community Colleges indicated community colleges were trending toward a model of higher education with a greater dependence on tuition. Practically the same percentage of the respondents also agreed competition with dedicated state funds, increasing health costs, underfunded retirement systems, and other state priorities makes it less likely for community colleges to receive additional state funds in the future. Twenty percent of the

respondents indicated dependence on state allocations could be reduced if community colleges raised tuition.

Kelderman (2011) reports that raising tuition has grown from being an imminent threat to now becoming a way of life for many community colleges. In 2002, community colleges enrolled nearly 40% of all undergraduates while only receiving about 20% of state higher education appropriations (Kelderman). To combat this uneven funding, community college systems in Iowa and South Carolina depend on tuition for more than half of their general fund revenue. The two factors that pushed these systems over the half-way line, increased enrollment and decreased funding, seem common enough to suggest Iowa and South Carolina are acting as leaders of a new school rather than rogue funding eccentrics.

Kelderman (2011) challenges the tuition raising approach to fundraising because research shows community college students cannot pay higher tuition. In 2008, 41% of all undergraduate students that were living in poverty were enrolled in community colleges (National Center for Education Statistics [NCES], 2011). These 1.7 million students made up almost 20% of the total community college student population during that year. Due to this fact, a rise in tuition also raises questions as to whether community colleges can continue operating with a mission of open access.

Romano (2005) agrees that community college students are more apt to come from lower income groups than those who go directly to four-year colleges and universities. However, he does not agree that low tuition should be a goal of community colleges. Romano argues fewer 30% of community college students come from families with incomes low enough to qualify for Pell grants. Due to this, low community college tuition across the board is mostly benefiting those students with the ability to pay.

Instead of the standard low tuition, Romano (2005) suggests a high tuition and high financial aid model for community colleges. According to Romano, raising community college tuition and financial aid will place more of the financial burden on those students than can afford to pay. After researching several community colleges, Romano recommends adapting policies that (a) raise tuition and need-based aid, (b) allow community colleges more budget flexibility, (c) restructure federal financial aid, (d) move away from merit-based financial aid, (e) move away from local support, (f) link state aid to enrollment, (g) subsidize two- and four-year college students at the same rate, and (h) treat funding for capital projects differently. These eight policy recommendations, according to Romano (2005, pp. 40-41), are more equitable and will allow community colleges to remain accessible during these difficult financial times

In many states, community colleges compete to raise their student full-time equivalency (FTE) enrollment and square footage to earn more state funding (Henry, 2000). This competition often results in a surplus for the rich, while the poor continue to be underfunded. To alleviate this competition between same state community colleges for state funding, Henry (2000) suggests using a comparative-based funding model. The comparative-based funding model allows institutional leaders to develop a criterion that identify sister or comparator out-of-state community colleges to provide a funding pattern or base for the in-state community colleges. Under this model, it is absolutely essential the criteria are well thought out and agreed upon by each state community college.

In developing these criteria, Henry (2000, p. 44) suggests the following 12 principles be taken into account:

1. Comparator institutions should be similar in breadth of student choice.
2. Comparator institutions should be similar in educational diversity.

3. Comparator institutions should be similar in financial support from tuition, fees, and local governmental entities.
4. Comparator institutions should be similar in institutional accountability.
5. Comparator institutions should be similar in institutional independence.
6. Comparator institutions should be similar in institutional program excellence.
7. Comparator institutions should be similar in mixture of part-time and full-time students.
8. Comparator institutions should be similar in size by FTE enrollment.
9. Comparator institutions should be similar in student support services that allow opportunity for students to achieve educational objectives.
10. Comparator institutions should be similar in universal student access.
11. Comparator institutions should be similar in population within the institutional service area.
12. Comparator institutions should be similar in academic and technical instructional program mix.

Askin (2007), made a comparison between community colleges receiving funding from both state and local governments, and community colleges that only receive state funds. Using data gathered from the National Center for Educational Statistics' Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), Askin was able to determine some of the differences in the tuition and funding patterns of dual and singular funded community colleges.

According to Askin (2007), singular funded community colleges received more Pell Grant dollars per student, whereas dual funded community colleges had a significantly higher percentage of students who were Pell eligible. Dual funded community colleges, however,

provided preferential tuition and institutional financial aid to local residents, which allowed them to offer lower out-of-pocket expenses than their singularly funded counterparts. Dual funded institutions also were more likely to offer a wider variety of educational programs. Community colleges receiving only state funding produce higher student completion rates.

Askin (2007) also noted that, although community colleges often post mission statements heralding their intent to serve the entire community, an examination of the college programs and expenditures usually provides a clearer picture of which part of the community is actually being served. Community colleges receiving local funding are more likely to offer continuing educational programs that show an alliance to local businesses. These community colleges also have a tendency to offer a wide array of remedial and recreational programs that are area specific. However, state funded community colleges offer academic and occupational programs in correlation with the state government's emphasis on graduation rates, job placement, and transfer rates. State funded community colleges also have a higher instructional and scholarship expenditures than community colleges that receive local funds (Askin, 2007). The influence of funding sources on the community college's mission is evident in expenses and programs.

Fundraising

A recent economic decline and high unemployment rates have many Americans turning to community colleges to increase their education and acquire job skills, which in turn, has many community colleges searching for even more ways to raise money. According to Marklein (2008), community colleges train 80% of the country's police officers, firefighters, and emergency medical technicians; over 50% of its new nurses and health care workers; and enroll almost 50% of the people who enter college each year. Yet, in 2000-2001, the country spent \$140 billion on four-year public universities and under \$30 billion for public two-year colleges.

That \$110 billion dollar funding difference has remained relatively steady over the years (Marklein, 2008) and has forced community colleges to look for alternative fundraising avenues.

Gregory, Hendrick, and Hightower (2006) reported many community colleges are now following the trend set by four-year colleges and universities and becoming fundraisers. In their research, Gregory et al. found several means to assist community colleges in dealing with fluctuations of reduced funding, higher levels of accountability, and increased enrollment. These methods include providing an alternate definition of finance, hiring lobbyists to increase government funding, exploring private fundraising, and “closing” the door on the open door policy.

Success in fundraising, according to Stevick (2010), is challenged by the integration of development, marketing, and alumni. To improve fundraising endeavors, Stevick suggests community colleges adopt a corporate model which ingrates sales and marketing. In agreement with Weisbrod, Ballou, and Asch (2008), Stevick suggests integration be institutionalized and reflected within the mission statement. However, Stevick goes further challenging community college leaders to use the mission statement as a guide for designing faculty job descriptions and developing faculty evaluations, which ensures adherence to the mission of fundraising.

Institutional marketing plans should be incorporated into the college’s mission as well as its budget (Sefl & Snell, 2003). According to Zemsky, Wegner, and Massey (2005), a college totally dominated by its marketing interests often sacrifices much of its fundamental mission to appease the potential customer. To avoid this one-sided approach, the balance of the mission and market is vital to success. If the most important aspect of an institution is its mission, then the most important element of any program or task that the institution undertakes should be in accordance with the support of that mission.

Community colleges have the option to develop a distinct mission to become more attractive to potential students. According to Weisbrod et al. (2008), a college offering a unique mission is somewhat exempt from competition in that establishing a distinctive niche gives a school freedom to advertise specifically to those who are interested in a particular market. In developing this unique mission, it is essential that community college leaders establish strong ties with local government and businesses to ensure the service the college provides is germane to meeting the needs of the community it serves. Fostering this relationship not only allows community college leaders to find ways to better serve the community, but also grants opportunities to provide clarity on the college's role in strengthening the community's economy (Masterson, 2009).

Although advertising, public relations, and fundraising are key elements in marketing, they alone do not ensure a successful marketing plan. A marketing strategy is not successful until the consumers are satisfied (Scigliano, 1980). In a community college setting, the first step in establishing a good marketing strategy, and therefore satisfying consumers, is to tailor the plan so it fits the demographic of the targeted community and constituents. All institutional advertisement and recruitment material should fit the demographic of potential students (Sefl & Snell, 2003). In accordance with this, Masterson (2009) suggests college leaders closely follow local business news so they can adjust curriculum and programs to fit the current needs of the community.

By using the mission statement as a guide, the community college president or chief fundraising officer is able to cater the language of relevant job descriptions to ensure fundraising responsibility is a common criterion. This in turn allows for the development and implementation of evaluation instruments that measure quantifiable fundraising goals. Instruments such as these,

allow fundraising leaders to reinforce the integration of sales and marketing to support successful fundraising (Stevick. 2010).

Although it has been well documented that marketing can be a great tool for promoting community college enrollment, and marketing plans have been undertaken by many community college leaders, Vaughan and MacDonald (2005) warn community college leaders against the pitfalls of overselling. As stated earlier, open access has been a staple in community colleges since their inception. Due to financial cutbacks and tightened governmental spending, the open door policy has caused other missions of the community college to suffer.

Vaughan and MacDonald (2005) also warn that oversaturation of programs and courses can often lead to less effective instruction, and therefore a comprehensive demise in learning. According to their research, community colleges reaching beyond their grasp often have to use adjunct and part-time instructors to properly support their course loads. For example, at one community college where full time faculty salaries are below the national average, the cost of a part-time instructor teaching a three hour course is less than a third of the cost for using a full time instructor in the same course. Although this supplementation is very economically sound, it often shows to be academically shaky. The danger occurs when part-time instructors are employed for only economic and not academic reasons.

The second pitfall of overselling about which Vaughan and MacDonald (2005) caution community college leaders is inappropriate remediation. Although the researchers agree remediation is a vital aspect of college life, and even more so in the community college, they warn open enrollment can leave the door open for students who are not even ready for remedial college courses. Vaughan and MacDonald, in their argument against over-remediating, contend

that although remedial courses are inexpensive to offer, the funds used to support them take away funds from more expensive but necessary programs.

Alumni

Although well-written grant proposals and sound marketing strategies are great alternate avenues for community colleges to procure funds, establishing a successful alumni association can aid the college in cultivating political support, raising positive community awareness, recruiting new students, and persuading potential patrons (Eric, 1984). According to Pastorella (2003), community colleges have an advantage in acquiring financial support from alumni due to the unique environment and experiences they provide. Community colleges can procure funding from future alumni by focusing on providing present students with a memorable experience (Gose, 2006a). As community colleges enroll nearly half of America's undergraduates, but only receive two percent of endowments and donations made to higher education (Lanning, 2008), the question is how can community college faculty and administrators close the fundraising gap?

Gianini (1989) is a stark believer in the financial impact a community college alumni association can have on community college fundraising. He recognizes the reasoning of naysayers who purport transfer students usually hold more allegiance to the university or four-year institution than they do to the community college from which they transferred. Gianini also acknowledges the point of view stating many two-year commuter students never establish a home away from home at their respective community colleges and therefore never become totally involved in campus activities. Gianini not only acknowledges these points, he provides two critical counterpoints as to how an alumni association can successfully provide financial assistance to community colleges.

The first counterpoint is starting a successful alumni association. As mentioned earlier, it is essential for a community college to identify who is considered as alumni. Because many believe transfer students are more likely to align their allegiances and donations to four-year institutions, Gianini (1989) suggests community college alumni associations focus their attention to students who completed two-year degree programs, and local residents who may have taken courses for professional development. Targeting these students may allow the alumni association a pool of members who are not only professionally indebted to the community college, but are in many cases employed in close proximity to the college campus. This may allow a better opportunity to build a tight knit organization that can better plan and implement activities.

Secondly, Gianini (1989) details how community college alumni organizations can perform addition by subtracting. Volunteer alumni, according to Gianini, provide an extremely valuable asset of which community colleges can take advantage. Although this assistance does not provide income, volunteer assistance alleviates cost, which affects the bottom line the same. Gianini details of how at a single community college, a volunteer base of twenty members donated hours of services that equated to nearly \$3,000.00 in one year.

Once alumni have been defined and identified, careful consideration and concern should be committed to developing a comprehensive approach to convincing those alumni to support financially (Dervarics, 2007). The following five strategies have been used to develop successful alumni donor programs (Pastorella, 2003).

Target affluent and influential alumni. For obvious reasons, alumni with means are more likely to make donations than those without. These alumni should also be included in various important decision-making endeavors as their community influence may prove to be consequential (Pastorella).

