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GENERATION OF INTERPERSONAL SKILLS

A STUDY OF INFORMAL LEARNING AMONG VOLUNTEERS

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Abstract

This study develops a conceptual model that explains the variation of interpersonal skills among volunteers. An overall perspective is the assumption that people can learn informally outside organizational borders. Both individual and situational characteristics are considered as important in explaining individuals behavior. The main learning mechanisms that are introduced in the model are: learning from practice, learning by modeling, and learning by information exchange.

The model developed was tested on volunteers at the Kongsberg Jazz Festival. The results from the analyses show that both individual and situational factors explain the variation of increased interpersonal skills. More precisely, motivation to learn, age, job challenge, and feedback from supervisors, are significantly related to the generation of increased interpersonal skills for the whole sample in the study. The study does not find any interaction effects.

In the last section of the dissertation limitations and implications of the study are provided.

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1. INTRODUCTION

"Every experience in life, everything with which we have come in contact in life, is a chisel which has been cutting away at our life statue, molding, modifying, shaping it. We are a part of all we have met. Everything we have seen, heard, felt, or thought has had its hand in molding us, shaping us."
(Orison Swett Marden)

1.1 Purpose

The purpose of this thesis is to study variations in the generation of interpersonal skills among persons while they act as volunteer workers. In order to do this, a theoretical framework is elaborated which is intended to comprehend situational and individual factors that serve to increase volunteers' interpersonal skills.

The intention of this introductory chapter is to discuss the significance of the research problem both in terms of academic and applied purposes. First, it is argued why it is important to focus on competence in general. Second, it will be outlined why it is interesting to study skills acquisition among volunteer workers. Finally, a discussion of the importance of focusing on interpersonal skills will be provided.

1.2 The importance of competence

The number of conferences and amount of research contributions in the field of competence and knowledge management have been rapidly increasing during the last few years. Academics, managers, and political authorities seem to realize the need of focusing on skill development among their employees, for a variety of different reasons. Especially researchers in the field of human capital (see Becker, 1983; 1993) have argued that investments in human assets are just as important as, or even more important, than physical and financial investments when it comes to explaining the economic development of a country or a region.

The topic has also received attention among political authorities at the international and national level. In a report to UNESCO, called "Learning - the Treasure Within" (produced by the Delores- commission), adult education is perceived as essential for the future development of the world economy. In Norway the political authorities are concerned about lifelong learning and the governmental committee "Buer-utvalget" has suggested an adult education reform ("Etterutdanningsreformen"). As the committee argues in the introduction to the report, knowledge and competence development are important for industry development, employment, value creation, development of the welfare state, and participation in the democracy (NOU, 1997:25). Furthermore, in a survey from 1995 (published in "Langtidsprogrammet 1998-2001"), 60% of the managers in the firms surveyed expected an increased need for competence development among their employees during the next 4-5 years (Nordhaug & Gooderham, 1996; NOU, 1997:25), in order to adapt to uncertain and more competitive environments.

Even though the political authorities and managers are concerned about competence at the international, national, and regional level, growing attention is also being paid to the topic among researchers in organization sciences, sociology, and psychology. In the broad field of organizational learning, there has been an increased production of papers and books during the 1990s. An illustrative example is that the number of published papers in 1993 was about the same as the number during the 1980s (Crossan & Guatto, 1996). There are at least six academic disciplines in this area; management and OD, management science, strategy, sociology and organizational theory, production management, and cultural anthropology (Easterby-Smith, 1997). Even though they all have different focus and levels of analyses, the basic premises is that skill development among employees is assumed to be important to a variety of organizational matters such as reorganization, efficiency, competitiveness, and the potential of economic growth.

We can conclude that now in the early 2000's, it has become conventional wisdom among political authorities, managers, and researchers that individuals, organizations, regions, and even nations and supranational institutions, need to develop their human skills.

1.3 Why study skills acquisition among volunteer workers?

This thesis will focus on skills acquisition based on learning processes at the individual level of analyses. There are two important dimensions along which the individual learning process can be categorized: mode («how») and arena («where»).

The **learning mode** can be divided into two main groups: formal and informal. Formal learning is planned educational activity that occurs in a formally organized learning context. The explicit intention of the activities is to learn, and these learning activities occur outside the employees' day-to-day working context. The basic tool for learning is theory. Examples of formal learning are courses at colleges and universities, and courses offered by consultants. There is actually a big training industry or «the shadow educational system» (Nordhaug, 1991), which offers specialized activities for adult employees. On the other hand, informal learning occurs in an unplanned way, where the explicit goal of the activity is not to learn but to conduct some work-related activities. The learning process occurs within the employees' day-to-day working environment (Nonaka, 1994). There are a variety of different ways in which informal learning has been labeled such as learning by doing, action learning, experimental learning, learning from practice, informal communities of interaction, interactional learning, and social learning (Bandura, 1977; Bowers,1973; Kolb, 1984; Miller, 1996; Noe & Ford, 1992; Nonaka, 1994). The common philosophy underlying all these learning principles, is that employees learn from practice on the job and through interaction with other people in their work environment.

The other main dimension is **the learning arena** or where the learning occurs. In the training literature, an important distinction has been drawn between internal or in-house training and external training (see Nordhaug, 1993:143-146). In an analogous way, it is here suggested two main arenas of learning: within the employer organization (internal) or outside the employer organization (external). While internal learning is based on activities within the formal boundaries of the employer organization, external learning is based on activities outside its formal boundaries.

When combining these two dimensions, four different combinations of learning emerge:

First, there is the combination of formal, internal learning that goes on in internal schools, formalized training programs, and formal training groups such as quality circles. Large organizations are especially likely to have their own formal education system such as corporate universities and colleges, where they offer courses and certification based on a formalized evaluation system.

Second, many organizations cannot afford or do not want to have their own formalized systems. Then they can send their employees to formal educational classes in other organizations (formal, external learning). Examples of such organizations are public and private colleges, universities, and volunteer adult education associations. Moreover, many consulting companies offer formalized educational programs for employees.

Third, there is the combination of informal, internal learning taking place within the employer organization. Job enrichment (new activities added to your present job) and job rotation (performance of different jobs) are well-known activities. They imply that the employees are confronted with new tasks and work environments and thereby have the opportunity to learn from new job practices. A special challenging job rotation alternative is working in another region or country. This is especially important in multinational companies where employees, particularly managers and professionals, have to work abroad as a part of their career. Because of the emergence of multinational companies and strategic alliances between firms in different nations, cross-cultural training and learning have been an upcoming issue among training researchers (Noe & Ford, 1992). Pazy and Zeira (1983) suggest that transferring professionals to other cultures can benefit them through, among other things, the enhancement of their adaptability and flexibility. Hence, learning might be a main goal for sending professionals to new work environments. Furthermore, during the last decade there has been an increased focus on learning through informal interaction with others in project groups or teams (Colbjørnsen, 1992). The basic principles for working in teams are that people have a common goal for which they have a shared responsibility to achieve. To be able to be effective, team members have to interact with each other and thereby learn from each other.

The fourth type in the typology is informal, external learning. The basic learning principles are the same as for informal, internal learning, but the learning occurs outside the ordinary employment setting. One example is interorganizational learning which takes place in strategic alliances (Larsson, Bengtsson, Henriksson, & Sparks, 1998; Lorang & Roos, 1992). Expatriating in partner organization or working in common project teams, are two different ways in which individuals can learn in strategic alliances. Lately, there has also been a development of virtual learning communities in which individuals learn through computer-based networks. Here individuals from different organizations can learn though virtual learning spaces (English & Yazdani, 1999; Stefanov, Stoyanov, & Nikolov, 1998). Hedberg et al.(1997) actually talk about virtual organizations or "the imaginary organization" that refers to a system in which assets, processes, and actors critical to the "focal" enterprise exist and function both inside and outside the limits of the organization's conventional landscape. In the theoretical framework about imaginary organization, learning is considered as a main process between different actors in the system.

Private consulting companies have also recognized that there is a market for adventure learning, which involves workgroups that are exposed to difficult and unfamiliar physical and mental challenges in an outdoor environment (Noe & Ford, 1992). One example is «wilderness training», where it has been suggested that participants will develop teamwork skill, risk management strategies, and set personal improvement goals (Wagner, Baldwin & Rowland, 1991). The basic philosophy of these programs is that the managers will develop new skills in settings that are very different from their day to day working environment. Even though the evidence regarding the effectiveness of adventure learning is sparse (Noe & Ford, 1992), it seems that there is a market for such training programs.

A less recognized manner of informal learning outside the employer organization is to work as a volunteer. Studies of volunteers have demonstrated that the drive to learn is an important motive for participating in volunteer work (Andersen, 1996; Clary, Snyder & Stukas, 1996; Lorentzen & Rogstad, 1994; Lynn & Smith, 1991; Ryan & Bates, 1995; Williams et al., 1995). A recent study of a group of 50 volunteers at the Lillehammer Olympic Winter Games, also indicated that the volunteers had learned new skills from their experience during the Games (Elstad, 1997a).

Finally, learning might occur informally in a variety of different situations outside the employment setting such as the family, clubs, social events, and everyday activities.

The discussion is summarized in Figure 1.1.

WHERE **LEARNING** HOW	IN THE EMPLOYER ORGANIZATION INTERNAL	OUTSIDE THE EMPLOYER ORGANIZATION EXTERNAL
FORMAL Learning from theory	1 - portfolio of courses - internal schools - formalized training programs - formal group activities (ex.: quality circles)	2 - formal education system (public and private schools/ universities), - private consultants - voluntary adult education organizations
INFORMAL Learning from practice and interaction	3 - job enrichment - job rotation - project groups/ teams	4 - strategic alliances * expatriating in partner organization * project groups/teams * virtual organizations/networks - adventure learning - ***participation as a volunteer*** - everyday, informal activities

Figure 1.1. A learning typology

Figure 1.1 provides an illustrative, although not exhaustive[1] list of learning types. These are not mutually exclusive categories, and many training activities and programs will involve more than one form of learning. One example is trainee programs, which may include formal courses at an internal school (sq. 1), formal courses at a university (sq. 2), job rotation at the employer job setting (sq. 3), and work practice in a cooperating organization (sq. 4). Moreover, some formalized training programs may include an introduction that contains theoretical courses (sq. 1 or 2), then a period working on a project (sq.3 or 4), and then an evaluation phase (sq.1 or 2).

There are different research traditions with regard to learning issues. Researchers in the field of adult education have conducted a significant amount of research on formal education (sq.1/2) (see Nordhaug, 1991, for a review). Furthermore, in the broad field of organizational sciences, there is an expanding amount of research on informal learning in organizations (sq.3) (see Easterby-Smith, 1997, for a recent review).

It has only been during the past few years that informal learning outside the employer organization has received more attention among researchers (sq. 4). Especially in the field of strategic alliances and interorganizational relations, there has been more focus on learning issues in alliances (Larsson et al., 1998). Learning is commonly perceived as an important goal for participating in such alliances.

