

GENDER CONGRUENCE AND PHILANTHROPIC BEHAVIOR:
A CRITICAL QUANTITATIVE APPROACH TO CHARITABLE GIVING PRACTICES

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GENDER CONGRUENCE AND PHILANTHROPIC BEHAVIOR:
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DEDICATION

Dedicated to my wonderful, supportive husband Jonathan and our expected son.

You are my motivation and inspiration.

I could not have done this without our family beside me.

xoxo

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GENDER CONGRUENCE AND PHILANTHROPIC BEHAVIOR:
A CRITICAL QUANTITATIVE APPROACH TO CHARITABLE GIVING PRACTICES

Catherine Comley Adams

ABSTRACT

A critical quantitative approach, this study connected the relationship between women professional fundraisers and women major gift prospects to assess whether their gender congruence related to an increased likelihood of particular philanthropic behaviors. Quantitative data made up of 27 years of completed gift proposal data reported by the University of Missouri – Columbia were evaluated through the lens of relationship management theory informed by distinctiveness theory. The inquiry assessed three philanthropic behaviors including proposal acceptance rate, repeated giving, and donation amount. The findings indicated: 1) women major gift prospects were more likely to accept funding proposals when cultivated by women professional fundraisers, 2) women major gift donors contributed more average dollars when solicited by women professional fundraisers, and 3) women major gift donors were more likely to make subsequent gifts following their correspondence with women professional fundraisers. These findings suggest that critical fundraising outcomes such as proposal acceptance, donation amounts, and donor retention may all be improved among the growing woman donor population by coordination of their cultivation through women professional fundraisers. The study also found that women fundraisers raised less money overall than their men counterparts, interpreted as a symptom of women's underrepresentation in charitable organizational leadership, but women fundraisers raise more money than men from women donors.

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

I have been a professional fundraiser in higher education and the nonprofit sector for 15 years. Over those years I amassed a number of field observations in my memory about the unique relationships women professional fundraisers, like myself, have with women philanthropists. Sometimes those relationships develop over many years and others seem to take root immediately, but in either case the bond between these two individuals is generally close and meaningful.

An illustration of this phenomenon occurred recently when I hosted a couple I had never met before in special seats for a sporting event. The husband, Dr. A., inquired about my work, the strategy and vision behind professional fundraising, and my research interests. I explained that I evaluate the correlation between women fundraisers and specific outcomes achieved with women philanthropists as a means to build strategic relationships on behalf of the benefiting charitable organization. Dr. A. was fascinated by the scientific methods behind my profession and research agenda. In return, he shared with me several personal anecdotes about his own doctoral research experiences that ushered a very pleasant, but technical dialogue.

Then Mrs. A. sat down and she did not stop visiting with me until the event was over. She shared her entire life story with me, how she convinced her husband to marry her, how she reinvented herself in retirement, one beautifully touching narrative after another. At one point she paused to ask me what special funding initiatives I was working on at the moment. I started to explain a brand new idea to support and recruit incoming students and she interrupted me to tap Dr. A. on the arm to inform him emphatically that they needed to make the lead gift on the new project. Without hesitation he took out his

wallet, unfolded one compressed check, and made it payable to my program on the spot. As Mrs. A. supervised, she saw how much he was writing and she stopped him to insist he was not doing enough. He backed up, looked at how he could make the correction, and carefully wrote over the numbers to increase the amount by 25%.

Later in the evening when Mrs. A. had walked away, Dr. A. pulled me aside and said, “well there’s some empirical evidence to support your hypothesis” (H.D.A., personal communication, September 10, 2016). This, along with many other experiences, has impressed upon me the unique and special nature of relationships shared between women professional fundraisers and the women philanthropists with whom they work. An understanding of these relationships may position charitable organizations, both educational and nonprofit, to be more effective at fund development practices.

As described above, my experience has been that the relationships cultivated between women professional fundraisers and women donors have profound influence over philanthropic outcomes. However, existing literature has not evaluated this particular phenomenon. I believe further study, like this one, will inform leaders in academia and other charitable organizations to better understand how to cultivate and engage the growing population of transformative women philanthropists.

Statement of the Problem

Previous studies have indicated careers in charitable organizations and legitimacy as respected philanthropists are luxuries often beyond the reach of women (Dominici, Fried, & Zeger, 2009, Massachusetts). Women comprise 75% of the nonprofit labor force but fewer than 11% of upper management (Gibelman, 2003, New Jersey), and women philanthropists only hold 20% of positions on volunteer boards of directors nationwide

(Pynes, 2000, Florida). Yet, despite these discrepancies, the philanthropic sectors, such as nonprofits, colleges and universities, are more likely to receive donations of all kinds from women donors than by men (Dvorak & Toubman, 2013, New York). In the 20th century, it was customary for the target donor audience of charitable organizations to include one population: White, middle-aged men; whereas, 21st century donors represent all genders, races and ages which has brought to light the growing influence of women in particular on the philanthropic enterprise (Nichols, 2014, Oregon). This is due to the fact that the 25 million United States households with income over \$250,000 are made up “largely of older professionals, working married couples, and educated single women” (Nichols, 2014, p. 167) thereby increasing the scope of charitable prospects to include more women and older people remaining in the workforce. At the same time, the largest U.S. charitable organizations (raising \$5 million a year or more) are operated by men versus women at a rate of 2:1 (Guidestar, 2016, Virginia). Therefore, the leadership of these institutions does not mirror the demographics of today’s donor population, causing a disconnect in relatability to audiences (Letters, 2012).

The demographics of donors to major fundraising campaigns have dramatically changed over the last two decades (Nichols, 2014). Women make the majority of charitable giving decisions in American households today (Dvorak & Toubman, 2013), contribute more of their expendable income relative to their earnings than men (Mesch, Rooney, Steinberg, & Denton, 2006, Indiana), inherit assets twice as they tend to outlive both their parents and husbands (Levitt, 2016, Virginia), and they consistently direct their giving to education and human services organizations (Piper & Schnepf, 2008, London, UK). At the

same time, donor cultivation strategies have not evolved to accommodate the changing demographics of donors (Shaw & Taylor, 2010, Maryland).

In addition to this, a study publicized by *The Chronicle of Philanthropy* found a distinct connection between the increasing wages of wives and elevated generosity to charities by heterosexual couples (DiMento, 2015, Indiana). Therefore, as women are afforded more financial discretion, they elect to be philanthropic with their earnings and make larger donations than when their husbands gain raises. Meanwhile, other research suggests women donors are best cultivated by others who are willing to build bridges to support their endeavors (Shaw & Taylor, 2010). Women's giving circles are growing in popularity at universities for precisely this reason (Rucker, 2008, Washington, DC). Participants of women's giving circles give 56% more funding than non-participants and report stronger affinity toward academic programs that encourage women to network together (Mesch, 2016, Indiana).

At the same time, women are less likely than men to be contacted by professional fundraisers and even less likely to be contacted by university administrators (Mesch & Osili, 2016, Washington, DC). As women philanthropists are appropriately cultivated and stewarded by women professionals, spanning the nonprofit and educational sectors, their loyalty and generosity to the institution are likely to expand. Because of findings like these, professionals in the charitable sector may predict better outcomes in campaigns by empowering women to be present in front-line fundraising efforts.

In short, herein lies the problem: charitable organizations and institutions of higher learning rely now, more than ever, on private contributions to remain viable (Dvorak & Toubman, 2013) but neglect to cater to women donors even though they make the majority

of charitable giving decisions (Letters, 2012). The objective of this research was to quantify that gender congruence between professional fundraisers and major gift prospects increases the likelihood that philanthropic outcomes improve.

Purpose Statement

This study assessed the relationship between women professional fundraisers and women major gift donors for the advancement of privately funded philanthropy. A critical quantitative methodological design was used that synthesized critical methods of personal reflexivity with big data regression analyses. Twenty-seven years of completed gift proposal data reported by the University of Missouri – Columbia were employed to assess whether women professional fundraisers impact the charitable giving behavior of philanthropic women. Such behaviors included repeated giving, increase in donation amounts, and proposal acceptance rate. The theories that inform this design, relationship management and distinctiveness theory, suggest that desired outcomes are achieved more efficiently between women representatives of an organization and women consumers (Waters & Bortree, 2011, California; Torres & Briggs, 2007, New Mexico). Giving frequency, donation amounts, and proposal acceptance are key metrics to achieving fundraising goals, and therefore represent the desired philanthropic outcomes that may be affected by gender congruence among women.

Research Question

As evidenced by previous research, women philanthropists have different tendencies than men philanthropists which has increasing implications for the charitable sector in that women donors make the majority of charitable giving decisions (Dvorak & Toubman, 2013). The object of this research was to determine whether women's

philanthropic behaviors may be predicted based on their connections to women professional fundraisers. Specifically this study answers the research question: Does the gender congruence between fundraiser and major gift prospect relate to philanthropic behaviors?

Overview of Framework

My hypothesis was that women professional fundraisers have a unique ability to elicit better outcomes from women donors than do men professional fundraisers. The particular philanthropic outcomes I evaluated included whether or not a funding proposal submitted by a woman professional fundraiser was accepted by a woman donor, the incidence of subsequent gifts by a woman donor following her correspondence with a woman professional fundraiser, and the average amount of such gifts. Two theories, relationship management and distinctiveness theory, offer predictions that support my hypothesis.

Relationship management is a public relations theoretical framework that suggests people tend to be more loyal to an organization that engages with them in an effort to build trust, demonstrate investment, and communicate frankly (Ferguson, 1984, Florida).

Practicing relationship management fosters loyalty and satisfaction among consumers, amplifying their financial commitment to the organization (Bruning & Ledingham, 1999, Ohio). The element of trust that gives rise to positive relationship management outcomes may be best executed between people of similar demographics and backgrounds.

Distinctiveness theory postulates that people tend to identify with and assign trust to others with whom they share rare qualities (Mehra, Kilduff, & Brass, 1998, London, UK).

Women and minorities are most likely to exhibit within-group trust and friendship.

Together, the conceptual framework derived from relationship management and distinctiveness theory suggests that as members of the minority connect, their mutual trust leads to more efficient relationship management; thereby increasing the likelihood that desired organizational outcomes will be achieved.

Overview of Methodology

I employed a quantitative criticalist approach to assess the predictions posed by the above theories that gender congruence among women results in greater trust and therefore greater philanthropic outcomes. As a model, quantitative criticalism allowed me the flexibility to analyze a big dataset through lenses that illuminate the human subjects and their stories within the data. I combined personal reflexivity with logistic regression and Tobit regression research methods to capture the most comprehensive view of the interacting variables.

Logistic regression allowed for determinations about the likelihood that women professional fundraisers paired with women major gift prospects results in higher likelihoods of accepted proposals and patterns of repeat giving. Logistic regression is the preferred data analytic tool when the equation under analysis has a dichotomous dependent variable (Pampel, 2000). Logistic regression allows the researcher to attribute odds to the relationship between variables versus probabilities. As a probability gets closer to 1, the numerator of the odds becomes larger relative to the denominator and the odds become an increasingly large number. Therefore, reliance on odds rather than probabilities provides for meaningful interpretation of the likelihood of events.

A Tobit regression model was employed to predict the average giving commitment made by women major gift donors to women professional fundraisers. The Tobit model

assumes that the dependent variable is represented by values clustered at a limiting value (McDonald & Moffitt, 1980). This is an important factor when analyzing philanthropic funding because there will never be instances in the dataset when the recipient organization receives negative dollars. Therefore, the limiting value in the case of this study was zero. The Tobit technique estimates a regression line that accounts for the limiting value and determines the probability of correlating relationships more accurately than if the estimations below zero were included in the equation.

A major challenge to this study was the representation of gender and relationships which are core variables in the analyses. Heteronormativity sets the boundaries of socially acceptable relationships and identities, upholding cultural prejudices as an invisible, pervasive force that shapes expectations about public spaces and preserves privileged status for people whose behaviors are consistent with heterosexual role expectations (Habarth, 2015, California).

Tightly coupled with heteronormativity is the issue of gender represented as binary. The traditional binary system for gender does not accurately reflect the multidimensional nature of gender (Keener, 2015, Pennsylvania). Gender identity, gender expression, biological sex, and sexual attraction/orientation are unique, separate, and distinguishable components of individuals. Gender identity, sexual orientation and biological sex all lie along a continuum that is distinctive from person to person. Unfortunately, the data and the majority of the literature I cite do not account for populations of people who do not identify with the heteronormative paradigm or gender binary constraints. Furthermore, this study was complicated by the underlying assumption that female=woman and male=man. I recognize that these are not interchangeable terms. Where it was possible to

distinguish sex from gender I made every effort to be accurate, but there are inconsistencies between content from the literature and the boundaries of my data. For this reason, I elected to use gender terms to describe data coded male/female as the data source conflated gender and sex.

Significance

To underscore the multiple references already made to the fact that women consist of the majority of charitable giving decision makers today, even greater significance is the trend that women are graduating from colleges and universities at a rate of 8% higher than men in the young adult range (Feeney, 2015, New York). Should the trend continue, institutions of higher learning will soon have a larger population of living women graduates than men. As a result, the donor population will continue to populate by a majority of women at an even faster pace. Therefore, understanding women philanthropists will be of paramount significance in the coming years.

As will be fully explained later, the woman-to-woman connection in the charitable sector benefits women donors, women fundraisers, and the organizations they serve. Women donors were found to behave differently with women professional fundraisers resulting in higher acceptance of funding proposals, larger donation amounts, and increased likelihood of giving again. Likewise, women professional fundraisers were found to be more likely to achieve their performance goals when they solicited and cultivated women donors. I posit such connections are not limited to philanthropic relationships.

This research also has implications for practice, policy, research, and theory. The study was designed to inform practice with research-based support for women's access to leadership positions in philanthropic organizations that cultivate women donors. This has

the potential to eliminate the glass ceiling that has been a barrier for women to achieve the highest levels of leadership at charitable organizations across the field by highlighting their value to the emerging women donor population.

Similarly, policies like Title IX and the Equal Employment Opportunity Act may be influenced on a micro, institutional level as awareness of discriminatory practices that exist to the detriment of women are also negatively impacting the charitable giving opportunities accessible to organizations that limit the advancement of women fundraisers. In fact, Title IX may have implications for the treatment of donors and volunteers in addition to paid employees. As interpretation of policy evolves and organizational cultures embrace inclusivity, the protection of all women on university campuses may eventually call for greater support of alumnae, donors, and volunteers. Evidenced by this research, policy players may see the connections between gender equity and financial growth opportunities.

As for research, this study has implications for future analyses of gender relationships that exist in philanthropic transactions outside of Missouri and even internationally. Lastly, implications for theory may be the formulation of a new theoretical framework to explain the unique philanthropic behavior of women, informed by distinctiveness theory and relationship management that benefit the corporate, political, and health care sectors as well as the charitable sector.

Definition of Terms

The following terms are used widely throughout these chapters. I have shared, for the reader's reference, the definitions of these terms as I define and employ them in the study.

Advancement – a term typically used in educational institutions to describe fund development efforts in coordination with alumni relations efforts.

Altruism – the unselfish regard for the welfare and good of others (Myers, 2011).

Charitable/Philanthropic Organizations – nonprofit or tax-exempt entities that support education, social services, and the public good.

Designation – the intended purpose for which a gift should be allocated based on the donor’s instructions (University of Missouri standard).

Development – refers to professional practices that result in generated funds.

Fundraising Professional – may also be known as a development officer/director, a paid staff member whose primary job responsibilities are to raise dollars for organizational support purposes (Shaw & Taylor, 1995).

High net worth – United States households with assets of \$1 million or more and/or annual income over \$200,000 (Osili, Clark, St. Claire, & Bergdoll, 2016).

Human Services – health services, food services, financial services, counseling services or other charitable social services directed to the needs of human beings (Marx, 2000).

Major Gift – a monetary donation of \$10,000 or more (University of Missouri standard).

Men - refers to people with a masculine gender identity, over 18 years of age (American Psychological Association, 2010).

MU/Mizzou – abbreviation and nickname for University of Missouri.

Philanthropy – monetary or volunteer support of charitable entities for the welfare of others or betterment of communities (Bekkers, 2003).

Principal Gift – refers to the highest level individual contributions solicited during a campaign period (University of Missouri standard). These contributions are most critical to achieving fundraising goals.

Portfolio – refers to the cache of donors and prospects under cultivation by a particular professional fundraiser (University of Missouri standard).

Proposal – documentation of the solicitation transaction between fundraising professional and prospect that outlines the gift amount and what that gift will accomplish (University of Missouri standard).

Prospect – a person who is identified as someone who may make a monetary contribution to a charity in the future (Shaw & Taylor, 1995).

Religiosity – the propensity of someone to be religious or spiritual (Einolf, 2011).

Solicitation – the process by which a fundraising professional asks a prospect for financial support of a charitable organization.

Women – refers to people with a feminine gender identity, over 18 years of age (American Psychological Association, 2010).

Women's Empowerment – women's relative control over resources and participation in political and economic forums (Themudo, 2009).

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

The philanthropic enterprise is not new to the fabric of American life but the study of the profession and understanding of charitable behavior are still developing (Sargeant & Shang, 2010, Bristol, UK). As I began my pursuit to quantify the connections between women in this field, existing research and theoretical frameworks informed the practice explained in Chapter Three. Analyses of solicitation response, average gift amount, and repeated giving were also informed by the studies that follow.

The literature review evaluates the philanthropic behavior of women, beginning with the analysis by Alexis de Tocqueville (1889) that first defined philanthropy in America. Immediately succeeding the historical background of American charity is a discussion about women's philanthropic behavior that includes subsets of such behavioral traits as altruism, greater generosity than men, and support of education and human services. The second section of the literature review begins with an evaluation of modern philanthropic feminism followed by the ways in which women empower other women, the disadvantages faced by women in the philanthropic sector, and examples from other sectors where women connect best with each other. Section three takes an in-depth look at two particular studies that influenced my research, followed by a review of conceptual frameworks distinctiveness theory and relationship management theory. The literature review concludes with a description of the implications these studies have for my research question.

American Altruism

Alexis de Tocqueville, French political writer and historian, visited the United States and Canada in 1831 to study early democracy in America. What he found was that

American democracy afforded citizens more than political freedoms, it also afforded them the opportunity to organize associations around areas of special interest. These associations are what we now consider social services. His analysis represented American altruism as a unique quality and an unexpected embodiment of democracy. "Every American will sacrifice a portion of his private interests to preserve the rest... Everybody I see about me seems bent on teaching his contemporaries, by precept and example, that what is useful is never wrong" (Tocqueville, 1889, p. 131). In this way, he defined American philanthropic behavior for the first time as an expression of doing good for the benefit of others.

Tocqueville (1889) was impressed by the American ideal to increase one's own financial position, not at the expense of others, in order to better one's community.

In the United States, there is no limit to the inventiveness of man to discover ways of increasing wealth and to satisfy the public's needs. The most enlightened inhabitants of each district constantly use their knowledge to make new discoveries to increase the general prosperity, which, when made, they pass eagerly to the mass of the people (Tocqueville, 1889, p. 144).

These principles are represented in the many associations Americans at the time formed in order to build community spaces, churches, libraries, hospitals, prisons, and schools. The wealth they acquired individually was transferred to these public services and managed by a collective vision for community and economic development. Tocqueville (1889) saw these things as highly specialized to the environment of democracy in America. The ideals he described continue to be at play in the fabric of American society today, but current trends are demonstrating change particularly by the influences of women.

Tocqueville's observations of education, religion and philanthropy may be summed up best by the nineteenth century model of higher education. Colleges were organized predominantly by Protestant Christian denominations, institutional presidents were also clergymen, and congregations were called upon to close the fiscal gap and support incoming students in an effort to bolster the pastoral profession (Thelin, 2011). In these ways, education, religion, and philanthropy were equal legs of the proverbial stool of American institutions. Such traditions are traceable back to the early colonial era schools, like Harvard and the College of William and Mary, that benefited from the estate of wealthy chemist Sir Robert Boyle as institutions offering "pious and charitable works" per Boyle's designation (Thelin, 2011, p. 15). Among the oldest nine U.S. colleges chartered before the American Revolution, six bear the name of their benefactor: Harvard, William and Mary, Yale, Brown, Rutgers, and Dartmouth. Meanwhile, larger Christian-based organizations such as the American Educational Society served as private foundations that offered scholarships to students who pledged to serve as Congregationalist missionaries (Gasman, 2010, Pennsylvania). Such organizations represented the peak of organized philanthropy in the nineteenth century and serve as the model by which present-day foundations and federal agencies distribute financial aid services.