1. Raise alumni visibility on campus. This increase is often made through the development of alumni offices and/or officers. Several community colleges have established successful alumni foundations with the sole purpose of developing alumni programs and volunteer opportunities (Dervarics).
2. Develop a successful annual fund. Use the aforementioned programs and volunteer opportunities as avenues for annual fundraising activities. Although alumni often expect to give, the question still needs to be asked (Pastorella).
3. Have realistic expectations. Alumni programs may not immediately translate into dollars, but may provide other avenues for funding in the future. Instead of expecting immediate financial returns, young alumni donor programs should look to cultivate a connection between the college and the contact.
4. Have a mission-centered focus. Integrating community college alumni programs with the college's mission is critical for developing and sustaining successful fundraising mechanisms. The purpose is to connect the alumni not only with the alumni association, but with the college (Pastorella).

In some cases, where the targeted alumni are young and busy professionals that are already involved in plenty volunteer opportunities, alumni are not easily enticed to help plan events and are usually too busy to recruit new students. Strout (2006) suggests community colleges develop a way to engage the young professional alum in fields where they are interested. In accordance with this, some colleges are encouraging alumni to serve on advisory boards and committees.

By working on the premise that engaged alumni are more generous alumni, colleges have taken a more entrepreneurial approach to fundraising by treating alumni more like customers

than potential donors (Stout, 2006). In return for their association membership, alumni are offered opportunities to further their education, business travel, career networking, and also direct input on college boards and committees. Some colleges are segmenting alumni according to career choices and majors rather than class and graduation year. This new way of utilizing the alumni has allowed colleges to make alumni feel more important and therefore more likely to give (Stout, 2006).

Gifts and Giving

Engaging alumni is only one of many paths community colleges should take to increase financial gifts. According to Romano, Gallagher, and Shugart (2010), community colleges hold an average endowment of about \$650 per student. In comparison, the average endowment at a public university is nearly \$4,500 per student. Obviously, this enormous gap in fundraising efforts will not go away by simply engaging a few grateful graduates.

One alternative method of acquiring funds for community colleges is the solicitation of major gifts. Major gifts, or mega-gifts (Romano et al., 2010), have been few and far between, among community colleges. Although there have been a number of million dollar donations to various community college systems and campuses throughout the country, data indicates these gifts are outliers that greatly skew the statistical average. According to Romano, evidence these gifts are not the norm is the vast amounts of press coverage both the givers and the colleges receive.

A second method of building a successful community college fundraising foundation is the development of a functioning annual fund. The annual fund provides the institution with usable dollars bolstering the operational budget as well as providing opportunities to garner more gifts ("Philanthropy and Fundraising," 2011). According to Dervarics (2007), success in

attracting annual support from donors can meet many specific and compelling needs of an institution. This success, however, often depends on the extent of involvement between the community college and the potential donors ("Fundraising Mechanics," 2011).

Innovative approaches in annual funding are becoming more popular as the role of the annual fund broadens ("Philanthropy and Fundraising," 2011). In some cases, institutions that have previously allowed for only unrestricted annual funds, are now allowing the donors to place minimal restrictions on their gifts. These restrictions often designate the funds are used for faculty chairs, scholarships, or the maintenance of new or existing facilities. In recent years, some institutions have broadened the scope of annual funding to include multiyear commitments ("Funding Mechanics," 2011). Although the name may contradict what is normally accepted as an annual gift, these multiyear gifts may be used to alleviate the budget constraints required by annual funding programs.

Another alternate fundraising method is the planned gift. Planned gifts are often referred to as the ultimate gift as they are prearranged in advance of the passing of the donor ("Philanthropy and Fundraising," 2011). Not only is a planned gift beneficial to the institution, but if worded properly, a planned gift can allow the donor to receive tax savings and income. Although these savings may be substantial, potential planned gift givers are often more motivated by managing their assets and maintaining control of their income (Spears, 2001). The following is a list of common types of planned giving instruments:

1. Charitable gift annuities allow the donor to make a gift to the institution of higher education and receive an income for a specified time.
2. Charitable remainder trusts pay income to a beneficiary after the donor's death and the remaining principle from the trust goes to the institution of higher education.

3. Charitable lead trusts pay income to the institution of higher education after the donor's death, and the remaining principle goes to a beneficiary.
4. Pooled income funds are made up of donations from various donors in which the donors receives income for life. After the donor's death, the shares of income fund revert to the institution of higher learning. These donations are generally smaller than other types of planned gifts.
5. Deferred gifts are bequests in which the donor specifies in their last will and testament the specifics of their gift to the institution of higher learning.

Leadership

In a stark contrast to Pastorella (2003), Dervarics (2007), and Gianini (1989), there are researchers who do not consider alumni to be a viable resource for developing fundraising campaigns. Jackson and Glass (2000) developed a matrix design that provided a ranking for what was considered to be the emerging trends and critical issues in community college fundraising. Using the Miles and Huberman matrix model that was established in 1984, Jackson and Glass were able to develop a ranking system that allowed the participants to prioritize each category according to relative order of importance. This matrix model method lead Jackson and Glass to determine that fundraising is more beneficial when it is focused on business and industry, not alumni. Community college alumni, according to Jackson and Glass, were seen as disloyal and not a dependable source for generating fundraising campaigns.

Jackson and Glass (2000) also discuss leadership as a critical issue in the development of community college fundraising mechanisms. These findings are in accordance with the research of Weisbrod et al. (2008), discussed earlier in this chapter. According to Jackson and Glass, failure to develop strong leadership hinders community colleges from (a) forging financial

partnership with local businesses, (b) competing for private donations, (c) creating a successful model for soliciting funds from and alumni, and (d) effectively and accurately reporting the amount of money raised each year to the appropriate financial institutions and offices.

Community college fundraising has grown from a leadership challenge, and has now become a leadership expectation (Hodson, 2010). Although the fundraising roles in some community colleges may not yet be well-defined nor understood, community college leaders must embrace the expectation to be more successful institutional leaders. Hodson outlines specific roles and goals for the community college presidents and academic deans.

According to Hodson (2010), the community college president bears the brunt of the burden of insuring a prosperous fundraising program. To shoulder this responsibility successfully, the president must (a) create a vision, (b) set priorities, (c) communicate a case for support, (d) assess institutional readiness, (e) empower constituents, (f) inspire donor confidence, (g) invest in external relationships (h) encourage faculty and staff participation, (i) solicit gifts, and (j) show appreciation to donors.

However, Hodson (2010) does not place the full weight of fundraising on the president alone. He admonishes academic deans to ensure academic programs are high quality, as they are often very important to potential donors. To provide these assurances, academic deans are asked to (a) set priorities, (b) facilitate partnerships, (c) identify prospects, (d) cultivate gifts, and (e) thank and recognize donors.

Although community college presidents and academic deans are under enormous time constraints, there is a fundamental need for fundraising to become a priority. There has to be a balance so there is neither too much, nor too little time spent on fundraising. Though the details of each office differs, the fundraising responsibilities of the president and the academic dean

must be elevated from external to essential if the community college is to procure substantial private donations (Hodson, 2010).

The economic balance between college and community is important and therefore requires competent attention. According to Miller (1991), a college's president should be one of the chief actors in fundraising. This role has been defined since faculty leaders took time to solicit gifts and funds from potential donors in the first Colonial colleges. Although leadership roles have grown throughout time, recent financial cautions and the competitive market for philanthropic endeavors have caused the president's role to return to its colonial roots. As the institutional leader, the president's engagement in fundraising should include both breadth and depth. The width of the college president's involvement includes an obligation to maintain a certain level of availability for fundraising opportunities (Miller, 1991). But accessibility alone does not fulfill the president's responsibility for the successful management of the institution. To be a successful manager, the college president also must have a deep knowledge of the fundraising mechanism's mission and purpose. The community college president must acknowledge that institutional advancement requires principal involvement and intelligence.

However, becoming one of the chief actors in fundraising does not define the president as the chief fundraising officer. Research has shown where many institutions have developed offices and officers strictly for the purpose of fundraising (Pastorella, 2003). Rather than chief fundraising officer, Miller (1991) defines the president's role as chief cultivating officer. It is the president's duty to use the power of position to add credibility and accountability to fundraising endeavors.

Ryan and Palmer (2005) suggest the level of success in community college fundraising ultimately hinges on a leader's effort, strategies, and assignment coordination. Efforts should be

focused on the establishment of profitable relationships with community business and government leaders; the coordination of assignments should lead to a unified message to all external constituencies; and strategies should be developed to enhance public relations, grant management, and preparation.

Proper development of these three functions requires the community college president to involve a chief fundraising officer (CFO) and a fundraising staff (Ryan & Palmer, 2005). Once officers are in place, they must demonstrate the ability to achieve a maximum return on the community college's investment to ensure their value becomes apparent. Afterwards, it is incumbent upon the president to ensure that proper communication of fundraising efforts and fundraising capacity is upheld between the CFO and the community college's board of trustees.

These fundraising efforts by the president are not, however, without consequence or conflict. According to Ryan and Palmer (2005), there will be faculty, staff, and trustees who view a president who is actively involved in fundraising as a leader who has lost sight of the essential values in higher education. Intensive fundraising efforts may be seen as external exertions robbing the community college president of the ability to devote time to traditional academic and vocational matters. These naysayers must loosen their customary views and give way to a new paradigm if community colleges are to increase revenue in this time of governmental cutbacks.

To assist community college leaders with their financial challenges, Bryce (1989) offered ten principles of management.

1. Do not confuse mission with institution. Mission versus money seems to be a never-ending struggle in the world of higher education. It is important that community college leaders not entangle to the two. According to Bryce, college presidents do

well to not only establish and develop educational programs, but they must also institute sound financial practices that will allow the college to flourish even beyond their leadership tenure.

2. Assure regular financial reporting.
3. Distinguish between restricted and unrestricted funds.
4. Learn to read financial statements.
5. Avoid self-dealing. According to Kernaghan and Langford (1990), self-dealing is “a situation where one takes an action in an official capacity which involves dealing with oneself in a private capacity and which confers a benefit on oneself” (p. 142). This issue is not merely a matter of mismanagement but also a matter of law. Unquestionable integrity as it relates to financial matters is an essential element of good leadership.
6. Understand the local economy. In a community college, opportunities for financial advancements can be gained or lost by knowledge of the surrounding economy. In order to plan properly, the community college leader must have an extensive knowledge of the financial climate of environment surrounding the institution. Profitable marketing practices, inputs and outputs, and tax zoning laws are only a few areas where institutional advancements hinge on the president’s knowledge of the local economy.
7. Be sensitive to unfair business practices. Familiarity with local businesses within the college’s community is invaluable as it relates to establishing and maintaining a collegial relationship between town and gown. Bryce warns presidents against

offering many of the goods and services that are available within the local community due to what local business may deem as unfair advantages.

8. Get to know the college's auditor.
9. Appreciate the role of private contributions.
10. Assure that all managers understand financial principles.

Wenrich and Reid (2003) not only recognize college presidents are essential in fundraising efforts, but they also recognize philanthropic acuity is not common among all leaders. Instead of submerging into fundraising, according to Ryan and Palmer (2005), community college presidents in many instances simply quote the dreaded line, "We have no choice but to raise tuition" (p. 47). This being the case, Wenrich and Reid (2003) suggest the first fundraising task of a college president is to enlist and employ the best foundation executives possible. This recruitment will alleviate much of the research and legwork and therefore allow the president to assume the role as "living logo" (McGee, 2003, p. 46).

Conclusion

Although community colleges are growing v, there is a huge lag in fundraising development when compared to larger universities (Summers, 2006). The universities are often seen as more adept and equipped for fundraising, due to the nature of sports programs, alumni, and also the ability of both faculty and staff to procure grants. The community college, on the other hand, is often seen to lack the tactic, technique and, in some cases, is considered a bit taciturn in the field of fundraising. However, due to financial cutbacks and continuous economic decline, it has become absolutely essential that community colleges develop fundraising methods and mechanisms (Marklein, 2008).

The fundraising tasks by community colleges are sometimes a bit more arduous due to less discriminating admission policies that may not allow for an active search for more potentially productive alumni (Gregory et al., 2006). Another crucial financial problem confronting today's community college is considering how to best compete in the already overcrowded fundraising market. Community college administrators who find the correct solution to this problem must realize finding alternative funding methods has grown from a simple add-on to a significant necessity (Gose, 2006a). As a former student and present employee of a community college, I am extremely interested in any study or actions that lead to community colleges providing an improved service to the communities that they serve. According to Marklein (2008), the community college was founded on the idea that everyone who wants an education should be able to receive one. In order to continue this admirable notion, there must be a concerted push to successfully procure finances.

