INFLUENCE OF INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCE FACTORS ON VOLUNTEER WILLINGNESS TO BE TRAINED

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ABSTRACT

Mainstream training research has shown that trainees' motivation to learn increases the effectiveness of training (Noe, 2002). Based on this literature, a Conceptual Model of Volunteer Training in sport was proposed. In the current study, the relationships of four individual difference factors (*Goal Orientation, Commitment, Self-efficacy,* and *Motivation to Volunteer*) with *Willingness to be trained,* and the relationships of *Willingness to be trained* and the four individual different factors with *Preference for two different Training methods* (*Presentation methods* and *Hands-on methods*) were explored. *Learning Orientation*, *Commitment to Organization*, and *Understanding* function of motivation were significantly correlated with *Willingness to be trained*. However, contrary to expectation, *Self-efficacy* was positively correlated with *Willingness to be trained*. The influence of individual difference variables on volunteers' *Preference for Training methods* was minimal. Only *Learning Orientation*, *Commitment to Organization*, *Self-efficacy* and *Willingness to be trained* were significantly related to either *Preference for Presentation methods* or *Preference for Hands-on methods*. Thus, the present results confirmed the influence of individual difference factors on volunteers' *Willingness to be trained* but do not permit a clear recommendation for the type of training method to be chosen. In order to develop and provide better training programs

for volunteers, follow-up studies testing all suggested relationships in the model should be continued.

This dissertation is dedicated to the World's Best Parents,
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TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Almost all nonprofit organizations benefit a great deal from the services offered by volunteers. According to the most recent Independent Sector's biannual survey (2002) on volunteering and giving, 83.9 million Americans formally volunteered for a total of approximately 15.5 billion hours in 2001. This volunteer labor is equivalent to that of over 9 million full time employees valued at $239 billion. This amount is larger than the worth of several industries such as Communications, Public Utilities, Mining, and Agriculture. If the 1989 estimate of Tedrick and Henderson (1989) that 21% of all those who volunteered did so in sport and recreation is valid now, then the economic value of volunteering in sport and recreation would amount to nearly $58 billion.

While the rates of volunteer participation in different sectors are impressive, it has to be borne in mind that the quality of the services provided by these volunteers is of greater importance than the sheer numbers themselves. That is, despite the good intentions, a volunteer may not have the necessary skills, training, or the experience to provide the service effectively. An often-cited complaint by the recipients of these services is that the volunteers are not qualified to provide the service (Ashcroft, 1997).

The concern with a volunteer's ability to provide quality service becomes really acute in the case of those organizations that offer human services.

As the organizational effectiveness of non-profit organizations is reflected in the quality of its services to the public, it is necessary to cultivate volunteers' psychological state toward, and their ability to deliver quality service to their clients. In other words, the knowledge, skills, and abilities of the volunteers to perform the assigned tasks are critical for service quality and, therefore the accomplishment of organizational mission and goals. Without doubt, training is a possible way to control the quality of service by volunteers, and improve their productivity (Caro & Bass, 1995).

It has been known that effective training is positively related to improvement of organizational performance including increases in productivity, profit, safety, and market share and reduced error (e.g., Huselid, 1995; Salas, & Cannon-Bower, 2001). To gain a competitive advantage, organizations spend tremendous amount of money, time, and efforts in training because it has largely been accepted and expected that training and education can lead to better performance of the organization and employees. Moreover, the recent trends in the environment of organizations, and the changes they face (e.g., globalization, increased value placed on knowledge, attracting and winning talent, quality emphasis, changing demographics and diversity of the work force, new technology, high-performance model of work systems) have forced them train the workers to cope with these changes (Noe, 2002). Indeed, 70% of organizations are said to provide formal training at a cost of between $50 and $60 billions annually (ASTD, 2002). A typical organization invests more than 10% of its payroll in training (Bassi & Ahlstrand, 2000). Given the significance of training, scholars have investigated the factors that make

training more effective, the ways to increase positive training outcomes, and the diverse aspects of training (e.g., training design and methods, individual characteristic differences, other situational or organizational factors, pre-post stages of training).

In the context of volunteering, the need for effective training programs is even greater because (a) skills and abilities are not the basis for recruitment of volunteers; (b) several volunteers share or rotate in a task; and (c) such work is carried out with much less supervision. Given the above, both volunteer researchers and practitioners argue that adequate volunteer training is necessary for volunteer management and organizational effectiveness (e.g., Monk, Kaye, & Litwin, 1984; Wymer, & Starnes, 2001). Also, such legal regulations like the Volunteer Protection Act and state volunteer protection laws suggest that volunteer organizations provide adequate training programs and risk management programs for their volunteers (e.g., The Volunteer Protection Act of 1997). One of the well-developed volunteer training programs is that of the American Youth Soccer Organization (AYSO). AYSO's volunteer training program, Safe Haven, is the first formal volunteer training program in youth sport organizations, which comply with the Child Protection Act and Volunteer Protection Act (AYSO, 2003). AYSO provides three levels of programs (i.e., certification programs, introductory training programs, and continuous education programs) for different volunteer positions including regional commissioner, regional coach administrators, regional referee administrator, assistant regional commissioner, treasurer, safety director, regional registrar, regional board and staff, coaches, referees, child and volunteer protection advocate, all instructors, and area directors. The contents of training programs are varied to cater to different jobs and positions.

Unfortunately, however, AYSO is a rare example of an organization focusing on volunteer training. Despite the acknowledgment of the impact of training on volunteers' performance, most nonprofit organizations do not focus on such training of their volunteers. In the context of youth sport, it is quite common for the parents and community leaders to voice their concerns about some of the volunteer coaches on their lack of knowledge of coaching, compassion and caring for the children, and/or their undue emphasis on winning (e.g., Youth Sports Research Council). Therefore, it is not surprising that several umbrella organizations have instituted training programs for coaches in youth sports. For instance, volunteer coach training program in the National Youth Sports Coaches Association (NYSCA) is one of most widely used programs in which more than 1.8 million coaches have been trained since its beginning in 1981 (NYSCA, 2004). Similarly, the American Sports Education Program (ASEP) offers the volunteer coach program which includes coaching essentials, safety basics, practice, and game-day tips, and sport specific skills. ASEP also provides the online program for volunteer coaches in youth sports and is now developing an advanced level online program for volunteer coaches in youth sports (ASEP, 2004). These types of coach education programs are common in most developed and developing countries (e.g., the Coaching Association of Canada, 2003).

These training programs are tailored to educate the volunteers with a focus on the tasks to be performed as well as the needs of the clients to be served. In the process, the factors that influence training results (e.g., volunteer psychological states and organizational or situational factors) are often overlooked. Volunteer training programs are often provided and conducted without the concerns or evaluation of these antecedent

factors, training outcomes, and transfer of training. Also, no conceptual model has been suggested to understand the dynamics of training of volunteers. This is in sharp contrast to the business/industrial context where researchers have continuously endeavored to draw better theories and models of training to capture all possible factors influencing training. Based on the literature on program evaluation and training programs (e.g., Broad & Newstroom, 1992; Milheim, 1994; Salas & Cannon-Bowers, 2001), the proposed training model is developed from the inputs-throughputs-outputs perspective of a system.

Conceptual Model of Volunteer Training

In the proposed model (see Figure 1.1), the input stage consists of volunteer *Willingness to be trained*, the throughput stage consists of *Design* and *Methods of Training*, and the output stage consists of *Learning* and *Affective Reactions* as well as the *transfer of training* as reflected in the performance of the task and *maintenance* of the learning. The model also stipulates that the individual difference variables of *Goal Orientation, Commitment, Self-efficacy regarding Volunteer works*, and *Motivation to Volunteer* would influence *Willingness to be trained*, and the outcomes of learning and transfer of training. Similarly, the organizational variables of C*limate* and *Support* would affect individual *Willingness to be trained*, the choice of *the Design and Method of training*, and *Transfer of training*. These variables are explicated below.

Willingness to be trained

Willingness to be trained refers to one's desire to learn the content of a training program and as such it has been equated with motivation to learn (Noe, 2002). Further, the terms willingness and intention are often used interchangeably (e.g., Ganzach, Pazy, Ohayun, & Brainin, 2002). Without such willingness or intention, volunteers are not

likely to be involved in a training program. Even if they participate in a training program, they are not likely to learn as much as those with the high level of willingness to learn. Such motivation to learn is influenced by individual difference variables such as demographic characteristics, self-efficacy, locus of control, goal orientation, and commitment. It is also related to training outcome and selection of training methods (e.g., Salas & Cannon-Bowers, 2001).

Training Methods

As a result of intensive and extensive research, several new and innovative techniques of training have emerged. These diverse training methods have been categorized on the basis of their focus on *Cognitivism, Humanism,* and *Behaviorism* (Garry, 1998). Cognitivism is the method of "updating of the blank-slate" (Garry, 1998, p.178). In this approach, it is assumed that the learner knows nothing, and the trainer transmits the information to the learner. Cognitivism facilitates the organization and structure of the training, and thus the efficiency with which the learners are able to follow the flow of the content being taught. It is used with such training methods like using films and videos, diagrams and maps, assigned readings, lectures, presentations, and case studies and projects are applied.

Humanism constitutes "the modern Socratic approach" (Garry, 1998, p.178) which assumes that the learner knows a great deal, and can be guided by questioning to reach new understandings. Humanism draws on the learner's experiences and treats trainees as adults capable of critical thinking, creativity, judgment, and self-directed learning. Such an approach is evidenced in questioning techniques, class projects, constructive feedback, and discussions used as training methods.

Behaviorism is based on the technique reinforcing of desired behavior by rewarding that behavior and/or punishing undesirable behaviors. In this approach, behavioral objectives for skill development are clearly defined, and practice is made the mainstay of learning. It keeps training highly specific, and identifies observable results that can be evaluated. Its use is found in training methods such as simulations, role-plays, coaching sessions, on-the-job training when accompanied by reinforcement and feedback procedures. It must be recognized that training methods may straddle more than one of the Garry's (1998) three bases—cognitivism, humanism, and behaviorism.

Recently, Noe (2002) classified training methods into four categories—*presentation methods, hands-on methods, group building methods,* and *new training methods*. The most salient characteristic of presentation methods is that "trainees are passive recipients of information" (Noe, 2002, p.215). Lectures and audio-visual techniques are representative examples in presentation methods. On the other hand, the fundamental concept of hands-on methods is trainees' active involvement in learning. Hands-on methods are good for training of skills, situational and interpersonal issues on the job, and transfer of training. Examples of hands-on methods include simulations, role-playing, case studies, and behavior modeling. Group building methods are designed to improve team effectiveness through building team identity, sharing experiences, and understanding of interpersonal dynamics (Noe, 2002). Such methods include *team training* where member's efforts are coordinated to achieve a common goal; *adventure learning* which focuses on teamwork and leadership skills mostly through outdoor training; and *action learning* which provides a chance to solve an actual problem (Noe, 2002).

Recent advances in technology have changed the field of training a great deal. By applying new training methods, the organization can reduce the costs in delivering training to employees, increase the effectiveness of training, and help transfer of training (Noe, 2002). The new training methods include using multimedia, distance learning, electronic support systems, and training software applications (Noe, 2002). Most of all, computer based training (CBT) can facilitate the traditional as well as new training methods.

Noe's classification is very similar to Garry's classification even though some of training methods are categorized differently. Generally, Noe's presentation methods are similar to training methods based on cognitivism and hands-on methods are almost identical to those based on behaviorism. In addition, Group building methods can be considered as based on humanism. The main difference of these two categorizations is that Noe classified the training methods from a practical perspective while Garry based his classification on the philosophy behind each training method. In this study, the classification of training methods follows that of Noe because his classification is more practical and causes less overlaps in the categorization of training methods than Garry's.

Research on training methods has been focused on their effectiveness. It has been found that the use of several training methods is likely to be more effective; however, it may not be possible to employ them because of the constraints posed by lack of time, budget, organizational cultures, the training outcomes desired, and the learning environment (Noe, 2002). Thus, researchers have attempted to explore the effectiveness of each training method. One of the most often cited studies on the effectiveness of training methods is that of Carroll, Paine, and Ivancevich (1972). Carroll et al. (1972)

attempted to explore the most suitable training methods for different training objectives by surveying 117 training directors in manufacturing companies and found that training directors believed the effectiveness of each training method (i.e., lecture, conference method, movie films, case study, programmed instruction, sensitivity training, computer games, television, & role playing) was different based on training objectives (i.e., acquisition of knowledge, change in attitudes, participants acceptance, retention of what is learned, development of interpersonal skills, development of problem solving skills). Since Carroll et al.'s study was conducted, researchers have replicated in order to see attitude changes (e.g., Neider, 1981) and have conducted similar studies including various training methods other than Carroll et al.'s 9 training methods (e.g., live cases, internships, one-on-one instruction, audiotapes, self-test timed instruments, noncomputerized self-study programs, video conferencing, teleconferencing, computer conferencing, videotapes, slides, Kaupins, 1997); instructional video-tape, computer simulations, paper and pencil programmed instruction, audiotapes, self-assessments, multi-media presentations, and audio conferences (Perdue, Ninemeier, & Woods, 2002). The results of these replicated studies showed that the attitudes toward training methods as well as the popularity of training methods have changed. However, most of training methods included in these studies are categorized into presentation methods (i.e., in Noe's classification); thus, it is not possible to infer differences of the preferences or effectiveness between presentation methods and hands-on methods by these studies.

In attempting to explore the effectiveness of training methods, researchers have tended to ask the preference of managers on training methods instead of directly asking the preference of trainees. For example, Harp, Taylor, and Satzinger (1998) found that

licensed users of a software product preferred Computer Based Training (CBT) and instructor-led classroom training than videos. Generally, it has been found that if trainees are allowed to choose a training program, they are likely to be more motivated because their choice would be based on their needs and interests (Noe, 2002). Based on this premise, it is assumed that volunteers also have varying preferences for different training methods and that those preferences are influenced by their willingness to be trained and their individual characteristics. Because volunteers might not have had the benefit of previous experience with different training methods, their preferences for one or more methods would be largely a function of their willingness to be trained and their individual characteristics.

Training Design

Training design refers to "factors built into the training program to increase the chances that transfer of training will occur" (Noe, 2002, p.153). Training design can be improved by incorporating learning theories such as *theory of identical elements*, *stimulus generalization*, and *cognitive theory* (Thorndike & Woodworth, 1991). According to the theory of identical elements, if the elements and circumstances of training are similar to those of the actual jobs transfer of training can be more effective. These training situations involve tasks, materials, equipment, and other characteristics of learning environment. The stimulus generational approach emphasizes only the significant features or principles in the training process; therefore, learners are able to master those key features and apply them even in unfamiliar work environments which differ from the training environment. Finally, cognitive theory which is based on the informational

processing model (Gagne, 1995) suggests that transfer of training is heavily related to one's capability to retrieve information learned during training.

Based on these theories, the organization can provide training modules differing in duration, times when they are offered, and places of such offerings. For example, spaced practice involves rest intervals during the session while massed practice involves no such breaks. Different kinds of task warrant different optimal interval time periods between practices (e.g., Noe, 2002). Also, instructors can influence training and training outcomes significantly. The beginner (i.e., less experienced) instructors who use more concrete and basic statements and less abstract and advanced statements are more effective trainers for novice trainees' performance than the expert (more experienced) instructors (Hinds, Patterson, & Pfeffer, 2001). In addition, trainees tend to remember more when instructors are organized and expressive (e.g., Land, 1979).

Training Outcomes

Learning refers to changes in human abilities beyond those caused by maturation and growth (Noe, 2002). It will be reflected in changes in (a) verbal information such as names, labels, facts, bodies of knowledge; (b) intellectual skills such as mastery of concepts and rules; (c) motor skills; (d) attitudes such as beliefs and feelings; and (e) cognitive strategies such as the learner's decision regarding the process of learning (Gagne & Medsker, 1996).

Reaction to the training experiences is also an important facet in training because trainees are less likely to repeat the training process if it was personally unsatisfying regardless of its effectiveness (Maki, Maki, Patterson, & Whittaker, 2000). Although the training process may be effective, the trainees' reactions may not reflect such

effectiveness. For example, Maki and Maki (2002) found that students learned more and performed better in the Web-based version but they liked it less than the traditional classroom setting. Therefore, it is important to ensure volunteers' positive reactions toward training so that volunteers can apply the learned skills and knowledge in the context of actual volunteering (Baldwin & Ford, 1988).

Transfer of Training

It is undeniable that training and training outcomes benefit the trainees, and satisfy the organization's goal of development and growth of their employees. However, the ultimate purpose of the training program is to enhance the effectiveness of the organization by enabling the employees to perform better. That is, employee training is indeed a business strategy similar to other human resource management functions such as staffing and human resource planning (Noe, 2002; Quinn, Anderson, & Finkelstein, 1996). The increase in employee performance due to training is contingent on the transfer of training; that is, the trainee's application of what he/she learned in training (e.g., knowledge, skills, behaviors, cognitive strategies) in the job situation (Broad & Newstroom, 1992). That is, the goal of training in the organization is not only mastering the knowledge, skill, and behaviors emphasized in training programs (i.e., learning) but also applying them to their day-to-day activities (i.e., transfer of training).

As noted, transfer of training is the eventual outcome of most of the training models and theories that have spawned since the 1900s (Salas & Cannon-Bower, 2001). Most researchers agree that transfer of training includes *generalization* which is the application of learned abilities to the performance at actual jobs, and *maintenance* which is the continuous use of learned abilities over time (e.g., Baldwin & Ford, 1988).

Factors Influencing the Training Process

Researchers commonly include both the trainee's characteristics and organizational factors as influencing training effectiveness and transfer of training (e.g., Broad & Newstroom, 1992; Kozlowski, Brown, Weissbein, Cannon-Bowers, & Salas, 2000; Kozlowski & Salas, 1997; Milheim, 1994; Salas & Cannon-Bowers, 2001; Tannenbaum, Cannon-Bowers, & Mathieu, 1993; Thayer &Techout, 1995).

Individual difference Variables

The trainee's cognitive, psychomotor, and physical characteristics and abilities influence willingness to be trained, training outcomes, and transfer of training. Diverse individual characteristics such as locus of control (Baumgartel, Reynolds, & Pathan, 1984; Smith-Jentsch, Salas, & Brannick, 2001), self-expectancy (Eden & Shani, 1982), tendency to believe in training (e.g., Baumgartel et al., 1984; Kozlowski & Salas, 1997; Salas & Cannon-Bowers, 2001) have been shown to be related to training outcomes and transfer of training. Further, it has been suggested that career and job related attitudes including career exploration and job involvement and organizational commitment are related to pretraining motivation or readiness for training (Noe & Schmitt, 1986).

While the list of individual characteristics is long and diverse, I have selected four of them as most relevant to the training of volunteers—*Goal Orientation, Commitment to Volunteering / Organization, Self-efficacy regarding Volunteer Works*, and *Motivation to Volunteer*. These selected individual difference variables are very context specific. Most of training studies have explored the roles of these individual difference variables including commitment, self-efficacy, and motivation. In this study, *Self-efficacy* and

Motivation were related to volunteering in general. In addition, *Commitments to Volunteering* and *to Organization* were also included.

Training in profit organizations are focused on imparting new knowledge and cultivating new skills and competencies, and make them experts. In contrast, training in the volunteer context is mostly related to providing the basic guidelines in the discharge of basic assignments. Thus, it is much more appropriate to include the individual difference variables like *Commitment to Volunteering /Organization, Self-efficacy regarding Volunteer works*, and *Motivation to volunteer* rather than those individual difference variables that relate to factors that affect skill or competence development such as Cognitive ability or Self-efficacy restricted to training per se. Similarly, I have included *Goal Orientation* as an antecedent variable although its application in the volunteer context has been rare because the conceptual linkage between goal orientation and attitudes toward training is rather strong. It is recognized that the level of training in the volunteer context is not expected to be significantly difficult, and that the connection between training outcomes and job performances is not well established. As noted, all these individual factors influence all stages of training (i.e., pretraining conditions, training outcomes, transfer of training) with some of them more related to some stages than others.

Goal Orientation. In achievement situations (i.e., training in our context), individuals may judge their success by two different yardsticks—*Learning* or *Performance* (Ames, 1992; Dweck, 1986). If individuals are learning oriented they will judge their experiences in the training program by the extent to which they have mastered the skills and knowledge imparted by the training program. On the other hand,

individuals high on performance orientation would evaluate their experiences based on how much better they performed than others in the training program. The distinction between learning and performance orientations goes beyond the conceptions of success and extends to the reasons for engaging in training and the reactions to training (Ames, 1992). Learning orientation includes the belief that effort leads to improvement in outcome and that ability is malleable; thus, individuals with a learning orientation focus on developing new skills, attempting to understand their tasks, and successfully achieving self-referenced standards for mastery. In contrast, individuals with Performance orientation to learning believe that ability is demonstrated by performing better than others, by suppressing normative-based standards, or by succeeding with little effort (Ford, Smith, Weissbein, Gully, & Salas, 1998).

It is suggested in the model that the decision to engage in training and one's attitude toward such training would vary with his or her goal orientations. These attitudes, in turn, would also moderate the processes and effects of training (e.g., Dweck & Leggett, 1988). For instance, learning orientation has been shown to guide learners to utilize more effective learning strategies, to challenge difficult tasks, to have a more positive attitude toward learning, and to believe in effort-performance relationship (e.g., Ames & Archer, 1988). As noted by Farr, Hofmann, and Ringenbach (1993), persons high on learning Orientation see effort as an effective way to develop the ability necessary for future task mastery. In contrast, those high on performance orientation perceived ability as a fixed attribute and effort is viewed as an indicator of low ability by performance. Therefore, they are less likely to put forth the effort to accomplish a task (Bell & Kozlowski, 2002). That is, individuals with high learning orientation tend to believe that success requires

interest, effort, and collaboration, whereas those with performance orientation are likely to think that success requires high ability (Duda & Nicholls, 1992). Learning orientation was also found to be positively related to performance, enhanced knowledge, and self-efficacy (e.g., Button, Mathieu, & Zajac, 1996; Bell & Kozlowski, 2002; Phillips & Gully, 1997; Salas & Cannon-Bower, 2001). Based on the above, it is expected that volunteers high on *Learning Orientation* would be more willing to be trained, and would be more able to transfer their learning to actual tasks than those high on *Performance Orientation*.

Commitment. The many and varied definitions of commitment have in common the meaning of mental binding to certain behaviors or activities (e.g., Brown, 1996; Brickman, 1987; Becker, 1960; Salancik, 1977). According to Meyer and Herscovitch (2001), a stabilizing or obligating force and direction of behavior are the core characteristics of commitment. While commitment to the organization is critical, it is equally important to consider commitment to the job at hand and the occupation. This is the essential thrust of Blau, Paul, and St. John (1993) who proposed and measured four facets of commitment—value of work, organization, job, and occupation/career. With regards to volunteering, it has been found that organizational commitment is significantly related to the amount of time people volunteer (Penner & Finkelstein, 1998). Volunteers may also be committed to different foci including an organization, a sport, a volunteer task, and the clients they serve. The model includes two foci of commitment—*Commitment to Organization* and *Commitment to Volunteering*. The rationale to include these two kinds of commitment is based on research findings that people high on organizational and career commitment (i.e., volunteering in our context) perceived training as useful for themselves and the organization (e.g., Quinones, Ford, Sego, &

Smith, 1995; Tannenbaum, Mathieu, Salas, & Cannon-Bowers, 1991). Thus, it can be inferred that volunteers who are higher in commitment to both organization and volunteering would be more willing to be involved in training. Also, it may also be hypothesized that volunteers higher on both commitments are likely to try hard to apply their learning and be successful in the transfer of training.

Self-efficacy. Self-efficacy which is defined as an individual's "beliefs in one's capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments" (Bandura, 1997, p3) strongly influences task choice, task effort, persistence in task, and performance achievement (e.g., Bandura, 1997; Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998). In a training context, self-efficacy has been found to be positively related to motivation to learn and attain technological skills (e.g., Quinones et al., 1995). In general, volunteers tend to involve in tasks and organizations they are competent or interested in. Therefore, volunteers may feel the need for training if they do not understand the job and/or do not possess the necessary skills and ability. Keith (2000) in a study of the relationship between volunteers' training preferences and their self-efficacy and worry found that (a) preferences for eight training and educational activities, assessment of initial training, initial and follow-up training were related to self-efficacy, and (b) formal training and follow-up training enhanced efficacy. Based on these findings, it is expected that the volunteers low on *Self-efficacy* regarding their volunteer works would be more willing to be trained than those who are high on this attribute.

Motivation to Volunteer. While as noted an individual's *Goal Orientation*, *Commitment*, and *Self-efficacy* may influence one's *Willingness to be trained*, there is an equally important potent influence on such willingness. It relates to the motivations

behind volunteering in the first place. That is, an individual's desire to help others through volunteering would impel the individual to learn more about how to help others, and how to apply such learning in the performance of assigned tasks. Accordingly, motivation to volunteer is included as a critical individual difference variable in the model.

While motivation to volunteer has been the focus of several studies (e.g., Caldwell & Andereck, 1994; Farmer & Fedor, 1999; Knoke & Prensky, 1984; Piliavin & Charng, 1990; Shibli, Taylor, Nichols, Gratton, & Kokolakakis, 1999), the most recent and comprehensive effort is that of Clary, Snyder, Ridge, Copelande, Stukas, Haugen, and Miene (1998). These authors based their work on functionalist theory which states that people engage in a task in so far as it serves some psychological functions for the individual. Their research yielded six dimensions or functions of volunteering. They are:

1. *Values*: opportunities for the expression of one's altruistic and humanitarian values and concerns for others.
2. *Understanding*: opportunities for learning and the exercise of knowledge, skills, and abilities that might not be used elsewhere.
3. *Social*: opportunities to be with friends or to be involved in an activity favored by important others.
4. *Career-related benefits* that may be obtained from participation in volunteer work.
5. *Protective*: opportunities to reduce the guilt of being more fortunate than others and to solve one's personal problems.
6. *Enhancement*: opportunities to promote positive growth and development of one's ego.

Based on this premise, it is proposed that the six motivational functions would be differentially related to *Willingness to be trained*. By the same token, these motivational functions are expected to be differentially correlated with *Preferences for different Training methods.*

Organizational Variables

Several organizational and situational variables such as organizational climate, organizational and social support, organizational mission, strategies, and culture also influence pretraining conditions, training, and transfer of training (Noe, 2002). Salas and Caonnon-Bowers (2001) view that the organizational variables that have been included in training models fall into three categories—*organizational climate, organizational support*, and *philosophy of training*.

Organizational Climate. Organizational climate refers to the employee perceptions of salient supportive features in the organizational setting (Schneider, 1990). Several researchers have viewed organizational climate as the interaction between objective components of the organization and subjective perceptions of employees (James & Jones, 1976; Schneider, 1983). In our context, perceptions of a positive climate are likely to influence all three training aspects of willingness to be trained, the actual training, and learning and transfer of such learning. In fact, Tracy, Tannenbaum, and Kavanagh (1995) found that climate was directly related to posttraining behaviors. Also, indicants of organizational climate such as autonomy granted to employees in decision making (Baumgartel et al., 1984), rewards for employees' training, and organizational effort toward employee development for development have all been found to influence on transfer of training (Hand, Richards, & Slocum, 1973).

Organizational Support. In addition, social support from the managers as well as peers strongly influences transfer of training. This is especially true with support from managers as they have the power and authority to guide employees toward organizational goals. In the process, managers can educate and encourage employees as well as design or modify the work such that they will have the freedom to utilize what employees are learned (Noe, 2002). Huczynski and Lewis (1980) found that supervisors' management styles influence transfer of training. In fact, it is the managers who provide the trainees the opportunity to use the learned capabilities, and transfer them to performance of assigned tasks. Such opportunities also facilitate the maintenance of knowledge and skills attained in training (Quinones et al., 1995).

Influence of Organizational Variables

The collective influence of the organizational variables on the three stages of the training process is explained below.

Pretraining Conditions. In general, organizational characteristics (e.g., size, structure, systems complexity, leadership pattern, goal direction) influence the attitudes and performance of individuals (Forehand & Gilmer, 1964). In the context of training, Tracy et al. (1995) found organizational climate which is defined as the perceptions of employees regarding salient features in the organizational setting (e.g., manager support, peer support, the chances to use capabilities learned, and technical support) predicts employees' engagement in training behaviors. For example, if the organization provides different training programs and allows employees to choose a training program and/or the organization compensates them for the participation in or completion of the training program, employees are more likely to be motivated to learn (e.g., Noe, 2002).