It was not until the twentieth century that capitalism, rather than religious agendas, began to drive transformative, individual philanthropy. Wealthy businessmen and philanthropists Vanderbilt, Carnegie, and Rockefeller promoted a shift toward entrepreneurialism and innovation in education as vehicles for achieving their own policy agendas (Gasman, 2010). Not unlike Bill and Melinda Gates today, these three major benefactors directed higher education away from religion exclusively and positioned

institutions to embrace technology on the cutting edge and prepare students for careers in business rather than the clergy.

An understanding of the historical background behind American philanthropy in general provides the foundation for analyzing present day charitable practices. It also underscores the interconnectedness between higher education and other nonprofit entities. The philanthropic enterprise began by democratic expression as a means to promote religious beliefs through higher education and missionary work, and evolved into an individualized representation of personal achievement for the advancement of others. The field is continuing to evolve now as women are increasingly influencing how charities operate – as employees, volunteers, and donors. The following section defines philanthropic behaviors specific to women.

Philanthropic Behavior of Women

From the moment women were afforded higher educational opportunities, the women's movement and philanthropy were interconnected as traditional resources were earmarked for men's attainment of education (Thelin, 2011). Women's colleges were too independent from mainstream charities to receive public support, and therefore necessitated major financial commitments from private sources to succeed. Wellesley, Smith, and Tulane were all founded due to transformational contributions by women heiresses. This was and continues to be highly meaningful for both education and philanthropy as these gifts marked the beginning of "new philanthropy" in America, characterized by the first instances of single donations reaching seven figures (Thelin, 2011).

Since the first wave of U.S. feminism, more attention has been paid by scholars to the role of women in American charities (Themudo, 2009, Pennsylvania). In fact, one study found that race, gender, and culture have a significant influence over philanthropic endeavors, particularly in communities where the minority is rising to a state of majority (Carson, 1993, New York). This suggests that as women have more opportunities such as in the workplace, politics, and boards of directors, the more significant their influence on philanthropy becomes.

At the same time, women's philanthropic behavior differs from men's (Capek & Mead, 2007, New Mexico). For example, survey responses received from current and lapsed public radio supporters revealed that men donors are more likely than women donors to use social norms to inform their philanthropic behavior, such as pressure to join giving clubs or access to sporting events with others in their social network (Croson, Handy, & Shang, 2010, Texas). Upon investigating the influence of social information on social norm formation and giving, results suggested that temporarily created social norms influence men's giving significantly more than that of women (Croson, Handy, & Shang, 2010). That is, men tend to be motivated to give by their current social environment whereas women's philanthropic behavior tends to be motivated by individualized factors like personal friendships and philosophical values (Mesch, 2016). Mesch's (2016) finding has particular implications for this study in that it underscores the importance of relationships and shared values for women as they make charitable decisions. The following sections investigate three illustrations of this difference in motivation: women tend to be pure altruists, women tend to give more than men, and women tend to support education and human services.

Pure Altruists

Altruism is defined here as the unselfish regard for the welfare and good of others (Myers, 2011, Iowa). Several scholars have evaluated the ways in which this quality is portrayed in women and generally found women tend to exhibit selflessness, volunteerism, empathy, and service to others (Andreoni & Vesterlund, 2001; Einolf, 2011; Eisenberg & Lennon, 1983; Marx, 2000; Witte, 2012). Firstly, from a microeconomics perspective, when altruism is expensive, women tend to exhibit greater selflessness, but when it is cheap, men tend to be more altruistic (Andreoni & Vesterlund, 2001, Wisconsin). That is, the demand curves that represent altruism of men and women cross, and men are more responsive to price changes. Only when it is comfortable, then, will men behave altruistically; whereas, women are more likely to be altruistic even when it brings personal discomfort. Furthermore, men are more likely to be either perfectly selfish or perfectly selfless, whereas women tend to be “equalitarians” who prefer to share evenly (Andreoni & Vesterlund, 2001, p. 295).

The significance of Andreoni and Vesterlund’s (2001) study is that, in general, women are more willing than men to support the greater good even at expense to themselves. This has particular relevance for my study in that women are presently a large force within the philanthropic enterprise despite their underrepresentation in volunteer and staff leadership. It suggests that women will defy the boundaries of any personal discomfort as a minority because they believe it is the right thing to do.

Similarly, Einolf (2011, Illinois) found that women volunteer at a much higher rate than men. Volunteering requires participants to devote their time toward a philanthropic endeavor that diverts time away from employment or personal activities. The willingness

of women to volunteer is another representation of their altruistic behavior. Additionally, women score higher than men on agreeableness, subjective religiosity, prosocial role identity, and sense of moral obligation (Einolf, 2011). In this way, women tend to be receptive to the philanthropic enterprise as it reinforces their intrinsic values consistent with their social, moral, and religious identities.

In fact, Eisenberg and Lennon (1983, Arizona) indicated when respondents self-report their feelings of empathy, women's empathy ratings were significantly higher than men's. Their outward empathetic behaviors, however, were not evident of significant difference (Eisenberg & Lennon, 1983). This indicates that women tend to be self-aware of their belief systems and hold empathy internally even when it is not outwardly visible. Other research provided evidence that women are more committed than men to the role charitable organizations play in society and tend to believe that they have the power to improve the welfare of others (Marx, 2000, New Hampshire). In other words, women are more likely to see the ills of the world, sympathize with them, and seek methods to improve things they have confidence will make a difference.

Finally, Witte (2012, Ohio) found that women identify leadership in three primary ways: leading through relationships, leading with a focus on impact and change, and leading to create civic capacity. Leading to create civic capacity holds the most promise as an articulation of women's leadership in philanthropy (Witte, 2012). Leadership characteristics of women are, therefore, representative of their innate altruism as personal relationships and community betterment exemplify selfless service to others.

Altruism, then, is more likely to lie behind a woman's motivation to give than a man's. Women professional fundraisers have also been found to be motivated by altruism

as they seek employment in the charitable sector (Lee & Wilkins, 2011, Texas). The shared value of altruism between women donors and women professional fundraisers is not present among men, making this philosophical value a unique position shared only by women. Such shared values may contribute to women's relationship building and promote better philanthropic outcomes.

Greater Giving

Many scholars agree that, holding control variables constant, women are greater financial contributors to philanthropic organizations than men because the number of women donors exceeds men donors and women contribute more than men overall (Piper & Schnepf, 2008; Mesch et al., 2006). In fact, the number of women donors is higher than men donors for almost all causes including education, human social services, health care, and animal conservation (Piper & Schnepf, 2008). This may be due to the fact that men and women differ in their motivations for giving and these motives affect giving to charity (Mesch, Brown, Moore, & Hayat, 2011, Indiana). Women score significantly higher than men on empathic concern and principle of care, meaning women in general behave with greater empathy toward others and internalize the responsibility to offer compassionate care. These motives are positively and significantly related to giving for both men and women. But, women, more than men, are more likely to give and give more, when controlling for these motives (Mesch et al., 2011).

As alluded earlier, single women are found to be most likely to give to and volunteer for charitable organizations (Rooney, Mesch, Chin, & Steinberg, 2005; Mesch, Rooney, Chin, & Steinberg, 2002; Mesch et al., 2006, Indiana). When controlling for differences in income and other relevant factors, single women are more likely than single men to supplement

government-provided goods with private philanthropy (Rooney et al., 2005). Therefore, as public services fall short of supporting communities, single women step in to support private charities and satisfy those needs. In fact, single women are significantly more likely to give and volunteer, and tend to give more money and volunteer more hours than single men (Mesch et al., 2002). To be precise, the likelihood that single women will make a charitable contribution is 78% in contrast to 68% among single men (Mesch et al., 2006).

Among high net worth donors, men make gifts averaging \$52,239 each at stark contrast to women who average \$188,441 per gift (Women's Philanthropy Institute, 2015, Indiana). Married couples are more likely to donate than single men, but married couples do not give more money than single women (Mesch et al., 2002). Therefore, being married or a single female is associated with an increased probability of giving (Mesch et al., 2006). When married couples decide together how to delegate their charitable dollars, their giving comprises 3.4% of their household income versus 2.9% when only one person makes the decision (Brown, 2005, California). Yet, the decisions that are being made jointly are increasingly following the interests of the wife instead of the husband (Brown, 2005). When women are the charitable decision-makers, they wield their power to influence the disbursement of the family's generosity by giving to a wider variety of organizations and fewer dollars to each one (Andreoni, Brown, & Rischall, 2003, Wisconsin).

Although these studies consistently illustrate women as the dominant charitable donors, they do not make assertions as to what may predict their charitable giving decisions. My study takes these findings one step further by not only upholding that women give more than men, but also drawing connections between women donors and women professional fundraisers that offer predictions of women's philanthropic behaviors.

Giving to Education and Human Services

As described next, scholarly research finds strong connections between women donors and the philanthropic sectors of education and human services (Rooney, Brown, & Mesch, 2007; Piper & Schnepf, 2008; Andreoni, Brown, & Rischall, 2003; Marx, 2000; Walton, 2005; Turner-Battle, 2009). Historically, women have made significant impacts on higher education through small but timely contributions (Walton, 2005, Indiana; Turner-Battle, 2009, Minnesota). Women especially favor health and education while men tend to be more generous to organizations related to sports and recreation (Andreoni, Brown, & Rischall, 2003). In fact, people who give to human services, in contrast to those who do not, are likely to be White women, have a higher income, and volunteer regularly (Marx, 2000). For education, senior services, hospitals, and children's initiatives the percentage of women's donations over men's is greater than 40% (Piper & Schnepf, 2008).

The educational level attained by women is positively associated with increased giving to education, as are the number of children living at home, annual household income, and net wealth (Rooney, Brown, & Mesch, 2007, Indiana). Moreover, there is a positive association with the age of a woman and amounts given to education; and, women charitable decision-makers are more likely to have a positive effect on both the likelihood of giving to education and the amounts given to education. For these reasons, middle-aged or older mothers with expendable income are the population of donors most likely responsible for the rise of philanthropy among social services and education-based charities.

In summary, women heiresses changed the trajectory of American philanthropy in support of women's higher education, elevated the prestige of individual donations, and

marked the inception of the transformational gift (Thelin, 2011). Research suggested women exhibit greater altruistic tendencies than do men which is evidenced by women's economic behavior, volunteerism, empathy, and leadership to affect positive change. Moreover, holding all other factors constant, women are more philanthropically generous than are men – particularly among the social elite. And, these women elect to invest their wealth in areas that support the public good, primarily education and human services.

Of primary interest to this study is how women's philanthropic behaviors may be identified and influenced. Knowing that women practice philanthropy differently than men, and also knowing examples from other research on the factors that motivate women to give, it is evident that inquiry was needed to bolster existing knowledge about factors that are within the control of professionals in the charitable sector to promote on behalf of women prospects. The next section of literature reviews the societal norms that affect women in philanthropy.

Philanthropic Feminism

A feminist lens on philanthropy allows for a deeper investigation into the specific experiences of women and the implications for broader constructs within the nonprofit sector and higher education. Various authors offer perspectives on the intersection of feminism and philanthropy. To begin, with the shift in feminist thought away from victim-feminism to power-feminism, the field of philanthropy is embracing international efforts to empower women's social, political, and economical positions (McCarthy, 1996, New York). Gender differences cannot be ignored in philanthropy strategies as men and women are socialized differently and therefore have varied expectations of philanthropic organizations and outcomes (Capek & Mead, 2007). In fact, the field of philanthropy has been mistaken

to solicit women for donations in traditionally masculine ways (Von Schlegell & Fisher, 1994, Indiana); rather, the qualities and priorities that have been historically considered feminine are good for philanthropy, including being a force for positive change (Ostrander & Fisher, 1995, Massachusetts). To evaluate these points further, feminism is represented in philanthropy as women empowering other women (Faber & McCarthy, 2005; Walton, 2005; Ben-Ner, Kong, & Putterman, 2004) and women facing disadvantages in the industry (Andreoni, Brown, & Rischall, 2003; Capek, 2001; Hall, 2004; Einolf, 2011; Gibelman, 2003; Cummins & Writer, 1997; Remmer, 2005).

Women Empower Other Women

Women tend to focus philanthropic attention on women and girls through organizations that support self-help projects for women and girls nationwide (Faber & McCarthy, 2005, Massachusetts). The non-hierarchical relationships touted by feminism are consistent with the model found in these organizations to encourage women of all ages and socio-economic backgrounds to become donors, blurring the lines between beneficiaries and activists (Faber & McCarthy, 2005).

Women's giving has historically shaped educational disciplines and the professions, particularly professions primarily employed by women (Walton, 2005). They also shaped the academic enterprise by offering scholarship to women students who previously had not had access (Thelin, 2011). This type of charitable transaction, one that supports the interests of donor and recipient per their common gender, is not demonstrated by men donors (Ben-Ner, Kong, & Putterman, 2004, Minnesota). Rather, only among women donors are these behaviors likely. Moreover, amiable, civically-minded women are most likely to share their funds, particularly with other women.

As will be fully explained in the conceptual framework section, women are more likely than men to forge meaningful, trusting relationships with one another (Leonard, Mehra, & Katerberg, 2007, Ohio). This connection leads to a variety of outcomes including those described in this section. It is this same connection that I hypothesized leads to predictable philanthropic behaviors among women donors when they are cultivated by women professional fundraisers.

Disadvantages for Women in Philanthropy

Unfortunately, as dynamic as women have been in the field of philanthropy, women are disadvantaged and underutilized in the charitable market (Andreoni, Brown, & Rischall, 2003; Capek, 2001; Hall, 2004; Einolf, 2011; Gibelman, 2003; Cummins & Writer, 1997; Remmer, 2005). Women must overcome barriers to charitable giving that men do not experience (Capek, 2001). Men have more social capital via education and income propensity that afford them greater skills for high-visibility volunteering and financial means for donating money (Einolf, 2011). Historically, the probability that a woman controls giving decisions decreases when her husband earns more than she does or is more highly educated than she is (Andreoni, Brown, & Rischall, 2003). Therefore, women's overall giving propensity is lower than men's correspondingly to the wage gap (Hall, 2004, Virginia).

Another barrier to charitable giving is the concern among women that they will outlive their financial resources, which accounts for 48% of women's hesitation to contribute (Capek, 2001, New Mexico). Similarly, the Minnesota Women's Fund found that many women in their community were intimidated by the process of sorting through their finances to make charitable giving decisions (Cummins & Writer, 1997, Minnesota). To

combat this problem, they hosted financial education courses to reduce women's anxiety by elevating their personal understanding. As women are frequently absent from family financial planning decisions (Cummins & Writer, 1997), they are often unclear about what to do with their wealth when they are the surviving spouse (Remmer, 2005, Massachusetts). Thus, women are the leaders in leaving substantial charitable bequests as they tend to survive the income-earning spouse and are left with wealth to distribute somehow; yet, although women make up the majority of family foundation founders, such foundations tend to be managed by their sons because women tend to feel ill-equipped to manage themselves (Remmer, 2005).

This issue may be addressed by educating women donors on the basics of family financial planning and charitable foundations by trustworthy women professionals (Cummins & Writer, 1997). Women tend to require more cultivation than men before making a financial commitment to a charity (Hall, 2004) and women fundraising professionals are most likely to offer adequate support (Von Schlegell & Fisher, 1994). Unfortunately, the glass-ceiling phenomenon among nonprofit agencies limits the opportunities for women fundraisers (Gibelman, 2003). Men are disproportionately represented in management, particularly upper-level management, and earn higher salaries than women at all hierarchical levels of the sector (Gibelman, 2003; Guidestar, 2016). In this way, the disadvantages to women in philanthropy persist both in access to nonprofit leadership positions and between women donors and fundraising professionals, thereby compounding systemic gender disparities and thwarting opportunities for advancement (Andreoni, Brown, & Rischall, 2003; Capek, 2001).

The concerns raised by philanthropic feminism research shed light on the importance of systems that protect women donors and promote women fundraising professionals. Strategies that enable these populations to empower one another are reinforced by the recommendations of research presented in Chapter Four. Particularly among civic-minded women and their propensity to share funds generously with other women, it is important to note that political donations are directly correlated with support of higher education (B. Tedesco, personal communication, May 19, 2016). The 2016 presidential election met a rise in first-time donations from women – a promising opportunity for higher education in light of the finding political donors also support academia.

Along those lines, the connections between women exist in many other fields that continue to demonstrate the impact of such relationships. All of these examples suggest that inquiry into women’s connections in philanthropy will illuminate predictive patterns of behavior that may inform best practices to cultivate women donors. The following section reviews other literature evaluating the woman-to-woman connection in communication, mentorship, education, health, and leadership.

Gender Pairing in Other Research

From a strictly linguistic standpoint, when women are in company with one another they tend to discuss people and human interests to a wider degree than mixed company dialogue or men’s conversations with each other (Landis & Burt, 1924; Berger, 2014, Pennsylvania). This suggests that women simply conduct much different conversations with one another that broach subjects of more complex, personal, and sensitive nature than discussions by others. This may be because women have the capacity to more easily

cooperate in understanding each other than people in mixed groups, as they tend to practice more acute listening techniques. The pairing of women is special in that it garners understanding based on negotiated rules of order and common listening (Devault, 1990, New York). An apparent bond of sisterhood develops among women that does not materialize between men. Women maintain silent understandings, cultural phraseology that does not require interpretation, and non-verbal gestures and facial expressions to communicate both words and feelings with each other (Merriam et al., 2001, Georgia).

The woman-to-woman connection has also been linked to greater career outcomes. Women who access mentorship by other women in the workplace find greater legitimacy as candidates for managerial positions and are more likely to overcome traditional gender-role stereotypes that previously limited them (Noe, 1988, Minnesota). Women mentors instill values of healthy personal and professional lives onto women mentees (Crepezzi, 2015, Vermont) thereby advising work-life balance strategies as part of a comprehensive mentoring relationship (Cullen & Luna, 1993, Indiana). Unlike classical mentoring relationships more common among men, women mentors provide sponsorship, advice, counseling, advocacy, and training which result in better overall career outcomes for women mentees (Gilbert & Rossman, 1992, Texas; Cullen & Luna, 1993). Opportunities for women to conduct constructive training and idea sharing amongst themselves promotes gender equity, sensitive organizational culture, and career advancement for women in the workplace; the absence of such working environments reinforces the glass ceiling (Bukhari & Sharma, 2014, Jammu, India). Most notable to my study is the fact that women mentors help bolster women's resiliency in male-dominated environments (Poor & Brown, 2013, Washington, DC). In these representations of women pairings, women in positions to learn

from other women in the workplace are better prepared to overcome gender inequity, have the tools to enrich themselves both professionally and personally, and report greater self-confidence in attaining their objectives than do women mentored by men.

Along the line of positive mentorship, women-dominant environments like women's colleges also promote the advancement of women. Extended women's companionship experienced by young women was positively correlated with intellectual growth, cognitive development, self-awareness, and resiliency (Martinez Aleman, 2010, Massachusetts). These benefits have been attributed to impressions made on young women by positive women role models (Harwarth, Maline, & DeBra, 1997, Washington, DC) which promote innovative and nontraditional thought (Langdon, 2001, Pennsylvania). Women's college attendees achieve higher occupational prestige and greater salaries than their counterparts with equal attained education (Riordan, 1994, Rhode Island). As a result of specialized training to equip young women to find success in male-dominant employment, women's college graduates are twice as likely to be successful in academe, make up 42% of U.S. Congresswomen, represent 15 of 20 leading corporate women by *Business Week*, and sit on 33% of Fortune 500 company boards of directors (Barnes, 2014, New Mexico; Hartman, 1990, New Jersey). The impact of women influencing other women has lasting, transformative effects that transcend the public, private, and academic spheres.

Even when separated by great distances, the woman-to-woman connection has been found to improve health outcomes. Telenursing and other telehealth services have discovered women callers paired with women health providers are more forthcoming about the circumstances for the call, interpret the diagnoses more completely, and express more satisfaction in their care (Hogland & Holmstrom, 2008, Sweden). Particularly in

regions where access to mental health services is rare, exchanges of personal narratives between women have been found to reduce depression and anxiety, improve feelings of hope, and promote self-care practices among participants (Hunt, 1998, Australia). In conversations with one another, women have been found to identify their own resiliency, capacity to withstand and survive trauma, and adaptability that foster strength and celebrate femininity (Kitzinger, 2007, York, UK). These connections are important representations of how woman-to-woman contact is a healing and bonding relationship not replicated by mixed-gender or man-to-man pairings.

Leadership theory and organizational analyses have also been informed by examples of this phenomenon. Women leaders were found to be more effective in working environments with all-women employees (Wang et. al, 2013, Kaohsiung, Taiwan). Such leaders adapt their style among women-dominated workplaces to be congruent with the organizational culture and thereby enhance overall subordinate task performance. This is particularly significant for my study in that fundraising teams are increasingly women-dominated but leadership continues to be primarily men. In light of these findings, pairing women leaders with women fundraisers may elevate productivity and campaign performance.

