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The international volunteering market: market segments and competitive relations

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Abstract

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Keywords

nonprofit marketing, competition, segmentation, volunteering

Disciplines

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The International Volunteering Market:
Market Segments and Competitive Relations

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Abstract

The number of nonprofit and social agencies relying on the help of volunteers has grown enormously in recent decades. This has led to increased competition between these organisations for the limited resources available, and the growing adoption of what have traditionally been considered ‘commercial’ business techniques such as marketing. There have been calls for greater and more sophisticated use of ‘tried and tested’ marketing concepts such as competition, segmentation, and positioning to help volunteering organisations manage this pressure effectively. This study shines the spotlight on individuals who volunteer for multiple types of organisations in an effort to determine which organisations are competing for the same volunteers. More specifically:

- factor analyses are computed and four segments of volunteers are identified: ‘altruists’, ‘leisure volunteers’, ‘political volunteers’ and ‘church volunteers’;
- positioning maps are constructed to illustrate the proximity of each organisation type in relation to key competitors; and
- detailed profiles are provided for each segment to provide insight into the nature of the groupings.

Keywords: nonprofit marketing, competition, segmentation, volunteering

Introduction

In Australia, the value of the volunteering sector is estimated at 42 billion Australian dollars per annum with 4.4 million Australians contributing a total of 704 million hours each year (Volunteering Australia, 2001). Pressure is increasing on nonprofit organisations to provide services which have traditionally been the responsibility of government (Bales, 1996, Courtney, 1994, Wilson and Pimm, 1996). This, combined with reductions in funding, is increasing the demand for unpaid workers (Wymer, 1997). The immense and growing contribution of the volunteering sector has led to substantial research in various disciplines investigating different aspects of the volunteering phenomenon.

Since the 1970's there has been growing recognition of the value of applying 'tried and tested' commercial marketing techniques to the nonprofit sector. While this has mostly happened at a generic level, there have been more recent calls to apply concepts such as competition, positioning and segmentation, all of which have experienced widespread use and success in the commercial sector, to the management of volunteering organisations. These calls have, however, received relatively little attention and a number of researchers have recognised the shortfall in the literature in this regard, for example, Chinman and Wandersman (1999, p. 61) note: "Often, voluntary organisations would like to attract a diverse membership (e.g., age, gender, ethnicity). [...] Benefits and costs may be mediating variables between demographic variables and participation. Therefore, volunteer organisation leaders may be able to improve participation by providing the benefits a specific group wants most and by minimising the effects of the costs that a specific group dislikes the most". Reed and Selbee (2000, p. 588-589) also note the need for more research

in this area by stating: “These findings [...] prompt the questions of (sub)cultures of generosity. Are there particular social settings (such as small urban or rural communities in certain regional contexts) where the unique combination of (a) prevalent norms, values, social networks, and civic structures and (b) the blend of both opportunity and need for helping [...] produce conditions that are especially favorable to volunteering and that elicit such behavior selectively from individuals who are heterogeneous in most other respects? And what is the importance of personality factors relative to subcultural elements?” More generally, Bussell and Forbes (2002, p. 248) recommend that “Establishing meaningful segments of the volunteer ‘market’ could lead to more effective targeting of particular groups and, thus, more effective recruitment and retention strategies.”

This study aims to determine which kinds of volunteering activities are complementary and which are exclusive. That is, which volunteering organisations are actually in competition with each other for the same group of individuals. It also aims to investigate differences between groups of volunteers who give unpaid help to organisations with different aims. By understanding who these people are it will be easier for volunteering organisations to target these segments of the market to increase their base of volunteers.

By understanding the structure of volunteering for different purposes, competitive information can be derived. For instance, if volunteers who donate time for environmental issues are likely to also donate time to work with elderly, an environmental volunteering organisation and a home for the elderly might be in competition for the volunteer’s time. Such market structure information can help volunteering organisations to evaluate in which way to best position their mission to be least susceptible to competitive pressures.

Prior Research

Information on the phenomenon of volunteering has grown enormously in recent decades. In considering the voluminous literature available, for the purposes of this study the review of prior research is focused on two key aspects of volunteering – studies of competition in the nonprofit sector and attempts at segmenting the volunteer market. Literature from these two areas will provide the background and theoretical basis for this study.

Competition

Competition is a subject that has been extensively researched in terms of both generic investigations into the phenomenon of competition (for example, Hunt and Duhan, 2002, Porter, 1980, Putsis and Dhar, 1998) and case studies based on specific industries (for example, Chen and MacMillan, 1992, Wesson and De Figueiredo, 2001). In relation to marketing, the importance of assessing and continually monitoring the competitive environment is recognised as a fundamental part of strategic marketing (McDonald, 2002), and since the 1970's the value of applying this notion to the nonprofit sector has been reinforced time and time again (Andreasen and Kotler, 2003, Kotler, 1975).

Recent decades have witnessed an increasing number of nonprofit organisations entering the marketplace, creating intense competition for limited resources (Bendapudi, *et al.*, 1996, Courtney, 1994, Riecken, *et al.*, 1994). This has been attributed to the devolution of services previously provided by government (Goerke, 2003, Kingfisher, 2002) and the rapid growth in social problems such as AIDS, teenage pregnancy and drug abuse, which has created the need to provide help for these people (Cnaan, *et al.*, 1993).

One of the consequences of this increased competition has been greater heterogeneity of volunteers within nonprofit organisations, largely due to agencies being forced to widen the pool from which volunteers are drawn (McPherson and Rotolo, 1996).

Despite wide acknowledgement that competition is a growing issue for the nonprofit sector, the subject has received little attention from the academic world. Kotler (2003) discusses competition in the context of strategic marketing planning and suggests that competition for nonprofit organisations actually presents itself at two levels: (i) the organisational level, for example the competition between different nonprofit organisations as discussed above; and (ii) at the behavioural level. At the behavioural level volunteering activities are competing with four types of competitors, desire competitors, generic competitors, form competitors, enterprise competitors (Andreasen and Kotler, 2003).

Kotler (2003) also notes, however, that many nonprofit organisation still deny the existence of competition in the nonprofit sector because (i) competition is seen by some as the domain of the commercial sector and an unsavoury concept for the nonprofit sector, and (ii) many nonprofits have welcomed the existence of other organisations for the same cause because they feel that it is simply helping to provide a much needed social service, not competing.

