

SATISFACTION AS REASONS FOR AND AGAINST GENEROSITY DECISIONS: A BEHAVIORAL REASONING THEORY EXPLORATION

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This study examines satisfaction as reasons in Behavioral Reasoning Theory (BRT) and the impact of satisfaction with the service-learning experience on future generosity behavioral intentions. In BRT, both reasons and global motives (attitudes) are drivers of behavioral intentions. Reasons and satisfaction can be either for or against an action. Prior experience influences both reasons and satisfaction. In this paper, the reasons construct is operationalized by satisfaction with the service-learning experience and examines the impact reasons (satisfaction) has on future intentions to volunteer or donate to charitable organizations. The analysis uses partial least squares structural equation modeling. Results indicate that reasons, operationalized as satisfaction, and attitudes drive both future volunteering and future donation intentions.

INTRODUCTION

This paper examines the role satisfaction plays in a volunteering experience with future generosity intentions using the behavioral reasoning theory (BRT) framework. BRT extends current intentions models (such as Theory of Planned Behavior and Theory of Reasoned Action) by incorporating beliefs, reasons, global motives, intentions, and behavior. In BRT, behavior reinforces reasons through a feedback loop. By adding the reasons construct, additional variance is explained when predicting behavioral intentions. In this study, reasons are operationalized as satisfaction with prior volunteering experiences (Briggs, Peterson, & Gregory, 2010; Westaby, 2005). The context for the study is a service-learning setting.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Nonprofit organizations are dependent on civic-minded individuals for both donations and volunteering to fulfill their missions (Bussel & Forbes, 2002). In this type of environment, nonprofit organizations recognize the importance of marketing (Pope, Sterrett-Isely, & Asamo-Tutu, 2009) and the need to heighten their visibility in the communities they

serve to increase volunteer and donor awareness (Wymer, Knowles, & Gomes, 2006).

Universities have developed service-learning programs to increase its impact on the community and increase its student's civic mindedness while also providing the students with experience in applying classroom material. Many of these programs are required of the students (Gujarathi & McQuade, 2002; Wittmer, 2004). However, the question remains, Do required service learning programs increase the future volunteering or donating intentions of the students? Alternatively, does "required" service create dissatisfaction with the experience and lead to lower intentions to volunteer and donate?

The consumer behavior literature includes investigations of both volunteer behavior and donating to nonprofits (Pho, 2004; Wymer et al., 2006; Wymer & Starnes, 2001). Volunteerism is considered a leisure activity and, as Stukas, Snyder, and Clary (2008) reported, increases social capital while helping people and communities function better. Assuming a person's time is finite, generosity and volunteer behavior may affect their ability to participate in other leisure activities. The trade-off is between perceived intrinsic and extrinsic rewards. This research extends this literature using BRT. It also describes the direct impact different post-experience reasons have on generosity behavioral intentions as well as indirectly through attitude. This paper

implicitly includes the feedback loop from behavior to reasons using the post-service-learning experience measure of satisfaction.

Behavioral Reasoning Theory, (BRT) is a behavioral intentions theory and is relatively new, and extends the theory of planned behavior (Ajzen, 1985) and the theory of reasoned action (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). It presents an explanation of the “how” and “why” reasons that demonstrate the relationships among people’s beliefs, global motives, intentions, and behavior: In turn, BRT demonstrates how behaviors reinforce reasons as a feedback loop. With the addition of the reasons construct, BRT explains additional variance and predict behavioral intentions (Westaby, 2005a, 2005b; Westaby & Fishbein, 1996). BRT has been used to explain various decision processes, such as why people quite a job (Hom, Mitchell, Lee, & Griffeth, 2012); why they drink (Liu, Wang, Bamberger, Shi, & Bacharach, 2015); why people use or do not use green strategies (Claudy, Peterson, & O’Driscoll, 2013; Claudy & Peterson, 2014) and why people do not make purchases (Chatzidakis & Lee, 2013).