Similar connections may be made to the results of a historical analysis of advertising practices. At the onset of women's magazine popularity in the late nineteenth century, it became apparent how meaningful women's purchasing power was for the national economy (Scanlon, 2013, Maine). Women were estimated to do at least 80% of household purchasing in 1900, which set in motion a professional shift in advertising techniques. Content analysis of advertising agency materials from those years to present day found

products advertised in women's magazines sold more readily when women copywriters designed the advertisement.

In a 21st century philanthropic enterprise where women make the majority of charitable giving decisions, very much like the purchasing power of women in the advertising study, it is easy to see the parallels between the advertisements of women copywriters influencing women's purchases and funding proposals of women professional fundraisers influencing women's donations. Likewise, women's specialized communication practices, positive workplace and mentorship experiences, women's education, and healthcare outcomes demonstrate the reproduction of the phenomenon that gender congruence improves women's opportunities across many spheres. In light of these examples, my study offers quantifiable evidence that the woman-to-woman connection is correlated with improved philanthropic outcomes.

Specialized Scholarship

Shaw and Taylor (1999, Maryland; 2010) and Themudo (2009) have produced some of the most comprehensive, specialized scholarship relevant to my research. I elected to devote extra attention to their findings as they have the most significance for this study. Themudo (2009) offered implications for the macro level, finding that women's access to and influence on the philanthropic sector provides wider equity, economic, and political benefits to communities. Shaw and Taylor (1995; 2010) offered implications for the micro level, finding women in the nonprofit sector attain empowerment and success by working together. Combined, these studies support the concerns I have about women's access to equitable employment opportunities and volunteer leadership in the nonprofit sector, and

underscore the importance of women-to-women connections as a vehicle to elevate philanthropic outcomes.

Themudo (2009) found women generally reveal stronger preferences for equity and collective goods than do men. Although this assumption is highly generalized, it is consistent with Themudo's (2009) findings that women may be more concerned with the common good and may behave more altruistically than men. Consequently, as women's empowerment increases it is expected there will be greater social demand for public services provisions. Meanwhile, Shaw and Taylor (1995; 2010) argued that women donors require specialized attention by the charities they support – requirements that are uniquely met by women like them. The following is a comparative analysis of Shaw and Taylor's (1995; 2010) and Themudo's (2009) studies of gender and the nonprofit sector.

Women have and continue to play a pivotal role in the nonprofit sector. However, nonprofit theory has failed to incorporate the influence of women. Women's widely accepted tendency toward altruistic behavior and participation in the philanthropic sector suggest that nonprofits would be stronger in communities with greater women's empowerment opportunities. Women's empowerment is defined as women's relative control over resources and participation in political and economic forums (Themudo, 2009). Themudo's (2009) findings indicated women's empowerment is strongly associated with the two forms of women's participation in the nonprofit sector: volunteerism and giving propensity. This is consistent with findings by Shaw and Taylor (1995) which noted a rise in cultural and educational philanthropy efforts in the United States in relation to women's suffrage.

Moreover, there is a positive association between women's empowerment and public funding for nonprofits as a proportion of national income.

As women's relative share of resources and participation in the economy increases, the supply of private resources to the nonprofit sector also increases. Therefore, women's empowerment is positively associated with higher volunteering as well as philanthropy and fee income as a proportion of national income (Themudo, 2009, p. 678).

This suggests that as the wage gap and other forms of gender discrimination subside, private support of the philanthropic enterprise grow significantly in relation to the national economy. Shaw and Taylor (1995) found something similar: the first three liberal arts colleges to raise more than \$100 million were women's colleges – Smith, Wellesley, and Mt. Holyoke. These schools are ranked among the top schools in total support by alumnae due to a high percentage of giving and high overall financial commitments, demonstrating the power of well-educated women working together on philanthropic endeavors.

Women's empowerment also contributes to the strengthening of the nonprofit sector as a whole. Educated, wealthy women have created and expanded charitable services and political advocacy throughout history. The exciting development of Themudo's (2009) research is that "the development of the nonprofit sector, and especially women's organizations and movements, may in turn facilitate women's empowerment" (p. 679). This produces a cycle of inclusion and growth that disrupts the persistence of gender inequity. Shaw and Taylor (1995) argued women's institutions have seen such success in this area because college presidents and leading professional fundraisers tend to share the gender of their constituency more consistently than co-educational institutions.

The correlation between women's empowerment and the nonprofit sector demonstrated by Themudo's (2009) study sheds light on the contradiction that, despite women's impact on international philanthropy, men retain the power positions of nonprofit organizations. "Women face a glass ceiling in nonprofit organizations: women earn lower wages at all organizational levels and are proportionally underrepresented in upper management" (Themudo, 2009, p. 679). Although women make up the majority of employees in charitable fields, men employ leadership roles more than six times that of women (Shaw & Taylor, 2010).

Compounding the evidence to support women's advancement in philanthropic career fields are findings by Shaw and Taylor (1995; 2010) that expose women's ability to communicate effectively with each other. Applying feminine communication techniques such as storytelling, paying compliments, relating to life events, and sensibility were all found to improve cultivation efforts with women donors (Shaw & Taylor, 1995). Experts in the marketing field have known this for decades. Shaw and Taylor (1995) interviewed advertising experts from *American Demographics* magazine and Nike who have exponentially grown their market share by properly advertising to women from the perspective of women.

These studies offer consistent evidence that women in philanthropy are powerful together. Women are uniquely positioned to be effective philanthropists as their temperaments tend to align with human interests more consistently than men's attitudes (Themudo, 2009). At the same time, women's economic successes are tightly coupled with both stronger community development overall and philanthropic endeavors in particular.

Therefore, the more access women have to the resources they need to be successful philanthropists, the greater good is bestowed upon this mission of the charitable sector.

Such access is streamlined when women fundraising professionals work in concert with the objectives of women donors (Shaw & Taylor, 2010). When women face discriminatory and marginalizing obstacles as either donors or professionals in philanthropy, it also adversely affects the charitable sector as a whole. These studies illustrate the impact of women as donors and professionals in that charitable outcomes improve when women have the benefit of corresponding with one another. It seems the capacity of women to eliminate patriarchal barriers together that otherwise interfere with their abilities to act philanthropically or professionally at nonprofit entities is gender specific and unique.

The significance of these studies to my research is that they unveil the problems present in the nonprofit sector with regard to women. Women philanthropists have been shown to drive the trajectory of the philanthropic enterprise but are persistently underserved and undervalued; at the same time, women fundraisers have been deemed most qualified to address the unique needs of women donors yet continue to be absent from nonprofit leadership. As Shaw and Taylor's (2010) and Themudo's (2009) findings are nearly a decade out of date, my research adds to these studies current empirical evidence that the desired philanthropic outcomes of proposal acceptance, giving amounts, and donor retention are improved when women donors cultivate women professional fundraisers. Perhaps quantifying these connections will give rise to greater opportunities for all women invested professionally or personally in philanthropy.

Conceptual Framework

Two conceptual frameworks, relationship management and distinctiveness theory, add to the literature a rationale for why the woman-to-woman connection occurs and how it leads to predictable outcomes. The following sections define these theories and link their tenets to the philanthropic sector.

Relationship Management Theory

It has been established by the previously reviewed literature that relationships between donors and charitable organizations are a meaningful component to the fund development process. The idea was formalized as a theoretical framework by public relations professor Mary Ferguson (1984). Penned as relationship management theory, Ferguson (1984) suggested loyal customer behavior is positively correlated with targeted organizational activities that foster relationship building. That is, an organizational effort to connect with audiences “centered around building trust, demonstrating involvement, investment, and commitment, and maintaining open, frank communication ... impacts the stay-leave decision in a competitive environment” (Ledingham & Bruning, 1998, p. 61, Ohio). In addition to fostering loyal customers, practicing relationship management strategies such as commitment and honesty also build satisfaction – thereby increasing revenue potential correspondingly (Bruning & Ledingham, 1998, Ohio). Even more meaningful to the charitable sector in particular is the prediction by relationship management theory that personal relationships between the organization and constituents rooted in trust, built over time with a thoughtful investment of energy and individual dedication, incite constituents to amplify their financial commitment to the organization (Bruning & Ledingham, 1999).

In fact, trust, satisfaction, and commitment are reported of highest significance to donors and volunteers of charitable organizations (Waters & Bortree, 2011). These audiences expect a two-way relationship that is personal and adaptive based on shared input and mutual benefit (Bruning & Ledingham, 2000, Ohio). Among major repeat donors, a long satisfying relationship with the charitable organization is the greatest predictor of continued loyalty and giving propensity (Waters, 2008, California). Empirical testing of the relationship management strategies (trust, commitment, control mutuality, satisfaction) found 73% of women versus 30% of men respondents deem these organizational qualities the premier factors influencing their decision to provide financial support (Waters & Bortree, 2011).

Defining the Relationship Management Scale

Relationship management theory, then, predicts elevated financial commitments by constituents to organizations that practice trustworthiness, commitment, customer-satisfaction, and control mutuality.

Trust. As part of the relationship management scale according to Bruning and Ledingham (1999), trust is defined as the confidence of one individual to behave authentically in the company of another individual. Trust is felt when integrity, fairness, dependability, and understanding are shared between both parties and derive from competent interpersonal communication (Waters, 2008). Trust was found to be correlated with a person's loyalty to an organization and translated to an increase in both the number and substantiveness of transactions between the organization and its constituents (Ledingham & Bruning, 1998). The element of trust in relationship management theory is the cornerstone to meaningful organization-public relationships. Strategies of

interpersonal communication, programmatic initiatives, and other public affairs support the trust-building process. The result is greater customer satisfaction and peace of mind that facilitates long-term connections between organizations and clients.

Philanthropic organizations are particularly vulnerable to societal mistrust because donations are highly correlated with trust (Bekkers, 2003, Netherlands). Charitable institutions can increase and preserve the public's trust by signaling their trustworthiness through communication of their merits. General social trust by individuals increases the amount they donate to charities. Public trust of charities was found to be most affected by the performance of the organization and ongoing communications between key leadership staff and donors (Sargeant, Ford, & West, 2006, Bristol, UK). Therefore, building trust through a process of relationship management also builds giving propensity among donors.

Commitment. Commitment is the second dimension of interpersonal relationships represented on the Bruning and Ledingham (1999) scale. The commitment construct upholds the position by both parties that the relationship they share is worth the resources that are expended to maintain it (Waters, 2008). Commitment is the measurement used to quantify the public attitude toward an organization. In this way, commitment between the public and organizational representatives translates to positive opinions about the organization and dedication to its success. Most noteworthy is the fact that commitment was found to be the strongest positive predictor of public support among nonprofit organizations in Waters' (2008) theoretical review.

Commitment has been found to elicit similar increases in giving to charities as trust (Sargeant, Ford, & West, 2006). When emotional utility or familial relationships connect people to an organization, the sensation of positive self-worth creates a stronger bond

between person and charity. The increase in commitment, like trust, leads to greater monetary donations in both the short and long term. The strength of a donor's commitment to an organization is a function of trust and therefore commitment is maximized by the extent to which trust exists (Sargeant & Lee, 2004, Bristol, UK). In result, higher levels of donor support are broadly associated with higher levels of donor trust, mediated by commitment.

Satisfaction. Next, satisfaction represents another key component of the relationship management scale (Bruning & Ledingham, 1999). Satisfaction is defined as the gratified sentiments felt between two parties. While satisfaction in and of itself has not been found to significantly predict consumer behavior, dissatisfaction is very much interconnected with the abandonment of organization-public relationships (Waters, 2008). For this reason, the preservation of public satisfaction is a strategy to maintain relationships and prolong opportunities for transactions to occur because a dissatisfied individual is most likely to reject future engagements.

In academia, student satisfaction has been found to have a significant positive relationship with alumni giving participation (Gaier, 2005, Indiana). That is, the higher the level of satisfaction with one's academic experience, the more likely an alumnus or alumna will participate in campus fundraising campaigns. This comes down to the neurological level. When people make donations to charities they care about, their positive neural activity, and sense of satisfaction, increases (Harbaugh, 2007, Oregon). Such positive neural activity among donors predicts subsequent gifts.

Control mutuality. Lastly, control mutuality, or the balance of power, is the final dimension of the relationship management scale (Bruning & Ledingham, 1999). The

semblance of power in relationships dictates attitudes and behaviors. For the nonprofit and higher education sectors, the power dynamics are centered on the utilization of funds. In such circumstances where the balance of power is uncertain, anxiety builds around what party has the authority to dictate how the money is spent. When the public feels control mutuality exists with an organization, they express fewer concerns about funding decisions and are more likely to continue their support (Waters, 2008). This balance occurs when organizations demonstrate that funds were spent according to the original terms of the transaction; the absence of which results in cessation of public support.

Particularly among corporate donors, the idea of retaining some semblance of control over the money they invest with a charity is a large factor as to whether they contribute financially and how much they give (Bennett, 2003, London, UK). The perception of power over one's charitable donations allows a person to retain the status of the funds as if they were still in one's possession. This peace of mind permits donors to part with their funds more often and in higher amounts as their sense of loss is mitigated by the continued sense of ownership.

Distinctiveness Theory

The phrase "birds of a feather flock together" is commonly known but it was McGuire, McGuire, and Winton (1977, Connecticut) who conducted a study to prove its validity. McGuire, McGuire, and Winton (1977) evaluated the organizational behavior of numeric minorities in the workplace; that is, women and people of color who did not comply with the normative White-working-man stereotype of the 1970s. Their findings were that non-Whites and non-males were highly aware of their distinctiveness and found themselves most comfortable when they were with others like them and less likely to be

singled out (McGuire, McGuire, & Winton, 1977); thereby naming distinctiveness theory. “The distinctiveness postulate implies that a person perceives [others] in terms of [their] peculiar characteristics. Hence... we develop our concepts of ourselves by how we are mirrored in the perceptions of others like us” (McGuire, McGuire, & Winton, 1977, p. 83).

Over time, the theory matured as other scholarly work further verified its validity. McGuire and McGuire (1984, Connecticut) isolated an interesting finding among young women and their formation of identity. Young women in particular seek to replicate the behaviors they see in people most similar to them, identify those behaviors as positive, and have a stronger self-conceptualization of their influence on the world when surrounded by other girls or women (McGuire & McGuire, 1984). Likewise, distinctiveness in social networks is equally magnetizing for marginalized groups, “People in a social context tend to identify with others whom they share characteristics that are relatively rare in that context... Women and minorities have high rates of within-group identification, trust, and friendship” (Mehra, Kilduff, & Brass, 1998, p. 448). The relative rarity of one’s personal gender or race, either perceived or realized, compounds the feelings of mutual understanding among the minority group (Reed, Forehand, Putoni, & Warlop, 2012, Pennsylvania). Moreover, the lower the proportion of women in a given population, the more likely spokeswomen will effectively build relationships and organizational favorability (Deshpande & Stayman, 1994, New Hampshire; Torres & Briggs, 2007).

As alluded from a practical standpoint by Shaw and Taylor (1995) that women make purchasing decisions per the endorsement of other women, empirical findings suggested “for distinctive consumers, similarity between a consumer’s identity and that of a character in an advertisement resulted in the character being seen as more trustworthy, which led to

more positive brand attitudes” (Grier, Deshpande, & Kresge, 1999, p. 5, California). In this way, women and minorities are much more likely to support a product when it is advertised by someone with whom they share distinctive qualities.

Lastly, distinctiveness in organizations has changed since the 1970s but this has not changed the attitudes and behaviors of women in the workplace. For women, categorical salience is stable regardless of numerical minority or temporary exposure (Cota & Dion, 1986, Kingston, Canada). Therefore, the gender label is a permanent identity marker and a powerful organizer of women’s perceptions of truth in their environments (Pichevin & Hurtig, 1994, Provence, France). This is a highly significant finding as it explains why women may still elect to be together, seek advice from one another, and share trust even when they are in the numeric majority. Overall, women are significantly more likely than men to identify and form trusting relationships with same-sex others (Leonard, Mehra, & Katerberg, 2007).

For the purpose of this research, I employed relationship management theory informed by distinctiveness theory to predict that gender congruence between professional fundraisers and donors leads to greater philanthropic outcomes among women. Relationship management theory offers insights into why the relationship between a charitable organization and its donors is a critical component of organizational effectiveness and growth. Distinctiveness theory offers insights into why women donors experience a more satisfying relationship with a charitable organization when they interact with women professionals. Together, these theories provide a framework that explains women donors are more likely to have positive relationships with charities when they are

cultivated by women professionals, leading to greater philanthropic outcomes for both the charity and the donor.

Predictions of Distinctiveness and Relationship Management

The field of fundraising as a profession relies on specific outcomes to achieve productivity goals in a given campaign cycle. These outcomes are typically related to donor retention, increased donations over time, and whether or not a prospect responds to a solicitation (Sargeant & Shang, 2010). Amid growing reliance upon private versus public funding across nonprofit and educational entities, the significance of fundraising campaigns is rising in order to meet organizational demands (Hansmann, 2012, Illinois). Distinctiveness theory and relationship management theory offer predictions of behavior that may isolate the strategies most likely to have an effect on the desired outcomes of major fundraising campaigns. Trust, commitment, satisfaction, and control mutuality are reached with greater efficiency between two people of the same minority group. The following sections outline the hallmarks of how relationship management and distinctiveness theory interconnect, offering predictions for behavioral outcomes that result from the theories' synergies.

Trust. Relationship management theory indicates trust is an important component of the organization-public relationship as it translates to customer loyalty and positive long-term transactional outcomes (Ledingham & Bruning, 1998). The distinctiveness theory framework predicts that minority populations exhibit stronger and quicker feelings of trust with others inside their minority group because "people in a social context tend to identify [trust] with others with whom they share characteristics that are relatively rare in that context" (Mehra, Kilduff, & Brass, 1998, p. 442). The rare similarities that exist

between people cause them to take note of each other and assign feelings of trust to their commonalities.

The salience of women in traditionally masculine environments makes the common gender among women the rare characteristic that bonds them. Women have been found to be far more sensitive to these interactions than are men, primarily due to the socialization of women as outsiders in male-dominant cultural structures (Pichevin & Hurtig, 1994). Social hierarchy, more than numerical distinctiveness, influences women's interactions with each other, promoting mutual trust and collegiality even when they are not significantly fewer in number than men in a given context. Likewise, the field of psychology has found women, more than men, experience trust and comfort in same-sex workplace environments (Burke & McKeen, 1995, Toronto, Canada). These parallels suggest that interpersonal relationships specifically between women lead to increased trust.

Women tend to identify with one another by their common gender more than men and such identification is correlated with increased trust among the parties. Therefore, women-to-women relationships in charitable organizations translate to greater incidences of trust by women donors leading to stronger connections and better overall organization-public outcomes. It is likely the shared feelings of trust among women expedite the relationship management process that takes the place of public affairs strategies typically used to garner trust between the organization and its constituents. Distinctiveness theory, then, explains why the relationship management outcomes between women may be more overt than other populations as the salience of common gender is a major proponent of trust.

As established previously, relationship management for the purpose of trust building has been found to increase a donor's giving propensity to trustworthy charitable organizations (Sargeant, Ford, & West, 2006). Because trust is fostered most efficiently among people who share particular qualities, especially among women, distinctiveness theory places emphasis on the trust relationships between people in shared minority groups. For this reason, I expect to see that women donors exhibit increased giving behaviors with women fundraisers as I expect that trust increases within woman-to-woman relationships.

Commitment. Relationship management theory suggests that commitment among organizations and constituents translates to positive constituent opinions about the organization and dedication to the organization's success (Waters, 2008). Distinctiveness theory indicates feelings of commitment and solidarity are felt more quickly and sustainably among women interacting with other women (Pichevin & Hurtig, 1996). Pichevin and Hurtig (1996) found gender to be the critical factor in predicting connectedness in organizational environments. Because women belong to the "socially dominated and devalued sex group" they were found to be less likely to form commitments with men in social-organizational settings (Pichevin & Hurtig, 1996, p. 520). In the same study, men were not found to significantly distinguish between men and women to assign commitment and solidarity.

Therefore, a strategy to promote commitment among organizations and the public is to engage women in relationship management practices as women constituents have such a dynamic response to gender congruence and men are virtually static either way. Like trust, shared commitment between donor and organization was found to elicit increases in

monetary donations (Sargeant, Ford, & West, 2006; Sargeant & Lee, 2004). For this reason, I expect to see that women donors exhibit increased giving behaviors with women fundraisers as I expect that commitment increases within woman-to-woman relationships.