Coinciding with this increase in the number of organisations is an apparent reduction in volunteer numbers (Putnam, 2000). This reduction has been attributed to the increased politicisation of disadvantaged groups and the growth of so-called 'enlightened selfishness' (Watts and Edwards, 1983); and a declining sense of community combined with growing materialism (Wymer, 1997). Tiehen (2000) focuses more specifically at the declining

number of female volunteers, and largely attributes this to changes in labour market status, education, parental status, and the age at which women are getting married. In the face of dwindling numbers, volunteers agencies attempt to attract members not only from the general public but also from other volunteer agencies (Yavas and Riecken, 1997).

Helmig, Jegers and Lapsley (2004) note the paucity of recent research in relation to nonprofit marketing, their research overview failed to identify one single recent study of competition in leading nonprofit journals. Particularly lacking in the area of competition in the nonprofit sector is empirical studies which provide specific information to managers in terms of who their key competitors are and the implications of this for their recruitment campaigns. Currently the available information is limited to acknowledging the growing level of competition and providing generic descriptions of the different types of competition that may be encountered.

Segmentation

Market segmentation is used extensively in strategic marketing and aims to identify homogenous subgroups of individuals using some predefined criterion. *A priori* (Mazanec, 2000) or commonsense segmentation (Dolnicar, 2004) uses criteria such as age, marital status or education to group individuals and assess whether the resulting subgroups offer better opportunities for marketing than the market as a whole.

In terms of volunteers, it is commonly acknowledged that they can be extremely heterogeneous (Bussell and Forbes, 2002, Wilson and Pimm, 1996) and numerous studies have investigated a plethora of volunteer characteristics and their association with

volunteering behaviour. Since the 1970s the value of segmentation for the third sector has been emphasised by social marketers because it not only identifies effective target markets but also helps develop effective programs to reach these markets (Kotler, 1975, Raval and Subramanian, 2004). More specifically, in relation to the nonprofit sector, it has been postulated as a useful marketing tool in relation to blood donation (Burnett, 1981), fundraising and donations (Todd and Lawson, 1999, Webb, *et al.*, 2000, Werner, 1992) and volunteering (Dolnicar and Randle, 2004, Wymer, 1997).

For example, demographic variables have formed the basis for many segmentation studies, and certain characteristics have been repeatedly linked with volunteering behaviour such as education (McPherson and Rotolo, 1996), employment status (Curtis, *et al.*, 1992), and income (Menchik and Weisbrod, 1987, Smith, 1994). Other demographic variables have been less clearly associated with voluntary action such as gender (Curtis, *et al.*, 1992, Davis Smith, 1999, Eagly and Crowley, 1986), marital status (Auslander and Litwin, 1988), age (Wymer, 1998), social rootedness (Reed and Selbee, 2000), and ethnicity (Musick, *et al.*, 2000). However other studies have demonstrated the limited value of using basic demographic variables to predict altruistic behavior (Ordway, 2000). The demographic profile of volunteers has been known to differ depending on the type of nonprofit organisation being studied (Shelley and Polonsky, 2002) so the applicability of these results across different volunteering organisations has been somewhat restricted.

Heidrich (1990) used the volunteers' roles in the organisation as a basis for segmentation, demonstrating significant lifestyle and socio-demographic profiles; while Wymer (2003, 1997) used numerous factors including demographics, personality, personal values, and

intensity of participation to identify homogeneous subgroups with the intention of target marketing.

A limited number of studies have taken an *a posteriori* (Mazanec, 2000) or data-driven (Dolnicar, 2002) approach to volunteer segmentation by examining segments in a data-driven manner, taking into account a complete set of variables. Ewing et al. (2002) took a macro-economic view of volunteering in the US and segmented volunteers based on their motivations and needs; while Shelly and Polonsky (2002) used motivations to segment health volunteers in Australia but found that motivations for volunteering did not differ by gender or age. They concluded that that generic promotional and recruitment messages would be equally effective for all groups of volunteers.

The potential value of psychographic segmentation for managers of nonprofit organisations was emphasised by Thyne (2001). In viewing volunteers as ‘customers’ (Ross, 1992, Wright, *et al.*, 1995), and incorporating values or lifestyle characteristics into segmentation efforts, managers are able to obtain a more accurate picture of these segments and more effectively develop marketing strategies that are appropriate for those specific groups of customers (Lawson, *et al.*, 1996). However, while benefit segmentation has been undertaken specifically for donating and fundraising (Harvey, 1990), to the authors knowledge this has not been conducted for volunteering organisations.

Clary, *et al.* (1992) also contributed significantly to the investigation of volunteer motivations by developing the Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI). Their approach was based on the notion that individuals volunteer in order to satisfy certain personal and social needs and goals, and that they can essentially perform the same behaviour but for very

different reasons. The VFI categorises the motivations of different groups of volunteers according to these and has proven valuable to volunteering managers because it provides insight into the motivations of volunteers for their, and other, causes. However for the most part the use of the VFI has been limited to profiling pre-selected groups of volunteers according to their motivations, for example university students or older volunteers (Clary, *et al.*, 1998). An interesting application of the VFI would be an *a posteriori* market segmentation study to gain insight into whether those driven by particular motivations display specific and unique demographic and psychographic characteristics.

In his comprehensive review of research on volunteering, Smith (1994) comments on the overly simplistic and narrow approach taken by much of the prior research and calls for the use of more comprehensive methodologies to provide greater insight into voluntary participation. Wymer (2003) also notes: 'Future studies which add to the knowledge of how sub-groups of volunteers differ will enrich the understanding of volunteerism in general and of those sub-groups under examination in particular' (p. 280).

The present study focuses on providing insight into precisely this problem and extends current research by taking three concepts which have proven extremely valuable in commercial marketing studies - competition, segmentation and positioning - and applying them to the volunteering sector. The first part of our analysis looks specifically at the issue of competition between types of volunteering organisations, by focusing on those individuals who volunteer for three or more organisations. We look at which organisations are highly correlated to assess which are in fact competing with each other for the same individuals. Positioning maps are then constructed to illustrate the proximity of the

different organisation types in relation to each other. Once the groups of individuals, or segments, have been identified, profiles of each group is then provided which offers insight for managers in terms of demographic characteristics, their values, concerns and opinions. It is anticipated that these subgroups will represent useful targets for specific recruitment messages, in turn facilitating more effective marketing campaigns.

