

1-1-2021

## Successful Event Fundraising Strategies for Nonprofit Museums

Stacie Barrett  
*Walden University*

Follow this and additional works at: <https://scholarworks.waldenu.edu/dissertations>



Part of the [Marketing Commons](#), and the [Museum Studies Commons](#)

---

This Dissertation is brought to you for free and open access by the Walden Dissertations and Doctoral Studies Collection at ScholarWorks. It has been accepted for inclusion in Walden Dissertations and Doctoral Studies by an authorized administrator of ScholarWorks. For more information, please contact [ScholarWorks@waldenu.edu](mailto:ScholarWorks@waldenu.edu).

# Walden University

College of Management and Technology

This is to certify that the doctoral study by

Stacie R. Barrett

has been found to be complete and satisfactory in all respects,  
and that any and all revisions required by  
the review committee have been made.

## Review Committee

Dr. Carol-Anne Faint, Committee Chairperson, Doctor of Business Administration  
Faculty

Dr. Matthew Knight, Committee Member, Doctor of Business Administration Faculty

Dr. Diane Dusick, University Reviewer, Doctor of Business Administration Faculty

Chief Academic Officer and Provost  
Sue Subocz, Ph.D.

Walden University  
2021

Abstract

Successful Event Fundraising Strategies for Nonprofit Museums

by

Stacie R. Barrett

MBA, Wesleyan College, 2011

BA, Fort Valley State University, 2008

Doctoral Study Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Business Administration

Walden University

December 2021

## Abstract

Some museum nonprofit organizational leaders are experiencing financial losses. Less than 25% of nonprofit agencies in the United States have enough funds to operate for six months. Museum nonprofit leaders are concerned with financial losses because the decrease in financial support can cause decreased operational funding and prohibit museum nonprofit leaders from carrying out the organizational mission. Grounded in Ajzen's theory of planned behavior, the purpose of this qualitative single case study was to explore successful event fundraising strategies nonprofit managers use to increase financial support. The participants were three successful nonprofit museum leaders who had fundraising responsibilities. The study site was one nonprofit museum located in the southeastern United States. Data were collected by conducting virtual, semistructured interviews and gathering archival data, physical documents, and artifacts. Yin's five-step approach was employed to analyze the data. Three themes emerged: outreach strategies to attract millennials, designing appealing fundraising activities, and asking millennials for their support. A core recommendation is for nonprofit organizational leaders to conduct surveys to determine supporters' and potential supporters' needs to increase fundraising activities. Implications for social change include the potential to cultivate cultural awareness and understanding among museum visitors and people living near the museum.

Successful Event Fundraising Strategies for Nonprofit Museums

by

Stacie R. Barrett

MBA, Wesleyan College, 2011

BA, Fort Valley State University, 2008

Doctoral Study Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Business Administration

Walden University

December 2021

## Dedication

First and foremost, I dedicate this study to my Lord and Savior, Jesus Christ. I am everything I am because of The Lord Jesus, and I am nothing without him. I thank The Lord for helping me reach the end of this journey. He has truly ordered my steps and guided my path. Secondly, I dedicate this study to my late mother, that fashionista and high heel stepping lady, Ms. Sallie M. Harrison. I can remember hearing my mother say when I was growing up, “my baby go be a doctor!” Although this is not the type of doctor that either of us envisioned, I can now proudly say that her dreams for me came to fruition.

I would also like to dedicate this study to my siblings. I cannot say enough about the best big brother in the world, Mr. Brian Louis Harrison, and my sister-in-law Vickie. You deserve honorary degrees! Thank you for your love and support along the way. Special dedication also goes to my brothers reared in the home with me, Tyrone Harrison, and Eric Harrison. We can all say, “look, mama! We made it!” We’ve come a long way from that little peach and brown house in Blackville. And to my sisters Kelsea, Tina, Tracie, and Sherrie, this one’s for you too! I wish you all the success in your goals and future endeavors. May this process serve as a reminder to you to never give up.

Last but certainly not least, I would like to dedicate this study to my loving husband, Robert Lee Barrett, and our beautiful children, Robin, and Robert Brandon. Robert Lee, you for your love and unwavering support. I could not have done this without you. The sacrifices you and the kids made have not gone unnoticed. Thank you for always being in my corner and supporting my hopes and dreams.

## Acknowledgments

I would like to thank my committee members. Thank you to my chair, Dr. Carol-Anne Faint, who has been a godsend in this process. Dr. Faint became my chair while I was in the proposal phase. I was very nervous about getting a new chair at that point. However, she gave just the help I needed to make it to the finish line. I would also like to acknowledge and thank Dr. Matthew Knight and Dr. Diane Dusick. You have been with me since the beginning of my writing process. Many thanks to both of you for seeing me through until the end.

I would be remiss if I did not acknowledge Dr. Freda Turner. Thank you for your vision to start this program. Thank you for believing in me and for giving me a chance. Thank you also for your leadership and guidance during your tenure at Walden University.

Lastly on the academic side, I would like to thank my original chair, Dr. Yvette Ghormley. Thank you for your help and support at the beginning of my writing process. We laughed and cried together over the years. Now, I finally did what you told me to do, ‘just write the paper!’

Personally, I would like to give special acknowledgement to some of my closest friends that were there for every step of this journey. To my golden girl Felicia Williams, we have been through every life challenge and milestone together since middle school. My life’s journey has been better because you were there! Karan Kendrick, Larry Mealing, and Carlton Perry, your support means the world to me. Dasha Youmans Smith, I cannot forget about you. No tears, Gina. You got next!

## Table of Contents

List of Tables.....	v
List of Figures .....	vi
Section 1: Foundation of the Study .....	1
Background of the Problem.....	1
Problem Statement.....	2
Purpose Statement .....	2
Nature of the Study .....	3
Research Question .....	4
Interview Questions .....	4
Conceptual Framework.....	5
Operational Definitions.....	6
Assumptions, Limitations, and Delimitations .....	7
Assumptions .....	7
Limitations.....	7
Delimitations .....	8
Significance of the Study .....	8
Contribution to Business Practice.....	8
Implications for Social Change .....	9
A Review of the Professional and Academic Literature.....	10
TPB 11	
Alternative Frameworks.....	20

Nonprofit Museum Leadership.....	25
Decreasing Support From Government Sectors .....	27
Decreasing Support From Private Sectors Causes.....	28
Special Events.....	30
Segmentation .....	31
Social Media .....	32
Stakeholder Relationships .....	36
Museum Sustainability in the Community.....	39
Museum Sustainability in Education .....	40
Transition .....	42
Section 2: The Project.....	44
Purpose Statement .....	44
Role of the Researcher .....	45
Participants .....	47
Research Method and Design.....	48
Research Method .....	48
Research Design .....	50
Population and Sampling .....	51
Ethical Research .....	53
Data Collection Instruments.....	54
Data Collection Technique.....	56
Data Organization Technique.....	60

Data Analysis .....	62
Reliability and Validity.....	63
Reliability .....	63
Dependability.....	64
Validity.....	65
Credibility.....	65
Transferability.....	66
Confirmability.....	66
Data Saturation .....	67
Transition and Summary.....	67
Section 3: Application to Professional Practice and Implications for Change .....	69
Introduction .....	69
Presentation of the Findings.....	69
Theme 1: Outreach Strategies to Attract Millennials.....	70
Theme 2: Appealing Fundraising Activities.....	73
Theme 3: Just Ask.....	80
Applications to Professional Practice .....	85
Implications for Social Change .....	85
Recommendations for Action.....	87
Recommendations for Further Research.....	89
Reflections.....	91
Conclusion.....	92

References.....	94
Appendix A: Interview Protocol.....	121
Appendix B: Museum Survey.....	122

## List of Tables

Table 1. Literature Review Sources .....	11
Table 2. Presentation of Findings.....	70
Table 3. Theme 1 Key Words .....	71
Table 4. Theme 2 Key Words .....	75
Table 5. Theme 3 Key Words .....	81

## List of Figures

Figure 1. Jazz Concert Flyer .....	74
Figure 2. Donor Event Flyer .....	76
Figure 3. Spelling Bee Event .....	79
Figure 4. Join the Museum Flyer.....	83
Figure 5. Better Together Flyer.....	84

## Section 1: Foundation of the Study

### **Background of the Problem**

Nonprofit leaders seek donations from individuals, government organizations, and private sector businesses (Peasley et al., 2017). Across the United States, donations from philanthropists, government officials, business leaders are on a decline (Lin & Wang, 2015; Peasley et al., 2017). National economic factors often negatively affected donations from both the private and public sectors, causing fiscal distress to nonprofit organizations (Peasley et al., 2017). The entry of new nonprofit organizations typically triggers declining financial support from donors, which often compounds fiscal distress (Khodakarami et al., 2015; Lin & Wang, 2015; Peasley et al., 2017). Nonprofit organizations enter the U.S. market faster than other sectors, making many nonprofit leaders seek funds from the same limited resources (Khodakarami et al., 2015; Peasley et al., 2017).

Further adding to the fiscal distress of nonprofits is the ongoing need for repeat donors (Faulkner et al., 2016). Nonprofit organizations need repeat donors to meet fundraising goals annually. However, 95% of new donors only give once (Faulkner et al., 2016). Whether or not the new acquisitions become repeat donors depends heavily on the amount of contact (Peasley et al., 2017).

As nonprofit leaders look for new ways to create revenue streams, a majority of these leaders turn to event fundraising as a source of income (McKeever et al., 2016). According to Inoue (2015), events can successfully generate income if appropriately

executed. Nonprofit managers need to understand what motivates donors to give and participate in events to retain current and attract new donors.

### **Problem Statement**

Decreasing support from government and private sectors causes nonprofit organizations to experience financial loss for their operations (Topaloglu et al., 2018). Less than 25% of nonprofit agencies in the United States have enough funds to operate for 6 months (National Council of Nonprofits, 2019). Nonprofit leaders' ability to properly engage with young donors for special events affects the amount of annual revenue intake for nonprofits (O'Loughlin Banks & Raciti, 2017). The general business problem is that decreasing financial support forces nonprofit leaders to seek alternative revenue sources. The specific business problem is that some nonprofit museum leaders lack successful event fundraising strategies to attract millennials' support.

### **Purpose Statement**

The purpose of this qualitative single case study was to explore event fundraising strategies nonprofit museum leaders use to attract millennials' support. The target population consisted of nonprofit leaders, volunteers, and board members of one museum in the southeastern United States. Participants in the study had 5 years of experience in event fundraising strategies to attract millennials' support. Implications for positive social change include an influx of Generation Y (Gen Y) cohorts supporting museums, which may stimulate long-term financial stability from the demographic group. The potential increase in millennial participation at museum events may provide more revenue through philanthropy. Millennials who frequent events may be inclined to make donations to the

museums and might present the possibility of long-time patrons. Should millennial event-goers become repeat donors, nonprofit museums could become more sustainable to benefit future generations of museums attendees.

### **Nature of the Study**

According to Yin (2018), there are three main methods for conducting research (a) qualitative, (b) quantitative, and (c) mixed. I proposed a qualitative method for this study. The qualitative method is an interpretive type of inquiry in which researchers gather context-specific data in the participants' natural settings to study a phenomenon (Yin, 2018). A qualitative approach was selected for this study because of the need to gather context-specific data from nonprofit museum leaders regarding their fundraising strategies. Quantitative researchers use numerical data to test hypotheses about variables' relationships or group differences (Yin, 2018). I did not select the quantitative method for this study because it relies on numerical data to test a hypothesis. I did not seek to collect numerical data to test a hypothesis. The mixed method is a complex research approach featuring a combination of qualitative and quantitative methods. I used the qualitative method and did not need to test a hypothesis. Therefore, the mixed-methods approach was not an appropriate option for the study.

Yin (2018) offered two types of case study designs. First is the single case study design, where researchers study one case (Yin, 2018). Researchers use a single case study design to gather multiple types and sources of data to make an in-depth inquiry of the complexity and uniqueness of a particular project, policy, institution, program, or system in a real-life setting (Yin, 2018). Second is the multiple case study, where researchers

study two or more cases. Other types of research design include phenomenology and ethnography (Yin, 2018). Phenomenological researchers explore the personal meanings of lived experiences of individuals to understand phenomena (Yin, 2018). The phenomenological design is unsuitable because I did not explore the personal meanings of lived experiences of individuals to understand the subject phenomenon. Ethnographic researchers immerse themselves in the culture of a society to study a group's way of life (Wolcott, 1980). An ethnographic design was not employed because I did not immerse myself in the culture of a group. Researchers use case study design to capture temporal changes and contextual exploration of a case (Yin, 2018). I proposed a single case study design to capture the complexity of fundraising strategies for a single nonprofit museum in a real-life context.

### **Research Question**

What event fundraising strategies do nonprofit leaders use to attract millennials' support?

### **Interview Questions**

1. What event fundraising strategies do you use to attract millennials?
2. What type of outreach strategies do you use to inform millennials about your organization?
3. What, if any, branding strategies do you use to make your museum prosocial for millennial support?
4. How do you use communication channels to attract millennials?

5. What key strategies do you use to make millennials feel connected to the museum?
6. What key strategies do you use to show millennials that their peers accept the idea of supporting museums?
7. How do you show millennials that people in the 23–38 age group view donating to nonprofit organizations as a social norm?
8. How do you encourage millennials to show repeated desired behaviors towards your museum?
9. What additional information do you have to offer about event fundraising strategies to attract millennials' support that we have not already talked about?

### **Conceptual Framework**

I proposed Ajzen's theory of planned behavior (TPB), developed in 1985, as the conceptual framework for this qualitative study. Ajzen (1985) suggested that a person's beliefs about behaviors drive their actions. The key tenets of TPB include the ideas that people develop an intention to perform a behavior based on their individual (a) attitude towards the behavior, (b) subjective norms, and (c) perceptions of behavioral control (Ajzen, 1985). According to Ajzen, in addition to the factors guiding intentions, three kinds of beliefs, (a) behavioral beliefs, (b) normative beliefs, and (c) control beliefs, shape intentions. People's behavior towards the combination of the three beliefs result in the development of a behavioral intention (Ajzen, 2020). Based on the tenets of TPB, an individual's attitude towards the behavior can be a reliable indicator of the intent to perform an action (Ajzen, 2020). Museum leaders may use TPB to understand how

potential donors' attitudes towards nonprofit museum fundraisers affect donation amounts.

Nonprofit leaders lack a clear methodology to understand the behavioral intentions guiding patrons' decisions to support an organization (McKeever et al., 2016). TPB may serve as a guide to help fundraisers understand millennials' willingness to donate (Kashif & De Run, 2015). Potential donors' attitudes towards an organization are the most dominant predictors of donations (Kashif & De Run, 2015). Based on the principles of TPB, a person's behavioral beliefs influence the intent to perform a planned behavior (Pallud, 2017). An individual's perception of an organization has a direct effect on whether they donate (Degasperi & Mainardes, 2017). TPB is helpful to understand people's leisure activities (Pallud, 2017). According to Pallud (2017), TPB is a good theory for researchers to study museum activity since an individual's support of museums is a cultural, social activity influenced by peers. Therefore, I proposed TPB as the conceptual framework for this study.

### **Operational Definitions**

*Behavioral beliefs:* Behavioral beliefs are a person's acceptance about the potential outcomes of the behavior and peers' judgment of the outcomes (Ajzen, 1985).

*Behavioral intentions:* Behavioral intentions refer to an individual's drive to engage in a particular behavior (Morten et al., 2018).

*Control beliefs:* According to de Leeuw et al. (2015), control beliefs are perceptions about the presence of factors that help a person accept or reject adoption of the desired behavior.

*Normative beliefs:* Normative beliefs are perceptions of an individual accepted by specific people or groups and dictate whether behaving in a particular fashion is appropriate (Ajzen, 2020).

*Subjective norms:* Subjective norms are the perceived social pressure a person feels to carry out a behavior (Gilbert et al., 2016).

### **Assumptions, Limitations, and Delimitations**

#### **Assumptions**

Assumptions are ideas researchers accept as true that shape the research (Kirkwood & Price, 2013). The first assumption was that gaining support from millennials will help museum leaders reach their fundraising goals. The next assumption was that the participants would be willing and able to share their experiences about the research topic. Lastly, I assumed that the museum leaders would be honest and truthful in their responses.

#### **Limitations**

Limitations define the weaknesses of the study (Brutus et al., 2013). The first limitation of the study was a small sample size, which limited the ability to generalize the study to a larger population. Furthermore, the study utilized a nonprobability sampling approach which limited the transferability of the study. Only using interviews and archival documents to collect data limited the amount of information collected during the study.

## **Delimitations**

Delimitations are the boundaries set for the research (Yin, 2018). One key delimitation of this study was that the sample was limited to nonprofit leaders of one museum. The study was limited to nonprofit leaders because they could be logically assumed to be knowledgeable about the fundraising strategies of nonprofit museums. Another delimitation was that the location of the study was limited to the southeastern United States. The delimitations may limit the scope of the study.

## **Significance of the Study**

### **Contribution to Business Practice**

Nonprofit organization leaders depend on donations from private and public sectors to survive (McDonald et al., 2015). Therefore, generating revenue from external sources is a necessary skill for nonprofit leaders (Kearns et al., 2012). Museum leaders seek outside sources for funding by soliciting donations, selling memberships to the general public, and requesting sponsorships from corporations to fund museum programs and events (Kearns et al., 2012).

According to S. Kim and Chung (2019), millennials prefer special exhibits and events more than other demographic groups. Increased museum participation and visitation are direct results of millennials' preference for such activities (S. Kim & Chung, 2019). Museum leaders who plan events that cater to millennials create greater perceived value, satisfaction, and loyalty for Gen Y cohorts (Hyun et al., 2018). Pitts and Gross (2017) added that peer-to-peer interaction at museum events enhances attendees' experience and increases attendance. Donors who frequent special events develop loyalty

and increase donations over time (Hyun et al., 2018). This study's findings may contribute to business practice by revealing successful event fundraising strategies that nonprofit managers use to attract millennials' support of the organizational mission. Millennial support could benefit museums by adding long-term financial stability to support future museum operations and growth.

### **Implications for Social Change**

Implications for positive social change include an increase in museum patronage, which might foster cultural understanding. According to Olcer and Ekiz (2016), implications for positive social change for museums also include the potential for museums to become agents of community cohesion. Tourism development can lead to the immortalization of the history and culture of the local people while building cultural understanding and tolerance to diversity (Olcer & Ekiz, 2016). By encouraging a demographic group to share various personal experiences with peers, leaders may help individuals in the group (a) increase self-awareness, (b) gain a better understanding of the community's situation, (c) gain a new perspective on the needs, and (d) become agents of change (Pirkis et al., 2017). As a result of building fundraising strategies to include the millennial demographic, nonprofit museums directors could cultivate a greater understanding of others' cultures and increase museum participation (tom Dieck & Jung, 2017). Study findings may help nonprofit managers increase fundraising initiatives and bring communities together.

## **A Review of the Professional and Academic Literature**

The purpose of the literature review is to add more knowledge on the theory and practices used by nonprofit museum marketing leaders. The literature review presents the content of the literature related to fundraising strategies of nonprofit organizations in general and museums in particular and includes a critical analysis and synthesis of various sources/content of the literature. Nonprofit leaders lack a clear methodology to understand the behavioral intentions guiding patrons' decisions to support an organization (McKeever et al., 2016). TPB, developed by Ajzen (1985), may serve as a guide to help fundraisers understand millennials' willingness to donate (Kashif & De Run, 2015). Potential donor attitudes toward an organization are the most dominant predictors of donations (Kashif & De Run, 2015). Based on the principles of TPB, a person's behavioral beliefs influence the intent to perform a planned behavior (Pallud, 2017).

The literature review has the following 11 sections: (a) TPB, (b) Alternative Frameworks, (c) Nonprofit Museum Leadership, (d) Decreasing Support From Government Sector, (e) Decreasing Support From Private Sectors Causes, (f) Special Events, (g) Segmentation, (h) Social Media, (i) Stakeholder Relationships, (j) Museum Sustainability in the Community, and (k) Museum Sustainability in Education. To acquire sources, I used a combination of Emerald Management Journals, Sage, Google Scholar, ABI/Inform Complete, Business Source Complete, Premier ProQuest database, and Cross Ref. Keyword searches included *theory of planned behavior*, *theory of reasoned action*, *theory of planned behavior versus theory of reasoned action*, *Ajzen (2020)*, *perceived*

*control, behavioral control, subjective norms, social norms, attitudes, attitudes towards behavior, nonprofit, nonprofit organization, nonprofit managers, nonprofit museums, fundraising, funding, giving, millennials, baby boomers, Generation X, Generation Y, Generation Z, social media, and museums.*

The literature review is comprised of 117 sources. Of the 117 sources, three were seminal books, and one was a government source, whereas 113 (96%) were peer-reviewed articles. Sixty percent of the sources were published since 2017.