Satisfaction. Whereas relationship management theory indicates constituent dissatisfaction is negatively associated with organization-public relationships (Waters, 2008), distinctiveness theory offers predictions for the preservation of satisfaction (Mehra, Kilduff, & Brass, 1998). The relative rarity of women in the highest professional and volunteer spheres of charitable organizations compounds their feelings of mutual satisfaction when they are afforded opportunities to work together (Reed et al., 2012). In a study by Leonard, Mehra, and Katerberg (2008), distinctiveness theory was tested to determine whether groups of numeric minorities in organizations identified satisfying friendships within their own groups. The study concluded that women are significantly more likely than men to identify and foster satisfying friendships with other women in their networks. Therefore, relationships between women are more likely to support feelings of satisfaction by women constituents toward organizations represented by other women.

This is an important finding as satisfaction is correlated with heightened giving participation among constituents (Gaier, 2005). The simple neurological sensation of satisfaction has been found to increase a person's likelihood to make repeat donations to a particular charity (Harbaugh, 2007). For this reason, I expect to see that women donors exhibit increased philanthropic giving behaviors when cultivated by women professional fundraisers as I expect that satisfaction among women is reached more expeditiously.

Control mutuality. Control mutuality is represented by relationship management theory as the power dynamics that influence attitudes and behaviors of constituents toward organizations (Bruning & Ledingham, 1999) – particularly when relating to funding decisions (Bennett, 2003). Only when control mutuality exists does financial support coincide with relationship management. Distinctiveness theory proposes that power dynamics balance when people of numeric minorities interact within their own networks (Deshpande & Stayman, 1994). In this way, concerns for misuse of power and misappropriation of funds are alleviated in circumstances where public constituents feel equally powerful to those within the organization.

A study by Torres and Briggs (2007) evaluated the effect of minority-group targeted advertising techniques on the sale of advertised products and the continuation of the advertisements. The study found that when members of the minority groups, either representing ethnicity or gender, were involved at all levels of the advertisement development and distribution, both media buys and product sales increased. As both consumer and advertiser represented the same minority population, competition for power was absent and control mutuality was reached resulting in better advertising outcomes.

This balance of power, and the peace of mind it brings, has also been found to increase the likelihood that donors will make repeated contributions and give more overall financial support (Bennett, 2003). It is to be expected, then, that as women donors work alongside women professional fundraisers to achieve their philanthropic goals, their philanthropic giving will increase as I expect a balance of power is felt more readily.

In short, relationship management theory explains that trust, commitment, satisfaction, and control mutuality are necessary to build a loyal, supportive constituent base. Distinctiveness theory appraises that these sentiments are reached much more efficiently between people who share distinctive traits – particularly women. Therefore, I hypothesized that the philanthropic outcomes of repeated giving, donation amount, and rate of solicitation acceptance would be improved among women philanthropists who have been cultivated by women professional fundraisers.

Table 1 provides a summary of the intersections between relationship management and distinctiveness theory as they relate to trust, commitment, satisfaction, and control mutuality.

Table 1. Conceptual Framework

	Relationship Management	Distinctiveness Theory
Trust	Trust building increases prospect giving propensity	Trust is fostered most efficiently among people who share distinctive qualities – especially women
Commitment	Commitment translates to positive constituent opinions about and dedication to organizations, eliciting increased monetary support	Gender is a critical factor in predicting commitment and solidarity in organizational environments
Satisfaction	Satisfaction is correlated with heightened giving participation	Women are more likely to foster satisfying relationships with other women
Control Mutuality	Balance of power increases the likelihood that donors will make repeated contributions	Power dynamics balance within networks of numeric minorities

Implications for Research from the Literature

As I reflect on my personal career in nonprofit and higher education fundraising, I see direct connections between women donors and women fundraisers in successful philanthropic endeavors. Women's influences on philanthropy will only increase as women have more opportunities as equal players in the national economy (Themudo, 2009; Carson, 1993). In addition, women are making more charitable giving decisions (Brown, 2005) and directing their giving to education and human services (Rooney, Brown, & Mesch, 2007; Piper & Schnepf, 2008; Andreoni, Brown, & Rischall, 2003; Marx, 2000; Walton, 2005; Turner-Battle, 2009). Civically-minded women are more likely to make contributions to other women (Ben-Ner, Kong, & Putterman, 2004) and women professional fundraisers have been found to increase the education and comfort levels of women donors as they make their charitable plans (Cummins & Writer, 1997; Von Schlegell & Fisher, 1994). Finally, it was established that women's empowerment is correlated with heightened success for the nonprofit sector; and, in turn, stronger philanthropic endeavors lead to greater empowerment of women (Themudo, 2009).

Shaw and Taylor (1995; 2010) drew connections between women professional fundraisers and the success of cultivating women as donors, but there have not been studies to quantify the influence women fundraisers have on women donors' philanthropic decisions. My research addressed whether gender congruence between donors and professional fundraisers leads to greater fund-development outcomes in the philanthropic sector. I quantified the changes in likelihood that women donors will make funding decisions based on their relationships with women professional fundraisers. My additions to the literature may provide rationale to expand opportunities for women in nonprofit

leadership positions to support the advancement of women's philanthropic interests in the United States.

CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY

As stated previously, the philanthropic sector continues to be led predominantly by men in contrast to the donor population that is increasingly dominated by women (Dominici, Fried, & Zeger, 2009; Dvorak & Toubman, 2013). For these reasons, it is important for charitable organizations to understand the philanthropic motivations of women to best position themselves for success with this growing donor demographic. In this study, I employed a quantitative criticalist approach to evaluate whether gender congruence between professional fundraisers and major gift prospects relates to greater philanthropic behavior outcomes. I addressed the question of whether the relationship between women fundraisers and women major gift prospects increases the likelihood that women prospects will accept funding proposals, make subsequent gifts, and give more than men major gift prospects.

Context: University of Missouri

The University of Missouri served as the research site and source of data for this study. I selected this context as the reliance on private fundraising is increasing rapidly in higher education. Generated revenues, including private contributions, are surpassing federal and state government funding to maintain operations at higher education institutions in the United States, as both public and private institutions embrace a more proprietary model and government appropriations shift toward student aid and sponsored research (Hansmann, 2012). In the 1960s, the University of Missouri's state appropriations were five times higher than combined generated revenues from tuition, fees, and donations (Hill, 2007, Missouri). By the 1980s, MU began seeing major cuts from its annual state appropriations; in fact, University President James C. Olson equated the 1980s financial

crisis to Great Depression era shortfalls (Burns, 2014, Missouri). The unpredictable nature of state funding led the University to begin focusing on private fundraising efforts to close their fiscal gaps. Over the following decade, Gannett Hall, Hulston Hall, Lee Hills Hall, College of Natural Resources, and College of Business were all built or expanded with generous support of private donors, setting the precedent for succeeding campus growth initiatives.

Such initiatives have become synonymous with campus-wide capital campaigns. In October, 2015 the University of Missouri embarked on its second major campaign, a \$1.3 billion comprehensive fundraising campaign. At the spring 2016 gathering of the national campaign cabinet, the advisory board made up of major donors representing each university division, Interim Chancellor Hank Foley explained how fiscally limited MU currently finds itself when it relies on state support and cannot increase tuition when state funding does not cover budgetary demands. Dr. Foley went on to say that the future of MU depends on the success of the comprehensive campaign coupled with a hybridized public funding model more like Cornell University or the University of Pennsylvania system (H. Foley, personal communication, April 8, 2016). Dr. Foley's remarks express the unique challenges faced by many colleges and universities and likely other nonprofits that also operate with state appropriations. Whereas reforming complicated budgetary models is beyond the scope of this project, identifying recommendations to ensure the success of the comprehensive campaign is reasonably attainable.

The previous campaign, For All We Call Mizzou, started in 1998 with a \$600 million goal and a ten-year timeline. When it became clear that the goal would be attained early, it was increased to \$1 billion (Pojmann, 2008, Missouri). In the current campaign, the

starting goal is more than double the previous original goal and the timeline is two years shorter. Among other things, the demographics of donors to major university campaigns have dramatically changed since 1998 (Nichols, 2004). As previously alluded, women make the majority of charitable giving decisions in American households today (Dvorak & Toubman, 2013), contribute more of their expendable income relative to their earnings than men (Mesch et al., 2006), inherit assets twice as they tend to outlive both their parents and husbands (Levitt, 2016), and they direct their giving to education and human services organizations (Piper & Schnepf, 2008). Yet, donor cultivation strategies have not evolved to accommodate the changing demographics of university donors.

One particular example comes to mind that exemplifies these circumstances. The global brand president of a luxury cosmetics corporation is a Mizzou graduate. According to contact reports in the *Advance* database, she had been contacted periodically with casual attempts to connect by entry-level development staff, but never received the level of attention that other Fortune 500 company presidents affiliated with the university regularly receive. That is, until a professional woman fundraiser recognized her potential and took special effort to cultivate her properly. Over a period of three years, the two developed a relationship so close that the fundraiser is routinely invited to VIP events in New York as a personal guest and regular conversations occur by text like long-time girlfriends. By April 2015, the alumna was named keynote speaker at the annual giving-society gala. She publicly recognized the professional fundraiser responsible for bringing her back into the Mizzou fold and acknowledged she has limited interest in visiting with the chancellor or vice-chancellor of advancement. Instead, the fundraiser was seated at the head table with her, front and center for the remarks. This example defines both the

disparate cultivation tactics offered to men and women alumni even at the highest financial levels, as well as the keen appreciation women have for other women who authentically value them. It serves as a reminder to me that distinctive relationship management practices make impacts on donors' lives and promote career satisfaction among professional fundraisers.

According to the latest organizational chart, women currently represent 28% of the top tiers of leadership on the MU advancement team and 16% of top front-line fundraisers (T. Hiles, email communication, October 26, 2016). As my research found a correlation between positive philanthropic outcomes among women major gift prospects cultivated by women professional fundraisers, and in light of the fact that women are making more charitable giving decisions now than ever before (Filla, Shaw, & Gill, 2016, Illinois), it has become necessary to review the gender balance among advancement leaders.

Epistemology

The guiding paradigm of this study is a relatively new practice among quantitative researchers. Typically, quantitative work assumes a positivist epistemology and seeks objective truth through scientific methods of inquiry alone (Phillips & Burbules, 2000). However, rather than confirming conventional wisdoms and seeking consensus to identify such truths, quantitative criticalism constructs challenges, illuminates conflict, and develops critique through quantitative methods in an effort to move theory, knowledge, and policy to a transformative platform (Stage, 2007). Moreover, the critical quantitative researcher questions models and assumptions by analyzing "sociological and economic processes to demonstrate that for particular population groups, some widely accepted models and assumptions are inaccurate" (Stage, 2007, p. 10). For these reasons,

quantitative criticalism is an ideal paradigm from which to evaluate gender relationships in the philanthropic sector.

According to Stage (2007), quantitative criticalism is rising among educational leadership scholars because it evaluates data for the purpose of representing processes and outcomes on a large scale to reveal inequities and identify social or institutional perpetuation of systemic inequities. Additionally, the models, measures, and analytic practices of quantitative research may be expanded to offer competing models, measures, and analytic practices with cultural relevance that better describe the experiences of underserved populations within subjects' own context (Stage, 2007; Wells & Stage, 2015).

The consequence of exploring big data without criticalism is the potential to continue inequities or marginalizing tendencies and proliferation of majority narratives at the expense of minority voices (Wells & Stage, 2015). To combat this, the specific group approach is a quantitative criticalist method that allows for examination of a particular, typically marginalized, group. This is intentional on the part of the researcher to best evaluate internal variability by segmenting the target population (Carter & Hurtado, 2007, Michigan). Chapter Four fully defines the gender segmentation for each dependent variable represented in the analyses per this prescribed best practice.

Per recommendations by Celia Rios-Aguilar (2014, California), critical quantitative methods include the following activities:

- Ask relevant questions
- Choose relevant data
- Apply appropriate, rigorous, and sophisticated analyses

- Disaggregate analyses on gender, race/ethnicity, language proficiency, socioeconomic status, and ability
- Know how to interpret the results with sensitivity
- Employ challenging and enriching theories from multiple disciplines
- Inform and challenge existing institutional practices and decisions
- Inform and challenge educational policies

Quantitative criticalists employ intersections of autobiography and research, informed by feminist studies and other qualitative critical theorists, to best represent multiple perspectives and the ways in which the researcher designs and interprets findings (Carter & Hurtado, 2007). For this reason, I employed autobiographical and personally reflexive narrative styles to represent the connections I made between my own experiences and findings that emerged from my research. To accomplish this, I included personal anecdotes and references to my own professional field work to provide additional context or help illustrate relational complexities otherwise absent from the data analysis. Personal, autobiographical narrative allows me as the researcher to explain to readers the worldview from which I execute data analysis and interpretation. It is my belief that my positionality and reflexivity deeply color the research and are, in turn, key components that define the meaning and universalizability of my findings (Nash & Bradley, 2011, Vermont).

Along these lines, individual constructivism is a paradigm that describes what it means to know and how knowledge is built. Drawing from psychology, philosophy, science, and biology, individual constructivism “describes knowledge not as truths to be transmitted or discovered, but as emergent, developmental, nonobjective, viable constructed explanations by humans engaged in meaning-making in cultural and social

communities of discourse” (Fosnot, 2013, p. 27, New York). Therefore, research under this paradigm includes a self-regulatory process that marries the researcher’s existing personal models of the world with the phenomenon under analysis. In this way, the researcher constructs new representations and models of reality by one’s own understanding coupled with culturally developed tools and symbols (Fosnot, 2013).

As a constructivist, what I come to understand when I grasp the sense of a new idea or proposition are the conditions under which I justify the idea. It is only in consideration of previous knowledge and relevant memories that I may identify promise in new ideas. In this way, propositions stemming from memories constitute grounds for new propositions based upon my understanding of the past and my sensibilities about the future (Phillips, 1978). Moreover, constructivism relates past experiences to describe criterial evidence for new findings. Thus, “constructivism leads to transcendental idealism – material objects and sense-impressions are logically related” (Phillips, 1978, p. 55).

Under this methodology, it is normal, and expected, to sometimes depart from the typical research writing formulas, rubrics, and templates (Nash & Bradley, 2011). Additionally, notions of intellectual truth are individually rooted, context-dependent, and frequently changing. The critical component is demonstrating the relevance personal narrative has on the outward body of knowledge (Nash & Bradley, 2011). Therefore, I expected to employ a variety of research styles to best address any social injustices present in the data in the spirit of quantitative criticalism. I accomplished this by incorporating two theoretical frameworks, relationship management and distinctiveness theory, most often used in qualitative inquiry and by analyzing data through two different models of regression, logistic and Tobit. Such variety allows for critical review of differences in

findings and illuminates understanding of such differences through multiple lenses. I believe this synthesis of diverging models enriches the sense-making process.

There are challenges with critical quantitative methods. It has met resistance by the general research community because it does not comply with conventional epistemologies or the typical quantitative research paradigm (Hernandez, 2015, New Jersey). Quantitative criticalism also necessitates a keen understanding of both statistical analysis and critical theoretical frameworks. Lastly, legitimacy and rigor are questioned when quantitative criticalists fail to follow prescribed tenets of critical methodology. While I cannot posit that this study overcomes each of these challenges or illustrates mastery, for my first major scholarly pursuit of quantitative criticalism I have attempted to address these tensions in three ways. First, the scope of this project was such that I could answer my research question through regression analyses of one large dataset which does comply with the typical quantitative research paradigm. Second, I followed statistical analysis standards supervised by a senior statistician while maintaining my positionality as a feminist. Third, I applied reflexive, critical practices to my interpretations of the findings to enrich the analyses for greater legitimacy to readers.

In short, criticalism questions ideological norms and initiates action to promote social justice (Crotty, 1998, Massachusetts). Critical inquiry exposes hegemony and other power issues. It invites reconceptualization as awareness of oppression in social systems is elevated through critique of their consequences to certain populations. As a result, the relationship between power and culture is brought to light and steps may then be taken to correct ill influences. The notion of power is very important to this study and that is a primary reason to employ quantitative criticalism. Intersections of wealth, social status

and privilege in the donor class with gender, hegemony, and systemic discrimination are fascinating challenges for nonprofits and higher education to attaining private means of funding. Illuminating the juxtaposition of women philanthropists in 21st century America is invaluable to elevating the value of women to the philanthropic sector.

Positionality

My personal observation of the University of Missouri division of advancement presented a phenomenon that men tend to be promoted into or hired into positions of senior leadership instead of women. In fact, this phenomenon exists across all philanthropic organizations (Andreoni, Brown, & Rischall, 2003; Capek, 2001; Hall, 2004; Einolf, 2011; Gibelman, 2003; Cummins & Writer, 1997; Remmer, 2005). At the same time, however, women are increasingly the charitable giving decision makers in their households (Rooney, Brown, & Mesch, 2005; Mesch et al., 2002; Mesch et al., 2006; Mesch et al., 2011; Piper & Schnepf, 2008; Andreoni, Brown, & Rischall, 2003; Brown, 2005). It is my belief that women in professional fundraising roles at colleges, universities, social-service organizations, and other nonprofits do have influence over the philanthropic behavior of women donors. As women continue to control more and more of the charitable funding awarded in the United States, I believe the relationship between donors and fundraisers will grow in importance for the income productivity of philanthropic organizations.

As a member of the millennial generation, my interpretation and expression of feminism is very different from my mother's feminist worldview of the 1960s and 1970s. Born after 1980, millennial women do not share the same perceptions of male superiority and instead of primarily advocating for women's rights, there is a greater sensitivity to rights and privileges for all family types (Erchull et al., 2009, Virginia). My generation

tends to expect accommodations for work-life balance and is destigmatizing the notion that child-rearing or other non-work pursuits cause employees to be less productive (Boone, 2016, North Carolina). Millennial feminists like myself also view raising a family as a gender-neutral activity; that is, we tend to take a non-traditional approach to sharing household responsibilities so that each player in the relationship can enjoy home life equitably. This view is as much an elevation of women's opportunities as a rejection of hegemonic masculinity. Broadly speaking, I am ultimately a proponent for the elimination of barriers such that individual people may occupy the spaces where they are interested in contributing. Therefore, my position as a feminist is rooted in my belief that both men and women deserve choices about how they invest their time, what roles they play in their households, and shared distribution of power that redefine social norms.

It is through the critical quantitative epistemology and millennial feminist positionality that I executed the following research design.

Research Methodology

The methods employed to conduct this study follow a quantitative criticalist approach. I begin this section by defining the dataset and the various components of the sample analyzed in the study. I conclude this section with the research design elements including the rationale behind the use of logistic regression and Tobit regression techniques.

Data and Sample

In order to assess whether gender congruence between professional fundraisers and major gift prospects relates to greater philanthropic outcomes, I analyzed a comprehensive dataset from the University of Missouri – Columbia advancement division.

For years 1991 to 2017, this dataset includes every major gift for which a formal funding proposal was submitted. The gift detail, gender identity of the prospect, gender identity of the fundraiser assigned to the project, and gift detail are present for analysis and all fields are complete. In total, 9046 entries exist in the analytical dataset. The data are highly reliable as they are assembled by university employees according to the systems established as best practices by the Council for Advancement and Support of Education (CASE) which defines ethical and reporting standards for professional university fundraising.

University of Missouri – Columbia utilizes database software called *Advance* to track alumni, donors, and friends of the University. All advancement division staff members have access to the information in the personal records of each individual prospect. These records hold the personal history of every unique entity affiliated with the University at this time. Such records maintain the academic lives of students, their interests as alumni, and all of their contributions with contact reports that provide additional details about the individual in the moments they were relating to advancement staff. When professional fundraisers make a solicitation of a prospect for a major gift, they enter a proposal (Appendix A) into *Advance* that includes the amount of the gift, the date, and the designation of the gift. Presently, all submitted proposals – that is, funding proposals solicited by staff and either accepted or rejected – since fiscal year 1991 have been tracked in *Advance*. This is the information disseminated into an Excel report file for analysis in the research described in Chapter Four. A veteran university research employee conducted the assembly of the report.

This study evaluated the significance of gender congruence between fundraising professionals and the philanthropic behaviors of major gift prospects. The dependent variables upon which this study defined philanthropic behavior include:

1. Proposal acceptance rate – whether or not a funding solicitation is accepted
2. Subsequent giving – whether or not a donor makes repeated monetary donations to the university
3. Level of giving commitment – the amount of monetary donation

The independent variables upon which this study evaluates gender congruence include:

1. Gender of proposal author, male or female
3. Gender of donor, male or female

The control variables include:

1. Age at date of proposal delivery
2. Income rating: high, mid, low, missing
3. Education: bachelor, master, doctoral, unknown
4. Alumni status, yes or no
5. Race/ethnicity: White, non-White, unspecified

Operational Definitions

The dependent variables were selected to represent various philanthropic behaviors that have been tracked consistently over time in the *Advance* database and may be influenced by processes under the control of university fundraising staff.