Training. Organizational climate and support systems evidenced by the amount of resources and efforts allocated for training (i.e., need assessment, research) lead to better training procedures. Such procedures would explore diverse designs and methods of training, and assess their advantages and disadvantages. The choice of a design and/or method would depend on the purposes and contents of training, and the numbers and abilities of trainees (e.g., Garry, 1998). That is, there is no single perfect training method or design that applies to all situations and trainees. Generally, it has been shown that combining several training methods is relatively effective; however, it is not possible to employ all effective methods at one time. Therefore, it is recommended to select the training methods based on available time, budget, the training outcomes desired, and the learning environment (Noe, 2002).

Transfer of Training. Organizational climate, support from coworkers, and other organizational support do influence transfer of training. As noted, autonomy regarding decision making, rewards for employees' training, and their effort for development, social support system (i.e., managerial and peer supports), supervisors' management styles, opportunity to perform, continuous learning environment, and knowledge management have shown significant relationship with transfer of training (e.g., Baumgartel et al., 1984).

Feedback

The proposed model also includes feedback loops from a longitudinal perspective. The results of transfer of training influence both individual and organizational variables. Effective transfer of training would influence the organization's level of support toward training and trainees' attitudes toward training. The organization that experienced

benefits of successful transfer of training (i.e., performance) would value the training process more, and embark on similar training programs.

Trainees' experiences in successfully applying their new skills on the job can also increase their adaptive expertise and other cognitive abilities (e.g., Perry, 1970). The positive relational experiences with mentors, supervisors, or coworkers are important factors that enhance diverse individual capabilities and development. Also, successful transfer of training can make employees cultivate a positive impression of their organization as well as the training process, and enhance their commitment to the organization.

Finally, training outcomes and trainees' reaction toward the training program itself would influence individual variables as well. If trainees improve their skills and knowledge as a function of the training, they will use those skills and knowledge on the job. However, if they think they are still not capable of applying the learned skills and knowledge on the job, their motivation or willingness to learn (repetition of training) may decrease.

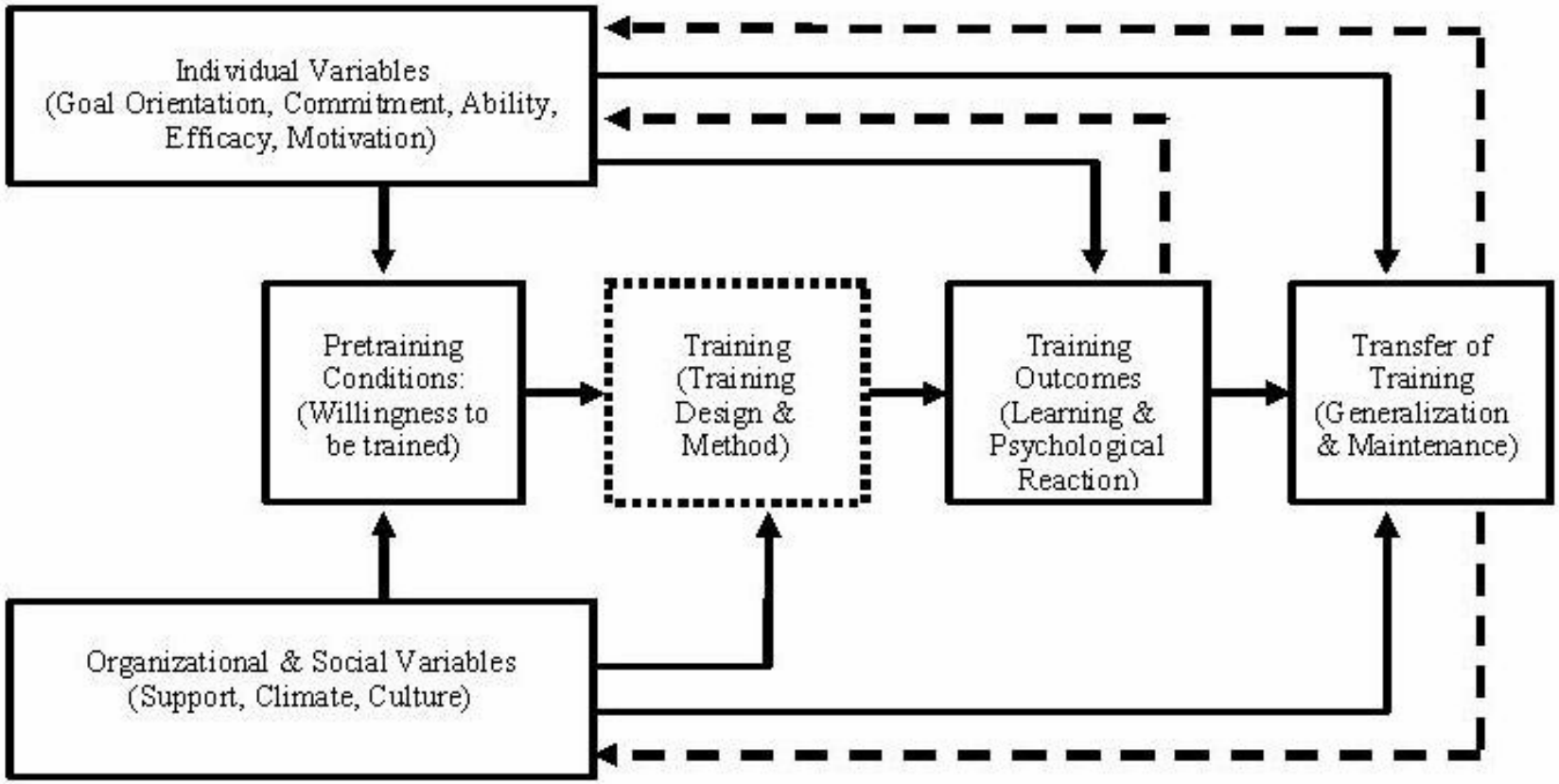

Figure 1.1: Conceptual Model of Volunteer Training

Proposed Conceptual Model for Empirical Testing

The empirical model for this research is restricted to *Willingness to be trained* at the input stage, *Training Methods* at the throughout stage, and influence of *Individual Difference Variables* on those two stages. This is the first step in exploring the role of individual difference variables in the training processes of volunteers. Training theory and practice have placed great emphasis on analyzing the abilities, attitudes, and preferences of trainees. Based on the perspective that a focus on the trainees themselves would yield useful insights on designing training programs for volunteers, this study will investigate the relationships among individual difference factors among volunteers, their willingness to be trained, and their preferences for various training programs. The proposed empirical model is illustrated in Figure 1.2

The model presented in Figure 1.2 is based on person analysis, a category of the training needs assessment (Goldstein, Braverman, & Goldstein, 1991). Person analysis begins with an assumption that there are deficiencies in capabilities of volunteers to perform specified tasks. Accordingly, the abilities in which volunteers lack may need to be identified so that appropriate training can be designed. That is, person analysis consists of identifying those who need training and determining their readiness for training (Noe, 2002). Briefly, the basic premise of the model is that the effectiveness of a training program for volunteers is largely determined by the would-be trainees' willingness to be trained. Further, it is proposed that such willingness to be trained is a function of individual difference factors of (a) *Goal Orientation*, (b) *Commitments to Organization* and to *Volunteering*, (c) *Self-efficacy regarding Volunteer work*, and (e) *Motivation to Volunteer*.

Further, a training program's success would also be based on whether the trainees prefer the type of training program that is offered. According to Noe (2002), trainees are likely to be more motivated when they are able to choose a training program based on their needs (Noe, 2002). That is, volunteer preferences for specific training methods may vary depending on individual characteristics and their level of willingness to be trained. The appropriate matching between volunteer characteristics and training methods can lead to training effectiveness.

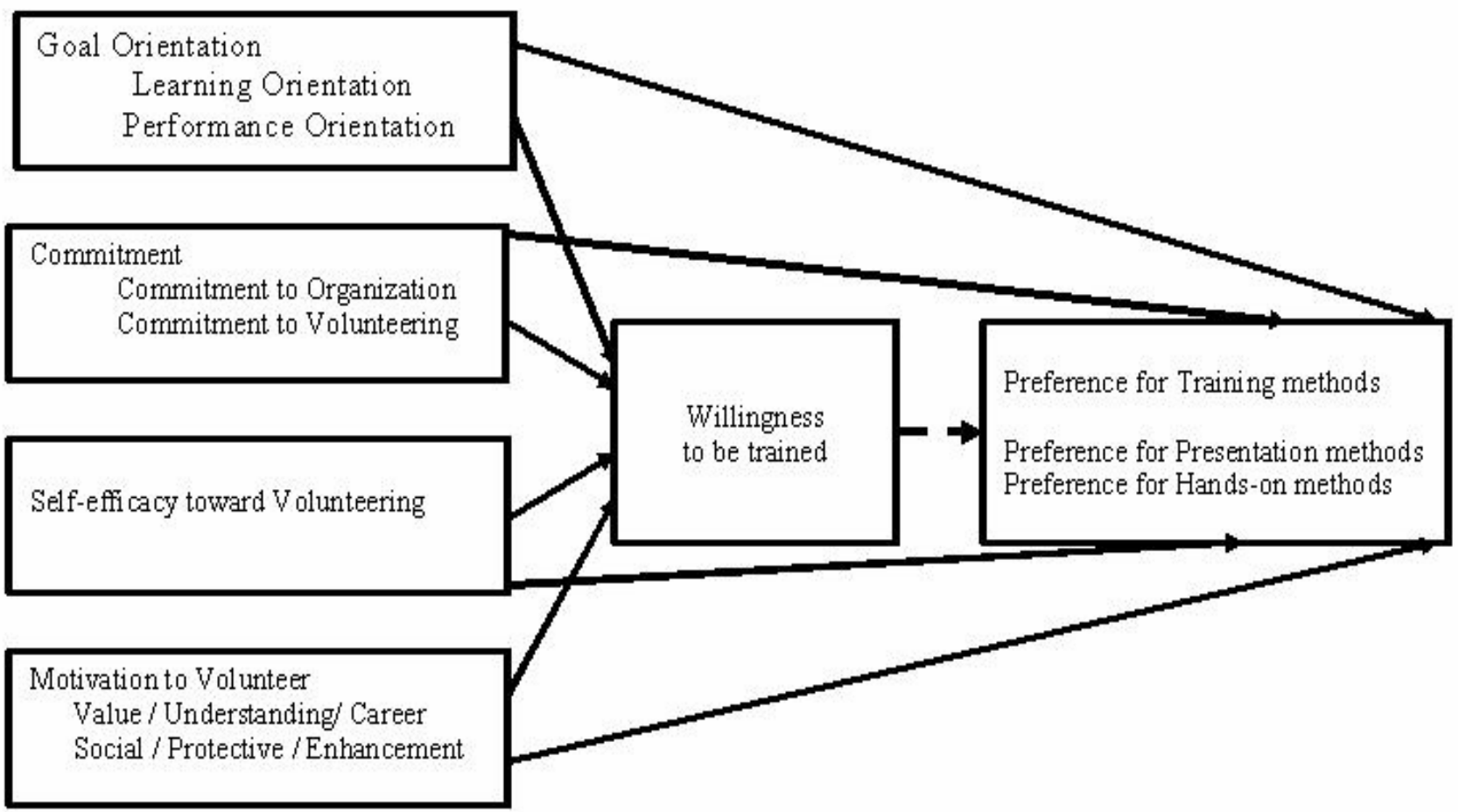

Figure 1.2: Empirical Model of the Study

Hypotheses

Individual Difference Factors and Willingness to be Trained

Goal Orientation and Willingness to be trained. Researchers have found that individuals with high learning orientation have more positive attitude toward training and have a stronger belief that the effort leads to success (Smith, Ford, & Kozlowski, 1997). On the other hand, individuals with high performance orientation have the tendency to see abilities and skills are not changeable by training or the effort (Campbell & Kuncel, 2002).

Hypothesis 1: The relationship between *Learning Orientation* and *Willingness to be trained* will be significantly higher than the relationship between *Performance Orientation* and *Willingness to be trained*.

Commitment and Willingness to be trained. It has been known that organizational commitment includes a willingness to put effort for the organization (Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982). Thus, it can be hypothesized that volunteers who have high organizational commitment are willing to participate in training of which the purpose is to make themselves to be ready or perform better in their jobs in the organization. Indeed, it has been found that individuals with high organizational commitment tend to consider training is useful and organizational commitment is actually highly and positively correlated with trainees' motivation to learn (e.g., Tanneubaum, Mathieu, Salas, & Cannon-Bowers, 1991). Further, researchers have agreed that the same type of commitment can exist toward an individual's occupation (Blau, 1985; Meyer & Allen, 1993) and found that it is also positively related to training motivation (e.g., Colquitt et al., 2000). In the context of volunteers, volunteering can be considered similar to an

occupation or career in the business context. In the volunteer literature, *Commitment to Volunteering* has been studied as often as *Commitment to Organization*. Based on these findings, the following hypotheses are advanced.

Hypothesis 2a: *Commitment to Organization* would be significantly and positively correlated with *Willingness to be trained*.

Hypothesis 2b: *Commitment to Volunteering* would be significantly and positively correlated with *Willingness to be trained*.

Self-efficacy and Willingness to be trained. Tanneubaum et al. (1991) found that two kinds of trainees' Self-efficacy, academic *Self-efficacy* and physical self-efficacy, are antecedents of motivation to learn. *Self-efficacy* refers to "a judgment of performance capability" (Gist, Stevens, & Bavetta, 1991, p.502). Most volunteers are likely to participate in volunteer works with a view to perform those works successfully. Thus, volunteers who are not confident about their capabilities to conduct their volunteer tasks (i.e., those who are low in *Self-efficacy*) may want to know and learn more about their tasks.

Hypothesis 3: *Self-efficacy* would be significantly and negatively correlated with *Willingness to be trained*.

Motivation to volunteer and Willingness to be trained. It is hypothesized that motivational functions will be positively related to volunteers' *Willingness to be trained.* First, volunteers high on the motivational function of *Values* (i.e., motivation based on true altruistic and charitable concerns; Clary et al., 1998) will take volunteer tasks seriously and seek ways to serve their clients better. Thus, they are likely to involve in volunteer training willingly. In addition, it has been found that the motivational function

of Value, concern for others, often predicts completion of assigned tasks (Clary & Orenstein, 1991). From this finding, we can assume that volunteers with high on motivational function of *Values* are more likely to be willing to be trained.

Hypothesis 4a: The motivational function of *Values* would be significantly and positively correlated with *Willingness to be trained*.

The motivational function of understanding refers to the acquisitions of new knowledge, skills, and abilities, and improvement in already existing knowledge, skills, and abilities by exercising them during volunteering (Clary et al., 1998). Likewise, the motivational function of *Career* can be accomplished by the opportunities to maintain career-relevant skills and prepare themselves for a new career during volunteering (Clary et al., 1998). That is, both functions are heavily related to training because fulfillment lies on learning or practicing for themselves.

Hypothesis 4b: The motivational function of *Understanding* would be significantly and positively correlated with *Willingness to be trained*.

Hypothesis 4c: The motivational function of *Career* would be significantly and positively correlated with *Willingness to be trained*.

In addition, the motivational function of *Social* can be served by the opportunities to be with others and engage in an activity others like (Clary et al., 1998). According to this, volunteers will like to engage in training where they can meet others and forge interpersonal relationship with them.

Hypothesis 4d: The motivational function of *Social* would be significantly and positively correlated with *Willingness to be trained*.

Also, it is expected that the volunteer functions of *Protective* and

Enhancement can somewhat influence volunteers' *Willingness to be trained*. According to Clary et al (1988), the motivation function of *Protective* is fulfilled by volunteer experiences to reduce the guilt over being fortunate than others and that of *Enhancement* is completed by volunteer chances to increase self-esteem. Based on the definitions of these functions of volunteer motivation, it is assumed that volunteers with either high *Protective* motivation or *Enhancement* motivation may think they can reduce their guilt or enhance self-esteem when serving their clients better and complete their volunteer works well. Thus, those volunteers are likely to engage in volunteer training which can help to perform better services for their clients or complete volunteer works better.

Hypothesis 4e: The motivational function of *Protective* would be significantly and positively correlated with *Willingness to be trained*.

Hypothesis 4f: The motivational function of *Enhancement* would be significantly and positively correlated with *Willingness to be trained*.

Individual Difference Factors and Preferences for Training Methods

Goal Orientation and Preference for Training methods. In addition, it is expected that the individual difference variables of *Goal Orientation* will have the direct relationship with the preference for training methods. It has been found that individuals with high *Learning Orientation* are willing to practice or learn to perform their jobs successfully (Ames, 1992). Thus, volunteers with high *Learning Orientation* may likely favor any kind of training methods but not those with high *Performance Orientation*. More specifically, those with high *Learning Orientation* may favor *Hands-on methods* (which require actual practices and more time) more than *Presentation methods* which require relatively less involvement. On the other hand, those with high Performance

orientation may have more negative feeling toward *Hands-on methods* than *Presentation methods*.

Hypothesis 5a: The positive relationship between *Learning Orientation* and *Preference for Hands-on methods* will be significantly higher than the positive relationship between *Learning Orientation* and *Preference for Presentation methods*.

Hypothesis 5b: The relationship between *Performance Orientation* and *Preference for Hands-on methods* will be significantly more negative than the relationship between *Performance Orientation* and *Preference for Presentation methods*.

Commitment and Preference for Training methods. It is assumed that volunteers with high *Commitment to Organization* are likely to engage in any activities (i.e., training) because they are provided by the organization and those with high commitment to volunteering are likely to involve in any activities (i.e., training) because it can increase the quality of their performance. Thus, volunteers with high commitment regardless of its kinds may prefer both training methods.

Hypothesis 6a: *Commitment to Organization* would be significantly and positively correlated with *Preference for both Presentation and Hands-on methods*.

Hypothesis 6b: *Commitment to Volunteering* would be significantly and positively correlated with *Preference for both Presentation and Hands-on methods*.

Self-efficacy and Preference for Training methods. As stated earlier, volunteers with high *Self*-efficacy *toward Volunteer works* may not like to engage in volunteer

training. By the same token, negative relationships between the level of *Self-efficacy and Preference for Training methods* (i.e., both *Presentation* and *Hands-on methods*) are expected.

Hypothesis 7: *Self-efficacy* would be significantly and negatively correlated with *Preference for both Presentation and Hands-on methods*.

Motivation to Volunteer and Preference for Training methods. It is expected that 3three of the functions of Motivation (i.e., *Understanding, Career, Social*) will be differentially related to *Preference for the two kinds of training methods*. It is expected that volunteers high on motivational functions of *Understanding* and *Career* will be attracted to practicing and applying learned knowledge, skills, and abilities on the practical settings. Thus, they may prefer *Hands-on methods*, which can provide the opportunities to practice and transfer learned knowledge, skills, and abilities on actual settings.

Hypothesis 8a: The relationship of the motivational function of *Understanding* with *Preference for Hand-on-method* would be significantly higher than its relationship with *Preference for Presentation methods*.

Hypothesis 8b: The relationship of the motivational function of *Career* with *Preference for Hand-on-method* would be significantly higher than its relationship with *Preference for Presentation methods.*

The motivation function of *Social* is deeply related to the relationship with others. According to Clary et al. (1998), volunteering provides opportunities to be with others or to be involved in an activity that significant others like. Based on this, it is hypothesized that volunteers who are highly motivated with the *Social* function of volunteering are

likely to prefer *Hands-on Training methods* because *Hands-on Training methods* (e.g., role-playing, behavior modeling) require more interpersonal contacts with others like other volunteers or trainers than *Presentation methods*.

Hypothesis 8c: The relationship of the motivational function of *Social* with *Preference for Hand-on-method* would be significantly higher than its relationship with *Preference for Presentation methods*.

On the other hand, the other three functions of motivation (i.e., *Values, Protective,* and *Enhancement*) are not directly related to any extrinsic benefits (*Social* or otherwise). They are more oriented toward more intrinsic benefits felt at the personal level. Thus, volunteers high on *Values, Protective,* and *Enhancement* functions of motivation are not likely to prefer one training method over another and would likely engage in either of the training methods in so far as they are perceived to teach them to provide better services for their clients or complete their assignments more effectively. .

Hypothesis 8d: The motivational function of *Values* would be significantly and positively correlated with *Preference for both Presentation* and *Hands-on methods*.

Hypothesis 8e: The motivational function of *Protective* would be significantly and positively correlated with *Preference for both Presentation* and *Hands-on methods*.

Hypothesis 8f: The motivational function of *Enhancement* would be significantly and positively correlated with *Preference for both Presentation* and *Hands-on methods*.

Willingness to be trained and Preferences for Training Methods

The literature does not provide any insight on the relationship between *Willingness to be trained* and *Preferences for either of Training method*s. However, it can be expected that if volunteers are willing to engage in training, they will show positive attitudes toward any kind of training methods.

Hypothesis 9: *Willingness to be* trained would be significantly and positively correlated with *Preference for both Presentation* and *Hands-on methods*.

Subgroup Difference

Volunteer studies often report the difference between male volunteers and female volunteers' commitment in terms of their numbers, duration, and tenure of volunteering and motivation (e.g., Independent Sector, 2002). Also, volunteer experiences have been studied as a variable influencing volunteers' attitude toward volunteer work and training (e.g., Keith, 2002). Thus, the differences between genders in the variables of the study will be analyzed and reported; however, there will be no proposed hypothesis. If there were to be significant gender differences, the results will be reported by gender and the total sample. Similarly, the correlations between volunteer tenure and the variables of the study will be reported. If volunteer tenure is found to be significantly correlated with other variables, it will be included as a control variable in exploring the relationships between volunteers' individual difference variables and their willingness to be trained and their preference for training methods.

In order to clarify hypotheses, independent and dependent variables are listed in Table 1.1.

Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	
		Sub-dimension
Willingness to be trained	Goal Orientation	Learning Orientation Performance Orientation
	Commitment	Commitment to Organization Commitment to Volunteering
	Motivation to Volunteer	Values Understanding Social Career Protective Enhancement
	Self-efficacy	
Preference for Training methods (1) Preference for Presentation methods (2) Preference for Hands-on methods	Goal Orientation	Learning Orientation Performance Orientation
	Commitment	Commitment to Organization Commitment to Volunteering
	Motivation to Volunteer	Values Understanding Social Career Protective Enhancement
	Self-efficacy	
	Willingness to be trained	

Table 1.1: Dependent & Independent Variables of the Study

Purpose of the Study

As stated above, volunteer training is necessary for overall organization performance through the enhancement of service quality. To deliver adequate volunteer training, it is important to understand volunteers' perception and attitude toward volunteer training from the perspective of person analysis. The purpose of this study is to explore volunteers' willingness to be trained and their preference for volunteer methods. In order to achieve this goal, first, the influence of diverse individual variables on *Willingness to be trained* will be investigated. In detail, two different goal orientations, *Learning* and *Performance Orientations*, two kinds of Commitments (i.e., *Commitment to Organization* and *to Volunteering*), *Self-efficacy regarding Volunteer works*, and six different functions of *Motivation* (Clary et al., 1998) will be antecedents. Further, the influence of volunteers' *Willingness to be trained* on their *Preference for Training methods* (i.e., *Presentation methods* and *Hands on methods*) will also be assessed. In addition, the direct influence of each individual variable on volunteers' *Preference for Training methods* will be explored.

Significance of the Study

The contribution of this study is manifold. Although both researchers and practitioners have continuously stressed the importance of volunteer training, there has been a dearth of volunteer training research. As the focus of this study is on individual volunteers, the results of this study will lay the critical foundation for further volunteer training research. Specifically, understanding of volunteers' individual perception and attitude toward training can be the initial stage for the development effective volunteer training programs.

In this study, volunteers' *Willingness to be trained* and their *Preferences for Training methods* are investigated as dependent variables. Both variables are meaningful and valuable in the context of volunteers as well as general academics. First, the meaning of *Willingness to be trained* is similar to that of motivation to learn in the business training literature. Thus, *Willingness to be trained* is more appropriate in the context of volunteers where participation in training is not a paid activity and it entails additional time over and above the time for volunteer work.

In training research, different training methods have been mostly studied as independent variables which influence the effectiveness of training. In case that training methods are used as dependent variables, researchers have often attempted to explore the relationship between cognitive abilities and training methods (e.g., Miki & Maki, 2000). I extend this perspective to include other individual difference variables (i.e., *Goal Orientation, Commitment to Organization* and *to Volunteering, Self-efficacy regarding Volunteer works, Motivation to Volunteer*). Further, it is not useful to explore the relationship between cognitive ability and training methods because cognitive ability is not a standard to recruit and select volunteers in most volunteer organizations. By exploring those individual difference variables included in this study, both researchers and practitioners can understand the dynamics of individual difference variables to design training programs.

Overall, the results of this study can provide appropriate knowledge and information for volunteer training, which cannot be obtained from training research in the business literature. Moreover, the results of this study will contribute to the development

of training research in both sport academics and industry where volunteers compose the significant portion of its workforce.

Delimitations

There are several delimitations in the current study. First, I have consciously chosen only four different individual difference variables (i.e., *Goal Orientation, Commitment to Organization* and *to Volunteering, Self-efficacy regarding Volunteer works, Motivation to Volunteer*) and will examine the influence of those variables on volunteers' *Willingness to be trained* and their *Preference for Training methods*. There could be other individual difference variables influencing volunteers' attitudes and perceptions for training. The four variables included in this study were selected because those variables were found to influence training more significantly than others in the context of volunteering.

Further, instead of including several different training methods, two groups of training methods (i.e., *Presentation methods, Hands on methods*) were included. For example, it is necessary to include some or significant amount of lectures to deliver any presentation methods. Also, after reviewing training literature, it was assumed that individuals who like a training method in hands on training methods have tendency to like similar training methods in the same category over lecture methods (e.g., Perdue & Woods, 2000).

Besides, computer-based training (CBT) was not included because CBT actually uses most lecture methods but just delivers via the computer or the Internet (Noe, 2002) and it may cause some confusion to analyze the results. It has been found that CBT requires a relatively high level of comprehension skills (Maki & Maki, 2002); thus, it

may not be appropriate to include in this study in which the comprehension level of volunteers are not. Also, group based training was also not included because it is not appropriate for this study.

Limitations

This study cannot avoid the limitations of survey studies. The study cannot control respondents' attitudes. They may fill out the survey untruthfully such as answering with socially desirable responses or answering randomly. Also, the study will be conducted on volunteers in one specific type of organization. Thus, the results cannot generalize to volunteers in other kinds of the organization or the general population of volunteers.

Definitions of Terms

1. *Volunteer*: the Volunteer Protection Act of 1997 specifically indicates that the volunteer protected is one who:
    (1) performs services (including officers, directors, trustees and direct service volunteers);
    (2) volunteers for a nonprofit organization or governmental entity; and
    (2) either (a) receives no compensation (although reasonable reimbursement for expenses incurred is allowed), or (b) does not receive anything of value in lieu of compensation in excess of $500 per year.
2. *Willingness to be trained*: readiness or motivation to be engaged in training gladly
3. *Learning (Mastery) Orientation*: a type of achievement goal "where the aim is to acquire new knowledge or skills" (Grant & Dweck, 2003, p. 541)
4. *Performance Orientation*: a type of achievement goal "where the purpose is to

"validate one's ability or avoid demonstrating a lack of ability" (Grant & Dweck, 2003, p. 541)

5. *Commitment to Organization*: "the overall strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in an organization" (Porter, Steels, Mowday, & Boulian, 1974, p. 389).
6. *Commitment to Volunteering*: the likelihood of an individual to involve and stick with volunteering.
7. *Self-efficacy*: "beliefs in one's capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments" (Bandura, 1997, p3)
8. *Motivation to Volunteer*: the reasons to answer why people volunteer are described in terms of the functions of value, understanding, career, social, development, and enhancement (Clary et al., 1998)
9. *Presentation methods*: training methods which consider "trainees are passive recipients of information" (Noe, 2002, p.215). Examples are lectures, audio-visual techniques, and panel discussion.
10. *Hands on methods*: training methods in which trainees are actively involved in learning. Examples are simulations, role-playing, case studies, and behavior modeling (Noe, 2002).

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Volunteers in Sport

The role of volunteers is indispensable in sport and recreation. Regardless of the level of sports (i.e. from youth sports to professional sports) and the size of the organization or event (i.e. from community organizations to international events), the involvement of volunteers is extensive. Volunteers are "a core component of sport service delivery" (Green & Chalip, 1998, p.14). In this section, both financial and non-financial values of volunteering are reviewed.

Economic Worth of Volunteers in Sport

Economic worth of volunteering is commonly calculated in two methods: the opportunity cost approach and the market price of equivalency (Solberg, 2003; the Grantmaker form on Community & National Service, 2003). In the opportunity cost approach, economic value of a volunteer is to calculate against the wage he or she could have earned if he or she had worked in other labor markets based on his or her educational background, experience, and the dynamic of the labor market (Sybourts-Pecolo, 1983). On the other hand, the market price of equivalency is to calculate "the market value of the volunteers' contribution" (Solberg, 2003, p.8). According to the

Independent Sector's calculation in the opportunity cost approach (2002), the estimated dollar value of volunteer time for 2002 is $16.54 which was calculated based on the average hourly wage of nonagricultural workers reported by the Bureau of Labor Statistics and 12% increase for the estimated fringe benefits.

