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INTRODUCTION

Financial management of nonprofits is similar to financial management in the commercial sector in many respects; however, certain key differences shift the focus of a nonprofit financial manager. A for-profit enterprise focuses on profitability and maximizing shareholder value.

A nonprofit organization’s primary goal is to fulfill a socially desirable need on an ongoing basis. A nonprofit generally lacks the financial flexibility of a commercial enterprise, because it depends on resource providers that are not engaging in an exchange transaction. These resources are directed towards providing goods or services to a client other than the actual resource provider. Because of this, the nonprofit must demonstrate its stewardship of donated resources—money donated for a specific purpose must be used for the purpose that is specified by the donor or implied in the organization’s stated mission. The management and reporting activities of a nonprofit must emphasize stewardship for these donated resources, and the staff must be able to show that the dollars were used as directed by the donor. The new emphasis on external financial reports on donor restriction has made the use of fund accounting systems even more critical.

Budgeting and cash management are two areas of financial management that are extremely important for nonprofit organizations. The organization must know if it has enough cash to continue to provide its services. Cash flow can be extremely challenging to predict because an organization relies on revenue from resource providers that do not expect to receive the service provided. In fact, an increase in demand for a nonprofit’s services can lead to a management crisis. It’s difficult to forecast contribution revenue in a reliable manner from year to year and for that reason, expense control and budgeting are areas of increased emphasis for a nonprofit.
BUDGETS

Budgets are the organization’s operating plan for a fiscal period. They express, in monetary terms, how the organization will fulfill its stated purpose. The board and staff decide what programs will be carried out for the upcoming fiscal year. The staff then allocates resources to ensure that those programs are delivered.

The budget charts a direction for allocating and maximizing the use of resources. Ideally, it identifies any financial problems that could arise in the coming year. In addition, the budget should provide indicators for assessing staff performance and give staff members goals to reach and steps to achieve them. Disciplined tracking and classification of program expenditures enhance management’s ability to report on service efforts and accomplishments.

Budget Planning Issues

The scope and size of a nonprofit’s programs and asset base dictate the complexity of its budgets. In its most complete form, a budget is a compilation of the plans and objectives of management that covers all phases of operations for a specific period of time. If a goal of an organization is to build working capital, it might want to project a budget imbalance of revenues over expenses. However, building too much of a surplus too aggressively might indicate to users of financial statements that the organization is not effectively carrying out its stated purpose. Program priorities should be balanced in an effective budget. The nonprofit’s management must assign its resources to impact the maximum number of intended beneficiaries. Nonprofit organizations that charge for their services might not be able to easily increase their prices for their programs.

Lead-time for grant requests and multi-year programs must be factored into the budgetary planning process. The financial manager of a nonprofit must prepare the budget to ensure adequate funds for programs slated to run longer than the average budget cycle.

The budget, once adopted, should be used by the staff as a management tool to gauge operational performance. An effective budget should establish criteria that would signal management if a change is needed or if a course of action should be refined.

A budget that is updated for new situations enhances its value as a monitoring system. As unforeseen conditions arise, the budget should be tailored to respond to those conditions. Staff and management accountability is an aspect of budgeting; responsibility should be associated with those that are actually capable of realizing the goals. Without active awareness and participation of those carrying out the organizational mission, a budget becomes useless.

Zero-Based vs. Incremental Budgeting

Zero-based budgeting incorporates the planning process for setting organizational objectives as part of the budgeting process. An organization starts from zero by assuming that no program is necessary and that no money needs to be spent. Programs to be continued have to be proven worthy and financially sound every fiscal year. Zero-based budgeting involves an orderly evaluation of all elements of revenue and expense. Each program must be examined to justify its existence and its effectiveness compared to alternative programs. Programmatic priorities should be established. Each cost
The center should be challenged to prove its necessity, and each cost center’s contribution to the overall organizational objective should be measured. Goals and objectives should be clear, as well as quantitatively measurable.

