

The impact of volunteer management practices on volunteer retention: the mediating role of volunteer motivation, An empirical study on volunteers in charities in Egypt

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Abstract

The main aim of this research is to investigate the impact of volunteer management practices on volunteer retention through the mediating role of volunteer motivation. Data has been collected through conducting an online questionnaire. A convenient sample is composed of 384 volunteers in the Egyptian charity organizations. The PLS-SEM has been used to analyze the impact of volunteer management practices on volunteer retention. The results reveal that there is a significant positive impact of volunteer management practices on volunteer motivation. In addition, there is a significant positive impact of volunteer motivation on volunteer retention. Moreover, the results indicate that volunteer management practices have a significant positive impact on volunteer retention. Finally, the results show that volunteer motivation mediates the impact of volunteer management practices on volunteer retention. Based on the research findings, volunteer-based organizations must use effective management practices to motivate volunteers and increase their retention.

Keywords

Volunteer Management Practices, Volunteer Recruitment, Volunteer Training, Volunteer Recognition, Volunteer Motivation, Volunteer Retention

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1. Introduction

There is a wide gap between people's needs and the available resources (Asah & Blahna, 2012) due to the economic, social and political problems (Mohan, 2016). Volunteering fosters the sense of responsibility for others and develops the job related skills for volunteers (Passeti et al., 2019). The success of any nonprofit organization is based on the volunteers' efforts (Wang & Wu, 2014). Volunteers donate their time, money and effort without expecting any return (Pham, 2019). However, many volunteers begin with great excitement, but slowly lose interest due to the poor volunteer management practices such as lack of training, lack of recognition and poor recruitment practices. (Love IV, 2009; Novcic, 2014). Consequently; the volunteers' motivation and retention will be reduced. (Clary et al., 1998; Finkelstein, 2008). The literature highlighted the importance of motivating volunteers (Carvalho & Sampaio, 2017) through effective recruitment, training and recognition practices (Cuskelly et al., 2006; Hager & Brudney, 2011). However, researches are still limited (Novcic, 2014). Subsequently, this research aims to investigate the impact of volunteer management practices on volunteer retention through volunteer motivation.

2. Conceptual background

2.1. Volunteer management practices

Effective volunteer management is essential for the success and sustainability of any volunteer-based organization (Kappelides et al., 2019; White, 2016). The management of volunteers varies from the paid employees (Ferreira et al., 2015). Volunteers work for no payment (White, 2016). They are free to decide when they work and how much time therefore; they dedicate for volunteering (Wisner et al., 2005). Nonprofit organizations do not have the power to influence the behavior of volunteers. Therefore, there is a need for special human resources management (HRM) practices for managing volunteers (Lynch & Smith, 2010). Volunteers often have different motivations, values and attitudes (Boezeman & Ellemers, 2009), so, managers usually adopt different ways to motivate them (Alfes et al., 2017). It is essential to decide which management practices are effective (Henderson & Sowa, 2018) to foster the spirit of volunteering as well as providing the required skills to perform their tasks (Alfes et al., 2017; Rogers et al., 2016). Many correlates of volunteer management have been found in the literature (Hoye et al., 2008). For instance, interviewing, placement, supervising and recognizing their contributions (Hager & Brudney, 2015), recruitment, screening, training, empowerment, teamwork, and recognition (Berardi & Rea, 2014), planning, work design, recruitment, screening, training, supervision, evaluation, motivation and recognition (Brudney & Meijs, 2014), planning, recruitment, screening, orienting, training and recognition (Cuskelly et al., 2006). However, management practices are internally consistent and complementary bundles that reinforce one another (Walk et al., 2019). Based on the exploratory study and the literature review recruitment, training and recognition were regarded of the most important volunteer management practices (Brun & Dugas, 2008; Masri & Abubakr,

2019;Novcic, 2014). Therefore, this research discusses three volunteer management practices which are recruitment, training and recognition as a bundle.

2.1.1. Volunteer recruitment

The quality of volunteers depends on the recruitment practices. Volunteer recruitment is simply defined as the process of attracting, identifying, selecting, and appointing the suitable volunteers (Decremer, 2018). To overcome volunteer dropout, there is a need for various ways of recruitment (Sozanská et al., 2004). Recruitment includes selecting volunteers, providing accessibility (McBride & Lee, 2012), replacing dropouts, attracting skilled volunteers (Brewis et al., 2010) and creating the environment that attracts and retains them (Handy & Cnaan, 2007). Volunteer manager should identify why volunteers are needed, what tasks should be done, and which skills are needed. It is essential to recruit suitable volunteers for suitable jobs (Wymer Jr & Starnes, 2001). General sources -for volunteer recruitment -through depending on the existing volunteers, mass media advertisements, meetings, and social gatherings, activities at public places, booths, e-mails, referrals and direct invitations (Howard, 2016). The HRM theory is most widely suggested for volunteer recruitment as it explains selection techniques, rules and regulations of employment (Pepper et al., 2013). Therefore, recruitment is selected to be one of volunteer management practices in this research.