The Independent Sector has reported the trends of volunteering in the United States by publishing its biannual research, Volunteering and Giving. According to the current research (2002), 44% of Americans (i.e., 83.9 million) volunteer for 15.5 billion hours which represent the equivalent of over 9 million full-time employees (i.e., $239 billion). The Independent Sector's research also reports the areas of volunteers' activities (i.e., direct service activity, fundraising, informal volunteering, religion, giving advice or counseling, youth, organizing an event, visiting people or offering companionship); however, this categorization does not include the area of sports or recreation. Thus, no concrete information on the number of volunteers or the amount of volunteering in the United States' sport and recreation is found while it is reported that about 21% of volunteers worked in sport and physical recreation organizations in Australia (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2000) and 26% of all volunteering performed in sport and exercise activities in the UK (1997 National Survey of Volunteering, 1998). Instead, the economic worth of volunteering in sport and recreation of the United States can be estimated based on the study of Tedrick and Henderson (1989) that 21% of all those who volunteered did so in sport and recreation is valid now, then the economic value of volunteering in sport and recreation would amount to nearly $58 billion.

Volunteers as Social Capital: Non-Economic Benefits of Volunteers

Aside from the economic values of volunteers' contribution, volunteers bring non-monetary and intangible benefits to their organizations or situations. Clients tend to evaluate volunteers more credible, legitimate, and sincere than paid employees (Tedrick & Henderson, 1989). Although paid employees might be better in the knowledge and ability to perform their tasks, volunteers are likely to be kind to clients and be enthusiastic to perform tasks because they are performing tasks they like. In addition, volunteers are effective for the growth of the organization because volunteers who are free from the evaluation, promotion, and financial compensation can deliver objective and critical feedback to the organization (Chelladurai, 1999).

Another advantage of having volunteers is the marketing and advertising effect. In the perspective of relational marketing, volunteers play significant roles to enhance the relationship between the organization and the local community. Volunteers who are from a local community can be used as a tool of the organization to get closed and involved in the community (e.g. Coyne & Coynes, 2001). Further, the sport organization or event can utilize volunteers to advertise their names, products, and services. Sport organizations (i.e., or sponsor companies) often provide the experiences of their products (i.e., or services) to volunteers and those volunteers who test products (i.e., or services) may purchase those products (i.e., or services) or spread out the quality of those products (i.e., or services) to potential clients in the community (James, 2001). That is, volunteers are effective advertising tools as well as future clients.

Issues in Volunteering in Sport

Since the importance of volunteers is notable, several concerns regarding sport volunteers exist. Most of all, recruiting and retention of volunteers and the quality of volunteer service may be the biggest concerns (e.g., Wymer, Jr. & Starnes, 2001). Researchers have agreed that organizational support (e.g., training, performance appraisal) can be an answer to increase the number of volunteers and the quality of volunteer services (e.g., Farmer & Fedor, 1999). In this section, this issue is discussed in two areas: lack of expertise and the need of training.

Lack of Expertise

Most of volunteers work hard to deliver excellent services for clients and complete their responsibilities successfully. However, the necessary skills, knowledge, and responsibilities may vary considerably. Thus, the quality of volunteers' services may not be all excellent even though most people volunteer for tasks which they are familiar with, interested in, and competent for. Further, volunteers' levels of performance are highly varied and the performance of some volunteers is marginal (Farmer & Fedor, 2001). The absence of organizational control, performance standard and appraisals, and organizational support (e.g., training) has been blamed for the poor performance of some volunteers or for high variability of volunteers' performances (e.g., Etzioni, 1975; Farmer & Fedor, 1999). Indeed, 40% of volunteers reported the poor management practices (i.e., ineffective use of time and talent, no clear description of tasks, no appreciation) are the reason for their exit from volunteering (UPS Foundation, 1999).

Those poor management practices results in errors in volunteer screening and selection, and the poor quality of volunteer services. Hence, clients of volunteer services

complain about those poor services or misbehaviors of volunteers; then, sometimes, those problems lead to serious physical or mental injuries and are brought to the court. For instance, untrained or unqualified volunteer coaches or umpires failed to deliver appropriate coaching and supervision which caused the injuries of youth sport participants during practices or games (e.g., Byrne v. Boys Baseball League, 1989, Zivich v. Mentor Soccer Club, 1998). Although these problems are often found in youth sport settings than any other areas, similar cases involving the poor supervisions of volunteer coaches, umpires, and officials are also found in the recreational sports of adults (e.g., Rolison v. City of Meridian, 1997).

Need of Training

Volunteer studies have insisted on the need for training. Scott and Caldwell (1996) pointed out care and support of persons (i.e., or organizations) who coordinate and organize volunteering and volunteers are significantly related to the outcome of volunteers and those care and support including training, education and recognition of volunteers' achievement can return benefits to the organization as well as individual volunteers. Similarly, organizational supports including organizational infrastructure, appreciation, and training or personal development were listed as three most effective ways for volunteer retention in the study of Phillips, Little, and Goodine, (2002) and the quality of training was significantly related to recruitment and retention of volunteer ombudsmen (Monk et al., 1984).

According to Care and Bass's (1995) research on older volunteers, most trained volunteers felt received training was adequate; on the other hand, non-trained volunteers reported the need for training. Further, these researchers concluded that adequate training

might enhance the level of productivity of volunteers. That is, volunteer training is found to be beneficial for not only the organization but also individual volunteers. Particularly for volunteers who consider the volunteer work with their current or future career, learning during volunteer training (e.g., acquisition of skills or knowledge) is a highly rewarding experience to bring in benefits to their career (Stebbins, 1996). Indeed, it has been found that training can maintain volunteers' motivation (e.g., Breaux, 1994; Danoff & Kopel, 1994) which is significantly related to retention rates (e.g., Hunot & Resenbach, 1998). It has been also found that lack of training was one of four stressors (i.e., emotional overload, client problem, lack of support) among volunteer AIDS caregivers even though two week training was provided for those volunteers prior to care giving (Guinan & McCallum, 1991). As reported in research, the lack of training has been always an issue in volunteer organizations.

The national and big volunteer organizations (e.g., 4-H, the Red Cross, Big Brothers/Big Sisters) have provided comprehensive organization supports (i.e., organizational infrastructure, training); however, small volunteer organizations cannot or do not provide the same level of organizational support and training (Kerka, 2003). Thus, umbrella organizations of volunteer organizations or governmental organizations have provided the guidelines for training programs and recommended the standards for volunteer training (e.g., National Volunteer Development Standards of U.S. Department of Agriculture (USDA), Leidheiser, 2001). According to Kerka (2003) stated that different models of volunteer management and development have been used in the United States (e.g., GEMS model, Culp, Deppe, Castillo, & Wells, 1998); however, no national standards of volunteer management and development has been published in the United

States as is the case in the United Kingdom (Voluntary Sector National Training Organization; VSNTO, 2002) and Australia (Volunteering Australia, 2001). Regardless, training, development, or education of volunteers is one of the main areas of volunteer management. The USDA's GEMS (Culp et al., 1998) is a suitable model to *Generate, Educate, Mobilize, Sustain* volunteers.

The situation of volunteer training in sports is not different from that of general volunteer training. While a few of big organizations have their own training programs (e.g., AYSO), small sport organizations cannot provide proper training for their volunteers; thus, umbrella organizations have offered the training program for sport volunteers. For example, the NYSCA provides three levels of Volunteer Coach Program designed based on the NYSCA Code of Ethics (i.e., 10 promises to be a good youth sport coach based on the value of the NYSCA). In the initial level membership program, volunteer coaches participate in an interactive video training clinic and get the certification after taking a completion exam. Those who complete the introductive program need to receive the renewal training program (i.e., the second level in the training program) before the expiration of the initial certification in the continuing membership program. Finally, volunteer coaches can participate in the Gold Level Certified Coach Course, a higher level of education which delivers higher coaching knowledge including over 430 links to drills and skills in 21 different sports via the web-based training program (NYSCA, 2004). The NYSCA reports that more than 2600 community based sport organizations have offered training opportunities for volunteers through the NYSCA Volunteer Coach Training Program (NYSCA, 2004). These training programs are more intensive and appropriate than those offered by individual small

organizations. However, the kinds of training programs offered by umbrella organizations focus only on just delivering skills and knowledge, and ethics and values of the organization. But the influences of individual differences of volunteers are not considered in designing these volunteer training programs.

Training Research

In this section, issues in training research are reviewed. First, the brief overview of training in the business sector is discussed. Then, the review of learning theories, training models, and training methods are followed. Finally, the individual difference variables relevant to this study are reviewed.

Training in the Organization

"Training refers to a planned effort by a company to facilitate employees' learning of job-related competencies including knowledge, skills or behaviors that are critical for successful job performance" (Noe, 2002, p. 4). The traditional goal of training is the acquisition of knowledge, skill, and behaviors to understand their tasks and services and adopt and modify them for better production and services. However, recently, it has been recommended that training should be a tool to create intellectual capital beyond basic skill acquisition in order to gain a competitive advantage (Quinn, Anderson, & Finkelstein, 1996). Further, training should be effective to accomplish the company's business strategies along with other human resource management functions like staffing and human resource planning (Noe, 2002). According to Industry Report 2000 (ASTD, 2000), 70% of organizations provided formal training at a cost of between $50 and $60 billions annually and employees spend approximately 30 hours a year for employer-provided training. Transportation, communications, and public utility industries spent the

most amount of money for employee training but service, construction, and retail trade industries spent the least. In addition, most companies used both in-house and outside suppliers of employee training. Almost every company delivered training in the classroom and about 50% of companies use the Web or Internet for employee training.

Such organizational characteristics like integration of business units, global presence, and business conditions influence the amount, type, organization, and content of training. Generally, new employee orientation, leadership, sexual harassment, new equipment operation, and performance appraisals are most common types of employee training (ASTD, 2000). However, some organizations offer such training programs for individual development like remedial math, writing, and reading, foreign language due to changes in work environments (e.g., globalization, need for leadership, increased value placed on knowledge, attracting and winning talent, quality emphasis, changing demographics and diversity of the work force, new technology, high-performance model of work systems; Noe, 2002). Also, many companies have adopted the broader perspective of training, in which employees understand training as an important part of the entire work system involving the relationships among their jobs, their work units, and company (Rosow & Zager, 1998) and promoted the continuous learning environment.

Learning Theory

Learning is a core part of training and its components can be expressed as *verbal information, intellectual skills, motor skills, attitudes, and cognitive strategies* (Noe, 2002). Some of the learning theories which support the process and effectiveness of training are briefly presented: *information process theory, reinforcement theory, social learning theory, goal setting theory,* and *need theory* (Noe, 2002).

Informational processing theory explains how the contents of training are accepted and retained internally. It proposes the pathway that information or messages goes through in the brain (Howell & Cooke, 1991). According to Gagne (1985), information accepting a message or feeling stimuli through ears, nose, skin, or eyes goes through sensory register and is stored in short-term memory. Then, the message is coded to be stored in long-term memory. Whenever a response is asked, a search is processed in either short-term or long-term memory; then, the response is generated to organize. Finally, the feedback occurs based on the evaluation of the response provided.

Gagne (1995) explains the processes of learning based on the information pathway in the brain. These processes consist of expectancy, perception, working storage, semantic encoding, long-term storage, retrieval, generalizing, and gratifying. Expectancy refers a mental set making learners focus on learning through reminding the purpose and outcome of learning. Perception is the process to organize the stimuli coming from outside for further processes of learning in the brain. The third step, working storage, consists of processes like recognizing and rehearsal. Recognizing is the process to match already stored information with new information and rehearsal process is the repetition of new information for coding to be retained for the longer period. However, the biggest limitation of working storage is the small amount of material that can be stored. Similar to rehearsal, semantic encoding has a function of memorizing information but it is the process to code information meaningfully and logically to be ready for long-term memory. After the above processes, information is stored in a long-term storage by an additional step which adds strength on stored information for stronger memory which make recall easier. Next comes the *retrieval* where what has been learned in long-term

storage is retrieved for use in the current situation. Then, generalizing process, adopting the information learned to other situations, is another critical process. It is the foundation for transfer of learning. Then, the final step, gratifying, is the state of the satisfaction due to achievement of goal.

Reinforcement theory suggests that people tend to perform or avoid certain behaviors due to the experiences with past outcomes of those behaviors (Skinner, 1953). From a training perspective, effective outcomes can motivate learners to be trained for knowledge and skills acquisition and behavior change. In addition, Social learning theory suggests that people observe the performance or behaviors of other experts or significant others and learn from them (Bandura, 1982) and the behaviors emphasized and rewarded are likely to be repeated as reinforcement theory insists. That is, trainees can obtain new skills and knowledge and change behaviors by observing others as well as directly experiencing the outcomes of learning.

Goal setting theory emphasizes that possessing goals or intentions results in better performance. Learners can perform better if they have goals and intentions (Locke, Shaw, Saari, & Latham, 1981). In the training context, if trainees have specific objectives or goals in training, training will be more effective. However, it has been known that trainees can perform better only when they have goals they are committed. Also, they are not likely to commit the goal if the goal seems difficult to achieve (Noe, 2002). Besides, According to the need theory, a need is a deficiency a person experiences and drives the person to act in a manner to fulfill the deficiency (McClelland & Burnham, 1976). While several researchers have described and categorized the psychological needs, the scheme that is most pertinent to our context is that of McClelland. McClelland and Burnham

(1976) have focused on affiliation, achievement, and power and these needs can be learned. That is, by identifying specific needs for trainers and showing how training leads to satisfy those needs, trainers can motivate learners.

Training Models

Since 1990s, training related research (e.g., theories, models, empirical results, reviews, meta-analyses) has been enormously increased (Salas & Cannon-Bower, 2001). Accordingly, various training theories and models have been developed and several constructs and concepts related to training have been introduced and integrated in newly developed models. These models incorporate antecedents, training outcomes, and transfer of training as well as actual training procedures. According to Tannenbaum and Yulk (1992), it is possible to answer why training works as well as whether training works by identifying and measuring factors that influence transfer of training accurately. Holton, Bates, and Ruona (2000) identified sixteen factors that influence transfer of training in two different categories: training specific factors and general factors (see Table 2.1).

Baldwin and Ford (1988) suggested a model of the transfer process, a framework of the transfer process in which training design, trainees' characteristics, and work environment are identified as influencing factors for learning retention and transfer of training (i.e., generalization, maintenance).

Another well-known training model is Tannenbaum, Cannon-Bowers, and Mathieu's (1993) comprehensive model of training effectiveness. Unlike earlier models, this model considers not only the factors occurring during training but also those before and after training. Also, the framework incorporates organizational and situational variables which influence the trainer's expectation and motivation to transfer as well as

diverse characteristics of the individual trainee (e.g., cognitive ability, locus of control, self-efficacy, organizational commitment, expectations, pretraining motivation) as critical factors for training effectiveness and transfer. That is, the framework integrates all variables influence training design and delivery (Salas & Cannon-Bowers, 2001). Similarly, other researchers have attempted to explain the training process based on three stages: pretraining, during training, and posttraining (e.g., Broad & Newstroom, 1992; Milheim, 1994). For example, Broad and Newstroom (1992) explained how to manage transfer of training by focusing on three time periods (i.e., before, during, and after training) and three organizational roles (i.e., the manager, the trainer, the trainee).

Kozlowski and Salas (1997) discussed the importance of the factors and processes in training based on organizational theory. According to Kozlowski and Salas (1997), training interventions are implemented and transferred in the context of the organization (e.g., work teams, subunits, organizational levels) and an individual's responses are related to those contextual factors. In the framework, three levels that compose the system are classified (i.e., individual, team, organization) and the processes that explain how to identify factors framing the system are also distinguished (i.e., technostructural process content, enabling process content). Then, the model explains the links within contents, between contents, and between levels. That is, the framework suggests that training outcomes of individual trainees are embedded in the condition of the team or unit level, coordination processes, and social or organizational contexts. In a similar vein, Kozlowski et al. (2000) explored organizational factors and training design which make the outcomes of the individual level to influence upper levels including the team or unit and the organization.

Thayer and Techout's (1995) transfer training model is another model of the training process. The uniqueness of the model is to suggest a little bit different concept of climate for transfer and include in-training transfer enhancing activities. They classified climates for transfer to two categories: antecedents which are called cues (i.e., goal cues, social cues, task cues) and consequences (i.e., positive and negative reinforcement, extinction) and included goal setting and relapse prevention as in-training transfer enhancing activities. Also, various individual factors such as ability, self-efficacy, previous knowledge and skill, reaction to previous training, and the level of understanding are articulated in the model.

	Training Specific Factors	General Factors
Definition	"factors affecting particular training the trainee is attending" (p. 340)	Factors which are "less program specific but influence any training program conducted" (p.340)
Factors	Learner readiness, Motivation to transfer, Positive personal outcome, Negative personal outcome, Personal capacity for transfer, Peer support, Supervisor support, Supervisor sanctions, Opportunity to use learning, Transfer design, Content validity	Transfer effort/ performance expectations, Openness to change, Performance-outcome expectancy, Performance self-efficacy, Performance coaching

Note. Adopted from "Development of a generalized learning transfer system" by E. F. Holton, R. A. Bates, & W. E. Rouna, 2000, *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, *11* (4), 333-360.

Table 2.1: Factors Influencing Training Programs

Training Methods

Noe (2002) classified training methods into four categories: *Presentation methods, Hands-on methods, Group Building methods,* and *New training methods*. These classifications are more likely to be based on the types of the practical methods rather than the theory behind the methods. In the following section, a few of training methods in each category are briefly reviewed.

Presentation Methods

The most salient characteristic of presentation methods is that "trainees are passive recipients of information" (Noe, 2002, p.215). Two most often used training methods (ASTD, 2000), lectures and audio-visual techniques, are classified under presentation methods.

Lectures. A lecture is primarily the one-way communication from the trainer to the trainee. The lecture format can save time and money by coming directly to the point and presenting a large amount of information efficiently to large numbers of the trainees (e.g., Garry, 1998; Noe, 2002). However, it makes hard for trainers to keep the attention of trainees and judge the trainees' level of understanding (e.g., Garry, 1998; Noe, 2002). In order to minimize these drawbacks of the lecture format, other training methods are often added. Panel discussions and team teaching are some variations of the standard lecture format.

Panel Discussions. Panel discussion, a variation of the standard lecture method, is a debate of two or more speakers. Panels are effective to show different points of views and share experiences. But if the trainees are not familiar with a topic, it is difficult to teach important skills and knowledge through this method (Garry, 1998).

Team Teaching. Team-teaching is a training method in which plural instructors teach different topics or different views of the same topic to the group at one time. Team teaching is good because joint efforts of trainers bring synergy effects to their teaching and trainees can experience several perspectives on the topic. However, it requires the trainers not only to prepare their parts but also to coordinate with the parts of other trainers (Noe, 2002). Also, much time could be wasted in dividing up tasks or repeating work when the role of each trainer is not defined well (Garry, 1998).

Audiovisual Techniques. Overheads, slides, and video are common examples of audiovisual techniques. Audiovisual aids are usually used to aid the lecture format training and increase the effect of training. According to the 2000 Industry Report (ASTD, 2000), video was used by 79% of companies and is the most heavily used method among audiovisual techniques. Video is used as an important part of behavior modeling as well as a supplement to the lecture. It is a powerful method because it can provide diverse situations that trainees may face. Also, trainers can control the speed and the number of viewing the tape based on trainees' level of understanding (Noe, 2002).

Hands-on Methods

The fundamental concept of hands-on methods is trainees' active involvement in learning. Hands-on methods are good for training of skills, and situational and interpersonal issues on the job and transfer of training. The examples of hands-on methods include simulations, role-playing, case studies, and behavior modeling.

Simulations. Simulations are used as an instructional method representing real life situations. Case studies, role-plays, and group projects are variations of simulation (Garry, 1998). Any activity which presents real life situations that trainees may encounter and

demands the practice of what trainees have been taught can be classified as a simulation. Simulations are very effective but they are expensive to develop and update since simulations should be similar to real situations including time limit and equipments.

Role Playing. It is a kind of hands-on teaching method that allows trainees to practice what they will learn and what they have learned. Unlike simulation which stresses on physical responses, role-playing focuses on interpersonal skills; therefore, outcomes of role-playing depend on emotional reactions between trainees (Noe, 2002). It gives trainees a chance to demonstrate how they would normally handle a situation. Then, trainers can teach skills and knowledge based on an act in role-playing. Also, trainees can discuss about and learn from the acts of other trainees (Garry, 1998).

Case Studies. In a case study, trainees are asked to criticize a description about how people or an organization dealt with a situation and to apply what they have learned to solve the situation. It is mostly used to review what trainees have learned at the final step of training. Case studies are good to develop highly intellectual skills and willingness to take risks in given situations (Noe, 2002). Most of all, the value of case studies is to teach trainers with realistic situations.

On the Job Training. On the job training is a training method in which novices or inexperienced employees learn skills through observing the job performances of experienced bosses or peers (Noe, 2002). On the job training method currently became so popular but it has a long history, which has its roots in the training of the medieval guilds. Every civilization has used it to pass on knowledge and skills to their offspring (Garry, 1998). On the job training may involve apprenticeships and self-directed learning. A significant drawback of on-the-job training is that experienced peers or managers who

perform skills in their own ways may possess bad habits, and pass them on to their apprentices. Therefore, the standardization of on the job training becomes critical (Garry, 1998).

Behavior Modeling. Behavior modeling is to teach skills or processes with a model who demonstrates the key behavior. Trainees in turn practice the key behavior demonstrated by the model. Behavior modeling is more effective to train skills and behaviors than factual information and it is also evaluated as one of the most appropriate training formats to educate interpersonal and computer skill (e.g., Simmon & Werner, 1996). For example, Simon and Werner (1996) found that behavior modeling was more effective to increase cognitive learning and skill demonstration in computer training than self-paced training and lecture methods and trainees trained by the behavior modeling method was most satisfied a month after training as well. Also, behavior modeling based on the mastery practice of skills was found to be more effective in retention and behavior demonstration measures than conventional behavior modeling based on the repetitive practice (May & Kahnweiler, 2000).

Group Building Methods

Group building methods are training methods to improve team effectiveness including building team identity, sharing experiences, and understanding of interpersonal dynamics (Noe, 2002). Adventure learning, action learning, and team training are examples of group building methods. Adventure learning which focuses on teamwork and leadership skills mostly through outdoor training, and action learning which provides a chance to solve an actual problem are often used formats of group building methods (Noe, 2002). However, team training is most often used for employee training.

Team Training. Team training refers to the coordination of team members' performance to achieve a common goal (Noe, 2002). According to Salas and Cannon-Bowers (1997), training strategies are influenced by team training objectives created based on training contents as well as training tools and methods. Training contents for effective team performance (e.g. team morale, cohesion, identity) are behavior, attitude, and knowledge. Various tools (e.g. team task analysis, performance measurement, task simulation and exercises, feedback, principles) and diverse team training methods influence to create the strategies of team training (e.g., cross training).

Cross training refers to a training strategy in which team members train each other (Volpe, Cannon-Bowers, Salas, & Spector, 1996) in order to expand the knowledge and skills of trainers (Marks, Sabella, Burke, & Zaccaro, 2002), to assist other members' need (Dickson & McIntyre, 1997), and to make up the absence of other members (Noe, 2002). Blickenderfer, Cannon-Bowers, and Salas (1998) classified cross training into three levels. The least involving style of cross training is positional clarification which just includes verbal exchange among team members regarding their jobs; the second form of cross training is positional modeling involving both verbal discussion and observation. Finally, the most in-depth form is a hands on approach through active participation in others' roles. Volpe et al. (1996) found members in cross training teams shared more information before it was asked and perform better than those in non cross-training teams.

New Training Methods

New technologies have changed training in a great deal. By applying new training methods, the organization can reduce the costs in delivering training to employees, increase the effectiveness of training, and help training transfer under the umbrella of

business goals (Noe, 2002). The commonly used new training methods include multimedia, distance learning, electronic support systems, and training software applications (Noe, 2002). Computer based training can utilize most of traditional and new training methods together; therefore, as an example of new training methods, computer based training is introduced below.

Computer-Based Training. Computer-based training (CBT) is "an outgrowth of the work begun several years ago on artificial intelligence and the development of expert systems" (Garry, 1998, p.189). The most distinctive difference between traditional instructor led training and CBT may be the ability of trainees to individualize their learning experience in contents, methods, practice level, and time and duration of training (i.e., learner choice, Brown, 2001). A high-tech form of programmed instruction which may be the earliest and most common form of CBT was mostly common form of CBT. Programmed instruction includes a series of written questions with the hidden answers but trainees are able to check their answers with those hidden answers immediately. The biggest drawback of programmed instruction is that it cannot bring trainees' motivation because of its dullness, limited interaction, and repetitive format (Garry, 1998).

However, due to technological development, CBT permits the trainees to respond to the stimulus offered and the computer provides feedback to the trainee in more interesting ways (Noe, 2002). Various devices such as the interactive video, CD-ROMs, laser discs, DVDs, and Internet CBT are used to facilitate CBT. With new technologies, the capabilities and training effects of CBT got even greater (Brown, 2001).

Individual Differences

Individual difference variables included in this study are discussed in this section. The general concept of each variable and its role in training and volunteering are discussed. These variables are goal orientation, commitment, self-efficacy, and motivation.

Goal Orientation

Achievement motivation has been often understood based on the goal orientation of individuals (e.g., Ames, 1992; Ames & Archer, 1988; Dweck & Leggett, 1988). Goal orientation models have suggested two different kinds of goal orientation in achievement settings (i.e., mostly in the classroom). Two classes of the well-known goal model of Dweck and colleagues are performance goal orientation and learning goal orientation. Performance goal orientation which is also called ability goal orientation (Ames, 1992) refers to "where the purpose is to validate one's ability or avoid demonstrating a lack of ability." In contrast, learning goal orientation which is labeled as mastery orientation by Ames (1992) is "where the aim is to acquire new knowledge or skills" (Grant & Dweck, 2003, p.541).

Another classification of goal orientation is one of Nicholls (1984): Task orientation and ego orientation. Task orientation is defined as "the goals of improving one's skill or gaining insight or knowledge and the beliefs that, in order to succeed, students must work hard, attempt to understand schoolwork, and collaborate with their peers" (p. 328) while ego orientation refers to "the goal of establishing one's superiority over others and the beliefs that success in school requires attempts to beat others and superior ability" (Nicholls, 1984, p.328). Despite the differences in labeling, Nicholl's

task orientation is similar to Dweck's learning orientation and ego orientation is close to the meaning of mastery orientation.

Goal Orientation in Training Studies

Goal orientation has been studied extensively in training research. In addition to the influence of goal orientation on training motivation and outcomes (e.g., Towler & Dipboye, 2001), the relationships between goal orientation and other individual difference variables have also been studied. Specially, it has been found that mastery goal orientation (i.e., or learning orientation) is related to knowledge-based learning outcomes, meta-cognitive activity of the trainee, and self-efficacy (e.g., Bell & Kozlowski, 2002; Colquitt et al., 2000; Ford et al., 1998, Button et al., 1996; Phillips & Gully, 1997; Salas & Cannon-Bower, 2001).

Further, goal orientation has also been studied in the specific training contexts. For example, Toweler and Dipboye (2001) studied the function of mastery goal orientation of trainees in different learning contexts (i.e., organized vs. less organized lecture, expressive vs. inexpressive lecture). The study revealed that an organized and inexpressive lecture was most ineffective to the problem solving performance of trainees high on mastery orientation while the types of the lecture has no impact on problem solving and recall of trainees low on mastery orientation (Towler & Dipboye, 2001).

Goal Orientation in Volunteer Studies

Goal orientation has not been included in volunteer studies perhaps because goal orientation is heavily related to achievement settings which are not characteristic of volunteering. Even though training issues have been discussed in volunteer settings, most

of those training studies have not dealt with individual differences among volunteers. The present study is an attempt to fill this void.

Commitment

Commitment has been defined as "linking extraneous interests with a consistent line of activity" (Becker, 1960, p.32); "a state of being in which an individual becomes bound by his actions and through these actions to beliefs that sustain the activities of his own involvement"(Salancik, 1977, p.62); "a force that stabilizes individual behavior under circumstances where the individual would otherwise be tempted to change that behavior"(Brickman, 1987, p.2); and "an obliging force which requires that the person honor the commitment, even in the face of fluctuating attitudes and whims" (Brown, 1996, p. 241). These definitions of commitment in the organization literature are different in detail; however, all of them have similar meaning of mental binding to certain behaviors or activities (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001).