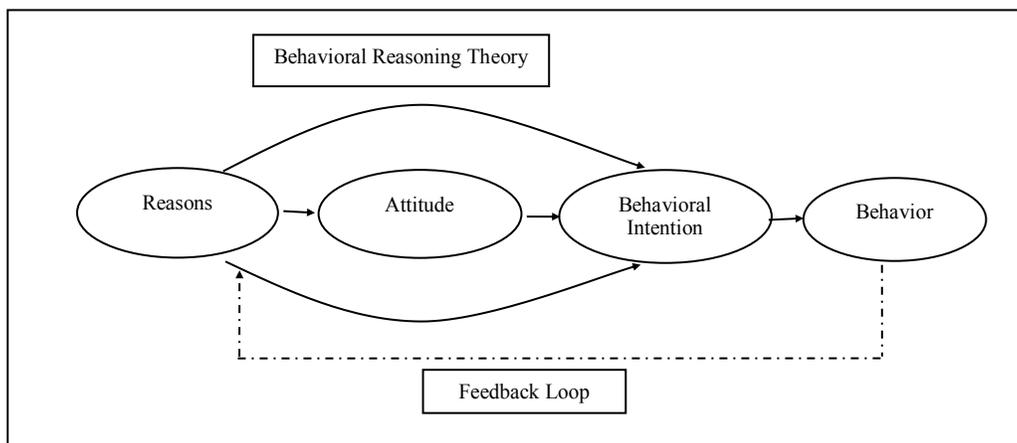
Several studies using BRT have been conducted focusing on the reasons construct. Reasons have been demonstrated to be directly and indirectly related to behavioral intentions and behaviors. Some of the behaviors found to be directly related include: employment of youth across organizations (Lee, Westaby, Chyou, & Purschwitz, 2007), the decision to work beyond

normal working hours (Zusman, 2009), generosity behavioral intention (Nicholls, Schimmel, & White, 2011), future volunteering intentions (Nicholls & Schimmel, 2012), underreporting of worksite accidents (Probst & Graso, 2013), and green decision making (Claudy & Peterson, 2014). Reasons also have been shown to mediate global constructs such as changes in attitude (Nicholls & Schimmel, 2012) and to predict both global motives and intention over and above the variance explained by constructs in the theory of planned behavior (Zusman, 2009).

Intentions approximate behavior in BRT, consistent with other behavioral intention models such as the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) and the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA). The two behavioral intentions models in this study include two generosity behavioral intentions: Future Volunteering Intentions (FVI) and Future Donation Intentions (FDI).

It is well established that attitudes are antecedents of behavioral intentions (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Batra, Homer, & Kahle, 2001; Homer & Kahle, 1988; 2005a). Westaby (2005a) has shown that reasons lead to global motives and that attitudes constitute a global motives construct in BRT. Thus, as Briggs et al. (2010) reported, attitudes are shaped and predicted by reasons. This study operationalizes the construct of global motives as attitudes toward helping others (AHO) and attitudes toward charitable organizations (ACO) (Webb, Green, & Brashear, 2000).

FIGURE 1:
BRT Conceptual Model with Feedback Loop



This study investigates the relationship between AHO and ACO and between ACO and the (generosity) behavioral intentions of FVI and FDI. Webb et al. (2000) indicate that ACO and AHO are related to donor behaviors and behavioral intentions. Previous research has found AHO to be positively correlated with perceptions about the coverage of social issues in business classes (Sleeper, Schneider, Weber, & Weber, 2006). Ranganathan and Henley (2008) reported that ACO is an important determinant of intentions (to donate) precisely because AHO alone was not found to be a significant predictor of behavior and that ACO was an important determinant of intent to donate. ACO has also been found to be positively related to the number of charity donation categories and to the amount donated to those categories (Meijer, 2009). Thus, the following is hypothesized:

H₁: ACO will positively predict the generosity behavioral intention of (a) FVI and (b) FDI.

Webb et al., (2000) framed the relationship between these attitudes constructs as an attitude toward a behavior (helping others, or AHO) and an attitude toward a target (charitable organization, or ACO), similar to Eagly and Chaiken (1993). Furthermore, Webb et al. (2000) argued that people with high AHO have more than one way to attain the goal of helping others, including through charitable organizations, and theorized that ACO was predicted by AHO. In a study using AHO without ACO, researchers found AHO to be positively correlated with perceptions about the coverage of social issues in business classes (Sleeper et al., 2006). If charitable organizations help those who need it by using the resources given to them (from volunteers and donors) to assist those whom the organization serves (i.e., transfers help from donors of time and money to beneficiaries of the organizations) (Bendapudi, Singh, & Bendapudi, 1996), positive AHO will result in positive ACO. Indeed, Briggs et al. (2010) and Ranganathan and Henley (2008) specifically examined the relationship of the AHO and ACO attitudes constructs and found AHO to be positively related to ACO. Therefore:

H₂: AHO will positively predict ACO.

Westaby (2005a) defined reasons in BRT as the specific subjective factors individuals use to explain their behavior. Furthermore, BRT postulates that reasons are strongly related to global motives (Westaby, 2005a) given their role in influencing justifications. Previous research has found that strong reasons influence positive attitudes toward the motives for that behavior (Westaby et al., 2010) because of the justification role they perform. Research has also found that strong reasons for a behavior lead to positive attitudes toward the same behavior (Westaby et al., 2010). The processing of reasons can be explicit (conscious) or implicit (subliminal), depending on the situation (Westaby et al., 2010); in other words, justifications for behavior can be purposeful or automatic. The reasons construct is classified into three categories: (1) future-oriented reasons, conceptualized as anticipated reasons; (2) concurrent reasons, which explain behaviors currently being executed; and (3) post hoc reasons, which explain behavior after it is or is not executed.