Data

Data from the World Values Survey (Inglehart, *et al.*, 2004) was used for the analysis in this study. The World Values Survey is designed to provide insight into worldwide sociocultural and political change and includes information on personal values and attitudes. A total of four waves have been conducted since 1981 by a network of social scientists at leading universities throughout the world. The most recent wave of the survey was conducted between 1999-2002 and included a total of 118,520 respondents. Multistage random sampling techniques were used to obtain nationally representative samples of the population aged 18 years and over in over 80 countries worldwide.

In most countries, the survey was administered by professional survey organisations through face-to-face interviews using uniformly structured questionnaires. Response rates varied from a high of 95% in Slovakia to a low of 25% in Spain. Weighting was used to account for differences between the sample characteristics and national parameters. The weight factors were constructed individually for each country considering a number of characteristics including sex, age, occupation, household size, marital status, and urban/rural divide. After completion of the fieldwork the data was cleaned and validated using a number of automatic procedures and tests. Semantic analysis was conducted to

identify inconsistencies and questionable deviations between question answers and other country results (Inglehart, *et al.*, 2004). Results from all countries were then combined into one integrated dataset.

For the purposes of this study, a sub-sample of 25,445 respondents was used. These respondents all stated that they perform unpaid voluntary work for an organisation. For the analysis of competing volunteering organisations another subset of these volunteers was generated: all respondents who state that they volunteer for three or more organisations. This subset includes 6,270 respondents.

Analysis

First, factor analyses were computed to gain insight into the underlying natures of volunteering organisations. The extraction method was principal components analysis and the result was Varimax rotated to optimise interpretability.

Volunteers were then grouped using the *a priori* or commonsense approach mirroring the nature of volunteering organisations revealed through the factor analysis. Once respondents were assigned to the volunteering segments, these were compared with respect to other pieces of information of interest to gain deeper understanding of how volunteering segments are characterised, in which way they systematically differ from each other. This comparison is made using either analyses of variance if the variables to be compared are metrically scaled, or Chi-square tests when variables are nominally or ordinally scaled. For selected variables, variables that are suited to identify individuals in the marketplace without requiring interviewing (like socio-demographics), a multinomial logit analysis is

computed to evaluate how well target marketing based on such variables would be able to identify different groups of volunteers.

Results

The Different Natures of Volunteering Organisations

The first factor analysis computed was based on 22,445 respondents who stated that they currently volunteer for an organisation. The 15 variables used for factor analysis were respondents statements of whether they gave unpaid help to any of the 15 kinds of organisations listed. Four factors emerged with an Eigenvalue above 1. The loadings of these factors are given in Table 1 and explain 40 percent of the variance. The results indicate that volunteering organisations that work in the areas of health, peace movement, welfare for the elderly, environmental conservation, animal rights, local politics, human rights and women all load on the same underlying dimension, which could be collectively labelled ‘altruistic’. A second dimension (‘leisure’) consists of unpaid work for sports or recreation, youth work and cultural activities. Labour unions, political parties and professional associations load on a third dimension (‘political’); and, finally, churches represent a dimension of its own (‘church’), with other organisations loading highly negatively on it.

[Table 1]

The analysis was repeated for a subset of respondents who stated that they perform volunteer work for three or more organisations. This subset therefore contains more information in relation to the associations between organisations. The principal components

factor analysis renders five factors with an Eigenvalue above 1 and explains 46 percent of the variance. Factor loadings are provided in Table 2. The emerging pattern mirrors the results based on all volunteers very well. The ‘altruism’, ‘leisure’, ‘political’ and ‘church’ dimensions can be clearly identified. In addition, one dimension now captures professional organisations and other organisations, thus leaving the church organisations as the only variables loading on the ‘church’ dimension.

[Table 2]

Based on the results of these factor analyses, a positioning map was constructed. Given that five factors were extracted the positioning map was dissected in two-dimensional partial plots, four of which are provided in Figure 1.

[Figure 1]

These positions indicate clearly that competitive clusters of volunteering organisations exist among volunteers internationally. The plot of factor 1 and factor 2 in Figure 1 illustrates the separation of the ‘leisure’ and ‘altruistic’ volunteering aims, indicating that respondents who stated to volunteer for a youth organisation were much more likely to donate their time for sports and recreational organisations or cultural activities than for any other purpose. Respondents who are actively engaged in helping the elderly in an unpaid manner, are much more likely to also support any of the following: women’s groups, groups for the protection of the environment and animal rights, peace, health, human rights and local political activities. The plot showing factors 2 and 3 extracts the ‘political’ group of volunteering organisations nicely, which also becomes visible by plotting factor 3 factor scores against factor 4, additionally showing the ‘other’ group. Finally, plotting factors 1

and 5 against each other makes the unique position of church organisations evident.

Volunteers for the church thus demonstrate the least systematic pattern of support other volunteering groups.

The positioning charts show that organisations grouped together are in competition with each other given the limited time resources of each individual volunteer. If one volunteer actively supports both political parties and labour unions it is likely that there is a trade-off in time investment for the selected organisations. Also, if a non-volunteer chooses to start volunteering it is likely that she or he would consider organisations within a group putting the recruitment units of these organisations into direct competition for attracting the new volunteer. Also, if an organisation chose to target volunteers from another organisation, the higher probability to achieve volunteer switching would be among the groups of volunteering organisations revealed in the factor analysis and depicted in Figure 1. If, for instance, an organisation actively engaged in volunteering in a sports club would have the best chances to convince volunteers in youth groups or in cultural organisations to join.

Volunteer Profiles

Based on the positioning analysis, four *a priori* or commonsense segments of volunteers are investigated in more detail: altruistic volunteers, political volunteers, church volunteers and leisure volunteers. The dimension including professional associations and other volunteering organisations is not used as definition for a fifth *a priori* segment given that this dimension did not occur repeatedly over the two factor analyses computed. It is therefore not expected that the respondents engaging in either of the two activities would demonstrate distinct profiles.

In order to arrive at the most precise picture of these segments, the respondents selected are those who volunteer for organisations within these dimensions only. So, a respondent that volunteers for both the church and Greenpeace would be excluded from the following analysis. This procedure of selecting ‘pure segment members’ only leads to the sample sizes shown in Table 3.

