Personas in action: linking event participation motivation to charitable giving and sports

Marieke Hendriks and Ed Peelen*
Hotelschool The Hague, The Netherlands

• *Charitable organizations continue to increase by using sport events to raise money for the cause and provide meaningful experiences for participants. This study analyzes the motivation for participating in a charity sport event. Four segments of participants have been distinguished based upon a cluster analysis; for each of them, personas have been constructed on the basis of qualitative research. How to approach these personas with different propositions has been formulated on the basis of their motivation regarding the cause and/or the actual sport activities. The purpose of this study is to contribute to a common understanding and method of creation of personas, a new and largely untested tool. Furthermore, this study demonstrates the value of detecting the most valuable participant segments in order to influence and leverage future and repeat participation as a basis for success of a fundraising event for a charity's cause. Copyright © 2012 John Wiley & Sons, Ltd.*

Introduction

Nonprofit organization (NPOs) are highly dependent on fundraising. Because of the recent economic downturn and competition among an increasing number of charities, there is a need for sophisticated and innovative fundraising efforts. One activity that these organizations engage in frequently the last years is charity sport events (CSEs). It is a new phenomenon where sport and donor activities are combined (Gladden *et al.*, 2005). Despite their popularity and the positive experiences with them, the question whether participants of CSEs are mainly "athletes that donate" or "donors that participate in sport activities" is still unanswered. Understanding the motivation of the participants however is crucial to influence their satisfaction, their donations, and return.

The aim of this study is to enhance our knowledge of those human beings who engage in donation and sport activities in its authentic form in order to attract and facilitate them and to retain enduring support and leverage future participation as a base for success and growth. We will use persona research to achieve this. Personas are representations of archetypical users; they bring "people to life" in the minds of the people who use them. It will result in consensus on who participants are, and it will form a basis for empathic behavior of the organization toward the relations (Pruitt and Adlin, 2006). Whereas traditional market segmentation is concerned with *who* and *what*, personas give insight into the *how* and *why* of people participating behavior and the underlying motivation. Furthermore, a better insight into social identification with the subculture of the sport event can be

*Correspondence to: Ed Peelen, Hotelschool The Hague, The Netherlands.
E-mail: ed.peelen@icsb.nl

reached, resulting in a better understanding, design, and communication of the lived experience.

Although personas and other representations have been discovered and used in various disciplines for several years, it lasted till 2000 and later until internet marketers picked it up and started applying it in website and interaction design (Cooper, 2004). It was presented as the next frontier in user-centered design. Soon, marketers became enthusiastic and started discovering the possibilities to apply personas in a broader marketing context.

Despite their popularity, personas are criticized as well in practice. Academic research is still scarce (Pruitt and Adlin, 2006). The representativeness of the archetypes in the entire population is doubted by skeptics. They miss a clear relationship with real customers. The success of a strategic implementation is not known off (Sinha, 2003; Pruitt and Adlin, 2006).

This study combines both quantitative and qualitative techniques in the design of personas. As such, we will design personas that are both representative and rich of information. We will apply them in targeting, proposition design, and communication.

Literature review

Personas

A *persona*[1] in everyday usage is a social role or character played by an actor. Hence, in communication studies, it is used as a term to describe the versions of *self* that all individuals possess.

Following definitions of personas were derived from literature. Apart from the first one, that is limited to a specific application field, the other definitions complement each other and contribute to a more complete understanding of the topic. Personas are

- "Realistic character sketches, each representing one segment of a website's targeted audience" (Mulder and Yaar, 2007);
- "Psychologically based mini-biographies, scenarios can put personas into motion being the plot of

the character telling the story of the journey through the website" (Mulder and Yaar, 2007);
- "Hypothetical archetypes of actual users defined by goals" (Cooper, 2004);
- "Fictional, detailed archetypal characters that represent distinct grouping of behaviors, goals and motivations observed and identified during the research phase" (Blomkvist, 2003);
- "Archetypes of users that are given names and faces, and are carefully described in terms of needs, goals and tasks" (Blomquist and Arvola, 2002); and
- "Fictional people, they are not 'agents' or 'actors' in a script, they are people" (Gruding and Pruitt, 2002; Pruitt and Adlin, 2006).

How to come to the formulation of personas

Personas enhance the focus on consumers and improve the empathy and engagement with them (Cooper 2004; Mulder and Yaar 2007). They bring focus and consistency in the marketing to these groups by encouraging consensus among the members of the marketing team (Cooper, 2004).

Personas are built up from various factors: key differentiators (demographics, goals, behaviors, and attitudes), a name, a photo, personal information, domain-specific information, profile, additional attributes, quotes, business objectives, persona prioritization, and scenarios (Sinha, 2003; Cooper, 2004; Mulder and Yaar, 2007). The character of the persona may be fictional, but the behavior should be based on real data (Gruding and Pruitt, 2002).

A goal-directed approach to the design is suggested by Blomkvist (2003). Personas should be developed for a particular application in marketing. This is to overcome the temptation to use the same personas for product development and marketing communication purposes (buyer versus users) and the temptation to overuse personas (Gruding & Pruitt, 2002).

To form personas, one can use several information sources, on the basis of, for example, observation and interviewing. Both quantitative and qualitative data can be used. A mix of sources is advised as what people say (goals and attitudes) is not necessarily what they do (behaviors) (Gruding and Pruitt 2002; Cooper [Q3] and Sinha 2003). User interviews uncover qualitative insight to a user's goals, and attitudes and surveys are useful for testing and validating those insights.

---

[1]Persona, in the word's everyday usage, is a social role or a character played by an actor. This is an Italian word that derives from the Latin for a kind of mask made to resonate with the voice of the actor (*per sonare* meaning "to sound through"), http://www.etimo.it/?term=persona, viewed June 2010.

The following creation process, where the input is processed, is multifaceted, multimodal, and ongoing. In communication, ideas and elements progressively are unfolded (Gruding and Pruitt 2002; Pruitt and Adlin, 2006). Posters, flyers, and handouts are found appropriate tools for that. Our advice is to use a storehouse or foundation document for each persona as supporting documentation to which all illustrations and discussions link back (Gruding and Pruitt, 2002).