In addition to this, there are many programs at business schools and universities in which the students work part-time in a profit or non-profit organization outside the university. Thus, the importance of learning outside the educational institution has been acknowledged where students have to spend a certain amount of time doing volunteer work. Moreover, execution of volunteer work has received increased public attention related to mega-events, such as the Olympics, where management has been strongly dependent on the efforts of volunteers. Both in Calgary and Lillehammer, about 10 000 volunteers were involved (Hiller, 1990; LOOC, 1995). Research on volunteers also indicates that the drive to learn is an important self-reported motive for enrolling as a volunteer (Andersen, 1996; Clary, Snyder, & Ridge, 1992; Clary, Snyder & Stukas,

[1] A comprehensive list would include more fine-grained analyses including additional dimensions like level of analyses (individual-collective) and knowledge forms (tacit vs. explicit).

1996; Lorentzen & Rogstad, 1994; Lynn & Smith, 1991; Ryan & Bates, 1995; Williams et al., 1995).

Even though learning is a motive for participating in volunteer work, we still do not know whether or how much they actually develop their skills when acting as volunteers. One plausible explanation behind the lack of research, is that political authorities and top managers have not realized that volunteer work offers an important learning context in society. In the report from "Buer-utvalget", the roles of the formal education system and the employers are discussed. It is interesting to note that the third sector is not mentioned at all in this report. There is also an argument in the strategic plan of the Ministry of the Nordic Countries in the period of 1997-2001 that formal education, on the job learning, life experience, and learning in everyday life, are important determinants of lifelong learning. It is argued that there is a need for coordination between the different learning arenas, yet the voluntary sector is not explicitly mentioned. A possible reason is that volunteering may often be conceived as "unproductive" and even be ignored by political authorities, because it is unpaid work (Herzog et al., 1989). Another plausible explanation is that such research encounters certain methodological challenges which are not easily solved (see Pearce, 1993).

Why is it interesting then to focus on the acquisition of skills among volunteers? First, there is a general need for knowledge about informal learning that occurs outside the employment setting (sq. 4) due to limited previous empirical research. Furthermore, it is suggested that this context represents a potential "community of practice". Lave and Wenger (1991) introduced this concept where a basic idea is that learning is an inevitable part of working together in social settings. Thus, in volunteer work there are people with different professional and demographic background, which implies a possibility of learning from other people. Especially if the volunteer job is different from the paid job, there is the potential of learning new job skills through the execution of volunteer work tasks.

Another argument for focusing on volunteers is that many employees already work as volunteers in their sparetime. In a recent survey of American adults' volunteering, it was estimated that in 1993, it was spent a total of 19 billion hours doing volunteer work (Independent Sector, 1994). Another national survey of the activities of volunteers in the UK, showed that half of the adults had performed some formal volunteer activity during the past twelve months (over 23 million people). On average, each adult spent 2.3 hours a week doing some sort of volunteer work (Lynn & Smith, 1991). A national survey shows that there are 1 700 nation-wide volunteer organizations in Norway. Furthermore, these organizations conducted work amounting to a total of 58 000 man-labor years (NOU, 1988:17). If these people develop skills as volunteers, it is important for their employment organization to be aware of this and to ensure that employees are able to transfer and integrate those skills into their paid work. Finally, if research indicates that people develop important skills as volunteers, volunteering may be viewed as a part of the firm's HRM-policy and should be taken into consideration when developing strategies for training and career development.

We have now outlined a typology of learning, and argued that so far little has been reported on informal, external learning outside the employer organization, even though many companies have recognized the importance of learning in external environments. More specifically, working as a volunteer represent a potential learning context that has received scant attention among researchers in the organizational sciences. Since many employees are involved as volunteers, it will be interesting to study whether they develop competencies as volunteers.

1.4 Why focus on interpersonal skills?

A basic assumption in this thesis is that volunteers probably develop a variety of different skills. What kind of skills should be focused on here? One important perspective is from the employer organization's point of view. Thus, what kinds of skills are most important for the employees to develop as a volunteer in order to increase the effectiveness of the employer organization? It is especially relevant to focus on the training transfer problem here. This is a problem that has received considerable attention among training researchers, who have found that there are transfer barriers between different people, between the training situation and the work setting, between different jobs, and between different departments and organizations (see Baldwin & Ford, 1988, for a review). Because of the transfer problem, it is important to focus on skills that can be easily transferred from the volunteer work context to the employer work context.

Nordhaug has elaborated a competence typology, in which meta-competence is characterized by low firm-specificity, is industry nonspecific, and can be utilized in the accomplishment of a variety of different tasks. Examples of meta-competencies are; learning capacity, analytical capabilities, creativity, knowledge of foreign languages and cultures, capacity to tolerate and master uncertainty, ability to communicate and cooperate with others, and negotiation skills (Nordhaug, 1993:58). These skills are probably easily converted between the volunteer and paid work context.

Since there is a wide variety of different meta-competencies, some must be selected for the purpose of our study. Table 1.2 contains an overview of different studies, which focuses on the general or meta- competencies needed to do a good job.

Table 1.1 A review of important meta-competencies

Author	Dimension
Copeman (1971)	Numeric skills, business system skills, **social skills, negotiation skills**, and decision making skills
Cox & Cooper (1988)	Problem solving and decision making, **people or interpersonal skills,** long-terms planning and coping with change
Dulewicz (1989)	Intellectual **Interpersonal** Adaptability Result orientation
Hall (1986)	Career competence
Harris (1985)	Model building and preparing written materials **Oral communication, presentation, and giving feedback** Performance observation and questioning
Hornbeck & Salamon (1991)	Solve problems intellectually **Relate well to teams with others**
Katz (1955)	**Cooperative skills**
Mann (1965) Yukl (1989)	Conceptual skills **Interpersonal skills**
Mitzberg (1973)	**Peer skills**, leadership skills, information processing skills, decision making skills, resource allocation skills, **conflict resolution skills**, **interpersonal skills,** introspection skills
Nordhaug (1993)	Literacy, learning capacity, analytical capacity, creativity, knowledge of foreign languages and cultures, capacity to tolerance and master uncertainty, **ability to communicate, ability to cooperate with others, negotiations skills**, ability to adjust to change
Nordhaug & Gooderham (1996)	**Cooperative skills**, ability to learn new skills, management skills, creativity, flexibility
Normann (1984)	Analytical language skills **Interpersonal skills** Ecological Position

Table 1.1 (cont.) A review of important meta-competencies

Løwendahl & Nordhaug (1994)	**Human relations competence** General competence
Pines and Carnevale (1991)	Basic skills (reading, writing, computation), **communication skills,** adaptability skills, development skills**, interpersonal skills, teamwork, negotiation, influencing skills**
Rasmussen (1991)	**Communication skills**
Sonntag & Schäfer-Rauser (1993)	Method competence (problem solving, creativity, and learning capacity), **social competence** (communication and cooperation)
Stewart (1967)	**People skills** (interpersonal sensitivity, communication skills)

On the basis of Table 1.2 we can conclude that interpersonal or social skills are perceived as important in almost every study of general skills reported here. Accordingly, political authorities in Norway are aware of the importance of interpersonal skills. "Buer-utvalget" (NOU, 1997:25) explicitly emphasizes the importance of general competence like the ability to cooperate with others. Altogether, there is strong evidence that interpersonal skills are perceived as essential workplace skills which can easily be transformed between different situations. This implies that it is interesting to study the generation of interpersonal skills among volunteers.

1.5 Concluding comments

In this chapter it has been argued why it is important to focus on competence in general both for academic and applied purposes. Furthermore, a learning typology has been outlined. Even though many companies have recognized the importance of learning in external environments such as strategic alliances, foreign countries, and adventure training, we still have little knowledge about learning in these settings. Working as volunteers often represents a unique context regarding learning potential that has not received much attention among researchers in the organizational sciences. Especially relevant are meta-competencies that can easily be transferred from the volunteer context to the employment context. Moreover, the main focus here is on interpersonal skills. Studies of meta-competencies indicate that interpersonal skills are perceived as core workplace skills to succeed in the workplace.

2. CONCEPTS AND THEORY

2.1 Introduction

The primary purpose of this chapter is to present theoretical perspectives that are relevant to investigate in relation to our research topic. First, the concept of skills is defined, and then we will define interpersonal skills. In order to reach an understanding of the underlying processes of generation of interpersonal skills, the informal learning process is important. Consequently, a review of relevant literature and a definition of informal learning are presented. Finally, a conceptual framework will be provided which includes a review of relevant literature and definitions of the main constructs in the study.

2.2 Interpersonal skills

2.2.1 Skills, competence and knowledge

Skills, competence and knowledge are closely related concepts that are sometimes used interchangeably, and sometimes are specified as separate constructs. There is no consensus about how they should be defined and how they relate to each other.

First, skills, competence and knowledge can be applied at the individual or collective level of analysis. Especially in the strategic management literature, the last decade has seen a substantial interest in competence or knowledge as a strategic resource (see ex. Hall, 1989; Itami, 1987; Nagle & Davis, 1987; Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1995; Nordhaug & Grønhaug, 1994; Prahalad & Hamel, 1990; Snow & Hrebiniak, 1980; Teece, 1998). This stream of literature focuses on the aggregated capabilities of firms as a competitive advantage of the firm. The level of analyses here is typically *the firm*. In this study we focus on the *individual level of analyses*, and will not build explicitly on this stream of research.

Second, there are discussions about the relationship between *competence* and *skills* (Kanungo & Misra, 1992), between *competence and knowledge* (Machlup, 1980), and between *skills* and *knowledge* (Nass,1994). There exists a variety of different perspectives that we cannot easily compare with each other because they focus on different dimensions when comparing the concepts. This might lead to confusion about the relationship between the concepts. One example is that Nass argues the opposite position of Kanungo and Misra in the description of skills. Whereas Nass considers skills as the ability generate new procedures, Kanuga and Misra consider skills as the ability to handle routine tasks. Another example of disagreement is that researchers do not agree about what should be the overall concept. Whereas competence is a subgroup of knowledge in Machlup's (1980) 13 elements of knowing, knowledge is a subgroup of competence in Nordhaug's (1993) definitions of these concepts.

Thus, at this stage no consensus about the terms has been established and we have to choose a perspective that is useful for our purposes. This thesis builds on Nordhaug's definition of competence, skills and knowledge. One important argument for this is that Nordhaug offers a theoretical framework in which all the concepts are defined, and where the relationship between the different constructs is clearly specified.

Nordhaug defines individual competence as the composite of human knowledge, skills, and aptitudes that may serve for productive purposes in organizations (Nordhaug, 1993: 50). Furthermore, knowledge is defined as specific information about a task, whereas *skill is defined as a special ability to perform a task.* Thus, skills are deeply rooted in actual practice or doing a task. Moreover, aptitude encompasses natural talents that can be applied in work and forms the basis for developing knowledge and skills.

The main difference between skills and competence is that competence is a broader concept that also includes aptitudes. Because aptitudes cannot be learned, it is most relevant to concentrate on skills where we focus on abilities to perform a task that can be learned. We should here be aware that some authors will define *knowing* as action (Cook & Brown, 1999), or to include the ability to get things done in their definition of knowledge (Tyre & von Hippel,1997). Our perspective is that skill is related to actual behavior, whereas knowledge is just information about tasks. Therefore, knowledge is a necessary, although not sufficient, prerequisite for the possession of skills. Aptitudes or

natural talents that can be applied in work, also form a basis for the development of skills.