[Table 3]

Socio-demographics

Table 4 provides socio-demographic profiles of the four segments of interest. Segment 1, ‘altruists’, has the highest proportion of women with over 60 percent females. This reinforces prior findings that women are more likely to volunteer for human service organisations (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2001). Over three quarters of the segment have children. Only one tenth of the segment completed a university qualification and it has the second highest proportion of housewives (after segment 4, ‘church volunteers’). Almost half say that they just get by on their income and two thirds class themselves as ‘middle income’ households. They are the oldest segment with the average age being 43 years.

If ‘leisure volunteers’ are in a stable relationship they are least likely to be legally married. The majority (63 percent) are men and they are the least likely to have children. Over one quarter have been to university but almost half of these did not complete their tertiary studies. This segment has by far the highest proportion of students but also the equal highest proportion of money savers. Over two thirds would categorise themselves as being middle class with most of these stating that they do not perform manual work. ‘Leisure

volunteers' are the youngest group with the average age being only 35. This segment has the highest proportion of individuals displaying 'postmaterialist' values, that is, they emphasise individual expression and quality life concerns; and the lowest proportion displaying 'materialist' values, or emphasising economic and physical security (Inglehart, *et al.*, 2004).

Over two thirds of 'political volunteers' are men, this is the segment that is most dominated by males and again reinforces prior findings that men are more likely to volunteer for political causes (Riecken, *et al.*, 1994). If in a stable relationship almost nine out of ten will be legally married and they are the segment most likely to have children. They are the most educated segment with the highest proportion having achieved a university qualification and they have the highest proportion of full time employees. Half of all political volunteers say that they 'just get by' on their income, and they have the highest proportion who spent all their saving in the past year and borrowed money. Almost one fifth of this group class themselves as 'upper class' while less than 10 percent are unskilled or manual workers. On average 'political volunteers' are 42 years old and this group has the most even spread across materialist, mixed and postmaterialist values.

Of the four segments being examined, 'church volunteers' have the most even spread of men and women. They are the segment most likely to be legally married to their partner and over three quarters have at least one child. They are, however, the least educated with two thirds only having completed mid-level secondary school and less than one in ten having a university qualification. This segment has the highest proportions of retirees, housewives and unemployed people, and manual or unskilled workers. It is also the

segment most likely to display ‘materialist’ values and least likely to display ‘postmaterialist’ values.

A number of these results are consistent with the findings of prior studies, for example Jenner (1982) found the large majority of volunteers to have children, and in all four segments here more than half of all members have children; and numerous studies have found volunteering to peak in the middle years, that is between the ages of thirty-five and fifty-five (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2001, Menchik and Weisbrod, 1987), a finding again reinforced by the average age of the four segments here.

[Table 4]

Importance of Different Factors

Respondents were asked to indicate the importance of a number of different factors in their lives. The number of respondents who indicated each factor is ‘very important’ is illustrated in Table 5.

[Table 5]

All segments nominated family as being most important in their lives, however if we look closer at the results some interesting differences in priorities are apparent. Although, like all segments, ‘altruists’ are most likely to nominate family as very important, if we compare the different segments they actually have the lowest proportion (only 87 percent) indicating this. They also have a relatively high proportion who view work as very important, with politics being viewed seen as important by the fewest members.

‘Leisure volunteers’, however, are the segment with the lowest proportion indicating that work is very important. They place more importance on friends and leisure time than any other segment and the lowest importance on religion. This would seem consistent with their postmaterialist values and their emphasis on quality of life.

Not surprisingly, ‘political volunteers’ place the highest importance on politics and work, and the least importance on friends and leisure time when compared to other segments. They are also the segment least likely to place importance on giving service to others, this is not surprising given that the types of organisations they volunteer for (political parties and labour unions) are primarily for their own self-benefit rather than purely altruistic causes that benefit others.

Predictably, ‘church volunteers’ are by far the most likely of all segments to nominate religion as being ‘very important’. They are also the group most likely to cite service to others as being very important. Of least importance to this group is politics and leisure time.

Areas of Concern

Respondents were asked to indicate the extent to which they are concerned with the living conditions of a number of different groups. Table 6 illustrates the number of individuals who say they are very much concerned about the living conditions of each group.

[Table 6]

When comparing the four segments, ‘altruists’ are the group most concerned with humankind (equal with ‘church volunteers’) and the sick and disabled. This is consistent

with the types of groups they volunteer for which focus on helping the disadvantaged, minority groups and human rights.

‘Leisure volunteers’ show the least concern for every group of all segments. Most who do express concern are worried about their immediate family and the elderly. They are least concerned about their fellow countrymen, immigrants and people within their own religion, with only 3 percent saying they are very much concerned with these groups. These results are again consistent with the types of groups they volunteer for (sports and recreation, cultural activities) which are more about fun, enjoyment and expression than helping the groups listed in Table 6).

‘Political volunteers’ are the group most likely to be concerned with the unemployed, immigrants and their fellow countrymen – again these groups represent rational concerns in society which affect the economic health of the nation which is consistent with the types of organisations they volunteer for.

‘Church volunteers’ have the highest proportion of individuals who report being concerned about numerous groups including the elderly, humankind, people in their neighborhood, and people within their own religion. They do seem to express concern for some of the key groups many churches seek to help – their fellow neighbors and the disadvantaged.

Justifiable Behaviour

Individuals were given statements about a number of different behaviors and asked to indicate how often each particular behaviour was justified, ranging from ‘always

justifiable’ to ‘never justifiable’. Table 7 shows the number of individuals within each segment who thought that the particular behaviour was never justifiable.

[Table 7]

For the purpose of this analysis, results for three of the behaviors: ‘throwing away litter in a public place’, ‘political assassinations’ and ‘taking and driving away a car belonging to someone else (joyriding)’ are considered insignificant and discounted due to p-values over 0.05.

For every one of the remaining 14 behaviors, ‘church volunteers’ had the highest proportion of individuals who considered the behaviour ‘never justifiable’, reflecting consistently more conservative views in relation to these behaviors than the other segments. They are particularly intolerant of taking drugs, drink driving, adultery, underage sex and accepting bribes.

At the other extreme are the ‘leisure volunteers’ who, for every one of the 14 remaining behaviors, had the smallest proportion of individuals identifying the behaviour as ‘never justifiable’. They seem to be far more open-minded and they are considerably less judgmental of the different behaviors than the other groups. They are particularly open-minded when it comes to casual sex, smoking in public places, lying and homosexuality.