The last step of persona creation according to Sinha (2003) is the verification, refining, and enrichment of personas to increase the chances that the final persona will be convincing. The team should perceive the persona as real (Mulder and Yaar, 2007). The criteria that play a role in the validation of a persona are accuracy and precision, and as such differ from segmentation.

Market segmentation versus persona tool

Market segmentation is a quantitative approach. The validity of segmentation depends on the extent that internally homogenous and mutually heterogeneous clusters have been identified.

Market segmentation as such can be complementary to persona research. The creation of personas does not find its core in measurable variables or buying behavior in specific, whereas segmentation does. A combination of both approaches can result in the creation of personas that are both accurate, precise, and also representative of the market.

In the combined approach, market segmentation will provide the clusters for which personas will be created. To assure that each of these clusters allows for the creation of consistent, accurate, and precise personas, we suggest to segment the market on behavioral and motivational criteria; these elements always play an essential role in the description of personas.

Charity sport events

The majority of charity events is related to health care organizations and is associated with health-related causes. CSEs were found to be a successful fundraising tool in health care because (1) sport events are universally popular, (2) CSEs are spectator friendly, and (3) sport activities naturally represent health or a healthy lifestyle (Won, 2009). In addition, organizations recognized the end of door-to-door fundraising, as people are nervous to open their doors (Higgins & Lauzon, 2002).

Typically, cause-related sport events include some form of physical exertion where participants garner funds by raising monetary pledges for the activities performed which attract a particular type of consumer who is willing to "bodily engage in given effort" (Scott & Solomon, 2003). *CSEs with emphasis on the cause* (a) were characterized by pre-event and post-event speeches and testimonials, on-site registration, and extra activities such as education booths, music, refreshments, mascots, and prize drawings (Higgins and Lauzon, 2002; Taylor and Shanka, 2008). The extra activities typically last longer than the actual physical events, and a wide variety of public is attracted.

On the other hand, when *physical activity was the priority* (b), the event had a more competitive edge with results, timing, well-planned routes, and professionally organized and staffed. Also participants' primary reasons for attending were aligned along these two distinct paths. Participants that were interviewed whose primary motivation was the event could recall "a good cause" but not necessarily recall the cause itself nor its purpose (Higgins and Lauzon, 2002). When the core offering was the physical event, much more fit and skilled participants were attracted.

Despite the greater (time) commitment, participant reported to prefer to donate money via a physical event rather than the traditional forms of fundraising and were willing to pay a higher registration fee because of the benefits they receive and the willingness to exchange their effort and time (Scott & Solomon, 2003).

Motivation

Motivation explains the "process that move a person to behave in certain ways" (Wilkie 1986). The motivation to help others can originate from both egoistic and altruistic reasons. The first is clearly the case when people are motivated to help to gain either intangible or tangible benefits while avoiding penalties and punishments for not helping (Won, 2009; Bendapudi *et al*. 1996). The second occurs when individuals seem not to care about intangible or tangible rewards (Guy & Patton, 1989).

Our focus is in CSEs, in particular one related to biking and illness. To obtain a better understanding of what drives people to participate in such an event, we summarize motivation studies in sports, fundraising, and CSE. The motives are specified in Table **1**.

We only found one study that addressed a CSE in biking. This study (Filo *et al.*, 2007) for the Lance Armstrong Foundation found that next to charity and attachment, *recreation*, *social empowerment*, and *social engagement* served as motivators to participate in the Livestrong Challenge, a CSE. Social empowerment was translated as "the confidence and capability to advance change on behalf of the charitable organization" (Filo *et al.*, 2007). Post-material wealth such as self-esteem, self-realization, and belonging are becoming more important to the consumer because they feel they can influence the organization's activities themselves. Social engagement therefore is defined as "the priority participants place upon affecting change based on the charitable cause" (Filo *et al.*, 2007).

This research indicates that community building opportunities and spreading awareness and affecting social change, as broader goals, must not be forgotten next to sport and fundraising motivating factors (Filo *et al.*, 2007).

Research design

The motivational criteria are used to segment the participants of the CSE into relevant clusters. Each of these clusters will be profiled by personas. To reach these goals, quantitative and qualitative methods were combined. The use of multiple data collection methods allowed us to collect data from a variety of contexts.

First of all, an online survey in order to gather quantified data for segmentation purposes was held. E-mails with a request to complete an online questionnaire were sent to 2250 participants of the Alpe d'HuZes event. On the basis of the motivation studies, a list of 36 items related to motivational dimensions was made. Respondents were asked to rate the importance of 36 items solicited on a 7-point Likert scale. Satisfaction with the event was measured with five items, and one item was used to measure the behavioral intention to revisit the event and one item to measure the amounts of funds raised. Additional background questions

such as age, gender, and involvement in cycling in the context of the event were solicited.

Responses were collected during a 21-day tracking period after the e-mail was sent (closed July).

Further, to design the personas, qualitative data were collected through personal interviews during the 4 days of the event in France (June 1–4). Furthermore, personal ethnographic unstructured interviewing and observation were administered to the participants of the event. It focuses on individual motives and attachment to the event shared with the interviewer. What participants do, what frustrates them, and what gives them satisfaction were addressed and observed rather than soliciting what they want because ethnographic techniques assume that an interview subject's attitude and behaviors are habitual.

Ethnographic techniques allowed the interviewer to combine interviewing with direct observation, helping to minimize the dependence on users' self-reported behavior and sensitive nature of the topic of discussion. The liberated climate of the event is expected to encourage self-disclosure about personal stories (Scott and Solomon, 2003).

Analysis

Data were collected from 189 respondents, which has a response rate of 8.40%. A summary profile of the respondents revealed that 67.20% were male, and the average age was 42.02 years ($SD = 11.043$) with a median age of 42 years. Respondents reported having 4.48 years of cycling experience on average ($SD = 2.418$); over 40% had more than 5 years of cycling experience.

Of all respondents, 74.1% were first-time participants of the Alpe d'HuZes. On average, they participated for 1.39 years ($SD = 0.8016$). The mean reported donations were 98 673.13 Euros ($SD = 5.1264$) with a median of 19 750.00 Euros per team. The average number of members in a team was 5.12 ($SD = 3.1082$), median 6.00. Participants climbed the Alpe d'Huez mountain on an average of 4.4 times ($SD = 2.091$), median 4.00.