2.1.2. Volunteer training

Nonprofit organizations should invest in developing volunteers (Dwiggins - Beeler et al., 2011). Newly recruited volunteers need trainings to get the required knowledge and skills needed (Vitner et al., 2008). Volunteer training is defined as a systematic and planned effort that provides volunteers with the required knowledge, skills, behaviors or attitudes (Mohan, 2016). Training may be costly and time-consuming, but lack of training can hinder the success of any organization (Ferreira et al., 2015). Most people volunteer to help their communities as well as acquire skills that can increase their opportunities for future employment (Hager & Brudney, 2011). They provide help to support underprivileged people, whether they are poor, sick, disabled, homeless, etc. For example, they provide services such as food, clothes, medicine, human development, education, surgery operations etc. (Sherra, 2017). Training makes volunteers feel that they are being invested that motivates them to continue (Leigh, 2019). Besides; training makes volunteers morale better and makes them feel more important, appreciated and needed. Training opportunities give volunteers positive experiences and develop their self-esteem and sense of achievement (Mason, 2016). Training can be explained through social learning theory which emphasizes the importance of observing and modeling the behaviors, attitudes, and emotional reactions of others, it means that people learn from observing other people (Ahmad et al., 2012). Therefore, it is selected to be one of the dimensions of volunteer management practices in this research.

2.1.3. Volunteer recognition

Volunteers need to feel appreciated (Rizzo, 2019). Volunteer recognition is generally defined as a non-monetary way to express the gratitude or the appreciation for their efforts, services and achievements (Ahn, 2018). Volunteers only need a tangible proof that their efforts are really appreciated (Luthans & Stajkovic, 2006). Recognition improves volunteers' identity and help the organization to retain talented volunteers (West & Pateman, 2016). There are general ways to recognize volunteers which are acknowledgment, empowerment, support, awards, promotions, recognition events, having fun, greeting cards and showing interest in their personal life (Howard, 2016), or mentioning their names in public reports (Stankiewicz et al., 2017), and thanking them (West & Pateman, 2016). Most volunteers prefer non-monetary recognition as it improves the individuals' psychological status (Montani et al., 2020). Recognition is based on Social cognitive theory which emphasizes the importance of perceived incentives, self-efficacy, and personal standards in explaining people's motivation (Bandura, 1999). Therefore, it is selected as one of the management practices in the current research.

2.2. Volunteer motivation

Understanding the volunteers' motivations help managers to get and retain volunteers (Pham, 2019). Volunteer motivation can be defined as the driving force that boosts the volunteers' behavior and directs them to enjoy volunteering (Decremer, 2018). The literature has highlighted that individuals volunteer to mentally, emotionally, psychologically and spiritually feel better (Landry, 2017). Volunteers are more motivated by intrinsic rewards like self-esteem, personal development, social networks, self-efficacy, sense of achievement, or potential job opportunities (Dwiggins - Beeler et al., 2011). However, the central motive behind volunteering is altruism as volunteers enjoy donating time to help others (Romney, 2016).

There are six primary categories for volunteer motivations of Clary and Snyder (1999) and Clary et al. (1998) which are values, understanding, social, career, protective and enhancement. These six categories will be adopted in this research as a bundle. *Values* are the volunteers' altruistic and humanitarian interest in need. *Understanding* refers to the volunteers' desire to gain new knowledge, skills and abilities or practice existing ones. *Social* describes the volunteers' appreciations for their relationship with others. *Career* focuses on the benefits that are related to the future career opportunities. *Protective* relates to how volunteering alleviates negative feelings. *Enhancement* describes how volunteering enhances the individuals' positive feelings, self-esteem, self-confidence and self-development (Clary et al., 1998). This research is based on social exchange theory, human motivation theory, motivation-hygiene theory, volunteer function inventory theory and organizational citizenship behavior theory. Social exchange theory (SET) is related to an exchange of intangible social costs and benefits (Haski-Leventhal & Cnaan, 2009). It suggests that individuals balance between their voluntary work and the degree that they perceive they are being rewarded (Mason, 2016). Theory of human motivation includes five levels of needs:

physiological, safety belonging and love, self and group esteem, and self-actualization. These can only be met through activities related to one's motives. Maslow's theory of human motivation is basic to understanding volunteers' motivation (Yeung, 2004). Maslow suggested that different individuals need different ways of management (White, 2016). Motivation-hygiene theory of Herzberg's (1966) assumed that people work for basic needs, or for personal development. He presented motivational factors like achievement, advancement, recognition, responsibility, growth and the work itself (Huck et al., 2011; White, 2016). Volunteer Function Inventory (VFI) is the most widely used scale to assess volunteer motivation. It is a measurement tool to understand why volunteers give their time to an organization and why they continue to volunteer (VanOverschelde, 2017). It considers the wants, needs, plans, and intentions of volunteers by measuring the six motivation functions (values, understanding, social, career, protective and enhancement) (West & Pateman, 2016). VFI is used to systemically identify and evaluate personal and social functions that influence an individual's desire to volunteer (Pham, 2019). Organizational Citizenship Behavior theory (OCB) is a discretionary individual behavior, not directly recognized by formal reward system, and that improves organizational performance. Seven common reasons were identified for the discretionary behaviors. These include sportsmanship, helping behavior, organizational compliance, organizational loyalty, individual initiative, self-development and civic virtue (White, 2016).

2.3. Volunteer Retention

There is a need to retain the existing experienced and skilled volunteers (Kappelides et al., 2019). Volunteer retention is defined as the organization's ability to keep volunteers longer (Graves, 2019). In addition, volunteer retention is considered a great challenge for nonprofit organizations as; any volunteer dropout is painful for both the organization and the volunteers (Glass, 2018; Walk et al., 2019). Consequently; retaining volunteers reduces the organizations' need for recruiting new volunteers, which is much more costly (Graves, 2019). Besides, the higher workload imposed on the existing volunteers as a result of the dropout of those who leave. Therefore, nonprofit organization should develop the strategies that can increase the retention of talented and experienced volunteers (Ferreira et al., 2015). The literature highlighted several reasons for volunteers' dropout (Konieczny, 2018) such as bad treatment, lack of motivation or indefinite roles and responsibilities (Graves, 2019), meaningless work (Cuskelly et al., 2006), or lack of recognition and training, (VanOverschelde, 2017). Retention can be achieved if volunteers feel welcomed and appreciated, the organizational mission and goals are clarified, ongoing feedbacks are provided, responsibilities and roles are outlined. Volunteers can also be retained by recognizing, appreciating and rewarding them (Howard, 2016). Therefore, strategies to keep volunteers motivated and retained should be developed (Garner & Garner, 2011).

3. Hypotheses development

3.1. Volunteer management practices and volunteer motivation

The literature has highlighted that volunteer management practices affects their motivation (Ahn, 2018). For instance, Zievinger & Swint (2018) indicated that training and recognition have a strong impact on volunteer motivations (Zievinger & Swint, 2018). Furthermore, Ferreira, Proença & Proença (2009) have confirmed that recruitment, training and rewarding volunteers influence their motivations and retention (Ferreira et al., 2009). Moreover, Nezhina et al. (2014) have indicated that better use of values and connections among volunteers attract and retain them (Nezhina et al., 2014). Besides, Peterson (2004) has revealed that recruitment strategies should be matched with volunteer motivation (Peterson, 2004). Also, Frendo (2017) has found that training enhance volunteers' motivations (Frendo, 2017). In addition, Al Mutawa (2015) has stated that volunteer training and recognition indirectly influence their retention through volunteer motivation and satisfaction (Al Mutawa, 2015). Moreover, Lowenberg (2018) has confirmed that training is a key element of volunteer motivation (Lowenberg-DeBoer & Akdere, 2018). Additionally, Ahn, (2018) has shown that recognition and rewards have a positive impact on volunteer motivation and intention to volunteer (Ahn, 2018). Further, Warner et al. (2011) states that the lack of volunteer recognition, decreases their motivations (Warner et al., 2011). Therefore, we propose the following hypotheses

H1: Volunteer management practices have a significant positive impact on volunteer motivation

H1a: Volunteer recruitment has a significant positive impact on volunteer motivation

H1b: Volunteer training has a significant positive impact on volunteer motivation

H1c: Volunteer recognition has a significant positive impact on volunteer motivation

3.2. Volunteer Motivation and volunteer retention

Prior researches have showed that understanding volunteer motivations increases their retention. For instance, Graves (2019) has found that engagement and enrichment opportunities increase the volunteer retention (Graves, 2019). Similarly, Glass, (2018) states that collaborative relationships, team motivations and strategic communication improved retention (Glass, 2018). Furthermore, Bryemah (2016) confirms that the lack of motivational incentives decrease retention (Bryemah, 2016). Additionally, Romney (2016) has shown that religious affiliation is a strong motivator toward volunteer retention (Romney, 2016). Moreover, Ferreira et al. (2015) states that there is positive relationship between motivation and intention to stay (Ferreira et al., 2015). In addition, Welty Peachey et al. (2014) reveals that volunteers' motivation increased their retention rate (Welty Peachey et al., 2014). Furthermore Garner and Garner (2011)

confirms that there is a positive relationship between the volunteers' motivations of and their retention (Garner & Garner, 2011). Besides, Dwiggins-Beeler et al. (2011) ensures that volunteer motivation increases their retention and intentions to recruit others (Dwiggins-Beeler et al., 2011). Moreover, Jiménez et al. (2010) states that the early volunteers' dropout is related to lower levels of motivation (Jiménez et al., 2010). Based on the foregoing evidence, it can be hypothesized that:

H2: volunteer motivation has a significant positive impact on volunteer retention

3.3. Volunteer management practices and volunteer retention

Several studies have stated that volunteer management practices affect volunteer retention. For instance, Cho et al. (2020) states there is a positive relationship between volunteer management practices and their intention to stay (Cho et al., 2020). Moreover, Walk et al. (2019) have found that training and recognition predicted volunteer retention (Walk et al., 2019). Similarly, Henderson and Sowa (2018) have indicated that training, performance management, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment influence volunteer retention (Henderson & Sowa, 2018). Additionally, Selden & Sowa (2015) have highlighted that the effective management practices improve the volunteers' retention (Selden & Sowa, 2015). Moreover, Wang and Wu (2014) have stated that volunteer management practices have a significant impact on volunteer retention (Wang & Wu, 2014). Also, Beirne and Lambin (2013) have confirmed that there is a direct relationship between volunteer management practices and volunteer retention (Beirne & Lambin, 2013). Besides, some studies have recommended that effective recruitment increases retention (Decremer, 2018; Manetti et al., 2015; Wymer Jr & Starnes, 2001). Other studies have revealed that volunteer training increases their retention (Cuskelly et al., 2006; Hager & Brudney, 2008; Newton et al., 2014; Zhou & Shang, 2011). Several studies have confirmed that volunteer recognition positively impacts their retention (Cho et al., 2020; Fallon & Rice, 2015; Gallus, 2017; McBride & Lee, 2012; Smith & Grove, 2017; Walk et al., 2019). Therefore, we propose the following hypotheses:

H3: Volunteer management practices have a significant positive impact on volunteer retention.

H3a: Volunteer recruitment has a significant positive impact on volunteer retention

H3b: Volunteer training has a significant positive impact on volunteer retention

H3c: Volunteer recognition has a significant positive impact on volunteer retention

3.4. Volunteer management practices, motivation and retention

The literature has shown that not only effective management practices can directly achieve volunteer retention but also, other factors such as commitment, satisfaction and motivation of volunteers. For instance, Zievinger & Swint (2018) have found that training and recognition have a strong impact on volunteer motivations and retention (Zievinger & Swint, 2018). Furthermore, Al-Mutawa (2015) has revealed that volunteer training and recognition indirectly influence volunteer retention through volunteer motivation and satisfaction (Al Mutawa, 2015). Moreover, Ferreira (2015) has confirmed that there is a positive relationship between volunteer management factors, motivation and intention to stay (Ferreira et al., 2015). Building upon the foregoing discussion, it can be hypothesized that:

H4: Volunteer motivation mediates the impact of volunteer management practices and volunteer retention.

Building upon the foregoing discussion, the research conceptual model has developed as shown in Figure (1) .

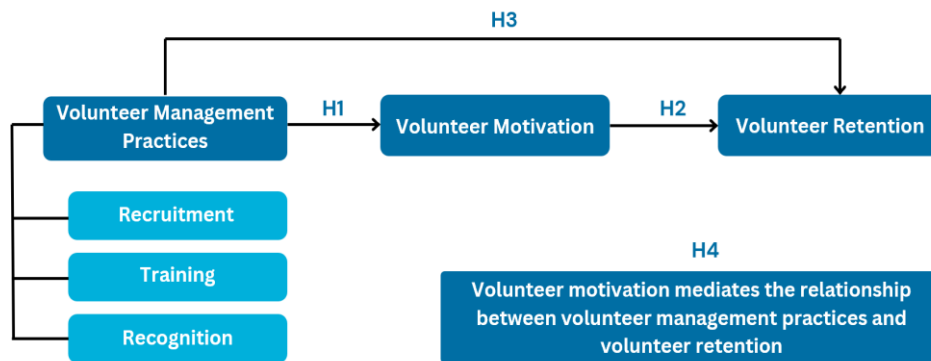


Figure (1) The research conceptual model

4. Research method

The research hypotheses have been tested through conducting a field study using a survey methodology for data collection. The primary source for data collection is the respondents' opinions based on the pre-designed questionnaire. Respondents are initially volunteers from various charity organizations in the Egyptian charity organizations.

