

Evidence-Informed Institutional Advancement:

An Organizational Understanding

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Abstract

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This dissertation study seeks to better understand two main ideas around institutional advancement in higher education: the knowledge and evidence that informs practice and the structures and systems that are set up for the sharing of this knowledge and evidence within and across these organizations. I use a conceptual framework based on organizational systems, learning, and culture theories along with the tenets of evidence-informed policy and practice (EIPP) to delve deeper into my research questions. These research questions include: 1) To what extent do advancement divisions value certain types of evidence and knowledge? 2) What types of evidence and knowledge do advancement divisions utilize to inform their practice and policies? 2a) What organizational practices and individual and organizational characteristics, if any, affect which knowledge guides the work of advancement organizations? 3) What organizational learning systems and structures are in place both within and outside advancement organizations that guide practice and internal policy making? 4) What sociodemographic and organizational characteristics, if any, show a relationship with systems and structures of knowledge management and mobilization of institutional advancement shops?

I draw on an original data set that combines responses from survey methodology and data from the Council for Advancement and Support of Education (CASE) AMAtlas Data Miner and Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS) (n=1,826). Using a combination of descriptive statistics, ordinal logistic regression (OLR), and linear regression, I add to the

literature base on philanthropy in higher education and gain insight into my research questions. The field of institutional advancement is understudied and often relies on anecdotal evidence versus more theory-based understanding of how work is carried out (Drezner, 2011; Drezner & Huehls, 2014; Walton, 2019). These findings push the field's understanding of what knowledge, evidence, and learning systems and structures drive and guide the work of advancement.

Advancement organizations value *all* types of knowledge and evidence in their work, including tacit, explicit, embedded, and research based. However, there is an incongruity between this valuing of all knowledge and evidence types and day-to-day practice. Practitioners are more likely to use and share tacit, explicit, embedded knowledge and evidence sources than research based. In addition to these findings, I find that advancement practitioners share knowledge and evidence using a multitude of different learning structures and systems both within their organization and across the broader field of institutional advancement.

My study uses organizational theory and tenets of EIPP to highlight the ways that advancement practice can be further understood and improved. These improvements are critical to ensure that the field works towards a model of equity and inclusion for all alumni, donors, and stakeholders. In addition, with changing demographics and decreased alumni participation rates, the findings from my study are more important than ever to ensure the sustainability of these organizations for generations to come.

Table of Contents

Chapter 1: Introduction.....	1
Institutional Advancement in American Higher Education Institutions.....	3
Framing the Conversation.....	4
Defining Institutional Advancement.....	6
History of Institutional Advancement.....	6
Post Civil War – 1920s	7
1940s – 1970s	9
1980s – 1990s	10
Institutional Advancement in the Present Day.....	10
Research and its Use in Philanthropy in Higher Education.....	11
Problem Statement.....	14
Evidence-Informed Practice and Policy.....	15
Evidence.....	16
Data and Information in Relationship to Evidence.....	16
Knowledge	17
Tacit Knowledge.....	19
Explicit Knowledge	20
Embedded Knowledge.....	20
Research-Based Knowledge	22
A Shift Towards Evidence-Informed Practice and Policy.....	24
An Example of the Relationship Between... ..	26
Purpose Statement.....	27
Research Questions.....	28
Rationale and Significance of Study.....	28
Overview of Study	31
Chapter 2: Literature Review and Conceptual Framework	32
Evidence-Informed Policy and Practice.....	33
Context in EIPP.....	36
Knowledge in Evidence-Informed Practice and Policy	38
Tacit Knowledge.....	39
Explicit Knowledge	31
Embedded Knowledge.....	43
Research-Based Knowledge	44
Knowledge Management and Knowledge Mobilization	49
Knowledge Mobilization	51
Knowledge Management	52
A Conceptual Framework for Evidence-Informed Institutional Advancement.....	55
Holistic Organizational Theoretical Approach to Institutional Advancement	55
General Systems Theory	57
Organizational Learning Theory.....	61
Organizational Culture Theory	67
Final Conceptual Framework.....	71

Chapter 3: Methodology	76
Purpose of Study	76
Research Questions	76
Rationale	77
Positionality	78
Survey Process & Procedures	80
Pre-Survey Cognitive Interviews with Practitioners.....	81
Instrument Review	82
Pilot Study & Post-Survey Creation Cognitive Interviews.....	82
Full Survey Deployment & Timeline	83
Sample.....	85
Survey Instrument.....	88
Categories	89
Data Analysis.....	100
Missing Cases & Data Cleaning	100
Descriptive Statistics.....	101
Factor Analysis	101
Correlations.....	102
Regression.....	103
Conclusion	104
Chapter 4: Results.....	105
Understanding my Sample: Organizational & Individual Level Descriptive Statistics	106
Organizational Characteristics Descriptive Statistics	106
Individual Respondents Descriptive Statistics.....	110
Data Analysis: A Deep Dive into my Research Questions.....	115
Exploring Research Question 1: The Valuing of Evidence and Knowledge Types.....	116
Exploring Research Question 2: Ideals versus Reality of Knowledge & Evidence Use	121
Exploring Research Question 3: Systems & Structures for... ..	161
An Organizational Understanding of Advancement through an EIPP Lens.....	162
Exploring Research Question 4: What sociodemographic and organizational characteristics, if any, show a relationship with systems and structures of knowledge management and mobilization of institutional advancement shops?	166
Chapter 5: Discussion	174
Organizational Culture & Learning: What Evidence and Knowledge Informs Practice?	175
Cultural Value and Knowledge & Evidence.....	176
The Reality of What Informs & Guides Practice.....	179
Effects of Knowledge Endorsement & Organizational Practices on Knowledge Use	183
Learning Systems & Structures within Organizations & the Field.....	188
Understanding the Organizational Learning Systems & Structures in Advancement.....	189
Relationships Between Learning Systems and Structures and Individual and Organizational Characteristics.....	191
Limitations	193
Chapter 6: Implications and Conclusion.....	195

Implications for this Study and the Guiding Theories	195
Implications for Practice and Structures and Systems in Advancement.....	197
Knowledge Mobilization in Advancement	202
Conclusion	205
References.....	207
APPENDICES	
Appendix A: Dissertation Survey	221

List of Figures & Tables

Table 2.1 Weiss (1979) meanings of using research	46
Figure 2.1 Institutional advancement shops simultaneously exist as sub-systems of two separate systems (Adapted from Anderson-Long, 2019; Birnbaum & Edelson, 1988)	60
Figure 2.2 Organizational Level Systems Understanding of Evidence-Informed Institutional Advancement	73
Table 3.1 Organizational Characteristics of Organizations Invited to Participate in Survey	87
Table 3.2 Conceptual Framework Categories in Survey & Corresponding Research Questions.	88
Table 3.3 Survey Categories Based on Conceptual Framework.....	91
Table 4.1 Organizational Characteristics of Sample from IPEDS & CASE	107
Figure 4.1 Response Totals by Bureau Regions	106
Table 4.2 Organizational Characteristics of Sample Collected from Survey	109
Table 4.3 Respondent Demographics & Professional and Educational Background.....	110
Figure 4.2 Individual Decision Making by Knowledge Types.....	117
Figure 4.3 Organizational Decision-Making Ranking based on Perceived Value of that Knowledge & Evidence Type.....	119
Figure 4.4 Frequency of Use of Different Knowledge & Evidence Sources by Individuals.....	123
Figure 4.5 Frequency of Use by Individuals of Knowledge Types	125
Figure 4.6 Individuals Ranking Knowledge Use by Knowledge Types.....	126
Figure 4.7 Frequency of Organizational Knowledge & Evidence Use	127
Figure 4.8 Frequency of Research Knowledge Use by Typologies.....	129
Table 4.4: Individual tacit knowledge use	132
Figure 4.9 Predicted Probability of Tacit Knowledge Use by Endorsement.....	137
Figure 4.10 Predicted Probability of Tacit Knowledge Use by Organizational Practice	138
Table 4.5 Individual explicit knowledge use	138

Figure 4.11 Predicted Probability of Explicit Knowledge Use by Endorsement	143
Figure 4.12 Predicted Probability of Explicit Knowledge Use by Organizational Practice	144
Table 4.6: Individual embedded knowledge use.....	144
Figure 4.13 Predicted Probability of Embedded Knowledge Use by Endorsement.....	149
Figure 4.14 Predicted Probability of Embedded Knowledge Use by Organizational Practice ..	150
Table 4.7: Individual research knowledge use.....	150
Figure 4.15 Predicted Probability of Research Knowledge Use by Endorsement	155
Figure 4.16 Predicted Probability of Research Knowledge Use by Organizational Practice.....	156
Table 4.8 Individual Research Use Scale	156
Figure 4.17 Organizational Systems for Knowledge Management & Mobilization	163
Figure 4.18 Advancement Organizational Learning & Knowledge Sharing by Outside Organization.....	164
Table 4.9 Respondent Learning Consortiums & Organizations Reported on Survey	167
Table 4.10 Ordinal Logistic Regression of Organization Learning Systems & Structures	169

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Chapter 1: Introduction

How Harvard Raised \$9.6 Billion, and What Comes Next for All Campaigns;
Alumni Engagement and Marketing: Innovating New Org Structures; 2 Historically
Black Colleges and UNCF Will Share \$120-Million Gift; Berkeley Launches Ambitious
\$6 Billion Fundraising Campaign; National University to Change Its Name After
Receiving \$350 Million Pledge; Connecting to Young Alumni

Fundraising. Endowments. Alumni relations. Giving campaigns. Alumni affinity groups. Career networking. Scholarships. These buzzwords are used constantly in articles, media, and conversations when discussing how colleges and universities raise money and engage with alumni and donors. This list above was compiled via a quick search of the web for articles on philanthropy in higher education. Hundreds of news articles from *Inside Higher Ed*, *The Chronicle of Higher Education*, *The Chronicle of Philanthropy*, *Inside Philanthropy*, and more highlight fundraising and alumni engagement, known as institutional advancement in the field of higher education. Pieces feature reimagined alumni engagement, government relations work, donations ranging from annual gifts to larger, transformative gifts reaching into the millions and billions of dollars, and a long list of other philanthropic focus areas. In 2018 alone, higher education fundraised \$46.73 billion, and seven institutions received single gifts of \$100 million or more (Council for Advancement and Support of Education, 2019). This staggering amount marks the ninth year of growth for higher education fundraising and is a 7.2% increase from 2017 (Council for Advancement and Support of Education, 2019).

From these numbers above and the literature on higher education, it is clear that institutional advancement is an integral part of higher education (Thelin & Trollinger, 2014; Worth, 2002). These divisions consist of professionals who work to increase philanthropic

support for the institution. These efforts are carried out by institutional advancement staff members and administrators in five distinct, but interconnected, areas: alumni relations, communications, development, marketing, and advancement services (Council for Advancement and Support of Education, n.d.-f; Skinner, 2019; Thelin & Trollinger, 2014). These professionals build and sustain relationships with people and organizations, with the goal of increasing prosocial behaviors; these behaviors include the giving of monetary resources and time through volunteering to the institution (Drezner & Huehls, 2014). The Council for Advancement and Support of Education (n.d.-f) (CASE), one of the largest professional organizations for educational advancement, explains that the purpose of advancement is to “transform lives and society” (para. 1). Education institutions “must foster the good will, active involvement, informed advocacy and enduring support of alumni, donors, prospective students, parents, government officials, community leaders, corporate executives, foundation officers, and other external constituencies” (para. 2) to make possible these transformations. As a subsystem within a college or university (Bess & Dee, 2008), advancement greatly affects the institutional system as a whole and is a core component of American higher education (Thelin & Trollinger, 2014). Institutions lean on advancement shops to fundraise for student scholarships, faculty and staff positions, budgetary gaps, campus construction, special projects, and more. They also carry out their work to keep alumni, donors, organizations, and corporations deeply engaged with the organization, including through volunteer opportunities, employer connections, events, and programming.

However, there is also a different story to explore around the work of institutional advancement shops. As one digs into the literature, although there is a growing base of research and writing on philanthropy in higher education, one finds that little is empirically understood

about what evidence informs and knowledge drives the work of institutional advancement shops. There is a lack of literature focused on what affects how they make decisions and why; furthermore, not enough is known about how they set their own internal organizational policies, processes, practices, structures, and norms. Broad, intellectual questions arise around what guides behavior. Do these shops use only ‘best practices’ and practitioner and embedded institutional knowledge and evidence from the field and their organization to drive their work? Do they utilize any sort of empirical knowledge, theory, or scholarly research to guide their organization’s efforts and strategies? Do they perhaps utilize a combination of the former and the latter? Are there other factors driving and affecting their advancement initiatives and work within their division? With these broad questions in mind, I wished to explore these ideas on a deeper level from an organizational perspective. This study utilizes literature and previous studies on the theories of organizational studies and evidence-informed practice and policy and knowledge to inform the conceptual framework, methodologies, and analysis. This chapter includes an overview of institutional advancement, evidence-informed practice and policy making, and the concept of knowledge. In addition, it lays out my proposed study and research questions and introduces my conceptual framework. In order to set manageable boundaries for this study, my dissertation only focuses on institutional advancement and higher education in the United States. Future studies can explore whether my findings are replicated in a broader international context.

Institutional Advancement in American Higher Education Institutions

First, to understand what guides the work of institutional advancement departments, one must first clearly define institutional advancement and understand the history and evolution of the field. This clear definition and history of how institutional advancement became what it is

today and how it functions helps to frame the organizational understanding of their operation. It is important to clearly understand the entire organization and its components and structures so one can more deeply understand what knowledge and evidence informs and guides their work (Nutley, Walter, & Davies, 2007a). Management, leadership structure, workflows, and other organizational characteristics affect what knowledge guides practice and how (Walter, Nutley, Percy-Smith, McNeish, & Frost, 2004). The following sections include a framing of the conversation and a definition of institutional advancement and their organizational structures and functions within higher education. Additionally, these sections will explore a brief history of philanthropy in American higher education to better understand how institutional advancement shops came to be and function in specific ways. This history includes background on the ‘professionalization’ of advancement within colleges and universities and why institutions came to rely heavily on these divisions. Finally, this chapter will explore the history of research on philanthropy in higher education and the recent increase of this scholarly work and its relationship to this study.

Framing the Conversation

To begin the conversation on institutional advancement, it is important to first point out that institutional advancement shops simultaneously hold two organizational identities. The first, which is often at the forefront of the literature and understanding of philanthropy in higher education, is the understanding that advancement divisions exist *because* colleges and universities exist; the roots and purpose of institutional advancement revolve around the securing of funding for, and supporting the goals, mission, vision, initiatives, and strategies of, education institutions (Council for Advancement and Support of Education, n.d.-f). Higher education institutions are complex systems with different components working together to make decisions

and carry out their work (Bess & Dee, 2008). Within said systems, there are multiple different subsystems where decisions are made and work is completed which guide the college or university in particular directions (Birnbaum & Edelson, 1988). Institutional advancement exists as a subsystem for the institution to help in securing funding for different parts of the organization and for carrying out their broader mission and purpose.

However, the second organizational identity that advancement divisions hold is one that revolves around their own professional field. Although these shops exist because of the higher education institution, the field of philanthropy in higher education carries its own separate history, traditions, practices, policies, structures, professionalization, evidence, knowledge production, and other organizational characteristics that affect advancement divisions' ways of functioning. Each shop is intertwined with their college or university and serves the institution through their work, but their practices and policies are not always directly tied to the practices and policies of the field of higher education; rather, their work is often guided by the field of philanthropy in higher education. One cannot ever totally separate these two identities when discussing advancement organizations; however, this study focuses mainly on this second identity. The paper illuminates how the professionalization and structures of institutional advancement shops affects what types of knowledge and evidence guides their work and why. Additionally, it highlights how they learn new information which guides their work. Finally, it focuses on why these divisions might value and utilize certain knowledge and evidence types in their decision making versus other types of knowledge and evidence. This focus on this second organizational identity begins with defining institutional advancement and highlighting their history and the professionalization of the field.

Defining Institutional Advancement

As stated earlier, institutional advancement centers on the cultivation of prosocial behaviors through the work of advancement professionals in five distinct, but interconnected, areas: alumni relations, communications, development (fundraising), marketing, and advancement services (Council for Advancement and Support of Education, n.d.-f; Skinner, 2019; Thelin & Trollinger, 2014). Advancement professionals perform myriad types of work. This can range from but is not limited to: planning alumni engagement events; marketing and communications about institutional projects and programs; communicating with key internal and external stakeholders and governmental decision makers; and raising monetary funds for the institution. Raising money for the institution is a major focus for these shops. Advancement divisions raise money through different gift types and strategies, including annual giving, major gifts, large transformational gifts, planned and estate gifts, gifts in kind, and numerous other donations programs (Drezner, 2011; Proper & Caboni, 2014; Thelin & Trollinger, 2014). CASE reports that their professional organization, one of the largest guiding the work of educational advancement, serves 3,400 institutions, which includes over 92,000 professionals (Council for Advancement and Support of Education, 2019, 2020). Although every college and university may not employ staffers in all five areas of advancement, institutional advancement work in some form is a staple of most American higher education institutions (Thelin & Trollinger, 2014). However, this has not always been the case, and their work evolved over time. This brings me to the history of institutional advancement.

History of Institutional Advancement

Exploring the history of institutional advancement helps more clearly lay out what drives the need for my study. Although philanthropy has always been a part of American higher

education in various forms (Drezner, 2011; Thelin & Trollinger, 2014), the professionalization of the field and heavy reliance on these shops for strategic, large scale institutional advancement was not always the norm. With the founding of American higher education institutions, the first fundraising efforts and gifts were small in scale and often “gifts in kind” such as livestock or agricultural donations to the institution (Drezner, 2011; Thelin, 2011; Thelin & Trollinger, 2014). However, as the following sections point out, institutional advancement evolved and grew to become a mainstay of the modern higher education institution.

Post Civil War – 1920s

Until after the Civil War, small-scale gifts and practices mentioned above carried forward for the most part. Industrialization then boosted the economy and allowed people to build their wealth, thus increasing their capacity to make more substantial gifts (Thelin & Trollinger, 2014, p. 148). People invested their increased wealth in different arenas, and one of these areas was the growing college and university.

This time period was a critical juncture for institutional advancement for three reasons. First, the field saw the creation of the first foundations to provide an outlet for donors to efficiently give to higher education institutions (Thelin & Trollinger, 2014). Foundations serve as a bedrock of advancement, with many to this day relying on this structure to store, manage, and disperse funds. Secondly, institutions began to understand the importance of their alumni in philanthropic support for their work. In the 1890s and 1900s, alumni funds and alumni associations emerged, which are now considered a core component for most modern-day advancement shops (Thelin & Trollinger, 2014, p. 149). They realized that alumni held a natural affinity for their alma mater, feeling connected through their experiences as students and realizing the importance of the long-term sustainability and growth of their institution. Lastly,

the field also witnessed a third dramatic shift beginning in the late 1800s into the 1900s through the work of Charles Eliot, Harvard University's acting president for 40 years. Eliot markedly transformed and shaped philanthropy in higher education into a distinctive strategy built out by advancement divisions, versus utilizing support for only one-off projects or specific initiatives or needs (Kimball & Johnson, 2012; Skinner, 2019; Thelin & Trollinger, 2014). One begins to see the roots of modern-day institutional advancement take shape through these efforts and strategies.

In combination with these new innovations and ways of functioning, the professionalization and separate evidence and knowledge production of the field began to take form as well. The American Alumni Council (AAC) was formed in the 1910s and 1920s, which taught institutions the importance of engaging with alumni and tracking these activity and fundraising efforts (Keane Carter, 1988; Skinner, 2019). In addition, two other associations formed: the American College Public Relations Association (ACPRA) was founded in 1917 with a focus on public relations (originally American Association of College News Bureaus) (Reck, 1976; Skinner, 2019); and the American Association of Fundraising Counsel was founded in 1935 to create and form fair practice standards for fundraising, which up until that point was largely unregulated (The Giving Institute; Thelin & Trollinger, 2014). Each of these organizations focused on standards, resources, and a place for similar professionals to come together and talk about their knowledge in their area of the profession. They utilized these structured organizations and their own knowledge and evidence from their work in the field to inform their practices and recommendations.

1940s – 1970s

Between the 1940s and the 1970s, significant changes occurred that greatly shaped the field of institutional advancement. Building on the work and efforts of professional organizations, the field of fundraising became professionalized to an even greater degree (Skinner, 2019; Thelin & Trollinger, 2014; Worth, 2002). First, a change occurred in the late 1940s regarding fundraising structures and practices. Up until that point, it was rare to find fundraising staff on campus, with off-campus consultants guiding much of the work; yet, by 1965, the field saw a major shift in which a significant number of “staff development officers” were working on campus in professional fundraising roles (Worth, 2002, p. 28). This organized and professionalized approach led to a substantial increase in both monetary and volunteer support for higher education institutions (Drezner, 2011; Worth, 2002). Spurred by recommendations from the *Greenbrier Report* (authored by the AAC and ACPRA in 1958), advancement shops became a permanent, professionalized mainstay for institutions rather than existing on the fringes (Drezner & Huehls, 2014; Skinner, 2019; Thelin & Trollinger, 2014). This time period, similar to the previous time period, showcased how evidence, such as the *Greenbrier Report*, and knowledge production from the field through practice and membership in these professional organizations created a marked change in how advancement shops functioned and existed.

Secondly, in connection to these ideas above, another major change occurred in 1974: AAC and ACPRA merged, agreeing their expertise and knowledge would be best utilized by combining organizations, thus leading to the creation of CASE; this merger provided a home base for professionals in institutional advancement seeking resources and guidance on practices in the field (Council for Advancement and Support of Education, n.d.-d; Skinner, 2019; Thelin &

Trollinger, 2014). CASE began to, and still continues to today, create, publish, and share resources and materials for practitioners. This knowledge is shared through various channels, including, but not limited to conferences, workshops, *CASE Currents* magazine articles, White Papers, reports, books, and webinars. In both of these major shifts, one can see that the field of higher education drove the mission of their work, but the ways in which their work was informed and carried out was driven by the growing field of institutional advancement.

1980s – 1990s

Finally, another important moment in time for institutional advancement occurred in the 1980s and early 1990s. From an economic lens, one can see how larger national fiscal issues and concerns affected the work of advancement organizations. Economic downturn in the United States and decreased state funding for higher education (taking into account inflation), led colleges and universities to lean more upon private giving to fill these gaps to fund their institutions and support their work (Drezner, 2011; McClure, Barringer, & Brown, 2020; Mitchell, Leachman, & Masterson, 2016; Shaker & Borden, 2020; Thelin & Trollinger, 2014; Weerts & Ronca, 2006; Zusman, 2005). Therefore, as Thelin and Trollinger (2014) point out, because of this increased reliance on institutional advancement, offices were forced to heavily focus on specialization and the professionalization of their work to an even greater extent. Institutional advancement divisions and foundations were now seen as a core, central part of higher education, making the difference between an institution surviving or closing its doors, a major shift from previous decades (Thelin, 2000; Thelin & Trollinger, 2014).

Institutional Advancement in the Present Day

This pattern from the 1980s through the 1990s holds true to present day; institutions rely on philanthropy more and more to fill holes in budgets; sustain current programs, positions, and

projects; and fund new initiatives through increased fundraising, frequent giving campaigns, and a variety of advancement activities, programs, and events. It is again important to emphasize that although advancement shops grew into a critical component of higher education institutions, they relied on, and continue to do so today, their own professionalization. This professionalization includes their own specific evidence of what strategies and techniques work, knowledge and knowledge production, professional organizations, resources, and specialization within the field. In addition to this increased understanding of the professionalization of the work, another factor in the evolution of the field of institutional advancement ran parallel: empirical research.

Research and its Use in Philanthropy in Higher Education

When examining the history and evolution of advancement, one can see that early on that the field began to create and share their own evidence, knowledge, and resources to guide the work. However, the people who created these resources and professional development tools tended to rely on their professional, instinctual, and organizational knowledge as practitioners rather than more evidence-based, research knowledge (Drezner & Huehls, 2014). This pattern holds true to today. As Drezner and Huehls (2014) point out, a large body of literature, writings, articles, and media exist on philanthropy in higher education, but the majority of these pieces tend to rely on atheoretical knowledge and findings. For instance, CASE focuses on more “best practices” and tacit and explicit knowledge, highlighting practitioner knowledge versus research-based, empirical knowledge (Drezner & Huehls, 2014, p. 108). However, Drezner (2017) points to the importance of practitioners and administrators in institutional advancement understanding the “science” behind fundraising as well as the “art” (p. ix). Academic researchers began to carry out research to understand more about institutional advancement from a theoretical, empirically grounded, research-based approach versus more tacit, explicit, and embedded knowledge

approaches (Drezner, 2017). Thus, enters research-based knowledge and evidence into the narrative of institutional advancement.

Various questions arose for researchers. These included questions like: *who gives the most, and how does an institution increase giving? Who are considered engaged alumni and donors, and why? How do advancement professionals best communicate with donors? How do an alum's social identities play a role in their giving?* Scholars sought to explore these questions and ideas like these from different empirical, theoretical lenses, thus leading to an increase in research on philanthropy in higher education drawing from different disciplines, including but not limited to economics, sociology, and psychology (Drezner, 2011).

Some of the first empirical research was focused on the characteristics of who gives and who does not (Drezner & Pizmony-Levy, 2020). Research focused on different characteristics and their relationship to philanthropic giving, including: co-curricular involvement (Clotfelter, 2003; Garvey & Drezner, 2016; Monks, 2003); major (Hueston, 1992); geographic distance from alma mater (Bruggink & Siddiqui, 1995); faculty and staff interactions (McDonough, 2017); first-generation status (Clotfelter, 2003); income (Taylor & Martin, 1995); and satisfaction (Gaier, 2005; Holmes, 2009; Mael & Ashforth, 1992; McDonough, 2017). Furthermore, numerous studies centered on alumni giving and engagement, helping highlight how alumni are a critical source of fundraising dollars and volunteerism (e.g., Holquist, 2011; Taylor & Martin, 1995; Weerts & Ronca, 2006, 2007, 2008, 2009). Finally, Drezner (2011) pointed out the importance of taking into account identity in philanthropic giving, particularly for those who have been historically marginalized and underrepresented in higher education. Scholars pushed the field to think and carry out their work differently by examining alumni identity and giving, such as: race and ethnicity (Cabrales, 2013a; Drezner, 2018; M. Gasman & Sibby Anderson-

Thompkins, 2003; Tsunoda, 2013b); gender (Baker, 1998; Holmes, 2009); ability (Drezner, 2005); religion (Gasman, Drezner, Epstein, Freeman, & Avery, 2011); sexuality (Drezner & Garvey, 2016; Garvey & Drezner, 2013, 2019; Garvey, Flint, & Sanders, 2018); and philanthropic mirroring of social identity (Drezner, 2018).

In addition to the focus on donor characteristics, studies also focused on boards and structures within institutional advancement. For instance, multiple authors discuss the role of trustees in fundraising and the need to lean on them and their networks for not only gifts but other fundraising duties such as soliciting or referring other donors and communicating about the institution's priorities (Proper, 2011, 2019; Zeig, Baldwin, & Wilbur, 2018). Other studies explored the relationship between giving and: student foundations (Nayman, 1993); experiential philanthropy courses and grant writing classes (Bloch, 2018; Howe, 2017; Li, Xu, & McDougale, 2019); student engagement and volunteerism programs (Thompson & Burnett, 2019); increased sense of belonging (Drezner & Pizmony-Levy, 2020); civic expression (Weerts & Cabrera, 2018); and trust (Drezner, Pizmony-Levy, & Anderson-Long, 2020). Other advancement structures, such as endowments and their management, have been researched from different lenses as well (Christensen & Rankin, 2011; Dervarics, 2008; Drezner & Gupta, 2012; Epple, Romano, & Sieg, 2006; McElhaney, 2010).

There are multiple journals that devote space specifically to institutional advancement. From a more practitioner focused lens, the *Journal of Education Advancement & Marketing* “features [practitioner authored], detailed, practical articles which showcase the latest thought leadership in how to identify, build and steward life-long relationships with alumni, businesses and other donors, along with actionable advice and ‘lessons learned’ on advancement, development, marketing and communications strategy for educational institutions” (para. 2

Journal of Education Advancement and Marketing, n.d.). However, the pieces in this journal rely on somewhat less research-based methodologies and theoretical underpinnings. From a more research-based approach, in 2015, the academic journal *Philanthropy & Education* was founded by Professor Noah Drezner, creating a scholarly home for authors publishing empirical work on philanthropy in the field of education (Drezner, 2017). There is also an increase in academic journals devoting space to philanthropy in higher education and scholars in various fields and disciplines are exploring topics related to institutional advancement (Drezner, 2017).

However, even with all of these studies, journals, and increased pages devoted to the study of advancement, Walton (2019) points out, the “research on philanthropy’s role in higher education remains understudied” compared to other subjects, fields, and disciplines (p. 479). In their study on the past thirty years of higher education giving in the U.S. (1988 – 2018), Shaker and Borden (2020) find the same pattern – there is a need for an increase in research to understand the importance and influence of philanthropy in American higher education. This led me to the importance of my study.

Problem Statement

In diving deeply into the history, practices, and research on institutional advancement, a gap appears. On one side of the gap, one sees a great deal of history and information on the professionalization of the field, which includes professional organization and practitioner-based resources, knowledge, and evidence; on the other side of the gap, one finds research-based knowledge and evidence about donor characteristics and behaviors and institutional advancement practices and structures. However, what is missing in these conversations is what knowledge and evidence truly drives and affects the work of institutional advancement divisions. Little is understood from an empirical lens about this query. Do institutional advancement organizations

mostly rely on tacit, explicit, and embedded knowledge of professional organizations and practitioners? Does research-based knowledge that is completed and published actually reach advancement divisions, and do they utilize it? Research needs to be done to understand more deeply ideas around: the evidence and knowledge that guides practices, processes, and policies; how institutional advancement shops learn about and share new information that informs their work; and what types of knowledge and evidence are most valued and used by these organizations and why this might be the case. These ideas guide my exploration and lead me to the tenets ‘evidence-informed practice and policy making’ for my study.

Evidence-Informed Practice and Policy

Evidence-informed practice and policy (EIPP) provides an interactive model for understanding what informs the work of practitioners and policy makers (Nevo & Slonim-Nevo, 2011; Nutley et al., 2007a). EIPP leans on the ideal that different forms of evidence and knowledge are all valuable; understanding each of them is critical in bringing to light what affects and drives organizations. Research-based, empirical knowledge and evidence is extremely valued and important, however, EIPP recognizes that research works alongside tacit and explicit practitioner knowledge, background, and experience; organizational processes, routines, structures, and norms; media and communications; databases and stored information; and individual contexts, cultures, narratives, and more (Nelson & Campbell, 2017; Nevo & Slonim-Nevo, 2011). Nelson and Campbell (2019) write “[e]vidence-informed practice occurs at the intersection between these different forms of evidence and knowledge and is envisaged to be most effective when all sources and forms are used in tandem” (p. 133). Although research is critical in the EIPP framework, it is but one part of many. To begin understanding EIPP on a deeper level, one must first pull apart the concepts of evidence, data, information, and knowledge

and more deeply explore the relationship and differences between these important elements of EIPP. The following sections dig deeper into these definitions. In addition, they highlight the differences between evidence-*based* practice and policy (EBPP) versus evidence-*informed* practice and policy.

Evidence

In the most basic of terms, evidence is “the available body of facts or information indicating whether a belief or proposition is true or valid” (Oxford University Press, 2020a, p. section 1). There are “[s]igns or indications of something” (Oxford University Press, 2020a, p. section 1.2). Evidence can be: “Information given personally, drawn from a document, or in the form of material objects, tending or used to establish facts” (Oxford University Press, 2020a, p. section 1.1). A key concept here is that evidence is not held by an individual or organization but instead, presents itself in some external form. One can see in these definitions that there is a shared thread that evidence indicates something is true or valid based on findings from information or data. In the context of EIPP, evidence indicates to an individual or organization that a certain action should be taken. Evidence is informed by some form of data or information but is differentiated from data and information.

Data and Information in Relationship to Evidence

Data and contextualized information are incredibly important to the work of a practitioner. When thinking about institutional advancement, campaign goals, giving scores and totals, event attendee counts, and other pieces of data drive work and inform practice; however, data is not considered evidence or knowledge (Dammann & Smart, 2018). These raw, “discrete, objective facts,” such as numbers, transactions, text, and images, exist to be organized in some way and then utilized by people within the field to make decisions (Davenport & Prusak, 1998,

p. 2). This organization of data in some context then leads to information, with the goal to ‘inform’ a person of something (Davenport & Prusak, 1998); when information is combined with knowledge, this informs practice and helps practitioners and policymakers analyze their problems and use evidence in the hopes to make better, more sound decisions (Dammann & Smart, 2018; Davenport & Prusak, 1998). A critical point in this differentiation is that data and information merely exist; this data and information must be organized and analyzed, transformed into evidence, and then utilized to inform practice; in turn, this use of data, information, and evidence then helps generate and grow individual and organizational knowledge through learning (Davies, Powell, & Nutley, 2015).

Knowledge

It is imperative to begin by stating that knowledge can be defined in multiple ways and is a multifaceted, multi layered topic (Botha, 2008; Botha, Kourie, & Snyman, 2014; Contandriopoulos, Lemire, Denis, & Tremblay, 2010; Nonaka, 1994). The meaning and pursuit of knowledge has been explored since early philosophy (Botha, 2008; Nonaka, 1994) and has been investigated in a multitude of different ways in different disciplines and fields (Davies et al., 2015). However, the purpose of this paper is not to delve into the reasoning for these multiple definitions and epistemological stances on knowledge. Rather, this paper takes as broad of a definition of knowledge as reasonably possible to honor the different types of knowledge that may appear in this study. Each type of knowledge is important to the understanding of what guides the work of advancement shops.

Broadly, knowledge can be defined as one or a combination of the following:

- Facts, information, and skills acquired by a person through experience or education; the theoretical or practical understanding of a subject

- What is known in a particular field or in total; facts and information.
- True, justified belief; certain understanding, as opposed to opinion [Philosophy].
- Awareness or familiarity gained by experience of a fact or situation (Oxford University Press, 2020b, section 1, 1.1, 1.2, 2).
- Based on evidence that is predictive, testable, and consistently successful, as judged by consensus among stakeholders (Dammann & Smart, 2018, p. 77).

Davenport and Prusak (1998) state that knowledge is difficult to nail down to one definition, and scholars can spend their entire lives pursuing the ideas around what ‘knowledge’ means; however, they posit that it is important to have a “pragmatic, working definition” of knowledge (p. 5). The authors define knowledge from an organizational understanding of EIPP as:

a fluid mix of framed experience, values, contextual information, and expert insight that provides a framework for evaluating and incorporating new experiences and information. It originates and is applied in the minds of knowers. In organizations, it often becomes embedded not only in documents or repositories but also in organizational routines, processes, practices, and norms. (p. 5)

One can see from the multiple definitions above that in the study of knowledge, there is a common thread that points to individuals, organizations, fields, and disciplines utilizing data, information, and evidence to *know* deeply about something. It is not a one-off occurrence, but rather, it is a consistent and deep understanding based on experience, familiarity, and building on what is known on a subject already. However, it is important to understand that there are different types of knowledge and knowledge can take different forms (Davies et al., 2015).

As discussed earlier, the milieu of institutional advancement centers on a distinct history and evolution, which was affected and driven by multiple sources including but not limited to:

the knowledge of practitioners, advancement divisions and foundations, professional organizations, and researchers in addition to data, information, and evidence from atheoretical sources and empirical literature (Drezner & Huehls, 2014; Kippley-Ogman, 2018; Thelin & Trollinger, 2014; Worth, 2002). Therefore, in combination with this broader definition of knowledge, it is important to define specific knowledge types in the exploration of institutional advancement. These include four concepts: tacit, explicit, embedded, and research-based knowledge. These concepts are explored more in-depth in the following sections.

Tacit Knowledge

Tacit and explicit knowledge are closely connected in their definitions and how practitioners utilize them (Davies et al., 2015). Mintzberg, Ahlstrand, and Lampel (1998) point out that practitioners closest to the subject or field have the best and most intimate knowledge of the work. It is intuitive and comes from an understanding of how situations can change and evolve—it is subjective, based on an individual’s experiences and the knowledge in their mind they have gained about a field and their work over time (Bennet & Bennet, 2008; Nonaka, 1994; Reed & Meagher, 2019). This is where tacit knowledge lies.

Tacit knowledge involves knowledge that cannot be easily or directly stated in words and shared (Bennet & Bennet, 2008; Reed & Meagher, 2019). Tacit knowledge is “knowledge that you do not get from being taught, or from books, etc. but get from personal experience, for example when working in a particular organization” (University of Cambridge, n.d.-c, section 1). Practitioners often rely on tacit knowledge when making decisions; it is more based on instinct, and it is not easily recreated and shared like codified knowledge or data (Bennet & Bennet, 2008). In trying to capture this knowledge, one must be deliberate and capture this knowledge by certain processes. Two of these processes are comprised of 1) close personal connection between

practitioners, where observations can be made together and various practices can be reflected upon and talked about (Rashman & Hartley, 2002); and 2) tacit knowledge can be shared by making space for practitioners and those in the field to share their personal experiences, expertise, and understanding of a subject through different methods, including surveys, interviews, and ethnographic studies (Boaz, Davies, Fraser, & Nutley, 2019b, p. 191).

Explicit Knowledge

In addition to tacit knowledge that those within a field often hold from their time as a practitioner, they also hold more explicit, overt knowledge in their work and decision making (Davies & Nutley, 2000a; Davies et al., 2015). Explicit knowledge can be more easily explained and identified, and it may be used by practitioners more freely because it is grasped and shared more clearly (Rashman & Hartley, 2002). Bennet and Bennet (2008) write that explicit knowledge can be expressed and “called up” through evidence, words, data, or visual representations and can be shared with others directly (p. 2). These pieces of explicit knowledge can also be written down and accessed in guidelines, policies, procedures, practices, instructions, etc. (Botha et al., 2014). In the relationship between tacit and explicit knowledge, one can see the connections between the two: tacit knowledge is instinctual knowledge that is often drawn upon in decision making from previous experience, whereas explicit knowledge focuses more on the recording, storing, accessing, and sharing of evidence, information, and/or data to provide the ‘who, what, when, and where’ to inform decisions (Bennet & Bennet, 2008; Davies et al., 2015; Walter et al., 2004).

Embedded Knowledge

In turning towards embedded knowledge, one begins to see the lines of connection between the two previous knowledge types. Although discussed less in the literature, embedded

knowledge is an important concept in my study for the understanding of institutional advancement shops from an organizational lens. Madhavan and Grover (1998) build on previous definitions by defining it as “as the potential knowledge resulting from the combination of the individual team members' stores of tacit knowledge” (p. 2). Embedded knowledge rests in the routines, processes, structures, culture, and norms that are produced by people but that live within the organization (Gamble & Blackwell, 2001; Horvath, 2000). Embedded knowledge can grow over time and allow for the transfer of knowledge from person to person within the organization, relying on relationships between people (Gamble & Blackwell, 2001). It brings to the forefront the oft used adage of ‘we have always done things this way’ as reasons for making decisions and taking certain actions.

This knowledge can actually be driving much of the work of the organization as it exists over time and outside of just one individual; it is made up of a number of individuals’ knowledge, and it may be the reason for why processes and work are carried out in specific ways and why they rely on certain knowledge types and methods more than others (Botha et al., 2014; Gamble & Blackwell, 2001; Horvath, 2000). When reflecting on the history of the field of institutional advancement, one can see how knowledge within and between advancement organizations has been informed for over a century and most likely relies on a great deal of embedded knowledge. The instinct and specialization of advancement professionals combines to drive the field and certain practices because these are considered ‘best practices.’ This embedded knowledge and practice of those within the field has led to tremendous growth in terms of dollars raised and people engaged; however, one must also understand that this type of embedded knowledge can entrench certain ideas, culture, practices, and more within the organization (Botha, 2008). This can be both a positive and negative occurrence because if these pieces of

knowledge are never questioned, it can lead to problematic practices if only based on certain individuals' experiences and beliefs and what they consider 'best practices' (Drezner & Huehls, 2014). Not all knowledge and learning can be beneficial, and individuals and organizations can learn problematic practices, routines, and norms (Argyris & Schön, 1996). These ideas lead me to the final knowledge type: research-based knowledge.

Research-Based Knowledge

When defining and exploring the different types of knowledge, it is important to recognize and honor the tacit and explicit knowledge of practitioners in the field (Nutley et al., 2007a). This valuable knowledge cannot be ignored when investigating what knowledge guides the work and learning in institutional advancement shops (Boaz, Davies, et al., 2019b).

Practitioners carry out the advancement work on the ground, day to day, and hold a great deal of knowledge of the field and of their institutions. This aids them in strategizing and setting up procedures, practices, norms, routines, and other parts of the organization (Davies et al., 2015). Yet, an important type of knowledge that must be used in conjunction with this knowledge and integrated into work for most effective practice is research-based knowledge based on empirical evidence (Boaz, Davies, et al., 2019b; Powell, Davies, & Nutley, 2018). As Nutley et al. (2007a) write, "Research acts as a stimulus to dialogue and reflection, and through such processes it can expand or reshape tacit as well as explicit knowledge" (p. 3). Research pushes individuals, organizations, systems, fields, and disciplines to seek change, explore concepts through different lenses, inject new ideas, and improve practice and policy decision making.

Research-based knowledge is characterized as knowledge that has been generated through the research process. I lean on the definition and role of research laid out by Boaz, Davies, et al. (2019b), who define it as:

the careful, explicit, rigorous examination of data; the building on previous knowledge; the use of properly articulated theoretical frameworks both to guide data collection and to aid data analysis; and the transparency and scrutiny that comes from clear statements of methods and the conscientious peer review. (p. 191)

In this definition, one sees clear demarcations of data, information, evidence, and finally knowledge. Research knowledge includes: building on previous knowledge, theory utilization, grounded and tested methods, data collection and analysis, and peer review. These components provide credibility, rigorous methods, and research-based information and evidence to guide decision making in organizations (Boaz, Davies, et al., 2019b; Davies & Nutley, 2008; Nutley et al., 2007a).

Furthermore, it is important to note that as long as these components listed above are a part of the work being completed, research can be carried out fully or in part by different groups, including, but not limited to, universities and research institutes, policy-makers and analysts, professional organizations and bodies, consultants, industry analysts, and think-tanks (Boaz, Davies, et al., 2019b, p. 192). By allowing space for different organizations and entities to complete research and types of research projects, one can better understand what research may prompt action (Boaz, Davies, et al., 2019b). The in-depth understanding of tacit, explicit, embedded, and research-based knowledge are important to the study of evidence-informed practice in institutional advancement to better understand, from an empirical lens, what drives and informs their work based on the understanding and honoring of different knowledge types. This leads me to the next two sections on evidence-based practice and policy (EBPP) versus EIPP.

Evidence-Based Practice and Policy. In the discussion of research-based knowledge, it is important to discuss the differentiation between EBPP and EIPP. Although EBPP and EIPP are at times used interchangeably by practitioners and researchers (Tseng, 2012; Woodbury & Kuhnke, 2014), the general consensus amongst scholars and practitioners is that there are distinct differences between these two concepts. EBPP most often refers to approaches to policy and practice “that are validated by some form of documented scientific evidence” (Children's Bureau (HHS), n.d.). EBPP takes place in close relationship to ‘research-based knowledge’ (Tseng, 2012). EBPP relies on a strong research design with supported evidence and applicability over time (Estabrooks, 1999; Woodbury & Kuhnke, 2014). Although some scholars point out that EBPP does not completely ignore context and those who are assisted by and a part of provided services (i.e. patients, students, practitioners, etc....) (Woodbury & Kuhnke, 2014), there is a much stronger focus on the use of research evidence versus other types of knowledge, including tacit, explicit, and embedded, knowledge. EBPP can be restrictive at times (Boaz, Davies, et al., 2019b; Davies et al., 2015; Woodbury & Kuhnke, 2014). Thus, this paper turned towards EIPP to best understand the entire system of what evidence and knowledge informs the work of institutional advancement.

A Shift Towards Evidence-Informed Practice and Policy

Nevo and Slonim-Nevo (2011) write that EIPP is a much more inclusive form of practice and policy making. Although authors point out that there are differing definitions in various fields and disciplines (Boaz, Davies, et al., 2019b; Nelson & Campbell, 2017), there are common threads that form a through line in the understanding of this concept. EIPP leaves:

ample room for the constructive and imaginative judgement and knowledge of practitioners and clients who must be in constant interaction and dialogue with one

another for most interventions to succeed... research findings should not override, or take precedence over, clinical experience and clients' wishes, values and knowledge. Rather, empirical evidence is better regarded as one component in the mutual and constantly changing journey of client and practitioner. (p. 1178)

Although this excerpt highlights language from the healthcare field, the commonalities in definitions and ideas exist throughout varying fields and disciplines. These threads say that research-based knowledge is extremely valued and important in their work. It leads to new ideas, new ways of understanding, and allows space to think about issues in different ways through different lenses; however, EIPP recognizes and highlights that knowledge and evidence can be more broadly defined (Nevo & Slonim-Nevo, 2011). It emphasizes that research knowledge and evidence sit side-by-side, not above: practitioner knowledge and experience; organizational processes, routines, structures, and norms; media and communications; databases and stored information; and individual contexts, cultures, and narratives (Nelson & Campbell, 2017; Nevo & Slonim-Nevo, 2011).

EIPP provides a more interactive model, embracing evidence and knowledge that is tacit, explicit, experiential, and research based, and makes space for other frames of understanding by practitioners and policy makers within organizations (Nevo & Slonim-Nevo, 2011; Nutley et al., 2007a). Practitioners are not static beings waiting to be fed research in a linear-based approach. For instance, when applying these ideas to institutional advancement, one knows that practitioners do not exist in a vacuum. Their experiences, their backgrounds, their organizations' cultures, processes, and policies, and the history of institutional advancement all affect how they practice as advancement professionals. They understand their work through a variety of lenses, e.g. their experiences in what has worked for them in the past as a practitioner; what literature on

the field of advancement might say, both atheortieally and theoretically based; different data sources, including donor and alumni databases, wealth scores, and other pieces of data, information, and evidence; and many, many more. Nelson and Campbell (2019) write “[e]vidence-informed practice occurs at the intersection between these different forms of evidence and is envisaged to be most effective when all sources and forms are used in tandem” (p. 133). Therefore, this paper draws heavily on the tenets of EIPP to aid me in understanding the practice of advancement practitioners and divisions. Let me highlight an example below to frame how EIPP can be utilized to better break down advancement practices.