Factor analysis

The 30 items derived from the literature study were examined using principal component analysis and

Table 1. Motivations to support charity, to participate in CSE, and to donate for medical research

CSE (Scott and Solomon, 2003)	CSE (cancer) (Won, 2009)	CSE participation (athletics)	Sports participation (McDonald and Dunbar, 2004)	Sports participation (McDonald et al., 2002)	Supporting charity organization (Taylor and Shanka, 2008)	Monetary gifts for medical research (Higgins and Lauzon, 2002)
Personal connection to illness	Supporting charity event	Participates in secondary event	Get exercise	Physical fitness	Personal reasons	Giving back to and improving community
Social benefits	Celebrating cancer survivors	Public recognition	Have fun	Risk taking (thrill seeking)	Prestige	Income or tax motives
Support the cause/ community obligation	Helping cancer patients and families	The will to give of time and energy	Master skills	Stress reduction	Leadership	Receiving recognition (warm heart feeling)
Fitness	Good cause	Inside information	Spend time with friends	Aggression	Relations (association with; "warm glow")	Reciprocity (referring to past perceived benefits from charity because of illness or fear)
Raising funds	Altruistic reasons	Priority treatment		Affiliation		Self-esteem (self-image or worth)
	Family gathering	Philanthropy		Social facilitating (being with others enjoying same activity)	Philanthropy	Career motive
	Reference groups	To collaborate		Self-esteem	Peer pressure	
	Entertainment	To create		Competition		
	Sport	To change		Achievement		
	Social affiliation	Curiosity		Skill mastery		
	Public recognition and achievement	Power		Esthetics		
	Benefits					
				Value development (personal growth)		
	Collaboration			Self-actualization		
	Creation					

UNCORRECTED PROOF

Varimax rotation. The following criteria were used when factors were derived: Eigen value ($\geq$1), factor loading ($\leq$0.45), Bartlett's test of sphericity (χ^2 ($df =$ 435) = 1953.5, $p = 0.0000$), and Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin (0.779).

An examination of the internal consistency and reliability of the 30 items measured through Cronbach alpha revealed an acceptable result of 0.870 on average on all scales. Two items were excluded (GOC1 and EMO2) because their factor loading was less than 0.45.

Six factors were extracted, explaining 62.399% of the variance in the data. The six factors found are displayed Table 2 and are labeled as follows: (F1) *well-being*, (F2) *humanity*, (F3) *social*, (F4) *cause*, (F5) *empowerment*, and (F6) *personal*.

The first factor is named *well-being*. People participate because they like to be surrounded by nature, they enjoy sports and the thrill of the achievement of the sports activity, and they believe that sports keeps one healthy. In their eyes, sports represents a healthy lifestyle.

The second factor is named *humanity* and includes the motivation to participate to contribute to cancer patients and their families, to inspire those who are affected by the cause, and to share the emotion and burden, and the reason to participate being "in memory" of someone who is affected by the illness.

Factor 3 represents the theme *social*. This factor correlates strongest with the motivation to participate to increase self-image and social worth, to be with friends, and to deal with peer pressure.

The fourth factor is *cause*. The motivation to participate comes from the desire of the participant to give to an NPO and to provide financial support for the cause in general.

Factor 5, *empowerment*, consists of two items. It refers to the motivation to take part in the event because of the personal aims to make cancer a national priority and to change the way cancer is addressed.

The last factor with four items is named *personal* because it represents the personal connection to the cause. Being personally affected by the cause is the main reason to participate.

Table 2. Factor solution and motivational dimension

	Rotated component matrix[a]					
	Component					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Contribute to cancer patients and family	−0.005	0.793	0.171	0.114	0.129	−0.167
Important to give to nonprofit	0.191	0.103	0.260	0.750	0.059	0.098
Increase self-image and social worth	0.134	0.210	0.754	0.045	−0.126	0.081
To be with friends	0.239	−0.196	0.555	0.458	0.171	0.149
Peer pressure	0.137	−0.010	0.868	0.038	0.118	−0.121
Personal affected by the cause	−0.084	0.226	0.073	0.188	−0.115	0.817
Inspire those who are affected	0.027	0.823	0.035	0.233	0.056	−0.075
Sharing of emotional burden	−0.119	0.674	0.429	0.052	0.130	0.231
Harmony with nature	0.584	−0.054	0.335	0.169	0.039	0.0288
Enjoy sports	0.745	−0.149	0.042	0.276	−0.074	−0.049
Thrill of the achievement	0.829	0.005	0.026	0.043	0.019	−0.002
Sports keep me healthy	0.813	0.032	0.074	0.266	−0.030	−0.130
Sport activities represent a healthy lifestyle	0.701	0.263	0.258	0.094	−0.078	−0.207
Making cancer a national priority	−0.040	0.205	0.008	0.060	0.881	−0.127
Make a change in way cancer is addressed	0.10	0.296	0.069	0.113	0.859	0.045
Benefit me, family, and friend in future	0.078	0.627	0.062	−0.111	0.228	0.261
Provide financial support	0.206	0.309	0.019	0.755	0.102	0.026
Become a member of a social community	0.216	0.181	0.744	0.195	0.013	0.147
Improving my personal record	0.580	−0.140	0.382	−0.144	0.159	0.268
Compete with others	0.550	−0.185	0.217	−0.249	0.027	0.433
In memory of someone affected by illness	−0.166	0.589	−0.226	0.123	0.203	0.192

[a]98.4% of original grouped cases correctly classified.

Clustering

To segment the participants, a K-means cluster analysis was conducted on a six-factor solution (Table 3). The cluster analysis was based on the factors and not on the individual questions for the simple reason that it logically provides a better insight in motivation and profile of the clusters. A scree plot suggested a four-cluster solution:

Health junkies

The first cluster ($N = 25$) consisted of respondents who were mainly motivated by the factor well-being. This group was labeled *health junkies* because of the underlying motive that leads to contributing to the cause and sports that was found mainly in health and a healthy lifestyle, the thrill and entertainment of the event, and the aspect of nature.

Promoters

The group ($N = 36$) named *promoters* was mostly driven by the factors cause and empowerment. This group consists of fanatics and/or activists striving to reach noble goals and significant change in the community, and the way cancer is addressed, which serves as the base for their identification with the organization and the event.