In this section skills in general have been defined. In the forthcoming section, interpersonal skills will be discussed and defined.

2.2.2 The nature of interpersonal skills in general

It was argued in chapter 1.4 that interpersonal skills is an important group of general skills that can be applied in a variety of different setting. Interpersonal skill has its early social scientific roots in the work phioneered by Thorndike (1920) and others under the label social intelligence (Spitzberg & Cupach, 1989). During the years there has been developed numerous conceptual approaches and a diversity of research foci. One consequence of the various approaches to interpersonal or social skills/competence is that there is a huge and fragmented literature. As Segrin (1992) states, the concept of interpersonal or social skills has actually sparked the interest of researchers working in virtually all fields within the social sciences. This implies that the variety of definitions and dimensions is enormous (Riggio, 1986). In contrast, there are also studies in which interpersonal skills act as a core concept but still remain virtually undefined. In fact, there are examples of published studies and books on interpersonal skills, in which the concept is not defined at all (see Latham & Saare, 1979; Phillips & Fraser, 1982). Thus, there is a need to discuss the content of the term interpersonal skills.

The discussion of interpersonal skills builds on a review of the literature on both social and interpersonal skills and competence. As the definitions in the next subsection indicate, these two terms are sometimes used interchangeably. And when one construct is preferred before the other, there is no systematic difference in the content of these concepts. I have chosen to use the term interpersonal skills in this thesis, because it focuses explicitly on the interaction between people. As Hargie and associates (1994:1) argues, in a global sense social skills are skills being employed when interacting with other people at an interpersonal level. In contrast, there are some definitions of social skills that focus on a broader content of activities, like self-related behavior (positive attitudes about oneself, ethical behavior), task-related behavior (completing tasks, on-task behavior), and environmental behavior (movement around environment, care for the environment)

(Cartlegde & Milburn, 1995:17). Furthermore, in the categorization of essential skills that employers want, interpersonal skills is one out of three dimensions of "working with others" (Carnevale, Gainer, & Meltzer, 1990). This indicates that some scholars perceive social skills as a concept having a broader content, than the concept of interpersonal skills. In conclusion, interpersonal skills are considered to be the most precise concept of the two, because several studies have considered social skills as a broader concept including more than just the interpersonal dimension.

A number of reviewers and researchers have offered definitions of interpersonal and social skills that range from narrow and specific to broad and general. I have limited the discussion to definitions that explicitly focus on the interaction between people. Examples of general definitions of social skills and interpersonal skills are listed in Table 2.1. below:

Table 2.1 Definitions of social and interpersonal skills

(1) Social skills:

"The ability to interact with others in a given situation that are socially acceptable or valued and the same time are personally beneficial, mutual beneficial, or beneficial primary to others" (Combs & Slaby, 1977:162)

"Social skills involve the ability to initiate and maintain positive interactions with other people, and the ability to achieve objectives that a person has for interacting with others" (Morgan, 1980:104)

"Those behaviors which, within a given situation, predict important social outcomes such as (a) peer acceptance and popularity, (b) significant others' judgements of behavior, or (c) other social behavior known to correlate consistently with peer acceptance or significant others' judgement" (Gresham & Elliot, 1984)

(2) Interpersonal skills:
"Interpersonal skills combine an ability to be proactive with a capacity for sustaining effective and proactive interaction between and among group members"
(Carnevale et al., 1990:289).

An inspection of the definitions above indicates that they all focus on a person's ability to interact with other people in an effective way. Moreover, the definitions of Combs & Slaby and Morgan, emphasize both the ability to have a positive interaction with others, and to reach positive outcomes for the individual. This is consistent with Spitzberg & Cupach (1989) review of a variety of different definitions of interpersonal/social skills and competence. They concluded that control or the individual to be personally effective and collaboration are two main characteristics in most of the definitions. What we can learn from this review of general definitions and research, is that interpersonal skills include both the ability to take care of one's own interests and the ability to cooperate with other people.

2.2.3 Interpersonal skills in the workplace: cooperative and conflict management skills

Because of the wide array of dimensions related to interpersonal skills, researchers in different areas have chosen to specify what is most relevant in their particular context. Examples are interpersonal or social skills and competence in the classroom, at work, in the health care arena, and in intercultural encounters (Spitzberg & Cupach, 1989). Our question is what dimensions of interpersonal skills are relevant to focus on in the workplace? As we can see from Table 1.1, a systematic discussion and definition of the interpersonal dimension has not been established. Examples of concepts that reflect the interpersonal dimension in Table 1.1 are social competence, human relation competence, cooperative skills, negotiation skills, influencing skills, and communication. Moreover, in a study of 79 human resource teams, conflict solving and communication were decided as being two core characteristics of interpersonal skills (Neuman & Wright, 1999). There are also other specifications of interpersonal skills in the workplace such as how to motivate others, how to confront someone at the appropriate moment, being able to convey openly an understanding of others, interpersonal style in terms of feedback and exposure, and interpersonal behavior such as coping with conflict, gaining attention, helping others, and making conversations (Cartledge & Milburn, 1995).

Because of the great variety of different labels and definitions of interpersonal skill in the workplace, there is a need to define exactly what are interpersonal skills in the workplace in this dissertation. Thus, what are the core dimensions of interpersonal skills in the workplace?

In the 1960s it became more focus effective interaction in general at work (Argyris 1962; Argyle, 1969). More recently, the research on negotiation, bargaining, or conflict management is a field within the organizational that has received increased attention during the last years (see DeDreu & Van De Vliert, 1997 and Rahim, 1989 for review of important contributions). Basically, negotiation can be defined as the process by which two or more independent parties, who do not have identical preferences across decision alternatives make joint decisions (Pruitt, 1983). It is argued that to negotiate effectively is essentially to succeed both as an employee and a manager. Furthermore, in a study of the acquisition and maintenance of complex interpersonal skills, Gist, Stevens, and Bavetta (1991) define complex interpersonal skills as negotiation skills.

A main argument in the negotiation literature is that individuals must be able both to take care of their own and others' interests when interacting with other people. The measurement instruments that have been developed to identify different negotiation styles, have in common that they consist of two main dimensions; a conflict dimension (concern for self) and a cooperative dimension (concern for others) (Rahim, 1989). In other words, individuals should be able to handle both cooperation and conflict in order to be effective in the negotiation processes.

From the review of both interpersonal skills in general and interpersonal skills in the workplace, we see that they have a common focus on the importance of managing both own interest (conflict dimension) and common interests (cooperative dimension). Thus, we can conclude that cooperative and conflict management skills are core elements of interpersonal skills in the workplace. Based on this discussion of skills and interpersonal skills, interpersonal skills may be defined as *the ability to cooperate with others and to manage conflicts in the workplace in order to achieve objectives that a person has for interacting with others.*

2.3. The learning process

The development of interpersonal skills is assumed to be based on a learning process. A first step in understanding the learning process is to review relevant learning theories. We will focus on theories that contribute to the understanding of the informal learning process. Furthermore, informal learning will be defined with a specification of basic assumptions about the informal learning process. Finally, volunteer work is defined and presented as a potential informal learning context.

2.3.1 Overall perspective on learning in organizations

During the last decades a tremendous amount of research has been conducted on learning in general. Moreover, the research on learning in organizations has grown rapidly over the last few years. The literature provides a variety of definitions, analytical levels, and different academic perspectives. As Easterby-Smith (1997) argues in a review, there are at least six academic perspectives that have made significant contributions to the understanding of learning in organizations. Because of the variety of approaches, it is important to discuss which learning theories are the most relevant for this study.

Initially there is a need to discuss the overall perspective of learning in organizations. First, it is the difference between research on *organizational learning* and *the learning organization*, conducted by two separate communities of authors that have different purposes. While the literature on the learning organization concentrates on the development of normative models and methodologies for creating change in the direction of improved learning processes, the literature on organizational learning concentrates on understanding the nature and process of learning (Easterby-Smith & Araujo, 1999). It is the latter perspective that we build on in this research.

Moreover, within the research on organizational learning there are different traditions. According to Easterby-Smith and Araujo (1999), the most significant distinction between authors who write about organizational learning is whether they emphasize it as a *technical or a social process*. The technical view assumes that organizational learning is about the effective processing and interpretation of, and response to, information both inside and outside the organization. Two of the major contributors to this field of thought are Argyris and Schön (1978;1996), who have developed the important concepts of single and double-loop learning. While single-loop learning involves the detection and correction of error within a given set of governing variables, double-loop learning involves changing the governing variables themselves. Another important contribution within this school, is Levinthal and March's (1993) examination of the dilemma between exploration and exploitation in the use of technology. The former may lead to the development of new strategies and knowledge in the long term; the latter may lead to profitability in the short term. Then organizations have to find the appropriate balance between these two.

On the other hand, the *social perspective of organizational learning* focuses on the way people make sense of their experience at work. It is this approach to learning that is most relevant for our research question. From this view, learning is something that emerges from social interactions, normally in the natural work setting. Thus, learning can be described as *situated* in social practice where learning is an inevitable part of working together in a social setting. Situated learning theory is a relatively new research tradition that has been critical of the traditional cognitive theories that has dominated thinking about learning and the practice of education. Traditional cognitive theory sees learning as a process that takes place inside the head or the mind (Fox, 1997). The main focus is on the individual process of acquisition within a formal learning context.

In contrast, situated learning theory directs the research attention of learning theories away from sites of formal education, towards everyday settings. In the case of explicit information learning involves a joint process of making sense of data. The more tacit and embodied forms of learning involve situated practices, observation and emulation of skilled practitioners and socialization into a community of practice (Blackler, 1993; Brown & Duguid, 1991; Lave & Wenger, 1991). Other central ideas within this perspective are that a substantial amount of crucial organizational knowledge exists not on paper, nor in the heads of the individuals, but within the "community" as a whole. New entrants into the

the heads of the individuals, but within the "community" as a whole. New entrants into the organizations learn unwritten information through informal exchanges between experienced and less experienced people (Orr, 1990).

To conclude this paragraph, this research is based on the tradition of organizational learning. Moreover, learning is a part of working together and *situated* in social practice. In this perspective informal learning is a central concept that will be discussed and defined in the next paragraph.

2.3.2 Informal learning

The intention of this paragraph is to define informal learning. In general, there are a variety of different definitions of the learning construct. What seems to be a common trait in the definitions, is that learning involves a relatively permanent change in behavior produced by experience. Thus, a basic assumption is that learning is based on some kind of experience, and that it implies some kind of a change. One primary controversy is whether the change needs to include change in actual behavior. Gagne's (1977) definition of learning is an illustration of this: "*Learning is a relatively permanent change that occurs in a person as a result of experience, making possible a corresponding change in that persons behavior*". This definition implies that learning can be a change in a person like change in beliefs, attitudes, values, knowledge and preferences, that not necessarily implies change in behavior. There might be learning barriers in the organization (Cormier & Hagman, 1987: Nordhaug, 1993) which imply that a change in the person's knowledge does not automatically result in change in behavior. Thus, there are problems related to a strict behavioral definition of learning; e.g. that learning has to imply a change of behavior. In accordance with Gagne's definition, in this thesis learning is considered as a change in a person as a result of experience, *making possible* change in that person's behavior.

