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A Study of the Perceptions of Stakeholders Regarding Commercial Fundraising in Georgia's Public Schools

Ronald Edwin Main

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A STUDY OF THE PERCEPTIONS OF STAKEHOLDERS REGARDING
COMMERCIAL FUNDRAISING IN GEORGIA'S PUBLIC SCHOOLS

by

RONALD EDWIN MAIN

(Under the Direction of Lucindia Chance)

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to determine the perceptions of principals, teachers, and parents regarding the use of commercial fundraising methods in Georgia's public schools. It was the researcher's purpose to fill a void in the literature regarding the perceptions of school stakeholders, in terms of their perceptions regarding the nature, scope, and general acceptability of commercial fundraising in Georgia's public schools.

Accordingly, the researcher used a random sample of principal, teacher, and parent members of school councils of elementary, middle, and high schools across the state. Following a review of literature, the researcher created, tested, and validated a survey instrument to gather the data needed to answer the research questions. The survey was prepared and administered electronically, using an Internet survey service.

The nature and scope of the commercial fundraising activities utilized in Georgia were similar to those used nationally, although there were some slight differences in terms of usage rates. The researcher found that the school council members in the sample generally approved of the use of commercial fundraising in their respective schools. Distinctions were discovered between rural and urban systems as to the need for and the ability to effectively utilize commercial fundraising methods. Lastly, a portion of the

respondents in the study called for some sort of mechanism through which commercial fundraising activities in public schools could be monitored and controlled.

INDEX WORDS: Appropriation of Space, Dissertation, Electronic Marketing, Exclusive Contracts, Fundraising, Sponsorship of Programs and Activities, Incentive Programs, Sponsored Educational Materials, Direct Sales and Affinity Programs, Schoolhouse Commercialism

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by

RONALD EDWIN MAIN

B.S., Augusta State University, 2001

M. Ed., Augusta State University, 2002

Ed.S., Augusta State University, 2003

A Prospectus Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of Georgia Southern University in

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RONALD EDWIN MAIN

Major Professor: Lucindia Chance

Committee: Paul Brinson
Russell O. Mays

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DEDICATION

I would like to dedicate this dissertation to my wife, Young Main, who has consistently supported me in all of my endeavors. Her encouragement, patience, and devotion have inspired me throughout this entire process.

I would also like to devote this work to my sons, Rex Main and Randy Main, who have been a further source of inspiration. I am extremely proud of both of them.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

“America believes in education: the average professor earns more money in a year than a professional athlete earns in a whole week” (Esar, 1995, p.635).

Background of Public School Finance in Georgia

Georgia’s social, political, and educational traditions were inherited primarily from England. Formal education was once limited to the children of wealthy landowners who often paid private tutors to teach their children. Education in the early American colonies was tied directly to rank and wealth (Kaestle, 2001). Dorothy Orr (1950), whose seminal work, *A History of Education in Georgia*, traces the evolution of Georgia’s schools, explained that the English educational theory “contained the belief that education should start at the top and percolate downward” (p. 3).

Sources of School Revenue in Georgia

Consideration for schools was given in the first Georgia constitution, where in 1777, provisions were made for schools to be established and supported at the general expense of the state. Unfortunately, funding during that era was lacking, forcing schools to operate privately and rely upon tuition fees (League of Women Voters, 1991). So, it would seem that the search for innovative ways to finance Georgia’s schools has been consistent since their inception. Throughout their early development, schools in Georgia continued to meet financial challenges in a variety of ways. In the 1870s, most of the funds for operating the public schools came from rent paid by the Western and Atlantic

Railroad. In 1888 a general tax act authorized assessment for school funding and the amount raised through taxation increased steadily thereafter (Joiner, Bonner, Shearhouse, & Smith, 1979).

Traditional Sources of Revenue

Most contemporary public schools receive funding at the federal, state, and local levels. In most cases, educational funds disbursed at each level of government originate out of taxation. The two primary schools of thought regarding fund generation through taxation center on either the “benefit principle” or the “ability principle.” Johns, Morphet, and Alexander (1983) contend that under a “benefit principle”, taxes are paid on the basis of services received. Burrup, Brimley, and Garfield (2007) assert that since it is impossible to measure all of the “benefits” of education to a larger society, especially where benefits extend beyond the targeted “consumer,” that an “ability principle,” in which taxation is based upon ability to pay, is better applied to educational finance than the “benefit principle.”

The ability principle serves as the basis of contemporary school taxes. It is sometimes difficult for the general public to see all of the benefits of their tax dollars spent for education, since the benefits manifest themselves in both economic and non-economic ways (Burrup et al., 2007). While economic benefits of education include higher productivity, greater wealth, and improved quality of life, non-economic benefits are less concrete. These include the knowledge necessary to make informed decisions, and ultimately, the thinking skills required to function in a democratic society (Burrup et al., 2007).

Shift Toward Commercial Sources of Funding

Molnar (2004) explained that the financial demands of school systems striving to meet the needs of students have strengthened the bonds between commercial organizations and public schools. As society has become increasingly commercial, more private companies look to public schools as a substantial source of profit (Kennedy, 2000). For example, from 2003 to 2004, fundraising through corporate connections rose 21 %, according to Molnar (2005).

Commercialism in Public Schools

Commercialism in public schools has become so extensive that it serves as the academic focus for a major research unit at Arizona State University (Molnar, 2003). The Commercialism in Education Research Unit (CERU) of Arizona State University's Education Policy Studies Laboratory has undertaken the mission to track and evaluate the state of commercialism in public schools. The Director of the CERU reported that schools are increasingly seeking out funding from private sources, such as advertisers, marketers, and other commercial organizations that seek to contract with or sell to schools or to their students (Molnar, 2004).

Advertising and Marketing

Commercial appropriations of space on school property for advertising have been going on for many years. For example, many high school scoreboards have some sort of advertising on them (Molnar, 2003). Incentive programs such as "Book It," developed by Pizza Hut, a subsidiary of Pepsi, have been highly successful in many schools. When students meet certain reading requirements, they are given a certificate for a small

individual pizza. The children are then normally accompanied by their parents, who become paying customers as they eat with their children (Boyles, 1999).

In order to promote and sell products, marketers have embraced and applied advances in technology toward a huge and lucrative public school market. For example, Channel One, owned by Primedia Corporation, a leader in electronic marketing, has access to eight million teenagers in 12,000 schools. In exchange for free televisions for the school, students are required to watch a daily 12-minute news program that includes two minutes of commercial advertising (Molnar, 2001).

Sales and Contracts

The size and resources of public school districts make them desirable customers for companies wishing to sell products and promote exclusive contracts. Trotter (2001) explained that the Hillsborough County Florida School District entered into an exclusive contract with the Compaq Computer Company and several software partners to provide computers to the school district. This contract is worth an estimated \$50 million. The Compaq contract extends over five years (Trotter, 2001).

However, the General Accounting Office (GAO) reported that the greatest revenue generation for schools results from exclusive contracts with soft drink vendors (General Accounting Office, 2000). The General Accounting Office had a name change in July of 2004 and was subsequently called the Government Accountability Office (Barr, 2004). Although the official name of the agency was changed, the acronym GAO has been used continually to represent the agency. Opposition to exclusive contracts, in the war over “pouring rights,” has caused major soft drink producers to rethink their positions on exclusive contracting. Jeffrey Dunn, President of Coca-Cola North America

announced that the firm would encourage its bottlers, which are independent companies, to seek nonexclusive agreements when dealing with schools (Walsh, 2001).

Competing Forces Regarding Fundraising

Although we can use the term “fundraising” to represent all of the commercial methods that school systems actively utilize to generate additional revenue, it is clear that not everyone views fundraising in the same way. School systems and the companies with which they do business both realize some benefit from their relationships; the schools gain additional sources of revenue while the companies make profits. Still, while both the schools and the businesses profiting from the student markets have realized some benefits from their relationships, an opposition to commercialism has been displayed, as states have passed laws which were designed to curtail commercial activities in public schools (Borja, 2004; Government Accountability Office, 2004).

Support for Fundraising Activities

Put most simply, the primary advantages of fundraising in public schools are that the schools get additional revenues, and the companies they are dealing with also make money. The commercial relationships that exist between businesses, principals, and students, are both mutual and reciprocal (Di Bona, Chaudhuri, Jean-Baptiste, & Wurzburg, 2003). While this sometimes leads to controversy, it also can be seen as a general benefit, since schools can improve without increases in taxation. Some consider this a benefit, since taxes are often unpopular for a variety of reasons. (Burrup et al., 2007) argue that taxpayers often think of the cost of education without adequately and thoughtfully considering the benefits of investing in human capital.

Secondary benefits of exclusive contracting are sometimes realized, as in the Hillsborough County Florida School District's contract with Compaq Computers. Families within the school district can also take advantage of this contract by being able to purchase computers at the same cost as the schools. The school district receives a 1% rebate from all "family purchases," making the contract even more lucrative (Trotter, 2001).

Opposition to Fundraising Activities

Maintaining sufficient instructional time is critical in providing students with a good education. Some people feel that commercial activities in schools interfere with the time that was set aside for instructional purposes. One parent in Oregon filed suit against a local school district for its contract with Channel One, claiming that instructional time had been reduced due to advertising. Attorneys for the plaintiff argued that one full week of instructional time is lost every year due to Channel One's presence in the schools (Ruskin, 2003).

While contracts with soft drink vendors commonly generate significant amounts of revenue for schools, the sales of soft drinks to students has taken substantial criticism. According to Murray (2004), the Committee on School Health, established by the American Academy of Pediatrics, has taken a strong stance against soft drinks in schools. The negative aspects of increased consumption have been manifested in the overall health status of children, of which one in three are at risk of becoming overweight, according to Murray. The committee recommended pediatricians work to eliminate sweetened drinks in schools.

Even when fundraising can take place without interfering with instruction or being detrimental to student health, issues of how funds should be utilized often arise. Inequities are created through fundraising, since affluent areas are the most successful at raising funds (Molnar &Reaves, 2001). For example, in La Canada Flintridge, California, a black tie ballroom gala, attended by over 600 donors, netted the school system more than \$200,000 in just one night. The nearby community of Inglewood, California, a low-income area, earned only \$60,000 in a whole year (Molnar & Reaves, 2001).

Fundraising is taking place not just to allow schools to afford non-funded luxuries, but also to cover basic educational expenses. A poll conducted by the National Parent Teacher Association revealed that of the schools conducting fundraising activities, 68% of the schools were using the proceeds to pay for basic educational needs, such as textbooks, equipment, and school supplies (Molnar, 2005).

The Study of Conflicting Viewpoints

If current studies on fundraising in public schools have a common theme, it must certainly be that each geographic area studied is different. A study of commercialism on North Carolina schools indicated that almost 80 % of school principals stated that commercialism was either somewhat or very important in schools. Interestingly, 46% of the respondents knew of no official policy on regulating commercialism in the schools and almost 9 % were not sure (Di Bona et al., 2003).

Even educators within the same school district often have conflicting views, as exemplified in Kowal's (2004) study of the Omaha, Nebraska School System, in which the author concluded that teachers and administrators at the elementary level were less accepting of classroom commercialism than were their counterparts in secondary schools.

The differences in results of fundraising studies indicate that studies on the nature, scope, and acceptability of fundraising must be conducted and analyzed in specific demographic areas in order to be of practical value. Unfortunately, these studies had not been conducted within the state of Georgia.

Statement of the Problem

The amount of commercialism in public schools has grown steadily over the past few decades. As commercialism has grown, it has manifested itself in an increasing number of forms. During the first half of the twentieth century, commercialism in schools often amounted to a few parents selling home-baked cookies to raise money for a new piece of playground equipment. Today, commercialism in schools has grown into vast and diversified businesses.

Rising costs of education and limited sources of traditional school funding have caused many school leaders to turn to some degree of commercial revenue sources. Forms of school commercialism currently include such things as fundraising, incentive programs, exclusive contracting, electronic marketing, appropriations of school space, privatization, and sponsored educational materials. Increases in electronics and computer technology have opened new paths for commercial ventures tied to public schools. Commercial activities have some effect on students, but none so much as fundraising, in which many students are often directly involved.

While many school districts have created policy to monitor and control the way schools raise and disburse funds, the decisions to implement fundraising activities rest largely with the school leaders. Although school leaders primarily represent the interests of the students, they also represent the general interests of the communities in which they

serve. For school leaders to make sound and timely decisions, it is critical that they understand the points of view of all stakeholders that they serve. Yet, many school leaders make decisions without those viewpoints. They do not know what the knowledge base and understanding levels of teachers and parents are, nor do they know whether or not fundraising is acceptable to these groups.

Although there has been some attempt to consolidate national data regarding school commercialism, information on fundraising within Georgia's public schools represents a significant void in the literature. Therefore, the researcher's purpose was to determine the perceptions of teachers, principals, and parents in the state of Georgia regarding the nature, scope, and acceptability of fundraising in Georgia's public schools.

Research Questions

Through this study, the researcher intended to answer the following overarching research question: What are the perceptions of teachers, principals, and parents in the state of Georgia regarding the scope and acceptability of commercial fundraising in Georgia's public schools? The following supporting questions were considered:

1. What are teachers', principals', and parents' perceptions of the current scope of commercial fundraising in Georgia's public schools?
2. What are teachers', principals', and parents' beliefs on the general acceptability of commercial fundraising in Georgia's public schools?
3. Do stakeholder roles (parents, teachers, or principals) affect perceptions regarding the acceptability of commercial fundraising in Georgia's public schools?

4. Does the grade level of school (elementary, middle, or high school) affect perceptions of the stakeholders regarding the acceptability of commercial fundraising in Georgia's public schools?
5. Do combinations of stakeholder roles (parents, teachers, or principals) and grade levels (elementary, middle, or high school) affect perceptions of the stakeholders regarding the acceptability of commercial fundraising in Georgia's public schools?

Significance of the Study

Although researchers have attempted to identify and consolidate information regarding fundraising at a national level, very little research had been conducted at state and local levels. There was no available data on the perceptions of teachers, principals, and parents in the state of Georgia regarding the nature, scope, and acceptability of fundraising in Georgia's public schools.

This study is important for Georgia's public school principals, who have been forced to make decisions regarding fundraising in their schools without sufficient knowledge of the perceptions of significant stakeholders. The study is also important to teachers, who are often directly involved in the activities of fundraising. Boards of education will benefit from this study, as they will have viable data upon which to make sound and timely policy decisions to fulfill the needs of the communities they serve. Most importantly, the students in Georgia's public schools will benefit from this study, since school leaders will be able to make appropriate decisions on their behalf.

The researcher has viewed fundraising from the perspectives of student, parent, teacher, and school administrator. As these roles were occupied, the researcher's personal

perceptions tended to change based upon the level of personal involvement and upon overall responsibilities. As a school leader, it is important to the researcher that decisions be made which address the needs and concerns of all stakeholders in education, while keeping student needs a priority. The researcher is interested in providing information that will allow for informed decision-making in the area of fundraising.

Procedures

Research Design

In order to effectively answer the research questions, the researcher utilized a mixed descriptive-comparative research approach. As explained by Nardi (2006), descriptive research allows the researcher to provide basic information on the topic and the respondents taking part in the research. The researcher utilized a quantitative approach, incorporating the data gathered through a survey instrument. Tuckman (1999) explained that comparison efforts applied to survey research help eliminate invalid conclusions. In this study, the researcher compared data obtained from 3 different groups. **Population/Sample**

The participating respondents in the research were public school teachers, public school principals, and parents of students who attend public schools in the state of Georgia. In order to ensure proportionality of the sampled groups, a stratified random sample was identified, as suggested by Nardi (2006). Proportionality among the different demographic areas of Georgia was also maintained, as samples were stratified by school districts representing urban, suburban, and rural communities. Proportionality was further achieved, to the extent possible, among elementary, middle school, and high school connected respondents.

Data Collection

Prior to any data collection, the researcher gained approval for the research through the Institutional Review Board (IRB) of Georgia Southern University. The researcher successfully completed the mandatory IRB training, as prescribed by the Office of Research Services, Georgia Southern University.

The researcher utilized a survey instrument that incorporated three sections. The first section contained questions on the scope and acceptability of commercial fundraising in Georgia's public schools. The second section of the survey instrument asked an open-ended question regarding commercial fundraising in schools. This allowed respondents to present expanded information regarding their opinions of fundraising in Georgia's public schools. The third section contained questions on respondent demographics.

As suggested by Mertens (1998), prior to finalizing the survey instrument, it was tested for reliability and validity, using respondents outside of the research sample, which were school council members from the researcher's school of employment. Revisions to the survey instrument were not required.

Letters of introduction were sent by email explaining the research that was being conducted and requesting participation. One week later, emails containing links to online electronic surveys were sent. Follow-up letters, along with duplicate survey instruments, were also sent, since these tend to bolster return rates (Mertens, 1998).

Data Analysis

Descriptive statistics were presented, by responding group, for questions from the first section of the survey instrument. Descriptive statistics for these individual items

were compared directly. Means derived from the responses of the three research sub-groups responding to survey questions on the general acceptability of fundraising in Georgia's public schools were compared using a factorial Analysis of Variance (ANOVA). The ANOVA was used due to its ability to effectively compare means of more than two groups (Sprinthall, 2003).

The ANOVA design is graphically represented below.

		Grade Level (A)		
		Elementary (A1)	Middle School (A2)	High School (A3)
Respondent Status (B)	Teachers (B1)			
	Principals (B2)			
	Parents (B3)			

Respondent comments gathered in section two of the survey instrument were presented verbatim, in an appendix to the study. In order to understand and analyze data gathered in section three of the survey instrument, a classification table was developed, allowing the researcher to report frequencies for types of responses that constituted general emerging themes (see Table 20).

Limitations

The results of this study may be limited in the following ways:

1. Results of the research are predicated on the accuracy of responses.
2. Sample selection and stratification was dependent on the availability of directory information.
3. Cross level interference may have occurred for respondents who belong to more than one of the studied levels. For example, a responding teacher may have also been a parent.
4. Due to the restriction of the sample to the state of Georgia, external validity may be impacted, as the results of the study may not be able to be generalized to a larger population, due to demographically biased responses.

Definitions

Appropriation of Space – This refers to the use of school property, often for a fee, to promote commercial activities through advertising or for naming rights for school property, such as an athletic stadium.

Commercialism – For the purposes of this study, “commercialism” is defined as the practices of business entities designed primarily to promote financial gain.

Exclusive Contracting – This gives business entities exclusive rights to sell their products or services on school property while excluding efforts from their competitors.

Electronic Marketing – This term refers to the use of broadcast, Internet, or other electronic media within a school, for the purpose of advertising or selling products or services.

Commercial Fundraising – For the purposes of this study, “commercial fundraising” includes product sales, contracting, advertising, or any other activity designed to gather resources, financial or in-kind, for use by schools to supplement or replace “traditional sources of school funding.” The term will also include the qualification that a profit or other economic advantage for a commercial business is generated. Locally developed, school-based fundraising activities such as bake sales, car washes, yards sales, or other locally developed income sources, in which profits go solely to the participating schools are excluded from this definition. Educational grants are not considered to be a type of commercial fundraising, for the purposes of this study.

Incentive Programs – These provide rewards, in the form of a commercial product or service, for students who achieve academic goals. While they are tied to increased academic performance or other “school related” behaviors, such as attendance, they are used to promote products, services, or the public image of commercial ventures.

Privatization – “Privatization” refers to the management of public schools by sole proprietorships, partnerships, or corporations, whose objectives include making a profit.

Sponsored Educational Materials – This refers to curriculum materials primarily produced by outside corporate entities, for the use in public schools. Within these materials are themes, inferences, or direct messages that promote the use of specific products or otherwise further the implementation of corporate agendas.

Traditional sources of school funding – These include taxes, bonds, sanctioned lotteries, and any other legislated source of operating revenue for public schools, provided at local, state, or federal levels.

Summary

Educators have been facing challenges in funding Georgia's public schools for over 200 years. While taxation has provided the bulk of school operating revenue, it is clear that there has been a shift toward alternative sources of funding. Commercialism has been displayed in Georgia's public schools in a variety of ways, such as commercial appropriations of space, incentive programs, electronic marketing, product sales, and exclusive contracting. Funds raised outside traditional, tax-based funding venues have been utilized for both "nice to have" items, as well as for basic educational expenses.

Although school districts often adopt policy regarding school fundraising, the decision to raise funds often rests with school-level leaders. In order for school leaders to make sound and timely decisions regarding fundraising, they must understand the perceptions of the stakeholders involved. There was no viable research on the perceptions of parents, principals, and teachers, regarding fundraising in Georgia's public schools. The researcher's purpose was to fill this critical void in the literature.

In this study, the researcher developed, validated, and employed a three-section survey instrument to gain needed data on perceptions regarding fundraising within Georgia's public schools. Comparisons of descriptive statistics were made directly, while arithmetic means relating to the general acceptability of school fundraising were compared using an ANOVA.

The study will benefit Georgia's public school principals, teachers, and parents, by providing relevant data regarding the important issue of fundraising. The ultimate beneficiary of the study will be the students, whose educational quality hinges on the informed, decision-making ability of their school leaders.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF RESEARCH AND RELATED LITERATURE

Background of Public School Finance in Georgia

As colonists from England made their way to Georgia, they brought with them many of that nation's social and political views. Among these were educational beliefs and traditions (Kaestle, 2001). Education in the new colony was generally based upon individual need and practicality. Many children were apprenticed to a trade, which was often one they did not choose for themselves (Orr, 1950). Most young people learned what they needed to know through the teachings of their parents or neighbors. Conditions in colonial Georgia were difficult and the majority of settlers were more concerned with simple survival, rather than with formal education. An overarching belief brought to the new colony was that education was a privilege rather than a right (Joiner, Bonner, Shearhouse, & Smith, 1979).

Formal schooling, in the early years of the colony, was generally restricted to those with wealth and social status. During this early period, formal education was generally restricted to the children of wealthy landowners, many of whom had private tutors paid directly by their parents (Kaestle, 2001).

Among the social views brought from England was the general belief that education "should start at the top and percolate downward" (p. 4). Despite this belief, there was no general plan for education and no central control. Education control and funding was generally left to local authorities in Georgia (Orr, 1950). Groups of settlers, in pre-revolutionary Georgia, started small schools in 25 different communities, with the Salzburger and the Moravians being among the first to do so. Religious beliefs were the

primary subjects being taught in these early schools with mathematics, reading, and writing taking secondary importance. None of these locally funded schools survived (Joiner et al., 1979).

Sources of School Revenue in Georgia

During the government of the Trustees, from 1733 to 1752, some secular teachers were sent forth and paid out of trustee treasuries. Meager wages paid out of trustee coffers were sometimes supplemented by tuition payments from those able to make them, but the teachers' salaries were still inadequate, forcing these early Georgia educators to undertake other endeavors in order to make a living. The lack of financial support for education in early Georgia resulted in almost all of the early educational efforts to be inadequate, even by the standards of that time (Orr, 1950).

During the creation of the first Georgia Constitution, in 1777, provisions were included for the funding of schools at the expense of the state. The document provided that "schools shall be erected in each county and supported at the general expense of the state as the legislature shall hereafter point out and direct" (p. 13-1). In 1845, the President of the University of Georgia, Dr. Alonso Church, remarked to the Georgia Historical Society "if we had carried out our dues of our early patriots, and the framers of our first Constitution, Georgia would now have a system of education, equal, if not superior, to that of any State in the union." This ideal, however, was not realized (Joiner et al., 1979). Although the first Georgia Constitution had given some thought to education, legislators failed to provide adequate funding and schools had to operate privately, relying upon tuition fees, which generally came from affluent landholders, in

support of their own children's personal educational needs (League of Women Voters, 1991).

Following the enactment of the first Georgia Constitution, new counties were created. This hastened the development of "county seat towns," which in turn gave rise to "academy towns." The Georgia legislature enacted laws in 1783 that directly influenced the creation and operation of schools without actually providing direct funding. The lawmakers awarded land to different counties, which they subsequently sold and used the profits to build and operate academies. Among the first towns to enjoy the benefits of these proceeds were Augusta (Richmond Academy), Washington, and Waynesborough (Sullivan, 2003).