As commitment has been differently defined in organizational research, different groups of researchers have understood organizational commitment differently and have developed different measures. One of well-known theories and scales are Mowday, Steers, and Porter (1979)'s Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ), they defined organizational commitment as "the overall strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in an organization" (Porter et al., 1974, p. 389) and developed OCQ. Even though the OCQ was proposed to measures four different aspects of commitment, desire of maintaining membership, willingness of exert efforts, and acceptance of organization values and goals (Mowday et al., 1982), it produces a single score of overall commitment to organization.

On the other hand, Meyer and Allen (1991) and O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) suggested multidimensional models of organizational commitment. O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) defined organizational commitment as "the individual's psychological attachment to an organization" (p.493) and developed their multidimensional model comprising three dimensions: compliance, identification, and internalization. Compliance refers the behavior that accepts organizational goals and influence by reason of a desire to gain rewards and avoid punishment. Identification occurs with accepting organizational goals and influences in order to maintain a satisfying relationship with other people in the organization. Finally, internalization refers to acceptance of organizational goals and influence because personal internal values and goals are congruent with the organization's exemplified values and goals. However, O'Reilly & Chatman's model has been criticized by other scholars because of unclear distinction among subcategories (Vandenberg, Self, & Seo, 1994).

Meyer and Allen (1991) defined organizational commitment as "a psychological state that binds the individual to the organization" (p.65) and suggested the three-component model of organizational commitment as well. Their three dimensions are affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment. Affective commitment is the emotional attachment of individuals to the organization. Continuance commitment refers to the intention to remain in the organization due to the rewards of staying or the costs of leaving. The last dimension, normative commitment, is associated with an obligation to remain as a member of the organization.

It has been found that organizational commitment is positively related to job satisfaction and motivation (Mowday et al., 1992) but negatively related to absenteeism

and turnover (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Reichers (1985) insisted that organizational commitment could develop a particular relation to an organization (Reichers, 1985) as well. Also, researchers agreed that commitment influences behavior independently of other motives and positive attitudes (Brown, 1996; Mowday, 2001). In sum, it has been known that the collective commitment of workers leads to organizational success (e.g., Chelladurai, 1999).

Even though commitment to organization has been the focus of most studies, the concept can be extended to other targets in the job context. Morrow (1983) insisted that individuals can have the same kind of commitment for other factors in their work contexts and categorized work commitment in five categories: value, career, job, organization, and union. Value means Protestant work ethic; career related with career salience; job is based on job involvement and central life interest; organization is the same as organizational commitment; and finally, union means union commitment. However, Blau et al. (1993) criticized the redundancy of Morrow's categories and reduced five work commitment facets to four facets. These four facets are value, organization, job, and occupation which was replaced instead of career. Other researchers have also noted the existence of commitment to other factors. For example, Rusbult and Farrell (1983) defined that job commitment is "the likelihood that an individual will stick with a job, and feel psychologically attached to it, whether it is satisfying or not" (p.431) and Carson and Bedeian (1994) stated that career commitment referred to one's motivation to work in a chosen vocation.

Commitment in Training Studies

Researchers have studied a trainee's attitudes toward his/her job and career as factors influencing training (e.g., job involvement, commitment, career planning, career exploration). In earlier training studies, commitment of trainees has been studied less than personality (e.g., self-efficacy, goal orientation) but the interests of researchers in the role of attitudes (i.e. commitment) in training have since been increased (Ahmad & Baker, 2003). Colquitt et al. (2000) stated that employees high on organizational commitment or career commitment were likely to consider training as a useful tool for both the organization and themselves. Their meta-analysis reported that organizational commitment was positively related to training motivation, reaction, posttraining self-efficacy, transfer of training, and job performance. According to Colarelli and Bishop (1990), career commitment is specially related to employees who are interested in development of higher skills, and makes them persist in years of training. In addition, it has also been found that the availability and adequacy of training do influence commitment among employees (e.g., Lowry, Simon, & Kimberley, 2002). Particularly, the availability of training is strongly related to affective and normative commitment (Bartlett, 2001). Also, Ahmad and Baker's study (2003) confirmed that the availability of training was significantly related to affective and normative commitment and overall organizational commitment. They also found that availability of training, support for training, motivation to learn, training environment, and perceived benefits of training were significantly related to those three commitments studied.

Commitment in Volunteer Studies

Commitment of volunteers has often been studied in volunteer contexts. Since no extrinsic compensation is provided for volunteers, commitment has been considered as a significant factor determining volunteers' retention or quality of services. In volunteer contexts, commitment to organization and commitment to volunteering have not been sharply distinguished. It has been found that volunteers' decision to involve in volunteering was significantly related to commitment (Knoke, 1981), and the relationship between value commitment of volunteers and their start of volunteer work was stronger than that between value commitment of paid employees and their start of working (Katz & Kahn, 1978). In addition, opportunities for social interaction and feeling of importance in the organization have shown the significant relationship with organizational commitment (e.g., Cuskelly, 1995; Knoeke, 1981; Latham & Lichtman, 1984). Also, hierarchical position in the organization was positively related to organization commitment (e.g., Knoke, 1981).

Demographic characteristics of volunteers (i.e., education level, gender) and the attitude of volunteers (i.e., viewing volunteer work as having value, desire to learn a new skill) influence significantly the levels of involvement. Further, volunteer experience and education were significantly related to service duration (Lammer, 1991). Among sport volunteers, Cuskelly, McIntyre, and Boag (1998) have found that sport administrators in community based organizations showed that volunteers' age, hours of the volunteer service, and tenure in the organization were significantly and positively related to organizational commitment but occupational prestige of volunteers in their jobs was significantly and negatively related to organizational commitment.

As noted above, not only attitudinal commitment of volunteers but also the behavioral expression of commitment of volunteers has been studied. Attitudinal commitment is often measured by survey questionnaires like OCQ and Social Identities Questionnaire (SIQ, Jackson, 1981) (Reich, 2000) while the behavioral commitment of volunteers is often calculated by duration of time served, tenure, and retention rates (e.g., Hunot, Rosenbach, 1998).

Also, commitment to religion is a kind of commitment studied in the volunteer context. This need not be surprising since a lot of volunteering opportunities are provided by religious organizations, and the missions of many religions include the spirit of volunteering. For example, Forst and Healy (1991) found that college students' commitment to a particular religion was significantly related to the participation in volunteer works.

Self-efficacy

Self-efficacy is defined as "peoples judgment of their capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performance" (Bandura, 1986, p. 391). According to Pinquart, Juang, and Silbereisen (2002), the study of self-efficacy has been domainspecific such as academic self-efficacy and occupational self-efficacy. That is, self-efficacy refers to the sense of confidence to an individual's capability to perform tasks in the specific challenges (e.g., Jerusalem & Mittiag, 1995). It has been found that students with high self-efficacy tend to work hard and continue their learning (e.g, Linnenbrink & Pintrich, 2003). Further, self-efficacy is related to motivation to learn and academic performance (e.g., Zimmerman & Martinez-Pons, 1990). In addition, Bandura (1997) suggested that self-efficacy influences an individual's

behavior in three ways: approach or avoidance behavior, performance quality, and persistence at work. It has been found that self-efficacy influenced the interests, values, goals, activities, and performance in the career (e.g., Hackett & Lent, 1992) and was related to commitment to a career and career search (e.g., Bandura, 1997). Further, self-efficacy predicts an individual's satisfaction with their career (e.g., Erwins, 2001).

Self-efficacy in Training Studies

It has been found that individuals high on self-efficacy tend to prepare themselves in education and complete educational requirement for their work roles (Bandura, Barbarabelli, Caprara, & Pastorelli, 2001). Also, those with high self-efficacy regarding their jobs are likely to succeed in career training (Bandura, 1997). However, self-efficacy in training studies is not toward jobs (i.e., careers) but toward training contents. Indeed, self-efficacy in training is one of common individual difference variables often included training models as antecedents of motivation or training outcomes (e.g., Holton et al., 2000; Baldwin & Ford, 1988; Tannenbaum, et al., 1993; Thayer & Techout 1995). That is, self-efficacy has been studied as both antecedents of training (i.e., pretraining outcomes) and training outcomes (i.e., posttraining outcomes). It has been found that pretraining self-efficacy influence training motivation and training motivation influence posttraining self-efficacy (e.g., Colquitt et al., 2000; Gist, Stevens, & Bavetta, 1991; Quinones et al., 1995). Also, other individual difference variables (e.g., goal orientation, commitment) influence self-efficacy of trainees in the training process (e.g., Bell & Kozlowski, 2002).

Self-efficacy in Volunteer Studies

Self-efficacy in the volunteer context has been mostly studied to assess the need of volunteer training or to evaluate the effectiveness of the volunteer training program. A study on volunteer peer health educators found that volunteers made the decision to participate in a peer health educational program to enhance their self-efficacy regarding the volunteer work (i.e., they could help others successfully) and the effectiveness of training program (i.e., participation in the educational program can help their service to others, Klein & Sondag, 1994). In addition, the research on volunteer ombudsmen revealed that volunteers' level of education was positively related to their level of self-efficacy (Keith, 2000). Further, the research revealed that a positive evaluation of initial training for their volunteer responsibilities enhanced the level of self-efficacy; accordingly it reduced the level of worry. Keith's study (2000) confirmed the finding of earlier research (e.g., Davey, Jubb, & Cameron, 1996) regarding the linkage between self-efficacy and worry. That is, the higher the level of self-efficacy, the lower the level of worry.

Motivation

Motivation, "the complex forces, drives, needs, tension states, or other mechanisms, that start and maintain voluntary activity toward the achievement of personal goal (Hoy & Miskel, 1982, p. 137), is a main area of interests in the organization study and volunteer study as well as general psychology research. Researchers have presented different perspectives and models of motivation. For instance, Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory is used to understand trainees' attitude toward training. Expectancy theory tries to explain a person's motivation and efforts based on three factors:

expectancy, instrumentality, and valence. (Vroom, 1964) Expectancy refers to the possibility of performing well; instrumentality is the belief the performance leads certain outcomes or rewards; and valence is related to how highly the person values the outcomes. That is, learners tend to put more efforts in training if they want to perform better in their tasks or jobs, and if they believe that they are able to learn and that the training programs are effective.

Maslow's (1954) need hierarchy theory is also relevant volunteering. Maslow categorizes the needs based on their prepotency into physiological needs, safety and security needs, love needs, esteem needs, self-actualization needs. Volunteering may be related to upper levels of needs in Maslow's need hierarchy: love and social needs, esteem needs, and self-actualization. That is, based on Maslow's theory, people volunteer to satisfy their higher order love and social needs and esteem needs, and self-actualization after satisfying physiological needs (e.g., food and salary) and safety and security (e.g., health coverage, job security). Indeed, Clary et al.'s (1998) functional motivation dimensions are closely related to these upper needs in Maslow's hierarchy. The volunteer motivation functions of value, protect, and enhancement can be classified to either esteem needs or self-actualization in the motivational hierarchy and the volunteer motivation functions of social and career can be categorized to love and social needs in the motivational hierarchy.

Motivation in Training Studies

Motivation in training studies is mostly related to motivation toward engaging in training program. Motivation to learn refers to "a specific desire on the part of the trainee to learn the content of training programs (Noe & Schmitt, 1986, p.501). According to

Noe (1996), motivation to learn has been studied in educational settings and has focused on measuring the enthusiasm for learning and the persistence to remain in training program. Indeed, motivation to learn has been included in many training models either as the predictor of training outcomes such as success and completion of training program (e.g., Ryman & Biesner, 1975) or as the mediator between individual difference variables and training outcomes (e.g., Noe & Schmitt, 1986).

By using meta analysis and meta-analytic path analysis, Colquitt et al.'s (2000) reviewed training studies conducted in 1980's and 1990's. The results of Colquitt et al.'s (2000) meta analysis revealed that individual difference variables (i.e., locus of control, conscientiousness, anxiety, age, pretraining self-efficacy, valence, achievement motivation), organizational variables (i.e., positive climate, supervisor support, peer support), and job/career variables (i.e., job involvement, organizational commitment, career commitment, career planning, career exploration) are positively related to motivation to learn, and motivation to learn influences training outcomes (i.e., declarative knowledge., skill acquisition, reactions) and transfer of training. Further, a meta-analytic path analysis of confirmed that individual difference variables (i.e., locus of control, conscientiousness, anxiety, age, pretraining self-efficacy, valence, job involvement) and organizational variable (i.e., climate) predict motivation to learn, and training outcomes (i.e., declarative knowledge, skill acquisition, posttraining self-efficacy, reactions) are predicted by motivation to learn.

Another motivation which has been discussed in training contexts is motivation to transfer. Motivation to transfer refers to "the trainees' desire to use the knowledge and skills mastered in the training program on the job" (p.743) and the confidence in using

learned skills and perceived applicability of learned skills on the job are known as important factors in motivation to transfer (Noe, 1996). Researchers have included motivation to transfer as a mediator between training outcomes and transfer of training (e.g., Noe, 1996).

Motivation in Volunteer Studies

The motivation study is an area the most often found in the volunteer literature. Altruism has been known as a significant reason of volunteering. However, Piliavin and Charng (1990) stated that altruism is not the only or main motive even though it is a important reason of volunteering among many people. According to their review, altruistic motives among blood donors were significantly stronger than any other motives in terms of the continuity of the activity. Also, Shibli et al., (1999) reported that 63% people volunteer for self-interest while 44% volunteers work because of altruism in U. K. sport clubs.

Farmer and Fedor (1999) studied volunteer behavior based on a psychological contract approach. They hypothesized that people volunteer with specific expectations, are interested in whether the organization fulfills this expectation, and react accordingly. However, their study reported that even though volunteers had certain expectation before entering the working relationship, the initial expectations had little effect on following behaviors, especially turnover. Based on this result, the authors concluded that volunteers might focus on exchanging their efforts for more generalized considerations, such as recognition and valuing from the organization rather than specific things. Also, they stated that volunteers with more instrumental motives might concern more on self-direct

benefits and those with more altruistic motives concern more on the third party or the organizational value.

On the other hand, Knoke and Prensky (1984) identified volunteer motivation as utilitarian, affective, and normative incentives. Indirect benefits from volunteer works (e.g., knowledge and skills acquisition from volunteering) are classified as utilitarian incentives. Affective incentives are interpersonal relationships, which can bring positive social consequences (e.g., friendship and prestige). Finally, normative incentives are constructed from the concern of others (e.g. helping others during volunteer works). Similarly, Caldwell and Andereck (1994) suggested three categories of incentives from volunteering work: purposive, solidary, and material. Purposive incentives focus on doing something useful and contributing to society; solidary incentives are related to social interaction, group identification, and networking; and material incentives are based on tangible earning. Caldwell and Andereck (1994) showed that purposive incentives were the strongest motives followed by solidary and material incentives in that order.

One of recent approaches regarding the motivation of volunteers is the functionalist approach. Functionalist theory suggests that people perform the same tasks depending on their psychological functions, which they bring to work situations. That is, people may involve in volunteering, work hard to perform tasks, or do their best to accomplish the mission of the organization based on their psychological functions. The research of Clary et al. (1998) showed that the reasons for volunteering can be meaningfully categorized into the six dimensions.

1. *Values*: opportunities for the expression one's altruistic and humanitarian values and concerns for others.

2. *Understanding*: opportunities for learning and the exercise of knowledge, skills, and abilities that might not be used elsewhere.
3. *Social*: opportunities to be with friends or to be involved in an activity favored by important others.
4. *Career:* opportunities that may be obtained from participation in volunteer work.
5. *Protective*: opportunities to reduce the guilt of being more fortunate than others and to solve one's personal problems.
6. *Enhancement*: opportunities to promote positive growth and development of one's ego.

Clary et al. (1998) also developed the Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI) as an instrument that assesses six functions and found that the motivational functions of Values, Understanding, and Enhancement were likely to be more important than the motivational functions of Career, Social, and Protective. However, Clary and Snyder (1999) also pointed out that different volunteers might have different motivational functions and have multiple motivations for volunteers.

CHAPTER 3

THE PILOT STUDY

As noted, a pilot test was carried out to verify the appropriateness of the wording and format of the questionnaire, and its content validity. After collection and analyses of the data of the pilot study, and the perusal of the suggestions and feedback from participants, the questionnaire was revised and finalized for the main study. Prior to the pilot study, permission to conduct the study was secured from the Human Subjects Review Committee of the Institution Review Board of The Ohio State University. This chapter, the pilot study, includes descriptions of (a) type of research, (b) participants, (c) instrument, (d) data collection procedure, (e) data analyses, and (f) results.

Type of Research

Research can be categorized in diverse ways based on the purpose of the classification. However, in the perspective of researchers, the most commonly used and broadest categorization is to divide into two major approaches: quantitative and qualitative research. This distinction was born with the introduction of qualitative methods against the traditional quantitative methods in the 19th century (Creswell, 1994). Qualitative methods refer to the naturalistic approach (Lincoln & Guba, 1985), the postmodern approach (Quantz, 1992), or the interpretive approach (Smith, 1983) while

quantitative approaches refer to the traditional, the positivist, the experimental, or the empiricist method (Smith, 1983). The two methods have some similarities as research. Both types should have a well-established research question, list of potential subprograms, and indicate the direction of outcomes (Mitra & Lankford, 1999) to be systematic, logical, empirical, reductive, and replicable (Tuckman, 1978).

However, the differences of the two approaches may be more salient than those similarities. Qualitative research focuses on the broad and deep understanding toward issues while quantitative research is mostly based on the fragmentary aspects related to numeric data (Ary, Jacobs, & Razavieh, 2002). Specifically, the differences between the two research methods are based on the assumptions used to define them (Creswell, 1994). Quantitative research emphasizes on the objective view of the researcher, the distant relationship between the researcher and something measured, and the independence of researchers from the study population; on the other hand, in qualitative research, the subjective view, values, and interpretations of the researcher are accepted and respected but biases may not be avoidable (Mitra & Lankford, 1999). Creswell (1994) recommended that researchers should choose a research method based on criteria such as researcher's worldview, training and experience of the researcher, researcher's psychological attributes, nature of the problem, and audience for the study (e.g., journal editors and readers, graduate committees).

Quantitative research is further classified into either experimental or nonexperimental research. Experimental research refers to a study in which researchers have control over and manipulate the independent variable, also called treatment, manipulated, or experimental variable, on the dependant variable, known as observed and

measured variable (Ary, et al., 2002). It is considered to be the most conclusive and the only method to explore the cause-effect relationship among variables (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2003).

On the other hand, nonexperimental research is also called descriptive research (Miller, 2002) and is, generally, conducted in order to identify variables and explore the relationship among them (Ary, et al, 2002). Major types of descriptive research can be ex post facto research, also called causal-comparative research, correlational research, and survey research (Ary, et al., 2002).

Ex post facto research (casual-comparative research) is similar to experimental research; however, independent variables are not manipulated in this research (Ary, et al., 2002) because independent variables have already occurred naturally. It is typical that causal-comparative research includes at least one categorical variable which cannot be manipulated (e.g., race, gender). Thus, causal-comparative research cannot be used to reveal causal relationship among variables because it always has the risk that the results of the study are caused by not independent variables but something else; still, it is effective to explore possible causes or results based on already existing differences among groups (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2003).

In terms of the purposes of research (i.e., explaining phenomena, exploring relationship among variables), correlational research is not different from casual-comparative research (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2003). Also, correlational research cannot explore the casual relationship among variables due to the same reason as the case of casual-comparative research (i.e., the lack of manipulation). However, correlational

research requires a score on each variable for each subject instead of the comparison among groups which occurs in causal-comparative research.

Finally, the other descriptive research is survey research, which is widely used in social science research. Surveys allow the researcher to illustrate the characteristics of different groups and to measure their attitudes and opinions toward certain issues (Ary, et al., 2002). It is very effective to gather information from a large number of subjects. Surveys are conducted through various methods including mail, telephone, and personal interviews. Researchers should choose applicable methods based on the contents of the questionnaire, numbers of subjects, budget, time available and target response rates (Miller, 2002).

The purpose of the proposed study is to explore the relationship among variables based on the conceptual model drawn by the researcher. Therefore, the proposed study will generally follow the procedure of the deductive reasoning. Even though some of qualitative methods (i.e., content analysis) are utilized to support the proposed model, it is classified as quantitative research. More specifically, the proposed study will examine the relationship between participants' individual characteristics and their willingness toward training and preferences for diverse training methods without any manipulation on independent variables; therefore, it is identified as correlational research.

Methods

Participants

Probability sampling is always recommended in research; however, convenient sampling was applied in this study due to several embedded restrictions (e.g., lack of time and money, complicated procedures). Respondents participated voluntarily in the study.

The participants of the pilot study were volunteer coaches who attended the volunteer coaches meeting of a youth soccer organization in a Midwestern state in the US. The organization has approximately 125 recreational youth soccer teams and those teams are categorized in 5 different age groups between ages 5 and 14. The organization does not provide a training program for its coaches. The annual coaches' meeting provided an opportunity to administer the questionnaire to the attendees. Prior to the meeting, I requested the 130 volunteer coaches who attended the meeting to respond to the questionnaire. One hundred nineteen of them picked up the questionnaires but only 93 of them returned completed questionnaires. Four cases with more than 10 unanswered items were deleted resulting in a final sample of 89 respondents (female=14, male=74, no answer=1). Missing values in this data set were replaced with the mean value of each item. Ninety percent of respondents were between 29 and 46 years old and almost 80% of respondents had 4-year college or higher degrees. Nearly 90% of them have volunteered for 5 or fewer years in the organization and approximately 20% of them have had volunteer training experience.

Instrument

(a) Goal Orientation. *Learning* and *Performance Orientations* were measured by two 8-item scales of Button et al. (1996). Internal consistency (Cronbach's alphas) for *Learning Orientation* was reported to be .81 and that for *Performance Orientation* was .68. The stem asks the respondents to indicate their agreement with an item on a 7-point scale from "Strongly disagree" (1) to "Strongly agree" (7). A sample item is "I prefer to do things that I can do well rather than things that I do poorly".

(b) Self-efficacy regarding volunteer work. Self-efficacy regarding Volunteer work was measured by a modified version of General Perceived Self-Efficacy Scale of Schwarzer and Jerusalem (1995). Internal consistencies for the original General Perceived Self-efficacy have been reported between .75 and .91 in research (Scholz, Gutierrz, Sud, & Schwarzer, 2002). The stem asked the respondents to indicate their perception on a 7-point scale from "Not at all true" (1) to "Very true" (7). A sample item is "I can always manage to solve difficult problems in my volunteer work."

(c) Commitment to Organization and Volunteering. *Commitment to Organization* was measured using the 9-item version of OCQ (Mowday et al., 1982; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). The items were modified for the volunteer context. The alpha reliability of the 9-item version of OCQ was .86 (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). A sample item is "I speak of this organization to my friends as a great one to volunteer for."

Following Hackett, Lapierre, and Hausdorf (2001), *Commitment to Volunteering* was measured using 8 items from Blau's (1985) career commitment scale and 2 items from Landy and Gvion's (1970) scale. Internal consistency for the 10 items was .82. These items were also modified for volunteers. For items of both *Commitments to Organization* and *Volunteering*, participants were asked to answer the extent to which they agreed with each item on a 7 point scale from "Strongly disagree" (1) to "Strongly agree" (7).

(d) Motivation to Volunteer. Motivation to Volunteer was measured by Clary et al.'s (1998) scale which has six subscales. Internal consistencies (Cronbach's alphas) for each subscale in a Clary et al.'s initial study (1998) were as follows: *Values* (α =. 93), *Understanding* (α =. 96), *Social* (α =. 97), *Career* (α = .97), *Protective* (α =.96), and

Enhancement (α =.93). A sample item is "I am genuinely concerned about the particular group I am serving". Items were rated on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from "Not at all important" (1) to "Extremely important" (7).

(e) Willingness to be trained. Willingness to be trained was measured by the following three items. "I am willing to participate in a volunteer training program"; "If a volunteer training program was offered, I would try to learn as much as possible from that program"; and "I would put in extra efforts to learn from a training program." Items were assessed on a 7-point Likert scale with anchors of "Strongly disagree" (1) and "Strongly agree" (7).

(f) Preferences for Training methods. Preferences for the two training methods were assessed by two items. Each item was accompanied by a description of the training method and an example of the method. The item for *Preference for the Presentation Methods* was "Lecture, audiovisual technique (e.g., overheads, slides, video)" and the item for *Preference for Hands-on Methods* was "Role play, cases studies, on the job training, behavior modeling." An example of the explanation of a training method is "lecture: A training method using one-way communication from the trainer to the trainee." Both items were assessed on a 7-point Likert scale with anchors of "Least preferred" (1) and "Most preferred" (7).

(g) Demographic Information. Six items asking demographic information of respondents were used. Those items asked gender, age, the volunteer tenure in the organization, education, the year of volunteer experiences, and the prior volunteer training experience.

Procedure

After securing the permission from the president and staff of the soccer organization in a Midwestern state, I attended its pre-season volunteer coach meeting of the organization. The meeting was held in a city hall on a Sunday in March 2004. At the beginning of the meeting, the president asked me to introduce the study, inform the right of participants (e.g., voluntary participation and right to withdraw from the study at anytime) and distribute surveys to volunteer coaches attending the meeting. Respondents were allowed to answer the survey during the meeting which lasted for a little more than an hour. They voluntarily returned the completed surveys when they left the meeting.

Analyses

First, the internal consistency of each of the subscales was assessed. Then, the means and standard deviations for the variables of the study were computed. Based on the mean of each variable, t-tests verified the significance of the differences between two variables of goal orientation and two variables of commitment. Also, Repeated Measures ANOVA (RM ANOVA) was used to test overall significant difference among the 6 sub-dimensions of motivation. Then, a post hoc test, Fisher's protected t, was performed to compare each sub-dimensions of motivation. Finally, the correlations among the variables of the study were computed and analyzed.

Results

Internal Consistency, Means, and Standard Deviations

The internal consistency estimates (Cronbach's alpha), means, and standard deviations for two different *Goal Orientations*, two kinds of *Commitment*, six dimensions of *Motivation*, *Self-efficacy, and Willingness to be trained* are provided in Table 3.1.

Also, the means and standard deviations of single item factors, *Preference for Presentation methods* and *Preference for Hands-on Methods* are included in Table 3.1.

Revision of the Instrument

The internal consistencies for all variables except for *Commitment to Volunteering* (.66) were between .74 and .95 and thus were very acceptable. In the case of *Commitment to* volunteering, an analysis of the item-to-total correlations, and the alpha values if an item was deleted were scrutinized for the purpose of deleting items that did not fit with. Those items were "Volunteering is ideal for one's life work"; "I spend a significant amount of time reading volunteer or volunteer work-related journals, books or magazines"; and "I would take upgrading courses or seminars for volunteering even if it is not paid for by the organization." It was considered that first item might be an inappropriate item for volunteers in youth sports. The next two items ask willingness to engage in additional activities rather than in actual volunteer work. Thus, these items did not fit well with the other items in the subscale that focused on commitment to actual volunteer work. Moreover, the last item refers to willingness to be trained which is a dependent variable of the study. Therefore, all three items were deleted. The internal consistency of the remaining variables in the subscale was increased to .71. Thus, the internal consistency estimates for the variables of the study ranged from .71 to .95 for a mean value of .84. Correlations between variables, two different *Goal Orientations*, two kinds of *Commitment*, six dimensions of *Motivation*, and their items are listed in Table 3.2, 3.3, and 3.4.