The next step is to explain what we should mean by *informal* learning. One main distinction in the learning typology offered in Chapter 1 (Figure 1.1.), is the difference between formal and informal learning. Marsick and Watkins (1990) argue that formal learning is typically institutionally sponsored, classroom-based, and highly structured. The organizing definition of the degree of formality is the extent to which a learner has control over both the objectives and the means of learning. Furthermore, Jarvis (1985) identifies formal, non-formal, and informal learning based on the type of social interaction that influences learning. Formal learning exists in the most bureaucratic situations, while informal learning occurs in the least bureaucratic situations.

Based on these definitions, informal learning is considered here to be learning that occurs outside the classroom and is based on experience in a job context. Furthermore, it is characterized by a low degree of formalization where there is a low degree of control over the objectives and the means of the learning.

In order to accomplish a better understanding of informal learning, the difference between *informal* and *incidental* learning is important. Marsick and Watkins (1990) introduce the term incidental learning as a subcategory of informal learning. It is defined as a byproduct of some other activity, such as task accomplishment, interpersonal interaction, sensing of organizational culture, or trial-and-error experimentation. In contrast, there are types of informal learning that can be intentional, as for example, in self-directed learning or help consciously sought from coaches or mentors. This implies that incidental learning is a sub-group of informal learning and that it is unplanned and non-intentional.

The main focus in this thesis in on the incidental aspect of informal learning that occurs as a result of other activities, in which the main intention of the activities is not to learn but to do volunteer work. Still, informal learning will be used as the concept to describe the learning process, because there will be many situations in which it is difficult to decide whether the learning is intentional or not. Thus, informal learning in our context includes incidental learning (unintentional learning), but does not exclude informal learning that is intentional.

Based on the previous discussion informal learning is defined as: *a relatively permanent change that occurs in a person as a result of experience from a job context, which enables a corresponding change in that persons behavior.*

Our conceptualization is based on the definition of learning as a *possible* change of behavior. Furthermore, the learning occurs outside the classroom in a job context that is not formalized, and where there is a low degree of control over the objectives and the means of the learning. Finally, the learning process can both be intentional and unintentional (incidental). In the next subsections, major theoretical contributions that are important in order to understand the informal learning process, will be introduced and discussed.

2.3.3 Learning from practice

A basic assumption of informal learning is that the learning is based on practice. Cook and Brown (1999) define the term "practice" as the coordinated activities of individuals and groups in doing their "real work" as it is informed by a particular organizational or group context. There are many closely related theoretical contributions that label this in a variety of different ways such as learning by doing, action learning, experimental learning, learning of trial and error, and situated practice. As early as in 1938, Dewey introduced the notion of active learning. He defines learning as a continuous reorganization and reconstruction of *experience* (Dewey, 1938). Thus, experience does not derive from mere activity, and mere doing, but change which implies *reflection* on former actions in order to anticipate further consequences. In accord with the thoughts of Dewey, one of the best-known perspectives on learning from experience is that of Kolb (1984). According to him, learning occurs as a result of concrete experience, abstract conceptualization, reflective observation, and active experimentation. While having been criticized by Jarvis (1985) and others as being too simplistic, Kolb's framework has been an important stepping stone for understanding experimental-based learning.

Lately, Raelin (1997) has built further on this research tradition and developed a model of work-based learning. He offers a typology at the individual level of analyses, with two main dimensions: learning modes (theory and practice) and knowledge forms (explicit and tacit). Thus, he develops a framework by including Polanyi's (1966) distinction between explicit and tacit knowledge. Explicit knowledge is the familiar codified form that is transmittable in formal, systematic language. Tacit knowledge is the component of knowledge that is normally not reportable since it is deeply rooted in action and involvement in a specific context. Acquisition of tacit knowledge based on learning from practice is labeled as *experience*. Learning through experience is often referred to by cognitive psychologists as implicit learning, meaning the acquisition of complex knowledge that takes place without the learners awareness that she or he is learning (Haynes & Broadbent, 1988). It is also closely related to the term incidental learning (Marsick and Watkins,1990), where learning is defined as a byproduct of some other activity. Explicit knowledge based on learning from practice is labeled as *reflection*. It is characterized by the ability to uncover and make explicit to oneself what one has planned, observed, or achieved in practice. Hence, it is concerned with the construction of meaning. Thus, both experience and reflection are important when learning from practice and might be labeled as the skills of "reflective practitioners" (Schön, 1983).

Finally, there has been an increasing amount of empirical research on work experience. In a review made by Tesluk & Jacobs (1998), it is suggested that research on work experience during the last few decades can be divided according to its focus either on qualitative or quantitative aspects of the job. This implies that both the amount (like years in a job, years in an organization, years in a position, number of times an individual has completed a certain task) and type of experience (like job challenge and job complexity) are important in order to explain learning from practice.

In summary a brief inspection of the theories of learning from practice indicates that they emphasize the importance of experience and reflection in the learning process. This is relevant for our study given its focus on learning based on practice in the job context. Furthermore, both the amount and type of work experience is considered to be relevant to understand informal learning processes.

2.3.4 Learning by modeling

Social learning theory or social cognitive theory offers a significant contribution to the understanding of the informal learning process. The main development of social learning theory or social cognitive theory[1] is typically credited to Bandura (1977;1986). He recognized both the cognitive and interactive elements of learning, and integrates the two perspectives learning as a social process and learning as a cognitive process. Bandura offers a theoretical framework about the complex process of modeling through the process of attention, retention, motor reproduction, and motivation (Bandura, 1977:23)

According to social learning theory we can learn through:

(a) Our own experience and the consequences of this behavior

(b) Modeling or observation of other persons' behavior and the consequences of other persons' behavior

It is especially the *modeling process (b)* that is he main contribution of Bandura's theory. Several other terms refer to modeling; most common among these are vicarious processing, imitation, observational learning, copying, and matching. How does modeling work, then? One viewpoint is that models influence an observer's behavior by influencing expectations. (Sims & Lorenzi, 1992: 142). First, an individual's self-efficacy expectations or the conviction that one can successfully execute the behavior required to produce outcomes, can be influenced by a model. Second, by observing the consequences of a model's behavior, an observer is likely to gain information that will help him or her to form outcome expectancies.

[1] Bandura has later revised the label of his theoretical framework to social cognitive theory (in Social Foundations of Thought and Action, 1986). This change represents a dilemma: should we label the theory as social cognitive theory or social learning theory? We will chose to continue to use the term social learning theory here. The basic learning mechanisms that we describe here are fundamentally the same for both social learning theory and social cognitive theory.

Furthermore, there are three types of employee influences that can be described as modeling effects. First, individuals may acquire new behaviors that did not previously exist in their behavioral repertoires (observational learning). In the second type of modeling effect, the probability of individuals' retaining previously learned behavior may be strengthened or weakened by observation of the consequences of the action of others. In the third effect, a model might set the stage for previously learned behavior to occur (behavioral facilitation effect)

One example of applied research based on modeling in organizations, is the effect of modeling on managers' behavior (see Sims & Manz, 1982, for a review). These studies show that leaders learn by observing and imitating the behavior of other leaders, especially leaders with more experience and higher status. Lately, Sims & Lorenzi (1992) have focused on social learning theory as a very useful way to integrate cognitive and behavioral perspectives of describing, understanding, and predicting how people behave. They argue that social learning theory is still very relevant in understanding organizational behavior.

In summary, social learning theory contributes to the understanding of the learning process especially by focusing on learning by modeling. This is relevant for our study of learning in a job context, where it is suggested that observing co-workers and the consequences of their behavior is one important mode of learning.

2.3.5 Learning by information exchange

In addition to learning from practice and through modeling, the transfer of knowledge between people is an important informal learning mechanism between people in a job context. As noticed in the last paragraphs, tacit knowledge is deeply rooted in action, commitment, and involvement in a specific context, while explicit knowledge refers to knowledge that is transmittable through a formal, systematic language. Whereas learning from practice and learning by modeling to a high degree focus the tacit dimension of knowledge, learning by information exchange focus on explicit knowledge that is transferred between individuals.

Nonaka (1994) is a researcher that has focused explicitly on the relationship between tacit and explicit knowledge in the knowledge creating process. In a theoretical framework, he specifies how the process of information exchange is essential in the process of organizational knowledge creation. Basically, Nonaka suggests that there are four different modes of knowledge conversion:

(1) from tacit to tacit (socialization)
(2) from explicit to explicit (combination)
(3) from tacit to explicit (externalization)
(4) from explicit to tacit (internalization).

In the information exchange process, the individual has to make the implicit knowledge explicit (externalization) to be able to communicate this to her co-workers (combination). Self-organized teams are assumed to be a basic tool in the knowledge conversion process, where social interaction between members facilitates knowledge conversion by exchange of knowledge.

In addition to focus on exchange of explicit knowledge, feedback may be a relevant part of information exchange in a learning context. Ilgen et al. (1979) defined feedback as "a special case of the general communication process in which some sender conveys a message to a recipient. In the case of feedback, the message compromises information about the recipient ". Thus, feedback makes it possible for the recipient to adjust his or her behavior based on their earlier behavior. The role of feedback in learning and improving

performance has actually been researched for a long time, and is still relevant in research on learning in the workplace (Easterby-Smith et al., 1999; Sims & Lorenzi, 1992; Walsh Bastos & Fletcher, 1995; Zhou, 1998). Feedback can vary along at least four dimensions: (a) frequency, (b) sign, (c) type, and (d) source. Feedback frequency refers to how often feedback is provided by a source. Feedback signs may be positive or negative, and also two types of feedback have been identified – namely, referent feedback or feedback about what behavior or actions to perform, and appraisal feedback or feedback about how well the individual is performing (Ashford & Cummings, 1983).

Furthermore, feedback may be provided by different sources, including the formal organization, supervisor, co-workers, oneself, and the task (Greller & Herold, 1975). Finally, researchers have focused on the whole feedback process such as the way it is perceived, its acceptance by the recipients, and the willingness of the recipients to respond to the feedback (Ilgen et al., 1979; London, 1995). Thus, a variety of different dimensions are relevant in studying the role of feedback in the learning process.

In conclusion, learning by information exchange in terms of exchange of explicit knowledge and feedback based on social interaction, is suggested as being a major learning mechanism.

2.3.6 Individual characteristics

In this subsection, a brief review of contributions related to individual traits will be presented. It should be noted however, that a variety of different theoretical contributions are offered at the individual level, and it is beyond the limits of this thesis to present a comprehensive review of this research. Thus, I will only discuss some of the most common traits that are considered in the organizational learning literature.