4.1. Population and procedure

The target population is the volunteers in charity organizations in Egypt. According to the ministry of social solidarity website (2024), the total number of charity organizations in Egypt is 29796 (MOSS, 2024). The number of volunteers in Egypt is about 1,729,733 (UNV-report, 2018). Charity organizations provide help to support the underprivileged people, whether they are poor, sick, disabled, homeless, such as medicine, housing, food, clothes, education, etc. In other words, charity organizations support the government and complement its role in satisfying social, economic, cultural, health needs, etc (Sherra, 2017).

There is no adequate population frame available to pick a sample. Therefore, this research depends on the convenient sample method which is classified under the non-probabilistic sampling due to the large number of targeted volunteers that easily run into more than one million. As the population of this study is more than a million, a sample of 384 participants are meaningful (Krejcie & Morgan, 1970). the number of responses is 384 t 384 responses from volunteers in charities in Egypt. About 60 suspicious response patterns are excluded (Hair et al., 2014). Thus, the statistical analysis has been conducted using a sample size compose of 324 participants which is sufficient (Cohen, 1992). Table (1) shows the demographic characteristics of the sample.

4.2. Measurement

All research variables have been measured using multi-item scales that are developed and adapted from prior research. The scales for volunteer management practices are adopted from Cuskelly et al.'s (2006). The volunteer motivation scale has been drawn from Clary et al.'s (1998), and the volunteer retention scale is based on Hoyer et al.'s (2008). All items were measured using five-point Likert scale, from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree". However, some modifications are made to suit the requirements of the current research. Before conducting the main survey, the research instrument is validated by a pre-test and a pilot study. The pre-test included five HR professors who were asked to provide their comments on the initial instrument design, such as format, content, understandability, terminology, ease and speed of completion. Furthermore, a pilot study is performed to help clarify and identify questions that may not be meaningful to participants and to evaluate the data collection process.

Table 1. The profile of research sample

	Item	Frequency	Percent
Gender	Male	182	56.2%
	Female	142	43.8%
Age categories	Less than 20 yeas	13	4%
	From 20 to less than 30 years	197	60.8%
	From 30 to less than 40 years	102	31.5%
	From 40 to less than 50 years	12	3.7%
	Less than 20 yeas	13	4%
	From 20 to less than 30 years	197	60.8%
Education level	Secondary education	14	4.3%
	Upper intermediate education	7	2.2%
	Bachelor's degree	228	70.4%
	Postgraduate education	75	23.1%
	From 20 to less than 30 years	197	60.8%
Years of volunteering	New volunteer (Less than 6 monthes)	19	5.9%
	From 6 monthes to one year	19	5.9%
	From 1 to 2 years	87	26.9%
	From 2 to 4 years	109	33.6%
	From 4 to 6 years	22	6.8%
	More than 6 years	68	21.0%

4.3. Data analysis and results

This study is confirmatory in nature and its model is drawn on the basis of the findings of the previous empirical research. To assess the measurement model that has been presented in Figure. 1 to test research hypotheses, the partial least squares structural equation modelling (PLS-SEM) is used to estimate the path model using the statistical software SmartPLS, version 3.2.9 (Ringle et al., 2015). The two-step approach has been followed. First, measurement models are estimated using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to examine reliability and validity. Second, the structural model is analyzed to examine the overall model fit and to test the research hypotheses.

4.4. Measurement model

The first-order model is assessed for reliability, convergent validity and discriminant validity. First, convergent validity has been tested using the size of the outer loading, (λ), the indicator reliability (λ^2), and the Average Variance Extracted (AVE). The outer loading (λ) should be 0.708 or higher (Hair et al., 2014). The indicator reliability (λ^2) should be above 0.50. The Average Variance Extracted, (AVE) value should be 0.50 or higher (Hair et al., 2019; Hair et al., 2014). Internal consistency reliability is tested using composite reliability, (CR), which should be 0.70 or higher (Hair et al., 2014). Structural and measurement models' estimates are shown in Figure (2). Table (2) presents the PLS statistical findings related to the measurement model.

Table (2): PLS results for the measurement model

Constructs and indicators	<i>Convergent validity</i>						<i>Internal consistency reliability (CR)</i>	
	λ		λ^2		AVE		Before	After
	Before	After	Before	After	Before	After		
X1	Volunteer recruitment				0.695	0.729	0.964	0.967
X1_1	0.897	0.897	0.805	0.805				
X1_2	0.867	0.873	0.752	0.762				
X1_3	0.757	0.742	0.573	0.551				
X1_4	0.774	0.766	0.599	0.587				
X1_5	0.856	0.862	0.733	0.743				
X1_6	0.899	0.907	0.808	0.823				
X1_7	0.900	0.898	0.810	0.806				
X1_8	0.588	-	0.346	-				
X1_9	0.810	0.802	0.656	0.643				
X1_10	0.883	0.892	0.780	0.796				
X1_11	0.890	0.897	0.792	0.805				
X1_12	0.828	0.836	0.686	0.699				
X2	Volunteer recruitment				0.680	0.680	0.955	0.955
X2_1	0.830	0.830	0.689	0.689				
X2_2	0.835	0.835	0.697	0.697				
X2_3	0.889	0.889	0.790	0.790				
X2_4	0.859	0.859	0.738	0.738				
X2_5	0.829	0.828	0.687	0.686				