An Example of the Relationship Between Data and Information, Evidence, and Knowledge

Within an institutional advancement database, monetary giving history is stored, i.e., gifts to the institution of various amounts. This history is raw data. It simply shows that the constituent gave a certain dollar amount to a specific fund. To transform this data into information, a staff member receives a request to pull a report showcasing all donors who: 1) gave to a specific endowed fund and 2) the donors’ annual household income who gave to this endowment. There is an intentionality in pulling this data to learn more about giving to this endowment and annual income. It can be used to ‘inform’ someone of something, therefore being transformed into useable information.

Then a fellow practitioner is given this report and based on their tacit, instinctual knowledge from time and experience within the field, they utilize data analysis methods to reveal a pattern that all donors who have an annual household income of \$100,000 or greater gave all the gifts of \$1,000 or more to this specific endowment. The practitioner sees this pattern as evidence that those with greater wealth amounts gave larger gifts to this endowment because it is validated, true, and a fact in this data set. The administrator then takes this evidence and uses it

to inform the long-term strategy of the advancement shop over the next five fiscal years. They instruct their development officer team to pull all records for constituents who make \$100,000 or greater and to cultivate and maintain relationships with these constituents. This intervention then leads to an increase in dollars fundraised for the next five fiscal years. One can see how from raw data and information, the administrator organized and analyzed it in a specific way based on their own tacit knowledge, found evidence of something, and took justified action. (Dammann & Smart, 2018, p. 77). This example highlights that evidence and knowledge can originate from a variety of sources, not only from academic journals and books. These sources can include “data, practitioner knowledge, and expert opinions” (Tseng, 2008, p. 13). The practitioner found something to be consistently true, the most basic definition of knowledge (Dammann & Smart, 2018). From this example, one can see how EIPP can be a useful framework for better understanding the work institutional advancement.

Purpose Statement

Therefore, in order to explore evidence-informed practice and policy in philanthropy in higher education, I explore broadly, from an organizational level, what evidence and knowledge informs the work of institutional advancement organizations. This organizational focus allows me to explore from a holistic lens how institutional advancement shop staff members make decisions, set internal policies and practices, and find and share new information with fellow advancement professionals.

Although individual knowledge and evidence use is important, focusing on the individual only is not enough. By focusing on the understanding of what evidence and knowledge informs the work of institutional advancement divisions from an organizational level, this can lead to true systemic understanding and change as it takes the burden off the individual to take in new

information and attempt to change their personal practices in hopes that the organization will change (Walter et al., 2004). Rather, this organizational level study helps bring into focus what structures and systems must be in place to lead to more dynamic practices and policy making.

Research Questions

To explore the evidence and knowledge that informs the work of institutional advancement divisions, I seek to answer the following research questions:

1. To what extent do advancement divisions value certain types of evidence and knowledge?
2. What types of evidence and knowledge do advancement divisions utilize to inform their practice and policies?
 - a. What organizational practices and individual and organizational characteristics, if any, affect which knowledge guides the work of advancement organizations (i.e., tacit, explicit, embedded, and research-based knowledge)?
3. What organizational learning systems and structures are in place both within and outside advancement organizations that guide practice and internal policy making?
4. What sociodemographic and organizational characteristics, if any, show a relationship with systems and structures of knowledge management and mobilization of institutional advancement shops?

Rationale and Significance of Study

The rationale for my study begins with the understanding of institutional advancement practices on a deeper level from an evidence-informed, organizational lens. Although the idea of understanding evidence-informed practice and knowledge types in organizational decision-making and practice is not new (e.g. Boaz, Davies, et al., 2019b; Boaz, Fitzpatrick, & Shaw,

2008; Davies & Nutley, 2008; Davies & Nutley, 2000a; Nutley & Davies, 2001; Nutley et al., 2007a; Tseng & Nutley, 2014), this paper utilizes these previous studies as a way to explore institutional advancement. This study forms an important and necessary foundation in the understanding of institutional advancement and their work from an evidence-informed lens. This is the first paper that I am aware of to explore evidence-informed practice and knowledge use in institutional advancement divisions. Therefore, it addressed a gap in the literature within philanthropy in higher education. Although the practices, professionalization, and other components of institutional advancement shops have been explored through previous research, this paper helps to bring to light the different types of evidence and knowledge that inform their work, how these organizations learn, and how they can improve practice. This understanding and improvement can lead to important changes and growth in philanthropy in higher education. Some might say, ‘advancement shops are seeing steady growth and raising tens of billions of dollars each year as a field, is this not a marker of success? Why do they need to better understand these ideas and their practice and policies?’ However, this study is important for myriad reasons.

First, from an inclusion and equity lens, one has seen historical marginalization of different groups in institutional advancement in higher education (e.g. alumni of color, LGBT alumni, alumni with disabilities) and a disproportionate focus on wealthy, White, heterosexual male donors (Drezner, 2011; Drezner & Huehls, 2014). Advancement divisions must ask themselves a critical question: ‘how are our practices possibly causing harm and leaving people out of the conversations?’ The history of institutional advancement is intertwined with higher education, which is based on a White, male, heterosexual lens (Drezner & Huehls, 2014). Although gifts from this group have made an enormous positive impact for many institutions,

advancement organizations must utilize a combination of tacit, explicit, embedded, *and* research-based knowledge to carry out equitable, evidence-informed practice to inject new ideas and challenge themselves in the best way to redefine philanthropy and what an engaged alum or donor looks like. By better utilizing and understanding the different types of knowledge and evidence, particularly research knowledge and evidence, advancement departments can begin to disrupt and change practices and policies to lead to more inclusive advancement strategies (Boaz, Davies, et al., 2019b; Drezner & Huehls, 2014).

And in relationship to this first point, from an organizational longevity standpoint, with the increased reliance on philanthropy in higher education (McClure et al., 2020; Shaker & Borden, 2020; Thelin, 2011; Thelin & Trollinger, 2014), it is critical for institutions' long term longevity, sustainability, and success to understand how to engage a broader range of alumni and donors. By understanding how to engage with a broader range of individuals, there will be increased giving to, and volunteerism for, the institution (Drezner, 2013b; Drezner & Huehls, 2014). This paper serves as a springboard to understand how the field of institutional advancement can utilize evidence informed practices and different types of knowledge to improve their policies, practices, behaviors, structures, and ways of learning and synthesizing evidence and knowledge. This will ensure that more than just "biases and mere reaction" guide the work of advancement shops (Drezner & Huehls, 2014, p. xiv). With many higher education institutions closing their doors due to financial struggles, decreased state funding over the last decades when taking into account inflation (Drezner, 2011; Mitchell et al., 2016; Thelin & Trollinger, 2014; Weerts & Ronca, 2006; Zusman, 2005), enrollment rates dropping and being affected by Covid-19 (Sedmak, 2020), alumni giving participation rates decreasing (Blackbaud, 2016), and more, colleges and universities must take a look in the mirror and ask themselves

what they can do to ensure their institutions are still viable and sustained for generations to come. By utilizing evidence-informed practice and learning more about how advancement divisions carry out their work, this can lead to positive changes that not only aid in the sustainability of the institution but engage a greater, and more diverse, range of alumni and donors who are willing to give their time, talent, and treasure if they see themselves as valued by the institution and in the work that is being carried out.

Overview of Study

In order to explore the concepts and ideas I delved into above, I utilized a survey methodology. I developed a survey that was shared with advancement professionals asking them about what knowledge and evidence informs their practices. I purposely surveyed individuals from the five different areas of institutional advancement in order to understand the organization's systems, culture, and ways of learning and using knowledge and evidence (Langer et al, 2016; Nutley et al, 2007). Survey methods enabled me to examine individuals' attitudes, beliefs, opinions, experiences, and behaviors within the organizations in my sample (Gitomer & Crouse, 2019; Leavy, 2017). Again, as Drezner and Huehls (2014) point out, most of the literature and resources available on philanthropy and higher education use atheoretical methods and findings to inform practice; my reliance on a survey methodology allowed me to gain a deeper understanding in a research-based way the practice of advancement divisions.

Chapter 2: Literature Review and Conceptual Framework

As stated in earlier in Chapter 1, in order to understand what evidence and knowledge types inform and guide the work of institutional advancement organizations, it is important to delve into the literature surrounding evidence informed practice and policy¹ (EIPP) and knowledge. Lying at the intersection of tacit, explicit, embedded, and research knowledge lies EIPP. EIPP and its core ideas of have been explored and utilized in a number of fields and disciplines in different ways. The following sections highlight definitions and literature on the concepts of EIPP, knowledge, and knowledge types and how these apply to institutional advancement.

Additionally, this chapter discusses the conceptual framework that guides this paper to best understand my research questions. This conceptual framework is informed by the literature on EIPP and knowledge and focuses on a holistic organizational understanding of advancement divisions as systems within the larger field of institutional advancement. The framework utilizes a combination of three organizational theories: General Systems Theory, Organizational Learning Theory, and Organizational Culture Theory. By using this framework, I focus on two central ideas to gain a better holistic understanding of advancement departments: the ‘*what*’ and the ‘*how*.’ *What* evidence and knowledge do these organizations rely on to inform their work, and *what* systems, structures, practices, and polices are in place based on this evidence and knowledge? *How* do they find, learn, and share knowledge and evidence within the organization?

¹ Although this dissertation will not focus on policy in a broader political and national context, the concept of “small p policy” plays a role in this study (Boaz, Davies, et al., 2019b, p. 18). Boaz, Davies, et al. (2019b) point to “small p policy” as policies on a smaller level within local and organizational contexts. For instance, there are a number of policies within institutional advancement organizations, including gift processing policies, donor communication policies, annual reporting policies, endowment management policies, etc. These types of policies can be created, carried out, changed, altered, or improved based on different evidence informed understandings of policy.

Evidence-Informed Policy and Practice

EIPP has been utilized in different fields and disciplines, including “healthcare, mental health, child welfare, employment, environmental management, criminal justice,” and beyond (Tseng & Coburn, 2019, p. 351). Because of this use across different fields, there remains a number of differences and ‘gray areas’ in the study and utilization of EIPP. Professionals and researchers define and utilize EIPP in subtly different ways depending on their own field’s context, practices, policies, evidence utilization, and unique experiences and characteristics. However, this section highlights common threads and core ideas on EIPP found across fields and disciplines that inform my study on EIPP in institutional advancement.

EIPP is a model that has evolved, advanced, and changed over recent decades (Boaz, Davies, et al., 2019b). The roots of this concept stem from work that was not always referred to as EIPP, however, various literature sources highlight the origins of evidence and knowledge informing policy and practice. T.S. Kuhn’s (1962) work on scientific revolutions is some of the first work tied to the idea of those who work in a discipline finding anomalies through scientific change phases. Practitioners and researchers in the field, working directly on products, ideas, services, etc. hold unique views and experiences that shape the creation and dispersion of knowledge (see Latour & Woolgar, 1979). However, this knowledge that is held is not static. T. S. Kuhn (1962) points out that new evidence can lead to paradigm changes and shifts based on this new knowledge. This work was some of the first documented efforts to highlight how evidence can lead to changes and new ideas in a field or discipline, thus affecting the knowledge of practitioners, researchers, and others in said field or discipline and the ways in which they view specific ideas or concepts. As stated earlier, although these researchers were not calling their work EIPP, they were pointing to relevant questions and central tenets of EIPP, including a

desire to understand more about how researchers, practitioners, and policy makers utilize different forms of evidence, knowledge, and processes to inform their work.

In the 1990s and into the early 21st century, scholars noted an increased desire to utilize evidence in policy making and practice (Boaz, Davies, et al., 2019b; Davies & Nutley, 2000b). Boaz, Davies, et al. (2019b) highlight this in their short history on EIPP, which was developed outside the United States. For example, the UK New Labour 1997 election utilized the phrase “what matters is what works,” which some hailed as emblematic of a shift from ideology-based to evidence-based policy making (and a corresponding shift from professionally driven to evidence-based practices)” (p. 6). This motto highlighted that one could no longer simply use abstract philosophies or dogma to drive their work, but rather, some form of validated evidence. However, this was not to say that evidence was not to be questioned. This “tide of optimism” around evidence in EIPP was also juxtaposed with the importance of questioning, exploring, and diving deeply into evidence quality and utilizing professional judgement, experience, and expertise in combination with empirical evidence (Boaz, Davies, et al., 2019b, p. 6). By encouraging the exploration of evidence, proponents of EIPP showcased that scholars, practitioners, and policymakers were able to improve their work on an even greater level as ideas evolved and understanding became deeper.

In addition, this move towards EIPP also included an important shift in how evidence and knowledge production was viewed. In the 1990s, there was pushback against models that were either linear (research carried out and passed onto practitioners) or that elevated research-based knowledge as above other forms of knowledge and evidence (Boaz, Davies, et al., 2019b). Rather, the history of EIPP showcases the importance of scholars, practitioners, and policy makers working together in the production and use of evidence. Empirical evidence and

knowledge cannot merely be created and exist for the sake of existing. Instead, through partnerships between these different parties above, it must be created, brokered, and translated and find ways to get it the hands of practitioners and policy makers to inform their work and be utilized in organizations (Boaz, Davies, et al., 2019b). This thought process and philosophy continues to today and is what drives the framing of my study.

In the U.S., EIPP ideas from abroad have been applied in practice and policy making, but they at times, are applied differently. In their chapter focused on the education system, Tseng and Coburn (2019) write about a problematic practice that has taken place over the past two decades in the U.S.: the elevation and prioritization of research-based knowledge over other forms of knowledge. Critics and scholars point out that by concentrating only on research, which is incredibly important but not the only type of evidence and knowledge, this paints too linear and simplistic of a picture, where research is carried out, handed to practitioners and policy makers, and applied, which then leads to change. However, by prioritizing research only, this ignores the other core ideas of EIPP: practitioner and policy maker expertise and experience; organizational context and structures; competing and differing interests; political and power dynamics; professional organizations and practices; budgetary restrictions; and other internal and external factors that affect how work and policy are carried out (McDonnell & Weatherford, 2013; Tseng, 2012; Tseng & Coburn, 2019; Yohalem & Tseng, 2015). EIPP highlights the importance of thinking about all of these factors in combination with different evidence and knowledge types. Tseng and Coburn (2019) write that this is how true systemic, large-scale changes can take place in fields and disciplines, leading to more effective, far-reaching, and equitable practices and policies. There must be structures and frameworks set up to encourage not only evidence-generation but also to further understand and encourage evidence use.

For example, in the field of higher education, Dollinger and Lodge (2019) find in their study on the creation of activities in colleges and universities that students, because of their own unique knowledge and experiences, can help administrators and staff co-create more meaningful and impactful programs, events, and activities in their institutions. Administrators and staff bring tacit, explicit, and research-based knowledge to their work through their years of experience and education; however, their work can be made stronger and have a larger impact by working in partnership with students, who hold their own valuable knowledge and experiences. One student stated: “Students provide a front-line perspective that cannot be given by anyone else. Their lived experiences, ideas, and knowledge are therefore invaluable when it comes to contributing to the improvement of higher education activities” (p. 6). This example highlights how the different forms of knowledge, evidence, and experiences can lead to positive changes. EIPP allows practitioners, scholars, and those in the field to not have to ‘reinvent the wheel’ or start from scratch on their own research or pursuance of knowledge; but rather, they can look to the different types of evidence in their field and beyond to inform, build upon, and improve practice and policies within their organizations.

Context in EIPP

In relationship to the point above, it is also important to discuss the concept of ‘context’ in EIPP and the literature on this idea. Context in EIPP points to the understanding that the use of evidence to inform policy and practice and grow knowledge does not happen in a neat and linear fashion. Organizations, and the individuals within them, are not simply waiting for new evidence or research to drop into their laps (Tseng, 2008) — they are not static entities. Rather, organizations and their members are constantly functioning and adapting to carry out their mission. Organizational contexts, including “[o]rganizational capacity, culture, and structure”

along with the unique histories of the organizations and the field in which they exist all play in a role in what evidence and knowledge is learned and then utilized and reasons why (Tseng, 2012, p. 7). This again pointed to the organizational justification for this study as I can more clearly see the patterns of what is taking place within advancement divisions versus on a ‘one-off,’ individual basis.

The theories of teaching and learning knowledge provide a basis for understanding this evolution of functioning and ideas. Entwistle and Peterson (2004) write about knowledge in learning environments. The authors point out that it is critical to understand that those involved in the learning process (both the teacher and learner) hold their own experiences and backgrounds and these affect their conceptions of how they define knowledge, what its purpose is, and how and when to utilize different types of knowledge. This piece highlights how people come to ‘know what they know’ through the learning of new knowledge. In thinking back to the history of the field of institutional advancement, it must be honored and understood that these organizations, and the individuals who make up these organizations, exist in a specific milieu, thus making them dynamic and unique. They hold their own values and definitions of knowledge and evidence that are shaped through their experiences in the field. Whether tacit, explicit, embedded, or research-based, the knowledge and evidence that is driving their work was learned from somewhere in a learning environment, and this cannot be ignored. This knowledge can be learned from myriad evidence sources and environments over time, including from: research, professional organizations, time in the field, peer institutions, data, information, and other sources. This learning process is evolutionary in nature and constantly affecting how ‘learners’ (i.e. advancement professionals) carry out their work (Entwistle & Peterson, 2004) and what evidence and knowledge they choose to share within institutional advancement shops. By

utilizing EIPP, one can honor this context and understand institutional advancement divisions work through a more all-encompassing lens, recognizing that different knowledge types inform work based on what is learned and where this learning takes place. Therefore, it is important to dig deeper into the different knowledge types on a greater level because context affects what knowledge might be utilized more frequently.

Knowledge in Evidence-Informed Practice and Policy

From the example above and the literature across the fields, one can see that a key component of EIPP is knowledge. The initial scholarly works engaging the concepts of EIPP and knowledge (e.g. T. S. Kuhn, 1962) showcase the necessity of exploring and questioning: knowledge types; who produces and uses knowledge; how knowledge is produced; and what knowledge is deemed as useful and useable. Again, it is important to remember the relationship among, but differences between, evidence and knowledge. Evidence is the “[s]igns or indications of something” (Oxford University Press, 2020a, p. section 1.2) and can be “information given personally, drawn from a document, or in the form of material objects, tending or used to establish facts” (Oxford University Press, 2020a, p. section 1.1). Knowledge is then built from this evidence and held by an individual or organization; it is not a one-time finding but rather, a consistent and more in-depth understanding of something based on experience, familiarity, and building on what is known on a subject already (Oxford University Press, 2020b). The study and literature on the subject of knowledge is vast, therefore, this study leans on what Walter et al. (2004) state in their piece: it is not the purpose of this study to cover the entirety of the literature base on knowledge or epistemological stances; rather, this study utilizes an understanding of knowledge in relation to EIPP and the different types of knowledge that may affect how an organization functions.

Tacit Knowledge

As stated earlier in Chapter 1, there are deep connections between tacit and explicit knowledge (Davies et al., 2015). Nevo and Slonim-Nevo (2011) explain tacit knowledge in their piece:

the wise practitioner, while taking account of evidence, will also rely on other factors, including her own judgement... regarding the appropriate goal to reach, the acceptable means to employ and the ways these could be adjusted as intervention proceeds. No amount of empirical evidence, narrowly conceived, could supplant the practitioner's role or minimise her independence. (p. 1185)

This quotation highlights the intuitive and situational nature of tacit knowledge. Tacit knowledge is subjective and comes from working in a field or discipline (Bennet & Bennet, 2008; Boaz, Davies, Fraser, & Nutley, 2019a; Gabbay & Le May, 2004); this knowledge is not easily learned in books or shared (University of Cambridge, n.d.-b). EIPP allows space for tacit knowledge, knowing that the expertise of those working in field is valuable and cannot be ignored in searching for ways to improve practice and inform policy. Rashman and Hartley (2002) write there is a more frequent focus on more explicit forms of knowledge by leaders and managers because this knowledge can be easily shared and are more formal; however, the authors point out that by learning from those in the field through “shadowing” or “observing,” work can be improved through learning by experience (p. 535).

Tacit knowledge can have both positive and negative aspects. For instance, Somech and Bogler (1999) write that tacit knowledge gives space to the instinctual, allowing for peoples' knowledge gained by lived experiences to guide them through situations. In their study, they found two important findings. First, students who held higher levels of tacit knowledge achieved

higher grades than those with lower levels of tacit knowledge. Secondly, students from lower socioeconomic backgrounds actually utilized tacit, instinctual knowledge more than those from higher SES backgrounds. These students had learned how to navigate situations and school environments through experience, how to be resilient, and how to rely on their instincts. This piece sought to highlight how tacit knowledge must be considered in discussions of knowledge and how people carry out their work and achieve their goals. Peoples' experiences are important in how they define and utilize knowledge.

In addition, it is important to capture and store this tacit knowledge in specific ways. A study was carried out on this concept in the institutional advancement division at the University of Michigan by Peet, Walsh, Sober, and Rawak (2010). The authors write about how Generative Knowledge Interviewing can help organizations carry out two important tasks: 1) not lose valuable leadership and expert tacit knowledge when they leave the institution; and 2) share this tacit knowledge with upcoming practitioners and interns so they can excel in the field of institutional advancement as well. This piece brings to light the importance of a deeper understanding of the tacit knowledge *and* the honoring and sharing of this with people entering the field. By highlighting these studies, one can see that tacit knowledge is an important branch of knowledge within organizations and affects much of their work and strategy.

However, in the study and use of knowledge, tacit knowledge must be balanced with other forms of knowledge. It cannot exist on its own because it is constantly at risk of being lost, misunderstood, or misused. When rules, experiences, concepts, processes, and structures are unwritten, it can be difficult to navigate fields, disciplines, or tasks and to inject new ideas when tacit knowledge may not be completely correct. For instance, Elton (2010) writes that the "rules" of academic writing are "largely tacit," (p. 151), which makes it challenging for students to know

what is expected of them and how to ‘properly’ write academic papers. When you only focus on the instinctual, the art is outweighing the science, leading to merely instinctual ‘best practices’ guiding the work. These practices might be more problematic or exclusionary and by utilizing other forms of knowledge, they could be improved.

Explicit Knowledge

University of Cambridge (n.d.-a) defines explicit knowledge as “knowledge that can be expressed in words, numbers, and symbols and stored in books, computers, etc.” Explicit knowledge differs from tacit knowledge in that it is recorded and put down in some way (Davies et al., 2015). Bennet and Bennet (2008), in their work on shallow and deep knowledge, write, “Explicit knowledge is the process of calling up information (patterns) and processes (patterns in time) from memory that can be described accurately in words and/or visuals (representations) such that another person can comprehend” (p. 2). For example, in the work of institutional advancement, one sees the use of a great deal of explicit knowledge. Gift processing manuals, major gift donor engagement strategies, business rules, strategic plans, and other expressed processes and patterns are examples of explicit knowledge.

Explicit knowledge is important for different reasons. In their study on healthcare in the UK, Davies et al. (2015) explains that knowledge can be more rapidly created and expressed when there is an exchange between tacit to explicit knowledge and explicit to tacit; they should exist on a spectrum rather than be seen as two disconnected concepts (Nonaka & von Krogh, 2009). Instinctual, experiential knowledge can be shared through interviews and shadowing, which in turn can then be written down and recorded to try and capture this knowledge to make it more explicit. In turn, explicit, recorded knowledge can be studied and worked into practice to

inform instinct and practitioners' work. This aids in knowledge sharing throughout the organization.

Additionally, the deeper understanding of explicit knowledge not only can improve the speed at which knowledge is shared but it can also improve the organizational performance. Sohail and Daud (2009) write that organizations can improve their performance by providing “useful and relevant knowledge to employees” (p. 126). Organizations who encourage and promote knowledge sharing through different strategies, culture changes, and better developed systems to share knowledge can improve their organization and see an increase in motivation to share this knowledge (Sohail & Daud, 2009). Furthermore, by better codifying and clearly organizing explicit knowledge, organizations can “discover deficiencies in its knowledge assets... [to] begin to see more clearly what knowledge it does have... and does not have” (Sanchez, n.d., p. 13).

However, explicit knowledge must also too be used in combination with other strategies and knowledge types. For example, Sanchez (n.d.) in his paper on the advantages and disadvantages of tacit and explicit knowledge points out that challenges can arise in explicit knowledge if organizational members refuse to share their explicit knowledge, do not understand how to articulate their knowledge, or if they wish to “stay close” to their ways of doing things (p. 15). In addition to these challenges, explicit knowledge may not be entirely correct. Their way of understanding an issue through their own knowledge may not be completely right or the best – it may be biased or based on one point of view, experience, or body of knowledge (Sanchez, n.d.). For instance, explicit knowledge in advancement may at times be based on only atheoretical knowledge or the perspective of a specific group, e.g. White, heterosexual, older male

perspectives in philanthropy in higher education (see Drezner & Huehls, 2014). Therefore, explicit knowledge must be balanced with other forms of knowledge as well.

Embedded Knowledge

As stated previously, in much of the EIPP literature, the focus is on tacit, explicit, and research-based knowledge; however, there are organizational scholars that point to embedded knowledge as a critical piece of understanding around what evidence informs practice. My study includes embedded knowledge because of its connections to organizational theory and learning, which is where my study rested in its focus. Madhavan and Grover (1998) define embedded knowledge as “the potential knowledge resulting from the combination of the individual team members' stores of tacit knowledge” (p. 2).

Bess and Dee (2008) point out that practices, routines, structures, norms, and cultures can be embedded within an organization deeply. While organizations are often focused on the surface, the embedded knowledge and ideologies can actually be driving much of the work, and specific knowledge and ways of doing things can be privileged by people in leadership positions (Calas & Smircich, 1992). This tacit, embedded knowledge outlasts individuals, and therefore, is not easily rooted out and changed (Botha et al., 2014; Gamble & Blackwell, 2001). Badaracco (1991), one of the earliest thinkers on this concept, writes that “the challenge of embedded knowledge is that it requires rethinking familiar ideas” (p. 80). Embedded knowledge ties closely to systems theory which guides part of the conceptual framework for this paper. The understanding of embedded systems takes the focus off only the individual and instead highlights the interrelation and interactional systems of knowledge, evidence, and sharing (Best & Holmes, 2010; Davies et al., 2015; Hyde et al., 2009). Complex relationships and knowledge sharing affect the ways that work is done, and an understanding of embedded knowledge brings to light

the ways of doing things and carrying out work (Badaracco, 1991; Knowledge Management Tools, 2018a). It is important to deeply understand institutional history and context and who has been a part of the organization before. This knowledge lives on even after they leave. In addition, explicit knowledge exists in relationship with this embedded knowledge because ‘ways of doing things’ might have been written down as well in explicit knowledge forms. As stated earlier, although embedded knowledge can have positive effects on the organization, it can also create trials for an organization who may be trying to correct behaviors or improve their work through exploring their practices and new ways of doing things. This is why it is important to also take into account and understand tacit, explicit, embedded, and finally, research-based knowledge.

Research-Based Knowledge

In the understanding of EIPP, research-based knowledge and how it is utilized plays a critical role (Tseng, 2012). It is important to first reiterate that research-based knowledge does not occupy a position as superior knowledge, but rather, it exists as one type of knowledge utilized alongside tacit, explicit, and embedded knowledge (Davies et al., 2015; Nutley et al., 2007a). Each knowledge types brings to light specific parts of the evidence-informed approach to practice and policy making.

At its heart, research exists as a way to question and explore how work is being carried out. Research can introduce new concepts, infuse new ideas into a field or discipline, encourage reflection and conversation, and at times can push and challenge individuals, organizations, and society to think differently and reshape their ways of doing things (Boaz, Davies, et al., 2019b; Davies & Nutley, 2008; Nutley et al., 2007a; Powell et al., 2018; Tseng, 2012). This point of pushing and challenging is one of the most important components of research-based knowledge. If organizations only rely on ‘best practices,’ informed by tacit, explicit, and embedded

knowledge then problematic methods, systems, and ways of carrying out work may be driving a portion of the organizational efforts. Research can lead to critical questions that can stem the marginalization of certain groups based on problematic best practices and policies (Drezner & Huehls, 2014). Certain practitioners may be “teaching to the test,” and not asking the right critical questions to push the field into different ways of thinking and carrying out their work (Weiss, 1998, p. 26) As stated earlier in Chapter 1, research-based knowledge is generated through building on previous knowledge, theory utilization, grounded and tested methods, data collection and analysis, and peer review (Boaz, Davies, et al., 2019b; Tseng, 2008). These components provide credibility, rigorous methods, and research-based information to guide decision making in organizations (Boaz, Davies, et al., 2019b; Davies & Nutley, 2008; Nutley et al., 2007a).

This working definition and ideas of what research can offer were informed by foundational works on research utilization. In the 1970s and 1980s, multiple authors wrote important scholarly pieces that laid the theoretical groundwork for research-based knowledge and research use (Henry & Mark, 2003; Tseng, 2008). Weiss (1979) created a set of groundbreaking typologies of research use that discussed how policy makers utilize research, however, it is also extremely useful in the work of how practitioners can utilize research knowledge in different ways and the complexity but importance of this in decision-making (Nutley et al., 2007a). Her work was pivotal in the idea of what “using research” meant (p. 426) and has been utilized in the creation of additional frameworks based on this original work. Because her piece is seen as foundational to this knowledge type, these typologies are displayed in Table 2.1 below:

Table 2.1 Weiss (1979) meanings of using research

The Knowledge-Driven Model	“[B]asic research discloses some opportunity that may have relevance for public policy; applied research is conducted to define and test the findings of basic research for practical action; if all goes well, appropriate technologies are developed to implement the findings; whereupon application occurs,” in a linear fashion” (p.427).
Problem-Solving Model	“[I]nvolves the direct application of the results of a specific social science study to a pending decision. The expectation is that research provides empirical evidence and conclusions that help to solve a policy problem. The model is again a linear one, but the steps are different from those in the knowledge-driven model” (p.427).
Interactive Model	“[P]art of an interactive search for knowledge. Those engaged in developing policy seek information not only from social scientists but from a variety of sources—administrators, practitioners, politicians, planners, journalists, clients, interest groups, aides, friends, and social scientists, too. The process is not one of linear order from research to decision but a disorderly set of interconnections and back-and-forthness that defies neat diagrams” (p.428).
Political Model	“[Research] becomes ammunition for the side that finds its conclusions congenial and supportive. Partisans flourish the evidence in an attempt to neutralize opponents, convince waverers, and bolster supporters... To the extent that the research, accurately interpreted, supports the position of one group, it gives the advocates of that position confidence, reduces their uncertainties, and provides them an edge in the continuing debate” (p.429).
Tactical Model	“[R]esearch is used for purposes that have little relation to the substance of the research. It is not the content of the findings that is invoked but the sheer fact that research is being done. For example, government agencies confronted with demands for action may respond by saying, <i>“Yes, we know that's an important need. We're doing research on it right now...”</i> Research becomes proof of their responsiveness” (p.429).

Enlightenment Model

“Here it is not the findings of a single study nor even of a body of related studies that directly affect policy. Rather it is the concepts and theoretical perspectives that social science research has engendered that permeate the policy-making process... Social science research diffuses circuitously through manifold channels-professional journals, the mass media, conversations with colleagues-and over time the variables it deals with and the generalizations it offers provide decision makers with ways of making sense out of a complex world. Rarely will policy makers be able to cite the findings of a specific study that influenced their decisions” (p.429).

Research as Part of the Intellectual Enterprise of the Society

“[L]ooks upon social science research as one of the intellectual pursuits of a society. It is not so much an independent variable whose effects on policy remain to be determined as it is another of the dependent variables, collateral with policy-and with philosophy, journalism, history, law, and criticism. Like policy, social science research responds to the currents of thought, the fads and fancies, of the period. Social science and policy interact, influencing each other and being influenced by the larger fashions of social thought” (p. 430).

The above typologies point to distinct ways in which research is utilized. As one can see, it is a multi-faceted and layered understanding. This points to the complexity of utilizing research-based knowledge in practice and policy making.

Furthermore, Larsen (1980) wrote about how research can be used in conceptual and instrumental ways, and Beyer and Trice (1982) then added symbolic use to these ways in which research-based knowledge can be explored. Instrumental use involves the direct application of research towards a problem in a clear and specific way. For instance, if research says those with higher income levels give more, a development officer would then sort their portfolio of possible donors by wealth in order to try and raise more money for the institution. This instrumental use can also provide an opportunity to look through a different theoretical lens. In another example,

instead of focusing only on wealth, a traditional advancement indicator, Drezner (2018) writes about the concept of philanthropic mirroring. In this theoretical framework, alumni giving increases when social identity is honored and utilized in solicitation materials. By understanding the social identities of their alumni, such as race, ethnicity, sexual orientation, and gender, institutional advancement organizations can better personalize their gift solicitation student profiles based on shared identities with the alums. This then leads to an increase in the alum's giving amount as well as feelings of importance for the cause.

Conceptual research use looks different. Conceptual use is less direct and focuses more on how reading and exploring research can change the way in which people and organizations think over time — research is not always used in a linear way where research is created and passed directly to the practitioner or policy maker. Rather, it can be more abstract and theoretical in which people begin to question practices more, search out new ideas, and work research-based knowledge into the fabric of the organization. Although it is harder to see directly, this idea is just as important as an organization seeks to make systemic changes.

Finally, symbolic use utilizes research in a political fashion, working to validate and legitimize their way of carrying out work or their position on an issue (Beyer & Trice, 1982; Estabrooks, 1999; Larsen, 1980; Nutley et al., 2007a). Although this can be seen as a negative thing, this symbolic use can be beneficial if the policy maker or practitioner is utilizing sound evidence to justify a practice that can improve performance and lead to a more equitable way of doing work. These typologies and uses can overlap and serve multiple purposes at the same time (Tseng, 2008).

As in all cases, research-based knowledge comes with its own set of challenges in its utilization. Davies and Nutley (2008) write that “research can be contentious, may be reliant on

controversial theories, draws on multiple and sometimes disputed methods, and often leads to contestable and ambiguous findings. In addition, multiple studies can compete and diverge rather than offer clear conclusions” (p. 7). Therefore, it is critical to acknowledge the milieu and broader understanding of evidence-informed work and knowledge types in conjunction with research-based knowledge. Research-based knowledge may provide a springboard for conversation, but it is important to involve those working in the field and bring in multiple perspectives as one begins to attempt to make changes within an organization.

Additionally, authors discuss the unique complexities in translating and utilizing research-based knowledge. Caplan (1979) points to the challenges in translating research knowledge between the two communities: researchers and policymakers. This can be applied to practitioners as well. Researchers and those utilizing research may have difficulties communicating and have different goals in their work. For instance, Lipsky (1980) writes that those on the front lines of education, social services, law, and other departments that have direct contact with the public and are on the ground doing the work may want to utilize research-based knowledge in combination with their own knowledge; however, they may encounter difficulties in utilizing different evidence and knowledge because of trying circumstances, such as heavy workloads and lack of resources. It is important to focus on systems and structures that increase not only the usability of research but also that enable the ability to set up, store, and share knowledge. This leads me to two final concepts: knowledge management and knowledge mobilization.

Knowledge Management and Knowledge Mobilization

Knowledge mobilization (KMb) and knowledge management (KM) are critical elements to evidence-informed practice and policy. As in the case of EIPP, KMb and KM have been

utilized across a variety of fields and disciplines, including corporate studies, education, healthcare, and social care (Davies et al., 2015). Additionally, at times, they have been used synonymously with one another and other terms such as knowledge brokering, knowledge exchange, knowledge transfer, knowledge utilization, knowledge translation, knowledge-to-action, and more (Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, n.d.). In order to appropriately bind my study, I do not delve into all of the differences and nuances of these different terms as there are entire fields and disciplines who have not reached a consensus and are arguing these points and utilizing different viewpoints. Instead, I focus on KMb and KM, which were the most frequently utilized terms and explored ideas amongst the literature that I found. Just as in my discussion of EIPP, because of this use of these two concepts across different areas, definitions and ways that they are conceptualized and differentiated can vary and are, at times, contested (Davies et al., 2015; Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, n.d.). Therefore, for the purposes of this study, I again utilize common themes from a variety of literature sources, fields, and disciplines to help highlight the importance and connections of both KMb and KM in advancement.

If one first explores the basic definitions of the words ‘mobilization and ‘management,’ the differences and connections become clearer. In their piece, the KMbteam (2011) describe it best in that KM is linked to the “content,” and KMb is linked to the “process” (para. 5). In an analogy, the authors state:

Knowledge Management is like a cup that contains and provides structure; Knowledge Mobilization is like the liquid that can fill the cup to overflowing – always open to the multidirectional flow and input of knowledge from many sources that contributes to the constant liquid being poured for and provided by everyone. (para. 6)

At their core, KMb and KM are about knowledge being stored and shared so that people within an organization can utilize it in a timely and impactful way (Davies et al., 2015; Knowledge Management Tools, 2018b; Powell, Davies, & Nutley, 2017; Powell et al., 2018). Knowledge created and held by practitioners, policymakers, researchers, and others is only as useful as the organization's ability to "represent it, transfer it, make it accessible and encourage its use" (Metaxiotis & Psarras, 2003, p. 354). Both KMb and KM help organizations to do that. Knowledge must be shared and utilized by people within the organization or it is simply static, driving no application or change within the organization (Knowledge Management Tools, 2018b). The following sections will delve into the nuances of knowledge mobilization and knowledge management.

Knowledge Mobilization

KMb involves recognizing all types of knowledge, including tacit, explicit, embedded, and research-based knowledge, but its roots lie in injecting new ideas through research-based knowledge (Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, n.d.; Powell et al., 2018; Sá, Li, & Faubert, 2011). Action Research Network of the Americas (ARNA) (n.d.) point out key tenets of KMb in their work with for children, youth, and families—their definition includes the "use of evidence and expertise to align research, policy and practice to improve outcomes... [and] involves knowledge sharing between research producers (e.g. university researchers) and research users (including practitioners whose work can benefit from research findings)" (para. 1). However, as Powell et al. (2018) write, this does not mean that KMb ignores the explicit, tacit, and embedded knowledge of those in the organization. KMb highlights the importance of both making research matter and also of honoring the different types of knowledge because only utilizing theoretical literature and research-based knowledge puts too much of a focus on theory and feels too distant

for practitioners at times (p. 19). KMb helps to bridge this “gulf and to ensure that knowledge mobilisation theory and practice are both informed by and inform each other” (Powell et al., 2017, p. 219).

If we look to an example in the field of philanthropy in higher education, Weerts and Ronca (2008), in their piece on alumni who volunteer at their alma mater, utilize evidence-informed, research-based knowledge to help advancement professionals understand what different characteristics encourage alumni engagement. They find that academic experiences, alumni volunteer role beliefs, and number of degrees from the institution show a positive relationship to an increased inclination to volunteer. In this example, the authors consider the practices in the field and how advancement professionals can take this research-based knowledge and utilize it in their own practice to increase volunteerism. This concept of mobilization is critical because it highlights the need for institutional advancement organizations to better understand what knowledge drives their work and in what ways and how.

Knowledge Management

In relationship to mobilization, in thinking back to the analogy from earlier, the “water” (knowledge) must be stored and managed by some sort of structures (i.e., the cup). Advancement organizations must focus on not only the different types of knowledge and the injection of new ideas, but also on “system design, organisational infrastructures and the facilitation of relational and interactive knowledge exchange” for different knowledge to have an impact within the organization (Davies et al., 2015, p. 23). Although each organization will utilize knowledge management for different purposes (Rowley, 2000), these core concepts of how knowledge and evidence is managed are key.

It is important to start with a clear definition of KM. Rowley (2000) synthesizes Davenport, De Long, & Beers' (1998) work into the following definition: "Knowledge management is concerned with the exploitation and development of the knowledge assets of an organization with a view to furthering the organisation's objectives" (p. 327). This knowledge includes all knowledge types. KM provides a clear framework and gives one a deeper understanding of what structures must be in place to store data, information, evidence, and knowledge so that the organization can learn and grow their knowledge and understanding. Liebowitz (1999) discusses the importance of KM in increasing an organization's 'intelligence.' This involves nine knowledge functions: 1) Transform information into knowledge, 2) Identify and verify knowledge, 3) Capture and secure knowledge, 4) Organize knowledge, 5) Retrieve and apply knowledge, 6) Combine knowledge, 7) Create knowledge, 8) Learn knowledge, and 9) Distribute/sell knowledge. The knowledge functions tie closely to KM because they point out how organizations can not only better understand their different knowledge types but also *utilize, learn, and distribute* their own knowledge.

These systems and infrastructures for encouraging KM include both internal and external components and ideas. From an internal perspective, KM relies on both formal and informal structures (Knowledge Management Tools, 2018c). For instance, scholars point out that organizations are teeming with 'knowledge repositories' full of data and information that can be utilized by practitioners to share and encourage the use of new knowledge (Davenport, De Long, & Beers, 1998; Rowley, 2000). In Rowley (2000), the author points to formal repository structures found within higher education institutions, which include financial databases, information technology systems, academic journal and library databases, student records, document collections, and more (p. 329). These vital structures provide ways for practitioners of

the organization to take this data and information, reveal evidence, and use different forms of knowledge to inform their practice. Additionally, formal structures for organizational members to come together, such as communities of practice, can provide another structure for colleagues to intentionally discuss a specific topic or idea with the hopes of learning more about something and learning how to do something differently and better (Buysse, Sparkman, & Wesley, 2003). In addition to these formal structures, informal structures such as group interactions, social networks, and impromptu conversations can play a role in what knowledge is shared amongst organizations (Knowledge Management Tools, 2018c; Rowley, 2000).

From an external perspective, one finds multiple structures and systems that play a role in the management of knowledge for organizations. Nutley et al. (2007a) write that “conferences, seminars, workshops and other forums by both policy makers and practitioners as a means of picking up on the latest findings in their field” are frequently used (p. 63). Additionally, agencies, colleges, institutes, professional bodies, and other external organizations can provide structures for management of knowledge for a specific organization, field, or discipline (Nutley et al., 2007a; Shepherd, 2014). The history of the field of institutional advancement informs this understanding of what external structures manage the knowledge of institutional advancement shops. For instance, CASE boasts thousands of conferences, podcasts, panels, and seminars each year for advancement professionals in the field (Council for Advancement and Support of Education, n.d.-c). In addition, CASE houses: AMAtlas, a resource for advancement-related metrics, benchmarks, and analytics; CASE Library; CASE Bookstore; CASE Academy; and more (Council for Advancement and Support of Education, n.d.-e). From a more research-based knowledge perspective, another KM structure for those working and researching in advancement are academic journals and databases. For instance, *Philanthropy & Education*, which explores

“prosocial voluntary actions benefitting education [to] advance scholarship in and inform practice around philanthropy” stores valuable knowledge on institutional advancement through its articles and manuscripts (Drezner, n.d.-a, para. 1).

Both internal and external KM structures play a role in how knowledge is managed, shared, dispersed, and used within the field of institutional advancement. When diving into the literature on both KMb and KM, they both inform my study in the focus on the organizational characteristics, structures, systems, learning, and behaviors that help me understand institutional advancement shops from an EIPP lens.

A Conceptual Framework for Evidence-Informed Institutional Advancement

In turning to my conceptual framework, it is important to again note the goal of my study: to better understand evidence-informed institutional advancement. As stated earlier, this study does not seek to understand how to increase fundraising dollars, alumni engagement, or advancement efforts – this will come later after this foundational study. Instead, it is focused on advancement shops as ‘systems.’ It works to bring to light what types of knowledge and evidence are most valued and used and how advancement shops learn and utilize different forms of evidence and knowledge. This could not take place without a strong theoretical grounding (Tseng, 2008, p. 16). In Tseng (2008), she points out the importance of theory and research to study research use, and this philosophy drove my conceptual framework:

Theory-building is particularly important in this area because it helps the field move beyond description to explanatory frameworks with testable propositions about research use and ways to improve use. We seek theory-building about when, how, and under what conditions research evidence is used, and intervention theory about ways to improve use. These two types of theories should feed into each other. (p. 16)

Holistic Organizational Theoretical Approach to Institutional Advancement

In order to accomplish the goal of this study, my dissertation focuses on the organizational level. This study seeks to take the onus off just one individual, wherein the researcher creates research and the practitioner is passed this research and puts it into practice (Tseng & Nutley, 2014). Although this is important, it does not highlight how the entire advancement system can utilize evidence-informed practices. Therefore, the conceptual framework for this paper utilizes organizational theory to examine this idea. Bess and Dee (2008) write that “theory permits understanding, prediction, and intervention in organizational affairs in more scientific and sophisticated ways” (p. 53). This paper uses research-based knowledge and evidence to better understand what evidence and knowledge informs and drives the work of institutional advancement in higher education. Although people can seek out and utilize different knowledge and evidence, this study’s design focuses on the organizational characteristics, individual interactions, systems, structures, and behaviors that affect what types of evidence and knowledge are used and in what ways to initiate larger systemic change within and between organizations (Langer, Tripney, & Gough, 2016). A systems approach is important.

... if one is to improve organizational performance, one should not target a single level or facet of an organization... one must consider, evaluate, and change the multiple levels and subsystems of an organization, influencing not just individual behaviors and attitudes, not just group norms and interactions, not just organizational structures and strategies—but all of these. (Schneider & Klein, 1994, p. 82)

Langer et al. (2016) point out that by focusing on an organizational level, one can better understand how an entire system can be better explored and improved in how they utilize different forms of evidence and knowledge. This study utilizes three different organizational

theories to examine institutional advancement organizations: general systems theory, organizational learning theory, and organizational culture theory. The following sections highlighted key components and applications of the three organizational theories. I then discuss how the combination of these three frames is used as the conceptual framework for my study.