‘Altruists’ and ‘political volunteers’ consistently held views in between these two extremes, however for most of the behaviors, ‘altruists’ had a slightly higher proportion saying the behaviour was ‘never justifiable’. That is, they appear to have slightly more conservative views than the ‘political volunteers’ in relation to the acceptability of the behaviors tested.

Important Aspects of a Job

Individuals were asked to indicate which aspects of a job they considered important. Table 8 indicates those aspects that were mentioned by each segment as being personally important in a job. Results for 'good physical working conditions' are again discounted due to an unacceptably high p-value.

[Table 8]

Segment 1, 'altruists', are least concerned with pay. In fact, when compared to other segments it had the lowest proportion of individuals mentioning 9 of the 17 factors included. This would indicate that they place less importance generally on their work and the criteria they use to assess potential positions. When looking at this segment alone, however, they are mostly concerned with pay, job security and having pleasant people to work with, and least concerned with having opportunities for promotion and avoiding too much pressure.

Segment 2, 'leisure volunteers' has the lowest proportion of individuals rating work as very important of all groups (see Table 5), which seems consistent with their 'postmaterialist' values (see Table 4). When considering a job they are the segment most likely to mention factors which parallel these values such as having time off on the weekends, having pleasant people to work with, having a job that is interesting and in which you feel that you can achieve something. They are the segment least likely to place importance on having a job that is respected by others and good job security.

Segment 3, 'political volunteers', seem to be very pragmatic in their assessment of jobs. They are the segment most likely to mention pay, job security, responsibility and opportunity for promotion as important in their job. Compared to other segments they are least likely to mention the softer factors such as having pleasant people to work with and having time off on the weekends.

'Church volunteers' (segment 4) are the group most likely to mention good hours as being important, probably because of their family commitments. They are the group least interested in opportunities for promotion and the chance to use their own initiative, meeting new people, and working conditions.

Opinions on the Environment

Respondents were given three statements about the environment and asked to indicate the extent to which they agree or disagree with each statement. The three statements were: (i) 'I would give part of my income if I were certain that the money would be used to prevent environmental pollution'; (ii) 'I would agree to an increase in taxes if they extra money were used to prevent environmental pollution'; and (iii) 'The Government should reduce environmental pollution, but it should not cost me any money'. Table 6 shows the number of individuals from each segment indicating they strongly agree with each statement.

[Table 9]

Of the four segments of interest, altruistic volunteers and political volunteers (segments 1 and 3 respectively) seem to display the most pro-environmental attitudes, with the highest proportion of individuals saying that they strongly agree with statements one and two. That

is, they would be prepared to make some personal financial sacrifice, in the form of giving part of their income or increased taxes, to ensure the prevention of environmental pollution. ‘Leisure volunteers’ (segment 2) were the least likely to agree to personally contribute financially to this same cause.

In relation to the third statement regarding the government’s responsibility to reduce pollution without negatively impacting the individual, ‘church volunteers’ were most likely to strongly agree with this, while altruistic volunteers were least likely to endorse this statement. All groups were more likely to agree that it is a responsibility of government to address the issue of environmental pollution without any personal burden on the individual.

Religion

Participants were asked whether they belong to a religious denomination, to which they could answer yes or no. They were also asked how often (apart from weddings, funerals and christenings) they attended religious services. The results of these questions are illustrated in Table 10.

[Table 10]

Not surprisingly, ‘church volunteers’ have by far the most number of people belonging to a religious denomination (98 percent) and attended religious services most regularly with over three quarters attending at least once a week. ‘Altruists’ had the next highest proportion of members who attend church at least once a week (over one quarter).

‘Altruists’, ‘leisure volunteers’ and ‘political volunteers’ all had similarly high proportions (almost two fifths) that attended religious services less than once a year (37, 39 and 39

percent respectively). This would suggest that religious affiliation or regular service attendance is not a driving factor for volunteer participation for these three segments.

Political Activities

Respondents were asked to indicate, for a list of different political activities, which they have done, which they might do, and which they would never do. Table 11 shows the number of respondents in each segment who indicated they have previously performed that activity.

[Table 11]

Predictably, ‘political volunteers’ are most likely of all segments to have been involved in four of the five political activities measured. Almost half have at some time signed a petition and over one third have attended a lawful demonstration. This political efficacy is consistent with the types of political organisations they choose to donate their time to.

At the other extreme, ‘church volunteers’ are the least politically active, with less than one in five ever having been involved in an unofficial strike and even fewer (only one in one hundred) having occupied a building or factory as a form of political action. This is not surprising given that they tend to focus their activities on the church, probably at the expense of other causes such as political ones.

A reasonable number of ‘leisure volunteers’ have been involved in political activities, they have the highest proportion of all segments who have signed a petition (47 percent), and one quarter have attended lawful demonstrations. They are less likely to have been involved in unofficial or illegal action.

Finally segment 1, ‘altruists’, are second least likely to have been involved in political action. If they have been involved they are more likely to have taken one of the more passive approaches, for example by signing a petition or attending a lawful demonstration rather than joining unofficial or unlawful protests.

Confidence in Institutions

Respondents were given a list of institutions and, for each one, asked to indicate how much confidence they had in that particular institution - a great deal, quite a lot, not very much, or none at all. Table 12 shows the number of individuals who indicated they had ‘a great deal of confidence’ in each of the institutions measured.

[Table 12]

Overall, ‘church volunteers’ show the most confidence in the various institutions measured. Not surprisingly, segment has the highest proportion of members who have ‘a great deal’ of confidence in churches, but they also have the highest proportion with confidence in the police, as well as the social security, health care and justice systems. Generally they seem to have more confidence in the systems and law enforcement bodies that underlie their society than the other groups.

Segment 2, ‘leisure volunteers’ show the most insecurity when it comes to the institutions that govern their communities. They have the lowest proportion expressing confidence in six of the seven institutions measured. They have particularly low confidence in labor unions and political parties.

Conversely, ‘political volunteers’ have the highest proportion of members with confidence in these same two political groups. Again this is not surprising given their personal involvement with these types of organisations.

‘Altruists’ are again holding the mid-ground when it comes comparing the confidence levels of the different segments. They do show equal highest confidence (with ‘church’ volunteers) in the social security system, which is consistent with their desire to help those that are disadvantaged or less fortunate than themselves. Within this segment however they do show by far the most confidence in churches and the least confidence in the justice system.