X2_6	0.907	0.907	0.823	0.823				
X2_7	0.731	0.731	0.534	0.534				
X2_8	0.729	0.729	0.531	0.531				
X2_9	0.827	0.827	0.684	0.684				
X2_10	0.794	0.794	0.630	0.630				
X3	Volunteer Recognition				0.634	0.634	0.924	0.924
X3_1	0.883	0.883	0.780	0.780				
X3_2	0.747	0.748	0.558	0.560				
X3_3	0.836	0.836	0.699	0.699				
X3_4	0.804	0.803	0.646	0.645				
X3_5	0.719	0.720	0.517	0.518				
X3_6	0.777	0.777	0.604	0.604				
X3_7	0.795	0.796	0.632	0.634				
M	Motivation				0.648	0.673	0.978	0.978
M_1	0.838	0.840	0.702	0.706				
M_2	0.791	0.793	0.626	0.629				
M_3	0.802	0.802	0.643	0.643				
M_4	0.871	0.871	0.759	0.759				
M_5	0.853	0.853	0.728	0.728				
M_6	0.729	0.727	0.531	0.529				
M_7	0.591	-	0.349	-				
M_8	0.656	-	0.430	-				
M_9	0.738	0.730	0.545	0.533				
M_10	0.723	0.714	0.523	0.510				
M_11	0.842	0.843	0.709	0.711				
M_12	0.807	0.807	0.651	0.651				
M_13	0.788	0.793	0.621	0.629				
M_14	0.716	0.718	0.513	0.516				
M_15	0.814	0.809	0.663	0.654				
M_16	0.836	0.837	0.699	0.701				
M_17	0.894	0.897	0.799	0.805				
M_18	0.851	0.856	0.724	0.733				
M_19	0.889	0.895	0.790	0.801				
M_20	0.820	0.823	0.672	0.677				
M_21	0.906	0.909	0.821	0.826				
M_22	0.801	0.804	0.642	0.646				
M_23	0.777	0.778	0.604	0.605				

N.B: λ stands for outer loadings; λ^2 denotes indicator reliability; AVE refers to average variance extracted; and finally, CR stands for composite reliability

Source: The researcher, based on the results of SmartPLS

Based on the results shown in Figure (2) and Table (2), the internal consistency reliability of all measures are supported, as the composite reliability (CR) values are greater than 0.70 for all constructs (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). This indicates that all outer loadings (λ) exceed the threshold value of 0.708. All indicators' reliability (λ^2) are above the required minimum level of 0.50. AVE for all constructs are greater than the generally accepted value of 0.50. These results prove the convergent validity of the constructs included in the model (Hair et al., 2014). Second, Discriminant validity is tested through making sure that the square root of AVE for each construct is larger than its correlation with the other constructs (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Table

(3) shows that every square root of AVE for each construct is larger than its correlations with the other constructs. Thus, all the constructs in the first-order model display acceptable discriminant validity.

Table (3): Correlations and discriminant validity

Constructs	Recruitment	Training	Recognition	Motivation	Retention	AVE
Recruitment	0.854					0.729
Training	0.799	0.825				0.680
Recognition	0.607	0.723	0.796			0.634
Motivation	0.499	0.646	0.667	0.820		0.673
Retention	0.578	0.723	0.683	0.742	0.845	0.714

Notes: AVE refers to average variance extracted". The square root of AVE values is shown on the diagonal; nondiagonal elements are the latent variable correlations.

Source: The researcher, based on the results of SmartPLS

Table (4) shows PLS results for hypotheses testing. It shows that all hypotheses are supported except for H1a and H3a. Volunteer motivation has been found to be determined by volunteer training (path coefficient= 0.404, $t= 4.629$, $p < 0.001$) and volunteer recognition (path coefficient= 0.424, $t= 4.643$, $p < 0.001$). These results support H1b and H1c. The results also show that volunteer retention is positively affected by volunteer motivation (path coefficient= 0.417, $t= 4.113$, $p < 0.001$), supporting H2. Regarding the relationship between volunteer management practices and volunteer retention, volunteer retention has been found to be determined by volunteer training (path coefficient= 0.332, $t= 4.059$, $p < 0.01$) and volunteer recognition (path coefficient= 0.161, $t= 2.102$, $p < 0.001$). These results support H3b and H3c.