Next to their sympathy that is expressed on the national and global levels by caring about the community, they moreover demonstrate humaneness with motivation to help patients and family, and wish to inspire those who are struggling by taking part in the event rather than other constructs of the event such as leisure, entertainment, health, nature, or sports driving their engagement.

Legends

The third cluster ($N = 37$) is labeled *legends*, characterized by their motivation mainly found in the factor personal. This group was named legends because of their strong correlation with the physical burden that they have been through because they are personally affected. Because of their personal experience with the illness, they feel capable to participate, and they appreciate the support that the organization gives them. This group most likely became more aware of their own well-being and aimed for a healthy lifestyle because they have survived a battle against cancer.

Caretakers

The fourth cluster ($N = 27$), labeled *caretakers*, consisted of participants who were mainly driven by the factor *social*, emphasizing the importance of easing of emotional burden of others and the possibilities to help and inspire others, and increase self-image and social worth.

To test the quick cluster outcomes, a discriminant analysis was conducted. As seen in Table 4, 100% of the original grouped cases were correctly classified in clusters (2) *legends* and (3) *caretakers*. In addition, 96% and 97.2% of predicted group memberships

Table 3. Cluster solution

	Final cluster centers			
	Cluster			
	1	2	3	4
Well-being	0.84119	0.27417	−0.56302	0.19618
Humanity	0.37404	−0.06660	0.45345	−0.52432
Social	−0.78862	−1.29477	0.16512	0.68662
Cause	−0.48120	0.76258	−0.19741	−0.04267
Empowerment	−1.45425	0.50022	0.26430	−0.10685
Personal	−0.05955	−0.24278	0.69618	−0.56090

Table 4. Discriminant analysis

Classification results[a]						
	Cluster number of case	Predicted group membership				
		1	2	3	4	Total
Original count	1	24	0	0	1	25
	2	0	37	0	0	37
	3	0	0	27	0	27
	4	0	0	1	35	36
%	1	96.0	0.0	0.0	4.0	100.0
	2	0.0	100.0	0.0	0.0	100.0
	3	0.0	0.0	100.0	0.0	100.0
	4	0.0	0.0	2.8	97.2	100.0

[a]98.4% of original grouped cases correctly classified.

were correctly classified in the remaining two clusters, accounting for an overall result of 98.4% of correctly classified cases.

Creation of personas

The cluster solution formed the input for the persona creation process. For each of the clusters, personas were created.

The variables that were used to construct the personas were motivations per cluster, key differentiators (demographics, goals, behaviors, and attitudes), names, pictures, personal information, domain-specific information, profile, additional attributes, quotes, and scenarios.

The personal interviews ($N = 40$) pointed out seven main aspects, called key qualitative differentiators, that distinguish participants:

- the reason for participation;
- the degree of involvement in the event and organization;
- additional roles during the event;
- historical knowledge of the event;
- the lived experience of the event;
- the attitude toward the organization and fundraising strategy; and
- satisfiers and concerns.

Figure 1. Persona profiles.

In addition to these qualitative findings, the outcomes of an ANOVA analysis on the quantitative findings were used. The results are presented in Figure **1**.

The background information (displayed in bold) was based on quantitative findings.

For each persona, its credibility was measured with The Persona Credibility Factor (Armsrong & Yu, 1997) tested among students and marketers ($N = 25$). The credibility of the 11 constructs of the actual personas "Name," "Quote," "Photo," "Personal Information," "Personal Profile," "Motivators," and "Numbers" were solicited using a 5-point Likert scale (Armsrong & Yu, 1997). The credibility factor gives insight into how well each persona was received and believed. The objective that the persona must reach direct empathy with the audience and insight into the participants on individual level was set at a 75% acceptance level of the claim that each persona best represents a group of participants.

In addition, we investigated upon the items "Believability of the persona as a real person," "Inspiring," "Excitement," and "Attractive design." The solicited items were ranked on a 5-point Likert scale consisting of "Very Credible," "Somewhat Credible," "Don't Know," "Not so Credible," and "Not at all Credible."

The findings ($N = 8$) conclude that the credible factors ("Very Credible" and "Somewhat Credible") on all items revealed highest scores for Persona 1 *Harry the Health Junk* (96.97%), followed by Persona 2 *Laurie the Legend* (91.92%), Persona 3
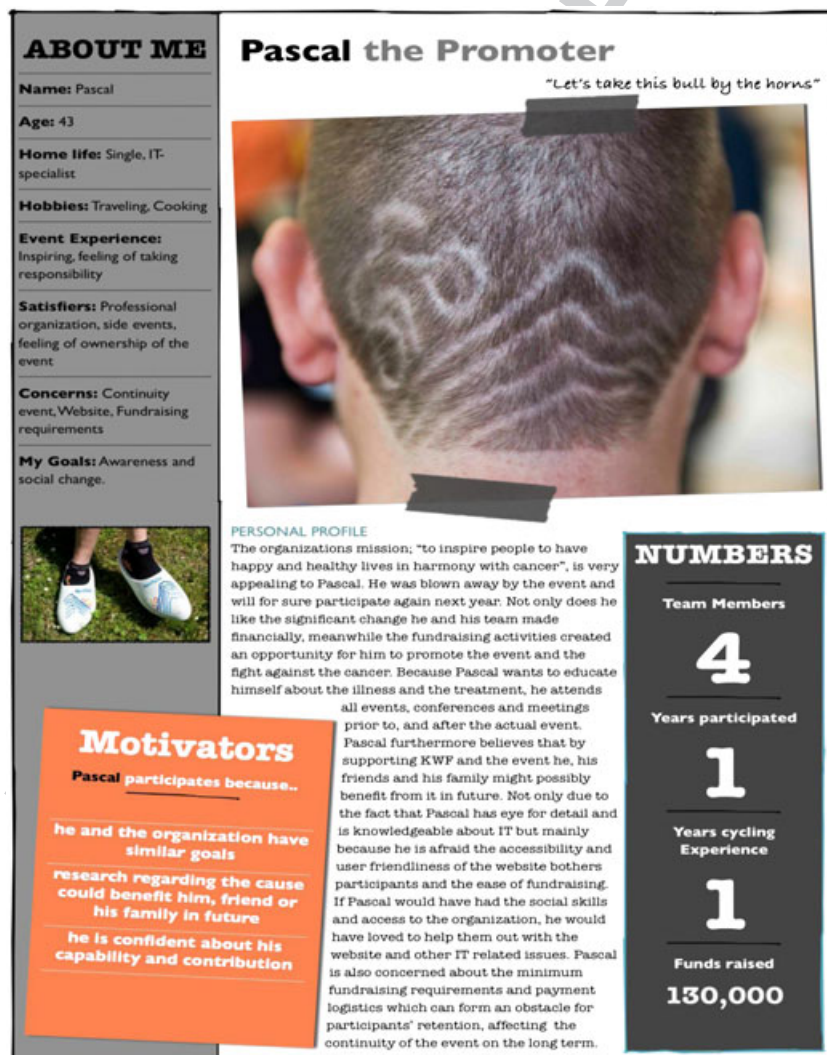
Figure 1. (Continued)