**Table 1**

*Literature Review Sources*

Source type	Total	Less than 5 years	Greater than 5 years
Peer-reviewed articles	113	60%	40%
Books	3	1%	0%
Government sources	1	1%	99%
Total	117	60%	40%

**TPB**

The TPB was developed by Ajzen (1985), who suggested that a person's beliefs about behaviors drive actions. The key tenets of TPB include the ideas that people develop an intention to perform a behavior based on (a) attitude toward the behavior, (b) subjective norms, and (c) perceptions of behavioral control (Ajzen, 1985).

According to Ajzen (2020), attitude alone is not an appropriate precursor to behavior. A combination of attitudes, subjective norms and conceptual controls are better predictors of behavioral performance (Ajzen, 2020). Attitudes, coupled with subjective

norms, are predictors of the likelihood of a person performing the desired behavior (Ajzen & Kruglanski, 2019; Montanaro et al., 2018). According to Ajzen, TPB derived from earlier theoretical aspirations by Ajzen entitled the theory of reasoned action (TRA). Fishbein and Ajzen posited that investigators could predict participants' behavioral intentions. As outlined in the TRA, a person's behavioral intentions precede the actual behavior (Madden et al., 1992). These behavioral intentions involve a person's belief that the actual behavior will result in a specific outcome (Madden et al., 1992). Behavioral intentions can predict any voluntary act unless a person's intent changes or the intent was not measured according to context (Sheppard et al., 1988). For instance, attitude, which can be positive or negative, is a strong predictor of behavioral intentions (Park, 2000). When a person has a positive attitude about an action, the person thinks that performing the act will yield a positive outcome (Madden et al., 1992), which reverses when a person believes that participating will have a negative result (Park, 2000). Therefore, the more favorable a person perceives the outcome, the more likely the person is to perform the behavior (Park, 2000).

Researchers built the belief construct on two main tenets: behavioral beliefs and normative beliefs (Madden et al., 1992). Normative beliefs involve subjective norms, which are the consideration a person takes in whether people in reference groups think that an individual should perform the action (Park, 2000; Vallerand et al., 1992). Additionally, one may also be compelled to participate in the action based on willingness to please the reference group (Vallerand et al., 1992). Several researchers using the TRA framework indicated a need to expand the theory (Brubaker & Fowler, 1990). Brubaker

and Fowler (1990) suggested that another force determines the course of action. This is what led Ajzen to develop the TPB (Ajzen, 2020). A limitation of TRA is that the theorists assume that participants have control over behavior, which may not be the case such as in collectivist cultures (Ramayah et al., 2009). To expand the TRA, Ajzen (2020) added the paradigm of perceived behavioral control. The other construct deals with the internal and external barriers that may cause someone to perform or not perform the behavior (Ramayah et al., 2009).

Fundraisers may use TPB to understand why or not people give to charitable causes. People decide to donate based on their beliefs on whether their donations will make a difference (Carroll & Kachersky, 2019). In a study using online surveys, social media, and face-to-face requests, Carroll and Kachersky (2019) found that potential donors' intention to give increased when asked, and donations increased. Zheng (2020) found that people were more likely to give when they perceived the transaction of giving to be easy. Additionally, nonprofit managers showing positive (a) subjective norms, (b) perceived behavioral control, and (c) moral norms see increases in people's intentions to donate (H. H. Kim & Han, 2020).

### *Attitudes*

According to Ajzen (2020), attitude may reflect an individual's observation of a particular subject or matter, which can be positive or negative (Miller, 2017). Attitude alone is not a valuable predictor of intention to perform a behavior. Through the TPB, Ajzen expanded on the attitudinal concept, suggesting that attitude toward the behavior is the extent that a person favorably or unfavorably assesses the behavior. Individuals may

have multiple conflicting beliefs about a single behavior which can be favorable or unfavorable (Ajzen, 2020; Mittelman & Rojas-Méndez, 2018). However, a person's willingness to perform the behavior depends on beliefs regarding potential outcomes (Mittelman & Rojas-Méndez, 2018). A person is more likely to perform an action if the outcome is perceived as positive (Mittelman & Rojas-Méndez, 2018). Further, individuals possess elevated and diminished attitudes about a behavior that relates to how positively or negatively individuals perceive the behavior (Ajzen & Kruglanski, 2019; McBride et al., 2020). Thus, based on the tenets of the TPB, an individual's attitude toward the behavior can be a good indicator of the intent to perform an action (Ajzen, 2020).

An individual's perception of behavioral control entails the confidence level in the ability to perform the behavior (Ajzen, 2020). Ajzen (2020) based the principle of perceived behavioral control on Bandura's (1982) concept of perceived self-efficacy. According to this paradigm, a person's level of perceived self-efficacy involves deciding on the capability to perform the task. Also, self-efficacy is a person's ability to handle others' perceptions of their competency to perform the action (Ajzen, 2020; Bandura, 1982). Additionally, three forms of beliefs shape intentions: (a) behavioral beliefs, (b) normative beliefs, and (c) control beliefs (Ajzen, 2020). An individual's behavior toward the combination of these three forms of beliefs results in the development of a behavioral intention (Ajzen, 2020).

Nonprofit leaders lack a clear methodology to understand the behavioral intentions guiding patrons' decisions to support an organization (McKeever et al., 2016).

Nonetheless, TPB may serve as a guide to help fundraisers understand millennials' willingness to donate (Kashif & De Run, 2015). Potential donor attitudes toward an organization are the most dominant predictors of donations (Kashif & De Run, 2015). Based on the principles of TPB, a person's behavioral beliefs influence the intent to perform a planned behavior (Pallud, 2017). For instance, an individual's perception of an organization has a direct effect on whether the person donates (Degasperi & Mainardes, 2017). The TPB is also a good theory for researchers to study museum activity since an individual's support of museums is a cultural and social activity influenced by peers (Pallud, 2017). Moreover, researchers have applied the TPB to studies investigating consumer behavior (Degasperi & Mainardes, 2017).

### ***Subjective Norms***

Subjective norms are the perceived social pressures, or group-level influences, associated with performing or not performing the behavior (Ajzen, 2020; Miller, 2017). A person's subjective norms are also perceptions about others' expectations in following standards (McBride et al., 2020). Reference groups, such as family members, friends, and other social affiliations, play a role in an individual's subjective norms (Miller, 2017). Individuals are more likely to value perceptions of people who matter to them most (Passafaro et al., 2019). Therefore, people are more likely to perform the behavior when they think the reference group members approve participation in the behavior (Passafaro et al., 2019).

There are two components to subjective norms: normative beliefs and motivation to comply (Mittelman & Rojas-Méndez, 2018). A person's motivation to comply is based

on the preconceived notion of how important the person or reference group is to the individual performing the action (Ramayah et al., 2009). Normative beliefs refer to ideas about whether other individuals believe they should perform the behavior or not (Ajzen, 2020; Mittelman & Rojas-Méndez, 2018).

### ***Perceived Behavioral Control***

Perceived behavioral control is whether a person believes in the ability to carry out the behavior (Miller, 2017). Two major factors impacting people's perceived behavioral control are access to the necessary resources and the opportunity to perform the behavior (Passafaro et al., 2019). An individual may want to participate in an activity but lacks the resources to do so (Mittelman & Rojas-Méndez, 2018), such as finances or information (Passafaro et al., 2019). Therefore, the person does not perceive they have the ability to participate (Ajzen, 2020; Mittelman & Rojas-Méndez, 2018). In this case, the individual does not have full voluntary control over whether they can actually participate in the behavior (Ramayah et al., 2009).

### ***Moral Norms***

Researchers added moral norms and past behavior constructs to the TPB (Mittelman & Rojas-Méndez, 2018). Past behavior, moral norms, and perceived behavioral control are strong predictors of a person's intent to donate (Mittelman & Rojas-Méndez, 2018), whereas subjective norms are not a major contributor to donating behavior (Chen et al., 2019; Mittelman & Rojas-Méndez, 2018). Moral norms are an individual's feelings about the personal responsibility to perform a behavior, whether inherently correct or incorrect, regardless of the potential personal or social consequences

(Mittelman & Rojas-Méndez, 2018). People concerned about the moral norms surrounding a purchase or activity are sometimes called ethical consumers who are often willing to spend more money to shop with businesses that align with their ethical values (Beldad & Hegner, 2018). Consumers exercise their moral concerns by supporting endeavors such as recycling (Lizin et al., 2017), buying organic foods, protecting endangered whales (Clark et al., 2019), visiting green hotels (Verma & Chandra, 2018), and conserving energy (Tan et al., 2017).

In the United States, philanthropic gifts are stagnant, given the income-to-donation ratio (Mittelman & Rojas-Méndez, 2018). Generally, U.S. donors give small amounts and are not repeat givers. Nonprofit organizations face economic hardships because of the lack of frequent, generous donations (Mittelman & Rojas-Méndez, 2018). Meanwhile, the need for nonprofits' services is on the rise as a result of public demand (Mittelman & Rojas-Méndez, 2018). Other factors causing financial distress for nonprofits are increased competition for grants and decreased governmental support (Mittelman & Rojas-Méndez, 2018). In the past, researchers have used TPB to predict willingness to donate to charity (Kashif & De Run, 2015; Mittelman & Rojas-Méndez, 2018). Additionally, researchers have used TPB to predict participation in prosocial behaviors such as monetary, time, blood, organ, and tissue donations (Mittelman & Rojas-Méndez, 2018). Therefore, TPB is the most appropriate theory used to predict intentions to perform the desired behavior.

***Prosocial Behavior***

Supporting nonprofit organizations is a pro-social behavior (O'Loughlin Banks & Raciti, 2017). A person may perform the behavior based on whether or not the task can be completed (O'Loughlin Banks & Raciti, 2017). In this context, financial contributions and volunteer hours constitute as support (O'Loughlin Banks & Raciti, 2017). There are two factors involved when people decide whether or not to donate their time or money (O'Loughlin Banks & Raciti, 2017). One factor is if the person actually has the money or available time to donate (O'Loughlin Banks & Raciti, 2017). The second factor depends on whether the person thinks their peers will accept the altruistic behavior (O'Loughlin Banks & Raciti, 2017). Millennials, posited O'Loughlin Banks and Raciti (2017), add another layer of difficulty. Young adults may support nonprofit organizations based on the idea that performing the behavior will bring good luck (O'Loughlin Banks & Raciti, 2017).

Additionally, O'Loughlin Banks and Raciti (2017) found that millennials may show support for nonprofit organizations to ward off negative karma. People in this age group believe that contributing financially and voluntarily will help them to avoid one day finding themselves in need of charitable support (O'Loughlin Banks & Raciti, 2017). Millennials base their decisions to support nonprofit organizations on (a) the availability of time, (b) availability of funds, (c) perception of their ability to give time, (d) the belief of whether they have the time to volunteer, (e) as a merit for good luck, and (f) to becoming dependent on a charitable organization.

According to Englert and Helmig (2017), volunteers are essential to the operational success of nonprofit organizations. Volunteers help carry out the organization's mission (Englert & Helmig, 2017; Studer, 2016). Per Studer (2016), without this support, nonprofit managers could not survive. Crucial to the volunteers is the need for a unique feel from nonprofit managers (Studer, 2016). Supporters invest time for personal reasons that are (a) of the person's self-interest(s), (b) altruistic, and (c) based upon affiliation (Englert & Helmig, 2017).

Alfes et al. (2015) posited that both volunteer and nonprofit organizational managers have needs to meet by the relationship between them. Alfes et al. determined that like employees, volunteers become more engaged when they feel appreciated. Unlike employees, nonprofit leaders cannot manage their helpers in the same manner as paid workers (Alfes et al., 2015). Likewise, managers cannot evaluate volunteers on the same scales as employees. Yet, Studer (2016) stated that managers must access the participants' voluntary efforts for retention purposes. Nonprofit leaders should evaluate the relationship, which means monitoring volunteers' satisfaction with their charitable work (Studer, 2016). Volunteers attach emotional value in exchange for the time provided (Englert & Helmig, 2017). When volunteers feel positive and appreciated about their work, retention is high (Alfes et al., 2015). Therefore, according to Alfes et al., nonprofit managers must be sure the helpers' tasks and treatment match the expectations to retain consistent and reliable volunteers.

## **Alternative Frameworks**

Investigators need to explore different frameworks to better understand available options (Garrett, 2018). The need to assess alternative frameworks is also necessary to promote cross-disciplinary collaboration and continue developing new methodologies. The next sections contain a variety of alternative frameworks, which I explored as optional conceptual frameworks.

### ***Freeman's Stakeholder Theory***

Freeman's stakeholder theory (FST) was an alternative framework I considered for this study. Freeman (1984) developed FST to give managers a guide to treat stakeholders fairly and morally (Harrison et al., 2015). Researchers use FST to study the relationship between organizations and stakeholders. FST is a practical theory applicable to any firm since all firms have stakeholders and must manage relationships. Freeman defined a stakeholder as any person who affects or is affected by the performance of an organization. Stakeholders include state and local governments, communities, and individuals (Gummesson, 2017). Along with the organizational backers come (a) an array of power, (b) personal objectives, and (c) responsibility for the organization's accountability (Gummesson, 2017). Stakeholders are responsible for museum sustainment and have a civic duty to sustain the culture (Gummesson, 2017).

According to Manetti and Toccafondi (2014), the stakeholder–organization relationship is a two-way partnership in which both parties share responsibility. Because of this reciprocal relationship, stakeholders take stock in the business by donating resources such as knowledge, time, and money (Manetti & Toccafondi, 2014). Therefore,

organizational leaders must manage stakeholders' expectations (Manetti & Toccafondi, 2014). Relationship management involves consumers' first interactions with sellers (Gummesson, 2017). Stakeholders' perceptions of the relationship directly impact the firm's performance (Harrison et al., 2015). Managers who treat stakeholders well see the benefits (Harrison et al., 2015); however, museums leaders' relationships with stakeholders add burdens. Stakeholders' demands increased over the years, which affects relationships with museum staff and eventually impacts levels of support. Nevertheless, working to satisfy stakeholders' needs is how managers can garner longevity and success for the business (Stroja, 2018). Increased satisfaction leads to higher retention of stakeholders. Engaged patrons become active stakeholders, which increases museum sustainability (Stroja, 2018).

Business leaders implement value creation for the firm's sustainability (Peppard & Ward, 2016; tom Dieck & Jung, 2017). As value is a unique driver for each supporter, managers must implement information technology (IT) applications into their daily functions to create value for stakeholders. tom Dieck and Jung (2017) asserted that the adoption of information communication technologies (ICT) such as social media, mobility, analytics, and cloud computing (SMAC) could help nonprofit managers achieve the organizations' missions.

The SMAC helps nonprofit leaders communicate with stakeholders more effectively (tom Dieck & Jung, 2017). Museum leaders can use ICT to enrich websites, leading to increased economic value through increased site visitation and online donations (tom Dieck & Jung, 2017). Furthermore, nonprofits can use ICT to assess the

adoption rate of SMAC in fundraising. The IT helps create organization-wide strategic value (tom Dieck & Jung, 2017). Particularly, in a cultural heritage tourism setting, IT implementation should (a) support an organization's vision and strategies, (b) be viable in both the short- and long-term, (c) provide visitors with unique value propositions, (d) be innovative, (e) and provide opportunities for new business models (tom Dieck & Jung, 2017).

Millennials use technology more than any other age group (Zhang et al., 2017). Thus, young adults may be more likely to adopt the use of ICT; however, millennials' adoption of ICT does not indicate that they will perform an action as in TPB. The purpose of this qualitative case study is to explore strategies that nonprofit museum managers use to gain millennial support for museums. Therefore, TPB is a more appropriate framework for the study.

### ***Theory of Generations***

Another alternative framework is the theory of generations (TOG), crafted by Strauss and Howe (1991). External influences and a person's age may affect giving behavior. According to Strauss and Howe, significant social or political events occurring during the developmental stage of a generation shape the mindset of an age group, resulting in a mutual identity that reflects the generation's values, attitudes, perceptions, and behaviors. Nonprofit managers must understand how generational cohorts respond to the market to ensure an organization's fundraising future (Schattke et al., 2018).

According to Chaney et al. (2017), marketers should not simply put individuals in groups based on age alone. Generational theorists say cohorts are people who, during

their adolescent years, experience events in the same time frame that are (a) historical, (b) social, (c) cultural, (d) political, and (e) economic (Chaney et al., 2017). Young et al. (2013) posited that each generation has a different set of values. Nonprofit managers could hone in on these values to segment the targeted fundraising audience by generational cohort. Business leaders can thus design the marketing mix to resource the brand for each cohort and create new practices (Hawkins, 2018). Nonprofit leaders may need to create new practices to develop effective fundraising strategies.

To best understand what Gen Y expects from the museum experience, museum managers should ask millennials directly (Muskat et al., 2013). Some researchers argued that the young adults would rather view exhibitions online to experience museums (Foreman-Wernet et al., 2014). However, Muskat et al. (2013) postulated that millennials who visit museums are excitement and entertainment seekers who value solitude and reflection.

Strauss and Howe (1991) indicated that people might behave in a particular manner resulting from belonging to cohorts that exist in the same time and place. In developing TOG, the researchers did not explore if people would participate in an activity based on their cohorts' acceptance. Ajzen (2020) addressed this factor in TPB through the social construct of subjective norms. According to Ajzen, subjective norms are the perceived social pressures, or group-level influences, associated with performing or not performing a behavior. Since TOG lacks this element, TPB is more suitable for the study.

### *Diffusion of Innovation Theory*

Rogers developed the diffusion of innovation (DOI) theory in 1962 (Rogers, 2010). The primary tenet of DOI is that people adopt new ideas very slowly during the diffusion process (Rogers, 2010). DOI is the theory of communicating new ideas to a society or an organization through certain channels wherein people's discussion of new ideas shapes the meaning of the innovation.

According to Gouws and van Rheede van Oudtshoorn (2011), Rogers (2010) used five adopter categories in DOI: (a) innovators, who take risks and try new things easily; (b) early adopters, defined as opinionated leaders who seek consultation from other adopters; (c) early majority, people who rely on informal sources for innovation information and take a long time in the decision process; (d) late majorities, cautious skeptics who adopt after the majority does; and (e) laggards, who are similar to late majorities but who could be persuaded since peer approval is an important adoption factor. Each member of a society or organization goes through a five-step decision process: (a) knowledge, when a person becomes aware of the innovation; (b) persuasion, when the potential adopter realizes that the innovation may solve a problem but considers the personal benefits of the innovation; (c) decision, a person either adopts or rejects the concept; (d) implementation, when the adopter utilizes the innovation; and (e) confirmation, continued use or continued rejection (Gouws & van Rheede van Oudtshoorn, 2011). Gouws and van Rheede van Oudtshoorn stated that the steps reflect each adopter category, respectively.

The DOI may be a useful theory for nonprofit managers to understand millennial involvement with nonprofit organizations. According to Young et al. (2013), each generation has a different set of values. Therefore, nonprofit managers must understand how generational cohorts respond to the market to ensure the organization's fundraising future (Schattke et al., 2018). To ensure continued success, nonprofit fundraisers must learn what motivates millennials to give (Gorczyca & Hartman, 2017). The symbolic attributes of an innovation influence the rate by which a person adopts the new idea. Marketers can further encourage innovation adoption by building campaigns that stress how adopting the new concept could elevate a person's image and status. People are more likely to donate to the same charities and attend the same events as others in their social circles (Gorczyca & Hartman, 2017). Therefore, nonprofit museum managers may gain support from millennial donors by developing marketing campaigns that highlight symbolic attributes.

Rogers (2010) addressed how millennials share ideas, communicate with each other, respond to certain events, and adopt new ideas. Also, like the other alternative theories mentioned in this study, DOI (Rogers, 2010) did not address how Gen Y's attitudes and beliefs, or their peers' attitudes and beliefs, shape the adoption process. Since DOI (Rogers, 2010) does not evaluate attitudes, beliefs, or peer evaluation, TPB (Ajzen, 2020) is a more suitable theory for the study.

### **Nonprofit Museum Leadership**

Nonprofit leadership consists of an executive director and the board of directors, which may also be called the board of trustees, or simply "the board" (Renz, 2016). The

board of directors' main responsibility is to govern the nonprofit organization (Olinske & Hellman, 2016). According to Renz (2016), governing means to provide strategic leadership to the organization. The act of governing a nonprofit organization entails (a) setting direction, (b) making decisions about policy and strategy, (c) overseeing and monitoring the organization's performance, and (d) ensuring accountability throughout the organization (Renz, 2016).