Table (4): PLS results for Hypotheses testing

H	Path	Path coefficient	Standard Error	t value	-valuep	R ²	f ²	Rank	results
H _{1a}	Recruitment → Motivation	-0.081	0.083	0.982	0.326				Not Supported
H _{1b}	Training → Motivation	0.404**	0.087	4.629	< 0.001		0.090	2	Supported
H _{1c}	Recognition → Motivation	0.424**	0.091	4.643	< 0.001		0.173	1	Supported
						0.504			
H ₂	Motivation → Retention	0.417**	0.101	4.113	< 0.001		0.256	1	Supported
H _{3a}	Recruitment → Retention	0.006	0.076	0.082	0.935				Not Supported
H _{3b}	Training → Retention	0.332**	0.082	4.059	< 0.001		0.082	2	Supported
H _{3c}	Recognition → Retention	0.161*	0.077	2.102	0.036		0.031	3	Supported
						0.664			

Notes: ** and * refer to statistical significance at the 0.01 and 0.05 levels, respectively

Source: The researcher, based on the results of SmartPLS

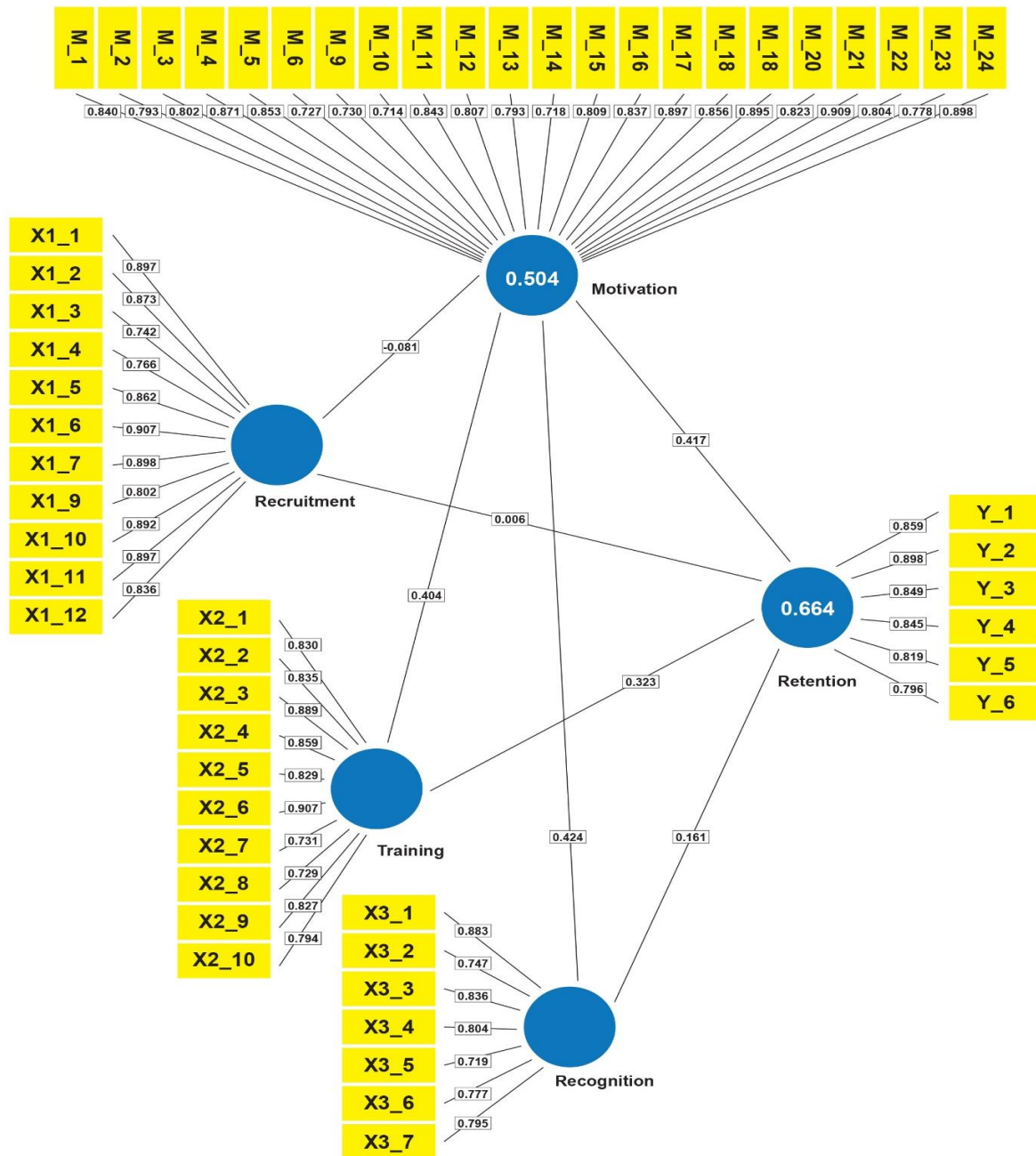


Figure (2): Structural and measurement models final estimates

Finally, Table (5) shows that the indirect impact of volunteer management practices (i.e., training and recognition) on volunteer retention via volunteer motivation is significant, at the 5% level. Therefore, it can be concluded that volunteer motivation mediates the impact of volunteer management practices (training and recognition) on volunteer retention. These results partially support hypothesis H4.