	α	*M*	*SD*
Goal Orientation			
Performance Orientation	.88	4.22	.89
Learning Orientation	.79	5.46	.82
Commitment			
Commitment to Organization	.90	4.63	.96
Commitment to Volunteering	.66	5.21	.83
Self-efficacy toward Volunteering	.94	4.83	1.55
Motivation to Volunteering			
Value	.74	4.90	1.08
Understanding	.75	4.09	1.13
Social	.78	3.44	1.26
Career	.88	2.01	1.16
Protective	.86	2.40	1.21
Enhancement	.89	3.38	1.39
Willingness to be trained	.95	5.35	.77
Preferences for Presentation methods		4.03	1.77
Preferences for Hands-on methods		4.21	1.90

Table 3.1: Internal Consistencies, Means, and Standard Deviations in the Pilot Study (α, *M*, & *SD*)

	Item	PO	LO
	Performance Orientation		
1	I prefer to do things that I can do well rather than things that I do poorly.	.66	.06
2	I am happiest at work when I perform tasks on which I know that I will not make any errors.	.64	.17
3	The things I enjoy the most are the things I do the best.	.61	.25
4	The opinions others have about how well I can do certain things are important to me.	.64	.25
5	I feel smart when I do something without making any mistakes.	.69	.37
6	I like to be fairly confident that I can successfully perform a task before I attempt it.	.59	.26
7	I like to work on tasks that I have done well on in the past.	.72	.29
8	I feel smart when I can do something better than most other people.	.61	.20
	Learning Orientation		
1	The opportunity to do challenging work is important to me.	.37	.69
2	When I fail to complete a difficult task, I plan to try harder the next time I work on it.	.30	.62
3	I prefer to work on tasks that force me to learn new things.	.23	.85
4	The opportunity to learn new things is important to me.	.10	.69
5	I do my best when I am working on a fairly difficult task.	.26	.68
6	I try hard to improve on my past performance.	.29	.79
7	The opportunity to extend the range of my abilities is important to me.	.32	.81
8	When I have difficulty solving a problem, I enjoy trying different approaches to see which one will work.	.16	.77

Table 3.2: Correlations of Items to Goal Orientation

	Items	OC	OV
	Commitment to Organization		
1	I am willing to put a great deal of effort in order to help this organization be successful.	.64	.43
2	I speak of this organization to my friends as a great one to volunteer for.	.68	.27
3	I would accept almost any type of job assignment in order to keep volunteering for this organization.	.66	.22
4	I find that my values and the organization's values are very similar.	.77	.41
5	I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organization.	.79	.30
6	This organization really inspires me to do the best in my volunteer work.	.84	.35
7	I am extremely glad that I chose this organization to volunteer for over others.	.82	.39
8	I really care about the fate of this organization.	.80	.33
9	For me this is the best of all possible organizations for which to volunteer.	.71	.08
	Commitment to Volunteering		
1	If I can find different ways to spend my leisure time other than volunteering, I would take them.	.12	.67
2	I definitely want to continue volunteering.	.48	.63
3	If I could do it all over again, I would not commit to volunteering.	.07	.63
4	Even if I had other attractive leisure activities, I would probably still continue to volunteer.	.38	.70
5	I cannot give up additional time or effort for volunteering.	.16	.54
6	I am disappointed that I ever started volunteering.	.11	.64
7	I talk up the benefits of volunteering	.40	.48

Table 3.3: Correlations of Items to Commitment

	Items	VA	UN	SO	CA	PR	EN
	Motivation Dimension – Value						
1	I am concerned about those less fortunate than myself.	.59	.46	.58	.25	.50	.35
2	I am genuinely concerned about the particular group I am serving.	.36	.31	.29	.11	.16	.15
3	I feel compassion toward people in need.	.63	.37	.23	.02	.20	.16
4	I feel it is important to help others.	.52	.52	.48	.28	.50	.36
5	I can do something for a cause that is important to me.	.48	.54	.36	.16	.26	.34
	Motivation Dimension - Understanding						
1	I can learn more about the cause for which I am working.	.47	.42	.31	.36	35	.22
2	Volunteering allows me to gain a new perspective on things.	.52	.61	.41	.32	.41	.51
3	Volunteering lets me learn through direct, hands-on experience.	.46	.62	.30	.18	.24	.28
4	I can learn how to deal with a variety of people.	.45	.43	.40	.29	.42	.40
5	I can explore my own strengths.	.37	.53	.40	.48	.48	.65
	Motivation Dimension - Social						
1	My friends volunteer.	.16	.23	.34	.48	.35	.43
2	People I'm close to want me to volunteer.	.34	.36	.45	.13	.31	.36
3	People I know share an interest in community service.	.52	.42	.65	.27	.43	.53

Continued

Table 3.4: Correlations of Items to Motivation to Volunteer

Table 3.4 continued

4	Others with whom I am close place a high value on community service.	.54	.47	.71	.38	.41	.50
5	Volunteering is an important activity to the people I know best.	.50	.39	.60	.18	.35	.44
	Motivation Dimension - Career						
1	Volunteering can help me to get my foot in the door at a place where I would like to work.	.25	.35	.29	.75	.54	.45
2	I can make new contacts that might help my business or career.	.13	.29	.29	.71	.62	.52
3	Volunteering allows me to explore different career options.	.21	.49	.25	.66	.50	.48
4	Volunteering will help me to succeed in my chosen profession.	.17	.40	.30	.78	.59	.58
5	Volunteering experience will look good on my resume.	.29	.42	.40	.68	.64	.57
	Motivation Dimension - Protective						
1	No matter how bad I've been feeling, volunteering helps me to forget about it.	.68	.65	.59	.38	.57	62
2	By volunteering I feel less lonely.	.30	.36	.36	.67	.57	.61
3	Doing volunteer work relieves me of some of the guilt over being more fortunate than others.	.22	.25	.32	.59	.55	.45
4	Volunteering helps me work through by own personal problems.	.34	.46	.30	.64	.73	.60
5	Volunteering is a good escape from my own troubles.	.31	.39	.38	.62	.84	.68

Continued

Table 3.4 continued

	Motivation Dimension - Enhancement						
1	Volunteering makes me feel important.	.33	.40	.56	.50	.64	.73
2	Volunteering increases my self-esteem.	.39	.59	.49	.57	.67	.77
3	Volunteering makes me feel needed.	.38	.47	.62	.63	.69	.86
4	Volunteering makes me feel better about myself.	.40	.47	.51	.45	.63	.72
5	Volunteering is a way to make new friends.	.13	.45	.34	.45	.39	.51

In addition, based on the feedback from the respondents of the pilot study, a sub-dimension of *Motivation* was added. While collecting data, a few of the respondents told me that they were volunteering because of their kids were playing in the team. This function was not indicated by the items in the VFI. Also, a few other respondents noted the same issue on the survey itself. Thus, a new sub-dimension of *Motivation* was added and named as *Child-Caring*. Since the samples of both pilot and main studies were volunteer coaches in youth sport leagues, it was concluded that it was reasonable to include *Child-Caring* as a sub-dimension of *Motivation*. Indeed, Vaillancourt and Payette (1986) pointed out that volunteering can be a part of child-minding or child-rearing activities. These five items are “It is important to spend time with my kid(s)”; “It is part of taking care of my kid(s)”; “I volunteer because my kid(s) is on the team”; “It permits me to be with my kid”; and "I volunteer as part of my involvement in my kid’s

activities." According to the National Youth Sport Coaches Association (NYSCA) (2004), 85% of coaches in youth sport leagues are parents of players. Accordingly, another item "Do you have kid(s) playing in the team or organization?" was included in the demographic section of the instrument. In sum, based on the pilot test, three items from *Commitment to Volunteering* were deleted but six items of a new motivation sub-dimension, *Child-Caring* and a new item asking the additional demographic information were added.

Correlations among the Variables of the Study

The correlations among the variables of the study are shown in Table 3.5. The Correlations among the subscales of VFI ranged from .25 to .74. As the highest correlation of .74 between the *Protective* and *Enhancement* functions indicated a shared variance of less than 55%, it was concluded that the subscales measured sufficiently independent variables. The correlation between *Performance Orientation* and *Learning Orientation* was .35. *Commitment to Organization* and *Commitment to Volunteering* correlated at .41 level. *Willingness to be trained* was positively correlated with *Commitment to Organization* (r=. 39, p<. 01), *Commitment to Volunteering* (r=. 31, p<. 01), and *Self-efficacy* (r=. 22, p<. 01). *Preference for Presentation methods* was significantly correlated with *Willingness to be trained* (r=. 56, p<. 001). As these correlations were in the expected direction, they let us place greater confidence in the scales of the study.

	VA	UN	SO	CA	PR	EN	PO	LO	CO	CV	SE	WT	PM	HM
Values (VA)	1	.64**	.57**	.25*	.48**	.40**	.03	.25*	.30**	.30**	.06	.10	-.01	.14
Understanding (UN)		1	.51**	.47**	.54**	.58**	.08	.32**	.32**	.12	.18	.08	-.06	.08
Social (SO)			1	.37**	.50**	.61**	.20	.20	.19	.07	-.04	-.12	-.02	-.09
Career (CA)				1	.70**	.63**	.18	-.02	.13	-.08	-.07	-.05	-.05	-.06
Protective (PR)					1	.74**	.22*	.09	.30**	.06	-.02	-.12	-.15	-.11
Enhancement (EN)						1	.29**	.17	.28**	.04	-.02	-.04	-.12	-.02
Performance Orientation (PO)							1	.35**	-.04	-.17	-.02	-.13	-.09	-.22*
Learning Orientation (LO)								1	.19	.30**	.26*	.20	.15	.05
Commitment to Organization (CO)									1	.41**	.19	.39**	.18	.04
Commitment to Volunteering (CV)									.	1	.31**	.31**	.18	.01
Self-efficacy (SE)											1	.22*	.18	.13
Willingness to be trained (WT)												1	.56**	.12
Preference for Presentation methods (PM)													1	-.17
Preference for Hands-on methods (HM)														1

Note. ** $p < 0.01$ (2-tailed); * $p < 0.05$ (2-tailed).

Table 3.5: Correlations among Variables of the Study

Significance of Differences among Variables

A t-test showed that the mean of *Learning Orientation* (*M* =5.46; *SD* = .82) was significantly higher than that of *Performance Orientation (M* = 4.22; *SD* = .88) (*t* = -12.06, *p* <. 001) and the mean of *Commitment to Volunteering* (*M* =5.21; *SD* = .83) was significantly higher than that of *Commitment to Organization* (*M* = 4.63; *SD* = .96) (*t* = -5.65, *p* <. 001). Repeated Measures ANOVA revealed that there was an overall significant difference in the means for the six motivations (*F* (5, 84) = 112.32, *p* <. 001). Fisher's protected post-hoc test showed that the mean of *Values* (*m* = 4.89; *SD* = 1.08) was significantly higher than the means of other five motivation dimensions, *Understanding* (*M* = 4.09; *SD* =1.16; *t* = 8.00, *p* <. 001), *Social* (*m* = 3.44; *SD* =1.26; *t* = 12.47, *p* <. 001), *Career* (*M* = 2.01; *SD* =1.16; *t* = 19.82, *p* <. 001), *Protective* (*M* = 2.39; *SD* =1.21; *t* = 20.11, *p* <. 001), and *Enhancement* (*M* = 3.38; *SD* =1.39; *t* = 10.36, *p* <. 001). The mean of *Understanding* was significantly higher than the means of other remaining four dimensions, *Social* (*t* = 5.25, *p* <. 001), *Career* (*t* = 16.69, *p* <. 001), *Protective* (*t* = 14.25, *p* <. 001), and *Enhancement* (*t* = 5.72, *p* <. 001). The mean of *Social* was significantly higher than the means of *Career* (*t* = 9.91, *p* <. 001) and *Protective* (*t* = 7.95, *p* <. 001). The mean of *Career* was significantly higher than the means of *Protective* (*t* = -3.94, *p* <. 001) and *Enhancement* (*t* = -11.50, *p* <. 001). The mean of *Enhancement* was significantly higher than that of *Protective* (*t* = -9.66, *p* <. 001). However, respondents' preferences for two different types of training methods, *Presentation methods* (*M* =4.03; *SD* = 1.76) and *Hands-on methods* (*M* =4.21; *SD* = 1.90), were not significantly different (*t* = -6.05).

CHAPTER 4

THE MAIN STUDY

The first section of this chapter reports participant, instruments, procedures, and the statistical analyses applied in the study, and the second section contains the results.

Methods

Participants

The participants of the main study were volunteer coaches who attended 12 volunteer coaches meetings of ten different youth sport leagues in a mid western state in the US. All meetings were pre-season volunteer coaches meetings and all leagues were co-ed youth sport leagues. Two leagues were youth soccer leagues and other remaining leagues are either youth baseball or softball leagues. Only soccer, baseball, and softball leagues were included in this study as they were in progress at the time of the study. Table 4.1 lists the meetings of specific leagues, their dates, league type, sport, number of attendees, number of surveys distributed, and number returned.

Meeting	date	League	League Style	Sport	# of attenders	# of Distributed Survey	# of Returned Survey
A	Mar 21	a	Independent	Soccer	95	77	69
B	Mar 27	b	City run	Baseball	5	5	5
C	Mar.31	c	Independent	Baseball/ Softball	19	19	17
D	Apr 6	b	City run	Baseball	29	29	26
E	Apr 6	d	Independent	Soccer	60	19	11
F	Apr 7	e	City run	Baseball	9	9	9
G	Apr 11	f	Independent	Baseball	18	16	16
H	Apr 15	e	City run	Baseball	9	9	9
I	Apr 17	g	City run	Baseball	20	20	20
J	Apr 18	h	Independent	Softball	61	59	57
K	Apr 18	i	Independent	Baseball	30	30	30
L	Apr 19	j	City run	Baseball	2	2	2
12 meeting	10 leagues (6 independent; 4 city run)				357	294	271

Table 4.1: Survey Participants

Of the 357 volunteer coaches attending the meetings, 294 picked up the surveys but only 271 returned the completed questionnaires. Nine of these returned questionnaires had responses had more than nine unanswered items and they were deleted from the data set leaving a final sample of 262 respondents (female=48, male=211, no answer=3). The missing values in this data set were filled with the mean value of each item. It is known that adequate sample size for the study is necessary to make it meaningful. Several researchers have suggested different rules of thumb for regression analyses which were carried out in the current study. Tabachnick and Fidell (1989) suggested the number of cases to each predictor or independent variable should be 5-to-1. On the other hand, Harris (1985) recommended that the number of subjects should be more than 50 + the number of variables. Also, a minimum of 200 subjects (Marks, 1966) and a minimum subject to predictor ratio of from 15-to-1 to 25-to-1 (Schmidt, 1971) are other rules of thumb suggested. The sample size of 261with 15 predictors in the current study satisfies the above rules of thumbs. In addition, Cohen (1988) suggested the sample size should be based on the selected values of alpha, power, and effect size. According to Cohen (1988), the appropriate sample size to test hypothesis that the population multiple correlation equal to zero with a power of .80 (alpha= .05, medium effect size) for the current study (15 predictors) is 138 and the sample size of the current study is well above this requirement. Also, the sample size of the current study is acceptable to run Structural Equation Model (SEM) (i.e., 15 cases per measured variable, Bentler & Chou 1987) which was utilized in confirming the measurement model.

Nearly 75% of respondents were between 33 and 47 years old and almost 70% of respondents had 4-year college or higher degrees. About 23% of them have volunteered

for 1 year or fewer in the league, nearly 40% of them have volunteered between 1 and 3 years in the league, and a little over 20% of them have volunteered more than 5 years in the league. Then, more than 50% of them reported that they have volunteered over 5 years in other contexts. Almost 90% of respondents had kid(s) playing in the league and half of them have had the prior volunteer training experience.

Instrument

After the pilot study, there were some changes in the instruments. Three items were deleted from items measuring *Commitment to Volunteering* while five items were added in the new subscale of *Motivation to Volunteer* named *Child-Caring.* Like the pilot study, 7 point Likert scales were used for all variables of the study. Also, an item asking the respondents if they had kid(s) playing in the league was added to the demographic items. In summary, the following subscales were included in the survey.

(f) Goal Orientation. *Learning Orientation* and *Performance Orientation* were measured by two 8-item scales of Button et al. (1996). Internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha) for *Learning Orientation* in the pilot study was .88 and that for *Performance Orientation* was .79.

(g) Self-efficacy regarding Volunteer Work. Self-efficacy regarding Volunteer Work was measured by a modified version of General Perceived Self-Efficacy Scale (GPSS) of Schwarzer and Jerusalem (1995). An internal consistency for Self-efficacy items was .94 in the pilot study.

(h) Commitment to Organization and Volunteering. *Commitment to Organization* was measured using a modified version of the 9-item Organization Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) (Mowday et al., 1982; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). The alpha

reliability of the 9-item version of OCQ was .90 from the pilot study. *Commitment to Volunteering* was measured using 6 modified items from Blau's (1985) career commitment scale and 1 modified item from Landy and Gvion's (1970) scales. Internal consistency estimate for these seven items from the pilot study was .71.

(i) Motivation to Volunteer. Motivation to Volunteer was measured by six subscales from Clary et al.'s (1998) Volunteer Function Inventory. Internal consistencies (Cronbach's alphas) for each of these six subscales in the pilot study were *Values* (α =. 74), *Understanding* (α =. 75), *Social* (α =. 78), *Career* (α = .88), *Protective* (α =.86), and *Enhancement* (α =.89). In addition, five items of a new subscale, *Child-Caring*, were included after the pilot study. A sample item from *Child-Caring* is "I volunteer because my kid(s) is on the team."

(j) Willingness to be trained. Willingness to be trained was measured by the same three items used in the pilot study. The alpha reliability of the three items of Willingness to be trained for the pilot study was .95.

(f) Preferences for Training methods. Preferences for two kinds of training methods, *Preference for Presentation methods* and *Preference for Hands on methods*, were assessed by the same two items used in the pilot study including descriptions of each method.

(g) Demographic Information. The six items from the pilot study asking demographic information (i.e., gender, age, education, volunteer tenure with the organization, years of volunteering, previous training experience, and a new item asking if one's kid(s) played in the league were used in the main study.

Procedure

First, several youth sport leagues and cities' park and recreation departments in a mid western state were contacted in order to find out about the schedules of volunteer youth coaches meetings. I contacted each league based on the information given by those personnel and, then, got permission from the presidents or staff of 6 independent youth sport leagues and 4 city run leagues. I attended 12 pre-season volunteer coach meetings of 10 leagues. Two meetings were held in city halls; one meeting was a city recreation center; three meetings were in city parks; two meetings were in local schools; two meetings were at the office of the organization; and two meetings were in private recreation facilities. All meetings were held in March and April of 2004.

At the beginning of ten meetings, the staff of the organizations or leagues assigned me time to introduce the study, and distribute surveys to volunteer coaches attending the meeting. Respondents were allowed to answer the survey during the meeting which lasted for a little more than an hour. They voluntarily returned the completed surveys when they left the meeting. However, due to the settings of the meetings and the availability of the meeting schedules, I was not given the opportunity to introduce the study. Instead, the participants were asked to pick up the surveys voluntarily.

Analyses

Measurement model. I submitted the items in the subscale *Commitment to Volunteering* to a principal component analysis extracting a single factor to verify if they all loaded highly on the factor. This was made necessary because I dropped three items

after the pilot test and because the reliability of this variable in the pilot test was not as high as other variables even after deleting three items.

The next step was to assess the measurement model through more rigorous procedures. Because there were not enough number of respondents to carry this out with all items in all subscales in a single confirmatory factor analysis, I performed separate confirmatory factor analyses with AMOS software separately for the two kinds of *Goal Orientation*, two forms of *Commitment*, and seven subscales of *Motivation to Volunteer*. The items in the scales of *Self-efficacy* and *Willingness to be trained* were subjected to two principal component analyses to verify if the items loaded highly on the single factor extracted in each scale.

Gender differences. The significance of differences between genders was tested through MANOVA procedures with the seven functions of *Motivation to Volunteer*, two forms of *Orientation*, and the two forms of *Commitment* as the dependent variables in three separate analyses. T-tests were employed to test the gender differences in *Self-efficacy, Willingness to be trained*, and *Preferences for the two Training methods.*

Relationships among variables. Correlations among all variables of the study including *Tenure with the Organization* were computed. In order to assess the relative and cumulative contributions of *Motivational functions, Goal Orientations, Commitment to Organization and to Volunteering*, and *Self-efficacy* to respondents' *Willingness to be trained*, a multiple regression analysis was carried out. Similarly, multiple regression analyses were carried out to assess the effects of these variables and *Willingness to be trained* on *Preferences for (a) Presentation methods, and (b) Hands-on methods*. Finally,

comparisons between significant correlations were computed following the formula of Bruning and Kintz (1997). This formula is shown in Appendix C.

Results

Measurement Model

The first analysis was concerned with purifying the scale for *Commitment to Volunteering.* The principal component analysis extracting a single component showed that two items ("I cannot give up additional time or effort for volunteering" and "I talk up the benefits of volunteering") loaded lower than .55. Thus, these two items were deleted. After deleting the two items, the other five items loaded higher than .60. The factor loadings before and after deleting two items are listed in Table 4.2.

Items	Before	After
If I can find different ways to spend my leisure time other than volunteering, I would take them.	.588	.593
I definitely want to continue volunteering.	.725	.733
If I could do it all over again, I would not commit to volunteering.	.646	.681
Even if I had other attractive leisure activities, I would probably still continue to volunteer.	.760	.769
I cannot give up additional time or effort for volunteering.	.469	
I am disappointed that I ever started volunteering.	.567	.622
I talk up the benefits of volunteering	.456	

Table 4.2: Factor Loadings of 7 and 5 Items on a Single Factor of Commitment to Volunteering

Normality of Data

Prior to running the CFAs, it was necessary to check the normality of data. Thus, the skewness and kurtosis of the data was first examined. These values generated by AMOS are shown in Table 4.3, 4.4, and 4.5. As these values were within the limits suggested by Hoyle's (1995) rules of thumb (i.e., skewness values between -2 and +2 and kurtosis values between -7 and +7), I decided to use all of the data without any remedial procedures.

Learning Orientation			Performance Orientation		
	Skewness	Kurtosis		Skewness	Kurtosis
B1	-0.559	0.260	B9	-1.594	12.995
B2	-0.355	-0.329	B10	-1.047	2.425
B3	-0.566	0.403	B11	-1.049	2.021
B4	-0.436	-0.452	B12	-1.307	2.966
B5	-0.603	0.043	B13	-1.066	1.973
B6	-0.521	0.178	B14	-1.248	3.299
B7	-0.571	0.591	B15	-1.329	2.914
B8	-0.182	-0.756	B16	-0.980	2.365

Table 4.3: Normality of Goal Orientation Items- Skewness & Kurtosis

Commitment to Organization			Commitment to Volunteering		
	Skewness	Kurtosis		Skewness	Kurtosis
C1	-0.812	0.618	C10	-0.316	-0.758
C2	-0.628	-0.002	C11	-1.075	1.525
C3	0.062	-0.957	C12	-1.630	2.183
C4	-0.602	0.274	C13	-1.059	1.229
C5	-0.772	0.397	C15	-2.243	4.443
C6	-0.677	0.341			
C7	-0.789	0.602			
C8	-0.790	0.185			
C9	-0.413	-0.263			

Table 4.4: Normality of Commitment Items- Skewness & Kurtosis

	Skewness	Kurtosis		Skewness	Kurtosis		Skewness	Kurtosis
	Values			Understanding			Social	
A3	-0.504	-0.295	A13	-0.234	-1.042	A2	0.418	-1.130
A9	-1.274	1.678	A16	-0.898	0.708	A4	-0.192	-1.136
A18	-0.565	-0.473	A20	-0.725	0.090	A6	-0.517	-0.299
A22	-1.102	1.784	A29	-0.654	-0.340	A19	-0.017	-0.985
A25	-0.781	0.065	A34	-0.625	-0.515	A26	-0.140	-0.865
	Career			Protective			Enhancement	
A1	1.046	-0.311	A8	-0.420	-0.736	A5	-0.095	-1.156
A11	0.710	-0.674	A10	0.711	-0.590	A15	-0.207	-1.051
A17	0.825	-0.508	A12	1.020	0.045	A30	0.036	-1.115
A24	1.022	0.032	A23	0.585	-0.793	A31	-0.154	-1.131
A32	0.926	-0.266	A27	0.643	-0.803	A33	-0.472	-0.767
	Child-Caring							
A7	-3.251	6.807						
A14	-1.311	1.012						
A21	-1.165	0.386						
A28	-2.047	3.672						
A35	-1.942	3.181						

Table 4.5: Normality of Motivation to Volunteer Items- Skewness & Kurtosis

Confirmatory Factor Analyses of Goal Orientation, Commitment, and Motivation

After checking the normality of the data, Confirmatory factor analyses of goal orientation, commitment, and motivation were run separately with AMOS 4.0. Two procedures are required to assess the hypothesized model—(a) the adequacy of the parameter estimates and (b) the model as a whole (Byrne, 2001). First, the adequacy of the parameter estimates were assessed by testing if (a) correlations are not higher than 1.00; (b) standard errors are not extremely small or big, close to either '0' or '1'; and (c) the critical ratio (C. R.; the parameter estimate divided by its standard error) is greater than ± 1.96 at the level of .05.

The results (shown in Tables 4.6, 4.7, 4.8, and 4.9) confirmed the adequacy of the parameter estimates. The parameters did not have any correlation greater than 1.00. The correlation between two kinds of *Goal Orientation* was .296 and that between two kinds of *Commitment* was also .654. In addition, the correlations among sub-dimensions of *Motivation to Volunteer* ranged from -.046 to .847. No standard errors were close to '0' or '1', and all the critical ratio values were greater than ±1.96.

Next, I assessed the measurement model as a whole by using fit indices. Because no single fit index is an absolute test of a model, several fit indices were used. Chi-square to degrees of freedom ratio (χ^2/df), Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), Normed Fit Index (NFI), Comparative Fit Index (CFI), and Incremental Fit Index (IFI) were selected.

CFA yielded strong evidence that the fit between the data and three variables (i.e., *Goal Orientation, Commitment, Motivation to Volunteer*) were acceptable. The chi-square (387.66)/degrees of freedom (103) ratio for *Goal Orientation* was 3.76; the chi-

square (304.20)/degrees of freedom (76) ratio for *Commitment* was 4.00; and the chi-square (1261.41)/degrees of freedom (126) ratio for *Motivation to Volunteer* was 2.34. These values are below 5 which are acceptable levels of fit according to Marsh and Hocevar (1985).

Although RMSEA for *Goal Orientation* (.10), *Commitment* (.11) and *Motivation to Volunteer* (.072) were relatively poor, other fit indices (CFI, IFI, and NFI) attest to the goodness of the fit of the data to the hypothesized factor structure. They were CFI = .98; IFI = .98; NFI = .97 for *Goal Orientation*, CFI = .98; IFI = .98; NFI = .98 for *Commitment*, and CFI = .97; IFI = .97; NFI = .95 for *Motivation to Volunteer*. Additional fit indices are reported in Table 4. 10. Also, the internal consistencies, means, and standard deviations for the variables of these variables were assessed and are reported in Table. 4.12. The measurement models of *Goal Orientation, Commitment,* and *Motivation to Volunteering* are shown in Figure 4.1, 4.2, and 4.3, respectively.

Covariance		Covariance	Estimate	S.E	C.R	Correlation
		Goal Orientation				
Learning Orientation	←→	Performance Orientation	0.271	0.069	3.931	0.296
		Commitment				
Commitment to Organization	←→	Commitment to Volunteering	0.307	0.073	4.195	0.654
		Motivation to Volunteer				
Value	←→	Understanding	0.806	0.130	6.207	0.723
Understanding	←→	Social	0.955	0.151	6.329	0.614
Social	←→	Protective	1.090	0.167	6.545	0.587
Protective	←→	Enhancement	1.366	0.183	7.453	0.847
Enhancement	←→	Career	1.050	0.155	6.760	0.652
Child-Caring	←→	Career	-0.094	0.137	-0.686	-0.046
Value	←→	Social	0.911	0.143	6.359	0.780
Value	←→	Protective	0.679	0.123	5.501	0.535
Value	←→	Enhancement	0.588	0.109	5.407	0.552
Value	←→	Career	0.595	0.115	5.185	0.469

Continued

Table 4.6: Covariances and Correlation between Sub-dimensions of Goal Orientation, Commitment, and Motivation to Volunteer

Table 4.6 Continued

Child-Caring	←→	Value	0.003	0.095	0.034	0.002
Understanding	←→	Protective	1.162	0.166	7.012	0.688
Understanding	←→	Enhancement	1.050	0.154	6.815	0.741
Understanding	←→	Career	1.056	0.156	6.783	0.626
Child-Caring	←→	Understanding	-0.020	0.125	-0.156	-0.011
Social	←→	Enhancement	0.974	0.152	6.417	0.657
Social	←→	Career	1.037	0.160	6.489	0.587
Child-Caring	←→	Social	-0.039	0.131	-0.294	-0.021
Protective	←→	Career	1.506	0.189	7.972	0.784
Child-Caring	←→	Protective	0.028	0.141	0.200	0.014
Child-Caring	←→	Enhancement	0.081	0.115	0.702	0.657

Variables	Estimates	S.E	C.R
Learning Orientation	1.300	0.218	5.952
Performance Orientation	0.642	0.088	7.311
e1	1.497	0.149	10.069
e2	0.536	0.064	8.441
e3	1.026	0.100	10.251
e4	0.921	0.099	9.318
e5	1.644	0.153	10.733
e6	0.975	0.095	10.233
e7	1.221	0.120	10.172
e8	1.223	0.114	10.725
e9	0.418	0.042	9.899
e10	0.346	0.039	8.801
e11	0.368	0.038	9.727
e12	0.764	0.073	10.515
e13	0.499	0.051	9.868
e14	0.565	0.058	9.794
e15	0.635	0.060	10.665
e16	0.788	0.074	10.639

Table 4.7: Variances of Variables in Goal Orientation CFA

Variables	Estimates	S.E	C.R
Commitment to Organization	0.881	0.123	7.168
Commitment to Volunteering	0.251	0.102	2.462
e1	0.639	0.060	10.571
e2	0.358	0.040	8.989
e3	0.354	0.040	8.927
e4	0.402	0.042	9.634
e5	0.614	0.060	10.154
e6	1.594	0.147	10.836
e7	0.904	0.084	10.702
e8	0.729	0.066	11.021
e9	1.531	0.138	11.114
e10	0.701	0.098	7.187
e11	1.913	0.173	11.073
e12	0.481	0.087	5.504
e13	2.126	0.191	11.150
e15	1.077	0.100	10.739

Table 4.8: Variances of Variables in Commitment CFA

Variable	Estimates	S.E	C.R
Value	0.838	0.176	4.764
Understand	1.486	0.231	6.432
Social	1.627	0.258	6.317
Protective	1.924	0.263	7.323
Enhance	1.352	0.236	5.741
Career	1.918	0.249	7.697
Child-Caring	2.147	0.228	9.421
e1	0.951	0.117	8.154
e2	1.274	0.118	10.840
e3	1.234	0.141	8.737
e4	0.900	0.087	10.351
e5	1.684	0.160	10.510
e6	2.164	0.207	10.451
e7	0.915	0.097	9.459
e8	1.142	0.120	9.517
e9	1.367	0.140	9.756
e10	1.305	0.141	9.251

Continued

Table 4.9: Variances of Variables in Motivation to Volunteer CFA

Table 4.9 continued

e11	1.950	0.184	10.594
e12	2.376	0.224	10.594
e13	1.114	0.119	9.330
e14	1.005	0.126	7.983
e15	1.561	0.161	9.722
e16	2.082	0.194	10.716
e17	0.982	0.108	9.106
e18	1.384	0.130	10.650
e19	0.919	0.097	9.454
e20	1.207	0.127	9.471
e21	1.718	0.163	10.570
e22	1.281	0.130	9.838
e23	0.615	0.084	7.348
e24	1.072	0.116	9.226
e25	1.838	0.171	10.746
e26	1.311	0.133	9.896
e27	1.093	0.117	9.336
e28	0.840	0.098	8.552
e29	0.766	0.081	9.403

Continued

Table 4.9 continued

e30	1.039	0.108	9.643
e31	0.901	0.087	10.371
e32	1.383	0.132	10.456
e33	1.263	0.130	9.729
e34	0.660	0.079	8.387
e35	0.406	0.067	6.040

Fit Measure	Goal orientation	Commitment	Motivation to volunteer
CMIN	387.656	304.199	1261.408
DF	103	76	539
NPAR	49	43	126
CMINDF	3.764	4.003	2.340
NFI	0.973	0.976	0.947
RFI	0.964	0.966	0.938
IFI	0.980	0.982	0.969
TLI	0.973	0.974	0.963
CFI	0.980	0.982	0.969
RMSEA	0.103	0.107	0.072

Table 4.10: Goodness of Fit indices for Goal Orientation, Commitment and Motivation to Volunteer.