A nonprofit board's secondary responsibility, although equally important, is to hire an executive director (Ackerson & Baldwin, 2019). Ultimately, an organization's success lies in the leaders, who include the executive director and the board of directors (Ackerson & Baldwin, 2019). Olinske and Hellman (2016) posited that the relationship between the executive director and the board of trustees is the most important relationship within a nonprofit organization.

Nonprofit leaders must establish and operate flexible institutions while (a) recognizing matters important to the population, (b) responding to the needs of the community, and (c) fostering the atmospheres that support challenging conversations (Ackerson & Baldwin, 2019). According to Reisman (2018), a nonprofit's culture derives from the people who inhabit the institutions. Interactions between nonprofit organization employees and patrons, internal and external political structures, and physical location and structure all play a part in shaping the organization's policies (Reisman, 2018). Since the purpose of a nonprofit organization is to provide a public good or value, nonprofit leaders must be in tune with all stakeholders (Evans & Christie, 2017).

## **Decreasing Support From Government Sectors**

Funding for nonprofit organizations continues to decline as government support decreases (U. S. Department of the Treasury, 2017). Over the past 2 decades, competition for nonprofit funding increased because of (a) the number of nonprofits entering the market, (b) the number of for-profit businesses converting to nonprofit organizations, and (c) the fight for limited government resources (Topaloglu et al., 2018). Nonprofit managers' and government officials' relationships became tense after the economic recession (Schatteman & Bingle, 2017). Continuous budget cuts result in government managers reducing nonprofit spending (Tevel et al., 2015). Financial experts advise nonprofit managers to diversify fundraising activity because of declining governmental support (Schatteman & Bingle, 2017). Because of the growth in the number of nonprofits in the United States and the deterioration in government funding, nonprofit managers must redevelop relationships with government organizations (S. Kim & Kim, 2014). According to Lu (2015), nonprofits with solid board members who can cultivate relationships with the government are better able to secure governmental funding. A nonprofit board is a group of people whose purpose is to direct top management activities with the organization's stakeholders and constituents in mind (Aggarwal et al., 2012). Nonprofit leaders with experienced board members, strong political connections, and long history of government financial support are more likely to receive funding (Lu, 2016).

According to Fyall (2016), critics of the government's support of nonprofits say that the charities' leaders depend too heavily on revenue from the government. However,

an organization's need for government funding does not make a nonprofit a weak institution (Fyall, 2016). Government funding includes grants, commissions, and operating support (M. Kim et al., 2017). Both government and private sector funders make philanthropic decisions based on personal perceptions of how nonprofit managers handle finances (Tevel et al., 2015). Charitable organization leaders who have clear budgeting procedures and manage finances accordingly raise more money than leaders who do not (Schatteman & Bingle, 2017).

### **Decreasing Support From Private Sectors Causes**

Private donors may earmark or restrict the usage of funds for a specific cause (Yermack, 2017). According to Yermack (2017), imposing such limitations allows philanthropists to have control and unofficial power within the organization. Some private donors may use financial gifts to exert authority, sway voting, and manipulate board members, managers, and directors (Yermack, 2017). This type of behavior is most common in nonprofit art museums (Yermack, 2017).

Zhao and Lu (2019) warned that nonprofit managers should be cognizant of possibly crowding out when diversifying. The authors suggested that crowding out is more of a problem related to government funding than the public sector. For the most part, the general public does not know about each other's donations to nonprofits unless the media reports on private contributions (De Wit et al., 2016). Information on government contributions is more accessible, and governmental organizations share this information (Zhao & Lu, 2019). Therefore, crowding out may become an issue across

government entities. State and federal agencies may reduce support to nonprofits receiving funds from multiple organizations.

Potential donors who care enough may conduct their own research (De Wit et al., 2016). People seeking information on nonprofits turn to third-party sources such as Charity Navigator (Harris & Neely, 2016). Publications that list details about nonprofit missions, causes, and funding also rate the organizations on quality (Harris & Neely, 2016). Donors mining for data on nonprofits look to connect with organizations with certain characteristics such as similar prosocial values (De Wit et al., 2016; Krawczyk et al., 2017).

Nonprofit managers could leverage crowdfunding as a viable option for seeking donations (Chen et al., 2019). The idea of alternative funding derived from crowdsourcing, which happens when entrepreneurs find funding from potential donors on a web-based medium (Chen et al., 2019). According to Chen et al. (2019), crowdfunding works similarly. In this instance, nonprofit managers use online platforms to appeal to the public for donations (Chen et al., 2019). A major difference between crowdsourcing and crowdfunding is that organization directors have more access to the donors' information with the latter. As past behavior can be a predictor of giving, nonprofit managers using crowdfunding can predict which donors are more likely to give (Chen et al., 2019; Mittelman & Rojas-Méndez, 2018). With both fundraising tactics, managers employing crowdsourcing or crowdfunding must avoid crowding out (Chen et al., 2019; Mittelman & Rojas-Méndez, 2018).

## **Special Events**

According to Tysiac (2016), hosting special events is a common fundraising measure nonprofit managers use to increase revenue. Since the Great Recession, many nonprofit leaders turned to event fundraising to generate revenue (Krawczyk et al., 2017). Trustees, other philanthropists, foundations, and corporations all contribute to successful event fundraising (Krawczyk et al., 2017).

Tysiac (2016) affirmed that simply hosting events does not guarantee long-term fundraising success. Museums operate in society by creating economic prosperity, environmental integrity, and social justice (McDonald et al., 2015). Nonprofit museum leaders must turn eventgoers into repeat attendees, which in time may help raise revenue (Tysiac, 2016). Fundraisers must also have in-depth knowledge about funders to retain and grow the donor pool (tom Dieck & Jung, 2017).

According to tom Dieck and Jung (2017), numerous museums in the United States direct fundraising activity to the baby boomer generation. However, museum fundraising strategies should promote the inclusion of other age demographics (tom Dieck & Jung, 2017). The ability to diversify the donor pool by age is necessary for nonprofits' upward mobility (tom Dieck & Jung, 2017). The more millennials feel connected to a cause; the more likely the young adults will support cause-related events (Schattke et al., 2018). Therefore, nonprofit managers must include millennials in fundraising strategies to secure the organization's sustainability (Gorczyca & Hartman, 2017). Millennial support can benefit museums by adding long-term stability.

## **Segmentation**

Segmentation is a process by which marketers divide the market into specific segments with similar demand functions (Reavis et al., 2017). Segmenting, targeting, and positioning strategies aim at understanding how a particular submarket responds to the marketing mix based on value proposition (Gengler & Mulvey, 2017). According to Reavis et al. (2017), fundraisers can use segmentation to target potential donors with unique needs or interests. Reavis et al. (2017) suggested that the millennial segment is imperative to the survival of nonprofit organizations. Millennials, born between 1980 and 2000, represent the largest and most diverse generation in the United States (Cole et al., 2002). Reavis et al. (2017) described millennials as cooperative optimists and civic-minded activists.

As the need for nonprofit funding grows, so does the need for millennial support (Schattke et al., 2018). Gen Y currently represents the largest working population (Eastman et al., 2019). Although millennials are the majority in the employment arena, their donation amounts are smaller than Gen X and baby boomers (Rooney et al., 2018).

The availability of disposable income and affinity towards the organization are two factors that may steer millennials' philanthropic behavior (Reavis et al., 2017). According to Gorczyca and Hartman (2017), millennials have positive attitudes towards charitable organizations, philanthropy, and social change. However, certain circumstances could restrict the group's funding activity. One possible example could be the young adults' debt. Student loan debt may stifle millennials' ability to donate (Reavis

et al., 2017); therefore, the individuals wishing to participate may donate their time instead of money (Gorczyca & Hartman, 2017).

Because of increased competition, museum leaders must find ways to meet visitors' needs (Kang et al., 2017). Kang et al. (2017) postulated that leaders also look for ways to enhance visitors' experiences and posited that technology such as a mobile tour guide system could improve the overall visitor experience. Pallud (2017) argued that while technology may be an added benefit, researchers know very little about attendees' perceptions and attitudes towards actually using mobile guiding technology. Millennials may be a viable target for this action as younger people are more open to adopting technology used in museums (Kang et al., 2017).

### **Social Media**

Not only has the increase of nonprofits in the market caused fundraising competition, but the influx also caused an increased struggle for online presence (Panic et al., 2015). Many nonprofits use websites to promote organizations online (Panic et al., 2015). Additionally, because of the advent of the internet, millennials communicate differently from other demographic groups (Gorczyca & Hartman, 2017). Therefore, nonprofit managers must find alternative ways to reach the targeted generation (Gorczyca & Hartman, 2017). Millennials often use the internet to garner support for an organization (Wilburn & Wilburn, 2018).

Social media is a powerful tool nonprofit managers can use to connect and engage with millennials (Smith, 2018). According to Cheung and To (2016), social media allows interaction and exchange between consumers and businesses. The two entities share

information such as (a) comments, (b) reviews, (c) invitations, (d) pictures, and (e) videos (Cheung & To, 2016). This interaction fosters an environment that forges a co-creation atmosphere between the customer and business (Cheung & To, 2016).

Gen Y uses Facebook more than any other social media tool to rally behind a cause (Schattke et al., 2018). According to Quesenberry and Coolson (2018), Facebook offers businesses and organizations a massive amount of exposure, boasting (a) over 1.7 billion users worldwide, (b) usage by 72% of the United States' tech-savvy adults, and (c) 20 minutes of daily screen time for over one billion people. More than 50 million businesses and 94% of marketers actively use the social media site (Quesenberry & Coolson, 2018). Marketers may even be able to reach adults who do not actively use the site. Quesenberry and Coolson found that 50% of U.S. adults not using Facebook live with an active user. Of the 50% of non-account holders, 24% look at posts and pictures through their cohabitants' pages (Quesenberry & Coolson, 2018). Therefore, Facebook is an effective medium to reach American adults (Quesenberry & Coolson, 2018).

Facebook brands pages to help businesses develop relationships with existing and potential customers. Likes and shares on Facebook equate to electronic word of mouth (eWOM) and help managers build awareness and trust for brands (Quesenberry & Coolson, 2018). Additionally, businesses can use the social media tool to improve (a) favorability, (b) purchase intent, (c) conversion, (d) lifetime customer value, (e) customer loyalty, and (f) search engine optimization (Quesenberry & Coolson, 2018).

The more millennials feel connected to a cause, the more likely they will support it and its related events (Schattke et al., 2018). Additionally, millennials are more likely

to adopt a brand based on social media influence. Borchers (2019) posited that marketers use social media influencers (SMIs) to attract young people. According to Borchers, SMIs are “third-party actors that have established a significant number of relevant relationships with a specific quality to and influence on organizational stakeholders through content production, content distribution, interaction, and personal appearance on the social web” (Borchers, 2019). People believe social media users with a significant number of followers are very likable (De Veirman et al., 2017). Because of this assumption, the general public may also consider SMIs as good leaders (Borchers, 2019; De Veirman et al., 2017).

Because of a high number of followers, the general public holds influencers’ opinions high and considers the social media buffs trustworthy (De Veirman et al., 2017). According to De Veirman et al. (2017), the level of trust dates back to the oldest form of advertising, word of mouth (WOM). Because Instagram is an electronic form of communication, eWOM is the appropriate acronym (De Veirman et al., 2017). Many brand managers prefer eWOM, such as Instagram, over traditional forms of advertising because the communication provides (a) lower costs, (b) higher authenticity, (c) intimacy, (d) publicity, (e) commercialization, and (f) ingratiation (Borchers, 2019; De Veirman et al., 2017). SMI also places the brand within the proximity of the consumer (Borchers, 2019). The more followers an influencer has the greater that person’s reach.

According to De Veirman et al. (2017), marketers have expressed that Instagram is especially helpful in reaching a niche market. When deciding on SMI, marketers should pick someone likable, credible, and valuable. According to Panic et al. (2015),

nonprofit managers can use social media to boost the organization's electronic footprint and gain potential donors' attention. To further enhance online presence, nonprofit leaders can add celebrity endorsements to the marketing strategy (Panic et al., 2015). Benefits linked to superstar backing include increases in (a) attention to the cause, (b) involvement with the cause, (c) positive attitudes towards the organizational message, and (d) willingness to support the nonprofit (Panic et al., 2015). Nonprofit managers must be careful in the selection of celebrity endorsers (Panic et al., 2015). Publics' attitudes towards the celebrity may impact supporters' outlook on the organization (Panic et al., 2015). Erlandsson et al. (2018) posited that positive appeals for organizations yield positive responses, and negative appeals bring forth negative responses. Favorable responses stemming from positive appeals include increased attitude towards the charity and increased donor behavior (Erlandsson et al., 2018). Therefore, proper celebrity selection is imperative for nonprofit managers.

Borchers (2019) suggested that SMI followers can use social media platforms to become celebrities in their own right. Social media users have access to additional tools such as videos, photos, and blogs that enhance the eWOM experience (Borchers, 2019; De Veirman et al., 2017). The extra tools allow followers to participate in the eWOM process through likes, shares, and comments (Borchers, 2019). By participating in online communications, followers become "mini celebrities" (Borchers, 2019). As millennials use social media more than any other demographic, the participation allows them to actively engage with the SMI's organization (Borchers, 2019; Evans et al., 2017; Wilburn & Wilburn, 2018).

According to Araujo et al. (2016), Twitter SMIs are influential and information brokers. The ability to make their followers retweet original posts makes the SMIs influential (Araujo et al., 2016). The capability of connecting people with other individuals and groups with similar interests turns SMIs into information brokers (Araujo et al., 2016). The brokers also disseminate information to influencers but are more likely to do so when the influencer's name appears in the communication (Araujo et al., 2016). Marketers predict social media users' intentions and attitudes towards the brand based on the users' sharing habits (Evans et al., 2017).

Friendship is extremely important to millennials (Cole et al., 2002). Gen Y forms friendships and relationships differently than any other generation (Manago & Vaughn, 2015). Many millennials believe that making donations is positive prosocial behavior and may give to nonprofits to impress their peers (Smith, 2018).

### **Stakeholder Relationships**

According to Plaza et al. (2014), art museums present a different type of value to society called symbolic capital. As it relates to museums, symbolic capital is associated with the brand's creative images, reputation, and innovation associations, which builds cultural branding for the organization (Plaza et al., 2014). Managers who can leverage cultural branding for museums may stimulate funding. Plaza et al. stated people who see positive images of museums may become frequent visitors and donors.

An additional benefit may be reputation development (Savary et al., 2015). Plaza et al. (2014) posited that having good relationships with the media help museum leaders establish a brand reputation. Media outlets have the ability to impact donors' giving

decisions (De Wit et al., 2016). How the media reports things such as (a) problems within the organization, (b) financial statuses, (c) budget cuts, (d) government grants, (e) foundation grants, (f) personnel issues, and (g) the organization's work towards its mission may affect donors' decisions (De Wit et al., 2016). Seeing frequent, positive images of a museum causes the public to have favorable views of the venue (Plaza et al., 2014).

An organization's reputation is the belief stakeholders have about its performance on dimensions they cannot directly observe (Grant & Potoski, 2015). Groups of people may form opinions, or a collective reputation, about a business based on encounters with the institution (Faulkner et al., 2016; Plaza et al., 2014). A collective reputation forms when outsiders develop a perception about individuals based on characteristics observed in the reference group (Grant & Potoski, 2015). Potential donors may consider the perceived characteristics of the nonprofit (Krawczyk et al., 2017). Donors are more likely to give to organizations with a perceived positive reputation (Grant & Potoski, 2015). Therefore, the potential contributors' willingness to donate may determine the donors' thoughts about the organization.

Per Costa and Pesci (2016), creating social impact is essential to nonprofit leaders as doing so creates value. Stakeholders have a vested interest in nonprofits organizations' level of social impact (Costa & Pesci, 2016). In particular, funders look at an organization's contribution to society to determine levels of giving (Costa & Pesci, 2016). As financial contributors, stakeholders view nonprofits' mark on the community as corporate social responsibility (CSR; Costa & Pesci, 2016). Moreover, by donating to

such organizations, corporate donors signal that the nonprofit's mission aligns with the donating company's CSR (Costa & Pesci, 2016).

Companies further become stakeholders by sacrificing returns on their investment (Schrötgens & Boenigk, 2017). Corporate leaders who donate to nonprofit organizations receive a full one percent less on investment returns than the profits from donations made towards for-profit institutions (Schrötgens & Boenigk, 2017). Michelin et al. (2016) warned that recipients of donor funding must remain honest and not resort to camouflaging the actual results. Therefore, nonprofit leaders must accurately report funding and program outcomes to preserve stakeholder relationships (Michelon et al., 2016).

Ponte et al. (2017) proposed that stakeholders must define the value in the relationship between themselves and nonprofit organizations. Additionally, Leardini et al. (2018) conjectured that stakeholders could engage with nonprofits by actively participating in the organization's governance. Ponte and colleagues also noted that philanthropic corporations often base relationships with charitable causes on the nonprofit organization's mission. Stakeholders feel that when nonprofit organizations' mission statements align with their personal views, the organization is legitimate (Leardini et al., 2018).

Ponte et al. (2017) posited that businesses may sometimes exist in a hybrid fashion, operating between the principles of nonprofit and for-profit business. Companies participating in a hybrid format have a social mission implanted within the company's

identity (Ponte et al., 2017). Researchers, museum leaders, and supporters must work together to create value for stakeholders (Serravalle et al., 2019).

Stroja (2018) determined that museum leaders who encourage visitors and local residents to participate in museum activities create sustainability for their institutions. People who actively engage in museum activities feel a sense of belonging and ownership (Stroja, 2018). Since inclusiveness is important to stakeholders, museum management must ensure that the stakeholder population is diverse (Krupa et al., 2019). Additionally, museum leaders who encourage stakeholder engagement also create cultural sustainability, especially when the local residents participate (Krupa et al., 2019). Stroja posited that by actively participating, patrons build relationships with the facilities' staff. Stakeholders partaking in nonprofit governance such as policy writing, audits, and other financial practices are more engaged (Leardini et al., 2018). People who engage in this way are more likely to (a) make repeat visits, (b) refer others to visit, (c) become museum members, (d) volunteer, and (e) make donations to the organization (Stroja, 2018). Eventually, people with high levels of engagement with museums become long-term stakeholders (Stroja, 2018).

### **Museum Sustainability in the Community**

Museums are at the forefront of development conversations in communities the art institutions stand (Repetto Málaga & Brown, 2019). Museums generate a sense of collaboration with the local community members (Herle, 2018). People began to view the historic culture organizations as change agents in society in the 1980s (Repetto Málaga &

Brown, 2019). Since then, curiosity about museums fostered research in subjects such as (a) archaeological, (b) cultural, (c) natural, (d) tangible, and (e) intangible heritage.

People's interest in museums stems from wanting to know more about the source community or the community from which the artifact originated (Herle, 2018).

Researchers now view the heritage subjects as resources for the museums' respective communities' development. In particular, Repetto Málaga and Brown (2019) posited development activities range from (a) healthy investments that secure financial backing for museums to (b) archaeological digging, to (c) increased tourism. Both examples show museums positively impact the economy (Repetto Málaga & Brown, 2019).

Museums contribute to the overall sustainability of a community (Repetto Málaga & Brown, 2019). According to Gradén and O'dell (2016), museum leaders must make sure that the museum activities include the public to be truly sustainable. Gradén and O'dell suggested that community inclusion consists of (a) civic participation, (b) attracting new audiences, and (c) embracing the culture. These elements are critical to the local economy's development and sustainability (Gradén & O'dell, 2016).

### **Museum Sustainability in Education**

Museum leaders may be able to create sustainability through education (Bonner, 2019). Roush (2019) theorized that museums could be places to nurture cognitive development over a person's lifespan. Therefore, according to Roush, museum leaders can curate exhibits in ways that create longevity for both the museum and the community. According to the National Institutes of Health, leaders find new ways to recreate the institutions through continuing education programs for senior citizens

(Bonner, 2019). Museum exhibits allow visitors to mentally travel to different places and times (O'Neill, 2019; Roush, 2019). For patrons, viewing museum artifacts may trigger positive emotions, memories, and associations linked to the artwork (O'Neill, 2019). This triggering of emotions, according to Roush, is particularly helpful for the geriatric mind and all generations.

Museum visitors may also experience deeper connections to history and culture (Brown, 2019). Additionally, attending museums had additional benefits for attendees. Furthermore, active participation in museum visits boosts the overall well-being of individuals of all ages (Brown, 2019).

Museum activities can create a network experience in two ways—first, participants bond with individuals from their respective age cohorts (Roush, 2019). Second, museum activities enhance inter-generational bonding among people from different age groups (Roush, 2019). The relationships produce a need and sense of longevity for both the museums and those who patronize museums (Roush, 2019).

