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Enhancing volunteers capacity in all-volunteer nonprofit organizations: The role of volunteer leaders' reliance on effective management processes and (de)motivating leadership

Tom De Clerck¹ | Nathalie Aelterman² | Leen Haerens¹ | Annick Willem¹

Correspondence

Tom De Clerck, Department of Movement and Sport Sciences, Faculty of Medicine and Health Sciences, Ghent University, Watersportlaan 2, 9000 Ghent, Belgium.

Email: tom.declerck@ugent.be

Abstract

All-volunteer nonprofit organizations rely solely on the commitment of volunteers to support their operations. As such, it is important that leaders of these organizations, even though they are volunteers themselves, rely on professional skills in order to optimize their organization's volunteers capacity. In the present study, we investigated how volunteer leaders' reliance on effective management processes and a (de)motivating leadership style related to volunteers capacity. To this end, we relied on the Competing Values Framework (CVF) and Self-Determination Theory (SDT), respectively. Results revealed a positive (unique) association between (the sum score of) the management processes of the CVF models, as well as (the sum score of) the motivating leadership styles and volunteers capacity. Bivariate analyses indicated that the management processes of each CVF model (i.e., human relations model, internal process model, open system model, and rational goal model) and each motivating leadership style (i.e., an autonomy-supportive and a structuring leadership style) related positively to volunteers

¹Department of Movement and Sport Sciences, Faculty of Medicine and Health Sciences, Ghent University, Ghent, Belgium

²Department of Developmental, Personality and Social Psychology, Faculty of Psychology and Educational Sciences, Ghent University, Ghent, Belgium

capacity. These findings have important practical implications as they revealed that it is crucial for volunteer leaders to implement effective management processes, while adopting a motivating leadership style.

KEYWORDS

(de)motivating leadership, competing values framework, management processes, self-determination theory, volunteers capacity

1 | INTRODUCTION

Nonprofit organizations take an increasingly important role in the provision of services in society (Balduck, Lucidarme, Marlier, & Willem, 2015; Hall et al., 2003). Many of these organizations, including small grassroots associations (Sharpe, 2006), community services organizations, social movements, charitable organizations (Bartram, Cavanagh, & Hoye, 2017), and community sports and recreational clubs (Balduck et al., 2015; Breuer, Feiler, Llopis-Goig, & Elmose-Østerlund, 2017) rely solely on the commitment and dedication of volunteers to support their operations. Yet, in many of these all-volunteer nonprofit organizations, the optimization of the volunteers capacity, which is defined as the organization's ability to deploy volunteers within the organization, remains an ongoing challenge (Balduck et al., 2015; Breuer et al., 2017; Sharpe, 2006).

In order to optimize their organization's volunteers capacity, leaders of all-volunteer nonprofit organizations (e.g., the board of directors) are challenged to transform their organization, which is often embedded in an amateur ideology with little hierarchical power, into a more professionally managed entity (Ferkins & Shilbury, 2010). To this end, previous studies have suggested that these volunteer leaders need to rely on effective, professional management skills (i.e., knowledge about management processes such as the development of a mission and vision) (Ferkins & Shilbury, 2010; Hager & Brudney, 2011), as well as leadership skills (i.e., knowledge about how management processes can be installed in the organization) (Cameron & Quinn, 2006; Grabowski, Neher, Crim, & Mathiassen, 2015). Yet, although professional management in all-volunteer nonprofit organizations has begun to receive more attention in nonprofit management literature (Alfes, Antunes, & Shantz, 2017; Hager & Brudney, 2011), a comprehensive empirical analysis of management processes and leadership styles that volunteer leaders in all-volunteer nonprofit organizations can adopt is currently lacking in the extant literature. As such, this study contributed to the nonprofit management and leadership literature by examining whether and to what degree management processes, as well as the leadership styles volunteers leaders rely on, jointly relate to the volunteers capacity in nonprofit organizations that are fully driven by volunteer work.

2 | VOLUNTEERS CAPACITY AND CHALLENGES FOR ALL-VOLUNTEER NONPROFIT ORGANIZATIONS

Hall et al. (2003) defined organizational capacity as the ability of the organization to acquire resources necessary to fulfill its mission. In their framework, which was developed specifically

for the nonprofit sector, organizational capacity is subdivided into three main dimensions: human resources capacity (i.e., the ability to deploy human capital within the organization), financial capacity (i.e., the ability to develop and deploy financial capital within the organization), and structural capacity (i.e., the ability to deploy processes, practices, accumulated knowledge and support structures within the organization) (Hall et al., 2003).

In this study, we focused on human resources capacity, and more specifically on volunteers capacity, as previous studies referred to volunteers as the most important resources in nonprofit organizations (Brown, Andersson, & Jo, 2016), and especially in nonprofit organizations that are fully driven by volunteer work (Balduck et al., 2015; Breuer et al., 2017). Since all-volunteer nonprofit organizations operate within the context of difficult environmental changes including the aging population (Breuer et al., 2017) and increasing consumerist behavior in sport participation (Dijk, Slender, Meijburg, Waardenburg, & de Jong, 2017; Van der Roest, van Kalmthout, & Meijs, 2016), recruiting and retaining volunteers remains one of the biggest challenges for these organizations (Balduck et al., 2015; Bartram et al., 2017; Breuer et al., 2017). In most all-volunteer nonprofit organizations, strengthening the organization's volunteers capacity is the responsibility of a group of volunteer leaders, that is, the Board of Directors (see e.g., Hoye, 2006). Yet, some (mostly American) all-volunteer nonprofit organizations may (also) rely on leadership of individuals, for instance the president, to enhance the organization's volunteers capacity (see e.g., Schneider & George, 2011).

3 | MANAGEMENT PROCESSES AND VOLUNTEERS CAPACITY IN ALL-VOLUNTEER NONPROFIT ORGANIZATIONS: THE COMPETING VALUES FRAMEWORK

Given these challenges in all-volunteer nonprofit organizations, several studies have suggested that leaders of these organizations, although volunteers themselves, can successfully implement professional management practices in their organization. To this end, it is important that volunteer leaders adjust these practices to the specific all-volunteer nonprofit context. Many studies emphasized hereby the importance of applying traditional human resources practices such as effective recruitment and selection (Alfes et al., 2017; Hager & Brudney, 2011), training and development (Alfes et al., 2017; Cuskelly, Taylor, Hoye, & Darcy, 2006; Walk, Zhang, & Littlepage, 2019), and recognition of volunteers (Alfes et al., 2017; Cuskelly et al., 2006; Walk et al., 2019), or more up-to-date approaches including the Volunteer Stewardship Framework (see the recent study of Brudney, Meijs, & van Overbeeke, 2019).

Although these studies pointed to the importance of human resources practices in relation to volunteers capacity, a comprehensive insight into all management processes influencing volunteers capacity is needed to more strongly develop this capacity. Whereas several theoretical approaches such as the balanced scorecard (Kaplan & Norton, 1992) provide such an insight, we followed the suggestion of Brown et al. (2016) and Rojas (2000) that the Competing Values Framework (CVF; Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1981) is the most viable model to identify and cluster crucial management functions in (all-volunteer) nonprofit organizations.

The CVF consists of three dimensions: organizational focus, structure, and outcomes (means vs. ends) (Cameron & Quinn, 2006; Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1981). The first dimension (organizational focus) is represented in the horizontal axis of the CVF and ranges from internal (micro focus on the development of the people within the organization) to external orientation (macro focus on the development of the organization itself). The vertical axis of the CVF relates

to the second dimension (structure) and ranges from flexible and adaptable to stable and controlled (Cameron & Quinn, 2006). The intersection of the two axes corresponds to four main models: internal process model (internal, control), human relations model (internal, flexible), open system model (external, flexible), and rational goal model (external, control) (Cameron & Quinn, 2006). The third dimension (outcomes) applies to all four models and distinguishes organizations that focus on important processes such as planning and goal setting from those that emphasize final outcomes such as productivity and efficiency (Cameron & Quinn, 2006).

Although the CVF postulates that four distinctive management models (i.e., internal process model, human relations model, open system model, and rational goal model) exist, Shilbury and Moore (2006) found in their empirical CVF study in nonprofit Australian national Olympic sporting organizations that the management processes of the four CVF models are highly interdependent and may be better represented as components of one omnibus scale, that is, organizational effectiveness. Furthermore, Shilbury and Moore (2006) suggested that, for optimization of the volunteers capacity, it is important to not only engage with management processes related to the human relations model, but to find a balance between the management processes related to all four models.

In addition, whereas the CVF primarily focuses on effective management processes, various scholars suggest that for each management task volunteer leaders in (all-volunteer) nonprofit organizations engage in, they are also challenged to rely on motivating and effective leadership in order to involve and motivate volunteers in the organization (see e.g., Grabowski et al., 2015), an issue upon which we elaborate in the next section.

4 | LEADERSHIP IN ALL-VOLUNTEER NONPROFIT ORGANIZATIONS: A BRIEF OVERVIEW

Previous studies in all-volunteer nonprofit organizations have revealed that popular leadership constructs such as transformational/transactional leadership theory (Bass & Avolio, 1994), servant leadership theory (Greenleaf, 1977), and leader-member exchange theory (Dansereau Jr, Graen, & Haga, 1975), though mainly used in a professional (nonprofit) context (see e.g., Allen, Winston, Tatone, & Crowson, 2018; do Nascimento, Porto, & Kwantes, 2018; Hoye, 2006), could also prove to be highly effective in an all-volunteering context which is characterized by limited hierarchical power. Indeed, even though leaders in all-volunteer organizations can be considered proximal leaders, interacting closely with other volunteers in the organization, it is still crucial for volunteer leaders to rely on an effective leadership style in order to evoke beneficial volunteer outcomes. Especially transformational leadership theory, which refers to the leader's ability to motivate and to promote intellectual stimulation through inspiration (Schneider & George, 2011), has received considerable attention in (all-volunteer) nonprofit literature, relating volunteer leaders' transformational leadership to volunteers' satisfaction (Dwyer, Bono, Snyder, Nov, & Berson, 2013; Schneider & George, 2011), commitment (Catano, Pond, & Kelloway, 2001), performance (Rowold & Rohmann, 2009a), extra effort and effectiveness (Rowold & Rohmann, 2009b).

The latter study also revealed that the outcomes of transactional leadership, which is often contrasted with transformational leadership, are more diverse. A differentiation hastherefore been made between more beneficial, active forms of transactional leadership, which involves specifying standards for compliance before the behavior creates serious difficulties (i.e., active

management by exception), and more maladaptive, passive forms, which involves waiting until the behavior has caused problems before taking actions (i.e., passive management by exception) (Rowold & Rohmann, 2009b).

More recently, also servant leadership theory and leader-member exchange (LMX) theory have received growing attention in nonprofit literature. Servant leadership theory, which conceptually overlaps with transformational leadership theory, refers to a leader's desire to motivate and guide followers, offer hope, and provide welfare and growth through established quality relationships (Schneider & George, 2011). LMX theory focuses on the two-way relationship between leaders and followers, and its underlying assumption is that organizational success can be facilitated by high quality leader-member exchanges (Dansereau Jr et al., 1975).

Previous studies have confirmed the benefits of servant leadership and LMX in an all-volunteering context for respectively volunteers' motivation, satisfaction, commitment, and intentions to stay in the organization (Erdurmazlı, 2019; Schneider & George, 2011); and volunteers' job satisfaction and intentions to stay with the organization (Bang, 2011).

5 | LEADERSHIP IN ALL-VOLUNTEER NONPROFIT ORGANIZATIONS: THE CENTRAL ROLE OF BASIC HUMAN NEEDS

When investigating the association between the leadership styles and volunteer outcomes, many studies have pointed to the important (mediating) role of the basic human needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness, hereby relying on Self-Determination Theory (SDT; Deci & Ryan, 2000). an influential meta-theory on human needs and motivation. The need for autonomy refers to volition and ownership, competence to feelings of effectiveness, and relatedness to the connectedness to important others (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Previous studies in a volunteering context have shown that the satisfaction of these basic psychological needs relates to volunteers' work satisfaction (Oostlander, Güntert, & Wehner, 2014) and work engagement (Haivas, Hofmans, & Pepermans, 2013). In contrast, frustration of the need for autonomy (feeling pressured), competence (doubting own capabilities to perform well), and relatedness (getting the idea that important others dislike you), was negatively related to volunteers' engagement (Sheptak & Menaker, 2016).

Whereas within leadership literature SDT has mostly been used as theoretical framework to investigate the (mediating) effects of basic human needs, recent literature has increasingly advocated toward SDT's applications for leadership. Specifically, SDT offers a comprehensive and integrated view on how social agents with leadership positions in different contexts (see Ryan and Deci (2017) for an overview), including for-profit organizations (Deci, Olafsen, & Ryan, 2017), and organizations working primarily with volunteers (Oostlander et al., 2014), can support or thwart basic human needs. As such, we adopt Self-Determination as a theoretical framework to study leadership styles in all-volunteer nonprofit organizations.

6 | LEADERSHIP IN ALL-VOLUNTEER NONPROFIT ORGANIZATIONS: A SELF-DETERMINATION THEORY APPROACH

SDT suggests that leadership styles can be autonomy-supportive versus controlling, structuring versus chaotic, and relatedness-supportive versus relatedness-rejective, hereby supporting or

thwarting the others' need for autonomy, competence, and relatedness, respectively. When being *autonomy-supportive*, leaders adopt a curious and flexible attitude, which allows them to be responsive to other people's interests, preferences, and ideas (Ryan & Deci, 2017; Slemp, Kern, Patrick, & Ryan, 2018). Key components include the provision of choice, consideration of other people's personal preferences, interests and wishes, creation of opportunities to show initiatives, and providing significant rationales (Bidee et al., 2013; Ryan & Deci, 2017). An autonomy-supportive leadership style is contrasted with a *controlling leadership style*, which relates to the reliance on a narrow-minded attitude, hereby imposing a specific, preconceived way of thinking upon others (Ryan & Deci, 2017; Slemp et al., 2018). Controlling strategies include external control such as threatening with sanctions, shouting, intimidating, pressuring and using strong language, and internal control such as the use of guilt-inducing strategies (Aelterman et al., 2019; Ryan & Deci, 2017).

A structuring leadership style is evident when leaders align activities with other people's skills, and give guidance and direction so that others feel that they can successfully carry out these activities (Ryan & Deci, 2017; Vansteenkiste et al., 2012). Key features of a structuring leadership style include setting and monitoring of appropriate guidelines and expectations in the learning process, offering challenging tasks, providing step-by-step directives, and giving confidence and constructive feedback (Bidee et al., 2013; Vansteenkiste et al., 2012). When being chaotic, on the other hand, leaders' behavior is unpredictable and inconsistent with others people's pace of development and growth potential, making it confusing for other people to know how they can develop their skills (Ryan & Deci, 2017). A chaotic leadership style is related to a permissive and laissez-faire attitude (Ryan & Deci, 2017).

When adopting a *relatedness-supportive leadership style*, leaders interact intensively with others, hereby showing care and concern (Ryan & Deci, 2017). However, when leaders are *relatedness-rejective*, they communicate with others in an unpleasant and a cold fashion (Ryan & Deci, 2017). Yet, because SDT acknowledges that important elements of a relatedness-supportive style can be found in an autonomy-supportive style (Ryan & Deci, 2017), the necessity to examine the impact of a volunteer leaders' relatedness-supportive (and -rejective) leadership style can be considered less pressing and urgent. As such, we focused on an autonomy-supportive, a structuring, a controlling, and a chaotic leadership style in this study.

7 | THE ROLE OF MANAGEMENT PROCESSES AND (DE) MOTIVATING LEADERSHIP STYLES IN ALL-VOLUNTEER NONPROFIT ORGANIZATIONS: GAPS AND UNDERSTUDIED ISSUES

Significant progress has been made to understand the relevance of management processes, motivating (or need-supportive), and demotivating (or need-thwarting) leadership styles in organizations that are fully driven by volunteer work. Yet, we identified six gaps and understudied issues in the nonprofit and voluntary literature.

First, although all-volunteer organizations have received more attention in the recent non-profit literature, more research in diverse all-volunteer settings is needed to understand how volunteer leaders can take up the challenge to manage and lead their organization. As such, in this study, we focused on this issue in the (relatively) underexplored area of recreational sports clubs.

Second, whereas previous studies in an all-volunteer setting revealed the importance of human resources processes in relation to volunteers capacity, a comprehensive view on all management processes correlating with volunteers capacity, which is needed to more strongly develop this capacity, is lacking.

Third, most SDT studies in an organizational context (including the volunteering context) focused almost exclusively on the importance of an autonomy-supportive leadership style (see Slemp et al., 2018, for a review). In this study, we adopted a more holistic approach by studying the importance of four leadership styles, that is, an autonomy-supportive, a structuring, a controlling, and a chaotic leadership style, for volunteers capacity. Hereby, we consider, consistent with previous studies (see e.g., Vansteenkiste et al., 2012), an autonomy-supportive and a structuring leadership style to be components of a motivating (or need-supportive) leadership style, and a controlling and chaotic leadership style components of a demotivating (or need-thwarting) leadership style.

Fourth, an integrated insight into the relevance of management processes and the leadership style in all-volunteer nonprofit organizations, which is critical to better understand their (inter)relations, and possible interaction effects, is currently lacking.

Fifth, to our knowledge, no research has investigated the association between leadership and volunteers capacity, although its optimization is a key challenge in many nonprofit organizations, and especially in nonprofit organizations that rely entirely on volunteers for their operations and management.

Sixth, many studies on leadership in (all-volunteer) nonprofit organizations used generic scales to measure leadership styles. In these questionnaires, items are formulated in such a non-specific way that it remains unclear to what management situation they relate to. As such, we developed a vignette-based questionnaire to measure the leadership style of volunteer leaders in relation to a broad variety of concrete management situations. This vignette-based approach was inspired by previous work in the context of education (see Aelterman et al., 2019).

8 | PRESENT STUDY

The present study aimed to fill these gaps and understudied issues by providing a comprehensive insight into the importance of effective management processes related to the CVF models and (de)motivating leadership for volunteers capacity in all-volunteer nonprofit organizations. In this study, we focused on membership-based nonprofit and voluntary sports clubs, in which strengthening the volunteer capacity is the direct responsibility of the Board of Directors (Ferkins & Shilbury, 2010). The board consists of volunteer board members, and can be considered the leadership entity of nonprofit and voluntary sports clubs, with its members sharing the responsibility to lead the organization. As such, in this study, we investigated the associations between the board's reliance on effective management processes related to the CVF models and (de)motivating leadership styles, and volunteers capacity. To this end, we relied on the perceptions of board members.

We formulated the following research questions and hypotheses (see Figure 1). First, we investigated the unique association between (the sum score of) the management processes related to the CVF models (i.e., organizational effectiveness) and volunteer capacity. Furthermore, we relied on bivariate correlations to investigate how the management processes of each CVF model related separately to volunteers capacity. Since our literature review suggested that, in order to optimize their organization's volunteers capacity, board members can effectively

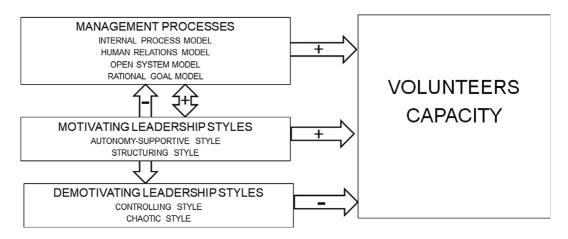


FIGURE 1 Hypothesized model

focus on the management processes of each of the four CVF models, we expected that board members of nonprofit and voluntary sports clubs scoring high on the management processes of each one of the four models would report a higher volunteers capacity (hypothesis 1).

Second, we studied the unique association between the board's motivating (or need-supportive) and demotivating (or need-thwarting) leadership styles and volunteer capacity. In addition, we relied on bivariate correlations to investigate how each component of a motivating leadership style (i.e., autonomy support and structure), and a demotivating leadership style (i.e., control and chaos) related to volunteers capacity. Based on SDT studies indicating that need satisfaction related positively to volunteer outcomes (Haivas et al., 2013; Oostlander et al., 2014), whereas the opposite is true for need frustration (Sheptak & Menaker, 2016), we expected that a motivating (or need-supportive) leadership style and a demotivating (or need-thwarting) leadership style would be, respectively, positively (hypothesis 2a) and negatively (hypothesis 2b) associated with volunteers capacity.

Finally, we also hypothesized that the association between the management processes and volunteers capacity would be more fully actualized if it would be coupled with a motivating leadership style (hypothesis 3a), and the opposite would be true if management processes would be coupled with a demotivating leadership style (hypothesis 3b) (interaction effects). In addition, we explored possible interaction effects between a motivating leadership style and a demotivating leadership style.

9 | METHOD

9.1 | Sample and procedure

Data for our research were collected in nonprofit and voluntary sports clubs located in Flanders, Belgium. In the Flanders region, approximately 24,000 sports clubs are offering sports such as football (29%), cycling (10%), volleyball (7%), and martial arts (7%), comprising around 1,400,000 members (Vos et al., 2012). Yet, only approximately 35% of these sports club have a formal, legal structure (2020, March 4, retrieved from https://www.sport.vlaanderen/kennisplatform/sportclubs). Like in most Western European countries, most of these sports

clubs are fully driven by volunteer work, having no paid staff or professional management. In Flanders, approximately 336,000 volunteers are active in Flemish sports clubs, with the sport sector being the sector in which most volunteers are involved (27.6% of the volunteers) (Thibaut & Scheerder, 2018).

In order to recruit sports clubs for the present study, details of our research and a call to participate were included in the monthly newsletter of the Flemish Sports Federation, the umbrella federation of all Flemish sports federations. We mentioned in our call that we were looking for ambitious sports clubs with a formal, legal structure who were willing to take part in our study. Ambitious sports clubs were defined as sports clubs with intentions or aspirations to develop, grow, and improve the sports club and to seek resources necessary to achieve the aspired mission (Balduck et al., 2015). Thirdy-eight sports clubs with variable sizes, including small clubs with less than 100 members (8%), middle-sized clubs with between 100 and 250 members (21%), and large clubs with more than 250 members (71%), providing various sports disciplines such as football, tennis, volleyball, and gymnastics in different areas in Flanders, responded to our call. These sports club rely entirely on volunteers for their operations and management.

When sports clubs displayed interest to participate, the researchers first orally explained the details of the research in the Board of Directors. Board members then received a personalized link to the online questionnaire in an invitation e-mail, sent by the president of the sports club. Board members filled in all questions, no missing values were present in our study. In total, 153 board members (63.0% men; Mage = 44.88 SD = 11.24) of 38 sports clubs were involved in our research. Most board members had been active in the board for many years (M = 8.32 SD = 8.45).

9.2 | Measures

In our study, all measures were based on the perceptions of board members in nonprofit and voluntary sports clubs. Specifically, we asked each board member to reply individually to a range of questions regarding their sports club's volunteer capacity, and the board's reliance on management processes and (de)motivating leadership styles. The questionnaires were pilot tested in two sports clubs. The remarks and comments of the board members were used to reduce the number of questions and clarify some of the items. The final surveys are presented below.

9.2.1 | Volunteers capacity

In order to assess the volunteers capacity, valid and reliable (Dutch-language) questionnaire items developed by Balduck et al. (2015) were used. Volunteer board members capacity was measured with six items such as 'The sports club has sufficient board members to execute all tasks'. Volunteer coaches capacity was measured with three items, such as 'The sports club has enough coaches at its disposal'. Volunteers (for daily tasks) capacity was measured with three items such as 'The sports club has sufficient supporting volunteers during competitions'. Youth trainers capacity (included in the original questionnaire) was not included in our study since some sports clubs in our sample did not have a youth division. All items were rated on a 7-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (does not describe my sports club at all) to 7 (does describe

my sports club extremely well). Reliability coefficient of the volunteers capacity scale assessed by Cronbach's Alpha was excellent (.88).

9.2.2 | Management processes related to the CVF models

In order to assess the management processes related to the CVF models, we developed a Dutch-language survey which was derived from an English-language questionnaire of Shilbury and Moore (2006). The latter was developed in nonprofit Australian national Olympic sporting organizations and consisted of 26 items relating to the means, and 40 items relating to the ends of the CVF models. As Australian national Olympic sporting organizations, in contrast to (most) Flemish nonprofit and voluntary sports clubs, are professionally structured and managed organizations, we could not use the full version of the questionnaire. Instead, we retained 18 items that were logically related to management processes (i.e., the means) in nonprofit and voluntary sports clubs and rephrased these items (and translated them in Dutch) so that they would reflect the context of nonprofit and voluntary sports clubs. For the development of this questionnaire, we were advised by the Flemish Sports Federation, who are experts in sport management. All items were rated on a 7-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (does not describe my board at all) to 7 (does describe my board extremely well).

In order to explore the factor structure of these items, an exploratory factor analysis (EFA; maximum likelihood extraction method with Promax rotation) was used. This EFA yielded four reliable factors, explaining 54% of the variance (see Table 1).

Only items with a loading higher than .35 on their corresponding factor were retained (DiStefano, Zhu, & Mindrila, 2009). The first factor was labeled 'internal process model' with high loadings of six items associated with (formal) communication planning, monitoring, and evaluation. The second factor consisted of five items related to maintaining close relationships with the external environment and financial growth, and was labeled 'open system model'. The third factor comprised of three items related to the establishment of a business plan and organizational goals and was labeled 'rational goal model'. The fourth factor, labeled as 'human relations model' consisted of four items tapping into the establishment of a recognition system and training system for volunteers, and the involvement of stakeholder groups in the sports club's management. Internal reliabilities of each of the management processes related to the CVF models assessed by Cronbach's Alpha were all good, ranging from .76 (human relations model) to .89 (rational goal model). Also the omnibus scale, 'management processes', consisting of the management processes of the open system model, rational goal model, internal process model, and human relations model, had an excellent internal reliability ($\alpha = .92$).

9.2.3 | Board's (de)motivating leadership style

In order to measure the board's (de)motivating leadership style, we developed a pool of 16 vignettes (in Dutch) that described situations related to each model of the CVF. For each situation, the board members responded how the board would deal with this situation (i.e., in a motivating or demotivating way). The development of these situations and corresponding motivating or demotivating leadership styles was conducted by panel of experts in SDT and sport management. As an illustration, leadership styles related to a situation of the open system

TABLE 1 Factor-structure of exploratory factor analysis (maximum likelihood extraction method with Promax rotation)

	Factor			
	1	2	3	4
The board has a clear internal communication plan	.771	173	.109	.082
has a clear external communication plan	.714	.079	.021	.016
follows the progress of actions that have been set out	.548	.119	.130	.006
conducts an annual assessment of the sports club's operations	.557	.020	.109	.013
evaluates the sport season together with the coaches, officials	.787	.046	098	.049
implements new communication technologies	.529	.130	.077	081
maintains close relationships with the government agencies	219	.855	.133	.111
\dots maintains close relationships with the professional environment (e.g., sponsors)	.241	.593	.082	123
maintains close relationships with similar sporting organizations	.317	.642	261	063
makes efforts to recruit volunteers for special events	.000	.377	.092	.040
is seeking alternative sources of income	016	.570	020	.035
establishes a mission and vision	.073	.130	.686	105
establishes strategic goals	.141	148	.914	.011
establishes operational goals and actions	036	.031	.921	024
has a clear recognition system for coaches and officials	.125	003	035	.648
has a clear recognition system for volunteer administrators	054	030	138	.828
has a clear policy on training courses for coaches and officials	.059	.144	.121	.446
involves internal stakeholders in het sports club's management	.068	.073	.211	.494

Note: Bold values indicate which items each factor is composed of.

model 'The board is confronted with expectations of stakeholder groups such as volunteers, volunteer coaches ...' were 'The board enters in dialogue with the stakeholder groups and asks how the board can meet their expectations' (autonomy-supportive), 'The board answers specific questions regarding the current sports club's management' (structuring), 'The board uses strict language in order to make clear that they should not express expectations' (controlling) and The board does not undertake any action and hopes that all stakeholder groups remain satisfied' (chaotic).

Other situations included in the questionnaire were 'The board establishes a business plan' (rational goal model), 'The board organizes a meeting to evaluate the sports club's activities' (internal process model) and 'There is tension between important stakeholders (such as volunteer coaches, volunteers, members ...) in the sports club' (human relations model). For each of these vignettes, 4 to 10 types of leadership behaviors of the board were described resulting in a total of 119 different items, with separate items corresponding to an autonomy-supportive (n = 32), a structuring (n = 33), a controlling (n = 25), or a chaotic (n = 29) leadership style. For each of the items, board members were asked to indicate to what extent the leadership behavior described what the board would do in that specific situation by rating a 7-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (does not describe my board at all) to 7 (does describe my board extremely well).

Based on a series of Multi-Dimensional Scaling analyses (see Aelterman et al., 2019) and content inspection of the items, we retained a minimum of two items relating to each model of the CVF for the current study. The total numbers of items ranged from eight items (structuring leadership style) to 10 items (autonomy-supportive and chaotic leadership style). Internal consistencies of the four scales assessed by Cronbach's Alpha were all excellent and ranged from .81 (controlling leadership style) to .87 (autonomy-supportive and chaotic leadership style). The internal consistencies of the variables motivating leadership style (α = .91) and demotivating leadership style (α = .88), consisting of an autonomy-supportive and a structuring leadership style, and the controlling and chaotic leadership style, respectively, were also excellent.

9.3 | Data analysis

Prior to the data analyses, we conducted a power analysis using SAS power and sample size.

Next, descriptive statistics were calculated to provide an overview of the means and standard deviations of all study variables, and correlations coefficients among these variables. Repeated measures tests were conducted to analyze the differences between (the means of) these variables.

Finally, hierarchical regression analyses (SPSS version 25) were conducted, with volunteers capacity (as perceived by board members) serving as dependent variable, age, sex, and number of years active as board members as covariates, and the management processes related to the CVF models and motivating and demotivating leadership styles (as perceived by board members) as predictors. Covariates, predictors, and interactions effects were entered in the regression model in three steps.

In the first step, individual characteristics of board members, that is, age, sex, and number of years active as board member, were inserted in the model as covariates.

Subsequently, in the second step, the predictors (i.e., management processes, motivating (leadership) styles, and demotivating (leadership) styles) were added to the regression model. Since the variables in the regression model were sum scores of the management processes related to the four CVF models and (de)motivating leadership styles, we also relied on bivariate correlations to investigate how each CVF model and (de)motivating leadership style related separately to volunteers capacity

In the third step, we examined two-way interactions between the management processes and the motivating and demotivating leadership style. We also explored an interaction effect between the motivating and demotivating style by adding this interaction variable to the model. In this step, we also checked for multicollinearity using variance inflation factors (VIFs). Large VIF values (>3) indicated a high degree of multicollinearity among the independent variables. The level of significance was for all statistical analyses defined as lower than .05.

In a set of supplementary analyses, we also tested whether there were issues of common method variance, hereby relying on the Harman's one-factor test (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). All self-report indicators used to measure the independent and dependent variables were entered into an exploratory factor analysis, using unrotated principal axis factoring analysis to determine the number of factors that are necessary to account for the variance in the variables. If a substantial amount of common method variance is present, either (a) a single factor will emerge from the factor analysis, or (b) one general factor will account for the majority of the covariance among the variables. Moreover, all variables were loaded on one factor to examine the fit of the confirmatory factor analysis model. If common method variance

is largely responsible for the relations among the variables, the one-factor CFA model should fit the data well. To evaluate the fit of the model being tested, the Comparative Fit Index (CFI); the Root Mean Squared Error of Approximation (RMSEA), and the Standardized Root Means Square Residual (SRMR) were selected, with values above .90 for CFI, close to .06 and below for RMSEA, and close to .09 and below for SRMR indicating an acceptable fit (see e.g., Kline, 2005).

10 | RESULTS

An a priori power analysis indicated that with a desired power of .80, an alpha level of. 05, an estimated effect size of .40, and a total of eight predictors (including covariates and interactions) (full model, see Fig.1), we would need a sample at least 128 participants. The current sample size meets this requirement. A post hoc power analysis further indicated that with the current sample size of 153 board members, considering an alpha level of .05, eight predictors (full model), and $R^2 = .40$, the current set of regression analyses yielded sufficient power (i.e., 0.88) to detect significant effects regarding our research questions and hypotheses.

Table 2 shows the means, standard deviations, and correlations among all variables.

A repeated measures test revealed significant differences between the human relations model and the internal process model, F(1,152)=6.72, p<.05, revealing that board members scored higher on the human relations model (M=5.59; SD = 1.12) than on the internal process model (M=5.37; SD = 1.14). No other differences between management processes were found. In addition, repeated measures analyses revealed differences between the motivating leadership styles, F(1,152)=66.52, p<.001, and demotivating leadership styles, F(1,152)=41.40, p<.001, with board members indicating that they perceived their leadership style as more autonomy-supportive (M=5.47; SD = 0.80) than structuring (M=5.01; SD = 0.95), and more controlling (M=2.75; SD = 0.92) than chaotic (M=2.27; SD = 0.89).

Next, we proceeded with hierarchical regression analyses (see Table 3).

First, we entered gender, age, and number of years active as board member as covariates in the regression model. These variables did not significantly relate to volunteers capacity. R^2 was not significant.

In the second step, we added the predictors management processes, motivating (leadership) styles, and demotivating (leadership) styles to the regression model. These variables added to the explanation of the variance in volunteers capacity (R^2 change = 0.37, p < .001). Results revealed, in line with hypothesis 1, a significant positive relation between management processes and volunteers capacity (β = 0.48, p < .001). Bivariate correlations further revealed that management processes of each of the four CVF models were significantly related with volunteers capacity, which was (also) consistent with hypothesis 1.

Furthermore, a motivating leadership style was, as hypothesized, significantly positively related to volunteers capacity ($\beta=0.20,\ p<.05$) (hypothesis 2a). Bivariate correlations indicated, (also) consistent with hypothesis 2a, that both an autonomy-supportive and a structuring leadership style were positively related to volunteers capacity. In contrast, our data did not provide support for hypothesis 2b as a demotivating leadership style was not significantly related to volunteers capacity, although a chaotic leadership style was negatively correlated with volunteers capacity.

TABLE 2 Descriptive statistics and correlations among study variables (valid n for all variables = 153)

Variables	M	SD	1	2	3	4	ĸ	9	7	∞	6	10	11 12
1. Volunteers capacity	5.00	0.95											
2. Open system	5.44	0.99	.43**										
3. Rational goal	5.47	1.35	.50**	.52**									
4. Human relations	5.59	1.12	.39**	.48**	.52**								
5. Internal processes	5.37	1.14	**09.	.63**	**89.	.55**							
6. Autonomy support	5.47	08.0	.37**	.43**	.32**	.42**	.47**						
7. Structure	5.01	0.95	.56**	.52**	.65**	**09.	**89.	**69.					
8. Control	2.75	0.92	90:	.00	60:	.05	90.	31**	00				
9. Chaos	2.27	0.89	37**	37**	45**	41**	46**	55**	59**	.47**			
10. Management processes	5.45	0.93	**09.	**08.	.81**	.76**	**06.	.51**	.75**	.07	51**		
11. Motivating styles	5.26	0.79	.51**	.51**	.52**	.55**	.62**	.92**	.91**	17*	62**	**89:	
12. Demotivating styles	2.50	0.77	19*	20*	22**	22**	24**	50**	36**	.85**	.87**	27**	47**

 $^*p < .05.$ $^{**}p < .01.$

TABLE 3	Hierarchical	regression model	predicting volun	teers capacity

	Volunteers capacity					
	Step 1 Step 2		Step 3			
	B (SE)	β	B (SE)	β	B (SE)	β
Intercept	4.77 (0.34)		1.01 (0.67)		0.81 (0.70)	
Gender	0.28 (0.16)	0.14	0.07 (0.14)	0.04	0.06 (0.14)	0.03
Age	0.00 (0.01)	0.03	0.00 (0.01)	-0.03	0.00 (0.01)	-0.03
Years board member	0.00 (0.01)	0.02	-0.01 (0.01)	-0.07	-0.01 (0.01)	-0.08
Management processes (MP)			0.49 (0.09)***	0.48***	0.53 (0.10)***	0.52***
Motivating styles (MS)			0.24 (0.12)*	0.20*	0.25 (0.12)*	0.21*
Demotivating styles (DS)			0.05 (0.09)	0.04	0.03 (0.10)	0.02
MP * MS					0.08 (0.10)	0.09
MP * DS					0.00 (0.13)	0.00
MS * DS					-0.05 (0.13)	-0.04
R^2	0.02 (0.95)		0.39 (0.76)***		0.39 (0.76)***	
R ² change			0.37***		0.00	
F(df)	0.98 (3,149)		15.20 (6,146)***		10.32 (9,143)***	

Note: Bold values show the significance of the values in the table.

In the third step, we added two-way interactions between the management processes, and a motivating and demotivating leadership style, and between a motivating and demotivating leadership style, to the regression model. However, these interaction effects were not statistically significant. As such, neither hypothesis 3a nor hypothesis 3b were confirmed. The associations between management processes and a motivating leadership style, and volunteers capacity remained significant, as in the previous step. The VIFs of all independent variables were < 2, revealing that multicollinearity was not an issue in our model (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2014).

In a set of supplementary analyses, common method bias was examined using Harman's single factor test. After performing an exploratory factor analysis on all 67 items, 16 factors with eigenvalues near or greater than one emerged and no single factor accounted for more than 26% of the variance. When the number of factors was held fixed at one, this factor accounted for 26% of the variance. Thus, no general factor was apparent. Moreover, the confirmatory factor analysis showed that the single-factor model did not fit the data well, $\chi^2(2,144) = 5,527.84, p < .001$; RMSEA = .10; CFI = .43; SRMR = .11. These results indicated that common method variance was not of great concern and thus unlikely to confound the interpretations of results.

DISCUSSION 11 1

The optimization of volunteers capacity is a central issue in many all-volunteer nonprofit organizations (see e.g., Balduck et al., 2015; Bartram et al., 2017). In this paper, we investigated the

^{*}p < .05; **p < .01.

^{***}p < .001.

importance of implementing professional management and leadership practices in (the specific context of) all-volunteer nonprofit organizations. Specifically, we investigated the relations between management processes related to the CVF models and (de)motivating leadership styles (i.e., the way these management processes are installed), and volunteers capacity.

11.1 | The role of management processes related to the CVF models in all-volunteer nonprofit organizations

First, this study contributed to the nonprofit management literature by examining the association between volunteer leaders' reliance on management processes related to the CVF models (i.e., internal process model, human relations model, open system model, and rational goal model) and volunteers capacity in all-volunteers nonprofit organizations. Results of the hierarchical regression analysis revealed a positive relation between (the sum score of) the management processes related to the four CVF models and volunteers capacity. Furthermore, correlational results showed that the management processes related to the four CVF models were independently and strongly positively related to the organization's volunteers capacity, testifying to the importance of each of them. As such, whereas previous research revealed the importance of effective human resources practices in all-volunteer nonprofit organizations (see e.g., Alfes et al., 2017), our findings showed that it is important for volunteer leaders in all-volunteer organizations to focus on management processes of all four CVF models in order to optimize their organization's volunteer capacity.

In addition, descriptive results revealed that volunteer leaders in our study (i.e., the board) implemented the management processes of the four CVF models to a large degree, with average scores of 5.37 or higher (on a 7-point scale). This finding indicated that boards in ambitious sports clubs, although consisting of volunteer board members who often take on the leading role without prior training or experience, can implement (professional) management practices in (the specific context of) their sports club. When the management processes of the different models were compared to each other, we found that board members more strongly agreed that the board recognized volunteers, stimulated them to follow courses, and involved them in the organization's management (i.e., human relations model), when compared to spending attention to internal processes such as developing a clear communication plan, monitoring actions, or evaluating their own procedures (i.e., internal process model). This is essential as, in our study, the strongest bivariate relations were found between the internal process model and volunteers capacity. Together, these findings suggested that, in this specific case, it might be opportune for these volunteer leaders to pay more attention to effective internal processes.

11.2 | The role of volunteer leaders' (de)motivating leadership styles in all-volunteer nonprofit organizations

This study further contributed to nonprofit management and leadership literature by studying the relations between volunteer leaders' reliance on (de)motivating leadership and volunteers capacity in all-volunteer nonprofit organizations, hereby adopting an integrated and comprehensive approach. Specifically, we relied on SDT to study the association between both motivating leadership styles (i.e., an autonomy-supportive leadership style and a structuring leadership style) and demotivating leadership styles (i.e., a controlling and a chaotic leadership style), and volunteers capacity.

In line with our hypothesis and SDT (Deci & Ryan, 2000), a motivating leadership style revealed to be positively related to volunteers capacity. Furthermore, bivariate (positive) associations between both an autonomy-supportive and a structuring leadership style and volunteers capacity were significant, underscoring the importance of both styles.

Our findings were consistent with other SDT studies in a volunteering context characterized by limited hierarchical power and intermittent interactions. These studies revealed a positive relation between motivating leadership styles, and more specifically an autonomy-supportive leadership style, and positive volunteer outcomes such as volunteers' motivation (Oostlander et al., 2014), engagement (Allen & Bartle, 2014), and job satisfaction (Oostlander et al., 2014).

Furthermore, descriptive results revealed that the volunteer leaders in our study, that is, the board, effectively rely on both an autonomy-supportive leadership style and a structuring leadership style, with average scores of 5.01 or higher (on a 7-point scale). These findings indicated that, even though the board interacts closely with other volunteers in the organization, they can rely on effective leadership styles in their interactions with other volunteers. These results were in line with studies of Catano et al. (2001) and Posner (2015), which revealed that volunteer leaders in (respectively) voluntary service organizations and national youth sports organizations found it essential and necessary to engage in leadership behaviors, often even more than paid leaders. Yet, board members did more strongly agree that the board relied on an autonomy-supportive style when compared to a well-structured style. These findings were important, as a structuring leadership style related more strongly to volunteers capacity, suggesting it might be effective for these volunteer leaders to try to enhance their reliance on a structuring leadership style.

Results regarding the demotivating leadership styles were inconsistent with our hypothesis and previous research (see Sheptak & Menaker, 2016), since they revealed that a demotivating leadership style was unrelated to volunteer capacity. However, bivariate results indicated that, while a controlling leadership style did not relate to volunteers capacity, a chaotic leadership style correlated negatively with volunteers capacity. This finding confirmed that the presence of structure, and also the absence of chaos, plays a crucial role in the management of all-volunteer nonprofit organizations. Yet, adopting an effective structuring leadership style is a challenging task for volunteer leaders as they probably know the volunteers very well, or (in member-based organizations) may rely on their vote to be elected as (one of the) leader(s) of the organizations. Furthermore, leaders have to keep in mind that volunteers (freely) devote substantial amounts of their time and energy to helping them accomplish the organization's mission. As such, volunteer leaders might be more comfortable adopting a passive, conflict-avoidant leadership approach. However, our results suggested that the ambiguity created by this approach might be counter-productive. It is therefore important that volunteer leaders rely on structuring strategies such as setting clear expectations and explaining the organization's situation, even when they would feel uncomfortable doing so.

11.3 | The synergy between management processes and leadership styles

Finally, this study made a contribution to existing nonprofit management and leadership literature by investigating the potential synergetic effect between volunteer leaders' reliance on management processes of the CVF models and motivating or demotivating leadership styles in

all-volunteer nonprofit organizations. However, we did not find any synergetic effects between the management processes of the CVF models and leadership styles, which is inconsistent with hypotheses 3a and 3b. Also the interaction effect between the motivating leadership style and demotivating leadership style was not significant. Overall, our findings thus suggested that both the management processes and a motivating leadership style were uniquely related to volunteers capacity in all-volunteer nonprofit organizations, and that leadership styles did not necessarily enhance the positive associations of management processes and vice versa.

11.4 | Practical implications

Our research revealed that the volunteer leaders (i.e., the board) adopt the management processes outlined in the CVF (Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1981), and motivating leadership styles as distinguished within SDT (Deci & Ryan, 2000) to a large degree already. Indeed, although leaders in our study operated in a context driven by volunteer work, they relied on professional management and leadership skills in order to effectively manage their organization. Yet, our findings also suggested that there is still room for volunteer leaders to pay more attention to the management processes related to the internal process model, and a structuring leadership style. Volunteer leaders can do so in several ways. They can establish an internal and external communication plan, monitor the progress of actions that have been set out, and conduct an annual assessment of the organization's operations (i.e., internal processes). Furthermore, volunteer leaders can adopt a structuring leadership style by providing an agenda with clear objectives to effectively organize meetings, or by evaluating goals together with (other) board members or volunteers. They can provide help, assistance and feedback to volunteers, and communicate step-by-step directions and expectations in a clear and transparent way when a mission, vision, and goals are established. However, the challenge is probably to do this in a balanced way as our findings revealed that all four management approaches of the CVF models and motivating leadership styles were important. Furthermore, prior research has shown that too much structure (i.e., bureaucratic order, rules, and regulations) may lead to a lower level of volunteers' job satisfaction (Lund, 2003). It is thus an important but difficult task for volunteer leaders in allvolunteer nonprofit organizations to focus on different management approaches, while engaging in a motivating leadership style.

11.5 | Limitations and future research directions

A first limitation of the present study was the cross-sectional design, precluding to draw causal conclusions. Intervention studies, in which board members are trained to more effectively implement management processes, while relying on a motivating leadership style may shed light on the causal-effect relations.

A second limitation is related to the specific nature of this sample, which consisted of ambitious membership-based sports clubs. Although we suggest that our results are relevant for all (all-volunteer) nonprofit organizations, future research might replicate this study in less ambitious all-volunteer organizations that are just content with their current situation. Furthermore, it is interesting to further explore leadership in various volunteering contexts, with differences between membership-based nonprofit organizations and non-membership-based nonprofit organizations requiring special attention. In addition, future studies might conduct this study in

other geographical locations and/or explore differences between geographical contexts. For instance, dissimilarities between European all-volunteer nonprofit organizations, in which team leadership may be more dominant, and American all-volunteer nonprofit organizations, in which individual leadership may be more important, are worthy of further investigation. Moreover, we urge scholars to look further into differences between leadership in all-volunteer nonprofit organizations and paid staff-dominated organizations.

Third, data of all study variables were gathered with self-reported measures of board members, hence same-source bias might be an issue (Podsakoff et al., 2003). In order to test for possible common method bias, we conducted a Harman single-factor test, which suggested that common method bias was not of great concern. Furthermore, we followed the suggestions of Podsakoff et al. (2003) regarding anonymity, reduction of evaluation apprehension, and randomizing question order. Despite these considerations, board members may have overestimated their management skills or their motivating leadership style. Future research could collect data from other stakeholder groups such as coaches, members, and volunteers to identify potential discrepancies through triangulation.

Fourth, it is important to note that the Board of Directors was considered a leadership entity, with board members reporting on the leadership style of the board as an entity. Yet, we acknowledge that board members can contribute differently to the leadership of the board, an issue future research might focus on.

Fifth, since our study was based on the board members' perceptions of organization-level variables, that is, the board's reliance on management processes and leadership styles, and the sports club's volunteer capacity, it is also interesting for future studies to build further on the concepts we introduced in this study and examine relations at the organizational level rather than at the individual level. This would require a sample of at least 100 sports clubs (see Maas & Hox, 2005).

Sixth, an important finding of this study was that the management processes related to the four CVF models were significantly and strongly intercorrelated. However, we did not examine, as theory predicts (Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1981), whether board members experienced the four CVF models as conflicting, which is an issue future research may shed a light on.

Finally, in this study, we introduced SDT as a comprehensive leadership theory which may conceptually overlap with common leadership theories such as transformational/transactional theory and servant leadership theory. In future research, it might be interesting to empirically investigate the similarities and differences between these theories.

12 | CONCLUSION

Many all-volunteer nonprofit organizations are challenged to increase their volunteers capacity (see e.g., Balduck et al., 2015). In this study, we examined important correlates of volunteers capacity. We adopted hereby a comprehensive approach by investigating the role of both volunteer leaders' reliance on essential management processes and leadership styles for volunteers capacity. To this end, we relied on two validated theoretical frameworks, namely the Competing Values Framework and Self-Determination Theory, respectively. Our results revealed that it is crucial for volunteer leaders in all-volunteer nonprofit organizations to focus on the different management processes related to the CVF models. Findings also showed that when implementing these important management processes, volunteer leaders can try to rely on an autonomy-supportive and a structuring leadership style. This study served as an initial step to

get a more comprehensive insight into the relations between important processes and volunteers capacity in all-volunteer nonprofit organizations. Implementing the insights of this study in all-volunteer nonprofit organizations' management may help these organizations enhance their volunteers capacity.

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ORCID

Tom De Clerck https://orcid.org/0000-0002-2140-9425

Nathalie Aelterman https://orcid.org/0000-0003-0945-4343

Leen Haerens https://orcid.org/0000-0001-5715-9520

Annick Willem https://orcid.org/0000-0003-3753-2919

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AUTHOR BIOGRAPHIES

Tom De Clerck is a PhD student at Ghent University (Belgium), Faculty of Medicine and Health Sciences, Department of Movement and Sport Sciences. His research focuses on professionalization of (all-volunteer) nonprofit organization.

Nathalie Aelterman (PhD Ghent University Belgium, Faculty of Psychology and Educational Sciences, Department of Developmental, Personality and Social Psychology) is a guest professor at the Department of Developmental, Personality and Social Psychology of Ghent University. Her research interests are the development of human motivation in differential contexts, including education, work and sports.

Leen Haerens (PhD Ghent University (Belgium), Faculty of Medicine and Health Sciences, Department of Movement and Sport Sciences) is an Associate Professor in Physical Education and Sports Pedagogy at the Department of Movement and Sports Sciences of Ghent

ain theoretical framework her

University. Starting from Self-Determination Theory as the main theoretical framework, her research focuses on motivational dynamics in sports clubs and schools (with a special interest for the lessons physcial education).

Annick Willem (PhD Ghent University (Belgium), Faculty Of Economics and Business Administration, Department of Applied Economic Sciences) is an Associate Professor in Sport Management at the Department of Movement and Sports Sciences of Ghent University. Her research interest are capacity building in (nonprofit) organizations, governance structure and governance mechanism, and ethics in sports.

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