Proposal acceptance rate. When a prospect is asked to support a particular project, the professional fundraiser making the request enters a record of the proposal into the *Advance* system. A sample of this record may be found in Appendix A. The date when

the proposal was delivered to the prospect posts to the proposal at the time of entry to the database, and the date the proposal was accepted posts to the proposal at the time when the funding is committed. The proposal acceptance rate measures whether or not a prospect intends to fund the proposed philanthropic endeavor.

Subsequent giving. A donor's subsequent giving is determined by the number of occurrences he or she makes a monetary donation to the university. Each *Advance* record preserves the lifetime giving history of every individual donor. A pattern of giving over time is then linked to the professional fundraisers soliciting those commitments. Among major gift donors who accepted a proposal, 34% made subsequent gifts.

The subsequent giving variable was derived in several steps. Each prospect in the database has a unique donor identification number that connects each funding proposal to a particular person. By calculating the number of instances that a unique donor identification number is recognized in the dataset, it becomes evident how many different funding proposals have been accepted by the same person. All proposals accepted by each individual were then ordered in date sequential order. The subsequent giving variable was derived when the total number of accepted proposals exceeded any given proposal order. In this way, 1,550 accepted proposals were identified as gifts made by donors who had given at least once, following an accepted proposal.

Giving amount. An assessment of each monetary donation amount made by an individual donor, the average gift amount made by women donors relative to men donors illustrates what differences in giving commitments result from donor connections to fundraising staff.

Gender of proposal author. Within the University of Missouri advancement team, various professional fundraisers may encounter any given prospect. However, a prospect may only be solicited by a select few professionals. The professional fundraiser who prepares and delivers a written solicitation, or proposal, is the staff member most closely connected to the prospect during the cultivation and solicitation process. Therefore, the gender of the proposal author is an important variable to test how it may be a factor in the proposal process. Gender and other demographic data are imported into *Advance* from university human resources. Male or female designation matches the fundraiser's employment records. While male and female are sex designations, I refer to them as gender when describing the data because the data source conflated gender and sex.

Gender of prospect. In order to assess whether gender congruence makes a difference in the outcomes of relationships between professional fundraisers and prospects, I must include the prospect's gender as a variable. Within the confines of this study, gender identification is binary. It is a limitation of the dataset that only male or female categories are available to select. As described above, male and female are sex designations but I refer to them as gender when describing the data because the data source conflated gender and sex. Because I was particularly interested in the relationships between women, men were coded as the dummy variable. This way, the results illustrated the ways in which women differ from men given the same circumstances.

Corporate donors. Men and women are not the only prospects represented in the *Advance* database. Corporations and private foundations are also major contributors to the University. While people are certainly involved in the transactions, as the organizations are the prospects in these cases a gender is not assigned to them in the database. It has

been argued that organizations represent neither male nor female and may therefore be classified as gender neutral. However, other scholarship posits organizations are, in fact, gendered masculine (Acker, 1990, Oregon). The gender segregation of work, income, and status inequality between women and men created or perpetuated by organizational processes, organizational reproduction of cultural images of gender, and aspects of individual gender identity are all products of organizational processes and pressures, thereby posturing along a masculine gendered paradigm. Organizational theorists argue that gender represents people and power, compounded by the politics of knowledge; and because organizations serve as containers of different sexualities, power, and politics, they reproduce the gender norms of people in a given societal context (Bendl, 2008, Vienna, Austria). In this way, organizational environments may not be classified as gender neutral; rather, organizations represent a masculine environment. While I acknowledge that there is precedent to assign masculine gender to corporations and foundations, for the purpose of this study I omitted these observations from the analyses and focused instead on individual prospects.

Control variables. Control variables for this study include demographic data maintained in the *Advance* system for each individual record. Birthdate, attained education level, race/ethnicity, and status as a University of Missouri alumna or alumnus are all derived from student records, human resources, and other formal information systems by which individuals self-verify the collected data. Income rating is the final control variable and it is derived very differently. Research analytics are conducted to screen the comprehensive dataset held in *Advance* on a regular basis. These screenings connect publicly held information about invested assets, real estate, business interests, corporate

boards, philanthropic giving, and other markers of wealth to determine the overall financial position of a given person. That financial position is assigned a rating which informs professional fundraisers of the general philanthropic capacity among their prospects. For the purpose of this study, the income rating produced by the research analytics screening process controls for varying levels of wealth held by the donor population. High capacity denotes prospects with income ratings at a level to support \$1 million gifts or more. Mid capacity denotes prospects with income ratings at a level to support gifts between \$25,000 and \$999,999. And low capacity denotes prospects with income ratings at a level to support gifts between \$2,500 and \$24,999.

Statistical Analyses

Analysis of the data was conducted through a regression predictive model. Predictive modeling is the process of creating a mathematical, statistical tool that generates an accurate prediction based on input data (Kuhn & Johnson, 2013, Iowa). The research method selected for this study is a quantitative correlation using regression analysis to examine the correlation between the gender congruence of major gift prospects and professional fundraisers and typical philanthropic behaviors.

The basic objective of regression analysis is to use data to evaluate relationships between variables (Kahane, 2001). This is accomplished by plotting the data on an X Y axis and determining the line of best fit that illustrates the linear trajectory of the relationship. The sample regression function resembles $Y_i = a + bX_i + e_i$ where Y, the independent variable, may be predicted by sample data points a and b plus all other factors not accounted for in the model (e_i) such that for every increase or decrease in X the value of Y may be estimated correspondingly.

This study used two types of regression techniques: logistic and Tobit. Table 2 serves as a quick reference guide of which regression technique was used to address each dependent variable.

Table 2. Research Methods

	Logistic Regression	Tobit Regression
Proposal Acceptance Rate	Prospect accepted proposal? Yes or No	
Subsequent Giving	Did donor entertain subsequent proposals? Yes or No	
Amount of Gift		Do women donors give more when cultivated by women professional fundraisers?

Logistic regression is the preferred data analytic tool when the equation under analysis has a dichotomous dependent variable (Pampel, 2000). Unlike ordinary least squares which faces nonlinearity, nonsense prediction, nonnormality, and heteroskedasticity that lead to inefficient estimations, the binary dependent variable transitioned to a logit allows such inefficiencies to be overcome. Moreover, logistic regression permits the researcher to attribute odds to the relationship between variables versus probabilities. Probabilities vary between 0 and 1 and illustrate the likelihood of an event as a proportion of both occurrences and non-occurrences. Odds express the likelihood of an occurrence relative to the likelihood of a non-occurrence. Both odds and probabilities have a lower limit of zero, but odds have no upper limit. As a probability gets

closer to 1, the numerator of the odds becomes larger relative to the denominator and the odds become an increasingly large number. Therefore, reliance on odds rather than probabilities provides for meaningful interpretation of the likelihood of events. In the case of this research, it allowed me to make determinations about the likelihood that gender congruence between professional fundraisers and major gift prospects increases accepted proposals and patterns of repeated giving.

A Tobit regression model was employed to assess whether the gender congruence between major gift prospects and professional fundraisers relates to greater financial commitments. The Tobit model assumes that the dependent variable is represented by values clustered at a limiting value (McDonald & Moffitt, 1980). This is an important factor when analyzing philanthropic funding because there will never be instances in the dataset when the recipient organization receives negative dollars. Therefore, the limiting value in the case of this study is zero. The Tobit technique estimates a regression line that accounts for the limiting value and determines the probability of correlating relationships more accurately than if the estimations below zero were included in the equation.

I utilized the Stata data analysis and statistical software to run these analyses because Stata has Tobit models prepared in the system, unlike SPSS. The Tobit equation is represented as:

$$y_t = \begin{cases} X_t\beta + u_t & \text{if } X_t\beta + u_t > 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } X_t\beta + u_t \leq 0 \end{cases} \quad t = 1, 2, \dots, N,$$

In this model, N is the number of observations, y_t is the dependent variable, X_t is a vector of independent variables, β is a vector of unknown coefficients, and u_t is an independently distributed error term assumed to be normal with zero mean and constant variance σ^2

(McDonald & Moffitt, 1980). The total change in y can be disaggregated into both the change in y of those above the limited value and weighted by the probability of being above the limited value, and the change in the probability of being above the limited value and weighted by the expected value of y .

The significance of this equation is that it creates a linear regression that offers predictions specific to a range of values that are relevant and realistic. That is, the correlation between gender congruence among major gift donors and professional fundraisers and the average received contribution is mapped according to numeric values that may actually be attained in a professional environment.

Limitations

There are many unknowns about the origins and precision of the data entered into the database from which the report was generated for my analysis. One concern that may not be overlooked is the possibility of misinformation or complete lack of information pertinent to the demographic identification of the donor population under analysis. While I have confidence in the efficacy of the data query used to retrieve the requested information from the *Advance* system, human error on the data entry side is highly likely. Each *Advance* record is maintained by a staff person on the university advancement team – the relationship manager, as it is known internally – so the input information is only as accurate and complete as that staff member has the capacity to produce. In fact, the enforcement of consistency only went into practice in 2008 (S. Maze, personal communication, June 3, 2016). To combat this limitation, I worked with the team who built and maintain *Advance* to collect the most reliable data possible by avoiding the areas with known inconsistencies.

Another limitation is the question of generalizability to all charitable organizations as the data are exclusively from one major research university. For this reason, there may be concerns relating the findings to the experiences of small nonprofits, religious organizations, or other charities that are vastly different than a university system. The challenge, however, is that data are simply not collected on the comprehensive scale at such organizations that is expected in higher education. Regulatory practices in place permit greater consistency, accuracy, completeness, and sample size which ultimately outweighed this particular limitation in my decision to employ these data.

The scope of this study does not allow for analysis of proposal type. That is, I cannot make determinations about the subject of the proposal, beneficiary of funding, or other specifics about the funding request. For this reason, I cannot control for any spurious correlations that may occur in the analyses that would be corrected by knowing the proposal designation. Furthermore, I also cannot isolate which proposals are connected to university athletics projects. The model for soliciting major support for athletics purposes is wholly unlike the relationship management system followed by professional fundraisers in the academic units because the intention is much more transactional.

The final limitations relate to representations of gender and interpersonal relationships in the study. Heteronormativity refers to the compliance with culturally determined heterosexual roles and understandings about heterosexuality as the standard and norm (Habarth, 2015). It may be linked to a range of attitudes, social assumptions, and outcomes that serve as the fundamental prerequisite for institutional and interpersonal heterosexism. Heteronormativity sets the boundaries of socially acceptable relationships and identities, upholding cultural prejudices as an invisible, pervasive force that shapes

expectations about public spaces and preserves privileged status for people whose behaviors are consistent with heterosexual role expectations. Heteronormativity plays a limiting role on this study in that organizational systems assume all households include heterosexual couples where the man serves as primary decision-maker. This means any household that does not match those assumptions is likely miscategorized in the data.

It is impossible to discuss heteronormativity without also addressing gender as binary. Normative heterosexuality exists due to social expectations of behavior based on binary systems of gender. Bigenderism is “the expectation that there are two distinct genders that align perfectly with two biological sexes” (Habarth, 2015, p. 168).

Heteronormativity thereby defines and limits acceptable behavior for women and men. Further, the traditional binary system for gender does not accurately reflect the multidimensional nature of gender (Keener, 2015). Gender identity, gender expression, biological sex, and sexual attraction/orientation are unique, separate, and distinguishable components of individuals. Gender identity, sexual orientation, and biological sex all lie along a continuum that is distinctive from person to person. Unfortunately, the data employed in this study do not depart from the gender binary norm and therefore limit this study as any individuals who do not identify as either male or female are miscategorized.

Keener’s (2015) recommendations to researchers to incorporate the complexities of gender studies into their work include acknowledging the cultural context and developmental context. The construction of gender is culturally defined and culturally specific. Researchers may incorporate these into studies by noting the country of origin for the cited studies and identifying the country or culture from which the sample is derived. The reader has likely already taken note of the states or cities and countries within the in-

text citations denoting the country of origin when possible. The developmental context can be provided by considering the developmental stage of the target population and sample, and by noting potential distal causes of gender-typed behavior and motives most likely dependent on the age of the sample and other contributing scholarship. I have made note of the various challenges to the sample and its consequences for the analyses in Chapter Four and expanded on the literature review when the developmental context was known to impact interpretations. Therefore, I attempted to take these recommendations into account in this study as it was possible.

In summation, social construction of marriage and gender have influenced the ways in which donations were tracked over time. To the extent I am aware, married heterosexual couples continue to be the only domestic partnerships consistently sharing donation credit in the *Advance* system. Additionally, the husbands have historically been the primary donor in joint record-keeping even when the wife was the person with the relationship to the university. This particular limitation may have very significant implications for my research findings. Every effort to control for this issue was made. Unfortunately, same-sex couples and unmarried heterosexual couples are not captured accurately in the *Advance* system. It is not yet clear how this problem has affected my findings. Along the same vein, gender is only tracked as male or female in the system. Should there be donors who do not identify with either of those, it is not possible to enter it or extrapolate it. As data collection evolves, I would like to reassess this study to include genders and relationship statuses not presently represented in the population properly.

CHAPTER FOUR: RESEARCH FINDINGS

This study investigated the relationship between women professional fundraisers and women donors for the advancement of privately funded philanthropy. A critical quantitative methodological design was used. Twenty-seven years of completed gift proposal data reported by the University of Missouri – Columbia were employed to assess whether the relationship between women professional fundraisers and women donors was correlated with specific charitable giving behaviors of philanthropic women. My principal research question inquired whether the gender congruence between fundraiser and major gift prospect relate to philanthropic behaviors. Within this study the philanthropic behaviors investigated were accepted proposal rate, patterns of repeated giving, and average donation amount.

In the sections that follow I begin by describing the composition of the sample. The descriptive statistics for each variable are presented and their role in the analysis is explained. Next, I explore the components of the data sample specific to gender. I conclude the descriptive statistics section of the chapter with a detailed review of the three philanthropic behavior variables: accepted proposal rate, subsequent giving, and granted donation amount.

The analyses are broken into three subparts according to the dependent variable being analyzed. I begin with accepted proposal rate and explain the findings as they relate to each component of the sample. The second part analyzes subsequent giving and follows a similar structure to the first part as they each employ logistic regression as the methodology. Last, the third part evaluates granted donation amount with a Tobit regression method.

Descriptive Statistics

Prospect characteristics

Descriptive statistics for the complete study sample are presented below in Table 3. The 9,048 observations are exclusively individual people for whom the dataset provides demographic information. Those prospect demographic variables are further discussed in the subsequent paragraphs and include wealth, age, education, and race.

Table 3. Descriptive Statistics for Complete Sample

Variable	Obs	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
Prospect White	9,048	0.37	0.48	0	1
Prospect Other	9,048	0.03	0.17	0	1
Prospect Unspecified	9,048	0.60	0.49	0	1
Capacity High	9,048	0.08	0.27	0	1
Capacity Mid	9,048	0.66	0.48	0	1
Capacity Low	9,048	0.12	0.33	0	1
Capacity Missing	9,048	0.14	0.35	0	1
Age at Proposal	9,048	61.73	13.40	20.36	115.72
Missing Age at Proposal	9,048	0.07	0.23	0	1
Alumni Prospect	9,048	0.81	0.39	0	1
Education Bachelor	9,048	0.40	0.49	0	1
Education Master	9,048	0.16	0.37	0	1
Education Doctoral	9,048	0.22	0.42	0	1
Education Unknown	9,048	0.21	0.41	0	1

Prospect capacity ratings are calculated based on a person's wealth indicators informed by publicly held records such as real property sales, transfers of assets, boat and auto ownership, and donations to political fundraisers or other public charities. Prospects are rated as having a high capacity if their estimated philanthropic giving capacity is at least \$1 million. Within the sample, approximately 8% of the prospects represented high capacity at this level. Second, prospects are rated as having mid capacity if their estimated philanthropic giving capacity ranges between \$25,000 and \$999,999. Mid capacity prospects comprised 66% of the sample. I expected that the majority of the prospect sample would fall within this estimated giving category because the \$25,000 to \$100,000 donation range meets the standard minimum threshold for most university endowment types. Therefore, the population of prospects being solicited to fund \$25,000 to \$100,000 endowments is most likely to fall within the mid-capacity prospect category. The popularity of endowments ranging between \$25,000 and \$100,000 by both donors and university representatives contributes to the swell of prospects represented in this capacity category.

Next, prospects are rated as having low capacity if their estimated philanthropic giving capacity ranges between \$2,500 and \$24,999. Low capacity prospects made up 12% of the sample. While the minimum amount to create an endowment is \$25,000 today, in the earliest years represented in the dataset the minimum to endow was \$2,500. Also, proposals may be delivered for donation requests of at least \$10,000 which may be for cash, gifts-in-kind, or deferred gifts. Moreover, the wealth indicators used to generate the capacity ratings are not a comprehensive view of an individual's net worth so there are many instances when a prospect contributes more than their capacity rating estimates.

This may also account for why 14% of the sample did not have a capacity rating assigned. These prospects either predeceased the wealth screening process and were not assigned a rating posthumously, or do not hold enough publicly reported assets to generate a prediction.

Prospect age at proposal was derived by subtracting the prospect's birthdate from the proposal delivery date. There were approximately 7% of the sample for whom birthdays were unknown which caused the age at proposal to be missing. The average age of a prospect receiving a proposal was 61 years old. Proposals have been delivered to prospects as young as 20 years old. Frequently current students embark on personal fundraising missions to support alternative breaks, Greek life philanthropy, research, health care, and other campus projects which likely account for many of the youngest prospects in the sample. Proposals have been delivered to prospects as old as 115. Major estates often continue to make distributions to charities well after the responsible person has passed away. This may account for the advanced age of the oldest person in the sample to receive a proposal.

Prospects coded with alumni status at the University of Missouri comprised 81% of the sample. Alumni are not necessarily graduates of the university; rather, students are granted alumni status as long as they have completed at least one course. Highest attained education level included bachelor, master, and doctoral degrees. Approximately 40% of the sample earned a bachelor's degree, 16% earned a master's degree, 22% earned doctorates, and the education level is unknown for about 21% of the sample. The prospects in the data identified their race as 37% White, 3% identified as non-White including blacks, Hispanics, Asians and Native Americans, and 60% of the sample were

unspecified or unknown. The University of Missouri collects race data through student records and human resources wherever possible (S. Maze, personal communication, March 22, 2017). Across the philanthropic sector there are concerns about the lack of data on race and ethnicity (Guidestar, 2014, Virginia). Guidestar (2014) only launched an effort to support race and ethnicity data collection efforts in October of 2014 and that effort was reportedly the first of its kind. Due to the fact that fewer than half of the prospects in the dataset had racial demographic information on record, race variables were not included in the final analyses.

Fundraiser and Prospect Gender

Recall from Chapter Three that the gender demographic is coded male/female in the *Advance* database. Although I use the variable collected, a sex variable, I refer to it as gender because the data source conflated gender and sex. The descriptive statistics for the women fundraisers and women major gift prospects represented in this study are presented in Table 4. Women major gift prospects comprised 26% of the donor population in the sample. Women fundraisers comprised 40% of the fundraiser population in the sample. In approximately 13% of the instances where a proposal was delivered to a prospect, a woman fundraiser and a woman prospect were matched. This amounts to approximately 1,200 proposals received by women prospects that were delivered by women fundraisers. In light of the fact that slightly fewer than 2,400 proposals were presented to women major gift prospects overall, and women fundraisers represent less than half of the staff submitting proposals, women fundraisers make more of these connections to women prospects than men fundraisers by proportion.

Table 4. Descriptive Statistics for Women Fundraisers and Prospects

Variable	Obs	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
Prospect Woman	9,048	0.26	0.44	0	1
Fundraiser Woman	9,048	0.40	0.49	0	1
Match Women	9,048	0.13	0.34	0	1

Philanthropic Behavior Characteristics

The descriptive statistics for the philanthropic behavior variables are presented in Table 5. These represent proposal acceptance rate, likelihood of subsequent giving, and average granted donation amount. Of the 9,048 delivered proposals in the dataset, roughly half of them were accepted. The average granted gift amount was \$71,354 and ranged between \$0 and \$13.8 million. Upon review of the granted amount data, approximately 60 accepted proposals show \$0 donated; these appear to be human error and have no distinguishable explanation or pattern. Also note that the \$13.8 million ceiling represents individual contributions only. The University of Missouri has received two \$30+ million gifts from a private foundation that were omitted from the sample. For this reason, the granted gift amount range may be smaller than expected by some readers.