Incremental budgeting treats existing programs and departments as pre-approved, subject only to increases or decreases in financial resources allocated. A nonprofit’s historical costs are the usual base from which budget planning starts. The focus is on the changes anticipated over or under last year’s numbers. The planning process is considered complete and program priorities as established. The organization must decide whether its budget is to be based on measurable and predictable statistics or only on good guesses.

**Types of Budgets**

The basic budget is a comprehensive look at the entire organization’s overall projection of the revenues or financial support and its expected expenditures. Specialized or supplemental budgets can provide a specific focus on fragments of financial activity relevant to individual programs or revenue centers. An example of a supplementary budget is the quantification of membership goals for a given year.

This portion of a budget guides the business office’s cash flow projections and the development office’s annual goals and objectives for fundraising activities. The program department might be affected throughout the year as membership projections are matched up with the actual membership numbers.

**Useful potential budget reports include:**

- Annual, quarterly, or monthly projections of income and expenses for the entire organization, as well as each of its divisions, departments, and branches
- Revenue projections by type—contributions, tuition, fees, for services
- Individual project, department, branch, or other cost center projections
- Service delivery costs by patient, student, member or client; potential capital additions like building or equipment acquisition
- Cash flow—short and long term
- Historic and projected fundraising event revenue and expense
- Book store, pharmacy, or resale shop sales if applicable
- Staffing models

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*A thoroughly planned and implemented budget enhances the likelihood that a nonprofit will be financially successful. A comprehensive budget is a tool that translates abstract goals into controllable parts. It stipulates performance goals for the upcoming year.*

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The planning and preparation process leading to a budget forces the organization to set priorities and narrow its choices. A budget can facilitate coordination and cooperation between the various programs and financial departments. Periodic budget comparison to actual financial performance can reveal problems and should allow the board and staff to respond quickly to changing financial conditions. The budget provides a measurement of financial performance in relation to the nonprofit’s expectations; it guides financial decision-making over the course of a fiscal year. There is a natural tendency to emphasize cost control because of uncertainty, and the presence of such controls can stifle creative responses to a change in demand for an organization's services. The board and senior staff should provide leadership regarding the usefulness and flexibility of the budget. The budgeting process and the subsequent use of the budget as a touch point for financial performance should not overshadow the ability of an organization to respond to the pace of rapid societal change.

The master budget coordinates all of the financial projections in the organization’s individual budgets in a single organization-wide set of budgets for a set time period. It encompasses both operating decisions and financing decisions. Operating decisions focus on the acquisition and use of scarce resources. Financing decisions focus on how to get the funds to acquire resources. The use of rolling budgets ensures that a plan is always available for a specified future time period by adding a future month, quarter, or year as previous month, quarter, or year is dropped. A rolling budget continually forces management to think concretely about the coming 12 months regardless of the current month.

Steps in Preparing a Budget

The revenue budget is generally the starting point in a budget planning process because program delivery will depend on the forecasted level of revenue. The second step is the program or project budget—the amount that should be offered to support the estimated level of service revenue. Fundraising goals will also determine programmatic service levels because service revenues alone may not finance all program offerings. How much money the development office plans to raise over the fiscal year will determine the extent of current and future program offerings.

Capital Budgets

Capital budgeting is the process of making long-term planning decisions for investments. Poor long-term decisions can affect the future stability of an organization because it is often difficult to recover money tied up in bad investments. Good long-term decisions help an organization extend its reach and expand its services.

The stages of capital budgeting include identification, search, information acquisition, selection, financing, and implementation and control.
Financial Management of Nonprofit Organizations

The identification stage involves distinguishing which types of capital expenditure projects are necessary to accomplish organizational objectives. The search stage explores several alternative capital expenditure investments that will achieve the organizational goals. The information acquisition stage considers the predicted costs and consequences of alternative capital investments. And in the selection stage, projects are chosen for implementation.

There are several methods that can be used for the selection process. The discounted cash flow method measures cash inflows and outflows of a project as if they occurred at a single moment in time. This method recognizes the time value of money by discounting the future cash flows back to the proposed date of capital investment. Then the initial cash outlay—measured in today’s dollars—is compared to tomorrow’s inflows of cash—also measured in today’s dollars.