Children's access to museums and programs positively affects their educational experiences (Anderson et al., 2017; Morrison & Fisher, 2018). Museums are essential to the overall education of school-aged children (Morrison & Fisher, 2018). Morrison and Fisher (2018) indicated that science, technology, engineering, and math (STEM) programs significantly enhance the education of grade school students. Museum programs that incorporate STEM in the organization's curriculum add to this experience (Morrison & Fisher, 2018).

Museums with STEM capabilities are especially helpful to students who have limited access to such programs in school (Anderson et al., 2017). School-aged students often experience limited access to STEM in rural or remote areas (Anderson et al., 2017). Specifically, Morrison and Fisher (2018) posited that children in minority ethnic groups, particularly African American and Latino students, have less access to STEM-based activities. Minimal access limits the potential of these students to excel academically and economically, leading to further societal, economic divides, increased poverty, and reduced opportunities to become financially independent. Additionally, afterschool programs offering STEM further enhance the learning experience, providing students with broadened life experiences, opportunities to develop perspective about their world, and seek opportunities to advance themselves based on these experiences (Morrison & Fisher, 2018). Museums offering both after-school programs and STEM-enriched programs aid in developing children of all ethnic groups (Morrison & Fisher, 2018). These experiences enhance an understanding of a student's place in the world, a sense of belonging, and how societies evolve. This learning is essential in building a learning foundation for youth as they prepare to enter the adult world.

### **Transition**

In Section 1, I introduced the qualitative case study. The section includes the problem and background information. Specifically, I conducted an exhaustive search of the literature to identify theoretical and practical information about nonprofit donation management and the propensity to donate. In Section 2, I reaffirm the purpose statement. In addition, I discuss the participants and the selection criteria. Also, I elaborate on my

role as the researcher and the primary research instrument. Continuing to build on Section 2, I define research methods and designs and explain why I used or rejected each option. Additionally, I define the criteria for population and sampling. In the Ethical Research section, I explain how I conducted an ethical study and protect the participants' identities. Next, I describe the approach I took to collect and analyze data. I conclude Section 2 by discussing the reliability, validity, and dependability of the study.

In Section 3, I reintroduce the purpose of the study. I present the study findings, the application to professional practice, and the implications the findings may have on social change. I also provide recommendations for action and further research. I close Section 3 and the study by offering my reflections and conclusion.

## Section 2: The Project

This section presents the purpose statement, the role of the researcher and the study participants. The section also presents the research methods, which outlines the research method, research design, population and sampling, and ethical research of the study. Also within this section are explanations for data collection instruments, data collection technique, data organization technique, data analysis. Lastly, the section contains information on the reliability and validity of the study.

### **Purpose Statement**

The purpose of this single qualitative case study was to explore event fundraising strategies a nonprofit museum's leaders use to attract millennials' support. The target population consisted of nonprofit leaders, volunteers, and board members of one museum in the southeastern United States. Participants in the study have 5 years of experience in event fundraising strategies to attract millennials' support. Implications for positive social change include an influx of Gen Y individuals supporting museums, which may stimulate long-term financial stability from the demographic group. The potential increase in millennial participation at museum events may provide more revenue through philanthropy. Millennials who frequent such events may be inclined to make donations to the museums. Gen Y contributors might present the possibility of long-time patrons. Should millennial event-goers become repeat donors, nonprofit museums could become more sustainable to benefit future generations of museum attendees.

### **Role of the Researcher**

As the researcher, I served as the primary collector of data. The role of the researcher is to gather information through interviews to facilitate an open dialogue and actively participate as a stakeholder (McKee et al., 2015). I collected, organized, analyzed, and stored all data gathered for the study.

I am an advocate for my local community and have volunteered for many nonprofit organizations over the past 10 years. Professionally, I served as the marketing director of a nonprofit. According to Burau and Andersen (2014), researchers with experience in the field provide both macro and micro views of the subject matter. Furthermore, my background includes over a decade's work in the media field, encompassing 12 years of interviewer experience.

Researchers must remain ethical by protecting the participants' rights and dignity while minimizing the risk of harm (Yin, 2018). Per *The Belmont Report* (National Commission for the Protection of Human Subjects of Biomedical and Behavioral Research, 1979), I treated participants with respect and in an ethical manner, protecting the participants' identities. To further affirm a commitment to ethical research, I completed the National Institutes of Health (NIH) Office of Extramural Research Protecting Human Research Participants Course.

Bias in research is any deviation from the truth in collecting, analyzing, interpreting, and publishing data. According to Yin (2018), bias can occur intentionally and unintentionally. Eliminating all bias is nearly impossible for researchers (Yin, 2018).

I used member checking to mitigate bias. During member checking, each participant received a written summary of the researcher's interview interpretation to verify if the researcher accurately captured the respective participant's responses to the interview questions (Yin, 2018). Involving participants in member checking reduces the potential for bias (Birt et al., 2016). Additionally, member checking helps develop the researcher-participant relationship by further establishing rapport and trustworthiness (Yin, 2018). I shared individual interview summaries with the respective interviewees to ensure no additional information was attainable.

Qualitative researchers develop interview protocols to remain focused during the interview (Yin, 2018). Researchers use interview protocols to ensure that all interviewees receive the same questions and the same amount of time (Yin, 2018). According to Yin (2018), interview protocols list the interview procedures and increase the study's reliability. Potential candidates are more likely to participate in the study when interview protocols are in place (Yin, 2018). I used an interview protocol to conduct the interviews with each participant for this study (see Appendix A).

The internet is now a common tool for participation recruitment (Morgan et al., 2013). Researchers use online technology to recruit participants who are hard to reach (Yin, 2018). I employed internet-based recruitment by researching the Georgia Association of Museums and Galleries (GAMG) website to identify museum leaders for participation invitation.

## **Participants**

To identify the museum to serve as the case for this study, I visited the GAMG website. Three museums specifically had exhibits and events targeting adolescents and young adults. I called all three museums to see if they would have an interest in participating in the study. I spoke with the executive directors, described the study's purpose, and explained the requirements to participate in the study. Two museums agreed to participate in the study. However, I selected the museum that appeared to have the most program events geared towards millennials.

For this study, I interviewed leaders from the museum who agreed to participate in the study. These leaders included the executive director, marketing director, program manager, director of finance, director of exhibit, board members, and director of development. To contribute substantial information, the participants should have experience in the field (Yin, 2018). Participants familiar with the field give interviewers a broad perspective on the subject (Bureau & Andersen, 2014). Selecting experienced participants helps researchers gather valuable data (Robinson, 2013). Therefore, the people chosen to participate in the study had experience in museum management and fundraising. Eligible participants had to (a) be nonprofit museum leaders, (b) have event fundraising responsibilities, and (c) have 5 years of experience in the field of nonprofit fundraising. Interviewing nonprofit leaders helps researchers access information from essential people who design and manage a nonprofit's funding portfolio (Kearns et al., 2012).

The ability to gain access to the participants is imperative to the success of a qualitative study (Cunliffe & Alcadipani, 2016). Establishing a relationship with an organization's gatekeepers, such as front-line personnel, plays a key role in gaining access to the facility and the participants (Yin, 2018). To establish a relationship with each study participant that works at the selected museum, I sent an introduction email to the organization's authorized representative by email. The authorized representative responded "I consent" via email, confirming the organization's intent to participate in the study. After receiving the organization's intent letter, I emailed a study invitation letter to the authorized representative to forward to eligible employees. Eligible candidates contacted me via electronic mail to participate in the study. Upon receipt of the message from the potential candidates, I emailed study participants an informed consent form. The purpose of the informed consent was to equip competent individuals with the knowledge to decide on participating in a research study. I provided potential participants with an informed consent form and obtained participants' approval before conducting the study.

## **Research Method and Design**

### **Research Method**

When conducting a study, researchers use one of three methods: qualitative, quantitative, or mixed methods (Mackey & Gass, 2005). I chose a qualitative method for this study as qualitative research is an inquiry of the social world which researchers use to describe and analyze people's culture, behavior, and groups from the participants' viewpoints (Ahmed & Ahmed, 2014). The goal of qualitative researchers is to gain an understanding of some aspect of social life through the participants' experiences (Yin,

2018). Researchers use qualitative methods to study a complex, real-world phenomenon by encouraging participant engagement (Yin, 2018).

According to Yin (2018), the qualitative method is an interpretive type of inquiry in which researchers gather context-specific data in the participants' natural settings to study a phenomenon. Researchers use qualitative studies as gateways to the proper environment to learn about museum activities (Yin, 2018). Additionally, interviewers may use qualitative methods to learn why people make museum contributions (Trinh & Ryan, 2015). I used the qualitative method to explore a phenomenon through interaction with participants in the subjects' natural settings to capture experiences. The qualitative method was an appropriate choice for this study because I gathered context-specific data in the participants' natural setting while documenting the experiences of the participants.

Quantitative research is a type of empirical inquiry in which researchers use numerical data and variables to test a hypothesis (Yilmaz, 2013). Researchers employing quantitative methods use numerical data to predict a phenomenon (Antwi & Hamza, 2015). When using the quantitative approach, researchers summarize numerical data to confirm or reject hypotheses (Schoonenboom & Johnson, 2017). Since I did not use numerical data to test a hypothesis, I did not use quantitative methodology.

Mixed-methods research is a complex procedure not intended for a novice researcher, featuring a combination of qualitative and quantitative methods. Researchers using the combination technique of mixed methods must be knowledgeable in qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods (Schoonenboom & Johnson, 2017). As a novice

researcher, I am not skilled in blending the various method types and therefore did not use mixed methods for this study.

### **Research Design**

Some of the possible designs for qualitative research include case study, phenomenology, and ethnography (Yin, 2018). I used a single case study design, which is an exploration of a single or collective case with the intent to capture the complexity of a phenomenon. Qualitative researchers utilizing a case study design analyze material to study contextual detail and to provide rich, deep descriptions about the results (Yin, 2018). I explored a single case to discover a phenomenon and also further analyzed the information gathered to provide both rich and deep details about the phenomenon. Additionally, I used one museum to study the phenomenon. According to Yin (2018), a justification for employing a single case study design is the common case. Researchers may use a single case when aiming to investigate a common, everyday situation that may give insight to a social process tied to a theoretical framework (Yin, 2018). I explored the common activity of supporting museums while using the TPB as my framework. Therefore, the single case study design was appropriate for the study. A multiple case study was not selected for this study because of the need to complete the study in a timely manner.

Ethnographic researchers immerse themselves in participants' daily lives over a period of time to observe the culture instead of conducting experiments or interviews to explore a phenomenon (Lopez-Dicastillo & Belintxon, 2014). Ethnographers study the culture of participants to gain a perspective of the daily communications and day-to-day

activities (Mannay & Morgan, 2014). I did not longitudinally observe participants' culture to gain an understanding of the culture or study the language and activities. Thus, an ethnographic approach was not suitable for the study.

Phenomenological researchers study the lived experiences of participants to understand a phenomenon (Lien et al., 2012). The goal of the phenomenological design is to gain a perspective on how the participants talk about objects and events to understand how individuals make sense of their own experiences (Smith, 2018). According to Smith (2018), researchers use the reflection of the participants' lived experiences to explore a phenomenon rather than conceptual or scientific criteria used in other research designs. A phenomenological researcher's objective is to gain a new understanding of human lived experiences through the first-person accounts of the participants (Gentles et al., 2016). I did not study nonprofit museum leaders' lived experiences to gain an understanding of the phenomenon and therefore did not choose a phenomenological design.

Per Morse (2015), researchers can show credibility by achieving data saturation. Data saturation is the building of rich, comprehensive data from multiple participants with the same characteristics (Morse, 2015). Data saturation is achieved when researchers repeatedly sample the population until no new information occurs (Walker, 2012). I ensured data saturation by interviewing participants until no new information emerged.

### **Population and Sampling**

I used purposive sampling to select nonprofit museum leaders in the state of Georgia. Researchers using purposive sampling select participants based on the study's purpose (Suen et al., 2014). Additionally, qualitative researchers use purposeful sampling

to produce an information-rich study (Palinkas et al., 2013). According to Robinson (2013), purposive sampling is a technique researchers use to select participants having unique and impactful knowledge of the phenomenon. Qualitative researchers intentionally select candidates based on the candidates' experience with the topic (Robinson, 2013). Portacolone et al. (2017) postulated that selecting participants with experience in the field is an effective and effective participant recruitment method. By using purposeful sampling, nonprofit museum leaders may provide adequate information for the study.

The anticipated population size for this study was up to 10 museum leaders. Keeping the sample size small can help qualitative researchers maintain the scope of the study (Morse, 2015). Marshall and Rossman (2015) posited that a small sample size allows researchers to inspect a phenomenon closely. According to Yin (2018), a small sample size is efficient when the study aim is specific. Small sample sizes allow researchers to obtain information power from experts on the topic (Yin, 2018). I used a small sample size of three participants because in qualitative research, a sample of this size may provide adequate representation for a homogeneous population (Racine et al., 2017). Ten participants may provide results that represent the study population accurately (Racine et al., 2017). Furthermore, when predetermined criteria exist, up to 10 is an adequate sample size (Michener et al., 2016). Although I used a minimum of three participants, I continued to collect data from new participants until I reached data saturation.

According to Morse (2015), researchers aim to achieve data saturation to show rigor in qualitative studies. Data saturation is the building of rich information through pursuing the answers to questions influenced by scope and repetition and based on theoretical inquiry (Morse, 2015). In qualitative case studies, researchers achieve data saturation when no new information or themes emerge from the data (Racine et al., 2017). According to Yin (2018), an indication of saturation is when participants replicate the same ideas. I reached data saturation by interviewing museum leaders until no new information emerged.

Purposeful sampling is a common qualitative strategy applied in research (Palinkas et al., 2013). Qualitative researchers employing purposeful sampling use subjects' knowledge and experience as factors for inclusion (Yin, 2018). To ensure effective participation, the subjects should hold expert knowledge of the topic (Tongco, 2008). According to Burau and Andersen (2014), participants with experience in the field can provide macro and micro views of the subject matter. I used purposely selected museum leaders holding the established criteria in fundraising for nonprofit museums.

### **Ethical Research**

The Institutional Review Board (IRB) process exists to ensure (a) the rights and welfare of participants, (b) researchers use procedures properly to obtain informed consent, and (c) minimization of risks to human participants. I obtained Walden University's IRB approval before recruiting or interviewing participants. Subjects may not participate in the study until the researcher receives the participants' explicit consent after reviewing the informed consent form. Researchers must obtain consent to conduct

ethical research. Participation in a qualitative case study is voluntary (Yin, 2018). Since joining the study is voluntary, participants have the right to withdraw from the study (Willis et al., 2016). To withdraw, participants could have contacted me directly via email until the point where member checking is completed.

Researchers must protect the privacy and confidentiality of study participants (Yin, 2018). According to Marshall and Rossman (2015), using a system of codes and themes protects the subjects' identity. I used unique identifiers to protect the participants' names. I assigned unique identifiers to protect the participants' identities. I used *P1* through *P3* as unique identifiers to label study participants. Excluding personal demographics from the study and using codes further protects participants' confidentiality (Yin, 2018).

To further guard the identity of participants, all project documents were stored on a password-protected computer stored in a fireproof cabinet when not in use. I plan to keep the information confidential by locking all data related to the study in a fireproof cabinet for a minimum of 5 years. After the 5-year period, I will destroy the participants' information per the Walden University's IRB requirements.

### **Data Collection Instruments**

The researcher's role in scientific inquiry is unique as the researcher is considered a human instrument (Peredaryenko & Krauss, 2013). As the researcher, I served as the primary data collection instrument. When conducting qualitative research, interviewers must establish themselves as the primary research instrument (Yin, 2018). As the key tool, the researcher must build relationships and reflexivity to make the participants

aware of the study's intentions (Yin, 2018). In addition to using myself as the primary instrument, I also used semistructured interviews to collect data for the study.

Qualitative researchers use interviews as a data collection tool for gathering real-world descriptions from subjects to understand the phenomenon. The basis of qualitative interviews depends on conversations with participants about experiences surrounding the study topic (Lockwood et al., 2015). I conducted semistructured interviews via video conference with museum leaders to collect data. According to Yin (2018), interviewers should ask predetermined, open-ended questions in semistructured interviews. Furthermore, during semistructured interviews, researchers ask participants the questions in the same order and may also ask interviewees for clarification on responses (Yin, 2018). Researchers design semistructured interview questions to gain specific information on a particular subject (Yin, 2018). I used semistructured interviews to learn how nonprofit leaders attract millennials' support.

An interview protocol is an instrument of inquiry that allows the researcher to ask questions related to the study (Yin, 2018). I used the interview protocol as shown in Appendix A to provide the same interview format among participants during the interviews. I asked participants the same questions and in the same order. An interview protocol provides a guide for conversation during the interview and directs dialogue towards the research question.

Researchers bear the responsibility of establishing the validity and reliability of the study (Mohajan, 2017). Member checking is a strategy used to enhance validity, reliability, and rigor in qualitative research (Mohajan, 2017). To reduce bias, Birt et al.

(2016) recommended that researchers include participants in the study by using member checking. I used member checking to reduce bias, enhance validity, and increase reliability. Member checking is an important tool in qualitative research used to assess the accuracy of researchers' representation of the members' experiences (Mohajan, 2017). During member checking, researchers provide participants with a written summary of the individual interview interpretations to determine if the summaries accurately represent the participants' experiences (Mohajan, 2017). I provided each participant with my interpretation of their individual interview responses for confirmation and validity that I interpreted their experiences accurately.

### **Data Collection Technique**

Serving as the primary research instrument, I collected all data personally. According to Yin (2018), researchers operating as human instruments add value to the study. As the human instrument, a researcher can strengthen relationships and trust with the participants (Yin, 2018). Acting as the primary research instrument, I collected data through semistructured interviews and archival documents that required usage permission from the organization, such as event programs, financial reports, and membership and visitation data upon approval from the Walden University IRB.

Interviews are the primary source of data collection for qualitative research (Roulston & Choi, 2018). Furthermore, researchers use the interview tool to gain a deeper understanding of the museum leaders' experiences with the phenomenon (McGrath et al., 2018). Conducting interviews for qualitative studies allows researchers to gather rich

information from the participants' stories (Pirkis et al., 2017). I conducted interviews to collect data for the study.

There are many disadvantages of conducting interviews that exist for both the interviewer and the interviewee (Birt et al., 2016; Yin, 2018). One disadvantage the researcher brings is the potential to introduce bias in the study (Birt et al., 2016). Another disadvantage of interviews is that participants may give responses they think researchers would want to hear (Yin, 2018). Researchers may be able to mitigate interviewee bias by conducting quality interviews. A well-constructed interview protocol leads to quality interview data (Yeong et al., 2018). During the interviews, I used an interview protocol to stay on track. To enhance the validity of the interviews, I used an interview protocol to keep the interview in order and balance among all interviewees.

According to McGrath et al. (2018), a quality interview consists of probing, open-ended questions. Researchers use open-ended interviews to (a) explore topics in-depth, (b) understand processes, and (c) identify potential causes of observed correlations (Weller et al., 2018). By employing open-ended interviews, researchers allow participants to respond beyond the prepared questions (McGrath et al., 2018). I asked participants open-ended questions during the interviews and allowed the participants to answer the questions freely.

Through interviews, researchers obtain physical presence and the ability to observe participants' nonverbal communications such as gestures and facial expressions. Additionally, conducting interviews also help interviewers record other nonverbal information such as the attire, body language, and mannerisms of the participant (Oltman,

2016). Roulston and Choi (2018) asserted that administering interviews helps researchers build rapport with participants. I conducted interviews via video conference to gain a better understanding of the phenomenon.

According to Adhabi and Anozie (2017), there are several advantages to conducting interviews. One opportunity is the researcher's ability to collect a large amount of data (Adhabi & Anozie 2017). Also advantageous is the capability to collect high-quality data (Adhabi & Anozie 2017). Another advantage of interviews is the ability to take notes (Oltman, 2016). Researchers use notes to record the nonverbal experiences during an interview (Oltman, 2016). Researchers also may use notes to record demographic information about the participants, such as age, gender, race, ethnic background, and class (Oltman, 2016). As I collected data through interviews, I took notes and focused on collecting large amounts of quality data.

As suggested by Yin (2018), another advantage to conducting interviews is the ability to learn about the phenomenon in the setting in which it occurs. McGrath et al. (2018) posited that researchers should conduct interviews in comfortable and convenient places to the interviewee. I conducted interviews via video conference to offer participants a comfortable and convenient location and comply with Walden safety protocols during the COVID-19 pandemic.

Time may influence a researcher's interviews. According to Hawkins (2018), researchers often spend a great deal of time traveling to conduct interviews because of the various locations of participants, which is a disadvantage. Travel could also be expensive, which is another disadvantage of conducting interviews (Hawkins, 2018). As a result,

researchers may encounter time constraints and financial burdens, which can be disadvantages to conducting interviews.

