

PHILANTHROPIC MOTIVATIONS OF FEMALE DONORS TO VIRGINIA'S 4-H  
PROGRAM

By

David B. Calhoun

Dissertation submitted to the faculty of the  
Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University  
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

In

Apparel, Housing and Resource Management

Committee

Dr. Ruth Lytton, Chair

Dr. John Dooley

Dr. Doris Kincade

Dr. Michael Lambur

Dr. Rebecca Lovingood

December 8, 2006

Blacksburg, Virginia

Keywords: Fundraising, Development, 4-H Foundation, Philanthropy,  
Focus Groups

# Philanthropic Motivations of Female Donors to Virginia's 4-H Program

David B. Calhoun

Chair: Dr. Ruth Lytton, Resource Management

## (ABSTRACT)

Economic uncertainty and heightened competition for money among nonprofits has necessitated more efficient and effective resource development programs. Despite the many significant contributions of female donors, women's philanthropy has been largely unrecognized. Women have been left out of the majority of research on philanthropy, thus traditional male-based models of fundraising may not translate well with female prospects because of gender differences in giving.

This study examined motivating factors that led women to donate to nonprofit organizations, specifically the Virginia 4-H program. The study explored 32 female donors' motivations for giving, factors that impacted their satisfaction with giving, and motivating factors that resulted in repeat donations and giving at higher levels. The qualitative methodology combined focus groups and a validation questionnaire to determine themes that explain the multi-faceted nature of fundraising and the complexity of exploring and understanding female donor behavior. Results of this study are consistent with the six Cs of female philanthropy as proposed by Shaw and Taylor (1995), and findings corroborate other literature on female philanthropy. Expanding the six Cs to include compassion and community may provide more definitive answers to motivational factors impacting female philanthropy.

Knowledge of these variables will enable the Virginia 4-H Foundation Board of Directors to refine development efforts by implementing a development plan that respects altruistic characteristics of both men and women. Additionally, the findings contribute to the growing literature on female donors, an acknowledged need.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

With sincere appreciation, I offer gratitude to the members of my dissertation committee: Dr. John Dooley, Dr. Doris Kincade, Dr. Mike Lambur, and Dr. Rebecca Lovingood. To the chair of my dissertation committee, Dr. Ruth Lytton, words are far too simple to fully express the appreciation I have for her guidance, support, and dedication throughout this journey. Her commitment to me as a graduate student was inspirational.

I would also like to express my appreciation of friends and co-workers within the administration, faculty, and staff of the Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University College of Agriculture and Life Sciences and Virginia Cooperative Extension. Thank you for the opportunity to complete this work, for pushing me when I needed it, and for believing, and convincing me, that I could accomplish this task.

I will forever be grateful to my wife, Debbie, for always believing in me, encouraging me, and most importantly, loving me. Debbie and our children, Lyndsi and Nathaniel, have stood beside me through every step of this adventure, and without them, I know this work would have never been completed. They are my greatest accomplishment. The Lord has truly blessed me, and to Him, I give all the glory.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

<b>CHAPTER 1 – INTRODUCTION AND STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM.....</b>	<b>1</b>
PURPOSE AND JUSTIFICATION OF THE STUDY .....	4
RESEARCH QUESTIONS .....	6
THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK .....	6
DEFINITION OF TERMS .....	9
SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER.....	10
<b>CHAPTER 2 – REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE.....</b>	<b>11</b>
<i>History of Philanthropy.....</i>	<i>11</i>
<i>Fundraising Theory.....</i>	<i>13</i>
<i>Models of Fundraising .....</i>	<i>15</i>
<i>Philanthropists’ Reasons for Giving.....</i>	<i>21</i>
Private Benefits.....	21
Reciprocity .....	23
Identification Theory .....	24
<i>Women: The Emerging Donors.....</i>	<i>25</i>
SUMMARY OF THE REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE .....	27
<b>CHAPTER 3 - METHODOLOGY.....</b>	<b>32</b>
<i>A Qualitative Approach.....</i>	<i>33</i>
<i>Methodological Tools: Focus Groups and Validation Questionnaire.....</i>	<i>35</i>
<i>Focus Groups .....</i>	<i>36</i>
Validation Questionnaire .....	38
<i>Participant Selection.....</i>	<i>39</i>
RESEARCH DESIGN .....	40
Questions and Propositions.....	40
Units of Analysis.....	41
Analysis and Interpretation.....	41
Conclusion .....	43
VALIDITY .....	43
<i>Validity: Internal.....</i>	<i>43</i>
Validity:External.....	45
PROCEDURES .....	46
The Interview Guide .....	48
Institutional Review Board .....	52
SUMMARY OF THE METHODOLOGY .....	53
<b>CHAPTER 4 - FINDINGS .....</b>	<b>55</b>
<i>Descriptive Summary of the Research Questions .....</i>	<i>56</i>
Research Question 1: Why do Women Give Financially to Charitable Organizations? Why Virginia 4-H? .....	56
Giving back.....	57
Good feeling .....	59

Responsibility-expectation .....	59
Commitment .....	60
Compassion-care .....	60
Change .....	61
Community .....	62
Research Question 2: What Factors Impact Female Donors' Satisfaction with Giving? ...	62
Trust-stewardship .....	63
Involvement .....	64
Impact-positive change.....	65
Personal acknowledgement .....	66
Research Question 3: What Factors Influence the Decision to Give to an Organization Repeatedly? If a Second Gift was at a Higher Level, What Key Factors Led to the Higher Gift? .....	66
Involvement .....	67
Being asked.....	67
Information .....	67
Change-connection .....	68
Ability .....	68
Research Question 4: When Being Asked to Give, Does the Solicitation Method Impact the Decision to Give? Is There a Preferred Solicitation Technique?.....	68
Personal .....	69
Facts-impacts-exact amount .....	70
Research Question 5: Does Recognition or Other Personal Goal(s) Influence a Decision to Give? Are There Desired Types of Recognition for Giving?.....	71
Personal-intrinsic .....	72
Celebrate.....	73
Validation .....	73
Involvement.....	74
<i>Findings and Their Relationship to the Literature</i> .....	74
SUMMARY OF THE FINDINGS.....	77
<b>CHAPTER 5 - S SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS,.....</b>	<b>80</b>
<b>RECOMMENDATIONS, AND LIMITATIONS .....</b>	<b>80</b>
PURPOSE OF THE STUDY .....	80
SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY .....	80
THE PROBLEM .....	81
SUMMARY OF THE METHODOLOGY .....	81
SUMMARY OF THE RESEARCH FINDINGS.....	82
Why Women Give .....	83
Factors Impacting Donors' Satisfaction.....	84
Factors Influencing Multiple or Larger Gifts.....	85
Preferred Solicitation Methods .....	85
Donor Recognition.....	86
LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY.....	87
IMPLICATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH AND THEORY .....	87
IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR THE VIRGINIA 4-H FOUNDATION.....	89

<b>REFERENCES.....</b>	<b>98</b>
<b>APPENDIX A – STATEKHOLDER FOCUS GROUP INTERVIEW GUIDE .....</b>	<b>106</b>
<b>APPENDIX B – INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR FEMALE PHILANTHROPY FOCUS .....</b>	<b>108</b>
<b>GROUPS.....</b>	<b>108</b>
<b>APPENDIX C – LETTER TO POTENTIAL FOCUS GROUP PARTICIPANTS .....</b>	<b>112</b>
<b>APPENDIX D – CARD OF INVITATION TO FOCUS GROUP SESSION.....</b>	<b>114</b>
<b>APPENDIX E – INFORMED CONSENT FOR PARTICIPANTS IN RESEARCH .....</b>	<b>115</b>
<b>PROJECTS INVOLVING HUMAN SUBJECTS .....</b>	<b>115</b>
<b>APPENDIX F – IRB PROTOCOL AND INFORMED CONSENT FORM .....</b>	<b>117</b>
<b>OUTLINE FOR PROTOCOL TO ACCOMPANY IRB REPORT.....</b>	<b>117</b>
<b>APPENDIX G – IRB EXPEDITED APPROVAL .....</b>	<b>121</b>

## LIST OF TABLES

Table 1	Summary Table of Literature Related to Fundraising Theory.....	28
Table 2	Key Questions Identified for the Study from the Professional Stakeholder Focus Group.....	49
Table 3	Interview Guide Questions and their Relation to Research Objectives.....	51
Table 4	Themes Explaining Why Women Give.....	57
Table 5	Themes Related to Factors Impacting Satisfaction with Giving.....	63
Table 6	Themes Related to Factors Impacting Repeat Giving and Repeat Giving at Higher Levels.....	67
Table 7	Themes Related to the Impact Solicitation Methods have on the Decision to Give, and Preferred Solicitation Techniques.....	69
Table 8	Themes Related to the Impact of Recognition and Preferred Type of Recognition.....	72
Table 9	Reasons from the Literature for Female Donors' Giving.....	75
Table 10	Six Cs of Female Giving as Proposed by Shaw and Taylor.....	76

## LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1	Fishbein's Value-Expectancy Theory .....	7
Figure 2	Rosso's Fundraising Model .....	15
Figure 3	Mount's Model of Personal Donorship.....	20

## CHAPTER 1

### INTRODUCTION AND STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Philanthropy is highly valued in American Society. Since Colonial days, societal issues have resulted in Americans giving their personal assets to address these issues. America's first documented fundraising campaign was deemed a success when in 1643, Harvard University raised 500 pounds (Worth, 1993). According to Tullock (2005) the current public funding crisis is the worst since World War II. Impact of the crisis is felt in nearly every state and local jurisdiction in the country and is driven primarily by the downturn in the economy and state and federal tax cuts. The steady retreat of government funding in support of community-based cultural, social, and human services, along with medical, educational, and arts organizations in America and throughout the world has led to a variety of responses, ranging from panic to creative problem solving by nonprofit organizations (Grace, 1997).

People in the United States and throughout the world are being forced to find alternative solutions to issues confronting communities. The retrenchment of the social welfare system, coupled with declining local, state and federal resources amidst pressures to cut government spending, have shifted social burdens onto nonprofits. This trend will intensify as 76 million baby boomers continue to retire (Brahs, 1998). These retirements and other factors, according to Brahs, will force the government to spend an even larger share of its resources on healthcare and pensions.

Baby boomers coming of age during the Vietnam War era are well aware of society's problems, according to Shaw and Taylor (1995), and are more likely to donate generously to nonprofits. Schervish and Havens (2003), researchers at Boston College's Social Welfare Research Institute, have projected \$41 trillion will be transferred from estates during the next 50 years. They estimated \$6 trillion of the total from estates will benefit charities, and that baby boomers will play a more important role as benefactors than as beneficiaries and will control an estimated \$7.2 trillion.

Philanthropy and nonprofit organizations increasingly help fill gaps between social needs and reduced government funding. According to Salamon (2003), approximately 1.2 million organizations are registered with the Internal Revenue Service (IRS) as nonprofit organizations. It is estimated that millions of additional small formal and informal associations exist that do not

register with the IRS because they have revenues of less than \$5,000 per year. Nonprofit organizations in America have combined revenues of approximately \$621.4 billion, representing 6.2% of the nation's economy. An estimated 10.2 million people are employed by the sector.

To be sustainable, nonprofit organizations must secure funding in a quickly changing world with a turbulent economic environment. Interest in the concept of sustainability by both funders and organizational leaders is mounting as the nonprofit sector moves more deeply toward a potential funding crisis and struggles to reposition itself with funders (Eakin, 2004; Hall & Banting, 1999; Scott, 2003). As governments downsize and move away from contractual partnerships with the sector for the provision of services, funding has become less stable, more difficult to obtain, and more short-term (Rice & Prince, 2000; Scott, 2003). Organizations that once had or might expect to eventually obtain core funding from the government now rely on diverse sources of funds raised from communities, grants, or contract-funded dollars (Scott, 2003). Severe strains are beginning to show in the capacities of American nonprofits (Hall & Banting, 1999; Kirchhoff, 2003; Knudson, 2003; McMurtry, Netting & Kettner, 1991; Salamon, 2003; Salamon & O'Sullivan, 2004, Scott, 2003).

Leslie and Ramey (1988) stated that philanthropic support frequently provides the margin of excellence, the element of vitality that separates one nonprofit from another and allows nonprofits to escape the routine sameness of fully regulated organizations. Pervasive declines in resources have raised the importance of voluntary support for nonprofits to a critical level. Philanthropic support, according to Leslie and Ramey (1988), is becoming the only real source of discretionary money and, in many cases, is assuming a critical role in balancing nonprofit budgets. In 2004, according to estimates by *Giving USA* (2005), charitable giving from all sources reached \$248.52 billion, a new record for philanthropic giving in the United States. Individual contributions, the greatest percentage of giving, reached \$187.9 billion. Wolverton (2003) asserted that economic uncertainty and heightened competition for money among charities has resulted in creating more efficient resource development programs, particularly programs designed to cultivate affluent individual donors.

Despite the many significant contributions of female donors, women's philanthropy has been largely unrecognized. Women throughout history have been taught it is inappropriate to discuss financial affairs, and have left financial decisions, including benevolence, to their fathers, husbands, or sons. Consequently, women have been left out of the majority of research on

philanthropy (Shaw & Taylor, 1995). However, fundraisers are beginning to realize that more women have control over more money. At the same time, these women are realizing their own tremendous potential to apply their charitable dollars to shaping the future of society. According to a Merrill Lynch (1999) report, women live longer than men by an average of 7 years, leaving 85-90% of them in charge of family financial affairs. Cochran (2006) stated that 83 percent of household spending in the United States is controlled by women, and that women have a combined worth of almost \$2.2 trillion. McIlrath (2005), during an address to the Seventh Biennial Forum on Women and Philanthropy, stated the figure as \$4.2 trillion.

In a review of women and philanthropy, the *Agnes Scott College Alumnae Magazine* cited the following regarding the giving potential of women:

- In 2000, 50% of this country's wealth transferred into the hands of women.
- Among top women wealth holders in 1995, the average net worth was \$1.38 million, slightly higher than for male wealth holders. Women carried less debt.
- In 1999, there were 9.1 million women-owned firms with 28 million employees generating \$3.6 trillion in sales.
- High net worth female business owners/executives are active, generous philanthropists. More than 50% give in excess of \$25,000 annually to charity, while 19% contribute \$100,000 or more.
- By the close of this century, 90 women's funds were established, up from 11 in the 1970s.

As nonprofit organizations continue to experience increased stressors, success will be achieved through new resource development approaches. Traditional development models, including effective solicitation and recognition techniques, as cited in Shaw and Taylor (1995), are based upon Seymour's seminal work, *Designs for Fundraising* (1966), and what he calls "universal motivations" for giving. These motives lead to a decision by individuals to donate money to an organization. Shaw and Taylor, co-founders of the Women's Philanthropy Institute, further concluded that Seymour's universal motivations apply almost entirely to men, are based upon studies of male donors, and, as a result, Seymour's theories are not cross-gender truisms. Male models of fundraising may not translate well with female prospects because of gender differences in giving. Traditional development models tie women's philanthropic activity and social status to a husband's wealth, but the transition to accommodate female philanthropy holds

rewards for every charitable organization according to Bender (1986). Bender further stated that charities should refine their approach to women as individuals and as powerful forces in fundraising.

### Purpose and Justification of the Study

Since its beginning in 1909, 4-H has focused on providing quality educational programs based on research generated by the land-grant university system. Millions of youth, according to Meadows (2003), credit becoming better contributing members of society to their involvement in 4-H. Further, Meadows has asserted that 4-H is Virginia's largest youth development program. In Virginia, 4-H is a joint program of the land-grant universities, Virginia Tech and Virginia State University, the U.S. Department of Agriculture, and local governments. Virginia 4-H holds true to the commitment to "assist youth, and those adults working with them, in acquiring the knowledge, life skills, and attitudes that will enable them to become self-directing, contributing, and productive members of society" stated Meadows. According to Meadows, Virginia 4-H has addressed the needs and interests of youth for over 90 years.

During fiscal year, 2002-2003, Virginia Cooperative Extension experienced a 12% state budget cut, significantly impacting the ability of Virginia 4-H to educate youth across the State. As Dooley (1995) pointed out, Virginia 4-H operates under a unique funding formula with 50% from the public sector and the remainder from private sources. A key factor to improving the "health" of Virginia 4-H, according to Meadows (2003), is increased funding from external sources.

The Virginia 4-H Foundation serves as the private support arm of Virginia's 4-H program and operates under a traditional fund development model that includes strong appeals to 4-H alumni. In 2005, there were 157,068 4-H members in Virginia (51% female; 49% male). One in six Virginians is a 4-H alumnus, with Virginia population figures currently around seven million, there are an estimated one million alumni in the State.

To be successful, the Virginia 4-H Foundation must continuously identify new sources of revenue and new ways to appeal to prospective donors.

An increasing need for private resources and new donors indicates a strong call for research to examine donor behaviors and motivations. However, a review of the literature on philanthropic behavior in America revealed that most research focuses on donor behavior of the general population with little analysis of data by gender. Based on their work with more than 150

female philanthropists and scores of development professionals, Shaw and Taylor (1995) concluded that previous studies in philanthropy and fundraising reported on the way men give. With regard to women, however, it is often noted that they give for different reasons than men, and their reasons are based on their experiences as women. In light of the fact that traditionally most donors have been male, and given the American patriarchal culture, development professionals have focused on men as the head of the household. Further, Shaw and Taylor (1995) stated that nonprofits must make a major commitment to involve an increased number of women in their organization. By implementing a development plan that respects altruism characteristics of both men and women, Virginia 4-H can position itself to garner support from the increasing numbers of female philanthropists, including the women who represent over half of the 4-H alumni.

This study examined motivating factors that lead to female monetary gifts to nonprofit organizations, specifically the Virginia 4-H program. The study focused on women as donors to Virginia 4-H, exploring their motivations for giving, factors that impact their satisfaction with giving, and motivating factors that result in repeat donations and giving at higher levels. Knowledge of these variables will enable the Virginia 4-H Foundation Board of Directors to develop and implement a development plan that respects altruism characteristics of both men and women.

Robert R. Meadows, Virginia Cooperative Extension Associate Director, 4-H, conducted an informal survey of state 4-H Program Leaders across the nation to collect base-line data to justify this study. The survey included the following questions:

- Has your state or 4-H Foundation ever tracked why female donors give money to 4-H (or any other group)?
- If yes, what did you find as the top reason(s)?
- Have there been any studies as to why people give to 4-H (or any other group) by your state or 4-H Foundation?
- If yes, what did you find as the top reasons?
- Would you like to receive a copy of the results of this graduate student's study?

Of the 24 respondents, no state tracked why female donors gave, nor were any of the respondents aware of studies related to why anyone supported 4-H programming. All 24 state program leaders indicated an interest in receiving study results; 2 of the 24 took the initiative to include a

note with their response indicating the need for this study. Each program leader projected positive forecasts for 4-H development efforts should the study findings be implemented as part of future development strategies (R. R. Meadows, personal communication, April 18, 2005).

### Research Questions

The following research questions directed this study:

1. Why do women give financially to charitable organizations? Why Virginia 4-H?
2. What factors impact female donors' satisfaction with giving?
3. What factors influence the decision to give to an organization repeatedly? If a second gift was at a higher level, what key factors led to the larger gift?
4. When being asked to give, does the solicitation method impact the decision to give? Is there a preferred solicitation technique?
5. Does recognition or other personal goal(s) influence a decision to give? Are there desired types of recognition for giving?

### Theoretical Framework

Fishbein's (1967) expectancy-value theory framed this study to explore female donors' motivations for and satisfaction with giving to Virginia 4-H. The theory as adapted for this study is shown in Figure 1.

Fishbein's expectancy-value theory posits that human behavior occurs as a result of the individual's expectations concerning the outcomes of a decision and the value placed on each expected outcome by the individual. Expectancy-value theory has been used to understand motivations underlying individuals' behaviors and assumes humans are goal-oriented and respond to their beliefs and values to achieve specific results.

According to expectancy-value theory, intent is the immediate precursor to a particular behavior; therefore, if elements that impact intention can be determined, a more accurate prediction can be made about whether an individual will engage in a particular behavior. The theory's core is that "individuals choose behaviors based on the outcomes they expect and the values they ascribe to those expected outcomes" (Borders, Earleywine, & Huey, 2004). The degree to which one is willing to perform a particular behavior, according to the theory, is dependent on the extent to which the individual believes a consequence will follow and the value placed on the consequence (Mazis, Ahtola, & Kippel, 1975). The more attractive the outcome is,

the more likely the individual will engage in the behavior. When more than one behavior is possible, the behavior chosen will be the one with the largest combination of expected personal success and value.

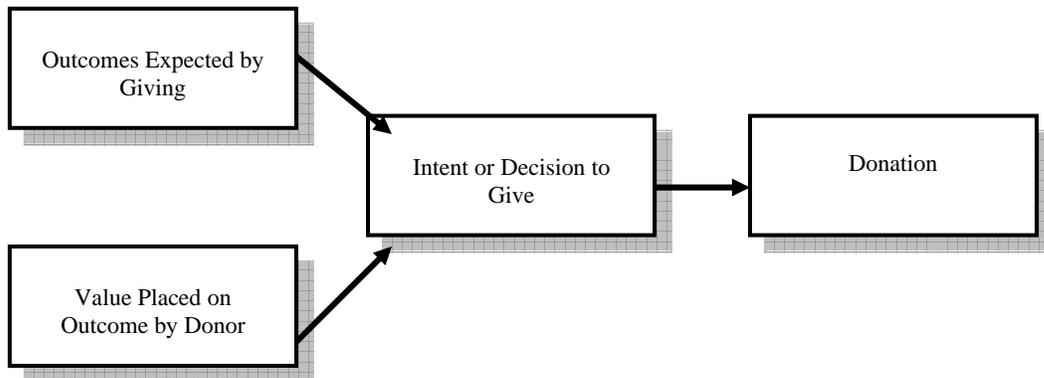


Figure 1. Value-expectancy model of philanthropy.

As applied to philanthropy, behavior is seen as a function of (1) expected outcomes from giving, such as change in a young person’s life, or personal recognition received as a result of giving *and* (2) the value placed on the expected outcomes. For example, a donor may value social change or public recognition. Expectancy-value theory suggests that people orient themselves to the world in accordance with their expectations, beliefs, and evaluations of projected outcomes and their respective values.

The theory purports that donors may be motivated to give based on the value they place on the perceived outcomes of the gift. For example, female donors who give to Virginia 4-H may value bringing about change in a young person’s life. They may receive gratification in a number of ways. Understanding the outcomes women value through giving may help to explain how female donors prefer to be recognized for their contributions.

According to the theory, determining the outcomes donors expect as a result of their giving, and values placed by the individual on the expected outcomes, should allow an organization to impact the intent to perform a certain behavior. In this case, the behavior impacted would be the decision to donate to the Virginia 4-H Foundation.

To operationalize the value-expectancy theory, Shaw and Taylor (1995) developed a model to examine women’s motivations to provide monetary support for organizations such as 4-H. Personal rewards women receive from philanthropic deeds includes altruism, self-empowerment, feeling part of a larger community that can

influence the present and future, friendships, the joy of meeting others who share similar interests and values, being a part of a process, and holding a privileged position for watching a project unfold (Shaw & Taylor, 1995, pp. 85-86).

Shaw and Taylor (1995), cited six recurring themes from interviews with women philanthropists in their book *Reinventing Fundraising: Realizing the Potential of Women's Philanthropy* called "the 6 Cs":

- Change — Women want to be an agent for immediate not gradual change and make a difference in society. Money is the tool for change and women desire to be active participants in the process.
- Create — Women have an interest in creating new ways of operating and a commitment to a long-term relationship with the charity.
- Connect — Women desire a strong, meaningful connection to the organizations they support with gifts. These connections should be established prior to gift giving and nourished throughout the relationship. Women may not support projects simply because they focus on women.
- Commit — Women's volunteer commitment is noteworthy, however, one female philanthropist states a new way of attracting women to charities includes making use of their strong volunteer orientation while focusing on major giving.
- Collaborate — For women, working with others is an essential element in creating partnerships. Collaboration bypasses competition, eliminates duplication, and takes advantage of limited resources.
- Celebrate — A celebratory atmosphere makes giving enjoyable for women and encourages philanthropy by others. Celebrations can be directed at individuals, small groups, or large gatherings. Celebrating philanthropic deeds and milestones makes everyone feel good about themselves and the organizations they support. Appealing to women's emotions in soliciting gifts is only one element of success.

In the context of this study, expectancy-value theory and "the 6 Cs" were utilized to examine women's motivations for donating to nonprofit organizations, and specifically Virginia 4-H. Exploring the expectations and values held by female donors will help reveal factors that

motivate their giving. By adopting the expectancy-value framework and utilizing Shaw and Taylor's (1995) model, this study examined how female donors make decisions to give monetarily to nonprofit organizations, what leads to their continued giving, and what leads to satisfaction when giving. These factors were examined in a group of female donors who currently give to 4-H youth development programs.

#### Definition of Terms

*Charitable organization* – Organizations that are generous in giving money, offer other help to the needy, or are concerned with a charitable cause, including religious, educational, scientific, or literary purposes. Individuals may deduct contributions to charitable organizations, although restrictions on allowable contributions and the amount of allowable contributions apply. Also known as a 501(C)3 organization (Foundation Center, 2006).

*501(C)3* – The Foundation Center (2006) defines IRS Section 501(c)(3) as the section of the tax code that defines nonprofit, charitable (as broadly defined), tax-exempt organizations; 501(c)(3) organizations are further defined by the Foundation Center as public charities, private operating foundations, and private non-operating foundations.

*Development* – The process and activities involved in soliciting financial support for programs, activities, events, and projects for charitable organizations. This term is used interchangeably with fundraising and resource development (Rosso, 1991).

*Development officer* – An individual who raises funds in support of a charitable organization (Rosso, 1991).

*Donor* – An individual, corporation, or foundation providing financial or other support to a charitable organization (Rosso, 1991).

*Fundraising* – The process and activities to solicit financial support for programs, activities, events, and projects of charitable organizations. Also referred to as fund raising, and typically means collecting money for a specific reason (Burlingame, 1977).

*Nonprofit* – Nonprofit organizations serve a public need or have mutual benefit rather than generating or accumulating profits for owners or investors (Salamon, 1999).

*Philanthropy* – Voluntary giving or receiving intended for public purposes (Burlingame, 1977).

## Summary of the Chapter

Nonprofit organizations across America struggle to have enough resources to operate. Cuts in public funding to these organizations force them to find alternative sources of revenue. Private support from philanthropists has traditionally filled the void. As the number of nonprofits has multiplied across the nation, competition for private dollars also has increased. New and more effective development models are necessary for nonprofit organizations to survive. The focus of development officers across the nation has switched to an under tapped, yet viable audience, female donors.

Traditional development models focus on males as philanthropists, and research is almost non-existent on females as philanthropists. There is little evidence on why women contribute monetarily to nonprofit organizations, including the solicitation and recognition efforts they respond to positively. This dearth of research continues despite the fact that women control large levels of wealth, and contribute philanthropically equally to their male counterparts.

The Virginia 4-H Foundation, a nonprofit organization, is the private support arm of Virginia's 4-H program. The Foundation advocates for the 4-H program and secures funds for program operation. Fundraising models utilized by the Foundation are based upon traditional male-focused models.

This study focused on Virginia's 4-H program female donors and identified the reasons women give to Virginia 4-H, the solicitation techniques they favor, and preferred methods of acknowledgement of their gift.

Findings from this study can serve as the foundation for more conclusive studies, as well as lay the groundwork for the implementation of a development plan that respects altruism characteristics of both men and women. Ultimately, implementing the results of the study could increase the amount of giving to and sustainability of nonprofit organizations including Virginia 4-H.