General Systems Theory

Definition and Previous Application of Theory. Systems theory emerged in the 1930s and 1940s and evolved throughout the 1950s and 1960s as a way to explain different phenomena (e.g. Berrien, 1968; Bertalanffy, 1968; Boulding, 1956; Boulding & Niebuhr, 1953). Systems theory is a useful theoretical starting point (Bess & Dee, 2008) and tool in identifying what is taking place within an organization and what factors may be affecting what is taking place (Birnbaum & Edelson, 1988; Boulding, 1956). From an organizational perspective, this theory relies on the idea that everything that takes place within an organization is linked or connected; if there is an action taken or structure put into place, the other parts of the organization will be affected (Birnbaum & Edelson, 1988; De Meuse & Liebowitz, 1981; Hall & Fagen, 1980). A system is defined as a set of different components that all depend upon and interact with one another through interrelated processes and actions (Berrien, 1968; Hall & Fagen, 1980). These parts work together to help the system maintain its function, and at times, help improve its function (Bess & Dee, 2008). Systems receive inputs from their environment which are factors that affect the organization; the system then takes these inputs and transforms them in some way and then produces an output (Katz & Kahn, 1978). Inputs for higher education institutions can include different elements, including philanthropic gifts to the institution, students, and new research (Bess & Dee, 2008). Outputs are simply products of the system that have been transformed in some way (Katz & Kahn, 1978; Moeller & Valentinov, 2012). Luhmann (1995)

points out that by using systems theory, one can make more sense of complex structures.

Systems theory enables one to see power structures, how inputs are transferred, information flows, and other crucial pieces of the system's functioning (Luhmann, 1995).

Additionally, systems theory provides an understanding of the relationship between the system and its environment (Birnbaum & Edelson, 1988). In systems, everything that is not part of the organization or "system" is considered the environment, and these two are separated by a boundary (Luhmann, 1995, 2006), including spatial, functional, and/or analytical boundaries (A. Kuhn, 1975). Katz and Kahn (1978) state that both the general environment and proximate environment can affect the system. The general environment can include social, cultural, political, legal, economic, technological, and informational factors that affect the system. The proximate environment includes more direct factors that influence system behavior, such as: suppliers, funders, and special interest groups, which at a university can include factors such as alumni associations or policy makers (Bess & Dee, 2008; Hatch, 2018). Some systems have boundaries that are more open and permeable, which means they interact and exchange more easily with their environment; whereas others may be more closed systems, relying on their own internal resources to carry out their functions (Bertalanffy, 1968; Birnbaum & Edelson, 1988).

Furthermore, organizational systems utilize feedback to make sense of, evaluate, and understand how these outputs are received by the environment (Argyris, 1990). This use of feedback is critical as it provides a way for organizations to learn and adjust their functions for organizational learning and adapting their practices (Argyris, 1990). As Bess and Dee (2008) write, if organizations are not willing to examine their system and restructure when needed, they will enter a state of entropy, where they will lose energy and run down (pp. 106-107).

Within systems theory, there are two types of systems: general systems (focused on the organization only) and social systems theory (focused on the individuals within an organization) (Bess & Dee, 2008). For the purposes of this exploration of institutional advancement departments, I focused on general systems theory because I wished to explore how the organizations function, which are made up of a number of individuals and hold organizational structures, processes, norms, and values. General systems theory came from the systems work of Ludwig Bertalanffy (1968) and Frederick Kenneth Berrien (1968), who spoke to the interconnectedness of components and their effect on how a system functions. My use of this frame relied on the notion that systems have connections between their different parts, structures, roles, and components and with the environment (Katz & Kahn, 1978).

Application of General Systems Theory to Institutional Advancement. The previous literature allowed me to see the ways in which this theory was useful in understanding institutional advancement. General systems theory helped to illuminate the story of institutional advancement shops as a strong starting point and general frame of understanding. It was a strong frame to build upon to begin to bring into focus how institutional advancement divisions hold two separate organizational identities: a subsystem of both their education institution and the field of institutional advancement (see Figure 2.1 below). This understanding was critical to the story of institutional advancement divisions.

As stated previously, institutional advancement departments exist *because* the higher education institution their mission serves exists. These roots center on serving as an adaptive subsystem, securing funding and support for the educational institution's goals, mission, vision,

initiatives, and strategies (Council for Advancement and Support of Education, n.d.-f) and helping ensure the long-term survival of the institution and providing resources necessary for their survival (Bess & Dee, 2008; Katz & Kahn, 1978). They make decisions and strategize in partnership with institutional leadership, administration, deans, faculty, trustees, and other key stakeholders. For instance, donations of money from alumni are inputs received by advancement offices that are then processed and transformed into an output by the organization through the funding of a specific program or institutional need.

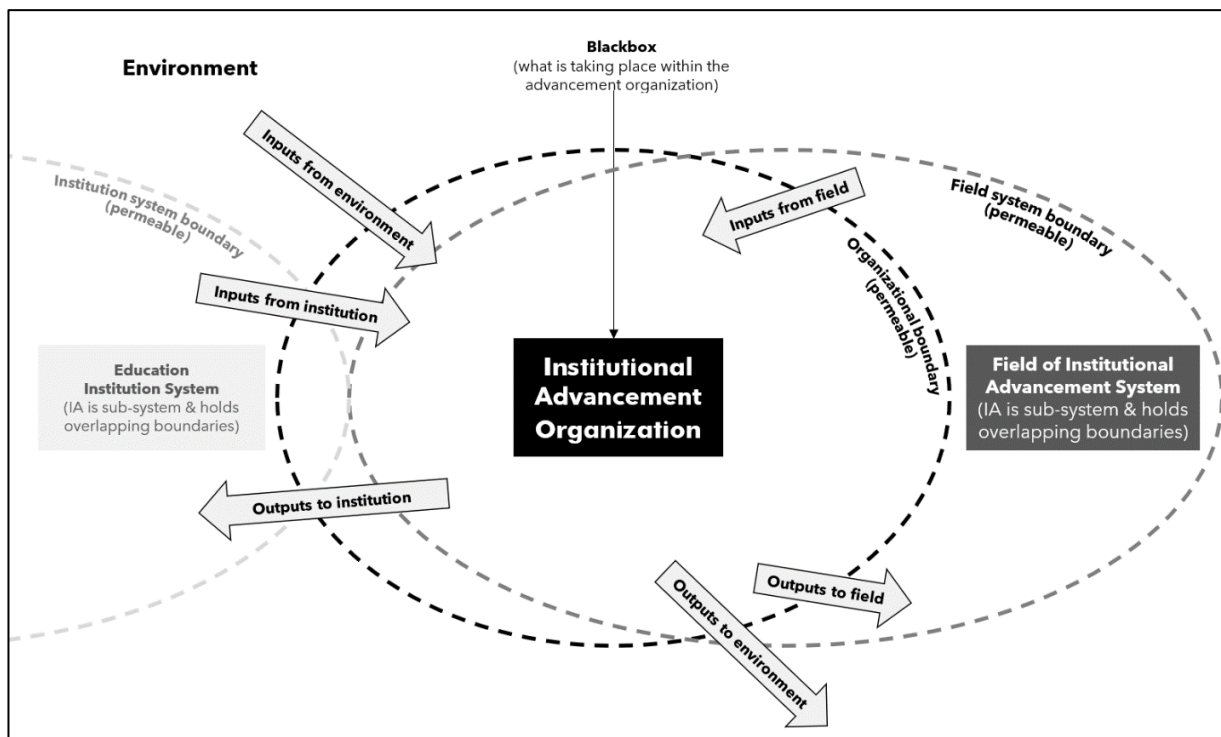


Figure 2.1 Institutional advancement shops simultaneously exist as sub-systems of two separate systems (Adapted from Anderson-Long, 2019; Birnbaum & Edelson, 1988)

However, in addition to being a part of higher education systems, institutional advancement shops exist as a sub-system of their own field (Figure 2.1), which affects their ways of functioning, behaviors, and the transformation of inputs to outputs. Institutional advancement as a field and within individual shops hold their own history, goals, strategies, boundaries, memories, storage, and inputs. One can see from the literature and history of the field how the

professionalization and practices of the field of institutional advancement affect how institutional advancement divisions operate. Figure 2.1 explains this through the illustration. Advancement shops' decision-making, internal policies, and procedures are constantly receiving additional inputs from the field. In addition, fellow advancement shops, practitioners, and scholars produce professional development resources, White Papers, webinars, 'best practices' trainings, research-based evidence, such as articles and books, etc., and these affect the ways the organization functions. General systems theory provides an excellent frame and foundational understanding to deepen awareness of advancement divisions as members of their own professional field; however, other theories have to be utilized to build upon this foundation. General systems theory does not allow me to understand how the organization transforms the inputs they receive and the activities, processes, and interactions that are taking place and driving behavior within the system – a phenomenon called the 'black box' (Bess & Dee, 2008; Klir, 1969). Other theories must work in combination with systems theory. This leads me to the discussion on organizational learning theory and organizational culture theory.

Organizational Learning Theory

Definition and Previous Application of Theory. Argyris and Schön (1996) state that organizational success depends on the “ability to see things in new ways, gain new understandings, and produce new patterns of behaviors” (p. xix). My theoretical application of this theory focuses on these ways of functioning. In building on the systems perspective from above, organizational learning theory allows me to build on these concepts and delve deeper into how organizations learn and develop new evidence, ideas, routines, and knowledge as a community of learners (Collinson & Cook, 2007; Dee & Leišytė, 2016; Nutley et al., 2007a). Broadly, organizational learning relies upon the idea that organizations are more than just the

sum of individuals taking part in the learning process (Collinson & Cook, 2007; Nutley et al., 2007a); organizations endure even as people come and go, and those within the organization who stay and those who eventually depart from the organization leave the institution with an accumulation of knowledge that drives organizational goals, behaviors, structures, and norms (Hedberg, 1981; Nutley et al., 2007a). This ties into the concept of embedded organizational knowledge discussed earlier. If research only focuses on the individuals within an organization, one can miss broader implications for how organizations absorb and learn new information and apply new ideas to their organizational patterns and functions (Nutley et al., 2007a). Organizations wishing to inject new ideas and learn, change, and evolve must identify routines, processes, norms, and structures in place that may be inhibiting or encouraging learning and change. The organizational learning frame helps institutions to explore this further.

Organizational learning has been explored through multiple fields and disciplines, including but not limited to: anthropology, psychology, social-psychology, philosophy, organization management, economics, history, business, health and social care, and education. As Dee and Leišytė (2016) point out, organizational learning literature covers an extensive range of disciplines and includes a great number of studies, making it extremely challenging to complete a comprehensive literature review; therefore, I highlight organizational and management theory and empirical works, which best frame the understanding of my topic around how organizations seek out new ideas, learn, and absorb and share evidence and knowledge in institutional advancement departments.

Although there are different authors who wrote on the topic in its infancy, certain pieces are seen as pivotal including: Weick (1979, 1993), Cyert and March (1963), and Simon (1957, 1972). Much of their work highlights how organizations behave, make decisions, create roles,

interpret information, and utilize sensemaking to avoid disruptions. Dee and Leišytė (2016) point out that later work focused more on the application of organizational learning, e.g., Argyris and Schön (1996) and Senge (1990).

Of those who have studied organizational learning, key findings are important in the study of this frame. First, it is important to highlight organizational learning's focus on the organization rather than individuals within the organization. This frame focuses on how an organization builds and retains knowledge over time. Barab and Duffy (2000) discuss this concept in their work on "communities of practice" in learning, which is tied to organizational learning: "Individuals are becoming a part of something larger as they work within the context and become interconnected to the community, which is also a part of something larger (the society in which it is nested)" (p. 14). This focus on the individual being nested within a larger group is a critical point in the literature on organizational learning. This learning and improving practice carries on even as individuals come and go. In their work about the modernization of the National Health Service in the United Kingdom, Nutley and Davies (2001) point out that this knowledge can be "formal codified knowledge," "informal knowledge," "tacit knowledge," and "cultural knowledge" (p. 27-36). Although individuals may do work within the organization and hold some of this knowledge, these parts of an organization's overall functioning are part of collective organizational learning. Mechanisms, routines, and structures that retain and deploy knowledge in order to then improve the organization and its functioning outlast individuals (Cyert & March, 1963; Dee & Leišytė, 2016; Dodgson, 1993; Hedberg, 1981; Nutley & Davies, 2001). Levitt and March (1988) write that organizations learn over time, developing routines based on previous experiences and history. These experiences and history affect how habits,

practices, norms, and processes are created and evolve –they transcend and outlast individuals, thus leading to organizational learning (Levitt & March, 1988).

In Meade (1995), the author uses a case study of one Australian university to highlight how higher education institutions that utilize organizational learning can acquire new knowledge, transfer this throughout the college or university, and modify its practices based on this knowledge. By encouraging a learner mindset and putting structures into place that foster this behavior, organizations can nurture a community of learning focused on how they can live out their institutional mission and values (Lieberman, 2005).

Additionally, Bensimon (2005) writes in her chapter that organizational learning can help to address the “structural and cultural obstacles” in institutions as well by uncover biased processes and data at institutions which highlight inequalities in race and ethnic-based outcomes (pp. 99-100). Those working on the ground and “closest to the problem,” including administrators, faculty, staff, students, and stakeholders, can utilize organizational learning to more deeply understand how to make their practices more equitable and inclusive (Bensimon, 2005, p. 110). This can disrupt systems of inequality taking place in colleges and universities. As pointed out earlier, institutional advancement often disproportionately focuses on White, older males (Drezner, 2011; Drezner & Huehls, 2014); this theory is critical in exploring the different types of data, information, evidence, and knowledge that inform the work of these shops and how, through an organizational learning frame, they can learn how to achieve greater equity and the disrupt practices when needed. This leads to the application of this theory.

Application of Organizational Learning Theory to Institutional Advancement.

Although organizational learning can look different and there is no one-size-fits-all approach (Lieberman, 2005), the facets from the literature on organizational learning are helpful in

illuminating how institutional advancement divisions learn, create, retain, and transfer data, information, evidence, and knowledge throughout their organization. Scholars highlight that organizations can adapt, evolve, and grow through curiosity, inquiry, dialogue, learning, and examination of their norms, structures, procedures, and processes to sustain change (Boyce, 2003; Forest, 2002). With this in mind, the three levels of organizational learning developed by Argyris and Schön (1996) help bring to light in my study how an organization, rather than only its individuals, can learn and change. The organization can identify how it learns and utilizes evidence and knowledge through different learning loops. This begins to uncover the ‘black box’ of the organizational functioning.

First, in single-loop learning, organizations learn knowledge that may affect strategies or assumptions, but the organization itself stays within certain norms and does not change its values or customs; nothing is redefined or restructured in any way that profoundly changes the organization. In previous work, scholars point out that higher education institutions tend to stay in this loop (Örtenblad & Koris, 2014). This helps in understanding what factors may affect advancement organizational processes, norms, strategies, and assumptions. In addition, this loop highlights how advancement shops function and how they absorb and transfer evidence and knowledge.

Double-loop learning involves a more self-reflective process. The organization not only changes strategies and some basic assumptions, but it also reshapes and rethinks its organization’s values, routines, and norms (Argyris & Schön, 1996). Double-loop learning “calls into question the very nature of the course plotted and the feedback loops used to maintain that course” (Nutley et al., 2007a, p. 2). Organizational learning, at times, involves unlearning behaviors and ways of carrying out their work and adopting new strategies, which is tied to

double-loop learning (Nutley et al., 2007a). Organizational learning does not in and of itself always mean the results will be positive; organizations may learn behaviors or embed processes, values, and norms which lead to problematic behaviors (Argyris & Schön, 1996; Dee & Leišytė, 2016). For instance, the centering of White, wealthy, heterosexual men (Drezner, 2011; Drezner & Huehls, 2014) can be considered a ‘learned’ behavior by numerous advancement shops and must be unlearned. This double-loop learning provides a way to more clearly see how institutional advancement offices may change their practices, routines, procedures, and norms based on newly learned evidence and knowledge.

Finally, organizational learning can enter a third, meta-learning level. Organizations engaging in meta-learning ‘learn about their learning;’ they challenge themselves to learn how and when they learn and when they do not, which gives them the ability to evolve, adapt, and test new strategies to increase their learning and change how they absorb and transfer knowledge (Argyris & Schön, 1996; Nutley et al., 2007a). This third loop helps illuminate how advancement organizations learn about their own goals, processes, structures, and internal policies and procedure. Finally, it helps bring into focus what might be hindering their learning.

These core ideas of organizational learning allow me to explore how institutional advancement departments learn, adopt, and adapt. This theory provides a window into understanding how the organization is structured for learning and for taking in new information. Additionally, it allows me to see how organizations utilize different types of information, knowledge, and evidence to guide strategies and decision-making. Finally, it enables me to more clearly identify how the organization creates, retains, and transfers knowledges within its community of learners and what this might look like. However, as Kezar (2011b) highlights, although organizational learning is useful, it is highly philosophical and difficult to empirically

examine at times because of the numerous components and pieces that affect when and how an entire organization learns (p. 101). Different institutional priorities, actions, individuals, and other moving parts may affect the learning, and it is challenging to see an overall organizational approach to learning in a clear and cohesive way. That is why it was important to utilize this theory in combination with other frames.

Organizational Culture Theory

Definition and Previous Application of Theory. Finally, my framework uses organizational culture theory to explore my topic. The first two frames in my conceptual framework both focus on structures and systems within an organization that affect how data, information, evidence, and knowledge is received, transferred, created, and retained within the organization. Organizational culture theory allows me to understand institutional advancement divisions in a different way by focusing on what is valued by the organization along with what guides and affects behaviors for the organization. This frame is focused less on what systems are set up and rather on more implicit elements, centering on what is of importance and valued within an organization and gauges their willingness to change (Manning, 2017; Schein, 2010). Culture is often unexamined and accepted easily – in a sense, the organization is what it is and does what it does without hesitation; however, organizational culture is extremely important as it can guide institutional behavior, and this theoretical base highlights what is of greater or lesser importance and value to the organization (Bess & Dee, 2008; Birnbaum & Edelson, 1988).

Culture has been explored in a variety of different ways and through multiple lenses, but as Bess and Dee (2008) point out, most definitions “incorporate the idea of a shared philosophy or ideology, or a set of values, beliefs, expectations, and assumptions that guide behavior in a social system” (pp. 362-363). Culture is powerful within an organization because it is dynamic

and often drives action. Organizational culture theory allows one to better see how seemingly random occurrences, events, or processes are actually connected (Tierney, 2008). It enables one to make sense of what is driving behaviors and how members within the organization may interpret something differently (Tierney, 1988, 2008). Additionally, it highlights what power dynamics or organizational management structures within an organization's culture may be affecting one group more than another (Wolfe & Dilworth, 2015).

There is a strong literature base using organizational culture to better understand myriad different parts of colleges and universities. From an organizational change perspective, Kezar and Eckel (2002a, 2002b), in their two studies involving six higher education institutions, found that when an organization develops a deeper understanding of their culture, they are able to make more change and better communicate and work together within the organization. In their first study in 2002, Kezar and Eckel (2002b) utilize case study methodology to highlight the importance of sensemaking, meaning how organization members seek out information, give it meaning, and then act on this information (Kezar & Eckel, 2002b). Additionally, Kezar and Eckel (2002a), in their ethnographic study of six institutions, highlight the need for different strategies (administrator support, collaborative leadership, vision, staff development, and taking visible action) to create organizational change (p. 317). The authors showcase how organizations can make change by understanding their organizational culture more deeply and carrying out cultural audits to gauge their work and cultural understanding (Kezar & Eckel, 2002b).

Throughout various culture works (See Kezar, 2011a, 2013; O'Meara, 2002; Smart, Kuh, & Tierney, 1997), authors utilize organizational culture to highlight how values, norms, assumptions, and philosophies can affect the organization and its behavior and decision-making. Various factors, including history, power dynamics, and institutional best practices can affect

how an organization makes decisions and justifies these decisions. This deeper understanding of culture allows scholars to reflect and ask critical questions about organizational culture. For instance, in Wolfe and Dilworth (2015) the authors utilize a combination of critical race theory and cultural context to showcase how the organizational culture, including their organization's history and operations, of predominantly White institutions leads to an increase in disparity between White administrators and African American administrators. These "organizational norms" cause harm to administrators of color within institutions; as Wolfe and Dilworth (2015) point out, their work seeks to not only "inform stakeholders" but to promote change in organizational culture, transforming the way institutions recruit, retain, and assess representation of people of color at the university administrative level (p. 667). These concepts were critical in the study of evidence-informed institutional advancement in learning their ways of functioning. Just as in the case of organizational learning, understanding an organization's culture will not act as a solution to change. Critical theorists point out that top-level administrators may be driving organizational culture and decision-making, and power dynamics may lead to the silencing of people in the organization; therefore, it is important to be aware of and reflect on how these power dynamics may be affecting organizational members and the culture of the advancement shop (Bess & Dee, 2008).

Application of Organizational Culture Theory to Institutional Advancement. When exploring institutional advancement departments from an organizational culture perspective, different paradigmatic lenses can provide a deeper understanding of their behavior, values, and norms. From a positivist perspective, Schein (2010) provides valuable insights into framing and understanding advancement shops' culture. Positivism can be useful in identifying frequently observed types of culture and generalizations that can be made across organizations (Bess &

Dee, 2008, p. 364). Schein (2010) points to three different levels on which culture exists: artifacts, values, and basic assumptions. These three levels provide different focus areas to better explain organizational culture. Artifacts are directly observable pieces of an organization, such as technology used to turn inputs into outputs, written and spoken language, observed behaviors, and symbols (tangible representation of a concept or idea that carries meaning to the organization) (Schein, 2010). On the next level, one finds values. These are not observable like artifacts. Rather, these are deeply held feelings of the organization including ideals, goals, values, and aspirations (Schein, 2010). Values provide rationalizations for why organizations function in specific ways (Schein, 2010). Finally, organizations hold basic assumptions, which are unconscious and values and beliefs that are “taken for granted” (Schein, 2010, p. 24). These assumptions drive behavior for the organization and focus on the relation of the organization to its environment, reality, human nature, human activity, and human relationships (Schein, 2010). These different levels provide a structured way to explore institutional advancement divisions’ organizational culture and whether they value and make change based on specific types of evidence or knowledge. This framework’s usefulness comes from the study of not only physical elements and organizational structures but also on the focus on artifacts, values, and assumptions of the organization which may be guiding behavior in more implicit ways that need to be more deeply understood.

Furthermore, from a social constructionist perspective, one can gain a deeper awareness of organizational culture and how this can lead to organizational change (Bess & Dee, 2008; Kezar & Eckel, 2002a, 2002b). This theory highlights whether advancement shops are even willing to consider change based on different types of knowledge and evidence. Part of this work involves cultural audits (Kezar & Eckel, 2002a, 2002b). Tierney (1988) presents a useful

framework for understanding organizational culture and how changes occur within an organization based on cultural awareness through these audits. Cultural audits provide a tool for organizations to identify and understand their own organizational culture before making change. This tool allows one to better understand which cultural practices, such as rituals, ceremonies, language, technology, etc., guide behavior for advancement divisions (Bess & Dee, 2008; Tierney, 1988). Additionally, Tierney's (1988) organizational culture audit allows for questions around organizations' environment, mission, socialization, information, strategy, and leadership, which all play a role in culture (Bess & Dee, 2008). This reflection is critical because it allows me to slow the process down and understand what values and assumptions are driving organizational behavior and knowledge and evidence use by advancement shops (Bess & Dee, 2008) and what sense making is occurring (Kezar & Eckel, 2002a).

Final Conceptual Framework

Although one conceptual framework could not uncover all that can be understood on a subject or topic, my final conceptual framework purposely utilized a holistic organizational framework that begins to more deeply explore and understand what evidence and knowledge inform institutional advancement. As Bess and Dee (2008) point out, by utilizing organizational theory, members and leaders within an organization can see problems through various lenses, making sense of patterns and disrupting behaviors when necessary.

My conceptual framework rests on the idea of a multi-pronged approach in which both systems and structures *as well as* beliefs, behaviors, and values affect how institutional advancement shops learn and carry out their work. By creating a conceptual framework from these three different theories, I am able to explore important broad, intellectual questions, better understanding '*the what and the how*' of institutional advancement. *What* types of knowledge

and evidence do institutional advancement organizations value from an organizational culture lens, and do these align with what is actually used by practitioners in the field?; *What* evidence and knowledge informs their work most frequently? *How* do organizations store and manage knowledge and evidence for practitioners through different systems and structures?; *How* do they find, learn, and share knowledge and evidence within the organization and with other organizations in the field? *How* do different organizational and individual characteristics affect the evidence and knowledge that is valued, used, and shared? The focus on the organizational level begins to bring to light these ideas.

My framework can be explained by both Figure 2.1 and Figure 2.2. Earlier, Figure 2.1 highlighted the general systems understanding of institutional advancement organizations. It allows me to see how systems and structures for learning and sharing knowledge and evidence takes place. Figure 2.2 (below) then builds on this systems understanding and highlights what takes places within the organizational ‘black box’ from an EIPP, organizational lens. Various forms of evidence and knowledge interact with one another within an organization, and the ways that knowledge and evidence are learned, shared, and valued provide a deeper understanding of what informs the work of the advancement shops. For example, if an organization encourages their members to go to conferences for further learning, this shows that there is a structure for learning in place in the organization; but, if these conferences only focus on less research-based knowledge and evidence, then one can see that explicit and tacit knowledge is more valued and is guiding the organization. By focusing on both the structure and system (i.e., the conference) and the knowledge and evidence that is valued and used (i.e., the content of the conference), I am able to gain a much more holistic, systemic understanding of advancement.

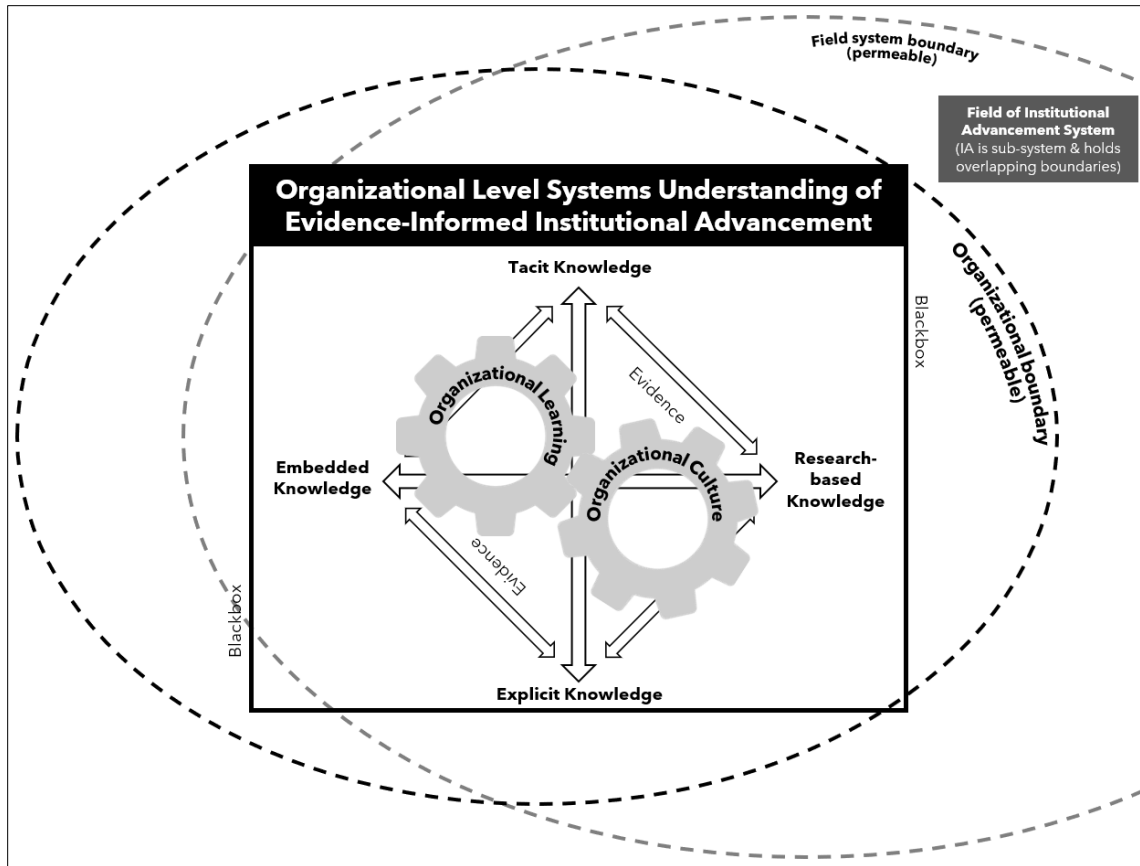


Figure 2.2 Organizational Level Systems Understanding of Evidence-Informed Institutional Advancement

My conceptual framework helps bring into focus the “contingent, interactive, and iterative” process of understanding advancement from an organizational, EIPP perspective (Tseng & Nutley, 2014, p. 165). In Tseng & Nutley’s (2014) chapter on building the infrastructure to improve the use of research, the authors point to the importance of an organizational focus: “research use [does not] easily boil down to a single moment or an isolated decision. It is not a simple process whereby research “facts” are passed from researchers to research users and then applied in a linear decision-making process” (p. 165). This linear ideal is too simplistic in evidence use. My final framework is rooted in sociological organizational studies because it examines “how individuals construct organizational structures, processes, and

practices and how these, in turn, shape social relations and create institutions that ultimately influence people” (Clegg & Bailey, 2007, p. xliii). Although an individual can change their practices on a personal level based on different types of evidence presented to them, this does not showcase how organizations can make systemic changes to affect how they understand and utilize different types of evidence and knowledge to improve their practice (Walter et al., 2004). The individual is not ignored in organizational studies because they are the members carrying out the work and holding different types of knowledge, setting up systems and routines, and carrying out work based on the culture of the organization; however, the focus cannot be merely on the individual because that makes it difficult to see the entire picture of what factors might be affecting evidence use and what systems and structures can improve practice and evidence use on a larger scale. With CASE currently serving approximately 3,400 institutional members, one can see how vast the field of institutional advancement truly is, and this is why it is important for me to understand these advancement organizations and their practice on a deeper level (Council for Advancement and Support of Education, 2020).

However, it is also essential to bind my conceptual framework appropriately in my study. Walter et al. (2004) point out the importance of a whole systems approach to making changes within an entire field or discipline, such as social services, healthcare, or education. However, as this work on EIPP in institutional advancement is in its infancy, it is important to put restrictions on the focus of this study. A whole systems approach will be necessary in the future to make changes to the entire field of philanthropy in higher education (Walter et al, 2004), but this is a long way down the road. To make changes to a larger whole system, such as the field of institutional advancement, it is first important to understand what takes place within organizations. It is necessary to first understand advancement shops from an EIPP organizational

lens before attempting whole systems changes (Boaz, Davies, et al., 2019b; Walter et al., 2004). My study lands between the individual and whole systems approaches.

As one can see, my final conceptual framework uses a holistic organizational framework that allows me to better understand what evidence and knowledge informs institutional advancement and the systems and structures in place for learning and sharing this knowledge. The organizational framework above in combination with the literature base and tenets of EIPP allows me to dig into the ‘*what and how*’ of institutional advancement. *What* types of knowledge and evidence are valued and guide the work of advancement? *How* is knowledge and evidence stored, managed, and shared? *How* do different organizational and individual characteristics affect the evidence and knowledge that is valued, used, and shared? My concentration on the organizational level begins to answer these questions and push the field towards a more systemic understanding of their work within and across organizations.

Chapter 3: Methodology

The following chapter lays out my methodology and rationale for this choice in my dissertation. My study relies on a cross-sectional survey method. This section delves into the purpose, rationale, and nature of the survey along with the process and sampling strategy I utilized. In addition, my third chapter details the content areas of my survey instrument and data analysis plan.

Purpose of Study

In deciding the methodology for my dissertation, I looked to both the tenets of evidence-informed practice and policy (EIPP) and my conceptual framework to inform this decision. As stated earlier, EIPP highlights that there are multiple factors affecting how organizations function: research knowledge; practitioners' explicit and tacit knowledge and experience' organizational processes, routines, structures, and norms; databases and stored information; organizational culture; and more (Nelson & Campbell, 2017; Nevo & Slonim-Nevo, 2011).

Research Questions

My survey instrument utilized seven categorical blocks of questions focused on a combination of individual and organizational level queries to explore my research questions:

1. To what extent do advancement divisions value certain types of evidence and knowledge?
2. What types of evidence and knowledge do advancement divisions utilize to inform their practice and policies?
 - a. What organizational practices and individual and organizational characteristics, if any, affect which knowledge guides the work of advancement organizations (i.e., tacit, explicit, embedded, and research-based knowledge)?

3. What organizational learning systems and structures are in place both within and outside advancement organizations that guide practice and internal policy making?
4. What sociodemographic and organizational characteristics, if any, show a relationship with systems and structures of knowledge management and mobilization of institutional advancement shops?

Rationale

As discussed previously in Chapter 2, Walter et al. (2004) point out that by exploring a field or discipline from an EIPP lens, their practice can be more deeply understood and meaningful changes can be made to whole systems to improve work. This deeper understanding and changes come from an awareness of tacit, explicit, and embedded knowledge along with an injecting of new ideas through research knowledge and evidence. However, before making whole systems changes, the organizations within this larger system must be better understood. I, therefore, utilized a survey methodology to gain a deeper understanding of my research questions to find generalizable commonalities and distinctions both within organizations and across a large group of advancement organizations. This will help to both deepen awareness of these shops *and* drive meaningful change in the field of institutional advancement to better serve both the constituents of the organizations in more inclusive and equitable ways and ensure the long-term sustainability of the organizations.

Although qualitative techniques such as interviews would have allowed me to answer these questions, survey data better allowed me to identify generalizable patterns and findings across the field of institutional advancement (Creswell, 2018; Leavy, 2017; Ruel, Wagner III, & Gillespie, 2015). Survey methods enabled me to examine individuals' attitudes, beliefs, opinions, experiences, and behaviors within the organizations in my sample (Gitomer & Crouse, 2019;

Leavy, 2017). Drezner and Huehls (2014) point out that most of the literature and resources available on philanthropy and higher education use atheoretical methods and findings to inform practice; my reliance on a survey methodology built on these sources of knowledge and evidence in a research-based way to then begin to drive larger-scale, systems-wide change for advancement shops to improve and grow the already impactful work they carry out each day as practitioners.

Positionality

As I undertook my study, it is important for me to be aware of my positionality carrying out this research. Positionality is often used in qualitative studies, but it is beginning to be seen as important in quantitative work as well for validity as quantitative methods and statistics are not without bias (Curran & Randall, n.d.; Garcia, López, & Vélez, 2018; Jafar, 2018).

Throughout my study, I kept my positionality in mind, which I delve into below. This involved reflexivity as well, keeping in mind my own experiences, values, and opinions and how these can be both a strength and something to be aware of as I analyzed and interpreted my results (Jafar, 2018).

For most of my career as a higher education practitioner, I have worked in institutional advancement. My positions have included practice and duties in all five functional areas laid out by CASE (alumni relations, communications, development, marketing, and advancement services) and beyond. This is important to my study because it provides me with a unique vantage point: It gave me an understanding of the experience of practitioners in the field, working incredibly hard every day to carry out their work using different types of knowledge and evidence. I have seen firsthand how practitioners strive to improve practice, using data, information, evidence, and knowledge in their unique contexts. Additionally, I attended

conferences, professional development events, webinars, courses, and consortium meetings as a practitioner, leaning on the expertise of fellow practitioners and thought leaders to better understand advancement practices and internal policy making.

However, in addition to these rich and rewarding experiences as a practitioner, I wrestled with the disconnect between the connections of research and practice. In searching for research-based evidence and knowledge, I struggled to first find resources. In 2013, I sat down at my computer as a master's graduate student, searching for hours for research on advancement. Much of what I came across was practitioner authored, which was immensely helpful, but I felt a need to search for research that might look at practice in different ways, through different lenses. It was through my roots as a graduate student that I decided to search the university library system, and I came across Professor Noah Drezner's research. Through conversations with him, he graciously led me to a number of other research-based pieces (e.g. Cabrales, 2013b; Drezner, 2005, 2009, 2010a, 2010b; Drezner, 2011, 2013a, 2013b; Drezner & Gupta, 2012; Drezner & Huehls, 2014; Garvey & Drezner, 2013; Gasman, 2002; M. Gasman & S. Anderson-Thompkins, 2003; Gasman & Bowman III, 2012, 2013; Gasman et al., 2011; Proper, 2011; Proper & Caboni, 2014; Sun, Hoffman, & Grady, 2007; Thelin & Trollinger, 2014; Tsunoda, 2010, 2013a; Weerts, 2007; Weerts, Cabrera, & Sanford, 2010; Weerts & Ronca, 2006, 2007, 2008, 2009). As I thought about my experiences searching for different knowledge and evidence around advancement, I thought '*How could it be easier for practitioners and researchers to share knowledge and evidence?*' It was actually through these first searches for research on advancement that that led me to the desire to study philanthropy in higher education. I saw the gaps and disconnects between advancement practice and research on advancement. Even as I delved into key research studies on philanthropy in higher education, it was difficult to use the

findings in practice and implement new techniques based on the research. These experiences and the tension from the practitioner side and researcher side directly inform the approach of my study. I weave these different parts of my positionality into my methods, survey building, processes, procedures, analysis, and more. I was able to build a stronger survey and recognize patterns of practice through my lenses as both a practitioner and researcher in combination with my rigorous research processes and procedures.

By recognizing my positionality, I am better able “to clarify how [I am] positioned regarding the research and the researched” (Roberts, Bareket-Shavit, Dollins, Goldie, & Mortenson, 2020, p. 1305). And part of my positionality is also using reflexivity throughout my study because of the two professional and education positions I hold. As Jafar (2018) writes, it can be easy to lean towards one role or another, in this case my role as a practitioner carrying out research as a ‘scholar-practitioner.’ It is important for those reading my study to understand “who is doing the measuring” (p. 324). I practiced reflexivity, which means I used self-reflection throughout to recognize how I might be analyzing and interpreting my results (Jafar, 2018). I continuously questioned how I carried out my study and leaned on the empirical methods, processes, and procedures throughout. Furthermore, I checked in with my advisor and other practitioners and scholars to ensure I was looking at the results in different ways. This allows for a rich, deeply informed study that is informed by both my roles as a scholar and a practitioner.

Survey Process & Procedures

The process for the development and conducting of my survey mirrored the process taken by scholarly pieces who both lay out the tenets of, and utilize, survey methodology. There were two phases of this process. The first involved cognitive interviews with advancement practitioners to talk with them about their experiences as practitioners through an EIPP and

organizational framework lens. The second was through practitioner and scholar survey review processes and testing the instrument out through piloting the survey. This process mirrored process steps in previous scholarly works. For example, I looked to Garvey (2016) in his survey deployment of The National LGBTQ Alumni Survey conducted in spring 2014 to inform my work. Garvey's process included three phases that guided my procedures: 1) instrument review by content experts, 2) pilot study, and 3) survey deployment (p. 749-750).

Pre-Survey Cognitive Interviews with Practitioners

To begin the process of building out an evidence-informed, organizational level survey that honored the experience and knowledge of practitioners in the field, I first carried out five cognitive interviews with current advancement practitioners. These interviews took place over Zoom for an hour each; they started with an introduction and further explanation of my dissertation topic and included defining key concepts of EIPP and my organizational framework. I then asked five broad, open-ended questions to each of the interviewees based on these definitions and framework. Participants were selected based on two factors. The first was through personal connections that myself or members of my dissertation committee had to institutional advancement divisions within my sample. The second was a validity check in two ways: 1) I worked to ensure that five different institution types were represented in these interviews based on Carnegie Classification, institution size, and total yearly support; and 2) I asked one individual from each of the five functional areas of advancement laid out by CASE (alumni relations, communications, development, marketing, and advancement services) to ensure my survey took into account the practice and norms of each.

During the interviews, the five questions asked revolved around their individual understanding as members of advancement organizations on: knowledge, learning of new

knowledge, evidence sources, knowledge sharing, and lastly, preferences of specific types of knowledge and evidence over others. The conversation was open and free flowing to allow space for my learning as to what EIPP and organizational systems, culture, and learning look like at each of their organizations. I took extensive notes in each conversation, and these notes then directly informed my survey items along with my literature review. A full copy of my survey instrument can be found in Appendix A.

Instrument Review

Throughout my instrument review process, I carried out multiple validity checks for the survey I deployed (Creswell, 2018). I tested for validity through instrument review of the survey by content experts and potential respondents (Garvey, 2016; Glasgow, 2005; Levy & Lemeshow, 2008). I first created a draft of the survey based on my interviews and literature on EIPP and organizational systems, learning, and culture. Then, before deploying the survey to my full sample, I shared the survey with two ‘content experts’ who understood institutional advancement and research and statistical modeling and analysis (Glasgow, 2005). This sharing took place both through written feedback from the experts and through cognitive interviews to understand how to improve my instrument (Gitomer & Crouse, 2019). By ensuring that these content experts understood both the field and survey analysis, this made certain that the survey was valid and grounded in theoretical, evidence-based methods (Glasgow, 2005; Levy & Lemeshow, 2008). Furthermore, by sharing with scholars who understood quantitative methods, it ensured that items were designed correctly so that variables could be coded easily and statistical analysis could be carried out to answer my research questions (Levy & Lemeshow, 2008).

Pilot Study & Post-Survey Creation Cognitive Interviews

In addition to this review by the two context experts, it was also important to share with potential respondents, i.e. advancement practitioners, to pilot the study. Creswell (2018) states that pilot testing allows to further establish content validity of the instrument, evaluate internal consistency, and improve questions, format, and instructions (p. 154). The pilot study was sent to two individuals in my overall survey group after contacting them ahead of time to ask them if they would be willing to be a part of the pilot group. The pilot group included individuals from two different organizations and organization types based on size, Carnegie classification, total yearly support, and other distinct factors.

It was critical for me that these respondents included practitioners working within the field. This allowed the opportunity for respondents “to critique the overall functioning of the survey as well as items and accompanying factors” (Garvey, 2016, p. 749). This was an important step as it helped make sure that the questions made sense for respondents and that contestations of questions were reviewed while properly binding the feedback on this first review. These results further increased the validity of my instrument as their feedback aided in similar processes as the instrument review by content experts. Upon completion of my survey pilot and after edits and additions/deletions, I then deployed my survey to the full population sample.

Full Survey Deployment & Timeline

My final step was deployment of the survey to the full group of organizations in my sample (214 institutions); my goal with this full deployment was to receive enough responses for a representative sample (Garvey, 2016; Leavy, 2017). In order to reach these individuals and obtain this representative sample, I utilized two methods for outreach.

First, I built a list of organizational point-person contacts in my sample (Miles & Huberman, 1994) from publicly available website information that included names, titles, and email addresses. I reached out to these individuals for two reasons: 1) to share the purpose and background of my study, and 2) to ask them to share the survey invitation with the staff members in their organization. This process yielded meaningful engagement with institutions, however, it only led to just over 180 total sign ups of individuals willing to take my survey. This was not a large enough sample for generalizability of my results. Therefore, I moved to my second outreach method.

In my second outreach method, I built a comprehensive list of all individuals who worked in the advancement organizations in my sample by obtaining their names, titles, and email contact information from their publicly available websites and/or institutional directories. This list included all institutions who had previously not responded to my survey in the first outreach method (176 institutions total; 14,666 individual names and emails, of which 13,515 were contactable email addresses after email delivery from Qualtrics).

My timeline for survey deployment began in mid-October 2021 with initial outreach to organization contacts. After the initial emails to contact persons at each institution and two additional reminders, I moved to outreach method two one month later in mid-November 2021. Over November and through mid-December, I deployed my survey to five total sub-groups of individuals, equaling 13,515 delivered emails (as mentioned above). Each group was first emailed my full invitation with a unique link and then sent two subsequent reminders. The first reminder was delivered to unfinished respondents two weeks after the first invite, and the second, final reminder was sent one week later. The invited individuals were given one month

from the first invitation to complete the survey. The final rounds of emails were sent in mid-December 2021.

Sample

My final sample of 214 institutions (Table 3.1 below) was built based on my previous discussion on Walter et al.'s (2004) framing of the whole systems approach. My study sought to push, through survey methodology, the current understanding of evidence use and knowledge in advancement; however, as this work is in its infancy, my study had to be appropriately bound to a select number of institutions versus attempting to contact thousands of institutions, across dozens of institution types in the U.S. Rather, my study sought participants from a specific group of institutions that was pre-decided. This decision was based on two factors: 1) My organizational framework and 2) the sample size I needed for generalizable findings in the field of advancement.

Organizational Framework for Sampling. In order to understand organizational systems, learning, and culture elements within and across organizations for a deeper organizational understanding, it was important that the advancement shops in my sample were fully established with historical practices and functional work carried out in the five areas of institutional advancement (alumni relations, communications, development, marketing, and advancement services) (Council for Advancement and Support of Education, n.d.-f; Skinner, 2019; Thelin & Trollinger, 2014).

I worked to gather responses from the various functional area departments within these shops and responses from various staff levels, including their leadership teams and mid-level and entry level staff. By focusing on gathering data “disaggregated by groups of interest, such as by organization, hierarchical level, or role,” I was then able to gain a deeper understanding of how

organizational systems and structures (i.e. position type, staff networks and relationships, sub-teams, etc.) may impact the answers to my research questions (Gitomer & Crouse, 2019, p. 28). Furthermore, this allowed me to look for congruence and differences both within and across organizations in the ways they utilize and share knowledge, evidence, data, and information to inform and drive their practice. I was then able to understand how the larger field of advancement affected the practices, behaviors, values, and other components of advancement organizations.

Final Survey Sample. To ensure that my findings could be generalizable to understand the field of advancement, I worked with my dissertation committee to set response goals for my survey based on number of individuals and total organizations. I sought multiple respondents from within each institution, aiming for an average of six people per organization, with the hope of achieving at least 500 total responses and a minimum of a 10% response rate. With these numbers in mind, I utilized CASE's AMAtlas Data Miner tool to pull my initial data set (Table 3.1). AMAtlas is "a global resource for educational advancement-related metrics, benchmarks and analytics" (Council for Advancement and Support of Education, n.d.-a, para. 1). Within AMAtlas lives their Data Miner, which "is CASE's longitudinal and comparative metrics on-line reporting solution with data on charitable giving to U.S. educational institutions collected through the Voluntary Support of Education (VSE) survey" (Council for Advancement and Support of Education, n.d.-b, para. 1). The Data Miner includes important organizational markers such as yearly total support, the Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS) ID numbers, Carnegie classifications, and more.

Table 3.1 Organizational Characteristics of Organizations Invited to Participate in Survey

Organizational Characteristic	Frequency
Total Institutions	214
Private/Public	97 Private / 117 Public
Carnegie Classification	
<i>Associate's Colleges: Mixed Transfer/Vocational & Technical</i>	1
<i>Baccalaureate Colleges: Arts & Sciences Focus</i>	35
<i>Doctoral Universities: High Research Activity</i>	37
<i>Doctoral Universities: Very High Research Activity</i>	116
<i>Doctoral/Professional Universities</i>	7
<i>Master's Colleges & Universities: Larger Programs</i>	5
<i>Master's Colleges & Universities: Medium Programs</i>	1
<i>Master's Colleges & Universities: Small Programs</i>	1
<i>Special Focus Four-Year: Business & Management Schools</i>	1
<i>Special Focus Four-Year: Medical Schools & Centers</i>	9
<i>Special Focus Four-Year: Other Health Professions Schools</i>	1
Land Grant Institutions	52
United States Census Regions*	
<i>Northeast</i>	59
<i>Midwest</i>	41
<i>South</i>	67
<i>West</i>	47

* Based on the 2010 U.S. Census Regions, see reference “2010 Census regions and divisions of the United States” for further information.

By using this AMAtlas tool data miner, I was able to then pinpoint a group of 214 institutions through a cutoff point of total yearly support of \$25 million or more. I then merged and combined variables and data from AMAtlas and the IPEDS ‘Compare Institutions’ tool to create my final institutional data set (Table 3.1).

This number of institutions helped me achieve two objectives: First, it made certain that my sample included enough institutions to obtain a generalizable sample size; and secondly, by

including organizations who fundraise \$25 million or more a year, I was able to capture responses from institutions who generally employ staff in all five functional areas of advancement. Both of these objectives aided me in a deeper understanding of these organizations through the lens of my conceptual framework and a whole systems, field-level approach.

Survey Instrument

In referencing back to my research questions and conceptual framework, my survey instrument (Appendix A) used a cross-sectional survey procedure to understand the current point of time and the context of what affects the knowledge and evidence organizations use in advancement organizations (Creswell, 2018; Ruel et al., 2015). It did not measure any change over time, but this is a possibility for future research opportunities. The survey I deployed consisted of answers from individuals that spoke to their individual practices within their organization and their organizational understanding of the shop in which they work. These specific question categories each tied directly back to my research questions (Table 3.2).

Table 3.2 Conceptual Framework Categories in Survey & Corresponding Research Questions

	RQ 1	RQ 2	RQ 3	RQ 4
<i>Respondent Level</i>				
Demographics & Professional/Education Background	✓	✓	✓	✓
Knowledge & Evidence Use		✓		
<i>Organization-level</i>				
Structure, Characteristics & Demographics	✓	✓	✓	✓
Culture	✓			
Organizational Systems: Knowledge Management, Organization Learning & Knowledge Mobilization			✓	✓
Knowledge & Evidence Use		✓		

When building my survey, I clearly defined key concepts. Previous EIPP research projects highlight the importance of defining key concepts to increase validity in the survey and project. In their methodological paper on the use of research evidence, Gitomer and Crouse (2019) discuss the importance of defining concepts such as research, evidence, knowledge, knowledge transfer, and other key ideas. By doing so, rather than respondents focusing on the different ways they might personally define research, evidence, and knowledge, they can more clearly answer about their organization based on this shared understanding within the survey. My survey defined and laid out each of these concepts based on common themes from EIPP literature across fields and disciplines. I was then able to explore, from the organizational level, what knowledge and evidence informs and drives the work, practices, policies, and behaviors of advancement shops and the reasons for this within the organizations.

Categories

Literature and scholarship on EIPP and organizational theoretical frames informed the categories of my survey (see Table 3.3, p. 99, Column 1). Based on these frames and my research questions, my survey included seven categorical blocks, each with corresponding questions (Table 3.4). Questions were crafted based on a literature review of surveys carried out on tenets of EIPP, organizational systems, organizational cultures, and organizational learning. In specific instances (noted by an asterisk in Table 3.3), question wording and selection options were directly informed by previous research-based surveys. The first three sections were individual-level based questions, and the final four sections were based on their organizational

understanding of the advancement shop in which they practice. All questions were a part of the content expert review and pilot testing process.

Category 1: Introductory Letter & Informed Consent. Block 1 included the Introductory Letter & Informed Consent, which were both informed and approved by the Teachers College, Columbia University Institutional Review Board. Although this is a required section for my survey, it is worth noting that the questions under this section included an ‘optional consent for future contact’ for both this study and additional studies. This was an important component of my dissertation, as my study is a foundational study in the increased understanding of knowledge and evidence use in advancement. Future studies can delve into the findings of my dissertation and seek to address the limitations through outreach to my study participants, which is a critical component of a whole systems understanding of how organizations function in a field or discipline (Walter et al., 2004).

Category 2: Individual Demographics. It was important to first understand more about the respondents and their own personal identities and experiences. Scholars highlight that importance of ensuring that social identities are honored and explored in research; peoples’ identities and the intersecting of different identities and experiences are important in how people encounter the world, behave, create connections, and form groups (Drezner, 2013b, 2018; Tajfel, Turner, Austin, & Worchel, 1979; Tajfel, Turner, Worchel, & Austin, 1986; Turner & Reynolds, 2010). Drezner and Huehls (2014) point out that these groups allow participants to create and feel a sense of belonging and social identity within the social world.

Table 3.5 Survey Categories Based on Conceptual Framework

Block No. Category	No. of Questions	Informed by
1) Intro Letter & Informed Consent	5	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Teachers College, Columbia IRB
2) Individual Demographics	12	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Badgett et al. (2014). <i>Best practices for asking questions to identify transgender and other gender minority respondents*</i> • Drezner (n.d.-b). <i>The Tzedakah Lab, Teachers College, Columbia University*</i>
3) Individual Professional and Academic Background	13	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Dissertation author’s own personal knowledge as a higher education and advancement practitioner
4) Individual-Level Knowledge & Evidence Use	9	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Beyer and Trice (1982). <i>The utilization process: A conceptual framework and synthesis of empirical findings*</i> • Boaz, Davies, Nutley, and Fraser (2019). <i>What works now?: Evidence informed policy and practice</i> • Brennan et al. (2017). <i>Development & validation of SEER*</i> • Dammann and Smart (2018). <i>Causation in population health informatics and data science*</i> • Oxford University Press (2020a, 2020b). <i>Definition of knowledge and evidence in English*</i> • Gamble and Blackwell (2001). <i>Knowledge management*</i> • Horvath (2000). <i>The knowledge management yearbook</i> • Johnston, Leung, Fielding, Tin, and Ho (2003). <i>The development and validation of a knowledge, attitude and behaviour questionnaire*</i> • Larsen (1980). <i>Knowledge utilization: What is it?*</i> • Madhavan and Grover (1998). <i>From embedded knowledge to embodied knowledge*</i> • Palinkas et al. (2016). <i>Measuring use of research evidence*</i> • Penuel, Farrell, Allen, Toyama, and Coburn (2018). <i>What research district leaders find useful*</i> • Weiss (1979). <i>The many meanings of research utilization*</i>
5) Organizational Structure & Characteristics	6	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • CASE AMAtlas • IPEDS Data Miner
6) Organizational Culture: Attitudes/Values/Norms/Decision-Making & Organizational Systems: Consultants	5	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Brennan et al. (2017) (see above)* • Kezar (2011a). <i>Organizational culture and its impact on...</i> • Powell et al. (2017) (see above)* • Schein (2010). <i>Organizational culture and leadership</i>
7) Organizational Systems: Knowledge Management & Organizational Learning: Knowledge Mobilization	3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • ARNA (n.d.). <i>Knowledge mobilization</i> • Argyris and Schön (1996). <i>Organizational learning II.</i> • Davies et al. (2015). <i>Mobilising knowledge*</i> • Garvin, Edmondson, and Gino (2008). <i>Is yours a learning organization?*</i> • Kezar (2005). <i>Organizational learning in higher education</i> • Ontario Institute for Studies in Education (n.d.). <i>Terminology: What is knowledge mobilization?</i> • Sohail and Daud (2009). <i>Knowledge sharing in higher education institutions*</i>
8) Text box for additional thoughts	1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • No sources informed question

* Directly informed wording and selection options for survey questions

It is critical to include social identity and demographic questions in surveys to better understand what variables may show a significant correlational relationship with certain identities or characteristics. To better understand and support diversity, equity, inclusion, and belonging, organizations must do more than go through the motions (Gurchiek, 2021); social identity cannot be ignored and must be honored; one of the first steps in making organizational and evidence-based change in practice is understanding relationships between what might be affecting individual behavior and to further explore this in research and organizational efforts (Drezner & Huehls, 2014). My survey asked questions around age, sexual orientation, gender identity and expression, and race and ethnicity. These questions included queries that were derived from two main sources: 1) Professor Noah Drezner's identity-based philanthropy and belonging research and work through The Tzedakah Lab at Teachers College Columbia University, 2) by the work of Badgett et al. (2014) at the UCLA Williams School of Law Institute, *Best Practices for Asking Questions to Identify Transgender and Other Gender Minority Respondents On Population-Based Surveys (GenIUSS)*.

Category 3: Individual Professional and Academic Background. In the third block of questions, these items asked about their individual professional and academic background. These questions were asked for the same reasoning as above in terms of seeking greater understanding around any correlations and relationships between how evidence and knowledge is used and shared and: organizational and supervisory roles; functional areas; total years of experience; educational attainment; and previous work experience. As previously discussed, Katz and Kahn (1978) highlight in their work with systems theory that there are connections in organizational systems between their different parts, structures, roles, and components and with the

environment. These questions are asked to begin to explore possible phenomena in relationship to additional variables.

Category 4: Individual-Level Knowledge & Evidence Use. The fourth block of questions was laid out in a specific order with clear intention. The first group of questions (Q. 4.2 – 4.6) are centered on a foundational understanding of what knowledge drives their work as individuals as they carry out their duties in their organization. Questions 4.2 – 4.5 asked four Likert scale questions (Never, Sometimes, Frequently, All the Time) on how often they utilize the four types of knowledge found in my literature review (tacit, explicit, embedded, and research-based). In these questions, I provided clear definitions of knowledge and evidence from previous research and gave definitions and examples of each knowledge type so the respondents could provide their answers with a shared understanding for increased validity as discussed earlier in this paper (Gitomer & Crouse, 2019). In Q2.6, I then asked respondents to rank what types of knowledge they use the most out of the four knowledge types in their every-day practice.

The next question (Q4.7) in Category 4 was again a Likert scale response grouping based on frequency of behaviors (Never, Sometimes, Frequently, All the time). This group of questions was a conditional question that was presented only to those who selected that they do utilize research-based knowledge in their practice (Q4.5). If they selected either “sometimes,” ‘frequently,’ or ‘all the time’ for using research-based knowledge in Q4.5, Q4.7 was shown.

In exploring the possibilities for study implications, this increased understanding of how practitioners engage with, and use, research-based knowledge allowed for deeper discussion of possible next steps in terms of advancement research, knowledge management and mobilization, and research-practice partnerships. This question grouping was informed by and derived from

multiple research-based scholarly works. First, the foundational work of Weiss (1979) around the types of research utilization. Secondly, Brennan et al. (2017) in the survey in their manuscript *Development and Validation Of SEER (Seeking, Engaging With And Evaluating Research): A Measure Of Policymakers' Capacity to Engage with and Use Research*. Next, Beyer and Trice (1982) and their conceptual framework and synthesis of empirical findings; and finally, Larsen (1980) on knowledge utilization. This set of questions asked respondents about their own engagement in scholarly research and if they engage in 'conceptual, instrumental, symbolic/tactical, and imposed' ways (see Question 4.7) (Beyer & Trice, 1982; Brennan et al., 2017; Larsen, 1980; Weiss, 1979). The wording of questions and Likert choice options were directly derived from the survey put together and tested by Brennan et al. (2017).

The fourth group of questions (Q4.8) was informed by the pieces in Table 3.3, Column 4 and utilized a Likert Scale ranging from Strongly Disagree to Strongly Agree (Q4.8). These questions asked participants about what knowledge and evidence they think should drive the work of advancement shops as systems made up of individuals within an organization. These questions highlighted what respondents *believe* is important in the work and practice of advancement shops, even if their organization may not be set up in this way currently. The questions touch again on tacit, explicit, embedded, and research-based knowledge and evidence. Furthermore, these questions gauged respondents' understanding on how their practices are informed and driven by what other organizations are doing.

The fifth and final group of questions in this block (Q4.9) asked participants to select the frequency in which they use specific knowledge and evidence sources based on a Likert Scale (Never, Sometimes, Frequently, All the time). The first four groups of questions were based on what *types* of knowledge and evidence are, and should, most often be used, whereas, this group

of questions pointed to *specific sources* of knowledge and evidence, i.e., websites, books, articles, news media, professional organizations, consultants, libraries, trainings, guidebooks, etc. These sources were based on an amalgamation of knowledge and evidence source survey items from multiple surveys (e.g. Johnston et al., 2003; Palinkas et al., 2016; Penuel et al., 2018) and my personal understanding of sources as a researcher and advancement and higher education practitioner.

Category 5: Organizational Structure & Characteristics. The fifth categorical block makes the shift from respondent-level questions to items based on organizational structures and characteristics. As the survey I created stated, the respondents were asked to answer the survey items ‘based on their understanding of your organization, not based on their personal practices or views.’ These items asked respondents about the organization in which they practice. My conceptual framework rests at the organizational level to more clearly understand how a group of individuals take part in learning, process and policy creation, practice, and more (Collinson & Cook, 2007; Nutley et al., 2007a). As explored previously in Nutley et al. (2007a), it is crucial in organizational studies to focus on both individuals and how individuals exist and work within an organization to better understand how knowledge and evidence are found, learned, and put into practice. By including questions on both the respondent and organizational level, I could better identify patterns within and across organizations for a more holistic understanding of what was taking place and relationships between variables.

The variables in this block included items on total staff members, total living alumni of their institution, and organization structure (centralized, decentralized, or co-administered). These items were then bolstered for analysis by previously collected data from CASE AMAtlas Data Miner and IPEDS. This additional data included Carnegie Classification, public or private

control, athletic conference, land grant status, geographical region, and total support in the most recent fiscal year. By gathering organizational characteristics and structure data from respondents and combining with previously collected data, it allowed me to run data analysis on relationships between these characteristics and other variables in my survey.

Category 6: Organizational Culture & Consultant Systems. In alignment with my conceptual framework, the sixth block of questions dealt with two interrelated facets: organizational culture and the use of consultants as an organizational system. This consultant component is further discussed below and is tied to the pre-survey cognitive interviews performed with practitioners. This category of questions dug into behaviors and actions that take place within an organization and values that are placed on types of knowledge and evidence used as well division. (Manning, 2017; Schein, 2010). As talked about earlier in Chapter 2, the culture of organizations is based on more implicit elements and begins to more deeply examine why an organization ‘does what it does’ (Bess & Dee, 2008; Birnbaum & Edelson, 1988; Manning, 2017; Schein, 2010). In addition, these items allowed me to begin to draw connections to what may appear to be random occurrences, events, or processes that are actually connected – and in relation to this connectedness, I can also see what ‘values’ and ‘basic assumptions’ may be driving behavior (Schein, 2010; Tierney, 2008).

The first group of questions (Q6.1) is based on a frequency Likert Scale again (Never, Sometimes, Frequently, All the time). These questions asked respondents about how often their organization encourages both the use of *and* creation of: scholarly research-based works, explicit materials like guidebooks and manuals, and more tacit, experiential pieces connected to explicit methods to share with colleagues in the field like publications or tools.

In addition, the survey asked about whether there is value seen in utilizing consultants in their organization (Q6.2 - 6.4). These items were derived from the pre-survey cognitive interviews with practitioners in which nearly all interviewees mentioned their organization's use of outside consultants to guide their work – it was a cultural practice to bring in fresh perspectives and rely on the consultants' knowledge and evidence to inform organizational work, projects, processes, and campaigns. If participants in the survey answered that their shop did at least sometimes utilize consultants in Q6.1, the survey then would show three conditional questions about frequency of consultant use, which departments utilized consultants, and what consultants they most frequently used.

These questions were followed up with a ranking question (Q6.5) for all respondents, asking them to rank what matters most to least when their organization makes decisions. Options for this ranking highlighted fellow institutional behaviors, previous successes with a program, professional organization recommendations, and research-based evidence for the approach.

Category 7: Organizational Systems of Knowledge Management & Organizational Learning through Knowledge Mobilization. The final survey question block combined elements of both organizational systems theory and organizational learning theory. Systems theory and organizational learning theory are both used in previous literature to frame a clearer understanding of both knowledge management (KM) systems and Knowledge Mobilization (KMb) practices to better understand how knowledge is storied, mobilized, shared, learned, and used in the division. As discussed earlier in Chapter 2, Luhmann (1995) points out that systems theory can aid in more clearly understanding how complex structures and organizations function. Information flow, structures set up for storing and accessing knowledge, and more can be brought into focus by utilizing this theory (Luhmann, 1995). Knowledge management highlights

systems for storing knowledge, both formal and informal. Numerous internal and external systems and infrastructures exist within organizations for KM (Knowledge Management Tools, 2018c). Structures such as journal and library databases and document collections are used in organizations to store knowledge that can then be shared (Davenport et al., 1998; Rowley, 2000). Furthermore, formal consortiums and communities of practice along with less formal group interactions, social networks, and impromptu conversations play a role in KM systems within organizations (Buisse et al., 2003; Knowledge Management Tools, 2018c; Rowley, 2000).

These KM systems and infrastructures work in tandem with organizational learning through the tenets of KMB. Earlier in the literature review of my study, I highlighted the core principle that individuals make up an organization, but the knowledge and evidence sources that exist outlast individuals as people come and go from the organization. Organizational goals, behaviors, structures, and norms are all affected by what knowledge and evidence sources exist and are utilized (Hedberg, 1981; Nutley et al., 2007a). As Argyris and Schön (1996) write, organizations use knowledge and evidence to learn more and work to become better at their craft through the “ability to see things in new ways, gain new understandings, and produce new patterns of behaviors” (p. xix). The questions in this section center on how organizational members learn and develop new evidence, ideas, routines, and knowledge as a community of learners (Collinson & Cook, 2007; Dee & Leišytė, 2016; Nutley et al., 2007a). Organizations can utilize research-based knowledge and evidence together with tacit, explicit, and embedded knowledge to learn new ways of carrying out work and as stated earlier, bridge the “gulf and to ensure that knowledge mobilisation theory and practice are both informed by and inform each other” (Powell et al., 2017, p. 219).

The block of questions in Category 7 are interrelated and closely connected as they lean on the core ideas of knowledge management systems and organizational learning and knowledge mobilization. The first set of questions (Q7.1) asked respondents about informal and formal structures for learning and sharing new knowledge and evidence. These could look like facilitated conversations, access to knowledge repositories like databases and libraries, and learning from others outside of their organization. These were based on a Likert scale (Strongly disagree to Strongly agree). Q7.2 then asked participants to select all formal organizations their advancement organization utilizes to inform their work. These organizations were selected based on my literature review of the field of EIPP and advancement and the Zoom interviews with advancement practitioners in my pre-survey conversations. In addition, I asked an open-ended question (Q7.3) about what formal or informal consortiums, communities of practice, and/or learning communities they are a part of as a member of their organization to build on the findings in Q7.2. This was, again, derived from suggestions by the practitioner conversations and a review of the field of advancement.

Category 8: Additional thoughts from respondents. Finally, I provided an open text space for any additional, written responses that respondents may have wanted to share. This provided valuable feedback in multiple ways. One, from a logistical perspective, if anything in the survey did not make sense to the respondent, it allowed me to better understand this for future iterations of the survey. Secondly, this allowed for additional thoughts and perspectives from respondents in terms of explaining their use of knowledge and evidence in advancement, other major things that might affect their practice, supplementary materials they might use regularly in their work, and more.

Data Analysis

I utilized a combination of statistical analysis methods to better understand evidence-informed institutional advancement. This analysis mirrored the process for my survey creation in that it showcased both individual-level and organizational-level analysis. This analysis included exploration of relationships amongst individual variables and organizational variables as well as between individual and organizational variables. This allowed for a more in-depth exploration of what was taking place, as laid out in my conceptual framework. I used a combination of descriptive statistics, factor analysis, correlations, and regressions. All data analysis was performed primarily with SPSS 28; some additional supplementary analysis (predicted probabilities) was completed with Stata 17.

Missing Cases & Data Cleaning

To begin the data analysis, it was important to first identify missing cases as a large number of missing values can cause issues and skewing in data analysis (UCLA: Statistical Consulting Group, n.d.). Utilizing frequency descriptive statistics for each variable, I explored which responses were missing data points. In my total data set of 1,832 responses, there were only six individuals who were flagged as missing cases. The remainder of the respondents filled out the entirety of the survey. Therefore, I used list wise deletion to remove the six responses completely as this small number will not affect my overall sample and analysis (< .003% of the total sample) (Geert van den Berg, n.d.; Urdan, 2017).

After removing missing cases, I then carried out data cleaning, which was carried out in two stages: First, the CASE AMAtlas data and survey data were combined via the 'merge data sheets' function in SPSS based on the IPEDS ID as a unique identifier. This later allowed me to explore relationships between organizational characteristics and other survey variables.

Furthermore, specific variables (e.g., state location) were coded into groupings (e.g., United States geographic regions). Additionally, variables such as race, sexual orientation, educational attainment, and total yearly organizational support were grouped into larger or binary categories to have enough statistical power to explore relationships between these variables and dependent variables.

Descriptive Statistics

Chen (2012) writes that descriptive statistics “help a researcher to understand the basic features of the dataset.” It is a crucial first step in getting to know who the respondents are within the sample and identifying initial basic patterns of responses (Cox, 2017); they describe characteristics of the data sample (Urdan, 2017, p. 34). The descriptive statistics were run on both the individual and organizational level. It was important to separate these two into two processes to reveal more about the data sample on both levels. The organizational sample was broken out by organizational characteristics and structures of functioning. The individual sample was then separated into information on demographics as well.

In addition, frequencies of variables and graphs from these statistics were run and created in order to understand basic patterns on individual and organizational behaviors and practices. These were displayed in graphs and tables in Chapter 4 to showcase these patterns, which are useful tools in displaying descriptive information (Cox, 2017).

Factor Analysis

In the next step of data analysis, I moved from descriptive statistics to factor analysis. Using factor analysis, I sought to explore how survey items were inter-correlated and create one construct or ‘factor’ (Hooper, 2012; Urdan, 2017). This was helpful as it took a number of individual survey responses and created one factor that could be measured against other variables

with data analysis techniques such as correlations and regression (Hooper, 2012). I tested a number of variables as constructed factors, using factory analysis methods and Cronbach's Alpha as a test of intercorrelation, finding that those with 0.7 or higher were acceptably internally consistent (Cox, 2017; Urdan, 2017). Survey items that were possibly interrelated, such as those focused on specific knowledge types, evidence sources, knowledge management and knowledge mobilization systems, and communities of practice were grouped and tested for relationships.

A one-factor solution for 'use of scholarly, research-based knowledge and evidence' was created from the seven items focused on frequency of use (Never = 0 to All the time = 4). I created a new scale variable from these items (Alpha Cronbach for reliability = .72, M=1.92). These items measured the construct of scholarly, research-based knowledge and evidence use – As values go up on this scale, research-based knowledge and evidence are used more frequently. Other factors were tested, but no other factors were used after carrying out factor analysis and reliability tests or useful in my analysis for this study.

Correlations

Upon completion of data cleaning, removing missing cases, and factor analysis, I carried out correlative tests, comparing one variable to another. Correlation can be defined simply as a “measure of the linear relationship between two variables. It is used when a researcher wishes to describe the strength and direction of the relationship between two normally continuous variables” (O'Brien & Sharkey Scott, 2012, p. 55). This was helpful as I began to develop a better sense of what variables may be connected through correlation, focusing on the size of Pearson's r (O'Brien & Sharkey Scott, 2012; Urdan, 2017). However, although correlation is beneficial in terms of better understanding the “predictive power of [certain] variables,” this is

when I turned to regression to further understand my sample through the use of this more in-depth statistical analysis (O'Brien & Sharkey Scott, 2012, p. 55).

Regression

I utilized regressions in my dissertation study to understand the “predictive power” of an independent variable on a dependent variable (O'Brien & Sharkey Scott, 2012, p. 56). Regression allowed for exploring how one dependent variable and two or more predictor variables relate; in this analysis, the dependent variable may differ or change based on an independent variable while controlling for other covariates (Urdan, 2017). The regressions I performed were based on my theoretical conceptual framework to further my understanding of what independent variables (e.g. norms, learning structures and systems, individual and organizational demographics and characteristics, etc.) may affect the outcome of a dependent variable when controlling for other variables (Drezner & Pizmony-Levy, 2020; Urdan, 2017). This helped me to understand whether the same outcome occurs when effects of other variables are controlled (O'Brien & Sharkey Scott, 2012). Furthermore, they are informed by the correlations I performed to better recognize how these variables might be affected and interrelated when introducing and controlling for other variables (Urdan, 2017).

I mainly used ordinal logistic regression (OLR) in my analysis along with one linear regression. OLR was useful as it allowed me “to model the relationship between an ordinal response variable and one or more explanatory variables” (Parry, 2020, p. 1). The ordinal variable (e.g. Never to All the Time, Strongly Disagree to Strongly Agree) is categorical in nature and has a clear order (O'Brien & Pizmony-Levy, 2016; Parry, 2020). This was preferable to Hierarchical Linear Modeling (HLM). HLM is a useful technique for nested data (i.e. individual data within organizations) (Matsuyama, 2020); however, because my survey questions

relied on ordinal categories, OLR was preferred because I was able to better understand the likelihood of respondent answers falling within a specific category. For the one linear regression, scale I created (i.e., the ‘use of scholarly, research-based knowledge and evidence’ scale) served as the dependent variable. This scale was treated as a continuous variable in the analysis. I used linear regression to understand what variables may show a link to an increased use of research-based knowledge and evidence.

Conclusion

By utilizing my methodology above, which was informed by my conceptual framework, literature review, and statistical analysis resources, I was able to more clearly understand the organizations and members of said organization within my sample. These results were then generalizable to the field because of my sample size. The field of philanthropy in higher education carries its own separate history, traditions, practices, policies, structures, professionalization, evidence, knowledge production, and other organizational characteristics that affect advancement divisions’ ways of functioning. Their work is guided by the field of philanthropy in higher education. My study’s survey methodology concentrated on how the professionalization and structures of institutional advancement shops affect what types of knowledge and evidence guides their work and why. Through my survey creation process, recruitment, and data analysis plan, I was able to more deeply explore these organizations and the members’ experiences within them.

Chapter 4: Results

I present my analysis from my survey data in the following chapter. I use the data analysis plan that I laid out in Chapter 3. This allows me to disaggregate the data in meaningful ways to see patterns on evidence and knowledge use in advancement and the systems, structures, and cultural elements that affect practice. Throughout the sub-sections, I highlight both individual level and organizational level findings to frame my findings through a whole systems approach. This data was collected via the two-step outreach approach I wrote about in Chapter 3. As a reminder of my methods, I first reached out to two to three advancement organization contacts, asking them to share my survey invitation with their advancement staff members. This only yielded a total of 176 survey participation sign ups from 38 institutions; These signs up generated 143 individual survey completions after a personalized link was emailed to each person (81.25% completion rate).

I then moved to my second outreach method in which I built a comprehensive list of all individuals who work in advancement within my original sample, excluding those institutions who already had at least one respondent to my original outreach (38 institutions). I then obtained staff members' names, titles, and contact information from their publicly available websites and/or institutional directories. This outreach list included 14,666 individual names and emails of which 13,515 were contactable email addresses after bounce backs. Of the contactable individuals, 1,690 individuals responded to my survey (12.50% participation rate). My two-step contact method process led to a total of 1,833 responses (143 + 1,690). After filtering and removing incomplete responses (7 total, .003% missing), my total sample included 1,826 responses from 192 institutions.

Understanding my Sample: Organizational & Individual Level Descriptive Statistics

As stated previously, descriptive statistic results highlight initial patterns in my data set (Cox, 2017; Urdan, 2017); this helps me identify the characteristics of my sample. I begin with organizational descriptive statistics, focusing on the characteristics of the advancement organizations in my sample (Table 4.1, Figure 4.1 & Table 4.2). I then explore the demographics and characteristics of the individuals within those organizations within my data (Table 4.3).

Organizational Characteristics Descriptive Statistics

In my final study sample, at least one individual or more from 192 institutions responded out of 214 institutions in my outreach. This is an 89.72% institutional response rate for my survey from an organizational perspective. Looking at Table 4.1, the institutions are relatively evenly split in terms of private or public control, with 89 private institutions and 103 publicly controlled. In regard to Carnegie Classifications, I broke this into a binary variable – 150 of the institutions in my sample are classified as *Doctoral Universities* and 42 are classified as something else (i.e., Non-Doctoral Institutions). Additionally, there are a number of land grant institutions represented, with just over a quarter of the sample being recognized with land grant designation (25.52%). The next set of variables are tied to geographic region based on the U.S. Census Bureau regions. My sample showcases a robust variation in terms of geographic region with all four regions represented and a relatively even distribution of the total sample. Figure 4.1 below showcases this breakdown. Finally, the table's last variable group, *Total Yearly Support*, shows data reported by individual organizations to the Voluntary Support of Education (VSE), CASE survey. As stated in my methods chapter, this variable begins at \$25 million and ranges to \$500,000,000 or more; a majority of institutions reported their grand total of all gifts received and reported between \$25,000,000 and \$100,000,000 (60.41% of sample, 116 institutions).

Table 4.1 Organizational Characteristics of Sample from IPEDS & CASE (n=192)

Organizational Characteristic	Definition and metrics	Mean (Frequency)
Private	Public - Institution operated by publicly elected or appointed school officials and is supported primarily by public funds. Private - Institution operated by privately elected or appointed officials and derives its major source of funds from private sources. ¹	.46 (103 / 89)
Doctoral Universities	Public = 0, Private = 1 Doctoral universities - Institutions that award at least 20 research/scholarship doctoral degrees during the update year; Or institutions with below 20 research/scholarship doctoral degrees that award at least 30 professional practice doctoral degrees in at least 2 programs. ²	.78 (42 / 150)
Land Grant Institution	Non-Doctoral Universities = 0, Doctoral Universities = 1 An institution that has been designated by its state legislature or Congress to receive the benefits of the Morrill Acts of 1862, 1890, and 1994. ³	.26 (143 / 49)
	No = 0, Yes = 1	
United States Census Regions	Census Bureau regions of the U.S. ⁴	
<i>Northeast</i>	No = 0, Yes = 1	.28 (54)
<i>Midwest</i>	No = 0, Yes = 1	.21 (40)
<i>South</i>	No = 0, Yes = 1	.30 (57)
<i>West</i>	No = 0, Yes = 1	.21 (41)
Total Yearly Support	Grand total of gifts reported on the VSE survey in the FY. ⁵	
<i>\$25,000,000 - \$100,000,000</i>	No = 0, Yes = 1	.60 (116)
<i>\$100,000,001 - \$200,000,000</i>	No = 0, Yes = 1	.19 (36)
<i>\$200,000,001 - \$500,000,000</i>	No = 0, Yes = 1	.14 (27)
<i>\$500,000,001 & higher</i>	No = 0, Yes = 1	.07 (13)

¹ Source: Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System

² Source: Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System

³ Source: The Association of Public and Land-grant Universities (APLU®)

⁴ Based on the 2010 U.S. Census Regions; See Figure 4.1 below

⁵ Total Yearly Support is defined by the VSE, CASE as the grand total of all gifts received and reported on the VSE survey in the reporting fiscal year, with deferred gifts counted at the Present Value (the tax deduction the donor is allowed by the IRS) (Council for Advancement and Support of Education, 2022).

* Total means may not equal 1 due to rounding

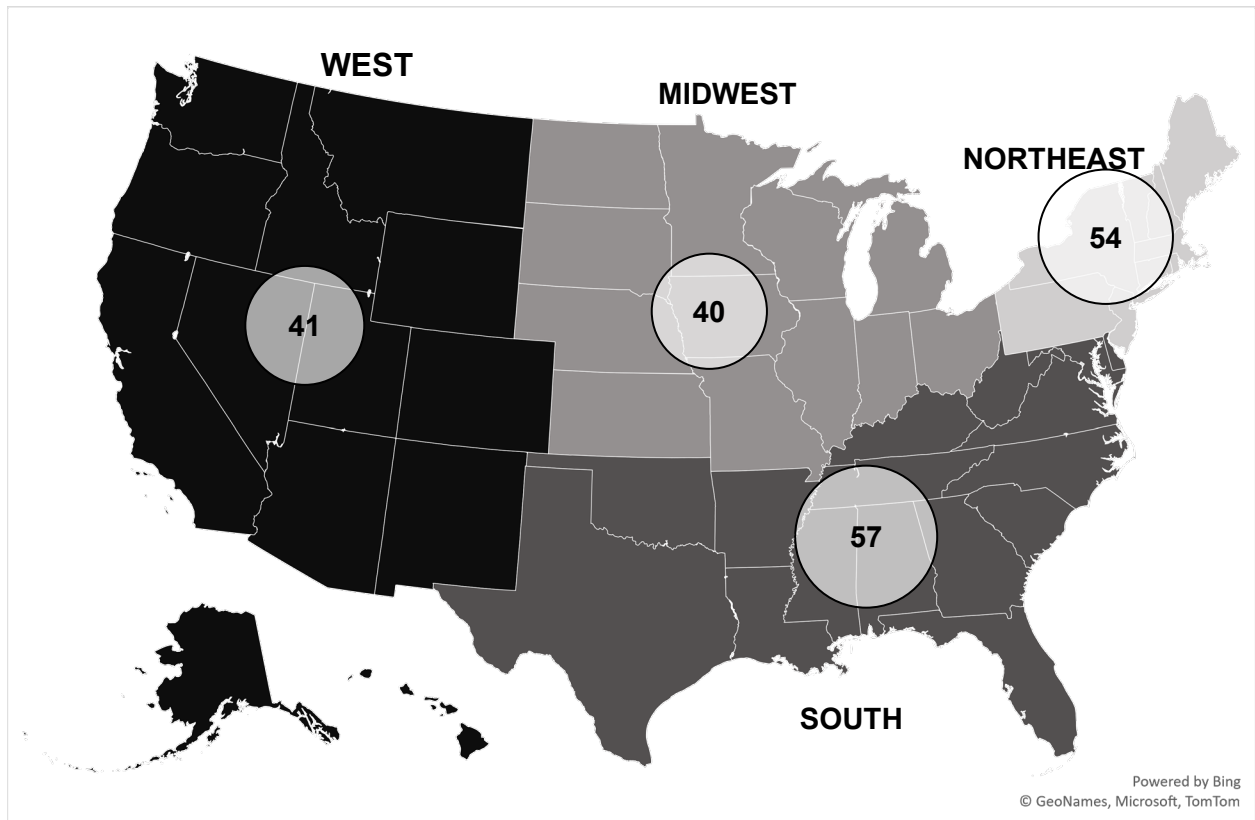


Figure 4.1 Response Totals by Bureau Regions

Based on the 2010 U.S. Census Regions, see reference “2010 Census regions and divisions of the United States” for further information.

In Table 4.2, I display organizational descriptive statistics from the data I collected from survey respondents. Regarding *Total Advancement Staff Members*, the largest grouping is those with in the 100+ staff members category: 45% of the institutions employ over 100 staff members. Furthermore, all of the six variable groupings for ‘total alumni’ are represented. The largest represented group falls between *100,001 - 200,000* at nearly one-third of the total sample (29.7%). The next table category highlights that over half of the sample are co-administered organizations (51.04%), and an additional 39.06% of the sample are centralized.

Table 4.2 Organizational Characteristics of Sample Collected from Survey (n=192)

Organizational Characteristic	Definition and metrics	Mean (Frequency)
Total Advancement Staff Members	The total staff members in the advancement division or foundation	
<i>0-50</i>	No = 0, Yes = 1	.31 (59)
<i>51-100</i>	No = 0, Yes = 1	.24 (47)
<i>100+</i>	No = 0, Yes = 1	.45 (86)
Total Number of Alumni	The total number of living alumni of the institution	
<i>1 - 50,000</i>	No = 0, Yes = 1	.16 (31)
<i>50,001 - 100,000</i>	No = 0, Yes = 1	.12 (23)
<i>100,001 - 200,000</i>	No = 0, Yes = 1	.30 (57)
<i>200,001 - 300,000</i>	No = 0, Yes = 1	.17 (33)
<i>300,001+</i>	No = 0, Yes = 1	.25 (48)
Organizational Structure	Centralized - an office holds centrally all advancement activities. Co-administered - responsibilities co-administered between a centralized office and independent units. Decentralized - independent units set their own goals, priorities, and solicitations.	
<i>Centralized</i>	No = 0, Yes = 1	.39 (75)
<i>Co-administered</i>	No = 0, Yes = 1	.51 (98)
<i>Decentralized</i>	No = 0, Yes = 1	.10 (19)

* Total means may not equal 1 due to rounding

** Source: Survey items Q5.4 - Q5.6

Individual Respondents Descriptive Statistics

I then highlight demographic, professional, and educational data on the individuals in my sample (n=1,826) in Table 4.3 below. These are broken into two categories: 1) demographic related variables and 2) professional and educational variables. In order to check for greater reliability and validity of my sample for later analysis, I compared my data with the data found in the research and evidence-informed report generated by the Association of Fundraising Professionals Inclusion Diversity, Equity & Access (AFP-IDEA) team: *2021 Assessment of Inclusion, Diversity, Equity & Access for Fundraising Professionals*.

Table 4.3 Respondent Demographics & Professional and Educational Background (n=1,826)

	Definition and metrics	Mean (Frequency)
<i>Demographics:</i>		
Gender Identity		
<i>Woman</i>	No = 0, Yes = 1	.68 (1,247)
<i>Man</i>	No = 0, Yes = 1	.31 (567)
<i>Non-binary gender identity</i>	No = 0, Yes = 1	.01 (12)
Queer or Questioning	Heterosexual = 0 Queer or Questioning = 1	.13 (1,584 / 242)
Hispanic Or Latinx/a/o	No = 0, Yes = 1	.06 (1,721 / 105)
Black, Indigenous, and People of Color (BIPOC) or Something Else	White = 0 BIPOC or Something Else =1	.11 (1,628 / 198)
<i>Professional & Educational:</i>		
Current Position		
<i>Analyst; Coordinator; Program Manager; Project Manager.; Specialist; Assistant. Director; Associate Director (Staff)</i>	No = 0, Yes = 1	.34 (615)
<i>Director or Executive Director (Director)</i>	No = 0, Yes = 1	.43 (782)
<i>CEO; Dean; Chancellor; President; Vice President; or Vice Chancellor; Associate Vice Chancellor or Associate Vice President (Leadership)</i>	No = 0, Yes = 1	.13 (237)
<i>Other (Other Position)</i>	No = 0, Yes = 1	.11 (192)

Table 4.3 continued on next page...

Table 4.3 continued

	Definition and metrics	Mean (Frequency)
Currently a Supervisor	No = 0, Yes = 1	.58 (760 / 1,066)
Advancement Functional Area*		
<i>Advancement services</i>	No = 0, Yes = 1	.21 (380)
<i>Alumni relations</i>	No = 0, Yes = 1	.27 (499)
<i>Communications</i>	No = 0, Yes = 1	.14 (264)
<i>Development/Fundraising</i>	No = 0, Yes = 1	.65 (1,186)
<i>Marketing</i>	No = 0, Yes = 1	.10 (175)
<i>Other Functional Area</i>	No = 0, Yes = 1	.11 (197)
Years Worked in Advancement	Continuous	14.30
Educational Attainment		
<i>Bachelors and Below</i>	No = 0, Yes = 1	.39 (704)
<i>Masters</i>	No = 0, Yes = 1	.51 (935)
<i>Terminal Degree</i>	No = 0, Yes = 1	.10 (187)
Alum of Institution Respondent Works At	No = 0, Yes = 1	.38 (701)

* Respondents can practice in multiple functional areas within their role, therefore, the mean for group is greater than 1 and total does not equal *n*.

This report was built and produced by the AFP IDEA Committee, AFP Research Council and from partner organizations, including: African American Development Officers; Allies in Action, Apra, CFRE International, Grant Professionals Association, National Council of Charitable Gift Planners, Women In Development-New York, and Women of Color in Fundraising and Philanthropy (Association of Fundraising Professionals, 2021). It provides a useful census benchmark to understand how representative my sample is compared to the field of fundraising through the work of a national organization, AFP.

Demographic Descriptive Statistics. As discussed previously in Chapter 3, my survey included items on demographic identity-based questions to seek further understanding about the respondents and to honor their personal identities and experiences. Scholars have written about how peoples' identities and the differing experiences affect how people encounter the world, behave, create connections, and form groups and a sense of belonging (Drezner, 2013b, 2018; Drezner & Huehls, 2014; Tajfel et al., 1979; Tajfel et al., 1986; Turner & Reynolds, 2010).

My survey asked questions around age, sexual orientation, gender identity and expression, and race and ethnicity. First in Table 4.3, turning to age, my sample is relatively evenly split into quarters between all age ranges. This mirrors the age range patterns in found in the AFP-IDEA report (p. 53). Table 4.3 then highlights the gender identity of respondents. Those who identify as women are a large majority of the sample, representing over two-thirds of the group (68.29%). Men are the next largest group with nearly the remaining one-third of the sample identifying as such (31.05%). Lastly, individuals who identify as Trans women, Trans men, Genderqueer/gender non-conforming, Non-binary, or a different gender identity are included in the third category *Non-binary gender identity* and represented 0.01% of the total sample. Within this category, the following information is recorded: four Non-binary individuals; two Trans women; two trans men; two genderqueer/gender non-conforming individuals; and finally, two individuals who identified with a different gender identity. Again, these collapsed coded categories are a similar approach to data coding in AFP-IDEA's report. The findings on gender identity align closely with the AFP-IDEA report as well (p. 54). In addition to age and gender identity, sexual orientation is also recorded. Just over 86% of my sample are heterosexual, and 13.3% are either Queer or Questioning (this includes all people who selected they are gay, lesbian, queer, pansexual, or answered 'something else' or 'unsure.')

Again, this coding and the findings on sexual orientation in the AFP-IDEA report showed similar methods and response breakdowns (p. 54).

Finally, the demographic section in Table 4.3 reports ethnicity and race data reported by respondents. These demographic breakdowns are informed by federal definitions of race and ethnicity data (National Center for Education Statistics, n.d.). Those who are Hispanic or Latinx/a/o selected this as a separate ethnicity-based question: 5.8% of the sample is Hispanic or Latinx/a/o. Turning to race categories, the majority of my sample, at 89.16%, is White. The remainder of my sample includes: 4.87% Black or African American respondents; 2.03% Asian respondents; and American Indian or Alaska Natives and Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islanders respondents both totaled less than 0.1% of the sample (1 individual and 2 individuals respectively). Those who are *Two or More Races* are 2.41% of the sample; additionally, 2.41% individuals identify as something other than the five racial categories. These findings closely line up with both the AFP-IDEA report as well as findings from a 2016 CASE survey reported by Ruben (2020) on demographic trends in advancement offices. Ruben states that 12% of advancement professionals identify as nonwhite, and my sample is extremely similar to these representation findings. The descriptive statistics show that 10.8% of respondents identify as nonwhite based on race and 5.8% identify as Hispanic or Latinx/a/o based on ethnicity. To aid in my analysis and the power of my models, racial categories that are non-white were grouped into ‘BIPOC or Something Else.’

Professional and Educational Descriptive Statistics. In the next section of Table 4.3, professional and educational related items are recorded. The first item, *Current Position*, allows me to understand if my sample represents a broad range of positions. Over two-fifths (42.83%) of the respondents shared that they are either Directors or Executive Directors (variable label:

Director) in their organization. Moreover, an additional one-third (33.68%) are one of: Analyst; Coordinator; Program Manager; Project Manager; Specialist; Assistant Director; Associate Director (variable label: *Staff*). Additionally, 13% identified as in leadership positions (variable label: *Leadership*). In relation to their current position, over half of my sample (58.38%) is in a supervisory role.

When turning to functional areas of advancement, these findings also echo the AFP-IDEA report in terms of breakdown by functional area type and show a range of participants; however, there is one difference in the AFP-IDEA report in that it is an organization focused solely on fundraising professionals or those whose role was connected to fundraising directly, whereas my study focuses on all five functional areas of advancement beyond just development. In my sample, the largest majority hold positions in fundraising (64.95%), similar to AFP's report. This is followed by alumni relations (27.33%) and advancement services (20.81%).

Finally, I turn to the final two variables groups, years worked and educational attainment. In regard to years worked, the sample averaged 14.30 years worked in advancement, with a range of less than one year to 45 years in the field. Age and years worked are highly correlated, therefore, years worked is used as a continuous measure and variable in my regression models rather than including both. As for educational attainment, over half of the sample held masters degrees (51.20%). Those who had earned their terminal degree (i.e., Ph.D., Ed.D., J.D., etc.) represented 10.24% of the sample. These findings align closely with the AFP-IDEA report on years working in the field and around educational attainment.

Data Analysis: A Deep Dive into my Research Questions

Turning from characteristic and demographic data, the following sections begin to tell the story of knowledge and evidence use in advancement. It is again important to reiterate a few

points here. I utilize my research questions to frame my findings below. My research questions are informed by my literature review and conceptual framework, which took into account both individual level and organizational level results. This focus on both levels is key to understanding how the systems and structures of institutional advancement affect the knowledge and evidence used within these division. Organizational systems, learning, and culture theories provide a useful whole-systems way of grounding the investigation into my research questions. It leads to a systemic understanding, which can result in more dynamic practices and policies based on various forms of knowledge and evidence. As a reminder, my research questions are:

1. To what extent do advancement divisions value certain types of evidence and knowledge?
2. What types of evidence and knowledge do advancement divisions utilize to inform their practice and policies?
 - a. What organizational practices and individual and organizational characteristics, if any, affect which knowledge guides the work of advancement organizations (i.e., tacit, explicit, embedded, and research-based knowledge)?
3. What organizational learning systems and structures are in place both within and outside advancement organizations that guide practice and internal policy making?
4. What sociodemographic and organizational characteristics, if any, show a relationship with systems and structures of knowledge management and mobilization of institutional advancement shops?

The second point I want to reiterate is tied to the tenets of EIPP – all forms of knowledge and evidence are important and needed in practice and policy making. Each provides benefits and a unique form of understanding how to carry out work. The use of all types and forms leads

to the most effective practice and policy making. This is why I intentionally disaggregate the data to understand my research questions on a deeper level. This disaggregation can aid in the greater understanding of how researchers, practitioners, policy makers, and other partners can use different forms of knowledge and evidence in meaningful way to work in tandem and partnership to bring about positive change and evidence-based best practices (Tseng, 2017).