Novice researchers need to learn how to protect participants in a study (Velardo & Elliot, 2018). However, per Velardo and Elliot (2018), inexperienced researchers do not learn about protecting themselves during interviews, which is a disadvantage. According to Velardo and Elliot, interviewees may experience anxiety, fatigue, burnout, and emotional distress. Therefore, researchers may experience time constraints, financial burdens, and various detrimental physical and psychological effects, which are disadvantages to conducting interviews.

The semistructured interview is the most common type of data collection for qualitative research (Yin, 2018). By using the semistructured interview process, researchers encourage participants to engage in the study (McGrath et al., 2018). Semistructured interviews consist of open-ended questions and an interview guide that allows room for participants to respond freely (McGrath et al., 2018). I conducted semistructured interviews via video conference with each participant. Each interview took approximately 45 minutes.

According to Fusch et al. (2018), audio recordings are effective methods to capture interview data. Using digital recordings for data collection allows researchers to adequately capture verbal interaction with participants (Fusch et al., 2018). Furthermore, audio recording the conversation makes obtaining a record of the interview easy and allows the researcher to focus on the interviewee (Fusch et al., 2018). I used Zoom video conference to conduct the interviews. I used a digital Memorex Personal Voice Recorder

as the primary recording device and used the Voice Record Pro application on my iPhone 10XR as a backup tool.

Participants must give consent and acknowledge the recording process (Yin, 2018). To respect participants' rights, researchers must get permission to record the participants before conducting the interview (Vredeveldt et al., 2015). According to Yii et al. (2012), interviewers must make participants aware of the recording process and confirm consent before the interview commences. I recorded the participants' verbal consent of the recording. Additionally, I included a statement on the informed consent form informing the participant about the presence and usage of the audio recording tools.

Following the initial review of the collected interview data, I used member checking to enhance the validity and reliability of information collected in the study. Implementing member checking helps researchers add rigor to the study (Mohajan, 2017). Additionally, member checking adds credibility to qualitative studies (Mohajan, 2017). During member checking, researchers provide interview analyses to the participants to review accurate interpretations of the experiences (Birt et al., 2016). I provided each interviewee a summary of their individual interview responses to check the accuracy of my interpretation.

### **Data Organization Technique**

Keeping a journal assists researchers in gaining a deeper understanding of the research phenomenon (Miller, 2017). Capturing data through journaling enables qualitative investigators to document and organize experiences (Miller, 2017). Additionally, researchers may mitigate bias by using journals to reflect on information

collecting during the study (Peredaryenko & Krauss, 2013). I used a journal to take notes during the interviews to note the participants' responses.

According to Ose (2016), Microsoft Word is an acceptable data organizational tool for researchers. Therefore, I used Microsoft Word to transcribe the interview responses. Once transcribed and member checked, I uploaded the Microsoft Word document into the NVivo12 database for further analysis.

A database is a valuable means to collect, track and organize case study data and increase study reliability (Houghton et al., 2017). NVivo is a user-friendly database software compatible with Microsoft. According to Houghton et al. (2017), researchers use NVivo software to (a) synthesize data, (b) verify report findings, (c) query and manage data, (d) perform case analysis, and (e) code data from which themes emerge. Researchers use NVivo software to handle, store, and manipulate data (Houghton et al., 2017). Qualitative researchers must remember that the purpose of the software is not to analyze the data but rather to assist in managing data (Houghton et al., 2017). I used the NVivo 12 software to (a) synthesize data, (b) verify report findings, (c) query and manage data, (d) perform case analysis, and (e) code data from which themes emerge.

According to Yin (2018), researchers must provide participants with a sense of confidentiality and autonomy. To keep the participants' information anonymous, qualitative researchers commonly use unique identifiers. In this study, each participant received a unique identifier (e.g., P1, P2, P3, etc.) to maintain participants' confidentiality. I used the continuing letter and number sequencing pattern until I reached data saturation.

All interview notes, transcribed data, and archival documents will remain secure to protect participant confidentiality ensure the protection of the participants' identities by securing documents as stated by Walden University. I locked all study information in a fireproof safe in my home office. Additionally, after 5 years, I will destroy all data by deleting electronic documents and shredding any physical documents.

### **Data Analysis**

Data analysis is the process of describing, classifying, and connecting the phenomenon with the researcher's concepts. According to Fusch et al. (2018), researchers use study information to analyze data gathered from multiple sources. Interviews, journal notes, and company documents are examples of acceptable data in qualitative research.

Triangulation is an effective, commonly used method to analyze study data (Fusch et al., 2018). Researchers employ methodological triangulation when using more than one method to collect data for the study (Yin, 2018). Qualitative researchers employing methodological triangulation use varied techniques to gather data, including interviews, documentation review, and exploring physical artifacts (Fusch et al., 2018). I used methodological triangulation to collect and analyze data in the study. I conducted methodological triangulation using physical documents, artifacts, and member-checked interview data.

To analyze the data, I employed Yin's (2018) five-step process. First, data were collected through virtual semistructured interviews and collecting physical documentation. Secondly, I disassembled the data, breaking the information down in codes. Then, I reassembled the data by clustering similar codes into themes. Next, I

interpreted the data. Lastly, I concluded the study and documented the findings. I used NVivo12 software to manage, organize, and input data and to run queries on the data.

Since I collected information from multiple sources, I coded the data via the NVivo12 software to manage and organize it. According to Maher et al. (2018), coding is the primary analytic process in a qualitative design. During the coding process, researchers use software to (a) perform an inquiry on the data, (b) place data into categories using an abbreviated name, (c) use codes to sort data, and (d) develop an understanding of the phenomenon (Maher et al., 2018). In qualitative inquiry, researchers discover themes that help explain the phenomenon at hand (Morse, 2015). I used the themes discovered through coding to explain strategies nonprofit museum leaders use to gain millennial support. I used the key themes from the literature review to aid in providing context surrounding the phenomenon. Researchers analyze data by (a) organizing information collected from interviews and documents, (b) identifying themes, (c) categorizing the data in short format or codes, (d) developing themes based on the codes, and (e) identifying relationships (Azungah, 2018). I used the emerging themes to explain the phenomenon further.

### **Reliability and Validity**

#### **Reliability**

Reliability occurs when a researcher's data is consistent and transparent, and other researchers conducting independent research arrive at similar results (Mohajan, 2017). Consistency and transparency are important because qualitative research involves the

investigator's interpretation of the participant's experiences (Leung, 2015). Amankwaa (2016) affirmed that researchers who are consistent and transparent show trustworthiness.

I employed member checking, which qualitative researchers view as the gold standard for showing reliability. During member checking, each participant receives a summary of the researcher's interpretations from the respective interviews to check for accuracy (Andrasik et al., 2014). Furthermore, providing the summaries to participants for the accuracy of interpretations adds a level of trustworthiness to the study (Yin, 2018). Therefore, I used member checking to enhance the reliability of the study.

### **Dependability**

Dependability is the ability to show that the results are consistent and reproducible when a researcher conducts a study under similar conditions (Amankwaa, 2016). According to Yin (2018), future researchers should be able to reproduce nearly the exact results when study data, methods, and populations are comparable. Considering similar conditions, the data should yield similar findings (Connelly, 2016). As such, dependability is simply the ability to arrive at the same results if the study was replicated (Morse, 2015). I enhanced dependability by showing that my study results are reproducible to results of similar studies.

I used member checking to show study dependability. Member checking is a form of participant validation and occurs when the researcher provides data interpretations to participants for accurate interpretation. I enhanced dependability by summarizing the interview responses and then submitting them back to the individual participants to verify if I captured the recounting of their experiences correctly through member checking.

**Validity**

Validity is the extent to which the results are reflective of the data (Cypress, 2017). A study displays validity when the researcher can show accuracy and truthfulness in the findings (Cypress, 2017). In terms of qualitative inquiry, validity proves the suitability of research tools and allows researchers to show accurate accounts of participants' experiences (Spiers et al., 2018). I demonstrated validity by using member checking to ensure that I accurately captured and interpreted the participants' responses.

In addition, member checking was used to enhance the validity of the study. During member checking, researchers provide a preliminary report to study participants to validate the researcher's interpretation (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Additionally, researchers employ member checking to provide transactional validity as both the interviewer and the interviewee have the ability to work together to ensure the accuracy of the interpretation of the data collected (Yin, 2018). Sharing interview data with the participants allows the opportunity for the participants to let the researchers know about any misinterpretations (Yin, 2018). I helped ensure validity by providing each participant a copy of their interview summaries to the participants for member checking.

**Credibility**

Amankwaa (2016) defined credibility as truth in the findings. Researchers use credibility to ensure rigor in a study by adding levels of confidence and trustworthiness (Connelly, 2016). Additionally, researchers employing triangulation use data gathered from multiple sources (Morse, 2015). Similar findings from a variety of sources display truth in the data (Barnham, 2015).

I added credibility to the study by using more than one data collection technique. According to Amankwaa (2016), methodological triangulation is a means to prove credibility. I used semistructured interviews and collected documents and physical artifacts to gather information for the study. Additionally, Marshall and Rossman (2015) posited that researchers could use member checking to add trustworthiness to the study. I used member checking to further show study credibility by allowing participants to view my interpretations of interview responses for accuracy.

### **Transferability**

Transferability refers to the degree to which study results are applicable in other research settings (Tracy & Hinrichs, 2017). A study has transferability if the results can be applied to other researchers' studies (Yin, 2018). Therefore, given the same demographics, the study findings should be the same within any population or location. Transferability happens when the findings apply to different contexts (Tracy & Hinrichs, 2017).

According to Yin (2018), researchers must provide rich data. Yin explains rich data improves the study transferability. Rich data allow the likelihood of the study's relevance in other locations (Birt et al., 2016). Birt et al. also stated that transferable findings would help a greater percentage of the general population. To enhance transferability, I used thick data within the study.

### **Confirmability**

Confirmability is the researcher's ability to avoid bias (Connelly, 2016). According to Amankwaa (2016), confirmability is the extent to which the study findings

are consistent and repeatable (Connelly, 2016). Confirmability occurs when the research takes the shape of the participants' experiences instead of the investigator's beliefs. I used member checking to show confirmability.

According to Houghton et al. (2017), using confirmability assists in making the data make sense to other people and enhances credibility. Houghton et al. (2017) stated that researchers use a system such as NVivo12 to help show that the data is consistent and clear to others through queries. I used NVivo12 software to input data and run queries. By using the software, I helped ensure confirmability.

### **Data Saturation**

According to Morse (2015), data saturation occurs when researchers build rich data through inquiry that (a) adds to the scope of a study, (b) produces replication, and (c) builds on the research design inquiry. Researchers achieve data saturation when no new data or themes arise (Yin, 2018). Racine et al. (2017) affirmed that qualitative researchers could obtain data saturation in a single case study design. I conducted a single case study and collected data from participants until no new data or themes emerged. I interviewed participants until I reached data saturation and there were no new trends.

### **Transition and Summary**

In Section 2, I gave a detailed overview of how I conducted the study. First, I provided the purpose statement for the project and the role of the researcher. The purpose of this qualitative case study is to explore event fundraising strategies nonprofit leaders use that attract millennials' support. I also explained qualitative methods and designs. Additionally, I stated why I chose or did not choose each method and design. Next, I

described the potential participants for this single qualitative case study, explaining the criteria for population and sampling. Participants were leaders, volunteers, and board members of nonprofit museums in the southeastern United States. The participants had at least 5 years of experience in the field. Section 2 also contains information on how I (a) remained ethical, (b) collected and analyze data, and (c) showed reliability and validity in the study. In Section 3, I reintroduce the purpose of the study. Next, I discuss the study findings, the application to professional practice, and implications the findings may have on social change. I also provide recommendations for action and further research, reflections, and conclusion.

### Section 3: Application to Professional Practice and Implications for Change

#### **Introduction**

The purpose of this qualitative single case study was to explore event fundraising strategies nonprofit museums leaders use to attract millennials' support. The results indicate that museum leaders should include outreach to millennials to enhance museum sustainability. According to Reavis et al. (2017), millennials are key to the survival of nonprofit organizations. Three themes emerged from the study results: (a) outreach strategies to attract millennials, (b) designing appealing fundraising activities for millennials, (c) just asking millennials for support. Participants for this study were three nonprofit museum leaders from one museum in Georgia. Data were collected for the study by conducting semistructured interviews, documentation, and physical artifacts. Findings from the research support evidence found in the literature and the selected conceptual framework for the study, Ajzen's (1985) TPB. This section includes (a) the presentation of the findings, (b) the application to professional practice, (c) implications for social change, (d) recommendations for action, (e) recommendations for future research, (f) reflections, and (g) the conclusion for the study.

#### **Presentation of the Findings**

One overarching research question guided the study: What event fundraising strategies do nonprofit museum leaders use to attract millennials' support? After I collected and analyzed the data, I checked for alignment between the findings and the conceptual framework for the study, TPB, and the existing literature reviewed that led to

the evolved findings. The results revealed strategies nonprofit museum leaders use to attract millennials' support (see Table 2).

**Table 2**

*Presentation of Findings*

Themes	Action	# of Participants	% of Participants
Outreach strategies	Use social media (Facebook, Twitter, Instagram & YouTube)	3	100
Appealing events	Design events important to millennials to include social justice issues and special interest organizations	3	100
Just ask	Ask millennials for their support	3	100

Based on the participants' responses, I grouped recurring codes into three key themes. The key tenets of TPB include the ideas that people develop an intention to perform a behavior based on the individual's (a) attitude towards the behavior, (b) subjective norms, and (c) perceptions of behavioral control and pro-social behavior (Ajzen, 1985). Themes derived from the study results mimic the key tenets of TPB.

**Theme 1: Outreach Strategies to Attract Millennials**

Outreach strategies to connect with millennials emerged as participants provided tactics used to communicate with the millennial demographic. All three participants stated the importance of making contact with the group. The most frequently used outreach strategy reported by the study participants was social media (see Table 3).

**Table 3***Theme 1 Key Words*

Key words	P1	P2	P3
Social media	17	12	15
Facebook	22	16	18
YouTube	12	9	7
Instagram	10	11	10
Twitter	5	5	4
SnapChat	4	2	5
Radio	4	7	5
Television	8	8	7

The three participants offered various successful outreach strategies. Regarding the use of social media, radio, and television, P1 stated,

We included a new social media team that had been adopted by the museum because we know that millennials are really big on Instagram versus Facebook, but they use Facebook as well. And so, looking at ways to be very strategic. Also, using the radio and TV to market and tell the general community, particularly targeting those millennials, about the different educational events, cultural events, and other programming that we'll have, as well as updates.

P2 replied, "We use traditional media such as TV and radio, but social media is the primary way to reach out to millennials at this point." P3 also responded with radio, TV, and social media and added that the museum negotiated over \$30,000 worth of in-kind advertising with local media outlets. The three participants also stated that while they use other forms of media, social media yielded the best results.

I collected physical artifacts such as the marketing plan, the communication schedule, and event flyers. I examined the documents against member-checked interview data. The documents showed how the leaders planned to reach the target market. The documents also showed the frequency of the outreach. One outreach strategy employed was a television broadcast about the museum. The broadcast was on air for 3 years. The TV outreach strategy proved unsuccessful as museum leaders did not see an increase in fundraising or membership as a result of the broadcast. Museum leaders also used a monthly radio broadcast outreach strategy over a 3-year period, but the radio broadcast strategy did not yield fundraising or membership increases. Therefore, the strategy was also unsuccessful. Outreach strategies were heavily skewed in the direction of social media activities. The nonprofit leaders used a year-long social media outreach strategy that consisted of weekly postings of flyers, events, and information to the museums' social media accounts. The participants saw a 50% increase in both membership and fundraising revenue. Therefore, the social media outreach strategy was successful.

The participants' responses and the document findings align with the literature and conceptual framework. According to Ajzen (1985), some of the key tenants of TPB include people developing an intention to perform a behavior based on their (a) attitude towards the behavior, (b) subjective norms, and (c) perceptions of behavioral control. Evidence from the data collected shows that people's attitudes may determine behavior performance. P1 stated, "we adopted a social media team where millennials who support the museum would make Facebook posts. With this strategy, we saw that their peers' perception of the museum change and more millennials started visiting the museum."

Gilbert et al. (2016) defined subjective norms as the perceived social pressure a person feels to carry out a behavior. P3 stated, “when young people began seeing their friends support the museum, they felt the need to support the museum too.” Miller (2017) defined perceived behavioral control as a person’s belief in their ability to perform the behavior. P2 said, “when people saw their peers giving little things like time and small amounts of money, they believe they could do it too.” The type of interaction from millennials explained by the participants are tangible examples of TPB principles. Evidence from the literature and conceptual framework further supports the study findings and the participants’ social media strategy. Smith (2018) suggested that social media is a powerful tool nonprofit managers can use to connect and engage with millennials. According to Cheung and To (2016), social media interaction fosters an environment that forges a mutual exchange between businesses and customers. Additionally, Gen Y uses social media more than any other demographic (Schattke et al., 2018).

## **Theme 2: Appealing Fundraising Activities**

Designing events that appeal to millennials emerged as the second leading fundraising strategy to attract the group. All three participants emphasized the importance of designing events around the target audience and mentioned events strategies several times during the interviews (see Table 4). The museum leaders spoke about the importance of hosting fundraising activities that would appeal to the millennial demographic. By implementing this strategy, the museum leaders increased both funding and participation among the young adult age group. One fundraising event the

participants used was to hold concerts featuring artists that would appeal to millennials. P1 and P2 said they studied the kind of music millennials listen to and then solicited those artists to perform at museum-sponsored events. According to P3, music brings people together. The shows ranged from large-scale events held at other venues with crowds of approximately 10,000 people to smaller events held at the museum with 100-300 people. The flyers collected from the museum, such as the one featured in Figure 1, showed music series that showcased artists popular in the 1980s and 1990s that resonated with the group. This strategy aligns with the existing literature, as Panic et al. (2015) posited that nonprofit leaders using celebrities to promote the organization may see benefits such as increased (a) attention to the cause, (b) involvement with the cause, (c) positive attitudes towards the organizational message, and (d) willingness to support the nonprofit (Panic et al., 2015).

### Figure 1

*Jazz Concert Flyer*



**Table 4***Theme 2 Key Words*

Key words	P1	P2	P3
Social justice events	13	10	11
NPHC event	11	14	17
Artists/performers	10	11	8
Exhibits	15	12	9

Another fundraising event museum leaders participating in this study used was curating exhibits that appealed to millennials. The museum has several standing, signature exhibits that do not change. In the rotating galleries, exhibits change every 3 months or once per quarter. Museum leaders used flyers like the one shown in Figure 2 to inform millennials about upcoming exhibits and events. P3 stated the importance of connecting exhibits with what is happening in “modern day.” P2 added that millennials tend to hang out with each other. According to P1, P2, and P3, since the millennials do things together, they will attract one another to the exhibits and events that appeal to their age group. Evidence in the literature indicates that friendships are more important to millennials than to any other demographic (Cole et al., 2002). The museum leaders focused on the interests of the millennials and built exhibits in the rotating galleries around the things interesting to the group to bring them in.

## Figure 2

### *Donor Event Flyer*



Some of the museum's millennial board members impacted by organ donation shared their experiences. This strategy aligns with the evidence found in the literature as postited by Pirkis et al., 2017. According to Pirkis, leaders encouraging a particular demographic group to share various personal experiences with peers leaders may help the group members gain a better understanding of the community's situation, and may become agents of change.

The museum selected for the study is an African American art and history museum. Another successful fundraising event the museum leaders designed was to launch a membership drive targeting members in the local chapter of the National Pan Hellenic Council (NPHC). According to the council's website, the NPHC was founded at Howard University, Washington, DC, in 1930 to encourage collaboration with community events among the African American Greek-letter organizations (NPHC, 2021). The NPHC consists of the nine sororities and fraternities founded for and by Black

college students: (a) Alpha Phi Alpha Fraternity, Incorporated, (b) Alpha Kappa Alpha Sorority, Incorporated, (c) Delta Sigma Theta Sorority, Incorporated, (d) Zeta Phi Beta Sorority, Incorporated, (e) Kappa Alpha Psi Fraternity, Incorporated, (f) Omega Psi Phi Fraternity, Incorporated, (g) Phi Beta Sigma Fraternity, Incorporated, and (h) Iota Phi Theta Fraternity, Incorporated. Collectively, these fraternities and sororities are known as The Divine 9 (NPHC, 2021). The NPHC consists of collegiate and graduate chapters of the Greek-letter organizations. Collegiate chapters consist of members that are current undergraduate college students. Graduate chapters members are people who joined in college and continue being involved after graduation, or they may become members of the organizations after graduating college.