Carl the Caretaker (86.87%), and *Pascal the Promoter* (83.84%). All personas passed the set acceptance level of 75%.

From the depicted items, the personal information, believability of the persona as a real person, and the attractiveness of the design of the personas scored highest. The attractiveness and numbers were reported least credible among all items.

Relation between personas, satisfaction, donation behavior, and intention to return

Between the clusters and related personas, significant differences were found in satisfaction, drivers of satisfaction, donations, and intentions to return. Table 5 contains a summary.

Health junkies are the oldest participants, have most cycling experience, and demonstrated the highest number of members in the teams and participation history of all clusters. They score however lowest in satisfaction ($M = 5.12$ on a 7-point scale) and donations.

Caretakers, also scoring relatively low in satisfaction ($M = 5.57$), put down a major sport performance while not having a strong background in cycling. They moreover donate significantly more than others. Their drivers and relation to the cause, make them, from a financial/organizational point of view the best contributors among all.

Legends form the most satisfied group ($M = 6.29$). It is a group with a significantly higher amount of women, a more spiritual drive, and less cycling experience, and shows a strong sport performance, but has a modest donating behavior.

Promoters form a cluster that lies in between in on all aspects.

The satisfaction with the event forms a factor that significantly influences the intention to return. Of the 189 respondents, 36.7% stated definitely to

Figure 1. (Continued)

come back again next year. Nineteen per cent did not have the intention to return.

Conclusions

In line with previous studies, we can first of all conclude that this CSE serves as a useful approach to fundraising because they offer meaningful activities for participants.

Charity events are found to serve the dual purpose of being both a fundraiser and sport activity provider. Hence, this study found that the personal connection to the charitable cause, the aspect of community building, and empowerment to be most important drivers to take part in a CSE. Broader overall motivations that were discovered in this study, in order to make the fight against cancer a national priority, are spreading awareness and driving social change.

People differ in the motives they have to participate in a CSE. Therefore, a meaningful segmentation should form the basis for the persona creation. As the segmentation was based upon a quantitative study, the population could be clustered in a reliable way. Therefore, qualitative research provided the input for the creation of the profiles, the personas. But also

Figure 1. (Continued)

Table 5. Satisfaction, donation, and intention to return per cluster, including background information

	Health Junkies	Legends	Caretakers	Promoters
Age	45	40	39	43
Gender	Male	Female	Male	Male
# Teammember	7	5	6	4
# Years participate	3	2	1	1
Cycling experience	11	3	1	1
Sport (number of times climbed)	4	5	5	4
Funds	23,000	42,000	180,000	130,000
The reason for participation	Wellbeing	Spiritual	Support	Change
The degree of involvement in the event and organization	Moderate	High	Very high	Low
Additional roles during the event	Little tasks	Organization	Kitchen	None
Historical knowledge of the event	Low	Very High	High	Moderate
The lived experience of the event	Kick	Pilgrimage	Philanthrophy	Empowered
Trust in the organization and fundraising strategy	Low	Moderate	High	Very High
Satisfaction	Lowest	Highest		
Return		Highest	Lowest	
Satisfiers	Newsletters Party	Side Events	Brotherhood	Side Events, Organization
Concerns	Safety, Traffic, Logistics and Catering	Mass event, Brotherhood, Corporate participation	Organization Values & Identity, Involve family and kids	Minimum Fundraise, Continuity, Website

results from the quantitative study (the background questions) were used to complement the profile. Marketers were consulted to verify if the personas were convincing, accurate, and precise. With the credibility scale, a persona's believability and acceptance could be assessed prior to launch and use. "The believability of the persona as a real person" and "the attractiveness of the design of the persona" influenced the overall credibility of the persona.

It was deemed that participants with the least cycling experience and participation history were most beneficial fundraisers and most involved in sport activities and vice versa. It seemed that repetitive participation has a negative effect on satisfaction, involvement in the activity, and funds raised. As such, the four clusters differ in their value and future value for the CSE. Scarce resources aimed at improving participant satisfaction and increasing their intention to return can as such be allocated in a more optimal way. Activities aimed at satisfying health junkies appear to be less beneficial to the organization. More resources are needed to satisfy them, while in the meantime they donate relatively little. Instead it will be more valuable to invest to attract promoters and to retain the caretakers.

Limitations and recommendations for further research

The combination of both qualitative in-depth and quantitative motivational research allowed for the construction of a solid, representative basis for the personas. Homogeneity within and heterogeneity between the clusters were optimized by a cluster analysis. Convincing persona profiles could be constructed on both qualitative and quantitative research. Observations of participants conduct helped to get a real life view of the people involved. The followed approach appears to be effective to the construction of personas for CSEs.

This study merely focused on one particular CSE, where nature, strong physical exercise, the personal relation to the cause, and the intensity of the experience play an important role. In upcoming research, it would be interesting to study other CSEs to find out if the motivational segmentation holds or will differ. It will moreover show if the four constructed personas can be generalized or not.

Furthermore, it is stated that personas should be judged on criteria as believability, the extent to which the profiles are convincing and will be

accepted. Research of the practice use of personas is however still missing. Future research could address to what extent personas will enhance empathic behavior by organization employees and contribute to stronger and lasting mutually benefi- cial relationships with participants of a CSE.