Conclusions and Limitations

Four groups or segments of volunteers were identified through this analysis. Segment one, ‘altruists’, volunteer for the more altruistic or humanitarian causes such as health providers, social welfare services for the elderly, human rights causes, peace movements and environmental or animal rights causes. They have the highest proportion of women and the highest average age. They are the group most concerned with humankind and the sick and disabled (reflecting their altruistic tendencies).

Segment 2, ‘leisure volunteers’ are mostly men and donate their time to sporting or recreational clubs, youth work or cultural activities. They show the least concern for all groups measured including their family, their fellow countrymen, the elderly and the unemployed, and have the most relaxed attitudes about what they see as acceptable social behaviour.

‘Political volunteers’ are involved with labour unions and political parties and the group most likely to have been involved in some type of political activity. They are mostly men, place the most importance of all groups on politics and work, and have rational concerns for example about the unemployed and immigrants. They are least concerned with leisure time and spending time with friends.

98 percent of ‘church volunteers’ belong to a religious denomination are likely to be involved with giving time for their local church organisation to the exclusion of all other causes. They are concerned about helping those less fortunate in the community including the elderly, their neighbours and people within their own religion; and they have the most conservative views in terms of what they feel is acceptable social behaviour.

Using this information managers charged with the responsibility of marketing volunteering can design more specific and targeted campaigns. For example marketing messages to ‘altruists’ should focus on the potential for helping and making a difference in peoples’ lives and making the world a better place for everyone to live; whereas campaigns targeted at ‘leisure volunteers’ would be more effective if they focused more on the light-hearted and fun aspect of volunteering and the potential for adventure and excitement as they make a positive difference for the community. Appeals to ‘political volunteers’ should emphasise more rational benefits, for example emphasising their ability to make a difference through the political process and the ways in which this can improve the economic health of the country, and in turn facilitate a better quality of life for their families. Finally, the message for ‘church volunteers’ is relatively straightforward. By volunteering they can help support the church and other members of the congregation, and support the values most important

to their particular denomination while setting the example for others in terms of the role the church should play in their lives. These findings not only provide managers with insight as to the messages that might be effective in reaching particular segments, but also the style and tone of promotional material including the type of imagery that might be motivating for each group.

Understanding the demographic characteristics of the different segments also gives managers insight as to where they are most likely to be found. For example knowing that 'leisure volunteers' are more likely to be male and in their 30's suggests that targeting sporting clubs with organised competitions for men of this age group may be effective. On the other hand, the 'church volunteers' group is the segment with the highest proportion of retirees, housewives and unemployed people so advertising on television during the day might be an effective way of reaching them. The findings can also be used by practitioners to motivate and retain current volunteers as well as attracting new members.

This study illustrates the competitive nature of the volunteering marketplace and that particular causes do seem to be in direct competition for what is a limited number of volunteers. For this reason managers need to have a clear understanding of the causes with which they are competing and develop a strategy for positioning themselves in the minds of volunteers as the most relevant and important one. Brand positioning and the image being projected is fundamental to achieving this and managers should be mindful not only of the importance of an image that is meaningful and motivating for volunteers, but also the value of consistently reinforcing this image to build a strong brand.

The findings of this study directly contradict the findings of Shelly and Polonsky (2002) by identifying clear and distinctive groups of volunteers which differ significantly both in terms of socio-demographic profiles but also their views and attitudes in a number of different areas. Shelly and Polonsky's recommendation of generic promotional and recruitment messages are contradicted by these findings, which suggest that targeted messages specifically designed to appeal to the sympathies of the different groups identified here would be far more effective.

A limitation of this study is that the dataset used has been derived from many different countries. There is a danger that culturally specific response styles would be reflected in answers. This does not affect the statements about the volunteering organisations they work for because this is a binary behavioural item, but some of the information used to profile the volunteer groups is attitudinal and was questioned using ordinal scales. It is also important to be mindful of the cross-cultural sample when considering and interpreting these results. For example the significant and complex religious and political differences between countries and indeed the wide variety of definitions of volunteering are, to a certain extent, masked by combining these groups into one global sample. While the concept was defined for respondents, the notion of volunteering does hold very different connotations for different cultures (Dolnicar and Randle, 2005) however these difference are again somewhat dampened by combining the sample. The benefit of this analysis is that it presents managers with a very high level view of the possible structure of the global volunteering marketing which in turn provides a starting point from which they can begin to understand the generic structure of the environment in which they are operating. It also

demonstrates the value of using what have traditionally been considered ‘commercial’ marketing techniques - segmentation, competition and positioning - in attracting and retaining volunteers. Clearly however, in order to gain insight into their specific market, practitioners would benefit from conducting localised studies which investigate the particular market in which they are operating, which would of course involve a localised sample. By doing this volunteer managers would gain a more detailed understanding of the profile and motivations characterising their specific market.

Tables

Table 1: Factor Loadings (n=25,445)

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4
CONCERNED WITH HEALTH	0.58	0.11	-0.01	-0.07
PEACE MOVEMENT	0.57	0.15	0.13	0.05
SOCIAL WELFARE SERVICE FOR ELDERLY	0.56	-0.09	-0.10	-0.01
ENVIROMENT, CONSERVATION, ANIMAL RIGHTS	0.55	0.26	0.10	-0.08
LOCAL POLITICAL	0.54	0.08	0.27	0.04
HUMAN RIGHTS	0.54	0.18	0.19	0.03
WOMEN'S GROUP	0.45	-0.09	0.06	0.15
SPORTS OR RECREATION	-0.07	0.75	0.01	-0.07
YOUTH WORK	0.18	0.59	-0.01	0.06
CULTURAL ACTIVITIES	0.20	0.42	0.20	0.01
LABOR UNIONS	0.04	-0.05	0.74	-0.05
POLITICAL PARTIES	0.09	0.05	0.63	0.13
PROFESSIONAL ASSOCIATIONS	0.12	0.15	0.44	-0.11
OTHER GROUPS	0.10	-0.22	0.00	-0.76
CHURCH ORGANISATION	0.17	-0.23	-0.04	0.68

Table 2: Factor loadings (n=6,270)