The museum leaders participating in the study conducted a membership drive targeting the local graduate NPHC chapter. P1, a millennial who holds membership in one of the Black Greek-letter organizations, said that because the graduate members have already graduated college, many are millennials. P2 and P3 recommended that large public campaigns should be centered around millennials. P2 said that millennials in the groups signed up for museum membership because their peers joined the museum. P3 echoed this sentiment by adding that when people in the respective Divine 9 organizations saw their Greek sisters and brothers giving, they began to give. The museum leaders turned the membership drive into a friendly competition, awarding free facility rental to the fraternity or sorority enlisting the newest members. Event flyers and copies of social media posts collected from the museum showed the millennial engagement and the competition's progress.

Fundraisers may use segmentation to target potential donors with unique needs or interests (Reavis et al., 2017). The Divine 9 membership drive was a fundraising event that included millennials. The literature supports this type of activity. Participants' responses also aligned with the literature. According to tom Dieck and Jung (2017), a benefit to nonprofit museums directors implementing fundraising strategies that include the millennials demographic is increased museum participation.

Participants designed events centered around millennials' special interests. In particular, the nonprofit museum leaders held events supporting social justice movements such as the Black Lives Matter and the MeToo movements. The leaders at the museum designed these events to encourage millennials to attend, rally, and be heard. The participants invited millennials who were well-known, highly visible, and active in the community to speak at and host museum events. People attending functions in support of the social justice movements became museum supporters. Findings in the literature support this strategy, as Hyun et al. (2018) noted that donors who frequent special events develop loyalty and increase donations over time.

Another event strategy museum leaders employed was hosting a spelling bee. According to Morrison and Fisher (2018), museums are essential to the overall education of school-aged children. Museum leaders hosted an event titled African Spelling Bee for children between the ages of 8 and 13 (see Figure 3). According to KinderCare (2021), millennials parent the majority of kids in the required age range. Therefore, the spelling bee would attract millennials.

**Figure 3***Spelling Bee Event*

The museum leaders' strategy of designing appealing fundraising activities is in line with the conceptual framework, Ajzen's (1985) TPB. Evidence from data collected aligns with the conceptual framework. Study findings contain several examples of how a person's behaviors and beliefs affect donations.

Some tenets of TPB include normative beliefs and control beliefs (Ajzen, 2020). According to Ajzen (2020), normative beliefs are perceptions of an individual accepted by specific people or groups and dictate whether behaving in a particular fashion is appropriate. P1 gave an example of normative beliefs when stating, "a group of Black women and men designed a whole campaign around normalizing Black philanthropy. During this campaign, we asked this demographic to give, and they did." Control beliefs are perceptions about the presence of factors that help a person accept or reject adoption

of the desired behavior (de Leeuw et al., 2015). All three participants stated that asking for small donations amounts was effective, thus removing the idea that philanthropy is for the wealthy. P2 said, “if you don’t have thousands of dollars you give, you could give \$10 here and there, \$5 dollars, or even two.” According to P1, Giving doesn’t have to mean it’s \$1,000, \$500, or \$10,000. It may be that you consistently gave \$25 for 10 months or something like that. That’s important for millennials.” P3 added, “We’ve been able to do a lot with a little. Frequent small donations are just as helpful as one-time, large donations.” Evidence from the literature align with the study findings. According to Kashif and De Run (2015), people’s attitudes towards an organization are the most dominant predictors of their willingness to donate. A person’s behavioral beliefs influence the intent to perform the planned behavior (Pallud, 2017). Degasperi and Mainardes (2017) posited that an individual’s perception of an organization directly affects if they donate. P3 said they found that millennials’ perceptions of the museum changed when museum representatives asked the millennials about the museum and offered information. Additionally, Pallud (2017) posited that researchers could use the tenets of TPB, attitudes, beliefs, and perceptions to understand people’s leisure activities.

### **Theme 3: Just Ask**

Asking millennials to participate was the third theme that emerged. A strategy that all three participants repeatedly referred to was “just ask” (see Table 5). Responses from the three participants indicated that the best way for museums to gain millennials’ support was to simply ask. Participants frequently mentioned the importance of asking millennials for support. This idea aligns with the literature as, according to Muskat et al.

(2013), to best understand what Gen Y expects from the museum experience, museum managers should ask millennials directly.

**Table 5**

*Theme 3 Key Words*

Key words	P1	P2	P3
Ask	15	13	20
Reach out	14	9	11
Surveys	10	14	12

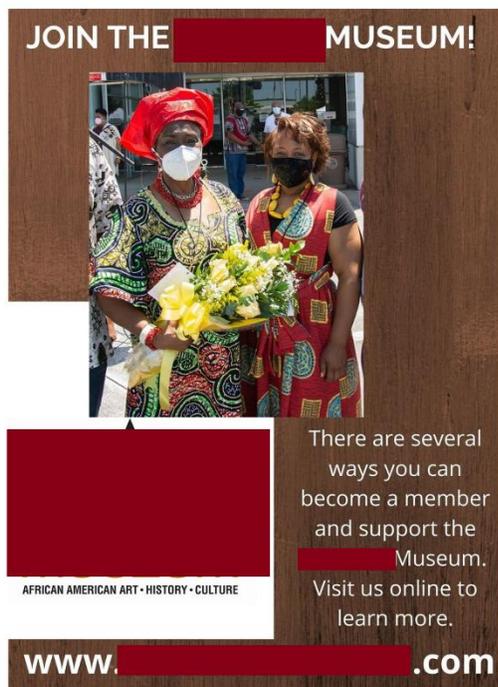
Study participants found surveys useful in obtaining information from millennials. P2 stressed that instead of trying to guess what millennials want, leaders should just ask them. When I asked P1 what strategies did the museum leaders use to attract millennials, the participant immediately responded, “ask them.” All three participants emphasized the need to ask millennials about their needs in relation to museums. “It is better to just ask them rather than to guess what they want,” P1 said. To acquire the formation, the participants used surveys administered at the end of visits, tours, programs, concerts, and other events (see Appendix B). Museum staff posted quick response codes on exit doors. The staff members asked patrons to scan the code and take the survey upon exiting. Patrons that completed the survey did not receive any incentives. The survey document collected from the museum consisted of questions such as, “what type of events would draw you to the museum,” and “which events have you attended in the past.” Once the leaders determined the needs, they were able to tailor fundraisers and other events to meet the millennials’ needs.

The participants also indicated that the donation amount requested by nonprofits makes a difference. P2 emphasized that millennials might not have the ability to donate large amounts, so small donation asks appealed more to their age group. P1 stated that the membership drive was a successful strategy because membership is a \$25 fee. P3 stated that the membership drive was very successful because the museum leaders went directly to the NPHC and asked for support in terms of small donations. The flyer collected from the museum displayed verbiage explaining that people could join for a “small fee of just \$25 today.” Millennials donating in small amounts aligns with the literature as, according to Ajzen (1985), people are more willing to perform the behavior when they believe they can actually complete the task at hand.

Asking millennials to be a part of the museum proved to be a successful fundraising strategy. To gain millennials’ support, the participants asked millennials to join in on museum activities. The nonprofit leaders used flyers like the one shown in Figure 4 to asked people to support the museum. As seen in Figure 5, museum officials also asked for event support. Colors from the flyers in Figures 3, 4, and 5 are warm and inviting. African Americans, and people interested in African culture, may find the flyers appealing since museum leaders chose to use colors from the African flags. Evidence from the literature supports this strategy. According to Reavis et al., 2017, managers can use target people with unique needs or interests.

**Figure 4**

*Join the Museum Flyer*



**Figure 5***Better Together Flyer*

Museum leaders asked millennials to join the board, speak at events, be a part of the marketing committee, and to volunteer. P1 and P2 stated that millennials' presence on the board and having a hand in the museum's decision-making was important to move the organization forward. P3 also spoke about the importance of the groups' representation and added that the young minds were essential for fresh ideas. Evidence from the literature supports this strategy. Volunteers are essential to the operational success of a nonprofit organization as the helpers fulfill the organization's mission (Englert & Helmig, 2017; Studer, 2016). A copy of the board roster obtained from the museum showed that 50% of the board members were millennials. Evidence from the conceptual

framework also supports this strategy. Supporting nonprofit organizations is a pro-social behavior (O'Loughlin Banks & Raciti, 2017). A person may perform the behavior based on whether or not they believe the task can be completed (O'Loughlin Banks & Raciti, 2017).

### **Applications to Professional Practice**

The findings from this study may help nonprofit leaders increase support among millennials. More specifically, nonprofit museum leaders may benefit from the strategies discovered during the study by exploring ideas that attract millennials to fundraising events. Findings from the study provide successful strategies nonprofit museum leaders use to increase the amount of funds raised from the desired demographic. As the literature shows, nonprofit leaders must find ways to attract millennials to sustain. Historically, baby boomers have been the most generous demographic in terms of philanthropy. Once the largest age group in the United States, the baby boomers are dwindling in number as members of this age cohort are dying. Additionally, existing baby boomers' philanthropic activity declined as the elderly Americans' lifestyles and incomes changed. Therefore, nonprofit leaders dependent on donations must develop strategies to gain support from millennials who now represent the nation's largest age group (Cole et al., 2002).

### **Implications for Social Change**

The findings from this study may cultivate social change in many ways. Overall, the purpose of the study was to explore strategies leaders use to attract millennials'

support. Leaders may use information from the study to create diversity within their organization, including leadership, board members, volunteers, and donors.

Implications for positive social change may include people visiting museums, more often, which may foster cultural understanding, diversity and inclusion. According to Olcer and Ekiz (2016), implications for positive social change could also include the potential for museums becoming agents of community cohesion. Tourism development can lead to immortalization of the history and culture of the local people while building cultural understanding and building a tolerance to diversity (Olcer & Ekiz, 2016). According to Jung (2016), museums in the United States direct fundraising activity to attract affluent, wealthy, Caucasian males because those demographics historically identify with museums' large, repeat donors. Jung suggests museums' fundraising strategies promote the exclusion of demographic sectors of the population by age, race, and gender. The fundraising practices leave the minority population feeling museums are for the elite, so, therefore, minorities do not visit or give, says Jung. Additionally, people may donate when asked (Marx & Carter, 2014). By altering fundraising strategies to include the minority demographics, nonprofit museums directors could foster diversity, inclusion, and social understanding of others' cultures, and increase museum participation (Jung, 2016).

The way people communicate with each other changed over the past years. This is especially true for millennials. As suggested in Theme 1, social media provides the best form of communication for millennials. Museum leaders wishing to connect with the Gen Y cohorts need to implement robust social media strategies. People use social media to

engage and interact with each other. Nonprofit leaders may use social media to garner relationships with millennials. Through the exchange of electronic communication, both millennials and nonprofit museum leaders may promote the idea that supporting museums is an acceptable activity for the age demographic.

Millennials flock to events that interest them. In Theme 2, I demonstrated that millennials have a great interest in social justice movements. The participants in this study designed events centered around the current social issues. During the events, millennials gathered in solidarity and spoke on their thoughts and feelings about the issues. Museum leaders who host such events may foster social change by allowing millennials the space to meet and discuss the issues. Insight on how the largest age demographic feels about these matters could foster a greater understanding, acceptance, and social change.

Finally, museum leaders may implement social change by having an open dialogue with millennials. A simple strategy emerged from the third theme, which was to just ask millennials what they expect from a museum. Historically, museums have a stigma of being places for elderly and rich people. Museum leaders who reach out to millennials can change that perception. By having open communication, museum leaders could show millennials that they welcome people from the Gen Y age group.

### **Recommendations for Action**

The study findings provide successful strategies museum leaders use to attract millennials' support. The central research question focused on fundraising. Participants shared other strategies to gain additional support from millennials.

The first recommendation is to have a strong social media presence. Social media was a successful outreach tool for the participants. Organizational leaders interested in attracting the millennial generation should have active social media pages. Findings from Theme 1 showed that the museum leaders had weekly communication with millennials on social media. Nonprofit museum leaders should consider implementing social media calendars that include weekly postings. I recommend that calendar includes directions for museum leaders to post at least once per day during each week. Postings should include (a) information about the mission of the museum, (b) event flyers, (c) pictures from events, (d) fundraising requests, and (e) introduction of board members to include millennial members. Regular social media posting will increase visibility for the museum.

Just as it is not best practice to use one form of media to communicate with the target audience, nonprofit leaders should not use just one type of social media. Study findings show that the participants used Facebook, Instagram, YouTube, and Twitter to reach their desired demographic. This is a marketing function. So much work goes into social media marketing that functions alone may absorb available resources. Keeping social media updated on a regular basis may require special appointment. Therefore, I recommend that nonprofit leaders have a person dedicated solely to social media marketing.

Second, I recommend expanding the methods to conduct surveys with millennials. As shown in Theme 3, the study participants resoundingly indicated that the best way to find out what millennials want is to ask. This task is also a marketing function. The study

participants administered the surveys after visits, tours, and events. The surveys should go to all patrons and include a question asking the age range of the participant to determine needs by age group. Study participants collected data through quick response codes posted as exits. To collect even more data, I recommend that museum marketing target millennials to survey through social media.

The third recommendation is to design more events centered around millennials' interests. Once marketing leaders determine what a larger number of millennials want from the surveys, the next step is implementation. Museum leaders should then work to deliver additional programs that will attract millennials. Based on the findings from Theme 2, I recommend that museum leaders increase the number of millennial-friendly events.

The fourth recommendation is to ask millennials to be a part of the museum. According to the findings in Theme 3, study participants asked millennials active in the community to become board members, speak at events, host events, and become a part of the marketing committee. This is a great way to get millennials involved. As both the study participants and the literature suggest, this age group likes to do things together. I recommend that museum leaders ask millennials already supporting the museum to ask their friends to also support the organization. Friendship is important to millennials. Therefore, millennials will attract each other to events of interest to the demographic.

### **Recommendations for Further Research**

The findings from this study add to the body of knowledge in the field. Future studies may add additional information to the existing literature surrounding the

phenomenon. Museum leaders in future studies may learn successful strategies to attract millennials' support. Additionally, future research may reveal additional strategies used by others in the field.

Based on the findings in Theme 1, social media provided nonprofit museum leaders the most effective means of communication with millennials. The participants saw more success in using Facebook than any other social media tool. Researchers may explore how other nonprofit museum leaders use alternative social media tools to promote their organizations in future studies. Additionally, new social media sites continue to appear. Researchers may continue to explore the use and effectiveness of social media as new tools enter the market.

The findings in Theme 2 suggest that nonprofit museum leaders should design events that cater to millennials' special interests. These interests include organizations and social justice movements important to the group. Future research on these findings could include investigation into other special interest groups and social issues that matter to millennials. Researchers expanding on these findings may explore additional events, artists, and social justice initiatives that may be of interest to millennials.

Study findings show that the best way to acquire millennials' support is to just ask them. Further research may discover strategies to formulate the questions and method of approach. Participants in this study asked for millennial participation through surveys and by asking millennials in the participants' circles. Broader outreach may help solicit millennials outside of the leaders' networks. Reaching out to a more random group may help nonprofit organizations draw in more widespread support from millennials.

One limitation of the study was a small sample size. The participating museum was relatively small. Therefore, the number of available participants was also small. The study was restricted to nonprofit museums in the southeastern United States which also limited the sample size. Recommendations for future studies are to use a larger museum and more widespread location. Researchers could also use multiple museums to collect more data.

Data collection for the study was limited to interviews and archival documents. A recommendation for future research is use other forms of data collection. Focus groups consisting of millennials that support museums may be a viable option.

### **Reflections**

Completing my doctoral study has been a long, arduous process. I am very thankful to reach the end of this road. Although it has been a tedious journey, I learned a lot along the way.

I went into the study thinking that millennials did not support museums because of a lack of interest. Instead, I learned that there are other reasons the group may not offer financial support, such as limited funds and thoughts behind whether or not their donations matter. I also learned that millennials support museums in ways other than financial.

Learning the research process was very valuable as well. While writing the first two chapters, I felt like it was just busy work. However, that busy work came in handy when collecting and analyzing the data. I could refer to the steps written in previous chapters as a guide on how to conduct the study. Overall, the process was challenging,

but rewarding. I am a higher education professional that will need to conduct research in the future. The DBA program has equipped me with the skills needed to conduct future research and advance my career.

### **Conclusion**

The future of nonprofit organizations rests on the shoulders of the millennials. GenY is the largest age demographic. Historically, nonprofits fundraising activities relied on baby boomers' support. Unfortunately, the baby boomer population is shrinking because of mortality. Museum and other nonprofit leaders must reach out to millennials to ensure sustainability.

According to Ajzen's (1985) TPB, people's attitudes and beliefs shape intentions to perform a desired behavior. Furthermore, people's perception of their ability to complete the task is a good predictor of behavior. Ajzen also posited that individuals are more likely to perform the behavior when they feel included and when they feel that their activity is intrusive. TPB was the conceptual framework chosen for this study.

The central research question for this study was what event fundraising strategies do nonprofit leaders use to attract millennials' support. Nonprofit museum leaders must make appeals to the millennial demographic to support the organization's sustainability (tom Dieck & Jung, 2017). I interviewed leaders from a nonprofit museum in the southeastern United States. I designed interview questions around the tenets of TPB to determine how the museum accessed millennials' attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors surrounding the museum. The purpose of the study was to explore successful fundraising strategies event fundraising strategies do nonprofit leaders use to attract millennials'

support. Participants employed outreach strategies to attract millennials, designed appealing fundraising activities, and just asked millennials for support based on the study findings. Future research may expand upon these findings.

Nonprofit museum leaders must learn to work with millennials to sustain their museums. Working with millennials will be key in moving museums forward. Therefore, the leaders must implement strategies to attract, engage, and retain people in the Gen Y cohort. Implementation of such strategies will increase nonprofit museum leaders' ability to promote civic engagement, social change, and longevity for their organizations.

## References

- Ackerson, A. W., & Baldwin, J. H. (2019). *Leadership matters: Leading museums in an age of discord*. Rowman & Littlefield.
- Adhabi, E., & Anozie, C. B. (2017). Literature review for the type of interview in qualitative research. *International Journal of Education*, 9(3), 86–97.  
<https://doi.org/10.5296/ije.v9i3.11483>
- Aggarwal, R. K., Evans, M. E., & Nanda, D. (2012). Nonprofit boards: Size, performance and managerial incentives. *Journal of Accounting and Economics*, 53(1-2), 466–487. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jacceco.2011.08.001>
- Ahmed, S. P., & Ahmed, M. T. Z. (2014). Qualitative research: A decisive element to epistemological & ontological discourse. *Journal of Studies in Social Sciences*, 8(2), 298–313. <http://www.infinitypress.info/index.php/jsss/index>
- Ajzen, I. (1985). From intentions to actions: A theory of planned behavior. In J. Kuhl & J. Beckmann (Eds.), *Action Control* (pp. 11–39) Springer.  
[https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-642-69746-3\\_2](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-642-69746-3_2)
- Ajzen, I. (2020). The theory of planned behavior: Frequently asked questions. *Human Behavior and Emerging Technologies*, 2(4), 314–324.  
<https://doi.org/10.1002/hbe2.195>
- Ajzen, I., & Kruglanski, A. W. (2019). Reasoned action in the service of goal pursuit. *Psychological Review*, 126(5), 774–786. <https://doi.org/10.1037/rev0000155>
- Alfes, K., Shantz, A., & Bailey, C. (2015). Enhancing volunteer engagement to achieve desirable outcomes: What can non-profit employers do? *VOLUNTAS*:

*International Journal of Voluntary and Nonprofit Organizations*, 27(2), 595–617.

<https://doi.org/10.1007/s11266-015-9601-3>

Amankwaa, L. (2016). Creating protocols for trustworthiness in qualitative research.

*Journal of Cultural Diversity*, 23(3), 121–127.

<https://www.tuckerpub.com/jcd.htm>

Anderson, K. L., Kaden, U., Druckenmiller, P. S., Fowell, S., Spangler, M. A.,

Huettmann, F., & Ickert-Bond, S. M. (2017). Arctic science education using public museum collections from the University of Alaska Museum: An evolving and expanding landscape. *Arctic Science*, 3(3), 635–653.

<https://doi.org/10.1139/as-2017-0010>

Andrasik, M. P., Chandler, C., Powell, B., Humes, D., Wakefield, S., Kripke, K., &

Eckstein, D. (2014). Bridging the divide: HIV prevention research and black men who have sex with men. *American Journal of Public Health*, 104(4), 708–714.

<https://doi.org/10.2105/ajph.2013.301653>

Antwi, S. K., & Hamza, K. (2015). Qualitative and quantitative research paradigms in

business research: A philosophical reflection. *European Journal of Business Management*, 7(3), 217–225. <https://www.iiste.org>

Araujo, T., Neijens, P., & Vliegenthart, R. (2016). Getting the word out on Twitter: The

role of influentials, information brokers and strong ties in building word-of-mouth for brands. *International Journal of Advertising*, 36(3), 496–513.

