



**How Can NGOs Prevent Volunteers from Quitting?
The Moderating Role of the NGO Type**

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ABSTRACT:

The rise of NGOs during the last decades has made the volunteer a key element. Motivation and satisfaction have been indicated as predictive indices of their retention. The aim of the article is twofold. On the one band, it seeks to better understand the motivations of the volunteers, addressing the effects of such motivations. From another band, it analyses whether the intensity of such antecedents and effects differs depending on the type of NGO with which they work: generalist versus specialist.

A study with 847 volunteers from different types of NGOs was done using structural modelling methodology, and multi-sample analysis.

The type of NGO moderates the relationship between the satisfaction of the volunteer and the intention to recommend.

CUST_RESEARCH_LIMITATIONS/IMPLICATIONS__(LIMIT_100_WORDS) :No data available.

Given that in specialist NGOs the impact of satisfaction on the intention to recommend is significantly stronger than in generalist NGOs, making sure that volunteers are satisfied becomes a priority in this type of NGO. In this regard, satisfaction studies among volunteers could be conducted periodically to detect crisis situations and implement improvement actions to recover satisfaction in the occupied position.

CUST_SOCIAL_IMPLICATIONS_(LIMIT_100_WORDS) :No data available.

First, to date, the motivations of the volunteer have been investigated from different disciplines, the self-determination theory being an important motivational theory widely used in areas such as social, education and sports psychology. However, there is little research from a marketing approach to understand the background of the motivations of volunteers under this conceptual framework provided by the self-determination theory.

Second, there is also a scarcity of literature linking the motivations of a volunteer with the emotions they may feel, ultimately achieving consolidated lasting links with the NGO in which they are integrated.

Third, most research on volunteering to date has focused on differentiating volunteers from non-volunteers and understanding the reasons for volunteering. However, the presence of studies on the differences in the motivation of the same according to the type of NGO with which they collaborate has been scarce.

HOW CAN NGOS PREVENT VOLUNTEERS FROM QUITTING?

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How Can NGOs Prevent Volunteers from Quitting? The Moderating Role of the NGO Type

Introduction

Volunteering is a key phenomenon in modern society, and it has been widely studied in literature from different disciplinary prisms, including psychology, sociology, anthropology and marketing (Ferreira, Rpenca, & Proenca, 2009). The present work adopts a marketing approach (Zollo, Laudano, Boccardi and Ciappei, 2019) that focuses on the “hidden workforce” (Kemp 2002), the group of volunteers understood as the most important target group of non-governmental organisations or (NGOs). Scant attention has been paid to this subject because “this is unpaid work and is seldom considered as ‘real’ work, and therefore the literature on labour force tends to focus on paid labour, often within the formal sector of the economy” (Schugurensky & Mündel, 2005, p. 997). Market researchers have thus understood volunteering as a consumption phenomenon, given that companies do not pay these persons; on the contrary, these volunteers pay companies with their time and effort, and the reward they receive is the emotion or experience of the tasks done (Wymer, 2002). For this reason, their activity is equated to experiential consumption (Ulusoy, 2016).

The high turnover of volunteers and the temporality of their relationship with NGOs are increasingly alarming realities (Chacón & Dávila, 2001). Management literature “has traditionally recognized that volunteers are a unique and critical human resource” for NGOs and “have thus devised market-oriented strategies aimed at strengthening recruitment and retention” (Zollo, Faldetta, Pellegrini, and Ciappei, 2017, p. 513). According to Zollo, Laudano, Boccardi and Ciappei (2019), the problem begins when the volunteers stop identifying with the organisation; since their reward lies in pleasant experiences linked to their work, if these pleasurable experiences decay, the volunteer is demotivated and ends up leaving the organisation. In view of the need to solve this problem,

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3 this work presents a deeper study to understand the motivations of the volunteer to allow
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5 NGOs to attract volunteers more structurally committed to the organisation, converting
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7 temporary participation to consolidated and lasting bonds over time.
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10 With this general aim, our first objective is to investigate the motivation to volunteer,
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12 understood as a variable closely connected with perceived benefit (search for spirituality,
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14 social value, fun, efficiency and time/effort used) (Gallarza, Arteaga, Floristan, & Gil, 2009).
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16 More specifically, and in line with the research of Zollo, Faldetta, Pellegrini and Ciappei
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18 (2017), we have followed the gift-giving theory by studying volunteer motivations for
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20 intending to stay with organisations that provide them with pleasurable experiences.
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24 Since NGOs can be classified in different typologies, a second objective is to analyse
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26 whether the motivations of volunteers, their backgrounds and their efforts differ depending
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28 on the type of NGO considered. In general, we can talk about two large groups of NGOs:
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30 specialist NGOs, focused on a specific sector of activity or line of work, and generalist
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32 NGOs, characterised by the provision of different services in various sectors of activity or
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34 lines of work.
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38 By reaching both objectives, this work will add value to previous studies in three main
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40 areas. First, the motivations of the volunteers have been investigated from different
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42 disciplines (Clary et al., 1998; MacLean & Hamm, 2007; Kim, & Chelladurai, 2008) using
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44 Self-Determination Theory (SDT), an important motivational theory widely used in areas
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46 such as sociology, education and sports psychology (Gagné *et al*2010). However, there is
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48 little research from a marketing approach to understand the background of the motivations of
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50 volunteers under the conceptual framework provided by the Self-Determination Theory
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52 (Haivas, Hofmans, & Pepermans, 2013).
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56 Second, and related to the former, although the application of Self-Determination
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58 Theory by non-profit scholars can be seen in several papers (Bidee et al., 2013; Haivas,
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Hofmans, & Pepermans, 2013), previous literature has extended this theory irrespective of the organisation in which the person is volunteering, therefore using generic samples of volunteers. To date, advanced research on volunteering has only focused on differentiating volunteers from non-volunteers and understanding the reasons for volunteering (Clary et al., 1998; MacLean & Hamm, 2007; Kim & Chelladurai, 2008), without comparing different non-lucrative organisational profiles. As Hence, Pope, Isely and Asamoah-Tutu (2009) have recommended, an NGO must investigate not only the generic motivations of a common volunteer, but the specific motivations of particular volunteers performing their tasks in different kinds of organisations that should be compared. Therefore, a second key contribution lies in adjusting the study of the motivations of volunteers to the type of NGO with which they collaborate (generalist volunteers versus specialist volunteers).

There is also a scarcity of literature linking the motivations of volunteers with the emotions they may feel, forgetting that positive feelings that result from volunteering are, in some way, a reward. In this vein, although the Positive and Negative Affect Scale (PANAS) has been widely used to measure affect (López-Gómez et al., 2015), its application in the non-profit sector remains under-investigated. As Barraza (2011, p. 32) remarked, “in the specific area of volunteerism, we expect the study of positive emotions to be interesting and very valuable for managing programmes that explore the relation between positive emotions and the intention of remaining in service”. Thus, as a third contribution, this study intends to identify the role of positive emotions in explaining job satisfaction and, consequently, the fidelity of the volunteer to reduce labour turnover in these types of organisations, an increasingly worrisome aspect (Chacón & Dávila, 2001).

Conceptual Framework

Determining motivating factors for volunteers from Self-Determination Theory

As Zollo, Faldetta, Pellegrini and Ciappei (2017) remarked, “a widely accepted model explaining why individuals volunteer, reciprocate, and donate takes a motivational perspective to assess personal and social antecedents behind volunteerism” (Clary et al., 1992, 1998; Clary and Snyder, 1999). Knowing the motivations of volunteers in order to attract and retain them becomes one of the key objectives of each NGO (Cnaan and Goldberg-Glen, 1991; Mirsafian & Mohamadinejad, 2012). Gidron (1984) indicates that it is important to understand the initial motivation to volunteer and the motivations of those who remain volunteers over a long period of time. Several authors have indicated motivation as the predictive index of the retention of volunteers (MacLean & Hamm, 2007; Lai et al., 2013; Wang & Wu, 2014).

One of the strongest contributions that sheds light on this phenomenon comes from the basic psychological needs approach (Deci & Ryan, 1985), developed to understand intrinsic motivations. This stream of research consolidated the study of “basic psychological needs” as a fundamental concept, understood as something innate, universal, and essential for health and intrinsic well-being (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2000). Depending on the grade of satisfaction of our “basic psychological needs”, a person ranges from amotivation (AM), which is wholly lacking in self-determination, to intrinsic motivation, which is invariantly self-determined (SD). If we extend Self-Determination Theory (SDT) to volunteers (Gagné, *et al*, 2010), we observe that there are three basic psychological needs that precede intrinsic motivation, and consequently, the self-determination state: autonomy needs, competence (or ability) needs and social relationships (or affinity) needs (Deci & Ryan, 2000). “Feelings of autonomy, like competence and relatedness, are essential for optimal functioning in a broad range of highly varied cultures” (Deci & Ryan, 2008, p. 183). According to the authors, these

three needs provide us with well-being and psychological health. The needs are defined as follows:

- Autonomy refers to the freedom to experience one's own choice or behaviour (Deci and Ryan, 2008).
- Competence (or ability) indicates the need to feel fulfilled by activities while achieving the desired results.
- Affinity or social relationships are understood as the need to feel connected and accepted by others (Deci and Ryan, 1985).

In sum, in the words of Bidee et al. (2013), research on motivation in non-profit industries has long been dominated by intrinsic motivation, meaning people are intrinsically motivated to engage in an activity because they find the activity inherently interesting and enjoyable. In this field of research, people do not undertake actions because they can gain something that is separable from the activity; thus, they do not show an extrinsic form of motivation. Self Determination Theory postulates that to improve the intrinsic motivations of every human, including volunteers (Bidee et al., 2013; Haivas, Hofmans, & Pepermans, 2013), their psychological needs (autonomy, competence, and social relations) need to be fulfilled (Gagné & Deci, 2005; Wu, Li & Khoo (2015). Linking Self Determination Theory with the functional approach developed by Clary (Clary et al., 1992, 1998; Clary and Snyder, 1999), we conclude that volunteers perform functions that are supposed to focus on personal benefits and are thus me- or self-oriented (Güntert, Struble, Kals, Wehner, 2016), covering their basic psychological needs. We, therefore, posit that:

H1a: Volunteers who satisfy their psychological need for “autonomy” show a greater degree of intrinsic motivation.

H1b: Volunteers who satisfy their psychological need for “competence” show a higher degree of intrinsic motivation.

H1c: Volunteers who satisfy their psychological need for “social relationships” show a greater degree of intrinsic motivation.

Effects of volunteer motivation: emotions, satisfaction and loyalty to the NGO

Together with the existence of a series of factors that may favour the motivation of the volunteer, intrinsic motivation has a series of effects that can be synthesised in positive emotions, satisfaction and loyalty (intention to continue, to remain and to recommend).

Metcalf and Mischel (1999) explained how our hot emotional system works on the basis of unconditional or conditional trigger features. This hot-emotional system dominates the cool-cognitive one in volunteers because the inputs they receive while performing their tasks are emotional by nature. In other words, the altruistic motivations that inspire volunteer activities arouse nice sentiments because, in some way, this is the expected reward. Cnaan and Goldberg-Glen (1991) affirm that volunteers have both altruistic and selfish motives because they are not guided by a single motive but by a combination of motives that define a gratifying experience; they not only give but also receive some kind of reward or satisfaction in the form of positive emotions.

As demonstrated by much of the research published in the Journal of Motivation and Emotion, we can affirm that motivation is a trigger for emotions. Choliz (2005) summarised the relationship between motivation and emotion as very close, stating that all motivated behaviour produces an emotional reaction. For example, González, Donolo, Rinaudo and Paolini (2011) demonstrated the direct positive relationship between motivation and emotions in the field of academic performance in university students. We, therefore, posit that:

H2: Greater motivation in volunteers causes them to feel a greater degree of positive emotions.

The literature also proposes a relationship between positive emotions and satisfaction. The measurement of job satisfaction in non-profit organisations is not an easy task (Silverberg, Marshall, & Ellis, 2001). Following Self Determination Theory, Wu et al. (2015) pointed out that volunteers are intrinsically motivated when they have their own motives for volunteering, with job satisfaction as the final reward. This approach defines job satisfaction as the pleasure that a volunteer obtains from the performed activity (Güntert, Struble, Kals, & Wehner, 2016).

Several studies have demonstrated that a close relationship exists between emotions and job satisfaction (Mano & Oliver, 1993). Researchers have highlighted that affective variables can be used to improve job satisfaction ratings (Erevelles, 1998; Phillips & Baumgartner, 2002), and even behavioural intentions (Bloemer & de Ruyter, 1999). The work of Bigné and Andreu (2004) proposed a relationship between emotions, satisfaction and loyalty, concluding that (positive) emotions directly influenced satisfaction and, in turn, this influenced loyalty. Based on the above, we state the following hypothesis:

H3: Greater positive emotions in volunteers provoke a greater degree of satisfaction.

The literature also recognises a relationship between satisfaction and fidelity, understood as the intention to continue and, further, the intention to recommend. Research on volunteering, such as the study by Millete and Gagné (2008), seems to verify that job satisfaction positively influences the intention to continue volunteering. The satisfaction of motivations is key to permanence (Clary, Snyder et al., 1994; Chacón & Dávila, 2001; Neighbor et al., 2009). The robustness in the relationship between satisfaction and loyalty as a chain of effects has been demonstrated in the studies of Cronin et al. (2000), Tam (2000), and Gallarza and Gil (2006). In light of the above, three additional hypotheses can be deduced:

H4a: Volunteers with a greater degree of satisfaction in the activity they perform will have a greater intention to remain as volunteers.

H4b: Volunteers with a greater degree of satisfaction in the activity they perform will have less intention of abandoning their volunteer activity.

H4c: Volunteers with a greater degree of satisfaction in the activity they perform will have a greater intention to recommend volunteer activity.

Moderating role of NGO type

The second objective of this study is to determine the existence of differences in the motivations of volunteers and their effects depending on the type of NGO. There is a lack of consistency in the use of the term “non-governmental organisation” (NGO) as two other terms are sometimes used interchangeably, private voluntary organisations (PVO) and non-profit organisations (NPO). As Vakil (1997) has pointed out, the definition of NGO is possibly more inclusive than the other two terms. A tentative definition might thus be: “self-governing, private, not-for-profit organisations that are geared for improving the quality of life of disadvantaged people” (p. 2060).

The work of Vakil (1997) presented a deep review of several works that tried to categorise NGOs. For example, Korten (1990) proposed a classification based on the type of funding received. Two years later, Theunis (1992) categorised NGOs based on the activities they perform. Combining both proposals, we can identify four large groups of NGOs: charities (whose activities are aimed at meeting the needs of the poor), services (which are dedicated to the provision of health services, education and family planning), defence (dedicated to influencing the social, economic or political system – for example, promoting respect for animal rights or the end of social exclusion of any group), and participatory (to

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3 carry out aid projects in certain communities). In these groups, one can volunteer in areas
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5 focused on ecology, culture, social assistance, development cooperation and sports.
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8 More synthetically, these four groups or categories of NGOs could be simplified into two
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10 main blocks according to the number of activities that the NGO performs. One group consists
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12 of generalist NGOs, characterised by many different lines of work and services, even
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14 becoming wide and varied, as in the case of Cruz Roja, whose areas of action could be cited
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16 mainly as social intervention, health and relief, and international cooperation. The second
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18 group consists of specialised NGOs, defined as those that specialise in a certain type of
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20 activity sector such as health, defence of disadvantaged groups, or charity (Boni Aristizábal
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22 & Ferrero, 1998).
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26 We will focus on specialised NGOs in accordance with Vakil's (1997) review which
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28 concluded that most of the classification schemes made little mention of the diversity of
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30 activities within individual NGOs, a reality that seriously limits the usefulness of other
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32 proposed classifications. The present research tries to deepen the differences between
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34 generalist NGOs (many activities) and specialist NGOs (few specific activities). The fact that
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36 there are two large types of NGOs (generalist and specialist) implies that there are two large
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38 groups of volunteers who can also be called generalists and specialists. The existence of
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40 diverse volunteers, based on the type of NGO in which the activity is provided, raises the
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42 problem of overgeneralization of results (Chacón & Dávila, 2001). It is therefore necessary to
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44 address in a segmented manner the study of the antecedents and effects of volunteer
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46 motivations. This is noted early on by Fottler (1981), who stated that the existence of
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48 different prototypes of organisations prevents talking about generic management applicable
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50 in a standard way to all of them.
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56 Authors like Betz and Judkins (1975) found that specialist NGOs are more attractive
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58 to volunteers because of their greater specificity of objectives and orientation to change. In
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contrast, generalist NGOs perceive themselves as more dispersed in their objectives, and the identification of volunteers with this type of organisation is more tenuous. The majority of volunteer studies have analysed volunteering focused on specific activities, such as care partners, relegating to the background other types of volunteering more generalist in nature (Chacón & Dávila, 2001) and less implanted among the population. As these authors note, volunteer specialists are highly motivated individuals, since they provide very limited services with which they feel highly identified due to the high specialisation of the organisation.

Consequently, it can be expected that the basic psychological needs (autonomy, competence and relationship) of these volunteers will be significantly more fulfilled than those of generalist volunteers with a more dispersed trajectory. In the latter scenario, the greater heterogeneity of tasks of the NGO prevents meeting such needs with the same level of precision. The following hypotheses can thus be stated:

H5a: The increment of intrinsic motivation due to the satisfaction of the psychological need for “autonomy” will be stronger in specialist NGOs than in generalist NGOs.

H5b: The increment of intrinsic motivation due to the satisfaction of the psychological need for "competence" will be stronger in specialist NGOs than in generalist NGOs.

H5c: The increment of intrinsic motivation due to the satisfaction of the psychological need for “social relations” will be stronger in specialist NGOs than in generalist NGOs.

Not only the effects of the motivations but the effects of the emotions will be influenced by the type of NGO. In general, we would venture that more motivated and excited volunteers will be found in organisations in which they have clear roles (specialised

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3 NGOs), feel more empowered in their work and reach significantly higher levels of
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5 satisfaction from the tasks performed (Laschinger, Finegan, Shamian, & Wilk, 2004). In the
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7 same vein, Sania, Kalpina and Javed (2015) explained that managing diversity in a generalist
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9 organisation often creates threats, as different workers think and act in different ways, have
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11 conflicting interests within the same organisation and become disillusioned more easily, their
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13 emotions being affected in a negative way. Therefore, the following hypotheses are proposed:
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17 **H6: The increment of positive emotions due to intrinsic motivation will be stronger in**
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19 **specialist NGOs than in generalist NGOs.**
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22 **H7: The increment of positive emotions due to intrinsic motivation satisfaction will**
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24 **be stronger in specialist NGOs than in generalist NGOs.**
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27 The next step is to identify the type of organisation in which success (understood as
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29 the satisfaction of volunteers) is greater. As indicated by Ashikali and Groeneveld (2015)
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31 with respect to for-profit organisations, the results to date are inconclusive. From both the
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33 field of social psychology and the field of business management, it has been determined that
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35 the diversity of tasks in a group produces both positive and negative effects.
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38 Focusing on negative effects, the investigations seem to show that the existence of a
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40 diversity of unspecialized tasks decreases worker satisfaction due to a lack of identification
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42 with the group, which would diminish volunteer commitment and loyalty to the organisation.
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44 According to the Theory of Conflict and Role Ambiguity (House & Rizzo, 1972), this occurs
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46 in generalist organisations because workers (volunteers in this case) have not defined their
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48 place; thus, the possibility of conflict is greater and, consequently, so is their dissatisfaction
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50 and disloyalty to the organisation. The models of job satisfaction have consistently identified
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52 integration between workers and the absence of role overload (Agho et al., 1993) as key
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54 aspects of satisfaction, aspects that can be achieved more easily in specialist than in generalist
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56 organisations. From this perspective, the following hypotheses are formulated:
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H8a: The positive influence of volunteer satisfaction on the intention to remain in the NGO will be stronger in specialist NGOs than in generalist NGOs.

H8b: The negative influence of volunteer satisfaction on the intention to leave the NGO will be stronger in specialist NGOs than in generalist NGOs.

H8c: The positive influence of volunteer satisfaction on the intention to recommend will be stronger for those in specialist NGOs than for those in generalist NGOs.

Figure 1 summarises the proposed relationships.

(Figure 1)

Methodology

Sample and data collection

The proposed correlational quantitative research was based on an online questionnaire that was distributed via email and WhatsApp, aimed at people of all ages living in Spain, with the one requirement of being volunteers for NGOs, non-profit associations or foundations. The online questionnaire was created with the survey tool Survey Monkey. Snowball sampling was used which is not probabilistic.

With the help of several directors of NGOs and associations, the survey link was spread via email and WhatsApp to their volunteers. As Kümpel, Karnowski and Keyling (2015) remark in their literature revision about information sharing in social media (i.e. Whatsapp), these new technologies are highly dynamic systems that will constantly require scholarly attention, analysis, and response; because its use offers interesting opportunities in the field of market research to collect information quickly and massively. Six of them (Red Cross, Diocesan Caritas, Charity House, Spanish Association Against Cancer, Food Bank and Moms in Action) contributed the greatest number of responses from their volunteers to the research.

In this way, 847 valid surveys were collected. Table 1 shows the technical data of the investigation. A similar procedure has been applied in previous works, for example Bidee et al. (2013), who acquired a valid sample of 379 with the help of several presidents and directors from diverse charities. In our study, the response rate was heterogeneous. Some NOGs reach a 40% response rate due to the proximity with its volunteers and frequent reminders (i.e. Charity House and Spanish Association Against Cancer), while for others the response rate stood at 5% and additional collaborations had to be sought to increase the sample size.

We separated survey questions related to the independent variables (such as motives for volunteering) from questions related to the dependent variables (such as intentions to stay with the organisation) as was done by Bidee et al. (2013), following Podsakoff, MacKenzie and Podsakoff (2012). In addition, we replicated Bidee et al.'s (2013, p. 523) procedure to avoid potential non-response bias by conducting wave analysis, which compares early and late respondents according to diverse variables. The *t*-tests showed no significant differences—for example, the variable intention to stay showed a statistically non-significant $t(847)=1.29, p>0.225$ mean difference of 0.29—, alleviating concerns about a non-response bias.

(Table 1)

In summary, the sociodemographic characterisation of the sample is as follows: 847 volunteers collaborating with NGOs, of which 63.8% (540) were women and 36.2% (307) were men. In total, 53.2% of the sample were between 18 and 45 years of age, with 44.4% of the sample single and 42% married. Regarding employment situation, 29.3% of the sample were full-time volunteers.

Measurement of the variables

Following widely accepted scales proposed by the literature, we measured all the variables by using 5-point Likert scales, as follows (see table 2 with the final items retained for our analysis):

- The **antecedents of the motivations (basic psychological needs)** of the volunteers were measured with 21 items (7 items for autonomy, 6 for competence and 8 for social relationships), following Haivas, Hofmans and Pepermans (2013), who used the scale of satisfaction of needs developed by Deci and Ryan (2000), adapted slightly to the context of volunteering.
- Following Gagné et al. (2014), **intrinsic motivation** was measured by having respondents complete the sentence “I put effort into my volunteer activities...” with one of four possible choices adapted from the items of the Multidimensional Work Motivation Scale: 1) because I enjoy this volunteer activity; 2) because the volunteer activity I do is interesting; 3) because this volunteer activity aligns with my interests; or 4) because the volunteer activity I do is a lot of fun.
- The **job satisfaction** of volunteers was measured through 5 items (Günter et al., 2016).
- We measured the **positive emotions** that occur in volunteers with ten items, through the positive affect subscale of the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule Scale (PANAS) by Watson et al. (1988), translated into Spanish by Sandin et al. (1999) and adapted by López-Gómez et al. (2015) in a general Spanish sample.
- The **retention of the volunteer** was measured by looking at the intention to stay and the intention to leave. Following Vecina, Chacón, Marzana and Marta (2013), intention to stay was measured with three items by asking about the probability of continuing to volunteer in the organisation at 6 months, one year and two years.

Following Gallarza et al. (2010), the intention to leave was measured based on the scales of turnover intention from Currall et al. (2005).

- The **intention to recommend** was measured using the four items scale proposed by Wisner et al. (2005).

Data analysis techniques

By performing confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), the psychometric characteristics of the measurement model were analysed: (i) convergent validity was demonstrated following Fornell and Larcker, (1981) and Bagozzi and Yi, 1988, (ii) reliability was demonstrated using the Cronbach's (1951) alpha coefficient and the composite reliability analysis and the average extracted variance proposed by Fornell and Larcker (1981); (iii) **discriminant validity** was demonstrated comparing the square of the covariance between pairs of factors with the AVE for each construct (Fornell & Larcker, 1981) and testing that the confidence interval for the correlations between constructs did not include the value “1” (Anderson and Gerbing, 1988). The EQS 6.2. software was used to this end. We analysed the structural equation model (SEM) proposed in the hypotheses with the same software.

Analysis and Discussion of the Results

Validity and reliability of the scales

Before testing the proposed model, the psychometric properties of the measurement model (content validity, convergent validity, reliability and discriminant validity) were evaluated with a CFA analysis using the maximum likelihood function. The adjustment indices gave values [$X^2(824) = 2492,86$; RMSEA = 0.052; CFI = 0.930; TLI = 0.924] that indicated good adjustment (see Table 2).

The **validity of the content** of the scales used was guaranteed by the methodological design itself based on the literature review and the use of scales used in previous investigations. To determine the **convergent validity**, and following **Fornell and Larcker (1981)** it was verified that all the factor loadings are significant at 1% ($t > 2.56$) and greater than 0.70 (Hair et al., 1998) (see Table 2). It should be noted that in the factors F1, F2, F3 and F4 we found some loadings lower than 0.70 but higher than 0.60 (**Bagozzi and Yi, 1988**), eliminating only those indicators with loadings lower than 0.70 that caused problems of internal consistency or discriminant validity, but without compromising the content validity of the original scales.

To determine whether the scales were **reliable**, we used three measures of reliability: the **Cronbach's (1951)** alpha coefficient, the composite reliability analysis and the average extracted variance (**Fornell and Larcker, 1981**). These three reliability measures for each scale are shown in Table 2.

Discriminant validity was demonstrated. First, it was verified that in all cases (except for the covariance between the factors F4 and F5, which approaches the recommended value) the square of the covariance between pairs of factors was less than the AVE for each construct (**Fornell & Larcker, 1981**). Second, a comparison of the 95% confidence interval for the correlations between constructs did not include the value "1" (**Anderson and Gerbing, 1988**) (see Table 3). Both methods allowed us to conclude that there is discriminant validity so that each construct is different from the others.

In sum, following this procedure, data collected in Table 2 and Table 3 corroborates the reliability or internal consistency of the scales and also the convergent validity and discriminant validity.

(Table 2 and Table 3)

To concluded, as following MacKenzie and Podsakoff (2012), we tried to avoid common method bias adopting some measures: (i) a short questionnaire was prepared and only volunteers with experience and well prepared to think about the topic were contacted; (ii) a small pre-test with 25 volunteers was done to check that the questions were written at a level that the respondents can comprehend and that there was no ambiguous content; (iii) related items were grouped. In addition, the high feelings of altruism of our sample increase intentions to exert cognitive effort on behalf of the researcher. Also, and given that “the mere presence of an interviewer may motivate respondents to edit their answers to make them more socially desirable” (p.548), a self-administered method of data collection was used.

Even more, an exploratory factor analysis was conducted, being all variables loaded onto a single factor (Harman Factor) which explained less than the 50% of the variance.

Structural analysis (SEM)

Once validated the measurement model, a structural analysis was performed in order to test the hypotheses. Again, we observed optimal values [$\chi^2(849) = 3318,623$; RMSEA = 0.062; CFI = 0.90; TLI = 0.90] in the adjustment indicators (see Table 4). Although this theoretical model could be compared with other competing models as previous works have done (Zollo, Laudano, Boccardi and Ciappei, 2019), we accept our starting proposal given the size of our model and because our adjusting indexes were good from the beginning. In addition, and contrary to previous studies (Bidee et al. 2013), the aim of our study was not to compare alternative models, but to test the validity of our theoretical model as generated from the literature review.

(Table 4)

The analysis indicates that all hypotheses except for the first are met with a significance of 1%, which is evident in indicators t with values higher than 2.56.

On the one hand, it is not verified that the volunteers who best satisfy their psychological need for “autonomy” show a greater degree of intrinsic motivation ($\beta=-0,019^{**}$; $t=-0,341$; $p>0,05$), therefore rejecting Hypothesis H1a. This result contravenes the hypothesis made based on the self-determination theory (Ryan and Deci, 2000; Haivas, Hofmans, & Pepermans, 2013). This may be because autonomy is a comparatively less powerful antecedent to motivate a volunteer than the rest of the antecedents in a collectivist culture such as Spain.

On the other hand, it is confirmed that the volunteers who best satisfy their psychological needs for “competence” ($\beta=0,651^{**}$; $t=12,474$; $p<0,01$) and “social relationships” β (0.237^{**} ; $t=4,820$ $p<0,01$) show a greater degree of intrinsic motivation, verifying H1b and H1c, respectively. This result is consistent with the findings of Self-Determination Theory (Haivas, Hofmans, & Pepermans, 2013; Ryan & Deci, 2000), the results of which were reproduced in a volunteer context in the work of Wu, Li and Khoo (2015). Although both dimensions were significant, our results support that feeling “competent” has more weight in intrinsic motivation than establishing “social relations” ($\beta=0,651^{**} > 0.237^{**}$).

In addition, our results demonstrate that greater intrinsic motivation in volunteers improves their positive emotions, accepting H2 ($\beta = 0.625^{****}$; $t=14,933$ $p<0,01$). This result supports previous findings in other fields of research, such as education (González et al., 2011). Furthermore, the greater the positive emotions in volunteers, the greater the degree of satisfaction in the volunteers, confirming H3 ($\beta = 0.629^{**}$).