Following the Revolutionary War and the ratification of the Constitution of the United States, Georgia once again ratified a new Georgia Constitution in 1789. Closely following the framework handed down by the Federalists, Georgia legislators not only neglected to appropriate state money for schools, they failed to mention education whatsoever in the Georgia Constitution of 1789 (Coleman, 1991).

In 1798 the third Georgia Constitution was adopted. It closely followed the outline of the 1789 document, although it was longer and more comprehensive, giving the legislature "broad powers to legislate as it deemed necessary" (Coleman, 1991. p.99). The subject of education was reintroduced in the new document, which contained a provision that did not require but permitted the legislature to establish local schools. Charters for private schools were granted freely and Georgia had 219 chartered academies by 1850. These academies were not free public schools, however, and the students were limited to those who lived nearby, whose parents could afford to pay

tuition. The third Georgia Constitution would not be revised until 1861 (Joiner et al., 1979).

Old Field schools sprung in up local communities as a way to at least partially meet the perceived need for education. These got their name from the “old Fields” that were once used for agriculture but were no longer productive. This worthless land was given for the purpose of building meager schools. These were usually community projects (Orr, 1950). There were no particular requirements for teachers, who were often of questionable character and experience. There was no financial support of these schools by either county or state government (Joiner et al., 1979).

The state legislature realized that even despite their meager support of the academies, only children of the very wealthy were getting the benefits of education in Georgia. A Poor School Fund set aside two hundred fifty thousand dollars for “the future establishment and support of Free Schools” in Georgia (Joiner et al., 1979, p.25). Poor School funds were often mismanaged and doled out based on erratic attendance and enrollment reports from local magistrates. While some people supported these ideals, many citizens did not hold the state accountable for education. “Public sentiment, as a rule, was against the suggestion that it was the province and duty of the State to educate her youth” (Jones, 1889, p.29).

Despite Georgia legislators desire to fund public education, they were faced with a variety of financial problems, which made this proposal extremely difficult. For one, the effects and hazards of the war of 1812 had drained state coffers. Georgia was also dealing with warfare with Native Americans and schemes for the acquisition of new land. The land that was gotten from dispossessed Tories and Native Americans was the only

viable source of revenue to Georgia's lawmakers. Even this source was very unpredictable, due to faulty titles and to defaulting land purchasers. Still, the "land grant" funding of the academies continued to be an inadequate source of funding for schools (Orr, 1950).

The depression of 1837 to 1844 had substantially weakened the economy, and stalled fiscal growth in Georgia (Coleman, 1991). The one area of growth in Georgia's economy was in the construction of railroads. This proved to be beneficial for education funding. Governor Joseph Brown was a proponent of education and was instrumental in convincing Georgia legislators to apply newly gained railroad profits to the cause of school funding (Sullivan, 2003). In 1858, the state legislature allocated one hundred thousand dollars annually, to be set aside for education, out of the earnings of the Western and Atlantic Railroad, which was owned by the state (Orr, 1950).

At the same time, legislators directed that:

Upon payment of any portion of the public debt of the State by means of the sinking fund, bonds of the state to a like amount should be executed by the Governor and be deposited with the Secretary of State, who should hold them as trustee of the educational fund, the interest thereon at that 6% to be appropriated to school purposes" (Jones, 1889, p. 30).

Georgia saw most schools close during the 1861-1865 period, as the Civil War became the primary concern. Even colleges, with the exception of Wesleyan Female College, which later became Wesleyan College, were shut down (L. Caldwell, personal communication, April 15, 2010). Wealthy landowners often personally financed their own children's education, often hiring private tutors, sending them away to private

academies, or setting up small plantation schools (Graves, 2002). During the reconstruction period, some areas of Georgia addressed the need for public education earlier than others. For example, since General Sherman had bypassed the city of Augusta, its people were ready to turn their efforts toward incorporating education in the general reconstruction plan. Governor Jenkins, addressing the state legislature in 1866 indicated that a common school system should be started immediately. As the state was essentially bankrupt from the war, the funding was a huge problem (Cashin, 1985). School funding “often depended on the largesse of philanthropists” who gave private donations for schools (L. Caldwell, personal communication, April 15, 2010). One such philanthropist was George Peabody, a bachelor from Massachusetts. In 1867, he donated a million dollars to be applied toward the education of children in the South. In 1869, he donated another million to the cause (Cashin, 1985).

The primary funding of schools during the 1870’s came directly from rentals paid by the Western and Atlantic Railroad. These were supplemented, however, in 1878 when liquor tax revenues were also added to school fund coffers (Joiner et al., 1979).

The amount spent on education in Georgia during the period 1876 to 1878 remained practically the same each year, did not increase, although the enrollment had increased substantially. The state funds allocated to schooling were not enough to pay for even three months of school, with average paid terms ranging from one half to three months (Orr, 1950).

State School Commissioner Gustavus Orr made great strides in the establishment and funding of public education in the state of Georgia, until he died in 1887. Orr was supported in his efforts by Bourbon Democrats, who had the majority in the state

legislature. By the year 1900, free education was available in most areas of the state for six months annually (Sullivan, 2003).

As the state government was still unable to satisfactorily sustain the entire cost of maintaining a free public school system, efforts were made to include taxation revenues from local governments. The McMichael bill, actually an amendment to the Georgia Constitution, provided for local tax monies to be applied to public schools. This amendment was approved by the legislature and ratified at the general election on October 5, 1904. Unfortunately, this only provided a slight improvement and the underfunding of schools in Georgia continued (Orr, 1950).

In 1937 the General Assembly passed a package of education laws called The Equalization of Educational Opportunities Law, which was popularly called The Seven Months School Law. This law mandated state payment of teachers based upon attendance rates. It also provided free textbooks and some support of school transportation systems. This provided much needed funding but also a fairly rigid system of formula-based control of expenditures. Following the passage of The Seven Months School Law, educational funding improved, as did the quality of teachers and support for transportation programs. (Joiner et al., 1979).

While Georgians had supported public education for many years, the population had grown considerably but income had not kept up. World War II impacted Georgia as military bases were created or expanded. Federal money poured in the state, as aircraft, shipbuilding, and ordnance industries flourished. From 1940 to 1950, the average income in Georgia had tripled, providing a more substantial tax base from which education could be funded (Coleman, 1991).

The next major piece of legislation to affect school finance in Georgia was the Minimum Foundation Program for Education (MFPE), which was another milestone in Georgia's ability to effectively finance public education. This was enacted in 1949 and included provisions for annual allocations for teachers and allotments for exceptional needs. The legislation also gave the State Board of Education the authority to set criteria for local systems to qualify for capital outlay grants and to establish priorities for spending. While at the time of passage the MFPE was unfunded, A Sales Tax Act, passed in 1951 would alleviate this need and provide funding for the MFPE (Joiner et al., 1979).

Although the Quality Basic Education (QBE) Act, passed in 1985 restructured the methods for distribution of education funds within the state, it did not generate new sources of income. Georgia's public schools derive funding from three main sources: local ad valorem taxes, state government financing, and federal financing (Harben & Hartley, 2000).

In 1992, a constitutional amendment was passed in Georgia authorizing a state lottery. Funds generated from the lottery were to be used for educational purposes. This source of funding has primarily been applied to HOPE scholarships for college students, to pre kindergarten programs, and to develop physical and technological infrastructures. (Harben & Hartley, 2000).

Traditional Sources of Revenue

Public schools generally receive funding from federal state, and local units of government. State and local governments provide the bulk of funding for public schools, while the federal government contributes the remainder. State contributions rose from the 1930s through the mid 1980s, with the local government share declining. During the late

1980s, local government shares tended to increase while state share went down. In general terms, the federal government pays a little more than 9% while local and state units of government pay the rest (National Center for Education Statistics, 2007)

Federal, state, and local government all contribute to the funding of public schools, in various degrees. At all levels, the primary source of income for school funds comes through taxation Monk & Plecki (1999).

Johns, Morphet, and Alexander (1983) explain one philosophy of taxation, which embraces a “benefit principle,” in which people pay taxes for the value of services that are rendered to them. Burrup, Brimley, and Garfield (2004) contend that it is not possible to measure all of the “benefits” that education bestows upon society at large. The benefits extend far beyond the students’ and the students’ families and tend to help the overall state of society. They further explain that since the fruits of education extend to society as a whole, that an “ability principle,” where taxation is based not upon services received but directly upon the ability to pay, is better suited to educational funding than the “benefit principle.”

The ability principle underpins the contemporary tax system that funds education today. The benefits of education are expressed in both economic and non-economic ways, making it sometimes difficult for the general public to see all of the benefits of their tax dollars spent for education (Burrup et al., 2004). Some of the more obvious benefits of education are higher productivity, greater wealth, and improved quality of life for the citizenry. Benefits of education which are more abstract include non-economic benefits, such as possessing the knowledge necessary to make informed decisions, and thinking

skills required to reason and function logically function in a democratic society (Burrup et al., 2004).

Kent and Sowards (2008) indicate that during the 2004-2005 school year, state governments funded the largest share of educational expenses at nearly 47% with local sources contributing 44% and the remainder, and smallest share, coming from the federal government. This shows only a modest increase in the federal share within the preceding five years. While federal and state coffers are filled from a greater variety of sources of taxation, most local educational funding comes directly through property taxes Kent & Sowards, 2008).

Shift Toward Commercial Sources of Funding

As school systems have continued to strive toward the goal of meeting their students' needs, Molnar (2004) explains that financial demands have fortified and expanded the bonds between public schools and commercial organizations.

Advertisers began to show great interest in children, as consumers, as far back as the 1920s but it was not until the 1930s that advertisers began to focus their efforts toward utilizing schools to sell their products (Stole & Livesay, 2007). During the 1930s, advertisers had been engaging in ongoing battle with consumer groups over federal advertising regulations. The “consumer movement” promoted consumer education and “skepticism toward advertising”, while advertisers were striving to counteract these efforts. The advertisers were successful in their efforts, as they effectively won the battle against the consumer advocates when the Wheeler-Lea Amendment to the Federal Trade Commission Act was passed in 1938, giving the Federal Trade Commission the task of identifying and regulating “deceptive” advertising (Stole, 2000).

Commercial businesses have recognized the huge market potential of school-aged children and have increasingly targeted public schools as a major segment of their general marketing plans (Kennedy, 2000). Molnar cites a 21% increase in fundraising through corporate connections from 2003 to 2004 (Molnar 2005).

The primary reason that schools have embraced the increasing emergence of commercial activities is due to a pervasive lack of funding. School budgets have grown over the past two decades but have not kept up with inflation. Diminishing tax revenues have combined with increases in costs to foster an environment in which school districts readily accept commercial partnerships (Stole & Livesay, 2007).

Commercialism in Public Schools

The entrenchment of commercialism in public schools has become so pervasive that it has provided topics of interest and action for educational scholars, namely identifying, monitoring, and educating the public regarding the common practices of school commercialism and how these affect public school students. For example, the topic of “schoolhouse commercialism” provides the academic focus for a major research unit housed at Arizona State University (Molnar, 2003). The Commercialism in Education Research Unit (CERU) of Arizona State University, headed by Professor Alex Molnar, monitors and evaluates commercial involvement in public schools and publishes regular reports regarding school commercialism. . The center’s website explains its mission, as follows:

The Commercialism in Education Research Unit (CERU) conducts research, disseminates information, and helps facilitate dialogue between the education community, policy makers, and the public at large about

commercial activities in schools. CERU is the only national academic research unit dedicated to this topic. CERU is guided by the belief that mixing commercial activities with public education raises fundamental issues of public policy, curriculum content, the proper relationship of educators to the students entrusted to them, and the values that the schools embody. CERU is the successor of the Center for the Analysis of Commercialism in Education (CACE) at the University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee, and it is the partner center of the Education Policy Research Unit (CERU, 2009, index page).

Molnar, the Director of the CERU, reported that schools are increasingly seeking out sources of funding from private commercial sources, like advertisers, marketers, and other commercial organizations that are attempting to tap into the lucrative youth market (Molnar, 2004).

From 1990 to 2006, the CERU categorized school commercialism in eight separate categories, including sponsorship of programs and activities, exclusive agreements, incentive programs, appropriation of space, sponsored educational materials, electronic marketing, privatization, and fundraising. To avoid any confusion between the CERU category of fundraising and commercial fundraising in general, the CERU category will be referred to as Direct Sales and Affinity Programs (DSAPs), as these terms better reflect the nature of the category. These categories are tracked annually (The tracking of “fundraising” began in the 1999-2000 report) by monitoring the number of online search results found in the various categories. (Molnar, Boninger, Wilkinson & Fogarty, 2008). For the purposes of this study, sponsorship of programs and activities,

incentive programs, appropriation of space, sponsored educational materials, and electronic marketing will be organized under the more general category of Advertising and Marketing, while exclusive agreements and DSAPs will be organized under the category of Sales and Contracts. As this study applies solely to public schools, the issues of privatization will not be explored.

Advertising and Marketing

While advertising and marketing have been conducted for a long time, the CERU reports that changes in advertising have been taking place. They first indicate that advertising “is becoming more pervasive.” Secondly, they indicate that boundaries between advertising and editorial content are becoming intertwined and less distinct. Lastly, they state that the marketing and consumer relationships have evolved to the point that they that act upon each other at an increasing rate (Molnar & Boninger, 2007).

Within the larger commercial context of “marketing”, specialization has arisen in the area of targeting youth. The CERU gives examples of certain groups in the commercial marketing field that have begun to specialize in targeting children. Among these are: Mr. Youth, the Gepetto Group, a unit of the WPP Group, EPM Communications, EPM Communications, and YMS Consulting (Molnar & Boninger, 2007). To be fair, while commercial marketing companies strive to make money for their clients and in turn, their own organizations, they often espouse the philosophy of “responsible marketing”, especially in the area of youth marketing. For example, YMS Consulting’s mission statement indicates that their services are for those who seek to be responsible and promote well being. Taken from the corporate web page, it reads, as follows:

Our mission is to be the most up to date and insightful “Hub” of Information, Expertise and Advice for all those who seek to responsibly market to today’s youth and their families. Simply put, our goal is our client’s success—especially when it results in the enrichment of the lives of the young people and their families who become the consumers of our clients’ products and programs (YMS, 2009, About Us page).

Youth marketing, according to Jayne O’Donnell of USA Today, is being directed increasingly “down the age scale” toward younger children. She describes a trend known to many marketers as “KGOY” which stands for “kids getting older younger”, indicating just such a shift in marketing priorities. She further mentions that “Generation Y”, which includes ages 8-26, is the most important generation for retailers and marketers due to both their own spending power and also due to their influence over the purchases of their parents (O’Donnell, 2007).

Sponsorship of Programs and Activities

This category is categorized by commercial enterprises paying for, in part or in whole, or sponsoring school related activities or contests for the purpose of associating their business names with the events. Molnar (1998) reports that sponsorship of programs and activities was the largest category of schoolhouse commercialism during the 1990-1997 period, with reports on this category rising nearly 200% during that time frame. During this period of growth, a California company called School Properties Incorporated began the task of “leveraging the buying power” of California’s public school students (Burstiner, 1995). School Properties Incorporated Vice President for Licensing, Arthur

Davis, was quoted by Burstiner (1995) stating: "Corporate America has been taking advantage of schools because they were dealing with educators not business people. They took what they could get. Now they are coming to the table with real deals." (p. 1) This company had ambitions of maintaining a presence in every state and become a "master agent" for schools across the nation (Burstiner, 1995). The California based School Properties Incorporated did, in fact, enjoy some interstate growth, with significant business arrangements in Florida, Illinois, Nebraska, and Utah, as well as throughout California (Harp, 1994). Suzann Lainson explains that School Properties Inc. was the brainchild of Don Baird, a former Australian pole-vaulter, who turned his athletic connections into a lucrative business. Lainson (1996) explains:

He went on to negotiate deals in 16 states for sponsorship, event merchandising, sales promotion, and broadcast rights. For example, Pizza Hut paid \$195,000 to sponsor the Nevada Interscholastic Activities Association for three years. Reebok paid the California Interscholastic Federation \$2.8 million over six years. Baird collected 35% of the sponsorship money paid to the school organizations during the first year and 25% a year after that (Lainson, 1996, para 9).

Molnar (1998) confirms, in the first of currently twelve annual reports on school commercialism that sponsorship of athletic and other school related activities flourished in the 1990s. Corporations that attached their names and financial assets to school-sponsorship activities included successful corporations such as AT&T, Burger King,

Coca Cola, First Security Bank, General Foods, Hardees, Kraft, Nabisco, Reebok, Sunkist, and U.S. West Communications, to name a few. (Molnar, 1998).

Perhaps the commercial sponsorship activity gaining the most media attention in the past several years was the infamous incident at Greenbrier High School during their "Coke in Education Day." Greenbrier High School was participating in a local publicity contest, which offered a five hundred dollar local prize and the chance at a ten thousand dollar national prize. After inviting several executives from the Coca Cola Company to the school, they arranged the entire student population, by grade, into letters, spelling out C-O-K-E in order to take a promotional picture, with each graduating class shaping one of the letters. During the taking of the picture, senior Mike Cameron removed an outer shirt, revealing a Pepsi shirt that he was wearing. As a result of Cameron's actions, he was suspended from school for one day by Principal Gloria Hamilton ("Coke Day", 1998). "In my eyes, I didn't do anything wrong," stated Mike Cameron regarding his involvement in the incident, although he served the one day suspension. Hamilton indicated that the one-day out of school suspension of Cameron had nothing to do with the "Cola Wars" issue and was simply a typical disciplinary measure, which was implemented for Cameron being rude, and disruptive. However, Hamilton's comments to the press following the incident indicate that her decision to punish Cameron, at least in part, was affected by the presence of the Coca Cola executives, who had come in from out of town to participate in the event:

"I know it sounds bad -- `Child suspended for wearing Pepsi shirt on Coke Day,'" said Gloria Hamilton, principal of Greenbrier High School in Evans, about 130 miles east of Atlanta, the world headquarters of

Coca-Cola. "It really would have been acceptable if it had just been in-house, but we had the regional president here and people flew in from Atlanta to do us the honor of being resource speakers. These students knew we had guests." (Coke Day", 1998, para. 3).

Although Superintendent Tom Dohrman supported Hamilton in her disciplinary action, the publicity regarding the issue went nationwide, and even resulted in the creation of a web site (Sollie, 1998). Robert Stolworthy (1998) stated in his editorial that he disagreed with Hamilton's decision, citing the *Tinker v. Des Moines School District* Supreme Court decision regarding students' rights to free speech under the First Amendment. He stated "It seems the principal was so concerned about the \$500 this kid could have kept the school from winning ... that she forgot about his constitutional rights" (Stolworthy, 1998, para. 3).

Not surprisingly, the reason for embracing corporate sponsorships usually cited by educators, according to Molnar (1998) is simply the need for money. School districts being faced with shortages of cash coupled with the growing "consumer power of children" have caused commercial pressure on schools to rise (Molnar, 1998).

Commercial sponsorship of school programs and activities rose again by 250% during the 1997 through 1999 time frame. This category of schoolhouse commercialism, accounted for about 41% of the tracked commercializing activities (Molnar, 1999). Some of the interesting programs that appeared during this time frame included a contest sponsored by Kellogg to create the most creative sculpture using Rice Krispie Treats, a program where school bus drivers received free cell phones in exchange for publicity,

and an “art attack against graffiti” art contest, sponsored by The Astoria Federal Savings Bank (Molnar, 1999).

During the 1999-2000 school year, the category of sponsorship of school programs and activities declined minimally, decreasing less than 1% since the previous report. Of particular interest were the types of sources publishing articles on the issue, with the majority of publication regarding this area found in the popular press, with some discussion in the business and advertising/marketing publications. Curiously, no articles were discovered coming from the educational press (Molnar, 2000). One example of the type of corporate sponsorship emerging and continuing during the 1999-2000 school year was in the area of mentoring by corporate employees. Employees of the Allstate Insurance Company worked with students at Euclid Elementary School in Mount Prospect, Ohio. The mentors worked directly with students, reading stories, helping with homework, and engaging in conflict management. Euclid was the first school to monitor the program, which Allstate wanted to take to a nationwide level (Bartoletti, M., 2000).

Another example of a type of program emerging during the 1999-2000 time frame was a Pinkerton Service Group anti-violence program, conducted with North Carolina middle and high schools. Supported by Governor James Hunt Jr., Pinkerton developed and administered the Working Against Violence Everywhere (WAVE) program. This program linked the “introduction of a unique awareness and educational campaign based on the leadership principles of resolve, respect and responsibility” (Pinkerton Teams, 2000, p.1) with a 24-hour tip line, where people can report school safety concerns (Pinkerton Teams, 2000).

Despite continuing to be the largest category of schoolhouse commercialism for the past decade, publications regarding sponsorship of school programs and activities declined during the 2000-2001 time period. Molnar & Reaves indicate that a decrease in this category may indicate a shift in corporate advertising and marketing strategies. While the commercial sponsorships declined, there was a proportional increase in the corporate appropriation of space, as businesses spent their marketing dollars in a different way than they had in the past (Molnar & Reaves, 2001).

The 2001-2002 school year saw sponsorship of school programs and activities grow by around 13% since the previous school year (Molnar, 2002). Fisher (2001) states that corporate sponsorships of school programs and activities are increasing. "Far from a passing fad, sponsorship of scholastic athletics now represents one of the fastest-growing areas in all of corporate marketing and includes much of the Fortune 500" (para. 2).

The following school year witnessed citations regarding sponsorship of school programs and activities rise about 1% (Molnar 2003). Corporate sponsors worked together during the year to maximize their efforts. Wal-Mart, Coca-Cola, and Nabisco joined together in a sponsorship of the Clay High School cheerleaders during 2002, donating hot dogs, drinks, and snacks. The cheerleaders sold these items, and were able to keep the profits. The cheerleaders performed cheers in a hot Wal-Mart parking lot, posed for pictures with sponsors' products, and finally shot a video of their efforts, which they submitted as part of the Hometown High School Challenge. As a result of their efforts, the cheerleaders won the \$5000.00 dollar top prize, given to them in a publicized ceremony at Wal-Mart. Making maximum use of their investment, sponsors utilized celebrity power to draw even more attention to the event. "At the Wal-Mart presentation,

the cheerleaders not only got the big check, but also got to pose for pictures with former Chicago Bears linebacker Mike Singletary, an NFL Hall of Famer, who is a representative of the challenge program” stated Cravey (2002 para. 9).

The 2003-2004 school year saw references to the sponsorship of school programs and activities rise 9%. References continued to abound in the popular press while those in the business press and the advertising/marketing press lagged behind. The education press, as had been typical for the past decade, had very few references to the topic (Molnar, 2004).

An example of sponsorship activities during the time period was a scholarship program funded by the Coca Cola Scholars Foundation. One student receiving benefits from the program was Nicholas Garcia of Streamwood High School in Illinois, who won a \$4000.00 dollar scholarship (Ter Maat, 2004). Another major activity during this period was a Hispanic rock tour sponsored by McDonalds USA. McDonalds, along with secondary sponsor Coca Cola sponsored the LoMcXimo de la Musica, featuring popular Hispanic rock groups. The proceeds of the tour went to the Ronald McDonald House Charities/Hispanic American Commitment to Education Resources Scholarship Program. Proceeds from the tour provided scholarships to college bound Hispanic high school seniors. The tour, which culminated in a Telemundo television special, was said to cost McDonalds about four million dollars. Cobo (2004) of Billboard magazine stated that the male-driven Hispanic tour was “teaming education with testosterone”, in her article on the tour. Although Hispanic rock tours were not a new thing, at the time, this event was unique since it specifically targeted young Hispanic males (Cobo, 2004).