References

Armsrong DL, Yu KW. 1997. The Persona Principle. Fireside: New York, NY.

Blomkvist S. 2003. Persona—An Overview. Uppsala University, Information Technology, Human Computer Interaction.

Blomquist A, Arvola M. 2002. Personas in Action: Ethnog- raphy in an Interaction Design Team. ACM Press: Sweden.

Cooper A. 2004. The Inmates Are Running the Asylum. Sams: US.

Dantin U. n.d. Application of Personas in User Interface Design for Educational Software. School of Business, The University of Auckland, Information Systems and Operations Management: Auckland.

Dawson S. 1988. Four motivations for charitable giving: implications for marketing strategy to attract monetary donations for medical research. *Journal of Health Care Marketing* **8**(2): 31–37.

Derrida J, Dufourmantelle A. 2000. Of Hospitality. Stanford University Press: Stanford, CA.

Evans MJ, Moutinho L, Raaij van FW. 1996. Applied Consumer Behaviour. Addison-Wesley: Harlow, UK.

Filo K. 2007. The importance of a charitable cause in motivation for participation in a sport event. *British Food Journal*.

Filo K, Groza M, Fairly S. 2007. Turning a meaningful charity sport event experience into social change. Sport Marketing Association Conference, Isenberg.

Gladden JM, Mahony DF, Apostolopoulou A. 2005. Toward a better understanding of college athletic donors: what are the primary motives? *Sport Marketing Quarterly* **14**: 13–30.

Gruding J, Pruitt J. 2002. Personas, participatory design and product development: an infrastructure for engagement. *Proceedings of Participation and Design Conference*, PDC, Redmond, USA; 144–161.

Guy BS, Patton WE. 1989. The marketing of altruistic causes: undestanding why people help. *Journal of Consumer Marketing* **6**(1).

Higgins JW, Lauzon L. 2002. Finding the funds in fun runs: exploring physical activity events as fundraising tools in the nonprofit sector. *International Journal of Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Marketing* **8**(4): 363–377.

Lovelock C, Wirtz J. 2004. Services Marketing. Pearson Education International: USA.

Mackellar J. 2009. Dabblers, fans and fanatics: exploring behavioural segmentation at a special-interest event. *Journal of Vacation Marketing* **15**(1): 5–24.

McDonald M, Dunbar I. 2004. Market Segmentation. Elsevier: Oxford, UK.

McDonald MA, Milne GR, Hong J. 2002. Motivational factors for evaluating sport spectator and participant markets. *Sport Marketing Quarterly* **11**(2): 1–1.

MDaniel CJ, Gates R. 1999. Contemporary Marketing Reserach. ITP: Cincinnati, OH.

Mulder S, Yaar Z. 2007. The User Is Always Right. New Riders: Berkeley, CA.

van Mulken S, Andre E, Muller J. n.d. The Persona Effect: How Substantial Is It? German Research Center for Artificial Intelligence: Saarbruken.

Schlegelmilch B, Tynan A. 2007. Market segment-oriented fund-raising strategies: an emperical analysis. *British Food Journal* **7**(11): 16–24.

Scott A, Solomon PJ. 2003. The marketing of cause-related events: a study of participants as consumers. *Journal of Nonprofit & Public Sector Marketing* **11**(2): 1–1.

Sinha R. 2003. Persona Development for Information-rich Domains. Uzanto Analytics & Design: Oakland, CA.

Sontag D. 2010. In Haiti, mental health system is in collapse. *The New York Time*.

Taylor R, Shanka T. 2008. Cause for event: not-for-profit marketing through participant sport events. *Journal of Marketing Management* **24**(9): 945–958.

Vyas D, de Groot S, van der Veer GC. n.d. Understanding the Academic Environments: Developing Personas from Field Studies. Multiple Universities: The Netherlands.

Webber D. 2004. Understanding charity fundraising events. *International Journal of Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Marketing* **9**(2): 122–134.

Wilkie WL. 1986. Consumer Behavior. John Wiley & Sons: New York.

Won D. 2009. Motivations for Participating in Health Related Charity Sport Events. University of Georgia, Kinesiology. USA: Sport Marketing Association.

Wood L, Snelgrove R, Karen D. 2010. Segmenting volun- teer fundraisers at aa charity sport event. *Journal of Nonprofit & Public Sector Marketing* **1**(22): 38–54.

Author Query Form

Dear Author,

During the copyediting of your paper, the following queries arose. Please respond to these by annotating your proofs with the necessary changes/additions.
- If you intend to annotate your proof electronically, please refer to the E-annotation guidelines.
- If you intend to annotate your proof by means of hard-copy mark-up, please refer to the proof mark-up symbols guidelines. If manually writing corrections on your proof and returning it by fax, do not write too close to the edge of the paper. Please remember that illegible mark-ups may delay publication.

Whether you opt for hard-copy or electronic annotation of your proofs, we recommend that you provide additional clarification of answers to queries by entering your answers on the query sheet, in addition to the text mark-up.

| Query No.	Query	Remark
Q1	AUTHOR: Please check the suitability of the suggested short title.	
Q2	AUTHOR: "Pruitt and Adlin, 2006" is cited in text but not given in the reference list. Please provide details in the list or delete the citation from the text.	
Q3	AUTHOR: "Cooper and Sinha 2003" is cited in text but not given in the reference list. Please provide details in the list or delete the citation from the text.	
Q4	AUTHOR: Please check that language changes made throughout this article are OK.	
Q5	AUTHOR: "Bendapudi et al. 1996" is cited in text but not given in the reference list. Please provide details in the list or delete the citation from the text.	
Q6	AUTHOR: The citation "McDonald (2002)" (original) has been changed to "McDonald et al. (2002)". Please check if appropriate.	
Q7	AUTHOR: Table 5 was presented as Figure 1. Please check.	
Q8	AUTHOR: Table 6 was renumbered to Table 5. Please check.	
Q9	AUTHOR: Please provide the city location of publisher for Reference Blomkvist 2003.	
Q10	AUTHOR: Reference "Dantin (n.d)" has not cited in the text. Please indicate where it should be cited; or delete from the reference list.	
Q11	AUTHOR: Reference "Dawson (1988)" has not cited in the text. Please indicate where it should be cited; or delete from the reference list.	
Q12	AUTHOR: Reference "Derrida & Dufourmantelle (2000)" has not cited in the text. Please indicate where it should be cited; or delete from the reference list.	
Q13	AUTHOR: Reference "Evans et al. (1996)" has not cited in the text. Please indicate where it should be cited; or delete from the reference list.	
Q14	AUTHOR: Reference "Filo (2007)" has not cited in the text. Please indicate where it should be cited; or delete from the reference list.	