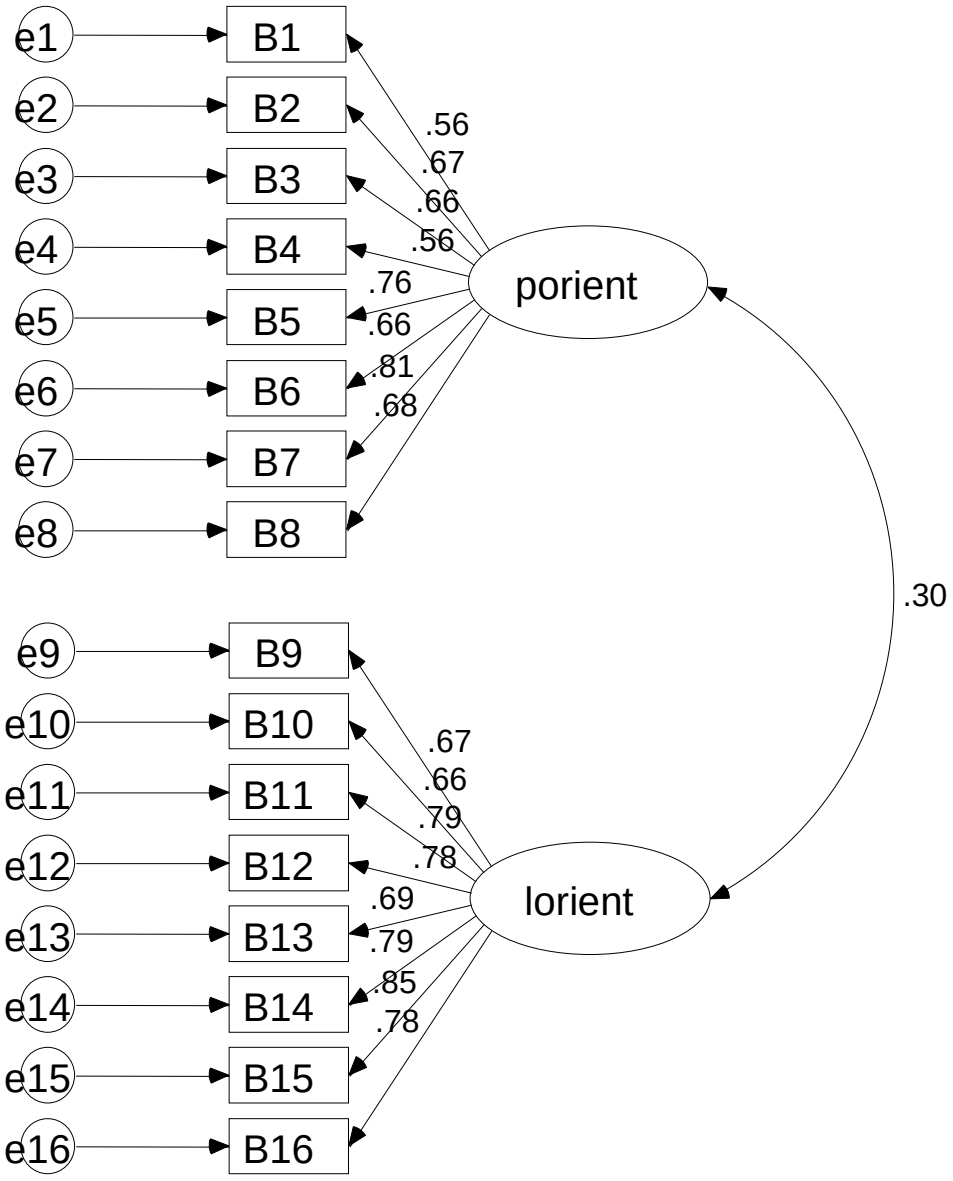

Figure 4.1: Measurement model of Goal Orientation
Note: Parameters shown are standardized estimates

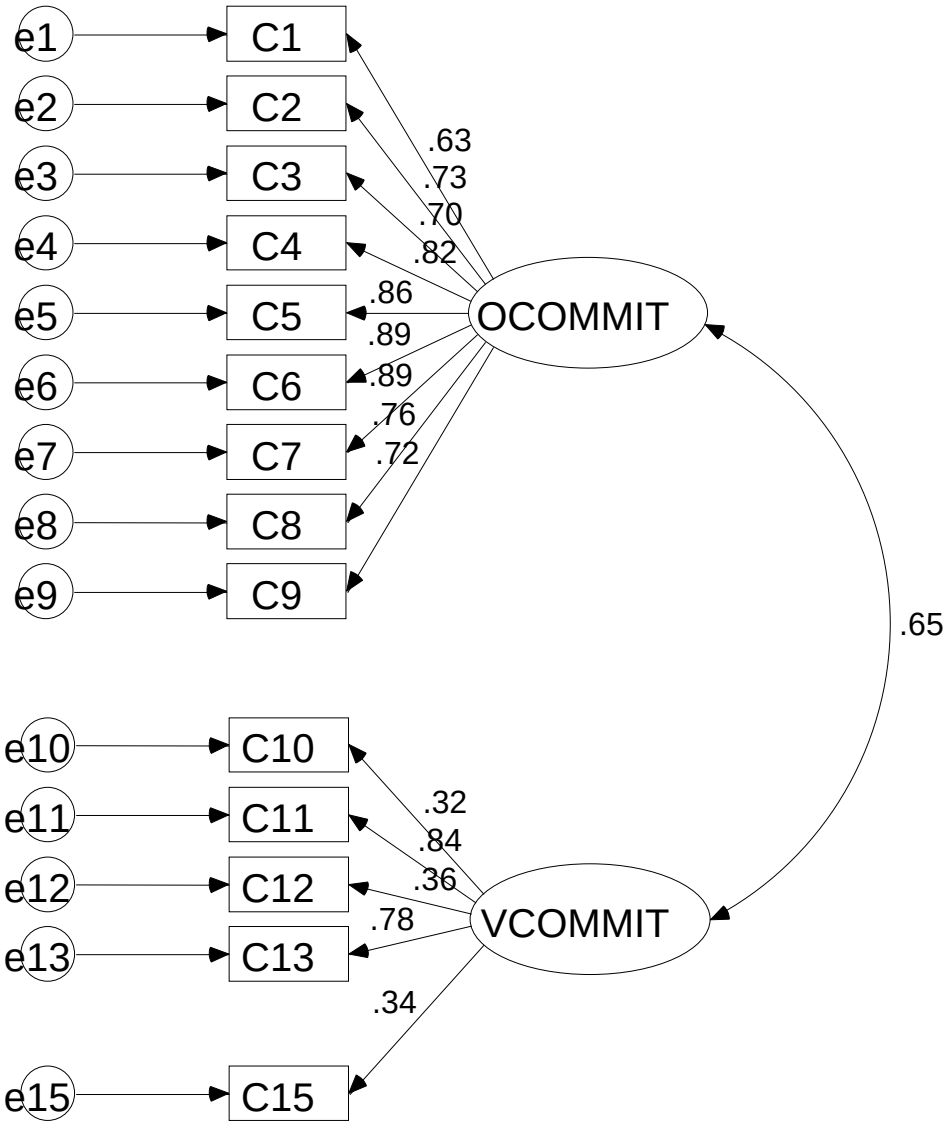

Figure 4.2: Measurement model of Commitment
Note: Parameters shown are standardized estimates

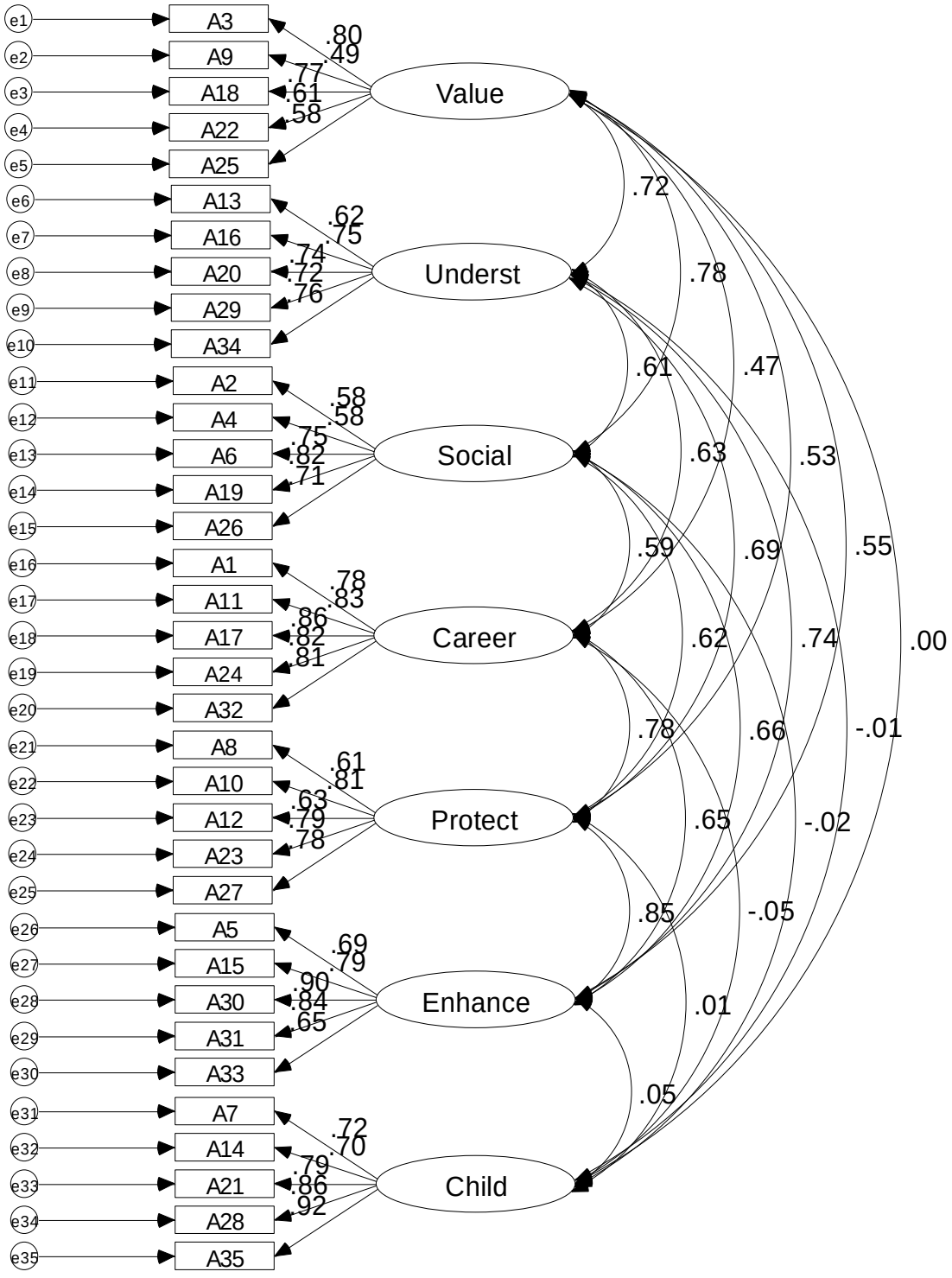

Figure 4.3: Measurement model of Motivation to Volunteer
Note: Parameters shown are standardized estimates

Principal component analyses of Self-efficacy and Willingness to be trained

As noted, a single factor was extracted with the items in *Self-efficacy* and *Willingness to be trained*. All items of *Self-efficacy* loaded on the single factor between .56 and .86 and all three items of *Willingness to be trained* loaded higher than .96 (see Table 4.11). The internal consistencies of these variables were assessed and are reported along with their means and standard deviations in Table. 4.12.

Gender Differences

In order to assess the significance of the differences between the genders, MANOVA procedure was used in the case of *Goal Orientation, Commitment, Motivation to Volunteer,* and *Preference for Training methods,* and t-tests were applied for *Self-efficacy* and *Willingness to be trained.* The results of MANOVA showed a significant multivariate effect of gender on *Motivation to Volunteer* (f (7, 251) = 2.87; p <.01; η^2 = .074). At the univariate level, gender had a significant effect on the motivational functions of *Values* (f (1, 258) = 8.24; p < .005; η^2 = .031), and *Understanding* (f (1, 258) = 4.80; p < .05; η^2 = .018). Females (m = 5.52 and 5.02 respectively) scored higher than males on these functions (m = 4.96, and 4.50 respectively).

Self-efficacy	
I can always manage to solve difficult problems in my volunteer work.	.563
If someone opposes me, I can find the means and ways to do my volunteer work.	.672
I am certain that I can accomplish the goals of my volunteer work.	.748
I am confident that I could deal efficiently with unexpected events in my volunteer work.	.842
Thanks to my resourcefulness, I can handle unforeseen situations in my volunteer work.	.807
I can solve most problems in volunteer work.	.861
I can remain calm when facing difficulties in my volunteer work.	.763
When I am confronted with a problem in my volunteer work, I can find several solutions.	.834
If I am in trouble with my volunteer work, I can think of a good solution.	.837
I can handle whatever comes in my volunteer work.	.845
Willingness to be trained	
I am willing to participate in a volunteer training program.	.958
If a volunteer training program was offered, I would try to learn as much as possible from that program.	.966
I would put in extra efforts to learn from a training program.	.964

Table 4.11: Factor Loadings of Items in Self-efficacy and Willingness to be trained

	α	*M*	*SD*
Goal Orientation			
Performance Orientation	.86	4.53	1.02
Learning Orientation	.91	5.62	.88
Commitment			
Commitment to Organization	.93	5.16	1.11
Commitment to Volunteering	.71	5.67	.95
Self-efficacy toward Volunteering	.92	5.53	.74
Motivation to Volunteer			
Value	.78	5.10	1.10
Understanding	.84	4.58	1.31
Social	.82	3.78	1.34
Career	.91	2.51	1.51
Protective	.84	2.95	1.30
Enhancement	.88	3.88	1.50
Child-Caring	.89	5.88	1.36
Willingness to be trained	.96	5.15	1.50
Preferences for Presentation Methods		4.36	1.80
Preferences for Hands-on Methods		4.64	1.82

Table 4.12: Internal Consistencies, Means, and Standard Deviations (α, *M*, & *SD*)

The multivariate effect of gender on *Preference for Training methods* (*f* (2, 256) = 3.52; $p < .05$; $\eta^2 = .027$) was significant as well. At the univariate level, its effect was significant only on *Preference for Presentation methods* (*f* (1, 258) = 7.06; $p < .01$; $\eta^2 = .027$). Male respondents (*M* = 4.49) expressed higher preference for *Presentation methods* than females (*M* = 3.73). However, no significant multivariate effect of gender was found in *Goal Orientation* (*f* (2, 256) = .95) and *Commitment* (*f* (2, 256) = .66). In addition, t-tests did not show any significant difference between females and males in *Self-efficacy* (*t* = 1.60) and *Willingness to be trained* (*t* = .51). Because of the fewer number of differences and the very low levels of explained variance (η^2), the data of both genders were combined for further analyses.

Comparisons of Sub- dimensions

T-tests showed that the mean of *Learning Orientation* (*M* =5.62; *SD* = .88) was significantly higher than that of *Performance Orientation (M* = 4.53; *SD* = 1.02) (*t* = -15.22, *p* <. 001) and the mean of *Commitment to Volunteering* (*M* =5.67; *SD* = .95) was significantly higher than that of *Commitment to Organization* (*M* = 5.16; *SD* = 1.11) (*t* = -7.32, *p* <. 001). Repeated measures ANOVA revealed that there were significant differences in the means for the six dimensions of *Motivation to Volunteering* (*F* (6,256) = 226.57, *p* <. 001). Fisher's protected post-hoc test showed that all differences were significant except the one between *Social* and *Enhancement.* The mean of *Child-Caring* (*m* = 5.88; *SD* =1.36) was significantly higher than the means of the other 6 motivation dimensions, *Values* (*M* = 5.10; *SD* = 1.10; *t* = -7.29, *p* <. 001), *Understanding* (*M* = 4.58; *SD* =1.31; *t* = -11.16, *p* <. 001), *Social* (*M* = 3.78; *SD* =1.34; *t* = -17.81, *p* <. 001), *Career* (*M* = 2.51; *SD* =1.51; *t* = -26.44, *p* <. 001), *Protective* (*M* = 2.95; *SD* =1.30; *t* = -25.86, *p*

<. 001), and *Enhancement* (*M* = 3.86; *SD* =1.50; *t* = -16.41, *p* <. 001). The mean of *Value* was significantly higher than the means of other remaining 5 motivation dimensions, *Understanding* (*t* = 8.05, *p* <. 001), *Social* (*t* = 19.13, *p* <. 001), *Career* (*t* = 28.28, *p* <. 001), *Protective* (*t* = 27.73, *p* <. 001), and *Enhancement* (*t* = 14.48, *p* <. 001). The mean of *Understanding* was significantly higher than the means of other remaining four dimensions, *Social* (*t* = 9.97, *p* <. 001), *Career* (*t* = 25.14, *p* <. 001), *Protective* (*t* = 23.11, *p* <. 001), and *Enhancement* (*t* = 9.64, *p* <. 001). The mean of *Enhancement* was significantly higher than the means of *Career* (*t* = -16.67, *p* <. 001), and *Protective* (*t* = -15.55, *p* <. 001). The mean of *Social* was significantly higher than those of *Career* (*t* = 14..68, *p* <. 001), and *Protective* (*t* = 10.91, *p* <. 001). The mean of *Protective* was significantly higher than *Career* (*t* = -6.25, *p* <. 001). However, respondents' preferences for two different types of training methods, *Presentation methods* (*M* =4.36; *SD* = 1.80) and *Hands-on methods* (*M* =4.64; *SD* = 1.82) were not significantly different (*t* = -1.66).

Correlations among Variables

The correlations among the variables of the study are shown in Table 4. 13. The Correlations among 6 of 7 Motivation subscales (i.e. *Value, Understanding, Social, Career, Protective, Enhancement*) were significant (p< .01) and ranged from .39 to .77. The subscale of *Child-Caring* was not significantly correlated with the other subscales of Motivation (*r* = -.03 to .05, p >.05). Then, the correlation between *Performance Orientation* and *Learning Orientation* was at .27 (p <.01) and that between *Commitment to Organization* and *Commitment to Volunteering* was .39 (p <.01). In addition, *Self-efficacy* was significantly correlated with *Willingness to be trained* (*r*=. 18, p< .01) and *Preference for Presentation methods* (*r*=. 12, p< .05), and *Willingness to be trained* was

significantly related to *Preference for Presentation methods* (*r*=. 47, p< .01) and *Preference for Hands-on methods* (*r*=. 29, p< .01).

Volunteer tenure was significantly correlated with *Commitment to Organization* (*r*=. 33, p<. 01), six subscales of motivation, *Value* (*r*=. 17, p< .01), *Understanding* (*r*=. 19, p< .01), *Social* (*r*=. 26, p< .01), *Career* (*r*=. 16, p< .01), *Protect*ive (*r*=. 26, p< .01), and *Enhancement* (*r*=. 17, p<.01), and *Self-efficacy* (*r*=. 12, p<. 01). However, the magnitude of these relationships was less than 11%. In addition, Volunteer tenure is also significantly correlated with only one of the dependent variables, *Preference for Hands-on methods* (*r*=. 16, p<. 01, 2.6%) but not with *Willingness to be trained* (*r*=. 11) and *Preference for Present methods* (*r*=. 05). Thus, Volunteer tenure was not included in further analyses.

	TE	VA	UN	SO	CA	PR	EN	CC	PO	LO	CO	CV	SE	WT	PM	HM
Tenure (TE)	1	.17**	.13*	.26**	.16*	.26**	.17**	-.02	.07	.11	.33**	.04	.12*	.11	.05	.16*
Values (VA)		1	.63**	.59**	.39**	.46**	.49**	.02	.16**	.39**	.47**	.27**	.27**	.21**	.06	.20**
Understanding (UN)			1	.51**	.56**	.62**	.66**	-.00	.30**	.44**	.49**	.10	.24**	.32**	.08	.21**
Social (SO)				1	.53**	.56**	.61**	-.01	.28**	.19**	.30**	.00	.07	.07	.04	.09
Career (CA)					1	.69**	.61**	-.03	.34**	.20**	.29**	-.09	.05	.16*	.03	.11
Protective (PR)						1	.77**	.05	.40**	.21**	.40**	-.02	.09	.11	.09	.09
Enhancement (EN)							1	.05	.47**	.26**	.38**	.01	.10	.18**	.09	.10
Child-Caring (CC)								1	.05	-.03	-.08	-.03	.13*	-.00	.05	-.06
Performance Orientation (PO)									1	.27**	.24**	-.09	.13*	.05	.03	-.06
Learning Orientation (LO)										1	.43**	.28**	.34**	.41**	.16**	.18**
Commitment to Organization (CO)											1	.39**	.37**	.41**	.12	.24**
Commitment to Volunteering (CV)												1	.27**	.24**	-.01	.12*

Continued

Table 4.13: Correlations among Variables of the Study

Table 4.13 continued

Self-efficacy (SE)	1	.18**	.12*	.10
Willingness to be trained (WT)		1	.47**	.29**
Preference for Presentation methods (PM)			1	-.10
Preference for Hands-on methods (HM)				1

Note. ** $p < 0.01$ (2-tailed); * $p < 0.05$ (2-tailed).

Hypothesis Testing

Individual difference variables and Willingness to be trained

The first set of hypotheses was concerned with the relationships between individual difference variables and Willingness to be trained.

Goal orientation and Willingness to be trained. Hypothesis 1 stated that "The relationship between learning orientation and willingness to be trained will be significantly higher than the relationship between performance orientation and willingness to be trained.

The relationship between *Learning Orientation* and *Willingness to be trained* (shown in Table 4.13) was significant (r= .41, p< .01) while that between *Performance Orientation* and *Willingness to be trained* was not significant (r= .05). Also, the difference between the two correlations was also significant (t= 5.45, p < .001). Thus, H1 was supported.

Commitment and Willingness to be trained. Hypothesis 2a stated that "*Commitment to Organization* would be significantly and positively correlated with *Willingness to be trained,*" and Hypothesis 2 b stated that "*Commitment to Volunteering* would be significantly and positively correlated with *Willingness to be trained*."

The relevant correlations (see Table 4.13) showed that *Commitment to Organization* (r= .41, p< .01) and *Commitment to Volunteering* (r= .24, p< .01) were significantly correlated to Willingness to be trained. Thus, H2a and H2b were supported. Further, the correlation between *Commitment to Organization* and *Willingness to be trained* was significantly higher than that between *Commitment to Volunteering* and *Willingness to be trained* (t= 2.50, p < .05).

Self-efficacy and Willingness to be trained. Hypothesis 3 stated that "*Self-efficacy* would be significantly and negatively correlated with *Willingness to be trained*." Contrary to this expectation, *Self-efficacy* was not significantly and negatively correlated with *Willingness to be trained*. In fact, it was significantly and positively related to *Willingness to be trained* (r= .18, p< .01). Thus, H3 was not supported.

Motivation to Volunteer and Willingness to be trained. Six hypotheses were proposed as follows linking the motivational functions with *Willingness to be trained*.

Hypothesis 4a: The motivational function of *Values* would be significantly and positively correlated with *Willingness to be trained*.

Hypothesis 4b: The motivational function of *Understanding* would be significantly and positively correlated with *Willingness to be trained*.

Hypothesis 4c: The motivational function of *Career* would be significantly and positively correlated with *Willingness to be trained*.

Hypothesis 4d: The motivational function of *Soci*al would be significantly and positively correlated with *Willingness to be trained*.

Hypothesis 4e: The motivational function of *Protective* would be significantly and positively correlated with *Willingness to be trained*.

Hypothesis 4f: The motivational function of *Enhancement* would be significantly and positively correlated with *Willingness to be trained*.

Only H4a, H4b, H4c, and H4f were supported. The correlations of 4 dimensions of *Motivation to Volunteer*, *Values* (r= .21, p< .01), *Understanding* (r= .32, p< .01), *Career* (r= .18, p< .05), and *Enhancement* (r= .18, p< .01) with *Willingness to be trained* were significant. However, the correlations of *Soci*al (r= .07) and *Protective* (r= .11)

dimensions of *Motivation to Volunteer* with *Willingness to be trained* were not significant and H4d and H4e were not supported.

In addition, the new motivational function of *Child-Caring* was not significantly correlated with *Willingness to be trained* as well.

The comparison of correlations revealed that the correlation of *Understanding* dimension with *Willingness to be trained* was significantly higher than those of *Social* ($t= 3.93$, $p < .001$), *Career* ($t= 2.50$, $p < .05$), *Protective* ($t= 3.56$, $p < .001$), *Enhancement* ($t= 2.39$, $p < .05$), and *Child-Caring* ($t= 4.57$, $p < .001$) with *Willingness to be trained*; the correlation between *Career* dimension and *Willingness to be trained* was significantly higher than that between *Child-Caring* dimension and *Willingness to be trained* ($t= 2.12$, $p < .05$); the correlation of *Values* with *Willingness to be trained* was significantly higher than those of Social ($t= 2.16$, $p < .05$) and *Child-Caring* dimensions ($t= 2.87$, $p < .01$); and that of *Enhancement* with *Willingness to be trained* was significantly higher than that of *Child-Caring* ($t= 2.40$, $p < .05$).

Individual difference variables and Preference for Training methods

The next set of hypotheses related to the relationships between individual difference variables and *Preference for two kinds of Training methods*.

Goal Orientation and Preference forTtraining methods. The two hypotheses proposed in this regard were:

> Hypothesis 5a: The positive relationship between *Learning Orientation* and *Preference for Hands-on methods* will be significantly higher than the positive relationship between *Learning Orientation* and *Preference for Presentation methods*.

Hypothesis 5b: The negative relationship between *Performance Orientation* and *Preference for Hands-on methods* will be significantly higher than the negative relationship between *Performance Orientation* and *Preference for Presentation methods*.

Learning Orientation was significantly and positively related to *Preference for both Presentation methods* (r= .16, p< .01) and *Hands-on methods* (r= .18, p< .01). Contrary to expectation, the correlation between *Learning Orientation* and *Preference for Hands-on methods* was higher than that between *Learning Orientation* and *Preference for Presentation methods* but the difference in the two correlations was not significant. Thus, H5a was not supported.