First, the individuals' motive to learn is perceived as a core concept for understanding the learning process (Hall & Fukami, 1979; Noe, 1986; Noe & Schmidt, 1986; Stipek, 1988; Warr & Bunce, 1995). People who want to learn simply will learn more than those who do not want to learn. Second, Bandura's (1977) self-efficacy concept focuses on the degree to which a person believes she is able to perform well in a particular situation. Self-efficacy will effect how much effort a person will spend on doing a task. Third, locus of control is another core concept that focuses on the degree to which a person has an internal or an external locus of control. Internals believe that job performance and events that occur in the work setting are contingent of their own behavior, whereas externals believe that work outcomes are beyond their personal control and, therefore, attribute the cause for work outcomes on luck, fate, or the action of others (Rotter, 1966). Spector (1982) suggests that because locus of control influences beliefs about the ability to improve skills, it should be treated as an important individual determinant of trainability. If the person believes she has an ability to improve her skills, she will then be motivated to learn new skills. Fourth, goal orientation is another personal trait that has been investigated related to training research. Goal orientation refers to the type of goal (mastery vs performance) that is set within the learning environment, which in turn can impact the individual's cognitive, affective, and motivational processes (Cannon Bowers et al., 1998). It is assumed that goal and goal setting provide motivation for performance. Finally, meta-cognition has received interest among training researchers lately. Meta-cognition generally refers to awareness of one's own knowledge and the ability to understand, control, and manipulate individual cognitive processes (Flavell, 1979). It is assumed that meta-cognition will help people to direct their attention to their own learning process, and be aware of why they choose different kinds of actions.

To summarize, concepts at the individual level like motivation to learn, self-efficacy, locus of control, goal-orientation, and meta-cognition are considered as important to our understanding of the learning processes.

2.3.7 Volunteer work as an informal learning context

Because this thesis focuses on volunteer work as a relevant context for studying informal learning, it is important to give a brief review of volunteer research and to offer a description and definition of the volunteer construct. Furthermore, it will be argued why volunteer work is considered to be a potential informal learning context.

Whereas most of the research on informal learning focuses on learning at work (Leymann & Kornbluh, 1989) or learning in the workplace (Marsick & Watkins, 1990), the practice related to everyday activities is in this thesis considered as a potential learning contexts. Thus learning arenas or contexts are not restricted to the workplace, but also include arenas or contexts outside the employment organization such as participation in volunteer work, clubs and other social activities. Thus, a basic assumption is that all our current and past life experience is continuously affecting the development and shape of our knowledge, skills, attitudes, beliefs, and behavior.

As it was argued in Chapter 1.2, volunteer work is considered a potential learning context in terms of:

(1) - the possibility of skill transfer between people with different backgrounds that work together
(2) - the possibility to develop new skills through experience with new work tasks in a new work context

To be able to achieve a better understanding of the learning process as a volunteer, we need to define and specify what we mean by volunteer work. First, it is used as a concept at different levels of analysis. According to Lorentzen (1995), there are at least three levels: sector, organization, and enterprise.

The voluntary sector is in a broad sense all welfare producing activity that occurs outside private and public firms. Even though many use the terms voluntary sector, third sector, and non-profit sector synonymously (Butler, 1990; Scott, 1995; Smith, 1995;), there are differences regarding their focus and scope of activity. While non-profit refers to the economic traits of the organization, volunteer refers to the public utility of the organization (Lorentzen, 1995:53).

Volunteer organizations are the next level of analyses. These have many dissimilar definitions in different countries. In Norway the political authorities argue that volunteer organizations have goals of public utility, individual or organizational membership, and democratic government structure. Furthermore, they should not be dependent upon public authorities, and are autonomous units regarding decisions about their own behavior. In addition, they are divided into ten sub-groups; social/humanitarian organizations, women's organizations, sport organizations, cultural and environmental organizations, hobby organizations, religious organizations, internationally oriented organizations (solidarity and human rights), locale welfare organizations, ad hoc movements, and other organizations. Associations with economic goals are not included in the definition (St.meld. nr. 27, 1996/97, p. 15-16).

Finally, **volunteer enterprise** can be defined as a limited, organized service or product that is offered by a volunteer organization. It can receive funding from both public and private sources, and the work force can be both unpaid and paid workers. Examples are many of the big events and festivals, where both amateurs and professionals may work together.

The unit of analysis in this thesis is the **individual volunteer.** We do not focus explicitly on whether he or she works in the volunteer sector, volunteer organization, or enterprise. In a review of 11 widely used definitions of "volunteer", Cnaan, Handy & Wadsworth (1996) identified four key elements commonly found in most definitions: a) the nature of the volunteers' act, b) the nature of the reward, c) whether the act is formally organized, and d) who benefits from the volunteer behavior. When defining who is a volunteer at the individual level of analyses, they distinguish between "pure" and "broadly defined" volunteers (Cnaan et al.,1996). For the purpose of this thesis, **volunteers** are defined as:

Volunteers are individuals that work for an organization in their leisure time without receiving any financial remuneration.

It should be noticed that the definition focuses on the individuals who perform some type of work. This is consistent with other researchers, who argue that volunteering is "human effort that adds use value to goods and services" (Tilly & Tilly, 1994:291). They conduct "productive activities", but are unpaid (Wilson & Musick, 1997). Second, the fundamental difference between employees and volunteers is that volunteers receive no financial remuneration (Pearce, 1993:8). Third, the organization may or may not be a part of the formal definition of a volunteer organization in a country. These definitions vary between different nations, and are often more a question of politics than of theoretical interest. Furthermore, it is important that volunteers work in a formalized organizational context. This implies that the volunteer context has much in common with the employment context when it comes to the division of work, coordination mechanism, common goals, and management systems. Moreover, it is suggested that this similarity will increase the probability of effective transfer of skills from the volunteer work context to the paid work context.

2.3.8 Concluding comments

Based on the previous discussion in the last sections, the following should be noticed related to informal learning. First, it is suggested that informal learning is situated in the everyday job context. It can be a byproduct of some other activity, such as task accomplishment, interpersonal interaction, or sensing of organizational culture (incidental learning). It can also be a result of planned learning activity like job rotation and self-directed learning or help consciously sought from coaches or mentors. Second, practice based on experience and reflection in a job context is one important informal learning mechanism. Third, the observation of other persons' behavior and the effects of other persons' behavior, is an another aspect of the informal learning process. Finally, the social interaction with exchange of knowledge and feedback processes between the individuals is considered to be essential in the informal learning process.

In other words in order to be able to understand the development of interpersonal skills in a volunteer job context, we have outlined three main informal learning mechanisms:

(a) Learning from practice

* based on experience and reflection in a job context

(b) Learning by modeling

* observing co-workers/supervisors behavior and consequences of their behavior

(c) Learning by information exchange

* the exchange of knowledge between co-workers, and feedback about each other's behavior

Finally, volunteer work is a context that represents a potential for informal learning.

2.4 Theoretical framework

The main purpose of this section is to develop a conceptual framework. Interpersonal skills and the informal learning process have been discussed in the preceding section. In this section, other main concepts in the framework are discussed and defined. Second, the overall theoretical framework that will guide the development of hypotheses is outlined. However, first the basic theoretical assumptions are specified.

2.4.1 Theoretical assumptions

It is commonly assumed that both personal and situational characteristics influence behavior in organizations (Chatman, 1989). This implies that both individual characteristics and situational characteristics are considered as important in understanding the development of interpersonal skills. Moreover, the individual is assumed to be bounded rational, which means that she is "intended rational, but limited so" (Simon, 1957). The limitations stem from individuals' limited information processing capacity.

Further, the theoretical models are at a middle-range level. Middle-range theories involve abstractions, but these abstractions should not be on a higher level than just permitting empirical testing (Merton, 1968). The main focus is on the part of the organizational context that is assumed to be most relevant for individual behavior (Rousseau, 1985). That implies balancing the two conflicting criteria of comprehensiveness and parsimony (Whetten, 1989). Finally, an open system perspective of the organization is suggested. This implies that both internal factors related to the focal organization and factors outside its boundaries, are assumed to be relevant in understanding organizational behavior.

2.4.2 Theoretical framework

The overall theoretical framework is presented in Figure 2.1.

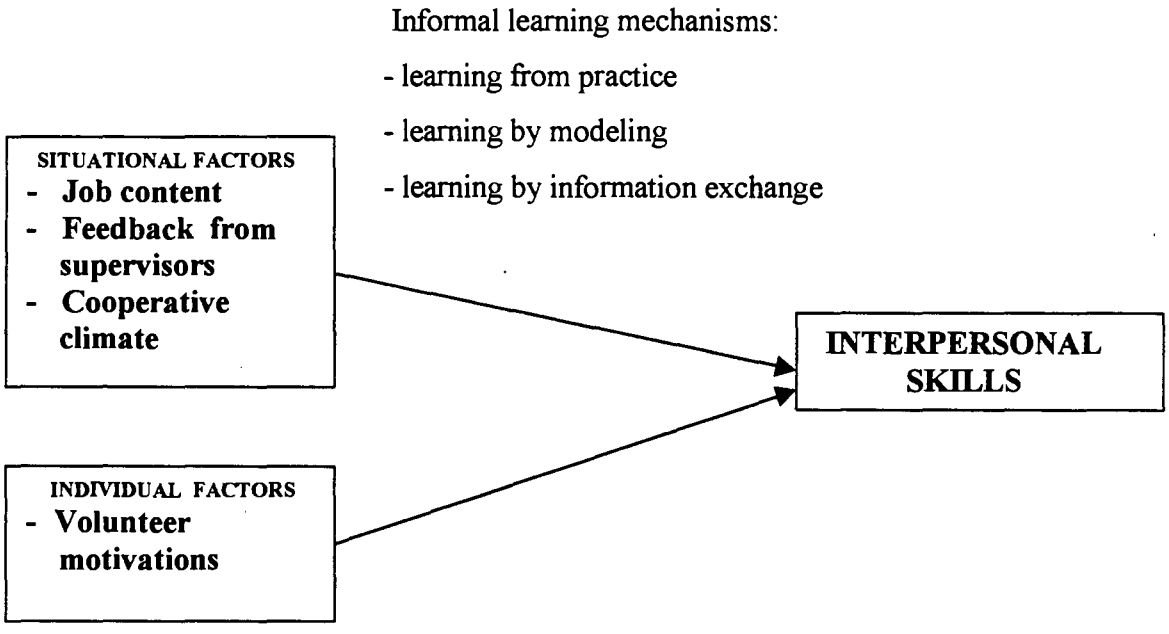

Figure 2.1 Overall theoretical framework

Interpersonal skills were discussed and defined in the last section. In the next subsections other main concepts in the theoretical framework will be introduced, reviewed, and defined. Based on this discussion, the hyportheses and research model will be elaborated.

2.4.3 Job content

According to many researchers the job content and the social environment are suggested as two main situational or contextual factors that explain informal learning (see Hall & Fukami, 1979; Marsick & Watkins, 1990; Noe & Ford, 1992; Purser & Pasmore, 1992; Tesluk & Jacobs, 1998). Therefore, these two concepts will be reviewed and defined.

The design of jobs is a central concern of management consultants and researchers, and a significant number of studies have been conducted. More specifically, there has been developed a variety of different measurement scales such as the JDI (Hackman and Oldham, 1975), JCI (Sims, Szilagyi, & Keller, 1976), MSQ (Weiss et al., 1967) or OAI (Van de Ven and Ferry, 1980)(see Ironson et al., 1989 for a review).

All these scales suggest that central characteristics of the job itself are primary dimensions in order to understand the motivation, satisfaction, and behavior of employees. In contrast, the amount of empirical research investigating the relationship between informal learning and job content is more limited (Tesluk & Jacobs, 1998). Hence, there is a need to do more empirical research in order to understand the relationship between job content and learning.