Exploring Research Question 1: The Valuing of Evidence and Knowledge Types

In this section, I dig into what knowledge and evidence types that practitioners in advancement value and believe *should* be a part of decision making in practice. These findings help to answer research question 1: ‘*To what extent do advancement divisions value certain types of evidence and knowledge?*’ By answering this question, I am able to better understand the organizational culture values that drive the work of advancement shops. I begin by summarizing the findings for this research question based on the results below. I find that advancement organizations and the practitioners within them do value *all* knowledge types. They see each one, including tacit, explicit, embedded, and research, as useful and important in their work. A surprising finding based on previous literature is that practitioners *do* value research knowledge along with the other three types. Practitioners do want to use it in their practice and decision making. This begins to push back on the ideal that the field of advancement and advancement divisions do not see value in research in their practice.

Figure 4.2 begins to answer this research question. The survey question asked respondents the following question about what knowledge is important in practice and decision making: *Keeping in mind the definitions above, indicate your level of agreement with the*

following statements.

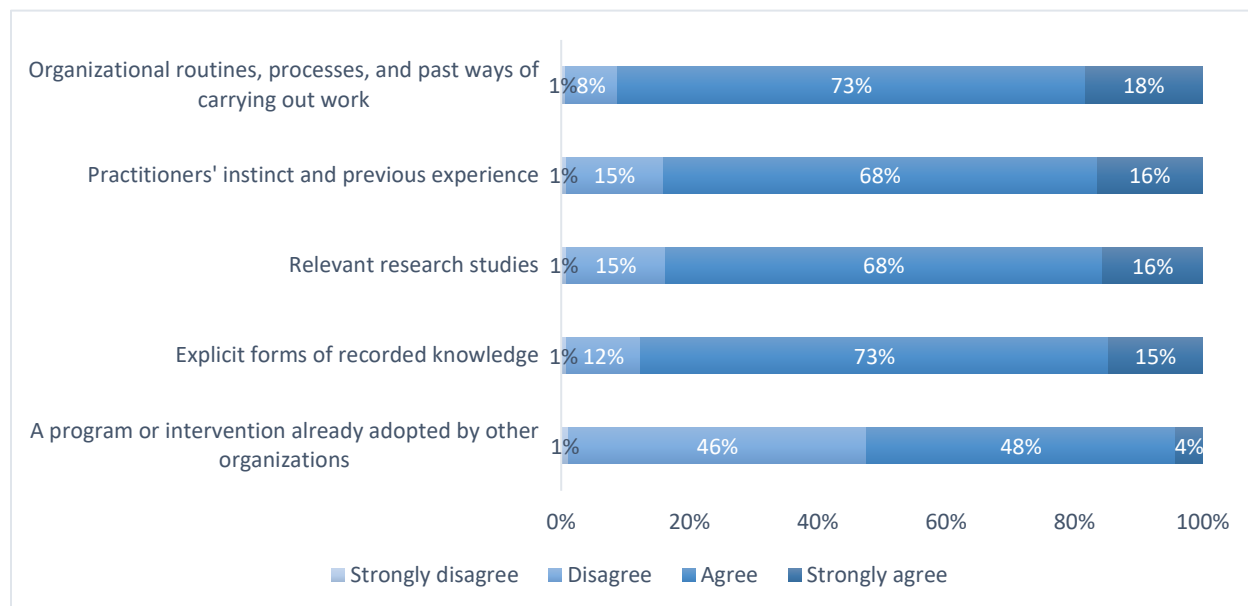


Figure 4.2 Individual Decision Making by Knowledge Types (Source: Survey question 4.8)

In Figure 4.2, I find that embedded knowledge is the most frequently used forms of knowledge. Over 90% of respondents *Agree* or *Strongly agree* that organizational routines, processes, and past ways of carrying out work are valuable in practice. Furthermore, 84% of respondents *Agree* or *Strongly agree* that practitioner instinct and previous experience should drive decision making. Similarly, 88% of people *Agree* or *Strongly Agree* that recorded knowledge in explicit forms such as guidebooks, training manuals, etc. are important as well ($M=3.02$), with nearly one-quarter of respondents *Agreeing* (73%). These findings seem to align with the literature on advancement practice in the field.

However, in analyzing the other two items in Figure 4.2, two particularly intriguing findings emerged. In regard to ‘relevant research studies’ a surprising finding develops around this item. In this chart, over eight in 10 people stated they *Agree* or *Strongly Agree* that research knowledge should be a major part of the decision-making and/or problem-solving process (86%).

Practitioners shared that they desire to utilize scholarly, research-based knowledge. They believe they *should* be using this evidence and knowledge type to inform their practice in addition to the others – there is value and importance seen in this knowledge. This showcases that advancement organizations do value research along with the other knowledge and evidence types.

In addition to this finding, a somewhat unexpected pattern based on previous literature shows up around adoption of programs/interventions based on the use of that program/intervention by another organization. This item is split nearly 50/50 between disagreement and agreement. Nearly half of the sample states they *Strongly disagree* or *Disagree* that it is better to implement a program or intervention that other organizations had put into place (47%). I see an organizational value placed on using internal embedded, tacit, explicit, and research-based knowledge; however, this chart shows that the organizational culture preference and endorsement of ‘doing things that have worked before’ may not be influenced by what other organizations are doing in the larger field of advancement as much as *within* organization. This is unique as the literature highlights that the professionalization of the field and “best practices” are influenced by advancement divisions looking to what other advancement organizations are doing. However, there appears to be some disconnect between these findings in the literature and what organizations and practitioners within value.

In Figure 4.3, I explore a related group of questions around organizational cultural practices and beliefs. I asked respondents to rank four options from most to least important: *When choosing an approach in your organization, what matters in organizational decision-making?*

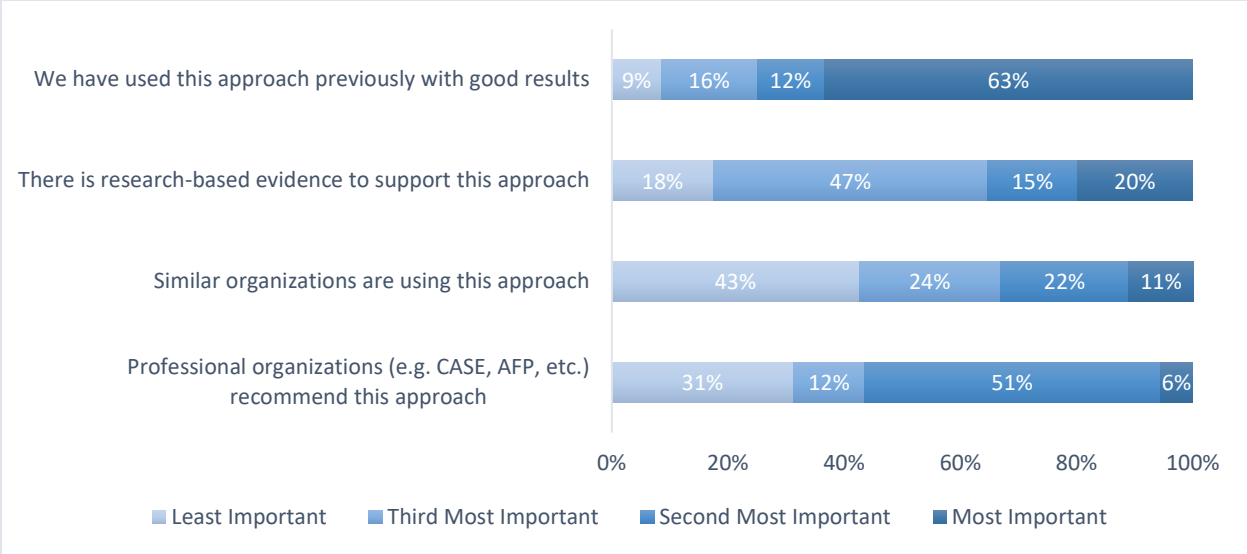


Figure 4.3 Organizational Decision-Making Ranking based on Perceived Value of that Knowledge & Evidence Type (Source: Survey question Q6.5)

The above figure mirrors the preference of using embedded knowledge and evidence in practice found in Figure 4.2. I find that an overwhelming majority of respondents ranked embedded knowledge highest, as nearly two-thirds of the sample ranked ‘using a previous approach in their organization with proven good results’ most important in organizational decision making (63%). Again, these results show me that what has worked *within* the organization is deeply valued.

Furthermore, I find a repeated pattern from Figure 4.2. As one recalls in Figure 4.2, nearly 50% of respondents stated they *Strongly disagree* or *Disagree* that it ‘is better to implement a program or intervention that other organizations had put into place’ (47%). In Figure 4.3, 67% of respondents said that the influence on decision making by ‘similar organizations using this approach’ is *least important* or *third most important* in their practice (43% & 24% respectively). Again, this shows a pattern of organizations placing less value on adopting other advancement organizations’ practices. In short, peer-to-peer influence and knowledge and evidence sharing seems to be less valued in practice and organizational decision

making than other forms of knowledge and evidence. Curiously though, over half of the respondents (51%) stated that ‘recommendations for practice by professional organizations (e.g., CASE, AFP, etc.)’ are second most important. This is the largest second ranked item in terms of importance. It appears that organizations are less likely to value practices that other organizations are using but they *are* more likely to value and implement a program or technique recommended by professional organizations.

Finally, I see that there is somewhat of a split in regard to the valuing of research-based evidence in decision making. One-fifth of the sample (20%) ranked ‘research-based evidence support for an approach’ as most important in the survey. This is the second largest total in the *most important* ranking category after embedded knowledge. An additional 15% ranked research evidence as second most important, meaning a total of 35% of respondents see great value in research-based knowledge and evidence in organizational decision making. However, I find that over half of the sample ranked research-based evidence as *third most important* or *least important* (47% & 18% respectively, 65% total). These findings point to an organizational endorsement of research-based knowledge by some organizations – it is viewed by organizations and practitioners as valuable in decision making and *should* be used in practice. However, in nearly two-thirds of the sample, it seems less valued in decision making and practice. This leads me to my exploration of what knowledge and evidence truly drives the practice of advancement compared to what is valued by advancement organizations.

Exploring Research Question 2: Ideals versus the Reality of Knowledge & Evidence Use

In my first research question, I explore what organization values show an endorsement and preference for certain knowledge and evidence types in practice and decision making. These are the *ideals* that organizations and the practitioners within hold; however, I want to explore

whether the ideals, from an organizational culture perspective, aligned with the reality of what is used day-to-day in practice within the field of advancement. Recall, research question 2 asks: *What types of evidence and knowledge do advancement divisions utilize to inform their practice and policies?* This question includes a sub question as well: *What organizational norms and individual and organizational characteristics, if any, affect which knowledge guides the work of advancement organizations (i.e., tacit, explicit, embedded, and research-based knowledge)?* I explore these questions in the following sections.

In my findings on research question 2 and 2a, I find two distinct results emerge. My conceptual framework brings into focus what is valued by organizations versus what truly takes place via behaviors in the organization. When I look at my results through this theoretical lens, the first is a misalignment between the valuing of all four knowledge types and what is truly used in practice: In practice practitioners use tacit, explicit, and embedded knowledge the *most*, and they are *less likely* to use research as compared to the others. These findings align more with the previous literature that points to a higher likelihood of using more atheoretical, practitioner authored resources versus research-based resources and knowledge.

In addition to the theme above, when exploring the sub-question in research question 2, I find that two distinct, but interrelated results appear in my analysis. The first is that when an individual endorses a specific knowledge type, they are more likely to use that knowledge type in their practice. Furthermore, from an organizational level when a knowledge type is part of organizational practice, practitioners are more likely to use these within their organization. These findings highlight the cultural and learning factors that show up in organizations. When an individual in an organization and the organization itself encourages the use of specific knowledge types, they are more likely to use those knowledge types in their practice. This is

particularly helpful to understand as I think about implications for my study for the field of advancement.

Research Question 2: What types of evidence and knowledge do advancement divisions utilize to inform their practice and policies?

In EIPP, scholars point to the various sources of knowledge and evidence that practitioners utilize. There are various ways people learn, share, and retain new knowledge – Through Figure 4.4 below, I begin to untangle these sources to understand which are used most frequently in advancement. There are multiple types of evidence sources, and many of them involve sharing knowledge and evidence between members both within their organizations and outside of their organizations (e.g., conferences, trainings, and consultants). I explore what evidence sources are most used by respondents in the figure below. Practitioners taking the survey were asked: *When you need to learn new knowledge and find evidence to inform your advancement work, how frequently do you access knowledge and evidence from [knowledge source]?* A list of 12 items were presented, and participants selected their frequency of use of each based on a Likert Scale (Never = 0, All the time = 4).

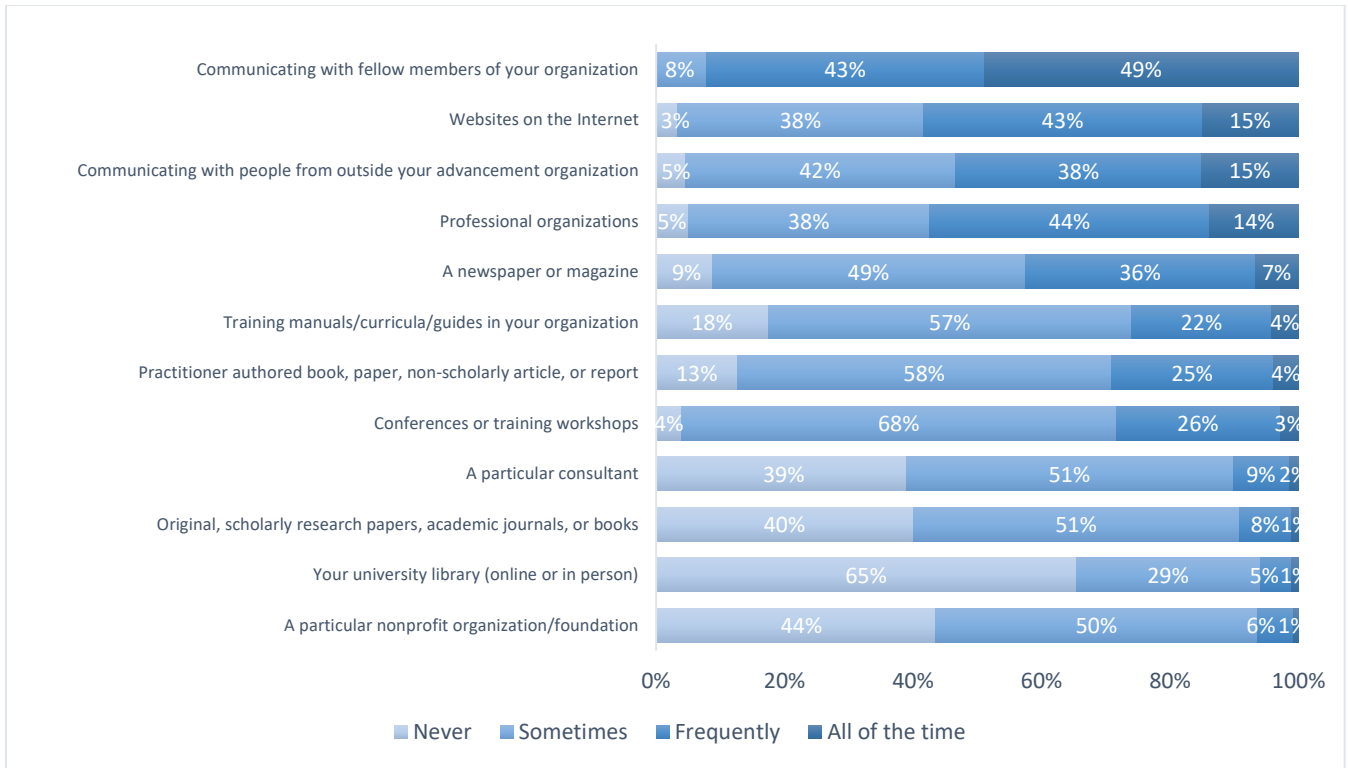


Figure 4.4 Frequency of Use of Different Knowledge & Evidence Sources by Individuals (Source: Survey question Q4.9)

In Figure 4.4, I find specific patterns emerging based on evidence source use. In connection with the core ideas around knowledge mobilization, three of the top four items involve the sharing of knowledge and evidence between practitioners. The most frequently used source of knowledge and evidence is communicating with fellow members of their organization (49% *All of the time* & 43% *Frequently*, $M=3.41$). Based on frequency of use *All the time* or *Frequently*, I find that 53% of practitioners ‘communicate with fellow members of their organization’ and 58% ‘communicate with people from outside their advancement organization (e.g., consortiums, meetings, presenter at conference, etc.)’. The knowledge sharing with

colleagues and fellow practitioners is clearly important in terms of how often it is used.²

However, in thinking back to Figures 4.2 and 4.3, learning and adopting programs from fellow organizations is not highly valued compared to other knowledge and evidence types. However, when I examine the findings in Figure 4.4, there appears to be a difference in actual practice. There is a high reliance on learning from other advancement organizations along with learning from colleagues and professional organizations. Further thought and exploration is needed around these findings.

In turning back to Figure 4.4, I find another data point of interest based on earlier findings based on my first research question. After the professional organization items, I see that average means begin dropping as less participants stated they used specific items *All the time* and a larger percentage used them only *Frequently* or *Sometimes*. Recall that research knowledge and evidence *is valued* by many in Figures 4.2 and 4.3, i.e., seen as important, in decision making and practice. Yet, in Figure 4.4 scholarly, research-based evidence resource use fell near the bottom based on frequency of use (Original, scholarly research papers, academic journals, or books & university libraries). Scholarly research papers, journals, and books are rarely used (40% *Never used* & 51% *Sometimes used*) and when examining university libraries, almost two-thirds of participants stating they *Never* used them (65%). There appears to be some disparity between what is valued by practitioners and what is truly used in practice.

² It is worth noting, ‘conferences or training workshops’ is ranked eighth out of 12 survey items; there appears to be a greater use of more informal learning structures such as consortiums, meetings, and an interest in presenting at conferences. However, attending conferences and training workshops as attendees (not presenters) seems to be less frequently used by practitioners.

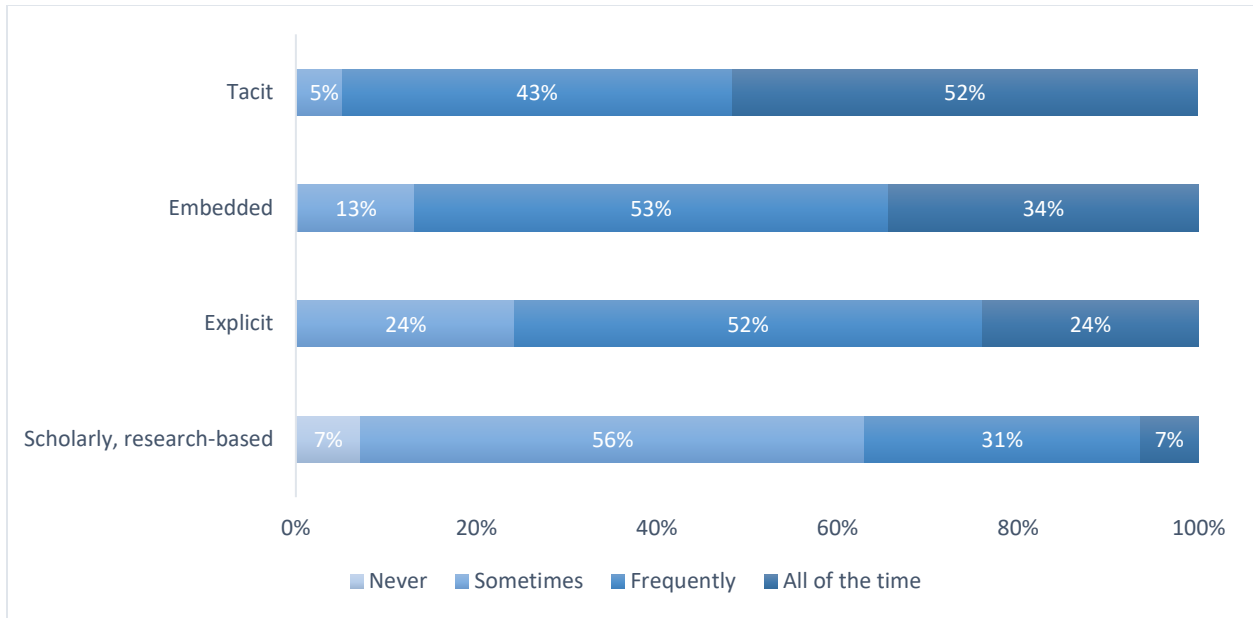


Figure 4.5 Frequency of Use by Individuals of Knowledge Types (Source: Survey questions Q4.2 - Q4.5)

In Figure 4.5, I delve into exploring knowledge use on an individual level. Referring back to the survey, respondents were provided a definition of each knowledge type (see Q4.2 - Q4.5 for definitions) and then asked: *How often do you use [knowledge type] in your decision-making and work?* Respondents answered based on Likert Scale (Never = 0, All the time = 4). In Figure 4.5, I find specific patterns emerging in the data. Nearly the entire sample (95%) say that they use tacit, instinctual knowledge learned over time and through practice either *All the time* or *Frequently*. It is the most utilized by practitioners. Embedded knowledge that rests in the institution’s routines, processes, structures, culture, and norms that live within the organization closely align with tacit knowledge use and is used the most after tacit. Nearly nine out of every 10 respondents made use of embedded knowledge in their practice *All the time* or *Frequently* (87%). Additionally, three-quarters of the sampled use explicit knowledge *All the time* or *Frequently*. It is worth noting that out of the entire sample, zero individuals say that they do not use tacit, explicit, and embedded knowledge at least *Sometimes* or more. In turning to the last

knowledge type, scholarly, research-based knowledge, this knowledge type is the least frequently used. It is the only knowledge type that some respondents stated they never use (7%). Compared to the larger portions of individuals who made use of tactic, explicit, and embedded knowledge *Frequently* and *All the time*, less than one-third of the sample (31%) apply it *Frequently* and only 7% use it *All the time*.

I find that the results in Figure 4.5 are then further confirmed in Figure 4.6 (below) where respondents ranked their use of knowledge types from *Most Used (1)* to *Least Used (4)*. Eighty-six percent of respondents utilize tactic knowledge most or second most. It is then followed by embedded knowledge with over half of the sample utilizing it most (16%) and second most (43%). A repeated pattern is found around research-based knowledge use. An overwhelming three-quarters (77%) of the respondents answered that they use this knowledge type least.

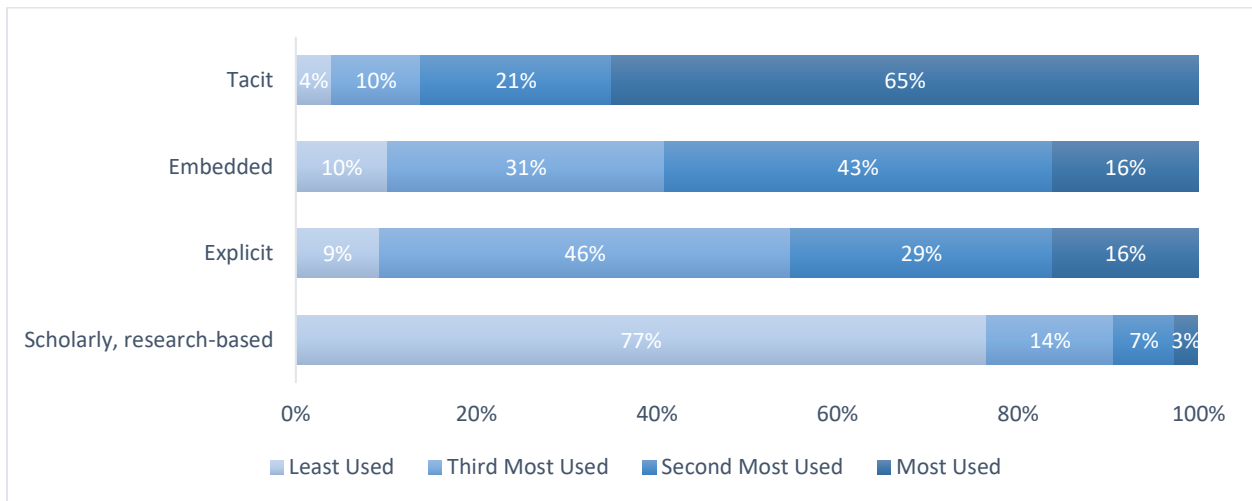


Figure 4.6 Individuals Ranking Knowledge Use by Knowledge Types (Source: Survey question 4.6)

In shifting to organizational level findings, I explore the frequency of the creation and use of specific knowledge and evidence in Figure 4.8 (based on a Likert Scale: Never = 0 to All the time = 4). Respondents were asked how often they do each item in their organization. To begin, explicit resources, such as presentations, fact sheets, checklists, and more, are most frequently

created in organizations. Tacit and explicit knowledge held by practitioners and embedded knowledge within the organization are used to inform and update these explicit forms of knowledge and evidence. I find that 58% of the sample create these items *Frequently* or *All the time*; an additional 37% create these items at least *Sometimes*.

I also see that a large portion of respondents also utilize consultants (external tacit and explicit knowledge and evidence holders) to guide their work with nearly nine in 10 respondents using them at least *Sometimes* or more (88%). Furthermore, the production of non-research based publications and other writings show relatively frequent organizational use of explicit materials and knowledge. These patterns again highlight heavy use of embedded, tacit, and explicit knowledge in practice, just as they do from an individual level. These knowledge and evidence types appear to be valued most by organizations. Both scholarly research use and generation rank last in Figure 4.7, with over 40% of people stating they *Never* use research and an additional 45% said they use it only *Sometimes*; and nearly two-thirds stated they never generate their own research to inform policy making or program development (65%).



Figure 4.7 Frequency of Organizational Knowledge & Evidence Use (Source: Survey question Q6.1)

Based on the findings from Figures 4.2 and 4.3 compared to Figures 4.4 - 4.7, I find that there is an alignment between the greater use of tacit, embedded, and explicit knowledge and organizational values and preferences – organizations and practitioners value these knowledge types, and they use them in their daily practice most often. However, I find that although many organizations stated they do value research-based knowledge and evidence, very few use this knowledge and evidence in day-to-day practice and decision making, I contend that there is a difference between what many organizations value from an organizational culture lens and what knowledge and evidence is truly used. I find that non-research-based, scholarly knowledge and evidence drive much of the work of advancement. This warrants further discussion and future exploration. However, this is not to say that research-based knowledge and evidence are *never* used. I wish to explore what ways that research may be used in practice by those who do say they use it. Therefore, I begin to explore these ideas in the next section below.

A Deeper Dive into Individual Scholarly, Research-based Knowledge Use.

Through my survey instrument, I wanted to learn more about how practitioners specifically use research-based knowledge and evidence as the previous literature on advancement highlights it is the least understood. As a reminder, in Q4.5 in the survey, respondents were asked: *How often do you use scholarly, research-based knowledge in your decision-making and work?* They were then presented with Likert Scale options ranging from Never (0) to All the Time (4). Those who stated in Q4.5 they use research at least *Sometimes* or more were then shown a set of conditional questions in the survey (n=1,695, Q4.7). These questions were informed by multiple scholarly sources to better understand the distinct, complex ways research is utilized in practice and policy making (see Beyer & Trice, 1982; Brennan et al., 2017; Larsen, 1980; Weiss, 1979). I asked participants these additional questions using a Likert

Scale as well (Never = 0 to All the time = 4). I use Figure 4.7 below to highlight the descriptive statistics results from these conditional questions. Those data on the right of the figure ('not applicable') represent those who said they *never* use research in their practice (131 individuals were not shown additional conditional questions).

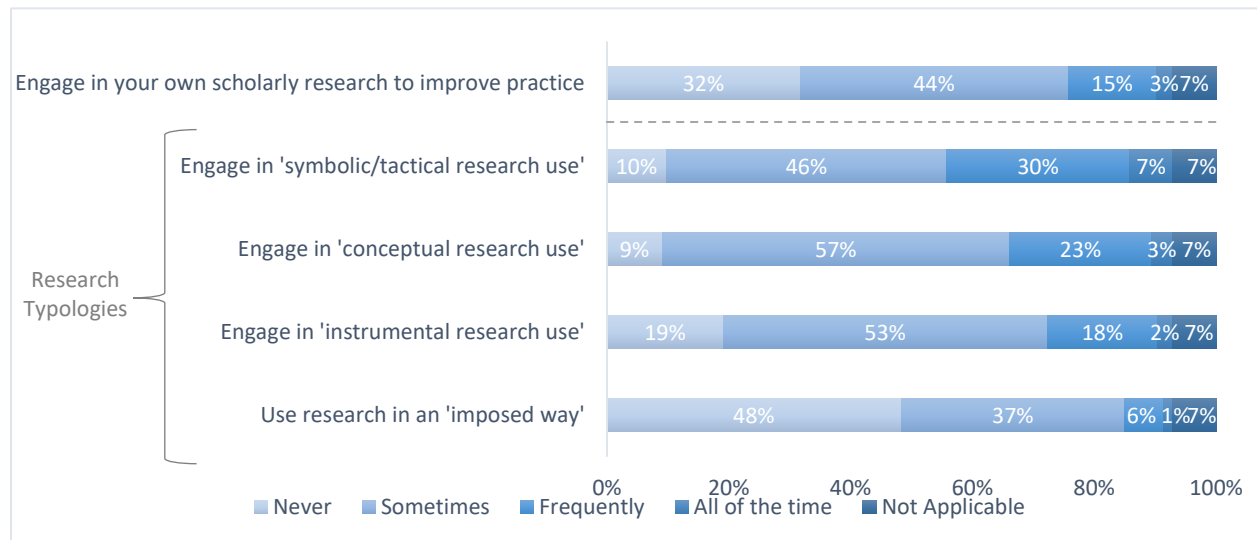


Figure 4.8 Frequency of Research Knowledge Use by Typologies (Source: Survey questions 4.7_1 – 4.7_5)

In the first item on Figure 4.7, I asked respondents about engaging in their own scholarly research to improve practice. This engagement is defined as carrying out research and authoring their own manuscripts based on findings. Although research knowledge and evidence use landed at the bottom of the earlier figures and findings, out of those who *do* use research, I find that nearly one-fifth (18%) of the people answered they do engage in their own scholarly research *Frequently* and *All the time*. An additional 44% carry out their own research at least *Sometimes*. I find this to be interesting as research knowledge and evidence use consistently falls at the bottom in the above findings; however, when polling those who do use research more frequently, a substantive number of people in Figure 4.8 state they engage in their own research at least *Sometimes*, *Frequently*, or *All the time* (62% total). This is an implication for future studies and

learning more about how those who engage in their own research might connect with scholars in academia and vice versa more frequently for research partnerships and knowledge mobilization.

In the next four items (indicated as research typologies), I ask about the different ways research could be used (see Beyer & Trice, 1982; Brennan et al., 2017; Larsen, 1980; Weiss, 1979). The most utilized form is ‘symbolic/tactical research use.’ This form of knowledge focuses on ‘persuasion’ to a specific point of view or course of action – it provides a sense of legitimacy to findings or beliefs or shows a sense of responsiveness to problems or issues that might emerge (Beyer & Trice, 1982; Weiss, 1979). Over one-third of the sample state they use this research type *All the time* or *Frequently* (37%). Nearly an additional half of the group (46%) also use research in symbolic/tactical ways at least *Sometimes*.

The next most frequently utilized research knowledge area is ‘conceptual use.’ As a reminder, conceptual research use focuses more on how one can read and explore research which can change the way people and organizations think about issues and practice over time. It can be more abstract and theoretical in which people begin to question their practices, seek out new ideas and concepts, and weave research-based knowledge into the organization (Beyer & Trice, 1982). One in four respondents (25%) engage in conceptual use *Frequently* or *All the time*, and over 50% of respondents use it *Sometimes*.

In addition to these two research use typologies, instrumental also shows a pattern of regular use. Instrumental use is more straight forward in definition, meaning it informs how an organization will decide about content or direction of a program based on the research evidence and findings (Larsen, 1980). Over half of the sample (53%) state they at least *Sometimes* use research in this way and an additional one-fifth of respondents use it *Frequently* or *All the time* (20%). An important note though, nearly an additional one-fifth of the sample say they *Never* use

research knowledge in this way compared to smaller totals in the *Never* category in the first two discussed research use typologies. Finally, ‘imposed research use’ is used least, which means it is required by their organization. Nearly half of the study participants state this never happened (48%). As I think through an EIPP lens and my conceptual framework, these different ways that research knowledge and evidence are used are helpful in understanding how research could be most helpful to practitioners and what partnerships might look like between researchers and practitioners.

Research Question 2a: What organizational practices and individual and organizational characteristics, if any, affect which knowledge guides the work of advancement organizations (i.e., tacit, explicit, embedded, and research-based knowledge)?

In the following section, I show results from ordinal logistic regressions (OLR) in Tables 4.4 – 4.7 and a linear regression in Table 4.8. I wish to know whether any variables or sociodemographic or organizational characteristics would make it more or less likely that respondents use specific knowledge types in their practice. The knowledge types are based on the four discussed previously in my study: tacit, explicit, embedded, or research-based knowledge. Survey questions 4.2 – 4.5 each serve as a dependent variable in the following tables. In these survey items, I asked participants: *How often do you use [knowledge type] in your decision-making and work?* (Never, Sometimes, Frequently, or All of the time). The independent variables in my tables included sociodemographic items, organizational characteristics, and two areas: 1) the endorsement of the four knowledge types, and 2) organizational practices aligned with the four knowledge types. I want to learn more about the possible relationships between these different independent variables and the increased or decreased likelihood of practitioners using specific knowledge to guide practice.

Before delving into each table and models on a deeper level, I again summarize the findings. Overall, individuals who endorse or support certain knowledge types are more likely to use those in practice. This holds true, even when controlling for all variables in the final models. Furthermore, even when controlling for all variables, in all models those practitioners who work in organizations that encourage the use of specific knowledge types are more likely to use that knowledge in their practice. When I examine sociodemographic variables in tables 4.4 – 4.8, as practitioners work longer they are more likely to use tacit, explicit, and research-based knowledge but *not* embedded knowledge. Additionally, terminal degree holders are more likely to use explicit, embedded, and research-based knowledge but *not* more likely to use tacit knowledge. Very few organizational characterizes show any relationship to the increased or decreased likelihood of using a specific knowledge type. After each table I provided predicted probability figures. Predicted probabilities provide a more “concrete interpretation” of my table results as they show the probability of landing in a specific category (e.g. All the Time; Strongly Agree; etc.) “when other independent variables are at their mean levels” (Drezner et al., 2020, p. 27).

Table 4.4: Individual tacit knowledge use

Table 4.4 focuses on participants’ use of tacit knowledge in their practice. Recall, respondents read a short definition of tacit knowledge as “instinctual knowledge that a person does not get from being taught or from books, classes, etc. rather, from personal experience, such as work experience.” I then asked respondents: *How often do you use tacit, instinctual knowledge in your decision-making and work?* In all models, I control for a series of sociodemographic (e.g., years worked in advancement, gender identity & expression, sexual orientation,

race/ethnicity, role, etc.) and organizational (e.g., region, yearly fundraising total, number of alumni served, etc.) variables.

Table 4.4 Ordinal Logistic Regression of Tacit Knowledge Use (n=1,826)

	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6
<i>Individual endorsement:</i>						
<i>Assumed to be related:</i>						
Tacit knowledge	.700*** (.084)	.642*** (.086)			.689*** (.085)	.637*** (.086)
<i>Assumed to be unrelated:</i>						
Explicit knowledge		-.054 (.091)				-.063 (.092)
Research knowledge		-.209* (.084)				-.173* (.085)
Embedded knowledge		.251** (.095)				.231* (.095)
<i>Organizational practices:</i>						
<i>Assumed to be related:</i>						
Tacit knowledge			.145* (.061)	.225** (.069)	.106 (.062)	.173* (.070)
<i>Assumed to be unrelated:</i>						
Research knowledge use and generation				-.275*** (.082)		-.222** (.085)
Explicit knowledge				-.032 (.064)		-.050 (.065)
<i>Sociodemographic Variables:</i>						
Years Worked in Advancement	.034*** (.006)	.034*** (.006)	.036*** (.006)	.037*** (.006)	.034*** (.006)	.035*** (.006)

Men	.055 (.107)	.060 (.108)	.102 (.107)	.107 (.107)	.070 (.108)	.078 (.108)
Non-binary gender identity	-.079 (.603)	-.020 (.603)	.053 (.591)	.158 (.594)	-.047 (.605)	.079 (.606)
Queer or Questioning	-.160 (.145)	-.153 (.145)	-.226 (.143)	-.230 (.143)	-.172 (.145)	-.166 (.146)
Hispanic Or Latinx/a/o	.098 (.209)	.110 (.210)	.033 (.206)	.035 (.206)	.078 (.209)	.087 (.211)
Black, Indigenous, and People of Color (BIPOC) or Something Else	-.212 (.154)	-.189 (.155)	-.198 (.152)	-.172 (.153)	-.210 (.154)	-.167 (.155)
Director	-.127 (.128)	-.141 (.129)	-.068 (.126)	-.069 (.127)	-.122 (.128)	-.137 (.129)
Leader	-.225 (.192)	-.205 (.192)	-.232 (.190)	-.212 (.190)	-.241 (.192)	-.204 (.193)
Other Position	-.122 (.169)	-.135 (.169)	-.165 (.167)	-.137 (.168)	-.136 (.169)	-.121 (.170)
Currently a Supervisor	.048 (.114)	.051 (.115)	-.021 (.113)	-.027 (.114)	.032 (.115)	.030 (.116)
Alumni relations	.082 (.119)	.068 (.119)	.091 (.117)	.090 (.118)	.083 (.119)	.071 (.119)
Communications	-.086 (.170)	-.057 (.171)	-.061 (.169)	-.063 (.169)	-.079 (.170)	-.057 (.172)
Development/Fundraising	.067 (.113)	.062 (.113)	.136 (.111)	.109 (.112)	.075 (.113)	.047 (.114)
Marketing	-.060 (.202)	-.070 (.203)	-.038 (.201)	-.033 (.201)	-.059 (.202)	-.065 (.204)
Other Functional Area	.046 (.163)	.036 (.163)	.028 (.161)	.043 (.161)	.043 (.163)	.043 (.164)
Masters Degree	-.037 (.104)	-.032 (.105)	-.032 (.103)	-.057 (.103)	-.032 (.104)	-.048 (.105)
Terminal Degree	-.012 (.173)	.003 (.174)	.000 (.170)	-.043 (.171)	-.006 (.173)	-.027 (.174)
Alum of Institution Respondent Works At	-.225* (.102)	-.246* (.102)	-.205* (.101)	-.195 (.101)	-.228* (.102)	-.238* (.102)

***Organizational
Characteristics:***

Private	.223 (.140)	.229 (.140)	.224 (.138)	.216 (.138)	.221 (.140)	.219 (.141)
Doctoral Universities	-.205 (.212)	-.198 (.213)	-.151 (.209)	-.145 (.209)	-.209 (.212)	-.196 (.213)
Land Grant Institutions	-.020 (.135)	-.022 (.136)	-.076 (.134)	-.110 (.135)	-.025 (.135)	-.052 (.137)
Midwest	.118 (.154)	.121 (.154)	.072 (.152)	.083 (.152)	.120 (.154)	.133 (.155)
South	.309* (.140)	.311* (.141)	.288* (.139)	.314* (.139)	.304* (.140)	.328* (.141)
West	.104 (.164)	.096 (.164)	.095 (.162)	.124 (.163)	.110 (.164)	.129 (.165)
\$100,000,001 - \$200,000,000	.049 (.146)	.041 (.146)	.067 (.144)	.052 (.145)	.048 (.146)	.029 (.147)
\$200,000,001 - \$500,000,000	.232 (.150)	.208 (.150)	.157 (.148)	.138 (.149)	.207 (.150)	.175 (.151)
\$500,000,001 & higher	-.061 (.221)	-.051 (.221)	-.159 (.218)	-.183 (.218)	-.088 (.221)	-.099 (.222)
51-100	-.103 (.149)	-.091 (.150)	-.145 (.148)	-.147 (.148)	-.117 (.150)	-.107 (.150)
100+	-.203 (.142)	-.204 (.142)	-.271 (.140)	-.272 (.140)	-.221 (.142)	-.221 (.143)
50,001 - 100,000	.067 (.213)	.035 (.214)	.083 (.210)	.078 (.211)	.079 (.213)	.045 (.214)
100,001 - 200,000	.273 (.210)	.268 (.211)	.270 (.208)	.297 (.208)	.279 (.210)	.296 (.211)
200,001 - 300,000	.177 (.218)	.170 (.218)	.192 (.215)	.206 (.216)	.181 (.218)	.188 (.219)
300,001+	.034 (.216)	.046 (.217)	.114 (.214)	.139 (.214)	.040 (.217)	.072 (.218)
Co-administered	.132 (.114)	.129 (.114)	.139 (.112)	.130 (.113)	.136 (.114)	.129 (.114)

Decentralized	.713*** (.180)	.686*** (.180)	.691*** (.177)	.706*** (.178)	.724*** (.180)	.719*** (.181)
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* Source: Survey Question 4.2

Model 1 shows the relationship between respondents' endorsement of tacit knowledge and the dependent variable ($b=.700$, $p < .001$). Those who endorse the use of tacit knowledge are more likely to use tacit knowledge in their practice. Even when controlling for additional individual norms (Model 2), organizational norms (Models 3, 4 & 5), and all variables (Model 6), this relationship remains. However, the size of the coefficient is slightly smaller in Model 6 ($b=.637$, $p < .001$).

In Models 2 and 6, I add all of the individual norms regarding knowledge use (explicit, research, and embedded) to explore whether there is any relationship with tacit knowledge use. I find that those who endorse research knowledge are *less* likely to use tacit knowledge ($b=-.209$, $p<.05$); and those who endorse embedded knowledge are *more* likely to apply tacit knowledge in their practice ($b=.251$, $p<.01$). The significant relationship for these norms holds when adjusting for all variables (Model 6, $b=-.173$, $p<.05$ and $b=.231$, $p<.05$ respectively). However, I find no significant relationship between endorsing explicit knowledge and using tacit knowledge. In other words, practitioners are using tacit knowledge regardless of their endorsement of explicit knowledge.

Based on past research, I argue that organizational culture – as reflected in individual norms and organizational practices – shapes knowledge use in advancement shops. I turn now to examine the relationship between organizational practices and knowledge use. As illustrated in Model 3, practitioners working in organizations that promote tacit knowledge are more likely to use tacit knowledge ($b=.145$, $p<.05$). The link between these two variables holds in the final model when controlling for all variables, and the coefficient strengthens ($b=.173$, $p<.05$). In

Model 4, I introduce additional organizational practices assumed to be unrelated to the outcome variable. In organizations in which research knowledge is promoted, practitioners show less engagement with tacit knowledge use ($b=-.275, p<.001$). This pattern holds in the final model ($b=-.222, p<.01$). I find no significant relationship between the organizational promotion of explicit knowledge and practitioners use of tacit knowledge.

When looking at sociodemographic variables, only two of the 18 variables show significance. As years of experiences increases, practitioners are more likely to use tacit knowledge ($b=.035, p<.001$). Alumni of their institution are less likely to use tacit knowledge ($b=-.225, p<.05$). Only two organizational characteristics are significant. Practitioners that work at institutions in the South are more likely to use tacit knowledge than their counterparts at institutions in the Northeast. Additionally, there is a significant correlation between organizational structure and tacit knowledge use. Practitioners who report working in decentralized institutions are more likely than their counterparts in centralized and co-administrated institutions to use tacit knowledge.

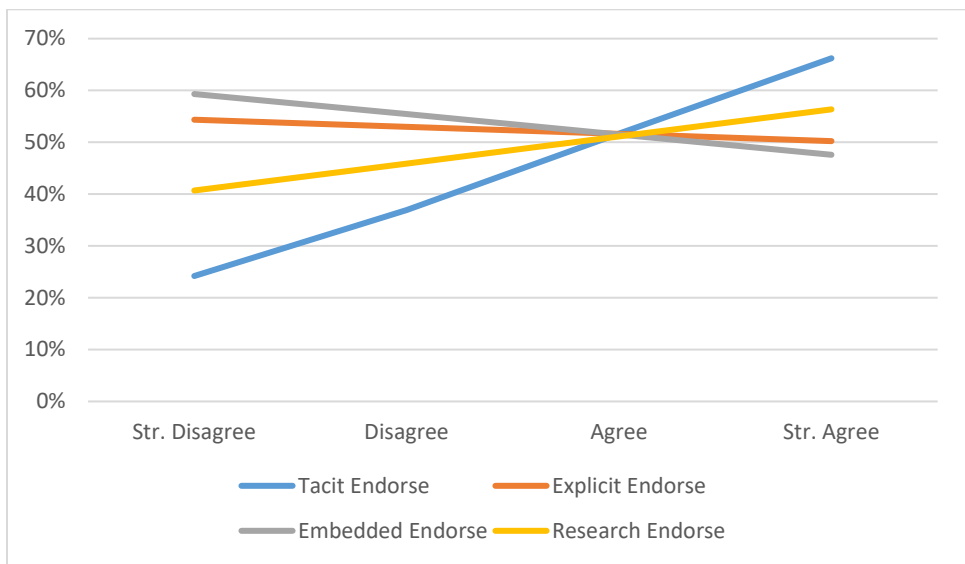


Figure 4.9 Predicted Probability of Tacit Knowledge Use by Endorsement of Knowledge Types

In looking at the predicted probabilities for tacit knowledge in Figure 4.9, those who strongly endorse the use of tacit knowledge have 66% likelihood of using tacit knowledge all the time in their practice. While those who strongly disagree with use of tacit knowledge, are much less likely (24%) to use tacit knowledge all the time in their work.