On the other hand, *Performance Orientation* was positively related to *Preference for Presentation methods* (r= .03) but negatively related to *Preference for Hands-on methods* (r= -.06); however none of relationships was significant. Also, no significant difference between two correlations was found (t= 1.08). Thus, H5b was not supported either.

In addition, the comparison of correlations revealed that the correlation of *Learning Orientation* with *Preference for Hands-on methods* was significantly higher than that of *Performance Orientation* with *Preference for Hands-on methods* (t= 3.21, p < .01) while no significant different correlations was found regarding *Preference for Presentation methods* (t= 1.65).

Commitment and Preference for Training methods. Two hypotheses testing relationships between two kinds of *Commitment* and *Preference for two different kinds of Training methods* were explored.

Hypothesis 6a: *Commitment to Organization* would be significantly and positively correlated with Preference for both *Presentation and Hands-on methods*.

Hypothesis 6b: *Commitment to Volunteering* would be significantly and positively correlated with *Preference for both Presentation* and *Hands-on methods*.

Both *Commitment to Organization* (r= .24, p < .01) and *Commitment to Volunteering* (r= .12, p < .05) were significantly related to *Preference for Hands-on methods*; on the other hand, both *Commitment to Organization* (r= .12) and *Commitment to Volunteering* (r= -.01) were not significantly correlated with *Preference for Presentation methods*. Thus, both Hypotheses, H6a and H6b, were only partially supported. In addition, the comparison of correlations showed that the correlation between *Commitment to Organization* and *Preference for Presentation methods* was significantly higher than that between *Commitment to Volunteering* and *Preference for Presentation methods* (t= 2.29, p < .05); however, no other differences in correlations was significant.

Self-efficacy and Preference for Training methods. Hypothesis 7 stated that "Self-*efficacy* would be significantly and negatively correlated with *Preference for both Presentation* and *Hands-on methods*."

As the correlation of *Self-efficacy* with *Preference for Presentation method* (r= .12, p< .05) and with *Preference for Hands-on methods* (r= .10) were both positive, H7 was not supported.

Motivation and Preference for Training methods. Six Hypotheses were proposed linking *Motivation to Volunteer* with *Preference for Training methods*.

Hypothesis 8a: The relationship of the motivational function of *Understanding* with *Preference for Hand-on-method* would be significantly higher than its relationship with *Preference for Presentation methods*.

Hypothesis 8b: The relationship of the motivational function of *Career* with *Preference for Hand-on-method* would be significantly higher than its relationship with *Preference for Presentation methods*.

Hypothesis 8c: The relationship of the motivational function of *Social* with *Preference for Hand-on-method* would be significantly higher than its relationship with *Preference for Presentation methods*.

Hypothesis 8d: The motivational function of *Values* would be significantly and positively correlated with *Preference for both Presentation* and *Hands-on methods*.

Hypothesis 8e: The motivational function of *Protective* would be significantly and positively correlated with *Preference for both Presentation* and *Hands-on methods*.

Hypothesis 8f: The motivational function of *Enhancement* would be significantly and positively correlated with *Preference for both Presentation* and *Hands-on methods*.

The correlation analyses revealed that all but two relationships between *Motivation* dimensions and *Preference for two different kinds of Training methods* were not significant. Motivational dimensions of *Values* ($r = .20$, $p < .01$) and *Understanding* ($r = .21$, $p < .01$) were significantly correlated with *Preference for Hands-on methods*. Also, none of the correlations between the motivational function and *Preferences for the*

two Training methods were significantly different from each other. Thus only H 8d which specified a significant relationship between the motivational dimension of *Values* and *Preference for Training methods* was supported. None of the other hypotheses were supported. In addition, the correlations between a newly added dimension, *Child-Caring* and *Preference for the two kinds of Training methods* were not significant as well.

Willingness to be trained and Preference for Training methods. Hypothesis 9 stated that "*Willingness to be trained* would be significantly and positively correlated with *Preference for both Presentation* and *Hands-on methods*." As expected. *Willingness to be trained* was significantly related to *Preference for Presentation methods* (r=. 47, p<. 01) and *Hands-on methods* (r=. 29, p<. 01). Thus, H9 was supported. Further, the correlation between *Willingness to be trained* and *Preference for Presentation methods* was significantly higher than that between *Willingness to be trained* and *Preference for Hands-on methods* (t= 2.65, p < .01).

Cumulative Effects on Dependent Variables

Relationship of Variables with Willingness to be trained

The three separate simultaneous regression equations (shown in Table 4.14) were all significant—*Goal Orientation* (f (2, 259) = 27.66, p < .001), that of *Commitment* (f (2, 259) = 27.29, p < .001), and that of *Motivation to Volunteer* (f (7, 254) = 5.32, p < .001) were significant. *Learning* and *Performance Orientations* jointly explain 17.6% of the variance in *Willingness to be trained*. *Commitment to Volunteer* and *Commitment to Organization* jointly explained 17.4% of the variance in *Willingness to be trained.* The sub-dimensions of *Motivation to Volunteer* jointly explained 12.8% of the variance in *Willingness to be trained*.

However, only the unique contributions of *Learning Orientation* (ß = .43, p < .001), *Commitment to Organization* (ß = .38, p< .001), and *Understanding* dimension of Motivation (ß = .37, p < .001) were significant in explaining the variance in *Willingness to be trained.* That is, the effects of other variables were subsumed by the effects of these three variables. Because *Self-efficacy* was significantly correlated with *Willingness to be trained* (*r*=. 18, p<. 01; see Table 4.13), it was added to the above three variables in a multiple regression analysis carried out to assess the total effect of the variables on *Willingness to be trained* (see Figure 4.4).

A simultaneous regression analysis revealed that the multivariate effect of the motivational dimensions of *Understanding, Learning Orientation, Commitment to Organization,* and *Self-efficacy* was significant (*f* (3, 258) = 27.39, p < .001). The results are shown in Table 4.15. These variables jointly explained 24.2% of variance in *Willingness to be trained*. However, only *Learning Orientation* (ß = .28, p < .001) and *Commitment to Organization* (ß = .26, p < .001) contributed uniquely to the explained variance in *Willingness to be trained.* In order to explore the relative contributions of *Learning Orientation* and *Commitment to Organization,* the stepwise regression analysis of the same variables were run. The result of the stepwise regression analysis (see Table 4.16) showed that *Learning Orientation* (ß = .29) entered to equation first to explain 17% of the variance (R^2 = .17) followed by *Commitment to Organization* (ß = .28) which explained an additional 7% of the variance (ΔR^2 = .07) for a total of 24%.

Variable	*R*	R^2	*df*	*F*	ß	*t*	Sig
Goal Orientation	.420	.176	259	27.660			000
Performance Orientation					-.070	-1.198	.232
Learning Orientation					.433	7.391	.000
Commitment	.417	.174	259	27.293			000
Commitment to Organization					.375	6.107	.000
Commitment to Volunteering					.088	1.438	.152
Motivation to Volunteer	.358	.128	254	5.320			.000
Value					.075	.905	.366
Understanding					.368	3.994	.000
Social					-.143	-1.705	.089
Career					.066	.766	.444
Protect					-.170	-1.648	.101
Enhancement					.074	.719	.473
Child-caring					.002	.040	.968

Table 4.14: Simultaneous Regression of Sub-dimensions of Variables on Willingness to be trained

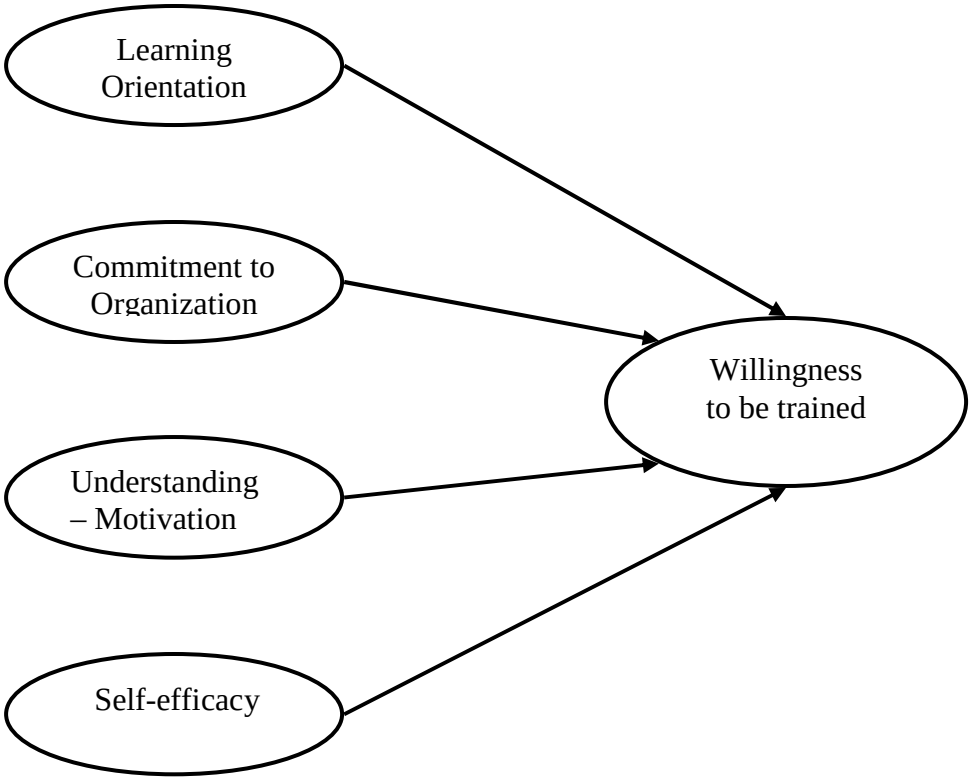

Figure 4.4: Hypothesized Relationship of Variables with Willingness to be trained

Variable	*R*	R^2	*df*	*F*	ß	*t*	Sig
	.492	.242	257	20.518			.000
Learning Orientation					.275	4.277	.000
Commitment to Organization					.261	3.907	.000
Self-efficacy					-.024	-.397	.692
Understanding- Motivation					.081	1.239	.216

Table 4.15: Simultaneous Regression Analysis of Variable on Willingness to be trained

Step	Variable Entered	*F*	*df*	R^2	ΔR^2	$ß^a$	*R*
1	Learning Orientation	53.79	260	.171		.29	.414
2	Commitment to Organization	40.24	259	.487`	.066	.28	.487

Note $ß^a$: Beta from the final step.

Table 4.16: Stepwise Regression of Variables on Willingness to be trained

Relationship of Variables with Preference for Training methods

Regarding *Preferences for Presentation methods*, three separate simultaneous regression analyses revealed that the multivariate effect of *Goal Orientation* (*f* (2, 259) = 3.47, p < .05) was significant but the multivariate effect of *Commitment* (*f* (2, 259) = 2.19) and that of *Motivation to Volunteer* (*f* (7, 254) = .62) were not significant. On the other hand, the three separate simultaneous regression analyses for *Preference for Hands-on methods* showed that the multivariate effects of *Goal Orientation* (*f* (2, 259) = 6.14, p < .005), *Commitment* (*f* (2, 259) = 8.29, p < .001), and *Motivation to Volunteer* (*f* (7, 254) = 2.51, p < .05) were all significant. Further, the two *Goal Orientations* jointly explained 2.6% of variance in *Preference for Presentation methods* and 4.5% of variance in *Preference for Hands-on methods* (*f* (2, 259) = 6.14, p < .005); the two *Commitments* jointly explained 6.0% of variance in *Preference for Hands-on methods* (*f* (2, 259) = 8.29, p < .001); and sub-dimensions of *Motivation to Volunteer* jointly explained 6.5% of *Preference for Hands-on methods* (*f* (7, 254) = 2.51, p < .05). However, only *Learning Orientation* contributed uniquely to the explained variance of *Preference for Presentation methods* (*ß* = .17, p < .05). *Learning Orientation* and *Commitment to Organization* contributed uniquely to the explained variance of *Preference for Hands-on methods* (*ß* = .21, p < .005; *ß* = .23, p< .001, respectively). Even though *Motivation to Volunteer* had a significant multivariate effect on *Preference for Hands-on methods*, none of the sub-dimensions of *Motivation* had significantly influenced such a preference. The results of these simultaneous regression analyses are shown in Table 4.17 and 4.18

Variable	*R*	R^2	*df*	*F*	ß	*t*	Sig
Goal Orientation	.161	.026	259	3.466			.033
Performance Orientation					-.015	-.229	.819
Learning Orientation					.165	2.587	.010
Commitment	.129	.017	259	2.192			.114
Commitment to Organization					.140	2.092	.037
Commitment to Volunteering					-.060	-.891	.374
Motivation to Volunteer	.130	.017	254	.621			.739
Value					.028	.321	.749
Understanding					.037	.375	.708
Social					-.046	-.513	.608
Career					-.075	-.831	.407
Protect					.096	.878	.381
Enhancement					.051	.466	.641
Child-caring					.040	.640	.523

Table 4.17: Simultaneous Regression Analysis of Sub-dimensions of Variables on Preference for Presentation Methods

Variable	*R*	R^2	*df*	*F*	ß	*t*	Sig
Goal Orientation	.213	.045	259	6.142			002
Performance Orientation					-.113	-1.799	.073
Learning Orientation					.213	3.383	.001
Commitment	.245	.060	259	8.291			000
Commitment to Organization					.231	3.536	.000
Commitment to Volunteering					.031	.475	.635
Motivation to Volunteer	.254	.065	254	2.510			.016
Value					.155	1.807	.072
Understanding					.184	1.933	.054
Social					-.071	-.816	.415
Career					.046	.517	.606
Protect					-.047	-.445	.656
Enhancement					-.047	-.438	.661
Child-caring					-.060	-.983	.327

Table 4.18: Simultaneous Regression Analysis of Sub-dimensions of Variables on Preference for Hands-on Methods

In order to asses the cumulative effects of those variable that contributed significantly in the above simultaneous regression analyses and those single-factor variables that were significantly correlated with *Preferences for the two Training methods* were used as predictors in the next set of regression analyses. Accordingly, *Preference for Presentation methods* was regressed on *Learning Orientation, Self-efficacy, and Willingness to be trained.* Similarly, *Preference for Hands-on methods* was regressed on *Learning Orientation, Commitment to Organization,* and *Willingness to be trained.* The hypothesized relationships among these variables are shown in Figure 4.5 and Figure 4.6.

The simultaneous regression equation with *Learning orientation, Self-efficacy,* and *Willingness to be trained* as predictors of *Preference for Presentation methods* was significant (F (3, 258) = 25.16, $p < .001$) explaining 22.6% of variance in *Preference for Presentation methods*. However, only *Willingness to be trained* ($ß = .49$, $p < .001$) contributed uniquely to the explained variance in *Preference for Presentation methods*. The results are shown in Table 4.19.

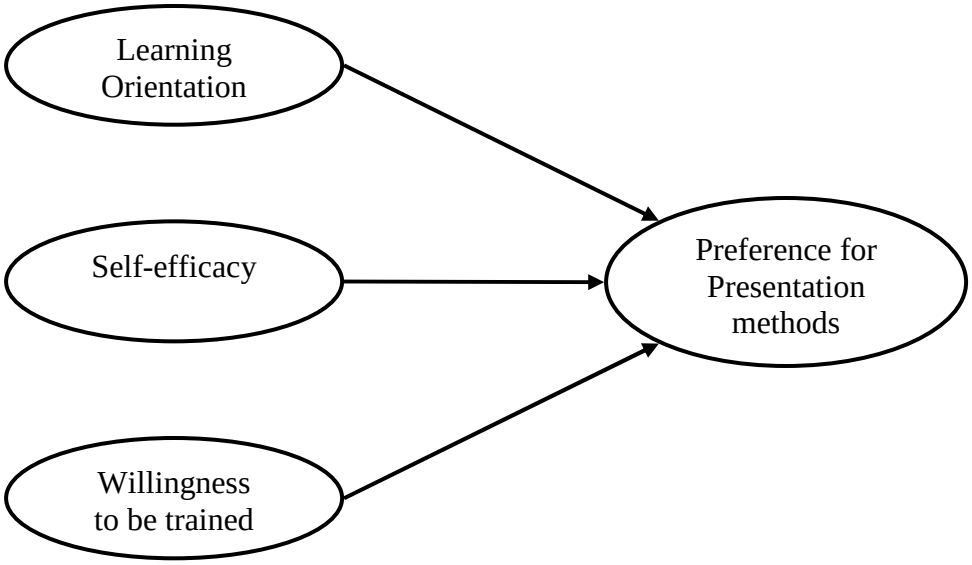

Figure 4.5: Hypothesized Relationship of variables with Preference for Presentation Methods

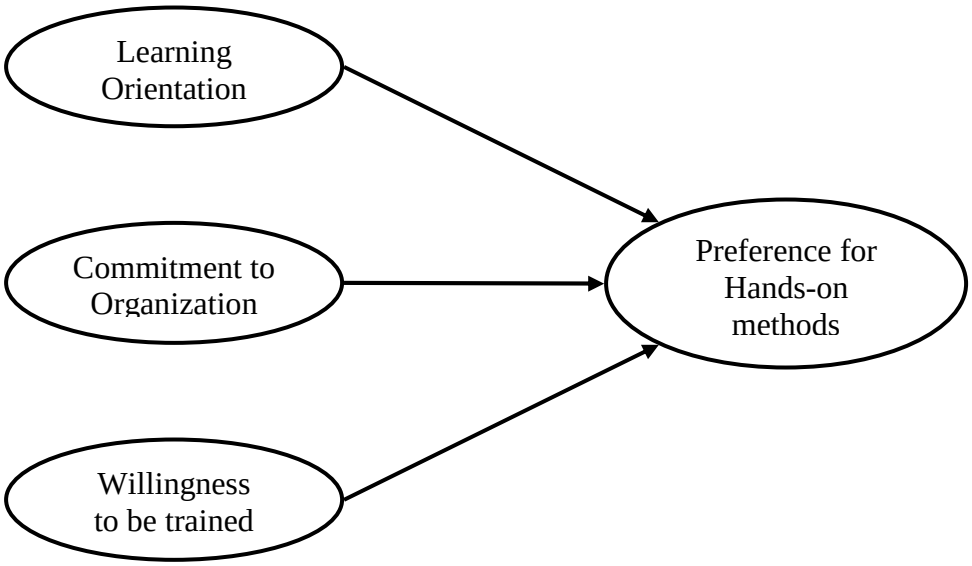

Figure 4.6: Hypothesized Relationship of variables with Preference for Hands-on Methods

Similarly, the equation with *Learning orientation, Commitment to organization,* and *Willingness to be trained* as predictors of *Preference for Hands-on methods* was also significant (F (3, 258) = 10.07, p < .001) explaining 11% of variance in *Preference for Hands-on methods*. The unique contributions of *Commitment to organization* ($ß$ = .22, p < .05) and *Willingness to be trained* ($ß$ = .14, p < .005) were significant. In a subsequent stepwise regression analysis, *Willingness to be trained* entered the equation stepwise first explaining 9% of the variance ($ß$ = .23; R^2 = .09) and *Commitment to organization* entered second explaining an additional 2% ($ß$ = .15; ΔR^2 = .02). The results of the simultaneous regression analysis are shown in Table 4.20 and those of the stepwise regression analysis are shown in Table 4.21.

Variable	*R*	R^2	*df*	*F*	ß	*t*	Sig
	.476	.226	258	25.156			.000
Learning Orientation					-.059	-.935	.351
Self-efficacy					.055	.942	.347
Willingness to be trained					.486	8.063	.000

Table 4.19: Simultaneous Regression Analysis of Variables on Preference for Presentation Methods

Variable	*R*	R^2	*df*	*F*	ß	*t*	*Sig*
	.324	.105	258	10.071			.000
Learning Orientation					.030	.446	.656
Commitment to Organization					.139	2.048	.042
Willingness to be trained					.223	3.310	.001

Table 4.20: Simultaneous Regression Analysis of Variables on Preference for Hands-on Methods

Step	Variable Entered	*F*	*df*	R^2	ΔR^2	$ß^a$	*R*
1	Willingness to be trained	24.38	260	.086		.23	.293
2	Commitment to Organization	5.32	259	.104`	.018	.15	.323

Note. $ß^a$ is from the final step.

Table 4.21: Stepwise Regression Analysis of Variables on Preference for Hands-on Methods

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

The basic premise of this study was that volunteer training was necessary to enhance the quality of the services provided by those volunteers which, in turn, would enhance the overall performance of the organization as a whole. The research was also based on the notion of person analysis, a category of the training needs assessment (Goldstein et al., 1991). One assumption behind person analysis is that there are deficiencies in capabilities of volunteers to perform specified tasks. With that focus, one would assess the abilities of volunteers and then tailor an appropriate training program. A second assumption behind person analysis is that those who are identified as needing training are indeed willing to be trained (Noe, 2002). The present research was focused on this issue of one's *Willingness to be trained*. Further, it was proposed that such willingness to be trained would be a function of individual difference factors of (a) *Goal Orientation*, (b) *Commitments to Organization* and to *Volunteering*, (c) *Self-efficacy regarding Volunteer work*, and (e) *Motivation to Volunteer*. Further, it was also proposed that a training program's success would also be a function of the extent to which the would-be trainees prefer a given training method (Noe, 2002). Prior to discussing the

results of the empirical verification of these propositions, the measurement of these variables is discussed first.

The pilot study involving the data provided by 89 volunteers in youth soccer yielded results supportive of the measurement model. The internal consistency estimates for all variables exceeded the threshold of .70 (Nunnally, 1978) except in the case of *Commitment to Volunteering* with the value of .66. As noted in Chapter 3, analysis of item-to-total correlations resulted in the deletion of three items which resulted in higher internal consistency estimate (α= .71). Thus, the final estimates ranged from .71 to .95 for an average of .84.

The results of the pilot study also showed that the correlations among the variables of the study ranged from .25 to .74. The higher values were associated with the six motivational functions of Clary et al. (1998). The highest correlation of .74 between *Enhancement* and *Protective* functions represented less that 55% of shared variance. The correlations among the subscales of *Goal Orientation, Commitment*, and *Self-efficacy* were much lower and their correlations with the six motivational functions were also much lower.

The foregoing measurement model was subjected to more rigorous procedure of confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) in the final study. Several fit indices showed good support for the measurement model including the new dimension of *Child-Caring*. The internal consistency estimates ranged from .71 to .96 for a mean of .87. Once again, the intercorrelations among the variables of the study (ranging from -.09 to .77) showed that the higher values were associated with Clary et al.'s (1998) six motivational functions.

Thus, the results of both the pilot study and the main study let us place confidence in the measurement model.

A Note on the New Motivational Function

Based on the pilot study participants' reactions and feedback, I added a new dimension of motivation to volunteer and labeled it *Child-Caring*. The addition of the new subscale is consistent with Vaillancourt and Payette (1986) conception of "household production" model of volunteering. That is, people may volunteer in those activities which would facilitate child-rearing and child-minding of their own children. In fact, the present results show that *Child-Caring* was the most dominant function of volunteering for the respondents of this study. The respondents scored significantly higher on this dimension than on any other motivational dimension. Future research should include this dimension as one aspect of motivation to volunteer. While the present study was focused on youth soccer, the notion of *Child- Caring* can be extended to other contexts. For instance, a person may volunteer to help with a particular activity as an extension of their interest in a relative or friend who would benefit from that activity (e.g., cardiac rehabilitation, cancer related support services, etc.)

It is intriguing, however, that the motivational function of *Child-Caring* was significantly related only to *Self-efficacy* and that too at a minimal level ($r = .13$; $p < .05$). One would have expected that in so far as respondents' interest in their own children motivated them to volunteer such a motivation would also translate to their *Willingness to be trained* because such training would enhance their *Child-Caring* abilities. Could it be that *Child-Caring* is the prime motivation that moves people into volunteering and that what they do in their volunteering is a function of other motivational functions? The

dynamics of how this self-interest in their own children would extend to volunteering but not to be trained in the services they provide need to be investigated in future research.

Willingness to be trained

Goal Orientation and Willingness to be trained

As expected, *Learning Orientation* was significantly related to *Willingness to be trained* and *Performance Orientation* was not. In addition, the relationship between *Learning Orientation* and *Willingness to be trained* was significantly stronger than that between *Performance Orientation* and *Willingness to be trained*. Also, only *Learning Orientation* contributed significantly to explain variance of *Willingness to be trained*. These results confirm the results of previous studies on goal orientation. Previous studies in both the training and educational literatures have shown that individuals with high *Learning Orientation* consider that ability is malleable and that it could be increased by learning and practicing (e.g., Ford et al., 1988). That is, *Learning Orientation* has the same effect on *Willingness to be trained* irrespective of the context. Similarly, *Performance Orientation* was unrelated to *Willingness to be trained* in the volunteer context as it had in the context of paid work. The volunteers of this study high on *Performance Orientation* did not express their *Willingness to be trained* just as the paid workers in previous studies. While these results shed some insights on the dynamics of training in the volunteer context, they also attest to the utility of the distinction between *Learning Orientation* and *Performance Orientation*.

It is encouraging that both genders were significantly higher on *Learning Orientation* than on *Performance Orientation*. This finding seems to contradict the commonly held notion that youth sports are more performance oriented and that youth

sports are more characterized by a lack of learning climate. If volunteers in other contexts of youth sport would express similar goal orientations (i.e., higher *Learning Orientatio*n than *Performance Orientation*), future research may verify how such *Learning Orientation* on the part of the volunteers (and parents as well) would be side tracked in to a performance climate as alleged. One useful approach in this regard would be to assess the goals orientations of volunteers and parents, their perceptions of the elements in the context that might influence the climate, their rationale for those elements, and their preferred means of correcting those elements.

Commitment and Willingness to be trained

Another critical variable related to *Willingness to be trained* is volunteer *Commitment to Organization*. The present results are similar to those of previous studies (e.g., Ahmad & Baker, 2003; Bartlett, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2000) that reported a positive relationship between organizational commitment and training motivation. In the context of sport, Cunningham and Mahoney (2004) found that organizational commitment influenced training motivation. Even though their study was conducted on part-time employees in university athletic departments, they considered their participants (i.e., part-time employees) were very similar to volunteers in sports. The results of the current study also confirmed the close relationship between *Commitment to Organization* and *Willingness to be trained.*

As noted, a unique feature of the present study was the inclusion of commitment to volunteering per se. This is analogous to career commitment or commitment to the occupation. The results showed that *Commitment to Volunteering* was also significantly related to *Willingness to be trained*. However, its influence was not as strong as that of

Commitment to Organization. The correlation between *Commitment to Organization* and *Willingness to be trained* was significantly higher than that between *Commitment to Volunteering* and *Willingness to be trained*. Also, in the regression analysis *Commitment to Volunteering* did not contribute significantly to the explained variance of *Willingness to be trained*.

The differential effects of *Commitment to Volunteering* and *Commitment to Organization* on the *Willingness to be trained* can be explained as a function of the immediate focus of the training that is under consideration. That is, the training relates to coaching and officiating in youth soccer offered by the organization. The training itself is offered by the organization. In sum, the beneficiaries of the training programs are the clients of the organization and the provider of the training program is also the same organization. Hence it is only appropriate that *Commitment to Organization* would be more closely related to *Willingness to be trained* than *Commitment to Volunteering*, a concept which extends beyond the particular organizational context. An issue in this regard is that the subscale *Commitment to Volunteering* referred to volunteering in general and was not focused on volunteering youth sports. As Colarelli and Bishop (1990) noted in relation to career commitment, the commitment concept should be restricted to the context of youth sport. Future research may adopt this perspective.

Based on the fact that almost 90% of the respondents had children playing soccer, it is tempting to suggest that in so far as the clients of the organization also happen to be the children of the respondents, the respondents' *Commitment to Organization* was more related to *Willingness to be trained*. But this view has to be tempered by two other findings. First, respondent's *Commitment to Volunteering* was significantly higher than

their *Commitment to Organization*. Second, if their own children playing in the leagues are a consideration at all, then the notion of *Child-Caring* should be highly correlated with *Willingness to be trained*. But that was not the case. In fact, the correlation here was near zero.

Self-efficacy and Willingness to be trained

Previous studies showed that volunteers considered training as a tool to increase their *Self-efficacy* toward volunteer works (e.g., Keith, 2000; Klein & Sondag, 1994); thus, I hypothesized that *Self-efficacy* would be negatively related to *Willingness to be trained*. However, contrary to expectation, *Self-efficacy* was significantly and positively related to *Willingness to be trained*. A possible explanation could be that while *Self-efficacy* reflects one's confidence in their abilities to carry out assigned tasks, it may also reflect a realization that such *Self-efficacy* was gained through training and experience. Therefore, those high on *Self-efficacy* may also be eager to enhance further their sense of *Self-efficacy* through additional training. Coupling this result with the finding that the respondents were more learning oriented than performance oriented lends support to the speculation.