Table (5): PLS results for mediation analysis

Path			Indirect effect	Standard Error	t value	p-value	Hypotheses	
Training	→	Retention via Motivation	0.168**	0.054	3.147	0.002	H _{4b}	accepted
Recognition	→	Retention via Motivation	0.177**	0.066	2.661	0.008	H _{4c}	accepted

Notes: ** and * refer to statistical significance at the 0.01 and 0.05 levels, respectively

5. Conclusion and implication

The main aim of the current research is to investigate the impact of volunteer management practices on volunteer retention through the mediating role of volunteer motivation. The findings reveal that volunteer management practices have a significant positive impact on volunteer motivation. The results show that volunteer recognition has the strongest impact, followed by volunteer training. This finding is in line with (Ali & Ahmed, 2009; Danish & Usman, 2010). However, volunteer recruitment has no significant impact on volunteer motivation. This may be attributed to the fact that most charities do not necessarily match the volunteers' skills, experience and interests in specific roles. Therefore, the second finding reveals that the volunteers' motivation has a significant positive impact on volunteer retention. This finding agrees with (Ahn, 2018; Dwiggins-Beeler et al., 2011; Ferreira et al., 2015; Graves, 2019; Hoyer et al., 2008; Romney, 2016; Welty Peachey et al., 2014). The third finding has indicated that volunteer management practices have a significant positive impact on volunteer retention. The results indicated that volunteer training has the strongest impact, followed by volunteer recognition. This result is in agreement with (Bryemah, 2016; Cho et al., 2020; Cuskelly et al., 2006; Hager & Brudney, 2008; Waikayi et al., 2012; Walk et al., 2019). However, volunteer recruitment has no significant impact on volunteer retention. This may be due to the fact that recruitment activities do not continue with volunteers through their volunteering period in contrast to training and recognition. Finally, the results have shown that volunteer motivation mediates the impact of volunteer management practices on volunteer retention. This is consistent with (Al Mutawa, 2015; Ferreira et al., 2015; Zievinger & Swint, 2018). However, this research used different management practices and different contexts.

This is an important contribution for this research to existing literature on volunteer management practices. Volunteer-based organizations have to develop effective management practices that meet the volunteers' needs of. They should train their volunteers to prepare them for carrying out their goals. They should also recognize the volunteers' efforts to encourage them to do their best. Furthermore, the findings of this research have significant contributions to practice for both the volunteer and the manager. Understanding the factors that contribute to volunteer turnover allows nonprofit organizations to develop strategies to improve volunteer retention (Saksida et al., 2017; Walk et al., 2019). For instance, volunteer managers can now focus on volunteer recruitment, training and recognition to enhance the motivation of volunteers leading to more retention. However, this research has some limitations. First, data has

been collected from only volunteers in charities and the number of respondents is limited, so the results cannot be generalized. Second, only three volunteer management practices were used, namely, recruitment, training and recognition. Lastly, only one mediator which is volunteer motivation has been used in the relationship between volunteer management practices and volunteer retention. Other mediators such as volunteer commitment could be used in future research.

Based on the research findings, there are a few recommendations that help to increase volunteer retention among organizations. Organizations must motivate volunteers through effective management practices. Appreciation and acknowledgement of volunteers play an important role in increasing their retention rate. Additionally, managers should establish a clear definition of volunteer roles and responsibilities and ensure that volunteers receive proper training and recognition for achievements and good work. Moreover, volunteers are advised to take sufficient time to learn about the institution they will serve before deciding to volunteer to make sure that it reflects their values, interests, and goals. Furthermore, volunteers' motivations have not been studied in detail which leaves a future scope of studying them to get a better understanding of volunteers' motives. Further studies are recommended to provide a more comprehensive database about the volunteers' motivation and retention in other contexts. Future research might also explore the preferences, expectations and satisfaction of volunteers in terms of how they prefer to be managed. From another perspective, the HRM practices in organizations with high volunteer retention rates to be compared with those that experience high levels of volunteer turnover. This research has adopted quantitative method, however conducting more research using the qualitative method is needed.

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