Reasons perform several functions; they justify and defend anticipated, current, or past behaviors and behavioral intentions. This justification, in turn, protects a person's self-concept (Westaby et al., 2010). In this study, the reasons construct is operationalized by satisfaction with the service-learning experience that implicitly includes the feedback loop.

In BRT, reasons serve as an antecedent and predictor of attitudes (Westaby et al., 2010). Researchers have found that satisfaction influences attitudes directly (Oliver, 1980). Thus, it is hypothesized that post-experience satisfaction will have a positive relationship to attitude, specifically:

H₃: Satisfaction will positively predict AHO.

In this study, we examine satisfaction with the service-learning experience. Satisfaction is defined as a function of expectation and expectancy disconfirmation (Oliver, 1980). Disconfirmation and satisfaction are positively correlated such that satisfaction occurs when "actual outcomes exceed expectations (positive disconfirmation)" and are "dissatisfied when expectations exceed outcomes (negative

disconfirmation)” and “just satisfied (zero or simple disconfirmation) when outcomes match expectations” (Szymanski & Henard, 2001, p. 17). Expectations are activated through disconfirmation (i.e., do not happen until after exposure, behavior, or action) (Oliver, 1980), can be active or passive (van Raaij, 1991), and are an outcome of a cognitive (decision making) process (Oliver, 1980). In other words, regarding satisfaction, people have context-specific expectations and make decisions “about alternatives with uncertain outcomes, and they have to judge the consequences of their present choices” (van Raaij, 1991, p. 415), or they create reasons *for* or reasons *against* a particular choice and may or may not be satisfied based of their expectation and participation in the behavior. In addition, as Oliver (1999) found, and the BRT feedback loop would subsequently demonstrate, satisfaction can be updated (easily and significantly) in every new experience.

Westaby (2005a, p. 216) called for further research to “extend behavioral reasoning theory by examining additional contextual antecedents of behavior, based upon well-grounded theory and research.” This call is the basis for using satisfaction in the BRT Conceptual Model because satisfaction leading to behavioral intentions and to attitudes is well documented in literature. Indeed, a literature search identifies numerous studies using the TPB to evaluate satisfaction (customer satisfaction) as an important determinant of behavioral intention. For example, Cronin, Brady, and Hult (2000) found that satisfaction led to behavioral intention (service quality, value, and satisfaction), and Mittal and Kamakura (2001) showed that, although it may decrease over time, a link exists between satisfaction and intention.

As part of the traditional view of consumer satisfaction and attitudes, Bearden and Teel (1983) found that satisfaction correlated with attitudes (post-purchase) and found a strong relationship between attitudes and intentions within time periods. Suh and Yi (2006) found that customer satisfaction led to brand attitude under different levels of (product) involvement, and Bolton and Drew (1991) found a link between disconfirmation as result of an experience (feedback loop) and attitudes such

that favorable disconfirmation (satisfaction) experiences have positive effects on customer attitudes (which lead to behavioral intentions). Because satisfaction fulfills the requirements of the BRT definition of reasons (active or passive, reason for/against, and context specific), includes the feedback loop, and has been shown to influence both attitudes and behavioral intentions, and the reasons construct is operationalized as satisfaction.

Because students will have participated in a service-learning experience, the reasons measure includes the feedback loop from behavior to reasons, as is hypothesized in the BRT, and captures both reasons for and reasons against generosity behavioral intentions. To incorporate the feedback loop within this study, the reasons construct (reasons for/against behavioral intentions) is operationalized using satisfaction with the service-learning experience.

From a theoretical position, reasons directly and positively influence behaviors and behavioral intentions and have been empirically demonstrated in several studies using BRT (e.g., Costa-Font, Rudisill, & Mossialos, 2008; Kim, Kim, Myoung, & Lee, 2010; Lee et al., 2007; Wagner & Westaby, 2009). Satisfaction is a post-service-learning experience measure. Researchers have found that satisfaction predicts behavioral intentions and incorporates the feedback loop. Satisfaction assesses specific factors (reasons) volunteers use to explain anticipated behavior for/against behavioral intentions (Briggs et al., 2010; Westaby, 2005). It is hypothesized that satisfaction will lead to generosity behavioral intentions such that

H₄: Satisfaction will positively predict (a) FVI and (b) FDI.