Years 2004-2005 saw references to the sponsorship of school programs and activities rise again, by about 14% (Molnar, 2006, Molnar & Garcia, 2005,). Molnar and Garcia cite an example of corporate sponsors attempting to integrate popular entertainment with product marketing, as applied to the youth market. Molnar and Garcia explain that:

NBC, Campbell's Soup, and Scholastic teamed up to promote NBC's dramatic series "American Dreams" by sponsoring an essay contest—with a \$100,000 scholarship as first prize—for high school students, coupled with a Scholastic curriculum on the essay topic: "How does your American dream compare to that of your parents?"(Molnar & Garcia, 2005, page ii)

Molnar and Garcia further suggest that the implementation of No Child Left Behind (NCLB) legislation has spurred the overall growth of schoolhouse commercialism, as schools need money and corporations recognize the potential of the youth market (Molnar & Garcia, 2005).

References to the sponsorship of school programs and activities rose again during the 2005-2006 time period, however the distribution changed significantly. That is, the number of references in the popular press decreased by more than half while references in the business and advertising/marketing press rose five-fold. While the general population seemed to be less interested, corporate interests during this period seemed stronger than ever (Molnar, 2006).

It was not only big business that sought out corporate/educational partnership during this period. School administrators, faced with mounting pressures to do more with less, were active in seeking out business partners. For example:

Lacey's Spring Elementary School Principal Jeff McLemore is excited about finally luring a corporate sponsor. He has tried to do this for six years. Dave Adomyetz, the company's sales manager, told him that Rogers Group adopted the school and will become a partner in financing projects. (Thomas, 2005, page 1, para 6).

The Rogers Group was in the process of opening a new seven million dollar quarry facility in the area, as they faced mixed reactions from the local townsfolk (Thomas, 2005).

The CERU had utilized the same research methodology for the first nine annual reports. Beginning with their 10th Annual Report on Schoolhouse Commercialism Trends, The CERU apparently abandoned their previous methodology of tracking school commercialism quantitatively, through the process of quantifying references to various activities in the popular, business, advertising/marketing, and education press (Molnar & Boninger, 2007).

During the 2006-2007 time period, sponsorship of school programs and activities continued throughout the country. On one interesting occasion, educators spoke out against and prevented a corporate donation of several thousand DVDs to the nation's schools. The producers of former Vice President Al Gore's film on global warming offered to make 50,000 free DVDs for the National Science Teacher Association (NSTA). In their rejection of the offer the NSTA indicated that they did not want to be

involved in a political issue and found the DVDs to be of little value. Another interesting reason they cited for the rejection was that it would place "unnecessary risk upon the [NSTA] capital campaign, especially certain targeted supporters" (para. 4). These "targeted supporters" turned out to be Exxon Mobil, who has given the NSTA over six million dollars since 1996 (David, 2006).

The 2007-2009 time period saw commercial enterprises continue to be engaged actively in the sponsorship of school programs and activities. Corporations, especially the large soft drink manufacturers, worked to achieve a "socially responsible" image, amid the many references to nutritional concerns and the spread of childhood obesity (Molnar, Boninger, Wilkinson, & Fogarty, 2008).

Incentive Programs

Incentive programs, for the purpose of this study, are programs in which corporations provide goods, services, or money when students, parents or faculty members engage in a specific activity. During the 1990-1997 period, references to this type of program varied annually. Molnar (1998) found that when comparing the 1990 statistics to those of 1997, the overall references to this activity declined slightly although the period from 1994-1997 showed a 28% increase in overall citations in comparison to the four-year period from 1990-1993 (Molnar, 2008).

One example of a prominent incentive program that operated during the 1990s was Campbell's Labels for Education Program, an incentive program which began in 1973 (Molnar, 1998). This program, which is still in existence, allows schools to earn educational products for purchases of Campbell's brand products. Campbell's indicates that they currently have over 80,000 schools registered for the program. They claim to

have provided more than 100 million dollars in merchandise to schools across the country, since the program began (Campbell's, 2010). This program generates significant resources for schools, in the form of educational supplies and in addition to playground balls and DVD's, to name a few, has even been utilized to earn high dollar items like computers and vehicles. According to Hays (1998), for example:

Then there's the 15-passenger van with automatic transmission and power brakes, which requires almost 1.1 million. Let's see, at 59 cents a can for soup, that would mean more than \$649,000 in Campbell's sales to get the van, or \$131,747 in sales to get the computer. (Hays, 1998, p.3)

Incentive programs in the 1990s did more than just help corporations increase sales; they also shaped the type of sales that were made and which companies' products were purchased. For example, General Mills, the large cereal producer, was successful in gaining some of the business revenue that Kellogg's and Post were enjoying. Boston Globe reporter Kate Zernike indicated in her article that:

General Mills has managed to switch thousands of Special K eaters over to marshmallow-laced Lucky Charms by giving cash to students. Never before has business so aggressively targeted the nation's schoolchildren, a captive market of 43 million kids packing \$100 billion in buying power. (Zernike, 1997, page 1, para 3)

Zernike went on to explain that the change was a result of the fifteen cent incentive, paid to participating schools, on the purchase of the cereal. The average number of box tops, collected during the promotion, was 117 per student (Zernike, 1997).

Molnar explains (1998) that not all incentive programs generate cash or equipment. One of the premier school incentive programs occurring in the 1990s, as well as today, was the Book It program sponsored by Pizza Hut. Students whose teachers participate in the program earn free pizza, provided they meet certain reading goals. The program also rewards classes in which every child has met the reading goals with pizza parties (Molnar, 1998). Even as early as 1995, the Book It program involved a large number of students. Hawkins (1995) reports:

Annual enrollment in Pizza Hut's "Book It!" has mushroomed from 200,000 students to more than 22 million since its inception a decade ago. Teachers say it's not surprising to find schoolchildren going to class yawning and bleary-eyed from rising early to cram in the final few books necessary to win a free personal pan pizza.(Hawkins, 1995, page 1, para 6)

Pizza Hut's Book It program has recently reached its twenty-fifth anniversary. The Book It program is open to students in Kindergarten through Sixth grade, through their participating schools. While not available internationally, the Book It program, which runs March through October of each year, is available in the United States, Canada, and in Puerto Rico (Pizza Hut, 2010).

The Book It program has enjoyed the endorsement of many well-respected private and government educational groups. Among the agencies cited as "Program Partners" by Pizza Hut are: Reading is Fundamental, the National Council of Teachers of English, the National Education Association, the National School Boards Association, National Council of La Raza, the National Association of Elementary School Principals, the National Alliance of Black School Educators, the International Reading Association, the

American Federation of Teachers, First Book, Center for the Book-Library of Congress, the National School Public Relations Association, the Organization for Rehabilitation Through Training (ORT) America, the U.S. Department of Education, the National Catholic Education Association, the National Association of Secondary School Principals, the National Association of State Boards of Education, the American Association of School Administrators, and the American Library Association (Pizza Hut, 2010).

During the 1997-1999 time period, incentive programs continued to flourish. Both Campbell's and Pizza Hut continued to expend their successful programs as the practice of incentive programs saw a 15% increase in references in the various presses (Molnar 1999).

Molnar classifies incentive programs as a type of "cause-related marketing." Cause-related marketing (CRM) embraces a marketing philosophy in which corporations "seek to do well by doing good", according to Elliott (2009). Elliott states that this type of marketing, also known as "cause marketing" is one of the most popular marketing tactics currently in use (Elliott, 2009). Hoek and Gendall (2008) contend that CRM is a popular marketing strategy but argue that research on the effectiveness of CRM has been flawed due to the assumption of a "a high level of consumer involvement, which may be incompatible with many of the brands using CRM and the circumstances in which these are purchased" (p. 285).

The 1998-2000 time frame saw the largest increase in references to incentive programs since 1990, rising by 81%. As the CERU added the "Fundraising" Category with their Third Annual Report, references to incentive programs, from that point on,

only included incentive programs designed to influence student behavior, while those intended to generate money were accounted for in the “Fundraising” category (Molnar & Morales, 2000).

Overall references to incentive programs during the 2000-2001 school year remained unchanged, although the decline of citations in the popular press were offset by rises in the business, marketing/advertising, and education presses. Large corporate incentives programs, such as Pizza Hut’s Book It continued to enjoy widespread success and acceptance. (Molnar & Reaves, 2001).

The following school year saw references to incentive programs decline substantially in all press categories except for “educational”, which rose by two references. The category of incentive programs represented only about 4% of the entire population of tracked references to schoolhouse commercialism (Molnar, 2002).

The 2002-2003 school year saw a reversal of the previous year’s decline in references to incentive programs, rising by 87% (Molnar, 2004). Despite the continued success of the mega-corporations with incentive programs, smaller businesses recognized the potential of CRM, implementing programs at local levels. For example, Citizens Bank sponsored its "Expressions of Freedom" writing contest, in which entrants from the Pittsburgh area were asked to prepare a thirty-second public service announcement for Martin Luther King Jr.’s *I Have a Dream* speech. For their efforts, students won all-expense paid trips to Gettysburg, at the middle and high school levels, and one hundred dollar savings bonds at the elementary level (Students chosen, 2003).

Despite the huge increase in incentive program press references during the 2002-2003 school year, the 2003-2004 time period exhibited virtually no change, with a mere .8% drop in press references (Molnar, 2004).

Capitalizing on student interests, Los Angeles County Probation Department created an incentive program which quickly spread across the county. In order to promote student reading, an incentive program centered on J.R.R. Tolkien's popular *Lord of the Rings* Trilogy. For the price of reading the third book of the Tolkien trilogy, students received a delightful prize.

About 12,000 young scholars, ranging from fifth-graders to high school seniors, walked on a red carpet into the 20-screen AMC movie house over a three-day period recently. They got a day off from classes to see a hot film before its release date: "The Lord of the Rings: The Return of the King." (Merl, 2003, para 2)

The program, called Operation Read, was funded primarily by corporate sponsors including Hyundai, Air Tahiti Nui, New Line Cinema, and American Multi Cinema (AMC) Incorporated (Merl, 2003).

The 8th Annual Report on Schoolhouse Commercialism Trends indicates that NCLB has "created a context in which incentive programs may be particularly enticing for schools seeking to boost those test scores" (p. iv). NCLB has considered student attendance an important factor in providing a proper education and this has led to incentive programs designed to promote good attendance (Molnar & Garcia, 2005).

One example of such a program was implemented at Chelsea High School in Chelsea, Massachusetts. Students were paid twenty-five dollars per quarter for perfect

attendance. Paid at graduation, students could earn five hundred dollars by the end of their high school careers. While the program was funded by private donations, it set the stage for subsequent public funding of such programs (“Money for Nothing”, 2005).

During the 2005-2006 time frame, references to incentive programs more than doubled, in overall press reports. Curiously, the education press had no mention of incentive programs whatsoever; while references skyrocketed in both business and advertising press venues (Molnar, 2006).

Dembowski (2005) describes an incentive-based fundraising program she organized to promote literacy and raise funds for a library program. In her model, students were provided incentives, such as trophies, medals, gift certificates, and candy for getting monetary pledges from family and friends. Pledge amounts were based upon the amount of student reading that took place. Due to the ages of some of the children involved, students in grade Kindergarten through second grade could read themselves or have someone else read to them (Dembowski, 2005).

Pizza Hut continued to lead corporate America in the school-based incentive programs category. Despite the continued success of the program, they were not without critics (Molnar & Boninger, 2007). Susan Linn, Director of the Campaign for a Commercial-Free Childhood stated that the program “promotes bad eating habits, uses schools to market a corporate product directly to students, and is educationally counterproductive by undermining their interest in reading” (para.1). Citing nutrition statistics and referencing issues like childhood obesity, Linn leads a campaign to have Book It removed from the schools. Furthermore, she feels that the program, which rewards students for reading, causes students to avoid reading longer and harder books, in

favor of reading shorter ones, in order to have a higher total of books read thereby maximizing their rewards (CCFC takes, 2007).

Commercial activities during the past decade have not been confined to the United States. The CERU Eleventh Annual Report of Schoolhouse Commercialism Trends describes a variety of incentive programs operated by Tesco, the largest grocery company in Britain and Ireland. They indicate that Tesco is the British leader in school incentive programs and has expanded into Asia and North America (Molnar et al., 2008). In response to programs like that run by Tesco, the Irish National Teachers' Organisation has opposed the use of "proof-of-purchase" incentive programs in the schools. Their policy proposal indicates, "schools should be free from proof of purchase incentive schemes." They oppose the use of "voucher collection boxes, target charts, promotional posters, and letters of appeal for vouchers" (Irish National, 2007, page 3), as forms of unacceptable advertising in the schools.

The 2008-2009 school year realized a continuation of several incentive programs in the schools. According to New York Times reporter Jennifer Medina (2008), leading the way in this approach is the New York City School System.

New York City, with the largest public school system in the country, is in the forefront of this movement, with more than 200 schools experimenting with one incentive or another. In more than a dozen schools, students, teachers and principals are all eligible for extra money, based on students' performance on standardized tests. (Medina, 2008, para. 4)

Cash incentives go to students, teachers, and principals, in a program where excellent performance on standardized tests is rewarded. The program, supported by

Mayor Michael Bloomberg, handed out over a half-million dollars, as of March, during the 2008 school year (Medina, 2008).

Appropriation of Space

Under this category, schools allocate space for corporate advertising in such places as scoreboards, textbooks, bulletin boards, rooftops, and other visible areas for the purpose of displaying corporate logos or advertising (Molnar & Reaves, 2001).

During the 1990-1997 time period, references to appropriation of space declined slightly, overall with the majority of citations occurring in the advertising/marketing press (Molnar, 1998). Molnar argues that the appropriation of space in schools is attractive partly due to the lack of “clutter”, a term they use to represent oversaturation of an area with advertising. As most public areas have already been used for advertising, schools, for the most part, are free of competing advertising. This makes school space desirable to corporations seeking to maximize the effectiveness of their advertising dollars. In addition to this, appropriation of school space allows marketers to target students who have money to spend (Molnar, 1998).

An example of appropriation of space activities during the 1990-1997 time frame is the success enjoyed by entrepreneurs Steve Shulman and Michael Yanoff. Wanting to raise enough money to buy themselves car phones, Shulman and Yanoff started Cover Concepts, a company that sells advertising on book covers, which are distributed to schools for free. Their success is due, in part, to school policies requiring textbooks to be covered. The schools realize the benefit of the free covers and protection of the significant textbook investment. Although they started small the company had four-

million dollars in sales in 1994, selling advertising to corporations like Gillette, Kellogg, McDonalds, Lego, and Nike (Hise, 1995).

Press references to appropriation of space activities increased by 9% from 1997 to 1999, ranking fifth among the categories of schoolhouse commercialism (Molnar, 1999) while the period from 1998 to 2000 saw references to this category rise 73% overall, increasing in all presses except the educational press, in which references declined to only a single mention (Molnar & Morales, 2000).

During this period, Bellsouth Mobility, among others, attempted to utilize the buses in school transportation systems as an avenue for their advertising and marketing. They proposed to provide cell phones, for no cost, to bus drivers in return for advertising posters to be mounted on the sides of school buses (Branch, 2000).

While the appropriation of space category of schoolhouse commercialism had risen consistently since the early 1990s, the 2000-2001 school year witnessed the largest increase in that category to that point, rising in the popular, business, advertising/marketing, and education presses for a 38% overall increase (Molnar & Reaves, 2001).

An example of an unsuccessful attempt at the appropriation of space involved the attempts of Philip Morris, the large tobacco manufacturer, to utilize free book covers to sponsor a “Think. Don’t Smoke”, anti-youth smoking message. The book covers, of which fifteen million were distributed, were criticized by educators across the nation for having a covert pro-smoking message. The covers, once applied to a textbook, resembled a pack of cigarettes. While educators across the nation disagreed, a Philip Morris spokesman contended that their intentions were honorable and the company had merely

intended to send a “don’t smoke” message to students (“Blown Cover”, 2000, Schools denounce, 2001).

References to appropriation of space declined significantly from 2001 to 2002. The reduction, during that time was 62%, although the category has consistently risen since the 1990s. Many references during this time frame were results of press attention to the issue of “naming rights” agreements between schools and their corporate partners (Molnar, 2002).

While corporations have sought out advertising space for some time, a trend emerged that allowed corporations to gain some marketing advantages without the practice of putting their logos directly into the public schools. The America’s Schools Program (ASP) partners with schools to put their “star” logo prominently in the schools. Corporations then achieve marketing goals as they identify their products as being “officially licensed” by the ASP. Schools are given a portion of the proceeds from product sales without allowing any particular type of branding or product endorsements directly in the school buildings. While the funds generated are not enough to fund a major construction project, it can be a significant source of revenue to bolster funding shortfalls (Mc Kay, 2001).

Despite the significant drop in publication references from 2001 to 2002, category citations in the appropriation of space category almost tripled during the 2002 to 2003 time frame (Molnar, 2003).

Nevius contends that “name-rights war is over, and the big money has won”, as corporate “naming” rights have become commonplace and are generally accepted by the public. He contends that students are used to corporate advertising methods and can

“handle it.” He further suggests that since schools are not being adequately funded, they must seek out corporate sources of revenue (Nevius, 2003).

Molnar reports that appropriation of space activities, while still heavily incorporating naming rights programs and school bus advertisements, have begun to include programs that are increasingly targeting younger students, using familiar childrens’ characters such as the Care Bears (Molnar.2004). The Care Bears, which are licensed by American Greetings, were incorporated into a program through Youth Marketing International intended to spark the interest of children ages three through seven years old (Hays, 2003). The Seventh Annual CERU Report on Schoolhouse Commercialism Trends indicates that references to appropriation of space rose 87% between the 2002-2003 and the 2003-2004 school years. The cumulative growth of this category rose 394% from 1990, when tracking began, to 2004 (Molnar, 2004).

During the 2004-2005 school year, the appropriation of space category represented approximately 6% of all categories of schoolhouse commercialism references tracked by the CERU, although the category declined from the previous year. The popular press category was the most significant with advertising/marketing and business press references following. There were no citations in the educational press. Within the category, “naming rights” increased, where which corporations made tax deductible payments to schools for buildings and maintenance. These payments were tax deductible for the corporations (Molnar & Garcia, 2005).

One example of the naming rights arrangements was when George Mason High School in Falls Church, VA, accepted a fifty thousand dollar sum from a local automobile dealership for a five-year contract to name the school football stadium after the

dealership. The deal for the Moore Cadillac Stadium was struck after the school was unable to fund improvements to the stadium lighting system (What's in a Name, 2004). Deals like this were struck across the nation in varying degrees. Although the George Mason contract was certainly significant for the school, it was dwarfed by other, more lucrative agreements made by other corporations. For example, Titus Sports Marketing was able to negotiate a twelve-year agreement for “upgrading a high school stadium, parking, concessions and restrooms” (p. 74). This agreement was for \$1.92 million dollars (Overton, 2005).

The 2005-2006 time period saw appropriation of space references decline once again, although the reasons for this could not be explained in the CERU's Ninth Annual Report on Schoolhouse Commercialism Trends. Molnar suggested a possible explanation, the notion that “the sporadic, reported opposition may be a harbinger of more widespread discomfort with the practice” (Molnar, 2006, p. 37, para 1) although he admits that there are insufficient data to substantiate this theory. Naming rights agreements and scoreboard advertising continued to be common occurrences and school bus advertising became another marketing media available in certain school districts (Molnar, 2006).

During the 2005-2006 school year, the Ypsilanti Public Schools of Michigan aligned with InSight Media to 11 inch by 25 inch advertisements above bus windows. At that time, revenue from the alliance had not been extensive, generating only around two thousand dollars in revenue, at the time. Advertisements placed in the buses were first screened by a “content review board” for appropriateness, prior to being placed (Butler, 2007).

Development in the appropriation of space arena, during the 2006-2007 school year continued to include incidents of print advertisements but also included the emergence of Bus Radio, a company that place radio type advertising on school buses, (Molnar, 2007).

Bus Radio, a Needham, Massachusetts based corporation, launched a new type of bus advertising in October, 2006. They installed equipment in on 800 school buses in eleven states, designed to pipe audio advertising directly to students as they made there way to and from school. In turn, school systems who participated received a portion of the revenue generated from the advertisements. Although the advertising was screened for age and content appropriateness, the program was not without critics, who claimed the radio broadcasts posed a safety hazard, as the broadcasts created a distraction for drivers. Ironically, a survey of Massachusetts bus drivers who had the radio advertising on their buses indicated that the programs entertained the students and actually caused the noise level to be lower than it had without the broadcasts (Maxwell, 2006).

As appropriation of space activities continued during the 2007-2008 school year, Bus Radio expanded its business extensively. By July of 2008, Bus Radio, which required an exclusive five-year contract, was reaching in excess of 1.5 million listeners, as it played on over fourteen thousand school buses (Molnar, et al., 2008).

Bus Radio was not the only corporation who utilized school buses as marketing opportunities during the 2008-2009 time period. The Sante Fe, New Mexico school system partnered with Alpha Media to place printed bus advertising on its school buses. Under their agreement, the school system earned a substantial 50% of the revenue which was generated (Molnar, et al., 2009).

One of the most attention gathering appropriation of space techniques during the late 1990s was that employed by a classroom teacher who saw an opportunity to solve a problem. While he can't match the large corporations, in terms of cash revenue, Tom Farber, a California high school teacher, attempted to eek out his share of the market as he began selling advertisements on his classroom tests. Farber attempted to offset budget cuts, after the printing requirements for his classes exceed the printing limits placed upon him by his school. The going rate for Farber's ads were "\$10 for a quiz, \$20 for a chapter test, \$30 for a semester final" (Toppo & Kornblum, 2008, para 2) who indicated that he was not trying to make a profit but simply wanted his students to have the materials he felt they deserved.

Sponsored Educational Materials (SEMs)

The category of sponsored educational materials includes curriculum materials sponsored, in whole or in part, by corporations and distributed to the public schools. These items are intended to suggest themes, convey messages, promote products or services, or otherwise support corporate objectives while also providing benefits to the schools.

The use of sponsored educational material has continued for a long period of time. Incidents of usage of sponsored educational materials can be traced back as far as 1890. Despite the longevity of such programs, references in the popular, advertising/marketing, business, and educational press were not prevalent during the 1990 through 1994 period. A significant rise in references occurred, however between 1994 and 1997. The rise was relatively proportional in all press categories, although the representation within the educational press is noticeably lower than in the others (Molnar, 1998).

An article in Education week reports that Consumers Union, the publisher of Consumer Report, was highly critical of sponsored educational materials, indicating that such materials were often biased and misleading (Walsh, 1995).

Gerhardt, in her editorial, asks questions regarding tax breaks given to corporations for the money they spend sponsoring educational materials, especially how the tax breaks affect the overall tax base and subsequent government funding of public schools. She leaves the questions, however, unanswered, stating, “No agency seems to know the answer”(Gerhardt, 1995, p. 4, para 2) and further indicates that study is needed in this area.

The time period from 1997 through 1999 saw a decline in references to sponsored educational materials, despite a surge between 1996 and 1997. The category was the least referenced of all traced categories of schoolhouse commercialism. Despite this reduction in references there are still many cases of sponsored educational materials in use (Molnar, 1999).

The period from school years 1998-1999 to 1999-2000 saw an 86% increase in references to sponsored educational material. Molnar and Morales (2000) indicate that sponsored educational materials which they referred to as SEMs, are “a mature form of school commercialism” (Molnar & Morales, 2000, p. 16), accounting for previously recorded low press references. They suggest that the 1998-2000 increase may represent an increased public awareness of the materials used in the schools (Molnar & Morales, 2000).

The CERU’s Fourth Annual Report on Trends in Schoolhouse Commercialism once again places SEMs in the smallest category of the tracked categories of schoolhouse

commercialism, at a mere 2% in all press sources, with media coverage declining once again (Molnar & Reaves, 2001).

References to SEM's continued to change periodically, although this category steadily remained the smallest one. "The 2002-03 report showed a four-fold increase in references to such materials – from 75 references in the 2001-2002 report to 310 in the 2002-2003 report – a 313% increase" (Molnar, 2003, p. 31).