The net present value method uses the required rate of return that is the organization’s minimum acceptable rate of return on an investment. It is the interest rate organizations could expect to receive elsewhere for the same level of risk. The present values of the cash inflows and outflows are calculated at the organization’s cost of capital. These values are then summed to determine the project’s net present value. If the value is positive, the project should be accepted. If an organization is considering more than one capital investment, the projects with the highest net present value should be chosen.

The third option is to measure the internal rate of return. The internal rate of return is the discount rate at which the present value of the cash inflows equals the present value of the cash outflows on a particular project. The internal rate of return is the discount rate that makes the net present value equal zero. The three calculations—the discounted cash flows, the net present value, and the internal rate of return—tell an organization something slightly different about the proposed capital investment. When evaluating such an investment, all three methods should be used on each alternative investment. The organization should select the investment that provides the greatest rate of return across all of the measurements.

Project funding is obtained in the financing stage. Funding can come from internally generated cash or debt from the capital markets. The implementation and control stage puts the project in motion and provides for ongoing monitoring of investment performance.

ASSET MANAGEMENT

A nonprofit’s resources or assets are best managed from the going concern perspective, which assumes no limitation on the organization's future existence. Management must be sure that the organization has sufficient liquid assets available to finance current operations. The goal is to maintain an optimum balance between available assets and invested or growing assets. Operating in a fiscally solvent fashion means that the organization must be able to pay its debts in a timely manner and meet other financial responsibilities. After the budget is developed, the nonprofit must focus on financing current operations by making the most efficient use of current or liquid funds and by maximizing available and obtainable resources to enhance return on the resources or capital. Maximizing resources involves analyzing the costs and benefits of various sources of nonprofit revenues. Two possible sources of income are business income and planned gifts. Business income earned by a nonprofit must be segregated between that earned in pursuit of its mission and that obtained from another activity done simply to make money.
Cash Flow Planning

To maintain financial viability, a nonprofit must have enough cash to pay its bills. Accrual basis financial statements can report an excess of revenues over expenses, but this doesn’t necessarily mean that there’s cash in the bank. Cyclical and seasonal fluctuations also have an impact on an organization’s cash. Cash inflows and outflows for most nonprofits typically vary throughout the year. This increases the importance of the budgeting process because obligations must be met on a timely and consistent basis. The organization must plan ahead for those periods when cash inflow tends to be less than cash outflows. Postponing expenditures or accelerating constituent billings are two options for solving the problem.

After the budget is developed, the nonprofit must focus on financing current operations by making the most efficient use of current or liquid funds and by maximizing available and obtainable resources to enhance return on the resources or capital.

Once the annual operating and capital budgets are authorized, they can be converted into cash flow budgets to verify the availability of resources and to highlight times of lower than expected cash flow. The process includes estimating when collections on year-end receivables will occur, calculating the normal lag time between invoicing or billing for services or pledges and the actual receipt of cash, and charting the expected expenditure of cash according to the month payment is due. The next step is to factor in the expected capital expenditures, sales of assets, borrowing, debt repayment, and other financing transactions. A model cash flow budget reflects a policy decision to maintain a minimum cash level. Organizations need to plan from day one to build working capital reserves equivalent to several months of operating expense. When excess cash reserves have accumulated, the organization must plan for temporary cash investments to maximize the return on those resources. As much money as possible should be kept in federally insured, interest bearing accounts to maximize an organization’s yield on its cash. Short-term investments of excess cash should be chosen to balance maximization of interest earned with emergency access to the invested cash. Some options are certificates of deposit, treasury bills, and money market accounts.

Once cash reserves exceed the amount needed for one operating cycle, longer-term investments need to be evaluated. Investment policies must weigh the permissible level of risk to the organization’s resources in relation to expected returns. Any equity or debt investments chosen will depend on the board’s written investment policy. If the nonprofit is a trustee on a charitable remainder trust, then it is under a duty to the ultimate beneficiary to invest and manage the funds of the trust as a prudent investor would, in light of the purposes, terms, distribution requirements, and any other circumstances of the trust.