JOB CHALLENGE

Researchers in the field of experimental learning and action science, have been aware of the fact that when people learn in the workplace, they are highly influenced by the learning context. Both the quantitative and qualitative aspects of the job have been investigated (Tesluk & Jacobs,1998). In this subsection the main focus is on the qualitative aspects.

According to Argyris and Schön (1974), learning takes place under conditions of surprise, the non-routine circumstances that require heightened attention, experimentation, and determination of the nature of a problem. We can label such jobs as challenging that implies that individuals conduct tasks they are unfamiliar with. This is consistent with Kaufman (1975) that defines a challenging job as a job that demand "stretching" of existing

knowledge and skill bases. He found that employees with a challenging job are more likely to engage in updating behavior. To illustrate, Kozlowski and Farr (1988) found some support for this effect in their study. Engineers in jobs high on core tasks characteristics, such as autonomy and task identity, were rated higher by their supervisors on technical performance and administrative skills. Moreover, the amount of variety and degree of uncertainty presented in the job was positively related to the supervisor's ratings.

Also in the field of management studies empirical research has been conducted on the effects of qualitative facets of job experience. One example is a study of McCauley et al. (1994) who investigated the effects of challenges provided in different work situations on learning. This research on managers identified how challenging work experiences motivated development and promoted learning development.

All these studies indicate that challenge is an important trait of the job if individuals are to learn from their job experience. Consistent with this research, job challenge is proposed to be a main qualitative aspect of the job. Moreover, based on Argyris and Schön (1974) and Kaufman's (1975) description of job challenge, it is defined as *the degree the job includes tasks the individual is unfamiliar with.*

TASK INTERDEPENDENCE

Task interdependence is another well-established job dimension in the study of job designs. In a review of the main characteristic of tasks in a job, task interdependence was identified as a core trait of a job (Purser & Pasmore, 1992). It is closely related concepts are social interaction (MJDQ), and dealing with others (JDI). Task interdependence can be defined as *the degree to which the job requires interaction to perform tasks among coworkers* (based on Purser & Pasmore, 1992). It is obvious that task interdependence is important when we want to study generation of interpersonal skills. It implies interactions among individuals and a potential for learning from others (learning by modeling) as well as learning through information exchange.

MANAGERIAL RESPONSIBILITY

Whether the job implies *managerial responsibility* or not, is another job dimension that is interesting related to learning in the workplace. Management or leadership is defined in a variety of different ways in terms of individual traits, behavior, influence over other people, and role relationship. A common working definition of leadership is the process whereby an individual influences the group toward the attainment of desired group or organizational goals (cf. Hollander, 1985). Then managerial responsibility can be defined as whether *the individual has the responsibility for a group of people to attain organizational goals.* A group is defined as a social unit with two or more members who perform one or more tasks together in an organizational context (Goodman, 1986; Hackman, 1989).

It is assumed that managerial responsibility implies interaction with other people in the organization. For example, managers need to solve problems that co-workers have, like answering questions and handling complains. Moreover, managers need to contact other people in the organization to be able to solve the problems in the organizational unit for which they have the responsibility. They may also have to participate in management teams, and to take care of external stakeholders like customers, owners, and public government. In other words, jobs with managerial responsibility are assumed to imply interaction with a variety of different people, and consequently represent a potential for informal learning of interpersonal skills.

To summarize the discussion above, it is argued that job challenge, task interdependence, and managerial responsibility are three main dimensions of job content that are relevant in our study.

2.4.4 Feedback from supervisors

Feedback was defined as a special case of the general communication process in which some sender conveys a message to a recipient. In the case of feedback, the message compromises information about the recipient (Ilgen et al., 1979). As noted in chapter 2.3.4., feedback can have different sources: the formal organization, supervisors, co-workers, oneself, and the task (Greller & Herold, 1975). We have to limit this study, and have chosen to focus on feedback from supervisors. Feedback from supervisors can be defined as *a communication process in which supervisors convey a message to an employee for which they are responsible*. Many studies indicate that feedback from supervisors is an important source of feedback. One study of the way the employee perceives the role of feedback from the supervisor showed that people believed that the supervisor provided the best information on what should be done (Greller & Herold, 1975). Furthermore, in a study of the relationship between the organizational feedback environment and performance, they concluded that feedback from the supervisor and organizational sources was related to reported job performance while feedback from peers and self was not (Becker & Klimosky, 1989). Thus, feedback from supervisors normally seems to be positively related to performance.

Lately, feedback research has focused much on discovering and classifying other dimensions of feedback, e.g. frequency, sign, type, and feedback processes. An important question is whether feedback from supervisors in general is a preferable approach, or should we focus on different dimensions of feedback? Larson et al. (1986) studied 360 dyads of managers-subordinates from 50 different organizations. They studied the dimensions of timeliness, specificity, frequency, and sensitivity of the manager's positive and negative performance feedback. According to their findings those dimensions covary so strongly as to be empirically indiscriminate. They concluded that we should focus the managers' overall performance feedback instead of focusing on each dimension separately. This is consistent with our approach, where we focus on feedback from supervisors in general.

2.4.5 Cooperative climate

According to Noe (1986) the social environment is a main contextual dimension with regard to "environmental favourability" related to informal learning. Thus, the better the social relations, the better the environment for informal learning. Organizational climate was originally used to refer to many of these environmental influences, and in the three last decades the concept of climate has received considerable attention from applied psychologists and organizational scientists. The importance of this concept is evidenced by eight major reviews discussing research on climate (Field & Abelson, 1982). Despite this substantial research interest, organizational climate research has been affected by problems. First, how should climate be defined? Second, what is the level of analyses in the research? Third, what dimensions are most relevant? I will discuss these issues in the next sub-sections, and elaborate cooperative climate that will be included in this study.

DEFINITIONS OF CLIMATE

Many definitions of climate have been proposed, but two approaches have in particular received substantial attention: the cognitive schema approach and the shared perception approach. The former conceptualizes climate as individuals' constructive schema of their working environment, and has been operationalized primarily through attempts to uncover individuals' make sense of their proximal working environment (Anderson & West, 1998). While this focuses on the individual level of analyses, other authors emphasize the importance of shared perceptions as underpinning the notion of climate (see Koys & DeCottiis, 1991). Thus, Reichers and Schneider (1990) define organizational climate as "the shared perceptions of the way things are here." In this study I will adopt the latter approach, applying the concept of shared perceptions of the work environment.

LEVEL OF ANALYSES

The next relevant issue is related to the appropriate levels of analyses. Glick (1985) identifies three main levels in his discussion of organizational and psychological climate: the individual, the sub-unit, and the organization. First, the distinction between

psychological and organizational climate was established. Then the third type of climate constructs called subsystem, group, or subunit climate were introduced.

Here I will focus on work group climate. According to Field and Abelson (1982) there is evidence of the construct validity for the concept of group climate. One example is Howe (1977) who found that climate responses were more a function of group membership than personal characteristics. Furthermore, Newman (1977) developed a climate measure called Perceived Work Environment. Results indicate that when employees are subdivided by the organizational characteristics such as hierarchical level, department, or work group, and by personal characteristics such as education, age, and gender, they were found to perceive their work environment differently. Field and Abelson list a variety of other empirical studies, all indicating that climate exists at the group level of analyses.

Thus, the focus here is on work group climate. The work group is considered to be a basic part of the work in which informal learning occurs. Furthermore, a work group is defined as a social unit with two or more members who perform one or more tasks together in an organizational context (Goodman, 1986).

Some comments can be made about this definition. First, it demands that (a): individuals interact in the workplace, (b) they have a common goal which predisposes the individual toward collective action, and (c) there is sufficient task interdependence so that the individuals need to develop shared understandings (see Anderson and West, 1998). Second, the group can be permanent or semi-permanent, like project groups. Third, the work group is not the same as a formal subunit in an organization. In a small department there may only be one work group. But if the department is large, it may consist of several work groups. As Jones and James (1979) found in their study of group climate in the U.S. Navy, the larger departments did not have a homogeneous climate. Finally, this definition precludes purely social cliques in the workplace since task-interdependence is an essential element of the definition. Of course, individuals will commonly be members of more than one group when they work, but the attention here is on informal learning when people work together. Thus, the main focus is on the work climate or the shared perceptions of the work environment of the co-workers in a group.

CLIMATE DIMENSIONS

The next question to be addressed is what should be included in the climate construct. Studies of both general and facet-specific climates have been reported. Much has been recently done to deconstruct the notion of generalized climate into subdomains. According to Reichers and Schneider (1990) it is meaningless to apply a concept of climate without a particular referent. Consistent with this approach, climate is here considered as a construct that should be deconstructed into special facets related to an informal learning context. Then, what are the most relevant facets of informal learning?

We suggest that favorable social relations are essential in order to facilitate learning by modeling and information exchange. According to social learning theory, the observation of others as role models is important in the learning process. Whether or not a person receives attention from others as a role model, partly depends on interpersonal attraction and on whom she regularly socialize with (Bandura, 1977:24). Furthermore, with favorable social relations it is assumed that workers will be interested in exchanging knowledge and skills with each other. Thus, both the amount and quality of the information exchange is assumed to be better with favorable social relations.

In meta-analyses of climate, it also seems that social relationship between peers is an important climate dimension. One example is a meta-analyses of different climate dimensions by Muchinsky (1976), which found that "interpersonal milieu" is one out of six main dimensions. In a meta-analyses conducted lately, Koys and DeCotiis (1991) found that "cohesion" is one out of eight main climate dimensions. A major decision is how to label and define the climate dimension that we want to focus on in this study. There is much confusion about constructs and definitions about social relations as a climate dimension. It also exists close related concepts such as cohesion, solidarity, morale, "groupness", sense of community, peer relations, workgroup cooperation, friendliness, warmth, and interpersonal milieu/atmosphere (Keller, Julian, & Kedia, 1996; Koys & DeCotiis, 1991; LaFollette & Sims, 1975; Muchisky, 1976; Mudrack, 1989).

DEFINITION OF COOPERATIVE CLIMATE

Here we have chosen to label this dimension as cooperative climate. It is not well established as a concept in the international climate literature, and there is a need to discuss and define the concept of cooperative climate. Cooperative climate can be defined *as the degree to which the work group members perceive that they are able to work well together.* One important question is the difference between cooperative climate and the well-known concept of cohesion. Cooperative climate is close related to the affective dimension of cohesion e.g the feeling of togetherness in the group. For example Evans and Dion (1991) define cohesion as the perception of togetherness or sharing within the organization setting. Still we chose not to label this construct cohesion. First, our definition is more behavioral oriented because it focuses on whether group members perceive that they are able work well together, and not only on a positive affect towards the group. Second, many definitions of cohesion include other aspects than we focus on here like the degree to which group members are attracted to the group, or the degree to which they want to remain in the group (Festinger et al., 1950:164; Shaw, 1984:213). Thus, it could be misleading to label this concept as cohesion[1].

In conclusion, cooperative climate has been defined as the degree to which a work group has a shared perception that they are able to work well together.

[1] What makes cohesion more confusing are the multiple models of cohesion with no single definition or model that is accepted by a majority of researchers interested in the construct (Cota et al., 1995a;1995b).