The following school year, 2003-2004, saw references to SEMs fall once again followed by a 6.3% increase during the 2004-2005 school year. Types of corporations producing SEMs during the early part of the decade include grocery companies, manufacturers of All Terrain Vehicles, pharmaceutical companies, real estate companies, telecommunication companies, and agencies representing agriculture, to name a few. Not all corporations attempted to directly tie their products or services to the learning materials, as was the case when Sprint, the telecommunication company sponsored an anti-bullying program with multi-media materials provided to a number of schools (Molnar, 2004, Molnar & Garcia, 2005).

While a number of examples of SEMs can be found, they are not dominated by a few large corporations and seem to be very diverse in both nature and approach. An example of typical SEM utilization incorporated the promotion of milk consumption by children. Following the American Academy of Pediatrics (AAP) report suggesting that children should consume four servings of dairy products daily, rather the previously recommended three servings, the National Dairy Council developed a variety of educational materials to educate students on the benefits of milk. Among these were *Little D's Nutrition Expedition*TM, a 10-activity program for 2nd grade", *Arianna's*

*Nutrition Expedition*TM, an eight-activity program for 4th grade”, *The Nutrition Education Catalog*, and an index of downloadable free resources for all age groups (In the Classroom, 2006).

The use of SEM’s although having existed for many years, seems a much less significant concern to the public than all other types of schoolhouse commercialism. Even despite rises in some years, SEM’s continued to represent only a small fraction of cited commercialism reports, representing only about 3% by the 2005-2006 school year (Molnar, 2006). The lack of attention to this category is further documented in the responses to monitor or control the use of SEMs. Results of a survey conducted in Canada in 2005 indicated that only 12.3% of schools reported having policies applying to the use of corporate sponsored materials (Molnar, 2006).

The time period from 2006 to the present represented much of what had continually occurred regarding the use of SEMs in the public schools. All sorts of corporations, from banks to entertainment companies sponsored educational materials, some related to their products and others addressing social concerns (Molnar & Boninger, 2007, Molnar et al., 2008, Molnar et al., 2009).

A good example of a current program representing the SEMs category that is currently in use is the “Feed the Pig for Tweens” program, sponsored by the American Institute of Certified Public Accountants (AICPA) and the Ad Council. This is a “hands-on financial literacy program” that is designed for 4th through 6th grade students. Provided materials include both downloadable print-based materials for teachers and an online game called The Great Piglet Challenge. The program was “developed by JMH Education, a New York-based education marketing company, with input from its Teacher

Advisory Board and in cooperation with the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics.” (JMH Education, 2008, para 4) The program is designed to be implemented into the regular school mathematics programs and is designed to reinforce common skills like maintaining a checkbook.

Electronic Marketing

While companies have been sponsoring educational materials for more than two hundred years, electronic marketing, in comparison, is a relatively new strategy utilized for the mutual benefit of both schools and corporations. Media within this category includes, television, radio, Internet communications, portable electronic devices, and wireless communication devices. Corporations provide broadcasts, equipment, software, and other sources of electronic media in exchange for the opportunity to tap into the youth market through the schools (Molnar, 1998).

References to electronic marketing remained relatively consistent in all press categories from 1990 through 1997, except for a noticeable increase during the 1991-1992 period, in which a increased was identified in both the popular and advertising/marketing press. Following this period, steady declines in references occurred in both the popular and in the advertising/marketing press until the 1996-1997 school year when references rose in all categories except in the education press. There was a conspicuous lack of mention in the education press, which in the greatest year had only four references to electronic marketing. Molnar noted that the bulk of the references during though 1990 to 1997 time frame centered on Channel One, a leader in electronic marketing in schools (Molnar, 1998).

Channel One, the mainstay of Whittle Communications, has been the subject of much controversy, as it has grown steadily through the public school systems in the country. Channel One typically broadcasts a daily twelve-minute program into the schools. The program consists of ten minutes of current events and stories appropriate for young listeners, while the remaining two minutes is dedicated to commercials. Channel One provides televisions monitors, satellite dish hardware and programming to the schools but also gains a firm commitment from school leaders that they will get the exposure they seek. As part of the contract, schools must show the Channel One broadcasts “on 92% of school days.” A study conducted at a comprehensive high school indicated that although the broadcasts took place, many teachers did not incorporate them directly into the curriculum. The teachers that did use Channel One as a major teaching activity were social studies teachers. Other teachers, who did not actively incorporate Channel One into their classes, indicated that the material simply didn’t fit with the classroom curriculum (Celano & Neuman, 1995).

While Whittle Communications has never claimed to be conducting operations solely from a philanthropic point of view, they have offered evidence supporting the effectiveness of their programs, in attempts to dissuade opponents of this form of commercialism in the schools. Whittle claimed that on “test of current world and national affairs, students who had watched Channel one got 53% correct while the control group got 36% correct.” (Rudinow, 1989, p. 71) Rudinow indicates that his attempts to get copies of these studies were met with evasive responses and he cites a study by the Columbia Journalism Review that found scores between viewers and non-viewers of Channel One to be identical (Rudinow, 1989).

During the period from the 1997-1998 to the 1998-1999 school years, references to electronic marketing in schools rose 58%, showing the greatest increase among all categories of schoolhouse commercialism. Channel One continued to lead the way in electronic marketing and was sold to Primedia, a media conglomerate who added a “companion web site” to go along with the regular Channel One programming. Although they led in the video-based segment of the electronic market within schools, Star Broadcasting was producing audio segments for use in hallways and common areas such as cafeterias (Molnar, 1999).

During the 1999-2000 school year, references to electronic marketing reported by the CERU rose 16% from the preceding school year overall, rising in all press categories except in the popular press where a minimal decline was witnessed. Molnar indicated that although “electronic marketing is maturing”, within the realm of schoolhouse commercialism it is still the subject of criticism (Molnar & Morales, 2000).

A significant newcomer to the electronic marketing field during the 1990s was Zap Me!, a corporation that provided free computer labs and Internet service to schools. The Internet sessions were interspersed with advertising, as might have been expected. The most significant concerns, however, seemed not to be only the on-screen advertising, but instead the demographic data that was being collected on the students using the free computers. While names, addresses, and phone numbers on the students were not collected, the ZapMe! Corporation received the age and gender of the using students (Zehr, 2000).

Continual pressure from opponents of ZapMe!, coupled with drops in their stock prices eventually forced ZapMe! to cease the distribution of the free computer labs to

schools. A corporate restructuring of ZapMe! ultimately resulted in their shift in focus from the educational to the business market. (ZapMe! discontinues, 2000).

Rises in references to electronic marketing, declined sharply during the 2000-2001 school year, following the previous years increase. Still, electronic marketing remained a significant force, ranking third among references to all types of schoolhouse commercialism (Molnar & Reaves, 2001). Although the reasons were not clear, electronic marketing references declined once again during the 2001-2002 school year, this time by 24%. The most substantial decline was in the popular press (Molnar, 2002). Rebounding slightly, electronic marketing references rose by 11% during the 2002-2003 time period (Molnar, 2003).

Channel One continued to lead in electronic marketing within schools during 2004 when it reached over 350,000 classrooms in almost 12,000 schools. During 2004, Channel One experienced advertising gains from movies, television networks and military recruiting but saw drops in advertising from food and beverage manufacturers (Ads Fall, 2004).

Continuing to hold a significant share of schoolhouse commercialism activities, electronic marketing references rose again during the 2003-2004 school year, increasing by 24%. References to electronic marketing, to this point had risen and fallen in various years, although the overall increase between 1990 and 2004 was 9%.

While Channel One continued to reign as king in the school electronic marketing domain, other corporations also were the subjects of criticism regarding their electronic interactions with children. Several consumer protection groups asked the Federal Trade Commission to investigate the practices of Amazon.com Incorporated for violations of

the 1998 Children's Online Protection Privacy Act (COPPA). The basis for their complaints was that Amazon routinely collects and disseminates children's personal information without parents' ability to review and consent to such release. Borja, cited Kathryn Montgomery, the president of the Center for Media Education as stating "Schools are a key point of access to the Web, and educators need to educate their students about their roles and rights as [online] consumers." (Borja, 2003, p.4) Representative from Amazon stated that since their business targets adult customers, they are not subject to COPPA (Borja, 2003).

Electronic marketing references changed insignificantly from 2003 to 2006 in the CERU annual reports. There was a decline in popular press references coupled with a surge in business and advertising/marketing presses. The topic of electronic marketing continued to be largely ignored in the education press. (Molnar & Garcia, 2005, Molnar, 2006).

Primedia owned Channel One began to experience financial concerns due to a drop in advertising revenue in 2004. Primedia cited advertisers' concerns over student obesity issues as a major factor in the advertising decline, although Channel One did pick up some new advertisers during the year (Ads Fall, 2004; Declines continue, 2005).

Plagued with ongoing criticism of their commercialization efforts in public schools, coupled with dwindling profits, Primedia sold Channel One to Alloy Media and Marketing in 2007 for what was reported to be in the range of ten million dollars. Primedia had already put Channel One as a discontinued operation due to lack of profitability (Primedia sells, 2007)

The 2007-2008 school year saw some changes in Channel One programming, under its new owner, Alloy Media and Marketing. Catering to the demands of activists trying to force commercialism from the schools, Alloy cut out advertising of candy, soda, snacks, and other foods of limited nutritional value. With the cuts in these came a cut in viewers from around 10 million to 6 million students watching daily. Although Alloy has drawn itself away from the candy and cola dollars of its predecessor, it is continuing to strive toward developing its client list. Frazier lists Channel One clients including “New Line Cinema, Warner Home Video, Sony Pictures, U.S. Marine Corps., U.S. Navy, U.S. Army, the Knight Foundation, Warner Brothers Studios, and video-game marketers Nexon and Activision.” (Frazier, 2007, para 5) Despite the smaller audience and shortened client list, Alloy embarked on a 12 million dollar digital upgrade plan.

The most recent CERU report focuses on electronic marketing, which they now call “digital marketing.” A practice that had gained little attention until their most recent report was the use of advertising within computer-based learning games (Molnar et al., 2009).

As teachers struggle to use all tools available to catch and maintain student interest, games have typically been a good teaching method. Some feel that the minimal distractions caused by intermittent advertising do not outweigh the educational benefit of using ad laced computer games in the classrooms. In their web site review, authors from the School Library Journal referring to Pearson’s FunBrain Language Arts Games, suggest “while this site has great games, it also occasionally has pop-up ads, so users will want to turn on pop-up blocking software if they have it” (Mandell & Minkel, 2004, p. 61).

While consumer advocates continue to cast disparaging remarks towards any commercialization in schools whatsoever, others see the electronic tools as being worthwhile. Spanning the distance between schools and home, FactMonster, another of Pearson's learning-based web site for students offers struggling youngsters homework help, along with its educational games. The site was praised as "the perfect design for 8- to 12-year-olds: clean and colorful but not too complex. Aside from the usual kid-safe search engine and reference tools, it has a terrific Homework Center, with answers to frequently asked questions and a place to submit inquiries" (Pooley & Pooley, 2001, p. 92).

Sales and Contracts

The youth market is important to businesses as it represents not only current, but also future earnings. McNeal argues that youth marketing takes three distinct categories. The first, the "primary market", represents spending the children make on their own. Next is the "influence market", in which children do not actually make purchases but instead influence their parents or caregivers to buy desired items or services. Lastly is the category of the "future market", where children develop brand loyalty, which translates into a lifetime of income for the fortunate corporation (McNeal, 1998).

Exclusive Agreements

Exclusive agreements, for the purposes of this study, are contracts between schools or school districts and corporations, which give the corporations "exclusive rights" to sell or promote their products or services within the school or district. Schools usually receive a portion of the proceeds of such sales. According to the number of press references reported, exclusive agreements was the most rapidly growing category of

schoolhouse commercialism between 1990 and 1997, increasing 499% during that period with the greatest increase occurring between 1996 and 1997, as soft drink manufacturers and athletic apparel companies led the way in executing exclusive agreements with schools (Molnar, 1998).

“Pouring rights” contracts represent big business for both schools and bottlers. Not surprisingly, contracts are carefully written to insure that bottlers are achieving true exclusivity within the schools where deals are stricken. Hays cites an example of contract wording, from a Pepsi contract with a school shows that the issue is carefully thought out.

Pepsi's products shall be the exclusive carbonated soft drinks, juice and juice-based products, isotonics, ready-to-drink tea, ready-to-drink coffee, bottled water and other nonalcoholic beverage products that may be sold, dispensed or otherwise made available by the district at any of the district's schools and athletic facilities or at district-sponsored events.

(Hays, 1998, p. 3)

Exclusive contracts, such as this, are often entered into for periods of five years or more.

References to exclusive contracts with soft drink companies appeared in the educational press during the late 1990s. Walsh emphasizes the value of these agreements, as he cites some examples across the nation. One of these deals gave a Colorado school district over 8 million dollars over ten years. Bottler expected to sell over 70,000 cases of Coca Cola per year under the agreement. Another example was a Wisconsin district who signed a three year, 1.5 million dollar deal with a local bottler. This agreement included “a \$100,000 signing bonus and a \$515,000 advance on future sales. Other provisions include a \$5,000 teacher of the year award and two paid internships for students” (p. 1).

A third example was a Texas district of 19,000-students that signed a five-year, \$1.95 million deal with the Pepsi-Cola Corporation (Walsh, 1998).

While exclusive cola contracts certainly generated substantial income for participating school districts, they were not without criticism. One such criticism is that students are exposed to commercialism in what should be a more pristine, education only environment. This course of thought can apply to all areas of commercialism in the schools. Another common objection to these agreements stem from the lack of nutritional value that soft drinks contain coupled with the problem of childhood obesity (White, 1999).

Continuing to grow, references to exclusive agreements rose 21% between 1997 and 1999. While previous year references to sports apparel contracts were common, especially those with Nike and Reebok, the majority of the 1997-1999 references were regarding soft drink companies (Molnar, 1999).

Recognizing the financial potential of exclusive contracts with schools, marketing specialists worked with school districts to maximize their earnings. For example, Dan Derosé of DD Marketing used his expertise to help schools strike the most lucrative deals possible with soft drink companies. While school systems were thrilled, bottling companies were not so happy about Derosé's work. Hays explains that "Schools regard him as a font of information. Soft-drink companies, which used to make low-key deals on their terms with local school districts, hate him with a passion. Derosé was described as almost "evangelical" in his zeal in dealings with school systems (Hays, 1999).

The 1999-2000 school experienced the first decline in references to exclusive agreements since 1990, dropping by 16%. While not all school districts engaged in

exclusive contracting with soft drink manufacturers, the share was still significant (Molnar & Morales, 2000). During 2000, school boards sometimes rejected exclusive agreements for a variety of reasons. The Philadelphia School Board struck down a deal that valued at \$43 million dollars. Board members cited “concerns about the nutritional content of Coca-Cola products” (Snyder, 2000, para. 2), while others simply thought they could get “a better deal” than the contract offered.

During the 2000-2001 school year, references to exclusive agreements once again rose, this time by 3%. Part of the reason for the increase was a new policy shift by Coca Cola, who now began to allow “competing drinks such as juice, water, and vitamin-rich products into school vending machines”, (Molnar & Reaves, 2001. p. 7) were the carbonated sodas once were the only available products.

Shifts in Coca Cola’s policy were praised by some who felt that the policy was both welcome, albeit overdue, in terms of the implementation. Along with praise for the shift came a concern that “school boards have become dependent on marketer payments” (School-conduct, 2003, p. 13) in order to finance things such as bands, athletics, and other activities.

References to exclusive contracts rose steadily from 2001 through 2004, according to CERU annual reports, with the majority of the references still dealing with the soft drink contracts that had become such a large part of school funding. Many of the references were popular press reports on issues such as childhood obesity, nutrition, and the impact of soft drink contracts upon the health and welfare of children (Molnar 2002; 2003; 2004).

During the 2004-2005 school year, criticism regarding schoolhouse commercialism was prevalent across the nation. The center of the criticism centered on exclusive contracts and more specifically on those agreements with soft drink manufacturers. The predominate reason for concern was the issue of childhood obesity and the role that soft drink sales played in relation to it. Although criticism of schoolhouse commercialism was focused on exclusive agreements, references to the category only made up 6.1% of the total references to schoolhouse commercialism (Molnar & Garcia, 2005).

Despite ongoing criticism, a 2004 Government Accountability Office (GAO) report on commercial activities found that not much had changed regarding the exclusive contracting that they had reported on four years earlier. The General Accounting Office had a name change in July of 2004 and was subsequently called the Government Accountability Office (Barr, 2004). Although the official name of the agency was changed, the acronym GAO has been used continually to represent the agency. A review of legislation by the GAO indicated that few states had passed laws regarding exclusive contracts or the sale of soft drinks in schools. As of 2004 Arkansas passed legislation prohibiting vending machines in elementary schools. California passed the most comprehensive legislation in this arena, restricting types of beverages sold in elementary, middle, and junior high schools. The California legislation also “restricted school boards and schools from contracting for carbonated beverages and non-nutritious foods,” (p.23) according to the GAO. West Virginia legislation prohibited sales of “candy, soft drinks, chewing gum, or flavored ice bars during the school day,”(p.31) although they permitted

drink sales during breakfast and lunch periods in high schools (General Accounting Office, 2000; Government Accountability Office, 2004).

A number of states passed legislation restricting the time of day that foods and beverages of minimal nutritional value were sold. Among these were Colorado, Connecticut, Florida, Georgia, Illinois, Kentucky, Louisiana, Mississippi, New Jersey, New York, North Carolina, and Virginia. The state of Hawaii enacted legislation that allowed vending machines and concessions, provided they are “operated by the blind or individuals with visual handicaps”, according to the government report (Government Accountability Office, 2004, p.24).

While legislation, at the state level, complimented both the National School Lunch Program and the School Breakfast Program, it varied considerably among the states. A GAO report on School Meal Programs states that the United States Department of Agriculture (USDA), the proponent agency for school meal programs, although not having unlimited authority to regulate the sale of competitive food and beverage items, has tried to influence school policy, through nutritional education (General Accounting Office, 2004).

While rising in the business and advertising/marketing presses, references to exclusive contracts fell significantly in the popular press from the 2004-2005 school year through the 2005-2006 school year. The majority of references during this period centered on the nutritional value arguments against exclusive agreements with soft drink bottlers (Molnar, 2006).

The GAO continued to monitor what are considered “competitive foods”, that is, any foods or beverages not sourced by school lunch program. Their 2005 report indicated

that “nearly seventy-five percent of high schools, sixty-five percent of middle schools, and thirty percent of elementary schools had exclusive beverage contracts” with bottling companies (Government Accountability Office, 2005, p. 15).

Soft drink contracts continued to be the primary source of exclusive agreements during the period between 2006 and 2010. The most significant change during this period was the beverage industries voluntary efforts to limit beverages of low nutritional value in schools (Molnar, 2008; Molnar et al., 2008, Molnar et al., 2009).

Direct Sales and Affinity Programs (DSAPs)

The 1999-2000 school year was the first period in which references to the category of DSAP was tracked by the CERU, therefore comparative data was unavailable for this and previous time periods. This category incorporates a variety of activities such as sales of commercially produced products, collecting labels or receipts for cash redemption, or any other commercial activity in which money is raised for schools, excluding that generated through exclusive contracting (Molnar & Morales, 2000).

One example of a typical DSAP during the 1999-2000 school year was a program sponsored by Tyson Inc, the poultry producers. Parents, grandparents, and community members were asked to cut out and turn in panels from Tyson products to schools, who in turn submitted these to Tyson for cash redemption. The coupons had a cash value of twenty cents each and Tyson then added an additional 20% to the total, which was to be utilized by school cafeterias. It was estimated that a school could earn up to ten thousand dollars per year through this program (Dianis, 2000).

As DSAPs continued to grow alongside advances in technology, attempts were made to merge these two in order to maximize achievement. Various Internet sources

emerged where fundraising could occur as patrons conducted online shopping sprees. Companies such as HighWired.com, SchoolCity.com, Schoolpop.com, and BigChalk.com provided opportunities for schools to raise money as parents and community members shopped from their home computers (Pascopella, 2001).

Although it was the newest category of schoolhouse commercialism, DSAPs emerged as the fourth largest category overall during the 2000-2001 time period, with 12% of the total references. Despite this, references to this type of fundraising actually declined from the previous school year, declining about 24% (Molnar & Reaves, 2001).

An example of a typical DSAP activity is a “scratch and help” program, which was administrated by ABC Fundraising. Cards with fifty scratch-off circles were given to students, who in turn presented these to friends, family members, or neighbors, who were asked to scratch off two circles. The circles, once scratched off, revealed donations ranging from 50 cents to 3 dollars. The donors received a sheet of coupons from program sponsors, such as Pizza Hut, Jiffy Lube, Subway, and others (Newell, 2001).

During the 2001-2002 period, references to the category of DSAPs declined by about 2%, although still remaining the fourth largest of the tracked categories. Declines were seen in all press categories but the popular press citations dropped by the greatest amount (Molnar, 2002).

The following school year, 2002-2003, saw references to DSAPs rise by 17%. Molnar identified two emerging themes during the period. First, that DSAPs were now being conducted to cover operational costs, not simply extracurricular needs. The second theme he identified was that there was a “growing ambivalence ranging to hostility”

(Molnar, 2003, p. 58) from parents and also school officials due to the need for fundraising.

School fundraising gained some celebrity attention as New York City School Chancellor Joel Klein appointed Caroline Kennedy to the new post of Chief Fund Raiser for the district. Although the district was already receiving over \$100 million in donations each year, Klein indicated that he hoped that the appointment of Kennedy would result in an increase (Goodnough, 2002).

The period from 2004 through 2006 saw two successive rises in press references to DSAPs, according to CERU reports. The 2004 report showed a 21% increase while the 2005 report showed a 5.1% increase (Molnar, 2004; Molnar & Garcia, 2005).

The rising popularity of bottled water spurred its entrance into the school fundraising arena, in addition to the traditional candy bar, cookie dough, magazine subscriptions and other product sales. Dick Raddatz of Fundraising.com predicted that bottled water would be the “Next Big Thing” in the school fundraising arena. Walsh reported that as of 2003 school fundraising had become a \$2 billion-a-year industry (Walsh, 2003).

During the period from 2006 to present, DSAPs have continued to be an important practice for schools, which are attempting to generate additional revenue. Despite the popularity of school-based fundraising, in many circles, groups have emerged that seek to eliminate fundraising and schoolhouse commercialism in general (Molnar, 2008, Molnar et al., 2008, Molnar et al., 2009).

Competing Forces Regarding Fundraising

“Fundraising”, in a broad sense, incorporates all of the commercial activities that schools engage in, to supplement traditional sources of revenue. A review of literature clearly shows that opinions vary tremendously on the issues surrounding commercial “fundraising”, as a means of supplementing the budgets of public schools. Commercial corporations have attempted to support schools financially and earn positive public publicity, while still attempting to generate profits. Public schools, attempting to provide excellent programs with less than adequate funding often see commercial fundraising as a source of refuge in a storm of constant cutbacks and unfunded mandates. Practically speaking, both schools and corporations have both benefited, in some ways from commercial fundraising programs. Not surprisingly, however, commercial fundraising in schools, along with schoolhouse commercialism in general, has been both praised and condemned by various groups and individuals.

Support for Fundraising Activities

The most strikingly significant benefit of commercial fundraising in public schools is that it allows for the generation of significant revenue outside of the normal funding channels. Corporations and schools both share in reciprocal benefits, with schools being able to provide things for students that they might not otherwise be able to afford. This is a financial “win-win” situation for the schools, the corporations, the students, and the stakeholders in general. (Di Bona, Chaudhuri, Jean-Baptiste, & Wurzburg, 2003).