Put another way, those high on *Self-efficacy* may also have perceptions of the valence of training (e.g., Colquitt et al., 2000; Cunningham & Mahoney, 2004; Klein & Sondag, 1994). Valence drawn from Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory is defined as "individuals' beliefs regarding the desirability of the outcomes obtained from training" (Colquitt et al., 2000, p.680). That is, trainees may be more likely to participate in volunteer training when they believe participation in training can give some benefits for them. While extrinsic outcomes like promotion and pay increases may be pertinent in the

context of paid work, they do not have a bearing on volunteer work. Instead, it is the intrinsic rewards that are critical for volunteer *Willingness to be trained*. In fact, Klein and Sondag (1994) found that the concept of valence (i.e., the effectiveness of the volunteer training program in actual volunteer work) as well as self-efficacy toward volunteer work was significantly related to the decision to participate in volunteer training program. Thus, valence (i.e., the belief or expectation of the effective volunteer training based on their perception or experiences) might be the reason that participants reported relatively high *Willingness to be trained* despite their high level of *Self-efficacy*. Indeed, participants who had previous volunteer training experiences reported significantly higher level of *Willingness to be trained* ($t = 4.91$. $p < .001$) than ones with no previous volunteer training. Another perspective is that those high on *Self-efficacy* had cultivated that sense through extensive and/or prolonged involvement with volunteering in that organization. Such people are also likely to perceive training as part of volunteering itself. This view is substantiated by the fact that *Commitment to Organization* was related to *Willingness to be trained*.

Motivation to Volunteer and Willingness to be trained

Four dimensions of *Motivation to Volunteer* (*Understanding*, *Career*, *Values*, and *Enhancement*) were significantly correlated with *Willingness to be trained*. As expected, *Understanding* and *Career* dimensions which are directly related to learning (or training) were significantly correlated to *Willingness to be trained*. *Understanding* function of motivation reflects a desire to learn new knowledge, skills, and abilities (Clary et al., 1998). Thus, it is not surprising that *Understanding* and *Willingness to be trained* were related. In fact, this correlation was significantly higher than the correlations involving

other dimensions of motivation (*Social, Career, Protective, Enhancement,* and *Child-caring*). Similarly, *Career* function of motivation also implies seeking career related knowledge, skills, and abilities and experiencing career relevant jobs or building career-related networks (Clary et al., 1998); therefore, the significant and positive relationship between *Career* dimension of motivation and *Willingness to be trained* was expected. The correlation between *Career* dimension and *Willingness to be trained* was significantly higher than that between *Child-Caring* dimension and *Willingness to be trained.* As the dimension of *Values* represents a concern for others, those high on this dimensions may indeed seek further training so that they can serve the clients better. *Enhancement* concerns one's self-esteem which can be increased by doing good things well. Those high on this dimension would also be inclined to undertake further training in order to fulfill this desire. Thus, it is not surprising that individuals with high on the motivational functions of *Values* or *Enhancement* had the positive attitude toward training. In the regression analysis, only *Understanding* emerged as the variable contributing uniquely to the *willingness to be trained.* That is, the influences of the other variables were subsumed by the stronger association of *Understanding.*

Although *Child-Caring* was the highest-rated motivational function, it was not significantly related to *Willingness to be trained*. One would have expected that because they had their own children playing in the leagues, the respondents would have been eager to participate in training to enhance their capabilities so that they care for their children even better. While *Child-Caring* may impel one toward volunteering for the organization, it does not have any influence on subsequent behavior and attitudes in volunteering.

Summarized Relationships with Willingness to be trained

Overall, *Commitment to Organization* has strong connection to respondents' *Willingness to be trained*. This finding is consistent with earlier findings in the context of paid work. For instance, Ahmad and Baker (2003) found that training motivation was highly related to affective commitment (the emotional attachment of individuals to the organization) and normative commitment (an obligation to remain as a member of the organization). These are the two of the three components of organization commitment articulated and measured by Allen and Meyer (1991, 1997), the third being *continuous commitment.* It must be noted that the present study employed a composite measure of commitment which subsumes the three components.

Organizational commitment has been found to influence training motivation in the context of sport also (Cunningham & Mahoney, 2004; Green & Chalip, 1998). However, Cunningham and Mahoney (2004) and Green and Chalip (1998) conducted their investigations with volunteers in sport events. Such volunteering is relatively sporadic in contrast to the continuous involvement of the volunteers of the present study. Despite this difference, *Willingness to be trained* was influenced by *Commitment to Organization* in both contexts. In addition, personal factors of *Learning Orientation* and *Understanding* dimension of motivation also were highly related to an inclination toward training.

Preference for Training methods

The influences of individual difference variables on volunteers' *Preference for Training methods* were also investigated in the current study. Consistent with previous finding that *Learning Orientation* is related to positive attitude toward learning (e.g., Ford et al., 1998), the present results also show a significant relationship between

Learning Orientation and *Preference for both kinds of Training methods.* Regression analyses showed that *Learning Orientation* contributed significantly and uniquely to the explained variance in *Preference for both kinds of Training methods* (*Presentation methods* and *Hands on methods*). My hypothesis that the relationship of *Learning Orientation* with *Preference for Hands-on methods* would be significantly higher than that with *Preference for Presentation methods* was not supported. Presumably, those high on *Learning Orientation* were indifferent to the types of training method.

In contrast to *Learning Orientation*, *Performance Orientation* was positively related to *Preference for Presentation methods* but negatively related to *Preference for Hands-on methods.* Although neither of these relationships was significant, they do indicate tendency of those high on *Performance Orientation* to prefer *Presentation Methods*. This view is supported by the finding that the correlation of *Learning Orientation* with *Preference for Hands-on methods* was significantly higher than that of *Performance Orientation* with *Preference for Hands-on methods* while such correlations with respect *Preference for Presentation methods* were not significantly different from each other. Given the differing influences of the two orientations and given that an organization's volunteers may be equally characterized by the two orientations, a practical step for the organization would be to focus on presentation methods. Those high on *Learning Orientation* would be indifferent to either method while those high on *Performance Orientation* are likely to prefer *Presentation methods*. But this perspective must be tempered by the possibility that the volunteers of an organization could be high or low on both *Learning* and *Performance Orientations* as Goal Orientation is not a bipolar construct (Grant & Dweck, 2003). Further, we must note that the influence of

either type of goal orientation on Preferences for either of the Training methods was minimal.

As for commitment, the present results show that *Commitment to Organization* is a more dominant influence on *Preference for Hands-on methods* than *Commitment to Volunteering*. Neither forms of commitment (i.e., *Commitment to Organization* or *to Volunteering*) had any influence on *Preference for Presentation methods*. This seems to contradict the earlier recommendation that the organization should focus more on the presentation methods. However, the result that *Self-efficacy* was significantly correlated with *Preference for Presentation methods* and not with *Preference for Hands-on methods* is supportive of a focus on presentation methods. But then the results relating to motivational function present a different picture. Only the correlations between the motivational dimensions of *Values* and *Understanding* and *Preference for Hands-on methods* were significant. Even their influence was muted in the presence of other variables in the regression equation. However, these results relating to motivational dimensions suggest a greater focus on hands-on methods. On the other hand, it was found that *Willingness to be trained* was significantly more correlated with *Preference for Presentation methods* than with *Preference for Hands-on methods*. This result does indicate focus on presentation methods. Overall, the results relating to *Preferences for Training methods* is murky. Any definitive recommendation in this regard should await future research.

Summary

The role of volunteers in the sport and recreation industry is vital. While the responsibility for the delivery of youth sports rests largely on the shoulders of volunteers,

the quality of volunteer services has not been well controlled and managed in most of volunteer organizations. As a strategy to improve volunteer service, volunteer training has been recommended by many practitioners and researchers. I have attempted to explore volunteers' attitudes toward training based on previous training research which has shown that trainees' motivation to learn results in the positive results of training and the effectiveness of training (e.g., Noe, 2002). More specifically, the purpose of the current study was to explore individual difference factors influencing volunteer youth coaches' *Willingness to be trained* and their *Preference on Training methods*. In the current study, the relationships of four individual difference factors, *Goal Orientation, Commitment, Self-efficacy,* and *Motivation to Volunteer*, with *Willingness to be trained* and the relationships of *Willingness to be trained* as well as the same four individual different factors with *Preference for two different Training methods, Presentation methods* and *Hands-on methods* were explored.

Overall, the results regarding research hypotheses were mixed. As expected, individual difference variables were significantly related to volunteers' *Willingness to be trained*. Especially, the positive relationship of *Learning Orientation, Commitment to Organization*, and *Understanding* function of motivation with *Willingness to be trained* was notable. However, contrary to expectation, *Self-efficacy* was positively correlated with *Willingness to be trained.* It must be noted that the influence of individual difference variables on volunteers' *Preference for Training methods* was minimal. Only *Learning Orientation, Commitment to Organization, Self-efficacy* and *Willingness to be trained* were significantly related to either *Preference for Presentation methods* or *Preference for Hands-on methods*.

The results of the current study revealed that some of the individual difference variables studied were significantly related to *Willingness to be trained.* But their influences on *Preferences for different kinds of Training methods* were mixed. The present results do not permit a clear recommendation for the type of training method to be chosen. Future research should explore other factors (e.g., personality) that might influence volunteers' preferences for a given method of training.

Only the pretraining stage of the Conceptual Model of Volunteer Training (see Figure 1.1) was tested and supported in the present study. A follow-up step would be to subject other suggested relationships in the model to empirical verification (e.g., the influence of individual difference variables on other stages of training, the influence of organizational variables on the training process, path analysis of training stages).

Beyond testing each relationship, it would also be necessary to employ a longitudinal experimental research method to test the overall Conceptual Model of Volunteering Training in its entirety. Most of all, the critical part of any training program and training research is to provide effective training programs and increase the positive training outcomes; thus, it is necessary to measure the effectiveness of the training program and the changes in trainees' performance after training and how it translates into better quality service.

Because of a dearth of research on training of volunteers, the present study employed the concepts from the literature related to paid employees. While such an approach is legitimate in the beginning stages, it is equally important that we embark on developing the training literature focused on volunteers. In this regard, it would be useful

to replicate the present research in the context of volunteers in other sport contexts as well as non-sport contexts.

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APPENDIX A
Questionnaire Items

	Items
	Performance Orientation
1	I prefer to do things that I can do well rather than things that I do poorly.
2	I am happiest at work when I perform tasks on which I know that I will not make any errors.
3	The things I enjoy the most are the things I do the best.
4	The opinions others have about how well I can do certain things are important to me.
5	I feel smart when I do something without making any mistakes.
6	I like to be fairly confident that I can successfully perform a task before I attempt it.
7	I like to work on tasks that I have done well on in the past.
8	I feel smart when I can do something better than most other people.
	Learning Orientation
1	The opportunity to do challenging work is important to me.
2	When I fail to complete a difficult task, I plan to try harder the next time I work on it.
3	I prefer to work on tasks that force me to learn new things.
4	The opportunity to learn new things is important to me.
5	I do my best when I am working on a fairly difficult task.
6	I try hard to improve on my past performance.
7	The opportunity to extend the range of my abilities is important to me.
8	When I have difficulty solving a problem, I enjoy trying different approaches to see which one will work.

Note. Modified from "Goal orientation in organizational research: A conceptual and empirical foundation" by S. B. Button, J. E. Z. Mathieu, & D. M. Zajac, 1996, *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 67,* 26-48.

Table 6.1: Items for Goal Orientation

	Items
	Commitment to Organization
1	I am willing to put a great deal of effort in order to help this organization be successful.
2	I speak of this organization to my friends as a great one to volunteer for.
3	I would accept almost any type of job assignment in order to keep volunteering for this organization.
4	I find that my values and the organization's values are very similar.
5	I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organization.
6	This organization really inspires me to do the best in my volunteer work.
7	I am extremely glad that I chose this organization to volunteer for over others.
8	I really care about the fate of this organization.
9	For me this is the best of all possible organizations for which to volunteer.
	Commitment to Volunteering
1	If I can find different ways to spend my leisure time other than volunteering, I would take them.
2	I definitely want to continue volunteering.
3	If I could do it all over again, I would not commit to volunteering.
4	Even if I had other attractive leisure activities, I would probably still continue to volunteer.
5	I cannot give up additional time or effort for volunteering. (deleted in the Main Study)

Continued

Table 6.2: Items for Commitment

Table 6.2 Continued

6	Volunteering is ideal for one's life work. (deleted after the Pilot Study)
7	I am disappointed that I ever started volunteering.
8	I spend a significant amount of time reading volunteer or volunteer work-related journals, books or magazines. (deleted after the Pilot Study)
9	I talk up the benefits of volunteering (deleted in the Main Study)
10	I would take upgrading courses or seminars for volunteering even if it is not paid for by the organization. (deleted after the Pilot Study)

Note. Modified from "*Employee-organization linkages: the psychology of commitment, absenteeism, and turnover*" by R. T. Mowday, R. Steers, & L. W. Porter, 1982, New York: Academic Press., "The measurement and prediction of career commitment" by G. J. Blau, 1985, *Journal of Occupational Psychology, 58,* 277-288., & "Development of scales for the measurement of work motivation", F. J. Landy, & R. M. Gvion, 1970, *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance,* 5**,** 93–103.

	Items
1	I can always manage to solve difficult problems in my volunteer work.
2	If someone opposes me, I can find the means and ways to do my volunteer work.
3	I am certain that I can accomplish the goals of my volunteer work.
4	I am confident that I could deal efficiently with unexpected events in my volunteer work.
5	Thanks to my resourcefulness, I can handle unforeseen situations in my volunteer work.
6	I can solve most problems in volunteer work.
7	I can remain calm when facing difficulties in my volunteer work.
8	When I am confronted with a problem in my volunteer work, I can find several solutions.
9	If I am in trouble with my volunteer work, I can think of a good solution.
10	I can handle whatever comes in my volunteer work.

Note. Modified from "Generalized Self-Efficacy scale" by R. Schwarzer, & M. Jerusalem, 1995, In J. Weinman, S. Wright, & M. Johnston, *Measures in health psychology: A user's portfolio. Causal and control beliefs* (pp. 35-37). Windsor, UK: NFER-NELSON.

Table 6.3: Items for Self-efficacy

	Items
	Protective
1	No matter how bad I've been feeling, volunteering helps me to forget about it.
2	By volunteering I feel less lonely.
3	Doing volunteer work relieves me of some of the guilt over being more fortunate than others.
4	Volunteering helps me work through by own personal problems.
5	Volunteering is a good escape from my own troubles.
	Values
1	I am concerned about those less fortunate than myself.
2	I am genuinely concerned about the particular group I am serving
3	I feel compassion toward people in need.
4	I feel it is important to help others.
5	I can do something for a cause that is important to me.
	Career
1	Volunteering can help me to get my foot in the door at a place where I would like to work.
2	I can make new contacts that might help my business or career.
3	Volunteering allows me to explore different career options.
4	Volunteering will help me to succeed in my chosen profession.

Continued

Table 6.4: Items for Motivation to Volunteer

Table 6.4 Continued

5	Volunteering experience will look good on my resume.
Social	
1	My friends volunteer.
2	People I'm close to want me to volunteer.
3	People I know share an interest in community service.
4	Others with whom I am close place a high value on community service.
5	Volunteering is an important activity to the people I know best.
Understanding	
1	I can learn more about the cause for which I am working.
2	Volunteering allows me to gain a new perspective on things.
3	Volunteering lets me learn through direct, hands-on experience.
4	I can learn how to deal with a variety of people.
5	I can explore my own strengths.
Enhancement	
1	Volunteering makes me feel important.
2	Volunteering increases my self-esteem.
3	Volunteering makes me feel needed.
4	Volunteering makes me feel better about myself.
5	Volunteering is a way to make new friends.

Continued

Table 6.4 Continued

Child-Caring (Newly added Dimension after the Pilot Study)	
1	It is important to spend time with my kid(s).
2	It is part of taking care of my kid(s)
3	I volunteer because my kid(s) is on the team.
4	It permits me to be with my kids
5	I volunteer as part of my involvement in my kid's activities.

Note. "Understanding and assessing the motivations of volunteers: A functional approach" by E. G. Clary, M. Snyder, R. D. Ridge, J. Copelande, A. A. Stukas, J. Haugen, & P. Miene, 1998, *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 74*, 1516 1530.

	Items
1	I am willing to participate in a volunteer training program.
2	If a volunteer training program was offered, I would try to learn as much as possible from that program.
3	I would put in extra efforts to learn from a training program.

Table 6.5: Item asking Willingness to be trained

	Items
1	Lecture, audiovisual technique (e.g., overheads, slides, video)
2	Role play, cases studies, on the job training, behavior modeling

Table 6.6: Items asking Volunteers' Preferences for Training Methods

	Training Methods	Descriptions
	Presentation methods	
1	Lecture	A training method using one-way communication from the trainer to the trainee
2	Audiovisual techniques	A training method using audiovisual techniques like overheads, slides, and video
	Hands on methods	
1	Role-play	A training method to give trainees chances to show how they would normally handle a situation and practice what they will learn or have learned
2	Case studies	A training method in which trainees are asked to criticize a description about how people or an organization dealt with a situation and to apply what they have learned to solve the situation.
3	On the job training	A training method in which novices or inexperienced employees learn skills through observing the job performances of experienced bosses or peers
4	Behavior modeling	A training method which teaches skills or processes with a model who demonstrates the key behavior. Trainees in turn practice the key behavior as demonstrated by the model.

Note. Adopted from *Employee Training and Development,* R. A. Noe, 2002, New York: McGraw-Hill.

Table 6.7: Description for Training Methods

APPENDIX B
Survey Questionnaire

Survey
Volunteer Training

Dear Participant:

I am a Ph.D. student majoring in Sport Management in the School of Physical Activity and Educational Service at Ohio State University. I am interested in learning more about volunteer training, particularly volunteers' willingness to be trained and preference for training methods. The results of this study can be very beneficial for volunteer organizations as well as volunteer research in order to design and provide more effective volunteer training.

I request you to kindly participate in this study by completing the following questionnaire. It will take you less than 15 minutes to complete. There are no right and wrong answers. Your spontaneous and honest responses are critical to the success of the study. Please try to respond to all items.

No known physical or psychological risk is associated with completing this survey. Your assistance is entirely voluntary and you may withdraw from answering this questionnaire at any time. Your confidentiality will be maintained during the study, and individual responses will not be identified in the final report.

If you have any question regarding the questionnaire and the study, do not hesitate to contact me at the information bellow.

I am grateful for your time and effort and will deeply appreciate your assistance with this project.

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Part I. The following items reflect various reasons why people would volunteer. Please indicate how important each reason is for you to engage in volunteer work by marking the appropriate number on the scale on the right.

		Not at all Important ←						→ Extremely Important
1.	Volunteering can help me to get my foot in the door at a place where I would like to work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.	My friends volunteer.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.	I am concerned about those less fortunate than myself.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.	People I'm close to want me to volunteer.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.	Volunteering makes me feel important.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.	People I know share an interest in community service.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7.	It is important to spend time with my kid(s).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8.	No matter how bad I've been feeling, volunteering helps me to forget about it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9.	I am genuinely concerned about the particular group I am serving	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	By volunteering I feel less lonely.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11	I can make new contacts that might help my business or career.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12	Doing volunteer work relieves me of some of the guilt over being more fortunate than others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13	I can learn more about the cause for which I am working.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14	It is part of taking care of my kid(s)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15	Volunteering increases my self-esteem.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16	Volunteering allows me to gain a new perspective on things.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17	Volunteering allows me to explore different career options.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

18	I feel compassion toward people in need.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19	Others with whom I am close place a high value on community service.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20	Volunteering lets me learn through direct, hands-on experience.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21	I volunteer because my kid(s) is on the team.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22	I feel it is important to help others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23	Volunteering helps me work through by own personal problems.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24	Volunteering will help me to succeed in my chosen profession.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25	I can do something for a cause that is important to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26	Volunteering is an important activity to the people I know best.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27	Volunteering is a good escape from my own troubles.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28	It permits me to be with my kids	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29	I can learn how to deal with a variety of people.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30	Volunteering makes me feel needed.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
31	Volunteering makes me feel better about myself.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
32	Volunteering experience will look good on my resume.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
33	Volunteering is a way to make new friends.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
34	I can explore my own strengths.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
35	I volunteer as part of my involvement in my kid’s activities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Part II: The following items refer to your feelings in achievement settings. Please indicate the extent to which you agree with each item by circling the appropriate number on the scale on the right.

		Strongly Disagree ⟷ Strongly Agree						
1.	I prefer to do things that I can do well rather than things that I do poorly.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.	I am happiest at work when I perform tasks on which I know that I will not make any errors.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.	The things I enjoy the most are the things I do the best.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.	The opinions others have about how well I can do certain things are important to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.	I feel smart when I do something without making any mistakes.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.	I like to be fairly confident that I can successfully perform a task before I attempt it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7.	I like to work on tasks that I have done well on in the past.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8.	I feel smart when I can do something better than most other people.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9.	The opportunity to do challenging work is important to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	When I fail to complete a difficult task, I plan to try harder the next time I work on it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11	I prefer to work on tasks that force me to learn new things.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12	The opportunity to learn new things is important to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13	I do my best when I am working on a fairly difficult task.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14	I try hard to improve on my past performance.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15	The opportunity to extend the range of my abilities is important to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

16	When I have difficulty solving a problem, I enjoy trying different approaches to see which one will work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Part III: The following items refer to your commitment to the organization and volunteering. Please indicate the extent to which you agree with each statement by marking the appropriate number on the right.

		Strongly Disagree		◄——►			**Strongly Agree**	
1.	I am willing to put a great deal of effort in order to help this organization be successful.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.	I speak of this organization to my friends as a great one to volunteer for.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.	I would accept almost any type of job assignment in order to keep volunteering for this organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.	I find that my values and the organization's values are very similar.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.	I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.	This organization really inspires me to do the best in my volunteer work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7.	I am extremely glad that I chose this organization to volunteer for over others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8.	I really care about the fate of this organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9.	For me this is the best of all possible organizations for which to volunteer.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	If I can find different ways to spend my leisure time other than volunteering, I would take them.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11	I definitely want to continue volunteering.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12	If I could do it all over again, I would not commit to volunteering.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13.	Even if I had other attractive leisure activities, I would probably still continue to volunteer.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

14	I cannot give up additional time or effort for volunteering.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15	I am disappointed that I ever started volunteering.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16	I talk up the benefits of volunteering	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Part IV: The following items relate to your volunteering for this organization. Please indicate the extent to which each is true by marking the appropriate number on the right.

		Not at all True ←						→ **Very True**
1.	I can always manage to solve difficult problems in my volunteer work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.	If someone opposes me, I can find the means and ways to do my volunteer work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.	I am certain that I can accomplish the goals of my volunteer work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.	I am confident that I could deal efficiently with unexpected events in my volunteer work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.	Thanks to my resourcefulness, I can handle unforeseen situations in my volunteer work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.	I can solve most problems in volunteer work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7.	I can remain calm when facing difficulties in my volunteer work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8.	When I am confronted with a problem in my volunteer work, I can find several solutions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9.	If I am in trouble with my volunteer work, I can think of a good solution.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	I can handle whatever comes in my volunteer work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Part V: The following items reflect your willingness to be trained for volunteering. Please indicate the extent to which you agree with each statement by marking the appropriate number on the right.

		Strongly Disagree ⟷ Strongly Agree						
1	I am willing to participate in a volunteer training program.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	If a volunteer training program was offered, I would try to learn as much as possible from that program.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	I would put in extra efforts to learn from a training program.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Part V: The following items ask your preferences for training methods. Please indicate the extent to which you prefer each method by marking the appropriate number on the right.

		Least Preferred ⟷ Most Proffered						
1	Lecture, audiovisual technique (e.g., overheads, slides, video)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	Role play, cases studies, on the job training, behavior modeling	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	Training Methods	Descriptions
<u>Presentation methods</u>		
1	Lecture	A training method using one-way communication from the trainer to the trainee
2	Audiovisual techniques	A training method using audiovisual techniques like overheads, slides, and video
<u>Hands on methods</u>		
1	Role-play	A training method to give trainees chances to show how they would normally handle a situation and practice what they will learn or have learned

2	Case studies	A training method in which trainees are asked to criticize a description about how people or an organization dealt with a situation and to apply what they have learned to solve the situation.
3	On the job training	A training method in which novices or inexperienced employees learn skills through observing the job performances of experienced bosses or peers
4	Behavior modeling	A training method which teaches skills or processes with a model who demonstrates the key behavior. Trainees in turn practice the key behavior as demonstrated by the model.

Part VI: This section is about your demographical information.

Gender: Female ☐ Male ☐

Age: _____ Years old

Education (Check the Highest):

Elementary School ☐	Junior High School ☐	High School ☐
2-3 Year College ☐	4 Year College ☐	Graduate School or ↑☐

How many years have you volunteered in the organization?

0-1 ☐	1-3 ☐	3-5 ☐	5-7 ☐	7-9 ☐	9-11 ☐	11 or < ☐

How many years have you volunteered?

0-1 ☐	1-3 ☐	3-5 ☐	5-7 ☐	7-9 ☐	9-11 ☐	11 or < ☐

Do your kid(s) play in your team or organization? Yes ☐ No ☐

Have you taken any training in the organization? Yes ☐ No ☐

APPENDIX C
Formula for the Comparison of Correlations

In order to compare the correlations of relationships, I followed the procedure of Bruning and Kintz (1996). Bruninig and Kintz (1996) suggested 2 different ways based on the independence of data, if data 2 correlations computed from were gathered from the same group or 2 different groups. Since all correlations computed in this study was from the same group of respondents, Brunining and Kintz (1996)'s Test for difference between dependent (related) correlations was applied. The steps of this analysis are shown in Table 3. 2. Theses steps are saved in an Excel sheet and all steps for the comparison between correlations in this study were computed by the automatic calculations on the Excel sheet. An example shown in Table 3.2 is the comparison between the correlation between Learning orientation and Willingness to be trained and that between Performance orientation and Willingness to be trained.

Step	Description
Step 1	Compute Correlation a, Correlation b, and Correlation c.
Step 2	Compute the difference between Correlation a and Correlation b.
Step 3	Subtract 3 from the number of individuals measured (i.e., 258 (*N*) = 261-3)
Step 4	Add 1 to Correlation c.
Step 5	Multiply the result of Step 3 by the result of Step 4.
Step 6	Take the square root of the result of Step 5.
Step 7	Multiply the result of Step 2 by the result of Step 6.
Step 8	Square each of 3 correlation values from Step 1 and add the squares ($a^2 + b^2 + c^2$).
Step 9	Multiply 3 correlation values from Step 1 (a + b + c).
Step 10	Multiply the result of Step 9 by 2.
Step 11	Add 1 to the result of Step 10.
Step 12	Subtract the result of Step 8 from the result Step 11.
Step 13	Multiply the result of Step 12 by 2.
Step 14	Take the square root of the result of Step 13.
Step 15	Divide the result of Step 7 by the result of Step 14. → This is a *t* statistic value.
Step 16	Compare the result of Step 15 with values in t Statistic table (Table C.2).

Note. Correlation a = correlation between Learning orientation and Willingness to be trained, Correlation b = correlation between Performance orientation and Willingness to be trained, Correlation c= correlation between Learning orientation and Performance orientation.

Table 6.8: Steps of test for difference between dependent (related) correlations

	Alpha level of significance (two-tailed)		
df	.05	.01	.001
1	12.706	63.657	636.619
2	4.303	9.925	31.598
3	3.182	5.841	12.941
4	2.776	4.604	8.610
5	2.571	4.032	6.859
6	2.447	3.707	5.959
7	2.365	3.500	5.405
8	2.306	3.355	5.041
9	2.262	3.250	4.781
10	2.228	3.169	4.587
11	2.201	3.106	4.437
12	2.179	3.055	4.318
13	2.160	3.012	4.221
14	2.145	2.977	4.140
15	2.131	2.947	4.073
16	2.120	2.921	4.015
17	2.110	2.898	3.965
18	2.101	2.878	3.992
19	2.093	2.861	3.883
20	2.086	2.845	3.850
21	2.080	2.831	3.819
22	2.074	2.819	3.792
23	2.069	2.807	3.767
24	2.064	2.797	3.745
25	2.060	2.787	3.725
26	2.056	2.779	3.707
27	2.052	2.771	3.690
28	2.048	2.763	3.674
29	2.045	2.756	3.659
30	2.042	2.750	3.646
40	2.021	2.704	3.551
60	2.000	2.660	3.460
120	1.980	2.617	3.373
∞	1.960	2.576	3.291

Note. Fisher, R. A., & Yate, F. (1963). *Statistical Tables for Biological, Agricultural, and Medical Research* (6th ed), NY: Addison Wesley Longman Ltd.

Table 6.9: Critical Values of "Student's" *t* Statistic