Under common law, the nonprofit owes a fiduciary duty to its contributors and grantors to use gifts for the purposes for which the funds are given. A mechanism for tracking donated money and its use must be in place. Many organizations achieve this by isolating restricted gifts. There can be additional accounting expense associated with a restricted gift. Grant expenditures often require very specialized reporting to granting agencies.

Endowment Management

Nonprofit managers and board members face numerous questions when making endowment management decisions. How many years must the endowment remain restricted? Can the funds be used for another purpose in a time of crisis? Are realized gains treated as current income? Is the endowment principal defined as its original sum or is it the original sum plus all appreciations less declines in underlying values? Do the original endowment creators wish the original asset to be retained? Can it be sold? If sold for cash, is there any restraint on how the cash may be invested? Must it be offered to a particular person first before the nonprofit can sell the original asset?

Many states have adopted the Uniform Management of Institutional Funds Act (UMIFA). The act sanctions the inclusion of gains (realized and unrealized) in currently expendable income alongside dividends and interest. Therefore, total return is now reported on the Statement of Activities. The National Association of College and University Business Officers (NACUBO) advocates this policy. The AICPA Auditing Guide for Not-for-profit Organizations provides that the governing board may make a portion of realized, and in some cases unrealized, net gains available for current use. The unexpended increase or decrease in value of the securities remaining in the investment portfolio is reported as temporarily restricted funds under Financial Accounting Standard 117.
The Use of Fund Accounting

Fund accounting is a method for recording resources whose use may be limited by donors, granting agencies, governing boards, or other individuals or entities or by law. Each fund consists of a self-balancing set of asset, liability, net asset, revenue, and expense accounts. Fund balances or net assets should be classified on the statement of financial position as unrestricted, temporarily restricted, and permanently restricted net assets based on the existence and type of donor-imposed restrictions. Using a fund accounting system allows an organization to segregate financial resources between dollars immediately available for ongoing operations and dollars intended for a donor specified use. In addition, a fund accounting system provides an audit trail as the dollars are spent for their intended purpose and thereby released from the restriction.

Receivables and payables between fund groups are not organizational assets or liabilities. A statement of financial position must clearly label and arrange those items to eliminate their amounts when displaying total assets or liabilities. For external reporting purposes, a fund balance may have to be divided among more than one net asset class.

Operating Fund

Also known as the unrestricted current fund, the operating fund is used to record organizational activity that is supported by resources over which governing boards have discretionary control. The principal sources of unrestricted current funds are unrestricted contributions from donors; exchange transactions with members, clients, students, customers, and others; and unrestricted investment income. Resources are used to help meet the costs of providing the organization’s programs and supporting services.

Other fund balances, including those arising under agreements with trustees under bond indentures and those designated by the organization’s governing board for the purchase, renewal, or replacement of property and equipment should be classified as unrestricted net assets.

Restricted Current (Restricted Operating or Specific Purpose) Funds

These fund types are used to record organizational activities that are supported by resources with use limited by external parties to specific operating purposes. Principal sources of restricted current funds are contributions from donors, contracts, grants, appropriations, endowment income, and other sources whose resource providers have stipulated the specific operating purpose for which the resources are to be used. Fund balances of current restricted funds represent net assets held for specified operating activities that have not yet been used. A portion of the fund balance that represents amounts contributed with donor-imposed restrictions should be classified as temporarily restricted net assets.

Fund balances representing amounts received with limitations other than donor-imposed restrictions, such as contractual limitations, should be classified as unrestricted net assets. Any portion of the fund balance that represents unearned revenue resulting from an exchange transaction should be reported as a liability.