Table 5. Descriptive Statistics for Philanthropic Behaviors

Variable	Obs	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
Proposal Accepted	9,048	0.50	0.50	0	1
Subsequent Giving	4,553	0.34	0.47	0	1
Granted Amount	9,048	71354.18	410115.9	0	1.38e+07

Analyses

The following analyses employed logistic regression and Tobit regression techniques to analyze whether the relationship between women fundraisers and women major gift donors significantly relate to women donors' philanthropic behaviors in reference to men major gift donors and men fundraisers.

Accepted Proposals

Table 6 presents two logistic regression models analyzing the gender congruence between fundraiser and major gift prospect related to proposal acceptance. Logistic regression analyzes the relationship between independent variables and a binary dependent variable. However, these relationships are nonlinear determinants of probabilities (Pampel, 2000). Therefore, logistic regression modifies the interpretation of coefficients from changes in probabilities to changes in logged odds. The logistic regression coefficients illustrate the change in the predicted logged odds of a certain behavior occurring for a one-unit change in the independent variables. Since the independent variables in this study are also dichotomous, the coefficients may be interpreted such that a change in the dichotomous variable compares the indicator group to the reference group. A coefficient greater than one represents an increase in the probability that the behavior will occur whereas a coefficient less than one represents a decrease in the probability of the behavior.

Table 6. Dependent Variable 1, Accepted Proposals

VARIABLES	(1) Accepted Proposals	(2) Accepted Proposals
Accepted Proposal		
Woman Prospect	1.22** (0.09)	1.26** (0.10)
Woman Fundraiser	0.83** (0.05)	0.85** (0.05)
Women Gender Match	1.39** (0.15)	1.54** (0.17)
High Capacity		1.99** (0.25)
Mid Capacity		0.91 (0.07)
Low Capacity		0.31** (0.03)
Alumni Prospect		0.53** (0.08)
Age at Proposal Date		0.99** (0.00)
Missing Age at Proposal		0.76* (0.09)
Master Education		1.16 (0.09)
Doctoral Education		0.95 (0.06)
Unknown Education		0.94 (0.14)
Constant	0.99 (0.04)	3.11** (0.72)
Correctly Classified	53.08	58.62
Observations	9,046	9,046

Note: standard errors in parentheses

** p<0.01, * p<0.05

Including the full data sample, accepted proposals were analyzed both with and without the control variables. The base model predicted 53.1% of the observations correctly and the fully specified model improved the prediction rate to 58.6%. When

including control variables, the results indicated women major gift prospects were more likely than men major gift prospects to accept a funding proposal to the university. Specifically, the log odds of accepting a proposal were 1.26 times larger for women major gift prospects as compared to men major gift prospects. This finding is consistent with existing literature and supports the notion that women tend to be more philanthropically generous than men in general (Piper & Schnepf, 2008). From my professional experience, women prospects tend to invest more personal time into the proposal process so that when the formal, final document is delivered to them they know it captures their full intentions and readily accept it. I have observed that men prospects tend to entertain new ideas and review several proposals until one appeals to them. This difference in involvement in the proposal process may account for the disparity between the proposal acceptance rates of women and men prospects.

Women fundraisers were less likely to receive a gift when they delivered a proposal to the general prospect population. The log odds of women fundraisers attaining accepted proposals were 0.85 times smaller compared to men fundraisers. As a woman fundraiser myself, I generally find the proposal process to be different with men donors because they tend to involve multiple iterations. Whereas, when I work with women, I can typically expect them to offer direction as the proposal is in draft form so the final product clearly articulates their intentions. Men tend to rely on advancement staff to prepare various statements for them to look at and react to, or consider modeling after another successful project. Therefore, while the statistics may illustrate that women fundraisers were less effective with the general prospect population, approximately 75% men, I estimate that this result may represent multiple attempts to draft acceptable proposals for men and not

necessarily a reflection of the final outcome. This may be supported by the fact that men major gift prospects received proposals three times more frequently than women major gift prospects. However, it may also be evidence of gender bias by men prospects against women professionals. I would argue that these two explanations are not mutually exclusive; rather, it is very likely that both scenarios occur.

When women major gift prospects were solicited for a gift by women fundraisers, women prospects were even more likely to donate. At a log odds of 1.54 when women fundraisers were matched with women major gift prospects versus 1.26 when women prospects were connected with the full fundraiser population, it is clear that women prospects had an even higher likelihood of accepting a proposal when a woman fundraiser delivered it. This finding supports my hypothesis that gender congruence between fundraiser and prospective donor leads to greater philanthropic outcomes. As I described previously about my own experiences, perhaps the common process of women fundraisers and women donors to collaborate with the other on drafting proposals streamlines the effectiveness of those interactions. That is, because women fundraisers tend to be collaborative with prospects to put proposals together and women prospects tend to find satisfaction in that process, they more often develop an acceptable proposal when they work with each other.

Alternatively, Figure 1 shows the probabilities of proposal acceptance by the gender congruence between professional fundraisers and major gift prospects. The box graph illustrates that the gender congruence between women has the highest probability of successful outcomes than in any other gender combination relationship.

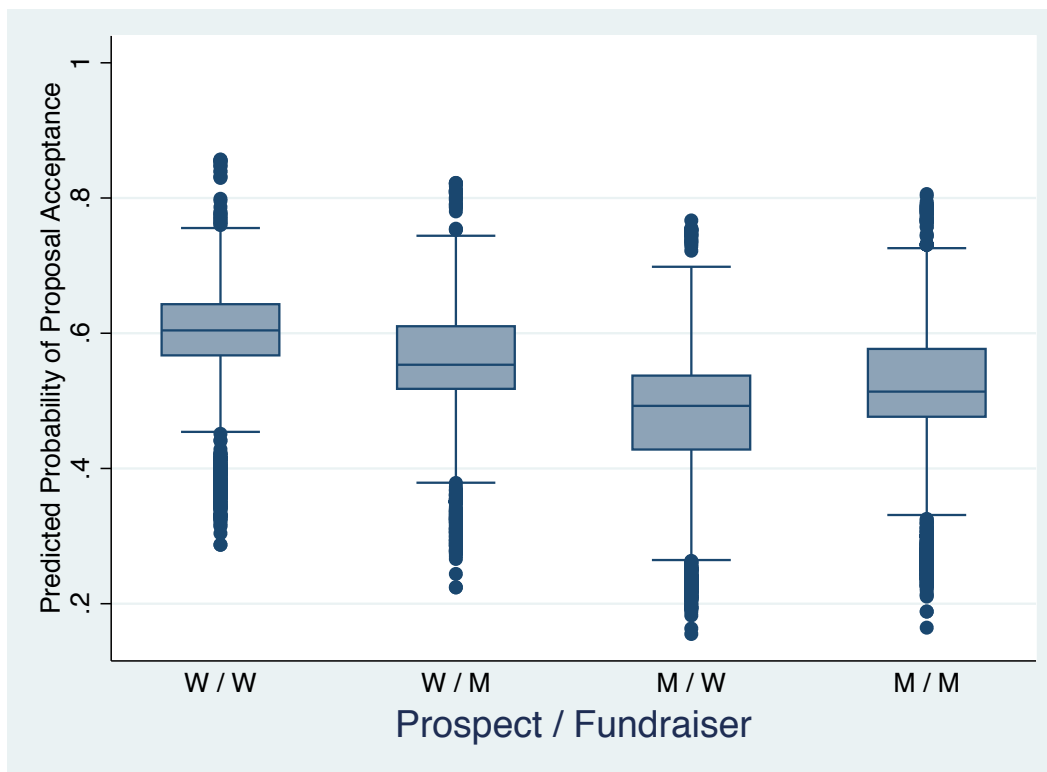


Figure 1. Predicted Probability of Proposal Acceptance

High capacity major gift prospects were much more likely to accept a proposal and low capacity major gift prospects were highly unlikely to accept a proposal. As to be expected, people with high net worth and high capacity to give tend to be the most likely demographic to be philanthropic (Osili et al., 2016, Indiana). Likewise, people with low net worth and low capacity to give tend to be the least likely demographic to be philanthropic in general.

Alumni status had a negative relationship on a prospect's likelihood to accept a proposal. This finding came as a surprise to me. The literature suggests that alumni tend to have a high propensity to give back to their alma maters (Gaier, 2005; Rooney, Brown, & Rischall, 2007). As I gave it more thought, I believe the reason alumni have a lower proposal acceptance rate in this study is because professional fundraisers are most often

cultivating university alumni and deliver the majority of proposals to alumni. Whereas, non-alumni tend to self-identify and are not cultivated in the same way as typical alumni prospects. For these reasons, it seems possible that alumni receive multiple proposals over the course of their relationship with the university and while they may make generous donations in their lifetimes, they may also reject a large proportion of the proposals delivered to them. By contrast, non-alumni may receive fewer, more targeted proposals that are accepted at a higher proportion but not necessarily in higher giving amounts than alumni. It may also be due to how alumni are coded in the database. Perhaps isolating graduates only would improve the odds.

Prospect age appears to have a negative effect on a prospect's propensity to give. The older a person is, their likelihood of accepting a proposal decreases. However, other research has found that age is a highly significant factor in calculating prospect propensity. Individuals with a median age of 65 have been found most likely to contribute philanthropically (Adams & Butler, 2017, Missouri) and there is a positive association with women's age and amounts they donate to education (Rooney, Brown, & Mesch, 2007). Perhaps as a result of the age range in this sample, ages 20 to 115 years old, the predictions were skewed by the most advanced age. Certainly it would be unlikely for a person aged 115 to widely accept funding proposals. Another explanation for this result may be that older adults receive a greater volume of proposals than young adults so the proportion of accepted proposals is lower the more a person advances in age.

Education was not found to have a significant relationship on the acceptance of proposals. Yet, the trend indicated prospects with master's degrees were more likely than prospects with bachelor's degrees to accept a funding proposal. Alternatively, prospects

with doctoral degrees were less likely than prospects with bachelor's degrees to accept a funding proposal. These trends were consistent with what was expected. Doctoral level alumni tend to direct their philanthropic support toward their undergraduate institutions which are often not the same as where they earned their terminal degrees (Gaier, 2005). Master's level alumni often attribute their professional growth to their advanced degrees and feel great obligation to return some of their success to their alma maters.

Table 7 presents the logistic regression analyses of accepted proposals run with and without the control variables, restricting the sample to only women major gift prospects. By restricting the observations to a subsample that includes only women prospects, it offers the opportunity to isolate prospect preferences as they relate to philanthropic outcomes specific to women. Population segmentation also promotes equity by combatting proliferation of majority narratives (Wells & Stage, 2015; Carter & Hurtado, 2007). In this case, I was interested to see whether women major gift prospects exhibit higher likelihoods of accepting funding proposals per the gender of the professional fundraiser with whom they correspond.

Table 7. Dependent Variable 1, Accepted Proposals by Women Prospects Only

VARIABLES	(1) Accepted Proposals	(2) Accepted Proposals
Accepted Proposal		
Woman Fundraiser	1.15 (0.10)	1.26* (0.12)
High Capacity		0.72 (0.23)
Mid Capacity		0.78 (0.12)
Low Capacity		0.37**

		(0.07)
Age at Proposal Date		0.99
		(0.00)
Missing Age at Proposal		0.67*
		(0.12)
Alumni Prospect		0.59
		(0.16)
Master Education		1.17
		(0.16)
Doctoral Education		0.96
		(0.14)
Unknown Education		0.88
		(0.23)
Constant	1.21**	3.36**
	(0.08)	(1.44)
Observations	2,393	2,393

Note: standard errors in parentheses

** p<0.01, * p<0.05

According to these findings, women major gift prospects were more likely to accept proposals delivered to them by women fundraisers than they were to accept proposals delivered to them by men fundraisers. The log odds of proposal acceptance were 1.26 times larger for women major gift prospects in gender congruent solicitations compared to solicitations by men. This is consistent with the finding presented in Table 6 that shows a 1.54 times greater likelihood that women major gift prospects would accept proposals when they were matched with women fundraisers. Therefore, in both the full sample and subsample analyses, there was a clear connection associated with the gender congruence of women fundraisers and women major gift prospects on the greater likelihood that a funding proposal would be accepted.

Table 8 presents the logistic regression analyses of accepted proposals run with and without the control variables, restricting the sample to only women fundraisers. By restricting the observations to a subsample that includes only women fundraisers, it offers

the opportunity to isolate the specific likelihood of professional fundraisers to close proposals specific to the woman target population (Carter & Hurtado, 2007; Rios-Aguilar, 2014). In this case, I was interested to see whether women fundraisers encounter more success when they cultivate women major gift prospects. According to these findings, women fundraisers were more likely to close proposals delivered to women major gift prospects than when they delivered proposals to men major gift prospects. The log odds of women fundraisers soliciting an accepted proposal were 1.90 times larger when corresponding with women major gift prospects versus men major gift prospects. This is a particularly important finding because it illustrates that the benefits of woman gender congruence between fundraiser and donor impact both parties. It may also be interpreted as evidence of gender bias exhibited by men prospects toward women fundraisers, which may be overcome by the distinctiveness shared with women prospects.

Table 8. Dependent Variable 1, Accepted Proposals Solicited by Women Fundraisers

VARIABLES	(1) Accepted Proposals	(2) Accepted Proposals
Accepted Proposal		
Woman Prospect	1.69** (0.14)	1.90** (0.16)
High Capacity		1.74** (0.34)
Mid Capacity		0.89 (0.13)
Low Capacity		0.34** (0.06)
Age at Proposal Date		0.99** (0.00)
Missing Age at Proposal		0.80 (0.14)
Alumni Prospect		0.30**

Master Education		(0.08) 1.31*
Doctoral Education		(0.15) 0.90
Unknown Education		(0.09) 0.56*
Constant	0.82** (0.04)	6.01** (2.34)
Observations	3,587	3,587

Note: standard errors in parentheses

** p<0.01, * p<0.05

To summarize, women major gift prospects were more likely to accept funding proposals from women fundraisers in reference to the full sample. Women major gift prospects were also more likely to accept funding proposals when the sample was restricted to women prospects only. Women fundraisers were more likely to find success delivering proposals to women major gift prospects when the sample was restricted to women fundraisers only. And, any systemic barriers that limited women professional fundraisers from closing proposals delivered to the full prospect sample were surmounted by their gender congruence with women major gift prospects. Overall, these findings support the hypothesis that gender congruence between women fundraisers and women donors leads to more successful philanthropic outcomes, represented by increased proposal acceptance.

Subsequent Giving

Table 9 presents two logistic regression models analyzing the gender congruence between fundraiser and major gift prospect related to patterns of subsequent giving. Including the full data sample, subsequent giving was analyzed both with and without the control variables. The base model predicted 66.2% of the observations correctly and the

fully specified model improved the prediction rate to 69.4%. The results indicated that women major gift donors were less likely than men major gift donors to make subsequent financial commitments to the university when compared among the full sample.

Specifically, the log odds of making subsequent contributions were 0.72 times smaller for women major gift donors as compared to men major gift donors.

Table 9. Dependent Variable 2, Subsequent Giving

VARIABLES	(1) Subsequent Giving	(2) Subsequent Giving
Subsequent Giving		
Woman Prospect	0.72** (0.09)	0.86 (0.11)
Woman Fundraiser	0.91 (0.08)	0.90 (0.08)
Women Gender Match	1.50* (0.25)	1.62** (0.28)
High Capacity		5.45** (0.84)
Mid Capacity		1.33* (0.17)
Low Capacity		0.40** (0.10)
Age at Proposal Date		1.00 (0.00)
Missing Age at Proposal		0.56* (0.13)
Alumni Prospect		0.79 (0.24)
Master Education		1.36** (0.16)
Doctoral Education		0.94 (0.09)
Unknown Education		0.74 (0.20)
Constant	0.55** (0.03)	0.39* (0.16)

Correctly Classified	66.18	69.38
Observations	4,553	4,553

Note: standard errors in parentheses

** p<0.01, * p<0.05

Recent research from the Women’s Philanthropy Institute suggested women enjoy supporting a variety of philanthropic interests and behave differently per their generation (Mesch et al., 2016, Indiana). Women born of the baby boomer generation and earlier historically relied on their husbands for most philanthropic decisions, whereas millennial and generation X women are changing the trends and lending more influence on the philanthropic enterprise (Mesch et al., 2016). It is likely that, within this study’s sample, the greater number of baby boomer and pre-baby boomer women major gift donors versus generation x and millennial women major gift donors skewed this particular finding. It is also likely that the data from the earliest gift records credit husbands over wives by default even when the wives were making the charitable giving decisions. The finding that women major gift donors were less likely to make subsequent gifts than men major gift donors could be explained by several things: women donors may be electing to spread their philanthropic dollars more broadly (Andreoni, Brown, & Rischall, 2003), women donors may be conceding gift credit to their husbands, or the gift records may not appropriately capture the relationships with women donors. However, it may also be the result of poor donor stewardship cautioned by Shaw and Taylor (1995; 2010) and relationship management theorists (Ferguson, 1984; Waters, 2008). Perhaps as a result of heteronormative assumptions or benevolent sexism, women donors elected to forego subsequent giving opportunities or may not have even been asked. I would like to conduct

further study of the frequency women major gift donors are asked to give again versus men major gift donors to address this query.

No significant relationship was found between women fundraisers and subsequent giving patterns, but the figures showed a slightly negative trend. As I reflect on my own experiences as a professional fundraiser, I struggle to identify a rationale for why this may be the case. One idea that comes to mind is that major gift donors cultivated by women fundraisers may make subsequent gifts to women fundraiser program areas before they are formally asked to do so. If this were the case, it suggests the relationships between women fundraisers and their major gift donors are such that formal solicitations are not necessary to promote sustained giving. The nonsignificance may also be due to too few observations. As women professional fundraisers made up the minority of staff and subsequent gifts were approximately one-third of the proposals, there simply may not have been enough observations for the model to make a statistically significant prediction of the odds. Another possibility is the presence of gender bias. Men donors may exhibit unconscious gender bias toward women fundraisers or women fundraisers may have limited access to the pools of most loyal contributors. I regret the scope of this study does not permit me to explore what factors may be influencing this relationship.

When women donors were matched with women fundraisers, they were more likely to make subsequent financial commitments than when they corresponded with men fundraisers. The log odds of subsequent giving among women donors were 1.62 times larger when women fundraisers were involved versus when men fundraisers made the solicitation. This finding has particular significance in light of the fact that women major gift donors were generally less likely to make subsequent gifts and women fundraisers

were less likely to receive subsequent gifts. The relationship between women fundraisers and women donors not only increased the likelihood that women donors would give again, it also overcame any barriers that prevented women donors from making subsequent gifts in general as well as any barriers that prevented women fundraisers from receiving subsequent gifts. I believe this is where relationship management theory is best illustrated. Women donors were generally not interested in making subsequent gifts, but when they shared a relationship with a woman fundraiser they were more likely to change that behavior and make additional contributions. I am encouraged that this finding offers evidence that normative expectations may be disrupted by gender congruence among women to the betterment of funding outcomes.

Figure 2 shows the probabilities of subsequent giving by the gender congruence between professional fundraisers and major gift prospects. The box graph illustrates that the gender congruence between women has the highest probability of successful outcomes than in any other gender combination relationship.