2.4.6 Volunteer motivation

As discussed in Chapter 2.3, motivation to learn (Warr & Bunche, 1995), locus of control (Rotter, 1966), goal-orientation, self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977), and meta-cognition (Flavell, 1979) are examples of individual characteristics that have been studied in relation to learning. Although all these variables are interesting, we will limit this study to include volunteers' motivation. This is among the few concepts that have been extensively investigated abount volunteers. Moreover, it is considered to be important in understanding volunteers' organizational behavior (see Andersen,1996; Clary, Snyder, & Stukas, 1996; Lorenzen & Rogstad, 1994; Lynn & Smith, 1991; Ryan & Bates, 1995; Williams et al., 1995).

Initially it is important to notice that there are different focuses in the employee and volunteeer motivation litterature (Pearce, 1993). Whereas questions about employee motivation have centered around understanding the direction and persistence of behavior leading to high levels of job performance, much of the volunteer motivation litterature has been concerned with the issue of why people join an organization. It is volunteer motivation *or the reason to participate as a volunteer* that is the main focus here. It is assumed that the reason why a person chooses to participate as a volunteer, will effect the informal learning process. Even though some research has been done on volunteer motives, studies have proceeded independently from each other (Pearce, 1993:63). A recent review of volunteer motivation included an article that reviews 700 articles, books, and pamphlets in the field of volunteerism (Anderson & Moore, 1978). Furthermore, it included volunteer motivation at two different festivals (Ryans & Bates, 1995; Williams et al., 1995) and a big volunteer survey in Great Britain with 1.692 interviews (Lynn & Smith, 1991. Finally, it included two studies in Norway of 1.425 volunteers in the Red Cross and 1.471 volunteers at 95 Volunteer Centrals (Lorenzen & Rogstad, 1994; Andersen, 1996). Twelve motivational dimensions were traced in these studies (Elstad,1997b:24): to learn, connected with hobby/interests, self-protection, self-esteem, altruism, material rewards, career development, socializing, social expectations, status in community, the volunteer context, and time to spare. It is beyond the scope of this dissertation to study all these motivational dimensions, and I have chosen those that are supposed to have an effect on the

development of interpersonal skills. These effects will be presented in the hypotheses in the next chapter.

Motivation to learn or *the degree the individual chooses to participate as a volunteer because she expects to learn something new,* has received much attention in studies of volunteer motivation.[2] In the volunteer survey in Great Britain, 11 % of all the volunteers reported that learning new skills was a main reason for participating in volunteer work. Moreover, the wish to learn was the second most important motivation for partcipation documented in the study of volunteers at the Norwegian Red Cross and in the Volunteer Centrals. Finally, the wish to learn new organizational skills was ranked as the eighth most important reason to participate as a volunteer in "Whistler's Men's World Cup of Skiing". Although these studies indicate that the wish to learn is an important drive to participate as a volunteer, there are no studies of whether motivation to learn actually implies development of new skills. In this study, the first attempt to empirically study this relationship will be made.

To socialize or *the degree to which an individual chooses to participate as a volunteer because she expects to enjoy the company of other people,* has especially received attention in the study of volunteers at events. At the "Whistler's Men's World Cup of Skiing", the wish to socialize with people sharing common interests was ranked as the fourth most important reason to participate as a volunteer. Furthermore, at a study of a "Rose and Garden Festival", the social motivation (share the pleasure of meeting others, opportunity to meet gardening enthusiasts, enjoy meeting people) was the second most important reason for volunteer participation. Moreover, 25 % of the volunteers in the survey in Great Britain reported that a desire to meet people/make friends was a reason for volunteering. Hence, all these studies indicate that motivation to socialize is essential. However, we do not yet have ant empirical knowledge about the relationship between the motivation to socialize and development of new skills.

Career development motivation or *the degree to which an individual participates as volunteer because she expects it will help her in her work career,* is the last motivational factor that will be introduced in this study. The study at the Volunteer Centrals, showed that career development was very important for 13 % of the volunteers, while at the Norwegian Red Cross this was very important for 11 % of the volunteers. Furthermore, at the "Whistler's Men's World Cup of Skiing", the wish to make contacts for new jobs was ranked as the 10th most important reason to participate as a volunteer. Even though this motivational factor is not as important as the two other presented here, it is considered to be suffucient important to be included in the study.

2.5 Concluding comment

To summarize this chapter, the main constructs in the study and informal learning process have been reviewed and defined. Based on the theoretical framework in Figure 2.1. the hypotheses and research model will be elaborated in the next chapter.

[2] It is important to note that this is not exactly the same as the learning motive in paragraph 2.3.6. There the focus was on whether the individual is motivated to learn something new, while here it refers to one possible reason for participation in volunteer work.

3. HYPOTHESES AND RESEARCH MODEL

3.1 Introduction

Hypotheses regarding the relationships between the concepts in the model will now be proposed. The hypotheses concern the individual and situational factors that are assumed to explain variations in increased interpersonal skills. The first five out of these hypotheses concern relationships between situational aspects of the job and interpersonal skills. The next hypotheses relate the individual characteristics in terms of motivation and interpersonal skills. Finally, hypotheses about the relationships between the moderating variables and the proposed relationship in the first hypotheses are elaborated. The explanations are mainly based on the three mechanisms of informal learning that were discussed in the preceding chapter.

3.2 Situational factors and interpersonal skills

In Chapter 2, job content was discussed in terms of job challenge, task interdependence, and managerial responsibility. In this subsection, hypotheses related to these three concepts and interpersonal skills will be outlined.

Job challenge was defined as the degree to which the job includes tasks the individual is unfamiliar with. In the review of learning literature in Chapter 2, there was evidence that job challenge is important to explain the learning process (see Argyris and Schön, 1974; Kaufman, 1975; Kozlowski and Farr, 1988; McCauley et al., 1994).

These studies indicate that challenge is a core trait of the job if an individual should learn from job experience. What are the main learning mechanisms then, that relate job challenge to the generation of increased interpersonal skills? It is suggested that when a volunteer has a challenging job, she will be confronted with new situations and new job experiences. This will often imply a need for cooperating with others to solve new problems related to the job. Then there is a potential for generation of interpersonal skills based on the individuals interpersonal experiences (learning from practice), learning by modeling and learning by information exchange through interaction with other volunteers.

The arguments presented above suggest the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 1:
Job challenge is positively related to the generation of increased interpersonal skills among volunteers

Task interdependence was defined as the degree to which the job requires interaction to perform tasks among coworkers (based on Purser & Pasmore, 1992). It is assumed that when a job requires that persons have to cooperate with each other, there is a potential for the generation of increased interpersonal skills based on the individuals interpersonal experiences (learning from practice), through observing others (learning by modeling) and from information exchange.

Thus, the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 2:
Task interdependence is positively related to the generation of increased interpersonal skills among volunteers

Managerial responsibility was defined as whether an individual has the responsibility for a group of people to attain organizational goals. It is assumed that jobs with managerial responsibility involve more contact with a variety of different co-workers both within and outside the unit they are managing compared to jobs without such a responsibility. To illustrate, managers need to discuss and solve problems with co-workers in their they own unit. Thus, a part of most managers' daily job experience is to interact with other people in their organizational unit. In addition, managers need to interact with people in other organizational units to be able to solve problems in the unit for which they have the responsibility. Furthermore, managers will often be a part of a management team that discusses organizational goals and problems within their units. Moreover, many managers have to interact with customers, owners, public government, and other external actors.

In other words, a person with managerial responsibility is believed to gain more experience in interacting with other people than individuals who do not have such a responsibility. This implies the potential of interpersonal skill acquisition through a variety of different social experiences (learning from practice), learning by modeling and learning by information exchange.

Based on the arguments above, the following hypothesis is outlined:

Hypothesis 3:
Managerial responsibility is positively related to the generation of increased interpersonal skills among volunteers

Feedback from supervisors was defined as a communication process in which supervisors convey a message to an employee for which they are responsible. As noted in Chapter 2, feedback can have different sources: the formal organization, the supervisor, the co-workers, oneself, and the task (Greller & Herold, 1975). We have limited this study to focus on feedback from supervisors. Many studies indicate that input from supervisors is an important source of feedback. One study of the way in which employees perceive the role of feedback from a supervisor, showed that people believed that the supervisor provided the best information about what should be done (Greller & Herold, 1975).

What is the expected relationship between feedback from supervisors and the generation of increased interpersonal skills? It can be expected that when a volunteer receives feedback from supervisors, this represent a situation in which there is a potential for learning from information exchange about the volunteer's interpersonal behavior. It is suggested that supervisors will have a higher probability of being role-models compared to other co-workers. In organizations, the degree of status, prestige, and power that an individual holds is likely to be related to the potential of that individual's behavior to serve as a role model (Sims & Lorenzi, 1992:149). Thus, it is suggested that volunteers will be motivated to learn from feedback from their supervisors and to change interpersonal behavior based on this feedback.

Then, the following hypothesis is outlined:

Hypothesis 4:

Feedback from the supervisors is positively related to the generation of increased interpersonal skills among volunteers

In Chapter 2 *cooperative climate* was defined as the degree to which the work group members perceive that they are able to work well together. Cooperative climate in the work group is expected to be related to the generation of increased interpersonal skills based on two main informal learning mechanisms.

First, according to social learning theory, the observation of others as role models is important in the learning process. Whether a person receives attention from others as a role model or not, depends partly on interpersonal attraction and with whom one regularly associates (Bandura, 1977:24). It is assumed that in a work group with a good cooperative climate, there will be more individuals in the group that are perceived as relevant role-models than in work groups with a negative cooperative climate. Second, it is assumed that a cooperative climate facilitates the amount of interaction and the motivation to exchange information with each other. According to Nonaka (1994), this is essential in the process of knowledge conversions in organizations. Finally, in a study of 70 human resource teams, Neuman & Wright (1999) found that team "agreeableness" predicted interpersonal skills. Team agreeableness was characterized by trust, straightforwardness, altruism, compliance, modesty, and tender-mindedness. Thus, it is closely related to cooperative climate, and is an indication of a positive relationship between cooperative climate and interpersonal skills.

In other words, it is argued that cooperative climate will increase the level of learning from modeling and learning by information exchange between the members of the group. Therefore, the following hypothesis is launched:

Hypothesis 5:

Cooperative climate is positively related to the generation of increased interpersonal skills among volunteers

3.3 Volunteer motivation and interpersonal skills

In the following, volunteer motivation, or reasons to participate as a volunteer, is the main focus. I will present hypotheses about three motivational factors presented in Chapter 2: motivation to learn, to socialize, and to achieve career development. Except for motivation to learn, there is little empirical research to build on neither for employees nor volunteers. Therefore, the hypotheses will mainly build on theoretical arguments based on the informal learning mechanisms outlined in Chapter 2.

Motivation to learn or the degree to which the individual chooses to participate as a volunteer because she expects to learn something new, is an important driving force behind participating in volunteer work (Andersen, 1996; Clary, Snyder & Ridge, 1992; Lorentzen & Rogstad, 1994; Lynn & Smith, 1991; Ryan & Bates, 1995; Williams et al., 1995). As argued in the preceding chapter, the amount of empirical research on whether they actually learn something as volunteers or not, is restricted. Still there is some research on non-volunteer organizations that indicates a generally positive relationship between learning motivation and learning outcomes (Stipek, 1988). Hall and Fukami (1979) simply state that the more the learner is ready and motivated to learn, the more learning will occur. Second, Noe (1986) suggests that a person's trainability is a function of her ability, the environment, and her motivation to learn. Moreover, Warr and Bunce (1995) in their framework for trainee characteristics and outcomes, suggest that individuals' motivation to learn is an important determinant of training outcomes. Moreover, studies of pre-training motivation indicate a positive relationship betweeen motivation and learning outcomes (Baldwin & Ford, 1988; Baldwin, Magjuka & Loher, 1991; Facteau et al., 1995).