Local boards of education are often looked upon with favor, as their districts garner additional income through unconventional channels. Put simply, schools can

improve their services without taxpayers being subject to additional taxation. The avoidance of tax increases, made possible by commercial fundraising revenues, is seen favorably by many community members. Although most would generally agree that the funding of public schools is an important endeavor, taxpayers often fail to consider the true value of overall human capital improvements that are generated through adequate school funding (Burrup, Brimley, & Garfield, 2007).

Schools currently face increasing rigor, in regard to learning standards that must be maintained. Compounding the requirement of increased standards are budget cuts due to government funding shortfalls. Trainor suggests that stable sources of financial support are more critical during tough economic times. He further suggests “when funding seems reduced to a game of chance, you need to change the odds.” (Trainor, 2009, p. 50). This “change”, is possible through the generation of additional revenue. Steps taken to expand non-governmental sources of school funding allow school districts to maintain high educational standards, even in tough economic times (Trainor, 2009).

Schools often realize other, less tangible benefits, as they forge partnerships that spring from commercial fundraising agreements. An example of such is a student leadership program which allows 11th grade students in North Carolina to spend a day each month learning about the economic development of their community, as well as other valuable lessons. According to Terry Holliday, North Carolina’s Superintendent of the Year for 2009, programs such as this would be impossible without the school business partner relationship. One such business partner was Speedball Art Products, who sent a chemist with tools and supplies to teach printmaking to a group of students (Ulmann, 2009).

A survey conducted by Synovate, a Chicago-based research firm, for the Association of Fund-Raising Distributors and Suppliers (AFRDS) found that 76% of the respondents believed that “product fundraising sales are an important financial resource for America’s schools and youth groups.” (AFRDS, 2010, para 3). Interpreting the results of the survey, the Director of the AFRDS stated, “This new research underscores that communities, and parents in particular, recognize that supplemental funding made possible through product fundraisers is necessary for a quality education today” (para. 2). According to the AFRDS, fundraising, through product sales alone, result in over \$1.4 billion per year for schools (AFRDS, 2010).

Opposition to Fundraising Activities

A variety of organizations have emerged to combat what they feel are unacceptable practices of commercialism within the public schools. These consumer advocate groups, while not successful in all of their endeavors, have had some success in changing policy, legislation, and attitudes regarding commercial fundraising in the schools (Molnar, et al., 2009).

One group, which has undertaken the mission of monitoring the schoolhouse commercialism issue, is The Campaign for a Commercial-Free Childhood (CCFC). This Boston based group, founded by Harvard faculty member Susan Linn, attempts to counteract what they view as “the harmful effects of marketing to children” through a variety of methods (Molnar & Boninger, 2007, p. 20). The Campaign for a Commercial-Free Childhood expresses its mission to “reclaim childhood from corporate marketers” (para. 2). The CCFC sees the commercialism as the most significant force that adversely affects children today. Since their founding in 2000, the CCFC has undertaken a variety

of campaigns to reduce the effects of commercialism of children, which they proclaim as successful. The group views commercialism not only as a threat to school effectiveness, but also as a negative force to children and society in general. They describe their views on their web site:

A marketing-driven media culture sells children on behaviors and values driven by the need to promote profit rather than the public good. The commercialization of childhood is the link between many of the most serious problems facing children, and society, today. Childhood obesity, eating disorders, youth violence, sexualization, family stress, underage alcohol and tobacco use, rampant materialism, and the erosion of children's creative play, are all exacerbated by advertising and marketing. When children adopt the values that dominate commercial culture—dependence on the things we buy for life satisfaction, a “me first” attitude, conformity, impulse buying, and unthinking brand loyalty—the health of democracy and sustainability of our planet are threatened. (CCFC A, 2009, para. 2)

The steering committee of the CCFC, which includes health care professionals, is composed mainly of scholars, including Dr. Alex Molnar of the CERU and Dr. Alvin F. Poussaint, “the noted Harvard University Medical School psychiatry professor known for consulting with Bill Cosby” (CCFC B, 2009, para 12) during the production of *The Cosby Show* during the 1980s (CCFC A., 2009; CCFC B., 2009; Roach, 2005).

The CCFC has gathered a variety of statistics regarding commercialism, as it relates to children. They report that corporations nearly doubled their expenditures for

marketing to children between 1992 and 1997, going from \$6.2 billion to \$12 billion within five years. As of 2005, expenditures were estimated at \$15 billion. These vast expenditures are not surprising, considering the potential revenue generated through youth markets. Within the past decade, the spending power of children has grown tremendously, “with those aged 4 to 12 making \$30 billion in purchases in 2002, up from the \$6.1 billion they spent in 1989.” (Roach, 2005, p. 11) Older children and young adults spent even more, where those “12 to 19 spent \$170 billion in 2002, a weekly average of \$101 per teen”, according to CCFC statistics (Roach, 2005, p.11).

Dr. Allen Kanner, a co-founder of the CCFC explains that marketing to children is a problem for several reasons. First, he indicates that products often marketed are harmful, such as junk foods, violent toys and games, and age-inappropriate clothing. Kanner further indicates that modern marketing efforts promote an “overarching materialistic message that penetrates deep into children's psyches”, (Kanner, 2005, p. 11) which inappropriately shapes children’s understanding of the world.

Another major group that is active in tracking schoolhouse commercialism is Commercial Alert; a consumer group that was co-founded by famous consumer advocate Ralph Nader. While they focus on the reducing or eliminating the negative effects of commercialism in general, they have placed a strong emphasis on commercialism in schools. Their mission statement is: “Our mission is to keep the commercial culture within its proper sphere, and to prevent it from exploiting children and subverting the higher values of family, community, environmental integrity and democracy” (Commercial Alert, 2009, para 1).

Still another group that has conducted specific campaigns regarding the issue of commercialism in the public schools is The Center for a New American Dream (CNAD), which was founded in 1997. This group “works with individuals, institutions, communities, and businesses to conserve natural resources, counter the commercialization of our culture, and promote positive changes in the way goods are produced and consumed” (Center for a New American Dream, 2010, para. 2). The mission statement of the Center for a New American Dream explains: “Our mission is to help Americans consume responsibly to protect the environment, enhance quality of life, and promote social justice.” (Center for a New American Dream, 2010, para. 1) While they look at the negative effects of commercialism in several different contexts, especially environmentally, they have taken on schoolhouse commercialism, in part. As an indicator of the importance of the youth market to today’s commercial enterprises, the CNAD cites a huge growth in advertising directed toward children; they claim that:

A quarter century ago, the children’s advertising industry spent a “mere” \$100 million pitching products to kids, mainly through television ads. Today, American companies annually aim \$17 *billion* in advertising dollars at kids, expanding their reach through a variety of mediums from TV to the Internet to school textbooks. (Center for a New American Dream, 2009, para 3)

Not all opposition to commercial fundraising has come from consumer advocate groups. Individuals have also made their voices heard regarding what they feel are inappropriate marketing practices that have invaded schools. A parent in Oregon, for example, initiated civil proceedings against a school district, objecting to the districts

involvement with Channel One. The basis of the suit was that valuable instructional time was being wasted, as students watched commercial laden programming in their classrooms. The parent's attorney argued, during the proceedings, that a full week of instructional time was lost annually, when Channel One programming was utilized within the schools (Ruskin, 2003). After losing the initial decision, the parent, Gary Boyes was again denied by the Oregon Court of Appeals. His subsequent petition for review was denied by the Oregon Supreme Court on August 23, 2005 (Oregon Judicial Department, 2005).

The Study of Conflicting Viewpoints

Despite the prevalence of commercial fundraising in public schools, very little study has been conducted regarding the issue. The CERU's annual reports, which have been written for the past twelve years, have provided the most longstanding look at the issues of commercial fundraising and of schoolhouse commercialism, in general. Despite the CERU Director's involvement in fighting schoolhouse commercialism, the CERU studies are the only nationwide studies that have been conducted over a considerable amount of time. These studies have been cited in several studies conducted on schoolhouse commercialism in specific geographic areas and are even utilized in the official GAO reports. In the most recent of these, an explanation for the difficulty in analyzing marketing to children is presented. Most of the data regarding these marketing issues is proprietary, that is, it belongs to the individual corporations that are conducting the marketing or to research firms, which are seeking their own business relationships. The CERU report suggests that both of these groups may be biased, in regard to providing data on their efforts. Both "corporations and industry associations, wary of the

threat of potential regulation, may tend to understate their ability to tap into the children's market", while marketing and research units tend to "overstate that ability." (Molnar, et al., 2009, p. 24) The most recent CERU report indicates that despite the information that has already been collected, still more information is needed.

While the CERU reports include nationwide data and anecdotes, a few minor studies have been conducted on schoolhouse commercialism. One such study focused on the commercialism within North Carolina Schools. The study found overwhelmingly that there was a significant commercial presence within North Carolina's public schools. The study further suggested that this presence was growing. Nearly 80% of the respondents, which were North Carolina school principals, believed that schoolhouse commercialism was somewhat or very important in the public schools (DiBona, et al., 2003).

In addition to the North Carolina study, Kowal completed a doctoral dissertation in which he studied the perceptions of teachers and administrators on the acceptance of corporate advertising within a midsize public school district in Nebraska. He found that the "perceptions of the teachers and administrators on the use of commercial advertising in schools were positive." (Kowal, 2003, p.57) Kowal delineated the commercial advertising studied into advertising within the school buildings but not in the classrooms and advertising that was actually in classrooms. Kowal found that elementary teachers looked upon classroom advertising less favorably than the secondary school teachers. He unexpectedly found that teachers were more accepting of in-classroom advertising than the administrators were (Kowal, 2003).

Another doctoral dissertation was completed by Bobby Browder, who examined the perceptions of superintendents regarding corporate advertising in Virginia schools.

Utilizing Kowal's survey instrument, Browder found that the superintendents responding were more accepting of the commercial advertising that took place outside of the actual classrooms. He further found that a main area of concern, regarding schoolhouse commercialism was for preserving academic time. The superintendents also had concerns regarding commercialism's effect on student nutrition. The majority of the respondents indicated they saw a need for policy or guidelines regarding schoolhouse commercialism (Browder, 2007).

Summary

In this chapter, a variety of literature was reviewed, in order to gain a broad and deep understanding on the issues of commercial fundraising within the public schools. A variety of sources were utilized, ranging from the relatively few scholarly studies available to the more frequent anecdotal accounts found within the popular press. The review of literature regarding commercial fundraising revealed that despite a great deal of public attention to the issue, there have been very few unbiased and objective studies conducted. Much of the literature centered on concerns related to the use of commercial fundraising, or schoolhouse commercialism in general, often originating from consumer-advocate groups, seeking to alter school and public policy, for a variety of reasons. Most of the literature, however, consists of anecdotal accounts of a variety of commercial fundraising approaches that have proven to be particularly effective, especially as benefits derived have helped counteract budget shortfalls. The only long-term study of the issue has been the annual reports originating from the CERU, under the leadership of Dr. Alex Molnar. These reports, however, are limited in their utility, as the data regarding trends stemmed solely from the number of press references uncovered each year. Put

simply, this data may not conclusively depict trends, since the news-worthiness of a topic directly relates to the number of references generated. For example, most adults use ballpoint pens, although this is not something we often, if ever, read about since it is simply not interesting enough to be newsworthy. The CERU, after several years, acknowledged this data shortcoming and abandoned the reference counting approach. Overall, a variety of perceptions were noted regarding commercial fundraising in schools. Much of the literature appeared to be biased toward particular agendas. The few objective studies were conducted within particular geographic areas and the results may not be able to be generalized to larger populations. The conspicuous lack of objective, scientific research on the topic strengthens the need for further study.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The review of literature revealed a conspicuous lack of objective and unbiased research regarding the issues of commercial fundraising in the schools. While anecdotal evidence, which has been the type most widely presented in the literature, is helpful regarding a deep understanding of peoples' perceptions of commercial fundraising in schools, it is not sufficient to make accurate conclusions. The few data-based studies that have been conducted have represented only isolated regions of the country such as Nebraska and North Carolina (Kowal, 2003; DiBona et. al., 2003). Recognizing that these studies may not be generalizable to a larger population, the methodology employed in this study was designed to gather and analyze data that accurately represent the commercial fundraising in public schools in Georgia.

Research Questions

The objective of this study was to answer the following overarching research question: What are the perceptions of teachers, principals, and parents in the state of Georgia regarding the scope and acceptability of commercial fundraising in Georgia's public schools? In order to completely answer the overarching question, the following supporting questions were be considered:

1. What are teachers', principals', and parents' perceptions of the current scope of commercial fundraising in Georgia's public schools?
2. What are teachers', principals', and parents' beliefs on the general acceptability of commercial fundraising in Georgia's public schools?

3. Do stakeholder roles (parents, teachers, or principals) affect perceptions regarding the acceptability of commercial fundraising in Georgia's public schools?
4. Does the level of school (elementary, middle, or high school) affect perceptions of the stakeholders regarding the acceptability of commercial fundraising in Georgia's public schools?
5. Do combinations of stakeholder roles (parents, teachers, or principals) and school levels (elementary, middle, or high school) affect perceptions of the stakeholders regarding the acceptability of commercial fundraising in Georgia's public schools?

Research Design

A mixed descriptive-comparative research approach was utilized in order to answer the research questions. Nardi (2006) explains that descriptive research gives the researcher an opportunity to provide basic information on the topic and the respondents taking part in the research. The researcher utilized a predominately quantitative approach, using data collected through the use of a survey. According to Tuckman (1994), comparison efforts applied to survey research help preclude invalid conclusions. Accordingly, the researcher compared data obtained from three different groups in this study.

Population

The A+ Education Reform Act of 2000 called for the establishment of school councils in order to allow stakeholders in public schools to have input regarding how the schools are run. This legislation was approved by the Georgia General Assembly and was

incorporated into the Official Code of Georgia. These councils are comprised of principals, teachers, and parents. The school councils provide advice and recommendations to school principals and to local boards of education, relating to a variety of school issues (Georgia School Councils, 2007). Accordingly, the researcher collected data from principals, teachers, and parents who make up local school councils, at elementary, middle and high school levels. In order to ensure that data are representative of the entire state population, respondents were targeted from each of the 180 school districts in Georgia. The first elementary, middle, and high schools from an alphabetical listing within each district were selected. School district listings were obtained from the Georgia Department of Education web site. Once schools were selected, surveys were sent to each corresponding school council, for completion by principals, parents, and teachers who make up the councils.

Instrumentation

The researcher utilized a three-section survey (Appendix A) to collect data, based upon the research questions. Section one of the survey instrument contained questions regarding the utilization of seven types of commercial fundraising activities within Georgia's schools. These include: sponsorship of programs and activities, incentive programs, appropriation of space, sponsored educational materials, electronic marketing, exclusive agreements, and direct selling/affinity programs. Additionally, the first section contained a question regarding the general acceptability of commercial fundraising within Georgia's schools. Section two of the instrument contained an open-ended question regarding commercial fundraising in schools, in order to afford respondents an opportunity to present additional information regarding their perceptions and beliefs on

the issues being studied. The third section of the instrument contained demographic data, in order to properly categorize the data by level of school and by respondent position. This data were limited to the respondent's role as a principal, teacher, or parent and to the school level (elementary, middle, or high school) the respondent represents. The survey instrument was prepared in electronic form, and administered by Questionpro.com, an electronic online survey company. Table 1 is a presentation of the survey questions as they relate to the review of literature and to the research questions.

Pilot Study

Pilot testing is a recommended procedure to identify shortcomings of the instrument, which can then be corrected prior to implementation. Nardi (2006) suggested that the respondents in a pilot study should come from a group "similar to those who will make up the sample." Tuckman (1999) stated that the respondents in a pilot study should come from the "intended test population" but not include those who will be part of the sample, since seeing the instrument would compromise the validity of their responses.

As recommended by Mertens (1998), the survey instrument was tested for reliability and validity. Following the preliminary development of the survey instrument, a panel of five content experts was utilized to ascertain content validity. This panel consisted of professional educators who have extensive knowledge regarding school-level commercial fundraising. The panel members were not members of the sample population or the pilot test population. The panel's suggestion to include examples for each category of commercial fundraising was followed and the draft survey was refined. The instrument was pilot tested with a sample of school council members from the researcher's school of employment, which was not included in the study sample. The

individuals were selected randomly from a faculty roster, using an online sequence generator provided by RANDOM.ORG, an online random number service. Individuals from the same school were selected in order to most accurately test the consistency of the survey items in measuring the same conditions, as their responses were based on identical conditions. While a variety of school levels and stakeholder roles were incorporated in the actual study, the pilot test group was relatively homogeneous, in order to better ascertain the reliability of the instrument. The pilot survey was conducted with parent, teacher, and principal school council members from a school not included in the research sample. The pilot survey was administered using printed copies. Following the completion of the pilot study, an item analysis was conducted. Pilot test data were evaluated using Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) software. A reliability analysis was conducted and the reliability coefficient (Cronbach's Alpha) was determined, which was found to be $A = .7547$, which the researcher deemed to be acceptable for the purpose of the study. No modifications to the survey instrument were necessary. The survey instrument was prepared in an electronic format and uploaded to QuestionPro.com for use in collecting data for the study.

Data Collection

Prior to any data collection, permission was obtained from the Institutional Review Board (IRB) at Georgia Southern University. The researcher successfully completed the mandatory IRB training, as prescribed by the Office of Research Services, Georgia Southern University. Following receipt of IRB permission to conduct the study, a letter of introduction (Appendix B) was sent by email to school principals at elementary, middle, and high schools in each of Georgia's public school systems. In this

letter the researcher introduced himself and the purpose for the study. The researcher also requested and encouraged participation. Respondents were informed that, if requested, they would be provided copies of the results of the study, once completed. Principals were asked to forward survey information to both teacher and parent members of their school councils. An incentive for participation was offered, in which participants were entered in a drawing to win a fifty-dollar restaurant gift card. As a further incentive for principals to forward the survey information to their school council members, the principal forwarding survey information to any teacher or parent winner also won a fifty-dollar gift card.

One week after the letter of introduction was sent, a letter of request for participation (Appendix C) was sent by email to the potential respondents containing a link to the electronic version of the survey instrument, which was administered through QuestionPro.com, an online survey company. An informed consent letter (Appendix D) was attached to the email.

Two weeks after the survey was sent, follow up letters (Appendix E) were sent electronically, as follow up letters tend to improve overall response rates (Mertens, 1998). These letters included the researchers thanks to individuals who had already responded and also encouraged those who had not yet completed the survey to do so.

Analysis of the Data

Descriptive statistics were computed utilizing QuestionPro web-based survey software and presented, by responding group, for the majority of questions from the first section of the survey instrument. Descriptive statistics for these individual items were compared directly. Additionally, cross-tabulations were performed on each commercial

fundraising category as they related both to the level of school the respondents represented (elementary, middle, or high school) and also to the respondent's role on their respective school council (principal, teacher, or parent). Data derived from the responses of the three research sub-groups responding to a survey question on the general acceptability of fundraising in Georgia's public schools were compared using a factorial Analysis of Variance (ANOVA). The ANOVA was used due to its ability to effectively compare means of more than two groups (Sprinthall, 2003). ANOVA computations were conducted utilizing the SPSS software.

The ANOVA design is graphically represented below.

		Grade Level (A)		
		Elementary (A1)	Middle School (A2)	High School (A3)
Respondent Status (B)	Teachers (B1)			
	Principals (B2)			
	Parents (B3)			

Respondent comments gathered in section two of the survey instrument are presented verbatim, in Appendix F. In order to understand and analyze data gathered in

section three of the survey instrument, a classification table was developed (see Table 20), allowing the researcher to report frequencies for types of responses that constituted general emerging themes.

Summary

Following the establishment of a need for the study, based upon a review of literature, the researcher identified the research questions for the study. A mixed descriptive-comparative method was selected for the study. In order to achieve a sample that represented the entire state, all 180 Georgia school districts were included in the sample selection pool. Principals, teachers, and parents who make up school councils were the selected sample for the study. Following the creation of a suitable three-section survey instrument, pilot testing occurred utilizing individuals outside of the study sample group. Following validity and reliability testing, the survey instrument was found to be satisfactory and only minimal adjustments were required. Letters of introduction preceded the electronic survey distribution by one week. Two weeks after survey distribution, follow up letters were sent thanking participants and encouraging completion by those who had not responded. Survey data were then analyzed using descriptive statistics and a factorial ANOVA. Responses to open end questions were presented verbatim along with a classification table to organize emerging themes.

Table 1

Analysis of questionnaire items

ITEM #	CONCEPT	RESEARCH QUESTION	RESEARCH
1	Sponsorship of Programs and Activities	1	Molnar, (1998); Molnar, (1999); Molnar & Morales, (2000); Molnar & Reaves, (2001); Molnar, (2002); Molnar, (2003); Molnar, (2004); Molnar & Garcia, (2005); Molnar, (2006); Molnar & Boninger, (2007); Molnar et al., (2008); Molnar et al, (2009)
2	Incentive Programs	1	Molnar, (1998); Molnar, (1999); Molnar & Morales, (2000); Molnar & Reaves, (2001); Molnar, (2002); Molnar, (2003); Molnar, (2004); Molnar & Garcia, (2005); Molnar, (2006); Molnar & Boninger, (2007); Molnar et al., (2008); Molnar et al, (2009)
3	Appropriation of Space	1	Molnar, (1998); Molnar, (1999); Molnar & Morales, (2000); Molnar & Reaves, (2001); Molnar, (2002); Molnar, (2003); Molnar, (2004); Molnar & Garcia, (2005); Molnar, (2006); Molnar & Boninger, (2007); Molnar et al., (2008); Molnar et al, (2009)
4	Sponsored Educational Materials	1	Molnar, (1998); Molnar, (1999); Molnar & Morales, (2000); Molnar & Reaves, (2001); Molnar, (2002); Molnar, (2003); Molnar, (2004); Molnar & Garcia, (2005); Molnar, (2006); Molnar & Boninger, (2007); Molnar et al., (2008); Molnar et al, (2009)
5	Electronic Marketing	1	Molnar, (1998); Molnar, (1999); Molnar & Morales, (2000); Molnar & Reaves, (2001); Molnar, (2002); Molnar, (2003); Molnar, (2004); Molnar & Garcia, (2005); Molnar, (2006); Molnar & Boninger, (2007); Molnar et al., (2008); Molnar et al, (2009)

Table 1 (continued)

Analysis of questionnaire items

ITEM #	CONCEPT	RESEARCH QUESTION	RESEARCH
6	Exclusive Agreements	1	Molnar, (1998); Molnar, (1999); Molnar & Morales, (2000); Molnar & Reaves, (2001); Molnar, (2002); Molnar, (2003); Molnar, (2004); Molnar & Garcia, (2005); Molnar, (2006); Molnar & Boninger, (2007); Molnar et al., (2008); Molnar et al, (2009)
7	Direct Sales and Affinity Programs	1	Molnar & Morales, (2000); Molnar & Reaves, (2001); Molnar, (2002); Molnar, (2003); Molnar, (2004); Molnar & Garcia, (2005); Molnar, (2006); Molnar & Boninger, (2007); Molnar et al., (2008); Molnar et al, (2009)
8	Acceptability of Commercial Fundraising	2	DiBona et al., 2003; Kowal, 2003
9	Perceptions of Commercial Fundraising	2	DiBona et al., 2003; Kowal, 2003
10	Respondent's Role	3,4,5	Kowal, 2003
11	Respondent's School Level	3,4,5	Kowal, 2003

CHAPTER 4
REPORT OF DATA AND DATA ANALYSIS

Introduction

The purpose of the study was to determine public school stakeholders' perceptions regarding the utilization of commercial fundraising in Georgia public schools. A three-section survey was developed by the researcher and subsequently tested for validity and reliability. Emails were sent to principals at the elementary, middle, and high school levels for each of 180 Georgia public school districts. The principals were asked to complete the survey, as well as to forward it to both teacher and parent members of their respective school councils.