This study attempted to examine two-year colleges and their fundraising methods by obtaining survey and interview data from two-year college fundraising personnel. The study design is described in detail in Chapter III.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Research Design

This survey research study examined two-year colleges and their fundraising methods in an effort to evaluate fundraising strategies. The following chapter discusses the research design of the study, including the selection of the population, the design, and administration of a survey questionnaire to gather information from those two-year colleges holding membership in the Council of the Advancement and Support of Education (CASE) in 2011, data collection, as well as statistical tests used to analyze the accrued data.

This research was modeled after Rieves' (2005) study, *An Analysis of Public Two-Year College Fundraising*, which identified primary two-year college fundraising activities and Thomas' (2006) study, *Factors Related to External Fundraising by Community Colleges*, which assessed the relationship between community college characteristics and fundraising success. In accordance with those studies, the procedures used in this study included (a) population and sample identification, (b) survey design and administration, (c) data collection, and (d) data analysis. The non-experimental survey design provided a quantitative description of trends of a population being studied (Creswell, 2009). This design provided an efficient and economical method to collect a substantial amount of data from a large sample of the population.

Although descriptive survey is efficient, Coughlan, Cronin, and Ryan (2009), also describe it as simple and shallow. According to Coughlan et al., survey research provides only a snapshot of a phenomenon and does not accurately account for changes that may occur due to

unanticipated variables. In addition to a lack of depth, survey research is also susceptible to a lack of responses. According to Curtis and Redmond (2009), even the best designed survey research is ultimately dependent on the willingness and the response rate of the population being studied.

In order to address these perceived inadequacies, this research study was designed to collect descriptive data concerning procedures, practices, and goals. The participation of potential respondents was encouraged by providing clear and concise instructions (Evans & Mathur, 2005), multiple reminders (Nulty, 2008), and rewards for timely responses (Wright, 2005). To encourage participation, the first 20 participants who completed the survey were rewarded with a restaurant gift card.

Population and Sample

According to the American Association of Community Colleges website (2013), there are 987 public community colleges across the United States. However, the population for this survey was the 301 non-duplicating fundraising officers and institutions holding a CASE membership in 2011–2012. The CASE website states that having a CASE membership gives community colleges more opportunities to build relationships with alumni, raise funds, and market their institution to prospective students and donors. CASE represents two-year colleges from 41 states. These particular community colleges have readily available programs and resources helping raise funds, facilitate communication, and build stronger relationships with donors (Network of California Community College Foundations [NCCCCF], 2012). The 41 states having at least one two-year college holding a CASE membership are Alabama, Arizona, Arkansas, California, Colorado, Connecticut, Florida, Georgia, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, Mississippi, Missouri, Montana, Nebraska,

Nevada, New Jersey, New Mexico, New York, North Carolina, Ohio, Oklahoma, Oregon, Pennsylvania, South Carolina, South Dakota, Tennessee, Texas, Utah, Virginia, Washington, West Virginia, Wisconsin, and Wyoming. A total of 102 fundraising officers chose to participate.

As mentioned in Chapter I, the following foundations or districts represented several colleges: (a) Alamo Community College District Foundation, (b) Coast Community College District Foundation, (c) Coastal Blend College Foundation, (d) Colorado Community College System Foundation, (e) Eastern Iowa Community College District, (f) Northern Wyoming Community College District, (g) Peralta Community College District, Riverside Community College District Foundation, (h) San Mateo County Community College District, (i) Seattle Community College District, (j) West Valley-Mission Community College District, and (k) Yosemite Community College District. To avoid sampling bias (Gay, 1996) occurring from a single institution being represented in multiple surveys, the individual institutions represented by these districts, were not included.

The following steps were used to determine a contact person for each of the two-year institutions:

1. Login to CASE website.
 - a. email –
 - b. password -
2. In upper right-hand side of screen, select “People & Communities” link.
3. In the left pane, select “CASE Communities.”
4. Select the “Community Colleges” link under the list of communities.
 - a. Note: a new window opens.

5. In the upper section of this new window, select “Directory” in the Green bar pane.
6. For each of the institutions, the name of the institution was entered into the field labeled “Company Name.”
7. The search engine then lists each individual member from that institution with title.
8. The individual coming closest to VP, Executive Director, or Director of Development was selected to receive the survey; if none met the criteria, titles with advancement were selected.
9. For each CASE member identified, an email address then was found by searching the institutional website for each name.

This population was chosen because it was determined those public two-year colleges interested in developing, maintaining, and/or improving resource development programs and efforts would be more likely to have CASE memberships (Rieves, 2005). Because community college alternate funding data is rare and sporadically reported, the allocation of funds to insure this data is precisely recorded shows this component is deemed vital to the internal operations of these institutions (Romano, Gallagher, & Shugart, 2010; Brown, 2000; Dowd & Grant, 2007). Therefore, the sample for this research is the 102 two-year colleges holding a CASE membership in 2011–2012 that chose to participate in this study.

Instrument

The process of collecting data from the participants in this study was accomplished via an internet questionnaire. The purpose of the research survey used was to collect descriptive data from chief fundraising officers concerning fundraising, procedures, practices, and goals. Several survey instruments were reviewed, including questionnaires by Hunter (1987), Clements (1990), Palmer (1992), Gilmore (1996), Rieves (2005), Thomas (2006), and Moulds (2012). After

reviewing these instruments, and reviewing the literature concerning community college fundraising, the survey for this study, which may be found in Appendix A, was developed by modifying Rieves' *A Survey of Community College Fund-Raising Activities*, Palmer's *The Nature and Status of Resource Development Activities in National League for Nursing Accredited Baccalaureate and Master's Degree Schools of Nursing*, and Moulds' survey concerning the utilization of a specific tool for measuring performance and planning in higher education. Rieves (2005) and Moulds (2012) gave permission to use items from their questionnaires. Due to Palmer's passing in 2011, permission to use items from her questionnaire was received from the Department of Educational Leadership at Florida State University.

To further refine the instrument, a panel of experts in the field of resource development and research was consulted to further establish validity and reliability. This panel of experts consisted of a development professional from Delta State University, two development professionals from Coahoma Community College, and a researcher from the University of Mississippi. The panel was emailed a copy of the instrument and asked to review the revised survey items and provide feedback to improve content and construct of the items.

Panelists requested several questions be rewritten or clarified. For example, "Fewer" was used in the place of "Less" in the first answer choice for question number 1; the ranges of the answer choices in question number 3 were changed from five to two; and the term "outsource" was used in question seven in the place of "separate offices."

The following table (Table 3-1) details the adjustments made to the original form of the survey items from which they were derived.

Table 3-1:

Survey Modifications

Survey Item #	Adjustment(s)
<p>1) Rieves (2005): What was your student headcount enrollment for Fall, 2003?</p>	<p>This question was modified by removing the option for the respondent to fill in a blank with a number and adding numerical categories.</p>
<p>2) Rieves: Total Gross Revenue for all fundraising activities for FY 2003-2004</p>	<p>This question was modified by removing the option for the respondent to fill in a blank with an estimated amount and adding monetary categories.</p>
<p>3) Moulds (2012): How many development officers (including annual giving, major gift, planned giving, and corporate/foundation personnel) does your office employ? Do not include medical school, hospital, or medical center fundraising staff. a)1-10, b)11-20, c)21-50, d)51-more, e)don't know</p>	<p>The term <i>development</i> was replaced by the term <i>fundraising</i> and the ranges for the numerical categories were also changed: [a) none b) 1-5, c) 6-10, d)11-20 e)more than 20]. The exclusion of certain fundraising officers was also eliminated.</p>
<p>4 & 5) Palmer (1992): Does your institution have: a.)A central development office for the purpose of resource development and/or fundraising? b) A tax free foundation for the purpose of resource development and/or fundraising?</p>	<p>The term <i>two-year college</i> replaced <i>institution</i>, and the term <i>resource development</i> was eliminated. The “a” and “b” distinctions are removed and they are two separate survey items. The “and/or” option was also removed.</p>
<p>6) Palmer: Does the school of nursing have an active alumni association?</p>	<p>The term <i>two-year college</i> replaced <i>school of nursing</i> and the term fundraising was added to specify the area in which the alumni association is active.</p>
<p>7) Palmer: Does your school of nursing have a person responsible for resource development separate from the foundation and/or central development office? If yes is the position full time or part time?</p>	<p>The term <i>two-year college</i> replaced <i>school of nursing</i>; the term <i>fundraising</i> replaced <i>resource development</i>; and phrase <i>outsource</i> was used in the place of the separate offices. The full or part time portion of the question was deleted.</p>

In Rieves' (2005) study, 149 of the 394 surveys were completed and returned; a 38% return rate. In Palmer's (1992) study, 231 of the 552 surveys were completed and returned; a 44% return rate. For the quantitative portion of Moulds' (2012) study, 52 of the 364 were completed and returned; a 14% return rate.

According to Wright (2005), online surveys have made survey research much easier and faster than before. By allowing the principal investigator (PI) to eliminate the barrier of location, researchers are now able to successfully form communities and population samples that would be impossible to develop without the use of the internet. Further, online surveys grant the researcher the convenience of automated data collection. This convenience, in turn, alleviates time otherwise spent on what can be considered as trivial, but essential, data entry. Automatic data entry also eliminates user entry error taking valuable time and causing countless headaches. Lastly, according to Wright, online research reduces the researcher's costs.

Nulty (2008) and Evans and Mathur (2005), not only agreed with Wright (2005), but extended the advantages of online surveys to include suggestions for managing potential weaknesses. Most limitations, such as privacy, perceptions as junk mail, implementation, and unclear answering instructions, can be reduced or even eliminated with a clearly defined population, a clearly explained set of instructions, and a carefully developed and pretested survey (Evans & Mathur, 2005). To improve the problem of a response rate, Nulty (2008) suggested repeated reminder emails to the survey participants. However, Nulty also cautioned the PI to be cautious and not repeatedly remind to the point of irritation. Wright (2005), Evans and Mathur (2005), and Nulty (2008) suggested the researcher offer the respondents rewards for their participation. According to Nulty (2008), higher response rates are positively connected to the number of measures taken to boost responses.

The internet questionnaire software used to develop the survey instrument in this study was generated in Qualtrics. Qualtrics internet based software allows the novice to create surveys and generate reports (Qualtrics FAQs). Because online surveys are self-administered, this software is especially helpful in the way the user is coached to make sure each survey question is accessible and in the best format available. The formatting provided by Qualtrics allows the PI to insure all instructions are easy to read and understand. Without clear and concise instructions, some respondents may become frustrated and exit the survey without finishing the entire questionnaire (Wright, 2005). To combat the obstacle of finding willing participants, as mentioned earlier, this particular survey/questionnaire was developed because: (a) it could be sent through electronic mail to a geographically diverse population, (b) it could be administered to the total population simultaneously, and (c) the results could be recorded through electronic submission.

Procedure

This study intended to answer the research question listed in Chapter I through quantitative means by collecting data from respondents about institutional size, staffing characteristics, fundraising methods, and amount of funds raised. The following research question was the primary focus of this research: Are there statistically significant relationships between community college size, fundraising methods, and the amount of funds raised?

Approval to conduct the study was obtained from the dissertation committee members, as well as from the University of Mississippi's Institutional Review Board (IRB). Next, the community college financial officers were asked to consent to participate in the study, with the assurance their responses would remain confidential. Each targeted two-year college was emailed a letter introducing the PI, explaining the study, and asking for their open and honest

participation. Consenting two-year college financial officers were then given the link to an electronic survey. The electronic questionnaire guided the participants through the survey questions relevant to his or her community college; thus, no further explanation was provided by the PI. This study was designed to examine the 2011 fiscal year, beginning July 1, 2011 and ending on June 30, 2012.

In accordance with Nulty (2008), repeat reminder emails were sent out to potential survey participants. After seven days, each potential participant who had not completed the survey was sent a follow-up email. After fourteen days, each potential participant who still had not completed the survey was sent a second follow-up email. After 21 days, each potential participant who had not completed the survey was sent a final email explaining how their immediate response to the online survey was both necessary and appreciated. These email templates can be viewed in Appendix B.