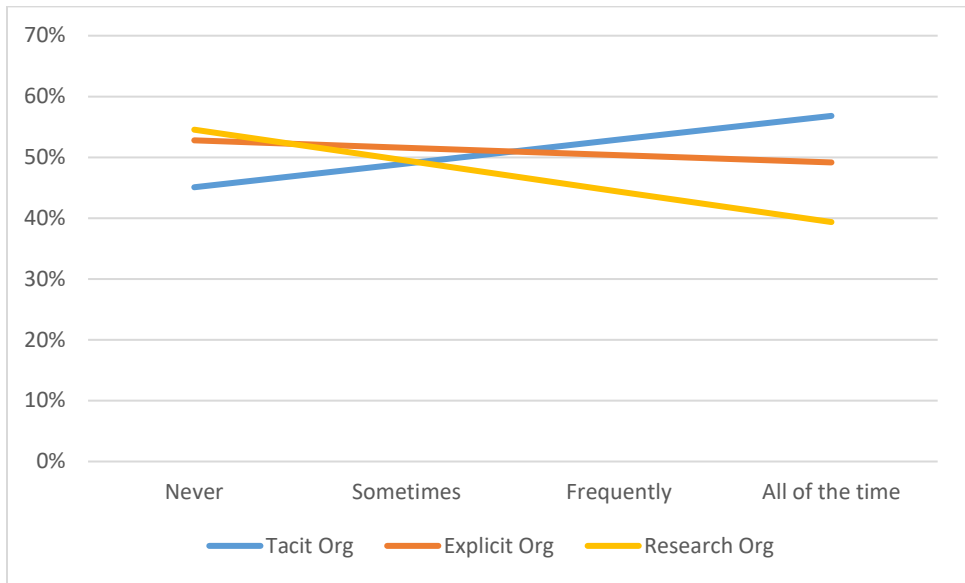


Figure 4.10 Predicted Probability of Tacit Knowledge Use by Organizational Knowledge Practice

The same pattern holds true when looking at organizational practices (Figure 4.10). Those who work in organizations who encourage the use of tacit knowledge have a 57% probability of using tacit knowledge all the time. This is compared to those whose organization never uses tacit knowledge – the likelihood decreases to a 49% probability.

Table 4.5 Individual explicit knowledge use

The second regression, Table 4.5, centers on practitioners’ use of explicit knowledge (i.e., the dependent variable). This model again controls for sociodemographic and organizational variables. Participants read the following definition of explicit knowledge before indicating the frequency of using this type of knowledge: ‘knowledge that can be expressed in words, numbers,

and symbols and stored in books, computers, etc. It can be articulated and easily communicated between individuals and organizations, such as in manuals, guidebooks, or trainings.’

Table 4.5 Ordinal Logistic Regression of Explicit Knowledge Use (n=1,826)

	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6
<i>Individual endorsement:</i>						
<i>Assumed to be related:</i>						
Explicit knowledge	.550*** (.085)	.524*** (.087)			.539*** (.085)	.486*** (.088)
<i>Assumed to be unrelated:</i>						
Tacit knowledge		-.150 (.079)				-.179* (.080)
Embedded knowledge		.083 (.089)				.053 (.089)
Research knowledge		.132 (.079)				.116 (.080)
<i>Organizational practices:</i>						
<i>Assumed to be related:</i>						
Explicit knowledge			.211*** (.056)	.098 (.061)	.197*** (.056)	.110 (.061)
<i>Assumed to be unrelated:</i>						
Tacit knowledge				.255*** (.065)		.229*** (.066)
Research knowledge use and generation				.114 (.079)		.070 (.080)
Years Worked in Advancement	.019** (.006)	.020*** (.006)	.017** (.006)	.016** (.006)	.018** (.006)	.019*** (.006)
Men	.023 (.102)	.034 (.102)	.010 (.101)	.039 (.102)	.024 (.102)	.060 (.102)

Non-binary gender identity	.111 (.566)	.150 (.567)	.078 (.564)	.102 (.566)	.058 (.566)	.125 (.569)
Queer or Questioning	-.055 (.138)	-.077 (.138)	-.060 (.138)	-.071 (.138)	-.074 (.138)	-.108 (.139)
Hispanic Or Latinx/a/o	-.050 (.198)	-.070 (.198)	-.059 (.197)	-.110 (.198)	-.055 (.198)	-.122 (.199)
Black, Indigenous, and People of Color (BIPOC) or Something Else	-.010 (.147)	-.004 (.147)	.019 (.147)	.009 (.147)	.003 (.147)	.002 (.148)
Director	-.098 (.122)	-.088 (.122)	-.167 (.121)	-.153 (.121)	-.111 (.122)	-.088 (.122)
Leader	.106 (.181)	.107 (.181)	.050 (.180)	.031 (.181)	.078 (.181)	.060 (.182)
Other Position	.132 (.161)	.125 (.161)	.080 (.161)	.056 (.161)	.087 (.162)	.059 (.162)
Currently a Supervisor	.213 (.109)	.206 (.109)	.246* (.108)	.219* (.109)	.209 (.109)	.176 (.110)
Alumni relations	-.443*** (.113)	-.433*** (.113)	-.448*** (.112)	-.438*** (.113)	-.453*** (.113)	-.435*** (.113)
Communications	-.120 (.163)	-.108 (.163)	-.138 (.162)	-.132 (.163)	-.110 (.163)	-.097 (.163)
Development/Fundraising	-.124 (.107)	-.098 (.108)	-.134 (.107)	-.123 (.107)	-.101 (.107)	-.068 (.108)
Marketing	.240 (.193)	.223 (.193)	.264 (.192)	.268 (.193)	.246 (.193)	.241 (.194)
Other Functional Area	-.208 (.155)	-.206 (.156)	-.232 (.155)	-.246 (.155)	-.210 (.156)	-.219 (.156)
Masters Degree	-.153 (.099)	-.161 (.099)	-.167 (.098)	-.145 (.099)	-.152 (.099)	-.143 (.099)
Terminal Degree	.326* (.163)	.327* (.163)	.295 (.163)	.338* (.164)	.318 (.163)	.348* (.164)
Alum of Institution Respondent Works At	-.033 (.096)	-.028 (.097)	-.055 (.096)	-.058 (.096)	-.046 (.097)	-.043 (.097)
Private	.043 (.132)	.040 (.132)	.010 (.132)	.009 (.132)	.035 (.132)	.031 (.133)

Doctoral Universities	-.044 (.200)	-.042 (.200)	-.039 (.199)	-.051 (.200)	-.050 (.200)	-.056 (.201)
Land Grant Institutions	.100 (.128)	.094 (.129)	.082 (.128)	.090 (.129)	.082 (.129)	.075 (.129)
Midwest	-.047 (.146)	-.066 (.146)	-.019 (.145)	-.022 (.146)	-.053 (.146)	-.073 (.146)
South	-.128 (.133)	-.144 (.133)	-.117 (.132)	-.135 (.133)	-.140 (.133)	-.165 (.133)
West	-.003 (.156)	-.018 (.156)	.039 (.156)	.041 (.156)	-.005 (.156)	-.011 (.157)
\$100,000,001 - \$200,000,000	.015 (.138)	.014 (.139)	.032 (.138)	.034 (.138)	.023 (.138)	.024 (.139)
\$200,000,001 - \$500,000,000	.130 (.141)	.117 (.141)	.093 (.141)	.059 (.141)	.104 (.141)	.057 (.142)
\$500,000,001 & higher	-.134 (.208)	-.154 (.209)	-.136 (.208)	-.194 (.209)	-.148 (.209)	-.223 (.210)
51-100	-.131 (.141)	-.138 (.141)	-.127 (.141)	-.156 (.141)	-.139 (.141)	-.173 (.142)
100+	-.186 (.133)	-.198 (.134)	-.189 (.133)	-.229 (.134)	-.211 (.134)	-.260 (.134)
50,001 - 100,000	-.064 (.201)	-.048 (.201)	-.044 (.200)	-.027 (.201)	-.046 (.201)	-.016 (.202)
100,001 - 200,000	-.036 (.198)	-.022 (.198)	-.013 (.198)	-.017 (.198)	-.031 (.198)	-.020 (.199)
200,001 - 300,000	-.157 (.205)	-.129 (.206)	-.158 (.205)	-.152 (.205)	-.164 (.205)	-.133 (.206)
300,001+	-.033 (.203)	-.007 (.204)	-.043 (.203)	-.036 (.203)	-.036 (.204)	.000 (.204)
Co-administered	.103 (.108)	.111 (.108)	.122 (.108)	.141 (.108)	.096 (.108)	.122 (.109)
Decentralized	.264 (.165)	.274 (.165)	.253 (.164)	.300 (.165)	.238 (.165)	.288 (.166)

* Source: Survey question 4.3

Model 1 explores the relationship between respondents' endorsement of explicit knowledge and the dependent variable. Again, there is alignment between practitioners who endorse explicit knowledge and who use it in their practice – those who endorse this knowledge type are more likely to use it ($b=.550, p < .001$). The relationship persists in the additional models, even when controlling for sociodemographic and organizational variables and individual endorsement of other knowledge types and organizational practices ($b=.486, p < .001$). The coefficient is smaller in the final model, however. In Model 2, I add additional individual knowledge endorsement variables. There are no relationships found in this model; however, in the final model, when controlling for all variables, I do find that those who endorse tacit knowledge use are less likely to use explicit knowledge in their practice ($b=-.179, p<.05$).

I then introduce organizational practice variables in Models 3, 4, and 5. In Model 3, I add one organizational variable 'Organizational practice of producing non-research based publications, written materials, reports, and/or tools aimed at practitioners in the field of advancement;' I assumed this variable is related to the dependent variable. In this model, there is a relationship between this variable and explicit knowledge use ($b=.211, p<.001$). Those who practice in organizations who produce non-research based materials are more likely to use explicit knowledge. In Model 4, I add in all organizational practice variables. Although I assumed it to be unrelated, the organizational practice of 'creating presentations, fact sheets, checklists, and/or guidelines for practitioners within our organization based on professional expertise' does show a relationship ($b=.255, p<.001$); this relationship remains, even when controlling for all variables in the final model. When I add in these additional assumed unrelated variables, the relationship for 'production of non-research based materials disappears.' This relationship reemerges in Model 4 when I only included the assumed related individual level and

organizational variables: ‘Individual endorsement of explicit knowledge’ & ‘Organizational practice of producing non-research based materials aimed at practitioners’ ($b=.539, p<.001$ & $b=.197, p<.001$ respectively). In the final model, ‘Organizational practice of producing non-research based materials aimed at practitioners’ loses significance when adjusting for all variables. I find no models in Table 4.5 show a relationship with research knowledge use on an individual or organizational level.

I include sociodemographic and organizational variables in all six of the models, and I find that only a small number of variables show a relationship with explicit knowledge use. From an individual perspective, I see a similar pattern as before that ‘years worked in advancement’ shows a relationship with explicit knowledge use. As practitioners experience grows, they are more likely to use explicit knowledge. This pattern holds steady, with equal coefficients in Models 1 and 6 ($b=.019, p<.001$). Furthermore, I find that alumni relations practitioners are less likely to use explicit knowledge use ($b=-.435, p<.001$). Those who hold terminal degrees are more likely to use explicit knowledge (Model 6: $b=.348, p<.05$).

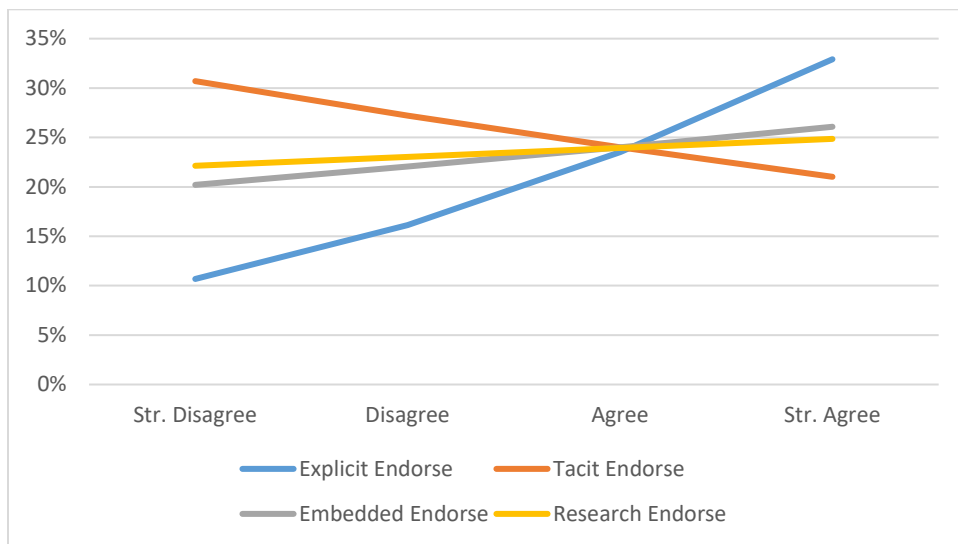


Figure 4.11 Predicted Probability of Explicit Knowledge Use by Endorsement of Knowledge Types

Again, when I calculated the predicted probabilities in Figure 4.11, I found that those who strongly disagree that they use explicit knowledge have only an 11% chance of utilizing this knowledge type; however, this increases to 33% for those who strongly agree (i.e., endorse) this knowledge type.

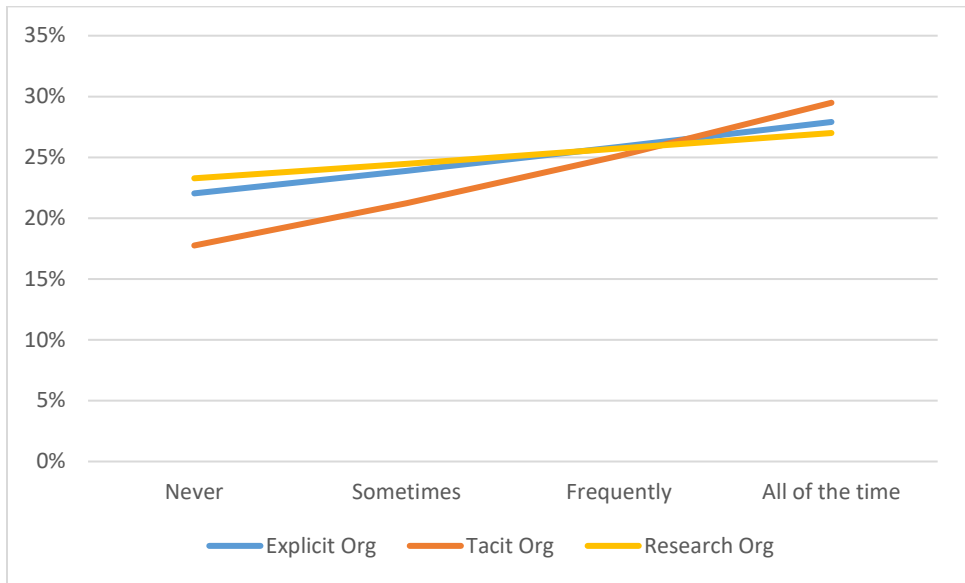


Figure 4.12 Predicted Probability of Explicit Knowledge Use by Organizational Knowledge Practice

When I turn to organizational knowledge practices (Figure 4.12), I again find that the odds of using explicit knowledge increase when their organization encourages the use of this type (24% to 28%). Interestingly, as mirrored in my table above, tacit knowledge also shows as an increase, with a high likelihood of using tacit knowledge when the organization encourages the use of explicit knowledge all the time (29%).

Table 4.6: Individual embedded knowledge use

I then move to a focus on individual embedded knowledge use. The first two OLR regression tables above focus on relationships with knowledge based on personal experience and recorded knowledge; I now explore the individual use of knowledge within the organization built

over time. I created Table 4.6 based on my survey question on embedded knowledge (i.e., the dependent variable). Practitioners were shown the definition ‘Embedded knowledge rests in the routines, processes, structures, culture, and norms that are produced by people but that live within the organization over time and outlast individuals.’ They were then asked ‘*how often they use this knowledge type?*’

Table 4.6 Ordinal Logistic Regression of Embedded Knowledge Use (n=1,826)

	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6
<i>Individual endorsement:</i>						
<i>Assumed to be related:</i>						
Embedded knowledge	.710*** (.089)	.652*** (.092)			.670*** (.089)	.625*** (.092)
<i>Assumed to be unrelated:</i>						
Tacit knowledge		.078 (.081)				.056 (.081)
Explicit knowledge		.232** (.088)				.196* (.089)
Research knowledge		.002 (.080)				.003 (.081)
<i>Organizational practices:</i>						
<i>Assumed to be related:</i>						
Tacit knowledge			.330*** (.059)	.329*** (.067)	.290*** (.060)	.269*** (.068)
<i>Assumed to be unrelated:</i>						
Research knowledge use and generation				-.026 (.080)		-.020 (.082)
Explicit knowledge				.017 (.062)		.026 (.063)

Years Worked in Advancement	-.005 (.006)	-.005 (.006)	-.005 (.006)	-.005 (.006)	-.005 (.006)	-.005 (.006)
Men	-.131 (.103)	-.134 (.104)	-.098 (.103)	-.098 (.103)	-.100 (.104)	-.105 (.104)
Non-binary gender identity	-1.378* (.577)	-1.405* (.578)	-1.471* (.573)	-1.469* (.574)	-1.364* (.577)	-1.392* (.579)
Queer or Questioning	.183 (.141)	.189 (.141)	.161 (.140)	.159 (.140)	.155 (.141)	.160 (.141)
Hispanic Or Latinx/a/o	.075 (.202)	.074 (.203)	.041 (.201)	.042 (.201)	.026 (.203)	.029 (.203)
Black, Indigenous, and People of Color (BIPOC) or Something Else	-.213 (.150)	-.221 (.150)	-.235 (.149)	-.232 (.150)	-.206 (.150)	-.210 (.151)
Director	-.155 (.124)	-.134 (.124)	-.127 (.123)	-.128 (.123)	-.145 (.124)	-.129 (.125)
Leader	.154 (.184)	.166 (.185)	.057 (.183)	.057 (.184)	.114 (.185)	.125 (.185)
Other Position	-.055 (.164)	-.040 (.164)	-.080 (.163)	-.080 (.164)	-.091 (.164)	-.080 (.165)
Currently a Supervisor	.135 (.111)	.124 (.111)	.080 (.110)	.079 (.110)	.094 (.111)	.085 (.112)
Alumni relations	.002 (.114)	.003 (.114)	.030 (.114)	.030 (.114)	.007 (.115)	.007 (.115)
Communications	-.108 (.166)	-.105 (.166)	-.171 (.165)	-.170 (.165)	-.100 (.167)	-.096 (.167)
Development/Fundraising	-.017 (.109)	-.009 (.110)	-.024 (.108)	-.024 (.109)	-.005 (.109)	.004 (.110)
Marketing	.236 (.197)	.233 (.197)	.328 (.196)	.328 (.196)	.249 (.197)	.246 (.197)
Other Functional Area	.134 (.158)	.143 (.158)	.128 (.158)	.130 (.158)	.120 (.158)	.129 (.159)
Masters Degree	.116 (.100)	.124 (.101)	.140 (.100)	.137 (.100)	.133 (.101)	.137 (.101)
Terminal Degree	.328* (.167)	.333* (.167)	.303 (.166)	.297 (.166)	.340* (.167)	.339* (.168)

Alum of Institution	.129	.134	.156	.156	.127	.131
Respondent Works At	(.098)	(.099)	(.098)	(.098)	(.099)	(.099)
Private	.232	.239	.211	.209	.220	.225
	(.135)	(.135)	(.134)	(.134)	(.135)	(.135)
Doctoral Universities	.024	.014	-.001	.000	.006	.000
	(.203)	(.204)	(.203)	(.203)	(.204)	(.204)
Land Grant Institutions	-.015	-.013	-.046	-.050	-.033	-.036
	(.131)	(.131)	(.130)	(.131)	(.131)	(.132)
Midwest	-.136	-.146	-.135	-.135	-.143	-.152
	(.148)	(.149)	(.148)	(.148)	(.149)	(.149)
South	-.029	-.035	-.025	-.023	-.051	-.053
	(.135)	(.135)	(.134)	(.135)	(.135)	(.136)
West	-.158	-.166	-.106	-.105	-.150	-.158
	(.159)	(.159)	(.158)	(.159)	(.160)	(.160)
\$100,000,001 -	.028	.027	.074	.073	.033	.030
\$200,000,000	(.141)	(.141)	(.140)	(.140)	(.141)	(.141)
\$200,000,001 -	.341*	.354*	.306*	.303*	.284*	.293*
\$500,000,000	(.143)	(.144)	(.143)	(.144)	(.144)	(.145)
\$500,000,001 & higher	.539*	.534*	.433*	.432*	.464*	.464*
	(.214)	(.214)	(.213)	(.213)	(.215)	(.216)
51-100	-.092	-.095	-.150	-.151	-.133	-.135
	(.143)	(.144)	(.143)	(.143)	(.144)	(.144)
100+	-.079	-.078	-.124	-.124	-.130	-.129
	(.136)	(.136)	(.136)	(.136)	(.136)	(.137)
50,001 - 100,000	-.282	-.288	-.240	-.241	-.255	-.259
	(.205)	(.205)	(.204)	(.204)	(.205)	(.206)
100,001 - 200,000	-.379	-.383	-.406*	-.405*	-.370	-.372
	(.202)	(.202)	(.201)	(.202)	(.203)	(.203)
200,001 - 300,000	-.200	-.206	-.249	-.250	-.195	-.202
	(.209)	(.210)	(.208)	(.208)	(.210)	(.210)
300,001+	-.188	-.196	-.227	-.227	-.181	-.187
	(.208)	(.208)	(.207)	(.207)	(.208)	(.209)
Co-administered	-.078	-.089	-.054	-.056	-.061	-.072
	(.110)	(.110)	(.110)	(.110)	(.110)	(.110)

Decentralized	.005 (.168)	.002 (.168)	.041 (.167)	.040 (.168)	.050 (.169)	.040 (.169)
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* Source: Survey question 4.4

I once again assumed that there is a relationship between those who endorse embedded knowledge and embedded knowledge use, and I find this to be true ($b=.710, p<.001$). Although the coefficient decreases across models, those who endorse embedded knowledge are more likely to use it in practice, even when controlling for all variables ($b=.625, p<.001$). When I include additional individual endorsement variables assumed to be unrelated, I do find that those who endorse explicit knowledge are more likely to use embedded knowledge (Model 2, $.232, p<.05$; Model 6, $.196, p<.05$). Tacit knowledge and research-based knowledge endorsement shows no relationship with the dependent variable, embedded research use.

When I introduce organizational practices in Models 3, 4, and 5, only one variable shows a relationship: organizations who promote creating resources based on tacit knowledge. This pattern holds true even when controlling for all variables in Model 6 ($b=.269, p<.001$). I assumed this variable would show a relationship as previous literature points to embedded knowledge as stores of built-up tacit knowledge over time from different practitioners. I find no relationships between organizational practices around explicit materials creation and research use/generation.

I then turn to sociodemographic and organizational variables. Again, a small number of these variables show a link with the dependent variable. For the first time, I find that ‘years of practice’ does not show any significant relationship with the dependent variable. However, from a social identity perspective, the models do show that those who are Non-binary are less likely to use embedded knowledge than women across all models. From Model 1 through Model 4, the coefficient strengthens (peaks at $b=-1.469, p<.05$), but in Model 5 I find that the coefficient

decreases in size ($b=-1.364$, $p<.05$). However, in the final model, when adjusting for all variables, the coefficient again strengthens as compared to Models 1 and 5 ($b=-1.392$, $p<.05$). The final individual level variable that I find linked to an increase in embedded knowledge use is terminal degrees – respondents who earned a terminal degree are more likely to use embedded knowledge even when controlling for all variables ($b=.339$, $p<.05$).

Finally, I examine the organizational characteristics of the institutions in my sample. In relation to the dependent variable, total yearly fundraising does show a connection with embedded knowledge use – organizations who fundraise for either ‘\$200,000,001 - \$500,000,000’ or ‘\$500,000,001 & higher’ are more likely to use embedded knowledge than those who raise \$25,000,000 - \$100,000,000 (Model 6: $b=.293$, $p<.05$ & $b=.464$, $p<.05$ respectively). In addition, I find that those who serve 100,001 - 200,000 alumni show a link with embedded knowledge, but this significant relationship only appears in Models 3 and 4 ($b=-.406$, $p<.05$; $b=-.405$, $p<.05$).

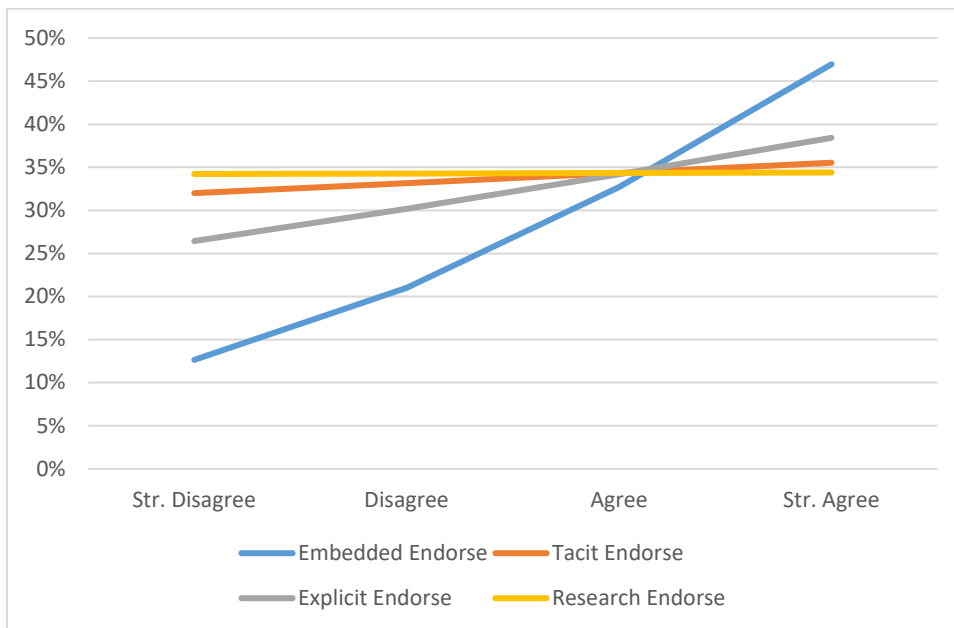


Figure 4.13 Predicted Probability of Embedded Knowledge Use by Endorsement of Knowledge Types

When I calculate the predicted probabilities for embedded knowledge (Figure 4.13), I see the steepest increase from those who do not endorse the use of embedded knowledge (Strongly Disagree) versus those who do (Strongly Agree). The probability of using this knowledge type moves from 13% to 47%.

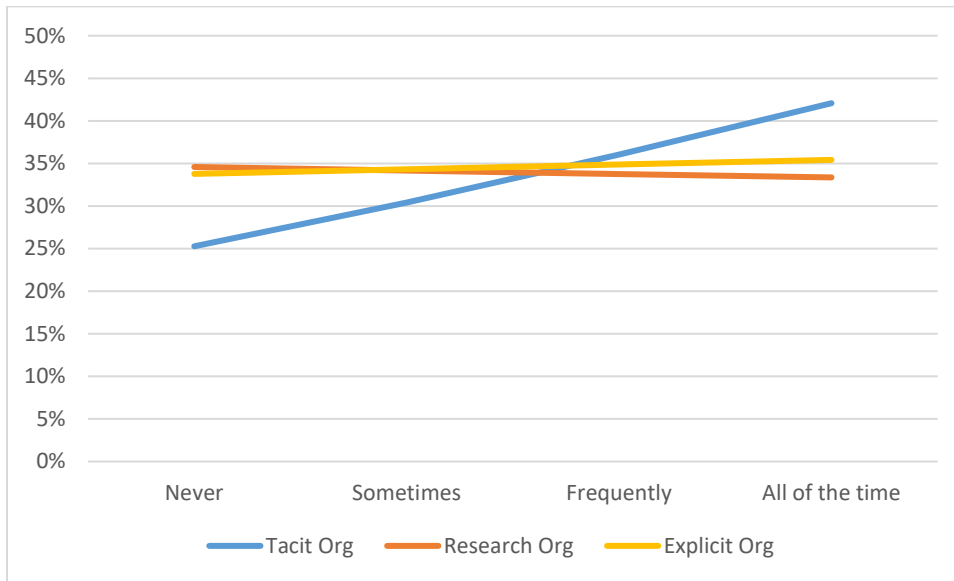


Figure 4.14 Predicted Probability of Embedded Knowledge Use by Organizational Knowledge Practice

Similarly, in Figure 4.14 the probability of respondents using embedded knowledge nearly doubles based on organizational practices. For those whose organization never encourages the use of embedded knowledge, there is a 25% likelihood of using it. This increases to 42% for those who use it all the time as an organization.

Table 4.7: Individual research knowledge use

In my final ordinal logistical regressions based on knowledge use, I explore relationships with individual research knowledge use (dependent variable) and other variables. In my survey, I defined research knowledge based on the understanding from the EIPP literature – knowledge that has been generated through the research process, which consists of: building on previous

knowledge, theory utilization, grounded and tested methods, data collection and analysis, and peer review. Again, recall that participants were asked ‘*How often do you use research-based knowledge in your decision-making and work?*’

Table 4.7 Ordinal Logistic Regression of Research Knowledge Use (n=1,826)

	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6
<i>Individual endorsement:</i>						
<i>Assumed to be related:</i>						
Research knowledge	.596*** (.081)	.588*** (.082)			.436*** (.083)	.441*** (.085)
<i>Assumed to be unrelated:</i>						
Tacit knowledge		-.077 (.081)				-.116 (.083)
Explicit knowledge		-.059 (.089)				-.137 (.091)
Embedded knowledge		-.181* (.091)				-.226* (.094)
<i>Organizational practices:</i>						
<i>Assumed to be related:</i>						
Research knowledge use and generation			1.073*** (.080)	1.023*** (.084)	1.007*** (.081)	.949*** (.085)
<i>Assumed to be unrelated:</i>						
Tacit knowledge				.102 (.068)		.154* (.069)
Explicit knowledge				.057 (.064)		.067 (.064)
Years Worked in Advancement	.032*** (.006)	.033*** (.006)	.031*** (.006)	.031*** (.006)	.032*** (.006)	.032*** (.006)
Men	-.041 (.105)	-.042 (.105)	-.027 (.106)	-.016 (.106)	-.027 (.106)	-.010 (.107)
Non-binary gender identity	.970 (.559)	.988 (.560)	.852 (.569)	.903 (.570)	.840 (.569)	.919 (.571)

Queer or Questioning	-.030 (.142)	-.033 (.143)	-.007 (.144)	-.025 (.145)	-.030 (.145)	-.060 (.145)
Hispanic Or Latinx/a/o	.284 (.201)	.287 (.202)	.275 (.204)	.262 (.205)	.261 (.205)	.245 (.206)
Black, Indigenous, and People of Color (BIPOC) or Something Else	.357* (.150)	.345* (.150)	.268 (.152)	.279 (.153)	.266 (.153)	.269 (.153)
Director	-.128 (.126)	-.128 (.126)	-.119 (.127)	-.121 (.127)	-.116 (.128)	-.120 (.128)
Leader	.229 (.184)	.214 (.184)	.151 (.186)	.134 (.187)	.155 (.187)	.110 (.188)
Other Position	-.062 (.167)	-.070 (.167)	-.195 (.169)	-.213 (.170)	-.179 (.170)	-.211 (.170)
Currently a Supervisor	.209 (.112)	.211 (.113)	.204 (.114)	.188 (.114)	.203 (.114)	.187 (.115)
Alumni relations	-.102 (.116)	-.096 (.116)	-.101 (.117)	-.099 (.117)	-.086 (.118)	-.078 (.118)
Communications	.090 (.167)	.069 (.168)	.106 (.170)	.112 (.170)	.095 (.170)	.076 (.171)
Development/Fundraising	.072 (.110)	.071 (.111)	.135 (.112)	.145 (.112)	.165 (.113)	.176 (.113)
Marketing	.027 (.198)	.049 (.198)	.054 (.201)	.060 (.201)	.028 (.201)	.065 (.202)
Other Functional Area	.103 (.160)	.102 (.160)	.017 (.162)	.016 (.162)	.037 (.162)	.026 (.163)
Masters Degree	.027 (.102)	.025 (.102)	.145 (.103)	.142 (.103)	.126 (.104)	.118 (.104)
Terminal Degree	.331* (.166)	.321 [†] (.166)	.520** (.169)	.504** (.169)	.520** (.169)	.489** (.170)
Alum of Institution Respondent Works At	-.118 (.100)	-.107 (.100)	-.168 (.101)	-.171 (.101)	-.147 (.101)	-.138 (.102)
Private	.043 (.136)	.040 (.136)	.087 (.138)	.079 (.138)	.075 (.139)	.065 (.139)
Doctoral Universities	-.127 (.206)	-.124 (.206)	-.143 (.208)	-.149 (.208)	-.176 (.209)	-.173 (.209)

Land Grant Institutions	.056 (.132)	.050 (.132)	.198 (.134)	.183 (.135)	.192 (.135)	.167 (.135)
Midwest	.077 (.150)	.074 (.151)	.104 (.152)	.103 (.152)	.077 (.153)	.074 (.153)
South	.056 (.137)	.065 (.137)	.015 (.139)	.012 (.139)	-.006 (.139)	.002 (.140)
West	.107 (.160)	.116 (.161)	.073 (.163)	.081 (.163)	.062 (.163)	.090 (.164)
\$100,000,001 - \$200,000,000	.099 (.143)	.111 (.143)	.141 (.145)	.139 (.145)	.150 (.145)	.163 (.145)
\$200,000,001 - \$500,000,000	-.038 (.145)	-.027 (.146)	-.040 (.147)	-.075 (.148)	-.024 (.148)	-.060 (.149)
\$500,000,001 & higher	-.010 (.214)	-.014 (.215)	.054 (.218)	.023 (.219)	.015 (.218)	-.037 (.219)
51-100	-.020 (.145)	-.026 (.145)	-.024 (.147)	-.038 (.147)	-.039 (.147)	-.070 (.148)
100+	-.159 (.137)	-.164 (.138)	-.178 (.139)	-.201 (.140)	-.186 (.140)	-.232 (.140)
50,001 - 100,000	-.317 (.209)	-.316 (.209)	-.349 (.211)	-.338 (.211)	-.294 (.211)	-.280 (.212)
100,001 - 200,000	.157 (.204)	.146 (.204)	.009 (.206)	.019 (.206)	.057 (.207)	.059 (.207)
200,001 - 300,000	.145 (.211)	.129 (.211)	.017 (.213)	.016 (.213)	.082 (.214)	.063 (.215)
300,001+	.095 (.209)	.082 (.209)	-.035 (.212)	-.027 (.212)	-.003 (.212)	-.006 (.213)
Co-administered	-.065 (.111)	-.059 (.112)	-.033 (.113)	-.035 (.113)	-.019 (.113)	-.009 (.113)
Decentralized	.291 (.169)	.292 (.169)	.192 (.171)	.197 (.171)	.259 (.171)	.275 (.172)

* Source: Survey question 4.5

In Model 1, those who endorse research-based knowledge are more likely to use research-based knowledge (b=596, p<.001). Although the coefficient loses strength in later

models, it still shows a relationship in Model 6 when controlling for all variables ($b=.441$, $p<.001$). When adding in individual knowledge variables assumed to be unrelated in Model 2, I find that one variable shows a relationship – those who endorse the use of embedded knowledge are *less* likely to use research-based knowledge, and this relationship strengthens from Model 2 to Model 6 ($b=-.181$, $p<.05$ & $b=-.226$, $p<.05$ respectively).

To reiterate, I argue that organizational practices play a role in the culture of the organization, and when adding in these variables in Models 3, 4, and 5, two do show a relationship. Research-based organizational practices of ‘research knowledge generation and use’ show a relationship: Those who practice in these organizations are more likely to use research-based knowledge, even when adjusting for all variables in Model 6 ($b=.949$, $p<.001$). Furthermore, I find that the respondents who work in organizations that encourage the creation of tacit-based resources and materials are *more* likely to use research-based knowledge as well but only in the final model when all variables are included ($b=.154$, $p<.05$).

In Table 4.7, I again control for demographic and organizational variables. ‘Years worked in advancement’ follows the same patterns that I found in Table 4.4 and Table 4.5, with very little change in the coefficient in all six models ($b=.032$, $P<.001$) – as years of experience increases, practitioners are more likely to use research-based knowledge. For the first time in these models based on knowledge use, I see that race shows a relationship in Models 1 and 2. These models include individual level knowledge endorsement variables ($b=.357$, $p<.05$ & $b=.345$, $p<.05$ respectively). This relationship disappears, however, when including organizational practices and all variables in Model 6. From an education perspective, I find that those who earned a terminal degree are more likely to use research-based knowledge. The coefficient strength increases from Model 1 to Model 6, which includes all variables ($b=.331$,

$p < .05$ compared to $b = .489$, $p < .05$). Even in Model 2, the terminal degree variable is on the cusp of significance ($b = .321$, $t = .053$). Finally, in this table, I find no organizational characteristics to be related to the greater likelihood of using of embedded knowledge.

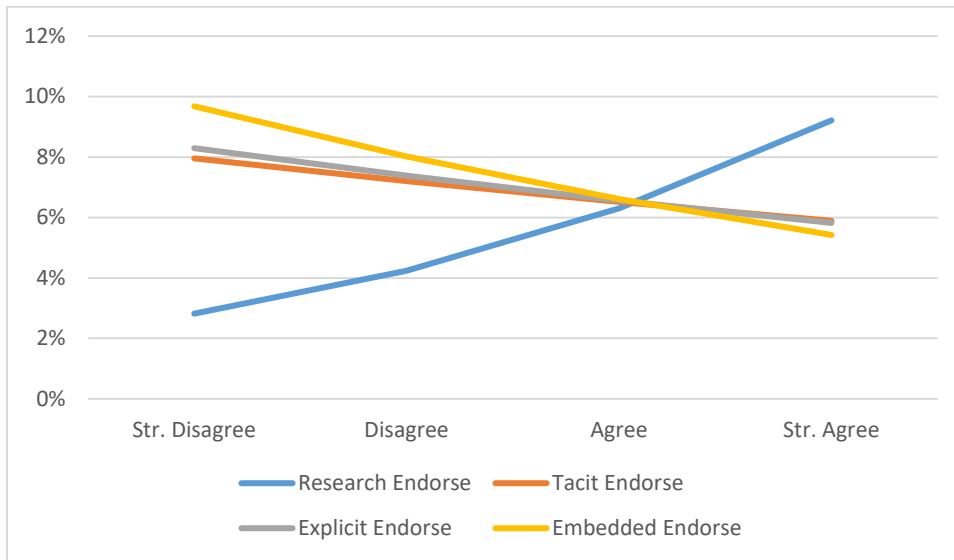


Figure 4.15 Predicted Probability of Research Knowledge Use by Endorsement of Knowledge Types

Finally, when analyzing research knowledge use probabilities in Figure 4.15, those who strongly endorse the use of research knowledge have 9% likelihood of using this knowledge all the time in their practice; while those who strongly disagree with use of research knowledge are less likely (3%) to use research knowledge all the time in their work.

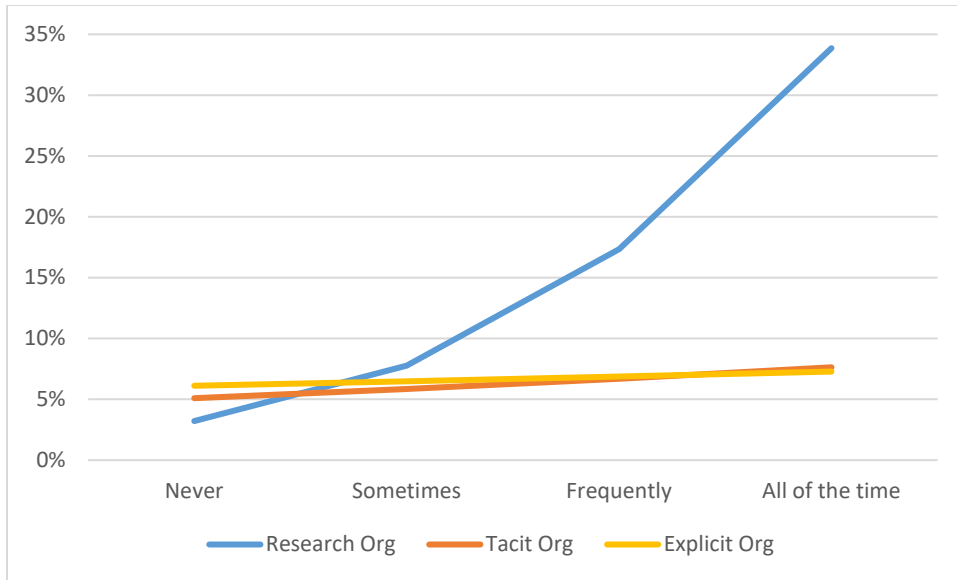


Figure 4.16 Predicted Probability of Research Knowledge Use by Organizational Knowledge Practice

From an organizational practice lens, there is over a three times greater likelihood of using research knowledge all the time when their organization practice encourages this (34%) compared to those who never use research knowledge (3%) (Figure 4.16).

Table 4.8 Individual Research Use Scale (linear regression, n=1,695)

The final table in my individual level knowledge use regressions is based on a linear regression. As I previously discussed in my Methods chapter, I asked certain participants additional questions on their use of research-based knowledge to increase my understanding of how practitioners engage with, and use, research-based knowledge. Through the Qualtrics logic survey tool, I showed participants these questions if they selected that they use research-based knowledge ‘sometimes,’ ‘frequently,’ or ‘all the time’ in Q4.5 (n=1,695). These respondents were asked if they ‘engage in their own scholarly research to improve practice’ and if they engage in ‘conceptual, instrumental symbolic/tactical, and imposed research use’ (see p. 95 for further details/definitions). I then used factor analysis to explore the interrelation of these

questions. Once I confirmed their measurement of one phenomenon, i.e., research use, I created a scale. I treated this scale variable as a continuous variable, therefore, I used linear regression for my analysis in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8 Linear Regression of Research Knowledge Use Scale (n=1,695)

	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6
<i>Individual endorsement:</i>						
<i>Assumed to be related:</i>						
Research knowledge	.151*** (.020)	.158*** (.020)			.112*** (.020)	.125*** (.020)
<i>Assumed to be unrelated:</i>						
Tacit knowledge		.058** (.020)				.049* (.019)
Explicit knowledge		.016 (.022)				-.002 (.021)
Embedded knowledge		.012 (.022)				-.001 (.022)
<i>Organizational practices:</i>						
<i>Assumed to be related:</i>						
Research knowledge use and generation			.232*** (.018)	.206*** (.019)	.214*** (.018)	.186*** (.019)
<i>Assumed to be unrelated:</i>						
Tacit knowledge				.064*** (.016)		.065*** (.016)
Explicit knowledge				.003 (.015)		.008 (.015)
Years Worked in Advancement	.003* (.001)	.003* (.001)	.002 (.001)	.003 (.001)	.003* (.001)	.003 (.001)
Men	.038 (.026)	.037 (.026)	.043 (.025)	.050* (.025)	.043 (.025)	.048 (.024)

Non-binary gender identity	.515*** (.144)	.502*** (.144)	.458** (.140)	.484*** (.139)	.451** (.138)	.466*** (.137)
Queer or Questioning	.017 (.035)	.022 (.035)	.023 (.034)	.015 (.034)	.016 (.034)	.012 (.034)
Hispanic Or Latinx/a/o	.101* (.050)	.102* (.050)	.097* (.048)	.089 (.048)	.092 (.048)	.085 (.048)
Black, Indigenous, and People of Color (BIPOC) or Something Else	.127*** (.037)	.127*** (.037)	.105** (.036)	.107** (.036)	.105** (.036)	.108** (.035)
Director	-.003 (.031)	-.006 (.031)	.000 (.030)	.000 (.030)	-.001 (.029)	-.005 (.029)
Leader	.054 (.045)	.055 (.045)	.032 (.044)	.025 (.044)	.031 (.043)	.022 (.043)
Other Position	.028 (.042)	.032 (.042)	-.003 (.041)	-.008 (.040)	.001 (.040)	-.003 (.040)
Currently a Supervisor	.054* (.027)	.056* (.027)	.051 (.027)	.042 (.026)	.052* (.026)	.048 (.026)
Alumni relations	.048 (.028)	.048 (.028)	.048 (.027)	.049 (.027)	.051 (.027)	.052 (.027)
Communications	-.068 (.041)	-.068 (.041)	-.065 (.040)	-.064 (.040)	-.066 (.040)	-.067 (.039)
Development/Fundraising	-.004 (.027)	-.007 (.027)	.009 (.026)	.012 (.026)	.018 (.026)	.018 (.026)
Marketing	.003 (.049)	.001 (.049)	.004 (.047)	.007 (.047)	-.003 (.047)	.000 (.046)
Other Functional Area	.026 (.039)	.026 (.039)	.005 (.038)	.005 (.038)	.009 (.038)	.009 (.037)
Masters Degree	.010 (.025)	.011 (.025)	.039 (.024)	.040 (.024)	.032 (.024)	.032 (.024)
Terminal Degree	.108** (.041)	.110** (.041)	.151*** (.040)	.147*** (.040)	.148*** (.040)	.143*** (.039)
Alum of Institution Respondent Works At	-.052* (.024)	-.054* (.024)	-.065** (.024)	-.065** (.023)	-.061** (.023)	-.062** (.023)
Private	-.003 (.033)	-.003 (.033)	.006 (.032)	.004 (.032)	.003 (.032)	-.002 (.032)

Doctoral Universities	.121*	.116*	.127**	.126**	.117*	.111*
	(.050)	(.050)	(.049)	(.049)	(.048)	(.048)
Land Grant Institutions	-.074	-.070	-.046	-.052	-.048	-.051
	(.032)	(.032)	(.031)	(.031)	(.031)	(.031)
Midwest	-.004	-.002	.005	.005	-.003	-.001
	(.037)	(.037)	(.036)	(.035)	(.035)	(.035)
South	.041	.040	.032	.031	.025	.024
	(.033)	(.033)	(.032)	(.032)	(.032)	(.032)
West	.053	.053	.045	.049	.041	.048
	(.039)	(.039)	(.038)	(.038)	(.038)	(.038)
\$100,000,001 - \$200,000,000	-.022	-.025	-.017	-.021	-.014	-.018
	(.035)	(.035)	(.034)	(.034)	(.033)	(.033)
\$200,000,001 - \$500,000,000	-.055	-.053	-.058	-.074*	-.054	-.068*
	(.035)	(.035)	(.034)	(.034)	(.034)	(.034)
\$500,000,001 & higher	-.032	-.030	-.019	-.037	-.031	-.048
	(.053)	(.053)	(.051)	(.051)	(.051)	(.050)
51-100	-.010	-.006	-.013	-.022	-.015	-.021
	(.036)	(.035)	(.034)	(.034)	(.034)	(.034)
100+	-.056	-.051	-.064	-.076*	-.063	-.071*
	(.034)	(.034)	(.033)	(.033)	(.032)	(.032)
50,001 - 100,000	-.031	-.031	-.045	-.040	-.030	-.023
	(.051)	(.051)	(.049)	(.049)	(.049)	(.049)
100,001 - 200,000	.032	.034	-.004	.001	.007	.016
	(.050)	(.050)	(.048)	(.048)	(.048)	(.048)
200,001 - 300,000	.017	.019	-.017	-.015	-.001	.004
	(.052)	(.052)	(.050)	(.050)	(.050)	(.049)
300,001+	.053	.050	.024	.031	.032	.035
	(.051)	(.051)	(.050)	(.049)	(.049)	(.049)
Co-administered	-.023	-.024	-.011	-.010	-.010	-.009
	(.027)	(.027)	(.026)	(.026)	(.026)	(.026)
Decentralized	.040	.042	.022	.029	.038	.048
	(.041)	(.041)	(.040)	(.040)	(.040)	(.040)
<i>R squared</i>	.071	.075	.126	.135	.143	.155

* Source: Survey questions scale Q4.7_1 – Q4.7_5

As in Table 4.7 based on individual research knowledge use, in Table 4.8 I find that those practitioners who endorse research knowledge are more likely to use research in Model 1 ($b=.151, p<.001$). In Model 2, in comparison to the models in Table 4.7, interestingly respondents who endorse tacit knowledge are also *more* likely to use research knowledge ($b=.058, p<.01$). This pattern holds true, however, I do find that the coefficient weakened when controlling for all variables in the final model ($b=.049, p<.05$). Explicit and embedded knowledge do not show any link to research use.