Research Questions

The primary research question for the study was: What are the perceptions of teachers, principals, and parents in the state of Georgia regarding the scope and acceptability of commercial fundraising in Georgia's public schools? The following supporting questions were incorporated in the study:

1. What are teachers', principals', and parents' perceptions of the current scope of commercial fundraising in Georgia's public schools?
2. What are teachers', principals', and parents' beliefs on the general acceptability of commercial fundraising in Georgia's public schools?
3. Do stakeholder roles (parents, teachers, or principals) affect perceptions regarding the acceptability of commercial fundraising in Georgia's public schools?

4. Does the grade level of school (elementary, middle, or high school) affect perceptions of the stakeholders regarding the acceptability of commercial fundraising in Georgia's public schools?
5. Do combinations of stakeholder roles (parents, teachers, or principals) and grade levels (elementary, middle, or high school) affect perceptions of the stakeholders regarding the acceptability of commercial fundraising in Georgia's public schools?

Research Design

The researcher used a mixed descriptive-comparative research approach in order to answer the research questions that were developed. Following the development of an appropriate survey instrument, the researcher established instrument validity and reliability. Responses to the three-section survey were collected using QuestionPro.com, an electronic survey service. Responses were evaluated collectively and also in terms of both respondent roles on their respective school councils and in terms of the level of the school with which the respondents were affiliated.

Respondents

Respondents came from elementary, middle, and high schools representing 180 Georgia public school systems. Parent, principal, and teacher members of school councils were asked for participation in the survey. Response rates from school council members, in terms of the level of school they represented, were fairly balanced with 38.21% coming from elementary schools, 34.15% coming from middle schools, and 27.64% coming from high schools. Response rates from school council members were dominated

by school principals, which represented 61.79% of the overall responses. The teacher and parent response rates were 21.95% and 16.26% respectively.

While 175 people viewed the survey, only 151 began to answer questions. Although the survey was short, consisting of only 11 questions, 28 people started but did not complete the survey, which accounts for slight discrepancies among category totals. Of the 151 who began the survey, 123 completed it in its entirety. All responses were utilized in determining reported uses of commercial fundraising (See table 16) while data from the 123 completed surveys was used for cross tabulation analyses.

Findings

Responses were collected from participants regarding their views on the use of commercial fundraising in Georgia's public schools. Research question one asked: What are teachers', principals', and parents' perceptions of the current scope of commercial fundraising in Georgia's public schools? Section one of the survey instrument contained seven questions regarding perceived utilization of major types of commercial fundraising.

Sponsorship of Programs and Activities

Survey item number one asked about commercial fundraising that fell within the category of Sponsorship of Programs and Activities. In this category, businesses support school programs or activities in exchange for the right to associate their name with the activity. Examples are basketball tournaments sponsored by an athletic shoe manufacturer or an essay contest sponsored by a local bank. The majority of the respondents indicated that the use fundraising methods falling within the category of Sponsorship of Programs and Activities was either rare or extremely rare/never, with a total of 84.83% selecting one of these responses (see Table 16). This varies tremendously

from the national data provided in the CERU annual reports, which consistently cited this category as the largest one nationwide from 1990 until 2006, when they stopped providing statistical data on each of the categories of schoolhouse commercialism (Molnar, 2006).

When analyzed by the level of the school that the respondents represented, the frequency rates of the various responses among elementary, middle, and high schools were strikingly similar (See Table 2). There was no obvious difference in the response patterns based solely upon the level of school, as the frequency data for the subgroups were practically identical to that of the collective sample. The following table depicts the frequency rate and percentages of responses according to the level of the school for which the respondent represented.

Table 2

Use of Sponsorship of Programs and Activities Reported by School Level

	1 Extremely Extensive	2 Extensive	3 Rare	4 Extremely Rare/Never
Elementary School	0 0%	5 11.4%	25 56.8%	14 31.8%
Middle School	0 0%	2 5.1%	21 53.8%	16 41%
High School	1 .9%	9 13.7%	17 53.8%	7 31.6%

When analyzing the response patterns of the Sponsorship of Programs and Activities category based upon the respondents' roles on their respective school councils,

the parent segment of the sample reported a much higher use of these types of fundraising than the principals and teachers reported. Only 66.7% of the responding parents selected the rare or extremely rare/never responses, compared to the principals, who reported 87.7% and teachers, who reported 92.3% in these categories. Principals generally reported this category as extremely extensive or extensive more often than the other groups, with 12.4% of the principals choosing one of these responses (See Table 3). The following table reflects the frequency rates and percentages of responses by the role of the school council member.

Table 3

Use of Sponsorship of Programs and Activities Reported by Role of School Council Member

	1 Extremely Extensive	2 Extensive	3 Rare	4 Extremely Rare/Never
Principal	1 1.4%	8 11%	34 46.6%	30 41.1%
Teacher	0 0%	2 7.7%	18 69.2%	6 23.1%
Parent	0 0%	6 33.3%	11 61.1%	1 5.6%

Incentive Programs

Survey item number two asked about the utilization of commercial fundraising techniques that fell within the category of Incentive Programs. In this category, businesses provide goods, services, or money when students, parents, or faculty members engage in a specific activity. An example is a restaurant that provides free ice cream to

students who got all A's on their report card. The use of incentive programs reported by the respondents represents the second largest category, in which collective ratings of extremely extensive or extensive were given with 50.35% of the respondents choosing one of these (See Table 16). The latest CERU data on these types of programs show the category to be the sixth largest category of schoolhouse commercialism considered in this study (Molnar, 2006).

The use of incentive programs was reported as extremely extensive or extensive at the highest levels by respondents from high schools, at a rate of 64.7%. This differed slightly from the elementary schools, where the ratings of extremely extensive or extensive made up only 52.2% of the total responses. Ratings from individuals in middle schools tended to be lower in this category, where responses of extremely extensive or extensive constituted only 38.5% of the responses (See Table 4).

Table 4

Use of Incentive Programs Reported by School Level

	1 Extremely Extensive	2 Extensive	3 Rare	4 Extremely Rare/Never
Elementary School	2 4.5%	21 47.7%	15 34.1%	6 13.6%
Middle School	1 2.6%	14 35.9%	22 56.4%	2 5.1%
High School	3 8.8%	19 55.9%	11 32.4%	1 2.9%

When analyzed in terms of the roles of the respondents in their respective school councils, there seem to be differences in the perceptions of the parents compared to those of the professional educators. Parents reported the utilization of incentive programs as extremely extensive or extensive at a rate of 77.8% (see Table 5). This differed considerably from the responses of teachers, who reported ratings of extremely extensive or extensive as 46.2% of their total responses and principals who reported these ratings at a rate of 46.6%.

Table 5

Use of Incentive Programs Reported by Role of School Council Member

	1 Extremely Extensive	2 Extensive	3 Rare	4 Extremely Rare/Never
Principal	3 4.1%	31 42.5%	32 43.8%	7 9.6%
Teacher	2 7.7%	10 38.5%	13 50%	1 3.8%
Parent	1 5.6%	13 72.2%	3 16.7%	1 7.7%

Appropriation of Space

Survey item number three asked about the utilization of commercial fundraising techniques that fell within the category of Appropriation of Space. In this category, businesses provide money, goods, or services in exchange for being able to advertise on school property. An example of this type of activity is when a corporation provides free athletic scoreboards, which bear their corporate logo. The use of this type of commercial

fundraising activity ranks as the fourth highest among the respondents choosing either extremely extensive or extensive, at a combined rate of 29.71% (See Table 16).

When compared with nationwide data provided by the CERU, the use of commercial fundraising activities that fall within the category of Appropriation of Space is only moderately higher in the survey sample than across the nation. While this category ranked fourth in the survey sample, based on the responses of extremely extensive or extensive, the category was the fifth largest nationwide (Molnar, 2006). Nationwide rankings of the various categories were determined through the number of Internet search results returned for each category of schoolhouse commercialism.

The use of activities falling within the Appropriation of Space category appears to be much higher at the high school level than at the elementary or middle school levels. The results show that 52.9% of high school level respondents chose extremely extensive or extensive compared to the elementary school rate, which was only 15.9%. The middle school responses fell between those, at 33.3% (See Table 6).

Table 6

Use of Appropriation of Space Reported by School Level

	1 Extremely Extensive	2 Extensive	3 Rare	4 Extremely Rare/Never
Elementary School	0 0%	7 15.9%	20 45.5%	17 38.6%
Middle School	2 5.1%	11 28.2%	20 51.3%	6 15.4%
High School	3 8.8%	15 44.1%	14 41.2%	2 5.9%

Responses of the school council members to survey item 3 were fairly consistent among the three roles represented in the sample. Extremely extensive and extensive responses to this survey item, in terms of school council roles, varied only slightly from a low of 30.2% from responding principals to a high of 38.9%, from responding parents (See Table 7).

Table 7

Use of Appropriation of Space Reported by Role of School Council Member

	1 Extremely Extensive	2 Extensive	3 Rare	4 Extremely Rare/Never
Principal	4 5.5%	18 24.7%	33 45.2%	18 24.7%
Teacher	0 0%	9 34.6%	12 46.2%	5 19.2%
Parent	1 5.6%	6 33.3%	9 50%	2 11.1%

Sponsored Educational Materials (SEMs)

Survey item number four asked about the utilization of commercial fundraising techniques that fell within the category of Sponsored Educational Materials. In this category, businesses provide educational materials, which also promote themes, suggest messages, or promote products. An example would be a poster on good nutrition, sponsored by and bearing the logo of a dairy company.

Responses to survey item four placed the utilization of SEMs as the fifth largest of the seven categories of commercial fundraising addressed in the study, according to the number of respondents choosing extremely extensive or extensive on the survey. The

respondents choose one of these two ratings at a rate of 25.92% (See Table 16). This is slightly higher than the CERU rankings of the SEMs category, which was the smallest overall category of schoolhouse commercialism (Molnar, 2006).

The distribution of responses to the survey question regarding SEMs was fairly uniform among the various levels of schools represented in the study. Of the elementary school respondents answering the question, 75% felt that the utilization of SEMs was either rare or extremely rare/never, in their respective schools. In comparison, 76.9% of middle school respondents and 70.5% of high school respondents made the same choices (See Table 8).

Table 8

Use of Sponsored Educational Materials (SEMs) Reported by School Level

	1 Extremely Extensive	2 Extensive	3 Rare	4 Extremely Rare/Never
Elementary School	0 0%	11 25%	25 56.8%	8 18.2%
Middle School	1 2.6%	8 20.5%	24 61.5%	6 15.4%
High School	2 5.9%	8 23.5%	23 67.6%	1 2.9%

When analyzed in terms of the respondents' roles on the school councils, the responses were not as even as they were when analyzed by the level of school. The utilization of SEMs in the represented schools was reported less frequently by the principals and teachers when compared to the reports of the parent representatives of the

school councils. While only 55.5% of the parent respondents choose rare or extremely rare/never to describe the utilization of SEMs within their respective schools, 75.3% of the responding principals and 84.6% of the responding teachers made similar choices (See Table 9). The most frequently selected response to survey item four among all of the school council members, regardless of their roles was Rare.

Table 9

Use of Sponsored Educational Materials (SEMs) Reported by Role of School Council Member

	1 Extremely Extensive	2 Extensive	3 Rare	4 Extremely Rare/Never
Principal	2 2.7%	16 21.9%	45 61.6%	10 13.7%
Teacher	0 0%	4 15.4%	19 73.1%	3 11.5%
Parent	1 5.6%	7 38.9%	8 44.4%	2 11.1%

Electronic Marketing

Survey item five asked about the use of electronic marketing within the represented schools. In this category of schoolhouse commercialism, businesses provide electronic hardware, software, or programming services in exchange for the ability to advertise using the provided media. An example would be a corporation that provides free televisions and programming for in-school use which contains advertising.

Nationwide data placed the category of electronic marketing as the third largest type of schoolhouse commercialism, based upon Internet search responses, according to the CERU (Molnar, 2006). Conversely, the respondents in this study reported the use of

electronic marketing much less frequently, making it the smallest category within the study sample. Less than 1% of the study sample rated the use of electronic marketing as extremely extensive while 91.67% of the remaining respondents found its use to be either rare or extremely rare/never (See Table 16).

Survey responses to item five were fairly consistent among the various levels of schools represented in the study sample, although the high school level showed a slightly higher overall usage of electronic marketing, according to the survey responses. There was not a single incident of a respondent choosing extremely extensive as a response to item five. Of the elementary school council members responding, 97.7% of these found the use of electronic marketing to be either rare or extremely rare/never. At the middle school level, similar responses occurred at a rate of 94.9% while the high school rate was 79.5%. At the high school level, over 20% of the respondents found the use of electronic marketing to be extensive (see Table 10).

Table 10

Use of Electronic Marketing Reported by School Level

	1 Extremely Extensive	2 Extensive	3 Rare	4 Extremely Rare/Never
Elementary School	0 0%	1 2.3%	15 34.1%	28 63.6%
Middle School	0 0%	2 5.1%	15 38.5%	22 56.4%
High School	0 0%	7 20.6%	11 32.4%	16 47.1%

When analyzed according to respondent school council roles the use of electronic marketing appeared to be relatively consistent among the role categories. Parent responses regarding the use of electronic marketing were slightly higher, with 16.7% choosing extensive or extremely extensive while only 6.8% of principals and 7.7% of teachers responded similarly (See Table 11).

Table 11

Use of Electronic Marketing Reported by Role of School Council Member

	1 Extremely Extensive	2 Extensive	3 Rare	4 Extremely Rare/Never
Principal	0 0%	5 6.8%	24 32.9%	44 60.3%
Teacher	0 0%	2 7.7%	10 38.5%	14 53.8%
Parent	0 0%	3 16.7%	7 38.9%	8 44.4%

Exclusive Agreements

Survey item six asked about the use of exclusive agreements in the schools represented. In this category, businesses reach agreements that allow sales of their own products while excluding the sales of their competitors. An example is an agreement to sell only a particular brand of soft drinks in schools.

Responses to survey item six varied, with each category receiving a significant number of responses. The responses extremely extensive and extensive were selected by 43.08% of the study sample with the remaining 56.92% selecting rare or extremely

rare/never (See table 16). This placed the category of exclusive agreements as the third largest within the study sample, based upon responses of extremely extensive or extensive. CERU data indicate that nationwide, the category was the fourth largest (Molnar, 2006).

Respondents representing high schools selected extremely extensive and extensive at a much higher rate than the respondents representing elementary schools. While 64.6% of the high school respondents chose extremely extensive or extensive, only 22.8 of the elementary respondents responded the same way. The middle school responses of extremely extensive and extensive fell between the rates of the high school and elementary school respondents, at a rate of 46.2% (see Table 12).

Table 12

Use of Exclusive Agreements Reported by School Level

	1 Extremely Extensive	2 Extensive	3 Rare	4 Extremely Rare/Never
Elementary School	1 2.3%	9 20.5%	18 40.9%	16 36.4%
Middle School	6 15.4%	12 30.8%	16 41%	5 12.8%
High School	8 23.5%	14 41.2%	9 26.5%	3 8.8%

Parents representing their school councils reported extremely extensive or extensive use of exclusive agreements in their respective schools more often than the other two groups, with 44.4% of the responding parents selecting one of these choices.

The principals responding to the question chose extremely extensive or extensive at a rate of 43.8%, while 38.4% of the teachers made the same selections, in their responses to survey item six.

Table 13

Use of Exclusive Agreements Reported by Role of School Council Member

	1 Extremely Extensive	2 Extensive	3 Rare	4 Extremely Rare/Never
Principal	12 16.4%	20 27.4%	27 37%	14 19.2%
Teacher	1 3.8%	9 34.6%	7 26.9%	9 34.6%
Parent	2 11.1%	6 33.3%	9 50%	1 5.6%

Direct Sales and Affinity Programs (DSAPs)

Survey item seven asked about the use of direct sales and affinity programs in the schools. In this category, businesses earn returns on the direct sales of products sold during school fundraising activities. An example is a school fundraiser in which students sell wrapping paper or cookie dough provided by a fundraising company. Also include in this category are “affinity programs”, which provide financial returns to schools when businesses are patronized. An example is a grocery company that makes contributions to a school when shoppers present a school affiliated shopping card.

This category emerged as the clear frontrunner among all of the categories of schoolhouse commercialism addressed, in terms of its reported usage by the sample

population. Overall, 69.36% of the respondents felt that the uses of these types of programs were extremely extensive or extensive (see Table 16). Nationwide data showed the use of DSAPs as its second highest category, falling slightly behind the use of the sponsorship of programs and activities category (Molnar, 2006).

Extensive utilization of DSAPs was reported at all school levels, but was the highest at the high school level. Respondents representing high school councils felt that the use of DSAPs was extremely extensive or extensive at a rate of 79.4%. Middle school council members felt that DSAPs were utilized often, choosing extremely extensive or extensive at a rate of 61.6%, while the elementary school respondents made the same selections at a rate of 63.7% (see Table 14).

Table 14

Use of Direct Sales and Affinity Programs Reported by School Level

	1 Extremely Extensive	2 Extensive	3 Rare	4 Extremely Rare/Never
Elementary School	5 11.4%	23 52.3%	14 31.8%	2 4.5%
Middle School	6 15.4%	18 46.2%	12 30.8%	3 7.7%
High School	5 14.7%	22 64.7%	5 14.7%	2 5.9%

Parent representatives of school councils in the study sample were more prone to rate the use of DSAPs as extremely extensive or extensive than the other school council members were. Nearly 89% of the parents selected one of these responses to survey item

seven. Comparatively, only 61.7% of the responding principals and 69.2% of responding teachers made the same selections (see Table 15).

Table 15

Use of Direct Sales and Affinity Programs Reported by Role of School Council Member

	1 Extremely Extensive	2 Extensive	3 Rare	4 Extremely Rare/Never
Principal	8 11%	37 50.7%	24 32.9%	4 5.5%
Teacher	4 15.4%	14 53.8%	5 19.2%	3 11.5%
Parent	4 22.2%	12 66.7%	2 11.1%	0 0%

Categorical Comparison

Of the seven categories of commercial fundraising methods addressed in the study, the one most frequently cited by the sample respondents as extremely extensive or extensive was the category of DSAPs. These categories were followed by incentive programs, exclusive agreements, and appropriation of space, in order. The fifth and sixth of the lowest three categories in terms of extremely extensive or extensive ratings were SEMs and sponsorship of programs and activities. Electronic marketing was the commercial fundraising activity that was reported as extremely extensive or extensive less often than any of the other categories (See Table 16). All responses were utilized in this comparison, regardless if the entire survey was completed.

Table 16

Reported Use of Commercial Fundraising Activities in Georgia Public Schools

	1 Extremely Extensive	2 Extensive	3 Rare	4 Extremely Rare/Never
Sponsorship of Programs and Activities	1 .69%	21 14.48%	77 53.10%	46 31.72%
Incentive Programs	9 6.47%	61 43.88%	57 41.01%	12 8.63%
Appropriation of Space	6 4.35%	35 25.36%	62 44.93%	35 25.36%
Sponsored Educational Materials (SEMS)	4 2.96%	31 22.96%	83 61.48%	17 12.59%
Electronic Marketing	1 .76%	10 7.58%	47 35.61%	74 56.06%
Exclusive Agreements	15 11.54%	41 31.54%	47 36.15%	27 20.77%
Direct Sales and Affinity Programs	17 13.71%	69 55.65%	30 24.19%	8 6.45%

Acceptability of Commercial Fundraising

Research question two asked: What are teachers', principals', and parents' beliefs on the general acceptability of commercial fundraising in Georgia's public schools?

Survey item eight was designed to gather data to answer this research question. Item eight stated: I feel that commercial fundraising is acceptable in public schools.

Respondents were given the following item choices: strongly agree, agree, disagree, and strongly disagree, in a four response, Likert type scale.

The majority of the respondents indicated their approval for commercial fundraising methods, as 86.4% selected the strongly agree or agree responses. Of the 125 responses to survey item eight, only two selected strongly disagree with 15 selecting disagree. The mean of the responses was 1.968. The confidence interval, at the 95% confidence level was 1.861-2.075.

Research questions three, four, and five were designed to determine if the role of the respondents, the level of the school, and the interaction of both of these affected perceptions regarding the general acceptability of commercial fundraising in Georgia's public schools.

Section three of the survey instrument was designed to gather demographic information on the respondents, in order to help answer research questions three, four, and five. Survey item nine asked respondents to identify their roles in their respective school councils as principal, teacher, or parent. Survey item ten asked respondents to identify the level of school that they represented on their school council. Choices offered were elementary, middle, or high school. Since some Georgia public schools encompass more than one level, respondents were instructed to select the highest level of school they served.

Following data collection, a factorial ANOVA was performed using SPSS. Due to an insufficient response rate, data were not sufficient to effectively answer research questions three, four, and five as fully as desired by the researcher. None of the targeted variables showed significance, as indicated in Table 17. Furthermore, the small sample size prevented the researcher from being able to generalize findings from the ANOVA to a larger population.

Table 17

Analysis of Variance for Perceptions Regarding the Acceptability of Commercial Fundraising in Georgia's Public Schools-Within Subjects Effects

Source	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Role	2	.168	.429	.652
Level	2	.252	.641	.529
Role * Level	4	.332	.844	.500

As no conclusions could be drawn from the results of the ANOVA, frequency response data were analyzed using cross tabulation. Approval rates for commercial fundraising in schools were highest among the middle school and high school levels. Respondents representing middle schools approved of commercial fundraising in schools at a rate of 89.8% (see Table 18). Only one person at the middle school level expressed strong disagreement with the practice of commercial fundraising in schools.

The responses at the high school level were similar to the responses at the middle school level. Respondents representing high schools approved of commercial fundraising in schools at a rate of 88.2%. Only one person at the high school level expressed strong disagreement with the practice of commercial fundraising in schools.

Responses from elementary school representatives also indicated a majority approval for the use of commercial fundraising in the public schools, although it was at a lower rate than the middle school and high school levels. Respondents representing elementary schools approved of commercial fundraising in schools at a rate of 79.5%.

Despite the slightly lower incidents of responses in the strongly agree and agree categories, when compared to the middle and high school responses, there was no strong disagreement by any of the elementary school representatives.

Table 18

Agreement to General Acceptability of Commercial Fundraising Reported by School Level

	1 Strongly Agree	2 Agree	3 Disagree	4 Strongly Disagree
Elementary School	10 22.7%	25 56.8%	9 20.5%	0 0%
Middle School	6 15.4%	29 74.4%	3 7.7%	1 2.6%
High School	5 14.7%	25 73.5%	3 8.8%	1 2.9%

The strongest overall approval came from teacher members of the school councils. Teachers responded with agreement or strong agreement to the acceptability of commercial fundraising at a rate of 88.4% (see Table 19). Although the majority of parents approved of commercial fundraising in schools, this group showed the lowest overall approval rating at 83.3%. There were no responding parents however, who expressed strong disagreement with commercial fundraising. Principals responded between the rates of the teachers and parents sampled, at an approval rate of 84.9%.

Table 19

Agreement to General Acceptability of Commercial Fundraising Reported by Role of School Council Member

	1 Strongly Agree	2 Agree	3 Disagree	4 Strongly Disagree
Principal	12 16.4%	50 68.5%	9 12.3%	2 2.7%
Teacher	5 19.2%	18 69.2%	3 11.5%	0 0%
Parent	4 22.2%	11 61.1%	3 16.7%	0 0%

Anecdotal Data Analysis

To more fully answer research question two, survey item eight asked: What do you think about the acceptability of commercial fundraising in your school? This open-ended question was designed to evoke responses from the respondents that would provide a more thorough understanding of the perceptions regarding the acceptability of commercial fundraising than the quantitative data alone. While not all respondents chose to answer survey item eight, there were 95 responses, which spanned a wide range of opinions. In order to identify common themes and trends among the responses to survey item eight, the researcher tallied comments representing emerging themes that recurred throughout the sample. Respondent comments are presented in Appendix F. Emerging themes are presented by frequency and percentage in Table 20.

The most significantly recurring comment in the sample centered on the necessity for the utilization of commercial fundraising in the schools. The necessity for commercial

fundraising in today's schools was cited in more than 29% of the responses to survey item eight (see Table 20). Respondents frequently cited the necessity for commercial fundraising and explained the reasons that it was needed.