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5
CONCERNED WITH HEALTH	0.62	0.02	-0.08	-0.05	-0.15
PEACE MOVEMENT	0.61	0.10	0.14	-0.17	-0.08
ENVIROMENT, CONSERVATION, ANIMAL RIGHTS	0.61	0.19	0.02	0.11	-0.13
LOCAL POLITICAL	0.54	-0.03	0.25	-0.01	0.11
SOCIAL WELFARE SERVICE FOR ELDERLY	0.49	-0.21	-0.16	0.00	0.17
HUMAN RIGHTS	0.49	0.14	0.11	0.24	0.23
WOMEN'S GROUP	0.37	-0.11	0.01	0.00	0.32
YOUTH WORK	0.06	0.70	-0.13	-0.01	0.05
SPORTS OR RECREATION	0.00	0.69	0.09	-0.11	-0.20
CULTURAL ACTIVITIES	0.03	0.53	0.06	0.19	0.11
POLITICAL PARTIES	0.03	0.04	0.75	-0.14	0.02
LABOR UNIONS	0.08	-0.03	0.70	0.22	-0.06
PROFESSIONAL ASSOCIATIONS	0.04	0.14	0.21	0.67	0.08
OTHER GROUPS	-0.06	-0.07	-0.15	0.66	-0.17
CHURCH ORGANISATION	-0.08	0.03	-0.05	-0.08	0.86

Table 3: Sample sizes of *a priori* volunteer segments

	Frequency	Percent
Altruists (Seg.1)	4,326	17
Leisure volunteers (Seg. 2)	4,835	19
Political volunteers (Seg. 3)	1,272	5
Church volunteers (Seg. 4)	3,817	15
Other volunteers (Seg. 5)	11,195	44
Total	25,445	100

Table 4: Segment Profiles - Socio-Demographics

			Seg. 1	Seg. 2	Seg. 3	Seg. 4	Seg. 5		
SEX	Male	%	39	63	67	41	54		
	Female	%	61	37	33	59	46	0.000	0.000
LEGALLY MARRIED TO PARTNER	Yes	%	85	78	89	91	84	0.000	0.000
HAVE YOU HAD ANY CHILDREN	No child	%	23	44	17	22	26	0.000	0.000
HIGHEST EDUCATIONAL LEVEL ATTAINED	Inadequately completed elementary education	%	8	2	6	15	7		
	Completed (compulsory) elementary education	%	18	11	11	18	14		
	Incomplete secondary school: technical/vocational type/(Comp	%	10	11	10	13	10		
	Complete secondary school: technical/vocational type/Secondary	%	18	17	18	20	17		
	Incomplete secondary: university-preparatory type/Secondary,	%	10	13	9	7	9		
	Complete secondary: university-preparatory type/Full secondary	%	17	19	20	12	15		
	Some university without degree/Higher education - lower-level	%	9	12	9	6	11		

	University with degree/Higher education - upper-level tertiary	%	11	15	18	9	17	0.000	0.000
ARE YOU EMPLOYED NOW	Full time	%	37	43	58	30	40		
	Part time	%	8	10	7	6	9		
	Self employed	%	9	8	8	10	11		
	Retired	%	15	7	10	16	12		
	Housewife	%	13	5	3	16	8		
	Students	%	8	16	4	6	8		
	Unemployed	%	7	9	8	13	9	0.000	0.000
FAMILY SAVINGS DURING PAST YEAR	Save money	%	28	32	23	28	32		
	Just get by	%	49	45	50	44	43		
	Spent some savings and borrowed money	%	13	15	14	16	15		
	Spent savings and borrowed money	%	10	8	13	12	10	0.000	0.000
SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS OF RESPONDENT (SES)	AB Upper/Upper middle class	%	17	20	19	17	23		
	C1 Middle, no manual workers	%	37	41	35	35	38		
	C2 Middle, manual workers	%	30	28	38	27	28		
	DE Manual workers/Unskilled, un-employed	%	16	11	9	21	12	0.000	0.000
POST-MATERIALIST INDEX 4-item	Materialist	%	30	22	30	33	25		
	Mixed	%	58	61	56	58	61		
	Postmaterialist	%	12	17	13	9	14	0.000	0.000
AGE	mean		43	35	42	41	41		
	std dev		16	14	13	16	16	0.000	0.000

Table 5: Segment Profiles - Importance

			Seg. 1	Seg. 2	Seg. 3	Seg. 4	Seg. 5	p	corr. p
FAMILY	Very important	%	87	88	90	93	91	0.000	0.000
FRIENDS	Very important	%	41	48	37	38	45	0.000	0.000
LEISURE TIME	Very important	%	31	39	28	30	32	0.000	0.000
POLITICS	Very important	%	14	9	25	14	19	0.000	0.000
WORK	Very important	%	66	62	71	70	70	0.000	0.000
RELIGION	Very important	%	34	23	26	75	49	0.000	0.000
SERVICE TO OTHERS	Very important	%	37	36	30	53	47	0.000	0.000

Table 6: Segment Profiles - Concern

			Seg. 1	Seg. 2	Seg. 3	Seg. 4	Seg. 5		
IMMEDIATE FAMILY	Very much	%	61	59	62	70	62	0.000	0.000
PEOPLE IN NEIGHBOURHOOD	Very much	%	8	5	7	9	9	0.000	0.000
PEOPLE OWN REGION	Very much	%	4	3	5	6	5	0.000	0.000
FELLOW COUNTRYMEN	Very much	%	5	3	9	6	6	0.000	0.000
HUMAN KIND	Very much	%	10	7	9	10	10	0.000	0.000
ELDERLY	Very much	%	32	20	27	36	30	0.000	0.000
UNEMPLOYED	Very much	%	16	10	17	16	14	0.000	0.000
IMMIGRANTS	Very much	%	6	3	6	6	7	0.000	0.000
SICK AND DISABLED	Very much	%	29	18	22	27	26	0.000	0.000