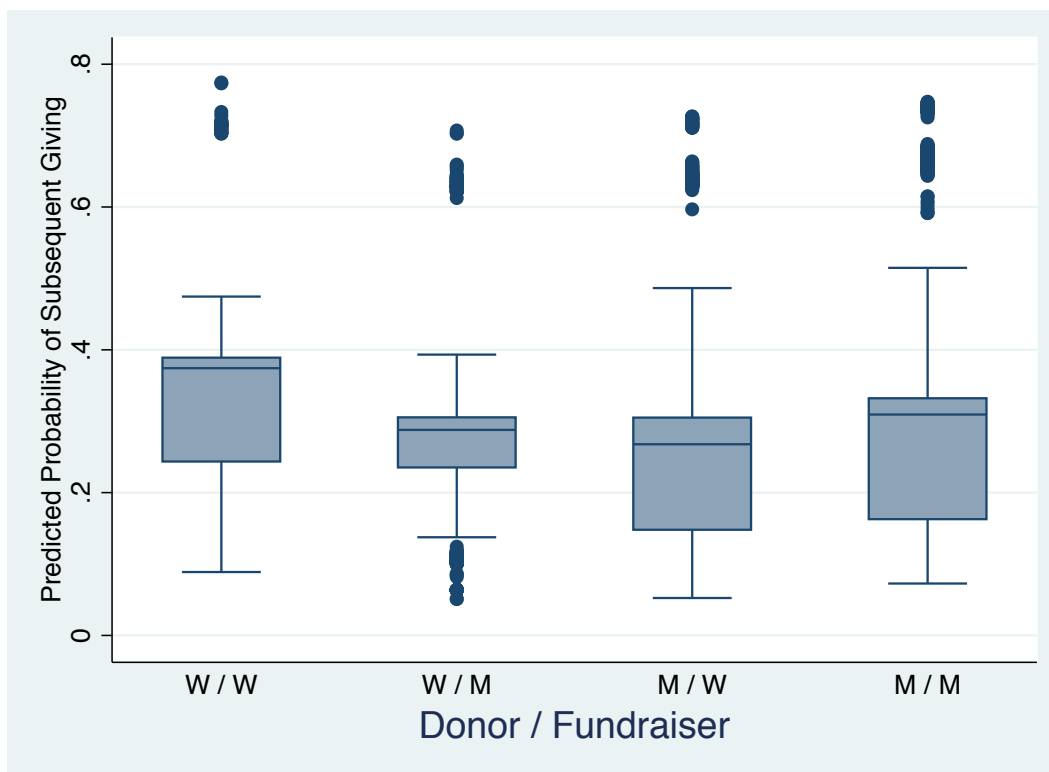


Figure 2. Predicted Probability of Subsequent Giving

Both high capacity and mid capacity donors were more likely to make repeat gifts. Recall from the accepted proposals analyses that mid capacity prospects were less likely to accept funding proposals. This suggests that once mid capacity prospects were converted into donors, they were more likely to remain loyal supporters. I have not encountered other research that has found something similar so I was not expecting to see this phenomenon occur. For the field of professional fundraising, such a finding provides rationale for conducting relationship management strategies to preserve donor relationships and make efforts not to exclude mid capacity donors in those processes.

Advancing age was not found to have a significant relationship on a donor's likelihood to make subsequent gifts. As stated previously, other research supports the idea that middle-aged and older individuals are most likely to make charitable gifts (Rooney,

Brown, & Mesch, 2007). Perhaps in the case of these specific funding proposals, prospects were identified and solicited based on prospect interests versus general stage of life. As a result, the sample used in this study may not behave philanthropically like the general donor population as they represent a targeted audience. I interpret this nonsignificant relationship to mean that donor age has little to do with the decisions by this particular prospect pool to make repeated contributions.

Status as an alumna or alumnus was not found to have a significant relationship on subsequent gifts. I estimate that this occurred because alumni and non-alumni may not differ much in their likelihood to make subsequent gifts. Perhaps alumni status does not play a significant role in a donor's decision to give again.

Donors who earned master's degrees were more likely than donors with bachelor's degrees to make subsequent gifts, doctoral degree education and unknown education were not found to have a significant relationship on subsequent gifts. These results are consistent with the findings from the analyses of accepted proposals. The same rationale that leads donors with master's degrees to accept a funding proposal to begin with applies to their interest in making subsequent gifts. Many master's degree recipients attribute their professional success to the skills they developed in graduate school (Gaier, 2005). These individuals tend to be more motivated to give back and support current students in reaching their goals. Doctoral degree recipients tend not to share these sentiments and invest instead in their baccalaureate institutions.

Table 10 presents the logistic regression analyses of subsequent giving patterns run with and without the control variables, restricting the sample to only women major gift donors to best represent the target population of the study (Carter & Hurtado, 2007; Rios-

Aguilar, 2014). In this case, I restricted the observations to a subsample that included only women major gift donors to isolate whether women donors exhibit a change in philanthropic behavior when they correspond with women fundraisers, represented by patterns of repeat giving. According to these findings, women major gift donors were more likely to make subsequent financial commitments when they worked with women fundraisers than when they were solicited by men fundraisers. The log odds of women donors making subsequent gifts were 1.38 times greater when solicited by women fundraisers. As in findings presented in Table 9, gender congruence between women major gift donors and women professional fundraisers changed the odds that women major gift donors would make subsequent gifts from a negative relationship to a statistically significant positive relationship. I interpret this to mean gender congruence among women changes power dynamics and corrects social norms that otherwise limit the philanthropic behavior of women major gift donors.

Table 10. Dependent Variable 2, Subsequent Giving by Women Donors Only

VARIABLES	(1) Subsequent Giving	(2) Subsequent Giving
Subsequent Giving		
Woman Fundraiser	1.36* (0.19)	1.38* (0.21)
High Capacity		3.56** (1.29)
Mid Capacity		1.62* (0.38)
Low Capacity		0.47* (0.17)
Age at Proposal Date		1.00 (0.00)
Missing Age at Proposal		0.35**

		(0.13)
Alumni Prospect		0.57
		(0.22)
Master Education		1.90
		(0.21)
Doctoral Education		0.81
		(0.20)
Unknown Education		0.56
		(0.19)
Constant	0.39**	0.47
	(0.04)	(0.28)
Observations	1,351	1,351

Note: standard errors in parentheses

** p<0.01, * p<0.05

Table 11 presents the logistic regression analyses of subsequent giving patterns run with and without the control variables, restricting the sample to only women fundraisers as a means to combat the proliferation of majority narratives (Wells & Stage, 2015). By restricting the observations to a subsample that includes only women fundraisers, it offers the opportunity to isolate the strengths of professional fundraisers as they secure subsequent gifts. According to these findings, women fundraisers were more likely to successfully solicit subsequent gifts from women major gift donors than men major gift donors. The log odds of women fundraisers attaining subsequent gifts were 1.38 times larger with women donors compared to men donors. The significance of this analysis is it further supports the argument that distinctiveness among women in the charitable sector produces better outcomes for both the donor and the professional fundraiser. Similar to the findings presented in Table 8, the fact that women fundraisers were found less likely to receive subsequent gifts from men donors may signify the persistence of gender bias by men toward women professionals. It is important to emphasize that in the full sample, women fundraisers had a nonsignificant relationship to subsequent giving but the gender

congruence between women fundraisers and women donors surmounted that finding with a highly significant positive correlation.

Table 11. Dependent Variable 2, Subsequent Giving Solicited by Women Fundraisers

VARIABLES	(1) Subsequent Giving	(2) Subsequent Giving
Subsequent Giving		
Woman Prospect	1.07 (0.14)	1.38* (0.19)
High Capacity		7.50** (2.15)
Mid Capacity		1.66* (0.39)
Low Capacity		0.50 (0.18)
Age at Proposal Date		1.00 (0.00)
Missing Age at Proposal		0.61 (0.20)
Alumni Prospect		0.29 (0.20)
Master Education		1.36 (0.24)
Doctoral Education		0.85 (0.14)
Unknown Education		0.30 (0.19)
Constant	0.50** (0.04)	1.07 (0.87)
Observations	1,773	1,773

Note: standard errors in parentheses

** p<0.01, * p<0.05

In summary, women major gift donors were found to be less likely to make subsequent gifts in reference to the full sample; however, when women professional fundraisers solicited subsequent financial contributions women major gift donors were

more likely to give again. Women major gift donors were found to be more likely to make repeat gifts solicited by women fundraisers when the sample was restricted to women donors only. And, women fundraisers were found to be more likely to find success soliciting women donors to make subsequent gifts when the sample was restricted to women fundraisers only. Overall, these findings support the hypothesis that gender congruence between women fundraisers and women major gift donors leads to more successful philanthropic outcomes, represented by patterns of repeated giving and donor retention.

Granted Amount

Table 12 presents two Tobit regression models analyzing the gender congruence between women fundraisers and major gift donors related to granted donation amount. Tobit regression allows a specific range of data to be analyzed to ensure the line of best fit is restricted to parameters that follow logical sense based on the observations under evaluation. In this study, I was interested in granted philanthropic dollars by an individual. As it is impossible to make a financial contribution of negative dollars, I limited the Tobit model to offer a line of best fit that begins with zero. Following a left-censored model, Tobit regression assumes that the lower limit of zero is the minimum observed in the data and the remaining observations are not censored (Burke, 2009). Therefore, the granted philanthropic dollar amount may be interpreted such that for every unit change in the independent variable, giving increases or decreases relative to the reference group.

Table 12. Dependent Variable 3, Granted Amount

VARIABLES	(1) Granted Amount	(2) Granted Amount
Woman Prospect	22,886 (30,015)	49,992 (28,709)
Woman Fundraiser	-77,113** (22,038)	-62,372** (20,001)
Women Gender Match	46,788 (35,549)	80,793* (35,773)
High Capacity		567,879** (79,728)
Mid Capacity		-56,829** (21,693)
Low Capacity		-284,999** (42,895)
Age at Proposal Date		-29.68 (540.0)
Missing Age at Proposal		32,057 (63,809)
Alumni Prospect		74,601 (135,441)
Master Education		-8,931 (19,091)
Doctoral Education		-16,751 (20,220)
Unknown Education		138,243 (128,430)
Constant	-192,823** (28,651)	-260,710 (160,105)
Sigma	609,186**	571,811**
Observations	9,046	9,046

Note: standard errors in parentheses

** p<0.01, * p<0.05

Including the full data sample, granted donation amount was analyzed both with and without the control variables. Donor gender was not found to have a significant relationship on granted amount but the figures represent that on average women major gift donors gave \$49,992 more than men major gift donors. Existing literature indicates

women donors give more than men (Women's Philanthropy Institute, 2015). As a result, I do not have any supporting research that may account for this nonsignificant finding.

Women fundraisers were found to raise on average \$62,372 less than men fundraisers per solicited contribution. As described in the literature, women professional fundraisers are underrepresented at the top tiers of leadership in higher education advancement and non-profit fundraising teams (Gibelman, 2003; Themudo, 2009; Guidestar, 2016). At MU, women currently represent 28% of advancement leadership and only 16% of top front-line fundraisers (T. Hiles, email communication, October 26, 2016). The principal gift donors are typically reserved for cultivation by the leaders at the top of the organization. For this reason, women fundraisers are unlikely to have the opportunity to raise more average dollars than men fundraisers until they are equally represented in the spheres that have access to the most affluent donor pools.

Women major gift donors gave an average of \$80,793 more per contribution when solicited by women fundraisers than when they were solicited by men fundraisers. In this way, the relationship between women donors and fundraisers changed the results from a nonsignificant finding in general to a significant and highly lucrative connection. The field of professional fundraising is very heavily metrics driven; naturally, the main metric is dollars raised. This is a highly meaningful finding to be able to pinpoint the average increase in giving based on the gender congruence between donors and fundraisers. In continuation of the trend that the woman donor population exceeds the men donor population, this metric will have even greater significance to reaching fundraising campaign goals in future years. It also reinforces the tenets of distinctiveness theory in

that the gender congruence between women changes organizational outcomes by promoting equity and trust among the parties.

Like the previous model, alumni status was not found to have a significant relationship on average donation amount. This study consistently reached nonsignificant or negatively correlated alumni findings, contrary to the literature that suggests connection as an alumnus or alumna is positively correlated with greater giving propensity (Gaier, 2005). Similar to my interpretation of age on subsequent giving, perhaps the nature of this study's sample explains the discrepancy between my findings and other research. At least for major gift prospects being solicited for targeted appeals at the University of Missouri, alumni status has no significant connection to a donor's giving amount.

Table 13 presents the Tobit regression analyses of granted donation amount run with and without the control variables, restricting the sample to only women major gift donors. In this case, I restricted the observations to a subsample that included only women donors to isolate whether granted donation amounts differ according to gender. Unfortunately, no significant relationship was found in this sub analysis. I do not interpret this to mean that women donors show limited changes in giving amounts per the gender of their solicitor considering the relationship was highly significant in the full data sample. Rather, I believe the statistical nonsignificance was due to the nature of the Tobit censored model further limiting the already reduced sample. As women prospects comprised 26% of the full data sample and this subanalysis only evaluated the prospects who completed their gift commitment, the number of observations was reduced from 2,393 to approximately 1,300. Therefore, I posit that the number of donations by women major gift

donors in this subanalysis was too small to provide adequate statistical power (Warner, 2012).

Table 13. Dependent Variable 3, Granted Amount by Women Donors Only

VARIABLES	(1) Granted Amount	(2) Granted Amount
Woman Fundraiser	-36,348 (22,129)	290.4 (18,888)
High Capacity		612,042** (223,675)
Mid Capacity		-66,951* (29,862)
Low Capacity		-176,718** (42,833)
Age at Proposal Date		492.1 (751.5)
Missing Age at Proposal		-29,564 (41,624)
Alumni Prospect		-60,980 (50,982)
Master Education		3,065 (25,293)
Doctoral Education		52,332 (59,383)
Unknown Education		-24,089 (41,417)
Constant	-118,568** (31,111)	-59,283 (88,618)
Sigma	492,692** (112,773)	463,021** (101,265)
Observations	2,393	2,393

Note: standard errors in parentheses

** p<0.01, * p<0.05

Table 14 presents the Tobit regression analyses of granted donation amount run with and without the control variables, restricting the sample to only women fundraisers in an effort to equitably represent gender in this analysis (Rios-Aguilar, 2014). By restricting

the observations to a subsample that includes only women fundraisers, it offers the opportunity to isolate the strengths of professional fundraisers to raise major gifts. According to these findings, women fundraisers raised on average \$66,764 more from women major gift donors than they raised from men major gift donors. For this reason, I posit that women fundraisers are more likely to achieve professional success when they have opportunities to cultivate women donors.

Table 14. Dependent Variable 3, Granted Amount Solicited by Women Fundraisers

VARIABLES	(1) Granted Amount	(2) Granted Amount
Woman Prospect	33,951* (15,521)	66,764** (16,975)
High Capacity		257,342** (65,475)
Mid Capacity		-111,023* (45,015)
Low Capacity		-250,052** (67,459)
Age at Proposal Date		-1,260 (659.1)
Missing Age at Proposal		-26,490 (25,894)
Alumni Prospect		8,003 (150,901)
Master Education		-2,246 (19,650)
Doctoral Education		-20,458 (20,199)
Unknown Education		78,567 (163,809)
Constant	-154,505** (38,423)	-3,001 (158,394)
Sigma	404,382** (79,257)	386,367** (78,489)
Observations	3,587	3,587

Note: standard errors in parentheses

** p<0.01, * p<0.05

To summarize, women major gift donors and women professional fundraisers consistently improve donation averages when they work together. Women fundraisers raised on average \$62,372 less than men fundraisers, quantifying the gender gap in access to principal gift donor pools. When women major gift donors were solicited for gifts by women fundraisers, they contributed on average \$80,793 more than when they were solicited by men fundraisers. High capacity donors were consistently the most generous donor population. Restricting the sample to only women professional fundraisers demonstrated women fundraisers raise on average \$66,764 more from women major gift donors than men major gift donors. Overall, these findings support the hypothesis that gender congruence between women fundraisers and women major gift donors leads to more successful philanthropic outcomes, represented by higher dollars raised.

CHAPTER FIVE: CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

Employment in traditionally male-dominated careers in charitable organizations and legitimacy as respected philanthropists are luxuries often beyond reach of women (Dominici, Fried, & Zeger, 2009). Women comprise 75% of the nonprofit labor force but fewer than 11% of upper management nationwide (Gibelman, 2003), and women philanthropists only hold 20% of positions on volunteer boards of directors (Pynes, 2000). Yet, despite these discrepancies, the philanthropic sectors, such as nonprofits, colleges and universities, are more likely to be funded by women donors than by men (Dvorak & Toubman, 2013).

Juxtaposed to women's growing impact on the charitable sector, women continue to be less likely than men to be effectively stewarded (Mesch & Osili, 2016). So, as charitable organizations and institutions of higher learning rely now, more than ever, on private contributions to remain viable (Dvorak & Toubman, 2013) their continued neglect to cater to women donors (Letters, 2012) is increasingly problematic. The objective of this research was to offer recommendations to best cultivate women philanthropists and utilize their strengths for the benefit of the charitable sector. I sought to achieve that objective by evaluating changes to three philanthropic behaviors relative to the relationships between women fundraisers and women major gift prospects. Those three behaviors included proposal acceptance rate, subsequent giving patterns, and average donation amount. The following chapter provides a discussion of the findings presented in Chapter Four and offers implications for professional fundraising practice, theory, and future research endeavors.

Discussion

This study quantified a phenomenon that I have seen at play for 15 years as a professional fundraiser. Many of the findings were not seen before in the literature with which I am familiar. The contributions to the body of knowledge and the philanthropic sector are meaningful to me as the researcher and as a member of the professional fundraising community.

Recall that women fundraisers and women prospects were matched in approximately 13% of proposal deliveries amounting to 1,200 proposals received by women prospects that were delivered by women fundraisers. As slightly fewer than 2,400 proposals were presented to women major gift prospects overall, and women fundraisers represented 40% of the staff submitting proposals, women fundraisers made much more of these connections to women prospects than men fundraisers by proportion. Thinking about this point further, women prospects only received 26% of the total delivered proposals but women major gift prospects were found to be more likely than men major gift prospects to accept funding proposals. This finding is consistent with existing literature and supports the notion that women tend to be more philanthropically generous than men in general (Piper & Schnepf, 2008). In this way, women major gift prospects were solicited less than men major gift prospects yet accepted funding solicitations more often than men prospects, illustrating a major discrepancy between prospect funding capacity and attention paid by professional fundraisers.

Previous research suggests women exhibit greater altruistic tendencies than do men which is evidenced by women's economic behavior, volunteerism, empathy, and leadership to affect positive change (Andreoni & Vesterlund, 2001; Einolf, 2011). Moreover, holding

all other factors constant, women are more philanthropically generous than are men – particularly among the social elite (Mesch et al., 2006; Osili, Clark, St. Claire, & Bergdoll, 2016). And, these women elect to invest their wealth in areas that support the public good, primarily education and human services (Piper & Schnepf, 2008). Each of these assertions was reinforced by my study.

Women fundraisers were found to be less likely to receive a gift when they delivered a proposal to men major gift prospects. I believe this finding is connected to the sheer volume of proposals that tend to be delivered to men prospects in general, consistent with other research findings that women are less likely to be contacted by professional fundraisers and even less likely to be contacted by university administrators for major fundraising opportunities (Mesch & Osili, 2016). The fact that men prospects comprised 74% of the sample reinforces this assertion. Compounding the numeric imbalance is the persistence of gender bias toward women which I posit influenced women fundraisers' likelihood of success with men prospects.

High capacity major gift prospects were much more likely to accept a proposal and low capacity major gift prospects were highly unlikely to accept a proposal. This is consistent with the 2016 U.S. Trust Study of High Net Worth Philanthropy findings regarding the giving and volunteering behaviors of high net worth individuals and households. Ninety-one percent of high net worth households gave to charity in 2015, and nearly half of high net worth individuals volunteered their time (Osili et al., 2016). On average, high net worth households gave \$25,509 to charity in 2015 contrasted by \$2,124 given on average by the general population.

Among all major gift donors who accepted a proposal, 34% made subsequent gifts. Waters (2008) explains a long satisfying relationship with the charitable organization is the greatest predictor of continued loyalty and giving propensity. However, in general, women major gift donors were less likely than men major gift donors to make subsequent financial commitments. This may be accounted for based on the fact that women tend to support a variety of philanthropic interests (Andreoni, Brown, & Rischall, 2003). But, I argue it is equally likely, if not more so, that women major gift donors have not been well stewarded by the university. I question whether women major gift donors are even asked to give as routinely as men major gift donors. I believe this point is further supported by the fact that women major gift donors' subsequent giving behavior changed relative to the gender congruence component. It is evident to me that, generally, women major gift donors are better cultivated by women professional fundraisers resulting in positive changes to donors' philanthropic behaviors.

Recall this finding has particular significance in light of the fact that women major gift donors were generally less likely to *make* subsequent gifts and women fundraisers were less likely to *receive* subsequent gifts. The relationship between women fundraisers and women donors not only increased the likelihood that women donors would give again, it also appears to have surmounted any barriers that prevented women fundraisers from receiving subsequent gifts. I believe this is where relationship management theory is best illustrated. When people make donations to charities they care about, their positive neural activity, and sense of satisfaction, increases (Harbaugh, 2007). And, such positive neural activity among donors predicts subsequent gifts. The relationship management scale suggests that sense of satisfaction rises from connectivity to the organization, and

distinctiveness theory posits connectivity is reached most strongly among women. Moreover, it is clear gender congruence improves the likelihood of success for women professionals, demonstrating the benefits of distinctive relationships support both parties.

It turns out income rating has less to do with a donor's propensity to make subsequent gifts. Both high capacity and mid capacity donors were likely to make repeat gifts. Recall from the accepted proposals analyses that mid capacity prospects were less likely to accept funding proposals but were more likely to make subsequent gifts. This suggests that once mid capacity prospects are converted into donors, they are more likely to remain loyal supporters. The relationship management process is as much a donor acquisition tool as a donor retention tool.