From an organizational practice standpoint, I add various organizational practice variables in Models 3, 4, and 5. I find that two variables show a relationship with the dependent variable. The first that shows a connection to research use is assumed to be related: research use and generation. Those who are a part of organizations that encourage research use and generation are more likely to use research, even when adjusting for all variables in the final model ($b=.186, p<.001$). I also note a pattern in this table that is similar to Table 4.7, in that practitioners who are a part of organizations that encourage the creation of tacit-based resources and materials are more likely to use research-based knowledge both in Models 4 and 5 ($b=.064, p<.001$ & $b=.065, p<.001$ respectively). The organizational practice of producing non-research based materials and tools shows no relationship with research use.

In this linear regression, I once again control for sociodemographic and organizational characteristics. This regression shows the most relationships out of all individual level knowledge use tables in regard to sociodemographic variables, with eight of the 18 variables showing a connection to the dependent variable in at least one model. I find that 'years of practice' shows a relationship ($b=.003, p<.05$), but this disappears in the models that include organizational practice variables and all variables in the final model. In Model 4, men are more

likely than women to use research ($b=.050$, $p<.04$); but again, this disappears in the other models when controlling for additional variables. I also see that another sociodemographic variable that shows a strong relationship throughout is ‘Non-binary gender identity’ – those that identify as Non-binary are more likely to use research than women, but this coefficient does lessen at times through the models (Model 6: $b=.466$, $p<.001$).

From an ethnicity and race perspective, those who are Hispanic/Latinx/a/o in the sample are more likely to use research in the first three models ($b=.101$, $p<.05$; $b=.102$, $p<.05$; $.097$, $p<.05$ respectively); however, this relationship does not continue in the final three models. Additionally, I find that Black, Indigenous, and People of Color (BIPOC) or those who identify as another race are more likely to use research than white people, even when adjusting for all variables in Model 6 ($b=.108$, $p<.01$). I also see that certain professional and educational demographics show a relationship with research use. As in Table 4.7, those who earned a terminal degree are more likely to use research in their practice, even when controlling for all variables ($b=.143$, $p<.001$). And finally, I find that those who are alumni of the institution they practice at are less likely to use research in all models ($b=-.062$, $p<.01$).

I find for the first time in these knowledge use regressions that institution type shows a relationship with knowledge use: for those who work at doctoral universities, they are more likely to use research than those who do not. I see another pattern between institutions who \$200,000,001 - \$500,000,000 and research use. In Models 4 and 6, practitioners who are employed at institutions who fundraise for \$200,000,001 - \$500,000,000 are *less* likely to use research than those who fundraise for \$25,000,000 - \$100,000,000 ($b=-.074$, $p<.05$ & $b=-.068$, $p<.05$ respectively). Finally, I find that institutions who employ over 100 staff members are *less*

likely to use research than those who employ 50 or less staffers, even when adjusting for all variables ($b=-.071$, $p<.05$).

Exploring Research Question 3: Systems & Structures for Learning, Knowledge, & Evidence in Advancement

Again, as I created my study based on an organizational systems and learning understanding and looked to previous literature, I wanted to make sure that I focused on the organizational level to understand a whole-systems approach in advancement. Therefore, my third research question focuses on organizational systems and structures around two specific concepts: 1) organizational learning and 2) knowledge mobilization and management in advancement. Research question 3 asks: *What organizational learning systems and structures are in place both within and outside advancement organizations that guide practice and internal policy making?* I delve into organizational systems and structures that affect the learning and transferring of evidence for learning within the advancement divisions in my sample.

My results below highlight the vast number of organizational learning systems and structures that are in place across the field of institutional advancement and between organizations. These are based on but are not limited to: learning consortiums, professional organizations, athletic conference affiliations, consultants, listservs, role-based groups, location, software, social identity, and more. These all affect practice and how work is carried out by organizations. I again find that the most commonly used are organizations that use more tacit, explicit, and embedded knowledge (e.g., professional organizations, vendors, institution and conference consortiums, etc.). Lesser used are research-based organizations, structures, and systems (e.g., research organizations, philanthropic studies schools/institutes, etc.). Although

these research-based organizations are utilized, they are *less likely* to be used when compared to other organizations.

An Organizational Understanding of Advancement through an EIPP Lens

As talked about previously in my study, this study seeks to push understanding of individual only perspectives to an organizational understanding of EIPP in advancement. This exploration allows for deeper insights into how practice can be better understood and continually improved within and across whole advancement systems. The following descriptive statistics and figures begin to bring this understanding into clearer focus and concentrates on organizational practices, experience, structures, and views.

Organizational Systems & Learning: Knowledge Management & Knowledge Mobilization.

In the two figures below, I highlight organizational systems and organizational learning in advancement organizations. Figure 4.17 shows how knowledge and evidence is stored and shared by the advancement organizations in my sample.

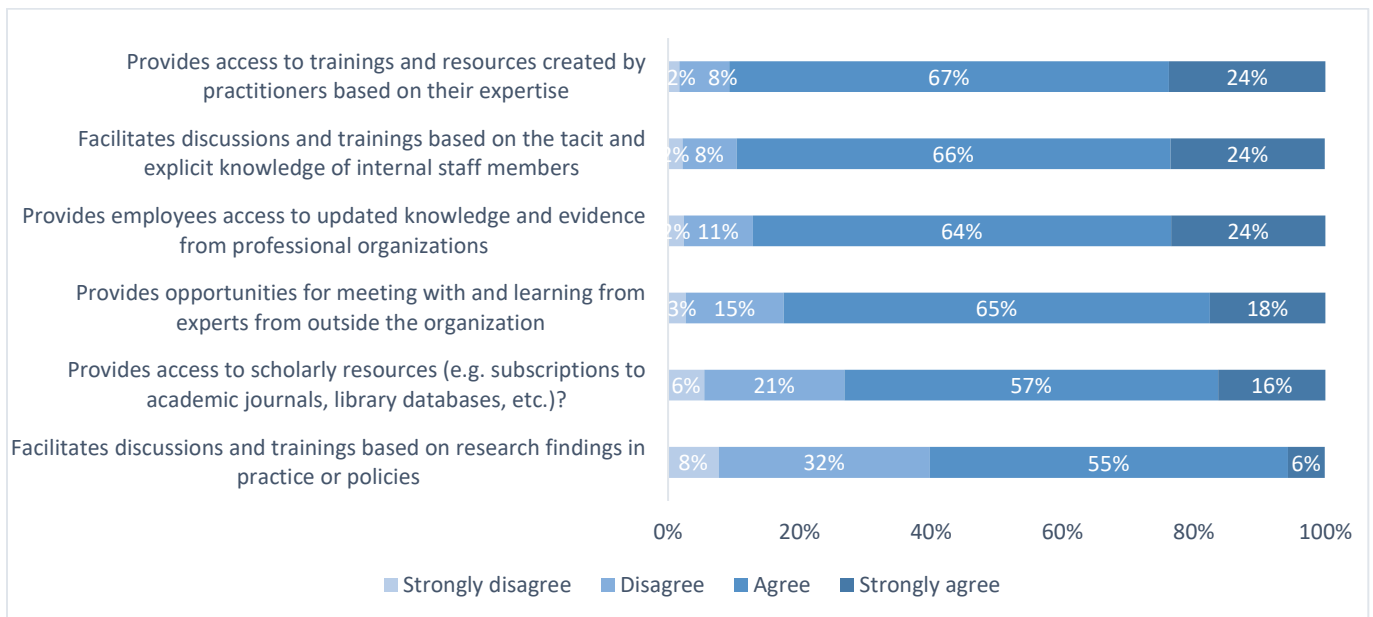


Figure 4.17 Organizational Systems for Knowledge Management & Mobilization (Source: Survey question 7.1_1 – 7.1_6)

The first four items align in similar ways: Nine out of 10 respondents agree that their organizations provide access to practitioner-based expertise trainings and resources (91%) and professional organizations (90%). Additionally, 90% of organizations facilitate discussions and trainings based on tacit and explicit knowledge of internal staff members; a similar percentage provided opportunities for meeting with and learning from experts outside their organization as well (83%). This is promising in terms of learning structures and systems for sharing and storing knowledge and evidence. Advancement organizations provide multiple ways for practitioners to find, learn, and share new and updated knowledge and evidence.

When I look at the last two items, ‘access to scholarly resources’ and ‘facilitates discussions based on research findings,’ I look at this two different ways. At first glance, I see that once again, research knowledge and evidence, from a structures and systems level, are the least utilized. Organizations provide the fewest options in terms of facilitating discussion and providing access to research resources. However, I also see potential for research use in these findings. I find that nearly three-quarters of respondents (73%) state that *Agree* or *Strongly Agree* that their organizations provide access to scholarly resources and 61% facilitate discussions based on research findings. This shows me that there is engagement with this knowledge type, which aligns with the cultural values I explore in research question 1.

In Figure 4.18 I see that the top two most utilized external learning organizations are professional organizations and vendors/companies; these two items are exponentially higher than other items (94% total & 77% total respectively). These structures and systems point to a heavy reliance on tacit, embedded, and explicit knowledge of practitioners and external organizations in the field of advancement. I also see in Figure 4.18 the least used sources of knowledge and evidence (besides those who selected ‘Other’) are research organizations (21%) and

philanthropic studies academic schools or institutes (19%). At times research-based knowledge and evidence appear important and valued in practice; however, at other times, organizational actual practice and learning do not seem to completely align with these values.

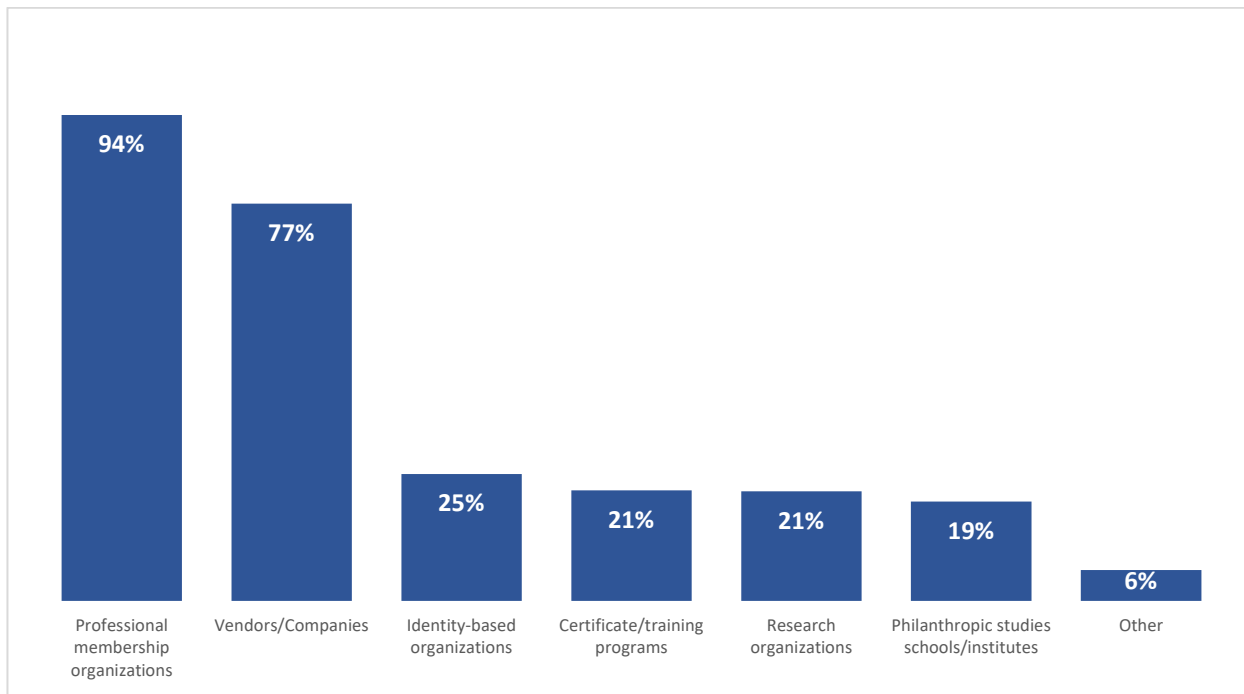


Figure 4.18 Advancement Organizational Learning & Knowledge Sharing by Outside Organization (Source: Survey question: 7.2)

The final data I wish to highlight around organizational learning systems and structures is in Table 4.9 (below), which centers on learning groups, consortiums, and organizations. These are groups that respondents stated their advancement shops are members or a part of. Again, this question was based on organizational systems and learning. Organizations, consortiums of professionals, informal and formal learning groups, communities of practice, and more affect the learning and knowledge and evidence sharing of practitioners (Buisse et al., 2003). Informal constructs such as group interactions, social networks, and impromptu conversations also affect what knowledge is shared amongst organizations and how (Knowledge Management Tools, 2018c; Rowley, 2000). I am interested in what structures and systems are set up in advancement

that are frequently used. This helps to understand where knowledge is learned and how it is shared amongst organizations.

Upon sorting and cleaning up the raw data that was shared in this open-text response option, I analyze the findings: 339 different organizations, groups, and consortiums were shared by 728 respondents out of the 1,826 total sample (39.87%). This question was optional, therefore not all respondents answered the question. Table 4.9 shows the breakdown of consortiums by type. I coded the 339 groups into 12 different categories manually.

The organization and consortium types range from a focus on field of practice, athletic conference, consultants, listservs, role-based groups, location, software, social identity, and more. It showcases how vast the knowledge sharing and evidence use truly is in the field of advancement. When analyzing the data, it is not surprising to find that those organizations or consortiums focused on ‘Advancement Professional and Leadership Development’ ranks the highest with 302 respondents listing at least one. The next two highlight the importance of athletic conference and institution type in knowledge and evidence sharing and use. Athletic conferences boast 264 responses (14.5%) of the total groups, and institution type includes 233 total (12.8%). Finally, role-based learning and sharing seem to play a fairly strong role in peoples’ work, as it made up 8.1% of the total list with 148 mentioning them. Although the final items are smaller in percentage, they do again showcase how organizations use different consortiums and organizations to inform their practice.

Table 4.9 Respondent Learning Consortia & Organizations Reported on Survey (1,150 responses/339 unique groups shared by 728 respondents)

	Frequency & Percentage
Advancement Professional and Leadership Development Organization or Consortium	302 (16.5%)
Athletic Conference Consortium	264 (14.5%)
Institution Type Consortium	233 (12.8%)
Role-based Consortium	148 (8.1%)
Location-based consortium	75 (4.1%)
Consultant	64 (3.5%)
Electronic Communications & Materials	12 (0.7%)
Research-based Organization	18 (1.0%)
Software Related Consortium	17 (0.9%)
Professional and Leadership Development Organization or Consortium (non-advancement)	8 (0.4%)
Identity-based Organization	7 (0.4%)
Internal Consortium	2 (0.1%)
TOTAL:	1,150 responses

* Source: Survey question 7.3

Exploring Research Question 4: What sociodemographic and organizational characteristics, if any, show a relationship with systems and structures of knowledge management and mobilization of institutional advancement shops?

In the previous Figures 4.9 and 4.10 and Table 4.9, I present results that focus on a number of variables from my survey questions. These results show specific patterns that are revealed in the data on learning systems and structures. In the following Ordinal Logistical Regressions (OLR) in Table 4.10, I explore possible relationships between the internal structures and systems for learning in advancement organizations (i.e., dependent variables) and sociodemographic and organizational characteristic variables (independent variables).

Table 4.10 Ordinal Logistic Regression of Organization Learning Systems & Structures

I create these models in Table 4.10 based on the survey instrument questions on the internal organizational structures and systems that encourage the facilitation of, and access to, certain knowledge and evidence types (i.e., the dependent variable). Recall that practitioners were asked: *‘Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statement.’* They were then presented with six Likert Scale items in the question block (Strongly Disagree =0 – Strongly Agree = 4). These items are listed below. In all models I include sociodemographic variables (e.g., years worked in advancement, gender identity & expression, sexual orientation, race/ethnicity, role, etc.) and organizational characteristics (e.g., region, yearly fundraising total, number of alumni served, etc.).

Items from Survey Instrument:

- Facilitates discussions and trainings based on research findings in practice or policies (Model 1)
- Facilitates discussions and trainings based on the tacit and explicit knowledge of internal staff members (Model 2)
- Provides employees access to updated knowledge and evidence from professional organizations (Model 3)
- Provides access to trainings and resources created by practitioners based on their expertise (Model 4)
- Provides access to scholarly resources (e.g., subscriptions to academic journals, library databases, etc.) (Model 5)
- Provides opportunities for meeting with and learning from experts from outside the organization (Model 6)

Table 4.10 Ordinal Logistic Regression of Organization Learning Systems & Structures (n=1,826)

	Model 1 Research Findings	Model 2 Internal Tacit & Explicit Knowledge	Model 3 Professional Orgs	Model 4 Practitioner Expertise	Model 5 Access to Scholarly Resources	Model 6 External Experts
Sociodemographic:						
Years Worked in Advancement	.008 (.006)	.001 (.006)	-.007 (.006)	.007 (.006)	.014* (.006)	.010 (.006)
Men	.100 (.104)	.196 (.110)	-.135 (.108)	-.121 (.112)	-.251* (.103)	.068 (.109)
Non-binary gender identity	.441 (.575)	-.245 (.623)	-1.253* (.583)	-1.332* (.615)	-.227 (.568)	-.763 (.579)
Queer or Questioning	-.497*** (.139)	.025 (.149)	-.109 (.147)	-.076 (.152)	-.244 (.139)	-.280 (.147)
Hispanic Or Latinx/a/o	.264 (.206)	.018 (.215)	.381 (.208)	.204 (.215)	.133 (.202)	.130 (.212)
Black, Indigenous, and People of Color (BIPOC) or Something Else	.387* (.153)	-.128 (.161)	-.051 (.157)	.129 (.161)	.698*** (.151)	.140 (.158)
Director	-.070 (.123)	-.059 (.132)	-.049 (.129)	-.068 (.134)	-.200 (.123)	.012 (.130)
Leader	.158 (.185)	.047 (.196)	.349 (.192)	.273 (.197)	-.030 (.184)	.369 (.193)
Other Position	.401* (.167)	.155 (.174)	.069 (.172)	.419* (.175)	.136 (.164)	.091 (.172)
Currently a Supervisor	-.137 (.111)	-.028 (.118)	.118 (.116)	.039 (.120)	-.067 (.110)	.088 (.116)
Alumni relations	-.052 (.114)	-.127 (.123)	-.045 (.120)	-.082 (.124)	-.207 (.114)	.024 (.120)
Communications	.241 (.166)	.158 (.177)	-.010 (.173)	.080 (.179)	.112 (.165)	-.089 (.174)
Development/ Fundraising	.058 (.109)	.346** (.117)	.051 (.114)	.212 (.118)	.010 (.108)	-.020 (.114)
Marketing	-.323 (.195)	-.282 (.211)	-.161 (.206)	-.228 (.213)	-.082 (.195)	.051 (.206)

Other Functional Area	.019 (.158)	.210 (.169)	.190 (.165)	.281 (.170)	.225 (.159)	.150 (.166)
Masters Degree	.015 (.100)	-.229* (.107)	.060 (.105)	-.085 (.109)	.076 (.100)	-.004 (.105)
Terminal Degree	-.360* (.164)	.029 (.176)	-.088 (.174)	.190 (.177)	-.212 (.165)	-.204 (.174)
Alum of Institution Respondent Works At	.144 (.098)	.040 (.105)	-.043 (.103)	.001 (.106)	.005 (.098)	.054 (.103)
Organizational Characteristics:						
Private	.084 (.135)	.225 (.144)	-.132 (.141)	-.202 (.146)	.055 (.135)	-.269 (.142)
Doctoral Universities	.370 (.201)	.154 (.219)	-.285 (.214)	.188 (.223)	-.068 (.203)	-.315 (.214)
Land Grant Institutions	-.244 (.131)	-.114 (.140)	.069 (.137)	-.035 (.141)	-.298* (.130)	-.034 (.138)
Midwest	.217 (.148)	.122 (.159)	.288 (.155)	.147 (.161)	.048 (.148)	.060 (.156)
South	.270* (.135)	.056 (.144)	.061 (.141)	.050 (.146)	.215 (.135)	.061 (.142)
West	.380* (.159)	.043 (.170)	.117 (.166)	.233 (.172)	-.008 (.158)	-.021 (.167)
\$100,000,001 - \$200,000,000	-.026 (.141)	.425** (.151)	-.011 (.148)	.112 (.153)	-.069 (.140)	-.027 (.148)
\$200,000,001 - \$500,000,000	.226 (.144)	.574*** (.153)	.172 (.150)	.331* (.154)	.220 (.143)	.141 (.151)
\$500,000,001 & higher	.028 (.212)	.511* (.226)	.292 (.222)	.508* (.228)	.314 (.213)	.246 (.223)
51-100	.190 (.142)	-.155 (.154)	.083 (.151)	.253 (.158)	-.078 (.143)	.146 (.151)
100+	.320* (.135)	-.011 (.145)	.472*** (.143)	.623*** (.150)	.253 (.135)	.339* (.143)
50,001 - 100,000	-.277 (.202)	-.092 (.219)	-.265 (.215)	-.325 (.223)	.048 (.204)	-.125 (.214)
100,001 - 200,000	.091 (.201)	-.082 (.216)	.052 (.211)	-.159 (.219)	.242 (.201)	.255 (.212)

200,001 - 300,000	-.163 (.208)	-.013 (.223)	-.197 (.219)	-.256 (.226)	-.046 (.208)	.054 (.219)
300,001+	-.069 (.206)	-.150 (.221)	-.289 (.218)	-.365 (.225)	.076 (.206)	.050 (.217)
Co-administered	.004 (.110)	-.053 (.118)	-.003 (.115)	-.052 (.119)	-.024 (.110)	-.205 (.116)
Decentralized	.094 (.168)	-.170 (.179)	-.263 (.176)	-.167 (.182)	.037 (.167)	.029 (.176)

* Source: Survey Questions 7.1_1 – 7.1_6

In Model 1 of Table 4.10, I introduce the variable: ‘facilitation of research findings discussions.’ To begin from a sociodemographic perspective, two groups are less likely to agree that their organizations facilitate discussions on research findings: Those who are Queer or Questioning as compared to Heterosexual practitioners ($b=-.497, p<.001$); and those who hold terminal degrees ($b=-.360, p<.05$). Additionally, those that are BIPOC individuals or who identify as a ‘Something Else’ for their race are more likely than White people to agree that their organizations facilitate discussions based on research findings ($.387, p<.05$). This same pattern is found for those in ‘Other Positions’ as compared to those in Staff positions ($b=.401, p<.05$): Practitioners in ‘Other Positions’ are more likely to agree than those in ‘Staff Positions’ that their organizations facilitate discussions on research. From an organizational perspective, South and West institutions are more likely to facilitate these discussions than Northeast institutions ($b=.270, p<.05$ & $.380, p<.05$ respectively). Finally, those who employ 100+ staff members show a link to the dependent variable. I find that those in these institutions with 100+ staffers are more likely than those in organizations with up to 50 staff members to facilitate discussions on research findings ($.320, p<.05$).

When I turn to Model 2, which focuses on facilitated discussions based on ‘Internal Staff Tacit & Explicit Knowledge,’ less sociodemographic and organizational variables show a

relationship than in Model 1. Development/Fundraising practitioners are more likely to agree that their organizations facilitate these internal tacit and explicit conversations versus those in Advancement Services roles ($b=.346, p<.05$). And those who hold masters degrees are less likely to agree that their organizations facilitate these discussions ($b=-.229, p<.05$). I see that only one organizational variable shows a relationship – yearly fundraising total: All three fundraising total groups are more likely to facilitate discussions based on internal tacit and explicit knowledge than organizations who fundraise for \$25,000,000 - \$100,000,000 ($b=.425, p<.01$; $b=.574, p<.001$; $b=.511, p<.05$).

In Model 3, which asks practitioners if their organizations provide access to professional organizations, I find very few differences based on sociodemographic and organizational variables. Those who identify as Non-binary compared to women are less likely to agree that their organization provides access to updated knowledge and evidence from professional organizations ($b=-1.253, p<.05$). Organizationally, institutions with 100+ staffers are more likely than those in organizations with up to 50 staff members to provide access to professional organizations ($b=.472, p<.001$).

In Model 4 I ask respondents about their access to ‘trainings and resources created by practitioners based on their expertise.’ Compared to Model 3, more variables show a relationship in this model. Again, as in Model 3, Non-binary individuals are less likely to agree that their organization provides access to these expertise-based trainings and resources ($b=-1.332, p<.05$). Additionally, I find that compared to those in ‘Staff Positions,’ practitioners in ‘Other Positions’ are more likely to agree that their divisions provide access to this learning structure in the model ($b=.419, p<.05$). I find that yearly fundraising totals and total staff members show a relationship again: Organizations who fundraise for ‘\$200,000,001 - \$500,000,000’ and ‘\$500,000,001 &

higher' are more likely to provide access to trainings and resources created by practitioners based on their expertise than those who fundraise for '25,000,000 - \$100,000,000' ($b=.331, p<.05$ & $b=.508, p<.05$ respectively). And for the third time, institutions with 100+ staffers are more likely than those with up to 50 staff members to provides access to these expertise-based trainings and resources.

I find in Model 5 that a number of demographic variables show a link to 'organizational access to scholarly resources.' Those who have worked longer in the field are more likely to agree that their organization provides access to scholarly resources as their age increases (.014, $p<.05$). Furthermore, I see that in comparison to women, men are less likely to agree about this access to scholarly resources in their organization ($-.251, p<.05$). Those who are BIPOC or who identify as a 'Something Else' for their race are more likely than white people to agree that their organizations provide access to scholarly resources (.698, $p<.001$). Organizationally, only one variable shows any relationship to the dependent variable: Land grant institutions are less likely to provide organizational access to these resources ($-.298, p<.05$).

In my sixth and final model based on this question block, I explore whether there are any differences in sociodemographic and organizational characteristics and 'opportunities for meeting with and learning from experts from outside the organization.' This learning system shows very little difference across the model. The only variable that shows a relationship out of all that are included is those who employ 100+ staff members – compared to those who employ up to 50 staff members, organizations with 100+ practitioners are more likely to provide opportunities for meeting with and learning from experts from outside the organization.

Chapter 5: Discussion

As I shift to the discussions of the findings above, I ground this section using my conceptual framework and the tenets of EIPP. Recall, I use organization systems, organizational learning, and organizational culture theories to better understand both the beliefs, values, and behaviors along with the systems and structures that affect how institutional advancement shops learn and carry out their work. Additionally, EIPP provides a useful frame to understand the different types of knowledge and evidence that inform advancement practice and why all must be honored – it is important to understand how these different components interact and are used to respect the work that is done by practitioners while also seeking to make positive changes in the field.

When I look to the previous literature on EIPP, numerous theoretical frames were used in past studies to better understand the knowledge and evidence that drives the work of those in disciplines and fields and the learning systems and structures in place. However, my conceptual framework contributes to the understandings of EIPP through a unique organizational framing that uses multiple organization-based theories. My theoretical framework uses a holistic model that illuminates both the systems and structures *as well as* beliefs, behaviors, and values that affect how institutional advancement shops learn and carry out their work. If I did not use this holistic framework, I would not have been able to see different facets of the field of advancement. I can see what is valued in regard to knowledge and evidence versus what is truly used by practitioners and the misalignment that emerges in my study. Advancement practitioners value all four knowledge and evidence types but are more likely to use tacit, explicit, and embedded knowledge compared to research knowledge and evidence. Furthermore, I can see what knowledge and evidence is most used through the learning systems and structures in the

field. This builds on the cultural prong of my framework to again bring to light what systems and structures are most used, i.e., tacit, explicit, and embedded based systems and structures versus research-based.

The findings in my study framed through my theoretical model contribute to the literature on institutional advancement and begin to peel back the layers of the story of evidence-informed advancement in this field. It provides a new understanding on a field that is understudied and often relies on anecdotal evidence versus more theory-based understanding of how work is carried out (Drezner, 2011; Drezner & Huehls, 2014; Walton, 2019). In the following sections, I discuss two main areas: 1) Findings based on what evidence and knowledge is valued and used to inform practice from an organizational culture and learning perspective, and 2) Organizational systems and structures within advancement organizations and in the field. In each of these sections, I highlight how I address my research questions. I also address the limitations of my study.

Organizational Culture & Learning: What Evidence and Knowledge Informs Practice?

In this section, I discuss what knowledge and evidence is *valued* compared to what is currently *used* in the field. I purposely use organizational culture theory to bring these findings more clearly into focus. Culture framing allows me to understand alignments and misalignments between what knowledge and evidence are valued versus used. Without focusing on both of these specific areas, I would have less of an awareness of why values and practice might differ. When looking back at Figure 2.2, I am better able to understand these concepts within the organization through organizational learning theory, organizational culture theory, and the tenets of EIPP. Recall, EIPP points out the importance of understanding and using all knowledge and evidence types. This section does not seek to state one type is better or worse than another –

rather it seeks to increase awareness of what most informs and guides practice and internal policy making in advancement. By increasing this awareness, advancement practice can be better understood and improved using all knowledge and evidence types and in partnership with practitioners, researchers, and outside organizations.

Cultural Value and Knowledge & Evidence

From an organizational culture perspective, I seek to learn more about what knowledge and evidence is valued in advancement. This speaks to my first research question, which asks *‘to what extent do advancement divisions value certain types of evidence and knowledge?’*

Organizational culture theory helps me to see how what is valued may not always align with reality; there may be barriers or obstacles to living out values. Therefore, I purposely ask this question to ensure I examine what advancement practitioners value in terms of knowledge and evidence in practice.

As I consider the trends I saw in my earlier results section based on what types of knowledge and evidence are valued by practitioners and organizations, patterns emerge. Broadly speaking, of the four knowledge types and the evidence, advancement organizations and the practitioners within them do value them all. Figures 4.2 and 4.3 highlight how organizations use different knowledge types in organizational decision making. Past ways of carrying out work (embedded), practitioner expertise (tacit), organizational resources and materials (explicit), and research (scholarly) all are valued by many organizations. In looking to previous literature on advancement, the use of the first three in this series is not surprising. The field has been shaped by organizations sharing their knowledge and practices – practitioners learn from one another, leading to greater professionalization of roles and functional areas based on what has worked previously in their organization and in the field (Drezner & Huehls, 2014; Skinner, 2019; Thelin

& Trollinger, 2014). However, what is surprising is around knowledge and evidence sharing from a peer organization perspective. It seems as if peer organization-to-peer organization influence on practice and decision making may not be as valued as I assumed it would be from the previous literature and history of the field. I find that this source of knowledge and evidence ranks last in terms of value. Rather, I see that the use of internal communications and strategies with fellow staff members along with use of professional organizations are more highly valued. This is not to say that no organizations see value in learning from peer organizations, but it may not be seen as important by as many as first thought based on previous literature. More needs to be explored on this finding in future studies to understand why there is strong use of peer-to-peer learning consortiums, groups, listservs, etc. but less value placed on these than others from a cultural standpoint.

Additionally, in regard to research use, I find in Figures 4.2 and 4.3 that research is also valued by many as important in practice. In Figure 4.2, 88% of people agree or strongly agree that it is important to look to research studies to inform practice. And in Figure 4.3, over one-third of the sample selected research use in organization decision making as first or second most important (35%). Therefore, I make the claim that research is seen as valuable in the field and practitioners do *want* to use it in their practice and decision making. These findings provide a glimpse into implications for the field based on my study. All knowledge and evidence types are valued and seen as important in advancement.

As I state in my conceptual framework section, systems theory and organizational learning theory both focused on structures and systems within an organization that affect how data, information, evidence, and knowledge is received, transferred, created, and retained within the organization. However, in my first research question, I purposely ask a question based on

organizational culture theory to better delve into what may be valued and how this drives behavior. In asking this, I am able to actually build upon ideas in organizational culture theory around what might be actually driving culture and decision making. As discussed earlier in my study in Chapter 2, critical and cultural theorists point out that although an organization and the individuals within may espouse certain values, there may be larger power dynamics, decision-making practices, and organizational systems, outputs, and pressures affecting what behaviors are actually affecting the cultural practices that may not align with value placed on certain ideals (Bess & Dee, 2008).

In my study, I find that advancement practitioners and organizations do seem to value research knowledge and evidence. However, their practice and systems do not always appear to align with the valuing of this knowledge and evidence; therefore, more needs to be studied around these aspects to better understand what barriers organizations may come up against in both valuing *and* using research-based knowledge and evidence along with the other knowledge and evidence types. My study is able to begin to tell this story through theory as it focuses on value versus day-to-day practice. It also builds on the understanding around organizational culture from an embedded standpoint. A culture is not born overnight, it is created and sustained over years and years and at times, decades and centuries. From the history of advancement, I can see the ways the field was shaped and practices were formed. I find that I add to the understanding of organizational culture theory because my study illuminates ideas around seemingly random occurrences, events, or processes within advancement organizations and for individuals within these shops as well (Tierney, 2008). I increase the awareness of how value is placed on specific knowledge and evidence types and how that truly aligns with behaviors. I am also able to then dig in further on differences based on individual and organizational practices,

sociodemographic variables, and organizational characteristics. It enables me to better make sense of what is truly driving advancement behaviors and how members within the organization may be interpreting things differently (Tierney, 1988, 2008).

The Reality of What Informs & Guides Practice

In connection with culture from a value perspective, I then turn to the *reality* of practice versus the *espoused values* above. This seeks to answer the first part of my second research question: *What types of evidence and knowledge do advancement divisions utilize to inform their practice and policies?* As previous literature on both advancement and EIPP state, there are at times barriers to the use of certain knowledge and evidence types. There may be a desire to use them, but day-to-day practice may not align with this desire. As I analyze the data from my sample and explore the results, this is precisely what I found to be true in many ways. And in some ways, the values *do* align with practice. There are different layers to this story. Again, I add to the understandings around organizational culture theory as I dig in further on the differences between behaviors and values. If one only looks at one of these, they might only see part of the story; however, I use this theory to intentionally disaggregate the results and pull apart two parts of culture: values versus behaviors, which in advancement, does not always necessarily align in terms of knowledge and evidence use.

First, I look to the knowledge types and evidence sources that are most used. Practitioners use tacit, explicit, and embedded knowledge the most (see Figures 4.5 and 4.6). This supports the ideas above around value being placed on these more atheoretical, experienced based knowledge types. These findings align with previous literature pointing to a lack of use of research in advancement (e.g., Drezner & Huehls, 2014). When examining evidence resources and knowledge use in Figure 4.4, I find that there is a heavy reliance on ‘learning from

communication with colleagues,' 'professional organizations' and finally, 'fellow practitioners from other advancement organizations.' These align with the valuing of tacit, embedded, and explicit knowledge. It furthermore shows that there is organizational learning taking place as they are engaging in discussions, trainings, presentations, and more to discuss how to improve practice and innovate. However, I find this last item (i.e., reliance on fellow practitioners from other advancement organizations) to be of particular interest when compared to the values shared by respondents earlier in the results. In Figure 4.2, nearly half of the respondents disagree that peer-to-peer learning is important in decision making and strategy (47%); additionally, in Figure 4.3 I find that 43% of the total sample ranked 'similar organizations using this approach' as least important in organizational decision making; and an additional 24% rank it as third most important out of four rank choices. Yet in terms of learning new evidence and knowledge, 'communicating with other practitioners outside their organization' is ranked in the top three most used out of a dozen items. Over half the sample actually uses this evidence and knowledge *all the time or frequently* in Figure 4.4 (53%). More research needs to be carried out to understand this paradox around values versus reality. What is occurring that is leading practitioners and organizations to saying this is least valued but then it is commonly used in day-to-day practice and for learning? These ideas need to be explored more in future studies.

In addition, another incongruity between values compared to actual practice arose. Recall, the use of scholarly, research-based evidence and knowledge is valued within organizations to inform practice (Figure 4.2). Even in Figure 4.3 around ranking importance in decision making, 35% of the sample ranked it as first or second most important. However, research evidence and knowledge use are less frequently used than other types of evidence when examining everyday work and decision making. For instance, in Figure 4.4 scholarly resources

and university libraries are not as often used compared to others. They fall in the bottom three out of the 12 items. Additionally, in both Figures 4.5 and 4.6, scholarly knowledge is least used. Why is research valued by many but used least by a huge portion of advancement practitioners? Again, these findings need to be investigated more in the future to understand what may be happening here.

However, this is not to say that research is *never* used by practitioners. It is just used less than other forms of knowledge and evidence. For example, in Figure 4.7, 59% of organizations do encourage the use of research. My study builds on the previous work done by Drezner and Huehls (2014) so that I could learn more about what research use might look like in advancement. Of those who responded to my survey, I find that many practitioners *do* engage in the research process, even when defining it narrowly as I have based on previous literature (Figure 4.8). Although research may not be as often used compared to the other knowledge and evidence types, it is interesting to see that practitioners *are* engaging in scholarship. This warrants future studies to learn more about how this research is carried out and if it is published for others and in certain journals, books, online platforms, etc.

Furthermore, in terms of engagement with research based on the typologies from the literature, I find that it is used in a variety of ways. Advancement staffers use it to persuade others on a course of action, to learn more about an issue, to make decisions, and although less often, because their organization requires it. These findings are intriguing as it shows the many ways research is used in advancement. Past literature highlights that using research can help improve practice by asking critical questions and rethinking ways of carrying out work (Weiss, 1979, 1998). As I think through an EIPP lens and my conceptual framework, the results highlight the different ways that research knowledge and evidence can be helpful to practitioners. It begins

to provide insight into how research is most used and in what ways partnerships could be formed between researchers, practitioners, and thought leaders in the field.

From my findings above, I am able to see through my conceptual framework the increased understanding of values versus behaviors in the organizational culture of these organizations. And I also see deep ties and alignment with organizational learning. My findings align with the previous ideas explored by Argyris and Schön (1996). It seems that the ‘norms’ and learning in advancement organizations are mostly within ‘single-loop learning.’ Recall, single-loop learning is when organizations stay within certain norms and do not change ways they carry out work in hugely redefined or restructured ways – they function in a learning space, but it is mostly framed by what has worked and strategies or assumptions are changed but not in profound, organizational-altering ways. But very little is observed in my results in terms of ‘double-loop’ or ‘meta-learning’ levels. My findings are informed and align with these theoretical underpinnings of Argyris and Schön (1996) that showcase how organizations can move into spaces of self-reflection, unlearning behaviors, and questioning what may be driving cultural practices, norms, and behaviors. My study shines a light on how learning takes place in advancement. To reiterate, a great deal of learning based on tacit, explicit, embedded, and research knowledge and different evidence sources does happen however, it brings to the forefront how advancement organizations seem less apt to move into these second and third loops of learning. More research and partnership work must be carried out to better understand this.

Furthermore, my findings align with conclusions from much of EIPP studies and literature. Research use is often extremely challenging for organizations, and oftentimes, it is difficult to create research that is used and employed by practitioners and organizations – many

find it challenging to see it the relevance in using research at times (Tseng & Nutley, 2014).

Context, culture, embedded organizational practices, shortened timelines, and more can affect the use of the different knowledge and evidence types. This is seen in other fields, including but not limited to: education, healthcare, social services, and sustainability (Boaz, Davies, Nutley, et al., 2019). The study I have created begins to untangle these pieces in advancement and builds on the current understandings in EIPP to move into spaces around higher education advancement organizations.

Effects of Knowledge Endorsement & Organizational Practices on Knowledge Use

To build on this understanding of the knowledge and evidence that is used in practice, I use Ordinal Logistical Regression and Linear Regression methods to answer research question 2a: *‘What organizational practices and individual and organizational characteristics, if any, affect which knowledge guides the work of advancement organizations (i.e. tacit, explicit, embedded, and research-based knowledge)?* I want to learn more about any differences in knowledge use that may emerge based on these variables. My framework says that there may be cultural differences based on organizational and individual characteristics, individual endorsement of knowledge types, and organizational practices. Through this project, I wish to see if there are any differences culturally and through learning and contextual components that might emerge using these analysis methods. This is important to understanding how different people, role types, areas, etc. might experience the organization differently (Manning, 2017; Tierney, 2008; Tseng & Coburn, 2019; Tseng & Nutley, 2014). Recall, my regression models include individual level and organizational level variables. I run different models with variables assumed to be related and with variables assumed to be unrelated.

Overall, I find that in *all* my regression models (Table 4.4 – 4.8) there is a relationship between both individual level and organizational variables assumed to be related. The key findings of my tables include: of those individuals that endorse certain knowledge types, they are *more likely* to use that knowledge type; and furthermore, of those who work in organizations who encourage organizational practices around using a specific knowledge type, they are *more likely* to use that knowledge type in practice. These relationships hold true even when controlling for all other variables in my models.

The findings from these models tell me multiple things. First, individuals who endorse or support certain knowledge types are more likely to use those in practice. They will share this knowledge, store this knowledge, and transfer this knowledge to others. This can be both within the organization and outside of the organization in the broader field. When I look back to which knowledge is most used, tacit, explicit, and embedded knowledge typically land at the top of the list. Therefore, this is the knowledge that is most shared, stored, and transferred. Furthermore, there are a number of relationships between the increased use of one knowledge type and the increased use of another. (e.g., Table 4.4: tacit and embedded; Table 4.6 embedded and explicit).

My survey results tell me what is truly guiding the practice of advancement, even when taking into account different variables and characteristics or individuals and organizations. EIPP and the conceptual framework of this study help to highlight the importance of each of these knowledge types. Tacit knowledge use in advancement is important because it builds on past experiences, instinct, and ways of doing things that have worked. Those in the field are constantly using this information to build on new ideas and improve their work. From the literature, tacit knowledge is extraordinarily helpful in navigating new situations, creating resilience, and leading to strong outcomes based on past experience – Afterall, those in the field

have the most intimate knowledge of the work (Bennet & Bennet, 2008; Mintzberg et al., 1998; Nonaka, 1994; Reed & Meagher, 2019).

In relation to tacit knowledge, explicit knowledge is frequently used and important in practice because it uses different forms of evidence, data, and more to inform work, guidelines, policies, procedures, practices, instructions, etc. (Botha et al., 2014). Explicit knowledge is recorded, stored, accessed, and shared evidence, information, and/or data to inform decision making (Bennet & Bennet, 2008; Davies et al., 2015; Walter et al., 2004). It allows for the building of a knowledge base. Embedded knowledge is useful for much of the same reason. It builds from previous instinct and experiences. By building on previous knowledge of the field, advancement organizations have raised billions of dollars, engaged millions of individuals, and grown to be a major part of higher education. However, one of the tenets of EIPP is that the use of all four knowledge types is critical; and there is less of a balanced reliance on research-based knowledge. This is not uncommon in the understandings around evidence and knowledge in EIPP.

From an individual level, there is value seen in research by many, but it is used less than other knowledge types by far. In fact, I find that those who use tacit knowledge are statistically *less likely* to use research (Table 4.4). Those using instinct and expertise may be less likely to lean on research and more likely to ‘do things the way that they have been done before.’ It is important to address how research can be more frequently used in the field through future studies. Research provides evidence, knowledge, and learning that is theoretically grounded using empirical methods (Boaz, Davies, et al., 2019b; Powell et al., 2018). Recall, research stimulates “dialogue and reflection” and can “expand or reshape tacit as well as explicit knowledge” (Nutley et al., 2007a, p. 3). If things are always done the way they have been done

before, practices may cause harm or the system might become stagnant and run down, i.e., less dollars raised, less engagement with alumni, etc. (Bess & Dee, 2008). Research can challenge current ways of carrying out or work and lead to improvements in practices and policy making decisions. This is connected to organizational learning, which involves unlearning behaviors sometimes that might be causing harm (Nutley et al., 2007a). For instance, research by scholars in the field that addresses the centering of wealthy, heterosexual White men has led to greater awareness of how to make philanthropy in higher education more equitable and inclusive (e.g., Drezner, 2011; Drezner & Huehls, 2014). This dissertation adds to these understandings by providing insight into what knowledge and evidence is driving practice and decision-making. This increased awareness can then lead to future work on how research can be used more in combination with these other valuable knowledge types and evidence sources.