Query No.	Query	Remark
Q15	AUTHOR: If this reference has now been published in print, please add relevant volume and page information.	
Q16	AUTHOR: Please provide the page range for this article in Reference Guy and Patton 1989.	
Q17	AUTHOR: Reference "Lovelock & Wirtz (2004)" has not cited in the text. Please indicate where it should be cited; or delete from the reference list.	
Q18	AUTHOR: Reference "Mackellar (2009)" has not cited in the text. Please indicate where it should be cited; or delete from the reference list.	
Q19	AUTHOR: Reference "MDaniel & Gates (1999)" has not cited in the text. Please indicate where it should be cited; or delete from the reference list.	
Q20	AUTHOR: Reference "van Mulken et al. (n.d)" has not cited in the text. Please indicate where it should be cited; or delete from the reference list.	
Q21	AUTHOR: Reference "Schlegelmilch & Tynan (2007)" has not cited in the text. Please indicate where it should be cited; or delete from the reference list.	
Q22	AUTHOR: Reference "Sontag (2010)" has not cited in the text. Please indicate where it should be cited; or delete from the reference list.	
Q23	AUTHOR: Reference "Vyas et al. (n.d)" has not cited in the text. Please indicate where it should be cited; or delete from the reference list.	
Q24	AUTHOR: Reference "Webber (2004)" has not cited in the text. Please indicate where it should be cited; or delete from the reference list.	
Q25	AUTHOR: Reference "Wood et al. (2010)" has not cited in the text. Please indicate where it should be cited; or delete from the reference list.	

# USING e-ANNOTATION TOOLS FOR ELECTRONIC PROOF CORRECTION

Required software to e-Annotate PDFs: <u>Adobe Acrobat Professional</u> or <u>Adobe Reader</u> (version 7.0 or above). (Note that this document uses screenshots from <u>Adobe Reader X</u>)
The latest version of Acrobat Reader can be downloaded for free at: <u>http://get.adobe.com/uk/reader/</u>

Once you have Acrobat Reader open on your computer, click on the Comment tab at the right of the toolbar:
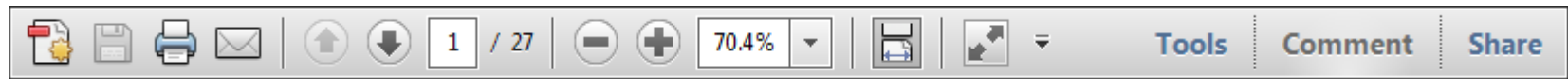
This will open up a panel down the right side of the document. The majority of tools you will use for annotating your proof will be in the Annotations section, pictured opposite. We've picked out some of these tools below:

---
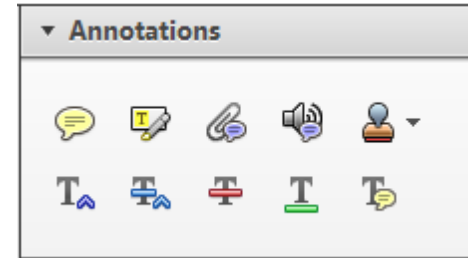
1. Replace (Ins) Tool – for replacing text.

Strikes a line through text and opens up a text box where replacement text can be entered.

How to use it

- Highlight a word or sentence.
- Click on the Replace (Ins) icon in the Annotations section.
- Type the replacement text into the blue box that appears.

---
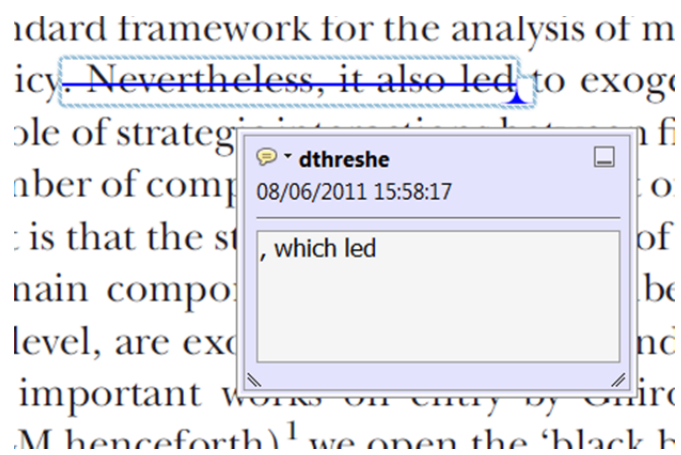
2. Strikethrough (Del) Tool – for deleting text.

Strikes a red line through text that is to be deleted.

How to use it

- Highlight a word or sentence.
- Click on the Strikethrough (Del) icon in the Annotations section.

---
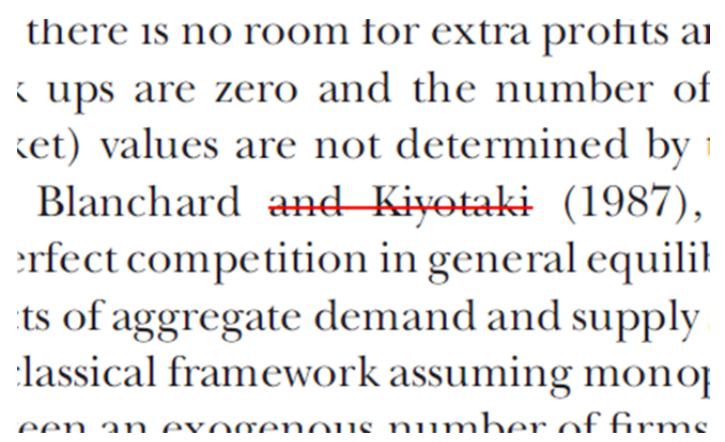
3. Add note to text Tool – for highlighting a section to be changed to bold or italic.
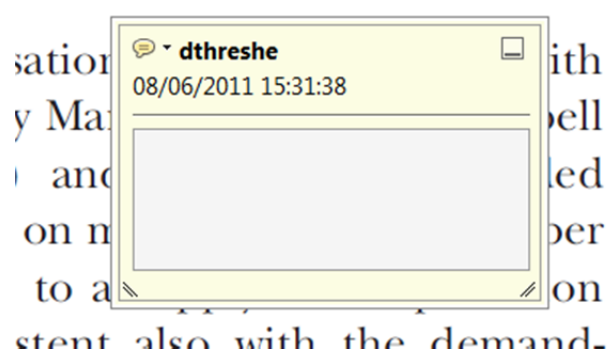
Highlights text in yellow and opens up a text box where comments can be entered.