The second most frequently recurring theme within the responses to survey item eight centered upon the current state of the economy and the lack of available funding for school programs and activities. Comments of this nature were found in several of the responses to survey item eight.

Another recurring theme in the sample was the need for some sort of mechanism to limit or control commercial fundraising within the public schools. Respondents often agreed that commercial fundraising was acceptable provided it was within certain limits. Although respondents often felt that commercial fundraising should have limits, no specific mention was made concerning what the limits should be.

Respondents sometimes cited the demographics of their individual schools. Comments indicated that some respondents felt that rural and urban schools were not on common ground, in terms of funding and the ability to generate income in support of their school programs and activities. Respondents from rural schools expressed regret that they could not successfully generate income through commercial fundraising activities, making comments such as: "Given our rural location it is difficult for us to utilize commercial fundraising due to the limited number of businesses in our community" and "Our school is rural, so we do not have many opportunities for commercial fundraising" (see Appendix F).

Despite many comments on how commercial fundraising allows schools to fund programs that they otherwise may not be able to afford, comments regarding the

respondents' distaste for commercial fundraising occurred, with some respondents actually referring to the term "evil" in their comments.

Table 20

Classification Table of Emerging Themes in Respondent Comments

Theme	Frequency of Comment	Percentage of Responses
Commercial fundraising has become a necessity for public schools.	28	29.47%
The current state of the economy and lack of public funding has driven the need for commercial fundraising in schools.	19	20%
There should be reasonable constraints place on commercial fundraising activities in public schools.	13	13.68%
The demographics of the community affect the need for and the ability to utilize commercial fundraising in public schools.	7	7.37%
Commercial fundraising is an "evil" within the public schools.	6	6.32%

Summary

The researcher investigated the perceptions of principal, teacher, and parent members of school councils, regarding the use of commercial fundraising in Georgia's public schools. Data collection was accomplished using a three-section survey consisting of eleven items. Based upon a review of literature, a survey instrument was developed to ascertain perceptions regarding the current scope of commercial fundraising conducted in Georgia as well as the respondents' feelings regarding the acceptability of commercial

fundraising in public schools. Demographic data, in the form of council role and level of school were collected in order to analyze if these factors affected the perceptions of the council members.

The draft instrument was evaluated by a panel of professional educators to establish content validity and at their suggestion, examples of each of seven categories of schoolhouse commercialism were provided. Following the revision, the survey was pilot tested using a sample that was outside of the intended sample population. Analysis of the pilot sample results was conducted using SPSS. A reliability coefficient (Cronbach's Alpha) was determined, in which Alpha was found to be .7547, which the researcher deemed to be acceptable for the purpose of the study.

Following the validity and reliability testing, the survey was prepared electronically for use through Questionpro.com, an electronic survey company. Letters were sent by email to a sample of principals at elementary, middle and high schools from every public school district in Georgia. The letter was to introduce the researcher and the study, as well as to ask for support in completion of the survey, which would be sent one week later. The principals were further requested to forward the survey link to teacher and parent members of their respective school councils. One week later, letters were emailed containing the survey link and the data collection began. Two weeks after the data collection period began, letters were emailed thanking those who had completed the survey and encouraging those who had not done so to complete it.

Research question one asked: What are teachers', principals', and parents' perceptions of the current scope of commercial fundraising in Georgia's public schools?

Responses to questions regarding school utilization of seven types of commercial fundraising were evaluated with SPSS, using the Crosstabs function, at the suggestion of the researcher's methodologist.

Following the cross tabulations, the comparative use of each category of commercial fundraising was determined by evaluating the responses indicating extremely extensive or extensive use of each particular category. Categorical rankings were compared to nationwide categorical rankings based upon the latest data available from the Commercialism in Education Research Unit (CERU).

The category reported to have the highest usage was Direct Sales and Affinity Programs (DSAPs), of which 69.9% of the sample reported extremely extensive or extensive use. Nationwide data indicated this category to be the second highest, making it slightly higher in Georgia than across the nation.

The category with the second highest usage in Georgia was incentive programs. The respondents reported usage in this category to be extremely extensive or extensive at a rate of 50.35%. CERU data indicates that the incentive category ranked sixth of seven, nationally. This showed a much higher usage in Georgia when compared to the rest of the nation.

Use of exclusive agreements was the third highest category receiving reports of extremely extensive or extensive usage. Data from the sample showed that 43.08% of the respondents selected one of these responses. This varied slightly from nationwide data, which place this category as the fourth highest overall.

The category ranking fourth for Georgia was appropriation of space, in which usage was reported to be extremely extensive or extensive at a rate of 29.71%. Usage of

this type of commercial fundraising in Georgia was slightly higher than the nationwide data suggested, in which the category was ranked fifth.

The fifth category most frequently reported to have extremely extensive or extensive usage in Georgia was SEMs, at a reported rate of 25.92%. Usage of fundraising methods in this category was higher in Georgia than in nationwide data, where it was the category ranked lowest, in terms of usage.

Sponsorship of programs and activities was the sixth highest reported category of commercial fundraising used in Georgia. Data indicated that usage in this category was reported at a rate of 15.17%. This suggests an extreme difference from the nationwide data, which placed sponsorship of programs and activities as the most frequently used category in the nation.

The category reported less frequently than any other among the study sample was electronic marketing. Only 7.8% of the respondents selected extremely extensive or extensive when referring to usage in this category. This represents a significant difference from the rest of the country where nationwide data placed the category of electronic marketing as the third largest type of schoolhouse commercialism.

Research question two asked: What are teachers', principals', and parents' beliefs on the general acceptability of commercial fundraising in Georgia's public schools? Survey item eight stated: Item eight stated: I feel that commercial fundraising is acceptable in public schools. The majority of the respondents indicated that the use of commercial fundraising was acceptable, as 86.4% selected the strongly agree or agree responses.

To more fully address research question two, respondents were provided an opportunity to give their own specific comments as they responded to survey item nine, which was an open-ended question, which asked: What do you think about the acceptability of commercial fundraising in your school?

There were 95 responses to survey item nine. The researcher tallied recurring emerging themes and a Classification Table of Emerging Themes in Respondent Comments was created (see Table 20). The most frequent theme that was discovered from the responses to survey item nine was the necessity for the use of commercial fundraising in the public schools. The next most frequently occurring theme involved current economic issues, which affected the funding of school programs. A substantial number of responses indicated the perceived need for some sort of controls on commercial fundraising. Still another theme that emerged from the responses indicated that community demographics play a role in the utilization of commercial fundraising, placing rural schools at a disadvantage. Finally, 6% of the respondents to survey item nine actually referred to commercial fundraising as an “evil.” Respondent comments are presented verbatim, in Appendix F.

Research question three asked: Do stakeholder roles (parents, teachers, or principals) affect perceptions regarding the acceptability of commercial fundraising in Georgia’s public schools? Based upon a cross tabulation of frequency data, the highest strongest overall approval came from teacher members of the school councils, followed by principals and lastly by parents. Despite differences in each category, the majority of all groups expressed approval for commercial fundraising in the public schools.

Research question four asked: Does the grade level of school (elementary, middle, or high school) affect perceptions of the stakeholders regarding the acceptability of commercial fundraising in Georgia's public schools? Based upon a cross tabulation of frequency data, the highest strongest overall approval came from respondents from middle schools, followed by high schools, and lastly from elementary schools.

Research question five dealt with the interaction of the roles and the school levels in terms of the responses to survey item eight. No statistical significance was revealed by the ANOVA, due to the low response rate and no conclusions can be made.

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS

Public schools in Georgia have faced funding problems since their inception (Orr, 1950). The entire country has witnessed an increasing shift toward the utilization of commercial sources to augment public funding. Accordingly, commercial businesses have sought to profit from the fundraising needs of the public schools (Molnar, 2004). Although there has been some attempt to consolidate national data regarding school commercialism, information on fundraising within Georgia's public schools has been conspicuously absent. For educational leaders to make sound and timely decisions on behalf of all school stakeholders, they must have a broad and deep understanding of the perceptions of the different groups they serve.

Summary

The researcher's purpose was to determine the perceptions of primary stakeholders in the state of Georgia regarding the nature, scope, and acceptability of fundraising in Georgia's public schools. Through this study, the researcher intended to answer the following overarching research question: What are the perceptions of teachers, principals, and parents in the state of Georgia regarding the scope and acceptability of commercial fundraising in Georgia's public schools? The following supporting questions were considered:

1. What are teachers', principals', and parents' perceptions of the current scope of commercial fundraising in Georgia's public schools?

2. What are teachers', principals', and parents' beliefs on the general acceptability of commercial fundraising in Georgia's public schools?
3. Do stakeholder roles (parents, teachers, or principals) affect perceptions regarding the acceptability of commercial fundraising in Georgia's public schools?
4. Does the grade level of school (elementary, middle, or high school) affect perceptions of the stakeholders regarding the acceptability of commercial fundraising in Georgia's public schools?
5. Do combinations of stakeholder roles (parents, teachers, or principals) and grade levels (elementary, middle, or high school) affect perceptions of the stakeholders regarding the acceptability of commercial fundraising in Georgia's public schools

The researcher created an online survey, which he tested for reliability and validity, in order to gather data needed to address the research questions. A letter of introduction and request for assistance was sent by email to a random sample of principals at the elementary, middle, and high school levels in each of Georgia's public school districts. The principals were informed of the research being conducted and told to expect the survey request in one week. One week later, principals were emailed a letter containing the survey link and asked to complete the survey, as well as to forward it to teacher and parent members of their respective school councils. Follow-up letters were sent by email two weeks later, thanking those for their participation and encouraging those who had not yet completed the survey to do so. A total of 175 people viewed the

survey, however only 151 began to answer questions. Of the 151 who began the survey, 123 completed the survey in its entirety.

Analysis of Research Findings

The researcher was able to conclude that commercial fundraising has become an important part of Georgia's public schools. All seven of the categories of commercial fundraising addressed in the study were utilized, to some degree, within the schools sampled.

The category of commercial fundraising that was most often used extremely extensively or extensively was Direct Sales and Affinity Programs. This was followed by incentive programs, which were also used frequently by the respondents' schools. The next highest category used in the sample was exclusive agreements. More than a fourth of the respondents indicated that appropriation of space was also used extremely extensively or extensively in their schools. The use of Sponsored Educational Materials, the next most widely reported category, was also cited by over a fourth of the respondents as being utilized extremely extensively or extensively. Sponsorship of programs and activities, while enjoying the top spot in nationwide commercial fundraising, fell in sixth place for the Georgia sample. Finally, the category of commercial fundraising reported as extremely extensively or extensively the least often was electronic marketing.

The researcher was able to determine that while there were differences among the responses of parents, teachers, and principals, the majority of the respondents, from all groups sampled, generally saw the use of commercial fundraising in schools as an acceptable activity. In the same vein, while differences were reported among elementary

schools, middle schools, and high schools, all groups still expressed general approval of the use of commercial fundraising in the public schools.

Anecdotal comments of the respondents were used by the researcher to identify and categorize some recurring themes that emerged during the data collection. The most frequently occurring theme was that commercial fundraising had actually become a necessity for public schools. This was driven by the second most recurring theme, which indicated that the poor state of the economy and subsequent funding shortfalls for schools was a key issue in driving the use of commercial fundraising in Georgia's public schools.

The researcher concluded that the demographics of the individual communities often affected the school stakeholders' desire for, as well as their effective ability to utilize commercial fundraising successfully. Rural respondents often lamented at their school's inability to fully utilize commercial fundraising, at least to the same degree of success as their urban counterparts.

Discussion of Research Findings

In order to achieve a thorough understanding of the perceptions of various public school stakeholders regarding the nature and scope of commercial fundraising activities in Georgia, the researcher gathered data from a random sample of principals, teachers, and parents who serve on school councils at the elementary school, middle school and high school levels from each of Georgia's public school districts. Both similarities and differences were discovered among the various categories of commercial fundraising.

Sponsorship of Programs and Activities

The largest category of schoolhouse commercialism across the country during the previous decade has been sponsorship of programs and activities. This category has

grown continually and has attracted powerhouse corporations such as Allstate, AT&T, Burger King, Coca Cola, General Foods, Hardees, Kraft, Mc Donalds, Nabisco, Reebok, and Sunkist, to name just a few of many (Bartoletti, 2000; Cobo, 2004; Cravey, 2000; Molnar, 1998). While the implementation of NCLB legislation caused the use of methods within this category to grow nationwide, (Molnar & Garcia, 2005), the study respondents indicated that sponsorship of programs and activities was next to last, in terms of the extensiveness of use reported. Over 84% of the study respondents indicated that the use activities falling within this category were either rare or extremely rare. This shows a significant departure from the national norm. Patterns of response in the study showed no substantial difference among elementary schools, middle schools, and high schools.

When responses were cross-tabulated based upon roles within the school councils, an interesting deviation emerged. Although overall sample population reported infrequent use of commercial fundraising methods within this category, the parent respondents indicated a higher rate of utilization. While over half of the responding parents fell in with the majority, selecting either rare or extremely rare as their response, over 30% of the parents felt that the use of the type of commercial fundraising activities falling within this category was extensive.

Incentive Programs

The use of incentive programs in America's public schools has been pervasive and consistent with Pizza Hut and Campbell's leading the way with arguably two of the most successful incentive programs tied to public education (Campbell's, 2010; Molnar & Boninger, 2007; Pizza Hut, 2010). Despite the effectiveness of these cause related marketing techniques, according to the CERU, this category was next to last in terms of

overall usage across the nation (Molnar, 2008). This differed substantially from the data provided by the study participants, in which the category of incentive programs ranked second highest of the seven categories addressed in the survey. Over 50% of the respondents felt that the use of incentive programs was extremely extensive or extensive.

The most extensive use of incentive programs was reported by high school respondents, followed next by elementary school respondents. The respondents from middle school councils reported almost a 30% lower rate of utilization than their high school counterparts. Parent members of the reporting school councils identified the use of incentive programs as being extensive at a rate nearly twice as high as the teacher or principals participating in the survey.

The discrepancy between parent responses and those of the professional educators indicates a lack of communication among the entirety of the school stakeholders regarding the use of incentive programs. This is an important factor for principals to bear in mind when planning a total fundraising program for a school. When evaluating the frequency of usage of incentive programs, principals must bear in mind that stakeholders may see things as being more “extensive” when they are personally involved with them. The lower usage rate among middle schools suggests that elementary and high schools have experienced more success with incentive programs. This further suggests that a vertical planning approach between principals at all three school levels could be a valuable tool when considering various fundraising activities.

Appropriation of Space

Although they continue to be an effective and substantial marketing strategy, the use of techniques falling within the appropriation of space category has declined across the nation placing it sixth among the seven categories of schoolhouse commercialism addressed in the study, despite the relatively new advocacy of “naming rights” by many marketers (Molnar, 2006). No appreciable difference was discovered from an analysis of respondent data, in which the category ranked fifth of seven.

Within the study sample, the respondents representing high school councils reported higher incidences of utilization of appropriation of space techniques than the councils from the other school levels. While high school respondents cited extremely extensive or extensive use of these methods in excess of 50% of the responses, the majority of the elementary school respondents generally felt the use of these methods were rare or extremely rare. There was no substantial deviation among the data collected from principal, teacher, or parent responses to the survey item covering this category of schoolhouse commercialism.

High schools generally have more activities and facilities that lend themselves favorably to the use of appropriation of space fundraising methods, in comparison to elementary or middle schools. Consequently, it is not surprising that high schools utilize these methods of fundraising more often than the elementary or middle schools. The increased usage of these fundraising activities in high schools also coincides with a greater need for funding for athletic teams and other programs than experienced by elementary or middle schools. The consistency of reporting between principals, teachers, and parents indicates that when these programs are utilized, the school stakeholders know

about it. As some appropriation of space uses can incur rather long-term commitments, it is important that school principals carefully evaluate the nature of agreements they may enter into. This is particularly true if school leaders choose to utilize “naming rights” methods.

Sponsored Educational Materials (SEMs)

The use of SEMs has been occurring for many years, dating back to 1890. Despite the longevity of the methods included in this category, it remains as one of the most infrequently used commercial fundraising methods (Molnar, 1998; 2006). Despite slight variance over the past decade, the category of SEMs ranks last, in terms of its usage across the nation (Molnar, 2006).

While the use of SEMs across the country is lowest among the seven categories of school commercialism, it ranked slightly higher in the study sample. Respondent ratings placed SEMs as fifth of seven, in terms of utilization, according to the study sample. While the use of SEMs was one of the most infrequently used methods of commercial fundraising in the sample, its use was still reported to be extremely extensive or extensive by about 25% of the respondents.

The distribution of responses to the survey item regarding the use of SEMs was fairly uniform among the elementary schools, middle schools, and high schools, where rare or extremely rare ratings occurred in approximately 75% of the responses. When analyzed in terms of school council roles, the use of SEMs was reported less frequently by principals and teachers than by the parent respondents.

The relatively low utilization of SEMs, within the study sample and also across the nation indicates that these activities may not generate as much income as many of the

other types of fundraising. In fact, many of the schools utilizing SEMs only realize minor overall benefits from them. From a business perspective however, these can be extremely powerful tools for building a long-term customer base. Since SEMs generally do not require the use of time or school resources, they are often permitted rather than solicited. It is important that principals carefully evaluate any potential objections to the use of SEMs in their schools. The school councils, which have parent, teacher, principal, and business members, are appropriate venues for discussion of the use of SEMs.

Electronic Marketing

Electronic marketing has been a significant method of commercial fundraising across the nation for the past two decades. The CERU rated this category as the third highest among the seven categories of schoolhouse commercialism addressed in this study. The CERU annual reports of usage of electronic marketing have been fairly consistent other than a noticeable increase during the 1990-1991 time period (Molnar, 2006).

Although use of electronic marketing has been relatively high across the nation, it represented the category ranking last according to usage reported by the study respondents, where over 90% felt the usage of electronic marketing to be rare or extremely rare. The results represent a significant deviation from the national norm.

The responses regarding electronic marketing were balanced when analyzed in terms of the level of school. While high schools reported extensive usage in about 20% of the responses, there were no respondents that felt electronic marketing was used extremely extensively. When analyzed in terms of school council roles, the responses

regarding the use of electronic marketing was relatively balanced among principals, teachers, and parents.

The deviation from the national norms regarding the use of electronic marketing reflects not only regional preferences but also the rapid changes in technology and how these affect behavior in the commercial fundraising arena. Early electronic marketing efforts centered upon a hardware acquisition effort, in which schools actually received televisions, computers, networking equipment, and so forth. Schools were often erroneously evaluated on their educational quality based upon the number of computers per student. The electronic marketing of today is often based on software or more often on Internet sites that are designed to attract both students and teachers. In a sense, the education community is going to the marketers rather than having them come to the schools, as they once did. This presents a tremendous challenge for principals, who are tasked to insure content appropriateness.

Exclusive Agreements

The use of exclusive agreements was ranked as the fourth largest category of commercial fundraising in public schools across the nation (Molnar, 2006). The preponderance of these contracts has historically been with major soft drink manufacturers. Soft drink sales in schools have been criticized by a number of groups due to concerns regarding obesity and other health issues among students. During the 1999-2000 school year, some school systems backed away from these type of contracts (Molnar & Morales, 2000; Snyder, 2000). Soft drink manufacturers, in an attempt to retain their school markets, shifted their market focus to incorporate the sales of water,

juices, and other healthy drinks. This resulted in an increase in participation (Molnar & Reaves, 2001).

Overall frequency rates obtained from survey item six revealed the category of exclusive agreements to rank third among the seven categories addressed in the study. While this is slightly higher than the national ranking, over 56% of the study respondents felt that the use of exclusive contracting was rare or extremely rare/never within their respective schools.

When analyzed by the level of the school, it was clear that exclusive contracting is much more prevalent in the high schools than it is in elementary schools or middle schools. Almost three times as many respondents representing high schools reported extensive or extremely extensive use of exclusive contracts than the respondents from the elementary schools. When viewed according to the roles of the reporting school council members, parents reported extremely extensive or extensive use of exclusive agreements in their respective schools more often than teachers or principals. Overall, the majority of all three groups felt that the use of exclusive contracts was rare or extremely rare/never.

Like appropriation of space activities, the use of exclusive agreements as a source of commercial fundraising manifests itself most heavily in the high schools. This is largely due to the athletic programs and the general requirements to fund extracurricular programs. Historically, the largest sources of these types of agreements have been connected to soft drink and athletic equipment contracts. Exclusive agreements present both legal and ethical challenges for principals, superintendents, and school boards. School leaders must be concerned with the perceptions of their stakeholders as they serve as organizational and educational leaders. The citizenry certainly frowns upon public

officials who appear to have sold out to big business. The actual use of exclusive contracting is much less frequent than many people perceive it to be. Clear and purposeful communication regarding the actual contractual agreements that school leaders enter into is essential in combating misinformation among the stakeholders.

Direct Sales and Affinity Programs (DSAPs)

The CERU began tracking of the DSAPs category during the in 1999-2000 school year, which they simply refer to as “fundraising.” The following school year saw an increase in this type of commercial fundraising where it ranked as the fourth largest category of commercial fundraising (Molnar & Morales, 2001). Continuing to grow, the category rose to the second highest among the seven categories of schoolhouse commercialism addressed in the study (Molnar, 2006). This differs somewhat from data provided from responses to the survey item regarding DSAPs, in which the category emerged as the clear leader among all of the categories, where over 69% of the respondents cited either extremely extensive or extensive usage of methods falling within the category.

When analyzed according to the level of the school, data revealed that respondents felt that the use of DSAPs within high schools was higher than it was in the middle schools or elementary schools. Extremely extensive or extensive use of DSAPs was reported in over 79% of the responses from high school council respondents, while middle and elementary schools were approximately 16%-18% lower. Parent respondents selected extremely extensive or extensive in approximately 89% of the responses compared to principal and teacher respondents, who made these selections in 61.7% and

69.2% of their responses, respectively. Anecdotal comments often cited the usage of DSAPs in the school fundraising programs (see Appendix F).

Direct sales and affinity programs (DSAPs) are what people generally think of first when they consider school fundraising. This is due to the direct involvement of the stakeholders with DSAPs. Students often sell products and parents buy these products, and swipe their shopper's cards at the grocery stores. When stakeholders get a hint that children are being taken advantage of, they form very strong negative opinions. The anecdotal responses gathered in the study and presented in Appendix F, give school leaders a good snapshot of the prevailing attitudes regarding this type of commercial fundraising. Principals can use these comments to better understand some of the objections that parents or teachers may have regarding the use of DSAPs.

General Acceptability of Commercial Fundraising

Data indicated that the majority of the respondents generally approve of the use of commercial fundraising in public schools. Over 86% of the respondents indicated that they agreed or strongly agreed that commercial fundraising is acceptable in public schools. Less than 2% of the respondents expressed strong disagreement with commercial fundraising in public schools.

Despite the relatively narrow confidence interval of the responses, there were some slight differences among the responses, as analyzed by school level. Approval percentage of the middle school respondents approached 90%, followed closely by that of high school respondents, which was slightly lower. The lowest rate of approval came from elementary school respondents, although the majority of this group also expressed approval for commercial fundraising in the public schools. When analyzed by school

council roles, there was very little difference among the groups. Teachers had the highest percentage of approval responses, followed by principals and finally teachers. There was less than a 6% difference between all three groups, with all groups responding with agreement or strong agreement that commercial fundraising is an acceptable practice at a response rate over 83%. These findings corresponded to Kowal's (2004), whose Nebraska study indicated that elementary administrators and teachers were less accepting of classroom commercialism than those at middle schools or high schools.