<https://doi.org/10.1080/02650487.2016.1173765>

Azungah, T. (2018). Qualitative research: Deductive and inductive approaches to data

analysis. *Qualitative Research Journal*, 18(4), 383–400.

<https://doi.org/10.1108/QRJ-D-18-00035>

Bandura, A. (1982). Self-efficacy mechanism in human agency. *American Psychologist*, 37(2), 122–147. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0003-066x.37.2.122>

Barnham, C. (2015). Quantitative and qualitative research: Perceptual foundations.

*International Journal of Market Research*, 57(6), 837–854.

<https://doi.org/10.2501/ijmr-2015-070>

Beldad, A., & Hegner, S. (2018). Determinants of fair trade product purchase intention of Dutch consumers according to the extended theory of planned behaviour. *Journal of Consumer Policy*, 41(3), 191–210. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10603-018-9384-1>

Birt, L., Scott, S., Cavers, D., Campbell, C., & Walter, F. (2016). Member checking.

*Qualitative Health Research*, 26(13), 1802–1811.

<https://doi.org/10.1177/1049732316654870>

Bonner, T. (2019). Networking museums, older people, and communities: Uncovering and sustaining strengths in aging. *Innovation in Aging*, 3(Supplement\_1), S362.

<https://doi.org/10.1093/geroni/igz038.1322>

Borchers, N. S. (2019). Social media influencers in strategic communication.

*International Journal of Strategic Communication*, 13(4), 255–260.

<https://doi.org/10.1080/1553118x.2019.1634075>

Brown, K. (2019). Museums and local development: An introduction to museums, sustainability and well-being. *Museum International*, 71(3–4), 1–13.

<https://doi.org/10.1080/13500775.2019.1702257>

- Brubaker, R. G., & Fowler, C. (1990). Encouraging college males to perform testicular self-examination: Evaluation of a persuasive message based on the revised theory of reasoned action 1. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 20*(17), 1411–1422. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1559-1816.1990.tb01481.x>
- Brutus, S., Aguinis, H., & Wassmer, U. (2013). Self-reported limitations and future directions in scholarly reports: Analysis and recommendations. *Journal of Management: Tucson, 39*(1), 48–75. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206312455245>
- Burau, V., & Andersen, L. B. (2014). Professions and professionals: Capturing the changing role of expertise through theoretical triangulation. *American Journal of Economics and Sociology, 73*(1), 264–293. <https://doi.org/10.1111/ajes.12062>
- Carroll, R., & Kachersky, L. (2019). Service fundraising and the role of perceived donation efficacy in individual charitable giving. *Journal of Business Research, 99*, 254–263. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2019.02.051>
- Chaney, D., Touzani, M., & Ben Slimane, K. (2017). Marketing to the (new) generations: Summary and perspectives. *Journal of Strategic Marketing, 25*(3), 179–189. <https://doi.org/10.1080/0965254x.2017.1291173>
- Chen, Y., Dai, R., Yao, J., & Li, Y. (2019). Donate time or money? The determinants of donation intention in online crowdfunding. *Sustainability, 11*(16), 4269. <https://doi.org/10.3390/su11164269>
- Cheung, M. F. Y., & To, W. M. (2016). Service co-creation in social media: An extension of the theory of planned behavior. *Computers in Human Behavior, 65*, 260–266. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chb.2016.08.031>

- Clark, E., Mulgrew, K., Kannis-Dymand, L., Schaffer, V., & Hoberg, R. (2019). Theory of planned behaviour: Predicting tourists' pro-environmental intentions after a humpback whale encounter. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 27(5), 649–667.  
<https://doi.org/10.1080/09669582.2019.1603237>
- Cole, G., Smith, R., & Lucas, L. (2002). The debut of Generation Y in the American workforce. *Journal of Business Administration Online*, 1(2), 1-20.  
<https://www.JBAO.ATU.edu>
- Connelly, L. M. (2016). Trustworthiness in qualitative research. *Medsurg Nursing*, 25(6), 435–437. <https://www.amsn.org>
- Costa, E., & Pesci, C. (2016). Social impact measurement: Why do stakeholders matter? *Sustainability Accounting, Management and Policy Journal*, 7(1), 99–124.  
<https://doi.org/10.1108/sampj-12-2014-0092>
- Cunliffe, A. L., & Alcadipani, R. (2016). The politics of access in fieldwork. *Organizational Research Methods*, 19(4), 535–561.  
<https://doi.org/10.1177/1094428116639134>
- Cypress, B. S. (2017). Rigor or reliability and validity in qualitative research. *Dimensions of Critical Care Nursing*, 36(4), 253–263.  
<https://doi.org/10.1097/dcc.0000000000000253>
- Degasperi, N. C., & Mainardes, E. W. (2017). What motivates money donation? A study on external motivators. *Revista de Administração*, 52(4), 363–373.  
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.rausp.2017.08.002>
- de Leeuw, A., Valois, P., Ajzen, I., & Schmidt, P. (2015). Using the theory of planned

behavior to identify key beliefs underlying pro-environmental behavior in high-school students: Implications for educational interventions. *Journal of Environmental Psychology*, 42, 128–138.

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jenvp.2015.03.005>

De Veirman, M., Cauberghe, V., & Hudders, L. (2017). Marketing through Instagram influencers: The impact of number of followers and product divergence on brand attitude. *International Journal of Advertising*, 36(5), 798–828.

<https://doi.org/10.1080/02650487.2017.1348035>

De Wit, A., Bekkers, R., & Broese van Groenou, M. (2016). Heterogeneity in crowding-out: When are charitable donations responsive to government support? *European Sociological Review*, 33(1), 59–71. <https://doi.org/10.1093/esr/jcw048>

Eastman, J. K., Smalley, K. B., & Warren, J. C. (2019). The impact of cause-related marketing on millennials' product attitudes and purchase intentions. *Journal of Promotion Management*, 25(6), 799–826.

<https://doi.org/10.1080/10496491.2018.1536625>

Englert, B., & Helmig, B. (2017). Volunteer performance in the light of organizational success: A systematic literature review. *VOLUNTAS: International Journal of Voluntary and Nonprofit Organizations*, 29(1), 1–28.

<https://doi.org/10.1007/s11266-017-9889-2>

Erlandsson, A., Nilsson, A., & Västfjäll, D. (2018). Attitudes and donation behavior when reading positive and negative charity appeals. *Journal of Nonprofit & Public Sector Marketing*, 30(4), 444–474.

<https://doi.org/10.1080/10495142.2018.1452828>

Evans, G. E., & Christie, H. (2017). *Managerial leadership for librarians: Thriving in the public and nonprofit world*. ABC-CLIO. <https://doi.org/10.5860/crl.80.5.740>

Evans, N. J., Phua, J., Lim, J., & Jun, H. (2017). Disclosing Instagram influencer advertising: The effects of disclosure language on advertising recognition, attitudes, and behavioral intent. *Journal of Interactive Advertising*, 17(2), 138–149. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15252019.2017.1366885>

Faulkner, M., Romaniuk, J., & Stern, P. (2016). New versus frequent donors: Exploring the behaviour of the most desirable donors. *Australasian Marketing Journal (AMJ)*, 24(3), 198–204. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ausmj.2016.04.001>

Foreman-Wernet, L., Dervin, B., & Funk, C. (2014). Standing in two worlds looking at an art exhibition: Sense-making in the millennial generation. *The Journal of Arts Management, Law, and Society*, 44(2), 101–117. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10632921.2014.905813>

Freeman, R. E. (1984). *Strategic management: A stakeholder approach*. Pitman.

Fusch, P., Fusch, G. E., & Ness, L. R. (2018). Denzin's paradigm shift: Revisiting triangulation in qualitative research. *Journal of Social Change*, 10(1), 19–32. <https://doi.org/10.5590/JOSC.2018.10.1.02>

Fyall, R. (2016). The power of nonprofits: Mechanisms for nonprofit policy influence. *Public Administration Review*, 76(6), 938–948. <https://doi.org/10.1111/puar.12550>

Garrett, B. (2018). Social science: Scientific realism, alternative frameworks and the rise

of postmodern thought. *Empirical Nursing*, 69–130. <https://doi.org/10.1108/978-1-78743-813-220181006>

Gengler, C. E., & Mulvey, M. S. (2017). Planning pre-launch positioning: Segmentation via willingness-to-pay and means-end brand differentiators. *Journal of Brand Management*, 24(3), 230–249. <https://doi.org/10.1057/s41262-017-0030-z>

Gentles, S. J., Charles, C., Nicholas, D. B., Ploeg, J., & McKibbin, K. A. (2016). Reviewing the research methods literature: Principles and strategies illustrated by a systematic overview of sampling in qualitative research. *Systematic Reviews*, 5(1), 172. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s13643-016-0343-0>

Gilbert, G., Holdsworth, S., & Kyle, L. (2016). A literature review and development of a theoretical model for understanding commitment experienced by volunteers over the life of a project. *VOLUNTAS: International Journal of Voluntary and Nonprofit Organizations*, 28(1), 1–25. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11266-016-9821-1>

Gorczyca, M., & Hartman, R. L. (2017). The new face of philanthropy: The role of intrinsic motivation in millennials' attitudes and intent to donate to charitable organizations. *Journal of Nonprofit & Public Sector Marketing*, 29(4), 415–433. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10495142.2017.1326349>

Gouws, T., & van Rheede van Oudtshoorn, G. P. (2011). Correlation between brand longevity and the diffusion on innovations theory. *Journal of Public Affairs (14723891)*, 11(4), 236–242. <https://doi.org/10.1002/pa.416>

Gradén, L., & O'dell, T. (2016). Museums and heritage collections in the cultural economy: The challenge of addressing wider audiences and local communities.

*Museum International*, 68(3–4), 48–67. <https://doi.org/10.1111/muse.12135>

- Grant, L. E., & Potoski, M. (2015). Collective Reputations Affect Donations to Nonprofits. *Journal of Policy Analysis and Management*, 34(4), 835–852. <https://doi.org/10.1002/pam.21868>
- Gummesson, E. (2017). From relationship marketing to total relationship marketing and beyond. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 31(1), 16–19. <https://doi.org/10.1108/jsm-11-2016-0398>
- Harris, E. E., & Neely, D. G. (2016). Multiple information signals in the market for charitable donations. *Contemporary Accounting Research*, 33(3), 989–1012. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1911-3846.12175>
- Harrison, J., Freeman, R. E., & Cavalcanti Sá de Abreu, M. (2015). Stakeholder theory as an ethical approach to effective management: Applying the theory to multiple contexts. *Review of Business Management*, 17(55), 858–869. <https://doi.org/10.7819/rbgn.v17i55.2647>
- Hawkins, J. E. (2018). The practical utility and suitability of email interviews in qualitative research. *The Qualitative Report*, 23(2), 493–501. <https://nsuworks.nova.edu/tqr/>
- Herle, A. (2018). Museums and source communities. *The International Encyclopedia of Anthropology*, 1–8. <https://doi.org/10.1002/9781118924396.wbiea1933>
- Houghton, C., Murphy, K., Meehan, B., Thomas, J., Brooker, D., & Casey, D. (2017). From screening to synthesis: Using NVivo to enhance transparency in qualitative evidence synthesis. *Journal of Clinical Nursing*, 26(5–6), 873–881.

<https://doi.org/10.1111/jocn.13443>

Hyun, H., Park, J., Ren, T., & Kim, H. (2018). The role of ambiances and aesthetics on millennials' museum visiting behavior. *Arts and the Market*, 8(2), 152–167.

<https://doi.org/10.1108/aam-04-2017-0006>

Inoue, Y. (2015). Event-related attributes affecting donation intention of special event attendees. *Nonprofit Management and Leadership*, 26(3), 349–366.

<https://doi.org/10.1002/nml.21192>

Jung, Y. (2016). Diversity matters: Theoretical understanding of and suggestions for the current fundraising practices of nonprofit art museums. *Journal of Arts Management Law and Society*, 45(4)255-268.

<https://doi.org/10.1080/10632921.2015.1103672>

Kang, J. H., Jang, J. C., & Jeong, C. (2017). Understanding museum visitor satisfaction and revisit intentions through mobile guide system: Moderating role of age in museum mobile guide adoption. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, 23(2), 95–108. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10941665.2017.1410190>

Kashif, M., & De Run, E. C. (2015). Money donations intentions among Muslim donors: An extended theory of planned behavior model. *International Journal of Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Marketing*, 20(1), 84–96.

<https://doi.org/10.1002/nvsm.1519>

Kearns, K. P., Bell, D., Deem, B., & McShane, L. (2012). How nonprofit leaders evaluate funding sources. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, 43(1), 121–143.

<https://doi.org/10.1177/0899764012458038>

- Khodakarami, F., Petersen, J. A., & Venkatesan, R. (2015). Developing donor relationships: The role of the breadth of giving. *Journal of Marketing*, 79(4), 77–93. <https://doi.org/10.1509/jm.14.0351>
- Kim, H. H., & Han, E. (2020). The application of the theory of planned behavior to identify determinants of donation intention: Towards the comparative examination of positive and negative reputations of nonprofit organizations CEO. *Sustainability*, 12(21), 9134. <https://doi.org/10.3390/su12219134>
- Kim, M., Pandey, S., & Pandey, S. K. (2017). Why do nonprofit performing arts organizations offer free public access? *Public Administration Review*, 78(1), 139–150. <https://doi.org/10.1111/puar.12769>
- Kim, S., & Chung, J. (2019). Enhancing visitor return rate of national museums: application of data envelopment analysis to millennials. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, 25(1), 76–88. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10941665.2019.1578812>
- Kim, S. E., & Kim, Y. H. (2014). Measuring the growth of the nonprofit sector: A longitudinal analysis. *Public Administration Review*, 75(2), 242–251. <https://doi.org/10.1111/puar.12306>
- Kindercare. (2021). *Millennial parents: Six surprising ways they're parenting differently*. <https://www.kindercare.com/content-hub/articles/2016/may/millennial-moms-dads-6-ways-theyre-raising-kids-differently>
- Kirkwood, A., & Price, L. (2013). Examining some assumptions and limitations of research on the effects of emerging technologies for teaching and learning in higher education. *British Journal of Educational Technology*, 44(4), 536–543.

<https://doi.org/10.1111/bjet.12049>

- Krawczyk, K., Wooddell, M., & Dias, A. (2017). Charitable giving in arts and culture nonprofits: The impact of organizational characteristics. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, 46(4), 817–836. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0899764017692038>
- Krupa, M. B., McCarthy Cunfer, M., & Clark, S. J. (2019). Who's winning the public process? How to use public documents to assess the equity, efficiency, and effectiveness of stakeholder engagement. *Society & Natural Resources*, 33(5), 612–633. <https://doi.org/10.1080/08941920.2019.1665763>
- Leardini, C., Moggi, S., & Rossi, G. (2018). The new era of stakeholder engagement: Gaining, maintaining, and repairing legitimacy in nonprofit organizations. *International Journal of Public Administration*, 42(6), 520–532. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01900692.2018.1491593>
- Leung, L. (2015). Validity, reliability, and generalizability in qualitative research. *Journal of Family Medicine and Primary Care*, 4(3), 324. <https://doi.org/10.4103/2249-4863.161306>
- Lien, B. Y.-H., Pauleen, D. J., Kuo, Y.-M., & Wang, T.-L. (2012). The rationality and objectivity of reflection in phenomenological research. *Quality & Quantity*, 48(1), 189–196. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11135-012-9759-3>
- Lin, W., & Wang, Q. (2015). What Helped Nonprofits Weather the Great Recession? *Nonprofit Management and Leadership*, 26(3), 257–276. <https://doi.org/10.1002/nml.21197>
- Lincoln, Y. S., & Guba, E. G. (1985). *Naturalist inquiry*. Sage.

- Lizin, S., Van Dael, M., & Van Passel, S. (2017). Battery pack recycling: Behaviour change interventions derived from an integrative theory of planned behaviour study. *Resources, Conservation and Recycling*, *122*, 66–82.  
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.resconrec.2017.02.003>
- Lockwood, C., Munn, Z., & Porritt, K. (2015). Qualitative research synthesis. *International Journal of Evidence-Based Healthcare*, *13*(3), 179–187.  
<https://doi.org/10.1097/xeb.0000000000000062>
- Lopez-Dicastillo, O., & Belintxon, M. (2014). The challenges of participant observations of cultural encounters within an ethnographic study. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *132*, 522–526. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2014.04.347>
- Lu, J. (2015). Which nonprofit gets more government funding? *Nonprofit Management and Leadership*, *25*(3), 297–312. <https://doi.org/10.1002/nml.21124>
- Lu, J. (2016). The philanthropic consequence of government grants to nonprofit organizations. *Nonprofit Management and Leadership*, *26*(4), 381–400.  
<https://doi.org/10.1002/nml.21203>
- Mackey, A., & Gass, S. (2005). *Second language research: Methodology and design*. Erlbaum.
- Madden, T. J., Ellen, P. S., & Ajzen, I. (1992). A comparison of the theory of planned behavior and the theory of reasoned action. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, *18*(1), 3–9. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0146167292181001>
- Maher, C., Hadfield, M., Hutchings, M., & de Eyto, A. (2018). Ensuring rigor in qualitative data analysis. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, *17*(1), 1-

13. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1609406918786362>

Manago, A. M., & Vaughn, L. (2015). Social media, friendship, and happiness in the millennial generation. In M. Demir (Ed.). *Friendship and happiness*. Springer (pp. 187–206). [https://doi.org/10.1007/978-94-017-9603-3\\_11](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-94-017-9603-3_11)

Manetti, G., & Toccafondi, S. (2014). Defining the content of sustainability reports in nonprofit organizations: Do stakeholders really matter? *Journal of Nonprofit & Public Sector Marketing*, 26(1), 35–61.

<https://doi.org/10.1080/10495142.2013.857498>

Mannay, D., & Morgan, M. (2014). Doing ethnography or applying a qualitative technique? Reflections from the ‘waiting field.’ *Qualitative Research*, 15(2), 166–182. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1468794113517391>

Marshall, C., & Rossman, G. (2015). *Designing qualitative research* (6th ed.). Sage.

McBride, M., Carter, L., & Phillips, B. (2020). Integrating the theory of planned behavior and behavioral attitudes to explore texting among young drivers in the US. *International Journal of Information Management*, 50, 365–374.

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijinfomgt.2019.09.003>

McDonald, R. E., Weerawardena, J., Madhavaram, S., & Sullivan Mort, G. (2015). From “virtuous” to “pragmatic” pursuit of social mission. *Management Research Review*, 38(9), 970–991. <https://doi.org/10.1108/mrr-11-2013-0262>

McGrath, C., Palmgren, P. J., & Liljedahl, M. (2018). Twelve tips for conducting qualitative research interviews. *Medical Teacher*, 41(9), 1002–1006.

<https://doi.org/10.1080/0142159x.2018.1497149>

- McKee, A., Guimarães, M. H., & Pinto-Correia, T. (2015). Social capital accumulation and the role of the researcher: An example of a transdisciplinary visioning process for the future of agriculture in Europe. *Environmental Science & Policy*, 50, 88–99. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envsci.2015.02.006>
- McKeever, B. W., Pressgrove, G., McKeever, R., & Zheng, Y. (2016). Toward a theory of situational support: A model for exploring fundraising, advocacy and organizational support. *Public Relations Review*, 42(1), 219–222. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pubrev.2015.09.009>
- Michelon, G., Pilonato, S., Ricceri, F., & Roberts, R. W. (2016). Behind camouflaging: Traditional and innovative theoretical perspectives in social and environmental accounting research. *Sustainability Accounting, Management and Policy Journal*, 7(1), 2–25. <https://doi.org/10.1108/sampj-12-2015-0121>
- Michener, L. A., Elmore, K. A., Darter, B. J., & Timmons, M. K. (2016). Biomechanical measures in participants with shoulder pain: Intra-rater reliability. *Manual Therapy*, 22, 86–93. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.math.2015.10.011>
- Miller, Z. D. (2017). The enduring use of the theory of planned behavior. *Human Dimensions of Wildlife*, 22(6), 583–590. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10871209.2017.1347967>
- Mittelman, R., & Rojas-Méndez, J. (2018). Why Canadians give to charity: An extended theory of planned behaviour model. *International Review on Public and Nonprofit Marketing*, 15(2), 189–204. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12208-018-0197-3>
- Mohajan, H. K. (2017). Two criteria for good measures in research: Validity and

reliability. *Annals of Spiru Haret University. Economic Series*, 17(4), 59–82.

<https://doi.org/10.26458/1746>

Montanaro, E. A., Kershaw, T. S., & Bryan, A. D. (2018). Dismantling the theory of planned behavior: evaluating the relative effectiveness of attempts to uniquely change attitudes, norms, and perceived behavioral control. *Journal of Behavioral Medicine*, 41(6), 757–770. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10865-018-9923-x>

Morgan, A. J., Jorm, A. F., & Mackinnon, A. J. (2013). Internet-based recruitment to a depression prevention intervention: Lessons from the mood memos study. *Journal of Medical Internet Research*, 15(2), e31. <https://doi.org/10.2196/jmir.2262>

Morrison, J., & Fisher, W. P. (2018). Connecting learning opportunities in STEM education: Ecosystem collaborations across schools, museums, libraries, employers, and communities. *Journal of Physics: Conference Series*, 1065(2). <https://doi.org/10.1088/1742-6596/1065/2/022009>

Morse, J. M. (2015). “Data were saturated . . . .” *Qualitative Health Research*, 25(5), 587–588. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1049732315576699>

Morten, A., Gatersleben, B., & Jessop, D. C. (2018). Staying grounded? Applying the theory of planned behaviour to explore motivations to reduce air travel. *Transportation Research Part F: Traffic Psychology and Behaviour*, 55, 297–305. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.trf.2018.02.038>

Muskat, M., Muskat, B., Zehrer, A., & Johns, R. (2013). Generation Y: Evaluating services experiences through mobile ethnography. *Tourism Review*, 68(3), 55–71. <https://doi.org/10.1108/tr-02-2013-0007>

- National Commission for the Protection of Human Subjects of Biomedical and Behavioral Research. (1979). *The Belmont Report*. U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Office of the Secretary. <https://www.hhs.gov/ohrp/regulations-and-policy/belmont-report/index.html>
- National Council of Nonprofits. (2019). Operating reserves for nonprofits. <https://www.councilofnonprofits.org/tools-resources/operating-reserves-nonprofits>
- National Pan-Hellenic Council. (2021). *Welcome to the NPHC*. <https://nphchq.com/millennium1/>
- Olcer, C., & Ekiz, E. (2016). Community perception of sustainable tourism development for a newly developing destination: The case of Baksı. *Journal of Tourism & Service*, 7(13), 35–43. <https://globalimpactfactor.com/journal-of-tourism-and-services/>
- Olinske, J. L., & Hellman, C. M. (2016). Leadership in the human service nonprofit organization: The influence of the board of directors on executive director well-being and burnout. *Human Service Organizations: Management, Leadership & Governance*, 41(2), 95–105. <https://doi.org/10.1080/23303131.2016.1222976>
- O'Loughlin Banks, J., & Raciti, M. M. (2017). Perceived fear, empathy and financial donations to charitable services. *The Service Industries Journal*, 38(5–6), 343–359. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02642069.2017.1402888>
- Oltman, S. (2016). Qualitative interviews: A methodological discussion of the interview and respondent contexts. In *Forum Qualitative Sozialforschung/Forum:*

*Qualitative Social Research*, 17(2). <https://www.qualitative-research.net/index.php/fqs/article/view/2551/3998>

- O'Neill, D. (2019). Museums and aging: Vistas, synergies, and opportunities. *Innovation in Aging*, 3(Supplement\_1), S362. <https://doi.org/10.1093/geroni/igz038.1319>
- Ose, S. O. (2016). Using Excel and Word to structure qualitative data. *Journal of Applied Social Science*, 10(2), 147–162. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1936724416664948>
- Palinkas, L. A., Horwitz, S. M., Green, C. A., Wisdom, J. P., Duan, N., & Hoagwood, K. (2013). Purposeful sampling for qualitative data collection and analysis in mixed method implementation research. *Administration and Policy in Mental Health and Mental Health Services Research*, 42(5), 533–544. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10488-013-0528-y>
- Pallud, J. (2017). Impact of interactive technologies on stimulating learning experiences in a museum. *Information & Management*, 54(4), 465–478. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.im.2016.10.004>
- Panic, K., Hudders, L., & Cauberghe, V. (2015). Fundraising in an interactive online environment. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, 45(2), 333–350. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0899764015587715>
- Park, H. S. (2000). Relationships among attitudes and subjective norms: Testing the theory of reasoned action across cultures. *Communication Studies*, 51(2), 162–175. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10510970009388516>
- Passafaro, P., Livi, S., & Kosic, A. (2019). Local norms and the theory of planned behaviour: Understanding the effects of spatial proximity on recycling intentions

and self-reported ecological behaviour. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 10.

<https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2019.00744>

Peasley, M. C., Coleman, J. T., & Royne, M. B. (2017). Charitable motivations: the role of prestige and identification. *The Service Industries Journal*, 38(5–6), 265–281.

<https://doi.org/10.1080/02642069.2017.1370457>

Peppard, J., & Ward, J. (2016). *The Strategic Management of Information Systems*.

Hoboken, NJ, United States: Wiley.

Peredaryenko, M. S., & Krauss, S. E. (2013). Calibrating the human research instrument:

Understanding the interviewing experience of novice qualitative researchers.

*Qualitative Report*, 18(43), 1–17.

<https://www.nova.edu/ssss/QR/QR18/predaryenko85.pdf>

Pirkis, J., Rossetto, A., Nicholas, A., Ftanou, M., Robinson, J., & Reavley, N. (2017).

Suicide prevention media campaigns: A systematic literature review. *Health*

*Communication*, 34(4), 402–414. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10410236.2017.1405484>

Pitts, S., & Gross, J. (2017). “Audience exchange”: Cultivating peer-to-peer dialogue at

unfamiliar arts events. *Arts and the Market*, 7(1), 65–79.

<https://doi.org/10.1108/aam-04-2016-0002>

Plaza, B., González-Casimiro, P., Moral-Zuazo, P., & Waldron, C. (2014). Culture-led

city brands as economic engines: theory and empirics. *The Annals of Regional*

*Science*, 54(1), 179–196. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00168-014-0650-0>

Ponte, D., Pesci, C., & Camussone, P. F. (2017). Between mission and revenue:

Measuring performance in a hybrid organization. *Managerial Auditing Journal*,

32(2), 196–214. <https://doi.org/10.1108/maj-11-2015-1276>

Portacolone, E., Rubinstein, R., Covinsky, K., Halpern, J., & Johnson, J. (2017). How to effectively recruit older study participants living alone with cognitive impairment: Lessons from the field. *The Journal of the Alzheimer's Association*, 13(7), 831–832. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jalz.2017.06.1155>

Quesenberry, K. A., & Coolson, M. K. (2018). What makes Facebook brand posts engaging? A content analysis of Facebook brand post text that increases shares, likes, and comments to influence organic viral reach. *Journal of Current Issues & Research in Advertising*, 40(3), 229–244. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10641734.2018.1503113>

Racine, E., Hurley, C., Cheung, A., Sinnott, C., Matvienko-Sikar, K., Smithson, W. H., & Kearney, P. M. (2017). Study within a trial (SWAT) protocol. Participants' perspectives and preferences on clinical trial result dissemination: The TRUST Thyroid Trial experience. *Contemporary Clinical Trials Communications*, 7, 163–165. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.conctc.2017.07.001>

Ramayah, T., Rouibah, K., Gopi, M., & Rangel, G. J. (2009). A decomposed theory of reasoned action to explain intention to use Internet stock trading among Malaysian investors. *Computers in Human Behavior*, 25(6), 1222–1230. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chb.2009.06.007>

Reavis, M. R., Tucci, J. E., & Pierre, G. S. (2017). Corporate social responsibility and millennials' stakeholder approach. *Journal of Leadership, Accountability and Ethics*, 14(4), 74–83. <https://doi.org/10.33423/jlae.v14i4.1488>

- Reisman, L. M. G. (2018). Managing amidst mosaic: Integrating values and rationalization in the nonprofit arts. *Nonprofit Management and Leadership*, 28(4), 453–470. <https://doi.org/10.1002/nml.21300>
- Renz, D. O. (2016). *The Jossey-Bass handbook of nonprofit leadership*. John Wiley & Sons.
- Repetto Málaga, L., & Brown, K. (2019). Museums as tools for sustainable community development: Four archaeological museums in northern Peru. *Museum International*, 71(3–4), 60–75. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13500775.2019.1702258>
- Robinson, O. C. (2013). Sampling in interview-based qualitative research: A theoretical and practical guide. *Qualitative Research in Psychology*, 11(1), 25–41. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14780887.2013.801543>
- Rogers, E. M. (2010). *Diffusion of Innovations* (5th ed.). Free Press.
- Rooney, P. M., Wang, X., & Ottoni-Wilhelm, M. (2018). Generational succession in American giving: Donors down, dollars per donor holding steady but signs that it is starting to slip. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, 47(5), 918–938. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0899764018770281>
- Roulston, K., & Choi, M. (2018). Qualitative interviews. *The SAGE handbook of qualitative data collection*, 233–249. <https://doi.org/10.4135/9781526416070.n15>
- Roush, R. (2019). Networking museums, older people, and communities: Uncovering and sustaining strengths in aging. *Innovation in Aging*, 3(Supplement\_1), S362. <https://doi.org/10.1093/geroni/igz038.1322>
- Savary, J., Goldsmith, K., & Dhar, R. (2015). Giving against the odds: When tempting

alternatives increase willingness to donate. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 52(1), 27–38. <https://doi.org/10.1509/jmr.13.0244>

Schatteman, A. M., & Bingle, B. (2017). Government funding of arts organizations: Impact and implications. *The Journal of Arts Management, Law, and Society*, 47(1), 34–46. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10632921.2016.1255287>

Schattke, K., Ferguson, R., & Paulin, M. (2018). Motivations to support charity-linked events after exposure to Facebook appeals: Emotional cause identification and distinct self-determined regulations. *Motivation Science*, 4(4), 315–332. <https://doi.org/10.1037/mot0000085>

Schoonenboom, J., & Johnson, R. (2017). How to construct a mixed methods research design. *Kzfss Kölner Zeitschrift für Soziologie und Sozialpsychologie*, 69(S2), 107–131. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11577-017-0454-1>

Schrötgens, J., & Boenigk, S. (2017). Social impact investment behavior in the nonprofit sector: First insights from an online survey experiment. *VOLUNTAS: International Journal of Voluntary and Nonprofit Organizations*, 28(6), 2658–2682. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11266-017-9886-5>

Serravalle, F., Ferraris, A., Vrontis, D., Thrassou, A., & Christofi, M. (2019). Augmented reality in the tourism industry: A multi-stakeholder analysis of museums. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, 32, 100549. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tmp.2019.07.002>

Sheppard, B. H., Hartwick, J., & Warshaw, P. R. (1988). The theory of reasoned action: A meta-analysis of past research with recommendations for modifications and future research. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 15(3), 325–343.

<https://doi.org/10.1086/209170>

Smith, J. N. (2018). The social network?: Nonprofit constituent engagement through social media. *Journal of Nonprofit & Public Sector Marketing*, 30(3), 294–316.

<https://doi.org/10.1080/10495142.2018.1452821>

Spiers, J., Morse, J. M., Olson, K., Mayan, M., & Barrett, M. (2018).

Reflection/commentary on a past article: “Verification strategies for establishing reliability and validity in qualitative research.” *International Journal of*

*Qualitative Methods*, 17(1). <https://doi.org/10.1177/1609406918788237>

Strauss, W., & Howe, N. (1991). *Generations: The history of America’s future, 1584–2069*. William Morrow.

Stroja, J. (2018). My history, your history, our history: Developing meaningful community engagement within historic sites and museums. *Queensland Review*, 25(2), 300–321. <https://doi.org/10.1017/qre.2018.29>

Studer, S. (2016). Volunteer management. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, 45(4), 688–714. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0899764015597786>

Suen, L. W., Huang, H., & Lee, H. (2014). A comparison of convenience sampling and purposive sampling. *Hu Za Zhi*, 61(3), 105–111.

<https://doi.org/10.6224/JN.61.3.105>

Tan, C.-S., Ooi, H.-Y., & Goh, Y.-N. (2017). A moral extension of the theory of planned behavior to predict consumers’ purchase intention for energy-efficient household appliances in Malaysia. *Energy Policy*, 107, 459–471.

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.enpol.2017.05.027>

- Tevel, E., Katz, H., & Brock, D. M. (2015). Nonprofit financial vulnerability. Testing competing models, recommended improvements and implications. *VOLUNTAS: International Journal of Voluntary and Nonprofit Organizations*, 26(6), 2500–2516. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11266-014-9523-5>
- tom Dieck, M. C., & Jung, T. H. (2017). Value of augmented reality at cultural heritage sites: A stakeholder approach. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*, 6(2), 110–117. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jdmm.2017.03.002>
- Tongco, D. C. (2008). Purposive sampling as a tool for informant selection. *Ethnobotany Research & Applications*, 5, 147–158. <https://doi.org/10.17348/era.5.0.147-158>
- Topaloglu, O., McDonald, R. E., & Hunt, S. D. (2018). The theoretical foundations of nonprofit competition: A resource-advantage theory approach. *Journal of Nonprofit & Public Sector Marketing*, 30(3), 229–250. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10495142.2018.1452818>
- Tracy, S. J., & Hinrichs, M. M. (2017). Big tent criteria for qualitative quality. *The International Encyclopedia of Communication Research Methods*, 1–10. <https://doi.org/10.1002/9781118901731.iecrm0016>
- Trinh, T. T., & Ryan, C. (2015). Heritage and cultural tourism: The role of the aesthetic when visiting Mỹ Sơn and Cham Museum, Vietnam. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 19(6), 564–589. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13683500.2015.1054269>
- Tysiac, K. (2016). Getting creative in fundraising. *Journal of Accountancy*, 222(1), 34–40. <https://www.journalofaccountancy.com>
- U.S. Department of the Treasury. (2017). *Financial Report of the U. S. Government FY*

2016. <https://home.treasury.gov/>

- Vallerand, R. J., Deshaies, P., Cuerrier, J.-P., Pelletier, L. G., & Mongeau, C. (1992). Ajzen and Fishbein's theory of reasoned action as applied to moral behavior: A confirmatory analysis. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *62*(1), 98–109. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.62.1.98>
- Velardo, S., & Elliot, S. (2018). Prioritising doctoral students' wellbeing in qualitative research. *The Qualitative Report*, *23*(2), 311–318. <https://doi.org/10.46743/2160-3715/2018.3074>
- Verma, V. K., & Chandra, B. (2018). An application of theory of planned behavior to predict young Indian consumers' green hotel visit intention. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, *172*, 1152–1162. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2017.10.047>
- Vredeveltdt, A., Tredoux, C. G., Nortje, A., Kempen, K., Puljević, C., & Labuschagne, G. N. (2015). A field evaluation of the Eye-Closure Interview with witnesses of serious crimes. *Law and Human Behavior*, *39*(2), 189–197. <https://doi.org/10.1037/lhb0000113>
- Walker, J. L. (2012). The use of saturation in qualitative research. *Canadian Journal of Cardiovascular Nursing*, *22*(2), 37–46. <https://www.cccn.ca>
- Weller, S. C., Vickers, B., Bernard, H. R., Blackburn, A. M., Borgatti, S., Gravlee, C. C., & Johnson, J. C. (2018). Open-ended interview questions and saturation. *PLOS ONE*, *13*(6), 1–18. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0198606>
- Wilburn, K. M., & Wilburn, H. R. (2018). New partnering opportunities for the nonprofit sector. *Journal of Vincentian Social Action*, *3*(2), 64–77.

<https://www.scholar.stjohns.edu>

- Willis, J. E., Slade, S., & Prinsloo, P. (2016). Ethical oversight of student data in learning analytics: A typology derived from a cross-continental, cross-institutional perspective. *Educational Technology Research and Development*, 64(5), 881–901. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11423-016-9463-4>
- Wolcott, H. F. (1980). *Ethnographic research methods in education*. American Educational Research Association (AERA). <https://www.aera.net/>
- Yeong, M. L., Ismail, R., Ismail, N. H., & Hamzah, M. (2018). Interview protocol refinement: Fine-tuning qualitative research interview questions for multi-racial populations in Malaysia. *The Qualitative Report*, 23(11), 2700–2713. <https://www.nsuworks.nova.edu/tqr/>
- Yermack, D. (2017). Donor governance and financial management in prominent US art museums. *Journal of Cultural Economics*, 41(3), 215–235. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10824-017-9290-4>
- Yii, S.-L. B., Powell, M. B., & Guadagno, B. (2012). The association between investigative interviewers' knowledge of question type and adherence to best-practice interviewing. *Legal and Criminological Psychology*, 19(2), 270–281. <https://doi.org/10.1111/lcrp.12000>
- Yilmaz, K. (2013). Comparison of quantitative and qualitative research traditions: Epistemological, theoretical, and methodological differences. *European Journal of Education*, 48(2), 311–325. <https://doi.org/10.1111/ejed.12014>
- Yin, R. K. (2018). *Case study research: Design and methods* (6th ed.). Sage.

- Young, S. J., Sturts, J. R., Ross, C. M., & Kim, K. T. (2013). Generational differences and job satisfaction in leisure services. *Managing Leisure, 18*(2), 152–170. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13606719.2013.752213>
- Zhang, T. C., Lu, C., & Kizildag, M. (2017). Service Innovation: Engaging Generation Y to co-create through mobile technology. *International Journal of Electronic Commerce, 21*(4), 489–516. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10864415.2016.1355639>
- Zhao, J., & Lu, J. (2019). The crowding-out effect within government funding: Implications for within-source diversification. *Nonprofit Management and Leadership, 29*(4), 611–622. <https://doi.org/10.1002/nml.21351>
- Zheng, Y. (2020). Using Mobile Donation to Promote International Fundraising: A Situational Technology Acceptance Model. *International Journal of Strategic Communication, 14*(2), 73–88. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1553118x.2020.1720026>

## Appendix A: Interview Protocol

Step	Action	Script
General introduction	Introduction of the student and the study	Thank you for meeting me today. My name is Stacie Barrett, and I am a student at Walden University pursuing a doctoral degree in business administration. Thank you for participating in my research on strategies nonprofit museum leaders use to gain millennial support. Each interview should not last longer than one hour. The interview will be recorded to ensure I capture all of your responses correctly. After the interview, I will begin member-checking and send you a copy of the transcript prior to our scheduled follow up interview. We will review the transcripts and you may provide additional input. There are no right or wrong answers. Please feel comfortable to answer each question with your own response.
Consent form	Assure the consent forms are signed	Do you have any questions or concerns about the informed consent form that you received? If there are no further questions about the form, could you please sign it? Do you have any questions you would like to ask before we begin?
Interview process	Explain the interview process	In this interview, I will ask you nine open-ended questions. Remember to answer in your own words and add more information you deem relevant. I will also ask questions for verification. This interview will be recorded for easier transcription and take notes. You and your museum will not be named in my study, and all information that you share with me will remain confidential. The interview will take approximately one hour.
Interview questions	Ask the following nine interview questions	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. What event fundraising strategies do you use to attract millennials?</li> <li>2. What type of outreach strategies do you use to inform millennials about your organization?</li> <li>3. What, if any, branding strategies do you use to make your museum prosocial for millennial support?</li> <li>4. How do you use communication channels to attract millennials?</li> <li>5. What key strategies do you use to make millennials feel connected to the museum?</li> <li>6. What key strategies do you use to show millennials that their peers accept the idea of supporting museums?</li> <li>7. How do you show millennials that people in the 23-38 age group view donating to nonprofit organizations as a social norm?</li> <li>8. How do you encourage millennials to show repeated desired behaviors towards your museum?</li> <li>9. What additional information do you have to offer about event fundraising strategies to attract millennials' support that we have not already talked about?</li> </ol>
Member checking	Explain the member checking process	Once I have transcribed the interview, I will contact you to schedule the member checking interview to verify I have interpreted your responses to the interview questions correctly. During this call, I will ask you some follow-up questions regarding the interview and the documents you shared with me. The member checking interview will take about 30 minutes.
Wrap up	Close and thank the participant	Thank you for your time and participation. Do you have any questions or comments?

## Appendix B: Museum Survey

# Museum Survey

The Museum is so happy to have been a part of this community for 40 years. Our goal is to explore, celebrate and share the rich history and culture of African Americans, to be a center for social and civic engagement, and to be a source of experiences that enrich cultural understanding and inspire positive change.

But we need your help to do that. We want to hear from you.

Take 2 minutes to complete this survey. And let us know how we are doing and how we can better serve you!

Help us make this place even more special.

Thank you so much in advance for your time!

How many times have you visited the Museum in the past 3 years?

I have never visited the Museum

1-2 times

3-5 times

6 or more times

What is the Museum doing well?

Your answer

What could the Museum be doing better?

Your answer

What would you like to see happening at the Museum?

Your answer

Are you a member of the Museum?

Yes

No

Zip Code

Your answer

Email Address (Optional)

Your answer