How to use it

- Highlight the relevant section of text.
- Click on the Add note to text icon in the Annotations section.
- Type instruction on what should be changed regarding the text into the yellow box that appears.

---

4. Add sticky note Tool – for making notes at specific points in the text.

Marks a point in the proof where a comment needs to be highlighted.

How to use it

- Click on the Add sticky note icon in the Annotations section.
- Click at the point in the proof where the comment should be inserted.
- Type the comment into the yellow box that appears.
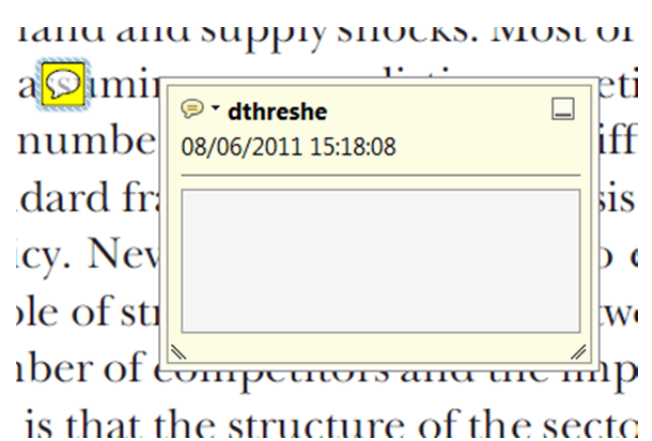
**USING e-ANNOTATION TOOLS FOR ELECTRONIC PROOF CORRECTION**

---

5. Attach File Tool – for inserting large amounts of text or replacement figures.

Inserts an icon linking to the attached file in the appropriate pace in the text.

How to use it

- Click on the Attach File icon in the Annotations section.
- Click on the proof to where you'd like the attached file to be linked.
- Select the file to be attached from your computer or network.
- Select the colour and type of icon that will appear in the proof. Click OK.

E N D
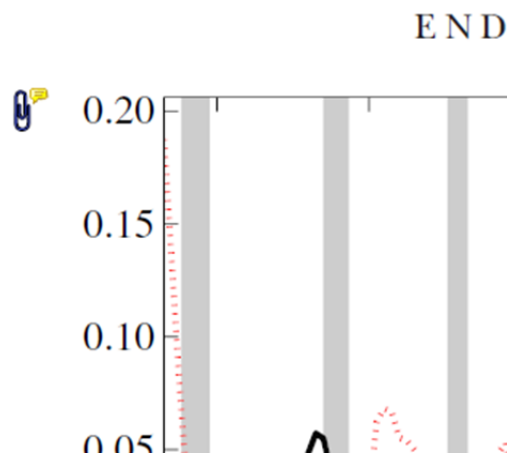
6. Add stamp Tool – for approving a proof if no corrections are required.

Inserts a selected stamp onto an appropriate place in the proof.

How to use it

- Click on the Add stamp icon in the Annotations section.
- Select the stamp you want to use. (The Approved stamp is usually available directly in the menu that appears).
- Click on the proof where you'd like the stamp to appear. (Where a proof is to be approved as it is, this would normally be on the first page).

APPROVED

---
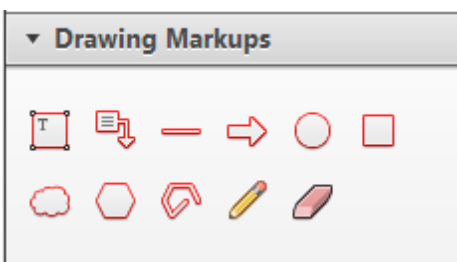
7. Drawing Markups Tools – for drawing shapes, lines and freeform annotations on proofs and commenting on these marks.

Allows shapes, lines and freeform annotations to be drawn on proofs and for comment to be made on these marks..

How to use it

- Click on one of the shapes in the Drawing Markups section.
- Click on the proof at the relevant point and draw the selected shape with the cursor.
- To add a comment to the drawn shape, move the cursor over the shape until an arrowhead appears.
- Double click on the shape and type any text in the red box that appears.

dthreshe
08/06/2011 16:23:54

Move to the bottom of the left column of panels.
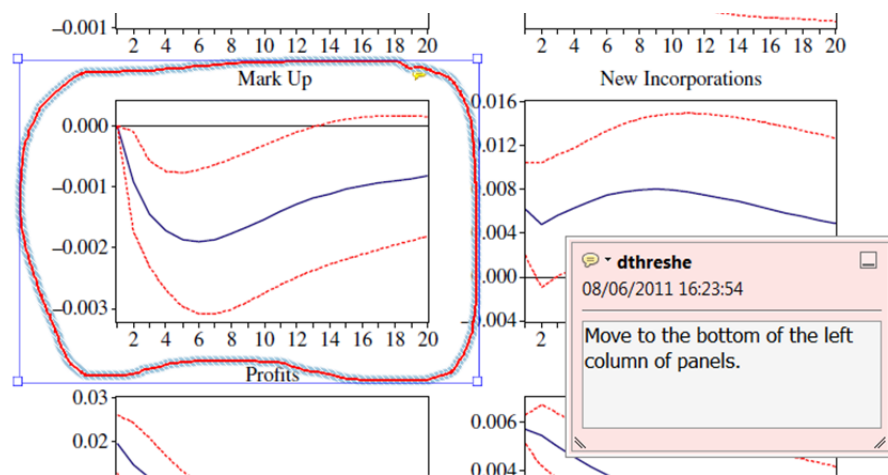
For further information on how to annotate proofs, click on the Help menu to reveal a list of further options: