

**UNIVERSIDAD COMPLUTENSE DE MADRID
FACULTAD DE PSICOLOGÍA**



TESIS DOCTORAL

**La Influencia del Liderazgo y el Capital Psicológico en la
Permanencia de los Voluntarios**

**The Influence of Leadership and Psychological Capital on the
Permanence of Volunteers**

MEMORIA PARA OPTAR AL GRADO DE DOCTOR

PRESENTADA POR

Shaiza Almas

Director

Fernando Chacon Fuertes

Madrid

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List of Abbreviations

| | |
|-------------|--------------------------------------|
| CEO..... | Chief Executive Officer |
| CFA..... | Confirmatory Factor Analysis |
| EU..... | European Union |
| HIV..... | Human Immunodeficiency Virus |
| HRM..... | Human Resource Management |
| LMX..... | Leader-Member Exchange |
| MBE-A... | Management-by-Exception Active |
| MBE-P.... | Management-by-Exception Passive |
| MLQ..... | Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire |
| NGOs..... | Non-Governmental Organizations |
| PCQ..... | Psychological Capital Questionnaire |
| PsyCap.... | Psychological Capital |
| SDT..... | Self Determination Theory |
| TPB..... | Theory of Planned Behavior |
| TRA..... | Theory of Reasoned Actions |
| U.S. | United States |
| VFI..... | Volunteer Functions Inventory |
| EL..... | Ethical Leadership |
| e.g.,..... | for example, |
| et al..... | and others |
| etc..... | and so forth |
| p. (pp.)... | page (pages) |

1. Introduction

For many people, volunteering is altruistic without any personal benefit; however, selfless for some, volunteering is for gaining personal benefits (for example, curriculum development or pursuit of career). Volunteering provides a platform for those individuals who want to utilize their acquired experience and skills to help others selflessly and to devote their time in returning to their community. Moreover, volunteering is a profoundly rooted phenomenon; the love for humanity has been a dominant concept in our civilizations and is part of the doctrine of most religions. However, the number and personal characteristics of the volunteers have varied from one period to another in history and from one field of activity to another in the same historical period (Thursz, 1970). Many studies affirm the impossibility of defining volunteering as a once and for all because its fundamental characteristic is to transform itself while adapting opportunely to societal needs. Volunteering is always carried out in a dynamic situation and perceives as a complex phenomenon worth studying from a multidisciplinary perspective (Tavazza, 1995).

Volunteering can be defined based on prior conceptualizations (Wilson, 2000; Penner, 2002; Musick & Wilson, 2007), as an act that is planned by a group or organization. This definition highlights that volunteering is active and planned in nature and clarifies that it is not passive. Besides, it also affirms that this planned behavior is not freelance but organization bound. It is thus channeled mainly through Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs). Such organizations develop various movements in order to attract volunteers to increase their participation in volunteer activities. This development facilitates the necessary process of redefining the welfare state's role, which due to its inability to finance and manage the growing social demands, publicly appeals to non-government or non-profit organizations as an alternative formula to answer.

From the perspective of playing a role in societies' welfare, volunteers have been enormously valuable for non-profit organizations to contribute to different fields such as health, education, community services, churches, and sports. (Vecina, Chacon, Marzana, & Marta, 2013). Thus, volunteers contribute to facilitating non-profit organizations through their time and skills; such voluntary and unpaid contribution saves the economy, even though volunteers' loss can impact organizations adversely (Allen & Mueller, 2013).

All over the world, volunteering is highly promoted and encouraged prosocial behavior. However, volunteers' quitting behavior is explicitly alarming for non-profit organizations as they depend on volunteers to execute their functions properly. The literature regarding volunteerism reveals dropout rate increases every year, as shown by data from Europe and Asia (Kennedy & Brunold, 2015; Wegner, Jones, & Jordan, 2019). In the United States, in 2013, the volunteer dropout rate remained 25.4% from the previous year; other estimates showed that since 2013 the American volunteer population has reduced by half from the statistics of volunteer population in 2002 (United States Department of Labor, 2014; Miller, Adair, Nicols, & Smart, 2014).

The statistics presented above are alarming and provide a sufficient basis to investigate the volunteers' dropout to develop strategies to retain them. These also highlight that volunteers' dropout issue is not specific to a particular region or continent.

On the occasion of the celebration of the European year of volunteers and the United Nations' international year of volunteers in 2011, it was estimated that in Europe, 20% of Europeans were volunteering, although there were significant differences among countries, between 8% and 57 % (Kossowska & Łaguna, 2018). A report concerning volunteering in the European Union (EU) by the cultural executive agency GHK-Educational (2010) provided the percentage of volunteers who volunteered in various European countries.

Table 1 is depicting the percentage of participating volunteers corresponding to their respective countries.

Table 1*Participation of Volunteers in the European Countries (GHK-Educational, 2010)*

| European Countries | Participation of Volunteers |
|--|--|
| Netherlands, Austria, Sweden, and the United Kingdom | (over 40% of the adult population volunteers), |
| Denmark, Finland, Luxembourg, and Germany | 30-39% |
| Estonia, France, and Latvia | 20-29% |
| Belgium, Ireland, Malta, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Slovenia, Spain, the Czech Republic, and Slovakia | 10-19% |
| Bulgaria, Greece, Italy, and Lithuania | Below 10% |

GHK-Educational (2010) identified the following challenges faced by volunteerism in European countries:

- A decline in the number of volunteers is indeed challenging for most of the EU states so as to find a match between volunteers' and organizations' needs.
- Recruiting people who volunteer for the long term is another challenge.
- The interaction between management and the integration of volunteers requires serious attention.

These challenges provide the basis for the current investigation that explores the phenomenon of volunteers' permanence by investigating the impact of personal and organizational variables.

As a further matter, non-profit organizations try to handle the volunteers' dropout phenomenon, and retaining them is an utmost priority for such organizations as they rely heavily on a volunteer workforce (Smith, 2017). The declining number of new volunteers, drop out of already recruited volunteers, and optimizing their permanence is quite challenging for non-profit organizations (Nencini, Romaioli & Meneghini, 2016). Therefore, this research is a response to the assumption proposed by researchers like Hyde, Dunn, Bax, & Cahmbers (2016) to explore the volunteers' dropout phenomenon in order to have the benefit of their services, skills, and time by retaining them that consequently may improve the functioning of non-profit organizations and contribute in the wellbeing of self and others.

The current study is based on the framework of the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB). In accordance with TPB (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975), many studies have suggested that intention to remain is the best predictor of actual retention in both employees (Biron & Boon, 2013; Harhara et al., 2015; Rahman & Nas, 2013; Wells & Peachey, 2011) and volunteers (Chacón et al., 2007; Hyde & Knowles, 2013; MacGillivray & Lynd-Stevenson, 2013; Marta et al., 2014; Reuveni & Werner, 2015; Veludo-de-Oliveira et al., 2013; White

et al., 2017). However, none of the studies explored the discrepancy between the intention and the actual behavior using a longitudinal approach. The present study is among the initial studies to investigate this phenomena through prospective research design where the volunteers will be followed-up to analyze their actual behavior based on their intentions to continue volunteering.

Since the 1990s, various explanatory models on volunteers' retention and intention to remain have been developed (Chacón et al., 2007; Finkelstein et al., 2005; Omoto & Snyder, 1995). Most explanatory variables included in these models are personal or individual factors. Only a few of the variables are organizational variables, such as integration into the organization (Omoto & Snyder, 1995), satisfaction with the management of the organization, and organizational commitment (Alfes et al., 2015; Chacón et al., 2007).

The lack of studies on organizational variables in the field of volunteering contrasts with the numerous studies that analyze the relationship between these types of variables and the tenure of employees in companies. The literature has shown, organizational variables significantly influence employees' real retention and intention to remain (Yahaya & Ebrahim, 2016). Based on the literature, the current study plans to explore the role of an influencing organizational variable, leadership and an inspiring personal variable, psychological capital. Furthermore, in order to meet its objectives the current investigation plans to explore the mediating role of the Three Stage Model of Volunteer Duration (TSMVD) by Chacon, Vecina, and Davila (2007).

The information regarding volunteering in Spain, factors influencing volunteering and the detailed description of all variables studied in this investigation are presented next. The objectives, hypotheses and the justification for conducting this investigation are also discussed at the end of this chapter.

Volunteering in Spain

Volunteering existed in Spain, and several voluntary organizations such as Caritas and Red Cross have been working there for a long time; However, the first law of volunteering was approved in 1996. The level of volunteer development in Spain was indeed much lower than in other EU countries because it was considered the state's responsibility only to fulfill the social needs of people or to serve the poor was a church task, not civil society was responsible for that (Di Bartolomeo & Iori, 2008).

At present, volunteers are excellent support for the **non-profit** sector in Spain; without the help of those people who volunteer, **non-profit** organizations could not achieve their objectives. According to the report of Systeme Innovación y Consultoría (2015), the third sector in Spain is maintained mainly by volunteers, representing 71.5% of the total of its human resources. Most recently, according to a report published on the event of the celebration of the day of the volunteer, 6.2% of the total population was involved in volunteering, the number regularly engaged with a solidarity task was 2.5 million, who were majority young adults (Observatorio del Voluntariado, 2018). However, as compared to young adults, older adults take less part in volunteer activities in Spain (Wahrendorf, Blane, Matthews, & Siegrist, 2015). Moreover, aging of volunteers is trendy nowadays, and there among all the European Union nations, Spain has the highest life expectancy rate, and Spain will surpass all the other countries of the world by 2040 in achieving the longest life expectancy reaching the age of 86 years (Miller & Wu, 2019). Such concerns regarding aging raise the need to improve the management of volunteerism in Spain concerning recruiting and retaining older adult volunteers to achieve active and healthy aging by prosocial work, which in turn improves their self-esteem and wellbeing (Chong, Roselle, & Liu, 2013). professionalization of old age volunteers' management is also given importance by recent legislation in Spain (Ruiz, Marcos & Tornero, 2016).

Despite continue to be significant, the number of volunteers seems to be declining in recent years. The annual report of the Observatory of the platform of volunteers in Spain detected a decrease of nearly one point in the number of volunteers in a year, going from 9.3% in 2016 to 8.5% in 2017 (EFE, 2017). The criteria to observe dropout rates of volunteers by several researchers (Amenta, 1984; Paradis & Usui, 1987) is the ratio of volunteers' discontinuing proportionately one third in the first year of initiating volunteering. However, volunteer programs may have different retention rates (Black & Kovacs (1999). Vecina, Davila, and Chacon (2005) conducted an investigation in Spain with 1,406 volunteers, who observed that volunteers provide their services for at least one and a half years on average, focusing the abandonment in the initial period, once exceeded, some stability. Moreover, to continue or discontinue volunteering service, several underlying factors play their role. The following literature will highlight these factors.

Influencing Factors to Continuing Volunteering

Lack of knowledge regarding reasons and processes influencing the permanence of volunteering has the worst practical consequence: it prevents organizations from making the most of investments in resources for volunteers and the adoption of measures to avoid the damages that may be suffered by both organizations like users for premature abandonment and sometimes precipitation of volunteers. On the other hand, people who want to volunteer are not adequately channeled, which makes them feel inappropriate in a particular organization or the activity they want to perform voluntarily. Such circumstances cause termination of voluntary activities with diverse temporary variability in different organizations without being able to satisfy those needs until they finally give up and consequently leave the voluntary space. Moreover, it leads to negative consequences at the personal level and a loss of resources at the organizational level. In this regard, it is relevant to discuss further the factors that facilitate or hinder volunteering.

The inspiring factors for people to volunteers can be different; they can volunteer for internal or external reasons or motives (Newton, Becker, & Bell, 2014). One of the most applied theories to explain the factors concerning motivations to volunteering is the Functional Theory of Volunteer Motivations. Clary and Snyder (1991) constructed the Functional Theory of Volunteer Motivations intending to explain the articulation of the multiplicity of motivations that may be determining the development of voluntary participation. This approach holds the view that people can maintain the same attitudes and perform behaviors similar but for different reasons because they perform different functions at one time or at another time. In this way, people may volunteer for several reasons, not similar to those they require to perform several functions. Deci and Ryan (1985) presented another framework that remained dominant in explaining volunteer motivations as Self Determination Theory (SDT). This theory classified motivations as intrinsic and extrinsic; people choose to do something exciting due to intrinsic motivation; extrinsic motivations inspire them to do some activity to achieve some benefit.

In conclusion, reasons or motives to volunteer vary in terms of internal or external pursuits to indulge in volunteering. However, motivations involved in initiating volunteering may not always contribute to the continuity or permanence of volunteering. The next paragraphs will highlight some of the motivational factors involved in quitting or discontinuity of volunteering.

Influencing Factors to Discontinuing Volunteering

Literature supports this notion through several investigations, including a longitudinal study by Marta, Pozzi, and Marzana (2010) that personal preferences regarding additional responsibilities related to the job, family, and leisure activities with age transition from teens to adulthood result in quitting volunteering. Interestingly, Tang, Morrow-Howell & Choi

(2010) also supported this notion that priorities of growing age concerning health or ailment result in changing preference related to volunteering continuity among adult volunteers.

Apart from personal factors, several organizational factors are also involved in the permanence of volunteers. The type of experience with organizations also plays a role in making decisions about keeping or quitting volunteering (Allen & Mueller, 2013). Hustinx and Handy (2009) also explained that personal factors might not necessarily lead to diminishing volunteer performance or higher dropout. However, organizational factors may also influence volunteers' continuity or discontinuity, such as dissatisfaction with the volunteer work management, organizational structure (hierarchical, bureaucratic, and inflexible) of the particular volunteer organization, and affective experiences of volunteers (p. 249).

Several researchers have highlighted the importance of volunteers' perceptions of role ambiguity (Tang et al., 2010), lack of appreciation (Finkelstein, Penner & Brannick, 2005), lack of training, organizational support, and nature and quality of leadership quality (Hustinx & Handy, 2009) as obstacles to continuing their services. Besides organizational experiences, interpersonal conflict with fellow volunteers was also reported to be the reason for quitting volunteering (Marta et al., 2010).

As discussed above, several personal and organizational factors demotivate volunteers to continue their prosocial activities. In this regard, Vecina, Astray, Dávila, Barrón, Chacon, and De Paúl (2001) pointed out that volunteers who work with multiple organizations experience burnout that might trigger quitting intention. Allen and Mueller (2013) also identified burnout, causing quitting the intention among volunteers. Cowlshaw, Evans, and McLennan (2010) found out that volunteers with higher levels of time spent on emergency services received lesser family support concerning their volunteer services. That, in turn, resulted in volunteers' burnout and their decision to quit volunteering. Besides, Moreno-

Jiménez and Villodres (2010) identified two antecedents for volunteers' burnout; one was time dedication, and the other antecedent was extrinsic motivations to volunteering. These authors also found that intrinsic motives, such as values, had a negative relationship with volunteers' burnout.

The Intention of Permanence and Actual Behavior

The perceived probability of choosing a tenure to stay in an organization is called the intention of permanence (Schneider & George, 2011). The intention of permanence terms differently in literature, such as the intention to quit or retention, and the intention to stay or remain. However, more or less, the underlying assumption of these terms is parallel to the intention of permanence, continuity, or discontinuity. The actual behavior can be termed as how one actually behaves in a work setup. In addition, the framework of the current study draws on Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) and views the intention and the actual behavior according to this theory to build its assumptions regarding volunteers.

Theory of Planned Behavior

To explain the planned behavior, the most relevant theory is Fishbein and Ajzen's (1975) Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB), which is an extension of the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA). The TPB assumes that people have a propensity to decide rationally through the systematic use of accessible information and that the behavioral antecedents are the result of cognitive sequences. Moreover, a person's behavior would be a direct result of his conscious intention for that behavior. These intentions, as described by Fishbein & Ajzen, are considered the result of the effect of beliefs and attitudes. The TPB argues that the following factors form behavioral intentions:

- The attitude, an assessment of the behavior that can be positive or negative (Ajzen, 1988).
- The subjective norm, reflecting the perceived social expectation of performing or not performing specific behavior (Ajzen, 1988).

- Perceived Behavioral Control (PBC) refers to perceived volitional control under which behavior is performed (Ajzen, 1988). Ajzen (1991) suggested that the PBC, as well as influencing the intentions, could directly influence the behavior.

Many researchers (Sheeran, 2002; Armitage & Conner, 2001) have reported a correlation between intention and PCB. McEachan, Conner, Taylor, and Lawton (2011) circumscribed to healthy behaviors in a meta-analysis and found that components of TPB explained 19.3% of the variance of behaviors (around 25% when it is a self-report and approximately 13% when objectively measured) and 44.3% of the intentions. The intention showed the most substantial relationship with the behavior.

Armitage and Conner (2001) explained that the construct of subjective norms is usually the weakest predictor of intentions and might be the result of two combined factors: the poor psychometric quality of the measure and the need to expand the normative component of the TPB, including other aspects such as personal norms, they concluded, "However, despite these weaknesses (of the reviews), the evidence from the theoretical and meta-analytic reviews suggests that the TPB is a useful model for predicting a wide range of behaviors and behavioral intentions" (p. 475).

Concerning the planned nature of TBP, although Chacon (2019) referred to it as one of the distinguishing characteristics of volunteering for other helping behaviors, however, TPB had applied to other prosocial behaviors such as blood donation, and various meta-analytic studies had shown their effectiveness in predicting behaviors in the same way (Armitage & Conner, 2001). Chacon concluded that TPB did not begin to apply to volunteer context until the end of the 20th century, and it did not become generalized well into the present century. The TPB was first used to predict the permanence of volunteering in the substantial work of Harrison (1995) on episodic volunteering in a shelter for the homeless. Only later was it

applied to more stable volunteers (Warburton & Terry, 2000; Marta, Manzi, Pozzi, & Vignoles, 2014; Pavlova & Silbereisen, 2015; Reuveni & Werner, 2015; White, Poulsen, & Hyde, 2017).

It applies to all age groups, such as Warburton and Terry (2000) have applied it to older adults to predict their intention of volunteering. Marta et al. (2014) applied it to predict the long-term permanence of young adult volunteers. Furthermore, Okun and Sloane (2002) applied TPB to predict enrollment in a university volunteer program and Reuveni and Werner (2015) in high school students to predict the intention of providing a service civilian with the elderly, and different aspects of voluntary behavior. White et al. (2017) used TPB to predict both volunteering, blood donation, and financial donation, and Pavlova and Silbereisen (2015) applied this theory to predict not only civic participation (volunteering) but also politic.

However, Chacon (2019) demonstrated that TPB's application to the permanence of volunteering is not without problems. One of the serious concerns is that being initially conceived to explain the decision to initiate a behavior, rather than decide to stay in it once it starts, it does not take into account processes that begin once the behavior begins, such as habit or costs of investment. Another aspect that is also crucial to take into account that the time between taking the measure of the intention and registering the behavior, which influences its correlation, decreasing significantly after five weeks (Ajzen, 2011). However, in the case of the permanence of volunteering, this period is much longer. The TBP is in a continuum model, not phases (Schwarzer & Gutiérrez-Doña, 2009), and these are not without criticism; firstly, they assume that all change occurs linearly; therefore, the process should be the same for all. The problem with such an assumption is that it excludes qualitative changes due to transitional stages or because of the appearance of other alternative behaviors that

occur over time. Secondly, continuum models do not manifest what happens in the post-intentional phase when translating the defined goals into concrete actions.

Despite these concerns noted above, researchers like Fishbein and Ajzen (1975), Chacon, et al. (2007) explained that the intention predicts the behavior. Similarly, researchers (Park & Kim, 2009; Rahman & Nas, 2013; Biron & Boon, 2013) concluded that turnover decisions are affected by the intention to quit. Moreover, the actual behavior proved to strongly predict employees' turnover intention (Wells & Peachey, 2011; Harhara, Singh & Hussain, 2015). Thus, depending on TPB's assumption that the intention is the index or antecedent of actual behavior, the current study will primarily explore volunteers' intention to continue volunteering; furthermore, the actual behavior of volunteers will be evaluated based on their intention of permanence. To explain the phenomenon of volunteers' intention of permanence, the researchers developed various models. The following part of this section will present an overview of those models.

Main Approaches and Empirical Models of the Permanence of Volunteering

Despite some pioneering study in the 1960s, such as that of Professor David Smith of Harvard University (Smith, 1966), the interest of Social Psychology in volunteering does not wake up until the late 1970s, and we had to wait until the mid-90s to appear the first studies and models focused on the permanence of volunteering. After extensive research, various researchers have tried to explain the permanence of volunteers' intention and behavior through distinct models. The models of volunteerism that caught more attention by researchers are presented here:

The Functionalist Approach: Volunteer Process Model

The basis of the Volunteer Process Model developed by Omoto and Snyder (1995) is a functionalist vision of the motivations of volunteering. This model has had the most significant impact on subsequent research and has considerable heuristic value. Omoto and

Snyder studied the psychosocial factors that affected the permanence of volunteering for seropositive support organizations and identified the following stages:

- Antecedents of volunteering
- Volunteer experience
- Consequences of volunteering

In the first stage, they place the variables that can be considered as before the decision to volunteer and includes three constructs that encourage some people to volunteer:

- Willingness to help.
- Motivations, according to the functionalist model, include six reasons: expression of values, knowledge, personal development, increase in esteem, and interest in the HIV-positive community, in addition to a global score.
- Social support to volunteer.

In the second stage of volunteer experience, the variables that promote or stop volunteering are identified. This phase included the following variables:

- Satisfaction related to activities or tasks.
- Integration in the organization.

Finally, in the third stage, they include the time of permanence as the main consequence of the volunteer process.

To check their model Omoto and Snyder (1995) sent a questionnaire to the volunteers included in the database of seropositive support organizations in a single moment. That is, they did not use a strict longitudinal design but instead surveyed volunteers with very different previous permanence times.

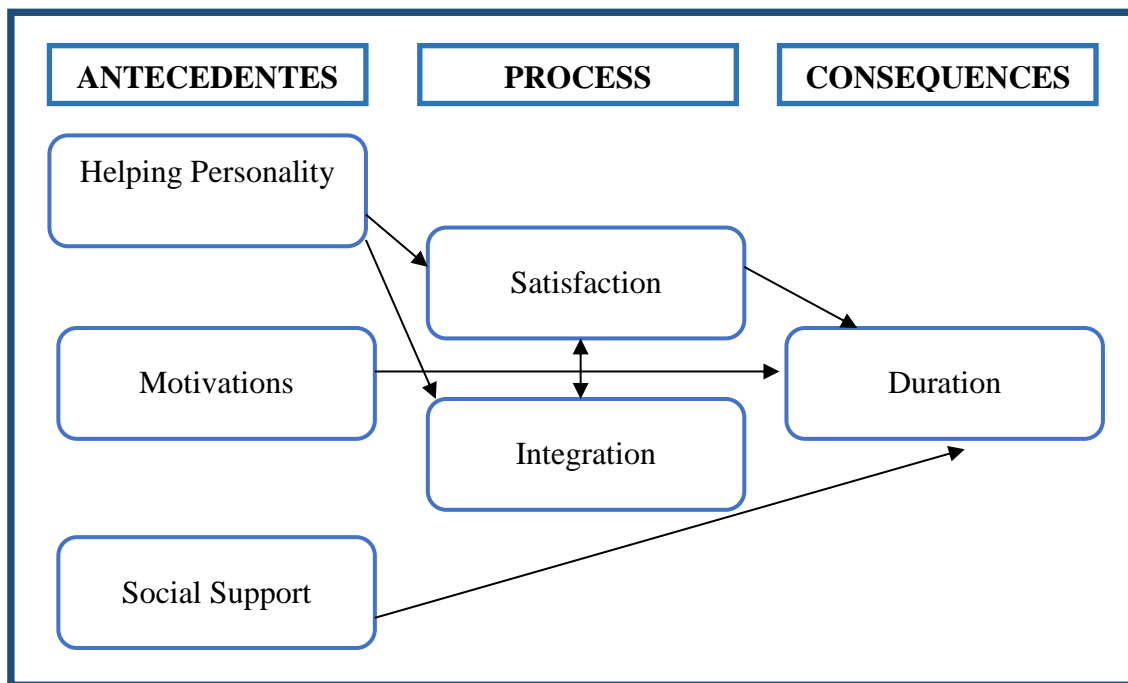
The most relevant results obtained through structural equations were (see Figure 2):

- There was a significant, direct, and positive relationship between Motivations and Permanence (.31; $p \leq .05$), and between Satisfaction and Permanence (.23; $p \leq .05$), and direct and negative between Social Support and Permanence (- .31; $p \leq .05$).
- Integration into the organization only indirectly influenced the permanence through its relationship with satisfaction (.17; $p \geq .05$).
- The provision to help directly and positively influenced both satisfaction (.42; $p \leq .05$) and integration in the organization (.31; $p \leq .05$), and therefore through the mediating effect of these variables, indirectly in the permanence.

A noteworthy aspect of its results is that the motivations that had the most significant correlations with the time of permanence were what we could call self-centered (knowledge, personal development, and increase of the estimate .26, $p \leq .01$; .25, $p \leq .05$; .26, $p \leq .01$, respectively). However, these variables are not the most important for the volunteers since the motivations that obtained the highest scores in the sample were precisely the heterocentric motivations: Values (mean = 5.2, on a scale of 1-7) and Interest in the Community (average = 4), only after the self-centered motivations of knowledge (average = 3.58), Personal Development (average = 3.28) and finally Increase in the Estimate (average = 2.56). This preeminence of heterocentric motivations is consistent with most of the studies carried out on the motivations of volunteers, as depicted in a recent review (Chacon, Gutiérrez, Sauto, Vecina & Pérez, 2017). This result is probably due to the lower variability of the measures of heterocentric motivations (Chacon et al., 2017; Chacon et al., 2007).

Figure 1

Volunteer Process Model by Omoto and Snyder (1995)



One of the functionalist approach's relevant results is the Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI) by Clary, Snyder, Ridge, Copeland, Stukas, Haugen, and Miene (1998). Gage and Thapa (2012) affirm VFI as “the standard instrument for evaluating volunteer motivation” (p. 413). This inventory evaluates six motivations: values, interest in the community, knowledge, personal development, increased esteem, and curriculum development. Clary et al. explained that these motivational factors are related to the causes, aims, objectives, and targets served by thoughts, emotions, and behaviors of individuals that prompt their functioning. Using these conceptualizations, various researchers have tried to investigate the motives for volunteering. Such as, Chacon et al. (2017) used VFI in their systematic review of the research and concluded a higher mean score for values, and career and enhancement factors obtained the lowest scores. Besides, Brayley, Obst, White, Lewis,

Warburton and Spencer (2014) examined the demographics of retired or near retirement old age professionals; their study utilized VFI and hypothesized that such professionals would adopt volunteering to share the knowledge and skills acquired throughout their careers. Based on the findings, values and continuity were statistically significant to adopt volunteering in their sample. Also, members of the sample in their study exhibited values-oriented motivation in the form of altruism and the desire to share their acquired skills with others.

Using the functional approach for volunteering, Cornelis, Van Hiel, and De Cremer (2013) found out that self-oriented motives such as egoism including, personal development, self-praise, escaping the guilt, explain in-role volunteer behavior. Alternatively, other-oriented motives such as altruism in the form of community welfare inspire extra-role volunteer behavior.

Despite the fact that the Volunteer Process is the first formalized model, which applies a novel methodology at that time, and which has had a significant impact on subsequent research; however, it is not without limitations. Firstly, the type of volunteering is particular, which makes it difficult to generalize it. Secondly, the fact of applying a prospective and not longitudinal design, including volunteers with very different previous residence times in the same sample, does not allow to know precisely if the residence time is (sum of the previous time and the time, in the end, follow-up at two and a half years) what influences the antecedent variables or if they are the ones that influence the residence time. The antecedent measures were not taken at the corresponding time.

Identity-Based Perspectives

Volunteering is not only what an individual does, but it also depicts what an individual is (Van Dyne & Farmer, 2004). Identity is a variable that has often been considered an antecedent to behavior maintained over time (Vecina, et al. 2005; Terry, Hogg,

& White, 1999). The identity of a person is in a continuous process of construction.

Volunteering can be, for many, a way to express their individuality and give volunteers a sense of identity.

Volunteer identity can be defined as the set of meanings linked to the self by the individual in the field of volunteering (Gecas, 1982). These meanings can be based on unique individual characteristics (personal identity), group membership (social identity), or the performance of social roles (role identity). These three aspects have, respectively, been at the center of identity theories.

From the perspective of the Theory of Social Identity (Tajfel & Turner, 1979), a volunteer's identity is derived from his belonging to a community through a process of identification with the category he represents. People define themselves, and others can define them based on their group affiliation (Haslam & Ellemers, 2011; Hogg, 2006). Side by side, contributing to personal identity, volunteering also contributes to social identity. As researchers like Puddifoot (1996) affirms, like other types of identity, "it determines inclusion, exclusion, and group membership" (p. 328). In volunteering, certain social relationships are generated and become significant; socialization processes are developed, especially identity construction. Nevertheless, it has been the Role Identity Theory and approaches to personal identity that have produced the most studies on the permanence of volunteering.

Role Identity Model. The Volunteer Role Identity Model starts with symbolic interactionism. For Stryker and Burke (2000), "identities are internalized role expectations" (p. 286). Dovidio and Gaertner (1983) explained that role identity forms when a role performed repeatedly merges with personal identity.

From the perspective of symbolic interactionism, if a person considers that being a volunteer is personally important, they would be more motivated to carry out this activity more frequently and for more extended periods. The Volunteer Role Identity Model understands that, as people carry out an activity, they incorporate that role into their identity. The fact of remaining in the volunteer service increases the commitment that is in the organization's favor, and in turn, changing the self-concept makes volunteering a part of their identity (Stryker, 1980). When these changes in personal and social identity occur, it is highly likely that voluntary actions will continue for a long time. For this model, the reason behind volunteers' permanence in organizations is the formation of an identity that includes the role of a volunteer.

The application of the Role Identity Model to prosocial behaviors was initially proposed by Piliavin and Callero (1991) to explain habitual blood donation, later being applied to more prototypical behaviors of volunteering (Penner, 2002; Penner & Finkelstein, 1998). Volunteers vary in the strength with which they identify with a volunteer's role, which depends fundamentally on the importance or salience of the role. Like all people who play multiple roles, their identity is made up of identities based on more than one role (McCall & Simmons, 1978). Extensive research shows that the importance of a person's role identity relates to voluntary donations of time, money, and blood (Grube & Piliavin, 2000; Lee, Piliavin & Call, 1999; Piliavin & Callero, 1991). Other results specifically focused on volunteering supports role identity correlates to the duration of the service (Marta et al., 2014; Penner & Finkelstein, 1998; Vecina & Chacon, 2017).

From the Role Identity Model, it is derived that the previous act of volunteering can best predict the prospective act of volunteering, and the research carried out to confirm this theory has focused on this aspect. Grube and Piliavin (2000) supported this hypothesis that previous volunteer activities foster volunteer role identity.

Penner and Finkelstein (1998) tested the Volunteer Process Model and the Voluntary Role Identity models, examining how both models were related to four aspects of volunteering, including the time of permanence in the organization. The authors used a prospective panel design of three temporal measures with a period between measures of five months. The results confirmed that two of the hypotheses of the Volunteer Process Model: satisfaction correlated to the duration of stay, while integration into the organization was not directly related. Regarding motivations, only the scale of values correlated with time of permanence, and contrary to the results of Omoto and Snyder (1995), the prosocial orientation showed a direct relationship with time of permanence.

Penner and Finkelstein (1998) operationalized the concept of role identity as the level of voluntary activity carried out in phase 2. If this measure is accepted as a valid operationalization, although it could be considered instead as an implication, then the results showed the level of voluntary activity in the first phase affected the role identity of the volunteer, and this determines the performance of activities consistent with the role identity in phase 3. Other data indirectly support the Role Identity Model, while correlations among three measures of voluntary activity are progressively higher, suggesting that the volunteers developed a role identity. This would make transitory affective states lessen their impact on subsequent voluntary behaviors. The study by Penner and Finkelstein also presents some deficiencies since the sample was small, and as in the case of Omoto and Snyder (1995), the measurements of the different constructs were not taken in the corresponding time moments. The previous time of the sample volunteers in phase 1 was extremely heterogeneous (between 2 months and 10 years), and this inevitably conditions the responses. On the other hand, the period of follow-up of the permanence is concise (10 months), which taking into account the long previous time, would prevent assuming, as the authors do, that the role identity was formed between the two follow-ups since it could be in place before taking the

first step. Furthermore, the relationship between permanence and identity is predictably not linear, but logarithmic.

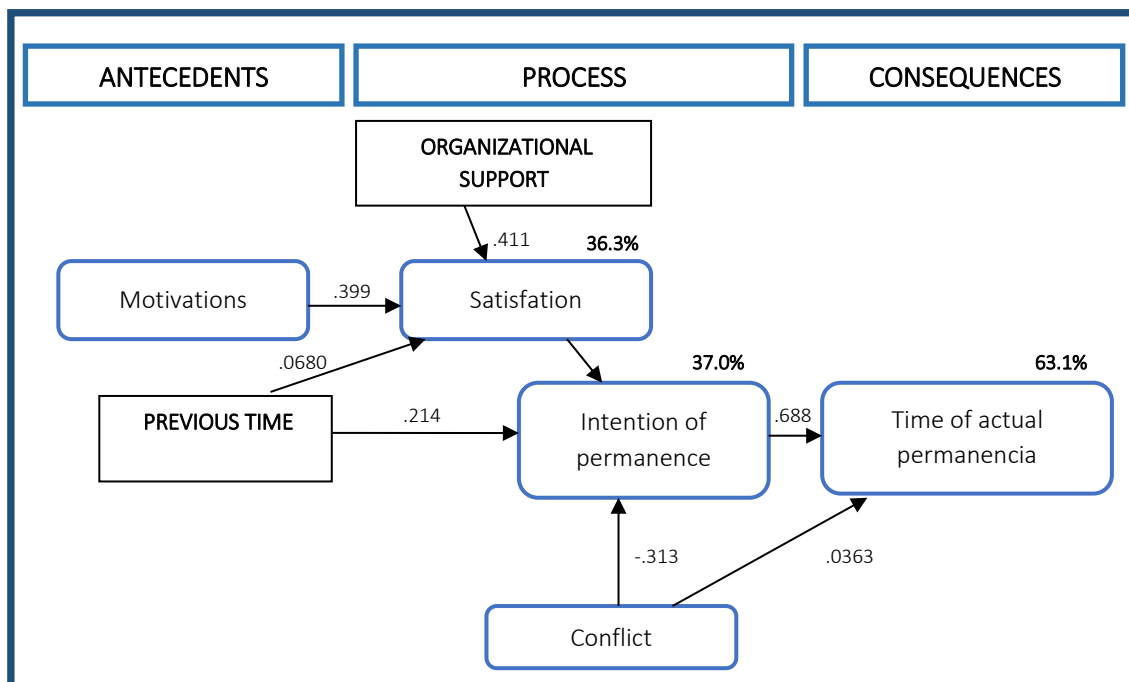
Psychosocial Model of Volunteering

Vecina (2001) developed this model in an effort to validate the model of Omoto and Snyder (1995) in a Spanish sample while trying to alleviate some of its limitations and later expanding it. The spectrum of volunteer types was diversified, including 17 social health organizations. Second, regarding the design used, her team planned to take the measurements of the antecedent constructs as closely as possible when deciding to volunteer (less than six months prior, Time1). After six months, the process variables (Time2) were evaluated, and finally, after one year, a follow-up (Time3) was performed.

Vecina (2001) concluded that the Omoto and Snyder (1995) model only explained 8.2% of the variance of the actual permanence time, and data showed no fit indices. For this reason, it was decided to expand it by including personal and organizational variables (organizational support, organizational conflict). As proposed by the TBP, the intention to remain was incorporated, which, as previously indicated, was a relative novelty at that time in the field of volunteering. Finally, the variable past behavior introduced by different authors was added as a predictor of behavioral intention (Bagozzi, 1981; Bagozzi & Kimmel, 1995; Sheeran & Orbell, 1999). As it will be remembered, this variable was proposed by the role identity model as an antecedent of identity, although this last variable was not explicitly mentioned in the Psychosocial Model of Volunteering.

Figure 2

Model of the Psychosocial Process of Volunteering by Vecina (2001)



Note. This model explained 37.7% of the intention to stay and 63.1% of the actual stay.

Sustained Volunteerism Model

Penner (2002) presented this model with the views that organizational factors and dispositional factors are dependent, “they influence one another, and the resultant interactions between them influence sustained prosocial actions” (p. 459). This model assumes that role identity mediates or moderates the relationship between sustained volunteerism and other variables like dispositional, social, organizational, and situational. Penner further described that “role identity of individuals is the strong reason behind their sustained volunteerism, that is for how long individuals repeatedly perform activities voluntarily” (p. 463). Moreover, this sustained volunteerism model suggests voluntary sector organizations on how to attract new volunteers and how to attain their permanence.

The Three-stage Model of Volunteers' Duration

The reason behind discussing above mentioned models of volunteering is that they explain different assumptions, experiences, and variables as antecedents for predicting volunteer behavior. However, the drawbacks of the previous models concerning volunteers' permanence are studying the same variables regardless of the time elapsed. The Three-Stage Model of Volunteer Duration includes a temporal perspective considering that the variables that best predict the intention to permanence are different depending on the phase in which the volunteer is. Chacon et al. (2007) developed TSMVD, which comprehensively combines different antecedents and relates them with the prediction of volunteers' duration. In addition, this model identifies more appropriate antecedents to predict the duration of the intention of permanence, whether short, medium, or long term.

A detailed description of this model is investigated in the current study and is presented next.

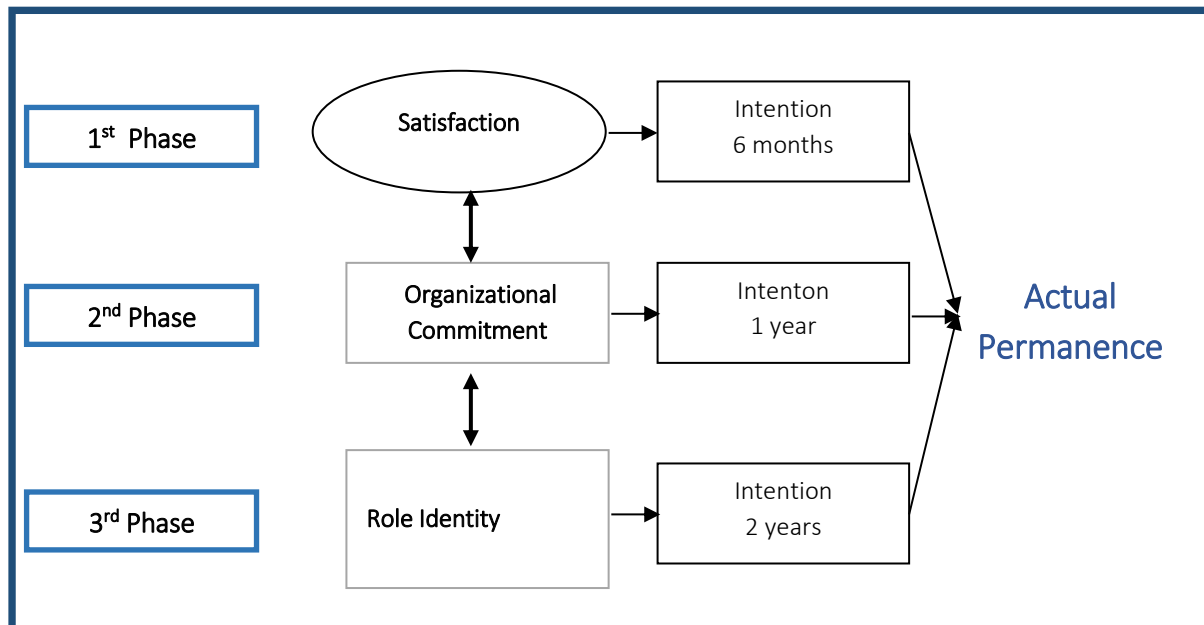
The Three-Stage Model of Volunteers' Duration (TSMVD)

Chacon et al. (2007) developed the Three-stage Model of Volunteers' Duration (TSMVD), explaining that volunteering is a planned behavior, and the best predictor for volunteering behavior is the behavioral intention. Reasoned action theory and planned action theory (Ajzen, 1991; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975) provided the theoretical base behind this model.

TSMVD is a comprehensive model that specifies temporal estimates concerning the influence of specific antecedents and experiences on retention of volunteers and put forward the intention of permanence at each time. TSMVD identifies three stages short-term (six months), medium (one year), and long-term (two years) and their corresponding predictors for the intention of permanence. However, it is noteworthy that the time limits between the stages are relatively arbitrary that may vary from one person to another or between the types of volunteers or organizations. This model believes that satisfaction is the best predictor for short term (six months) intention to continue volunteering. The medium-term (1 year) predictor is the organizational commitment, and role identity is the best predictor for the intention to continue in the long term (2 years) (Chacon et al., 2007) (see Figure 3).

Figure 3

A Schematic Representation of the TSMVD by Chacon, Vecina and Dávila (2007)



This model (Chacon et al., 2007) tries to integrate the functionalist and role identity perspectives since there is empirical support for their complementarity (Finkelstein et al., 2005). Like Voluntary Process Psychosocial Model by Vecina (2001), it is also based on the TPB, so it starts from the assumption that the variable that best explains the actual permanence is the behavioral intention of permanence. Nevertheless, the main innovation of the TSMVD (see Figure 3) is that it introduces a dynamic perspective; It assumes that the variables that influence the permanence of volunteering and their relationships vary over time. Even recognizing the arbitrariness of the time limits and the essential individual differences, this model distinguishes three stages, and the main predictor of the intention to remain would be different in each one of them. In the first, according to postulated by the functional approach, it would be satisfaction, in the second, commitment, and finally in the third, and keeping with the Role Identity Theory, identity.

Since these are the central variables of the model, a brief review of the main results is presented here regarding their relationships with the permanence of volunteers and the interactions between them.

First Phase: Satisfaction

In the first stage, it is proposed that satisfaction, as suggested by Omoto and Snyder (1995), is the variable most related to the intention of permanence in the short term, since during the first months it is when the volunteers contrast their motivations and expectations with the organizational reality. The model assumes that the balance of results of such contrast must be positive until the development of other variables of a more dispositional nature, or else the volunteers would leave in this first phase. Satisfaction conceptualizes as the satisfaction of the motivations, satisfaction with the tasks, and satisfaction with the management of the organization. Previous research in work and organizational psychology has proved the association between job satisfaction and permanence (Aziri, 2011). Transferring these studies to volunteering, since the 80s, researchers have hypothesized that those volunteers who showed greater satisfaction in the task would have a higher probability of permanence (Dailey, 1984, Pierucci & Noel, 1980).

Satisfaction, particularly job-related satisfaction, has been extensively studied in for-profit organizations concerning turnover intentions and leadership styles, such as transformational leadership (Rothfelder, Ottenbacher, & Harrington, 2013). However, TSMVD particularly investigates volunteers' intention of permanence, who serves the non-profit organizations. Thus the present study will investigate volunteers' satisfaction, whether it influences their intention to volunteer further, and their subsequent behavior.

Previous regarding the influence of satisfaction on the permanence of volunteers give contradictory results (Finkelstein et al., 2005). Many researchers found a direct relationship between satisfaction and permanence (Bang, 2015; Benevene, Dal Corso, De Carlo, Falco,

Carluccio, & Vecina 2018; Wright, Larsen & Higgs, 1995). A few researchers find an indirect relationship (Chacon et al., 2007; Vecina, 2001; Vecina & Chacon, 2005), and some others find no relationship (Davis, Hall & Meyer, 2003; Finkelstein et al., 2005; Tang et al., 2010). Vecina & Chacon (2017) found completely inverse results where the satisfaction of particular motivations negatively influenced the long-term permanence of volunteers. However, the studies that start from the same volunteer process model arrive at diverse findings, if not contradictory. While Omoto and Snyder, in a sample of volunteers with people affected by HIV, find a relationship between satisfaction and permanence, Davis et al., using the same model but performing a longitudinal study with new volunteers, conclude that the satisfaction predicts the hours of volunteering but not the abandonment of the activity.

The results as a whole seem to point to the fact that, as in the case of studies with paid workers, satisfaction seems to act more as a hygienic factor in Herzberg's (1971) terminology. Satisfaction contributes to sustainability and influences commitment; however, once reaching that minimum level, permanence becomes more independent of satisfaction. Some data seem to point out the fact that satisfaction is not crucial for the maintenance of volunteering. The TSMVD portrays that discrepancies in the effect of satisfaction on the permanence are due to the different temporal moments of the volunteering process in which temporary measures are taken (Vecina, Chacon, & Sueiro, 2010). Chacon et al. (2007) proposed that in TSMVD, the first phase has a direct influence on the intentions of permanence, while in the medium and long term, this influence is indirect through commitment. In addition, Bang (2015) found that volunteers' satisfaction with the task influences commitment and exerts a partially mediating effect on values and commitment. Turnley and Feldman (2000) also found a partially mediating effect of satisfaction on psychological contract and commitment to the organization. Analogous to studies with

workers, satisfaction has been related to some characteristics of the task such as meaning, identity, and diversity of skills (Dailey, 1984), or role ambiguity (Claxton-Oldfield & Claxton-Oldfield, 2012). Millete and Gagne (2008) also find a relationship between task characteristics and satisfaction, but in their study, autonomous motivation mediates this relationship. A study by Salas (2008) found that reasons for Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI), except for curriculum, explain approximately 16% of the variance of satisfaction. However, it seems that not all motivations have the same degree of relationship with satisfaction.

According to the prediction of the theory of self-determination motivation, the intrinsic motivations (Nencini et al., 2016), including religious motives (Clerkin & Swiss, 2013), are those that show the most considerable influence on the satisfaction of volunteering. Finally, Bang (2015) has found that values motivation contributes to the satisfaction of volunteers. This finding is similar to the findings of Omoto and Snyder (1995) between prosocial orientation and Satisfaction. The relationship between values and satisfaction supports the theory of satisfaction as a trait or disposition, or homeostatic theory of satisfaction Like life satisfaction, job satisfaction, and volunteering is partially a state that depends on specific circumstances. However, it is also a stable feature; although it may fluctuate at specific moments, it usually returns to a baseline level for each person. Deducing from the assumptions of the functional theory of the motivations of volunteering can be concluded that to the extent the specific motivations of the volunteers are covered, they will feel greater satisfaction. However, in this aspect, research yields different results (Finkelstein, 2008). Although some studies find relationships with the satisfaction of the motivations in general (Clary et al., 1998; Oostlander, Guntert & Wehner, 2014; Stukas, Daly & Cowling, 2005), again, it seems that to achieve satisfaction, volunteers need to have specific motivations covered, internal, autonomous and, more specifically, the expression of values

(Vecina, Chacon, Sueiro & Barron, 2012). TSMVD assumes satisfaction comprises motivational satisfaction, volunteer work-related satisfaction, and satisfaction with the organization where volunteers are engaged in prosocial activities.

For a few years, some researchers have initiated to investigate the leadership styles of volunteer coordinators and various outcome variables of voluntary activity. Feeling respected by the volunteer coordinator is related to satisfaction (Bang, 2015). In particular, relationships have been found between satisfaction and ethical leadership (Benevene et al., 2018) and leadership in support of autonomy (Oostlander et al., 2014). Benevene et al. concluded that ethical leadership and affective commitment are partially mediated by satisfaction; however, they fully mediated the intention of permanence. Ruiz et al. (2016) concluded that satisfaction with management predicts intention to remain; they added tasks assigned to volunteers that also influence the intention. It must be given attention while assigning volunteers tasks (Brayley et al., 2014) because volunteers seek a way through volunteering to practice their acquired skills during a lifetime (Salt & Mikkelsen, 2009).

Second Phase: Organizational Commitment

Regarding the assumption that the commitment to the organization takes some time to develop, Chacon et al. (2007) explained that organizational commitment predicts permanence intention in the second phase of volunteering. Chacon et al. further discussed that commitment involves reliable identification with a specific organization, willingness to achieving organizational targets and goals while remaining an active member. According to Chacon et al., organizational commitment matches more than satisfaction, to stay long-term because it would make it possible to compensate, at least temporarily, modest declines in the level of satisfaction. Interestingly, it is the commitment, not the satisfaction, the variable

allowing to differentiate clearly between a short and long stay of volunteers in an organization (Vecina et al., 2010).

Profit sector research widely investigated organizational commitment depicting those particular aspects of organizational commitment applicable to non-profit work setups (Boezeman & Ellemers, 2007; Rahmawati, Abiddin, & Ro'is, 2014), such as Vecina et al. (2013) discussed that organizational commitment ensures volunteers' permanence. Besides, a few more studies have investigated volunteers' organizational commitment (Davila & Chacon, 2003).

A study involving Spanish and Italian volunteers using OCQ, by Davila, Díaz-Morales, Pasquini, and Giannini (2010) found a bivariate structure of organizational commitment: acceptance and involvement. In the sample of Spanish volunteers, two factors were significant from the intention of permanence predictors, while in the sample of Italian volunteers was only the acceptance, although in both cases, the percentage of variance explained was something more than 25%.

Some studies have shown that the commitment to continuity is not relevant in the case of the volunteers (Liao-Troth, 2001). For this reason, Boezeman and Ellemers (2007) tried to explore volunteers and paid workers' affective commitment and normative commitment. They concluded that in contrast to paid workers while determining the tenure, volunteers' moral considerations (rules) were as crucial as the affective commitment. In another comparative study between paid workers and volunteers, Van Vuuren et al. (2008) found that the volunteers preferred affective and normative commitment over continuity commitment. However, paid workers preferred normative commitment only. Affective commitment is associated with a reduction in the intention of abandonment of volunteers (Boezeman & Ellemers, 2007; Vecina et al., 2012) and the permanence in voluntary activities (Vecina et al.,

2010). Recently Benevene et al. (2018) found a relatively lower correlation between the intention of permanence and affective commitment.

In addition to this direct relationship with the intention of permanence, the commitment appears to exert an influence as a mediator concerning other variables such as satisfaction and retention (Rusbult & Farrell, 1983). Okun, Infurna, and Hutchinson (2016), adopting the hours devoted to volunteering as an indicator of the commitment, concluded, the commitment was the probability of leaving the volunteering in older volunteers

The antecedents of organizational commitment in volunteers include satisfaction and motivation. Several studies have revealed that achieving satisfaction paves the way to achieving affective commitment (Lok & Crawford, 2001; Bennet & Barskensjo, 2005; Chacon et al., 2007; Hyde et al., 2016; Chordiya, Sabharwal & Goodman, 2017).

Motivations and precisely, the expression of values and self-determined motivation directly influence affective commitment. However, satisfaction in the task partially mediates this relationship (Hyejin, Ross, & Reio, 2013). Cuskelly, McIntyre, and Boag (1998), in a prospective study, concluded that among the motives of volunteering, altruism influenced the organizational commitment in sports entities. Another heterocentric motive related to organizational engagement is a sense of community (Fairley, Lee, Green, & Kim, 2013). Moreover, McBey, Karakowsky, and Ng (2017) presented a model of organizational commitment. According to their model, organizational commitment depends fundamentally on three factors: perceived organizational support, perception of influence, and volunteers' belief that their role in the organization provides them with a platform for self-expression. According to the theory of self-concept, individuals seek to act on behavior that verifies their thoughts and feelings about themselves (Klenke, 2007). Self-expression involves behaving in a way that is consistent with personal values and beliefs. As a result, individuals are likely to perceive an activity as self-expressive if participating in it can help them bring the real self-

closer to the ideal self in Higgins' terminology. This reduction in the gap between the real self and the ideal improves self-esteem and relates to the concept of self-realization (Demerouti, Deci & Ryan, 2008). In this same vein, the pride of belonging to an organization and the respect received by that organization predict affective and normative commitment (Boezeman & Ellemers, 2007). As in the case of satisfaction, some recent studies analyze the influence of the style of leadership on organizational commitment and permanence of volunteering (Almas, Chacon & Perez, 2020), whether transformational leadership (Buck, 2018) or the so-called ethical leadership (Benevene et al., 2018) influences organizational commitment.

Third Phase: Role Identity

Long-term intention of permanence (more than one year), as indicated by TSMVD, is predicted mainly by role identity (Chacon et al., 2007). The underlying assumption of the role identity is carrying out a specific role for a long time; it becomes part of a person's identity (Turner, 1978). Following the provisions of the Role Identity Model and the expanded Planned Behavior Theory, role identity is included in the third phase of the volunteer model. As a consequence of the continued practice of voluntary actions in favor of the organization, the role of a volunteer would end up being incorporated into the self-concept, so the identity of the role of a volunteer would then be the variable with the highest predictive value regarding the intention of long-term permanence (Chacon et al.).

Chang, Piliavin and Callero (1988) argue that intentions are likely to be based on central or salient role identities and that the predictive power of identity over intentions increases over time as the behavior continues mainly due to specific reasons such as attitudes tend to change over time, while internalized normative influences are considered relatively stable. After repeated execution of behavior, identity stands out, compared to relatively transitory attitudes or perceived social pressure from others. Regarding the temporal evolution of the predictive power of identity, Theodorakis (1994) found that role identity

contributed significantly to predicting behavior and that its predictive power increased over time (for two months).

Researchers specifically in volunteering support the relationship between volunteers' role identity and length of service (Davila & Chacon, 2004; Finkelstein et al., 2005; Marta et al., 2010; Penner & Finkelstein, 1998). The identity of a person is in a continuous process of construction. It is not a set of characteristics or immutable characteristics; individual identity is built and continues to build through social interactions with other individuals and groups (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Mead, 1934; Tracy & Trethewey, 2005).

Leadership

Leadership has been the topic of investigation for decades in different fields, including psychology, education, and business management. Therefore a substantial amount of research is available in the corporate or profit sector. However, the leadership of the non-profit sector or community service organizations has not been studied widely. Therefore information regarding their leadership behavior is limited compared to leadership in the non-voluntary area or profit organizations in terms of similarities or differences (Posner, 2015). There is also a rich body of research regarding volunteers' motivations; however, very little information is available concerning the role of leadership in volunteers' motivations in different phases of volunteering (Smith, 2017). The phenomenon of volunteers' leadership is of great value for nonprofit and highly volunteer-led organizations and where volunteers lead other volunteers at different levels. Such organizations are different from corporate sector organizations, and their leadership role has not been highlighted as compared to the traditional leadership role in profit organizations.

Various leadership theories have tried to study the phenomenon of volunteer leadership and paid leadership in different organizations using sports, churches, and non-profits. Bowers (2012) investigated the difference of behavior between leaders appointed on voluntary or nonvoluntary leadership positions who deal with volunteers and explored significant differences. She further suggested that to have a more precious description of unique aspects of volunteers' leadership, it must be studied using a variety of theoretical backgrounds of traditional leadership as she used Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI). Posner (2015) studied leadership practices of volunteers' leaders, and he suggested future research should investigate more complex and nuanced empirical relationships involving volunteers' leadership. The current study intends to investigate the full range model of leadership comprised of a variety of leadership behaviors or styles, such as transformational,

transactional, and laissez. Before discussing different styles of leadership, the next section is presenting a brief description of prominent leadership theories.

An Overview of Leadership Theories

With the advancement in the socio-cultural, economic, and political scenarios, several theories of leadership starting from classical to modern have been developed. Northouse (2016) explored and discussed leadership theories and the relevance of those theories in practice; those theories are discussed in the next paragraphs.

The Trait Approach

The trait leadership theory holds the belief that people have innate qualities that make them be excellent leaders. Behind the trait, the approach is Gordon Allport, an American psychologist's work on personality traits (Matthews, Deary & Whiteman, 2003). Stogdill (1974) identified several traits of leaders and discussed that only traits are not crucial in differentiating leadership and non-leadership tendencies; however, consideration of social situations is also crucial.

Although this approach is not without limitations, however, it is still used to judge leaders from non-leaders. Northouse (2016) posits that no other leadership theory than the trait approach has been extensively researched to find suitable leaders for organizations. The major limitation of the trait approach is the lack of a definitive trait or set of traits for the identification of leaders.

The Skills Approach

On the other hand, the skills approach stresses learned and developed the skills of leaders. Northouse (2016) posits that leaders initiate with personal attributes; however, later, they foster and polish their abilities and competencies suitable for their position as leaders. Northouse (2010) mentioned that Katz (1955) remained prominent in investigating

leadership skills. Squires (2018) mentioned in a review that side by side leaders' personal characteristics, the skills approach suggests skills and abilities appropriate for leadership effectiveness. Squires argued that according to Northouse (2016), the skills approach attracts organizations due to its emphasis on developing leadership abilities; however, a prominent limitation is its reliance on very specific personal abilities that, in turn, increases the probability of enhancing leadership skills of specific individuals hindering its generalizability to every individual.

The Style/Behavior Approach

This approach is next in the exploration of leadership theories by Northouse (2016). The style approach focuses on leaders' behavior than personal traits and characteristics. The style approach gives importance to leaders' behaviors to their followers. Subordinates, in various situations, to influence subordinate behavior and performance (Yukl, 2007). The literature on style approach identifies two types of leader behaviors: task behavior and relationship behavior. Task behavior facilitates subordinates to achieve their goals and objectives. Relationship behavior helps subordinates to feel comfortable and secure while at work not only with themselves but also with the group members and with the situation. Several pieces of research have been carried out to explore the style approach. However, Northouse (2010) explained some of the most noteworthy and prominent studies, such as the Ohio State studies and the Michigan studies, also the studies by Blake and Mouton (1985). Northouse (2010) explained that the Ohio State studies stressed the importance of actions of leaders and how these actions affect the performance of their group or organization; at the same time, the Michigan studies focused on how leadership behavior affects the performance of small groups, Blake and Mouton further investigated how leaders use the task and relationship behavior to influence subordinates.

The Situational Approach

The initial model of the situational approach was suggested by Kurt Lewin (1939) and his colleagues, emphasizing that most effective leadership relies on the situation or circumstances. They proposed three distinct leadership behaviors (autocratic, democratic, and laissez faire). Hersey and Blanchard (1969) also proposed that leadership is situation dependent. Moreover, it also determines leaders' behavior according to the demand of the situation. (Northouse, 2010).

Northouse (2016) stated that situational leadership implies supportive and directive dimensions where subordinates move according to a developmental continuum, which shows subordinates' level of commitment and competence, and it requires leaders to choose a style that fits the subordinates' needs. Pierce and Newstrom (2003) pointed out that adopting a style or behavior flexibly and appropriately according to the situation is necessary for effective leaders. The characteristic of situation-specific leadership style shows the similarity between situational and contingency approach; however, Pierce and Newstrom stressed the importance of the environment in which the leader adopts the style specific to the situation.

The Process Theories of Leadership

Northouse (2016; 2010) introduced leadership as process theories, which include the path-goal theory of leadership, contingency, and leader-member exchange theory.

The Path-Goal Theory. This theory by House (1971) proposes the way leaders inspire subordinates to achieve the objectives. This theory stresses motivating subordinates in order to obtain satisfaction and performance. This theory gives importance to the relationship between styles of leaders, the attributes of subordinates, and the job environment. Northouse (2010) explains that the path-goal theory assumes that the competency of subordinates

motivates them to achieve the desired objectives associated with their work. Meanwhile, leaders choose an appropriate style matching the motivational requirements of subordinates.

The Contingency Theory. Northouse (2010) posits the contingency theory by Fiedler (1964) is very famous and proposes that the adequacy of the leadership style of leaders rely on the situation in which it fits the best. Northouse discussed that after extensive research, Fiedler identified adequate and inadequate styles of leadership exhibited by leaders in various situations.

The Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) Theory. The formalization of LMX theory originates from the term Vertical Dyad Linkage (VDL), conceptualized by Dansereau, Graen, and Haga (1975). The leader and followers' vertical dyadic interaction is the main concern of this theory. Dansereau, Graen, and Haga suggested two dyads of interaction as in-group and out-group. In-group fellows focus on performing more than expected, while out-group fellows perform expected roles (Yukl, 2007).

New Leadership Paradigm

As Squires (2018) also mentioned that Northouse (2016) further assembled a more recent addition of leadership theories termed as the New Leadership Paradigm. The theories included in this paradigm are ethical, servant, adaptive, psychodynamic, and most influential of all the transformational and transactional.

Northouse (2016) explained authentic leadership and presented this theory as one of the newest areas of leadership research. Authentic leadership focuses on the development of authentic behaviors, essential skills, and attitudes. Northouse discussed that although this model is in the early phase of development; however, it suffers certain limitations such as it does not take into consideration the moral element of leadership.

As described by Northouse (2016), servant leadership has a long history, beginning in the 1970s. The definite focus emphasized in servant leadership is on the others in the organization, also considering the dynamics of leader and subordinates and either balancing the stakeholders' needs or putting the followers' needs first. However, Northouse mentioned it as a popular and desirable model of leadership in practice in many organizations.

Adaptive leadership, as discussed by Northouse (2016), puts the responsibility of change in an organization on leaders' behavior. Northouse clarified that this theory is in the infancy stage of development, and it is trying to take into consideration situational challenges, leader behaviors, and work adaptation. However, further refinement and research support are required. Northouse also presented a psychodynamic approach briefly, as the name depicts, it is relevant to Freud's psychoanalytic approach, which examines the organizational behavior from a clinical perspective, further relating the behavior to the context where the particular behavior occurred.

Squires (2018) reviewed that Northouse (2016) presented and compared transactional leadership and transformational leadership and argued that transformational leadership improved the outcomes for not only teams and organizations but also for individuals. However, Squires mentioned that Northouse discussed transformational leader as having highly idealistic personality traits, assumed to be a hero who specifies the direction and vision for the organization and entuse followers to achieve specified objectives of the organization.

Transactional Leadership. Transactional leaders are all about trade agents who work on exchange transaction policy emphasizing give and take. Such leaders reward followers for good performance and punish them for inadequacy (Bass, 1985). Bryant (2003) discussed

such attributes of transactional leadership does not inspire followers to give their full potential or work beyond expectation. It has the following facets:

Contingent Reward (CR). They assist the followers in turn for their performance and make it clear what is expected of them, and reward them in exchange for achieving objectives or goals. (Bass & Riggio, 2006).

Management-by-Exception Active (MBE-A). In MBE-A, the leader sets the standards to meet, and if the followers do not comply, they are punished. (Avolio & Bass, 2004).

Management-by-Exception Passive (MBE-P). In Passive MBE, leaders do not set the standards or rules before; however, if the goals are not achieved, or mistakes are identified, then they take action (Avolio & Bass, 2004).

Transformational Leadership. Bass (1985) extended the transformational leadership theory by Burns (1978). Transformational leaders are inspirational and motivational, and they ideally influence followers to achieve a higher performance target. Transformational leaders are involved in the articulation of an organization's vision and mission to individuals by inspiring them to achieve their highest potential (Lussier & Achua, 2012).

Bass (1985) claimed that two characteristics help in identifying a leader as transformational:

- (1) Leader's influence on the followers.
- (2) Leader identifying new opportunities and assessing risks.

Transformational leadership has the following four elements:

Idealized Influence (II). Idealized influence is both behavioral and attributed. The behavioral aspect is based on charisma. Followers perceive such leaders as admirable, respectable, and think of them as their role models. Idealized influence (attributed) corresponds to leaders' socialized charisma. Followers think of their leaders as unique, capable, and exceptional and idealize them (Bass & Riggio, 2006).

Inspirational Motivation (IM). Transformational leaders are inspirational and optimistic about achieving future goals and enthruse followers to find the meaning of their work through the articulation of shared vision (Bass & Riggio, 2006).

Intellectual Stimulation (IS). Leaders challenge followers and encourage risk-taking so that they think creatively and participate intellectually. Leaders promote followers to innovate by looking at problems in different ways and come up with new solutions. New ideas and creative and rational problem solving by the followers are appreciated, and their ideas are not criticized publically or just because they differ from the leader's ideas. Hence creativity, risk-taking, and innovation are the essences of intellectual stimulation (Bass, Avolio, Jung, & Berson, 2003; Bass & Riggio, 2006).

Individualized Consideration (IC). A transformational leader is a mentor, pays attention to the individual follower's personal and unique needs, and considers their role in the team's worth appreciation. In turn, followers feel a sense of self-fulfillment that further enthruse them to grow and achieve objectives (Bass & Riggio, 2006).

Transformational leadership is among the most prominent (Northouse, 2013, 2016) and the most frequently cited leadership models in the current decade (Dinh, Lord, Gardner, Meuser, Liden, & Hu, 2014). However, Estrada and Carranza (2016) pointed out that transformational leadership has rarely been studied among non-profit organizations; they

claimed the adequacy of transformational leadership as the ideal behavior for leadership or management of volunteers. In profit organizations, transformational leadership has proven to predict various employees' outcomes such as organizational commitment (Boehnke, Bontis, & DiStefano, 2003; Bass & Riggio, 2006), satisfaction (Bass & Riggio), and turnover intentions. A study conducted by Sandoval (2020) attempted to examine the leadership style of supervisors and organizational commitment of full time employees of nonprofit organizations while public service motivation mediated this relationship. The study findings highlighted the role of transformational leadership in prediction of affective and normative commitment more significantly than public service motivation. However, the participants of the study by Sandoval (2020) were full time employees of nonprofit organizations and were not the volunteers, it further paves the way for conducting the present study.

Moreover, the influence of this charismatic, inspirational, influential, and follower-focused leadership style on volunteers from non-profit sector has not been explored widely. The studies are scarce to evaluate the impact of leadership generally and the transformational leadership specifically on volunteers' outcomes, particularly their intention of permanence, occurrence, and continuity of actual behavior. The current study is focused on gathering empirical evidence to approve the adequacy of the most motivational and exceptional transformational leadership style in predicting volunteers' intention and behavior to continue providing prosocial services to non-profit organizations. Limited studies available regarding the impact of leadership on volunteers are discussed next.

Table 2 presents prominent leadership styles corresponding to theories of leadership.

Table 2

Leadership Styles and Approaches

| Leadership Approaches | Leadership Styles |
|-----------------------|-----------------------|
| The Style/Behavior | Task-Oriented |
| Approach | Relationship-Oriented |
| Process theories | Directive |
| | Supportive |
| | Participative |
| Situational Approach | Supportive |
| | Directive |
| New Leadership | Transformational |
| | Transactional |

Leadership Styles: Impact on Volunteers' in Non-profit Organizations

Hollister (1993) pointed out that less attention has been paid to non-profit leadership research. Recent literature revealed that this situation is more or less similar and has not been changed considerably (Smith, 2017). Lord, Brown, Harvey, and Hall (2001) suggested that, due to “innumerable situational and contextual factors” (p. 311), leadership styles cannot be defined in one particular way. However, as in the previous section, leadership theories have shed light on assumptions regarding leaders' associated characteristics according to each theory, developing leadership behavior or style. Before discussing the effect of leadership styles on volunteers, it is noteworthy to briefly scope out various leadership styles. The discussion of leadership styles would be incomplete if it could not mention the initial major investigation of leadership styles conducted by Lewin, Lippit, and White (1939) to discern different leadership styles. This study exerted strong influence as established by the three leadership styles (U.S. Army, 1983): authoritarian or autocratic is the first style in which the leader dictates the employees regarding doing certain things without involving them in the decision-making process or getting their advice. Participative or democratic is the second style in which the leader gets advice from a few employees, however, makes the final decision him or herself. The third style is delegative or laissez-fair, which gives employees the freedom to decide about themselves; however, the leader still takes responsibility for the decisions.

Researchers examined a variety of leadership styles based on various theoretical frameworks, mainly in a paid work setting; however, researchers like Bowers and Humby (2013), and Dwyer, Bono, Snyder, Nov, and Berson (2013) noted leadership styles might impact differently to paid or volunteer workforce. A recent investigation by Benevene et al. (2018) is among the limited studies available concerning the impact of leadership styles on

volunteers. Benevene et al. discovered the impact of ethical leadership on Italian volunteers in different non-profit organizations. The results confirmed the mediation of volunteer satisfaction in the relationships among ethical leadership, volunteers' intention to stay, and affective commitment.

Researchers like Dwyer et al. (2013) studied a sample of volunteers regarding the impact of transformational leadership and volunteer motivations on satisfaction and contributions; results indicated a positive association between transformational leadership, volunteer motivations, and satisfaction of volunteers but found no correlation between transformational leadership and volunteer contribution. They pointed out that volunteer contributions may relate more to personal motives and time. Besides, a study by Buck (2018) also found an association between transformational leadership, volunteers' engagement, and commitment.

Few researchers like McMurray, Islam, Sarros, and Pirola-Merlo (2012) compared leadership styles while examining volunteers' workgroup performance and climate, identified transactional leadership influenced workgroup climate whereas transformational leadership style influenced workgroup performance. Similarly, Schneider and George (2011) also compared two leadership styles: the transformational and servant leadership among volunteers, and concluded that the servant leadership style predicted volunteer commitment and satisfaction than transformational leadership.

Furthermore, Erdurmazli (2019) found slightly different results from the study of Schneider and George, Erdurmazli, who investigated the impact of servant leadership and organizational culture on volunteers' organizational commitment and job satisfaction. Findings revealed that servant leadership predicted organizational commitment but not job

satisfaction; however, job satisfaction was more influenced by community culture than servant leadership.

Another quantitative study was conducted by Bang (2015) examining four dimensions of LMX theory: as a predictor of volunteer leaders' and followers' job satisfaction, concluded that professional respect significantly predicted job satisfaction.

Leadership Styles: Volunteers' Intention of Permanence and Actual Behavior

The profit sector literature has given considerable attention to the intention of permanence, mainly because it has often been regarded as an antecedent to the actual behavior of continuity or discontinuity of services (Crossley, Bennett, Jex, & Burnfield, 2007; Oluwafemi, 2013). However, only a handful of researches studied leadership styles influencing volunteers' intentions (Benevene et al., 2018; Smith, 2017). Interestingly, leadership styles have seldom been studied concerning the actual behavior of volunteers. The limited amount of literature being discussed here is more about leadership and volunteers' intention, and studies about actual behavior are scarce.

As discussed previously, the study of Schneider and George (2011) examined that servant leadership predicted volunteer commitment, satisfaction, and intention to stay while empowerment mediated these relationships. Besides, Bang (2015) also studied several dimensions LMX, including effect, loyalty, contribution, and professional respect. The unexpected findings revealed that professional respect was the only LMX dimension positively related to satisfaction and intention to stay. Based on the findings, Bang suggested fostering a sense of respect and trust in volunteers, and the organizations should encourage interpersonal relationships between leaders and followers.

Montgomery (2006) studied a similar theme regarding youth retention of volunteers and training in an organization. Montgomery's findings revealed two factors: leadership and

training provided by the management opportunities significantly influenced youth volunteers' intention to remain. In another study, Newton et al. (2014) also stressed the importance of training volunteers to impact their intention of retention. The role of management or leadership is indirectly crucial in these two examples because managing the pieces of training of volunteers is the responsibility of the management of the organizations that may further influence volunteers' intention of permanence.

A noteworthy study was conducted by Waters and Bortree (2012), who did not directly study leadership and intention to remain; however, they investigated a gender-sensitive approach to examine volunteers' retention. The findings revealed gender differences in the experiences of volunteers in the prediction of the future intention of volunteers, different motivations, feelings, power distribution, satisfaction, and commitment; all played significant roles. The findings revealed that female volunteers chose inclusion and social group interaction, whereas male volunteers opted for the capability to voice their opinion and organizational decision-making involvement. Waters and Bortree suggested that volunteers' leaders' need to pay attention to gender-related differences while managing volunteers.

A study by Cho, H., Wong, Z. E., & Chiu, W. (2020) also not directly examined the leadership style, however, the role of volunteer management in the prediction of the intention of volunteers to continue volunteering. The mediating role of job satisfaction was also investigated. Participants of the study were volunteers from a cultural event. The findings of the study indicated that volunteer management predicts the intention while job satisfaction fully mediated the relationship of volunteer management and volunteers' intention to volunteering.

Furthermore, among the more relevant literature concerning leadership style and volunteers' intention of permanence are the studies of Smith (2017) and Benevene et al. (2018). Smith examined the servant leadership style and the intention to stay among samples of adult and youth volunteers. Smith found the influence of leadership style on intent to stay for the sample of leaders and adult volunteers, but not for the sample of youth volunteers. They found the element of social desirability in their samples. The study of Benevene et al. (2018), as mentioned earlier, discovered that ethical leadership predicted volunteers' intention to stay. In another relevant study, Myre (2017) found a direct relationship between transformational leadership and volunteer firefighters' engagement and an indirect relationship with volunteers' intentions to continue.

From a perspective broader than supervisors' leadership styles, social behavior concerning human psychological capital also associates with the intention of permanence. Luthans, Youssef, Sweetman, and Harms (2013) proposed that organizations direct their focus toward workplace approaches that develop a worker's positive psychological capital within their work settings. This organizational focus helped employees increase their motivation and augment employees' positive behavior within the organization. By employing psychological capital to a volunteer work environment in non-profit organizations to achieving a higher number of volunteers, the current study has planned to investigate it further. The next section will highlight it in further detail.

Psychological Capital

Psychological capital is a combination of positive psychological competencies, which enhances the motivational propensity of individuals to completing tasks and achieving goals and, in turn leading to generating positivity required to perform behavior beyond expected roles. Various studies in the corporate sector have demonstrated a causal impact of Psychological capital on work-related outcomes (Luthans, Avey, Avolio, & Peterson, 2010). However, the effect of psychological capital, a combination of positive psychological resources, is in the infancy stage in volunteering and provokes curiosity to explore its effectiveness in keeping the volunteers motivated to continue their prosocial behavior. This study is a step towards unleashing the under or less explored positive influence of psychological capital on volunteers' intention and actual behavior.

Psychological capital originated from Positive Organizational Behavior (POB) literature (Luthans & Youssef, 2007; Peterson & Seligman, 2004; Sheldon & King, 2001). Martin Seligman initiated this movement and focused on enhancing positive abilities of individuals and disagree with highlighting negative or conflicting areas associated with them. Luthans (2002) defined POB as “the study and application of positively oriented human resource strengths and psychological capacities that can be measured, developed, and effectively managed for performance improvement in today's workplace” (p. 59). Psychological capital, a combination of self-efficacy, optimism, hope, and resilience, is a valuable addition in POB (Norman, Avey, Nimnicht, & Graber-Pigeon, 2010).

Psychological Capital (PsyCap) is recognized as (1) self-assurance (self-efficacy) to make the required effort to get success, (2) have positive belief (optimism) that in any situation one can succeed; (3) determined to achieve the target and, if needed must be able to redirect paths towards targets (hope) to get success; and (4) in hardships and difficulties, must persist and return back and with more effort (resilience) (Luthans, Youssef, & Avolio, 2007a,

p. 3). Research supported that psychological capital is a core construct (Luthans, Avolio, Avey, & Norman, 2007b), and all combined competencies contributing to it together can influence the outcomes more than individual parts. Another characteristic of psychological capital is; it is a state of mind and not a trait of personality, therefore susceptible to change and development (Luthans et al., 2007b).

Self-efficacy

Self-efficacy “is a belief about one's capabilities to mobilize the inspiration, cognitive resources, and target behavior that is essential for effective task performance in a particular situation” (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998, p. 66). Beliefs of efficacy determine how individuals make their perceptions of events and interpret them. Those individuals who are low on efficacy easily give up because they think it is useless to handle a problematic situation; therefore, they are high on negative emotions and stress; however, on the other side, those individuals who have a higher level of efficacy, they consider the difficult task as an attainable task with their adequate capabilities and effort (Bandura, 2008). Moreover, various methodologies have discovered exceptionally fruitful in creating efficacy, includes mastery experiences, modeling, social influence, or physical/ mental excitement arousal (Bandura, 1997).

Optimism

Optimism is the second component of psychological capital considered both logical and easy-going (Luthans et al., 2007a). Seligman (1998) explained that the optimistic explanatory style is the style that features all positive experiences to self and considers them permanent, further considers all negative experiences as external, momentary, and for the time being. Optimism, as a feature of PsyCap, links to positive expression, yet handle without reasonable assessment is not considered (Luthans et al.).

Optimism is a frequently utilized term like hope; however, Seligman (2002) has given the meaning of optimism in attribution theory as far as two principal interpreting fair or worse occasions: permanence and unavoidableness. Mainly, optimistic people gather awful occasions as a temporary stage (*I am drained*), while pessimistic people take terrible occasions as a permanent stage (*I am all ruined*). The inverse case is valid for pleasant or right occasions of life, as the optimistic person expresses permanent attribution (*I am bright*), while the pessimistic person expresses temporary attribution (*I made a decent attempt on it*). During adverse occasions, optimistic people make distinct attributions (*I had an issue with this machine*); however, on the other side, a pessimistic person makes universal attributions (*I am merely uneducated*). The inverse is valid for pleasant occasions (an optimistic person is a computer master, but a pessimistic person does not know even necessary processing). Seligman gives some confirmation in his work related to the positive effect of measured optimism on the obliged working environment.

Hope

The use of the word hope is widespread and frequent; however, concerning positive psychology, it has an exact significance with a considerable theoretical background (Snyder, 2002). Hope represents a positive motivational state due to a sense of accomplishment, agency (potential required for the goal), and pathways (ready to accomplish objectives) (Snyder, Irving, & Anderson, 1991). It is willpower (determined to achieve the goal) and way power thought (ready to plan substitute way out and possible strategies for achieving the goal in adverse time). Considerable evidence is available that shows hope is having a positive effect on educational and athletic execution. Nevertheless, just a couple of studies, including Peterson and Luthans (2003) has thought about its effect on working place.

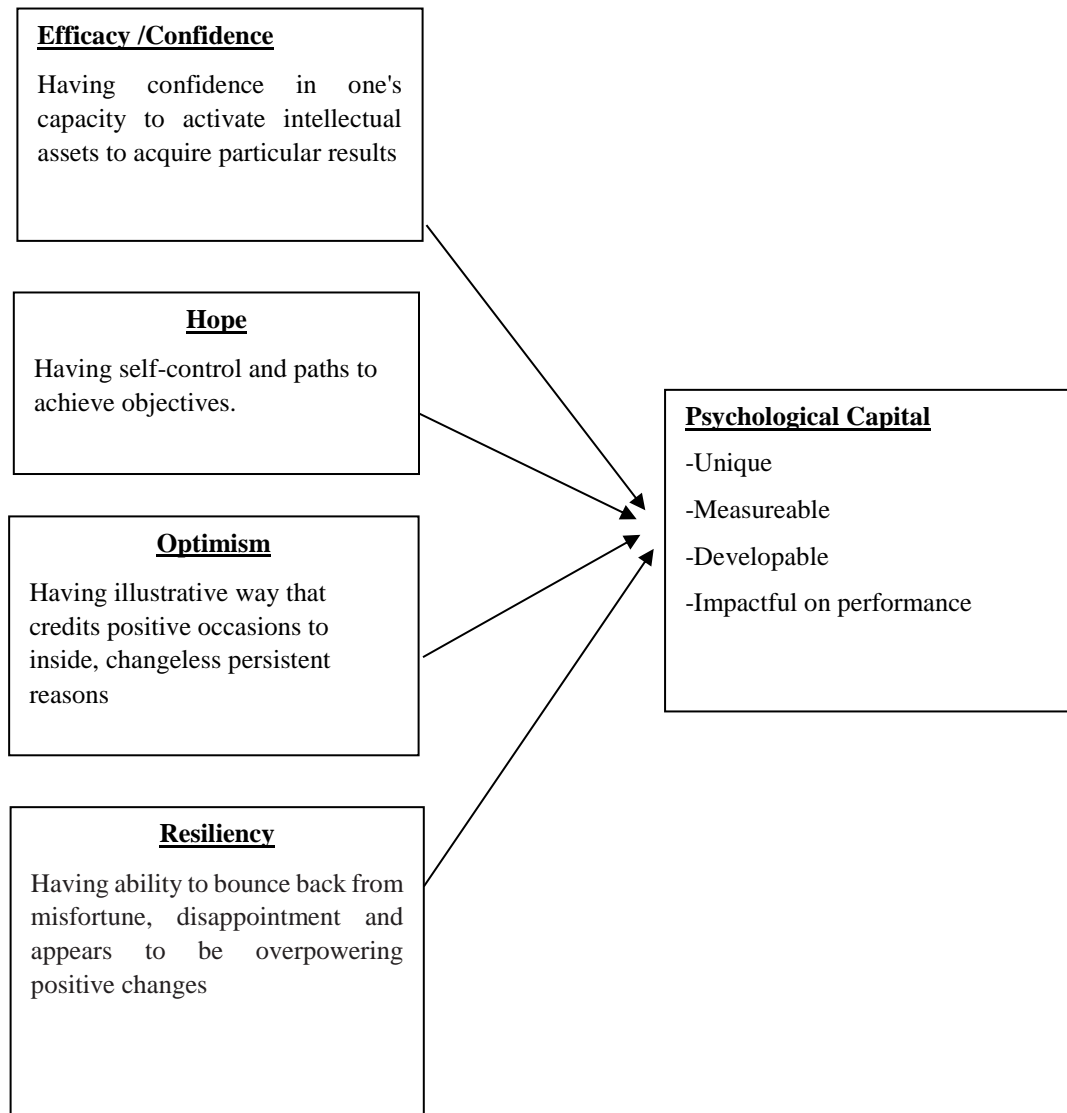
Resilience

Resilience is a positive coping style and adjustment in an unfriendly time or challenging situation (Masten, 2001; Masten & Reed, 2002). In an organizational context, Luthans (2002) defined resilience as “positive psychological capacity or potential to move back from hardship, insecurity, disappointment, and even look for good change, improvement, and increased responsibility” (p. 702). Moreover, it is not a trait and has chances of improvement (Bonanno, 2004; Coutu, 2002; Masten & Reed, 2002). Many strategies or procedures demonstrated useful for developing resilience, including utilizing positive feelings (Tugade & Fredrickson, 2004) and raising confidence and improvement (Luthans, Vogelgesang, & Lester, 2006).

Recently, meta-investigation has given additional proof of meaningful, positive connections of psychological capital with various organizational related outcomes. (Avey, Reichard, Luthans, & Mhatre, 2011). Psychological capital is studied in a positive framework and has a positive influence on employees’ accomplishments in the work domain; it spotlights on strengths within individuals that foster their professional growth (Luthans & Youssef, 2007). Moreover, components of psychological capital are not theoretically dependent (Bandura, 1997; Luthans & Jensen, 2002; Luthans et al., 2007a; Snyder, 2002) and appear to be empirically valid (Luthans et al., 2007b) and are susceptible to development using formative interventions. Such characteristics convert psychological capital into a resource that can influence both workers and their organizations in a positive way (Luthans, Youssef & Avolio, 2015). Psychological capital has been investigated mainly in the prediction of employees’ outcomes in profit sector research. However, currently, this area requires attention in non-profit sector research that how psychological capital can positively add to volunteers’ intention of permanence and actual behavior in order to retain them as volunteers to provide their valuable services in non-profit organizations.

Figure 4

Dimensions of Psychological Capital (Luthans & Youssef, 2004, p. 152)



Psychological Capital, Intention of Permanence, and Actual Behavior

Previous studies in the profit sector have demonstrated that psychological capital inclines positivity; thus, it has a negative effect on turnover intention (Avey, Luthans & Jensen, 2009); the higher the psychological capital lower the turnover. Avey et al. explained a few reasons to support this notion. Such as highly optimistic individuals perform their work better and are master of their fates (Seligman, 1998), self-efficacy helps them to come out of struggling situations (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998), resilience helps brings them back to the normal work routine, the element of hope also provide them with more choices to succeed in turn preventing them to quitting their work roles.

Consequently, such attributes of psychological capital determine not only the intention to continue but also the continuity of particular behavior. Studies in the profit sector have revealed that individuals who show positivity and engagement at work can achieve their goals rather than becoming quitters (De Lange et al. 2008; Sweetman & Luthans 2008). A prominent number of studies regarding psychological capital are conducted in the profit sector involving paid workers, which can provide guidance; however, they cannot be generalized to the non-profit sector working with unpaid volunteers. In the non-profit sector, studies are scarce, exploring psychological capital directly as a determinant of volunteers' intentions and occurrence of consequent behaviors based on those intentions.

Among the very few studies regarding the effect of psychological capital on volunteers' intention to quit or continue are the studies of Martin, O'Donohue & Dawkins (2011) and most recently, Ping Xu, L., Shen Wu, Y., Jing Yu, J., & Zhou, J. (2020). Martin et al. conducted a study regarding the implications of psychological capital on turnover intentions of individuals and teams of volunteers. They found out that turnover intentions were significantly influencing the psychological capital of individuals instead of entire teams. This recent study regarding the influence of psychological capital on volunteering by Ping Xu

et al. (2020) investigated a sample of 1165 volunteers. It concluded that psychological capital not only positively and directly influenced volunteering but also through the mediation of organizational commitment. Additionally, the results of their study also revealed the moderating impact of role identification and social support between psychological capital and organizational commitment of volunteers.

Literature supports that maintenance of any behavior largely depends on the interpretation of actual outcomes (Rothman, 2000). If the behavior is perceived positively and satisfactorily, then it is more likely to be continued optimistically (Dickerhoof, 2007; Lyubomirsky, 2001). Thus sustainability positively requires interpretation of behavioral outcomes in order to continue the behavior. Previous researches also explain that combined positive resources as psychological capital not only relate to behavioral intentions but also relate to extra-role behaviors in organizations in the form of organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs) and counterproductive work behaviors (CWBs). OCBs are not directly related to this study's variables; however, like volunteer work, these behaviors are conducted with free will and are not specific to one's job. Individuals who are positive exhibit more desirable behaviors such as Walumbwa, Luthans, Avey, and Oke (2011) also supported that psychological capital influenced performance and citizenship behaviors.

To explain the thought-action repertoire as in the present study, the intention and the actual behavior and components of psychological capital, such as self-efficacy, relate to the perceived behavior control (PBC) constituting the theory of planned behaviors (TPB). Ajzen (1991) himself tends to consider the PBC and self-efficacy as synonyms, both conceptually and operationally. Armitage and Conner (2001), who conducted a meta-analysis regarding the efficacy of TPB, concluded that self-efficacy and perceived behavioral control have levels of correlation comparable to both the intention as well as the behavior. It is common that people are inconsistent with their intentions, especially if problems arise or alternative

behaviors that prevent the initiation or maintenance of the behavior. Therefore, when theorizing about the post-intentional phase, it is impossible to ignore determinants or mediators that facilitate and determine the passage from intention to action. Theoretical and empirical evidence supports the positive influence of psychological capital on desirable behaviors, which leads to continuity and negative influence on undesirable behaviors leading to turn over. Thus this investigation will expand the POB literature by investigating psychological capital's role in both intentions to continue volunteering and the actual behavior of continuity over time.

Justification, Objectives, and Hypotheses of the Investigation

As mentioned earlier, a substantial amount of research in the profit sector focuses on leadership styles, such as transformational leadership (Kelloway, Turner, Barling & Loughlin, 2012). The current study notably investigates the role of transformational leadership in volunteers' intention of permanence in the non-profit sector due to specific reasons. Firstly, prior studies in profit organizations indicated transformational leadership as the most influencing style of leadership that affects turnover intentions of employees (Tse & Lam, 2008; Wells & Peachey, 2011); however, it is not wise to generalize it to volunteers. Researchers like Green, Miller, and Aarons (2013) conclude that volunteers generally respond better to more people-friendly leadership styles. Thus the current research intends to investigate that the follower-focused attributes of transformational leadership will equally be stimulating and influencing volunteers to continue volunteer work in nonprofit organizations.

Secondly, the role of leadership styles in the intention of the permanence of volunteers is at the preliminary phase. As mentioned earlier, the studies regarding leadership styles and the intention of permanence are available in the profit sector. However, in the non-profit sector, to the best of our knowledge, there are only a few researchers such as Smith (2017) and Benevene et al. (2018) who studied the role of servant leadership and ethical

leadership in the intention of volunteers but not in the actual behavior. The current study will investigate the role of transformational leadership style in the prediction of the intention of volunteers and their actual behavior of continuity while mediating the role of components of TSMVD (satisfaction, organizational, and commitment) will also be explored.

Researchers have indicated that the factors influencing the decision to initiate volunteering are not the same that can further influence volunteers to continue (Oda, 1991; Winniford, Carpenter & Stanley, 1995). So the current study, while exploring the factors that may facilitate the intention to continue prosocial work and the actual behavior of continuity, intends to examine this phenomenon under the positive organizational behavior background to study the role of psychological capital in influencing the intention of the permanence of volunteers. Psychological capital generates resources (Avey et al., 2009) that improve performance and positive attitudes and behaviors of workers in corporate work settings (Malekiha, Abedi, Baghban, Johri, & Fatehizadeh, 2014). However, psychological capital is seldom studied in a volunteering context, exploring volunteers' intentions and behavior. Therefore, the current study intends to fill this gap in volunteering research by investigating the role of psychological capital as a predictor variable for volunteers' intention of permanence and their actual behavior.

It is worthwhile to study the mediation of the components of TSMVD among transformational leadership, psychological capital, the intention of permanence, and the actual behavior due to specific reasons. Firstly, the TSMVD is a comprehensive model that specifies three stages and their corresponding predictors; also, the model has proved to predict the intention of permanence at various stages of volunteer duration. Secondly, the current study is intended to investigate further that what are the triggering factors behind those stages, whether leadership style and psychological capital relate to satisfaction,

organizational commitment, and role identity to predict the intention of permanence and actual behavior. Thirdly, the components of the TSMVD (satisfaction, organizational commitment, role identity) have been proved to be influenced by leadership and psychological capital in profit sector research. Likewise, in nonprofit organizations, it will be worthwhile to learn whether the TSMVD mediates the relationship among leadership style, psychological capital, the intention of permanence, and the actual behavior.

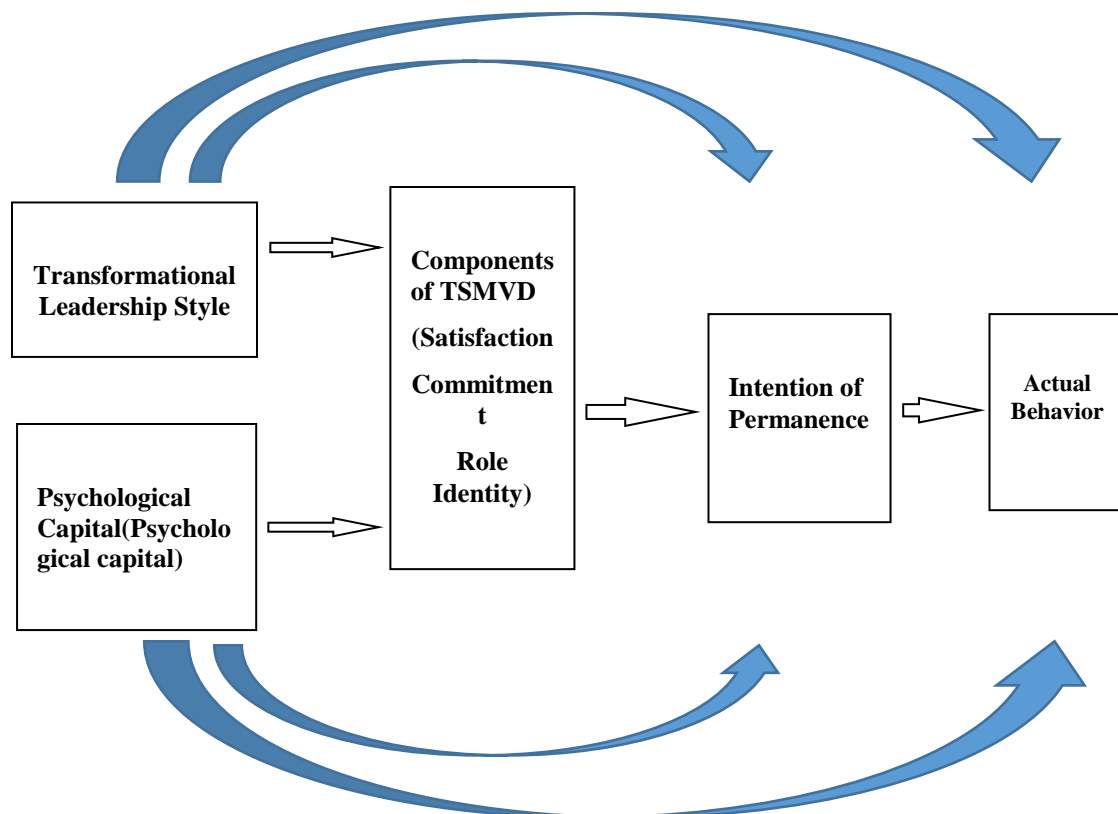
As mentioned above, the components of the TSMVD predict intention; however, the mediating role between predictor variables (transformational leadership style, psychological capital) and the criterion variable (intention of permanence) is worth studying. Furthermore, the basis of the TSMVD is the theory of planned behavior and assumes that intention predicts actual behavior of continuity of services. Similarly, positive organizational behavior stresses the importance of positive abilities and psychological capital links to positive outcomes such as retention. Furthermore, the transformational leadership style can predict positive outcomes through its focus on followers' needs. Keeping in view the different theoretical perspectives, but more or less similar in approach in terms of positivity and believing in the capabilities of individuals will be interesting to explore that among all the variables planned to study, which variable influences the intention and the actual behavior of volunteers' permanence within the nonprofit organizations.

The vast majority of studies available regarding volunteering are only cross-sectional. Therefore the researchers like Benevene et al. (2018) and Smith (2017) suggest that future studies to obtain information concerning volunteers' leadership, satisfaction, intention, and continuation should be beneficial more if conducted using such research designs that provide information over time. Therefore, this research is conducted in two phases with a specific time interval. The first phase of the study will be correlational to evaluating the relationships

regarding the intention of permanence, and the second phase will be prospective with a follow-up to monitor the actual behavior based on the intention. Through these phases, the present study will obtain useful information by tracking the same volunteers who participated in the first phase to predict their actual behavior over a specified period in the second phase through the follow-up.

Figure 5

Graphical Representation of Proposed Relationships among Study Variables.



Note. This model proposes that the transformational leadership style and psychological capital, directly and indirectly, predict the intention of permanence and actual behavior while components of TSMVD mediate this relationship. The model also assumes that the intention of permanence further influences actual behavior.

Objectives

This study has the following objectives to investigate the role of leadership and psychological capital in volunteers' intention of permanence and actual behavior.

1. To investigate the direct effect of leadership style on volunteers' intention of permanence.
2. To investigate the direct effect of psychological capital on the volunteers' intention of permanence.
3. To investigate the indirect effects of leadership style and components of the three-stage model of volunteer duration (satisfaction, organizational commitment, and role identity) on volunteers' intention of permanence.
4. To investigate the indirect effect of psychological capital and components of the three-stage model of volunteer duration (satisfaction, organizational commitment, and role identity) on volunteers' intention of permanence.
5. To investigate the effect of leadership style on volunteers' actual behavior over time.
6. To investigate the effect of psychological capital on volunteers' actual behavior over time.
7. To investigate the effect of the intention of permanence on the actual behavior of volunteers over time.

Hypotheses

The following hypotheses were formulated to meet the above stated objectives of the current study:

1. The transformational leadership style has a direct effect on volunteers' intention of permanence.
2. Psychological capital has a direct effect on volunteers' intention of permanence.

3. Organizational commitment, satisfaction, and role identity mediate the relationship between transformational leadership style and the intention of the permanence of volunteers.
4. Organizational commitment, Satisfaction, and role identity mediate the relationship between psychological capital and the intention of the permanence of volunteers.
5. The transformational leadership style predicts the actual behavior of volunteers.
6. Psychological capital predicts the actual behavior of volunteers.
7. The intention of permanence predicts the actual behavior of volunteers.

2. Method

Participants

For the first phase, data were collected from volunteers ($n = 417$) providing their services voluntarily in different non-profit organizations ($n = 17$) working mainly in health (36%), education, (14%) environment (19%), social welfare (16%), psychological services (5%), sports (8%) and immigration (12%). Information regarding gender depicted a higher number of female participants (73%) than male participants (27%). The average age for the total sample was 44 (S.D., 17.50), depicting an age range between 15 to 86 years old. The average time dedicated to volunteering was 3.5 hours per week (S.D., 2.5; range 1-20); the average experience was 5 years (S.D., 4.5; range 1-32). For further detail of the demographics, see Table 3. The response rate was 28%.

With regard to the representativeness of the sample, it is worth highlighting the heterogeneity of the different types of organizations participating in this study; the main areas of volunteering have been included (education, health, social, environmental, immigration, sports.), and the similarity is observed between the socio-demographic age and gender data in the sample and those mentioned in the 2019 report of Plataforma del Voluntariado de España (60% women and the average age of 45 years).

The participants in the follow-up were all the volunteers from the first phase ($n = 417$) who continued ($n = 286$) or discontinued ($n = 131$) volunteer services (See Table 4).

Table 3*Frequency and Percentages of Demographic variables*

| Variables | <i>f</i> | % |
|--------------------------|----------|------|
| Age (in years) | | |
| 15-25 | 89 | 21.3 |
| 26-35 | 119 | 28.5 |
| 36-45 | 87 | 20.9 |
| > 45 | 122 | 29.3 |
| Gender | | |
| Male | 113 | 27 |
| Female | 304 | 73 |
| Education | | |
| Primary | 34 | 8.2 |
| High School | 143 | 34.3 |
| Graduate | 174 | 41.8 |
| Post Graduate | 66 | 15.8 |
| Dedicated hours (weekly) | | |
| Fewer than 5 hours | 364 | 87.3 |
| 6-10 | 46 | 11 |
| 11 or more | 7 | 1.7 |
| Job Situation | | |
| Unemployed | 237 | 57.4 |
| Part time | 58 | 28.7 |
| Full time | 121 | 13.9 |

Note. N = 417. *f* = Frequency; % = Percentage.

Table 4 depicts age, gender, education, dedicated hours, job situation, and the percentages of the volunteers who continued or discontinued. It is shown that the majority of the volunteers (69%) continued volunteering. Among men (31%) who continued volunteering were 78% of the total male sample (27%) and among women (69%) who continued volunteering were 65% of the total female sample (73%). The participants under 25 years of age were more likely to discontinue (49.6%) volunteering as compared to the participants above 55 years of age who continued as a volunteer (39.5%).

Table 4*Demographic Comparison of Volunteers who Continued and Discontinued*

| Variables | Continued | | Discontinued | |
|--------------------------|-----------|------|--------------|------|
| | <i>f</i> | % | <i>f</i> | % |
| Number of volunteers | 286 | 69 | 131 | 31 |
| Gender | | | | |
| Male | 89 | 31.1 | 24 | 18.4 |
| Female | 197 | 68.9 | 107 | 81.1 |
| Age (in years) | | | | |
| 15-25 | 24 | 8 | 65 | 49.6 |
| 26-35 | 88 | 30.7 | 31 | 23.6 |
| 36-45 | 61 | 21.3 | 26 | 19.8 |
| > 45 | 113 | 39.1 | 9 | 6.8 |
| Education | | | | |
| Primary | 20 | 58.8 | 14 | 41.2 |
| Secondary | 98 | 68.5 | 45 | 31.5 |
| Graduation | 115 | 66.1 | 59 | 33.9 |
| Post-Graduation | 49 | 74.2 | 17 | 25.8 |
| Dedicated hours (weekly) | | | | |
| Less than 5 | 252 | 70 | 112 | 30 |
| 6-10 | 30 | 65.2 | 16 | 34.8 |
| 11 and above | 4 | 57.1 | 4 | 42.9 |
| Job Situation | | | | |
| Without Job | 116 | 70 | 71 | 30 |
| Part-time | 43 | 74.1 | 15 | 24.9 |
| Full time | 76 | 62.8 | 45 | 37.2 |

Note. N = 417. *f* = Frequency; % = Percentage.

Variables and Measures

The following instruments were applied to gather information from participants.

General Group Characteristics

A checklist was available for participants to examine their socio-demographic characteristics regarding age, gender, education, hours dedicated to volunteering, and experience in years working as a volunteer. (See Appendix B).

Leadership Style

To measure the transformational leadership style of volunteers, 20 items from the Spanish version of Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) © originally developed by Avolio & Bass (2004) and adapted by Molero, Recio, and Cuadrado (2010) were used. It is a five-point Likert type scale comprised of 45 items, 20 items measuring particularly transformational leadership style were used. The example of items includes “My leader goes beyond self-interest for the good of the group.” (See Appendix B). Alpha reliability was .93.

Psychological Capital

To measure the psychological capital of volunteers’ Spanish adaptation (www.mindgarden.com) of Psychological Capital Questionnaire (PCQ) © originally developed by Luthans, Avolio, and Avey (2007) was used. It is a 5 point rating scale ranging from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree.” It measures four dimensions with 24 items, six items measuring one dimension. (See Appendix B). The reliability of this scale was .87.

The PCQ addresses these four dimensions.

- Self-efficacy
- Hope
- Optimism
- Resilience

Estimations of reliability for self-efficacy, hope, optimism, and resilience measured by Cronbach's alpha, were .82, .83, .77, and .74. An example of items measuring self-efficacy is "I feel confident analyzing a long term problem to find a solution." Hope is measured through items such as "There are lots of ways around any problem." an example of items to measure Resilience includes, "I usually manage difficulties one way or another at work." A sample item regarding optimism includes, "I am optimistic about what will happen to me in the future as it pertains to work."

Satisfaction

Vecina, Chacon, & Sueiro (2009) developed a satisfaction scale to measure volunteers' satisfaction levels. It has three subscales containing 18 items measuring three types of satisfaction: task satisfaction, organizational satisfaction, and motivation satisfaction, item responses ranging from 1 (*not at all satisfied*) to 7 (*total satisfaction*). Items were like, "When I am working as a volunteer, the time just flies by," "I am provided with training to improve my volunteer work," and, "Mechanisms exist to solve problems that volunteers encounter when performing their tasks." (See Appendix B). Reliability was .84.

Organizational Commitment

To measure the organizational commitment of volunteers, the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) was used. Mowday, Steers, and Porter (1979) developed this scale. The 9 items of OCQ were used for this study, which was adapted for particularly for volunteers in the Spanish population by Davila and Chacon (2003). Item responses, ranging from 1 for *totally disagree* to 7 for *totally agree*. The examples of items include "I really worry about the future of this organization," "values and the values of the organization are very similar"(See Appendix B). The reliability of the scale was .87.

Role Identity

A Spanish version of the Role Identity Scale by Grube and Piliavin (2000) with Spanish adaptation by Davila and Chacon (2004) was used. It comprises of five items; examples of items include: "Volunteerism is something I often think about" and "Volunteerism is an important part of my own identity." It is a 7 point Likert-type scale and responses ranging from 1 (*totally disagree*) to 7 (*totally agree*). (See Appendix B).

Reliability was .81.

The Intention of Permanence

The intention was measured by three items based on the theory of planned behavior by Ajzen (1985). Spanish adaptation of these items by Dávila and Chacon (2003) was used. Each item asks the volunteers specifically regarding continuity of volunteer services after six months, a year, and two or more than a year (score range was one to seven, where one meant *no probability* and seven meant *maximum probability*). (see Appendix B). The average score of the three items for the intention of permanence was obtained. Reliability was .91.

The Actual Behavior

One year later, after applying the above measures, information was collected about volunteers' actual behavior of continuity or discontinuity of volunteering services in the organizations. The information was collected in a yes or no response where 1 meant for *yes* and 0 meant for *no*.

Procedure

Seventeen non-profit organizations working mainly in health, education, environment, social welfare, psychological services, sports, and immigration were contacted to ask permission for participation in the current investigation. The objectives of the investigation were explained to the concerned authorities and volunteers. The specific online web pages were developed for the organizations ($n = 13$) who had a higher number of volunteers, approximately one hundred or more volunteers working with them, and also, these organizations had branches in various cities. For the rest of the four non-profit organizations, the rating forms were delivered by hand or by mail, where web links were inconvenient to develop depending on the number of volunteers (less than one hundred) working with them, and the location of those organizations was mainly located in Madrid only. A coding system based on the last four digits of the participants' identity card number was used to identify the participants for follow-up. Participants completed questionnaires hosted on the particular web pages (approximate time for filling up was 10-15 minutes). The overall response rate was 28%.

After one year of data collection, the follow-up information regarding volunteer continuity or discontinuity was collected by contacting the same organizations and their coordinators. With their help, the same participants were contacted through phone calls and emails twice a month. The participants who were personally contacted in the first phase were also sent emails and phone calls to ask about their continuity or discontinuity as a volunteer. In an effort to contact every participant, an email was sent to remind, and the phone call was made a third time with an interval of one week from the last time of contacting the volunteers. Thanks to this process and the active participation of the coordinators, it was successful that all the volunteers of the first phase responded for the second phase. The information collected from volunteers and verified by the coordinators of the organizations

revealed that among the volunteers in the first phase ($n = 417$), 69 percent continued volunteering ($n = 286$). Through the coding system developed in the first phase, the participants who continued after one year (12 months) of the first phase of data collection were matched with the preliminary information provided by them.

Design

Concerning the first-four objectives of the research related to the first phase, a design followed was cross-sectional/correlational, where the independent and dependent variables were all those described in the instruments section.

Regarding the fifth, sixth, and seventh general objectives, the prospective research design was followed. A prospective research design is a type of observational designs and is considered influential. Data were collected from participants regarding independent and dependent variables described in the instruments section. The study participants were then followed forward after one year to assess whether the intention and other variables studied before caused the outcome of interest that was the actual behavior of volunteers.

Both the research designs are adequate in gathering data from participants according to the objectives of the present study. The cross-sectional design is less cost effective and less time consuming. It provides initial information and correlations among the variables of the study. However to analyze the future behavior of volunteers the prospective design is more effective as it provides information over a period of time.

Data Analysis

An exploratory graphic analysis was run before advanced data analysis techniques. The reliability of the scales was established using Cronbach's alpha coefficient. Next, descriptive statistics were calculated. Further data analyses included correlation analysis to analyze the relationships between the variables hypothesize. It also included Multiple Regression Analysis, which was run to see that the intention of the permanence variable is

significantly explained by other predictive variables and to test the possible expected mediation effects initially. Analysis of Structural Equations (Path Analysis) was run to verify the validity and significance of the predictions expected among predictor variables (the expected covariance structure), the mediating effects of the model, and the fit of the data to the model. The data analyses were performed with the SPSS-AMOS program version 25. To evaluate the actual behavior of volunteers' regarding continuing volunteering after one year (12 months) of primary data collection, a follow-up analysis was conducted using binomial logistic regression and Analysis of Structural Equations (Path Analysis).

3. Results

Exploratory Analysis and Descriptive Statistics

As recommended by Tukey (1977), before carrying out the most complex data analyses, an exploratory graphic analysis was run to identify and solve possible errors in the data, atypical or extreme data, and to verify the main assumptions of the parametric analysis, especially in the event of normality. Employing the Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistic (with the Lilliefors correction), the null hypothesis of normality was rejected in all our variables ($p < .05$). This statistic, for large samples like this study, is very sensitive to small deviations from normality. For this reason, the normal Q-Q and Q-Q normal graphs without tendencies were analyzed, and the default of the normality assumption was confirmed, basically by negative asymmetry, but also by kurtosis.

Despite these results, all the data analysis procedures applied are generally robust to non-compliance with the normality assumption. The variables in this study have reliabilities closer to or greater than .80. Many authors identified the criteria that a minimum value of .70, although .80 is recommended, is necessary for basic research (Huh, Delorme, & Reid, 2006; Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). George and Malley (2003) gave rules of thumb: $> .9$ excellent, $> .8$ good, $.7$ acceptable, $> .6$ questionable, $> .5$ poor, and $< .5$ unacceptable. Descriptive statistics, including kurtosis and skewness, are presented in Table 5.

Table 5*Descriptive Statistics of Study Variables*

| | <i>M</i> | <i>S.D</i> | Items | Score Range | | Skewness (.120)* | Kurtosis (.238)* |
|----------------------------|----------|------------|-------|-------------|---------|---------------------|---------------------|
| | | | | Minimum | Maximum | | |
| Role Identity | 5.47 | 1.09 | 9 | 1.25 | 7.00 | -.92 | .98 |
| Org.Commitment | 5.85 | .85 | 9 | 2.33 | 7.00 | -1.26 | 1.99 |
| Satisfaction | 5.79 | .75 | 18 | 3.50 | 7.00 | -.58 | -.16 |
| Psychological capital | 4.81 | .57 | 24 | 2.17 | 6.00 | -.59 | .61 |
| Self-efficacy | 4.84 | .70 | 6 | 1.67 | 6.00 | -.60 | .36 |
| Hope | 4.82 | .71 | 6 | 2.50 | 6.00 | -.83 | 1.00 |
| Resilience | 4.82 | .65 | 6 | 2.00 | 6.00 | -0.45 | .15 |
| Optimism | 4.78 | .76 | 6 | 2.58 | 6.00 | -0.48 | -.04 |
| Transformational | 3.25 | .61 | 20 | .00 | 4.00 | -1.76 | 4.81 |
| Intention of permanence | 6.24 | 1.06 | 3 | 1.33 | 7.00 | -1.79 | 3.35 |
| Actual behavior | .68 | .46 | 2 | 1 | .00 | -.81 | -1.34 |

Note: N = 417. * Asymmetry or kurtosis errors of the statistics. Org.Commitment = organizational commitment.

Correlation Analysis

Table 6 presents the correlations of all variables being studied. Most of the variables have reliabilities close to or greater than .80. As can be seen from Table 6, all the relationships between the study variables are correlated significantly, with moderate to high levels of correlation. This allows us to continue to the subsequent multiple regression analysis. Besides, the magnitude and signs of the correlations coincide with what was expected given our hypotheses. The main socio-demographic variables (age, gender, and organization type) were added in a first analysis of the correlations and in a first multiple regression analysis to check and control their possible significant effect on the relationships and the predictions of the main variables in the study. However, non-significant results were found between socio-demographic and main variables in all cases.

Table 6

Intercorrelations for Study Variables

| Variable | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |
|--------------------------------|---|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| 1. Transformational leadership | – | .61** | .30** | .40** | .29** | .19** | .20** | .21** |
| 2. Psychological capital | | | – | .53** | .38** | .38** | .28** | .39** |
| 3. Satisfaction | | | | – | .69** | .50** | .19** | .24** |
| 4. Organizational commitment | | | | | – | .57** | .25** | .21** |
| 5. Role identity | | | | | | – | .37** | .31** |
| 6. Intention of permanence | | | | | | | – | .72** |
| 7. Actual behavior | | | | | | | | – |

Note. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

Multiple Regression Analysis

A two-stage multiple regression analysis was performed (see Table 7). This followed the hypotheses, in which we expect to find a significant predictive effect for leadership style (transformational leadership) and psychological capital in relation to the intention of permanence (model 1), and a mediating effect for the variables in the Three-stage Model (satisfaction, organizational commitment, and role identity), for the transformational leadership style, psychological capital and the intention of the permanence (model 2).

As observed in the results shown in Table 7, in addition to the significant predictive effect of the transformational leadership style ($\beta = .13, p < .05$) and psychological capital ($\beta = .24, p < .001$) on the intention of permanence, there are indications of the possible mediating effect of role identity (partial reduction in model 2 of the standardized beta for transformational leadership style, psychological capital and intention of permanence). The predictive effects of satisfaction on the intention of permanence are shown negative; however, the predictive effect of organizational commitment on the intention of permanence is not significant.

Table 7*Multiple Regression Analysis Results for the Intention of Permanence*

| Variables | <i>B</i> | <i>SEB</i> | β | R^2 | ΔR^2 |
|--------------------------------------|----------|------------|---------|-------|--------------|
| Model 1 | | | | .09 | .08 |
| Constant | 3.39*** | .55 | | | |
| Transformational Leadership Style | 0.21* | .08 | .13 | | |
| Psychological Capital | 0.45*** | .09 | .24 | | |
| Model 2 | | | | .18 | .17 |
| Constant | 3.06** | | | | |
| Transformational Leadership Style | .21* | .08 | .13 | | |
| Psychological Capital | .32** | .10 | .17 | | |
| Satisfaction | -.23* | .10 | -.16 | | |
| Organizational Commitment | .10 | .08 | .08 | | |
| Role Identity | .30*** | .05 | .31 | | |

Note. N = 417.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

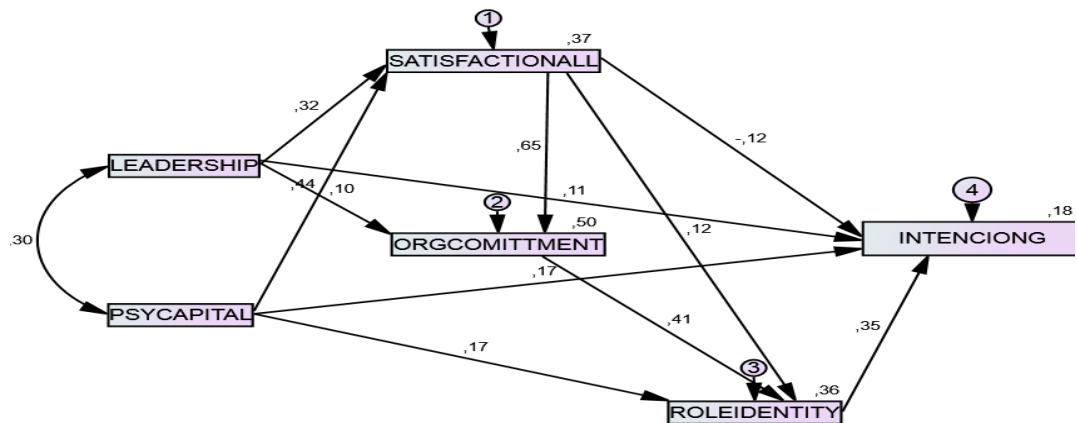
Model Testing (I)

SEM, specifically through a path-analysis (Duncan, 1975). was carried out using the Maximum Likelihood Method. The model was designed to jointly test the relationships of transformational leadership style, psychological capital, satisfaction, organizational commitment, role identity, and volunteers' intention of permanence (see Figure 6).

Path Analysis (Figure 6) reveal that the transformational leadership style not only predicts the intention of permanence directly ($\beta = .11, p < .05$) but also indirectly through the mediating impact of satisfaction ($\beta = .32, p < .001$) and organizational commitment ($\beta = .44, p < .001$). Similarly psychological capital predicts the intention of permanence directly ($\beta = .17, p < .05$) but also indirectly through the mediating impact of satisfaction ($\beta = .10, p < .05$) and role identity ($\beta = .17, p < .05$). The results also indicate that satisfaction predicts organizational commitment and role identity. Also, organizational commitment, together with the influence of satisfaction, predicts role identity. However, among the three components of the TSMVD, only role identity directly and positively predicts the intention of permanence and proves to be a relatively more reliable predictor ($\beta = .35, p < .001$). This model explains 18% of the variance of the intention of permanence. All indices for the model named Model of Intention are adequate ($p < .05$) and affirm the fitness of the model to the data (Table 8).

Figure 6

Structure Equation Model Predicting Intention of Permanence



Note. LEADERSHIP = Transformational leadership style; ORGCOMITTMENT = Organizational Commitment; PSYCHOLOGICAL CAPITALITAL = Psychological capital; INTENCIONG = Intention of permanence.

Table 8 shows that the Model of Intention explains indices to fit in the range of acceptance. The basis of the model is the significant relationships among the transformational leadership style, psychological capital, components of the TSMVD, and the intention of permanence.

Table 8

Model Fit Indices for Transformational Leadership, Psychological Capital Satisfaction, Organizational Commitment, Role Identity, and Volunteers' Intention of Permanence

| | $\chi^2(df)$ | Goodness of Fit Indices | | | |
|---------------------------|--------------|-------------------------|-----|-----|---------------------|
| | | CFI | GFI | NFI | RMSEA |
| <i>Model of Intention</i> | 2.05 (4) | .99 | .99 | .99 | .000 (.00 - .05) |

Note: NFI = normed fit index; GFI = goodness of fit index; CFI = comparative fit index; RMSEA = root-mean-square error of approximation; 90 % confidence interval for RMSEA.

Binomial Logistic Regression

By controlling age and gender, and organization type, binomial logistic regression was run next to analyze the impact of various predictors on actual behavior. Table 9 indicates that psychological capital and the intention of permanence are the significant and direct predictors of actual behavior. The intention of permanence appeared to be the strongest predictor. Expected beta values depict that intention of permanence (32.52) increases 33 % chances of actual behavior, and psychological capital increases 8 % chances of occurrence of the actual behavior concerning continuity of volunteering. R^2 Nagelkerke verifies that this model of predictors explains 76 percent of the variance in the occurrence of actual behavior.

Table 9*Binomial Logistic Regression Analysis Predicting Actual Behavior*

| Predictors | <i>B</i> | <i>S.E</i> | Actual Behavior | | | |
|-----------------------------------|----------|------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------|-----------|
| | | | <i>W</i> | Exp(<i>B</i>) | 95%CI | |
| | | | | | <i>LL</i> | <i>UL</i> |
| Transformational Leadership Style | .17 | .28 | .38 | 1.19 | .68 | 2.09 |
| Psychological Capital | 2.12*** | .43 | 23.68 | 8.41 | 3.57 | 19.83 |
| Satisfaction | .041 | .41 | .01 | 1.04 | .46 | 2.36 |
| Organizational Commitment | -.27 | .34 | .61 | .76 | .39 | 1.5 |
| Role Identity | -.02 | .24 | .00 | .97 | .61 | 1.58 |
| Intention of Permanence | 3.48*** | .38 | 81.82 | 32.52 | 15.29 | 69.16 |
| $R^2(N) = .76$ | | | | | | |
| $R^2(\text{Cox\&Snell}) = .54$ | | | | | | |

Note. N = 417. B=beta; W=wald, S.E.=standard deviation; Exp (B)=expected beta; CI, confidence interval; UL= upper limit; LL= lower limit; $R^2(N)$ =R Square Nagelkerke.

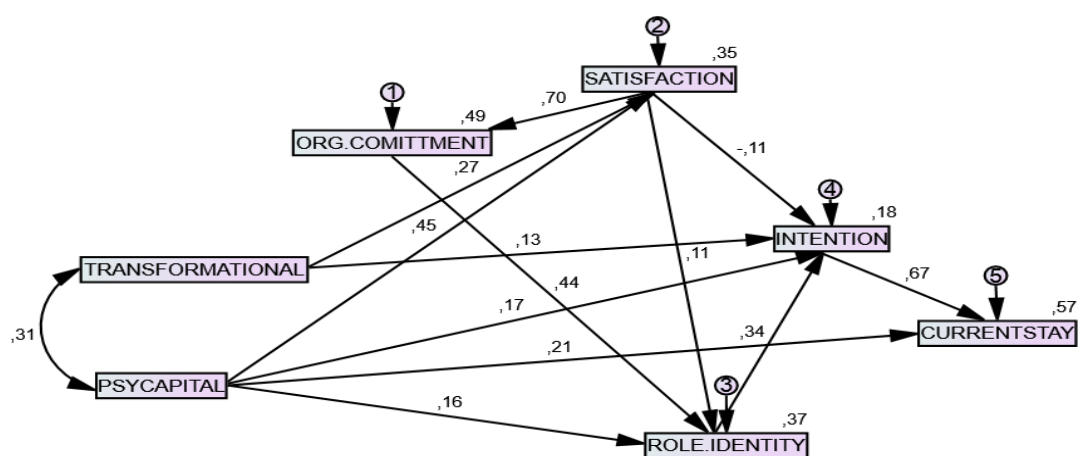
* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Model Testing (II)

The structural equation model presented in Figure 7 depicts the intention ($\beta = .67 p < .001$) and Psychological capital ($\beta = .21 p < .01$) are directly predicting the actual behavior while the transformational leadership style directly predicts the intention ($\beta = .13 p < .05$), and satisfaction ($\beta = .27 p < .01$), Psychological capital predicts the intention ($\beta = .17 p < .05$), satisfaction ($\beta = .45 p < .001$), and role identity ($\beta = .16 p < .05$) directly. Role identity also predicts the intention directly ($\beta = .34 p < .001$), Satisfaction predicts organizational commitment ($\beta = .70 p < .001$), and role identity positively ($\beta = .11 p < .05$), however predicts the intention ($\beta = -.11 p < .05$) negatively. Organizational commitment predicts only role identity directly ($\beta = .44 p < .001$). This model explains 57% of the variance in the prediction of the actual behavior that is largely due to the intention of permanence. Fitness of good indices for the structure equation model presented in Figure 7 show acceptable range (see Table 10).

Figure 7

Structure Equation Model Predicting Actual Behavior of Volunteers



Note. TRANSFORMATIONAL = Transformational leadership style;
 PSYCHOLOGICAL CAPITALITAL = Psychological capital; ORG.COMITTMENT
 = Organizational Commitment; INTENTION = Intention of permanence; CURRENT
 STAY = Actual behavior;

Table 10 shows that the Model of Actual behavior is a general model comprising the transformational leadership style, psychological capital, components of the TSMVD, the intention of permanence, and volunteers' actual behavior. Fit indices within range of acceptance for CFI, NFI, and GFI are $> .90$, and for RMSEA, it is $< .05$ (Steiger & Lind, 1980).

Table 10

Model Fit Indices of Transformational Leadership, Psychological Capital, Satisfaction, Organizational Commitment, Role Identity, Volunteers' Intention of Permanence, and Actual Behavior

| | $\chi^2(df)$ | Goodness of Fit Indices | | | |
|---------------------------------|--------------|-------------------------|------|------|-----------------------|
| | | CFI | GFI | NFI | RMSEA |
| <i>Model of Actual Behavior</i> | 6.3(8) | .999 | .996 | .994 | .000 (0.00 – 0.05) |

Note: NFI = normed fit index; GFI = goodness of fit index; CFI = comparative fit index; RMSEA = root-mean-square error of approximation; 90 % confidence interval for RMSEA.

4. Discussion and Conclusion

The present study was carried out to achieve several objectives regarding the intention of permanence and the actual behavior of volunteers. The first objective was to investigate the role of leadership style in the intention of volunteers' permanence. Based on this objective, H1 received partial support from the study findings. The leadership style investigated in this study were transformational. The results support H1 that transformational leadership has a significant direct effect on volunteers' intention of permanence. The results suggest that volunteer coordinators who adopt a transformational leadership style generate a higher intention to remain in volunteering. These findings concerning transformational leadership coincide with those obtained with other people-centered leadership, such as servant leadership (Smith 2017), ethical leadership (Benevene et al., 2018), leadership that promotes leader-member exchanges - LMX - (Usadolo, Usadolo, & Makwambeni, 2019) and servant leadership (Smith, 2017), all of which enhance a volunteer's willingness to continue volunteering.

Several empirical studies conducted in the profit sector coincide that the transformational leadership style is the most effective and the preferred leadership style compared to other leadership styles (Burns, 1978; Judge & Piccolo, 2004). Besides, transformational leaders find new ways of working positively within organizations, even in troublesome situations (Saeed, Almas, Haque, & Niazi, 2014). So far, owing to the limited amount of literature available in the context of volunteering concerning the influence of transformational leadership on the intention of the permanence of volunteers, the researchers have found that leaders who exhibit characteristics of people-focused leadership styles, such as transformational leadership, hinder volunteers' intention to quit volunteering (Stirling et al., 2011).

Due to its follower focused characteristics and inspirational influence enhancing positivity among followers, this leadership style is in line with assumptions of positive psychology that focus on the development of positive aspects (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2014). Besides, transformational leadership provides the base for positive leadership (Antino, Rodríguez, Rodríguez & Borzillo, 2014). In short, for influencing volunteers' intention of permanence, the leadership style with more positive connotations like the transformational leadership style is the most encouraging and inspiring style.

The next assumption regarding the intention of the permanence monitors the impact of an essential variable of POB, the combined competencies known as psychological capital. The study findings strongly support the assumption of H2 that psychological capital directly predicts the intention of the permanence of volunteers. Due to limited studies available in the literature, this finding coincides partially with other studies such as Ping Xu et al. (2020), although they did not study the intention; however, the act of volunteering was their focus that was predicted by psychological capital. Another study by Idris and Manganaro (2017) may also relate to the findings, but it was conducted with a sample of employees where positive motivational states proved to encourage intention to stay. Through this finding, we can conclude that a combination of positive resources of volunteers represented by their psychological capital is an excellent source of facilitating, enhancing, and strengthening their intention to continue volunteering in the future.

The present study findings also support H3. The results exhibit the mediation effect of components of TSMVD (satisfaction, organizational commitment, and role identity) between the relationship of transformational leadership style and the intention of permanence. The findings reveal that the transformational leadership style predicts the intention of permanence not only directly but also indirectly. The results of the indirect effect show the process through which the transformational leadership style increases the intention of the permanence

of volunteers. The transformational leadership style of the volunteer coordinators increases volunteers' satisfaction and commitment, which coincides with the results obtained in samples of employees (Dumdum, Lowe, & Avolio, 2013; Lim, Loo, & Lee, 2017; McMurray, Pirola-Merlo, Sarros, & Islam, 2010). In turn, volunteers with higher satisfaction levels develop more significant organizational commitment (Alfes, Shazntz, & Saskida, 2015) and role identity. Finally, volunteers with a higher role identity are those who show a higher intention of permanence. These results coincide with the forecast of the TSMVD (Chacon et al., 2007), and, as argued by Penner (2002), the best predictor of intention to remain in volunteering is role identity.

The present study findings partially support H3. The direct effect of transformational leadership on volunteers' intention of permanence is partially mediated by satisfaction and organizational commitment. However, satisfaction and organizational commitment do not directly influence the intention of permanence; however, through influencing role identity, which in turn exerts a direct influence on the intention of permanence. Role identity also mediates the relationships between satisfaction and the intention of permanence and between organizational commitment and the intention of permanence. In contrast to what was hypothesized, neither organizational commitment nor role identity mediates transformational leadership and the intention of permanence. This controversy may be explained by the presence of highly experienced volunteers in the sample. As the average experience of volunteers who participated in this study was more than five years. This period is long enough to identifying the role of volunteers and developing a role identity that further plays a prominent role in predicting the intention of permanence.

These findings allow us to understand the mechanism of volunteers' role identity. Researchers such as Nencini et al. (2016) support the influence of role identity. They identified that volunteers' role identity fosters satisfaction, commitment, and organizational

experiences related to managers, board members, or other social networks in non-profit organizations, associated with voluntary work. Moreover, transformational leaders ideally influence and intellectually stimulate volunteers, which creates satisfaction and commitment through the internalization of organizational goals. Consequently, such leadership indirectly facilitates the process of achieving role identity from the initial phase through increased satisfaction and organizational commitment until the final phase of sustainability and continuity of prosocial work as a volunteer. In addition, as long as volunteers confidently and satisfactorily perform their role and gain skills, they can internalize the organization's mission and continue their contribution to achieving objectives (Saksida, Alfes, & Shantz, 2017).

Another finding regarding satisfaction requires further debate. In this study, although satisfaction predicted the intention of permanence directly, however, negatively. This finding can be related to the volunteering experience level of the volunteers. According to one of the assumptions of TSMVD, satisfaction is a source of enhancing the intention during the initial six months of joining the volunteer role. This assumption explains, satisfaction is required during the initial months of the volunteering to predict the intention of permanence; however, participants of this study were providing prosocial services for a long time (the average experience was five years) and for whom satisfaction may not be the direct inspiration to continue volunteering. In addition, satisfaction exerts an indirect positive impact on predicting the intention of permanence by influencing organizational commitment and role identity, which in turn predicts the intention. It is not the first study that found unexpected results, since negative relationships of satisfaction and volunteers' intention have also been found by Vecina and Chacon (2017) and Finkelstein et al. (2005).

The findings also partially support H4. As compared to organizational commitment and satisfaction, role identity positively mediates the relationship between psychological capital and the intention of the permanence of volunteers. Psychological capital predicts

satisfaction that further influences organizational commitment and role identity, in turn predicting the intention of permanence. These findings corroborate results found by Ping Xu et al. (2020), where volunteers with higher psychological capital and higher role identification had a lower impact on organizational commitment and commitment to volunteering. Avey et al. (2011) also found that psychological capital relates more to satisfaction and organizational commitment than intentions to leave. In the dynamic working conditions, volunteers with higher psychological capital can better adjust, adapt, and remain in the capacity of prosocial work within non-profit organizations. The four competencies of psychological capital: hope, self-efficacy, resilience, and optimism are neither as stable as personality traits nor as transient as moods. Through these findings, we can better understand the intermediate quality of psychological capital, rendering volunteers open to development, gain more satisfaction from their volunteer work, stay committed to the organization they volunteer with, achieve role identity, and strengthen their intention to continue volunteering.

Based on the findings of the follow-up phase of the current investigation, H5 receives no support that the transformational leadership style directly predicts the actual behavior of volunteers. However, path analysis (see Figure 7) depicts that transformational leadership indirectly predicts the actual behavior of volunteers through influencing the intention that further predicts the behavior. However, attributes of transformational leadership show a significant impact on employees' performance attitudes and behaviors (Bass & Riggio, 2006). However, literature is also scarce for directly supporting this notion that the transformational leadership style directly or indirectly predicts continuity of volunteers' actual behavior.

H6 receives support from the findings that psychological capital predicts actual behavior just as it previously predicted the intention of permanence. Literature supports this

notion that psychological capital helps generate resources that improve performance, positive attitudes, and behaviors in work settings (Malekiha et al., 2014).

Furthermore, results support the H7 that the intention of permanence predicts the actual behavior. Findings suggest that the intention of permanence proved to be the strongest predictor of the actual behavior of continuity. These findings coincide with the assumptions of TPB (Ajzen, 1991) and TSMVD (Chacon et al., 2007), which postulate that the intention best explains the behavior. (Chacon et al.). Similarly, these results received support from another follow-up study conducted by Vecina and Chacon (2017) regarding the continuity of volunteers' behavior with various predictors and confirmed that the intention strongly predicts the subsequent behavior. Moreover, the follow-up results relate to the assumptions of the TSMVD that satisfaction, organizational commitment, and role identity have no direct link to the prediction of actual behavior; however, they solemnly predict and strengthen the intention of permanence that further predicts the behavior.

As far as the present study findings are concerned, the components of the TSMVD, directly and indirectly, predict the intention of permanence. Specifically, role identity proved to be a direct and robust predictor of the intention, until and unless the role as a volunteer has not become the part of volunteers' identity over the years by deriving satisfaction and achieving commitment to the organization, their intention to continue the prosocial work would not predict the volunteer behavior. Previous researches have linked role identity to voluntary donations (Grube & Piliavin, 2000) and volunteers' length of service (Vecina et al., 2005; Finkelstein et al., 2005; Marta & Pozzi, 2008; Penner & Finkelstein, 1998). However, this study highlights the role of psychological capital, transformational leadership, satisfaction, and organizational commitment in achieving the role of identity as a volunteer.

This study contributes to the volunteering literature due to several reasons. Such as it highlights the role of transformational leadership not only in enhancing volunteers' intention

of permanence but also in the continuity of actual behavior. While the transformational leadership model has a long history in for-profit research, to the best of our knowledge, concerning volunteers' intention of permanence, actual behavior, and psychological capital through the mediation of components of the TSMVD have seldom been examined.

The present study provides non-profit organizations with a mechanism to deal with the dropout phenomenon of volunteers. Based on the finding of the current investigation, non-profit organizations can retain volunteers for the long-term with the help of transformational leaders equipped with the people-focused style of managing volunteers. Furthermore, this research shares the commonality with the corporate sector that attributes of transformational leaders are equally ideal in retaining and keeping volunteers in third sector organizations.

Recent evidence (Ariza, Tirado, Fernandez & Leal, 2017) highlights that leaders in non-profit organizations would improve strategies to recruit and retain volunteers if they have a complete understanding of what volunteers' ways of thinking, feeling, and behaving predict. The findings of this study have considerable practical implications for non-profit organizations. At a time when non-profit organizations are facing a challenge to captivate and retain their volunteers (Hyde et al., 2016; Smith, 2017; Benevene et al., 2018), the current study highlights measures that leaders or persons in managerial positions in non-profit organizations can utilize to attain permanence of volunteers by facilitating volunteers in time after recruitment into their role. Non-profit organizations may invest in training through induction programs, as suggested by Saksida et al. (2017). As part of the training, while in group meetings, leaders can play their role while introducing the volunteers and explaining the organization's mission to them.

Furthermore, the adequacy of the leadership role is essential in energizing, motivating, and influencing volunteers. Taking into account volunteers' concerns by the management of the organization subsequently results in satisfying them and strengthening their commitment

with the organization that would lead to fostering role identity, which ensures their retention in the organizations. Moreover, retaining volunteers is the goal of successful volunteer management. It requires formalization of volunteers' roles by using job descriptions that will bring more role clarity (Allen & Mueller, 2013). Written guidelines can be formulated while avoiding over formalizing.

As evident, this study supports the crucial role of transformational leadership in managing and retaining volunteers. While taking advantage of this finding, non-profit organizations may reconfigure their human resource management (HRM) by creating new leadership posts featuring management of volunteer constituency within an organization. As persons on general HRM positions does not focus on strategic management of volunteers (Saksida et al., 2017); instead, general management mostly focuses on services aspects delivered by volunteers like raising donations, running campaigns, and delivering services (Brewster & Lee, 2006), however, personal and individual needs of volunteers are often neglected. Leadership, like transformational, may give attention to considering volunteers as unique and worthy fellows whose services are valued. Finally, it will help in developing role identity through gleaning satisfaction and enhancing the commitment of volunteers that, in turn, will strengthen their intention of permanence as well as the actual behavior.

The present study shifts the attention from previously studied relationships related to the intention, such as personality traits more static in nature, towards positive personal resources prone to develop in the form of psychological capital that can be considered responsible for enhancing the intention to continue volunteering. Besides, psychological capital is the antecedent of the intention and the actual behavior of volunteers. The study findings reveal that psychological capital increases 18% chances of occurring the actual behavior of volunteers. This finding has tremendous advantages for non-profit organizations and the management of volunteers who deals with volunteers drop out. By improving

volunteers' psychological capital through training and workshops, more incredible benefits of their actual permanence are possible to achieve.

Furthermore, as mentioned earlier, psychological capital is quite open to change and can develop in volunteers through training. Building on that, meaningful interventions can enhance psychological capital (Luthans et al., 2010), such as mastery skills training (Bandura, 2000) can help volunteers continue the volunteer role instead of quitting due to certain uncertainties. Besides, volunteers should optimistically learn from difficult situations, and keeping in view their positive experiences in the past positive outcomes in the future can also be expected. Goal setting should be part of the training as thinking or working on future action plans helps solve obstacles, resultantly improving satisfaction, strengthening commitment, and enhancing the role identity of volunteers, ensuring their permanence in the organizations.

In addition, workshops enhancing psychological capital should employ training strategies based on improving the positive competencies of volunteers. Volunteers focus on their strengths and may utilize them while dealing with confusing and stressful situations that may otherwise lead them to quit. Unfortunately, non-profit organizations with various preferences to execute functions, recruiting volunteers, and meeting the goals of the organizations may not prioritize the enhancement of positive personal resources (self-efficacy, hope, optimism, and resiliency) of volunteers as a part of training and meetings planned for them. Based on the current study findings, non-profit organizations, by focusing on volunteers' positive competences, can deal with the issue of volunteers' drop out and can influence their retention for years to come.

The findings also reveal that the intention has emerged as the strongest predictor of volunteers' actual behavior, which takes the responsibility of actual behavior on a more substantial part and increases nearly seventy percent chances of occurrence of actual

behavior. Based on this finding, while selecting or recruiting volunteers, the management of non-profit organizations can directly add the question regarding the intention to continue for a particular time (shorter or longer duration) into the checklist or form prepared for induction of volunteers. This information can help leaders, coordinators, or managers to anticipate volunteers' behavior. Besides trusting volunteers' intentions, strategies concerning to retain volunteers should focus on the active and inspiring role of leadership as well as fostering positive psychological competencies of volunteers.

Despite the contribution in the context of volunteering, this study suffers a few limitations. Firstly, a relatively low response rate is a limitation of this study. Various factors could contribute to a web-based survey's low response rate, such as less information regarding respondents' computers or the feasibility of using webpages relating mainly to adults (Fan & Yan, 2010). Unlike the method used in this study, when instruments are sent in a personalized way, with incentives and weekly follow-ups, higher retention and response rates can be achieved (Fernández, Leiva, & Montoro, 2009). For this study, the rate achieved was considered adequate, although, in subsequent cross-validations of the results of this research, it will be necessary to achieve a higher rate.

The present study sample consisted mostly of adult volunteers of various ages volunteering in various non-profit organizations (e.g., health, education, environment, sports, social services). It was not feasible to identify how comfortable participants were using web browsers and navigating between or within websites. Future studies using web-based surveys may get detailed information regarding the computer skills of the participants before sending the surveys.

Thirdly, volunteers aged 15-86 were included in this study, with the majority of women participants. Demographic comparisons, specifically gender differences or the differences between young and old volunteers, would be interesting to know; however,

keeping in view the nature of objectives of this study, it was not obligatory. However, it would be interesting to conduct demographically comparative studies in future research.

As discussed earlier, volunteering is a prosocial behavior adopted by volunteers deliberately to utilize their acquired experience and skills to help others selflessly and to devote their time to reuniting with their community. Moreover, many non-profit organizations worldwide are devoted to this cause to serve humanity without commercial interest. Although volunteering is an activity by choice; however, while working and affiliating with some organization, volunteers have to work under some supervision at some level. The present study served the purpose of digging out the influential role of volunteers' coordinators who could adopt transformational leadership and achieve the permanence of volunteers to run the functions of their respective organizations. Side by side, enhancing the psychological capital of volunteers' may increase their intention of permanence and, consequently, the actual behavior to continue volunteering.

This study adds to the existing knowledge regarding the sustainability of the prosocial behavior of volunteers. Moreover, it concludes that the current research may be helpful in the establishment of effective management strategies. The underpinning contribution of transformational leadership and psychological capital in the retention of volunteers is worth considering. In general, our results indicate that sustained volunteerism is possible to achieve when volunteers socialize into their role within a non-profit organization, and they gain satisfaction and organizational commitment by the leadership equipped with attributions of the transformational leadership style within that organization, further fostering volunteers' role identity and boosting their intention to continue.

Moreover, psychological capital also came into light as a strong predictor for the intention of permanence as well as the actual behavior regarding continuity of volunteering. Psychological capital may offer a competitive advantage for non-profit organizations because

it is involved in the inculcation of positive attitudes and behaviors in volunteers and because it represents a personal resource open to change and development (Avey et al., 2011; Luthans et al., 2010). Also, the composition of psychological capital is powerful positive resources that allow volunteers to confront the challenges and demands of their prosocial work instead of quitting and leaving the voluntary space.

Furthermore, role identity also emerged as an enhancer of the intention of permanence; it contributes to the intention of continuity but not to the actual behavior directly as follow-up analysis of actual behavior depicted that intention of permanence wins the race. Moreover, intention plays a significant role in the occurrence of actual behavior. In short, this study stresses the importance of a unique contribution of positive resources in the form of psychological capital responsible for volunteer role identity development in volunteers. Besides, transformational leadership, satisfaction, and organizational commitment contribute to developing role identity as a volunteer; however, among all the predictors investigated in the current study, psychological capital remained a strong direct and consistent predictor of the intention and the actual behavior of volunteers. Volunteers relying on their positive resources are capable of confidently and optimistically continuing to work as a volunteer while bouncing back the obstacles interrupting the continuity of their prosocial work. Non-profit organizations need to prioritize the person-focused training of volunteers side by side the introductory meetings concerning the explanation of the project.

5. References

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Appendices

Appendix A
Formulario de Consentimiento

FORMULARIO DE CONSENTIMIENTO

El Grupo de investigación “Factores Psicosociales y Voluntariado” de la Universidad Complutense está desarrollando una investigación denominada “Estilo de liderazgo y voluntariado”. Con este proyecto queremos saber cómo influyen los coordinadores de voluntariado en la satisfacción y permanencia de los voluntarios. Esperamos que los resultados nos ayuden a mejorar la gestión de los programas de la asociación, por ello estamos pidiendo a personas como usted que nos ayuden.

Con este formulario de consentimiento informado le pedimos que colabore en este estudio.

Es importante que usted sepa que:

- No tiene obligación de participar en el estudio
- Puede dejar de participar en el estudio en cualquier momento
- Puede tomarse todo el tiempo que necesite para decidir
- Participar no le supondrá ningún coste

Si acepta participar le presentaremos un cuestionario de aproximadamente 110 ítems o preguntas, que pueden contestarse en aproximadamente entre 20 y 25 minutos. Estas preguntas no tienen respuestas correctas ni incorrectas. La investigación incluye una fase de seguimiento consistente en un cuestionario más breve (aproximadamente 30 preguntas). En ese momento volverá a contactar con usted y le solicitará de nuevo su consentimiento.

Sus respuestas son anónimas y solo podrán verlas los investigadores, que las identificarán con una clave para garantizar su anonimato.

Si tiene alguna pregunta sobre el estudio o sobre sus derechos puede enviar un email al director de la investigación: fChacnf@ucm.es.

Si firma este escrito está diciendo que acepta participar en el estudio, y que ha leído y comprende la información que contiene este documento.