These findings tie into the sociodemographic variables in models 4.4 – 4.8. In relation to the greater reliance on tacit and explicit knowledge, as practitioners work longer, they are more likely to use these knowledge types; interestingly though, they are not more likely to use embedded knowledge. Additionally, I find that as experience grows, practitioners are also *more likely* to use research knowledge. As individuals spend time in the field, they may learn more about available research resources or lean on these for different reasons as opposed to other knowledge types. More research must be done to understand why these two findings emerged. For greater balance to be achieved in knowledge and evidence use, those practitioners who have been in the field longer may be able to lead conversations and find ways to inject these new ideas into the field; additionally, they could share this knowledge and evidence across the organization and with those who have less years of experience. The same can be said for terminal degree holders. Terminal degree holders frequently show a relationship with the dependent variables. Of

those who hold terminal degrees, they are more likely to use explicit, embedded, and research-based knowledge. I am curious if their decreased likelihood of using tacit knowledge is because they are more used to questioning their way of doing things through their academic training and preparation. Again, the possible reasons for these findings must be explored further.

The same patterns from individual level findings hold true in regard to organizational practices. It is important to keep the organizational level of my study in mind because it highlights how organizational systems, learning, and culture affect practice. There are themes within organizations that show broader patterns both within the divisions and across organizations as well. In my ordinal regression models, I include organizational practices to gain insight into how these practices affect practitioner behavior. And again, practices within the field across organizations make a difference in how work is carried out. In all models, even when controlling for all variables, those practitioners who work in organizations that encourage the use of specific knowledge types are more likely to use that knowledge in their practice. In relation to the point above about the imbalance in the evidence and knowledge that inform practice, organizational practices make a difference. If more of a balance is to be achieved within and across systems, more than individual behaviors will have to change one-by-one – organizations will have to encourage these practices as well. I write of this more in my implications section on what can be done to address this.

Again, I push the ideas around EIPP in other fields and disciplines into the institutional advancement space by using organization culture and organizational learning theoretical concepts to understand who might be more likely to use certain types of research and evidence; additionally, I can understand what types of organizational characteristics make a difference.

Further research needs to be completed on why these specific findings above emerged, but this builds the foundation for understanding.

Learning Systems & Structures within Organizations & the Field

I then turn my focus to the learning systems & structures within advancement. Recall in Figure 2.1 I highlight how general systems theory frames my understanding that institutional advancement shops simultaneously exist as sub-systems of two separate systems – they exist as part of higher education systems and as part of the field of institutional advancement. My study focuses on the latter and adds to the theoretical understandings of the system of institutional advancement. There are inputs and outputs effecting practice in the field, and part of these are the knowledge and evidence that guides advancement practice. There is a permeable boundary between the advancement organization and the institution they serve; however, I add to the organizational systems theoretical knowledge base by focusing on the identity of these advancement divisions in their own field. These shops simultaneously hold their own traditions, histories, professionalization, and ways of carrying out practice. Organizational systems theory frames my interpretation of these ideas and allows me to better explore what is taking place between these organizations and the field of practice. I seek to honor both their mission that serves the higher education system and their mission that ties into the field of advancement; my study brings to light findings around this. In addition to this systems framing, organizational learning theory provides me a way to look at what learning is happening within these organizations – looking within the ‘black box.’ From both a systems theory and organizational learning theory lens, I can clearly see that there are systems and structures in place for learning and sharing knowledge and evidence both within and outside of the organization (outputs). These align with past literature on these theories around organizational systems and learning.

Understanding the Organizational Learning Systems & Structures in Advancement

To begin, part of my findings revolves around a deeper look into these systems and structures of learning and knowledge sharing and storage. This answers research question 3 in my study: *What organizational learning systems and structures are in place both within and outside advancement organizations that guide practice and internal policy making?* From my findings, I see that there are a myriad of learning systems and structures affecting and guiding the work of advancement divisions in the field of advancement.

Through my systems theory lens, overall, I found that the majority of organizations in my sample maintain systems and structures for knowledge management and mobilization. Tacit, explicit, embedded, and research-based knowledge are shared frequently. This sharing and learning take place both within organizations amongst fellow staff members and between organizations, through professional organizations, facilitated conversations with experts and fellow practitioners, and the use of scholarly resources. The systems and structures highlighted through my conceptual framework showcases these systems and structures: Learning consortiums ranging from professional organizations, athletic conference affiliation, consultants, listservs, role-based groups, location, software, social identity-based groups, and more all affect practice. It highlights how vast the knowledge sharing and evidence use truly is in the field of advancement. Figure 4.17 shows that seven different categories of external organizations are used by organizations to inform and guide their work. Professional membership organizations and vendors/companies are heavily used by organizations for sharing and learning knowledge and evidence. And although they are not as utilized, five additional categories of organizations are still a part of evidence-informed practice in advancement (including: identity-based

organizations; certificate/training programs; research organizations; philanthropic studies schools/institutes; other).

These findings do align with, and build on, organizational systems and learning theories and EIPP literature and that are used in my study. When looking to the previous literature on how practice can be best understood and improved, one of the most critical components is the ability for learning to take place and knowledge and evidence to be stored and shared. My findings showcase that institutional advancement shops undoubtedly share and store a great deal of knowledge and evidence, which helps inform and guide the work of their organizations. Again, when I look at my results using organizational learning theory, I find that through the use of consortiums, professional organizations, outside experts and organizations, and beyond, learning and knowledge sharing is clearly taking place in the field. Ideas are being exchanged and practices and internal policy making are routinely examined for better understanding and improvements.

Although in its relative infancy in terms of a professional field, this an exciting finding as there is an array of opportunities for organizational learning and the injecting of new ideas into the field. In EIPP knowledge management and mobilization literature, organizations use many of the systems and structures that are seen above. These include both informal and formal structures and systems set up within organizations. Again, from an organizational learning perspective, many of these do fall within the 'single-loop learning' zone though (Argyris & Schön, 1996). Practices are discussed for strategy improvement, but the culture of 'doing what has worked before' in the organizations and field of advancement make it more challenging to move into the other learning areas. Additional research can explore these ideas on a deeper level to better understand what roadblocks and context might be leading to this.

Relationships Between Learning Systems and Structures and Individual and Organizational Characteristics

In relation to these points above, I took a deeper dive into research question 4 via ordinal logistical regression models in Table 4.10. These models give more detail on the organizational learning systems and structures that guide practice. Remember that my fourth and final research question is ‘*What sociodemographic and organizational characteristics, if any, show a relationship with systems and structures of knowledge management and mobilization of institutional advancement shops?*’ I sought to understand if there is a higher or lower likelihood of using certain systems or structures for learning based on demographics and organizational characteristics. When I look at my models in Table 4.10, there are indeed some relationships, but overall, there are not a huge number of differences. It is interesting to see the common themes illuminated through my conceptual framework around organizational learning and systems. Across 214 institutions, with 1,826 individuals represented, my theories highlight the deeply engrained ways of carrying out work and learning knowledge and evidence in advancement. I find that there is very little difference across institution type, sub-areas within advancement, roles, geographic location, organizational structure (i.e., centralized, decentralized, etc.), and more. My framework brings into focus how deeply connected and similar the professionalization, learning, and ways of carrying out work are in advancement in the United States.

However, based on social identity variables, there is some small variation on whether practitioners agreed that their organization facilitates certain conversations and provides access to different resources and trainings. In the models, gender identity and expression, sexual orientation, years of experience, and race all showed differing levels of agreement around these

systems and structures. Additionally, professional and education individual level variables exhibited a link to the dependent variable. These findings point out that it is important to understand and honor the different experiences people may have within an organization based on their own identities and their roles/functional areas within the division. The results of Table 4.10 point out that there may be ways for organizations to understand these experiences and better facilitate conversations on, and provide access to, different resources and trainings based on the needs of the staff, social identities, role types, functional areas, etc.

Furthermore, from an organizational perspective, I find that the size of the organization appears to play a role in the learning systems and structures available. For instance, in four out of the six models, there is an increased likelihood of organizations with 100+ staff members to provide and facilitate different systems and structures for learning and knowledge sharing and storage; this is compared to those with 0-50 employees. Those with over 100 staffers are more likely to have access to systems and structures around research, internal staff sharing, professional organizations, and external experts. Also, I find that organizations with higher fundraising totals show a greater likelihood of using internal staff tacit and explicit knowledge and practitioner expertise; this may be because they have seen success in their techniques around fundraising and engagement, therefore they share their knowledge and expertise more frequently. They also may be driving practices within the field of advancement because of their increased learning and success in terms of dollars raised; therefore, culturally, their knowledge and evidence may be more valued and used in practice. This would align with previous literature on culture within fields that point to power dynamics and contextual factors affecting practice and modes of carrying out work (Wolfe & Dilworth, 2015). More must be understood about these differences in experiences through further research and studies.

Limitations

The findings in this study contribute to the increased understanding of institutional advancement; however, I want to acknowledge the limitations of my study. First, a limitation for my study is based on the concept of social desirability. This idea is often found in survey studies. Lavrakas (2008) writes that “social desirability is the tendency of some respondents to report an answer in a way they deem to be more socially acceptable than would be their “true” answer” (p. 825). Practitioners may have answered certain questions with some bias based on their professional roles and/or relationship to their organization and field of advancement. Additionally, whenever a respondent speaks for their organization, there is always some room for error in findings. I work to address these limitations by looking to previous empirical, research-based surveys on EIPP to inform my survey, which increased reliability and validity of the instrument. I also ensured participants of anonymity in the results so they could answer truthfully without any fear of negative ramifications for their career, the advancement organization they work within, or their partnerships within the field of advancement.

Second, I acknowledge that my study is not comprehensive of all advancement organizations – it only includes advancement shops that fundraise for \$25 million or more. This was done for specific reasons (to bind my study and focus on institutional advancement divisions with all five functional areas), but this still limits my study’s generalizability somewhat in the field. Future research building on my study can begin to address this limitation by seeking survey responses from practitioners outside of this sample (Drezner & Pizmony-Levy, 2020).

Lastly, I recognize that this is the first time, that I am aware of, that research has been done on the topic of evidence in practice and policy making in institutional advancement. Drezner and Pizmony-Levy (2020) point out in their study on sense of belonging and alumni

engagement that because it is the first of its kind more research needs to be done on that topic to build on their findings. My study falls in line with this same limitation – there needs to be more research done on this study’s topic and replication to see if my findings hold true. I address this limitation by performing a thorough literature review and grounding my study through generalizable empirical methods, but nevertheless, I must still acknowledge this limitation.

Chapter 6: Implications and Conclusion

As I conclude my study, I highlight in the following sections a number of implications for those practicing in, and connected to, the field and for those researching institutional advancement. These ideas begin with a discussion on the implications for my topic and future research that must be done. This includes implications for the theories that guided my work. After this, I dive into how current structures and systems can be used to encourage more knowledge and evidence sharing of all types through knowledge management tenets. Then, using knowledge mobilization as a framework, I turn to implications for the research process and knowledge and evidence use

Implications for this Study and the Guiding Theories

As a reminder, I use organizational systems, learning, and culture theory to provide a holistic framework for understanding evidence-informed institutional advancement. This framework provides a strong implication for future use of these frames because it shows how systems and structures *as well as* beliefs, behaviors, and values affect how institutional advancement shops learn and carry out their work. Again, this is one of the first studies of its kind that I am aware of that uses this combination of theoretical frames. By using these theories in combination from an organizational level, my study takes the focus off the individual only and frames my findings around how the organizational structures and systems, culture, and learning are all affecting practice in tandem together. By using my conceptual framework, this dissertation adds empirical findings around knowledge, evidence, and systems. I am able to reveal what truly informs and drives practice. This is a powerful implication for theory because it shows how these three theoretical frames can be used in tandem. The framework showcases misalignments between what is valued versus what is actually used; the theories illuminate

how knowledge, evidence, and information are shared; and these theoretical lenses tell the story of how learning takes place within the organization based on inputs, knowledge, evidence, systems, and structures in place both within and outside of the organization.

Additionally, I push systems, learning, and culture theories and EIPP into a space of institutional advancement. This is a new way of exploring advancement. This push involves centering advancement as a field versus as a sub-system of a higher education institution. This builds on previous historical literature on this field (e.g., Thelin & Trollinger, 2014) and literature on giving and alumni engagement (see page. 20 for extensive list of studies). These theories can be used in future research to continue to dig deeper on these ideas and push the field in the understanding of how practice and decision-making are carried out in institutional advancement specifically. I am able to answer my research questions based on what knowledge and evidence is valued and used in advancement and what systems and structures are set up for learning and knowledge sharing in the field.

As I look to the future in terms of what must be studied next to deepen the findings from my study, I look back to the concepts of answering the ‘why’ along with the ‘what’ and ‘how.’ My study answered questions around what knowledge and evidence are valued versus actually used in practice and how this happens (i.e., learning systems and structures). However, more work now must be done on the ‘why’ and processes that shape this work: *Why do organizations value research but use it less than others? Why do they value and use other forms more? Why are certain structures and systems for learning used by some organizations but not others? Why are there different knowledge and evidence use patterns and systems and structures set up in certain organizations?* Future studies must dig into these questions and learn more about the processes of how these things come about. Through qualitative methods, such as interviews, and

through quantitative methods that ask specific questions on process, e.g., survey methodology, this can build on these foundational results from my research questions and learn even more on this topic.

Implications for Practice and Structures and Systems in Advancement

When I look back at the earlier findings in this study, I find that there are multiple structures and systems in advancement set up for learning, knowledge sharing, and evidence use. The ideas are core in the concept of Knowledge Management (KM, see Chapter 2). As a reminder, “Knowledge management is concerned with the exploitation and development of the knowledge assets of an organization with a view to furthering the organisation's objectives” (Rowley, 2000, p. 327, as found in Davenport, et al., 1998). KM provides a clear framework and a deeper understanding of what structures must be in place to store data, information, evidence, and knowledge so that the organization can learn and grow their knowledge and understanding.

My study highlights through the tenets of KM, EIPP, and my organizational theories how advancement divisions utilize professional organizations, learning consortiums, external learning organizations, email listservs, and more to utilize, learn, and distribute knowledge. However, many of these focus on the sharing and learning of tacit, explicit, and at times, embedded knowledge and evidence sources. Organizations use research-based evidence and knowledge less. Again, it is important to utilize and honor all knowledge and evidence types in practice as each brings a unique contribution.

Recall from above, tacit knowledge use in advancement builds on past experiences, instinct, and what has worked; those closest to the problem often understand it deeply (Bennet & Bennet, 2008; Mintzberg et al., 1998; Nonaka, 1994; Reed & Meagher, 2019). Explicit knowledge is valuable because it uses various forms of evidence and data to inform and guide

work in tangible ways (Botha et al., 2014). It allows for direct evidence to inform work (Bennet & Bennet, 2008; Davies et al., 2015; Walter et al., 2004). Additionally, built up embedded knowledge develops from previous knowledge and evidence of what works well in the field. Advancement organizations have seen success in terms of fundraising and engagement and are at the forefront of many conversations in higher education. However, in partnership with these others types, research provides theoretically grounded, empirical evidence, knowledge, and learning (Boaz, Davies, et al., 2019b; Powell et al., 2018); this can generate conversation, reflection, and the reshaping of how things are done (Nutley et al., 2007a, p. 3). It works in tandem with these other knowledge types to honor what has worked and builds on previous understandings to think of things in new ways. This is how my study connects and adds to current EIPP and organizational theory literature: It seeks to explain, through empirical methods, what knowledge and evidence drives the work of advancement shops and how learning takes place currently. In the EIPP literature, it is common to see practitioners and those in the field leaning on these other forms of knowledge and evidence because at times research can feel less relevant and difficult to put into practice. But scholars have pointed out ways that systems and structures can be rethought and improved so that all forms of knowledge and evidence are used. I point to some of these below.

To achieve more of a balance in the use of different knowledge and evidence, there are opportunities for advancement organizations and professional organizations within the field to use their current and new formal and informal repositories, systems, and structures to create more access to research-based evidence and knowledge. When I look back to the current learning systems and structures that are in place, there are a plethora of ways knowledge and evidence are shared. From an internal perspective, most organizations use informal and formal structures to

share knowledge and evidence. These include learning communities, facilitated conversations around topics, trainings with experts in the field, and more. More research needs to be completed on if these systems work well, however, organizations can use the current systems begin to share knowledge and evidence of all types including those that are research-based. It will take an intentional effort to search out and share these, but these efforts do not have to be additive in completely new ways. Rather, it is expanding the availability of different knowledge and evidence sources through infrastructures that are already there.

In addition, this dissertation showcases how advancement organizations often utilize ‘cross-organization’ systems to share knowledge and evidence. There are multiple structures set up, including professional organizations, listservs, athletic conference consortiums, institution type consortiums, role-specific learning groups, and more. This study intentionally focuses on both within organizations and *across* organization within the field. The conceptual framework I use allows for advancement shops to more clearly see the importance of including each knowledge and evidence type in their work and the systems and structures that are in place for this increased and new learning. It is my hope that leaders and members within these organizations that are ‘cross-cutting’ can inject new ideas into these current systems and structures for even greater learning and knowledge sharing across the field.

Furthermore, new structures and systems can be created too based on understanding the ‘return on investment’ of using each knowledge and evidence type in practice. Through using tacit, explicit, and embedded knowledge and evidence from the field, advancement practitioners have raised greater dollar amounts and engaged more and more people over time; this work has furthered the mission of the university they serve. In addition, research has been used in tandem to question current ways of doing things and to see things through different lenses (e.g., Drezner,

2018; Drezner & Pizmony-Levy, 2020; Drezner et al., 2020; Garvey & Drezner, 2019; McNamee & Drezner, 2021). This research shows how these new ways of thinking and practicing can also lead to more engagement. This study illustrates the benefits of all of these knowledge types and evidence sources. Therefore, organizations may use this information and be more likely to invest in new resources and ideas when they have seen the value that all of these present.

From a more micro-level, these investments and ideas could include smaller components like organizational subscriptions to academic journals focused on institutional advancement research or showing staff members how to search for academic articles and books with their university library access. Additionally, organizations can take larger, macro-level actions. For example, organizations can send practitioners to a variety of conferences and symposiums based on different knowledge and evidence types such as: Association for the Study of Higher Education (ASHE) Conference; National Conference on Race & Ethnicity (NCORE) in Higher Education; CASE DRIVE Conference; Indiana University Lilly Family School of Philanthropy Science of Philanthropy Initiative (SPI) Conference; or the NORRAG Symposium Philanthropy in Education: Global Trends, Regional Differences and Diverse Perspectives. Furthermore, organizations and researchers can work to create and establish learning consortiums to share a wider variety of evidence and knowledge and ideate together. They can work to inject new ideas into the field and put them into practice. This leads me to my next implication for practice.

In relation to these points above, an important internal structural component to build into organizations might be to also provide more dedicated time for learning within organizations. Practitioners may lack the time and resources to find new evidence and build their own knowledge and understanding (Armstrong et al., 2013). With lofty fundraising goals, hundreds of

events and programs, advancement services workflows, and much more, it is difficult to find time to read new evidence and information and question current practices. As highlighted above, organizations have both formal and informal learning structures, (Knowledge Management Tools, 2018c; Rowley, 2000), but it is critical that organizations also allow time for this and provide resources to carry this out. There must be a culture that values learning and questioning how things are done. By encouraging this culture of learning and questioning, tacit, explicit, embedded, and research-based knowledge and evidence can then be used during these discussions, leading to improved practice. This can then lead to the double-loop and meta-level learning that Argyris and Schön (1996) point to in organizational learning.

Additionally, these implications can be applied to professional organizations. As some of the largest sources of information, evidence, and knowledge for practitioners, there are exciting opportunities for these organizations to share new, innovative ways of doing things that are grounded in the different knowledge types, including research-based knowledge. Practitioner experience, knowledge from the field, and research must be used in tandem to continue to improve the field. Consequently, professional organizations can engage with a variety of individuals, including practitioners, researchers, policy makers, learning organizations, and others to question practices and improve the ways work is carried out. They are uniquely positioned to do this, with connections and resources to continually question systems, build new structures, and improve practice. However, it cannot be based only on one type of knowledge or practice. All points of view and knowledge and evidence forms must be sought out and recognized. This can occur by including all of the parties mentioned above (i.e., practitioners, researchers, though leaders, etc.) and allowing space for each to discuss their thoughts and expertise areas through organizational channels. If advancement organizations and professional

organizations begin to engage in these ways, this begins to build a whole-systems approach to this work that can lead to positive changes for the entire field (Walter et al., 2004). Practitioners, researchers, and organizations alike can see issues in ways they may not have seen before, thus leading to a shift in practice in meaningful ways (Tseng & Coburn, 2019). These ideas lead me to the following section.

Knowledge Mobilization in Advancement

As Powell et al. (2017) state, they use “the term ‘knowledge mobilisation’ as shorthand for the range of active approaches used to encourage the creation, sharing and use of research-informed knowledge” (p. 20). However, KMb does not ignore the explicit, tacit, and embedded knowledge of those in the organization (Powell et al., 2018). KMb highlights the importance of producing research that makes a difference to practitioners and policymakers to decrease the feeling that research and theory are too distant for practitioners at times (p. 19). KMb helps to bridge this “gulf and to ensure that knowledge mobilisation theory and practice are both informed by and inform each other” (Powell et al., 2017, p. 219). Researchers and research users work in relationship to improve outcomes and share data, information, evidence, and knowledge with one another (Action Research Network of the Americas (ARNA), n.d.; Powell et al., 2018).

As a reminder from previous literature, research is applied in more non-linear ways than is often thought when this term is used in conversations (Nutley, Walter, & Davies, 2007b). From my findings, it is clear that research is valued, and there is a desire by many practitioners to use it. But practitioners are not static beings, waiting until the next research study is published to use in their practice. They practice every day, using their own valuable knowledge and many forms of evidence to inform their practice. Therefore, researchers and scholars must think deeply

about their processes and research projects, keeping in mind the tenets of EIPP (Nevo & Slonim-Nevo, 2011; Nutley et al., 2007a).

Researchers must be aware of how research is created, disseminated, and stored in advancement, which can be better understood through my conceptual framework and EIPP, KM, and KMB literature. My study explains these ideas more in-depth than previously understood. It points to the importance of asking critical questions like the one Tseng and Nutley (2014) do in their piece: if scholars deem their research relevant and important, “relevant to whom and for what?” (p. 173). *Who is research produced for and why is it published?* It is important to keep in mind that the hope will be that research injects new ideas and provides new ways of thinking about an issue or seeing a problem. If there are barriers to using this research, these must be addressed. For instance, are advancement practitioners able to access journal articles, books, webinar, and other scholarly resources? And bigger yet, do they even know about these options? Do advancement divisions and professional organizations host subscriptions and provide access to these options? Researchers must be proactive in outreaching about the importance of their work and these resources and must be aware of how practitioners engage in research use (Tseng, 2008, 2012).

Furthermore, it is important to understand the context that research and other knowledge and evidence is used for in advancement. Advancement practitioners use research in specific ways I highlight in my study. Researchers and research users must be aware of the context in which different knowledge and evidence is used so it is relevant and timely for the field (Powell et al., 2018). These must be kept in mind as new pieces are produced. As Powell et al. (2018) write in their work:

Knowledge mobilizers... [have] to be open to the diverse kinds of knowledge mobilization activities that research users might choose based on other ways of knowing: ‘... we are not there to tell people what to do, we are there to bring people together and provide them with the structures to think and talk and arrive at their own conclusions about what they want to do.’ (p. 43)

It is crucial that researchers and research users work in partnership to translate and mobilize knowledge and evidence that can lead to improved practice. By improving practice, organizations can make practices more equitable and inclusive, raise more funding for their institutions, engage with more alumni, donors, and stakeholders, and ensure the longevity and sustainability of the higher education institutions they serve. This enhanced knowledge mobilization allows for practitioners to share with researchers what challenges they face most and what would be most relevant to them. Professional organization representatives and key stakeholders can provide a macro-level view of the field and trends they see. Researchers can build trust by listening and developing questions in partnership with these groups. Important research can be carried out together, co-authored by scholars, practitioners, and thought leaders. The research is then applicable and pushes the field to grow and change in ways that benefit all. In addition, it also teaches people more about the research process and empirical methods.

However, it is important to remember that this is an iterative process that needs constant attention – there are no “silver bullets,” and “research must be integrated with different types of evidence and adjudicated alongside values, interests, and local circumstances” (Tseng & Nutley, 2014, p. 173). This is why it is important to engage all stakeholders, particularly those who might be seen as knowledge brokers and mobilizers, i.e., researchers, scholar-practitioners, professional organizations, learning consortiums and groups, etc. These brokers are “intermediaries who

translate and disseminate research evidence” and at times, “broker relationships between researchers, policymakers, and practitioners” (Davies & Nutley, 2008, p. 6). This keeps in mind the organizational approach to my study – one individual cannot make change to entire systems. It instead takes numerous individuals representing organizations within advancement to make large scale changes and improve practice. However, previous research and literature on EIPP show promising results that it can be done. And my study builds on these understandings to show what this might look like in institutional advancement.

Conclusion

My study seeks to better understand what knowledge and evidence informs the work of advancement and what structures and systems are set up for the sharing of this knowledge and evidence within and across organizations. I focus on the organizational level because my study is foundational in understanding my core questions and ideas from a generalizable perspective. This study builds on the work of previous scholars. For instance, Drezner and Huehls (2014) highlighted the mostly atheoretical nature of the resources and knowledge in institutional advancement in higher education. And Walton (2019) wrote of the understudied nature of advancement and the need for more research on this field. Utilizing survey methodology, I am able to add to the literature base and gain insight into my research questions. These findings push the field’s understanding of what truly drives and guides the work of advancement. I use a conceptual framework informed by organizational systems, learning, and culture theories along with the tenets of EIPP to delve deeper into what takes place within and between advancement shops and why. Future studies are needed to further examine the ideas presented here, but my study lays the foundational building blocks for this future work. Advancement organizations value and use all types of knowledge and evidence in their work using a multitude of different

structures and systems. But there are ways that practice can be further understood and improved. Important changes can be made in partnership with practitioners, researchers, policymakers, thought leaders, professional organizations, and others. These improvements are critical to ensure that the field works towards a model of equity and inclusion for all alumni, donors, and stakeholders. In addition, with changing demographics and decreased alumni participation rates, the findings from my study are more important than ever to ensure the sustainability of these organizations for generations to come.

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Appendix A: Dissertation Survey

Evidence-Informed Institutional Advancement:
An Organizational Understanding

Survey Author:
Chase McNamee
IRB Protocol Number: 22-027
Teachers College, Columbia University

Survey Flow

[Block 1: Introductory Letter & Informed Consent \(5 Questions\)](#)

[Block 2: Individual Demographics \(12 Questions\)](#)

[Block 3: Individual Professional and Academic Background \(13 Questions\)](#)

[Block 4: Respondent-level Knowledge & Evidence Use \(9 Questions\)](#)

[Block 5: Organizational Structure & Characteristics \(6 Questions\)](#)

[Block 6: Org Culture: Attitudes/Values/Norms/Decision-make & \(Org Systems: Consultants\) \(5 Questions\)](#)

[Block 7: Org-level Systems: Knowledge Mgmt & Org-Level Learning: Knowledge Mobilization \(3 Questions\)](#)

[Block 8: Final thoughts from respondents \(1 Question\)](#)

Start of Block: 1. Introductory Letter & Informed Consent

Q1.1

(IRB Protocol Number: 22-027)

Hello,

Thank you again for your willingness to participate in my dissertation research.

The survey generally takes about 10 minutes.

Again, as a reminder, all your answers will be kept completely confidential. Your name and your college or university will not be revealed. If you have any problems accessing the survey, please let me know.

My dissertation is supervised by Professor Noah D. Drezner and approved by the Teachers College, Columbia University IRB (Protocol 22-027).

Best,

Chase McNamee

Teachers College, Columbia University

cdm2172@tc.columbia.edu

Q1.2 INTRODUCTION

You are invited to participate in this research study titled Evidence-Informed Institutional Advancement: An Organizational Understanding.” You qualify to take part in this research study because you are over 18 years old and are a practitioner in an institutional advancement division at a higher education institution. Approximately 500 people will participate in this survey, and it will take 10-15 minutes of your time to complete.

WHY IS THIS STUDY BEING DONE?

As part of my doctoral degree requirements, I am conducting a research study using survey methodology to better understand advancement organizations from an evidence-informed policy and practice (EIPP) lens. EIPP leans on the idea that different forms of evidence and knowledge are all valuable in organizations and can be used in practice. My survey will help me better understand how institutional advancement shops use evidence and knowledge to guide their work and decision-making.

WHAT WILL I BE ASKED TO DO IF I AGREE TO TAKE PART IN THIS STUDY?

If you decide to participate, you will be asked to complete a short survey about your individual knowledge and evidence use and your organization’s evidence and knowledge use. This will take about 10-15 minutes. This survey will be completed online through Qualtrics. It can be completed on your own time.

WHAT POSSIBLE RISKS OR DISCOMFORTS CAN I EXPECT FROM TAKING PART IN THIS STUDY?

This is a minimal risk study, which means the harms or discomforts that you may experience are

not greater than you would ordinarily encounter in daily life while taking routine physical or psychological examinations or tests. You do not have to answer any questions or share anything you do not want to talk about. You can stop participating in the study at any time without penalty. Your information will be kept confidential. The primary researcher will take precautions to keep your information confidential and prevent anyone from discovering or guessing your identity. There will be no individual names asked of you as a participant. I will keep all information on a password protected computer and storage system.

WHAT POSSIBLE BENEFITS CAN I EXPECT FROM TAKING PART IN THIS STUDY?

There is no direct benefit to you for participating in this study. Participation may benefit the field of institutional advancement to better understand the knowledge and evidence that drive the work of advancement practitioners and organizations.

WILL I BE PAID FOR BEING IN THIS STUDY?

You will not be paid to participate. There are no costs to you for taking part in this study.

WHEN IS THE STUDY OVER? CAN I LEAVE THE STUDY BEFORE IT ENDS? The study is over when you have completed the survey. However, you can leave the study at any time even if you have not finished.

PROTECTION OF YOUR CONFIDENTIALITY

The primary researcher will keep all electronic or digital information stored on a computer and storage system that is password protected. There will be no record matching you with your responses. For quality assurance, the study sponsor (faculty advisor), and/or members of the Teachers College Institutional Review Board (IRB) may review the data collected from you as part of this study. Otherwise, all information obtained from your participation in this study will be held strictly confidential and will be disclosed only with your permission or as required by U.S. or State law.

HOW WILL THE RESULTS BE USED?

This study is being conducted as part of the dissertation of the primary researcher. No identifying information about you or your organization will be published.

WHO CAN ANSWER MY QUESTIONS ABOUT THIS STUDY?

If you have any questions about taking part in this research study, you should contact the primary researcher, Chase McNamee, 307-851-6316 or at cdm2172@tc.columbia.edu You can also contact the faculty advisor, Professor Noah Drezner at 212-678-3787 or at drezner@tc.columbia.edu.

If you have questions or concerns about your rights as a research subject, you should contact the Institutional Review Board (IRB) (the human research ethics committee) at 212-678-4105 or email IRB@tc.edu or you can write to the IRB at Teachers College, Columbia University, 525 W. 120th Street, New York, NY 10027, Box 151. The IRB is the committee that oversees human research protection for Teachers College, Columbia University.

Q1.3 OPTIONAL CONSENT FOR FUTURE CONTACT

The primary researcher may wish to contact you in the future. Please select yes or no below to indicate whether or not you give permission for future contact.

- Yes
 - No
-

Q1.4 OPTIONAL CONSENT FOR FUTURE CONTACT

The researcher may contact me in the future for information relating to this current study. Please select yes or no below to indicate whether or not you give permission for future

- Yes
 - No
-

Q1.5 PARTICIPANT'S RIGHTS

- I have read the Informed Consent Form and have been offered the opportunity to discuss the form with the researcher.
- I have had ample opportunity to ask questions about the purposes, procedures, risks and benefits regarding this research study.
- I understand that my participation is voluntary. I may refuse to participate or withdraw participation at any time without penalty.
- The researcher may withdraw me from the research at the researcher's professional discretion.
- If, during the course of the study, significant new information that has been developed becomes available which may relate to my willingness to continue my participation, the researcher will provide this information to me.
- Any information derived from the research study that personally identifies me will not be voluntarily released or disclosed without my separate consent, except as specifically required by law.
- Identifiers may be removed from the data. De-identified data may be used for future research studies, or distributed to another researcher for future research without additional informed consent from you (the research participant or the research participant's representative).
- I should receive a copy of the Informed Consent Form document. (If you would like a copy of this informed consent for your records, please download [here](#)).

My e-signature below means that I agree to participate in this study:

End of Block: 1. Introductory Letter & Informed Consent

Start of Block: 2. Individual Demographics

Q2.1 What is your year of birth (YYYY)?

Q2.2 What sex were you assigned at birth on your original birth certificate?

- Female
 - Male
-

Q2.3 What is your current gender identity?

- Woman
 - Man
 - Trans woman
 - Trans man
 - Genderqueer/gender non-conforming
 - Non-binary
 - Different gender identity _____
-

Q2.4 Which of the following best represents how you think of yourself?

- Bisexual
 - Gay or lesbian
 - Queer
 - Something else
 - Straight, that is, not gay or lesbian
 - I am not sure yet
 - Refused
 - I don't know what this question means
-

Display This Question:

If Which of the following best represents how you think of yourself? = Something else

Q2.5 What do you mean by “something else”?

Q2.6 Do you consider yourself Hispanic or Latino/a/x?

- Yes
- No

Display This Question:

If Do you consider yourself Hispanic or Latino/a/x? = Yes

Q2.7 How would you describe your ethnicity? Please select all that apply.

- Cuban
- Mexican, Mexican American, Chicano
- Puerto Rican
- Other Hispanic, Latino/a/x or Spanish Origin (Please specify (e.g.; Argentinian, Colombian, Dominican, Nicaraguan, Salvadoran, Spaniard):

Q2.8 Please select one or more of the following racial categories as appropriate for you. Please select any additional sub-categories which best describes your background. Check as many categories and sub-categories as may apply.

- American Indian or Alaska Native
- Asian
- Black or African-American
- Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander
- White
- Not listed above (Please specify)

Display This Question:

If Please select one or more of the following racial categories as appropriate for you. Please selec... = Black or African-American

Q2.9 Which of the following categories describe your background? Please select all that apply.

- African
- African-American
- Afro-Caribbean
- Black
- Not listed above (Please specify)

Display This Question:

If Please select one or more of the following racial categories as appropriate for you. Please selec... = American Indian or Alaska Native

Q2.10 What is your principal or enrolled tribe?

Display This Question:

If Please select one or more of the following racial categories as appropriate for you. Please selec... = Asian

Q2.11 Which of the following categories describe your background? Please select all that apply.

- Asian Indian
 - Bangladeshi
 - Cambodian
 - Chinese
 - Filipino
 - Hmong
 - Indonesian
 - Japanese
 - Korean
 - Laotian
 - Malaysian
 - Pakistani
 - Sri Lankan
 - Taiwanese
 - Thai
 - Vietnamese
 - Not listed above (Please specify)
-

Display This Question:

If Please select one or more of the following racial categories as appropriate for you. Please selec... = Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander

Q2.12 Which of the following categories describe your background? Please select all that apply.

- Fijian
 - Guamanian/Chamorro
 - Native Hawaiian
 - Samoan
 - Tongan
 - Not listed above (Please specify)
-

End of Block: 2. Individual Demographics

Start of Block: 3. Individual Professional and Academic Background

Q3.1 Please select the option that most closely aligns with your current position

- Administrative Associate; Administrative Assistant; or Executive Assistant
 - Analyst; Coordinator; Program Manager; Project Manager; or Specialist
 - Assistant Director/Associate Director
 - Associate Vice Chancellor or Associate Vice President
 - CEO; Dean; Chancellor; or President
 - Director or Executive Director
 - Vice President or Vice Chancellor
 - Other _____
-

Q3.2 In your current role, do you supervise anyone?

- Yes
 - No
-

Q3.3 In what area of advancement do you work? Please select all that apply.

- Advancement services
- Alumni relations
- Communications
- Development/Fundraising
- Marketing
- Other: _____

Q3.4 How many total years have you worked in advancement?

Q3.5 What is the highest degree you have earned?

- GED
 - High School
 - Postsecondary Certificate
 - Associate's Degree
 - Bachelor's Degree
 - Master's Degree
 - Professional Degree (JD, MD, or other)
 - Ph.D./Ed.D./Other Doctorate
-

Q3.6 Are you an alum of the institution that you presently work at?

- Yes
 - No
-

Display This Question:

If What is the highest degree you have earned? = Ph.D./Ed.D./Other Doctorate

Q3.7 If doctorate, what field?

Q3.8 Do you identify as a first-generation college graduate?

- Yes
 - No
-

Q3.9 Have you ever practiced in a different division/department of higher education? (e.g. admissions, career services, academic advising, etc.)

- Yes
 - No
-

Display This Question:

If Have you ever practiced in a different division/department of higher education? (e.g. admissions,... = Yes

Q3.10 If yes, what division/department(s) of higher education did you work in? (If multiple answers, please separate each answer with a comma)

Q3.11 Have you ever practiced in a non-profit setting other than higher education advancement?

- Yes
- No

Q3.12 Were you in a different career field before higher education advancement?

- Yes
- No

Display This Question:

If Were you in a different career field before higher education advancement? = Yes

Q3.13 If yes, what career field? (Select all that apply)

- Advertising and marketing
- Aerospace
- Agriculture
- Computer and technology
- Construction
- Education
- Energy
- Entertainment
- Fashion
- Finance and economic
- Food and beverage
- Healthcare
- Hospitality
- Manufacturing
- Media and news
- Mining
- Pharmaceutical
- Telecommunication
- Transportation
- Other _____

End of Block: 3. Individual Professional and Academic Background

Start of Block: 4. Respondent-level Knowledge & Evidence Use

Q4.1 The following section asks about your own personal knowledge and evidence use as an individual.

Q4.2 Tacit knowledge is instinctual knowledge that a person does not get from being taught or from books, classes, etc. Rather, they learn this knowledge from personal experience, such as

work experience. How often do you use **tacit, instinctual knowledge** in your decision-making and work?

- Never
 - Sometimes
 - Frequently
 - All of the time
-

Q4.3 Explicit knowledge is knowledge that can be expressed in words, numbers, and symbols and stored in books, computers, etc. Explicit knowledge can be articulated and easily communicated between individuals and organizations, such as in manuals, guidebooks, or trainings. How often do you use **explicit knowledge** in your decision-making and work?

- Never
 - Sometimes
 - Frequently
 - All of the time
-

Q4.4 Embedded knowledge rests in the routines, processes, structures, culture, and norms that are produced by people but that live within the organization over time and outlast individuals. How often do you use **embedded, organizational knowledge** in your decision-making and work?

- Never
 - Sometimes
 - Frequently
 - All of the time
-

Q4.5 Scholarly, research-based knowledge is knowledge that has been generated through the research process, which consists of: building on previous knowledge, theory utilization, grounded and tested methods, data collection and analysis, and peer review. How often do you use **research-based knowledge** in your decision-making and work?

- Never
 - Sometimes
 - Frequently
 - All of the time
-

Q4.6 When thinking about the different knowledge types from above, in practice, which do you find yourself using most? (drag and drop in order from MOST used to LEAST used)

- _____ Tacit Knowledge
- _____ Explicit Knowledge
- _____ Embedded Knowledge
- _____ Scholarly Research-based Knowledge

Display This Question:

*If Scholarly, research-based knowledge is knowledge that has been generated through the research pro... =
Sometimes*

*Or Scholarly, research-based knowledge is knowledge that has been generated through the research pro... =
Frequently*

*Or Scholarly, research-based knowledge is knowledge that has been generated through the research pro... =
All of the time*

Q4.7 In your use of research-based knowledge, how often do you:

	Never	Sometimes	Frequently	All the time
Engage in your own scholarly research to improve practice	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Engage in 'conceptual research use' to help you think about an issue in a different way	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Engage in 'instrumental research use' to decide about content or direction of an organizational policy or program	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Engage in 'symbolic/tactical research use' to persuade others to a point of view or course of action	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Use research in an 'imposed way' because your organization requires you to use research	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Continued...

Q4.8

Keeping in mind the definitions above, indicate your level of agreement with the following statements:

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
Practitioners' instinct and previous experience should drive decision-making and practice in the field of advancement	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Explicit forms of recorded knowledge, such as internal training manuals, are important in practitioner work	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
When confronted with a new problem or decision, practitioners should look for research studies that might be relevant	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Organizational routines, processes, and past ways of carrying out work provide valuable knowledge for practitioners to do their work	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
It is better to implement a program or intervention that has already been adopted by other organizations	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Continued...

Q4.9 When you need to learn new knowledge and find evidence to inform your advancement work, how frequently do you access knowledge and evidence from:

	Never	Sometimes	Frequently	All of the time
Practitioner authored book, paper, non-scholarly article, or report	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Websites on the Internet	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
A newspaper or magazine (e.g. The Chronicle of Philanthropy, The Chronicle of Higher Education, Inside Higher Ed, etc.)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Original, scholarly research papers, academic journals, or books	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Professional organizations (e.g. CASE, CASE Library, AFP, ADRP, etc.)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Your university library (online or in person)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Training manuals/curricula/guides in your organization	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Communicating with fellow members of your organization	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Communicating with people from outside your advancement organization (e.g. consortiums, meetings, presenter at conference, etc)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
A particular consultant	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
A particular nonprofit organization/foundation	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Conferences or training workshops	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

End of Block: 4. Respondent-level Knowledge & Evidence Use

Start of Block: 5. Organizational Structure & Characteristics

Q5.1 Thank you for your responses so far. The following sections ask about your advancement organization.

Q5.2 Please select your institution

Display This Question

:If Please select your institution = Other

Q5.3 If other, what institution do you practice at?

Q5.4 How many total staff members work in your advancement shop?

- 0-25
 - 26-50
 - 51-100
 - 100+
-

Q5.5 How many total alumni does your institution serve?

- 1-50,000
 - 50,001-100,000
 - 100,001-200,000
 - 200,001-300,000
 - 300,001-400,000
 - 400,001+
-

Q5.6

This question asks about your organization's structure for carrying out their advancement work.

- In a centralized structure, an office holds centrally the priorities, budget, gift solicitations, personnel, and responsibility for all advancement activities.
- In the second structure, responsibilities are co-administered between a centralized office and independent units, such as academic colleges. Advancement units partner to determine priorities, set goals, and solicit donors.
- In a decentralized structure, independent units set their own advancement goals, priorities, and solicitations.

Is your advancement organization fully centralized, co-administered, or fully decentralized?

- Centralized
- Co-administered
- Decentralized

End of Block: 5. Organizational Structure & Characteristics

Start of Block: 6. Org Culture: Attitudes/Values/Norms/Decision-make & (Org Systems: Consultants)

Q6.1 The following sections asks about your organization. Please answer based on your understanding of your organization, not based on your personal practices or views.

In my organization:

	Never	Sometimes	Frequently	All of the time
We are encouraged to use scholarly research as part of our work	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
We are encouraged to generate new scholarly research to inform internal policy making or program development	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
We create presentations, fact sheets, checklists, and/or guidelines for practitioners within our organization based on our professional expertise	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
We produce non-research based publications, written materials, reports, and/or tools aimed at practitioners in the field of advancement	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
We utilize consultants to inform and guide our work	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Display This Question:

If The following sections asks about your organization. Please answer based on your understanding of... = We utilize consultants to inform and guide our work [Sometimes, Frequently, or All of the time]

Q6.2 How often does your organization use consultants?

- < 1 time per year
- 1 time per year
- 2 times per year
- 3 times per year
- 4 times per year
- 5 times per year
- 6+ times per year

Display This Question:

If The following sections asks about your organization. Please answer based on your understanding of... = We utilize consultants to inform and guide our work [Sometimes, Frequently, or All of the time]

Q6.3 What departments do you use consultants for?

- Advancement services
- Alumni relations
- Communications
- Development
- Marketing
- Other: _____

Display This Question:

If The following sections asks about your organization. Please answer based on your understanding of... = We utilize consultants to inform and guide our work [Sometimes, Frequentl, or All of the time]

Q6.4 What consultant companies do you utilize most? (You may list up to three)

Q6.5 When choosing an approach in your organization, what matters in organizational decision-making? (drag and drop in order from MOST important to LEAST important)

- _____ We have used this approach previously with good results
- _____ There is research-based evidence to support this approach
- _____ Similar organizations are using this approach
- _____ Professional organizations (e.g. CASE, AFP, etc.) recommend this approach

End of Block: 6. Org Culture: Attitudes/Values/Norms/Decision-make & (Org Systems: Consultants)

Start of Block: 7. Org-level Systems: Knowledge Mgmt & Org-Level Learning: Knowledge Mobilization

Q7.1 Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements: *My organization:*

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
Facilitates discussions and trainings based on research findings in practice or policies	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Facilitates discussions and trainings based on the tacit and explicit knowledge of internal staff members	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Provides employees access to updated knowledge and evidence from professional organizations	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Provides access to trainings and resources created by practitioners based on their expertise	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Provides access to scholarly resources (e.g. subscriptions to academic journals, library databases, etc.)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Provides opportunities for meeting with and learning from experts from outside the organization	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q7.2 When your organization seeks to learn and share new knowledge and evidence about advancement, which organization types below does your advancement division utilize? (Select all that apply)

- Professional membership organizations (e.g. Association of Fundraising Professionals, Annual Giving Network, CASE, etc.)
- Vendors/Companies (e.g. Blackbaud, Evertrue, Ruffalo Noel Levitz, Salesforce, etc.)
- Identity-based organizations (e.g. African American Development Officers, Asian Americans/Pacific Islanders in Philanthropy, Hispanics in Philanthropy, National Center for

Black Philanthropy, Native Americans in Philanthropy, Women of Color in Fundraising and Philanthropy, etc.)

- Certificate/training programs (e.g. Certified Fund Raising Executive, Institute for Nonprofit Practice, etc.)
 - Research organizations (e.g. Giving USA, William T. Grant Foundation, etc.)
 - Philanthropic studies schools/institutes (e.g. Lilly Family School of Philanthropy: IUPUI, etc.)
 - Other(s) (Please separate each answer with comma):
-

Q7.3 What consortiums, communities of practice, and/or learning communities (e.g. Ivy+ Consortium, Big10 Consortium, Annual Giving Directors Consortium, etc.) is your organization a part of? (If multiple answers, please separate each answer with a comma)

End of Block: 7.Org-level Systems: Knowledge Mgmt & Org-Level Learning: Knowledge Mobilization

Start of Block: 8. Final thoughts from respondents

Q8.1 I am interested in your thoughts about any of the issues we have raised in this survey. Please use the text box below to add any additional comments or to explain your responses.

End of Block: 8. Final thoughts from respondents