To conclude, those volunteers with the highest degree of satisfaction with the activity they performed showed a greater intention to remain as volunteers, a lesser intention to abandon this activity and a greater intention to recommend, therefore confirming H4a ($\beta = 0.549^{**}$; $t=14,791$; $p<0,01$), H4b ($\beta = -0.330^{**}$; $t=14,791$; $p<0,01-8,982$) and H4c ($\beta = 0.605$

** $t=16,498$; $p<0,01$), respectively. This is in line with previous literature (Millete & Gagné, 2008).

The moderation role of the type of NGO

With the intention of checking the moderating effect of the NGO, the sample was divided into two sub-samples. The first consisted of 365 volunteers who collaborated with a generalist NGO (Red Cross), allowing them to carry out different types of volunteering in each of the broad and varied lines of work, including social intervention, health, relief and international cooperation. The second sub-sample of 396 volunteers worked with specialised NGOs that focused on specific purposes such as charity (Charity House & Diocesan Cáritas), animal defence (Burjassot Animal Protection Society), the defence of childhood (Moms in Acción) or the promotion of health (Spanish Association against Cancer).

We first analysed the same eight hypotheses for each sample separately, obtaining the same results as in the global sample. In both generalist and specialist NGOs, the same hypotheses were contrasted, with the intensity of the coefficients slightly higher in the case of specialist NGOs, as hypothesised.

Secondly, to see whether the differences between these coefficients were significant, we used the Lagrange multiplier test (Lmtest), as shown in Table 5. The results showed that the moderating effect is not significant in 7 out of the 8 hypotheses. Specifically, H5a, H5b, H5c, H6b, H7b, H8a and H8b should be rejected ($\chi^2=0,21$ $p>0,01$; $\chi^2=0,02$ $p>0,01$; $\chi^2=0$, $p>0,03$; $\chi^2=0,88$ $p>0,81$; $\chi^2=1,35$ $p>0,01$).

In the case of H8c, however, significant differences were found ($\chi^2=18,02^{**}$; $p<0,01$). The influence that satisfaction exerted on the intention to recommend was significantly higher in the case of specialist NGOs ($\beta = 0,56^{**}$) than generalist NGOs ($\beta = 0,54^{**}$). That is to say, the type of NGO moderated the relationship between the satisfaction of the volunteer

and the intention to recommend volunteering to others for the NGO in question. This result may be due to the fact that in specialised NGOs the link between the volunteer and the organisation is usually more solid and there are fewer, better defined tasks that are more clearly related to the specific objective of the NGO (charity, health promotion, animal defence, etc.). For this reason, the conflict and ambiguity of the role of the volunteer is minor, since he or she has purposely chosen the NGO to carry out the very specific activities with which it is identified. This greater specialisation and linkage result in significantly higher levels of satisfaction, which translates into an intention to recommend that is significantly higher than that exhibited by generalist volunteers.

(Table 5)

Conclusions

The results of this study provide empirical support to the proposed model, confirming that volunteers who satisfy their basic psychological needs for “competence” and “social relationships” show a greater degree of intrinsic motivation. However, it is not verified that volunteers who best satisfy their psychological need for “autonomy” show a greater degree of intrinsic motivation.

With regard to effects, it is confirmed that greater intrinsic motivation in volunteers causes a greater degree of positive emotions, and the greater positive emotions, in turn, lead to greater satisfaction in volunteers. Finally, it is found that a greater degree of satisfaction for the volunteer correlates with a greater intention to remain as a volunteer, a greater intention to recommend volunteering to others, and less intention to leave.

With respect to the moderating role of the NGO type, the results were the same as in the global sample, with the intensity of the coefficients slightly higher in the case of the NGO specialists. However, it can only be affirmed that the type of NGO moderates the relationship

between the satisfaction of the volunteer and the intention to recommend others to volunteer for the NGO.

Theoretical Implications

A first important theoretical contribution of this work is that the motivation of volunteers significantly improves NGO outcomes, as stated in Self-Determination Theory (SDT) (Deci and Ryan 1985) extended to the field of non-profit organisations by authors such as Bidee et al (2013). Compared to previous literature, this paper incorporates some innovative outcomes into the non-lucrative sector that have traditionally been studied in the lucrative industry, such as volunteer emotions and intention to leave.

Our second theoretical contribution is, as was stated by Vakil (1997), that NGOs are not all the same. For scholars in various disciplines, classifying NGOs should be a priority. As Vakil anticipated, general strategies cannot be applied homogenously.

Managerial Implications

Following some of the practical implications found in previous literature, our results lead us to recommend to managers of non-profit firms that they motivate their volunteers. They must remember that “the key to the success of an NGO for the recruitment and retention of volunteers is knowing the motivations specific to their group of volunteers” (Johnson-Coffey, 1997), and that “establishing significant segments in the volunteer market would allow greater success in the recruitment and retention of volunteers” (Busell & Forbes, 2002).

Five specific implications derived from this study could be adopted to improve the retention of volunteers.

First, in order to motivate volunteers, two of their basic psychological needs must be fulfilled: competence needs and sociability needs. That is to say, service providers

(volunteers) need to feel useful and competent in their work, while socialising as they complete their tasks. To cover these needs, managers could adopt two different measures. First, volunteers should be allowed to choose the tasks that best satisfy their competence needs, allowing them to feel fulfilled by these activities while achieving the desired results. As Zollo, Laudano, Boccardi and Ciappei (2019) remarked, volunteers differently accept obligations and impositions. Second, volunteers should deliver their services in contact with other people, non-isolated in separated offices, because they need to be connected to and accepted by others (Deci & Ryan, 1985, 2000). As Bide et al. (2013, p. 47) justify, “volunteers benefit from environments in which they have to cooperate with others and in which they are encouraged to identify with their volunteer group”. To address relationship needs, some collaborative work should be prepared for each workday; for example, allowing volunteers to share knowledge and training with other volunteers.