Firma:

Cuatro últimas Cifra del DNI/NIE __ __ __ __

Appendix B

Instruments

- Demografia
- Psychological Capital Questionnaire
- Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire
- Satisfaction Scale
- Organizational Commitment Questionnaire
- The Role Identity Scale
- The Intention of Permanence Scale

Demografía

Fecha : (dia/mes/año): __/__/__

Cuatro últimas cifras DNI/NIE: __ __ __ __

Nombre de la entidad o asociación: _____

Programa/as donde realiza su voluntariado

1. _____

2. _____

3. _____

Edad (en años): _____

Sexo (marcar con una X): Masculino ___ Femenino ___

Estudios terminados (marcar con una X):

Sin Estudios: ___

Primarios: ___

Secundarios: ___

Universitarios: ___

Postgrado: ___

Estatus Laboral (marcar con una X):

Trabajo a tiempo completo: ___

Trabajo a tiempo parcial: ___

Sin actividad laboral: ___

¿Cuándo inicio su voluntariado en la asociación? Mes _____ Año _____

¿Desde cuando ocupa su puesto actual? Mes _____ Año _____

¿Cuántas horas a la semana dedicas actualmente al voluntariado en la asociación? _____

Psychological Capital Questionnaire

A continuación, indique su opinión sobre cómo se ajustan los siguientes ítems a lo que usted piensa sobre usted mismo, utilizando la siguiente escala para indicar su nivel de acuerdo o desacuerdo con cada frase.

| | | | | | |
|----------------------|------------------|-----------------------|--------------------|------------|-------------------|
| Muy en desacuerdo | En desacuerdo | Algo de desacuerdo | Algo de acuerdo | De acuerdo | Muy de acuerdo |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |

| Yo... | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
|--|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. Me siento seguro analizando un problema a largo plazo para encontrar una solución. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2. Me siento seguro al representar a mi área de trabajo en reuniones. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 3. Me siento seguro al participar en los debates sobre la estrategia de la asociación. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 4. Me siento seguro ayudando a establecer objetivos en mi área de actividad. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 5. Me siento seguro contactando con personas externas a la asociación para discutir los problemas. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 6. Me siento seguro al presentar información a un grupo de voluntario. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 7. Si estuviese en apuros en mi actividad voluntaria, se me ocurrirían muchas formas de salir de la situación. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 8. En la actualidad estoy persiguiendo enérgicamente los objetivos de mi actividad como voluntario. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 9. Hay muchas formas de darle la vuelta a cualquier problema. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 10. Actualmente creo que estoy teniendo bastante éxito en mi voluntariado. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 11. Se me ocurren muchas formas de alcanzar mis actuales objetivos como voluntario. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 12. En este momento, estoy alcanzando los objetivos que me he establecido. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |

| | | | | | | |
|--|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| 13. Cuando tengo un contratiempo en el voluntariado, tengo problemas para recuperarme y seguir adelante. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 14. Por lo general manejo las dificultades de una manera u otra en el voluntariado. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 15. Puedo “quedarme solo” en una tarea, por así decirlo, si tengo que hacerlo. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 16. Normalmente me tomo con calma los aspectos estresantes de mi voluntariado. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 17. Puedo superar las épocas difíciles porque ya me he enfrentado antes a las dificultades. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 18. Siento que puedo manejar muchas cosas a la vez en este mi tarea como voluntario. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 19. Cuando las cosas son inciertas para mí en el trabajo, por lo general, espero lo mejor. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 20. Si algo puede ir mal en mi trabajo, seguramente irá mal. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 21. En lo que respecta a mi actividad voluntaria, siempre veo el lado bueno de las cosas. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 22. En lo que respecta a mi voluntariado, soy optimista en cuanto a lo que me deparará el futuro. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 23. En este voluntariado las cosas nunca salen como yo quiero. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 24. Valoro mi voluntariado como “no hay mal que por bien no venga”. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire

Por favor responda los ítems que se detallan a continuación, indicando el grado en que cada frase se ajusta a la forma en la que el coordinador de su programa coordina al grupo de voluntarios utilizando la siguiente escala:

| Nunca | De vez en cuando | A veces | Bastante | Casi siempre |
|-------|------------------|---------|----------|--------------|
| 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

| | |
|--|-----------|
| 1. Ayuda a los voluntarios siempre que ellos se esfuercen | 0 1 2 3 4 |
| 2. Reexamina los elementos fundamentales del programa para ver si son adecuados | 0 1 2 3 4 |
| 3. Habla del futuro con optimismo. | 0 1 2 3 4 |
| 4. Presente una convincente visión del future. | 0 1 2 3 4 |
| 5. Habla con entusiasmo acerca de los logros que deben alcanzarse | 0 1 2 3 4 |
| 6. Habla a los voluntarios de los valores y creencias más importantes para él/ella | 0 1 2 3 4 |

Note. Due to copyrights, I cannot present the complete version of the questionnaire including all the items.

Satisfaction Scale

Valora de 1 a 7 el grado en el que estás de acuerdo con las siguientes afirmaciones (1 = nada de acuerdo, 7 = Totalmente de acuerdo, rodear con un círculo). Las tareas o actividades que habitualmente realizo como voluntario/a:

1. Me ayudan a olvidar mis propios problemas 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

2. Me permiten expresar los valores que son importantes para mí. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

3. Me aportan formación y experiencia necesarias para ser un/a buen/a profesional. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

4. Me permiten entablar relaciones sociales con distintas personas. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

5. Me permiten aprender cosas nuevas e interesantes. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

6. Me hacen sentir bien y elevan mi autoestima. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

7. Son muy útiles para otros. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

8. Me permiten saber fácilmente si las estoy haciendo bien mientras las desempeño. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

9. Tienen objetivos claramente definidos. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

10. Las realizo con mucha eficacia. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

11. Son parte de un trabajo más amplio cuyo fin último siempre tengo presente 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Valora de 1 a 7 lo satisfecho/a que estás con los siguientes aspectos de la gestión de la Asociación

(1 = nada satisfecho, 7 = totalmente satisfecho, rodear con un círculo):

12. El interés mostrado por la organización por ajustar mis motivaciones, preferencias, habilidades y capacidades a los puestos voluntarios disponibles. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

13. La formación que se proporciona para mejorar mi trabajo como voluntario/a. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 14. La fluidez y frecuencia de las comunicaciones entre voluntarios y profesionales. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| <hr/> | | | | | | | |
| 15. Los mecanismos existentes para solucionar los problemas con los que se encuentran los voluntarios al realizar sus tareas. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| <hr/> | | | | | | | |
| 16. El reconocimiento del papel del voluntariado en mi organización. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| <hr/> | | | | | | | |
| 17. La forma de gestionar el voluntariado. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| <hr/> | | | | | | | |
| 18. La gestión general de la organización. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ)

Valora de 1 a 7 el grado en el que estás de acuerdo con las siguientes afirmaciones (1 significa que no estás en absoluto de acuerdo y 7 que estás máximamente de acuerdo, rodear con un círculo).

1. Estoy esforzándome haciendo más de lo que se espera normalmente para ayudar a la organización a la que pertenezco a alcanzar sus objetivos.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

2. Comento con mis amigos que esta es una gran organización a la hora de colaborar voluntariamente.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

3. Podría aceptar casi cualquier tipo de puesto con tal de seguir colaborando con esta organización.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

4. Encuentro que mis valores y los valores de la organización son muy similares.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

5. Estoy orgulloso/a de poder decir que formo parte de esta organización.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

6. Esta organización realmente inspira lo mejor de mi a la hora de desarrollar mi actividad voluntaria.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

7. Estoy muy contento/a por haber elegido esta organización.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

8. Realmente me preocupo por el futuro de esta organización.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

9. Para mí esta es la mejor de todas las organizaciones posibles con las que colaborar.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

The Role Identity Scale

Valora de 1 a 7 el grado en el que estás de acuerdo con las siguientes afirmaciones (1 significa que no estás en absoluto de acuerdo y 7 que estás máximamente de acuerdo, rodear con un círculo).

1.El voluntariado es algo en lo que pienso con frecuencia. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

2.Para mí supondría una pérdida si me viera obligado a abandonar el voluntariado.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

3. Sinceramente no tengo claros mis sentimientos hacia el voluntariado.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

4. Para mí el hecho de ser voluntario/a es más importante que las tareas concretas que realizo.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

5. El voluntariado es una parte importante de mi propia identidad.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

The Intention of Permanence Scale

1. Valora de 1 a 7 la probabilidad de que continúes siendo voluntario/a de la Asociación dentro de 6 meses? (1 significa ninguna y 7 máxima probabilidad)

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

2. Valora de 1 a 7 la probabilidad de que continúes siendo voluntario/a de la asociación dentro de un año? (1 significa ninguna y 7 máxima probabilidad)

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

3. Valora de 1 a 7 la probabilidad de que continúes siendo voluntario/a de la asociación dentro de dos años? (1 significa ninguna y 7 máxima probabilidad)

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Appendix C

Description of non-profit organizations participated in this study.

Non Profit Organizations that participated in the study are described below. (The names are kept confidential, only numbers are presented).

| Organizations | Description |
|----------------------|---|
| 1 | <p>Founded in 1953, the Association works day by day on the principles of independence, impartiality, transparency, neutrality, and collaboration, with the aim of combining the efforts of society, the administration, non-profit institutions, and the business world in the fight against cancer. Promotes programs in the field of oncology research through scholarships and contract-aids, through its Scientific Foundation. In addition, it is the first donor of private funds destined for oncological research in Spain. It has its headquarters in Madrid, but develops its activity through 52 provincial headquarters, with representation in more than 2,000 locations with more than 25000 volunteers.</p> |
| 2 | <p>This is an international environmental organization, economically not dependent on donations neither accepts any. It uses non-violent direct action to attract public attention to global environmental problems and promote the necessary solutions to have a green and peaceful future. It is established in 55 countries of the world with millions of volunteers.</p> |
| 3 | <p>This is a state-run non-profit organization that defends rights, people who are at risk of social exclusion specifically refugees and migrated.</p> |
| 4 | <p>This foundation was established in 1996 in Spain and established internationally. Its objective is to help groups at risk of social exclusion and awareness of the general population. Account approximately 1000 volunteers who carry out leisure and free-time</p> |

| | |
|----------|---|
| | activities, school support, welcome and accompaniment, career guidance, and training activities. |
| 5 | This association established in 1991 in Madrid and established internationally. Its objective is the training and occupation of volunteers in various areas social programs: development of social programs with marginalized people, development with countries of the South, and raising awareness about issues of interest Social. It has approximately 3000 volunteers who perform support and accompaniment activities for the elderly, the sick, the disabled and homeless people; cultural, leisure and free time activities with disabled, children, adolescents and inmates; activities for insertion socio-labor with immigrants; support for battered and prostituted women; classification of medicines and books for the countries of the South; and activities of administrative management and coordination. |
| 6 | Association established in 1993 in Spain and established at the national level. Have as an objective to promote the culture of solidarity among university students. It has approximately 600 volunteers who carry out activities directed to the promotion of solidarity: accompaniment to the elderly, school support, leisure and free time, participation in work camps. |
| 7 | This is an umbrella organization of 69 sports federations. Its mission is to defend their rights and safeguard their interests ensuring the |

| | |
|-----------|---|
| | presence of sports federations at national, state and international level. |
| 8 | This foundation established in 1994 in Spain and established internationally. Its objective is to help children in health, nutrition, rights of the child, and social action. It has approximately 150 volunteers who carry out support activities in airports, hospitals, and leisure and free time outings; they also carry out administration activities, Search for funds and awareness. |
| 9 | This foundation was established in 1995 in Madrid and established locally. Have as an objective the promotion and training of volunteers for the care of people in need in collaboration with professionals from the public or private social action. Account for approximately with 570 volunteers who carry out activities of accompaniment and small managements, and accompaniment in leisure activities and free time. |
| 10 | This Association was established in 1986 in Madrid at the national level. Its objective is to promote pluralist education, secular values, and democracy from formal and non-formal education. Account for approximately 365 volunteers who carry out management activities, administration and communication of the NGO, and training activities. |
| 11 | Association was established in 1997 in Madrid and established at the provincial level. |

| | |
|-----------|---|
| | <p>Its objectives are to train people, provide help humanitarian assistance to the third world, and care for the elderly in residences and in addresses. It has approximately 100 volunteers who perform activities for older people in residences, and collection of medicines and other types of materials.</p> |
| 12 | <p>This foundation was established in 1984 in Madrid and established internationally. Its objective is education for development. Account approximately with 267 volunteers who participate in the development of projects and campaign awareness; they also carry out communication activities, administration, and human resources.</p> |
| 13 | <p>This association was established in 1968 in Spain and established at an international level. Its objective is to ensure the conservation of the environment. Account approximately 250 volunteers who carry out activities of reforestation, seed collection, and maintenance of a nursery and a bird refuge.</p> |
| 14 | <p>This association was established in 1985 in Madrid and established at the regional level. Its objective is to prevent maladaptive behaviors, achieve adaptation socio-labor of people in exclusion and sensitize society. Account approximately 200 volunteers who carry out training activities, and administration and management of the organization.</p> |

| | |
|--|---|
| <p style="text-align: center;">15</p> | <p>Association was established in 1994 in Madrid and established locally. Have as objective to create and promote public and school libraries. Account approximately with 25 volunteers who carry out activities of administration and communication, implementation and monitoring of projects, and Classification of books.</p> |
| <p style="text-align: center;">16</p> | <p>Association was established in 1993 in Spain and established internationally. Its objective is primary health care in underdeveloped countries. It has approximately 22 volunteers who carry out activities of communication and awareness and participate in the development of activities sporadic as the organization of various events, etc.</p> |
| <p style="text-align: center;">17</p> | <p>Association was established in 1994 in Madrid and established at the national level. Its objective is to promote the social and labor insertion of people with psychic disabilities. It has approximately 15 volunteers whom they carry out activities to support training and leisure and free time</p> |

Abstract

La Influencia del Liderazgo y el Capital Psicológico en la Permanencia de los Voluntarios [The Influence of Leadership and Psychological Capital on the Permanence of Volunteers]

The literature on leadership has provided compelling evidence that different leadership styles exhibited by leaders can guide employees to attain competence and gain the confidence required to continue their roles. However, less is known about the potential impact of leadership, particularly the transformational leadership style, on volunteers' intention of permanence and their actual behavior in the context of non-profit organizations. Likewise, psychological capital, known as a positive personal resource, is responsible for various positive work outcomes; however, studies are scarce to expand our knowledge about the role of psychological capital in volunteers' intention of permanence and the actual behavior. The current investigation addresses this gap by formulating several objectives and presenting a model that situates leadership and psychological capital as its centerpieces. The objectives of this study included the investigation of the role of transformational leadership style and psychological capital in the prediction of volunteers' intention of the permanence and their actual behavior, in addition, investigation of the mediating role of components of the three-stage model of volunteers' duration (TSMVD) (satisfaction, organizational commitment, and role identity) among relationships of transformational leadership style, psychological capital, and the intention of permanence. Data were collected from volunteers ($n = 417$) providing volunteer services in seventeen non-profit organizations of Spain, including males (27%) and females (73%), majority adults ($M = 44$ years; $S.D., 17.50$). The results of multiple regression analysis and structure equations model (SEM), specifically through a path-analysis using the Maximum Likelihood Method, revealed that the transformational leadership style predicted the intention of permanence directly ($\beta = .11, p < .05$) but also indirectly through the

mediating impact of satisfaction ($\beta = .32, p < .001$) and organizational commitment ($\beta = .44, p < .001$). Similarly psychological capital also predicted the intention of permanence directly ($\beta = .17, p < .05$) and indirectly through the mediating impact of satisfaction ($\beta = .10, p < .05$) and role identity ($\beta = .17, p < .05$). The results also indicated that satisfaction predicted organizational commitment and role identity. Also, organizational commitment, together with the influence of satisfaction, predicted role identity. However, among the three components of the TSMVD, only role identity directly and positively predicted the intention of permanence and proved to be a relatively more reliable predictor ($\beta = .35, p < .001$). This model explained 18% of the variance of the intention of permanence. All indices for the model were adequate ($p < .05$) and affirmed the fitness of the model to the data. Furthermore, a follow-up after one year of primary data collection revealed that psychological capital and the intention of permanence emerged as direct predictors for the actual behavior of volunteers. However, transformational leadership could not predict the actual behavior directly; instead, path analysis depicted that transformational leadership indirectly predicted the actual behavior of volunteers through influencing the intention that further predicted the behavior of continuity. Side by side, the inspirational and motivational role of transformational leadership, psychological capital, also emerged as a relatively stronger, direct, and consistent predictor of the intention and the actual behavior of volunteers. Volunteers relying on their positive resources are capable of confidently and optimistically continuing to deliver services as a volunteer while bouncing back the obstacles interrupting the continuity of their prosocial work. Interestingly, the intention of permanence remained the strongest predictor of volunteers' actual behavior, which takes the responsibility of volunteering continuity behavior on a more substantial part and increases nearly seventy percent chances of occurrence of actual behavior. Besides, this study contributes to volunteering theory and practice by identifying the mechanism that non-profit organizations

can employ to maximize the number of volunteers to be retained to perform the roles assigned to them. The study also discusses limitations and practical implications.

Resumen

La Influencia del Liderazgo y el Capital Psicológico en la Permanencia de los

Voluntarios

[The Influence of Leadership and Psychological Capital on the Permanence of Volunteers]

La literatura sobre liderazgo ha proporcionado pruebas convincentes de que los diferentes estilos de liderazgo exhibidos por los líderes pueden guiar a los empleados para alcanzar la competencia y ganar la confianza requerida para continuar con sus roles. Sin embargo, se sabe menos sobre el impacto potencial del liderazgo, particularmente el estilo de liderazgo transformador en la intención de permanencia de los voluntarios y su comportamiento real en el contexto de las organizaciones sin fines de lucro. Asimismo, el capital psicológico conocido como un recurso personal positivo es responsable de varios resultados laborales positivos; Sin embargo, los estudios son escasos para ampliar nuestro conocimiento sobre el papel del capital psicológico en la intención de los voluntarios de la permanencia y el comportamiento real. La investigación actual aborda esta brecha formulando varios objetivos y presentando un modelo que sitúa el liderazgo y el capital psicológico como sus centros de mesa. Los objetivos de este estudio incluyeron la investigación del papel del estilo de liderazgo transformacional y el capital psicológico en la predicción de la intención de los voluntarios de la permanencia y su comportamiento real, además, la investigación del papel mediador de los componentes del modelo de voluntarios de tres etapas. duración (TSMVD) (satisfacción, compromiso organizacional e identidad de rol) entre las relaciones de estilo de liderazgo transformacional, capital psicológico y la intención de permanencia. Se recogieron datos de voluntarios ($n = 417$) que prestaban servicios de voluntariado en diecisiete organizaciones sin fines de lucro de España, incluidos hombres (27%) y mujeres (73%), adultos mayoritarios ($M = 44$ años; S.D., 17.50). Los resultados del análisis de regresión

múltiple y el modelo de ecuaciones de estructura (SEM), específicamente a través de un análisis de ruta utilizando el Método de máxima verosimilitud revelaron que el estilo de liderazgo transformacional predijo la intención de permanencia directamente ($\beta = .11, p <.05$) pero también indirectamente a través del impacto mediador de la satisfacción ($\beta = .32, p <.001$) y el compromiso organizacional ($\beta = .44, p <.001$). Del mismo modo, el capital psicológico también predijo la intención de permanencia directamente ($\beta = .17, p <.05$) e indirectamente a través del impacto mediador de la satisfacción ($\beta = .10, p <.05$) y la identidad del rol ($\beta = .17, p <.05$). Los resultados también indicaron que la satisfacción predijo el compromiso organizacional y la identidad del rol. También el compromiso organizacional, junto con la influencia de la satisfacción, predijo la identidad del rol. Sin embargo, entre los tres componentes de la TSMVD, solo la identidad de rol predijo directa y positivamente la intención de permanencia y demostró ser un predictor relativamente más confiable ($\beta = .35, p <.001$). Este modelo explica el 18% de la varianza de la intención de permanencia. Todos los índices para el modelo fueron adecuados ($p <.05$) y afirmaron la adecuación del modelo a los datos. Además, un seguimiento después de un año de recolección de datos primarios reveló que el capital psicológico y la intención de permanencia surgieron como predictores directos del comportamiento real de los voluntarios. Sin embargo, el liderazgo transformacional no pudo predecir el comportamiento real directamente, en cambio, el análisis de ruta mostró que el liderazgo transformacional indirectamente predijo el comportamiento real de los voluntarios al influir en la intención que predijo aún más el comportamiento de continuidad. Al lado del papel inspirador y motivador del liderazgo transformacional, el capital psicológico también surgió como un predictor relativamente más fuerte, directo y consistente de la intención y el comportamiento real de los voluntarios. Los voluntarios que confían en sus recursos positivos son capaces de

continuar prestando servicios con confianza y optimismo como voluntarios mientras se recuperan de los obstáculos que interrumpen la continuidad de su trabajo prosocial. Curiosamente, la intención de permanencia siguió siendo el predictor más fuerte del comportamiento real de los voluntarios, que asume la responsabilidad de ofrecer un comportamiento de continuidad voluntario en una parte más sustancial y aumenta casi el setenta por ciento de posibilidades de que se produzca un comportamiento real. Además, este estudio contribuye a la teoría y práctica del voluntariado mediante la identificación de mecanismos que las organizaciones sin fines de lucro pueden emplear para maximizar el número de voluntarios que serán retenidos para desempeñar los roles que se les asignan. El estudio también analiza limitaciones e implicaciones prácticas.