## CHAPTER 2

### REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Philanthropy has been defined as voluntary action undertaken for the public good (Payton, 1988). Literature focusing on the history of philanthropy, fundraising theory, models of fundraising, philanthropists' reasons for giving, and women emerging as donors provides a contextual framework for this study. This information sets the stage for examining factors that motivate females to donate monetarily to nonprofit organizations.

#### *History of Philanthropy*

Perhaps no greater documentation of the impact of philanthropy on history has been provided than that presented by Bremner (1988) in his book, *American Philanthropy*. Bremner noted that over 4,000 years ago, Chinese families practiced philanthropy by providing financial support to widows, orphans, and the elderly. In America, the roots of philanthropy can be traced to Native Americans (Bremner, 1988). When Europeans first arrived in the Americas, Native Americans showed human concern and practiced philanthropy by sharing materials and knowledge needed for survival.

The Council of Foundations (2005) further reported the hardships facing early settlers in North America, noting the lack of a strongly visible government. Given such conditions, individuals banded together to build churches and schools, fight fires, and address other community needs. Individual and citizen-wide efforts to promote public welfare became a tradition. Subsequently, immigrants began to form groups and giving organizations, along with giving through churches, to create new communities.

Historically, philanthropy has been strongly connected to religious beliefs (Shervisch, 1990; Council of Foundations, 2005). For generations, religious beliefs influenced how people think about and participate in philanthropy. References to philanthropy are found in the Koran, the Bible, and the Torah and in the teachings of many other religions and cultures including Buddhism, Japanese and Native American cultures, and Hinduism (Bremner, 1988). Specifically, the focus of philanthropy in the 19th century provided monetary support for free education to poor children. A great deal of support for higher education also came from philanthropy. Bremner stated that there were so many colleges in the United States in the 19th century the

public and the government could not support them all. Philanthropists helped keep these institutions in existence.

In the early 20th century, individuals started to use philanthropy to solve problems, conduct research, and promote science (Council of Foundations, 2005). Addressing root causes of poverty, hunger, and diseases reflected an era of optimism and the ability of science to solve human problems. This notion was the rationale for modern American foundations. By the mid 19<sup>th</sup> century philanthropists reduced support for religious and moral reform, and increased support for science (Bremner, 1988). Philanthropists founded the Smithsonian Institution and the Lowell Institute to promote learning and scientific advancement. The arts, museums, industry, invention, and exploration also benefited from philanthropy.

Another change during the early years of the 20th century included the way philanthropic giving was organized (Council of Foundations, 2005). The influence of successful business leaders such as Andrew Carnegie, John Rockefeller, and Margaret Olivia Sage led to a new corporate organizational structure. At this point, boards of directors gained responsibility for overseeing philanthropic operations.

Post-Civil War industrial development created overwhelming wealth for some Americans. So much wealth was created individuals could not use money as quickly as it was earned. In the 1890s, the *New York Tribune* estimated there were 4,047 millionaires in the United States (Bremner, 1988).

The Great Depression of the 1930s led to an increase in philanthropy. Since the need was so great, philanthropists were concerned about meeting people's immediate needs for food and shelter rather than solving social problems. After World War II, one of the most important developments in philanthropy was the tax privilege granted to foundations. Under certain restrictions, foundation income became tax-exempt and contributions to foundations became tax deductible. Because income and estate taxes were so high, the idea of forming or contributing to foundations became very attractive to wealthy people. In the mid-1950s, there were 7,500 foundations in the United States (Bremner, 1988).

The 1960s were a time of increased accountability for philanthropy. The Internal Revenue Service expanded auditing of foundations and other tax-exempt organizations to prevent and discourage abuses. The Tax Reform Act of 1969 required foundations to use at least

6% of their income for philanthropic purposes each year and made it illegal to use foundation funds to influence legislation or elections (Bremner, 1988).

The 1960s and 1970s were a time of increased public-private partnership. The public no longer trusted the government's ability to solve social problems. People looked to private organizations and philanthropy to solve these problems. State and local governments contracted services from private organizations, providing these organizations with needed funding for their activities (Bremner, 1988).

In the early 1980s, federal expenditures were decreased for social welfare programs. While these reductions were taking place, a recession led to increased homelessness and unemployment. Nonprofit organizations were expected to care for needy people in place of the government, but their budgets had also been cut. The government hoped that private giving would make up for these cuts. There were not enough resources available so philanthropic efforts to create social change and innovation were reduced in favor of meeting the basic needs of the poor. Government funding cuts of the 1980s led to recognition of the importance of individual donors to philanthropy (Bremner, 1988).

Most recently, *Giving USA* (2005), a publication of the American Association of Fundraising Counsel, researched and written at the Center on Philanthropy at Indiana University, estimated charitable giving reached \$248.52 billion in 2004, a new record for the United States. *Giving USA* (2005) reported giving from four sources of contributions including individual (living) donors, and bequests by deceased individuals, as well as foundations and corporations. All four sources of giving increased contributions in 2004 by 4% to 9%. Individual giving, the single largest source, rose by an estimated 4.1% in 2004 to reach \$187.9 billion. Giving to all subsectors increased in 2004, at rates of growth ranging from 7.0 % for environmental and animal welfare organizations to 0.8% for international affairs and development. Adjusted for inflation, all sub-sectors, with the exception of international affairs and development and human services, saw growth in giving in 2004 (*Giving USA*, 2005).

### *Fundraising Theory*

Fundraising provides money to improve the quality of life for many people. It also promotes organizational sustainability. Fundraising ensures nonprofit organizations continue to exist and the United States is a more diverse and humanitarian place to live.

Fundraisers interact with external constituencies and attempt to positively influence their view of, and relationship to, the nonprofit. They attempt to bring individuals closer to an institution through involvement with the nonprofit to secure financial resources. Traditionally, men have been the focus of most fundraising efforts. Men have historically served on nonprofit boards and committees, and have been recognized for giving despite the fact that gifts were jointly given by a husband and wife (Critz, 1980; Ellis, 1997).

Asking someone for money seems simple; however, fundraising can be complicated. Philanthropic fundraisers are not only asking for money, they are asking donors to support a mission. According to Duronio and Tempel (1997), fundraisers serve as the connector between the mission of an organization and the marketplace. Fundraisers must develop a system that ensures the nonprofit organization will perpetuate its mission.

Understanding the fundraising process requires examining the way institutions interact with their environment and how/why/when nonprofits practice fundraising. Several theorists have examined the interactions nonprofits have with their environments based upon the need for philanthropic support.

Harris (1990) identified three theories important for understanding why and how nonprofits interact with their environment, (1) resource dependency theory, (2) enactment theory, and (3) institutional theory. Resource dependency theory identifies the key element of success for nonprofits as the organizations' ability to acquire and maintain resources (Harris, 1990). Resource dependency theory begins with the premise that organizations are open systems and cannot generate all the required resources internally, so therefore must mobilize resources from other organizations in their environment to survive. The nonprofit may choose the environment it relates to and/or adapt its internal structures and processes to strengthen environmental relationships. The emphasis of the resource dependency model is organization adaptation. The theory assumes individual organizations can act to improve their chances of survival (Scott, 2001).

The enactment theory challenges nonprofits to rethink constraints, threats, and opportunities within their environment. Under the enactment theory a fundraiser does not view the fundraising environment as set or defined (Harris, 1990). Rather, the fundraiser looks beyond traditional prospects and seeks to identify new linkages to create a unique fundraising environment.

The institutional theory proposes that nonprofits are under pressure by other nonprofits to maintain core recognized elements. Having these core elements as a part of their formal structure, nonprofits maintain their legitimacy as an organization (Harris, 1990). Societal expectations of appropriateness are followed for a nonprofit to survive. Under this theory, a successful fundraising campaign by one nonprofit organization may serve as the model for another.

### *Models of Fundraising*

Another essential component to understanding philanthropy is the variety of models nonprofits follow in the fundraising process. Rosso (1991) conceptualized the fundraising process through what he defined as the fundraising cycle model, illustrated in Figure 2.

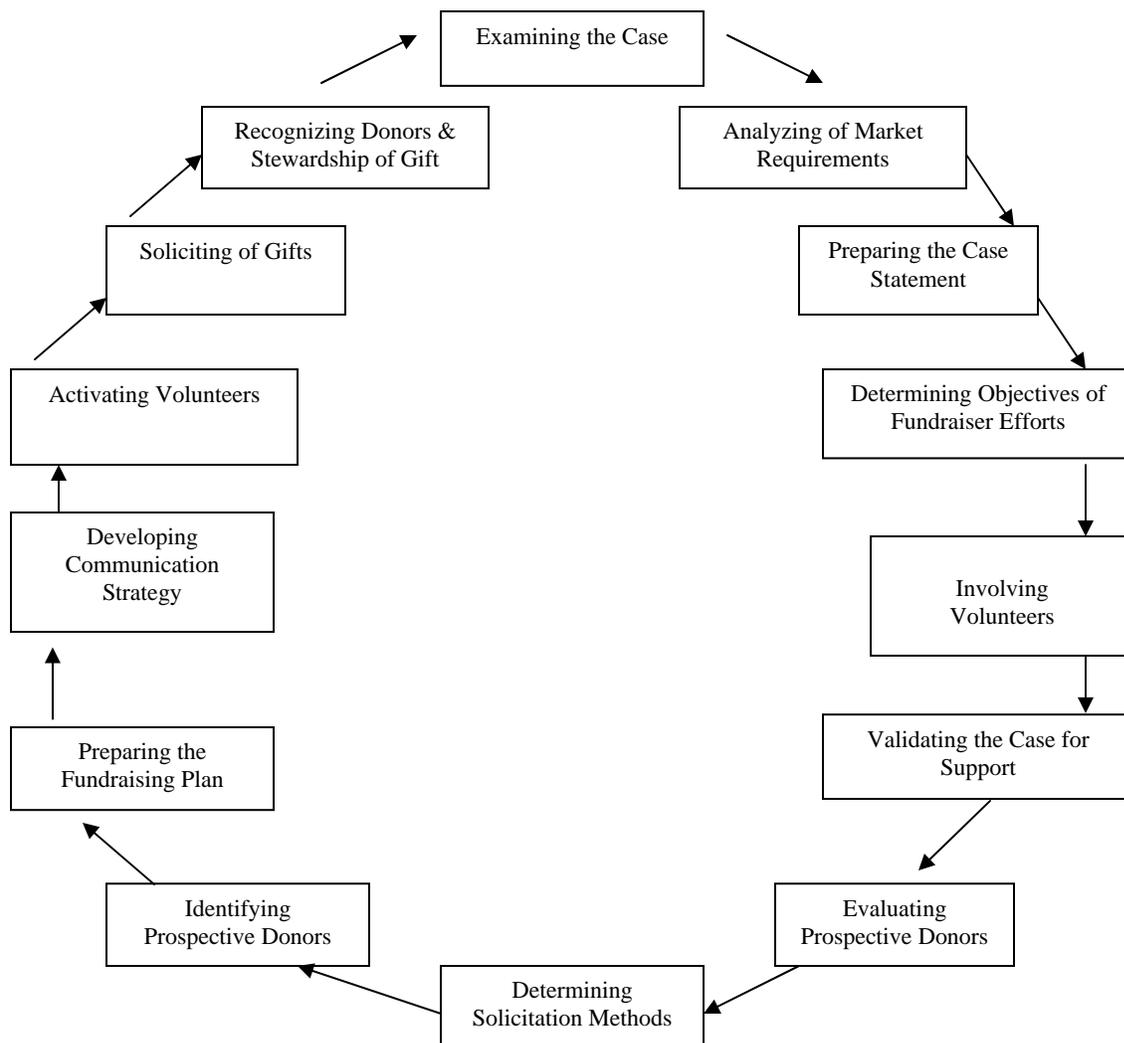


Figure 2. Adaptation of the Henry Rosso fundraising model (1991).

The model includes 14 sequential steps and activities development officers undertake in the fundraising process. Beginning with the development of a case for support, the cycle is a continuous loop and helps development officers visualize the interrelationships of fundraising steps. Rosso's model will serve as the framework for the development plan of the Virginia 4-H Foundation.

Step one in the fund raising cycle is what Rosso refers to as a planning checkpoint. At this stage, nonprofits must examine their case for support. The case provides an overview of the reasons donors should support the organization. The case for support is specific to the organization, and should remain consistent regardless of the prospective donor. The case should state the vision of the nonprofit, and clearly illustrate how a gift will empower the organization to succeed in pursuit of its mission.

An analysis of market requirements comes next in the Rosso Cycle. Nonprofits must test their mission against the wants and needs of the market or that of prospective donors. Prospective donors must understand what issues the nonprofit is addressing and must feel that the approach the nonprofit is suggesting is valid. Further, prospective donors must feel the issues are important. If prospective donors do not understand or accept the importance of the needs being addressed by the nonprofit, fund raising faces a serious obstacle. Donors will give to organizations they care about that address needs they care about. In meeting clearly identified community needs understood to be of value to the potential donors, the nonprofit can formulate compelling arguments for why its work merits philanthropic gifts.

Next is the preparation of a needs statement. This is the organization's plan for carrying out its work toward mission fulfillment. This is where the organization clearly defines the kinds of resources needed to carry out services, thus justifying fundraising. The needs statement clearly defines fundraising goals.

The organization next defines its objectives to prospective donors. During this stage the organization gives definition to the programs or services it will provide to address the issue or need. This includes how the organization will do the work with specific action plans for providing solutions to the issues the organization and donors feel are important.

Next, volunteers are involved. Development officers are limited in the number of prospective donors they can reach. Volunteers are critical to the success of fundraising as they increase outreach. According to Rosso (1991), the most effective fundraisers are those that are

passionate about the cause. Paid staff is often considered to be doing their jobs when soliciting funds; however, an unpaid solicitation of peers reflects passion and concern for the cause.

The next step in the cycle is an evaluation of gift markets to determine their ability and perceived willingness to fund the nonprofit's programs through charitable gifts. This step includes making informed judgments about which markets to approach and the gift amounts to be sought.

Identifying potential gift sources is the next planning step in the cycle. Each prospective donor is identified and qualified by three criteria: linkage to the organization, ability to give gifts at the level being sought, and interest in the organization's work.

In the tenth step of the cycle the fund raising plan is prepared. During this step the organization clearly defines how it will communicate with prospective donors. Donors must clearly understand through communication strategies implemented what the organization is doing and how donor involvement assures success. Communication must move the prospect to action and donors must be made aware that their gift will in fact make a difference.

The next action step in the cycle is to activate a volunteer corps of solicitors. Fund raising in the United States has been largely a volunteer activity. Action is taken by people so committed to a cause that they make their own gifts and then eagerly invite others to join the cause. No solicitation is more compelling, even today, than one carried out by a volunteer advocate who personally solicits gifts to support a nonprofit to which he or she is passionately devoted.

With 12 steps now completed, the gift is solicited. This step includes implementing the fund raising plan with the broader constituency and is the culmination of all actions. Planning continues with careful selection of fund raising vehicles or strategies. Fundraisers must apply their marketing skills in this step, to determine which fund raising techniques will be most effective in each market. Fund raising strategies or methods include direct mail, phone-a-thons, special events or benefits, grant seeking, personal solicitations, recognition groups, and e-mail and Internet sites. Just as market evaluation calls for diversity of funding, selection of fund raising methods should explore every opportunity for raising gift funds to carry out the organization's mission.

Traditional effectiveness charts of solicitation techniques may not hold true when working with female audiences. It is important during this step, and a purpose of this research, to determine which solicitation techniques are preferred by female donors.

Soliciting and receiving the gift is not the end of the process. In fact, it is only the beginning of a deepening relationship between the donor and the nonprofit. Proper gratitude for and acknowledgment of the gift must be expressed by the nonprofit. The nonprofit must also disclose how the gift will be used and demonstrate the highest level of accountability and stewardship in the appropriate and wise use of the gift. Properly thanking donors, reporting the use of gifts, and demonstrating wise stewardship of contributed funds makes renewal of the gift possible. According to Shaw and Taylor (1995), recognition models are based upon research of men. While men would prefer public personal recognition, named gift opportunities such as buildings, the limited research available related to female philanthropy indicates these methods do not hold true when recognizing women. It is an objective of this research to determine what type of recognition is preferred by women.

The renewal process, step 14, restarts the cycle. The organization must evaluate how effective they have been in pursuit of their mission, decide if their mission remains relevant, and forecast additional monetary and other resource needs. If the organization has undertaken a multi-year campaign, it is at this point in the cycle that they will evaluate where they stand relative to their goal. Further, they will look at options for moving lower level donors to higher levels of gifts, work to identify and evaluate the capacity of additional donors, and most importantly, reexamine their case for support to assure it remains consistent with the issues faced by the audiences they seek to serve.

Kelly (1993) reviewed four models of fundraising, including press agency, public information, two-way asymmetrical, and two-way symmetrical. The press agency model focuses on propagandizing a cause, and its practice is based on principles of manipulation and control. In the press agency model, fundraisers may see themselves as cheerleaders, evangelists, and arm twisters. The public information model is based upon the theory of enlightenment and the belief that truth is important.

The foundation of the two-way symmetrical model of fundraising is reaching mutual understanding. Communication in this model is two-way between groups with balanced or symmetrical effects. This model uses formative research to balance the needs of the nonprofit and donors. The effectiveness of this model is evaluated by its contribution to enhancing and protecting organizational autonomy through the fundraising process. An underlying assumption of the two-way symmetrical model is that donors benefit from making gifts because the nonprofit

benefits; therefore, society benefits. The core purpose of the two-way-symmetrical model is to scientifically persuade giving through two-way communication.

Kelly (1993) stated that most fundraisers and nonprofits undertake the two-way symmetrical model more often when focusing on major gifts, rather than when soliciting annual funds. Further, Kelly concluded that most managerial tasks in fundraising are correlated with the two-way model rather than other models. Further, he noted that most fundraisers practice a mixed-motive model which includes both symmetrical and asymmetrical elements.

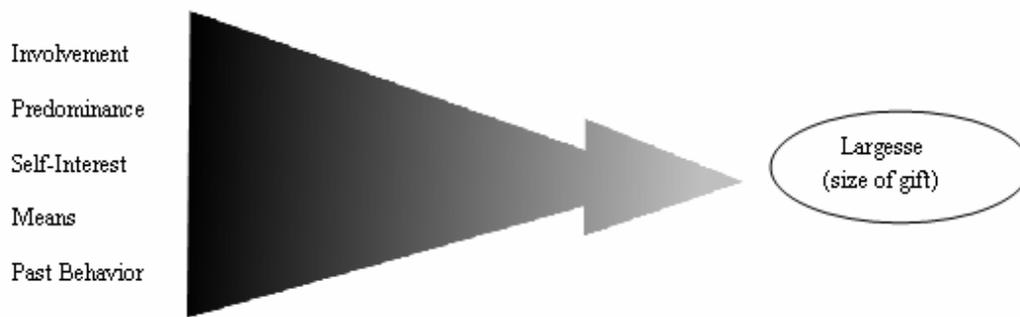
Smith (1993) introduced the Cultivation Cycle in 1975. The Cultivation Cycle, popularly known as the Five I's of Fund Raising, includes identification, information, interest, involvement, and investment, in that order. There have been modifications to Smith's (1993) model over the years. Prather (1981), for example, adapted the Cultivation Cycle to include the five steps of identification, cultivation, planning the approach, solicitation, and follow-up.

Daily (1986) built upon Smith's model and included seven steps in the process: prospect research, research and qualification, strategizing the approach, involving the prospect, making the ask, closing the solicitation, and after-solicitation follow-up. Dailey stated that every gift solicitation is a separate mini-campaign and that annual gifts in small amounts are provided for projects in which donors have interest or involvement. Donors, however, often only provide gifts in larger amounts for projects to which they are committed.

Wood (1989) also adapted the Cultivation Cycle and summarized the fundraising process in four steps. The steps include research, cultivation, solicitation and recognition. Wood (1989) further described the process as 25% research, 60% cultivation, 5% solicitation, and 10% recognition.

Mount (1996), through her empirically based model of personal donorship (Figure 3), conceptualized individual donating behavior in terms of largesse. Largesse refers to either a gift or a donation that has been given generously. The concept is operationalized by the size of the gift.

Five variables were proposed as predictors of personal donating behavior: involvement, predominance, self-interest, means, and past behavior. Moreover, Mount (1996) proposed that donating occurs for causes that the donor considers worthy, that offers the donor an opportunity to feel useful, and results in self-actualization



*Figure 3.* Mount’s empirically based model of personal donorship (1996).

According to Mount, involvement means people expect some kind of satisfaction from giving and involvement depends on expected satisfaction. Knowing they have done their part allows donors to be involved in the cause and to experience joy or satisfaction through their donation. Predominance is defined by Mount as a subjective measure of the extent to which the cause stands out in the donors’ hierarchy of philanthropic options. Self-interest, according to Mount, is the degree to which the cause is aligned with the donor's self-interest. The interest could be that the reward for giving matches a personal goal, such as a tax incentive, or the cause of the nonprofit could be aligned with a donor's interest. Finally, means and past behavior refer to the donors’ ability to give and history of monetary giving.

Kelly (1991) identified a theoretical framework for fundraising which draws upon systems theory and conceptualizes fundraising as donor relations. Within this conceptual framework, relationships between nonprofits and donors are viewed as environmental interdependencies. Fundraising is defined as the management of relationships between a nonprofit and its donor publics, and the major principles and tenets on which fundraising rests are linked to particular communication theories.

In summary, various models of fundraising have been proposed in the literature. There are similarities in each of the models, though adaptations have been made to all of them. The best summarization of the varying models of fundraising may be that gifts are produced as a result of the interaction between the donors’ motives and organizational prerequisites (Cook, 1997).

### *Philanthropists' Reasons for Giving*

Individuals who invest wealth carefully in the nonprofit sector in a purposeful effort to benefit the general good of humanity, as well as to effect substantive positive change in society are generally thought of as philanthropists (Rafferty, 1999). Philanthropists have become increasingly selective in awarding gifts and grants to nonprofits. Under-financed and duplicative nonprofit organizations have had to contend with the inability of private funders to finance the explosive growth of this sector. One consequence of this development has been the rise in nonprofit bankruptcies and closings (Hager, Galaskiewicz, Bielfeld, & Pins, 1996). For nonprofits, changes in the way contributions are made leads to more fundraising work, along with a greater need for an understanding of why donors give. This combination is referred to as the intersection of donor motives and organizational requirements (Cook, 1997).

#### *Private Benefits*

There is a strong argument that in addition to the nonprofit's output there are many benefits which only the contributor experiences (Andreoni, 1989; Arrow, 1974; Cornes & Sandler, 1984; Schiff, 1990; Steinberg, 1987). A number of private benefits that individuals may experience when donating have been identified. To some, the benefit of donating is no different from the purchase of any other private good. Some nonprofits offer donors actual goods in exchange for their gift, (e.g., recognition, membership benefits such as free tickets, etc.) Larger donors might have buildings named after them, receive exclusive dinner invitations, or have opportunities to interact with those in power in exchange for their gift. In most cases, these rewards can only be received by making donations to the nonprofit, and donors may view part of the motivation as a mere purchase of the associated rewards.

Other private benefits may be less tangible. Tullock (1966) stated that when evaluating gift decisions and amounts, individuals consider how the gift will affect their reputation. Becker (1974) stated that a motivation for giving is either the avoidance of the scorn of others or the receipt of social acclaim. Glazer and Konrad (1996) conceded that individual donations to nonprofits are a result of the donor's ability, through the gift, to signal wealth in a socially acceptable way. The literature suggests other motives for individual giving including that it alleviates a sense of guilt (Sen, 1977).

Harbaugh (1998) modeled a preference for prestige and suggested that charities, by publishing donations in ranges, actively affect the prestige associated with a gift. He argued that prestige can be valuable to individuals either because it directly addresses the individual's need or because being known as a generous donor increases income and business opportunities.

Private benefits from donating may also be more intrinsic in nature. It has been argued that an individual's welfare is dependent upon not only his own needs and the needs of others, but his contributions to the needs of others (Arrow, 1974). That is, a donor derives welfare not only from the increase in another person's satisfaction, but also from knowing that she/he has contributed to that satisfaction (Arrow). Andreoni (1989, 1990) suggested that people may experience a "warm-glow" from having contributed. Perhaps the emphasis on sending thank-you notes is evidence that fundraisers try to maximize the warm-glow the individual feels from having made a contribution.

Donors may want to feel they are doing their share. It is also possible that they may believe they are able to give back to society for the fortune afforded them. Or perhaps individuals are motivated by a "buying-in" mentality where they are prevented from feeling good about a charitable program unless they have made a fair-share contribution to it (Rose-Ackerman, 1982).

Three categories of internal motivations and three categories of external influences explain why people give (Mixer, 1993). The three categories of internal motivations include personal factors, social factors, and negative factors. Personal factors refer to acceptance or self-esteem, achievement, cognitive interest, growth, guilt reduction or avoidance, meaning or purpose of life, spirituality, immortality, personal gain or benefit, and survival. Noted social factors for giving are status, affiliation, group endeavor, power, family altruism, and interdependence. Negative factors include frustration, insecurity, fear, and anxiety. According to Mixer, people are more likely to give when they are treated appropriately during the fundraising process, when they have an interest in the organization or the cause of the organization, and when they get rewarded for their support in ways consistent with their personal motivations and values.

The three categories of external factors that influence people to give are rewards, stimulations, and situations. Stimulations include human needs, vision, personal request, private initiative, efficiency, effectiveness, and tax deductions. Situations that determine why people

give include peer pressure, personal involvement, planning and decision-making networks, family involvement, culture, role identity, tradition, and disposable income. Rewards can be recognition by the organization or other personal or social benefits.

### *Reciprocity*

Both everyday experience and social scientific research suggest that reciprocity often drives philanthropic acts, but what is meant by reciprocity varies. Sometimes the reciprocity involved is very direct, (e.g., donors require something tangible “in return” for their gift). Donors may require some form of recognition or a more substantial material return (e.g., a business owner may donate to a cause primarily to get some advertising and draw in new customers). Sometimes, of course, when such direct reciprocity is not stated as a motive in the account given by the donor, it is attributed by others who believe the gift was given solely to “get something in return.”

More commonly, however, the form of reciprocity connected to philanthropy is indirect. For example, when someone says they are “grateful” for the advantages or good fortune they have gained in life and want to “give something back somehow,” they are still talking about reciprocity. In fact, one type of indirect reciprocity is central to the practice of philanthropy, what Boulding (1981) has labeled “serial reciprocity.” Serial reciprocity exists when people repay the benefits they have received, (e.g., from a parent, a friend, a mentor, an anonymous stranger, a previous generation) by providing benefits to a third party, someone other than their benefactor. Serial reciprocity is what people mean when they say, “pass it on,” “one good turn deserves another,” or “don't pay me back, do something similar for someone else instead.”

In scholarly work, reciprocity is characterized in many ways. Applied to philanthropy, reciprocity can be a motivation for philanthropy; a justification for philanthropy offered in ex post facto accounts; an ethical virtue similar to gratitude and the Golden Rule; a moral norm that serves to keep the chain of good works going in a society; or a cultural value celebrated as part of the conception of what is good about society.

Philosophers have long identified reciprocation and gratitude as indispensable elements of the virtuous life. Becker (1986) summarized the philosophical understanding of reciprocity as a virtue by saying it requires “fitting and proportional” returns for benefits received. In other words, donors are likely to give to a third party who is similar to their own benefactors, if they can.

### *Identification Theory*

A motivational paradigm can be used to examine women's reasons for giving and factors that impact their satisfaction with giving. The identification theory, developed from extensive research on charitable giving through survey and ethnographic methods, serves as a general framework for understanding both charitable behavior and interpersonal transfers (Schervish & Havens, 2003). The major principle of the theory asserts that it is self-identification with other people in their needs, as opposed to selflessness, that motivates transfers of wealth, and gives donors the satisfaction of fulfilling those needs. The identification theory refers to transfers of wealth to individuals, as well as to philanthropic organizations.