Hypotheses

In order to provide quantitative data for the research question (Creswell, 2009), the following hypotheses were examined:

1. There is no significant relationship between the amount of money raised through fundraising and community college student headcount.
2. There is no significant relationship between the amount of money raised through fundraising and number of community college fundraising officers.
3. There is no significant relationship between the amount of money raised through fundraising and community college fundraising structure(s).

4. There is no significant relationship between amounts of money raised through fundraising due to community college outsourcing.

Variables

Hypotheses were assigned independent and dependent variables and specific questions from the survey were identified to provide quantitative data for each variable. The data for the hypotheses were treated as categorical items. Specific descriptions of categorical sizes are provided in Chapter IV under the data analysis section for each hypothesis. The following table (Table 3-2) presents the data sources and variables for each of the survey items, categorized according to the hypotheses.

Table 3-2:

Hypotheses and Variables

Hypotheses	Data Source	Variables
H ₀₁ : There is no significant relationship between the amount of money raised through fundraising and community college student headcount.	Survey item one indicated the headcount. Item two indicated total amount of funds raised. Data was categorized into four and five sections respectively.	Independent: Community college headcount Dependent: Funds raised
H ₀₂ : There is no significant relationship between the amount of money raised through fundraising and number of community college fundraising officers.	Survey item two indicated the total amount of funds raised. Item three indicated total number of fundraising officers. Data was categorized into five sections.	Independent: Number of fundraising officers Dependent: Funds raised
H ₀₃ : There is no significant relationship between the amount of money raised through fundraising and community college fundraising structure(s).	Survey item two indicated total amount of funds raised. Items four, five, and six reported the types of foundations, offices, and/or associations used by the community college.	Independent: Fundraising structure (Central Development office, Tax-Free Foundation, Alumni Association) Dependent: Funds raised
H ₀₄ : There is no significant relationship between amounts of money raised through fundraising due to community college outsourcing.	Survey item two indicated the total amount of funds raised. Item seven indicated whether outsourcing is used or not.	Independent: Outsourcing. Dependent: Funds raised

Statistical Tests and Data Analysis

Data for the study was collected, coded, and analyzed using version 21 of the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). This analysis provided descriptive statistics concerning the institution size, total funds raised, fundraising method(s), number of fundraising officers, and whether outsourcing was used.

The original intent of this study was to utilize analysis of variance (ANOVA) as the chief method of statistical analysis. However, after reviewing the data obtained through the survey, it was determined ANOVA would not be appropriate as the data gathered through the survey was in categorical, rather than continuous, form. Because of the categorical data, chi-square analysis was deemed most appropriate. Specifically, two-way chi-square analysis was used as a method of comparing observed frequencies with theoretical frequencies, thereby providing evidence of either the existence of a significant relationship, or lack of a significant relationship between two nominal variables (Hinkle et al., 2003).

Conclusion

This research examined community colleges and their fundraising methods in an effort to identify primary fundraising strategies. This chapter includes a description of the overall methodology used in the data analysis of the study. This gathering of data contributes new information that may assist in future community college fundraising efforts. Chapter IV reviews the research in detail. Discussion of the results and conclusions related to the research question and hypotheses takes place in Chapter V.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Introduction

The purpose of this survey research study was to examine two-year colleges and their fundraising methods to identify how those methods affect the amount of funds raised.

Specifically, this study addressed the following question:

Are there statistically significant relationships between two-year college size, fundraising method(s), and the amount of funds raised?

To provide the data needed to answer this question, four hypotheses were tested. The null forms of the hypotheses are as follows:

1. There is no significant relationship between the amount of money raised through fundraising and community college student headcount.
2. There is no significant relationship between the amount of money raised through fundraising and number of community college fundraising officers.
3. There is no significant relationship between the amount of money raised through fundraising and community college fundraising structure.
4. There is no significant relationship between the amount of money raised through fundraising and whether a two-year college uses outsourcing.

Descriptive statistics were obtained, and two-way chi-square analysis was used to illustrate the comparisons between the categorical variables in all four hypotheses. Although the original prospectus for this study included a plan to analyze the data by using Analysis of

Variance (ANOVA), the categorical data provided by the survey questions, deemed ANOVA to be an improper means of analysis. According to Starnes, Yates, and Moore (2012), chi-square analysis is effective when attempting to determine whether a relationship exists between two independent sets of categorical data. Therefore, ANOVA was abandoned in favor of chi-square, and hypotheses one through four were rewritten for chi-square analysis. Quantitative analysis was performed using SPSS version 21 software, and results for all hypotheses were tested at a significance level of .05. This chapter presents the results of the study and analyses of the responses.

Descriptive Statistics

Of the 301 public two-year college or foundation officials who received a survey, questionnaires were returned by 102 (33.89%) fundraising officers. This rate was relatively consistent with the response rates received by Rieves (38%) and Palmer (44%) discussed in Chapter III. Fifty-three (51.96%) of the fundraising officers who responded did so after the initial email, 29 (28.43%) responded after the first follow up email, and 20 (19.61%) responded after the second follow up email.

Descriptive statistics are presented below on the survey items, in the order in which the items appeared on the survey:

College Headcount

Survey Item 1: Two-Year College student headcount in Fall 2011:

Forty respondents (n=40; 39.22%) indicated their institution had a total student headcount of more than 10,000 students. Thirty respondents (n=30; 29.41%) reported student headcount between 5,000 and 10,000 students; nearly one-fourth (n=25; 24.51%) between 2,000

and 5,000 students; and the remaining (n=7; 6.86%) reported student headcount was less than 2,000.

Total Funds Raised

Survey Item 2: What was the total amount raised through fundraising at your two-year college in fiscal year 2011-2012?

Nine (n = 9; 8.82%) of the respondents indicated their institutions raised less than \$100,000; twenty-eight (n = 28; 27.45%) reported raising between \$100,000 and \$500,000; nearly a third (n = 32; 31.37%) reported raising between \$500,001 and \$1,000,000; another twenty-eight (n = 28; 27.45%) reported raising between \$1,000,001 and \$5,000,000; and the remaining respondents (n = 5; 4.9%) reported raising more than \$5,000,000. Figure 1 shows a comparison of the responses to survey items 1 and 2.

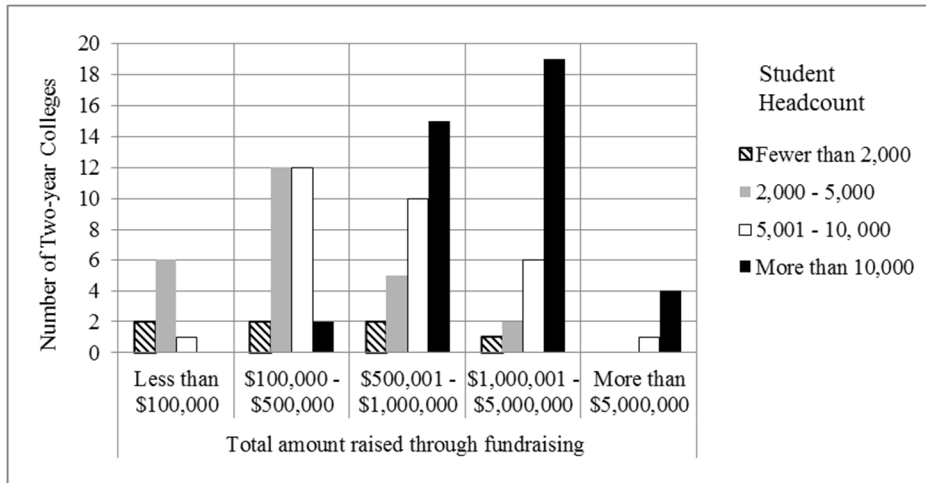


Figure 1. Cross-tabulation graph for responses to survey items 1(student headcount) and 2 (fundraising amount).

Number of Fundraising officers

Survey Item 3: How many fundraising officers does your two-year college currently employ?

Three institutions (n = 3; 2.94%) employed no fundraising officers; the majority of the respondents (n = 91; 89.22%) indicated their institutions employed one, two, or three fundraising officers; seven (n = 7; 6.86%) institutions employed four, five or six fundraising officers; no respondents (n = 0) indicated their institution employed seven, eight, or nine fundraising officers and one institution (n = 1; 0.98%) employed ten or more fundraising officers. Due to zero frequency in the 7 to 9 fundraising officers category, that category was not included in the inferential statistics. Figure 2 shows a comparison of the responses to survey items 1 and 3, and a comparison of survey items 1 and 4 are shown in Figure 3.

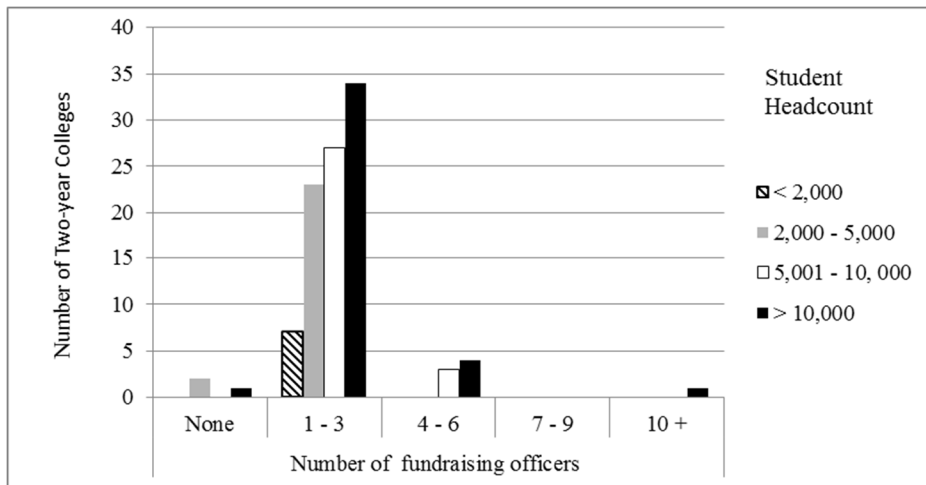


Figure 2. Cross-tabulation graph for responses to survey items 1(student headcount) and 3 (number of fundraising officers).

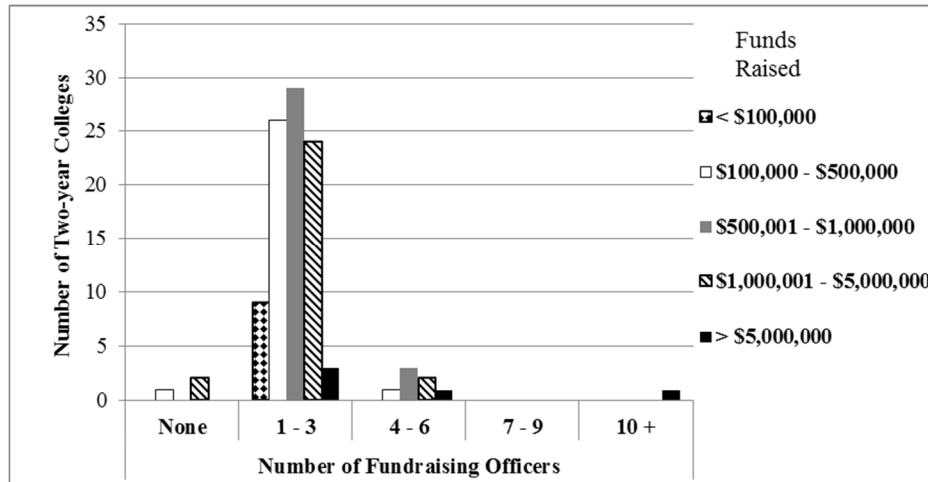


Figure 3. Cross-tabulation graph for responses to survey items 2 (funds raised) and 3 (number of fundraising officers).

Fundraising Structure

Survey Item 4: Does your two-year college have a central development office for the purpose of fundraising?

Eighty-three respondents (n = 83; 81.37%), indicated their institutions had a central development office, and the remaining (n = 19; 18.63%) institutions did not. Comparing responses from survey items 1 and 4 shows that of the 83 institutions with a central development office, five had a student headcount fewer than 2,000; 20 had a student headcount between 2,000 and 5,000; 27 had a student headcount between 5,001 and 10,000; and 31 had a student headcount over 10,000. The comparison also shows that of the 19 institutions without a central development office, two had a student headcount fewer than 2,000; five had a student headcount between 2,000 and 5,000; three had a student headcount between 5,001 and 10,000; and nine had a student headcount over 10,000. Figure 4 shows a comparison of the responses to survey items 2 and 4, and a comparison of survey items 3 and 4 are shown in Figure 5.