METHODOLOGY

PLS-SEM was chosen over CB-SEM for several reasons. Research has indicated that satisfaction is not normally distributed (Hurley & Estelami, 1998), making it a candidate for PLS-SEM. PLS-SEM is a component-based least squares alternative and is more robust than CB-SEM: Because CB-SEM is a full-information procedure, one incorrectly specified structural path or one construct with weak measures could affect other estimates

throughout a CB-SEM. Figure 2 presents the inner and outer models for the PLS SEM.

Endogenous Variables—Generosity Behavioral Intentions

Generosity behavioral intentions of FVI and FDI are measured with four items in the post-service-learning experience survey. FVI is a dependent variable that uses an adaptation of the Stukas, Worth, Clary and Snyder (2009) scale. This two-item scale is anchored by 1 = *not at all likely* and 7 = *extremely likely*. The items include (1) “How likely is it that you will be volunteering for *this organization* in one year?” and (2) “How likely is it that you will be volunteering for *a different organization* in one year?” Additionally, FVI expands on these two items and includes how likely it is that participants will be volunteering for (3) “this” and a (4) “different” organization *after* graduation.

In the post-survey, FDI is a dependent variable uses two items with similar scales as the FVI measures and is anchored by 1 = *not at all likely* and 7 = *extremely likely*. The items are (1) “How likely is it that you will *donate to this organization* after you graduate?” and (2) “How likely is it that you will *donate to another organization* after you graduate?”

Endogenous Variable—Attitudes

The attitudes measures uses an adapted nine-item measure of AHO and ACO (Webb et al., 2000). These measures are assessed in the post-experience survey with a seven-point scale where 1 = *strongly disagree* and 7 = *strongly agree*. They include, for example, (1) “People should be willing to help others who are less fortunate,” (2) “Helping troubled people with their problems is very important to me,” (3) “The money given to nonprofit organizations goes for good causes,” and (4) “My image of charitable organizations is positive”

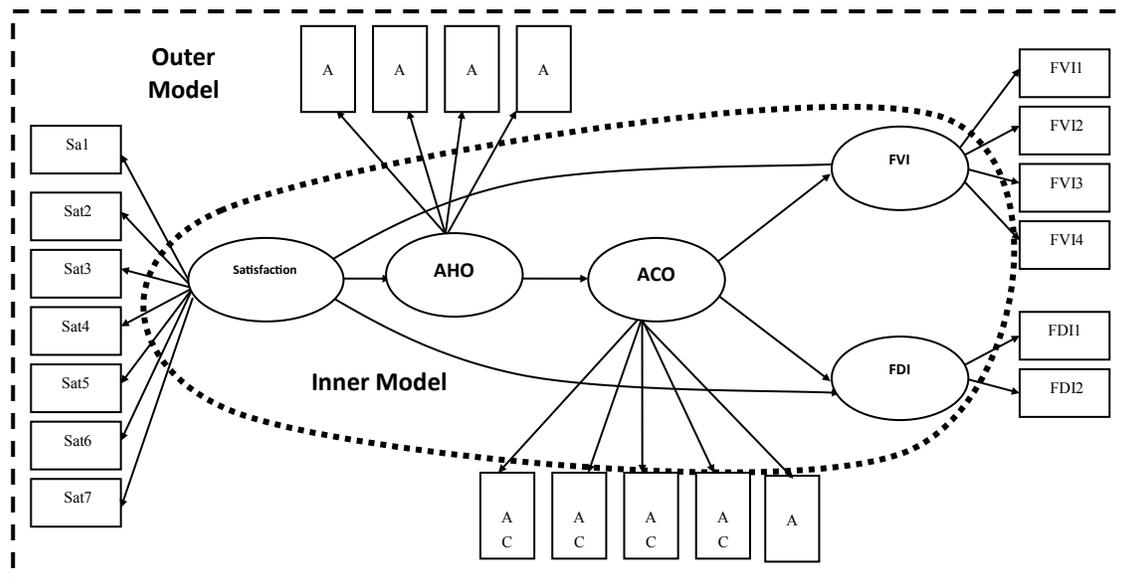
Exogenous Variables—Reasons

Volunteer satisfaction in the post-service-learning experience was assessed using a five-item adaptation of Omoto’s and Snyder’s (1995) seven-point scale that rates a specific dimension of satisfaction regarding the service-learning experience (e.g., “Overall, I am satisfied with my experience as a volunteer”).

METHODOLOGY AND ANALYSIS

The sample is from a private university in the Mid-Atlantic region that requires a service-learning experience to graduate. Not all students participate in a service learning

FIGURE 2:
Relationships of the Constructs



experience each semester. Since there is not a tracking method prior to the completion of the service-learning, the survey was sent to all students. Of the approximately 5000 surveys sent, only those who completed a service learning experience that semester completed the survey. The instrument was administered as an online survey. There were 658 completed surveys. There were no statistical differences between the response waves. Table 1 represents the demographic breakdown of the respondents.

**TABLE 1:
Demographics of Sample**

	Frequency	Percent
Age		
15-19	492	57.6
20-24	280	32.8
25-29	35	4.1
30+	16	5.5
Gender		
Male	378	44.3
Female	476	55.7
Status		
Full Time	824	96.5
Part Time	30	3.5
Year		
Freshman	372	43.6
Sophomore	163	19.1
Junior	130	15.2
Senior	152	17.8
Other	37	4.3

The first step in PLS-SEM (Ringle, Wende & Becker, "SmartPLS 3" 2015) assesses the measurement model (outer model) and shows the relationships among indicators and the latent variables. The second step assesses the structural model (inner model) and shows the relationship among latent variables (Hair, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2011; Henseler & Fassott, 2010). The structural model is assessed if the analysis in the first step meets measurement and significance requirements (Hair et al., 2011). The constructs in this study are reflective and follow the Hair et al. (2011)

"Rules of Thumb" for reflective measurement models.

Indicator Reliability

Internal consistency reliability assesses whether measures consistently represent the same construct and usually require loadings greater than 0.70 to be retained. In certain circumstances, indicators with loadings between 0.40 and 0.70 may be retained on the basis of face, content, or expert validity, but those less than 0.40 must be removed (Hair et al., 2011). One indicator is less than 0.40 and is deleted in the Model (ACO2Money Wasted_Post, 0.2125).

Composite Reliability

Table 1 shows the composite reliability from the model overview report. The composite reliabilities are greater than 0.85 and is considered acceptable (Hair et al., 2011) in both exploratory and advanced research. The Cronbach's alphas are all greater than 0.77.

Convergent Validity

Convergent validity assesses the extent to which a construct is positively correlated with the other indicators of the same construct. Convergent validity is evaluated using the average variance explained (AVE). An adequate degree of convergent validity is demonstrated with AVEs of 0.50 or greater (Hair et al., 2011). As Table 2 shows, all the measurements have AVEs greater than 0.50.

Discriminant Validity

Discriminant validity evaluates the degree to which the construct is not correlated with measures different from it (Hair, Black, Babin, and Anderson, 2010) and is distinct from those constructs. To assess discriminant validity, the cross-loadings were examined using the Fornell and Larcker (1981) criterion. Table 3 presents the squared correlations matrix that includes the AVEs (shown on the diagonal) for each measure in the model. The AVE for each latent construct is greater than each of the latent construct's highest squared correlation with any other latent variable. In addition, no indicator's

TABLE 2:
Loadings and Validity

	Loading	AVE	CR	Alpha
Attitude toward Charitable Orgs.		0.7837	0.9354	0.9078
ACO1	0.8458			
ACO3	0.9044			
ACO4	0.8956			
ACO5	0.8941			
Attitude toward Helping Others		0.8282	0.9507	0.9308
AHO1	0.9025			
AHO2	0.9152			
AHO3	0.9346			
AHO4	0.8874			
Future Donation Intentions		0.8173	0.8995	0.7764
Donate1	0.9024			
Donate2	0.9056			
Satisfaction		0.8928	0.9831	0.9799
GenSatis1_Cont	0.9448			
GenSatis1_Grat	0.9648			
GenSatis1_Happy	0.9692			
GenSatis1_LookFor	0.8912			
GenSatis1_OvrallExp	0.9283			
GenSatis1_Plisd	0.9664			
GenSatis1_Rewrd	0.9468			
Future Volunteer Intentions		0.6044	0.8592	0.7864
Vol1This1Yr	0.8058			
Vol2ThisGrad	0.7366			
Vol3Dif1Yr	0.7715			
Vol4DifGrad	0.794			

loadings are higher than any of its cross loadings.

Bootstrapping

Six hundred and fifty eight (658) cases were used for bootstrapping and the number of samples is 5,000. All indicators had *t*-values greater than 1.96 and are significant at the .05 level. Although PLS-SEM is not a co-variance based model and no strong assumptions are required with it regarding data and sample size, the cases exceed the suggested minimum requirement (658) and the bootstrapping

samples follows the suggested number (5,000) (Hair et al., 2011).

Assessment of Path Coefficients

All six hypotheses tested are statistically significant (*t*-values and associated significance are included in Table 4). Table 4 shows the hypotheses and associated path coefficients (β).

Results

The results indicate that ACO is a positive driver of both FVI and FDI (H_1 , β 0.113). In addition, hypotheses corresponding to AHO as

TABLE 3:
Test for Discriminant Validity: Fornell-Larcker Criterion

	ACO-P	AHO-P	FDI	FVI	Satisfaction
ACO-P	0.7837				
AHO-P	0.4986	0.8282			
FDI	0.1707	0.1981	0.8173		
FVI	0.1912	0.2281	0.5118	0.6044	
Satisfaction	0.3235	0.2614	0.2371	0.4024	0.8928

Squared correlations with the diagonal representing the AVE

TABLE 4:
**Inner Model Bootstrapping Output for Model
as a Result of Reflective Model Measurement Specification**

	Original Sample β	Sample Mean β	Standard Deviation	T Statistics
ACO-P \rightarrow FDI	0.2014	0.2017	0.0406	4.773 ***
ACO-P \rightarrow FVI	0.113	0.1143	0.0339	3.331***
AHO-P \rightarrow ACO-P	0.7061	0.704	0.0239	29.5289***
Satisfaction \rightarrow AHO-P	0.5113	0.5099	0.034	15.0294***
Satisfaction \rightarrow FDI	0.3724	0.3726	0.0395	9.434***
Satisfaction \rightarrow FVI	0.5702	0.571	0.0317	18.0029***

Critical t -values for a two-tailed test are as follows: $p = .10^*$, $p = .05^{**}$, and $p = .01^{***}$.

a driver of ACO are also positive and significant and thus support the hypothesis (H_2 , β 0.7061). Satisfaction is found to be a driver of AHO (H_3 , β 0.5113). Furthermore, satisfaction is also a driver of the dependent variables FVI and FDI (H_{4a} , β 0.5702 and H_{4b} , β 0.3724). The R^2 for constructs range from 0.26 to 0.49 (Table 4).

Blindfolding

The last step in the evaluation of the structure model is blindfolding. Because there is no goodness-of-fit measure for PLS-SEM similar to that found with CB-SEM (which provides a measure of validation for the structural model), blindfolding is done and is the measure of quality (predictive relevance of only the endogenous latent constructs' indicators; Hair et al., 2011; Henseler & Fassott, 2010) for the reflective constructs in the PLS-SEM. With the endogenous construct's cross-validated redundancy (Q^2 values greater than zero), the

explanatory latent construct is considered to exhibit predictive relevance (Hair et al., 2011). Table 5 shows the Q^2 values for the latent constructs in the Model. Based on Hair et al., (2011), the Q^2 values in the model are greater than zero and, therefore, exhibits predictive relevance for each variable to its dependent variable. AHO has moderate predictive relevance. FDI and FVI also have moderate predictive relevance, while ACO is strong.

Mediation

The next stage is to assess the impact of mediation in the model. Since PLS SEM does not assume normal distribution, Sobel tests are not recommended to examine mediation in the model (Hair, Hult, Ringle & Starstedt, 2016). Instead, random bootstrapping is conducted per Preacher and Hayes (2007). There are two advantages of this technique over the Sobel test. First, it is appropriate for techniques that do not assume normal distributions and second, the

TABLE 5:
Construct Cross-Validated Redundancy Report

Total	SSO	SSE	1-(SSE/SSO) = Q^2	R Square
ACO-P	2632	1659.653	0.3694	0.4985
AHO-P	2632	2092.044	0.2052	0.2614
FDI	1316	1052.135	0.2005	0.2645
FVI	2632	2007.975	0.2371	0.4112

Note: Omission distance = 8

number of inferential tests is reduced limiting the likelihood of a type one error (Buffardi & Campbell, 2008). Mediation was tested for Satisfaction à Attitude à FVI, and Satisfaction à Attitude à FDI.

The bootstrap results for Satisfaction à Attitude à FDI indicate both the direct and total effects as significant with direct effect .1063, p .0000, and confidence intervals with a lower bound of .0837 and an upper bound of .1289. The total effect .1462, p .0000, had confidence intervals with a lower bound of .1261 and an upper bound of .1664. The bootstrap results for Satisfaction à Attitude à FVI indicate both the direct and total effects as significant with direct effect .1479, p .0000, with confidence intervals with a lower bound of .1288 and an upper bound of .1669. The total effect .1786, p .0000, had confidence intervals with a lower bound of .1617 and an upper bound of .1954. These results indicate complementary mediation for both sets of relationships (Hair et al., 2016).

Discussion

This study fills a gap in the literature. Specifically, an extensive body of academic research exists regarding generosity behaviors or behavioral intentions, including what motivates people to volunteer (Davis, Hall, & Meyer 2003) and to donate (Hibbert & Horne, 1996; Pelozo & Steel, 2005; Pitt, Keating, Bruwer, Murgolo-Poore, & De Bussy, 2002; Ranganathan & Henley, 2008). Surprisingly, there is less academic research on the impact of the service-learning experience on future behaviors (Tomkovick, Lester, Flunker, & Wells, 2008), even though increasing numbers of colleges and universities are requiring student participation in service-learning

experiences. Although some evidence shows that this service-learning experience requirement may negatively affect generosity behaviors (Stukas, Snyder, & Clary, 1999), this study did not support this concern. Further, this study extends BRT by utilizing satisfaction in the service-learning experience as a driver of future behavioral intention, specifically FVI and FDI.

The study also provides insight into the reasons and attitudes that drive future generosity behavioral intentions. Satisfaction is positively related to both attitudes and behavioral intention. These findings support those proposed in BRT and responds to the call to examine the relationship between people's reasons for or against a given position (Westaby & Fishbein, 1996; Westaby, Fishbein, & Aherin, 1997).

In BRT, the reasons construct helps people justify and defend actions and are narrow and context specific (Westaby, 2005a). This research also answers calls to integrate other constructs involving volunteering in the BRT framework (Westaby, 2005a) as well as to "further refine reason scales in efforts to maximize" the reason construct (Westaby, 2005a, p. 117). It also provides a response to the challenge that "researchers should also ensure that beliefs, reasons, and global motives are assessed prior to intentions when testing predictive assumptions in BRT" (Westaby, 2005a, p. 117).

Satisfaction influences FVI and FDI directly as well as AHO. Moreover, AHO is a driver and affects ACO directly. These research findings are also consistent with prior research (Briggs et al., 2010; Webb et al., 2000) and BRT. The findings also imply that the more service-

learning experience programs help students meet these expectations/reasons, the more satisfaction they will have and the more likely they will be to participate in future volunteering and future donations. The more satisfied students are with the service-learning experience, the better. Administrators of service-learning experiences and nonprofit organizations should pay attention to matching students' service-learning experience expectations to their service options to obtain or improve satisfaction as well.

Managerially, this study addresses the concern that certain reasons, attitudes, and experiences people use to justify their volunteer behavior may have long-term (potentially negative) consequences. Reasons were related to FDI and FVI, providing further evidence that the relationship between reasons and future behavioral intentions exists.

The findings show that reasons are direct drivers of future generosity behavioral intentions. Service-learning experiences are an important antecedent to subsequent choices made about generosity behaviors. As this study indicates, reasons are also important antecedents to generosity behavioral intentions. The formative nature of these early student experiences is important for nonprofits and NGOs, which rely on people interested in and committed to community to lead and staff their organizations. In addition, the research shows satisfaction to be a valid means to assess the reasons. Furthermore, if these reasons are not taken into consideration and matched with a student's expectations before a service-learning experience, there will be (potentially negative) implications for future (generosity) behavioral intentions and, according to TPB and BRT, future (generosity) behaviors.

In BRT, the reasons construct helps people justify and defend actions and are narrow and context specific (Westaby, 2005a). The results from this study provide practical insight into the mechanisms underlying college students' intentions to volunteer and donate in the future. In the context of these decisions, results showed that students use their reasons to inform both their attitudes and behavioral intentions. Attitudes, in turn, influenced students' future behavioral intentions to volunteer and donate,

which fully supports other behavioral intention models.

The current study uses AHO and ACO to assess BRT's attitudes construct. As mentioned previously, AHO is "a global and relatively enduring evaluation with regard to helping or assisting other people" and represents a broad attitude toward a behavior, and ACO is "a global and relatively enduring evaluation with regard to the nonprofit organizations [nonprofit organizations] that help individuals" (Webb et al., 2000, p. 300) and is an attitude toward a target, which is consistent with the Eagly and Chaiken (1993) conceptualization of attitude. The results in this study indicate that AHO is a driver of both FVI and FDI, and AHO (the broad attitude) is a driver of ACO. Specifically, attitude (ACO) is related to both future generosity behavioral intentions, that of giving money and the personal and more time-intensive volunteering, and supports prior findings in which attitudes were positively related to behavioral intentions.

Limitations of This Study

As is the case with any research study, there are some limitations. The sample is from one private university that requires a service-learning experience, which limits its generalizability. The timing of the pre-/post-service-learning experience was only one semester, limiting the temporal nature of the behavioral feedback loop. As with any survey requiring pre-/post-matching of surveys, the nature of the participant attrition could prove to be a challenge because only completed and matched pre- and post-experience survey responses could be used. Of the three aspects of the global motives construct (attitudes, perceived control and subjective norms), only attitudes is evaluated.

For greater generalizability, this study could be extended to include a national sample and/or examine cross-cultural/sub-cultural similarities and differences in terms of college-level service-learning experiences. Institutional-, program-, and discipline-based idiosyncrasies also deserve attention. Longitudinal studies, comparing freshmen and seniors, or even alumni, would further contribute to the literature. In addition, a national service organization or geographically

dispersed, multi-university study would be worthwhile.

CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

This study evaluates BRT, in the context of the service-learning experience, using two reason constructs. The results provide support for the BRT. The potential value of the use of satisfaction and the TMI as BRT reasons is also supported because of the ability to explain variance in attitudes and generosity behavioral intentions. However, satisfaction is the more parsimonious and more familiar consumer behavior construct. With a more traditional mode of managing service-learning experience, volunteer and donor satisfaction makes good sense.

These results have implications for administrators of college service-learning experiences. Administrators of the service-learning experience would be well served to seek comprehensive information from service-learning experience participants about BRT components—especially the rich set of VFI reasons underlying behavioral intentions. This information could readily be collected before a student's first college service-learning experience with a survey. Alternatively, and similar to other consumer behavior models, administrators should focus on the salient features of the service-learning experience to ensure satisfaction. Common pedagogy practices used in colleges and universities have evaluated students' service-learning experiences in terms of applied knowledge but not future civic behaviors, in which generosity behaviors are included. Because attitudes drive future generosity behavioral intentions and reasons shape attitudes, universities (and nonprofit organizations) should work with students and develop service-learning experiences that more closely match the students' reasons (meet expectations/reasons) for participating in, and satisfaction with, the service-learning experience to allow students to maintain positive attitudes toward helping others and their future generosity behavioral intentions. In other words, the more service-learning experience programs help students meet these expectations/reasons and improve satisfaction as part of the feedback loop, the

more likely students will participate in FVI and FDI and maximize the academic and civic benefits of the experience, as college administrators tout. The reasons match is especially important given that a match/mismatch with the experience side of service-learning experiences may have long-term implications regarding reasons for/against future generosity behavioral intentions. With this same rationale, faculty involved in service-learning instruction should align their course objectives and learning outcomes with students' BRT-related reasons (expectations) for volunteering and service-learning experience options offered.

In the short run, nonprofit organizations would be well advised to focus on matching the expectations of their volunteers and donors and on the satisfaction of these stakeholders. Managers of nonprofit organizations could also market and promote their organizations in ways that more closely match what college students, and volunteers and donors, want and/or indicate is important to them in terms of participation in volunteer experiences and how donations are used. Knowing why people volunteer or donate and who is volunteering and donating are important factors for nonprofit organizations in the pursuit of recruiting the right people to do the right job for an extended period, as well as finding sustaining donors. Because of the lifetime value of a customer (volunteer or donor in this case), when an organization obtains that donor of time or money, it is imperative to retain them, encourage them to donate more hours/money, and keep volunteers from burning out (Fuertes & Jiménez, 2000).

Sophisticated marketing tools require the organizations using them to know something about their target market, and marketing communications that target people's attitudes and specific reasons result in changes in behavioral intentions and, ultimately, behavior (Westaby, 2005a). This study provides the kind of information that can be used to focus marketing communications targeting college students' specific reasons for participating in service-learning experiences—resulting in positive experiences and favorable behavioral intentions. People stay, or stay longer (Clary, Snyder, Ridge, Copeland, Stukas & Haugan, 1998), in organizations when their motivations

and expectations match (Gidron, 1985) and are more satisfied when they perceive congruence between their role expectation and actual experience (Peterson, 2004; Stevens, 1991). In the long-run, nonprofit organizations aiming to developing lifelong relationships with students, as well as developing long-term relationships with volunteers and donors in general, can use these findings and the study itself to recruit and retain volunteers by focusing on the salient functions of these generosity behavioral intentions.

There are several opportunities to extend BRT research. The timing of the pre/post-service-learning experience in the current study was one semester; a longer-term study could better evaluate the temporal nature of the behavioral feedback loop. This longer-term study could also provide a greater understanding of the impact of the feedback loop in the generation of reasons. Only one aspect of the global motives construct (i.e., attitudes) is evaluated in the BRT Conceptual Model presented. Researchers in the future should include measures of perceived control and subjective normative measures. In addition, future studies could also include measures of the belief/values construct in the BRT framework to test the complete BRT model.

Future studies using the constructs included in these existing survey instruments, and this theoretical framework, should consider adding other formative indicators to include in those determined to be formative constructs. Moreover, construct measures should be evaluated and/or created to be uniformly reflective or uniformly formative, because a construct may not comprise both types of indicators. When this occurs, constructs are treated as reflective.

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