In addition to covering the basic psychological needs of their volunteers, managers should be able to emotionally stimulate them; that is, encourage volunteer experiential sentiments. To this end, managers should spend time getting to know their volunteers and understanding why they want to collaborate with the NGO and what is necessary to make their collaboration experience valuable and meaningful. For example, they could involve volunteers in celebrations on important dates and let them perform key tasks that are not routine or superficial. Managers should ensure that volunteers perceive their work as having a direct and significant impact on the NGO’s success, thus extending to the non-profit area the theory of motivation developed by Herzberg (2000).

Based on the idea that even the most committed volunteers can get bored with doing the same thing repeatedly, a career plan should be designed within the NGO, offering opportunities for growth, new challenges and even the possibility of assuming leadership

responsibilities. Just as paid staff seek professional development and promotion, many volunteers want new challenges in their volunteer careers.

Even more, a modernization of the organisation of NGOs should be incentivized by incorporating new profiles of fresh volunteers that could help to modernise some routines. For example, digital transformation is a pending issue in many NGOS.

To conclude, since the impact of satisfaction on the intention to recommend is significantly stronger in specialist NGOs than in generalist NGOs, making sure that volunteers are satisfied with their daily tasks becomes a priority, especially in generalist NGOs. In this regard, satisfaction studies among volunteers could be conducted periodically to anticipate crisis situations and implement improvement actions to recover satisfaction in the occupied position. As Zollo, Laudano, Boccardi and Ciappei (2019) remarked, the purpose is to get volunteers to identify with the values of the organisation, identifying weak points that hinder this identification.

Limitations and Future Research

A limitation of this study is the use of intrinsic motivation. Therefore, a future investigation should test this model, incorporating the extrinsic motivation of the volunteer; that is, pursuit of an activity for its expected result.

In terms of future lines of research, the perception that NGO beneficiaries have all their work carried out by volunteers could be analysed, a subject that is little studied in the literature. Additionally, the model proposed in this paper that attempted to explain the background and effects of motivations could be studied to see if it is applicable when the voluntary activity is carried out by a corporate volunteer; that is, in activities promoted and supported by the company in which the volunteer works. Even more, given the important role that the gender variable plays in the good performance of an organization, future studies

could also analyse the moderating role of gender to compare if men and women are differently motivated. Also, the level of engagement of the volunteer could be another interesting moderating variable to be considered in future studies, as “rotation / abandonment” and “engagement” are closely related concepts. Finally, since our results were obtained using EQS, the Partial Least Squared (PLS) software deeply developed by Henseler and Fassott (2010) could be used to compare the results of both tools.

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Figure 1.

Proposed relationships.

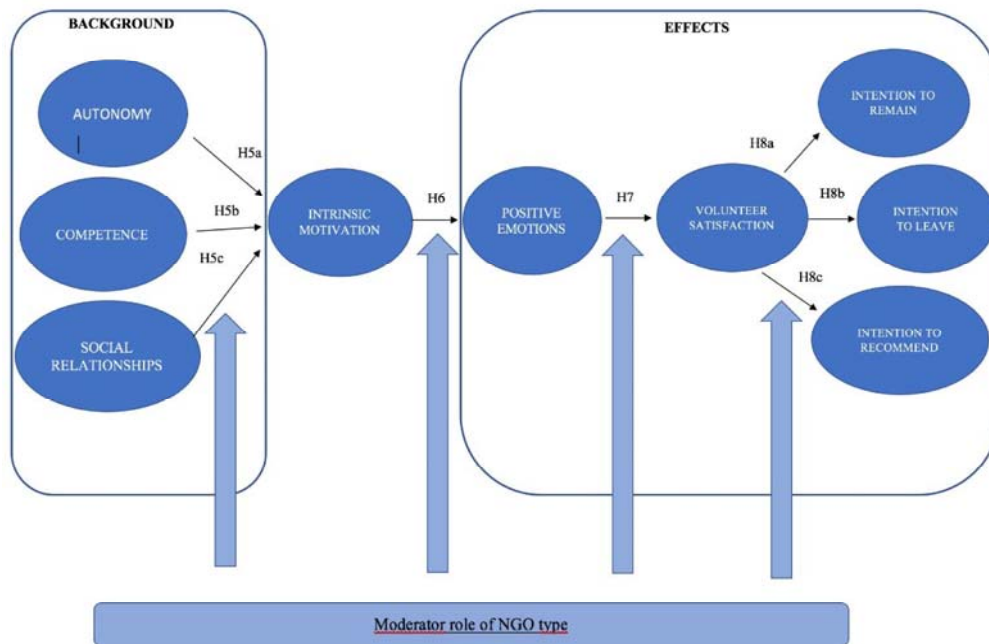


Table 1

Technical data sheet of the research

Sample size	847 individuals.
Type of sample	Non-probabilistic sampling by snowball. Some NGOs collaborating in the dissemination of the study, such as (Red Cross, Diocesan Caritas, Charity House, Spanish Association Against Cancer, Food Bank and Moms in Action)
Error	Not calculated
Date of realization	April 04 2018 – May 15 2018

Table 2

Results of convergent validity and reliability

				Reliability coefficients	
Factor	Items	Standard. Charge	T	Cr	Ave
F1 Autonomy	I feel like I can make a lot of inputs to deciding how my job gets done.	0,69**	20,65	0,87	0,52
	I am free to express my ideas and opinions on the job	0,71**	21,51		
	When I am at work, I have to do what I am told (reverse-scored).	0,72**	22,04		
	On my job I do not get much of a chance to show how capable I am (reverse-scored).	0,76**	23,72		
	I feel like I can pretty much be myself at work.	0,76**	23,99		
	There is not much opportunity for me to decide for myself how to go about my work (reverse-scored)..	0,69**	20,79		
F2 Competence	I do not feel very competent when I am at work. (reverse-scored).	0,73**	21,86	0,81	0,59
	Most days I feel a sense of accomplishment from working.	0,76**	22,97		
	When I am working I often do not feel very capable. (reverse-scored).	0,82**	25,62		
F3 Social relationships	I really like the people I work with.	0,74**	22,82	0,87	0,50
	I get along with people at work. (reverse-scored).	0,73**	22,45		
	I consider the people I work with to be my friends.	0,66**	19,57		
	People at work care about me.	0,74**	22,99		
	There are not many people at work that I am close to.	0,68**	20,19		
	The people I work with do not seem to like me much. (reverse-scored).	0,61**	17,71		
	People at work are pretty friendly towards me.	0,72**	22,07		
F4 Intrinsic motivation	Because I enjoy this volunteer activity very much	0,86**	28,30	0,82	0,61
	Because the volunteer activity I do is interesting	0,79**	24,88		
	Because the volunteer activity I do is a lot of fun	0,67**	20,03		
F5 Volunteer satisfaction	Overall, I like my volunteer activity a lot	0,84**	28,01		
	All and all, I am satisfied with my volunteer activity	0,77**	24,84		