Plant (Land, Building, and Equipment) Funds

Some nonprofit organizations record plant, equipment, and the resources used to acquire them in a plant fund. A plant fund may be a single group of accounts or some or all of the following sub fund account groups: unexpended plant funds, funds for renewal and replacement, or funds for retirement of indebtedness and investment (or net investment) in plant funds. Unexpended plant fund balances and renewals and replacement fund balances represent net assets that have not yet been used to acquire, renew, or replace plant and equipment. Retirement of indebtedness
fund balances represent net assets held to service debt related to the acquisition or construction of plant and equipment. Any portion of those fund balances that represents amounts received with donor-imposed restrictions should be classified in the Statement of Financial Position as temporarily or permanently restricted net assets depending on the nature of the restriction.

Other fund balances, including those arising under agreements with trustees under bond indentures and those designated by the organization’s governing board for the purchase, renewal, or replacement of property and equipment should be classified as unrestricted net assets. Unless the organization has a formal policy for recognizing an implied time restriction on long-lived assets, these designated resources would be classified as temporarily restricted net assets.

Investment-in-plant fund balances represent assets invested in plant and equipment less any liabilities related to those assets. These fund balances should be classified as permanently restricted net assets to the extent that donors have imposed restrictions that don’t expire and cannot be fulfilled or removed by actions of the organization. The proceeds from the ultimate sale or disposal of these contributed assets must be reinvested in perpetuity. Amounts representing property and equipment acquired with unrestricted resources or with resources whose use is limited by parties other than donors should be classified as unrestricted net assets.

Endowment Funds

There are generally three kinds of endowments. A permanent endowment refers to amounts that have been contributed with donor-specified restrictions that the principal be invested in perpetuity; donors may also restrict the income from these investments. A term endowment is similar to permanent endowment, except that at some future time or upon the occurrence of a specified future event, the resources originally contributed become available for unrestricted or purpose-restricted use by the entity. Quasi-endowment is a term for resources designated by an entity’s governing board to be retained and invested for specified purposes for a long but unspecified period.

Fund balances of endowment funds represent net assets for which various limitations exist on the resources invested and, in some cases, on the income generated by those resources. Fund balances that represent term endowments for which the principal must be maintained for a specific period or must be used at the end of the term for a specified purpose should be classified as temporarily restricted net assets. Fund balances that represent quasi-endowments or other amounts designated by the organization’s governing board should be classified as unrestricted net assets unless donor-imposed restrictions are imposed on their use.

Annuity and Life Income (Split Interest) Funds

Annuity and life income funds may be used to account for resources provided by donors under various kinds of agreements in which the organization has a beneficial interest in the resources but is not the sole beneficiary. Examples include charitable remainder and lead trusts, charitable gift annuities, and pooled life income funds. Fund balances of these funds represent a nonprofit’s beneficial interest in the resources contributed by donors under split interest agreements. If any of these resources will become part of the permanent endowment when the agreement terminates they should be classified as permanently restricted net assets.
Some not-for-profit organizations use loan funds to account for loans made to students, employees and other constituents and those resources available for loan purposes.

**Agency or Custodian Funds**

Agency or custodian funds are used to account for resources held by the nonprofit organization as an agent for resource providers before those resources are transferred to third-party recipients specified by the resource providers. The nonprofit entity has little or no discretion over the use of these resources. Assets always equal liabilities in agency funds. No net assets are reported.

**SUMMARY**

The budgeting process and the ongoing management of cash and other assets are two critical areas of focus for nonprofit financial managers. This focus is dictated by the overarching stewardship obligations of a charitable organization that receives money from the public to meet a perceived societal need. Fund accounting assists the organization in segregating donated money by time and purpose restriction as stated by external resource providers—donors, granting organizations, and governmental entities. Fund accounting systems today can be set up to mimic traditional fund accounting principles or to categorize transactions along FAS 117 reporting lines. It’s a challenge for a for-profit commercial system to track the flow of money between funds as time and purpose restrictions are met. Regardless, it’s most important that a nonprofit using a fund accounting system consider two things: the reporting needs of day-to-day financial management and the ability to effectively demonstrate stewardship of donated resources.
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