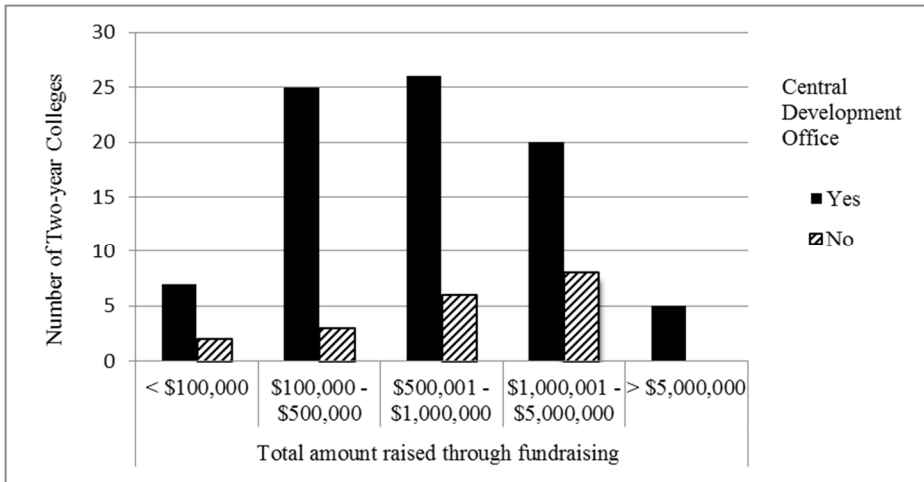


Figure 4. Cross-tabulation graph for responses to survey items 2 (funds raised) and 4 (central development office).

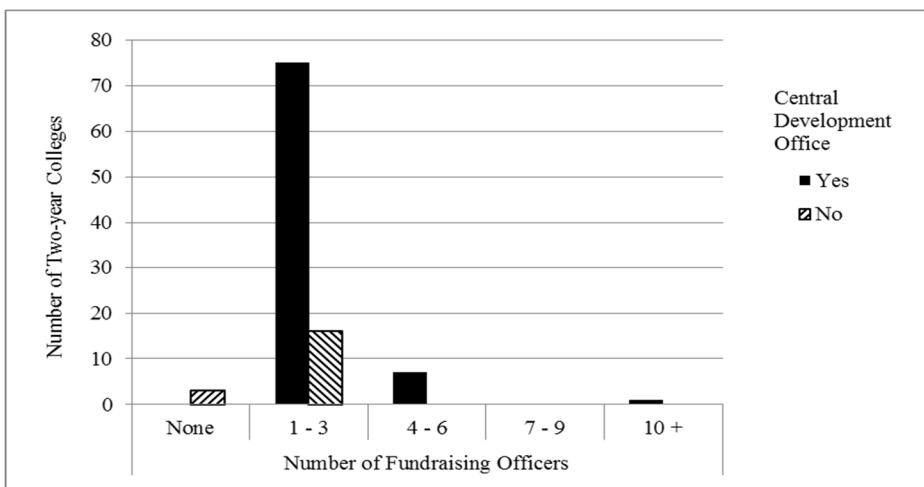


Figure 5. Cross-tabulation graph for responses to survey items 3 (number of fundraising officers) and 4 (central development office).

Survey Item 5: Does your two-year college have a tax-free foundation for the purpose of fundraising?

All but one of the respondents (n = 101; 99.02%) reported their institution had a tax-free foundation for the purpose of fundraising. When responses from survey items 1 and 5 were compared, the data showed that of 101 the institutions with a tax-free foundation, six had a

student headcount fewer than 2,000; 25 had a student headcount between 2,000 and 5,000; 30 had a student headcount between 5,001 and 10,000; and 40 had a student headcount over 10,000.

The institution that did not have a tax-free foundation had a student headcount fewer than 2,000.

Figure 6 shows a comparison of the responses to survey items 2 and 5.

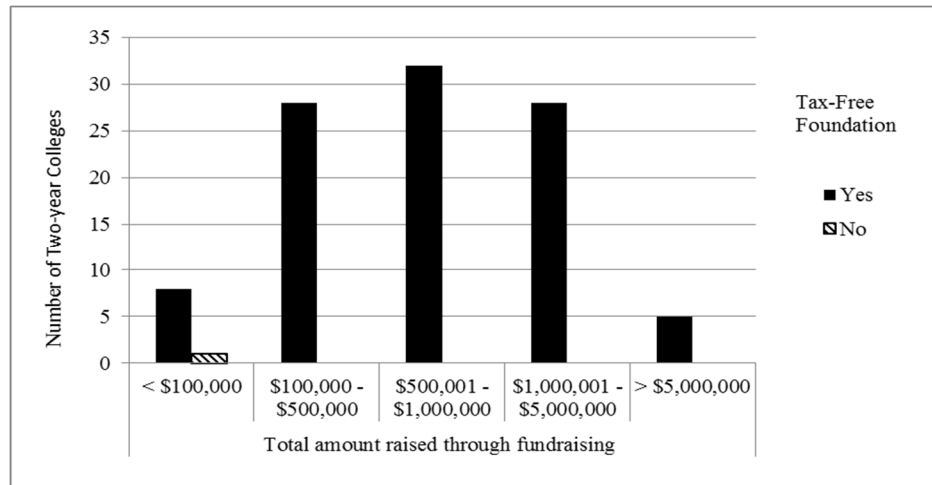


Figure 6. Cross-tabulation graph for responses to survey items 2 (funds raised) and 5 (tax-free foundation).

Responses from survey items 3 and 5 show that of the 101 institutions having a tax-free foundation, three did not employ any fundraising officers; 90 employed between 1 and 3 (inclusive) fundraising officers; seven employed between 4 and 6 (inclusive) fundraising officers; and one employed ten or more fundraising officers. The institution that did not have a tax-free foundation employed between 1 and 3 (inclusive) fundraising officers.

The responses from survey item 4 and 5 shows that of the 83 institutions with a central development office, only one did not have a tax-free foundation. All 19 institutions without a central development office had a tax-free foundation.

Survey Item 6: Does your two-year college have an alumni association active in fundraising?

Nearly one-fourth of the respondents (n = 24; 23.53%) reported their institutions had an active alumni association for the purpose of fundraising, and the remaining (n = 78; 76.47%) responded their institutions did not. Figure 7 shows a comparison of the responses to survey items 1 and 6, Figure 8 compares responses from survey items 2 and 6, and a comparison of responses from survey items 3 and 6 are shown in Figure 9.

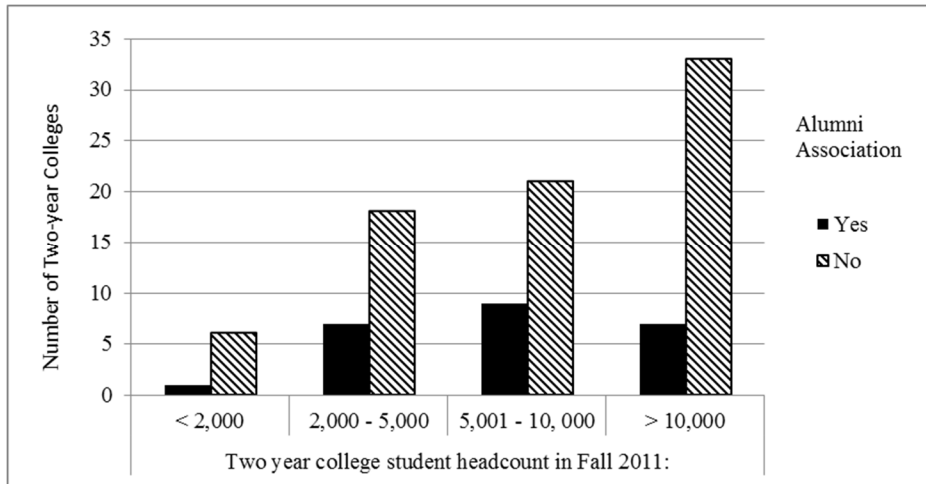


Figure 7. Cross-tabulation graph for responses to survey items 1 (student headcount) and 6 (alumni association).

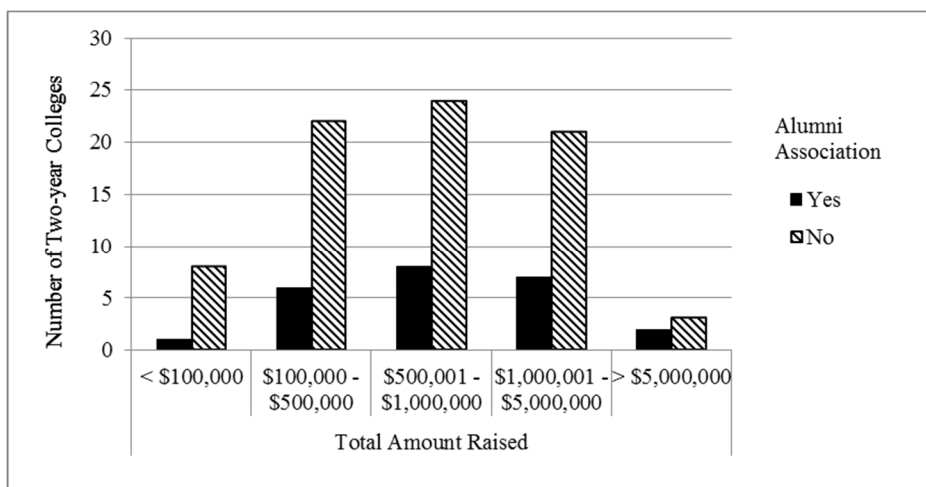


Figure 8. Cross-tabulation graph for responses to survey items 2 (funds raised) and 6 (alumni association).

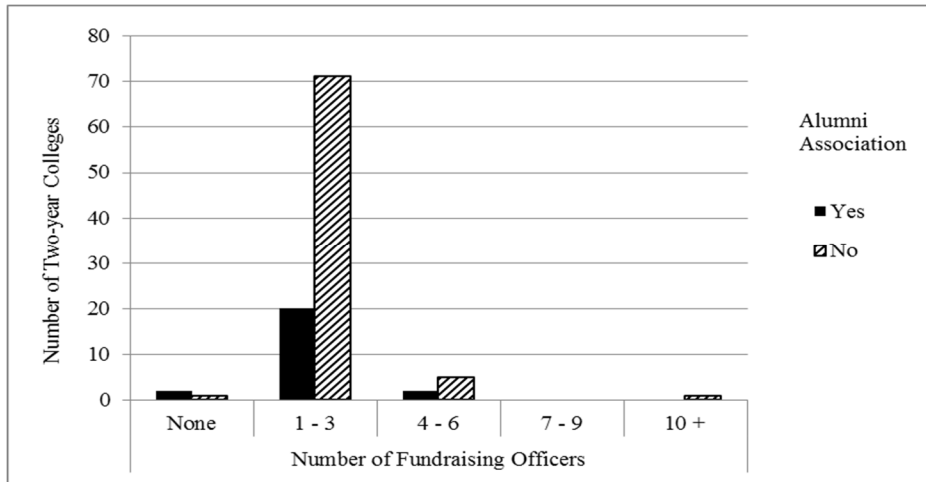


Figure 9. Cross-tabulation graph for responses to survey items 3 (number of fundraising officers) and 6 (alumni association).

Responses from survey items 4 and 6 indicated that of the 24 respondents from institutions with an active alumni association, 21 had a central development office and three did not. Those responses also show that of the 78 institutions not having an active alumni association, 62 had a central development office and 16 did not.

A comparison of the responses from survey items 5 and 6 show all 24 of the institutions with an active alumni association also had a tax-free fundraising foundation. In addition, the responses also indicated only one of the 78 institutions not having an active alumni association also lacked a tax-free foundation.

Outsourcing

Survey Item 7: Does your two-year college outsource fundraising?

Less than five percent of the respondents (n = 5; 4.9%) reported their institutions outsourced fundraising. The majority of the respondents (n = 97; 95.1%) indicated their institutions did not use outsourcing for fundraising. Figure 10 shows a comparison of the

responses to survey items 1 and 7, Figure 11 compares responses from survey items 2 and 7, and a comparison of responses from survey items 3 and 7 are shown in Figure 12.

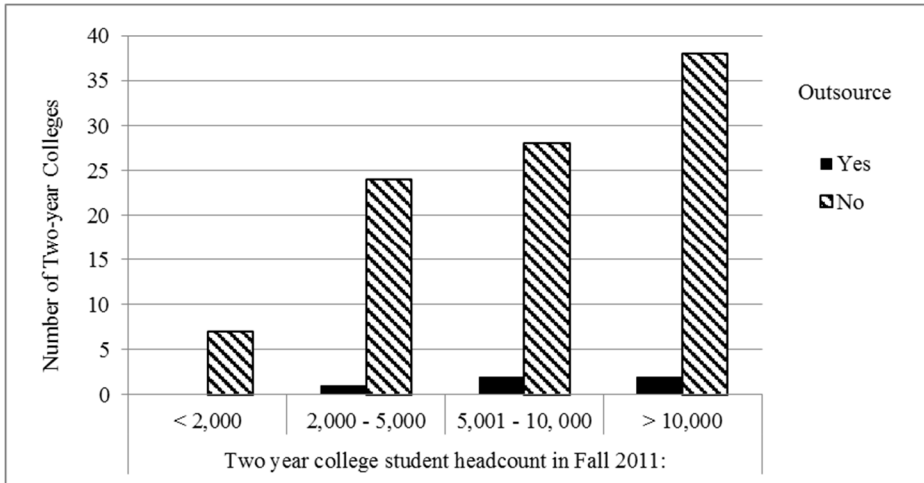


Figure 10. Cross-tabulation graph for responses to survey items 1 (student headcount) and 7 (outsourcing).

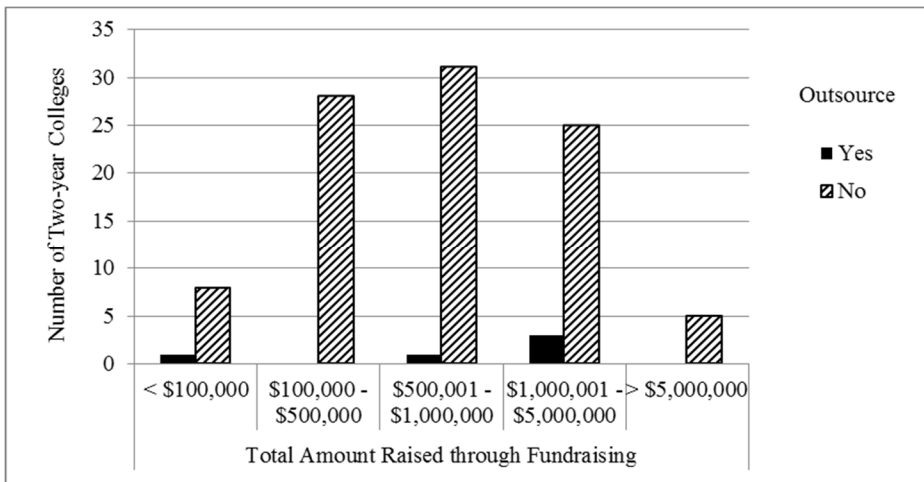


Figure 11. Cross-tabulation graph for responses to survey items 2 (funds raised) and 7 (outsourcing).

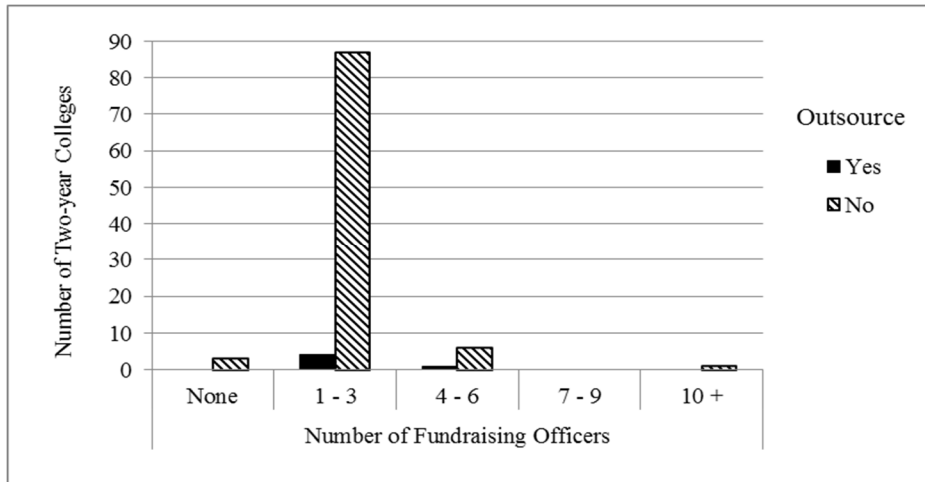


Figure 12. Cross-tabulation graph for responses to survey items 3 (number of fundraising officers) and 7 (outsourcing).

Responses to survey items 4 and 7 show four out of the five institutions that outsourced fundraising, also had a central development office. Those responses also show of the 97 institutions that did not outsource fundraising, 79 had a central development office, and 18 did not.

A comparison of the responses to survey items 5 and 6 indicated all five of the institutions that outsource fundraising also had tax-free fundraising foundation. The comparison also shows all but one of the 97 institutions not outsourcing fundraising had a tax-free fundraising foundation.

Responses to survey items 6 and 7 show one out of the five institutions that outsourced fundraising also had an active alumni association; and of the 97 institutions that did not outsource fundraising, 23 had an active alumni association and 74 did not.

Inferential Statistics

Inferential statistics are presented for each hypothesis. Discussions and conclusions around each hypothesis take place in Chapter V.

Hypothesis 1: There is no significant relationship between the amount of money raised through fundraising and community college student headcount.

For hypothesis one, a two-way chi-square analysis was used to determine whether a relationship existed between the dependent variable, amount of money raised, and dependent variable, community college headcount. The four categories of student headcount and the five categories of amount of funds raised produced a 4x5 contingency table containing 11 cells (55%) with expected frequencies of less than five. According to Hinkle et al. (2003), researchers are advised to combine adjacent rows or columns when more than 20% of the cells have expected frequencies less than five.

Rayson, Berridge, and Francis (2004) also suggest overcoming low expected frequency values by combining categories to produce a smaller number of contingency table cells. In order to achieve this, categories 1 (Fewer than 2,000) and 2 (2,000-5,000) in survey item 1, were combined to form one new category consisting of institutions with a student headcount of fewer than 5,000; categories 3 (5,000-10,000) and 4 (more than 10,000) in survey item 1, were combined to form a new category consisting of institutions with a student headcount of 5,000 or more; categories 1 (Less than \$100,000) and 2 (\$100,000 - \$500,000) in survey item 2, were combined to form one new category consisting of institutions raising \$500,000 or less; category 3 (\$500,000 - \$1,000,000) in survey item 2, remained the same; and categories 4 (\$1,000,001 - \$5,000,000) and 5 (more than \$5,000,000) in survey item 2, were combined to form a new category consisting of institutions raising more than \$1,000,000. The new 3x2 output table (Table 4-1) shows the resulting actual counts, expected counts, residual, and standardized residual from the newly combined categories. Chi-square results for hypothesis one are presented in Table 4-2.

Table 4-1

Funds Raised by Student Headcount

Funds Raised		Headcount		
		< 5,000	5,000 +	Total
Less than \$500,000	Count	22	15	37
	Expected	11.6	25.4	37.0
	Residual	10.4	-10.4	
	Std. Residual	3.1	-2.1	
\$500,000 - \$1,000,000	Count	7	25	32
	Expected	10.0	22.0	32.0
	Residual	-3.0	3	
	Std. Residual	-1.0	.6	
More than \$1,000,000	Count	3	30	33
	Expected	10.4	22.6	33.0
	Residual	-7.4	7.4	
	Std. Residual	-2.3	1.5	
Total	Count	32	70	102
	Expected	32.0	70.0	102.0

Table 4-2

Pearson Chi-square

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig.
Pearson Chi-Square	22.507*	2	.000

* Zero cells (0.0%) have expected counts less than 5. The minimum expected count is 10.04.

The SPSS results for this chi-square test, where community college headcount is the independent variable, and the amount of funds raised is the dependent variable, show that the computed chi-square ($\chi^2 = 22.507$) exceeds the critical value ($\chi^2_{cv} = 5.991$), therefore the null hypothesis is rejected and there is a significant statistical relationship between funds raised and student headcount.

According to Hinkle et al., (2003), categories with a standardized residual greater than 2.00, in absolute value, can be used to determine which category or categories were major contributors to the significant chi-square value. For hypothesis one, standardized residuals indicated that, in comparing the observed frequencies with the expected frequencies, the following combination of categories contributed to the finding of a significant relationship between funds raised and student headcount. Specifically, there were significantly more two-year colleges with fewer than 5,000 students raising less than \$500,000 than expected; significantly fewer two-year colleges with more than 5,000 students raising less than \$500,000 than expected; and significantly fewer two-year colleges with fewer than 5,000 students raising more than \$1,000,000 than expected.

Hypothesis 2: There is no significant relationship between the amount of money raised through fundraising and number of community college fundraising officers.

Chi-square analysis was applied to hypothesis two by using survey item 3, “How many fundraising officers does your two-year college currently employ?” as the independent variable, and survey item 2, “What was the total amount raised through fundraising at your two-year college in fiscal year 2011-2012?” as the dependent variable. In this item, five categories were assigned to represent the various numbers of fundraising officers; 1 = no fundraising officer, 2 = 1 to 3 fundraising officers, 3 = 4 to 6 fundraising officers, 4 = 7 to 9 fundraising officers, and 5 = 10 or more fundraising officers. As mentioned earlier, category four was not included because no respondent indicated that their institution employed 7 to 9 fundraising officers. The chi-square test produced a 4x3 contingency table with 9 cells (75%) lower than 5. Because this was more than 20% (Hinkle et al., 2003), categories reflecting number of fundraising officers were combined to form two larger categories; 1= 3 or fewer fundraising officers, and 2 = more than 3 fundraising officers. The new 3x2 output table (Table 4-3) shows the resulting actual and expected counts from the newly combined categories for the second hypothesis. The Chi-square results and Freeman-Halton test scores are presented in Table 4-4.

Table 4-3

Funds Raised by Fundraising Officers

Funds Raised		Number of Officers		
		<=3	>3	Total
Less than \$500,000	Count	36	1	37
	Expected	34.1	2.9	37.0
\$500,000 - \$1,000,000	Count	29	3	32
	Expected	29.5	2.5	32.0
More than \$1,000,000	Count	29	4	33
	Expected	30.4	2.6	33.0
Total	Count	94	8	102
	Expected	94.0	8.0	102.0

Table 4-4

Pearson Chi-Square and Freeman Halton Scores

	Value	Asymp. Sig.	Exact Sig.
Pearson Chi-Square	2.292*	.318	
Freeman-Halton	2.379		.341

*Three cells (50.0%) have expected counts less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2.51.

The SPSS results for this chi-square test, where number of fundraising officers is the independent variable, and the amount of funds raised is the dependent variable, show that the computed chi-square ($\chi^2 = 2.292$) is less than the critical value ($\chi^2_{cv} = 5.991$). The 3x2 table (Table 4-3), however produced 3 cells (50%) with an expected frequency of less than five, which according to the Cochran rule, nullifies the chi-square result (Rayson et al., 2004).

As a further combination of categories would result in a distortion of the data, the Freeman-Halton exact test was used. According to Contreras-Cristán and González-Barrios (2009), the Freeman Halton exact test was developed to overcome the inaccuracy of an m x n contingency table when expected frequencies are too small. Müller, (2001) also recommends the use of exact tests in this case, and goes further to suggest SPSS as a viable means for conducting the necessary computations. The SPSS results for this Freeman Halton test, where number of fundraising officers is the independent variable, and the amount of funds raised is the dependent variable, show the p-value for hypothesis two was $p = .341$. According to these results, the null hypothesis cannot be rejected; therefore, there was no evidence of a significant relationship between number of funds raised and fundraising officers.

Hypothesis 3: There is no significant relationship between the amount of money raised through fundraising and community college fundraising structure.

Hypothesis three was tested by formulating a sub-hypothesis for each of the three fundraising structures.

S1. There is no significant relationship between the amount of money raised and whether a two-year college has a central development office for fundraising.

S2. There is no significant relationship between the amount of money raised and whether a two-year college has a tax-free foundation for fundraising.

S3. There is no significant relationship between the amount of money raised and whether a two-year college has an alumni association active in fundraising.

In the first sub-hypothesis, survey item 4, “Does your two-year college have a central development office for the purpose of fundraising?” the independent variable; the second sub-hypothesis used survey item 5, “Does your two-year college have a tax-free foundation for the purpose of fundraising?” as the independent variable; and survey item 6, “Does your two-year college have an alumni association active in fundraising?” was the independent variable in the third sub-hypothesis. Survey item 2 was the dependent variable in each case. Answers were given on a nominal scale where 1 = Yes, and 2 = No. The actual and expected counts for each sub-hypothesis are shown in Table 4-5, Table 4-7, and Table 4-9. Pearson Chi-square scores for the first and third sub-hypotheses are presented in Table 4-6, and Table 4-10 respectively; and Pearson Chi-Square and Freeman Halton’s test scores are presented for the second sub-hypothesis in table 4-8.

Table 4-5

Funds Raised by Development Office

Funds Raised		Central Development Office		
		Yes	No	Total
Less than \$500,000	Count	32	5	37
	Expected	30.1	6.9	37.0
\$500,000 - \$1,000,000	Count	26	6	32
	Expected	26.0	6.0	32.0
More than \$1,000,000	Count	25	8	33
	Expected	26.9	6.1	33.0
Total	Count	83	19	102
	Expected	83.0	19.0	102.0

Table 4-6

Pearson Chi-Square

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig.
Pearson Chi-Square	1.325*	2	.516

*Zero cells (0.0%) have expected counts less than 5. The minimum expected count is 5.96.

Table 4-7

Funds Raised by Tax Free Foundation

Funds Raised		Tax Free Foundation		
		Yes	No	Total
Less than \$500,000	Count	36	1	37
	Expected	36.6	0.4	37.0
\$500,000 - \$1,000,000	Count	32	0	32
	Expected	31.7	.3	32.0
More than \$1,000,000	Count	33	0	33
	Expected	32.7	.3	33.0
Total	Count	101	1	102
	Expected	101.0	1.0	102.0

Table 4-8

Pearson Chi-Square and Freeman Halton Scores

	Value	Asymp. Sig.	Exact Sig.
Pearson Chi-Square	1.774*	.412	
Freeman Halton	1.674		1.00

*Three cells (50.0%) have expected counts less than 5. The minimum expected count is .31.

Table 4-9

Funds Raised by Alumni Association

Funds Raised		Alumni Association		
		Yes	No	Total
Less than \$500,000	Count	7	30	37
	Expected	8.7	28.3	37.0
\$500,000 - \$1,000,000	Count	8	24	32
	Expected	7.5	24.5	32.0
More than \$1,000,000	Count	9	24	33
	Expected	7.8	25.2	33.0
Total	Count	24	78	102
	Expected	24.0	78.0	102.0

Table 4-10

Pearson Chi-Square

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig.
Pearson Chi-Square	.733*	2	.693

*Zero cells (0.0%) have expected counts less than 5. The minimum expected count is 7.53.

The SPSS results for the chi-square test (Table 4-6), for the first sub-hypothesis show the computed chi-square ($\chi^2 = 1.325$) to be less than the critical value ($\chi^2_{cv} = 5.991$). This result indicated no evidence of a significant relationship between funds raised and the presence of a central development office. Therefore, the first null sub-hypothesis could be not rejected.

For the second sub-hypothesis, the computed chi-square ($\chi^2 = 1.774$) also was less than the critical value. However, table 4-8 produced 3 cells (50%) with an expected frequency of less than five, nullifying the chi-square result. To overcome the inaccuracy of this 3x2 contingency table, Freeman Halton's test was used. For this test, the SPSS results show the p-value to be $p = 1.00$, which indicated there was no evidence of a significant relationship between the amount of funds raised and the presence of a tax-free foundation. Due to this result, the second null sub-hypothesis could not be rejected.

For the third sub-hypothesis, the computed chi-square ($\chi^2 = .733$) was less than the critical value ($\chi^2_{cv} = 5.991$). This chi-square value disallowed the rejection of the third null sub-hypothesis. Failing to reject all three sub-hypotheses indicated there was no evidence of a significant relationship between amount of funds raised and fundraising structure. Therefore, the null form of hypothesis three could not be rejected.

Hypothesis 4. There is no significant relationship between the amount of money raised through fundraising and whether a two-year college uses outsourcing.

Chi-square analysis was applied to hypothesis four by using survey item 7, "Does your two-year college outsource fundraising?" as the independent variable, and survey item 2 as the dependent variable. Answers were given on a nominal scale where 1 = Yes, and 2 = No. The 3x2 output table (Table 4-11) shows the resulting actual and expected counts. The Pearson Chi-square and Freeman Halton test scores are presented in Table 4-12.

Table 4-11

Funds Raised by Outsourcing

Funds Raised		Outsourcing		
		Yes	No	Total
Less than \$500,000	Count	1	36	37
	Expected	1.8	35.2	37.0
\$500,000 - \$1,000,000	Count	1	31	32
	Expected	1.6	30.4	32.0
More than \$1,000,000	Count	3	30	33
	Expected	1.6	31.4	33.0
Total	Count	5	97	102
	Expected	5.0	97.0	102.0

Table 4-12

Pearson Chi-Square and Freeman Halton Scores

	Value	Asymp. Sig.	Exact Sig.
Pearson Chi-Square	1.843*	.398	
Freeman-Halton	1.621		.519

*Three cells (50.0%) have expected counts less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.57.

The SPSS results for this chi-square test show the computed chi-square ($\chi^2 = 1.843$) to be less than the critical value ($\chi^2_{cv} = 5.991$). However, this result was also nullified due to the 3x2 contingency table (Table 4-11) that produced three cells (50%) with an expected frequency of less than five (Rayson et al., 2004). The Freeman Halton test was again used, and the resulting p-value was $p = .519$. This result indicated the null form of hypothesis four could not be rejected, and there was not a significant relationship between funds raised and whether a two-year college used outsourcing.

Conclusion

Chapter IV is a summary of the quantitative findings of this study. A significant relationship was found between student headcount and amount of funds raised and hypothesis one was rejected. Chapter V includes a summary, implications, and future recommendations for the study.

CHAPTER V

RESULTS

Summary

Chapter V is comprised of four sections including (a) the summary of the study, (b) the conclusions of the study, (c) implications based on the findings of the study, and (d) suggestions for future studies. The summary of the study outlines important concepts in the study; conclusions of the study make inferences based on data obtained from the study; the implications based on the findings of the study suggest what larger notions can be inferred from the conclusions in the study; and the suggestions for future studies propose how data from the study can be used to continue examining important findings. The information in this chapter is a summation of important methods and concepts in the study and how the information can be used in future research in the area of community college fundraising.

Researchers have a variety of suggestions as to how to best bolster community college fundraising. Whether it is by developing strong leadership (Hodson, 2010; Jackson & Glass, 2000, Ryan & Palmer, 2005), engaging alumni (Dervarics, 2007; Gose, 2006b; Pastorella, 2003; Stout, 2006), or a establishing successful marketing strategies (Masterson, 2009; Sefl & Snell, 2003; Stevick, 2010), the general consensus is fundraising in community colleges is now mandatory (Gregory, Hendrick, & Hightower, 2006; Marklein, 2008; Romano, Gallagher, & Shugart, 2010; Weisbrod, Ballou, & Asch, 2008).

The purpose of this survey research study was to examine two-year colleges and their fundraising methods in an effort to identify how these methods affect the amount of funds raised. Specifically, this study addressed the following question:

Are there statistically significant relationships between two-year college size, fundraising method(s), and the amount of funds raised?

The original prospectus for this study included a plan to analyze the data by using Analysis of Variance (ANOVA). However, the final design of the study garnered only categorical data; I deemed ANOVA to be an improper means of analysis. According to Starnes, Yates and Moore (2012), chi-square analysis is effective when attempting to determine whether a relationship exists between two independent sets of categorical data. Therefore, ANOVA was abandoned in favor of chi-square, and hypotheses one through four were rewritten for chi-square analysis. Over a third of the surveys were completed and returned for this research. This response rate compares favorably to the 14% response rate reported by Moulds (2011) and is analogous to the rates received by Rieves (2005) and Palmer (1992).

For each of the four hypotheses, more than 20% of the contingency table cells contained expected values of less than five. The Cochran rule states that no fewer than 80% of the expected frequency cells in a chi-square table may contain values of less than five (Rayson et al., 2004). When this condition is not met, Hinkle et al., (2003) suggest combining adjacent rows or columns to produce a smaller number of contingency table cells. In accordance with this, the five categories for the dependent variable (funds raised) were combined into three larger categories and used for each hypothesis. Categories associated with the independent variables for hypotheses one and two also were combined and more information on that process is presented later in this chapter with the discussion of those particular hypotheses.

Hypothesis 1: There is no significant relationship between the amount of money raised through fundraising and community college student headcount.

The four independent variable categories and the five dependent variable categories in the first hypothesis produced a 4x5 contingency table with 11 cells (55%) with expected frequencies of less than five. Along with combining categories for the dependent variable, the four categories for the independent variable were combined into two larger categories. The two new student headcount categories were 1 = Fewer than 5,000 and 2 = 5,000 or more. The SPSS results for the new 3x2 contingency table showed evidence of significant relationship between student headcount and funds raised in that the computed chi-square ($\chi^2 = 22.507$), exceeded the critical value ($\chi^2_{cv} = 5.991$).

Further observations of the major contributors show that nearly twice as many two-year colleges with fewer than 5,000 students raised less than \$500,000 than expected; and the number of two-year colleges with fewer than 5,000 students raised less than \$1,000,000 was 70% less than expected. This data indicated that a lower student headcount yields lower fundraising dollars. Higher headcounts leading to higher fundraising was indicated by 40% fewer two-year colleges with more than 5,000 students raising less than \$500,000 than expected. Even categories that were not considered major contributors according to Hinkle et al. (2003), followed the trend of higher headcounts equaling higher fundraising and lower headcounts equaling lower fundraising. These findings suggest a positive relationship between student headcount and amount of money raised through fundraising

The results of this study align with existing research with similar characteristics. The study by Rieves (2005), *An Analysis of Public Two-Year College Fundraising*, investigated 149 public two-year colleges in order to identify primary fundraising activities. The findings by

Rieves indicated that 20% of fundraising efforts can be attributed to the size of the institution, and recommended that foundation officers rethink strategies of engagement to increase student headcount. Likewise, Gilmore's (1996) study, *An Analysis of Fundraising Activities for the Solicitation of Private Donations at Selected Public Community Colleges*, which identified significant fundraising activities, also found fundraising revenue was positively correlated with the size of the institution's student body.

Hypothesis 2: There is no significant relationship between the amount of money raised through fundraising and number of community college fundraising officers.

After the initial chi-square analysis produced a 4x3 contingency table with nine cells (75%) lower than five, the four independent variable categories were combined into two categories resulting in larger values. Chi-square analysis using the two new independent variable categories, 1 = 3 or fewer fundraising officers and 2 = more than 3 fundraising officers, produced a 3x2 output table in which the computed chi-square ($\chi^2 = 2.292$) was less than the critical value ($\chi^2_{cv} = 5.991$). However, the 3x2 table also had more than 20% of its cells with an expected frequency of less than five, which according to the Cochran rule, nullifies the chi-square result. According to Starnes et al. (2012), a large sample size condition must be met to achieve sufficient expected frequencies valued at five or more. With only eight respondents from institutions employing more than three fundraising officers, inadequate numbers for chi-square calculations were unavoidable. As combining the categories further would result in a distortion of the data, the Freeman-Halton exact test was used as a secondary analysis of the second hypothesis. The SPSS results for this Freeman Halton test, where number of fundraising officers was the independent variable, and the amount of funds raised was the dependent variable, showed the p-value for hypothesis two was $p = .341$. According to these results, the null

hypothesis could not be rejected; therefore, there was no evidence of a significant relationship between number of funds raised and fundraising officers.

Although the statistical analysis showed no significant relationship for hypothesis two, a closer look at the observed and expected values did show a slight trend. Two-year colleges from the first category (three or fewer fundraising officers) raised less than \$500,000 slightly more than expected; raised between \$500,000 and \$1,000,000 about as much as expected; and raised more than \$1,000,000 slightly less than expected. Conversely, two-year colleges from the second category (more than three fundraising officers) raised less than \$500,000 slightly less than expected; they raised between \$500,000 and \$1,000,000 as much as expected; and raised more than \$1,000,000 slightly more than expected.

This slight trend aligns with Thomas' (2006) study, *Factors Related to External Fundraising by Community Colleges*, which keyed on community college characteristics, and how they relate to fundraising success. After the research, Thomas concluded that it was reasonable to infer that institutions with larger numbers of employees were likely associated with larger fundraising balances. Hunter (1987), who investigated college fundraising practices to determine which factors were associated with fundraising success, also concluded the amount of funds raised was significantly influenced by the number of employees assigned to fundraising.

Hypothesis 3: There is no significant relationship between the amount of money raised through fundraising and community college fundraising structure.

Hypothesis three was tested by formulating a sub-hypothesis for each of the three fundraising structures a) central development office, b) tax-free foundation, and c) alumni association. The first sub-hypothesis, no significant relationship exists between the amount of money raised and whether a two-year college has a central development office for fundraising,

could not be rejected as the computed chi-square ($\chi^2 = 1.325$) was less than the critical value ($\chi^2_{cv} = 5.991$). This was also the case for the third sub-hypothesis, no significant relationship exists between the amount of money raised and whether a two-year college has an alumni association active in fundraising, which resulted in a computed insignificant chi-square ($\chi^2 = .733$) as well.

The chi-square analysis for the second sub-hypothesis, no significant relationship exists between amounts of money raised and whether a two-year college has a tax-free foundation for fundraising, yielded a 3x2 contingency table with 50% of its cells with expected values below five. With only one respondent indicating not having a tax-free foundation, it was not possible to provide adequate numbers for chi-square calculations for the 3 contingency cells under the “No” category. Therefore, Freeman Halton’s exact test was used to overcome the invalidated chi-square results. For this test, the calculated p-value was $p = 1.00$, which indicated there was no evidence of a significant relationship between the amount of funds raised and the presence of a tax-free foundation; and the second null sub-hypothesis was also not rejected. Failing to reject all three sub-hypotheses indicated there was no evidence of a significant relationship between amount of funds raised and fundraising structure, which resulted in failure reject the null form of hypothesis three.

Although the results were not significant, as was the case in hypothesis two, consideration of the observed and expected frequencies for hypotheses three also seemed to show a slight trend. For two of the three sub-hypotheses, two-year colleges using fundraising structure(s) raised less than \$500,000 slightly less than expected, raised between \$500,000 and \$1,000,000 as much as expected; and raised more than \$1,000,000 slightly more than expected. Alternatively, two-year colleges not those using fundraising structure(s) raised less than

\$500,000 slightly more than expected, raised between \$500,000 and \$1,000,000 about as much as expected, and raised more than \$1,000,000 slightly less than expected.

Palmer's (1992) study also concluded there was no evidence fundraising was significantly related to the presence of a central development office, nor a tax-free foundation. Although Palmer's study concerned schools of nursing, it was interesting that the calculated p-value for the relationship between fundraising and the presence of a tax-free foundation for her study was the same as in my study: $p = 1.00$. Research concerning alumni involvement (Hunter, 1987), indicated a positive correlation between fundraising and number of alumni records. However, Hunter's research could not be used to dispute the findings of this study, as the correlation established in Hunter's study dealt with number of alumni records rather than extent of alumni involvement. Number of alumni records alludes to previous year's student headcount, which in turn may be interpreted as agreement with the findings in hypothesis one.

Hypothesis 4: There is no significant relationship between the amount of money raised through fundraising and whether a two-year college uses outsourcing.

The chi-square results for hypothesis four were similar to those from hypothesis two in that there was insufficient data to perform valid chi-square computations. With only five respondents from institutions that used outsourcing as a method of fundraising, inadequate numbers for chi-square calculations were unavoidable, and the Freeman-Halton exact test was used as a secondary analysis. The resulting p-value was $p = .519$, which indicated the null form of hypothesis four could not be rejected, and there was not a significant relationship between funds raised and whether a two-year college used outsourcing.

The lack of research concerning the outsourcing of fundraising in two-year colleges indicates this phenomenon has not yet permeated those institutions considerably. This is further

evident in the scarce number of two-year colleges that reported using outsourcing in this research. Future research with a broader definition of outsourcing may provide more clear results.

Implications

Although the first hypothesis of the study was the only hypothesis to result in a statistically significant relationship, practical information still may be garnered from the data. Results from hypothesis two, that no significant relationship exists between the amount of money raised through fundraising and number of community colleges fundraising officers, may be of interest to two-year colleges with limited budgets. This data may be directly related to personnel decisions regarding number of fundraising officers. It is not the number of fundraising officers, but, according to several researchers (Miller, 1991; Pastorella, 2003; Ryan & Palmer, 2005), proper development that positively affects fundraising.

The lack of a significant relationship between amount of funds raised and alumni involvement also may be enlightening to two-year college chief development officers. As time, effort, and resources are often dedicated to involving alum (Dervarics, 2007; Gianini, 1989; Pastorella, 2003), additional research allowing chief development officers to make better informed decisions concerning the allocation of resources may result in more productive fundraising practices. Community college alumni, according to Jackson and Glass (2000), were seen as disloyal and not a dependable source for generating fundraising campaigns.

Suggestions for Future Research

Information obtained from this study reveals there is more to be accomplished if two-year colleges plan to become more effective fundraisers. It is critical that community colleges focus on bolstering fundraising efforts in a way that parallels bolstering enrollment. Although scholarly

research on community fundraising is growing rapidly, studies should now concentrate on specific fundraising methods currently in place to help determine which factors are most predictive of success. To conduct that type of research accurately, a long-term approach must be applied to better understand how foundations, enrollment, engagement of alumni, or privatization over a number of years affects fundraising amounts over time. Education scholars would do well to gather fundraising data before and after the specific fundraising method was put in place.

Concentration on a specific fundraising method could be further enhanced by gathering more survey response data. The number of responses to this research may have been appreciably limited due to the survey being administered during the time when many two-year colleges were on Spring Break. A deeper consideration for time of year may yield more survey responses. According to Moulds (2011) the lack of a sufficient sample size for chi-square analysis suggests more conclusive responses may be attained by expanding the sample. Also, as the original intent of this study was to utilize ANOVA as the chief method of statistical analysis, continuous data may have allowed for the conduct of more powerful statistical tests, the results of which may have shown a clearer picture regarding the effect of various fundraising methods on the amount of funds raised.

Data concerning community college fundraising also may be strengthened by research that includes a qualitative approach. According to Coughlan et al. (2009), survey research provides only a snapshot of a phenomenon and does not accurately account for changes that may occur due to unanticipated variables. A qualitative portion of a mixed methods inquiry may allow the researcher to explore the extent to which student headcount, fundraising structure, alumni association, number of fundraising officers, and outsourcing combine to improve fundraising efforts in two-year colleges. Focus groups of fundraising officials, foundation

presidents, and chief financial officers may be assembled to examine the importance of these various components of fundraising.

Conclusion

Data collected from the survey responded to the four hypotheses in the study. Amount of funds raised was used as the dependent variable for each hypothesis, and both chi-square analysis and Freeman-Halton's exact test were used to analyze the data. The first hypothesis, which investigated whether a significant relationship exists between the amount of money raised through fundraising and community college student headcount, was the only hypothesis to be rejected in the study. The correlation between institution size and fundraising success has been chronicled by several researchers (Cohen & Brawer, 1996; Gilmore, 1996; Rieves, 2005); thus, the results of the study are not surprising.

A study providing insight to researchers and fundraising practitioners concerning alternative fundraising practices of two-year colleges was important for several reasons. First, the study addressed the need for two-year colleges to prepare to cope with reduced governmental funding (D'Amico, Katsinas, & Friedel, 2012). Second, the study obtained data about two-year colleges and their fundraising methods in an effort to statistically determine how those methods affect fundraising. Third, the study provided contemporary information to interested researchers and a tool for fundraising practitioners to use in future fundraising efforts.

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LIST OF APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: SURVEY INSTRUMENT

This instrument is designed to gather information on current practices and results of private fundraising efforts by public community colleges. This survey is administered as part of a doctoral dissertation in higher education at the University of Mississippi. Responses to this survey will be kept confidential and only reported by an assigned college ID number and not by the college or participant's name. This survey should take under fifteen minutes to complete. If you have any questions, please do not hesitate to call me at (662) 621-4281 or email me at lhoward@go.olemiss.edu. Thank you for time and consideration.

Questionnaire

1. Two-Year College student headcount in Fall 2011:
 - a. Fewer than 2, 000
 - b. 2,000 – 5, 000
 - c. 5, 000 – 10, 000
 - d. More than 10,000

2. What was the total amount raised through fundraising at your two-year college in fiscal year 2011-2012?
 - a. Less than \$100,000
 - b. \$100,000 – \$ 500,000
 - c. \$500, 001 – \$1,000, 000
 - d. \$1,000,001 – \$5,000, 000
 - e. More than \$5,000,000

3. How many fundraising officers does your two-year college currently employ? (include all fundraising officers)
 - a. None
 - b. 1 - 3
 - c. 4 - 6
 - d. 7 – 9
 - e. 10 or more

4. Does your two-year college have a central development office for the purpose of fundraising?
 Yes No

5. Does your two-year college have a tax-free foundation for the purpose of fundraising?
 Yes No

6. Does your two-year college have an alumni association active in fundraising?
 Yes No

7. Does your two-year college outsource fundraising?
 Yes No

APPENDIX B: EMAIL TEMPLATES

Dear Community College Fundraising Officer,

I am writing to ask for your participation in a doctoral survey concerning community college fundraising practices. Depending on the time needed to find the data, this seven question survey should take approximately 15 minutes to complete. Your responses will be confidential.

The survey will ask questions about the fundraising methods utilized by your community college. Information gained as a result of your participation may assist you, as well as other resource development officers, by providing data on how these methods affect the amount of funds raised. As a reward for timely participation, the first 20 participants will receive a gift card for a free sandwich from a Subway restaurant.

To begin the survey, please click on the link below.

Community College Fundraising Survey

Thank you for your participation.

Sincerely,

Luke Howard
Doctoral Candidate
University of Mississippi
School of Education
Department of Higher Education

Email 2 – First Follow Up

Dear Community College Fundraising Officer,

I am writing to once again request your participation in a doctoral survey concerning community college fundraising. This survey asks only seven (7) questions, and information gained may assist you by providing data on how various fundraising methods affect the amount of funds raised. The average time for completion by previous participants is less than five minutes.

The survey will ask questions about the fundraising methods utilized by your community college.

To begin the survey, please click on the link below.

Community College Fundraising Survey

Thank you for your participation.

Sincerely,

Luke Howard
Doctoral Candidate
University of Mississippi
School of Education
Department of Higher Education

Email 3 – Second Follow Up and Closeout

Dear Development Professional,

I know that your time is both valuable and limited. That is why this is the last message you will receive requesting your participation in a doctoral survey concerning community college fundraising.

This survey asks only seven (7) questions, and information gained may assist you by providing data on how various fundraising methods affect the amount of funds raised. The average time for completion by previous participants is less than five minutes.

Please visit the link below to take part in this study.

Community College Fundraising Survey

Sincerely,

Luke Howard
Doctoral Candidate
University of Mississippi
School of Education
Department of Higher Education

VITA

Luke Joel Howard I is a native of Clarksdale, Mississippi. After graduating from Clarksdale High School in 1994, he enrolled at Coahoma Community College (CCC) where he received an Associate of Arts degree in Mathematics 1996. After graduation, he enrolled at Jackson State University where he completed the Bachelor of Science degree in Mathematics 1998. After graduation, Luke began his professional life as an eighth grade mathematics teacher in the Jackson Public School system. During this time, he also continued his education at Jackson State University in pursuance of the Master of Science in Teaching degree, which he received in 2001. In 2002, he began his career as a Mathematics instructor at his alma mater, Coahoma Community College. After serving as an instructor and advisor for twelve years, Luke was asked to serve as CCC's Director of Financial Aid and continues in that capacity today.