	I am satisfied with my volunteer tasks	0,79**	25,49	0,91	0,66
	My volunteer activity gives me a lot of satisfaction	0,88**	30,02		
	Overall, my volunteer activity is great	0,77**	24,80		
F6 Positive emotions	Interested in things	0,75**	23,97		
	Excited	0,80**	26,21	0,94	0,62
	Strong	0,76**	24,14		
	Enthusiastic	0,83**	27,68		
	Satisfied with my self	0,77**	24,59		
	Awaked	0,78**	25,24		
	Inspired	0,81**	26,98		
	Helpful	0,82**	27,34		
	Concentrated	0,77**	24,70		
	Active	0,79**	26,05		
F7 Intention to Recommend	I would encourage friends and/or family to volunteer for this organization.	0,88**	30,92		
	I would not recommend doing volunteer work for this organization (reverse-scored).	0,92**	33,38		
	I would discourage those close to me from volunteering here (reverse-scored).	0,95**	35,37	0,96	0,85
	I would recommend that others consider volunteering for this organization.	0,92**	33,08		
F8 Intention to leave	I frequently about abandoning this organization	0,84**	23,27	0,85	0,74
	It is likely that leave this organization in next year	0,98**	27,06		
F9 Intention to remind	I will probably continue performing tasks of volunteer within the organization during the next 6 months	0,87**	30,25	0,93	0,82
	During the next 12 months	0,99**	37,53		
	During the next 24 months	0,85**	28,99		

$X^2(824) = 2492,86$ $P < 0,05$. CFI = 0,930. TLI = 0,924. RMSEA = 0,052

* $P < 0,05$ ** $P < 0,01$

Table 3

Discriminant validity results

	F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	F6	F7	F8	F9
F1	0,52	[0,59-0,70]	[0,63-0,73]	[0,47-0,60]	[0,52-0,63]	[0,37-0,50]	[0,48-0,60]	[-0,26 ; -0,10]	[0,34-0,47]
F2	0,42	0,59	[0,50-0,63]	[0,68-0,78]	[0,66-0,76]	[0,53-0,64]	[0,40-0,53]	[-0,17 ; -0,01]	[0,34-0,47]
F3	0,46	0,32	0,50	[0,49-0,62]	[0,55-0,66]	[0,42-0,55]	[0,55-0,65]	[-0,30 ; -0,15]	[0,43-0,55]
F4	0,28	0,54	0,31	0,61	[0,83-0,89]	[0,48-0,60]	[0,48-0,60]	[-0,25 ; -0,10]	[0,41-0,54]
F5	0,33	0,50	0,36	0,73	0,66	[0,54-0,65]	[0,53-0,64]	[-0,32 ; -0,18]	[0,47-0,58]
F6	0,19	0,34	0,24	0,29	0,35	0,62	[0,32-0,45]	[-0,23 ; -0,08]	[0,35-0,47]
F7	0,29	0,22	0,36	0,29	0,34	0,15	0,85	[-0,31 ; -0,16]	[0,44-0,55]
F8	-0,18	0,01	0,05	0,03	0,06	0,02	0,06	0,74	[-0,47 ; -0,35]
F9	0,17	0,16	0,24	0,22	0,28	0,17	0,25	0,17	0,82

AVE –Shaded diagonal; (II) (CORREL)² – Lower triangle; (III) INTERVALS – Upper triangle

Table 4

Results of the structural equation model

HYPOTHESIS	β	t
H1a: Autonomy → Motivation	-0,019 n.s.	-0,341
H1b: Competence → Motivation	0,651**	12,474
H1c: Social relations → Motivation	0,237**	4,820
H2: Motivation → Positive emotions	0,625**	14,933
H3: Positive emotions → Satisfaction	0,629**	15,690
H4a: Satisfaction → Intention to Remind	0,549**	14,791
H4b: Satisfaction → Intention to Leave	-0,330**	-8,982
H4c: Satisfaction → Intention to Recommend	0,605**	16,498
$X^2(849) = 3318,623$ P < 0,05. CFI = 0,90. TLI = 0,90. RMSEA = 0,062		

* P < 0,05 ** P < 0,01

Table 5

Moderator effect of the NGO type: generalist NGO versus specialist NGO

HYPOTHESIS			Generi c. NGO	Specifi c NGO	
χ^2 (Differences)			β	β	t
No	0,21	H5a: Autonomy ➡ Motivation, greater in specialist NGOs than generalists	-0,03	-0,03	-0,58
No	0,02	H5b: Competence ➡ Motivation, greater in specialist NGOs than generalists	0,65**	0,68**	11,99
No	0,00	H5c: Social relationships ➡ Motivation, greater in specialist NGOs than generalists	0,22**	0,23**	4,57
No	0,03	H6: Intrinsic motivation ➡ posi. emotions, greater in specialist NGOs than generalists	0,62**	0,64**	15,78
No	0,88	H7: Positive emotions ➡ satisfaction, greater in specialist NGOs than generalists	0,62**	0,62**	14,94
No	0,81	H8a: Satisfaction ➡ Intention to remind, greater in specialist NGOs than generalists	0,59**	0,61**	16,29
No	1,35	H8b: Satisfaction ➡ Intention to leave, greater in specialist NGOs than generalists	- 0,31**	-0,37**	-9,36
✓	18,02 **	H8c: Satisfaction ➡ Intention to recom., greater in specialist NGOs than generalists	0,54**	0,56**	14,66

* P < 0,05 ** P < 0,01