On average women major gift donors gave \$80,793 more when solicited by women fundraisers than when they were solicited by men fundraisers. When I consider how much smaller the woman major gift donor population is versus the man major gift donor population, I am struck by the enormous growth opportunity in campaign productivity should a more equitable balance of men and women donors be achieved. I find this figure to be the most compelling justification for promoting relationship management practices that cultivate connections between women and ensure women donors are equitably approached with funding opportunities.

This study reinforced much of the previous research on the topics of philanthropic behavior, women's motivations to give, and woman-to-woman connections. My findings remain consistent with other studies that found women make the majority of charitable giving decisions in American households (Dvorak & Toubman, 2013), contribute more of their expendable income relative to their earnings than men (Mesch et al., 2006), and they

routinely direct their giving to education and human services organizations (Piper & Schnepf, 2008). At the same time, women are graduating from colleges and universities at a rate of 8% higher than men (Feeney, 2015) and women tend to live longer, which could soon result in institutions of higher learning having a larger population of living women graduates than men. As a result, the donor population will continue to populate by a majority of women at an even faster pace. Therefore, understanding women philanthropists will be of even greater significance in the coming years. The concern is donor cultivation strategies have not evolved to accommodate the changing demographics of donors (Shaw & Taylor, 2010). It is my hope this study offers insights that may begin a process of reform.

Implications for Practice

Previous research provided the platform on which I built this study. Key perspectives from that literature indicated women's philanthropic experiences are very different from men's, both as donors and professional fundraisers (Shaw & Taylor, 2010). For example, women's philanthropic behavior tends to be motivated by individualized factors like personal friendships and philosophical values (Mesch, 2016); and exhibit receptiveness to the philanthropic enterprise as it reinforces their intrinsic values consistent with their social, moral, and religious identities (Einolf, 2011). Women's motivations to be philanthropic, then, are rooted in their interest to connect personally with the charitable organizations they support. And, women are generous supporters. In fact, the number of women donors is higher than men donors for almost all causes (Piper & Schnepf, 2008), women are more likely to give than men, and women tend to give more than men (Mesch et al., 2011).

Still, despite these trends, the disadvantages to women in philanthropy persist in both access to nonprofit leadership positions and between women donors and fundraising professionals, thereby compounding systemic gender disparities and thwarting opportunities for advancement (Andreoni, Brown, & Rischall, 2003; Capek, 2001). Women donors continue to be among the minority of nonprofit governing board membership, are routinely misidentified in donor databases, and tend to be overlooked as principal gift prospects in general (Mesch & Osili, 2016). In fact, my research demonstrated men prospects receive three times the number of funding proposals than women prospects receive.

Meanwhile, women professional fundraisers find themselves absent from top leadership positions where donor strategies are developed, are less likely to hold key prospects in their portfolios, and earn less than their men colleagues with equivalent titles (Themudo, 2009). “Women face a glass ceiling in nonprofit organizations: women earn lower wages at all organizational levels and are proportionally underrepresented in upper management” (Themudo, 2009, p. 679). Although women make up the majority of employees in charitable fields, men employ leadership roles more than six times that of women (Shaw & Taylor, 2010). These trends were also supported by my research in that women fundraisers were less likely than men fundraisers to receive subsequent gifts and women fundraisers raise less funding per average contribution than men fundraisers.

The philanthropic enterprise is dependent on the charitable expression of women. Women’s charitable support of nonprofit organizations internationally is correlated with a rise in women’s empowerment in the communities affected by their generosity; and, support of charities grows correspondingly with the rise of women’s economic and political

opportunities (Themudo, 2009). This relationship between women philanthropists and women beneficiaries is unique. Charitable transactions that support the interests of donor and recipient per their common gender are not demonstrated by men, only by women (Ben-Ner, Kong, & Putterman, 2004).

With that background in mind, this study quantified the importance of woman gender congruence between professional fundraisers and major gift prospects to increase the likelihood of desired philanthropic outcomes. This study also brought to light some of the inherent flaws and equity disparities within the charitable sector. The following sections discuss the specific implications my findings have for the philanthropic profession.

Professional Fundraisers

Women fundraisers were less likely than men fundraisers to receive a gift when they delivered a proposal to a man major gift prospect. This has potentially positive implications for the men in the field and potentially negative implications for women in the field. Overall, though, I think it illustrates that both genders of fundraisers have their strengths and weaknesses, and both genders of donors have innate preferences that should be taken into account. As women major gift prospects tend to participate in the proposal process more readily, men fundraisers may wish to incorporate a draft-sharing component to their donor strategy when they cultivate women major gift donors. Similarly, women fundraisers may need to prepare for men major gift donors with multiple versions of a funding proposal or one multi-dimensional menu-style proposal to account for men donors' tendency to review and reject more proposals before accepting one. Women fundraisers may also need to be prepared to encounter gender bias and seek support to overcome it. The fundraising profession has begun to offer professional development on

this issue, but more is needed as access remains limited (Association of Fundraising Professionals – Central Missouri Chapter, personal communication, March 29, 2017).

Women fundraisers were not found to have a significant relationship on subsequent gifts from the general donor population compared to men fundraisers. I regret the scope of this study did not permit me to explore the possible factors at play. I suspect it may be partly to do with unsolicited subsequent gifts for which women fundraisers would not necessarily enter a proposal. Further study into constituent giving history in addition to constituent proposal considerations would clarify that point.

Moreover, I noted in Chapter Four that women fundraisers deliver a higher proportion of proposals to women prospects. The significance of that finding is underscored by the fact that the gender congruence between women fundraisers and women donors increased the likelihood that women donors would continue their giving patterns; furthermore, gender congruence among women was also shown to overcome the barriers for women fundraisers that may have prevented them from significantly influencing repeated contributions from the general donor population. While I believe there are opportunities for men fundraisers to improve their practices and relate better to women prospects, just as women fundraisers may adapt to better relate to men prospects, I ultimately wish to emphasize that the gender congruence phenomenon among women has rare benefits that are likely irreplicable in mixed-gender relationships.

This study highlighted that stewardship practices are likely to be highly valuable for all donor retention, but may have the most influence on the repeat giving patterns of mid capacity donors. While mid capacity donors were less likely to accept new funding proposals, findings suggested mid capacity prospects were more likely to remain loyal

supporters after they converted into donors. For the field of professional fundraising, such a finding provides rationale for conducting relationship management strategies to preserve donor relationships and make efforts not to exclude mid capacity donors in those processes. Within the full population, only 34% of major gift donors who accepted an initial proposal made subsequent gifts. Because women prospects tend to be underrepresented in prospect pools, cultivation, stewardship, and relationship management strategies that are effective for women major gift donors have the greatest opportunity to increase the retention percentage.

The previous point is underscored by the fact that donor demographics are changing. Women of the baby boomer generation and earlier historically relied on their husbands for most philanthropic decisions (Mesch et al., 2016). As Mesch et al. explain (2006), it is millennial and generation X women who are changing the trends and lending more influence on the philanthropic enterprise. The charitable sector would be wise to continue tracking this trend. The millennial generation already surpasses the baby boomer generation in active employment in the United States and millennial women in particular have already proven to be more generous to philanthropic causes proportionally to their net income than previous generations.

Women fundraisers were found to raise on average \$62,372 less than men fundraisers in general. I hypothesize that this finding is related to the discrepancies in access to high net worth prospects that tend to be offered to men fundraisers more consistently than to women fundraisers (Themudo, 2009). A comprehensive review of portfolio composition based on gender, gift capacity, age, and alumni status would be necessary to test this hypothesis. I regret the scope of this project does not allow me to

embark on that path to answer this question. Future research would benefit from including a portfolio composition analysis to address this discrepancy. On the one hand, it does produce a limitation in that the study findings may be misinterpreted such that women fundraisers are ineffective with the general donor population. On the other hand, the study may produce a counter limitation that suggests men fundraisers are ineffective with the growing woman donor population and thereby lead to reverse discrimination.

Overall, there are great opportunities for professional fundraising in light of the findings of this study. I look forward to additional scholarship that fills the gaps I have identified. The charitable sector is growing in professionalism and studies like this will continue to inform practice and improve the profession.

Higher Education Advancement

This study found alumni status had a negative relationship on a prospect's likelihood to accept a proposal which came as a surprise to me. The literature suggests that alumni tend to have a high propensity to give back to their alma maters (Gaier, 2005; Rooney, Brown, & Mesch, 2007). As I gave it more thought, I believe the reason alumni have a lower proposal acceptance rate in this study is because professional fundraisers are most often cultivating alumni of university programs and deliver the majority of proposals to alumni. Whereas, non-alumni tend to self identify and are not cultivated in the same way as typical alumni prospects. Therefore, higher education advancement professionals should be mindful not to overestimate or saturate alumni with funding proposals; by the same token, higher education advancement professionals should be mindful not to underestimate the value and giving propensity of non-alumni. Although it was not found to be significant, I do note that alumni donated on average \$74,601 more than non-alumni.

Therefore, despite the fact that alumni were less likely to accept a given proposal, they are generous supporters of the university.

Overall, education was not found to have a significant influence over the acceptance of proposals. Yet, prospects with master's degrees were more likely than prospects with bachelor's degrees to accept funding proposals. Moreover, major gift donors who have earned master's degrees were more likely than major gift donors with bachelor's degrees to make subsequent gifts. While it is possible that the education variable was discounted by the large proportion of educated people in the sample, it is still highly valuable information to understand that post-baccalaureate degree earners were consistently more likely than bachelor's degree or doctoral degree holders to accept funding proposals and make subsequent gifts. Major gift prospect identification strategies may be improved by isolating master's level graduates from prospect pools.

Implications for Theory and Other Sectors

Relationship management theory explains that people support organizations in which they experience trust, commitment, satisfaction, and control mutuality (Ledingham & Bruning, 1998). Such feelings result in greater loyalty and amplify financial support. Distinctiveness theory suggests that people representing similar demographics and backgrounds that make up the minority of a given group tend to assign trust and build relationships more efficiently than members of the majority (McGuire, McGuire, & Winton, 1977). These connections are especially strong among women. Together, relationship management and distinctiveness theories predict that financial outcomes are greater when organizations and their constituents share minority characteristics:

- Minority populations exhibit stronger and quicker feelings of trust with others inside the minority group, expediting the relationship management process resulting in financial support.
- Feelings of commitment and solidarity are felt more quickly and sustainably in populations of women.
- Women are significantly more likely than men to identify and foster satisfying relationships with others in their networks.
- Power dynamics balance when people of numeric minorities interact within their own networks, diffusing concerns of misuse of power and misappropriation of funds.

As predicted by relationship management and distinctiveness theories, gender congruence among women was found to result in better organizational outcomes. Women major gift prospects were more likely to accept proposals delivered to them by women fundraisers than they were to accept proposals delivered to them by men fundraisers. When women donors work alongside women professional fundraisers to achieve their philanthropic goals, they sense a balance of power and find confidence that their donations will be spent as intended and thereby lead to better fundraising outcomes (Bennett, 2003). Outcomes of gender congruence among women predicted by relationship management and distinctiveness theory are not limited to the philanthropic sector. There are also implications for health care, politics, and businesses.

Health Care Sector

A recent Harvard Medical School and Harvard School of Public Health joint study found that men and women physicians practice medicine differently (Tsugawa et al., 2017,

Massachusetts). This difference in practice was found to lead to lower mortality rates and readmission rates when Medicare patients were treated by women physicians. Women physicians were more likely to adhere to clinical guidelines, provide preventive care more often, use more patient-centered communication, and provide more psychosocial counseling to their patients than do men physicians. Women physicians make up 30% of the U.S. physician work force and women patients comprised 60% of the study sample. In general, women physicians treat a higher percentage of women patients than men physicians. Therefore, the distinctiveness of women physicians in the medical field has likely contributed to the improved health outcomes of their mostly women patients. Future analysis to test this idea may have even more definitive implications for a broader scope of patient care.

Political Sector

In the political sector, the idea of minority congruence, referred to as representative bureaucracy, is not a new concept. Representative bureaucracy suggests that minority populations are best served when members of those minority populations hold positions in public office (Keiser, Wilkins, Meier, & Holland, 2002, Missouri). There is some evidence that this has particular significance among women and women's representation matters in local politics (Holman, 2015, Louisiana). Women public officers are far more likely than their men counterparts to forge strong ties with women and women's issue groups; and those who do are more likely to pay close attention to women's issues legislation. Women mayors do in fact devote more attention to women's issues and foster higher levels of citizen input on such issues than men mayors. Local governments with more women in powerful positions allocate more money and staff to programs that address urban women's

issues. Thus, the fact that women still make up far fewer than half of local government leaders remains a critical problem of American democracy like the underrepresentation of women leaders in the nonprofit sector has on American philanthropy. Holman (2015) found women mayors and councilmembers with strong connections to women and women's-issue groups to be the most committed advocates; particularly when women on the council joined forces with a woman mayor, they were more likely to make a difference for their constituents.

Additionally, the presence of women candidates in political elections has been found to increase political engagement by women voters (Wolbrecht & Campbell, 2017, Indiana). Women were found to be more likely to participate in political dialogues with and about women candidates, translating to greater propensity for civic engagement and participation in elections. In short, similar to women's volunteerism and employment in the charitable sector, women's representation in government translates to greater civic outcomes for women constituents.

Corporate Sector

Implications for the corporate sector relate to both internal and external audiences. Woman gender congruence is relevant to product sales made by women consumers externally and purchasing decisions made by women internal employees. Therefore, implementation of a relationship management model in light of distinctiveness theory may have sales benefits as well as internal efficiency implications.

The success of corporate communications strategies is rooted in communicators' ability to construct signifiers that reflect the cultural and social experiences of women.

"Advertising emerges from a hegemonic system, it has a range of intertextual meanings

that are often negotiated across time, place, and experiences,” (Grow, 2006, p. 4, Wisconsin). Advertising is intimately intertwined with consumption. Women make 80-85% of consumer decisions but are not represented in creative advertising departments among major corporations (Grow & Deng, 2015, Wisconsin). When advertising practices represent a community of women as an empowered community, such advertising campaigns are correlated with higher product sales. This phenomenon is most likely to occur when the advertising team is led by women professionals. Therefore, product sales, like funding proposals, are more likely to find success when women communicators pitch campaigns to women consumers.

Additionally, socially responsible consumption plays a huge role in consumer trust of corporations (Webb, Mohr, & Harris, 2008, Georgia). Eighty-nine percent of Americans say that social responsibility by companies is very important to them as they assign brand loyalty. In fact, corporate social performance and profitability were found to be significantly, positively related. It is argued that corporate social performance can influence profitability through such factors as employee or customer loyalty, community goodwill, and socially responsible investing. Women comprise two-thirds of consumers for whom corporate responsible consumption is critical. For this reason, employing relationship management theory informed by distinctiveness theory has implications for the perception of corporate social responsibility by women consumers and may translate to greater profitability in the corporate sector.

On a related note, women are increasing in number among business managerial and professional positions with buying and decision-making power (Benko, Pelster, Silvergate, Steinberg, & Carlos, 2013, New York). A study out of the Harvard Business School found

women buyers are more interested in talking to the people from whom they make purchases than men buyers. Seventy percent of senior sales managers reported perceiving that selling to women was different than selling to men. Women now occupy 41% of employee roles with authority to make corporate purchasing decisions. Women expressed more interest than men to consider interpersonal relationships, enjoy balancing multiple and competing stakeholder interests, and tended to engage in more collaboration and consensus building. Employing strategies that address the unique characteristics of women corporate buyers has led to heightened client satisfaction, new revenue, and increased market share. Such practices were also found to accelerate employee diversity initiatives. What this suggests, then, is that woman-to-woman communications translate to greater organizational outcomes that include product sales, corporate efficiencies, and workplace diversity which ultimately correspond to profitability.

Although corporations and foundations were omitted from the analyses of my study, understanding the implications of relationship management and distinctiveness theories relative to those audiences may improve philanthropic outcomes as well. Perhaps a result of more women in the sector, corporations and foundations are building a culture where stewardship and relationship management are an expected component of funding awards (Thompson, 2017, Georgia). Corporations and foundations want the same attention, appreciation, and recognition that private individual donors routinely receive. For that reason, future cultivation practices for large prospect entities may need to rely more consistently on formalized relationship management practices led by women professional fundraisers.

It is evident that there are implications from my study for the health care, political, and corporate sectors. Across all fields, women in leadership have the capacity to affect positive outcomes for women patients, constituents, and consumers while also elevating the effectiveness of their organizations. These examples across sectors reinforce that relationship management theory informed by distinctiveness theory is an effective tool that has wide implications.

Final Conclusion

Across a variety of sectors, the relationships between women professionals and women clientele offer higher likelihoods of achieving desired outcomes. Linguists determined a common dialogue of unspoken communication leads to “bonds of sisterhood” and creates shared understanding not experienced by men (Devault, 1990). Organizational culture is improved among women mentoring relationships as women mentoring women has been found to build resiliency and work-life balance (Crepezzi, 2015; Cullen & Luna, 1993).

The immersion of women students in the women-dominated environments of women’s institutions results in greater career outcomes as women’s college graduates achieve higher occupational prestige, earn higher salaries, and are represented at a greater proportion than their peers in academe, politics, corporate leadership, and governing board participation (Barnes, 2014). Similarly, women leaders are more effective among all-women employee teams (Wang et al., 2013). Connections between women are a driving force behind retail sales as women tend to purchase items advertised by other women (Scanlon, 2013).

Health care has also seen great benefits from woman-to-woman relationships. Telehealth nursing services achieve better outcomes between women patients and women providers (Hogland & Holmstrom, 2008), and mental health may be improved through women-centric support networks in regions where mental health services are rare (Hunt, 1998). In short, the phenomenon that women achieve greater outcomes when partnered together is documented in various research areas. This study provided additional detail to the body of knowledge to further quantify the philanthropic outcomes that result from gender congruence among women.

In addition to its consistency with other research findings, this study also provided some evidence that the distinctiveness of women in the philanthropic sector may contribute to more efficient relationship management practices. Women fundraisers were found to be more likely than men fundraisers to achieve proposal acceptance from women major gift donors. Women fundraisers were found to be more likely than men fundraisers at achieving subsequent giving commitments from women major gift donors. On average, women fundraisers secured more funding from women major gift donors than their men counterparts. And, women fundraisers were more successful at closing gift proposals and receiving subsequent contributions when they solicited women major gift donors.

As trends continue to illustrate the growing control women donors have over the charitable dollars expended by their households, knowing the motives to increase their likelihood of supporting a given charity will be all the more critical to the philanthropic enterprise as a whole. While the scope of this project cannot account for all motives, it does contribute to the body of knowledge that relationship management practices are expedited among women due to their distinctiveness and shared experiences. Future research may

lead to a greater understanding of this phenomenon and further elevate women's influence on the philanthropic enterprise.

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APPENDIX A

Notification of a New Proposal

Proposal Information

ID of Primary Donor*: Mrs. Catherine Comley Adams, MPA, CFRE

Rel. Manager:

Proposal ID 0

ID of 2nd Donor:

Type*:

Stage*:

Likelihood*:

Date proposal presented to donor*

Date proposal accepted or rejected*

Funding Type:

Proposal Title*:

Brief description of Ask, including program, office and date of corresponding contact reports*:

Proposal Purpose

	How the funds will be used	Program/office or allocation area where the money will be used	Ask Amount	Granted Amount
1st*	<input type="text" value="Select an Interest"/>	<input type="text" value="Select a Program"/>	\$ <input type="text"/>	\$ <input type="text"/>
2nd	<input type="text" value="Select an Interest"/>	<input type="text" value="Select a Program"/>	\$ <input type="text"/>	\$ <input type="text"/>
3rd	<input type="text" value="Select an Interest"/>	<input type="text" value="Select a Program"/>	\$ <input type="text"/>	\$ <input type="text"/>

4th \$ \$

5th \$ \$

Total:

Proposal Assignment

Available Staff: Selected Staff:

Dev. Officers*:

Additional Info

DO/Solicitor's Email*:

VITA

Catherine C. Adams was born in 1983 in Columbia, Missouri. After attending public schools in Jefferson City, Missouri, she received the following degrees: Bachelor of Arts in history, minor in religion, from William Jewell College in Liberty, Missouri (2004); Master of Public Affairs in non-profit management and organizational change from the University of Missouri in Columbia, Missouri (2006); and Doctor of Philosophy in educational leadership and policy analysis from the University of Missouri in Columbia, Missouri. She is currently the senior director for advancement in the Extension division at the University of Missouri. She holds international certification as a fundraising executive (CFRE) and is President of the Association of Fundraising Professionals, Central Missouri Chapter.