Several respondents indicated in their anecdotal comments that commercial fundraising has become a necessity in today's public schools. Many of the respondent comments tied the current economic difficulties to the lack of school funding and indicated that this has caused an increasing need for school budgets to be supplemented with commercial fundraising revenues. While the overwhelming majority of the respondents expressed their approval for commercial fundraising practices, a good number of the school council members felt that there should some mechanism to monitor and control the commercial fundraising that occurs within the public schools. This parallels Browder's (2007) findings in his Virginia study, in which the respondents saw a need for "policy or guidelines."

While there were relatively few disparaging comments regarding the acceptability of commercial fundraising practices, there were some strong statements made against the practice. One respondent felt that the practice of commercial fundraising takes advantage of the children in the schools. Another respondent felt that commercial fundraising is a distraction to the students and felt that it should not be utilized.

Respondents cited their particular school demographics as they applied to both the need for and the ability to effectively utilize commercial fundraising methods. A portion of the respondents felt that rural schools were not able to reap the benefits of commercial fundraising practices as well as urban schools. Anecdotal comments reflected regret that this was the case. They also cited the fact that the rural schools had a lower tax base and a greater need for supplemental funding (see Appendix F).

While school stakeholders at all levels generally approve of commercial fundraising methods, the lower approval rate from elementary school stakeholders indicates that elementary school principals have additional challenges in regard to planning and managing commercial fundraising programs. Anecdotal responses which were unfavorable often referred to fundraising activities in which the students or parents were directly involved in product sales. While this type of commercial fundraising represents only one method that schools can utilize to raise funds, it is often the category that causes the greatest concern to stakeholders, regardless of their roles.

Principals, school council members, and system level leaders can utilize the results of this study in order to anticipate potential objections, maximize returns on commercial fundraising efforts, and communicate effectively to all school stakeholders. Furthermore, school leadership preparation programs can utilize the study data as they develop courses relating both to school finance and to general school leadership.

Conclusions

Through the review of literature and the findings of the study, the researcher was able to reach the following conclusions:

1. Commercial fundraising has become an important and necessary source of revenue for many of Georgia's public schools.
2. Schools within Georgia utilize methods of commercial fundraising common across the nation although the patterns of usage within the various categories are slightly different.
3. School stakeholders generally agree that commercial fundraising is acceptable in the public schools.
4. School stakeholders feel that the state of the economy is affecting school funding and causing a need for commercial fundraising in the public schools.
5. Elementary school stakeholders are slightly less accepting of commercial fundraising methods than their middle and high school counterparts.
6. Community demographics are related to the need for and the ability to effectively utilize commercial fundraising in the public schools.

Implications

It was the researchers purpose to gather and analyze information regarding the use of and the general acceptance of commercial fundraising practices in the state of Georgia, in order to allow school principals to make sound and timely decisions regarding fundraising within their schools. Although the survey response rate was not sufficient to generalize findings to a larger population and to evaluate variable interactions, valuable information was discovered. Data gathered in this study indicated that the use of

commercial fundraising is generally acceptable to school stakeholders. While the opponents of such practices do not make up the majority, their opinions are still important and they express strong feelings on the issue. These are feelings that school principals must deal with effectively in order to achieve excellent community support for local schools. To do this, school principals must understand the practical basis of the objections as well as communicate effectively regarding all aspects of commercial fundraising being utilized. The results of this study provide principals with information necessary for conducting their own school-level evaluations.

Demographic characteristics of schools affect not only the need for commercial fundraising methods but also the ability of certain schools to realize success in commercial fundraising activities. Rural schools have fundraising needs and issues that some urban schools do not face, at least to the same degree. In this respect, global perceptions may not be the best singularly valid tool for making school-based decisions. The use of national, statewide, or even system level data regarding the use of commercial fundraising may not necessarily reflect the views of the local school stakeholders. Local school-based research may prove more beneficial to principals than research conducted across larger populations. This study will be of use to school boards, school superintendents, and central office staff members as they create, analyze, and review policies regarding the use of commercial fundraising programs. It will also serve as an overview for any school stakeholder wishing to gain a broader view of the use of commercial fundraising in public schools. Overall, the study fills a void in the literature, as there have previously been no studies regarding the perceptions of principals, teachers, and parents regarding the use of commercial fundraising in Georgia's public schools.

Recommendations

Based upon the review of literature and the findings of this study, the following recommendations are given:

1. A standardized data-gathering instrument regarding the use of commercial fundraising should be developed for use at local public schools. This will provide an instrument that local principals can use to evaluate stakeholder perceptions at the school level and it could also serve to help gather and consolidate data at the system or higher levels.
2. Principals should communicate regularly and clearly regarding the commercial fundraising activities in their schools. Stakeholders should be informed of the nature and scope of fundraising methods, as well as the reasons for their use.
3. Specific guidance regarding the utilization of commercial fundraising should be provided at the system level. This should include the nature and scope of acceptable fundraising activities as well as specify a method for reporting information on commercial fundraising events.
4. School principals should use system level policy to further develop their own school policies regarding the use of commercial fundraising, based upon local research on the specific needs and opinions of the school stakeholders.
5. Further research is recommended regarding how the specific purposes for commercial fundraising influences stakeholder perceptions.
6. Further research is recommended that includes the perceptions of school business partners and the general business community in regard to the use of commercial fundraising in public schools.

Dissemination

The findings from the study will be distributed to all survey instrument respondents who requested further information on the study results. Results will also be provided to school system-level administrators who have requested the findings during the data collection period. The researcher will attempt the publication of articles based upon the results of the study in *Educational Leadership* and *Educational Administration Quarterly*. Copies of the full dissertation will be filed at the Zach S. Henderson Library of Georgia Southern University. The study will also be distributed to Dissertation Abstracts International.

Concluding Thoughts

The views of the researcher regarding the use of commercial fundraising in public schools have been influenced by his roles as a student, parent, teacher, school administrator and community member. Public education has faced funding challenges since its inception and will likely face more challenges in the future. The use of commercial fundraising can be a valuable source of supplemental income for schools, however; the ramifications of the methods used must be considered fully by school leaders. While the use of commercial fundraising in schools affects school stakeholders in different ways, the prime consideration must certainly be the best interests of the students.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A
SURVEY INSTRUMENT

Perceptions on Commercial Fundraising in Georgia Schools

Section One

Please use the following scale to rate your perceptions regarding the extent of commercial fundraising, by category, in your school.

EX=Extremely Extensive E= Extensive M= Moderate R=Rare ER=Extremely Rare

Sponsorship of Programs and Activities-Corporations/businesses support school programs or activities in exchange for the right to associate their name with the activity. Examples would be a basketball tournament sponsored by an athletic shoe manufacturer or an essay contest sponsored by a local bank.

1. The use of Sponsorship of Programs and Activities in my school is:

-EX -E -R -ER

Incentive Programs-Corporations/businesses provide goods, services, or money when students, parents or faculty members engage in a specific activity. An example would be a restaurant that provides free ice cream to students who got all A's on their report card.

2. The use of Incentive Programs in my school is:

-EX -E -R -ER

Appropriation of Space-Corporations/businesses provide money, goods, or services in exchange for being able to advertise on school property. An example would be when a corporation provides free athletic scoreboards, which bear their corporate logo.

3. The use of Appropriation of Space in my school is:

-EX -E -R -ER

Sponsored Educational Materials-Corporations/businesses provide educational materials, which also promote themes, suggest messages, or promote products. An example would be a poster on good nutrition, sponsored by and bearing the logo of a dairy company.

4. The use of Sponsored Educational Materials in my school is:

-EX -E -R -ER

Electronic Marketing-Corporations/businesses provide electronic hardware, software, or programming services in exchange for the ability to advertise using the provided media. An example would be a corporation that provides free televisions and programming for in-school use which contains advertising.

5. The use of Electronic Marketing in my school is:

-EX -E -R -ER

APPENDIX B

LETTER OF INTRODUCTION



COLLEGE OF EDUCATION

**DEPARTMENT OF LEADERSHIP, TECHNOLOGY AND HUMAN
DEVELOPMENT**

Letter of Introduction & Request for Assistance

Dear Principal,

My name is Ronald Main and I am the Assistant Principal at Greenbrier Middle School in Evans, Georgia. I am also a current graduate student in the Georgia Southern University College of Education, working toward the degree Doctor of Education in Educational Leadership. As a school leader, I need your assistance.

I am currently working on my dissertation, which is entitled *A Study Of The Perceptions Of Stakeholders Regarding Commercial Fundraising In Georgia's Public Schools*. I am studying the perceptions of principals, teachers, and parents regarding the use of commercial fundraising in Georgia's public schools. This study will fill a void in current educational research, since a study of this type has not been done in Georgia.

I have selected school councils as the most appropriate vehicle for gathering the data needed to complete my study. While contact information for principals is publicly available, contact information for teacher and parent members of the school councils has not been consolidated. It is in this area that I need your assistance. In one week, I will be sending out email requests for participation in an online survey consisting of 11 questions. I would ask that in addition to completing the survey yourself, you also forward the email to a teacher and a parent member of your school council and encourage them to participate.

As a school leader, I know the importance of considering the various views of stakeholders in our public schools. I feel that the results of my study will be valuable in making decisions regarding commercial fundraising in Georgia schools. I will be pleased to provide you with the results once I have completed the study.

As a token of appreciation for participation in my study, those completing the survey will be eligible to be entered in a drawing for a fifty-dollar restaurant gift card of the winner's choosing. The principal forwarding the survey request to the winner will also receive a fifty-dollar restaurant gift card. Entry information is provided upon survey completion.

I truly need your help in this endeavor and I hope you will find in your heart a willingness to participate.

Sincerely,

Ronald Main
(706) 726-4439

APPENDIX C
REQUEST FOR PARTICIPATION



COLLEGE OF EDUCATION

DEPARTMENT OF LEADERSHIP, TECHNOLOGY AND HUMAN DEVELOPMENT

Request for Participation

Dear School Council Member,

My name is Ronald Main and I am the Assistant Principal at Greenbrier Middle School in Evans, Georgia. I am also a current graduate student in the Georgia Southern University College of Education, working toward the degree Doctor of Education in Educational Leadership. As a school leader, I need your assistance.

I am currently working on my dissertation, which is entitled *A Study Of The Perceptions Of Stakeholders Regarding Commercial Fundraising In Georgia's Public Schools*. I am studying the perceptions of principals, teachers, and parents regarding the use of commercial fundraising in Georgia's public schools. This study will fill a void in current educational research, since a study of this type has not been done in Georgia. As a school leader, I know the importance of considering the various views of stakeholders in our public schools. I feel that the results of my study will be valuable in making decisions regarding commercial fundraising in Georgia schools. I will be pleased to provide you with the results once I have completed the study.

In order to collect data for my study, I have created an online survey consisting of 11 questions regarding perceptions related to commercial fundraising in public schools. I expect that it will take 10 minutes or less to complete the survey. You can access the survey by using the following link: <http://questionpro.com/t/ADt4PZHHq6>

As a token of appreciation for participation in my study, those completing the survey will be eligible to be entered in a drawing for a fifty-dollar restaurant gift card of the winner's choosing. The principal forwarding the survey request to the winner will also receive a fifty-dollar restaurant gift card. Entry information is provided upon survey completion. Please see the attached Informed Consent letter for additional information

I truly need your help in this endeavor and I hope you will find in your heart a willingness to participate.

Sincerely,

Ronald Main - (706) 726-4439

APPENDIX D
INFORMED CONSENT LETTER

COLLEGE OF EDUCATION

DEPARTMENT OF LEADERSHIP, TECHNOLOGY AND HUMAN DEVELOPMENT

Informed Consent

1. My name is Ronald Main and I am a graduate student at Georgia Southern University in the College of Education. I am working under the direction of Dr. Lucindia Chance of the Leadership, Technology, and Human Development Department. I am currently conducting research in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Education.
2. I am conducting a study on the perceptions of public school stakeholders, as they pertain to the commercial fundraising in Georgia's public schools. The purpose of the study is to fill a void in educational literature and to provide useable information for educational leaders.
3. Participation in this research will include the completion of an online survey consisting of eleven questions.
4. The only risk associated with participation in the study would be having to deal with the sensitive issues regarding commercial fundraising in Georgia's public schools.
5. The primary benefit to you as a participant is an opportunity to voice your opinions regarding the use of commercial fundraising in Georgia's public schools. The benefit of your participation in the study to society is that the data gathered will provide information that school leaders can utilize to make informed decisions regarding commercial fundraising in the public schools.
6. The survey should take only about ten minutes or less to complete.
7. There will be no identifying data collected as a part of the survey procedure.
8. Participants have the right to ask questions and have those questions answered. If you have questions about this study, please contact myself or Dr. Lucindia Chance, whose contact information is located at the end of this informed consent. For questions concerning your rights as a research participant, contact Georgia Southern University Office of Research Services and Sponsored Programs at 912-478-0843.
9. There is no compensation for participation in the research.
10. Participation in this research is strictly voluntary and participants can withdraw at any time by simply not completing the online survey.
11. There is no penalty for deciding not to participate in the study.
12. Your informed consent is assumed with your voluntary participation in the study.

Title of Project: A STUDY OF THE PERCEPTIONS OF STAKEHOLDERS REGARDING
COMMERCIAL FUNDRAISING IN GEORGIA'S PUBLIC SCHOOLS
Principal Investigator: Ronald E. Main, 111 Redbud Ln., Martinez, GA 30907, Phone (706) 726-4439,
rmain@georgiasouthern.edu

Faculty Advisor: Dr. Lucindia Chance, College of Education, P.O. Box 8131
Department of Leadership, Technology, and Human Development, Georgia Southern University
Statesboro, GA 30460-8131 Phone (912) 478-7267
lcance@georgiasouthern.edu

APPENDIX E
FOLLOW UP LETTER



**DEPARTMENT OF LEADERSHIP, TECHNOLOGY AND HUMAN
DEVELOPMENT**

Dear School Council Member,

I recently sent a request for your participation in *A Study Of The Perceptions Of Stakeholders Regarding Commercial Fundraising In Georgia's Public Schools*. I would like to express my sincere thanks to those who have already completed the survey. If you have not yet been able to participate, I would like to ask you to please complete the survey at your earliest opportunity. If you are a principal, please forward this to a teacher and a parent member of your school council.

The online survey consists of only 11 questions regarding perceptions related to commercial fundraising in public schools. I expect that it will take 10 minutes or less to complete the survey. You can access the survey by using the following link:

<http://questionpro.com/t/ADt4PZHHq6>

As a token of appreciation for participation in my study, those completing the survey will be eligible to be entered in a drawing for a fifty-dollar restaurant gift card of the winner's choosing. The principal forwarding the survey request to the winner will also receive a fifty-dollar restaurant gift card. Entry information is provided upon survey completion.

Sincerely,

Ronald Main - (706) 726-4439

APPENDIX F
SURVEY COMMENTS

SURVEY COMMENTS

Verbatim Responses to Survey Item Nine

Like most people, I wish we didn't need fundraising. I think parents hate it unless it benefits them specifically, ex: cheerleading uniforms.

Necessary evil.

I serve at an elementary school; so commercial fundraising is not used as widely as it would be in a middle or high school.

I'm ok w/ the idea if used strategically and it doesn't take away from instructional time.

In these economic times, fundraising is more needed than ever. Many athletic organizations and clubs could not function without fundraising.

I think the community knows it is a "necessary evil"

Since we are a small school system, commercial fundraising is often used because it provides more money or products than we could otherwise obtain.

Most stakeholders accept commercial fundraising, as long as it is a quality product. The practice is probably more accepted during these hard economic times.

I agree with the concept. I feel everyone should give it a try and realize the school and the children can benefit from this.

Sometimes commercial fundraising is necessary in order to provide additional activities and services for students that cannot be purchased with State or Federal tax dollars.

No real negative attitudes or perceptions about it.

It is a necessary evil.

I think it would be good for the school. However, because of my school's location and the number and types of business, we cannot get this type of support.

Commercial fundraising provides funding for programs, resources, and incentives that would not be available without this source.

We are not as commercialized as some of the larger systems. I would accept increased commercial fundraising in my school.

I do not have a problem with commercial fundraising. We are an elementary school so there are not as many possibilities for us as it would be for a high school.

Needed with the funding issues we have today.

I think it has its place as long as it is done in moderation.

In this economic time teachers are desperate for materials...I believe if companies supply the needed materials, that it is okay to ask students/parents to support the companies...kind of the I will scratch your back if you scratch mine thought.

It would be accepted.

We do not allow it.

I believe it is ok but the rules/regulations should be fully understood by both parties. In these economic times, we need more financial support in education and this would help cover some cost of things we need.

It assists us in purchasing instructional resources including field trips.

I think schools need money and commercial fundraising allows that to happen with very little time investment on the part of the school staff.

It's a very acceptable way of raising funds for schools.

Anything to raise money for the school would be great.

This is getting more difficult with the economy yet we are still expected to fund the programs, sports, bands etc.

If done properly, and in moderation, it can help schools with money - especially in this day. It should not, however, be pervasive or all encompassing.

Accepted by most everyone. I do not like them.

We do use it and have had no problems. Since we give info to our parents concerning this, they are accepting of this practice.

Especially in times when funding is being slashed by the legislature, but expectations remain high for academic performance, schools have no choice but to turn to commercial fundraising to bridge the gap.

I think it is okay however you have to screen some products.

I believe that it is acceptable within certain limits.

Fundraising is a necessity today.

It is a necessary evil

Schools have always needed additional funding for various student or staff needs. The need is even more pronounced now than ever before due to the financial situation that schools find themselves in at this time.

It seems an unfair practice. Those who sell are not the ones that really reap the benefits. Many only benefit those who read extensively or have honors. These are not generally the top sellers.

Given our rural location it is difficult for us to utilize commercial fundraising due to the limited number of businesses in our community. However, I think our community as well as educators is open to this option.

I do not support commercial fundraising. It is not efficient, effective, nor does it support the educational mission of the institution.

Especially with the budget issues, this may be our only way extra curricular activities can survive.

I believe that parents would be acceptable to commercial fundraising in our school. They would be even more understanding if a particular goal or purpose for the funds was set and discussed in an open forum prior to the solicitation of funds.

It is needed. Times are tough...if they assist schools in providing for kids or improving facilities or participation...then, why not allow it?

Our school system has very little money, and if the school system could get a percentage of the money raised, I don't have a problem with it.

I believe it is not ideal, but necessary to provide resources.

As a former teacher and now a grandparent of five in our local school system, I feel the pressure of the fundraising campaign is not a good thing. It can be hard financially on families to try to buy from so many, especially in these economic times. The fundraiser that I recall which was twice a year involved wrapping paper, cookie dough, etc. and the facilitator was lovingly called, "Mr. Money", and he came on like fire engine getting everyone excited particularly about what they would win if they sold the most. Even though, working in the school for 24 years, I knew they could use the money, I still felt very uncomfortable with the sales techniques promoted---such as take your paperwork to your parent and let them take it to the workplace to see what all can be bought. Then the parent is doing the selling and if the child is the top seller, they will get the prize. This is a point of view from an educator and a grandparent.

I feel very strongly that it is NOT a good idea. In an attempt to gain needed funds for school, we take advantage of the innocence of our children! I have seen children become almost manic or brainwashed about having to sell x number of items so that they can earn prize y.

I am for anything that helps the community and the businesses in the community. That due to the small community in which we live it is not feasible to do this. We continue to ask the same companies over and over and they get tired of complying. This would work well in larger areas such as Columbia County.

I often feel the products are expensive and do not feel right about asking people to buy them.

Fundraising is limited to essentially one activity per year.

When money outweighs the needs of students, students suffer. All commercial fundraising is about profits only.

We do not have any and feel we should not.

I think the acceptability of commercial fundraising is good, as long as, it is not too much. At our school, we limit the amount of commercial fundraising.

I think it is too accepted. I understand that public schools have to hold fundraising. The funding they receive is not adequate but it feels like every time I turn around the school is asking for something else. I'm not sure where the happy balance lies.

I wish it were not necessary; but given the climate with respect to increased direct taxpayer support of education, it seems to me a necessary evil. Still, it is something that needs to be monitored and information regarding it needs to be as public and above-board as possible. (I admit I don't know as much about it as I should.)

I think it would be received very well as long as the funds obviously support student activities and the events do not negatively impact any curricular areas such as displacing gym classes for a corporate day of some type.

Should be used sparingly, and only for items directly related to the purchase of student use only items.

We RARELY involve commercial fundraising at our Title I elementary school. Our major fundraisers are ice cream sales, Fall Festival and pictures. We do not believe that elementary children should raise money.

Schools need the chance to raise money.

I feel it is fine if the students at the school benefit educationally.

If it were not for fundraisers, then schools could not survive. The local BOE does not provide schools money for daily operational purposes.

Our school is rural, so we do not have many opportunities for commercial fundraising. Sales that are done in a way that students do not have to go out into the public, but can ask family and friends to participate.

It is one of the few ways we can raise funds that ultimately benefit students, so we do it. I think that fundraising is an accepted evil in our school. Parents know that the school needs to generate even more revenue now that the state and local BOE funds are being cut. We try not to do more than three major fundraisers in one year- I have a problem with prostituting children to earn money for the school's benefit.

If more of our Partners and Community Businesses would like to "advertise" or promote their business using our school resources, I think it is acceptable but they should support our school in return.

As long as guidelines are set and followed, I see no problem. The fundraising has to support the entire student body, not just a small portion.

I feel that in the economic state that schools are in, this type of activity is needed.

We have virtually no commercial fundraising in my school, thus I can draw on no experience to form a valid opinion

I think it's a distraction to students, staff and parents and does not have a place in public schools.

Commercial fundraising provides money for our school to supplement federal, state, and local funds

Would not wish for this to happen

We have to do commercial fundraising in our school in order for our extracurricular activities and athletic teams to survive.

Current budget constraints are impacting students as well as staffing needs. I think this is a meaningful dimension to be explored as we further national efforts for home, school, and community relationships.

I'm fine with it. We have Stevie-B night, sell products and discount cards for local businesses. We also have cards that we swipe at Publix and Kroger when we shop and the school gets a portion of the sales. Every little bit helps.

I would not be for it.

At the present time, we are experiencing very difficult and trying financial times in the school system. I think it is super that we can defray some costs to the school through affiliation with sponsors involved in commercial fund raising. I would welcome any additional opportunities that come our way.

As long as it benefits all students then commercial fundraising is acceptable in schools, within reason. Students should not have to constantly be selling products to support the school or be in any danger to promote school products either.

I think that it is very necessary. The public school system has only a certain amount of money for us so it is necessary that we go out and get other to fill the financial gap.

If the product is positive in nature for the well being of students.

I think that even though a lot of parents get tired of some of these type of fundraising efforts, it is absolutely necessary to the success of our school.

It is a great help to the schools

I think it is ok, but some companies are too pushy. I prefer to work with local businesses in our small community.

I think that it is very well accepted.

With schools in dire need for money, I think that school business partnerships are very important.

I feel like we should have more fundraising. More fundraising could sponsor more school activities and field trips (since the only field trips in our school are for extracurriculars and for Pre-K, which is a shame.) Many of our students have never traveled to other places in the county or outside of the county.

We are in an extremely rural area with a very limited tax base therefore we must generate funds by any legal means.

Our funds are very limited and we need all the help we can get. We are currently sending flyers home for dealerships. If you buy a car from a particular dealership, they give \$100 to the school of the purchaser's choice.

Since commercial fundraising is rare in our school, I believe it is perceived to be generally unacceptable. This is unfortunate since there are many corporate sponsors out in the community that would like to help provide needed amenities that our school budget is unable to provide due to our current economy.

We do not participate in many commercial fundraising projects.

I think that the focus on the fundraising should be towards the benefit of the students/education and not the company.

As a parent myself, I do not care for the fundraising requests. As a principal in these tough economic times, I understand their necessity.

We are still free to choose to buy a product or not; corporations do support schools and reward them for collecting labels.

Our school does not have many commercial fundraisers.

As long as the fundraisers are few and far between parents seem willing. A recent trend in discussion is to promote no show fundraisers, which invite parents to donate rather than participate in a fundraiser.

I feel commercial fundraising is needed in school in order to buy many of the needed materials.