Table 7: Segment Profiles - Justifiable Behaviour

			Seg. 1	Seg. 2	Seg. 3	Seg. 4	Seg. 5		
CLAIMING	Never justifiable	%	59	55	60	64	62	0.000	0.000
GOVERNMENT									
BENEFITS									
AVOIDING A FARE ON	Never justifiable	%	61	50	52	64	62	0.000	0.000
PUBLIC TRANSPORT									
CHEATING ON TAXES	Never justifiable	%	62	55	61	69	65	0.000	0.000
SOMEONE	Never justifiable	%	74	69	71	77	76	0.000	0.000
ACCEPTING A BRIBE									
HOMOSEXUALITY	Never justifiable	%	51	37	55	63	53	0.000	0.000
PROSTITUTION	Never justifiable	%	66	49	60	72	65	0.000	0.000
JOYRIDING	Never justifiable	%	83	81	83	86	82	0.291	20.981
TAKING SOFT DRUGS	Never justifiable	%	72	66	78	84	70	0.000	0.000
LYING	Never justifiable	%	43	35	42	58	44	0.000	0.000
ADULTERY	Never justifiable	%	52	46	46	73	51	0.000	0.000
THROWING AWAY	Never justifiable	%	67	61	66	66	66	0.005	0.355
LITTER									
DRIVING UNDER	Never justifiable	%	78	69	75	84	74	0.000	0.000
INFLUENCE OF									
ALCOHOL									
HAVING CASUAL SEX	Never justifiable	%	46	33	44	66	43	0.000	0.000
SMOKING IN PUBLIC	Never justifiable	%	40	33	36	50	40	0.000	0.000
PLACES									
SPEEDING OVER	Never justifiable	%	55	44	50	63	50	0.000	0.000
LIMIT									
SEX UNDER LEGAL	Never justifiable	%	64	55	57	73	63	0.000	0.000
AGE OF CONSENT									
POLITICAL	Never justifiable	%	76	75	75	88	77	0.021	1.533
ASSASSINATION									

Table 8: Segment Profiles - Important in a Job

			Seg. 1	Seg. 2	Seg. 3	Seg. 4	Seg. 5		
GOOD PAY	Mentioned	%	76	81	85	81	81	0.000	0.000
NOT TOO MUCH PRESSURE	Mentioned	%	37	34	36	38	41	0.000	0.000
GOOD JOB SECURITY	Mentioned	%	67	66	73	72	73	0.000	0.000
A JOB RESPECTED	Mentioned	%	51	46	52	49	56	0.000	0.000
GOOD HOURS	Mentioned	%	47	50	50	52	52	0.000	0.000
AN OPPORTUNITY TO USE INITIATIVE	Mentioned	%	45	52	50	45	59	0.000	0.000
GENEROUS HOLIDAYS	Mentioned	%	26	30	32	31	33	0.000	0.000
YOU CAN ACHIEVE SOMETHING	Mentioned	%	57	63	59	61	69	0.000	0.000
A RESPONSIBLE JOB	Mentioned	%	45	49	47	51	57	0.000	0.000
A JOB THAT IS INTERESTING	Mentioned	%	55	66	64	57	66	0.000	0.000
A JOB THAT MEETS ONE'S ABILITIES	Mentioned	%	61	62	62	62	69	0.000	0.000
PLEASANT PEOPLE TO WORK WITH	Mentioned	%	73	75	69	71	75	0.000	0.009
GOOD CHANCES FOR PROMOTION	Mentioned	%	37	40	42	35	40	0.000	0.013
A USEFUL JOB FOR SOCIETY	Mentioned	%	45	39	48	48	49	0.000	0.000
MEETING PEOPLE	Mentioned	%	50	50	50	47	55	0.000	0.001
GOOD PHYSICAL WORKING CONDITIONS	Mentioned	%	56	56	59	48	55	0.059	4.221
TO HAVE TIME OFF AT THE WEEKENDS	Mentioned	%	44	51	44	44	45	0.000	0.000

Table 9: Segment Profiles – Environmental Opinions

			Seg. 1	Seg. 2	Seg. 3	Seg. 4	Seg. 5		
WOULD GIVE PART OF MY INCOME FOR ENVIRONMENT	Strongly agree	%	21	16	21	17	24	0.000	0.000
INCREASE IN TAXES IF EXTRA MONEY USED TO PREVENT ENVIRONMENTAL POLLUTION	Strongly agree	%	14	12	14	12	17	0.000	0.000
GOVERNMENT SHOULD REDUCE ENVIRONMENTAL POLLUTION	Strongly agree	%	28	29	33	36	30	0.000	0.000

Table 10: Segment Profiles - Religion

			Seg. 1	Seg. 2	Seg. 3	Seg. 4	Seg. 5		
BELONG TO	Yes	%	70	72	73	98	83	0.000	0.000
RELIGIOUS									
DENOMINATION									
HOW OFTEN DO YOU	More than once a	%	8	5	6	34	19		
ATTEND RELIGIOUS	week								
SERVICES									
	Once a week	%	18	14	14	42	26		
	Once month	%	12	13	11	11	12		
	Only on special holy	%	16	17	20	5	12		
	days/Christmas/Easter								
	days								
	Other specific holy	%	3	4	4	0	2		
	days								
	Once a year	%	6	8	7	2	5		
	Less often	%	10	10	11	4	7		
	Never practically	%	27	29	28	2	16	0.000	0.000
	never								

Table 11: Segment Profiles - Political Activities

			Seg. 1	Seg. 2	Seg. 3	Seg. 4	Seg. 5		
SIGNING A PETITION	Have done	%	39	47	46	29	47	0.000	0.000
JOINING IN BOYCOTTS	Have done	%	10	12	17	8	17	0.000	0.000
ATTENDING LAWFUL DEMONSTRATIONS	Have done	%	20	25	37	15	28	0.000	0.000
JOINING UNOFFICIAL STRIKES	Have done	%	6	8	10	4	8	0.000	0.000
OCCUPYING BUILDINGS OR FACTORIES	Have done	%	3	4	5	1	4	0.000	0.000

Table 12: Segment Profiles - Confidence in Institutions

			Seg. 1	Seg. 2	Seg. 3	Seg. 4	Seg. 5		
CHURCHES	A great deal	%	30	20	21	64	39	0.000	0.000
LABOR UNIONS	A great deal	%	8	6	15	10	12	0.000	0.000
THE POLICE	A great deal	%	16	14	15	18	18	0.000	0.000
SOCIAL SECURITY SYSTEM	A great deal	%	10	7	8	10	9	0.000	0.000
THE POLITICAL PARTIES	A great deal	%	14	7	16	9	14	0.000	0.000
HEALTH CARE SYSTEM	A great deal	%	16	13	13	19	16	0.000	0.000
JUSTICE SYSTEM	A great deal	%	9	8	7	10	9	0.000	0.000

Figures

Figure 1: Positioning Map of Volunteering Organisations

Factor 1 : Factor 2

Factor 2 : Factor 3

Factor 3: Factor 4

Factor 1 : Factor 5

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