There are two central components of identification theory. The first major component identifies philanthropic behavior, including both charitable donations and transfers to families, as a manifestation of care or *caritas*. Such philanthropic behavior, according to the theory, is aimed at meeting another person's needs. It is further asserted that care radiates from the self, and is first learned in the context of family relationships. Care ultimately expands to include others in a person's network, such as friends, neighbors, and associates. The manner in which care is expressed can be direct through interpersonal care or indirect through nonprofit organizations, and may even extend further to nations, communities, or organized groups (Schervish & Havens, 2003).

The second major component of identification theory, as well as its core, is the assumption that caring behavior is reflective of self-identification with other people, as opposed to the absence of self, or selflessness. More specifically, the theory asserts that the provision of care is the result of the donors' recognition of the similarity between an individual or group's needs and those personally experienced in their own lives or by their families. Providing care for another individual or group is a mutually beneficial effort since the caregiver receives some emotional satisfaction as the needs of the recipient are addressed (Schervish & Havens, 2003).

Schervish and Havens (2003) reported that donors often give based on past experiences, both positive and negative. An individual who has lost a loved one to drunk driving, perhaps, will contribute to after-prom and substance abuse education programs. As well, those who had positive experiences with camping and hiking will be more inclined to give to environmental protection efforts.

### *Women: The Emerging Donors*

Shaw and Taylor (1995) reported that previous studies in philanthropy and fundraising address the giving manners and motivation of men, and stated that only women give for different reasons. Seymour's book, *Designs for Fundraising, the Fundraiser's Bible* (1966), features an entire chapter devoted to a discussion of universal motivations that lead to popular funding support for programs. Seymour's universal motivations, however, according to Shaw and Taylor (1995), apply almost entirely to men. The authors asserted that Seymour's theories do not hold for all groups of donors, as their research with donors revealed differences in the motivations of men and women with respect to donating (Shaw & Taylor, 1995). Although Seymour's model worked well for years, and remains effective today when working with male audiences, it does not apply to female audiences.

Despite this lack of recognition, women have been involved in philanthropic activities since the 18th century when developing charities to aid the disadvantaged and indigent while promoting positive social change (McCarthy, 2001). However, Diebolt (2001), in her study of women and philanthropy, suggested this area of inquiry had not been taken seriously or addressed analytically until very recently and asserts the work to date has been largely historical, with women's philanthropic roles linked principally to religious organizations and their causes. Moreover, Kaplan-Daniels (1988) stated that within the last decade a real interest in learning more about women and philanthropy has emerged largely because women possess financial resources that until recently had not been leveraged efficiently or effectively on behalf of philanthropic causes, even for female-specific causes.

Traditional donor development activities have largely ignored the giving interests and habits of women. Institutions that choose to ignore the potential of women as philanthropists will be limited not only in financial support but also in donor commitment that produces true change. Nonprofit organizations are seeking to tap new markets of potential donors, and women, identified by several philanthropic research sources, have the greatest unrealized potential in the charitable giving arena. In fact, findings from several national and regional surveys revealed that women give and volunteer to charitable organizations in greater percentages than men. In fact, more than a decade ago, women were identified as the target group for philanthropy (Ferguson-Patton, 1993).

More contemporary and journalistic sources of information assert there are differences in giving patterns between men and women (Alexander, 2006; Capek & Mead, 2006; Cochran, 2006; Green, 2001; Newman, 2000; Polaneczky, 2004; Shaw, 1993; Van Slyke & Eschholz, 2002). A number of scholarly and professional articles suggest that giving is different among “women of business achievement,” that women give to women’s causes, that women respond to different solicitation techniques than men, that women are motivated to give for reasons other than tax advantages, and that women of business achievement represent an untapped donor market (Clary, Snyder, & Stukas, 1995; Greer, 2000; Kaplan & Hayes, 1993; Newman, 2000; Ostrander & Fisher, 1995; Reis, 2000; Richardson, 2000; Shaw, 1993; Sublett, 1993; Wilson, 2000).

Bartling (1999) suggested guidelines about the “psychology of asking and giving,” highlighting the importance of giving back to a community as well as the desire to enact positive social change. This is consistent with the study conducted by Ostrander and Fisher (1995). They suggest that in cultivating women philanthropists it is important to emphasize the cause for which gifts of time and money are being sought, as well as stressing the impact that giving and volunteering can have on one’s connectedness to community. This important element of social capital is a motivating factor that resonates more for women than men.

Clary, Snyder, and Stukas (1995) reported that giving and volunteering can be motivated by a range of psychological functions, such as interest in serving others, advancing careers, guilt, self-esteem, and experiential learning. Kaplan and Hayes (1993) suggested that women may be motivated to give and volunteer for reasons different from men. They stated that while recognition and status may be what men cherish, involvement with the organizations to which they are donating is what women value. Women value relationships with organizations to which they contribute and aspire to understand these organizations and help shape their programs. The process of converting women into committed donors involves getting them to see that they share experiences and values with the nonprofit (Cohen, 1996). Women are likely to give volunteer time first before committing to make a major gift. This is one way they establish trust and confidence in an organization. Work as a volunteer helps many women test fit their values with the interests and values of the organization soliciting support.

In addition to establishing the relationship and analyzing shared values, there are other reasons for women’s contributions. Ostrower (1995) stated that being engaged and active in

philanthropic activities is an important method for building and maintaining social and professional networks. Kaplan-Daniels (1988) further asserted that women's involvement in philanthropic activities is important because it provides a context for their "invisible careers."

Shaw (1993) argued that it is also important to explicitly communicate images, roles, and values that are shared by many women when seeking to cultivate women as donors. Within the context of soliciting gifts, such communication techniques might include a focus on family, on community involvement, and on the demands of balancing family and work.

Another finding of the early research on female donors is that women desire details, including organizational facts, a clear philanthropic mission, assurance that money is going to assist people the organization serves without high overhead, and a thorough understanding of the programmatic process of the organizations they support (Shaw & Taylor, 1995). Providing such information creates an understanding that donated funds will be used for their intended purpose. The work that women also typically do to assist local organizations allows them to see how their contributions are being used and if the funds truly make a difference.

Understanding more clearly what motivates women to give would prove beneficial to institutions in the nation due to the vast amount of wealth that women control along with the special perspectives and insights that women can contribute to organizational leadership. The challenge, according to Ferguson-Patton (1993) is finding the best methods to reach them. By regularly studying females, fundraisers learn who their prospects really are, the methods of communicating with them, and what messages will encourage continual giving. However, an understanding of the role females play as donors is at its inception and must be investigated further (Kaplan & Hayes, 1993).

#### Summary of the Review of Related Literature

Bremner provides a compelling analysis/review of the impact of philanthropy on American history in his book, *American Philanthropy* (1988). Beginning with the formation of our nation, philanthropy continues to facilitate avenues for the betterment of the quality of life by filling the gap between public support dollars and achievement of social, human and capital goals. Statistics from *Giving USA* (2005) indicate that philanthropy contributes \$248.52 billion to America's economy. Of this amount, an estimated \$187.9 billion is contributed by individual donors.

It is the job of fundraisers or development officers to facilitate the linkage between these philanthropists and the nonprofit organizations they represent. This is by no means an easy task. With competition for funding increasing in the nonprofit sector, the manner in which fundraisers interact with prospective donors; the manner in which they connect them to the organization; and ultimately their strategic approach to secure their gift is critical to the survival of the nonprofit sector.

The literature provides several explanations relative to how and why nonprofits must secure external funding, as summarized in Table 1.

Table 1

*Summary Table of Literature Related to Fundraising Theory*

Author(s)	Contribution to Literature on Philanthropic Behavior	Elements
Harris (1990)	How and why nonprofits interact with their environment	Resource Dependency Theory, Enactment Theory, and Institutional Theory
Rosso (1991)	Conceptualization of the fundraising process through Fundraising Cycle.	Fourteen sequential steps and activities undertaken by nonprofits in the fundraising process
Kelly (1993)	Four communication models utilized by nonprofits as part of the fundraising process	Press agency, public information, two-way asymmetrical, two-way symmetrical
Smith (1993)	Cultivation Cycle	Five Is of Fundraising: identification, information, interest, involvement and investment
Prather (1981)	Adaptation of Cultivation Cycle	Identification, cultivation, planning the approach, solicitation and follow-up
Daily (1986)	Adaptation of Cultivation Cycle	Prospect research, research and qualification, strategizing the approach, involving the prospect, making the ask, closing the solicitation, and after-solicitation follow-up
Wood (1989)	Adaptation of Cultivation Cycle	Research, cultivation, solicitation and recognition
Mount (1996)	Model of Personal Donorship-five variables proposed as predictors of donating behavior	Involvement, pre-dominance, self-interest, means and past behavior
Kelly (1991)	Conceptualizes fundraising as donor relations	Fundraising is management of relationships between a nonprofit and its donor publics.

Harris (1990) provided three theoretical explanations: resource dependency, enactment, and institutional. Resource dependency theory validates that nonprofits are dependent upon the

generation of resources from their external environment. This ability to generate resources is subject to the needs and wants of the potential funding partner, as well as the nonprofit organization. Therefore, nonprofits must adapt their operational philosophies to the wants and needs of the potential donor.

Enactment theory suggests that nonprofits look beyond traditional funding sources and attempt to link new prospects with their organizational vision. The institutional theory holds that nonprofits as a whole are under scrutiny to operate in a legitimate manner to assure their survival.

All summed, these theories validate the need for this study. As implied in the resource dependency theory, nonprofits are unable to generate monies internally sufficient to fund operations and must, therefore, secure funds externally. In doing so, the enactment theory posits that nonprofits can not only look to traditional sources of funding and must act to engage sources with whom they have had no connection. As the literature supports that nonprofits have traditionally looked at males as primary donors, this theory supports the needs to look to women as potential donors. The institutional theory holds that while conducting effective fundraising efforts, nonprofits must hold true to core models of social responsibility and business ethics; that efforts be legitimate and contain formal structure; and that models from one organization may serve as a framework for others. Here again, the literature of limited campaigns that have successfully targeted female donors can be built upon to create effective strategies to engage these valued resources.

The review of literature also reveals several models of fundraising. Rosso (1991) was among the first to conceptualize the concepts and principles of the planning model known as the fundraising cycle. The Rosso fundraising cycle includes 14 sequential, discrete steps that nonprofits implement to assure success. The cycle is continuous and is graphically illustrated as a loop with arrows indicating its ongoing nature. Steps in the model begin with a review of the nonprofits examination of its case for support through solicitation and recognition of the gift. Again, the continuous nature of the fund raising cycle illustrates that soliciting the gift (step 13) is not the end of the process. Rather, it is the renewal of the process in that development officers desire to move donors to higher levels of giving.

Four models presented by Kelly are based upon how a nonprofit communicates with prospects: press agency, public information, two-way asymmetrical, and two-way symmetrical.

The key to effective communication is that communication between the prospective donor and the nonprofit be two-way. The nonprofit must communicate the need for monies, but prospective donors must be given an opportunity to communicate their ideas for addressing societal issues to nonprofits. The donors, in fact, wish to be partners in the change, and the application of approaches to reaching the desired outcome, not simply a response to a one-way communicated need.

Smith (1993), through his cultivation cycle, was the first to place the fundraising process into a model format, in that he proposed five ordered steps in the cultivation process: identification, information, interest, involvement, and investment. Through this model Smith suggests that the first step in the fundraising process is for the organization to identify prospective donors. Prospects include those individuals with the ability to make a financial contribution to the nonprofit, and are linked to the nonprofit or the nonprofit's mission.

Information is the second step in the model. In applying two-way communication strategies, Smith (1993) holds that not only should the nonprofit provide information to the prospect relative to the nonprofit, but should also secure from the prospects, information about them, their desires and needs.

Information both given to the donor, and derived from the donor should then be combined to determine interest. Shared interest in the mission is core to facilitating a partnership between donors and nonprofits. Donors must have an interest in the mission of the organization and desire the same societal outcomes as the nonprofit. Likewise, the organization must understand the internal and external needs of the donors and have an interest in assisting them to reach their personal goals through the partnership.

The remaining steps in the model, involvement and investment maintain that prospective donors prefer to be involved with an organization to which they give. Involvement is often facilitated through volunteerism; however, may also be established through communication or being involved in some way with the organization beyond the gift. Once the donor is involved with the organization, and are comfortable that the organization demonstrates positive stewardship of support, they are more likely to invest monetary support. Determining the manner in which to facilitate involvement is one objective of this research.

The literature review identified adaptations to Smith's model with perhaps the most applicable model for this research presented by Mount (1996) through her empirically based

model of personal donorship. She proposed that the size of the gift, termed largesse, is dependent upon the donors involvement with the nonprofit organization; predominance of the organization, or the cause the organization supports, in the mind of the donor; the degree to which the mission of the organization addresses the self-interest of the donor; the means available to the donor to make a gift, and a history of philanthropic activity.

The literature also identified reasons that philanthropists give money to support causes. Based on ever increasing competition for donations and the fact that donors have more choices than ever before of potential recipients, nonprofits must be knowledgeable of these motives and provide an opportunity for donors to fulfill their needs.

The literature supports that donor motivations are personal and are both intrinsic and extrinsic in nature. Regardless of the motives, the literature documents that motivations between male and female donors are different and that women give for different reasons than men. All donors do, in fact, expect some reward in return for their contribution. Reciprocity often drives philanthropic acts. Further, the literature suggests women give through identification; giving is a manifestation of care and caring behavior is reflective of a self-identification with other people.

Through the review of literature, the potential philanthropic capacity of women was evident. Despite this potential, traditional development efforts have largely ignored that women are an untapped resource. In relation to the cultivation of women as donors it is crucial that research clearly define the most effective manner for engaging this philanthropic audience. Questions left unanswered include the manner in which women prefer to be recognized for their contributions, and even prior to giving, the manner in which they prefer to be solicited for a gift.

The literature provided no studies on the motivations for female philanthropy beyond the study Shaw and Taylor presented in their book, *Reinventing Fundraising: Realizing the Potential of Women's Philanthropy* (1995). They presented six motivations for female philanthropy, which they refer to as the six Cs of women's giving: change, create, connect, commit, collaborate and celebrate, as described in Chapter 1. This research is designed to assist the Virginia 4-H Foundation to understand the motivations for female giving to the organization. Although this study is narrowly focused on 4-H, findings may be applicable to other nonprofit agencies as well as useful to other researchers working with women on philanthropic issues.

## CHAPTER 3

### METHODOLOGY

The choice of methodology for this study included a combination of focus groups and a written validation questionnaire. This choice optimized the research objective of ascertaining the best approach for the Virginia 4-H Foundation to utilize in order to secure donations from female philanthropists. Specifically, the research explored potential motivations for a female philanthropist to donate or not to the Virginia 4-H Foundation. While the research was based on the broader ideological and economic issues related to philanthropy in America outlined in previous chapters, this study had a narrow organizational and regional focus. The methodology for this research supported that narrow focus. The following research questions directed this study:

1. Why do women give financially to charitable organizations? Why Virginia 4-H?
2. What factors impact female donors' satisfaction with giving?
3. What factors influence the decision to give to an organization repeatedly? If a second gift was at a higher level, what key factors led to the larger gift?
4. When being asked to give, does the solicitation method impact the decision to give? Is there a preferred solicitation technique?
5. Does recognition or other personal goal(s) influence a decision to give? Are there desired types of recognition for giving?

Several fundamental facts served the foundation of this study. According to prior academic research, female philanthropists make donations for different reasons than men (Alexander, 2006; Capek & Mead, 2006; Cochran, 2006; Eschholz & Van Slyke, 2002; Polaneczky, 2004; von Schlegell, 2006). Furthermore, many more women are likely to make donations if they are offered incentives different from those conventionally offered to potential male donors. Research suggests women philanthropists have been neglected or ill-approached by organizations seeking funding. Given these assumptions, this research explored factors affecting the philanthropic decisions of women who have donated to the Virginia 4-H Foundation. Results were used to make suggestions to improve the approach of the Virginia 4-H Foundation toward potential female donors.

In this context, three main components shaped the methodology for this study: (1) female philanthropists; (2) the Virginia 4-H Foundation; and (3) the researcher's experiences. The women whose opinions were elicited are extremely busy individuals; therefore, too much of their time could not be consumed, yet much information on their perspectives was gathered. The nature of the Virginia 4-H Foundation determined the selection of the subjects for this study. Female philanthropists selected for this study had a history of donating to the Virginia 4-H Foundation. This selection criterion is consistent with Shaw and Taylor's advice "the information that is truly useful concerns what motivates people who already give to your organization" (1995, p. 144). Regarding the researcher and the pertinence of this methodology, it is important to acknowledge that the researcher served as the Executive Director of the Virginia 4-H Foundation for four years and is acquainted with many of the study participants. However, that professional role ended four years ago and the researcher is currently serving in a different capacity. The researcher continues to work closely with Virginia's 4-H programs and has access to confidential donor information.

Given the study's objectives, a methodology was needed that efficiently, accurately, and expressively solicited the philanthropists' opinions surrounding their decisions to donate to the Virginia 4-H Foundation. This research addressed the need for efficiency by offering a framework that was easily implemented, relatively low-cost, and highly focused. To address the need for the subjects' expressiveness, study participants were to be provided ample opportunity to articulate their personal views and ensure their feedback was heard, respected, and accurately reported throughout the research.

#### *A Qualitative Approach*

Given the above expectations and boundaries of this study, qualitative inquiry was chosen. Strauss and Corbin (1990) defined this approach to inquiry as any kind of research that produces findings not arrived at by means of statistical procedures or other means of quantification. Unlike quantitative researchers, who look for causal determination, prediction, and generalization of findings, qualitative researchers look for illumination, understanding, and extrapolation to similar situations. While qualitative inquiry is increasingly accepted as a valid methodology in social science investigation (Yin, 1989), the qualitative approach fit this study because it allowed for detailed subjective input from study participants. Creating a space for subjective articulation brought out the views of female philanthropists who have not historically

had a venue to give voice to their motivations and preferences as philanthropists.

Qualitative inquiry was also suitable because it assumes “that meaning is embedded in people’s experiences and that this meaning is mediated through the investigator’s own perceptions” (Merriam, 1998, p. 6). This assumption is pertinent to this study due to the experiential nature of philanthropy, the act of giving, why one gives, the significance one attaches to giving, the meaning derived from giving, and the idea that women view philanthropy differently than men. The investigation at individual levels determined the meaning of philanthropy from the perspective of women who have had to exist in a male-dominated world. This study was well-served by a qualitative inquiry. Since the investigator had been part of the Virginia 4-H Foundation and acquainted with the women targeted by this study, it was particularly appropriate to employ the qualitative methodology as it allowed the researcher to assume the role of mediator. Qualitative methodology, in short, supported the experiential, interactive, and mediated aspects of creating and exploring meaning for women in male-dominated philanthropic research and practice. The meaning of philanthropy has, thus far, been a matter of a set of assumptions entrenched in a male convention, which, in turn, has often preoccupied itself with extrinsic measures, such as financial statistics rather than intrinsic measures of personal meaning or motivation.

Other aspects of qualitative methodology made it suitable for this inquiry. For example, according to Patton (1990), qualitative research uses a naturalistic approach that seeks to understand phenomena in context-specific settings. While Patton’s imprecise labeling of the approach as naturalistic might for this study be more appropriately called social, attention to the context-specific nature of the approach was particularly applicable. Since large-scale philanthropy as defined by this research is rarely engaged in, it is specialized and context-sensitive. Philanthropy has grown in sophistication and customization over the decades and so has its sensitivity to context. People increasingly give for particular causes, in response to very specific reasons, and may want very specific restrictions on the use of their donations. The context of philanthropy may also be regional, professional, age-driven, and gender-related. Consequently, context was paramount to this research. Context gained significance since this study was conducted from the perspective of a given organization and a specific group of female philanthropists. In short, the contextually sensitive nature of the study made the qualitative approach the best methodological choice.

Strauss and Corbin (1990) claim qualitative methods may better explain little known phenomenon or gain in-depth information that may be difficult to convey quantitatively. Thus, qualitative methods are appropriate to identify variables to later test quantitatively, or when the researcher determines quantitative measures cannot adequately describe or interpret phenomenon. The choice of qualitative methodology corresponded to both of these criteria. Given the state of research and practice in philanthropy, quantitative measures could not adequately capture the viewpoint of female philanthropists. The situation was heightened by the lack of research for the Virginia 4-H Foundation context. Given that an outstanding substantive record of women philanthropists is by-and-large missing from the organization's database and a targeted approach to research female philanthropists had not yet been tried, a qualitative profile was needed of these donors. Since few female philanthropists had successfully been courted by the organization, there was little quantifiable data. The small regional context of the inquiry also supported an in-depth study rather than a statistically-based study.

As Lincoln and Guba (1985) pointed out: "If you want people to understand better than they otherwise might, provide them information in the form in which they usually experience it" (p. 120). Stake (1978) also pointed out that qualitative research findings, typically rich in detail and insights into participants' experiences of the world, "may be epistemologically in harmony with the reader's experience" (p. 5)—and thus more meaningful and communicable.

Lastly, qualitative inquiry suited this study because "the design of a qualitative study is emergent and flexible, responsive to changing conditions of the study in progress" (Merriam, 1998, p. 8). This approach allowed greater investigative and communicative flexibility to gain valuable and uncollected perspectives of female philanthropists. Many women may have formally articulated their views on philanthropy for the first time. Even though the researcher approached these philanthropists as a class of females residing in Virginia with a prior history of donating to the Virginia 4-H Foundation, there were individual differences in their viewpoints that required flexibility throughout the inquiry process. To fully capture the experiences, motivations, and preferred recognition of these women donors, the study was emergent and adapted to modifications, changes, and transformations. A qualitative approach supported this need for malleability and dynamism.

#### *Methodological Tools: Focus Groups and Validation Questionnaire*

Two methodological tools were utilized to conduct this study. Focus groups were

facilitated at varying locations across the Commonwealth, with attention to securing as diverse a sample as possible. A validation questionnaire allowed the researcher to capture initial themes or categories from focus groups transcripts, and then test these preliminary findings with study participants. The validation questionnaire also afforded the opportunity for participants to share thoughts they either did not feel comfortable sharing during the focus group session or may have thought of later.

### *Focus Groups*

The qualitative inquiry framework, focus groups, was used because of their success “to examine areas of concern that have considerable complexity and are typically dependent on motivational forces and characteristics of human behavior” (Krueger, 1994, p. 8). A focus group “is typically composed of seven to 10 participants who are selected because they have certain characteristics in common that relate to the topic of the focus group” (Krueger, 1994, p. 6). For this study, small focus groups comprising of seven to eight participants were to be used. They were all to be female Virginian philanthropists with a history of giving to the Virginia 4-H Foundation. Inquiry in each group focused on motivational factors and preferred solicitation and recognition driving their philanthropy, especially in regards to the Virginia 4-H Foundation.

Although some researchers advocate for a larger focus group of 10 or 12 participants, this study used three separate smaller groups. Several considerations supported this approach. Krueger (1994) noted that “[s]maller groups of five, six, or seven participants not only offer more opportunity for individuals to talk but are considerably more practical to set up and manage” (p. 9). Krueger warned against using solo focus groups because, with only one group, “moderators run the risk of encountering ‘cold’ groups—groups in which participants are quiet and seemingly reluctant to participate” (p. 17). Krueger adds, “focus groups can be influenced by internal or external factors that may cause one of the groups to yield extraordinary results” (p. 17). Accordingly, using three separate groups provides an important safeguard against abnormal results from a single group.

Focus groups were most suited for this study for a number of other reasons. The focus group is recommended by Shaw and Taylor (1995) for research in the field of female philanthropy. Shaw and Taylor point out that focus groups “are very popular with women, who have too seldom been asked for their opinions” (p. 142). The use of focus groups for this study was also consistent with setting a comfortable context for expressiveness or articulation by study

participants.

A well planned and effective focus group should not make participants feel “interrogated.” The objective is to facilitate the articulation of the subjects’ views on the topic. This is consistent with Rossman and Rallis’ idea that “the trick” in a focus group interview “is to promote participants’ talk through the creation of a permissive environment” (1998, p. 135). Krueger (1994) suggested eight focus group leader roles, “the seeker of wisdom,” “the enlightened novice,” “the expert consultant,” “the challenger,” “the referee,” “the writer,” “the team-discussion leader and technical expert,” and “the therapist.” The researcher’s role in this study was “the seeker of wisdom” regarding philanthropy and specifically the wisdom of female philanthropists. This role was methodologically significant for conducting the focus group discussions since it shaped the responses generated from the discussions.

Krueger argued that the “focus group...allows for group interaction and greater insight into why certain opinions are held” and that “focus group discussion is particularly effective in providing information about why people think or feel the way they do” (1994, p. 3). Since this study’s intent was to develop an understanding of why women donate to the Virginia 4-H Foundation versus other organizations and what would further encourage them to continue to donate, or to donate larger amounts, the focus group was the most suitable method for this research.

The focus group was methodologically suitable since it encouraged “self-disclosure among participants” (Krueger, 1994, p. 11). This impacted the study in two ways. First, the research objective was to identify the genuine views held by the study participants. Second, the researcher did not exercise power or influence over the participants. The participants were not obligated to respond to the research queries. There were no incentives offered for their views. It was crucial that the researcher approach them as a solicitor of opinions. The focus group provided an environment for women to share their views on giving. Since the process brought them together to discuss a common topic it promoted self-disclosure. A sense of commonality also enhanced deeper discussion.

The focus group also suited this study because it capitalized “on the strengths of the decision makers: knowledge of the program and an ability to talk to clientele” (Krueger, 1994, p. 10). Since every effort was made by the researcher to maintain objective professionalism, the researcher was well positioned to conduct focus group interviews due to the knowledge of the

Virginia 4-H Foundation and prior acquaintance with the women as donors. The researcher brought a unique intersection of knowledge about process and content to the focus group experience. The researcher's professional position is that of a State Program Leader for Virginia Cooperative Extension. In this capacity it is the researcher's professional role to establish state-wide programmatic direction for one of Extension's four program areas. Program direction is determined through a needs assessment based on multiple methodologies, including focus groups. The researcher has conducted focus groups over a career of 15 years and brought this experience to this study methodology.

The focus group brought the best qualities of the qualitative approach to the research. As Krueger (1994) has stated, "The technique is a socially oriented research method capturing real-life data in a social environment, possessing flexibility, high face validity, relatively low cost, potentially speedy results, and a capacity to increase the size of a qualitative study" (p. 37). While all of these traits supported the goals of the inquiry, the realistic gathering of the views of the female philanthropists in a relatively realistic setting was highly valued so "participants are influencing and influenced by others—just as they are in real life" (Krueger, 1994, p. 19). Since philanthropy is a highly social activity influenced by perceptions of social significance and status, ideas about it are perhaps most suitably gathered in a focus group environment. Due to the realistic nature of the experience, safeguards in the research design were observed to alleviate undue group pressures on individuals.

#### *Validation Questionnaire*

A validation questionnaire was utilized because it complemented the use of focus groups. Unlike the focus group, the validation questionnaire focused on individual participants. The validation questionnaire allowed the researcher to garner individual opinions. It also allowed respondents to check the researcher's statement of opinions from the focus group transcript for accuracy. If a participant felt information was omitted or misunderstood, details of the personal expressions could be provided on the questionnaire. Thus, the respondents validation questionnaire was an important crosscheck of the accuracy of the researcher's account of the focus group. Also, since opinions may transform during a focus group discussion, this post-facto questionnaire allowed participants to indicate if they experienced any change or development in their thoughts.

At the conclusion of each focus group session participants were informed that a

validation questionnaire would follow. Respondents were informed of the purpose of the validation questionnaire and encouraged to complete and return it to the researcher.

The validation questionnaire included the researcher's summation of responses for each question from the focus group in which the person participated. Participants were provided space following each question for comment. In addition to summarization of responses and space for input, the questionnaire included space for participants to provide additional information they felt appropriate to be included in this study.

The validation questionnaire was mailed via the U.S. Postal Service to each study participant within two weeks after the date of the focus group in which they were a participant. Participants were requested to return the questionnaire within a two-week time frame of receipt. Included with the validation questionnaire, participants were provided a pre-addressed, stamped envelope for ease of return to the researcher. Participants were also provided the email address of the researcher should they wish to return the questionnaire in this format.

#### *Participant Selection*

The key criteria for selecting subjects for this study were gender and philanthropic history with the Virginia 4-H Foundation. As a result, non-probability purposive sampling was utilized. Patton (1990) argued that “the logic and power of purposeful sampling lies in selecting *information-rich cases* for study in depth. Information-rich cases are those from which one can learn a great deal about issues of central importance to the purpose of the research,” (p. 169, emphasis in original).

Since theory development rather than statistical generalization was the aim of this study, “probabilistic sampling is not necessary or even justifiable” (Merriam, 1998, p. 61). Within non-probability sampling, purposeful sampling suited this inquiry because it “is based on the assumption that the investigator wants to discover, understand, and gain insight and therefore must select a sample from which the most can be learned” (Merriam, p. 61).

The execution of the sampling was a mix of “convenience” and “snowball” styles (Merriam, 1998, pp. 62, 63). Convenience sampling fit the study since the researcher knew the prospective interviewees through professional contact. Convenience sampling had been deemed suitable for exploratory research and developing general ideas. The advantage of this type of sampling included the interest and willingness of participants to engage in the research and easy access to the subjects.

The researcher knew the sample of interviewees through each other and through professional networking. The researcher was already forming a snowball sample which “involved asking each participant or group of participants to refer you to other participants” (Merriam, 1998, p. 63). In the words of Patton (1990), the researcher inadvertently identified the participants or “cases of interest from people who know people who know people who know what cases are information-rich, that is, good examples for study, good interview subjects” (p. 182).

Snowball sampling also helped overcome problems associated with sampling concealed populations (Faugier & Sargeant, 1997). It also has been argued that snowball sampling is part of a wider set of link-tracing methodologies (Spren, 1992) that take advantage of social networks of identified respondents providing a researcher with an ever-expanding set of potential contacts (Thomson, 1997). This process assumes a bond or link exists between the initial sample and others in the same target population, allowing a series of referrals to be made within a circle of acquaintance (Berg, 1988). The real promise of snowball sampling lies in uncovering aspects of social experience otherwise hidden from both the researcher’s and lay person’s view of social life. Female philanthropists appeared to be one of these hidden populations.

### Research Design

Yin (1989) defined research design as the logical sequence connecting the empirical data to a study’s initial research questions and its conclusions. A research design is an action plan for getting from here to there, where “here” is the initial set of questions to be answered, and “there” is a set of conclusions about those questions. The research design for this study had four central components: (1) Questions and Propositions, (2) Unit(s) of Analysis, (3) Analysis and Interpretation, and, (4) Conclusion.

#### *Questions and Propositions*

For this study, the key research questions explored why women make philanthropic contributions generally, and specifically to the Virginia 4-H Foundation. As Merriam (1998) has suggested, qualitative research “is designed to inductively build rather than to test concepts, hypotheses, and theories” (p. 45). This researcher was guided by Shaw and Taylor’s (1995) proposition that if there are universals in what motivates women to give, they can be summed up in six categories, all beginning with the letter C: the desire to change, create, connect, commit, collaborate, and celebrate their philanthropic accomplishments. (p. 88)

Links were made between study results pertaining to the Virginia 4-H Foundation and the general propositions put forth by Shaw and Taylor. This linking was particularly relevant to the proposition concerning the desire to “connect,” as Shaw and Taylor have argued that “Women want to feel connected with an organization when they give money” (p. 90). In other words, the researcher considered whether the women interviewed felt connected with the Virginia 4-H Foundation and then determined what sort of connection they prefer. Shaw and Taylor (1995) provided suggested questions that should be considered for inclusion when developing focus group interview guides for use with female groups. Their recommendations were incorporated into this study.

### *Units of Analysis*

There were two primary units of analysis for this study. The first, responses from three sets of women in focus group interviews where informal written notes were also taken. The second, individual responses, were gained through a focus group validation questionnaire. Written notes capturing the group as a unit of analysis are deemed “essential” by Krueger (1994), who quotes Murphy’s Law “that the most insightful comment will be lost when the tape is being switched or when background noise drowns out voices on the tape” (p. 111). Written notes of content and observations complemented audiotapes and transcripts. The audiotapes also complemented the transcripts since they contained tonal and other contextual clues not found in transcripts.

The questionnaire following the focus group interviews presented key questions raised by the focus groups. It also contained a summary of the findings from the focus groups. This feedback gave participants an opportunity to reflect on their experience and to interpret the discussion, and to make any corrections from their perspective. The questionnaire also gave participants a final opportunity to share comments or concerns that arose since the group meeting or offer thoughts and comments they were uncomfortable sharing publicly.

### *Analysis and Interpretation*

Merriam (1998) has defined “data analysis” as a “process of making sense out of data” (p. 192). In her view, “it can be limited to determining how best to arrange the material into a narrative account of the findings. More commonly, researchers extend analysis to developing categories, themes, or other taxonomic classes that interpret the meaning of the data” (p. 192).

The data analysis for this study was therefore a close, sensitive, and yet alert, reading of the transcribed texts against the audiotapes. This included the researcher's memory of the actual discussions, awareness of the Virginia 4-H Foundation, and research thematic categories from the literature. Nevertheless, for the sake of simplicity and communicability of the research results, initial efforts were made to classify individual responses from the focus group interview texts, audiotapes, validation questionnaire, and informal notes within the context of the five research questions. Since close attention was focused on the story or expressive aspect of the responses the approach was similar to "narrative analysis" (Merriam, 1998, p. 157).

The act of classifying data into categories was consistent with what Merriam would call interpretation because the classification reflected the particular objectives of this research. The responses themselves, on the other hand, may be viewed as relatively freewheeling reactions to a set of themes. Interpretation, in this sense, was a matter of orienting the data toward the objectives of the study without biasing the interpretation. As the interpreter, the researcher reviewed the data for those expressions of relevance to the research objectives and also expressions that confound the objectives.

With two units of analysis, the researcher developed a holistic sense of female perspectives overall and individual differences or stances of respondents. Instead of approaching the responses with a fixed set of interpretative rules, the responses stood individually for the researcher as interpreter. However, no reader approaches a text without preconceptions. This researcher, instead of believing that a pre-existing set of interpretative laws leads to the meaning of what is said, believed that newer, challenging ideas might be shared by the respondents. The researcher was prepared for these ideas invitingly. This stance helped guard the researcher against the "danger" noted by Seidman (1998) of trying to force excerpts into preconceived categories. Rather, the researcher allowed categories to develop from the experience of the participants as presented in the interviews.

Seidman further asserts that the reason a researcher spends so much time in conversation with participants is to learn of their experiences and to discover from them the meaning they make of the experience. The researcher can then make connections among the experiences of people who share the same structure.

## *Conclusion*

Merriam (1998) stated that by reducing and refining categories and their properties, then linking them together by tentative hypothesis, the researcher is moving analysis of the data toward the development of a theory explaining a large number of phenomena and defining how they are related.

The research design for this study included a “third level of analysis.” In addition to highlighting argumentative and ideological commonalties *and* differences among the participants’ viewpoints on issues of central importance to this study’s objectives, the findings of the study were also contextualized within pre-existing research on female philanthropy. The findings suggest implications for future research and policy reform, especially for the Virginia 4-H Foundation and similar organizations. Grounding the findings in pre-existing research on female philanthropy, although limited, accords more general meaning and relevance to responses received through this study and contributed to external validity.

## Validity

### *Validity: Internal*

The internal validity of this study was enhanced by ensuring the overall project was soundly planned, the focus group interviews and validation questionnaire were rigorously constructed, and both the procedures and the findings were trustworthy. Guba and Lincoln (1985) suggested establishing the internal validity of a study by ensuring “the content of the documents” is “properly analyzed,” and “the conclusions of the case study rest upon data” (p. 378). The above traits are perhaps best summed up by Kvale’s (1996) idea that validity concerns the “quality of craftsmanship” of research that makes defensible knowledge claims.

Merriam (1998) suggested six strategies to ensure qualitative research has high internal validity: “triangulation,” “member checks,” “long-term observation,” “peer examination,” “participatory or collaborate modes of research,” and a “bold attempt at transparency” (pp. 204-205). Project resource constraints ruled out “long-term observation” of the study participants’ evolving attitudes toward philanthropy. The timeline for the inquiry also prevented “repeated observations” of the subjects “over a period of time in order to increase the validity of the findings” as Merriam’s strategy of “long-term observation” stipulates (p. 204). Similarly a full-

blown participatory or collaborative mode of research was not viable although there were several points of close contact between the researcher and the study participants. However, the other four strategies that Merriam has suggested were employed.

Triangulation, or the use of “multiple methods,” was employed since the study included focus group interviews to seek the study participants’ opinion on the issue of female philanthropy, observations of focus groups, and a formal written validation questionnaire (Merriam, 1998, p. 204). The questionnaire confirmed claims that study participants made through the focus group interviews. This triangulation strategy was important since there were multiple units of analysis. As noted in the section titled “Units of Analysis,” both audiotapes and transcripts of the focus group discussions, the researcher’s informal written notes and observations from the interviews, and texts of the discussants individual responses to the validation questionnaire were reviewed. These various units of analysis increased the overall internal validity of the study.

Gathering individual data after the group interviews served as member checks. Merriam (1998) has defined this as “taking data and tentative interpretations back to the people from whom they were derived and asking them if the results are plausible” (p. 204).

The researcher also used peer examination by seeking peer review on the focus group structure and questions from three professional fundraisers from the Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University College of Agriculture and Life Sciences development office. One of these professional fundraisers is female. Fundraising for the Virginia 4-H Foundation is under the purview of this office, so these professionals were knowledgeable peer examiners.

When the interview guide was developed, it was pilot tested with five female Virginia 4-H volunteers. The researcher conducted a mock focus group with these volunteers, along with a female State 4-H Specialist to verify understanding and relevance of questions being asked. The pilot also afforded the researcher the opportunity to practice the focus group session. Volunteers and the 4-H Specialist provided positive input as to understanding, flow and relation of questions being asked.

Research methods, findings, and implications also underwent review by dissertation committee members to contribute toward the study’s validity. “Clarifying assumptions, worldview, and theoretical orientation at the outset of the study” as defined by Merriam (1998, p. 205) was accomplished in Chapter 1 and Chapter 2.

Another way to ensure the internal validity of the study was holding three small focus groups rather than one large group. Multiple groups enabled the researcher to counterbalance, crosscheck, or account for any group that was unusually reticent or might have made idiosyncratic claims. This framework also ensured an automatic and general critical comparison among the three focus group interviews, thus ensuring a higher validity for data interpretations than one large group would allow.

#### *Validity: External*

According to Merriam (1998), external validity is “the extent to which the findings of one study can be applied to other situations” (p. 207). External validity as an issue of generalization has been conceptualized in a variety of ways. Cronbach (1975) and Donmoyer (1990) framed generalization as working hypotheses noting that: “When we give proper weight to local conditions, any generalization is a working hypothesis, not a conclusion” (pp. 124-125). Erickson (1986) suggested concrete universals, “arrived at by studying a specific case in great detail and then comparing it with other case studies in equally great detail” (p. 130). Stake (1978) proposed naturalistic generalization of data that shifts the responsibility of generalizing to the reader or user of a study. “Full and thorough knowledge of the particular,” he argued, lets one see similarities “in new and foreign contexts” (p. 6). Walker (1980) also suggested the responsibility to generalize is the role of the reader or user of a study. “It is the reader who has to ask, what is there in this study that I can apply to my own situation...?” (p. 34).

This researcher viewed external validity not as a matter of raw data, but of what the researcher did with the data to make it relevant to the general research theme as well as what future researchers would do with the research findings. The latter depends on the role of the readership, as some methodological researchers, noted above, have argued. Given that the researcher’s viewpoint, analysis, and interpretation of the data were situated within existing research on female philanthropy, this approach yielded a meaningful contribution within an expanding constellation of studies devoted to female philanthropy. The researcher ensured high external validity for this study by providing rich, accurate profiles of the focus-group participants’ experiences. These descriptions allow readers “to determine how closely their situations match the research situation, and hence, whether findings can be transferred” (Merriam, 1998, p. 211). This practice is consistent with Seidman’s (1998) thoughts on the validity of an interview study:

Because hypotheses were not being tested, the issue was not whether the researcher could generalize the findings of an interview study to a broader population. Instead the researcher presented the experience of the people interviewed in compelling enough detail and in sufficient depth that those who read the study can connect to that experience, learn how it is constituted, and deepen their understanding of the issue it reflects (p. 44).

With this in mind, the external validity of this study rested on a thorough, analytical, and highly readable articulation of the study participants' viewpoints. The readability of the analysis contributed to the external validity of the study through its appeal to the reader.

### Procedures

The prospective study subjects received a letter from Robert R. Meadows, Associate Director, Virginia Cooperative Extension (VCE), 4-H, explaining the research and requesting their participation. Directions were provided and participants were asked to respond to Dr. Meadows via email, telephone, or by a pre-addressed stamped envelope and response card. Those expressing an interest in participating were grouped by regions of the state and invited to a tea hosted by a female donor in her home. The tea hostess sent a formal invitation for the focus group in her area.

The focus groups were organized in Fall 2006 in various locations across Virginia. Taking advantage of the researcher's acquaintance with select female donors and their personal interest in the research project, each agreed to host a tea, and to personally invite a given set of fellow study participants to the tea, which ended with the focus group conversation. The invitations, aesthetically designed, were in writing.

Organizing a focus group interview at a study participant's residence may seem unconventional and problematic; however, the approach suited studying the unconventional subject of female philanthropy. Shaw and Taylor (1995) favored precisely this kind of format and ambience, writing that

women regard focus groups as entertainment and a way to get together with other women not only to express their views but also to hear what the others have to say. Focus groups nowadays seem to be taking the place of coffees, luncheons, and receptions because they recognize the importance of women's values, help raise consciousness, and build self-confidence (p. 142).

In summary, the tea provided convenience for all involved in the study and stood in opposition to the rigidities of egocentric frameworks of interaction typically associated with the patriarchal world. This choice of venue allowed for conducting research within the women's own environment, and in a subjective and communal space. The format also reflected the snowball sampling since the invited study participants were individuals the researcher met through the other study participants.

During the focus groups, the researcher was a curious, respectful, but alert facilitator. When refreshments were served and the group was seated, the hostess reminded everyone of the purpose of the tea, introduced the researcher, and asked participants to introduce themselves briefly to the group. The researcher expressed appreciation of the attendees' participation, and explained that the meeting was being held to share and elaborate upon their feelings toward their philanthropic behavior in support of the Virginia 4-H Foundation.

As facilitator, the researcher followed the advice given by Shaw and Taylor (1995) that the facilitator ask the questions and be prepared to give some examples or analogies. Each person had an opportunity to respond to at least the first question. This helped make people comfortable, and the dialogue began. The focus group leader was cautious of people trying to dominate the conversation, remained aware of how long each person was speaking, and moved the discussion along. While keeping the discussion flexible and the questions as open-ended as possible, the researcher followed Krueger's advice that questions be fielded "in a focused sequence that seems logical to participants" (1994, p. 67).

Focus groups were audio recorded and transcribed, using a model M-2000 Sony Microcassette-Transcriber. This machine is small and has voice activation capability which allowed the tape to run only when engaging in conversation. A video camera was not be used because it was felt it could be distracting. This decision was consistent with Krueger's (1995) advice that "the true benchmark is the quality of the discussion, which can easily erode when participants are overly fascinated, annoyed, or distracted by such devices as one-way mirrors, television cameras, and knobs and buttons" (p. 10).

Transcription of the focus groups was completed by a professional with previous research transcription experience. This individual was fully aware of the importance of professional confidentiality; however, as a safeguard against identification of any study participant, participants were identified only by the initial of her last name for accurate, but confidential

identification of her voice throughout the transcription. Only this initial was used to reference or document participant discussion. In the event an initial was common to more than one participant, a combination of the participants' first and last initials was used. Only the other study participants, the hired assistant, and the researcher know the participants' full names. Due to the social nature of the study experience and the fact that participants gathered for a social time in advance of the actual focus group, introductions could not be avoided. The social activity allowed female participants to interact with one another and by doing so, facilitated a key recommendation of Shaw and Taylor (1995).

Study participants were made aware of the need for names and information shared to remain in confidence. To protect the identities of the study participants, the tapes, transcripts, and research notes were locked in a filing cabinet in the researcher's private office on the campus of Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University during data analysis. Access to this cabinet was limited to the researcher. Following analysis, the audio tapes, notes, and transcripts will be preserved in the researcher's bank safety deposit box for five years, after which time the material will be destroyed.

### *The Interview Guide*

Patton (1990) has explained that an interview guide is a listing of questions, in order, to be asked during an interview. Although questions are pre-determined, the qualitative nature of focus groups allows the researcher to pursue unanticipated topics participants may bring up and serves to keep the interview on schedule.

Questions included in the interview guide reflect the interest of the researcher and study stakeholders as well as reflect the literature related to the focus of the study (Yow, 1994). In order to assure that the interview guide for this projected study met the expectations of stakeholders, a focus group was conducted with the Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University College of Agriculture and Life Sciences Development staff. Input from this group of three professional development officers was utilized in drafting the interview guide for this study. The focus group interview guide used with the development staff is included as Appendix A. Specifically, the stakeholder focus group interview guide was developed to address the following questions:

1. In your opinion, what giving experiences should be explored with female donors?
2. If you were conducting this study, what topics would you address?

3. What information do you feel would be beneficial to development officers from this study?

Table 2 lists questions of interest expressed during the focus group.

Table 2

*Key Questions Identified for the Study from the Professional Stakeholder Focus Group*

---

1. How can we assure that female donors know their gift makes a difference?
2. Do female donors want to be involved with the Foundation? Should we involve them in volunteer roles? Are there other ways we can involve them so they see their money in action?
3. Do women want to be a part of conversations related to the program their money will benefit?
4. Do they want to know the objectives of the department and then recommend programmatic responses they would like to see created via their gifts?
5. Is it important that we connect the donors with the people that they are impacting with their gift? Should we give them an opportunity to guide the process (give them some ownership)?
6. What makes the donors feel good about their gift?

---

*Note:* Development officers for the Virginia Tech College of Agriculture and Life Sciences were included in a focus group and asked what questions they would like to explore as part of this study.

Additionally, Shaw and Taylor (1995) provided a list of questions for consideration when conducting a focus group discussion devoted to the topic of female philanthropy. Shaw and Taylor based their recommendations on work with over 150 women philanthropists they interacted with either through discussions, focus groups or interviews. Recommended questions include:

1. What kind of solicitation do you like the least?
2. What characteristics of an organization are important to as you make your decisions about giving?
3. Once you give to an organization, how likely are you to continue giving to the same organization? Why?
4. What do you like about the Virginia 4-H Foundation?
5. What do we need to do to improve the organization?
6. What information do you get about [the organization]? Does it match your

areas of interest? (p. 145)

Combining results of the stakeholder focus group, recommendations of Shaw and Taylor, and variables identified in the literature, the interview guide was developed and is included as Appendix B. Questions one and two of the interview guide deal with factors or motivations that lead to charitable giving by female philanthropists. More specifically, these questions enabled the researcher to explore expectations donors have as a result of their giving; not only what they expect to personally receive or feel, but what expectations they have of the organization as a result of their gift. To guide or probe responses the researcher utilized factors derived from the literature.

Mount's theory of personal donorship was applied in asking how the five identified variables of involvement, predominance, self-interest, means, and past behavior impacted a decision to give. Additionally, Kelly's (1991) theory of donor relationships was utilized as a probe since the theory implies that gifts are a result of the relationship the donor has with the organization.

Probes were also derived from the literature related to giving impacting the donors' reputation, the donor receiving social acclaim, the gift providing social acclaim to the donor, the avoidance of the scorn of others by giving, the prestige associated with giving, warm glow from giving, the feeling of having done one's part, or the feeling of giving back.

Interview guide questions, along with their relation to research objectives is listed in Table 3. A detailed discussion follows the table.

Table 3.

*Interview Guide Questions and their Relation to Research Objectives*

Interview Guide Question	Research Objective Addressed
1. Each of us share a unique characteristic; we are all philanthropists. We have all contributed financially to the Virginia 4-H Foundation, and some of us have contributed to other organizations including our church, or alma mater or other nonprofit organization(s). Share with me your thoughts on being a philanthropist. More specifically, why are you a philanthropist?	Why women give financially to charitable organizations, more specifically, why Virginia 4-H?
2. Looking at the Virginia 4-H Foundation as a recipient of your gift, a) Tell me about the most important factor that influenced your decision to give to 4-H. b) Were there other factors influencing your decision to contribute to 4-H? c) Have you made charitable gifts to other organizations? If so, did you give to these organizations for reasons different than those of 4-H? If so, what?	Why women give financially to charitable organizations, more specifically, why Virginia 4-H?
3. How important are the following to you in the decision to make a financial gift to an organization: (use the following to probe or explore where needed/if responses haven't included or addressed or if additional information/clarification is needed related to any factor).	Factors impacting satisfaction with giving. Giving at higher or lower levels
4. How many of you have given multiple gifts to the 4-H Foundation? a) If you have given multiple gifts, were your subsequent gifts at higher or lower levels? b) Why did you make subsequent gifts? c) Were there specific reasons that your subsequent gifts were at higher or lower levels? Did 4-H provide you with, or do anything that helped you decide or feel that additional gifts were needed? d) Those who have not made more than one gift to 4-H, what could 4-H do to encourage a second gift?	Factors impacting satisfaction with giving. Giving at higher or lower levels
5. Let's assume that you were asked by Virginia 4-H to ask other women for gifts, and you agreed to do so, tell me how you would fulfill this task. Please design and share with me your ideal solicitation technique. Include any information you would provide prospective donors, how you would approach them, what you would offer them, etc.	Impact of solicitation techniques. Preferred solicitation techniques.
6. Now that we have solicited the gift, we need to recognize these women and their gift. a. How important is recognition to you? b. Is recognition best in the form of something tangible or intangible? c. How has recognition impacted your decision to give? d. How do you think Virginia 4-H should recognize donors?	Impact of recognition. Preferred method of recognition.
7. Are there any questions you have or additional comments you would like to make?	Opportunity to share additional information or suggest additional questions participants feel will be beneficial to the study.
8. Is there additional information any of you feel should be included in my study?	Opportunity to share additional information or suggest additional questions participants feel will be beneficial to the study.
9. Are there any questions I didn't ask that I should have asked? What are they? How would you have answered them?	Opportunity to share additional information or suggest additional questions participants feel will be beneficial to the study.

Questions one and two of the interview guide addressed the research objective of examining why women give financially to charitable organization, more specifically, why they give to Virginia 4-H.

Questions three and four of the interview guide addressed research objectives two and three by examining factors impacting satisfaction with giving, and factors impacting a decision to give again, and to possibly give secondary gifts at higher levels. Again with this question, Kelly's theory of relationships could be used as a probe. The six Cs of giving as identified by Shaw and Taylor (1995), allowed the researcher to examine their impact on a decision to give, and to give again.

Question five in the interview guide examined the impact of solicitation techniques on the decision to give, and provided the opportunity for participants to share their preferred method of solicitation and to design a gender sensitive solicitation model. Question five addressed research objective four: when being asked to give, does the solicitation method impact the decision to give, and is there a preferred solicitation technique.

Question six for the focus group interview examined recognition and allowed the researcher to apply probes as needed to elicit participants' views on appropriate recognition and if recognition can be tangible, intangible, or both. Ultimately, question six allowed study participants to share thoughts on how the Virginia 4-H Foundation should recognize donors. Question six addressed research objective five: does recognition or other personal goal(s) influence a decision to give and if so, are there desired types of recognition.

Questions seven, eight, and nine provided an opportunity for participants to share additional information or suggest additional questions they feel will benefit the study.

### *Institutional Review Board*

Protocols of the Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University Institute Review Board (IRB) were followed in this study. The purpose of the IRB is to assure the safety of human subjects in research conducted by faculty, staff, and students of the University. Since this study did not involve children, experimental drugs and/or treatments, nor did it employ invasive procedures, or involve deceit, the study qualified for exempt status. Per requirements of the IRB, an application for exempt status was submitted for review (see Appendix F), and approved (see Appendix G).

## Summary of the Methodology

The methodology for this study combined focus groups and a validation questionnaire. Focus groups were appropriate for this study since they allowed the researcher to learn first-hand from participants what it means to them to be philanthropic. Through a guided conversation, the researcher could also ask topical questions and probes to discover specific information in a given area. Three focus groups were conducted across Virginia with women who had a history of giving to the Virginia 4-H Foundation. Three female Foundation donors agreed to host the groups in their homes, and include a tea or luncheon. Three locations allowed for studying a diverse group of female philanthropists. The validation questionnaire facilitated gathering and affirming specific female perspectives on giving.

The interview guide for each focus group contained nine questions with related probing questions. This guide was based upon a review of literature, specifically the six Cs of female philanthropy as presented by Shaw and Taylor (1995) through their pivotal work with female philanthropists. Fishbein's Expectancy-Value Model was used as the framework for the study. The model illustrates that actions are a result of a person's expectancy gratification. Understanding what type of gratification women donors prefer and the value they place on the gratification drove this study. Stakeholder input into the development of the guide was facilitated via a focus group session with members of the development staff of the Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University College of Agriculture and Life Sciences.

Each focus group was audio taped and transcribed by a hired assistant who attended each session and took notes. As a follow-up to each focus group, the researcher compiled results for each question and sent these findings in a validation questionnaire to each participant from their respective session for review and input. Participants could provide additional information they did not share during the focus group or may not have been comfortable sharing. Regardless of additional input, participants were asked to provide affirmation of findings to the researcher by mail, email, or telephone call.

Because the questions and probes may have provided insights into more than one of the five research questions for the study, the research questions, rather than the interview guide, was used to organize the presentation of findings. The research questions follow:

1. Why do women give financially to charitable organizations? Why Virginia 4-H?
2. What factors impact female donors' satisfaction with giving?

3. What factors influence the decision to give to an organization repeatedly? If a second gift was at a higher level, what key factors led to the larger gift?
4. When being asked to give, does the solicitation method impact the decision to give? Is there a preferred solicitation technique?
5. Does recognition or other personal goal(s) influence a decision to give? Are there desired types of recognition for giving?

Data were analyzed and findings developed from two perspectives: a) a descriptive summary of the responses pertinent to each research question; and b) classification of focus group data into the six Cs of giving as proposed by Shaw and Taylor. This same sequence was used to present the findings.

## CHAPTER 4

### FINDINGS

This chapter presents findings related to this study of female donor support for the Virginia 4-H Foundation. A qualitative research approach was used to understand why women give to Virginia 4-H and what contributed to or detracted from their satisfaction. The findings were generated in November 2006 through three focus group interviews involving 32 participants and a validation questionnaire.

The focus group methodology was successful and consistent with recommendations of Shaw and Taylor in that the structure established a comfortable context for expressiveness and articulation by the female donors. The women were open and frank with their opinions which contributed depth and breadth to the study findings.

Following the focus group interviews with Virginia 4-H Foundation donors, the researcher sent participants from each group a summary of the questions asked and associated responses. Participants were encouraged to add comments that may have been omitted, reflections they had after the interview session, or comments they felt uncomfortable mentioning during the focus group. Twenty-two of the 32 study participants returned the validation questionnaire for a response rate of 69%. All 22 validation questionnaires confirmed the initial findings presented by the researcher. The 10 participants that did not respond to the validation questionnaire were contacted via telephone by their respective focus group hostess. All 10 expressed agreement with initial findings; however, because they did not formally respond to the researcher they were not included in the response count.

The interview guide for the focus group sessions included nine questions and related probes (see Appendix B for focus group questions). Because the questions and probes may have provided insights into more than one of the five research questions for this study, the research questions, rather than the interview guide, will be used to organize the presentation of findings. The research questions follow:

1. Why do women give financially to charitable organizations? Why Virginia 4-H?
2. What factors impact female donors' satisfaction with giving?
3. What factors influence the decision to give to an organization repeatedly? If a second gift was at a higher level, what key factors led to the larger gift?

4. When being asked to give, does the solicitation method impact the decision to give?  
Is there a preferred solicitation technique?
5. Does recognition or other personal goal(s) influence a decision to give? Are there desired types of recognition for giving?

Data were analyzed and findings developed from two perspectives: a) a descriptive summary of the responses pertinent to each research question; and b) classification of focus group data into the six Cs of giving as proposed by Shaw and Taylor (1995). This same sequence is used to present the findings.

### *Descriptive Summary of the Research Questions*

Following are descriptive summaries of the findings related to each research question. Direct quotes elucidate the findings. To maintain the anonymity of the study participants, a number was assigned to each focus group participant.

#### *Research Question 1: Why do Women Give Financially to Charitable Organizations? Why Virginia 4-H?*

The philanthropic motivations expressed by individual focus group participants varied, but there was consistency among all groups that they gave based upon a desire to give back or repay benefits received. They also consistently reported that they gave because of the good feeling they received. The realization that they contributed toward another person's benefit, or that their gift contributed to the satisfaction of another, produced an internal feeling or emotion important to these donors. Yet that "good" feeling was balanced by an expectation or assumption of a personal responsibility to give.

The donors reflected that they frequently gave to signal or validate commitment to organizations whose vision they share. Other reasons cited for giving included compassion or caring for others as well as the desire to bring about change and to make a difference in the lives of others. As an extension of the focus on individual change, many of the study participants indicated that giving was motivated by a strong sense of community and the desire to support community-based efforts.

Table 4 illustrates common themes identified by study participants regarding their reasons for giving to charitable organizations including the Virginia 4-H Foundation. Focus group(s) during which the themes or common ways of thinking were identified are indicated by an X. A discussion of each theme follows.

Table 4

*Themes Explaining Why Women Give*

Reason for Giving	Theme Identified in:		
	Group 1	Group 2	Group 3
Give Back	X	X	X
Good Feeling	X	X	X
Responsibility-Expectation	X	X	X
Commitment	X	X	X
Compassion-Care	X	X	X
Change	X	X	X
Community	X	X	X

*Giving back.* As previously mentioned in this study, Boulding (1981) referred to giving back as serial reciprocity. Serial reciprocity occurs when people repay the benefits they have received, by providing benefits to a third party, or someone other than the benefactor. Findings from this study are consistent with Boulding’s definition, in that of the 32 study participants, 26, or 81%, shared giving back as a reason they gave to nonprofit organizations. Sometimes this meant their reason for giving was to give back to the community where they currently live or grew up, and other times it meant they gave to organizations through which they personally derived benefit.

Participants shared experiences of their involvement in 4-H and indicated that 4-H involvement changed their life or contributed to their success as an adult. This involvement and change was identified as a reason for giving. Participants discussed the 4-H legacy and shared stories of their parents and/or grandparents being 4-H members or volunteers, and told how 4-H had positively impacted their lives. Several donors were overwhelmed with emotion when they

shared their 4-H experiences and mentioned a desire to repay, or give back to 4-H, to assure that other youth and families have these same opportunities. This sentiment resonated throughout all three focus group conversations, as illustrated by the following comments:

I was a 4-H member, a 4-H community club leader, an advisory board member, and I am a 4-H All-Star. 4-H played a significant role in my upbringing. The life skills I learned through participation in 4-H are too numerous to ever be able to share. When I grew up, a girl had limited career choices—secretary, teacher, or nurse. However, my role models were the county extension agents. I saw them as people who made learning fun. As the years have passed, I am still a supporter of 4-H and its mission...I want to assure that kids today have this same opportunity (17).

4-H was a big part of me learning how to be a leader. I attribute my business success to my training in 4-H. 4-H was alive, it was fun, it was an ‘in thing.’ I help with 4-H because I value what they teach; I value children (28).

Another participant added:

I was a 4-Her as a child and feel that 4-H helped contribute to who I am today. If it were not for many of the skills given and enhanced by 4-H, I would not be the woman I am today (6).

Another donor shared her strong belief in the 4-H program and the benefits she had seen it provide to youth with whom she is familiar:

I have seen what 4-H does in the lives of kids. The ones that participate in 4-H and become leaders time and time again tribute 4-H as contributing to their success. I give to keep 4-H here. Here in my community (12).

Several participants shared that they grew up in rural or isolated areas with little or no contact with the outside world. They shared stories of not having transportation to participate in activities outside of school. Because 4-H was a part of the in-school curriculum, they were able to participate. Many participants referred specifically to their 4-H projects and one shared that “making a presentation to my class and then to my school taught me self confidence. I won my school competition, and then went to district and ultimately state. I didn’t win at state, but the experience changed me” (2).

Similarly, another donor shared:

I went to Congress at Virginia Tech because of my winning presentation. I had never even been outside [my hometown]. I couldn't believe it when I got to Tech. The buildings were huge, the people were nice, and I knew then, I wanted more. Because of going to Congress, I decided I was going to attend Tech, which I did, and I am now a successful woman. Gosh, I would have never had the courage to stand up, let alone attend Virginia Tech, had it not been for 4-H. I want to give this same opportunity to other girls...I want 4-H to change them the way it did me (24).

*Good feeling.* According to female donors in this study, they are motivated to give in response to the private, intrinsic good feeling they get. Consistent with theory previously mentioned in this study, an individual's welfare is dependent upon not only his own needs and the needs of others, but his contributions to the needs of others (Arrow, 1974). In other words, a donor is motivated to give not only because of the increase in another person's satisfaction, but also from knowing that he/she contributed to that satisfaction.

Andreoni (1989) suggested that people may experience a "warm glow" or "good feeling" from having contributed to the satisfaction of another, which the women in this study confirmed. One donor shared, "when I give, I get a warm, fuzzy feeling, knowing my money will make someone happy and help someone besides myself" (25). Another shared, "I get good feelings by helping those in need, and doing good for others" (27). Another donor added, "I give because it just feels right. It's the right thing to do, and I feel good knowing I've put in my share" (4).

These statements were echoed throughout each focus group session by comments and gestures of agreement. Although donors did not expound on this factor with great spoken detail, their statements of "yes," and "I agree," confirmed that the donors in this study make financial contributions toward others' satisfaction and are motivated by the warm or good feeling they get from knowing they contributed to the satisfaction of others.

*Responsibility-expectation.* Participants described giving as an expectation or responsibility instilled in them through family or other significant people in their lives. The women felt it was their responsibility to provide support for those less fortunate than themselves and to make their communities a better place to live. Participants related that they were taught to give through life experiences, especially through their religious expectations.

Religion or religious beliefs was a common theme throughout the focus group sessions.

One participant stated, “I think my religious background has a lot to do with my giving. Have God provide for you ten-fold the amount you give or do for others is a pretty sobering concept” (16).

Several participants described their giving or tithing as biblically based; an expectation or responsibility to share their wealth or resources with others. One donor referred to giving as her “calling” (32). Another donor shared, “Having a serving attitude, philanthropy just comes naturally for me. I have been blessed and it is my duty to assist others and share those blessings” (7). Another donor shared,

My giving is biblically based. I give a percentage of my gifts to further the Lord’s work. Helping youth, widows, and others in need is an expectation...that’s why we have been given the resources. God tells us to do so in the Bible (2).

A focus group participant summarized her giving, based upon the biblical application and her view of giving as a responsibility, as “a woman’s calling” (32).

*Commitment.* Women in each focus group explained their giving as a form of commitment to others. They explained that they give to organizations because they are committed to the mission of the organization, or share the organization’s vision. The donors specifically discussed 4-H and other youth serving organizations as recipients of their gifts. Donors indicated giving to 4-H, Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, and Boys and Girls Club, all because of their commitment to and focus on youth.

The donors also shared a commitment to supporting organizations that “assist the elderly” (9) and those they [the donors] view as less fortunate than themselves. One donor shared, Demonstrating my commitment to what the organization is all about through my gift is important to me. I’m committed to the same issues they are. I am especially committed to helping those organizations that benefit those less fortunate than I (1).

*Compassion-care.* Schervish and Havens (2003) stated that care radiates from the self, and the context in which care is first learned is that of family relationships. Care ultimately expands to include others in a person’s network, such as friends, neighbors, and associates. The manner in which care is expressed can be directly through interpersonal care or indirectly through nonprofit organizations, and may even extend further to nations, communities, or organized groups. The women in this study illustrated

that they give to express compassion and care for others. Participants discussed giving as an expression of their “motherly instinct to have compassion for others and to show that they care” (22).

*Change.* Results of this study indicate that the women interviewed place great value on creating change and are more likely to respond positively to requests for support when they know their gift will enable change or make a difference in the lives of others. Likewise, the women shared that they are not inspired to give when their gift will be used to maintain the status quo. The following quotes illustrate this finding:

I’m all for helping someone have a better life and for helping them do things that they otherwise could never do. I want to give people a chance to change. I want to help them go to places they have never gone and do things they have never done. That’s how we learn. That’s how I learned; I learned from doing. I want to help kids go to school. I want to see the change education and exposure makes in their life, and I want to be a part of the change (14).

When I was in 4-H we learned how to cook and how to sew. These skills were important for girls at that time, but times have changed. Now children need to know how to operate computers, they need to know how to navigate in a global economy, they need to know how to survive. I give to support education that helps the children change. I give to fund programs and initiatives that empower children and change their lives (9).

Through 4-H, children in my small community are able to do things that they have never done before. 4-H is making a difference in their lives (23).

Kids learn things through 4-H that change their lives. They meet and form friendships that last forever. They come to do a presentation with their little trembling hands, but they learn. The next time you see them do a presentation, they’re like a pro. You see the change that 4-H makes and that’s why I give (5). Supporting young women particularly in leadership roles is important. This helps prepare them for the future so they can be and do whatever it is they want (18).

Findings also indicate that female donors want to see or to be a part of the change their money brings about. They are, therefore, more likely to be motivated to give monies that support local programming, as noted by one donor, “I want to create change, and I

want to see it. That's why I give locally (3). Another donor stated,

People need so much that the government just isn't providing any more. They can't better themselves or do better for their families if we don't help them change. I give my money to help people change and better themselves when they can't get anyone else to help them. I support the literacy group, and there isn't anything better than hearing someone learn to read. I support these local groups so I can see and hear the difference my gift makes (8).

*Community.* Findings of this study indicate a strong sense of community and a preference to support local programs and organizations. Participants shared that they are motivated to give by a desire to build their community and give local residents opportunities. Results of this study indicate that women are more likely to give to organizations that impact their personal community versus giving to a larger organization that serves multiple areas. One woman stated, "I give because I see a need locally, and give to make it better" (14). Another stated, "I give to the local Cancer Society, American Heart Association, American Veterans, fire departments and rescue squads. I give because of compassion, but it's also good business, making a financial investment in these local services" (30).

Many of the women shared their perspectives related to the advantages of living in their community, and expressed giving as a result of the desire to improve the quality of life in their communities even further, as illustrated by the following comments:

I had so many opportunities by growing up in [name of community], and I can't imagine raising my kids anywhere else. I give back to my community because I want my kids and grandkids to have the same benefits that I had from living in [name of community]. Our government doesn't provide the money for all the services we have, so we have to help fund them. I give to keep my community alive. I give so we can bring big plays and other cultural activities into [name of community] and we don't have to go to [name of neighboring city] (20).

### *Research Question 2: What Factors Impact Female Donors' Satisfaction with Giving?*

Results of this study consistently indicated that women are satisfied with giving when they know and can trust that the organization(s) to which they donated are acting as good stewards of their gift(s). Women indicated that their satisfaction increased by being involved with the donor organization through activities such as serving on the board of directors, serving

on committees, or volunteering as an instructor.

Another contributor to the women’s satisfaction with giving was the knowledge that their gift(s) had impact or brought about positive change. As discussed previously, knowledge that the gift had impact or brought about change could occur through direct contact with the benefactor or through communication or contact with the organization. Personal acknowledgement of the gift was a final factor in donor satisfaction.

Table 5 illustrates common themes the study participants identified as affecting their satisfaction with giving. Focus group(s) during which the themes were identified are indicated by an X. A discussion of each theme follows.

Table 5

*Themes Related to Factors Impacting Satisfaction with Giving*

Factor Impacting Satisfaction	Theme Identified in:		
	Group 1	Group 2	Group 3
Trust-Stewardship	X	X	X
Involvement	X	X	X
Impact-Positive Change	X	X	X
Personal Acknowledgement	X	X	X

*Trust-stewardship.* Trust was identified as an important factor in the satisfaction with giving, whether to 4-H, or other organizations. Participants repeatedly expressed their trust in 4-H to deliver quality educational programs and to promote positive youth development in the donor’s community. Experiences were shared regarding other philanthropic organizations, some outside the donors’ communities, some within, that disappointed the donors following a gift. When asked to discuss the details, participants shared that they were not “told or shown where their money had gone, or how their gift had helped” (29). Others shared that organizations had not communicated outcomes with them, nor acknowledged their gift, yet continued to solicit them for additional monies. The donors were disappointed by these practices and indicated that they were unwilling to make additional gifts to the organization. One donor illustrated the frustration through the following quote:

I gave a gift, and then they didn’t stop sending me stuff. I was disappointed by this. They just about harassed me to death to give more and more, and I didn’t

even know what they had done with my first gift. I wanted to say to them, stop sending me so much junk, save your money to do something good (31).

Participants communicated satisfaction with their experiences giving to the 4-H program, and indicated that it stemmed from their trust that the 4-H program was a good steward of their money. One donor stated, “4-H gave me the facts about my gift. I knew that all my gift went directly to the kids and projects, not to some high salary” (12). Another donor stated, “you trust that your gift will help someone in the 4-H program” (10). Similar comments followed including, “it’s a trust factor that satisfies you and your giving” (30).

Study findings indicated the significant impact giving money locally, to their communities, had on trust. The donors shared a commitment for giving to groups and individuals who they “know and trust” (23). One donor illustrated this idea through the following quote:

Knowing the agent and the people in the Extension office, I know that they are good, honest people. I know that when I make a gift to 4-H through them, that they will use the money like they told me they would (11).

*Involvement.* Kaplan and Hayes (1993) suggested that women may be motivated to give, and be satisfied with their giving for reasons different from men. They stated that recognition and status may be what men cherish, while women want involvement with the organization. Shaw and Taylor (1995) echoed this sentiment, and stated that women value relationships with organizations to which they contribute, and aspire to understand these organizations and help shape their programs.

Findings in this study are consistent with these conclusions. The female donors expressed that their satisfaction from giving was derived from their involvement with 4-H or other organizations to which they gave. Donors shared experiences of developing and implementing 4-H programs. One donor shared her experience of developing a gardening program and then teaching the program at 4-H summer camp. She shared that her giving supported the program financially, but it was her involvement that allowed her to “experience the impact of my gift first-hand, to see the results in the faces of the kids” (9). This involvement, according to the donor, was important to her satisfaction with giving. Other donors shared similar experiences with programs they, too, created and/or funded, as illustrated by the following quotes:

A portion of my 4-H gift goes to fund Reality Store [a 4-H reality based financial management educational program]. I also volunteer with Reality Store, and trust

me, these kids have no idea of reality. They come into the program with a “I’m too cool attitude”, and they leave knowing what it’s like to support a family, and pay their bills. Right when they think they have it all together, in comes Uncle Sam, a character in the Reality Store, and it’s tax time (13).

I fund the presentations contest and I know it makes a difference with the children, because it made a difference for me. Organizing their thoughts and speaking. 4-H connects you with the kids and lets you see them as they learn. You know your money is working when you see it right before your eyes (10).

*Impact-positive change.* The donors involved in this study frequently expressed the significance of knowing that their gift created impact, and brought about positive change. Participants in each focus group identified these factors as both a reason for giving and a contributor to their satisfaction in giving. One donor aptly reflected the comments of the women when she stated “I give because I want to have an impact on a kid’s life. I want to make a difference. I want to help them change through knowledge and be the best they can be” (10). Like others, she reflected, “I’m satisfied with my giving when I know the difference my gift made, or know that I helped change a person’s life for the better” (10).

When asked how they became aware of the outcomes of their gift, the women frequently stated that they had witnessed the impact through involvement with the organization. Often the impact had been communicated to them by the organization or benefactor. When asked to elaborate, the women shared similar situations to those previously mentioned about involvement. The donors, in various contexts, related the significance of involvement with the organization to their personal satisfaction from giving. “Being able to witness and be a part of the impact my gift makes, made me happy and satisfied that my money made a difference” (16). Regarding communication efforts by the organization, the focus group participants stated the significance of newsletters and other communication mediums utilized by organizations that, according to them, “keep me informed about my investment” (27). Related to communication, the donors frequently stated that newsletters had proven successful in communicating program impacts and program updates. One donor illustrated as follows:

The 4-H office sends me a newsletter every month or so, letting me know what’s going on in the county and what the 4-H club is doing. It’s funny when I’m reading, and all of a sudden I read about a program I helped to fund. It’s always

nice to see the pictures of the 4-Her's with their trophy. All smiles. You know that your money has gone to good use then (21).

*Personal acknowledgement.* Personal acknowledgement of their gift was important to satisfaction from giving among these donors. A donor illustrated this finding when she shared, I paid to send a young boy to camp last year. His family couldn't afford to send him. When he got back from camp, he saw me at church, and came up and said thank you. I also received a card from him, handwritten, saying thank you. He told me a little about what he learned at camp. This confirmed that my giving was the right thing to do (26).

This personal contact was not perceived as personalized attention or recognition of self. Women donors in this study wanted results. They wanted their investment to make a difference, and they wanted to hear about it through personal testimony. They also wanted to know that they provided others an opportunity to better themselves.

*Research Question 3: What Factors Influence the Decision to Give to an Organization Repeatedly? If a Second Gift was at a Higher Level, What Key Factors Led to the Higher Gift?*

Mount (1996), through her empirically based model of personal donorship, conceptualized donating behavior in terms of largesse. Largesse refers to the size of the gift. Mount proposed five factors as indicators of personal donating behavior: involvement, predominance, self-interest, means and past behavior. Mount theorized that giving, repeat giving, and repeat giving at higher levels were the result of these five indicators. For example, the more the donor is involved in the organization, the greater the probability that repeat gifts will follow and follow in larger amounts. Participants in this study confirmed Mount's theory, and identified corresponding indicators of involvement, being asked, information, change, connection, and ability.

Table 6 illustrates common factors identified by study participants that lead to repeat giving and repeat giving at higher levels. Focus group(s) during which the themes were identified are indicated by an X. A discussion of each theme follows.

Table 6

*Themes Related to Factors Impacting Repeat Giving and Repeat Giving at Higher Levels*

Factor Impacting Repeat Giving	Theme Identified in:		
	Group 1	Group 2	Group 3
Involvement	X	X	X
Being asked	X	X	X
Information	X	X	X
Change	X	X	X
Connection	X	X	X
Ability	X	X	X

*Involvement.* As in Mount’s theory, donors in this study indicated that they were more likely to give repeatedly and to give subsequent gifts at higher levels if they were involved with the organization. This is not surprising as the donor’s reported satisfaction with giving increased with the degree to which donors were involved. In response to the inquiry related to subsequent giving, donors simply echoed their previous responses.

*Being asked.* The women in this study shared that their decision to give subsequent gifts and to give at higher levels resulted from being asked. Very simply put, the women indicated that they gave repeat gifts because the organization asked them to do so. Further, participants stated that many organizations, including 4-H, often failed to ask for subsequent gifts.

*Information.* Information or communication from the organization was stressed as a key factor leading to subsequent gifts. Receiving information from the organization validated that the donor’s gift had brought about positive change. The women stated that knowing what their initial investment accomplished, enticed them to make greater investments in the organization, program, or the program participants. It’s crucial that the organization maintain positive communication standards with donors related to program impacts and results, and not only communicate with donors through solicitation of gifts.

Taken together as shared by the donors in this study, being asked for another gift and receiving information about their investment, imply that the organization kept in contact with the

donors and kept them informed about organizational outcomes and events. These efforts suggest that the organization established pre-dominance, defined by Mount as a subjective measure of the extent to which the cause or organization stands out or *predominates* in the donor's hierarchy of philanthropic options. Pre-dominance, as measured in this study, as organizational efforts to ask for future donations and to involve donors through frequent communication, therefore, led to subsequent giving by these women.

*Change-connection.* Other findings indicated that women give to bring about change, and give as a method of connecting with organizations or the organization's benefactors. These ideas also support the concept of organizational pre-dominance.

The donors in this study further indicated that evidence of change or the feeling of being connected led to their subsequent giving, and subsequent giving at higher levels. This finding validates that women give repeatedly and at higher levels as a result of self-interest, as defined by Mount, or the degree to which the cause is aligned with the interests of the donor.

*Ability.* Another factor identified by these donors as having impact upon a decision to give repeatedly and to give at high levels was ability. The women reported that when asked to give or to give subsequent gifts, they had to consider the impact the gift would have on their *own* financial resources. The donors indicated that their ability to give, or available financial resources at the time of the solicitation impacted their decision as illustrated by the following quotes:

When I'm asked to give or to give again, I have to think about how the gift will impact me paying my house payment. I have to set my priorities, and although I might want to give, the truth is, there are times I simply can't afford it (15).

I'm young, and I struggle just to pay for my car and gas. When I'm asked to give I have to decide, do I want to drive to work, or do I want to walk to work. It seems like I always like to drive, so sometimes I just have to say no (19).

*Research Question 4: When Being Asked to Give, Does the Solicitation Method Impact the Decision to Give? Is There a Preferred Solicitation Technique?*

Mixer (1993) proposed that people are more likely to give when they are treated appropriately during the fundraising process. Mixer purported that organizations treat donors appropriately by discovering their personal intrinsic and extrinsic needs that they attempt to satisfy through giving, and to satisfy those needs as part of the process. The women in this study

identified “appropriate treatment” as being asked personally to give, being provided accurate facts, knowing potential impacts of their gift, and having an exact amount requested.

As illustrated in Table 7, participants identified common themes related to Research Question 4. Focus group(s) during which the themes were identified are indicated by an X; a discussion of each theme follows.

Table 7

*Themes Related to the Impact Solicitation Methods Have on the Decision to Give, and Preferred Solicitation Techniques*

Solicitation Technique	Theme Identified in:		
	Group 1	Group 2	Group 3
Personal	X	X	X
Facts	X	X	X
Impacts	X	X	X
Exact Amount	X	X	X

*Personal.* The women in this study confirmed that the solicitation method utilized in asking them to give did impact their decision. The women stated a strong preference for personal contact, and further indicated a preference for personal contact by someone they know.

The women indicated that knowing the person soliciting them added trust, as illustrated by the following quotes:

I give when I know the person asking me for the gift, especially if they are my friend. I think, if they are asking me, it has to be a good cause. I know I can trust them not to steer me in the wrong direction (1).

Referring to the researcher, one donor stated, “I would trust [name of hostess]. I wouldn’t trust you, because I don’t know you” (23). Another donor stated,

When someone comes to my door from the volunteer fire department, I give to him. I know him, and appreciate what he is doing for me. When I get calls from professionals wanting me to give to the police department, I always tell them I am not giving to them over the phone, and I ask them to take me off their calling list. They still call, and I continue to tell them no. I am not going to give to someone I don’t know, especially over the phone (22).

When this statement was made, the group laughed and agreed enthusiastically. Several participants indicated that they had received similar calls and had also asked to be removed from the calling list. Other donors added, “it is proven that trust gets my donation” (26), and, “as long as it is someone you know and trust, you will give” (8).

Although the findings of this study indicate that personal face-to-face solicitation is the preferred solicitation method of these donors, findings indicated that personal letters and telephone calls from a known person are effective solicitation techniques as well. The need to know and trust the person contacting them, or feeling connected to the person are key factors.

As a point of clarity, and in relation to the current development structure of the Virginia 4-H Foundation, the researcher asked the donors their feelings about a professional fundraiser soliciting them on behalf of 4-H. The donors indicated that they would likely give. However, they added that they would be more likely to respond positively if the fundraiser was accompanied by someone from their community or if the professional’s visit was preceded by a telephone call or letter of introduction from someone the donor knew.

*Facts-impacts-exact amount.* Findings from the study indicate that the projected female donors prefer to be provided details or facts about the need and the use of the funds as part of the solicitation. One donor stated,

I want to know exactly how you are going to spend my money. I want an account of every dime. I want the facts about the program, I want to know the overall program budget. I want to be able to look at a chart and see where my gift fits in. If I’m being asked to pay for awards, I want to know that, and I want to know how you came up with the amount. If the awards are going to cost \$5.00 each, and you need 10 of them, I want to know. Facts and details are very important to me (14).

Included with facts, the female donors indicated that when soliciting a gift, or when being solicited, it is important that the prospective donor be given a specific program or child to support. Using 4-H as an example, participants indicated a preference to give to a specific program or an individual child versus giving more globally to 4-H. Clear and factual identification of a local need increased the likelihood of giving, as these donors preferred to give locally.

Communicating the potential impacts of their gift to the prospective donor was also

identified as important to these donors. They also shared that they want to know how the program could make a difference for a child or for their community. Along with proposed impacts, the donors stressed the need to provide prospects with real descriptions of outcomes or testimonies from similar programs.

The results also indicated that the donors in the study preferred being asked to donate a specific amount as illustrated in the following quotes:

When I'm asked to give, I want them to give me an amount. I don't like it when someone comes to me and they don't tell me how much they want me to give.

Chances are, if they don't tell me how much they want me to give, and illustrate to me exactly what the money covers, they'll leave empty handed or with a check for a lot less than they expected (11).

Another donor stated, "if I'm not given an amount, I give \$25.00. They can talk to me an hour about a million dollar project, and if they don't give me an amount, they get the two five" (12).

*Research Question 5: Does Recognition or Other Personal Goal(s) Influence a Decision to Give? Are There Desired Types of Recognition for Giving?*

Shaw and Taylor (1995) proposed that proper gratitude for and acknowledgement of giving must be expressed by the nonprofit to make the renewal of the gift possible. Consistent with Shaw and Taylor, findings of this study indicate that women do not place value on public recognition and prefer instead personal/intrinsic recognition, or recognition of their giving as part of a celebration. The women in this study indicated that validation of their gift, rather than recognition, fostered greater satisfaction with giving, and increased chances of subsequent gifts.

Table 8 illustrates common themes identified by study participants related to, Research Question 5. Focus group(s) during which the themes or common ways of thinking were identified are indicated by an X. A discussion of each theme follows.

Table 8

*Themes Related to the Impact of Recognition and Preferred Type of Recognition*

Recognition Technique	Theme Identified in:		
	Group 1	Group 2	Group 3
Personal/Internal	X	X	X
Celebration	X	X	X
Validation	X	X	X
Involvement	X	X	X

Women in this study were adamant that recognition was not important to them and that recognition was not an important factor in a personal decision to donate. Participants preferred that funds normally spent on donor recognition be used instead to benefit clients of the organization. Regarding plaques and what donors identified as “other tokens,” there was consensus in each focus group that plaques and tokens were not important. One woman stated, “We don’t put up plaques. If we put them up, we’d have to dust them” (22). Another donor shared, “Keep your trophies and plaques. Boys love trophies. They’re always comparing their trophies. Mine is bigger than yours. Girls, girls love a pizza party, a joint celebration” (32).

*Personal-intrinsic.* The women shared that they felt “properly recognized” through personal, handwritten thank you cards or letters from program participants detailing the opportunity the money afforded them. They also expressed that they considered handwritten thank you notes or cards or personally signed letters from the organization or organizational leadership enough recognition. One participant illustrated this through the following quote,

I work with the retired teacher’s group in the county. We give money, not a lot of money, but hard earned money. 4-H sent us a personal thank you letter, and we appreciated it greatly. This is the first thank you letter we have ever received, and it meant the world to us. We put it in our scrap book, and we look at it every time we’re asked to give. Other organizations should use 4-H as an example (21).

Another donor shared, “When I gave to an organization they sent me information to keep me informed, and to let me know what my gift was doing. This to me is recognition and why I continue to give to them” (26). Another donor stated,

We give to [name of children charity]. Each year we get a letter and a picture

from the girl we sponsor. In her letter she always tells us how she used the money to help herself. This year she bought a pair of shoes. The note and picture let us know how our money is helping her, and her thank you is recognition enough (27).

*Celebrate.* The donors also revealed that celebration was a significant form of recognition. They sternly made the point that they were not implying a celebration of their giving, but instead a celebration of member accomplishments. They stated that they were not recognized personally at the celebration and that they did not expect or want to be personally recognized. Instead, they preferred experiencing the celebration and recognition of 4-H members' accomplishments, and knowing that as donors, they helped to make available the opportunity that they were celebrating. Multiple participants in each focus group shared examples of 4-H awards night, recognition banquets, and other member or organization events. One woman stated, "this is what it's all about [referring to a 4-H awards night] (16). Another donor shared,

I really enjoyed the recognition night. It was a great honor to be with the group of people who had also given. They asked for all the donors to stand, and that's all the attention we received, and I loved it (18).

*Validation.* The donors shared a preference for validation of their gift instead of personal recognition for their gift. When probed on the meaning of validation, the donors stated that they wanted to see and experience their gift and know that it made a difference. On-going communication with the organization was an expectation of the donors, as was specific information related to the impact of their gift. "I would be happy if they simply told me, your gift did this" (25) is how one donor described validation of a gift. Confirming to the donors that their gift made a difference, letting them know that the money was used for the purpose intended, and letting them know the benefit a child received from the gift were all shared by the donors as effective gift validation strategies.

Although the donors expressed concern with organizations using donations to create high cost, glossy publications, they acknowledged the importance of newsletters or brochures, to inform donors about how their money impacted the program. More specifically, these donors wanted to know the impact the gift had on an individual child or participant. One donor said, "it would be nice to know the results of my gift and the impact it accomplished. We want to know

what it [her gift] accomplished” (7).

*Involvement.* Gifts were also validated for these donors through their personal involvement with the organization or with the benefactors of the organization. The donors shared experiences of attending an organization’s program that their money sponsored or attending a day observing 4-H youth at camp. These female donors described how this type of involvement allowed them to see the impact of their gift and to experience a deep sense of satisfaction. These examples of extrinsic and intrinsic validation were repeatedly cited by these female donors. Although consistent with research on other female donors, these findings suggest marked differences in the recognition expectations of male and female donors in that men are more likely to desire public recognition (Tulloch, 1966) or recognition that in some way signals their wealth through giving (Glazer & Konrad, 1996).

#### *Findings and Their Relationship to the Literature*

As previously mentioned in this study, the literature provides several explanations related to how and why people make philanthropic gifts. Fishbein’s (1967) expectancy-value theory suggests that people orient themselves to the world in accordance with their expectations, beliefs, and evaluations of projected outcomes and the respective value placed on those outcomes. Shaw and Taylor (1995) have argued that previous studies have been with men, and as such apply only to men. They argue instead that women are motivated to give for different reasons. Table 9 summarizes literature that explains indicators of giving by female donors, and reports if the earlier explanations were affirmed by the findings of this study.

Table 9

*Reasons from the Literature for Female Donors' Giving*

Author (s)	Indicators of Giving	Affirmed in Study
Arrow (1974)	Knowledge that gift contributes to another's satisfaction	Communication from organization, sharing impact of gift
Arrow (1974)	Donor derives welfare from knowledge of contributing to other's satisfaction	A sense of doing for others, or motherly instinct to do for others led to giving to make others happy
Boulding (1981)	Serial reciprocity: People repay the benefits they received by providing benefits to a third person	Giving back, benefiting community, affording others the same opportunities they had, giving to organizations that helped them.
Andreoni (1989, 1990)	Warm glow or good feeling from contributing	Warm glow/good feeling from contributing
Kaplan & Hayes (1993)	Involvement with the donor organization is what women want	Giving increased opportunities to connect with the organization and provided opportunities for new or increased participation. Going to 4-H Camp, or creating and teaching a course at camp were examples.
Mixer (1993)	People are more likely to give when treated appropriately during the fundraising process, when they have an interest in the organization or the cause of the organization, and are rewarded for support in ways consistent with their personal motivations and values.	Knowing the solicitor; interest; cause of the organization. A desire to trust the organization, confidence of good stewardship of their investment, and connection with youth recipients as desired recognition for giving. 4-H provides this; therefore, reward is consistent with personal motivations and values.
Ostrander & Fisher (1995)	Women: emphasize the cause and stress the impact that giving can have on connecting with community	Cause, need for information, need for facts, need to know the impact their gift will have. Community and local benefit are important
Bartling (1999)	Need to highlight giving back to community and the desire for positive social change with women donors	Sense of community, importance of community
Schervish & Havens (2003)	Identification Theory: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Philanthropy aims to meet other's needs.</li> <li>• Philanthropy as an expression of caring.</li> <li>• Philanthropy from self- identification with other people.</li> </ul>	Motherly instinct, compassion, having passion for others' needs, seeing themselves in the children they help, seeing their children in the children they help.
Shaw & Taylor (1995)	Women value relationships with organizations to which they contribute, and aspire to understand these organizations and help shape their programs	Facts and information desired both before and after a gift. Willingness to create and teach programs.
Shaw & Taylor (1995)	Women want details, including organizational facts and assurance that money assists people.	Facts, information, detail, validation of impact from giving

Author (s)	Indicators of Giving	Affirmed in Study
Not Identified by Women in This Study		
Tulloch (1966)	How giving will affect donor's reputation	
Becker (1986)	Avoidance of scorn from others or receipt of social acclaim	
Glazer and Konrad (1996)	Signaling wealth in a socially acceptable way	
Sen (1977)	Alleviates a sense of guilt	
Harbaugh (1998)	Prestige	

(table continued)

Shaw and Taylor (1995) theorized that motivations for female giving can be grouped into six categories all beginning with the letter C—the desire to change, create, connect, commit, collaborate, and celebrate their philanthropic accomplishments. Table 10 lists these six Cs, and indicates the Cs affirmed in this study.

Table 10

*Six Cs of Female Giving as Proposed by Shaw and Taylor (1995)*

C	Implication	Affirmed/Not Affirmed
Change	Women give to make a difference.	Affirmed: Women in the study indicated a desire to bring about change or to make a difference as a reason for giving, and as a factor impacting their satisfaction with giving.
Create	Women want to create new solutions to problems.	Affirmed: Women in the study wanted to create programs and to create opportunities for others as a reason for giving and as a factor impacting their satisfaction with giving.
Connect	Women prefer to see the human side their gift affects.	Affirmed: Women in the study indicated connecting with others and community as a reason for giving, a factor impacting their satisfaction with giving, and a desired method of recognition. Connecting with the benefactor and seeing the impact of the gift was important.
Commit	Women give from a commitment to a cause or to commit to a cause	Affirmed: Women viewed giving as a form of commitment to the organization, the mission of the organization, or their community.
Collaborate	Women prefer to work with others as part of a larger effort.	Not affirmed: Women did not identify collaboration as a factor in this study.
Celebrate	Women seek to celebrate member accomplishments.	Affirmed: Women stated that celebrating the benefactors' accomplishments provided adequate recognition giving and shared that celebration contributed to their satisfaction with giving.

Findings of this study confirmed Shaw and Taylor's theory that women give to create, change, connect, commit, and celebrate; however the findings did not affirm that women give to collaborate. The focus group interview guide included probes related to collaboration; however, at no time during the research did a female donor express a desire to collaborate or partner with others, or were other associated ideas or terminology related to collaboration stated.

Finding of this study extended the literature on reasons for female giving to include compassion and community. The women in this study expressed compassion for others as a reason for their giving. Because of compassion, these women wanted to give of their resources to help others.

The women in this study shared a strong sense of community and a commitment to making their community the best it could possibly be. Their giving and reasons for giving were consistently local; giving was focused on the needs of the community and the people within that community.

Table 6 also provides evidence to support Fishbein's value-expectancy theory by articulating the outcomes expected by giving, as well as the value placed on those outcomes by the donors. These two components impact donor intent to perform donating behavior as suggested by the Fishbein theory.

### Summary of the Findings

This chapter presented findings related to this study of female donor support for the Virginia 4-H Foundation. A qualitative research approach was used to understand why women give to Virginia 4-H, and what contributed to or detracted from their satisfaction. The findings were generated in November 2006 through three focus group interviews involving 32 participants and a validation questionnaire.

The interview guide, included as Appendix B, for the focus group sessions included nine questions and related probes. Because the questions and probes may have provided insights into more than one of the five research questions, these questions, rather than the interview guide, were used to organize the presentation of findings.

Data were analyzed and findings developed from two perspectives: a) a descriptive summary of the responses pertinent to each research question; and b) classification of focus group data into the six Cs of giving as proposed by Shaw and Taylor. This same sequence was used to present the findings.

Findings from the study revealed that the reasons these women give financially to charitable organizations is multi-faceted. Specifically these women give because it is a way to:

- give back for benefits they received;
- experience the good feeling they get from giving;
- satisfy a sense of responsibility or expectancy;
- make or express commitment;
- demonstrate compassion for others, or care about others;
- bring about change; and,
- promote a sense of community, or to support the betterment of their community.

Findings from the study indicate that the following factors contribute to the women's satisfaction with giving:

- trust in the organization or trust that the organization would demonstrate good stewardship to manage their gift;
- involvement with the organization that would enable the donors to experience the impact of their gift;
- impact or positive change in their community as a result of their gift; and
- personal acknowledgement of their gift.

Findings from the study indicate that subsequent giving or larger gifts by women are motivated through the following:

- involvement with the donor organization;
- future solicitations by the organization;
- information from the organization that communicates the impact of their gift;
- evidence that their gift brought about, or enabled change;
- opportunities to connect with the benefactors of their giving and to see the human side of their gift; and
- financial ability to give.

Findings from the study indicate that these women prefer the following solicitation techniques:

- personal solicitation from someone they know;

- factual data about the organization, the gift request, and the people the organization serves;
- clearly identified potential outcomes of the organization's program(s); and
- definitive requests that specify the solicited amount and the proposed impacts of the gift.

Findings from this study indicate that these women prefer their giving to be recognized by the following:

- personal, Intrinsic recognition through personal notes or cards;
- opportunities to celebrate accomplishments of benefactors that their gifts supported;
- validation that their money created impact or brought about change; and
- opportunities for involvement with the organization to witness, firsthand, the impacts of their gift.

Conclusions of this study including its implication for research, theory, and the Virginia 4-H Foundation are discussed in Chapter 5. The findings of this study illustrate the multi-faceted nature of fundraising and the complexity of exploring and understanding female donor behavior. Results of this study are consistent with the six Cs of female philanthropy as proposed by Shaw and Taylor (1995), and findings corroborate other literature on female philanthropy. Findings also suggest that expanding the six Cs to include compassion and community may provide more definitive answers. However, the need for additional research to provide a comprehensive explanation of male and female philanthropy cannot be overlooked.

## CHAPTER 5

### SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS, AND LIMITATIONS

Chapter 5 summarizes the research described in the dissertation, provides conclusions, and presents implications from the study for theory and research related to the philanthropic motivations of female donors. The chapter includes recommendations for the Virginia 4-H Foundation based upon study findings, and concludes with limitations of the study.

#### Purpose of the Study

The study examined motivating factors that lead women to donate to nonprofit organizations, specifically the Virginia 4-H program. The study focused on women as donors to Virginia 4-H, exploring female donors' motivations for giving, factors that impacted their satisfaction with giving, and motivating factors that resulted in repeat donations and giving at higher levels. Knowledge of these variables will enable the Virginia 4-H Foundation Board of Directors to develop and implement a fiscal development plan that respects altruistic characteristics of both men and women. Additionally, the findings contribute to the growing literature on female donors, an acknowledged need as most philanthropy research has been focused on men, yet women are future wealth holders.

#### Significance of the Study

For more than 100 years, 4-H has focused on providing quality research-based educational programs generated by the land-grant university system. Millions of youth, according to Meadows (2003), credit becoming better contributing members of society to their involvement in 4-H. The 4-H program in Virginia has experienced dramatic cuts in public funding over the past years, which has resulted in greater reliance by the organization upon private funding. The Virginia 4-H Foundation serves as the private funding partner for Virginia's 4-H program, and operates under traditional development models, which as noted earlier, are primarily male based. Membership in Virginia 4-H is divided relatively equally between the sexes. Furthermore, one of every six Virginians is a 4-H alumnus. By realizing the philanthropic potential of women, their inclusion in 4-H Foundation development efforts could hold dramatic impact for the future of the program.

## The Problem

To be sustainable, Virginia 4-H must secure funding in a quickly changing world with a turbulent economic environment. Wolverton (2003) asserted that economic uncertainty and heightened competition for money among charities has resulted in creating more efficient resource development programs, particularly programs designed to cultivate affluent individual donors.

Despite the many significant contributions of female donors, women's philanthropy has been largely unrecognized. Women have been left out of the majority of research on philanthropy (Shaw & Taylor, 1995), thus traditional models of fundraising, which were male-based, may not translate well with female prospects because of gender differences in giving.

## Summary of the Methodology

The methodology for this study combined focus groups and a validation questionnaire. Focus groups were appropriate for this study because they allowed the researcher to learn first hand from participants what it meant to them to be philanthropic. Through a guided conversation, the researcher asked topical questions and probes to discover the needed information. Three focus groups were conducted across Virginia with women having a history of giving to the Virginia 4-H Foundation. Three Foundation donors agreed to host the focus groups in their private homes in conjunction with a tea or luncheon. Three locations allowed for studying a diverse group of female philanthropists. The validation questionnaire facilitated gathering and affirming specific additional perspectives on giving from the focus groups.

The interview guide (see Appendix B) for each focus group included nine questions with related probing questions. This guide was based upon a review of literature, specifically the six Cs of female philanthropy as presented by Shaw and Taylor (1995) through their pivotal work with female philanthropists. Fishbein's Expectancy Value Model (1967) was used as the framework for the study. The model illustrates that actions are a result of a person's expectancy gratification. Understanding what type of gratification women donors prefer and the value they place on the gratification was the framework for this study. Stakeholder input into the development of the guide was facilitated via a focus group session with members of the development staff of the Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University College of Agriculture and Life Sciences. The group consisted of two males and one female. The focus

group interview guide was pilot tested with five female 4-H volunteers.

The three focus groups were audio taped and transcribed by a hired assistant who also attended each session and took notes. The researcher also took notes during each focus group on content and nonverbal clues.

As a follow-up to each focus group, the researcher compiled results for each question and sent those findings in a validation questionnaire to each participant from their respective session for review and input. Participants were asked to provide additional information they did not share during the focus group or may not have been comfortable sharing. Regardless of additional input, participants were asked to provide affirmation of findings to the researcher by mail, email, or telephone call. Of the 32 study participants, 22 returned the questionnaire in agreement with initial findings.

Because the questions and probes may have provided insights into more than one of the five research questions for the study, the research questions, rather than the interview guide, was used to organize the presentation of findings. The research questions follow:

1. Why do women give financially to charitable organizations? Why Virginia 4-H?
2. What factors impact female donors' satisfaction with giving?
3. What factors influence the decision to give to an organization repeatedly? If a second gift was at a higher level, what key factors led to the larger gift?
4. When being asked to give, does the solicitation method impact the decision to give? Is there a preferred solicitation technique?
5. Does recognition or other personal goal(s) influence a decision to give? Are there desired types of recognition for giving?

Data were analyzed and findings developed from two perspectives: a) a descriptive summary of the responses pertinent to each research question; and b) classification of focus group data into the six Cs of giving as proposed by Shaw and Taylor. This same sequence was used to present the findings.

### Summary of the Research Findings

Findings in this study are consistent with Fishbein's (1967) model as adapted for this research. Assuming that the 4-H Foundation addresses the expected outcomes through their fundraising plan, the intent to donate can be positively impacted. Several motivators and associated expected outcomes along with values were identified.

## *Why Women Give*

Findings from this study upheld several of the indicators of giving presented in the literature. Specifically, the study validated that women in the study give as a form of paying back as proposed by Boulding (1981). The focus group discussions revealed that all of the women were either 4-H members or had served as a 4-H volunteer. Most described or recounted the benefits of 4-H membership or association with 4-H that they or someone they knew had experienced. Their giving was in part motivated by a desire to give back to 4-H or to repay 4-H for the benefits they or someone else had received.

Consistent with the concept of giving back, these women reported giving from a sense of responsibility. Giving was viewed by them as an expectation. This sense of responsibility or expectancy was cited as biblically based or as a virtue established through motherhood (motherly instinct to do good for others) or other life experiences, including family or parental influences.

Findings established five of the six Cs proposed by Shaw and Taylor (1995) as reasons for giving: commit, connect, create, change, and celebrate, and extended the literature on reasons for female giving to include compassion and community. The women expressed that they have compassion for others and the needs of others. One response to this compassion is to give to 4-H or other organizations that directly serve others in the community. A desire to see youth prosper in 4-H and to have experiences through 4-H that they might not otherwise have was cited as a primary reason for giving.

The female donors in the study viewed their gifts as an expression of commitment to 4-H, the mission of 4-H, or the purpose/mission of other donor organizations. Further, the women donors give as a means to connect with youth or others who share similar passions. The women in the study shared a strong sense of community and a commitment to making their community the best it could possibly be. Their giving and reasons for giving were consistently local; giving was focused on the needs of the community, and the people within that community. These donors recognized the impact that 4-H can have on a person's life, and they wanted to connect with 4-H and 4-H members because of this important opportunity to effect change. The women give as a means to create new opportunities, to create change or fund innovation, rather than maintain the status quo, and these women shared their giving as a means through which they can celebrate member accomplishments.

The study validated the proposal of Kaplan and Hayes (1993) that people give to

organizations with which they are involved. Women in this study clearly illustrated their involvement with 4-H and that this involvement established credibility for the mission and work of 4-H, and ultimately lead to their giving.

### *Factors Impacting Donors' Satisfaction*

Findings from the study indicated that women are satisfied with giving when they know that their gift made a difference. It was very clear throughout the study that these women expect communication from the organization to which they give. More specifically, the women wanted details, and wanted to understand the impact that their gift helped create.

Consistent with the change C as proposed by Shaw and Taylor (1995), female donors expect that their gift will create or bring about positive change. The women indicated that evidence of positive change was facilitated through connection with the organization. Study participants stated that they want to be connected with 4-H programs and program participants, and they wanted to see first-hand the impact of their gift. Findings indicated that when direct connection is not possible or easily facilitated, study participants expected connection through communication. Although the women expressed that communication should not be at the expense of program delivery, such as the case of glossy, high cost newsletters, they shared a preference for facts through other methods.

The donors placed great value on trust in an organization as a factor impacting satisfaction. They shared that communication helped facilitate trust. The women expressed the need for facts and specific details related to their gift. Knowledge that the organization exercised good stewardship of their funds was indicated as a critical element of trust. Donors indicated that their trust for 4-H was also validated through personal experiences with 4-H, and the legacy of the program's 100 year history.

The women in the study indicated the warm or good feeling they received from giving as both a reason for giving and as a factor impacting their satisfaction with giving. Connecting donors with program participants or communicating program impacts to donors facilitated this feeling.

The donors stated that personal acknowledgement of their gift impacted satisfaction. They indicated that they are motivated by personal contact from the organization, and more specifically through personal acknowledgement by program participants that benefited from their gift. Donors shared stories of receiving personal thank you cards from benefactors that related

details about the program participation or experience the gift provided. Regardless of the form, personal contact was important to the female donors in the study.

### *Factors Influencing Multiple or Larger Gifts*

Responses for this research question were very similar to those related to reasons for giving and satisfaction with giving. Connection, change, involvement, and information were all communicated by the women in the study as factors influencing a decision to give again, and to give again at higher levels.

The women indicated that being connected with the organization or being involved with the organization were significant contributors to a decision to give multiple gifts to an organization or to give subsequent gifts at higher levels. Women wanted assurance that their gift was being utilized in the manner they expected. Donors stated that they felt connected by becoming involved directly with programs or through consistent communication. The women indicated that their need for factual information about the financial stewardship of their gift was significantly related to their satisfaction. Knowledge that their gift brought about positive change was identified by participants as a factor leading to subsequent gifts. Allowing the donors to experience the change they were helping to bring about illustrated that additional resources were needed to continue or enhance programmatic efforts. These experiences as well as direct knowledge of the need and the outcome lead to subsequent gifts.

### *Preferred Solicitation Methods*

The study affirmed that solicitation impacted a decision to give. More specifically, the study indicated that the particular solicitation techniques employed by an organization to solicit the gift impacted the decision. Mixer (1993) maintains that people are more likely to give when they are treated appropriately during the fundraising process, when they have an interest in the organization or the cause of the organization and they get rewarded for their support in ways consistent with their personal motivations and values.

Being treated, or approached, appropriately for a gift was validated as influential to these donors. The women in this study shared that they expect personal contact when being asked to provide financial support to an organization. More so, they wanted to be contacted personally by someone they knew and trusted.

The women indicated resistance to giving to an unknown person such as a professional

fundraiser. The professional, however, could increase the chance of securing a gift from the prospective donor if accompanied by a person with whom the prospect is familiar or if the visit was preceded by personal contact from a known person.

The women shared the importance of being presented with facts as part of the solicitation process. The women wanted a descriptive summary of the program including a budget and the exact amount they were being requested to provide. The women wanted facts about the potential impact of the program and evidence of impacts from similar programs. The women indicated a preference to fund a particular program, part of a program, an identified child, or a specific event, in contrast to general revenues for support of 4-H or other programs.

### *Donor Recognition*

Mixer's (1993) claim that people give when they get rewarded for their support in ways consistent with their personal motivations and values was validated by the women in the study. Results indicated that these women do not want plaques or other recognition gifts in exchange for their giving. Instead, they wanted to be informed personally of the outcomes of their gift. The donors also indicated that they considered communication or involvement with the organization as sufficient recognition. The women shared the need for gifts to be validated, not recognized.

Nonprofit organizations can validate giving, based upon the findings of this study, through donor opportunities for personal contact with the organization or the person(s) that benefited from the gift. The women related stories of receiving personal visits, cards, letters or telephone calls from youth 4-H members as validation for their gift. The donors preferred to be recognized through member celebrations. They do not want their gift acknowledged at these celebrations; however, they expressed appreciation and recognition from being a part of celebrations of member accomplishments. The women wanted the celebrations to recognize what their money had accomplished, not what they, as donors, had done.

Recognition to the women in this study was achieved through assurance that their money had been utilized in a manner the donor felt appropriate and agreed to during the solicitation process. The women in the study wanted to know exactly what their money provided, and to be informed of the impacts it generated.

## Limitations of the Study

This study employed a qualitative methodology. A general limitation with qualitative investigations is the inability to generalize the findings to other settings, populations, and treatment arrangements (Marshall & Rossman, 1989). Persons involved with this study were selected based upon a history of financial donations to the Virginia 4-H Foundation. Therefore, this study was limited to the perspectives of persons associated with the 4-H Foundation and presumably loyal to and confident in the organization. However, given the nature and size of the study no attempt has been made to draw inferences to a larger population.

Additionally, this research relied solely on data gathered from focus groups and a validation questionnaire. Patton (1990) pointed out that data generated from focus groups may be distorted by personal bias, politics, and emotions. Patton also contended that focus group data are subject to error in recall, the interviewees' reaction to the interviewer, and self-serving purposes.

Sample selection for this research was a mix of convenience and snowball. Through the researcher's association with the Virginia 4-H Foundation, he knew the majority of the study participants. The participants were also known by the hostess of the focus group in which they were a participant. As such, there were threats of bias, in that participants may have answered in manners they thought were pleasing to either the researcher or the hostess.

These threats to reliability and validity, according to Yow (1994), can be dealt with by comparing accounts to other accounts provided, and probing for additional information during the interview. Per Yow, efforts were taken to compare accounts and probe for information. The researcher made every effort to act in an unbiased manner and carefully interpreted the data. A validation questionnaire was also utilized in an effort to eliminate bias. Through the validation questionnaire donors were afforded the opportunity to add information they may not have felt comfortable providing during the focus group, or to add additional information they felt beneficial to the study. Validation questionnaires were confidential, and in no way identified the respondent. Aside from these facts, however, it is important to note, these possibilities are limitations to the focus group approach of this study.

## Implications for Future Research and Theory

From a theoretical perspective, no theory exists related to the motivations of female philanthropy; nor has other existing theory been applied given the limited research on female

philanthropy. The results of this study suggest specific motivations that lead to philanthropic support from female donors that are both similar to, different from, and in addition to those presented in the literature as explained in Chapter 4. However, all of these motivations can be encompassed within Fishbein's value-expectancy theory as a framework for articulating the outcomes expected by donors for giving, as well as the values donors place on those outcomes. Because these factors help to explain donor intent to perform the behavior of donating, the Fishbein theory should be considered as a theoretical framework for future studies of donor behavior.

Further, the results of this study extend the current literature on philanthropy by identifying the concepts of *community* and *compassion*, potentially bringing the total number of Cs as initially proposed by Shaw and Taylor to eight. Additional research will be needed to establish the validity of these additional Cs and to determine their broader applicability to donors. However, as demonstrated in this study, the Cs are consistent with value-expectancy theory, and when considered in light of other literature may offer a new perspective for further gender sensitive study of donor behavior.

The study was exploratory and limited in scope to a small group of female donors to the Virginia 4-H program. However, a number of logical next steps for research became evident.

One limitation of the study included parameters common to doctoral studies. The inquiry, carried out by an individual researcher, considered a limited number of cases. Future inquiry should include additional researchers and an increased number of donors from a broader range of organizations. This could offer a deeper analysis of the findings from this study and determine to what degree these or other motivational factors impact decisions to give. An in-depth look at the role of the donor's age, race, and economic status could also refine the current findings, as could an exploration of the effect of household financial decision making or the effect of the predominate financial decision maker on household donor behavior.

This research explored only successful donor relationships, in that each woman had contributed to the Virginia 4-H Foundation. Therefore, the study potentially overlooked important data related to unsuccessful donor relationships of the Foundation or other organizations. Although the study examined factors that led to subsequent gifts to the Foundation, and reasons for subsequent giving, the research did not probe deeply into reasons for not providing support to a particular cause or organization. Failure potentially plays a role in

understanding and implementing successful fundraising efforts.

A limitation of the study was that only known donors to the Virginia 4-H Foundation were included; therefore, there is an assumption of loyalty. Additional study is needed with groups or individuals that have not previously provided support to 4-H to determine if motivations are consistent with findings from this study.

Despite these limitations, this study is considered successful. Findings from this study indicate that qualitative methodology is an effective strategy for exploring a complex topic such as this and can contribute to a foundation for future quantitative study of the larger population.

#### Implications and Recommendations for the Virginia 4-H Foundation

If the Virginia 4-H Foundation is to develop and implement a successful fiscal development plan that respects the altruistic characteristics of both men and women, it must implement findings from this study into future fundraising approaches. Rosso's fundraising cycle (1991), considered the seminal fundraising theory in America, can serve as the framework for the Virginia 4-H Foundation's plan, incorporating findings from this study into the cycle. These findings have implications for other states in which there is a 4-H program. As discussed previously, in this study, Robert R. Meadows, Virginia Cooperative Extension, Associate Director, 4-H, conducted a survey of state 4-H program leaders across the nation. Findings from Meadow's survey indicated a lack of understanding related to female philanthropic motivations.

Step one in the fund raising cycle is what Rosso refers to as a planning checkpoint. At this stage, the 4-H program must examine its case for support. The case provides an overview of the reasons donors should support 4-H. Based upon this study, the Virginia 4-H Foundation should first develop a case that can be "localized" for the potential female donor. The case should incorporate specific details about the impact that participation in the 4-H program had on individuals with whom the prospective donor can identify. Second, the case must consider needs in the donor's local community. The 4-H Foundation will need to quantify the 4-H mission of "making the best better" through real-life testimonials and evidence of programming impact. The Foundation should clearly illustrate how gifts will empower the 4-H program in pursuit of its mission. Conducting development efforts in this manner is a deviation from the traditional approach of requesting funding for a curriculum or other programming on a state-wide basis, but must be encouraged based upon the findings of the study. This study suggests that women would prefer to give to specific projects or programs which have either impacted their communities or

them personally.

Boulding (1981) called this serial reciprocity and purported that giving back or repaying the benefits received was an important factor for *both* men and women. The women in the study indicated support of local issues as priority, and shared that they want their giving to be local, and want to see and feel the impact of their gift. Therefore, materials developed for the case should make clear connections between the local situation analysis data, the 4-H programming developed as a response, and the projected impacts. Further, the women indicated that they wanted to support a particular child or program, not 4-H revenues in general. Thus, materials and presentations with prospective donors must be developed in partnership with field faculty. Therefore, this approach should be effective with both men and women.

An analysis of market requirements comes next in the Rosso Cycle. The 4-H program must test its mission against the wants and needs of the market or that of prospective donors. Prospective donors must understand what issues 4-H educational programming purports to address and must accept that the proposed approach is valid. Further, prospective donors must believe the issues are important. If prospective donors do not understand or accept the importance of the needs being addressed by 4-H, fundraising faces a serious obstacle. Based on this study, female donors will give to organizations that they care about and that address needs that they care about. In meeting clearly identified community needs, understood to be of value to the potential donors, 4-H can formulate compelling arguments for why its work merits philanthropic gifts.

Virginia Cooperative Extension conducts a situation analysis in the 107 localities where there is an Extension office; educational programs in each locality vary, in that programs are locally based and reflective of local issues and needs. The situation analysis process identifies issues or needs within a given community based upon the perspectives of residents. Issues or needs identified are then addressed through Virginia Cooperative Extension educational programs, including 4-H.

Information about the local situation analysis and the proposed 4-H programming will need to be incorporated into the case shared with prospective donors. Case materials should be flexible enough that potential donors can see and identify examples from their own communities. Virginia Cooperative Extension has developed an on-line reporting system which should enable needed information to be gathered in an efficient manner. Again, the Foundation will need to

partner with field faculty who work in the communities.

The Virginia 4-H Foundation should stress the situation analysis process to prospective donors, assuring the donor that programs are locally based, and are developed and implemented based upon input from their respective locality. Based on study findings, Virginia Cooperative Extension and the Virginia 4-H Foundation could be well served through assuring gender balance into the situation analysis process. Women donors in this study acknowledged a strong desire to be connected to the organization, and to see the change and outcome associated with the gift.

Next, according to the Rosso (1991) model, is the preparation of a needs statement or plan for carrying out the organization's work in pursuit of mission fulfillment. The plan should clearly define the kinds of resources needed to carry out services, thus justifying, in this case, 4-H fundraising efforts. The needs statement should clearly define fundraising goals. Based upon findings of the study, all needs should be local and all funds requested should include a clear definition of the amounts needed and why. Based upon this study, women desire facts. Men, according to Arrow (1974) desire the same, so the Virginia 4-H Foundation should be very specific in identifying target programs and potential programmatic impacts on the local level. Components of programs should also be identified and associated costs communicated clearly to prospective donors (e.g. the cost for one child to attend summer camp.) Further, this study showed that female donors prefer to support individuals, so the foundation should work with local field faculty in identifying potential programming scholarships and processes to identify local recipients.

In the next step of the Rosso model, the 4-H Foundation and those charged with development responsibilities must define the objectives of the 4-H program to prospective donors. During this stage 4-H must define the programs or services to be delivered to address the issue or need. This includes how 4-H will do the work, including specific action plans, for providing educational methods to address the issues that the organization and donors believe are locally important.

Findings from this study indicate the importance of communicating measurable projected outcomes to potential donors. Consequently, the Foundation should incorporate information on the impact that 4-H programming has had in the lives of people in the prospective donor's local community, as well as the impact the program has had on the community in general. It is also

important that research be conducted concerning the involvement that prospective donors have had with the 4-H program. If the potential donor has been involved, care should be taken to incorporate examples of like programming. For example, if the person exhibited swine while in 4-H and perceived this as a positive experience, the solicitation should include information about the animal science or similar program efforts in order to build trust and to promote a stronger connection with the donor.

Next, according to Rosso, volunteers are involved. Development officers are limited in the number of prospective donors they can reach. Volunteers are critical to the success of fundraising as they increase outreach. Rosso asserts that the most effective fundraisers are those that are passionate about the cause. Paid staff members are often considered to be doing their jobs when soliciting funds; however, an unpaid solicitation by peers, reflects passion and concern for the cause. According to this study, women prefer to be solicited by someone they know, and that they prefer solicitation to be personal, either face-to-face, by personal letter, or by telephone call. Further, women prefer to be solicited by someone who has been impacted by the program, or by someone who can share factual information about the program and its outcomes. Trustworthiness was a major issue identified in this study, and knowing the person making the solicitation increases trust.

Virginia 4-H currently has over 17,000 volunteers throughout the state. The 4-H Foundation should establish a strong working relationship with local volunteer leader associations and local Extension Leadership Councils. In addition, the Foundation should work with retired extension agents. The retirees are eager to assist the organization and are very well recognized, community leaders who know and are passionate about the 4-H youth development program. Volunteers can help identify prospective donors, help develop the plan, and assist with “the ask.” In addition, the local volunteers will be able to validate that the gift will be used in an effective manner, as female donors acknowledged the importance of good financial management and definitive outcomes.

The next step of the Rosso cycle (1991) is an evaluation of gift markets to determine the ability and perceived willingness of donors to fund the programs through charitable gifts. This step includes making informed judgments about which markets to approach and the gift amounts to be sought. This study indicates that the 4-H Foundation has not fully realized the potential of female donors and has not asked them to give. Women should be included in the evaluation of

gift markets. Because the women in this study prefer to give locally, the Foundation should secure female involvement at the local level. Currently, the Foundation is made up of a statewide Board of Trustees. It may be helpful to have several regional committees that could expand representation across the state, include more women, and increase the focus on localized needs. These committees could be instrumental throughout the development cycle and broadly enhance the perspectives of the Board of Trustees.

Identifying potential gift sources is the next planning step in the Rosso cycle (1991). Each prospective donor is identified and qualified by three criteria: linkage to the organization, ability to give gifts at the level being sought, and interest in the organization's work. Women have indicated their desire and linkage to youth development, and they have the resources to provide support. Realizing from this study that women give through a desire to give back, 4-H should identify female alumni and include them as giving prospects. Women 4-H alumni, 4-H All-Stars, retired female 4-H agents, and 4-H volunteers and their male counterparts should be profiled and encouraged to give to the organization. In order to accomplish this, the 4-H Foundation will need to work with the State 4-H office to develop and maintain appropriate profiling systems and a process for sharing the information.

It would also be appropriate to include current 4-H members as giving prospects. A creative plan will teach youth the importance of giving, provide a giving program that they can be a part of, and celebrate their contribution to the organization. As indicated in this study, female youth who develop loyalty to and have a positive youth development experience with the 4-H program are most likely to become the future donors to the organization.

In the tenth step of the Rosso cycle (1991) the fund raising plan is prepared. During this step the organization clearly defines how it will communicate with prospective donors. Donors must be clearly informed about the objectives of the program, the proposed programming interventions, and the importance of donor involvement to success. Communication must move the prospect to action and donors must be convinced that their gifts will, in fact, make a difference. Women in the study indicated a desire for facts related to their gifts, and the literature agrees that men also desire factual information (Glazer & Konrad, 1996) when considering giving options. Thus, this approach should be effective with both men and women.

The female donors specifically stated that they want to know an exact amount being requested, and desire to know how the amount fits into a specific program or will benefit a

particular child. Thus the 4-H Foundation should develop sample budgets for prospective programs that clearly illustrate the funding needs and itemize what specific gifts will support.

Given that the female donors indicated that they give as a way to become more involved in youth development, the Foundation should work with both the local and state 4-H programs to identify meaningful ways to engage potential donors. Several donors in this study described a visit to campus with 4-H as a positive experience which helped to shape the vision for their future as adults. Thus, the organization should consider additional opportunities for 4-H members to visit the land-grant universities.

Further, when members and volunteers are at Virginia Tech or Virginia State, Foundation members should actively interact with the youth and the adult leaders. Because the donors prefer to be connected to youth, the Foundation must develop strong working relationships with the State 4-H Cabinet made up of youth leaders from across the state. These young adults should be involved in telling the 4-H story. An additional strategy would be to work with field faculty and leaders to identify and cultivate 4-H ambassadors at the local level. Not only would the youth provide a way to personalize the case for giving, they would also validate that the gift was used in an effective way. Additionally, this interaction between the 4-H Cabinet and ambassadors affords the youth an opportunity to learn leadership and the importance of their personal future giving.

The next action step in the cycle is to activate volunteer corps of solicitors. Fund raising in the United States has been largely a volunteer activity. Action is taken by people so committed to a cause that they make their own gifts and then eagerly invite others to join the cause. No solicitation is more compelling, even today, than one carried out by a volunteer advocate who personally solicits gifts to support a nonprofit to which he or she is passionately devoted. Female and male 4-H alumni should be incorporated in the corps of volunteers as well as parents of current 4-H members.

Based on this study, the 4-H Foundation should develop partnerships with the faith-based community and with females who value education, such as retired teachers. Targeting potential donors whose personal values and interests align with 4-H can lead to increased giving. Prospective female donors should be profiled to discover past 4-H participation and to identify programs or events that are of a particular interest. It is important to discover the passions held by the prospective donor in order to tailor the solicitation; findings from this study support this

approach. From among the corps of solicitors, a person closely associated with the prospective donor, or someone who also supports the program, should facilitate contact with the prospect.

Next, according to Rosso (1991), the Virginia 4-H Foundation must implement the fund raising plan with the broader constituency. Planning continues with careful selection of fund raising vehicles or strategies. Traditional effectiveness charts of solicitation techniques may not hold true when working with female audiences. For example, Rosso provided a listing of solicitation techniques that he refers to as the solicitation effectiveness ladder. In the following order, Rosso suggested their usage by organizations during the solicitation process:

1. personal face-to-face;
2. personal letter;
3. personal letter through email;
4. personal telephone call;
5. impersonal letter, direct mail or e-mail;
6. impersonal telephone, telemarketing;
7. fundraising benefit, special event;
8. door-to-door; and,
9. media advertising, internet.

Based on the results of this study, women respond to different solicitation techniques than those identified in the literature for men. The women in this study stated a preference for personal face-to-face, personal letter, and personal telephone call solicitations. Further, the women indicated negative reactions to solicitations by impersonal letter or telephone. As such, the Virginia 4-H Foundation should strive to solicit female donors primarily through face-to-face contact. Preferably the contact should be someone with whom the prospect is familiar. Secondary to face-to-face, Virginia 4-H should implement, in this order, solicitation via personal letter or personal telephone call, all of which could appeal to both men and women.

Soliciting and receiving the gift is not the end of the process. In fact, it is only the beginning of a deepening relationship between the donor and 4-H. Proper gratitude for and acknowledgment of the gift must be expressed by 4-H. Based upon study findings, the 4-H Foundation must disclose during the solicitation how the gift will be used, and following the gift demonstrate the highest level of accountability and stewardship in the appropriate and wise use of the gift. Properly thanking donors, reporting the use of gifts, and demonstrating wise

stewardship of contributed funds makes renewal of the gift possible according to this study. Donors in the study indicated a desire for communication regarding their gift and its outcomes via cost-effective newsletters and other communication tools. High quality materials which are very specific concerning the impacts resulting from a gift will need to be developed and shared with the donors.

Further, the donors in this study preferred not to be publicly recognized but to be invited to participate in celebrations of member accomplishments. They also appreciated the opportunity to connect with 4-H and 4-H program participants in order to experience their gift through involvement. Based on this study, female donors prefer to see the program that their gift supported over receiving plaques or other public recognition. Females value gatherings which highlight the accomplishments of 4-H educational programming. In other words, they would prefer to have a celebration of the work accomplished through their gifts as opposed to a donor recognition program. Men, on the other hand, prefer public recognition and opportunities for named gifts. For the Foundation to implement these findings at the local level, donors should be invited to major 4-H events and to achievements programs for 4-H members. Donors should also be involved in area and district competitions and contests. Should a donor provide funding for the camping program, efforts should be made to celebrate the gift by inviting the donor to camp. At the state level, the Foundation should examine the recognition activities at State 4-H Congress. When members are recognized, care should be given to invite donors and to develop a recognition program that connects the state award to the individual donor and community efforts of the youth recipient. This could be easily accomplished by soliciting pictures of the youth's project work which could be shown as a slide show while the youth is accepting the state award.

Although this study reports findings based upon female donors, the preferences of male donors were derived from the literature. The incorporation of both male and female altruistic characteristics holds great potential for the Virginia 4-H Foundation and 4-H members across Virginia. Realizing the economic reality that two separate development plans are not viable, the Foundation should work to include factors for both male and female donors. It's unlikely that the Foundation can or should drop the tradition of awarding plaques as a signal of appreciation, nor is it likely or advised that the Foundation offer recognition solely through involvement. The Foundation instead, should offer the opportunity for involvement to both men and women, and likewise, offer plaques or other tokens as recognition and gratitude. Possibly by offering plaques

or other forms of public recognition to those donating at higher levels, or offering periodic incentives, the Foundation could incorporate a variety of recognition strategies and maintain respect for gender diversity.

The Virginia 4-H Foundation has a successful record of securing funds in support of the 4-H program, but the economic environment of the future will necessitate greater donor support. Although this study was oriented toward discovering the motivations of female philanthropists, and relied upon the literature related to men, it can be assumed that the findings from the female donors in this study will assist in forming a comprehensive resource development plan. By taking what the literature proposes for male philanthropy and combining it with the knowledge generated through the findings of this and other studies of female philanthropists, development efforts of the future are certain to benefit.

## REFERENCES

- Alexander, N. (2006, August). *The power of the purse: Women's philanthropy in action*. Paper presented at the 2006 Conference for Nonprofits, Charleston, SC.
- American Association of Fundraising Counsel (2005, September). *Giving USA 2005*. Retrieved September 11, 2005, from [http://aafr.org/gusa/GUSA05\\_Press\\_Release.pdf](http://aafr.org/gusa/GUSA05_Press_Release.pdf).
- Andreoni, J. (1989). Giving with impure altruism: Applications to charity and Ricardian equivalence. *Journal of Political Economy*, 97(6), 1447-1458.
- Andreoni, J. (1990). Impure altruism and donations to public goods: a theory of warm-glow giving. *Economic Journal*, 100, 464-477.
- Arrow, K. (1974). Gifts and exchanges. *Philosophy and Public Affairs*, 1(4), 343-362.
- Bartling, C. E. (1999). The psychology of asking and giving. *Association Management*, 51(12), 55-60.
- Becker, G. S. (1974). Theory of social interaction. *Journal of Political Economy*, 82, 1064-1093.
- Becker, L. C. (1986). *Reciprocity*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Bender, E. I. (1986). The self-help movement seen in context of social development. *Journal of Voluntary Action Research*, 2, 77-84.
- Berg, S. (1988). Snowball sampling. In S. Kotz, & N. Johnson (Eds.), *Encyclopedia of statistical sciences* (Vol. 8, pp. 529-532). New York: Wiley.
- Borders, A., Earleywine, M., & Huey, S. (2004). Predicting problem behaviors with multiple expectancies: Expanding expectancy value theory. *Adolescence*, 39, 539-551.
- Boulding, K. E. (1981). *A preface to grants economics*. New York: Praeger.
- Brakeley Briscoe, Inc. (2006, September). *Women as donors, women as philanthropists...still an issue?* Denver, CO.
- Brahs, S. J. (1998). Planning for America's demographic time bomb. *Journal of the Institute of Certified Financial Planners*, 7-11.
- Bremner, R. H. (1988). *American philanthropy*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Burlingame, D. F. (1977). *Critical issues in fund raising*. New York: Wiley.
- Capek, M. E., & Mead, (2006). *Effective philanthropy: Organizational success through deep diversity and gender equality*. Boston: MIT Press.
- Clary, E., Snyder, M., & Stukas, A. (1995). Volunteers' motivations: Findings from a national survey. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, 25(4), 485-505.

- Cochran, G. (2006, June 22). United Way nurtures female philanthropy. *Lansing Star Journal*, 1B.
- Cohen, C. A. (1996). Case study from Barnard College. *Fund Raising Institute Monthly Portfolio*, 35(2), 1.
- Cook, W. B. (1997). Fundraising and the college presidency in an era of uncertainty: From 1975 to present. *Journal of Higher Education*, 68(1), 53.
- Cornes, R., & Sandler, T. (1984). The theory of public goods: Non-Nash behavior. *Journal of Public Economics*, 23, 367-379.
- Council of Foundations (2005). An abbreviated history of the philanthropic tradition in the United States. Retrieved January 23, 2005, from <http://www.cof.org/Content/General/Display.cfm?contentID=60>.
- Critz, D. (1980). Women as givers and getters. *Case Currents*, 6, 16-19.
- Cronbach, L. J. (1975). Beyond the two disciplines of scientific psychology. *American Psychologist*, 30, 116-127.
- Dailey, W. F. (1986). Organizing yourself for major gift success. In H. G. Quigg (Ed.), *The successful capital campaign* (pp. 81-86). Washington, DC: Council for Advancement and Support of Education.
- Diebolt, E. (2001). Women and philanthropy in France: From the sixteenth to the twentieth centuries. In K. D. McCarthy, *Women, philanthropy, and civil society* (pp. 128-162). Bloomington: Indiana University Press.
- Donmoyer, R. (1990). Generalizability and the single-case study. In E. W. Eisener & A. Peshkin (Eds.), *Qualitative inquiry in education: The continuing debate* (pp. 175-199). New York: Teachers College.
- Dooley, J. (1995). *The Virginia 4-H foundation: White paper on the structure and format of the Virginia 4-H foundation*. Blacksburg: Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University, Virginia 4-H Foundation.
- Duronio, M. A., & Tempel, E. R. (1997). *Fund raisers: Their careers, stories, concerns, and accomplishments*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Eakin, L. (2004). *Community capacity draining: The impact of current funding practices on nonprofit community organizations*. Toronto: Community Social Planning Council.
- Ellis, S. (1997, September). What's gender got to do with it? *Energize*. Retrieved September 1,

- 2006, from <http://www.energizeinc.com/hot/sept97.html>.
- Erickson, F. (1986). Qualitative methods in research on teaching. In M. C. Whittrock (Ed.), *Handbook of research on teaching* (pp. 119-161). Old Tapan, NJ: MacMillan.
- Eshleman, J., & Davidhizar, R. E. (2006). Strategies for developing cultural competency in an RN-BSN program. *Journal of Transcultural Nursing*, 2(17), 179-183.
- Faugier, J., & Sargeant, M. (1997). Sampling hard to reach populations. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 26, 790–797.
- Ferguson-Patton, K. (1993). Women talking to women about giving? Creating incentives, avoiding resistance. In A. J. von Schlegell & J. M. Fisher (Eds.), *New directions for philanthropic fundraising: Women as donors, women as philanthropists* (pp. 5-20). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Fishbein, M. (1967). Attitude and the prediction of behavior. In M. Fishbein (Ed.), *Readings in attitude theory and measurement* (pp. 477-492). New York: Wiley.
- Foundation Center (2006). Frequently asked questions. Retrieved September 21, 2006, from <http://foundationcenter.org/getstarted/faqs/html/501c3not.html>.
- Glazer, A., & Konrad, K. (1996). A signaling explanation for charity. *American Economic Review*, 1019-1028.
- Grace K. S. (1997). *Beyond fundraising: New strategies for nonprofit innovation and investment*. New York: Wiley.
- Green, E. (2001). Study finds differences in giving patterns between wealthy men and women. *Chronicle of Philanthropy*, 13(14), 12-17.
- Greer, J. (2000). Women supporting women supporting women: A full circle of empowerment. *Fund Raising Management*, 31(1), 36–37.
- Guba, E. G., & Lincoln, Y. S. (1985). *Naturalistic inquiry*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Hager, M., Galaskiewicz, J., Bielefeld, W., & Pins, J. (1996). Tales from the grave: Organizations accounts of their own demise. *American Behavioral Scientist*, 39(8), 975-94.
- Hall, M., & Banting, K. (1999). The nonprofit sector in Canada: An introduction. In J. Bickerton & A. G. Gagnon (Eds.), *Canadian Politics* (pp. 24-45). New York: Broadview Press.
- Harbaugh, W. (1998). What do gifts buy? A model of philanthropy and tithing based on prestige and warm glow. *Journal of Public Economics*, 67, 269-284.

- Harris, J. T. (1990). Private support for public, doctorate-granting universities: Building a theoretical base. *Review of Higher Education, 13*(4), 519-538.
- Kaplan, A. E., & Hayes, J. (1993). What we know about women as donors. In A. von Schlegell & J. M. Fisher (Eds.) *New directions for philanthropic fundraising: Women as donors, women as philanthropists* (pp. 73-82). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Kaplan-Daniels, A. (1988). *Invisible careers: Women civic leaders from the volunteer world*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Kelly, K. S. (1991). *Fund raising and public relations: A critical analysis*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Kelly, K. S. (1993, May). *Four models of fund raising conceptualized and empirically supported through application of public relations theory*. Paper presented at the 43rd Annual Conference of the International Communications Association, Washington, D.C.
- Kirchhoff, S. (2003, September 17). Nonprofits start making painful cuts. *USA Today*, p. B1.
- Knudson, E. (2003). Operation accountability. *Philanthropy Matters, 13*(1), 4-10.
- Krueger, R. A. (1994). *Focus groups: A practical guide for applied research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Kvale, S. (1996). *Interviews: An introduction to qualitative research interviewing*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Leslie, L. L., & Ramey, G. (1988). Donor behavior and voluntary support for higher education institutions. *Journal of Higher Education, 59*, 115-132.
- Mazis, M., Ahtola, O., & Kippel, R. (1975). A comparison of four multi attribute models in the prediction of consumer attitudes. *Journal of Consumer Research, 2*, 38-53.
- McCarthy, K. D. (2001). *Women, philanthropy, and civil society*. Bloomington, IN: Indiana University Press.
- McIlrath, T. O. (2005, November). *A golden opportunity*. Paper presented at the 7<sup>th</sup> Biennial Forum on Women and Philanthropy, Madison, WI.
- McMurtry, S. L., Netting, F. E., & Kettner, P. M. (1991). How nonprofits adapt to a stringent environment. *Nonprofit Management & Leadership, 1*(3), 235-52.
- Meadows, R. R. (2003). Virginia 4-H, Current Situation and Plans for the Future, Virginia Cooperative Extension, 4-H Fact Sheet, Blacksburg.

- Merriam, S. B. (1998). *Qualitative research and case study applications in education*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Merrill Lynch Report (1999, December). *Philanthropy among business women of achievement*. Washington, DC.
- Mixer, J. R. (1993). *Principles of professional fundraising: Useful foundations for successful practice*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Mount, J. (1996). Why donors give. *Nonprofit Management and Leadership*, 7(1), 4-14.
- Newman, R. (2000). Gender differences in philanthropy. *Fund Raising Management*, 31(1), 28-29.
- Ostrander, S. A., & Fisher, J. M. (1995). Women giving money, women raising money: What difference for philanthropy? *New Directions for Philanthropic Fundraising*, 8, 67-78.
- Ostrower, F. (1995). *Why the wealthy give: The culture of elite philanthropy*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.
- Patton, M. Q. (1990). *Qualitative evaluation and research methods*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Payton, R. L. (1988). *Philanthropy: Voluntary action for the public good*. New York: American Council on Education/MacMillan Press.
- Polaneczky, R. (2004, March 8). Philanthropy and women. *Philadelphia Daily News*, p. B4.
- Prather, R. F. (1981). *The private liberal arts college and the major gift*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. Teachers College, Columbia University, New York.
- Rafferty, R. (1999). *Don't just give it away: How to make the most of your charitable giving*. Worcester: Chandler House Press.
- Reis, G. R. (2000). New publication promotes collective charitable giving by women. *Fund Raising Management*, 31, 3-8.
- Rice, J. J., & Prince, M. J. (2000). *Creating a new policy agenda*. Toronto: University of Toronto Press.
- Richardson, W. C. (2000). *Women's philanthropy*. Battle Creek, MI: Kellogg Foundation.
- Rose-Ackerman, S. (1982). Charitable giving and 'excessive' fundraising. *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 97(2), 193-212.
- Rossman, G. B., & Rallis, S. F. (1998). *Learning in the field: An introduction to qualitative research*. Thousand Oaks: Sage.
- Rosso, H. A. (1991). *Achieving excellence in fund raising*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

- Salamon, L. M. (1999). *America's nonprofit sector: A primer*. New York: Foundation Center.
- Salamon, L. M. (2003). *The resilient sector: The state of nonprofit America*. Washington, DC: Brookings Institution.
- Salamon, L. M., & O'Sullivan, R. (2004). *Communique No. 2: Stressed by coping: Nonprofit organizations and the current fiscal crisis*. Johns Hopkins Centre for Civil Society Studies, Institute for Policy Studies, Listening Post Project.
- Schervish, P. G. (1990). Wealth and the spiritual secret of money. In R. Wuthnow & V. A. Hodgkinson (Eds.), *Faith and philanthropy in America: Exploring the role of religion in America's voluntary sector* (pp. 63-92). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Schervish, P. G., & Havens, J. J. (2003). Gifts and bequests: Family or philanthropic organizations? In A. Munnell & A. Sunden (Eds.), *Death and Dollars* (pp. 131-165). Washington, D.C.: Brookings.
- Schiff, J. (1990). *Charitable giving and government policy: An economic analysis*. Westport, CT: Greenwood.
- Scott, W. R. (2003). *Organizations: Rational, natural, and open systems*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Scott, W.R. (2001). *Institutions and organizations*, 2<sup>nd</sup> ed. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Seidman, I. (1998). *Interviewing as qualitative research: A guide for researchers in education and the social sciences*. New York: Teachers College Press.
- Sen, A. K. (1977). Rational fools: A critique of the behavioral foundations of economic theory. *Philosophy and Public Affairs*, 6, 317-44.
- Seymour, H. J. (1966). *Designs for fund raising: Principles, patterns, techniques*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Shaw, S. C. (1993). Communicating with women: Understanding and applying the differences. In A. J. von Schelgell & J. M. Fisher (Eds.), *New directions for philanthropic fundraising: Women as donors, women as philanthropists* (pp. 216-44). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Shaw, S. C., & Taylor, M. A. (1995). *Reinventing fundraising: Realizing the potential of women's philanthropy*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Smith, G. T. (1993). The cultivation cycle and moves management concept. Paper presented, Institute for Charitable Giving, Chicago.

- Spreen, M. (1992). Rare populations, hidden populations, and link-tracing designs: What and why? *Bulletin de Methodologie Sociologique*, 36, 34-58.
- Stake, R. E. (1978). The case study method in social inquiry. *Educational Researcher*, 7, 5-8.
- Steinberg, R. (1987). Voluntary donations and public expenditures in a federalists system. *American Economic Review*, 77, 24-36.
- Strauss, A. L. & Corbin, J. (1990). *Basics of qualitative research: Grounded theory procedures and techniques*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Sublett, D. (1993). Women's approach to philanthropy: A learning model. In C. von Sussman (Ed.), Making change, how to build adaptive capacity. *Managing the Mosaic: The Nonprofit Quarterly*, 10, 4.
- Thomson, S. (1997). Adaptive sampling in behavioral surveys. *NIDA Research Monograph*, 296-319.
- Tullock, G. (1966). *The organization of inquiry*. Durham, NC: Duke University Press.
- Tullock, G. (2005.), Thomas Jefferson Center of Political Economy, Venture Philanthropy Partners, Papers and Perspectives: Public Funding. [On-line.] [http://www.vpppartners.org/learning/perspectives/pub\\_funding/June 13, 2005](http://www.vpppartners.org/learning/perspectives/pub_funding/June_13,_2005)).
- Van Slyke, D., & Eschholz, S. (2002). *New evidence about women and philanthropy: Findings from metro Atlanta*. Retrieved August 24, 2005, from Georgia State University, Andrew Young School of Policy Studies Web site: [http://aysps.gsu.edu/news/briefing/research03/nonprofit\\_sector.htm](http://aysps.gsu.edu/news/briefing/research03/nonprofit_sector.htm).
- Virginia 4-H facts & figures: 2005 Virginia 4-H statistical profile* (2005). Retrieved September 1, 2006, from Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University, Virginia Cooperative Extension Web site: <http://www.ext.vt.edu/resources/4h/facts05.html>.
- Walker (1980). The conduct of educational case studies: ethics, theories, and procedures. In W. Dockerell & D. Hamilton (Eds.), *Rethinking educational research* (pp. 30-63). London: Hodder & Stoughton.
- Wilson, M. C. (2000). Taking charge: How women's funds are changing the face of philanthropy. *Fund Raising Management*, 31(2), 20-23.
- Wolverton, B. (2003). Surviving tough times. *Chronicle of Philanthropy*, 16(2), 16-22.
- Wood, E.W. (1989). Philanthropy: Past, present, and future. *The Journal of Contemporary Issues in Fund Raising*, 27(2), 6-8.

- Worth, M. J. (1993). Defining institutional advancement, development, and fundraising. In M. J. Worth (Ed.), *Educational fund raising principals and practice* (pp. 3-9). Phoenix, AZ: Oryx Press.
- Yin, R. K. (1989). *Case study research: Design and methods*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Yow, V. R. (1994). *Recording oral history: A practical guide for social scientists*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

## APPENDIX A

### STAKEHOLDER FOCUS GROUP INTERVIEW GUIDE

Thank you for participating in this research. As I think each of you know, I am pursuing my PhD at the university in Resource Management. My research objective is to understand the motivations for female philanthropy. More specifically, I am interested in exploring particular motivations females have to contribute financially to the Virginia 4-H Foundation. Since each of you are development officers for the Virginia Tech College of Agriculture and Life Sciences, including Virginia's 4-H program, your input is very important to me and the success of this study.

We know that women give financial resources differently than men. As Virginia's 4-H program continues to grow, and state funds to support the program continue to decrease, it is important for us to understand why women donate monetarily to the program, what they expect from 4-H as a result of their gift, and how 4-H can inspire donors to give again and to give at higher levels. Specifically, the objectives of my research are:

1. To explore why women give financially to charitable organizations. More specifically, why they give to Virginia 4-H.
2. To explore factors that impact female donors' satisfaction with giving.
3. To explore what factors influence the decision to give to an organization repeatedly. If the donor has given repeatedly to an organization to explore key factors that led to the gift and, if the second gift was larger, explore factors that led to the larger gift.
4. To evaluate if when being asked to give, if the solicitation method impacts the decision to give, and if so, if there is a preferred solicitation technique?
5. To explore if recognition or other personal goal(s) influence a decision to give, and if they do, to explore desired types of recognition for giving.

Let me go over how we will conduct our time together. I have prepared a set of questions I want to ask you. It's important that you understand that I want to hear from you. I want to understand your responses and feelings about the question, and as such, there are no right or wrong responses. Some of you may be like me, and be a little more talkative than others, so I'll ask that we give everyone a chance to speak and share their opinions. I am interested in the opinions of all three of you. I will ask the questions and keep our conversation going. Let's begin.

### *Questions*

1. In your opinion, what experiences should be explored with female donors?
2. If you were conducting this study, what topics would you address?
3. What information do you feel would be beneficial to development officers from this study?

This concludes the questions I have for you. Are there questions you have of me regarding this study? Is there additional information you would like to add that you feel would impact this study?

Again, thank you for your time today. Once my research is complete, I look forward to sharing the results with you.

## APPENDIX B

### INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR FEMALE PHILANTHROPY FOCUS GROUPS

Good evening and thank you for participating in our discussion on women and philanthropy. I am Brian Calhoun, a PhD student in Virginia Tech's College of Liberal Arts and Human Sciences. As some of you know, professionally, I have been associated with Virginia Cooperative Extension more than 15 years, four years of which I served as the Executive Director of the Virginia 4-H Foundation. Assisting me today is Patty Mitchell.

Research shows that women and men have different motivations for giving. As Virginia's 4-H program continues to grow and state funds to support the program continue to decrease, it is important for us to understand the motivations of women donors, what they expect from 4-H as a result of their gift, and how 4-H can inspire donors to give again and at higher levels.

Let me go over how we will conduct our time together. I have prepared a set of questions I want to ask you. It's important that you understand I want to hear from you. I want to understand your responses and feelings to each question, and as such, there are no right or wrong answers. Some of you may be like me, and be a little more talkative than others, so I'll ask that we give everyone a chance to speak and share their opinions. I am interested in the opinions of everyone in this room.

I will tape record our time together and my assistant, \_\_\_\_\_, will assist by taking notes. The recording of our time today will be transcribed so that I may conduct an analysis of your comments. Your participation in this study will be held in the utmost confidence. We ask that each of you respect this same confidence. Although we were formally introduced to one another during the tea/luncheon, and may have become somewhat familiar with one another during our tea/lunch conversations, I ask that you not share the names of today's participants or any information shared. To assure that your names are unknown and that you are not associated with any response, or identified by any comment you may make, I have assigned each of you an initial corresponding to the first letter of your first name that will be utilized when the tapes are transcribed. In the event two or more of you share the same initial, I will use a combination of your first and last name initials.

Before we begin, let me again thank you for your time and participation in this study. At any point during our session should you wish to terminate your participation, please let me

know, and I will gladly honor your request. Do you have questions? Let's get started.

1. Each of us share a unique characteristic; we are all philanthropists. We have all contributed financially to the Virginia 4-H Foundation, and some of us have contributed to other organizations including our church, our alma mater or other nonprofit organization(s). Share with me your thoughts on being a philanthropist. More specifically, why are you a philanthropist?
2. Looking at the Virginia 4-H Foundation as a recipient of your gift,
  - a. Tell me about the most important factor that influenced your decision to give to 4-H.
  - b. Were there other factors influencing your decision to contribute to 4-H?
  - c. Have you made charitable gifts to other organizations? If so, did you give to these organizations for reasons different than those of why you gave to 4-H? If so, what?
3. How important are the following to you in the decision to make a financial gift to an organization: (use the following to probe or explore where needed/if responses haven't included or addressed or if additional information/clarification is needed related to any factor).
  - a. The mission of the organization
  - b. Making a commitment to the organizational mission via your gift
  - c. Opportunity to bring about change
  - d. Experience with the organization as a member or volunteer
  - e. Involvement with the organization's board or administrative staff
  - f. Ability to create programs with/for the organization
  - g. Giving back
  - h. Knowing the organization can make a difference, bring change
  - i. Opportunity to connect with members/other volunteers
  - j. Collaborating with other donors to have greater impact
  - k. Experiencing and celebrating member accomplishments
  - l. Personal goal achieved through giving
4. How many of you have given multiple gifts to the 4-H Foundation?

- a. If you have given multiple gifts, were your subsequent gifts at higher or lower levels?
  - b. Why did you make subsequent gifts?
  - c. Were there specific reasons that your subsequent gifts were at higher or lower levels? Did 4-H provide you with, or do anything, that helped you decide or feel that additional gifts were needed?
  - d. Those who have not made more than one gift to 4-H, what could 4-H do to encourage a second gift? Can you share these with me, please?
5. Let's assume that you were asked by Virginia 4-H to ask other women for gifts, and you agreed to do so, tell me how you would fulfill this task. Please design and share with me your ideal solicitation technique. Include any information you would provide prospective donors, how you would approach them, what you would offer them, etc. Should you wish to map out your plan prior to sharing, there are notepads and pens around the room.

*Following presentation of plans, if needed, ask for specific examples of solicitation techniques that have been used with them successfully, and unsuccessfully*

6. Now that we have solicited the gift, we need to recognize these women and their gift.
  - a. How important is recognition to you?
  - b. Is recognition best in the form of something tangible or intangible?
  - c. How has recognition impacted your decision to give?
  - d. How do you think Virginia 4-H should recognize donors?
7. Are there any questions you have or additional comments you would like to make?
8. Is there additional information any of you feel should be included in my study?
9. Are there any questions I didn't ask that I should have? What are they? How would you have answered them?

Let me explain to you the next steps in this study. Within two weeks each of you will receive a letter from me. Included in the letter will be a validation questionnaire. Please take the time to complete this form and return it to me within a two week period in the self-addressed, stamped envelope that I will include in the mailing. The form will include my summation of this group's responses to each question I have asked today. I would like to ask you to add, delete, or comment on my summation. Please feel free to make corrections in a manner you feel best

matches what you have heard today. The form will also include space for you to provide additional comments on any question, plus space for you to provide additional information you feel is important. My goal is to assist the Virginia 4-H Foundation in developing a gender sensitive fundraising plan. Your time and input is greatly appreciated in this effort. Travel safely, and again, thank you for your assistance today, and your support of Virginia's 4-H program.

## APPENDIX C

### LETTER TO POTENTIAL FOCUS GROUP PARTICIPANTS

Dear \_\_\_\_\_,

Thank you for your ongoing support of Virginia's 4-H-Youth Development program. Because of supporters like yourself, Virginia 4-H continues to "make the best better" for youth across the Commonwealth.

As a donor to Virginia 4-H, I'm certain you are aware of the importance private donations hold to the viability of our program. Previous years have seen substantial decreases in state and federal support of our program. Fortunately, private support has filled the gaps created, and because of loyal supporters like yourself, Virginia 4-H is stronger than ever.

As we look to the future of Virginia 4-H, we realize we need to work closely with donors and potential donors. We need to identify best practices of donor relationships we can employ to strengthen our partnerships and validate our stewardship of funds. With current enrollment of females in Virginia 4-H being greater than 51%, we are looking more specifically at ways we can enhance our capacity with female donors and female prospective donors. We need your help.

We will be conducting three focus groups of female donors across the state over the next couple of months, and as a female donor, we would like to invite your participation. Three female donors have volunteered to host the groups at their homes, beginning with a tea or luncheon and ending with a confidential focus group discussion. The discussion sessions will take about one to one and a half hour.

Answers to questions presented during the focus group sessions will be analyzed by D. Brian Calhoun, former Executive Director of the Virginia 4-H Foundation, and current PhD student at Virginia Tech. Brian will use the study as his dissertation research, through which he will make recommendations to the 4-H Foundation toward the development of a gender sensitive fund raising plan.

Confidentiality will be our main priority, and please be assured that your responses and your participation will be held in strictest confidence. Your participation will not be known by anyone other than the hostess of your session, Brian, an assistant Brian has hired to take notes, and other participants from your focus group session. We won't even be using your name as part of the study; you will be referred to by your initials. We will require that each participant uphold this same level of confidentiality by not sharing any information related to the session or other participants.

Your thoughts are very important to us. Your ideas will help us make the Virginia 4-H program better than ever. If you are interested in participating, please notify me by email at [bmeadows@vt.edu](mailto:bmeadows@vt.edu), or by phone at 540-231-6371. Only when you have responded with your willingness to participate will we provide your name and contact information to the session

hostess closest to you. You will receive details regarding the date, time and location from the hostess.

If you are aware of other female donors to the Virginia 4-H Foundation that might be willing to share their opinions during a focus group session, please ask that they make me aware of their interest. We welcome them to participate in this important study.

Again, thank you for your support of Virginia 4-H, and your consideration of this request. Should you have questions, or need additional information regarding this study or Virginia 4-H, please contact me.

My best in 4-H,

Dr. Robert Ray Meadows  
Associate Director, Virginia 4-H

APPENDIX D

CARD OF INVITATION TO FOCUS GROUP SESSION

**You're invited.....**

**To a tea/luncheon in support of Virginia 4-H! What? You might ask....remember your letter from Dr. Meadows with Virginia 4-H. I will be hosting the tea/luncheon and focus group session with Brian Calhoun.**

**Come join me and other female supporters of Virginia 4-H at my home located at 212 Any Street, Any City, Virginia, DATE, at TIME.**

**RSVP to me at: Telephone number of hostess  
Or email address of hostess**

**I look forward to seeing you DATE!**

## APPENDIX E

### INFORMED CONSENT FOR PARTICIPANTS

#### IN RESEARCH PROJECTS INVOLVING HUMAN SUBJECTS

Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University Informed Consent for Participants In  
Research Projects Involving Human Subjects

**Project Title:** Philanthropic Motivations of Female Donors to Virginia's 4-H Program

**Investigator:** D. Brian Calhoun, Doctoral Candidate, College of Liberal Arts and Human  
Sciences

Advisor: Dr. Ruth Lytton

#### **I. Purpose of Research**

The purpose of this study is to examine the motivations of female donors to the Virginia 4-H Foundation in able for the Virginia 4-H Foundation to develop a gender sensitive fiscal development model.

#### **II. Procedures**

In order to learn of reasons female donors give to Virginia 4-H and to examine ways the Virginia 4-H Foundation should solicit and recognize their contributions, I would like to conduct focus groups with women who have provided financial support to the program. The focus group will be tape recorded.

#### **III. Risks**

The risks are minimal since your name or other identifying information will not be used in any documents. You are asked to respect the confidential nature of this study and not share any personal information you have may have learned during the tea/luncheon, nor any comments or participants from our interview session together.

#### **IV. Benefits**

Virginia's 4-H program relies on private contributions to fill financial gaps created as a result of declining public support of the program. The results of this study will inform the Virginia 4-H Foundation and Virginia 4-H how they can best partner with female donors to assure continued successful 4-H programs across the Commonwealth.

#### **V. Extent of Anonymity and Confidentiality**

Exchange of names and personal information may have occurred during the social portion of this project; however, names will not be utilized as an identifier in any part of this study, related study materials (including transcripts of focus group session) or results. Subjects will be identified only by initials in all data, data analysis and findings. It is requested that personal or any other information not be shared outside the focus group session today.

**VI. Compensation**

There will no compensation provided to you as a result of your participation.

**VII. Freedom to Withdraw**

There is no penalty if you decide to withdraw from participating in this focus group. If you decide to give me permission today, and then decide to withdraw at a later time or during the session itself, please let me know. There will no penalty or negative consequences to you as a result of your withdrawal.

**VIII. Subject’s Responsibilities**

You are requested to participate in the focus group session by sharing your thoughts on each question being asked today. There are no right or wrong answers, the researcher wants your opinions. Please be respectful of others by allowing each participant to answer each question fully. You are responsible for maintaining participant personal information and all input in the utmost confidential nature.

I voluntarily agree to participate in this study. I have the following responsibilities:

**X. Subject’s Permission**

I have read the Consent Form and conditions of this project. I have had all my questions answered. I hereby acknowledge the above and give my voluntary consent:

\_\_\_\_\_ Date \_\_\_\_\_ Subject  
signature

Should I have any pertinent questions about this research or its conduct, and research subjects’ rights, and whom to contact in the event of a research-related injury to the subject, I may contact:

- D. Brian Calhoun (540) 231-5798 dcalhoun@vt.edu  
Investigator Telephone/e-mail
- Dr. Ruth Lytton (540) 231-6678 rlytton@vt.edu Faculty  
Advisor Telephone/e-mail
- Dr. LuAnn R. Gaskill (540) 231-6179 lagaskil@vt.edu  
Departmental Reviewer/Department Head Telephone/e-mail
- David M. Moore 540-231-4991/moored@vt.edu Chair,  
Virginia Tech Institutional Review Telephone/e-mail Board for the Protection  
of Human Subjects  
Office of Research Compliance  
1880 Pratt Drive, Suite 2006 (0497)  
Blacksburg, VA 24061

## APPENDIX F

### IRB PROTOCOL AND INFORMED CONSENT FORM

#### OUTLINE FOR PROTOCOL TO ACCOMPANY IRB REPORT

**Investigator:** D. Brian Calhoun, PhD Candidate, Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University, College of Liberal Arts and Human Sciences

**Advisor:** Dr. Ruth Lytton, Ph.D., Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University College of Liberal Arts and Human Sciences

**Title:** Philanthropic Motivations of Female Donors to Virginia's 4-H Program

#### **Justification for Project**

Since its beginning in 1909, 4-H has focused on providing quality educational programs based on research generated by the land-grant university system. Millions of youth, according to Meadows (2003), credit becoming better contributing members of society to their involvement in 4-H. Further, Meadows asserts that 4-H is Virginia's largest youth development program. In Virginia, 4-H is a joint program of the land-grant universities, Virginia Tech and Virginia State University, the U.S. Department of Agriculture, and local governments. Virginia 4-H holds true to the commitment to "assist youth, and those adults working with them, in acquiring the knowledge, life skills, and attitudes that will enable them to become self-directing, contributing, and productive members of society" states Meadows. According to Meadows, Virginia 4-H has addressed the needs and interests of youth for over 90 years.

During fiscal year, 2002-2003, Virginia Cooperative Extension experienced a 12% state budget cut. These budget woes significantly impacted the ability of Virginia 4-H to educate youth across the state. Virginia 4-H operates under a unique funding formula with 50% from the public sector and the remaining funding from private sources (Dooley, 1995). The Virginia 4-H Foundation serves as the private support arm of Virginia's 4-H program and operates under a traditional fund development model. A key factor to improving the "health" of Virginia 4-H, according to Meadows (2003), is increased funding from external sources to support the youth development program.

One in six Virginians is a 4-H alumnus, with 199,386 members in 2004. Of these, 51% of 4-H members are female; 49% male (Virginia 4-H, 2004). To be successful, the Virginia 4-H Foundation must continuously uncover new sources of revenue. This includes focusing on the motivations of female donors.

An increasing need for private resources and new donors indicates a strong call for research to examine donor behaviors and motivations. However, a review of the literature on philanthropic behavior in America revealed that most research focuses on donor behavior of the general population with little analysis of data by gender. Based on their work with more than 150 female

philanthropists and scores of development professionals, Shaw and Taylor (1995) concluded that previous studies in philanthropy and fundraising reported on the way men give. With regard to women, however, it is often noted they give for different reasons than men, and their reasons are based on their experiences as women. In light of the fact that traditionally, most donors have been male, and given the American patriarchal culture, development professionals have focused on men as the head of the household. Further, Shaw and Taylor (1995) state that nonprofits must make a major commitment to involve an increased number of women in their organization. By implementing a female-focused development plan, Virginia 4-H can position itself to garner support from the increasing numbers of female philanthropists, including the women who represent over half of the 4-H alumni.

This study examines motivating factors that lead to female monetary gifts to nonprofit organizations, specifically the Virginia 4-H program. The study focuses on women as donors to Virginia 4-H, explores their motivations for giving, factors that impact their satisfaction with giving, and motivating factors that result in repeat donations and giving at higher levels. Knowledge of these variables will enable the Virginia 4-H Foundation Board of Directors to develop and implement a successful gender sensitive fiscal development model.

## **Rationale**

According to Shaw and Taylor (1995), as nonprofit organizations continue to experience increased stressors, success will be achieved through new approaches for resource development. Traditional development models, including effective solicitation and recognition techniques, according to Shaw and Taylor are based upon Seymour's seminal work, *Designs for Fundraising* (1966), and what he calls "universal motivations" for giving. These motives lead to a decision by individuals to donate money to an organization. Shaw and Taylor further conclude that Seymour's universal motivations apply almost entirely to men, are based upon studies of male donors, and, as a result, Seymour's theories are not across-the-board truisms. Male models of fundraising may not translate well with female prospects because of gender differences in giving. Traditional development models tie women's philanthropic activity and social status to a husband's wealth, but the transition to accommodate female philanthropy holds rewards for every charitable organization Bender (1986). Bender further states that charities should refine their approach to women as individuals and as powerful forces in fundraising.

## **Methodology**

Qualitative inquiry has been chosen to guide this study. Strauss & Corbin (1990) define this approach to inquiry as "any kind of research that produces findings not arrived at by means of statistical procedures or other means of quantification." Unlike quantitative researchers, who look for causal determination, prediction, and generalization of findings, qualitative researchers look for illumination, understanding, and extrapolation to similar situations.

This study includes a combination of focus groups and a written validation questionnaire. This choice optimizes the research objective of ascertaining the best approach for female philanthropists to secure donations for the Virginia 4-H Foundation and to identify how women would prefer to be approached for donations. Specifically, the research will explore potential

motivations for a female philanthropist to donate or not to the Virginia 4-H Foundation.

The qualitative inquiry framework, focus groups, will be used because of their success “to examine areas of concern that have considerable complexity and are typically dependent on motivational forces and characteristics of human behavior” (Krueger, 1994, p. 8). A focus group “is typically composed of seven to 10 participants who are selected because they have certain characteristics in common that relate to the topic of the focus group” (Krueger, 1994, p. 6). For this study, small focus groups comprising of seven to eight participants will be used. They will all be female Virginian philanthropists with a history of giving to the Virginia 4-H Foundation. The inquiry in each group will focus on motivational factors and preferred solicitation and recognition driving their philanthropy, especially in regards to the Virginia 4-H Foundation. Three focus groups will be conducted, with each session being audio taped and later transcribed by a hired professional transcriptionist. An interview guide, developed in advance of the sessions, will be utilized to guide the conversation.

A validation questionnaire will be utilized for this study because it compliments the use of focus groups. Unlike the focus group, a validation questionnaire focuses on individual participants. The validation questionnaire allows the researcher to garner individual opinions. It also allows respondents to check the researcher’s statement of opinions from the focus group transcript for accuracy. If a participant feels information was omitted or misunderstood, details of the personal expressions can be provided on the questionnaire. Thus, the respondent’s validation questionnaire is an important crosscheck of the accuracy of the researcher’s account of the focus group. Also, since opinions may transform during a focus group discussion, this post-facto questionnaire allows participants to indicate if they experienced any change or development in their thoughts.

The validation questionnaire will include the researcher’s summation of responses for each question from the focus group in which the person participated. Participants will be provided space following each question for comment. In addition to summarization of responses and space for input, the questionnaire will include space for participants to provide additional information they feel appropriate to be included in this study.

The data analysis for this study will be a close, sensitive, and yet alert, reading of the transcribed texts against the audiotapes. This includes the researcher’s memory of the actual discussions, awareness of Virginia 4-H Foundation, and research goal-oriented thematic categories. Individual responses, focus group texts, audiotapes, validation questionnaire, and informal notes will be classified into the following, goal-oriented thematic and heuristic categories:

1. Solicitation methods liked the least? most?
2. The characteristics of an organization that are important to the donors as they make decisions about giving?
3. Once a donor has given to an organization, how likely are they to continue giving to the same organization? Why?
4. What characteristics of the Virginia 4-H Foundation appeal to the female donors?

## **Risks and Benefits**

The study involves asking focus group participants a series of questions related to motivations behind philanthropic gifts to the Virginia 4-H Foundation. This research procedure will involve no more risk for study participants than they are liable to face quite normally in their daily lives. Focus group participants will have the freedom to end their participation at any point during the session or to withdraw from the study at any point. While there are no direct benefits to participants they may benefit from providing support to the Virginia 4-H Foundation via this study.

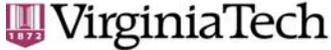
## **Confidentiality and Anonymity**

All information collected from participants will be confidential. The first initial of participants' first names will be used throughout the process. In the event multiple participants share the first name initial, a combination of the initials for the first and last name will be used. Tape recordings, transcripts, validation questionnaire, notes and other materials related to the study will be stored in a locked cabinet in the researcher's office at Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University. Only the researcher will have access to the cabinet, therefore, these materials will only be accessible by the researcher.

All materials will be destroyed when this research is deemed complete. I will only break confidentiality when forced to do so by any abusive incidents known or strongly suspected or if a participant is believed to be a threat to herself or others.

## APPENDIX G

### IRB EXPEDITED APPROVAL



Office of Research Compliance  
Institutional Review Board  
1880 Pratt Drive (0497)  
Blacksburg, Virginia 24061  
540/231-4991 Fax: 540/231-0959  
E-mail: moored@vt.edu  
www.irb.vt.edu

FWA00000572( expires 7/20/07)  
IRB # is IRB00000887.

DATE: October 27, 2006

#### MEMORANDUM

TO: Ruth H. Lytton  
David B. Calhoun

FROM: David M. Moore 

Approval date: 10/26/2006  
Continuing Review Due Date: 10/11/2007  
Expiration Date: 10/25/2007

SUBJECT: **IRB Expedited Approval:** "Philanthropic Motivations of Female Donors to Virginia's 4-H Program", IRB # 06-609

This memo is regarding the above-mentioned protocol. The proposed research is eligible for expedited review according to the specifications authorized by 45 CFR 46.110 and 21 CFR 56.110. As Chair of the Virginia Tech Institutional Review Board, I have granted approval to the study for a period of 12 months, effective October 26, 2006.

As an investigator of human subjects, your responsibilities include the following:

1. Report promptly proposed changes in previously approved human subject research activities to the IRB, including changes to your study forms, procedures and investigators, regardless of how minor. The proposed changes must not be initiated without IRB review and approval, except where necessary to eliminate apparent immediate hazards to the subjects.
2. Report promptly to the IRB any injuries or other unanticipated or adverse events involving risks or harms to human research subjects or others.
3. Report promptly to the IRB of the study's closing (i.e., data collecting and data analysis complete at Virginia Tech). If the study is to continue past the expiration date (listed above), investigators must submit a request for continuing review prior to the continuing review due date (listed above). It is the researcher's responsibility to obtain re-approval from the IRB before the study's expiration date.
4. If re-approval is not obtained (unless the study has been reported to the IRB as closed) prior to the expiration date, all activities involving human subjects and data analysis must cease immediately, except where necessary to eliminate apparent immediate hazards to the subjects.

#### **Important:**

If you are conducting **federally funded non-exempt research**, this approval letter must state that the IRB has compared the OSP grant application and IRB application and found the documents to be consistent. Otherwise, this approval letter is invalid for OSP to release funds. Visit our website at <http://www.irb.vt.edu/pages/newstudy.htm#OSP> for further information.

cc: File

*Invent the Future*

VIRGINIA POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE AND STATE UNIVERSITY  
An equal opportunity, affirmative action institution