All these studies suggest that motivation to learn is a central determinant of learning outcomes at a general level. Still, there is little empirical research on the relationship between learning as a motivation of participation in volunteer work and learning outcomes. Thus, the arguments in this section are based on the informal learning mechanisms discussed in Chapter 2 and not on earlier studies on volunteer motivation.

More specifically, how is the motivation to learn expected to be related to the generation of increased interpersonal skills? It is suggested that a person who participates as a volunteer because she expects to learn something new, will be more aware of the possibility of learning from other persons' behavior (learning by modeling) and will initiate more information exchange with co-workers (learning by information exchange), compared to individuals for whom motivation to learn as not an important reason to participate in volunteer work.

Another possible effect might be that the individual, in order to get access to information and job situations where she has the possibility to learn something new, must be able to get alongwell on with co-workers so that they will be willing to share knowledge and skills and to open access to new work situations. Thus, learning of interpersonal skills might be a byproduct of the motivation to learn.

Based on the discussion above, the following hypothesis is elaborated:

Hypothesis 6:
Motivation to learn is positively related to the generation of increased interpersonal skills among volunteers

To socialize, or the degree to which an individual chooses to participate as a volunteer because she expects to enjoy meeting people, is another motivational factor related to generation of increased interpersonal skills. It is assumed that volunteers with a high socializing motivation, will initiate contact with other volunteers and spend considerable time with other volunteers. This implies a potential for learning from new social experiences (learning by doing), learning by modeling, and learning by informatione exchange with co-workers. Thus, the following hypothesis is suggested:

Hypothesis 7:
Motivation to socialize is positively related to the generation of increased interpersonal skills among volunteers

Career development motivation, the degree an individual participate as volunteer because she expects it will help her in her work career, is the last of the assumed motivational factors. It is reasonable to believe that the volunteer will try to obtain new contacts and develop an informal network with other volunteers and customers that can help her in her career development. This implies that she will initiate social contact with other people, and that a potential for learning from new social experiences (learning from practice), learning by modeling and learning by information exchange will emerge.

Thus, the following hypothesis is outlined:

Hypothesis 8:
Career development motivation is positively related to the generation of increased interpersonal skills among volunteers

3.4 Moderating variables: time and deviation from paid job

In general terms, a moderator is a variable that affects the direction or the strength of the relationship between an independent and a dependent variable. In the next section, two moderators will be introduced: time and deviation from paid job.

Time

As previously noted, in a systematic discussion of job content we need to distinguish between the qualitative and quantitative aspects of the job. Studies of work experience in quantitative terms have focused on other aspects of the job, such as tenure (McDaniel, Schmidt, & Hunter, 1988), years spent in an organization (McEnrue, 1988), years or time-span in a position (Borman et al.,1993), and time spent on tasks (Fisher & Ford, 1998). In this particular context it is relevant to consider number of working hours as a volunteer.

Even though a basic assumption is that an increased amount of work experience will increase the amount of learning, this is not a straightforward relationship. Research at the individual level of analysis has demonstrated the dynamic process of learning in the form of learning curves (e.g., Bass & Voughan, 1966). These graphs show the rate at which learning occurs over time, and demonstrate the temporal dynamics of the learning process. Since most of the empirical studies are not designed as repeated investigations over time, we still have limited knowledge about the shape of the learning curves related to informal learning in the workplace.

Despite the lack of research in this area, some interesting research on the group level of analysis has investigated the relationship between experience in quantitative terms and performance. For instance, there appears to be a curvilinear relationship between group tenure (i.e., the length of time member work together) and group performance (Quinones et al., 1995). Initially, as group members spend more time working together, coordination and communication improve, which in turn facilitates group performance (Watson, Michaelson, & Sharp, 1991). However, at some point, inter- and intra-group communication may begin to decrease and the group may become less open to change and

innovation, which for certain groups (e.g., R & D teams; top management teams) may cause the performance to decline (Fredrickson & Iaquinto, 1989; Katz, 1982). Furthermore, it is worthwhile noting that Katz found a U-relationship between team tenure and performance in R & D-teams.

Although these studies are interesting because they study groups over time, performance and not learning was the dependent variable. On the other hand, additional studies have focused on the relationship between time spend on a task and learning as an outcome. One example is Fisher and Ford's (1998) study of students learning of the multiple regression, where time spend on learning was among the strongest predictors of the knowledge learning outcome.

To conclude, there are studies that focus on the learning process and performance as a dependent variable, or studies that focus on learning as an outcome but not on the learning process. We thus have limited empirical knowledge about different shapes of learning curves and learning in the workplace. This is an interesting research project in itself, but it lies beyond the scope of this thesis.

In this study it is assumed that time spent on volunteer work is positively related to the generation of interpersonal skills. More specifically, Tesluk and Jacobs' (1998) integrated theoretical framework for a study of work experience suggests an interaction effect between the qualitative and quantitative components of work experience. Thus, it is assumed that the *time* dimension will have an effect on the relationship between job challenge, task interdependence, management responsibility, feedback from supervisors, and generation of increased interpersonal skills. It is suggested that the more hours that are spent on volunteer work, the stronger the effect of job challenge, task interdependence, management responsibility, and feedback from supervisors on the development of interpersonal skills. There is simply more time available for the person to learn based on their job experiences.

This leads to the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 9.1:

Time spent doing volunteer work will moderate the relationship between job challenge and the generation of increased interpersonal skills. Volunteers spending much time will exhibit a stronger relationship than volunteers spending little time

Hypothesis 9.2:

Time spent doing volunteer work will moderate the relationship between task interdependence and the generation of increased interpersonal skills. Volunteers spending much time will exhibit a stronger relationship than volunteers spending little time

Hypothesis 9.3:

Time spent doing volunteer work will moderate the relationship between managerial responsibility and the generation of increased interpersonal skills. Volunteers spending much time will exhibit a stronger relationship than volunteers spending little time

Hypothesis 9.4:

Time spent doing volunteer work will moderate the relationship between feedback from supervisors and the generation of increased interpersonal skills. Volunteers spending much time will exhibit a stronger relationship than volunteers spending little time

An analogous argument can be developed regarding the relationship between cooperative climate and the generation of increased interpersonal skills. The more time the person spends in the volunteer work context, the more time is available to learn from their colleagues.

Thus, the following hypothesis is offered:

Hypothesis 9.5:
Time spent doing volunteer work will moderate the relationship between cooperative climate and the generation of increased interpersonal skills. Volunteers spending much time will exhibit a stronger relationship than volunteers spending little time

Finally, the same argument is valid related to the motivations for participating in volunteer work. It is suggested that the proposed relationship between the motivational factors and increased interpersonal skills will be stronger with more time spent on volunteer work.

Thus, the following hypotheses is outlined:

Hypothesis 9.6:

Time spent doing volunteer work will moderate the relationship between motivation to learn and the generation of increased interpersonal skills. Volunteers spending much time will exhibit a stronger relationship than volunteers spending little time

Hypothesis 9.7:

Time spent doing volunteer work will moderate the relationship between motivation to socialize and the generation of increased interpersonal skills. Volunteers spending much time will exhibit a stronger relationship than volunteers spending little time

Hypothesis 9.8:

Time spent doing volunteer work will moderate the relationship between career development motivation and the generation of increased interpersonal skills. Volunteers spending much time will exhibit a stronger relationship than volunteers spending little time

Deviation from paid job

Another expected moderating variable is **deviation from paid job (DPJ)** or the degree to which the volunteer job differs from the paid job. It is assumed that the potential for learning from the volunteer job experience is higher when the volunteer job is different from the paid job, than when the paid job is much the same as the volunteer job. If the volunteer job is very different from the paid job, the volunteer will have many new job experiences that imply a potential for learning. But if the paid job is for example very challenging or with high task interdependence, a volunteer job with similar characteristics is not likely to offer many new job experiences in which the volunteers can increase their skills. Thus, the relationships between job challenge, task interdependence and interpersonal skills is moderated by whether the paid job is different from the volunteer job or not.

Hypothesis 10.1:

The relationship between job challenge and the generation of increased interpersonal skills is moderated by deviation from paid job. Volunteers with a high deviation from paid job will exhibit a stronger relationship than volunteers with a low deviation from paid job

Hypothesis 10.2:

The relationship between task interdependence and the generation of increased interpersonal skills, is moderated by deviation from paid job. Volunteers with a high deviation from paid job will exhibit a stronger relationship than volunteers with a low deviation from paid job

3.5 Control variables: age, educational level and gender

The main function of control variables is to test the possibility that an empirically observed relationship between an independent and a dependent variable is spurious. The selection of control variables should mainly be based on earlier theoretical contributions. Because there is a limited research, particularly on informal learning in the workplace, the selection of control variables will build on a broader selection of research on learning and organizational behavior.

First, a variable at the individual level that is assumed to be central to understanding the learning process is age. Sterns & Doverspike (1989) recognized that older workers might not be as motivated as younger workers in regard to developing new skills. Many older workers may not want to participate in trainee programs for a variety of different reasons based on functional, psycho-social, organizational, or life span approaches. Furthermore, environmental, biomedical, cognitive, and psychological factors may influence learning and memory. It should be noted though, that there are also researchers who argue that the chronological age of the learner may have no significant influence on learning (Poon, Krauss, and Bowles, 1984).

Still, much research indicates that there is a negative relationship between age and learning. One recent example is a study of 106 junior managers in a British organization. They found that the learning score was significantly predicted by age, with a negative relationship between age and learning score (Warr and Bunce, 1995). All in all this indicates that age is a relevant control variable in our study.

Second, in a study of trainee characteristics and outcomes of open learning, Warr & Bunce (1995) found that educational qualifications are positively associated with all kinds of learning. The main arguments are that **educational level** provides an indication of a person's previous experience and motivation for learning, and that it might serve as a proxy of mental ability. The latter variable is known to be strongly correlated with learning attainment (Hunter & Hunter, 1984; Tannenbaum et al., 1991). Thus, educational level is considered to be relevant as a control variable.

Finally, more recent studies in the social sciences discuss the role of **gender** in organizations. Acker (1992) argues that gender has to be integrated in the studies of organizations, and Hearn & Parkin (1994) discuss how this still remains a neglected area. This might be an explanation why the amount of empirical research on gender and informal learning in the workplace is also small. Drake (1995) reviews different theoretical perspectives on the socialization of men and women, including psychoanalytical theory about girls' and boys' development of relations to other people which is based on their relationship to their mother (Chodorow, 1989). While boys are different from their mothers and develop an independent and autonomous identity, girls tend to stay longer in a symbiosis with their mother and develop a more relation-oriented identity. This might have an effect on the development of interpersonal skills later in life at the workplace. Therefore, gender is included as a relevant control variable.

Figure 3.1 provides an overview of the hypotheses that have been formulated.

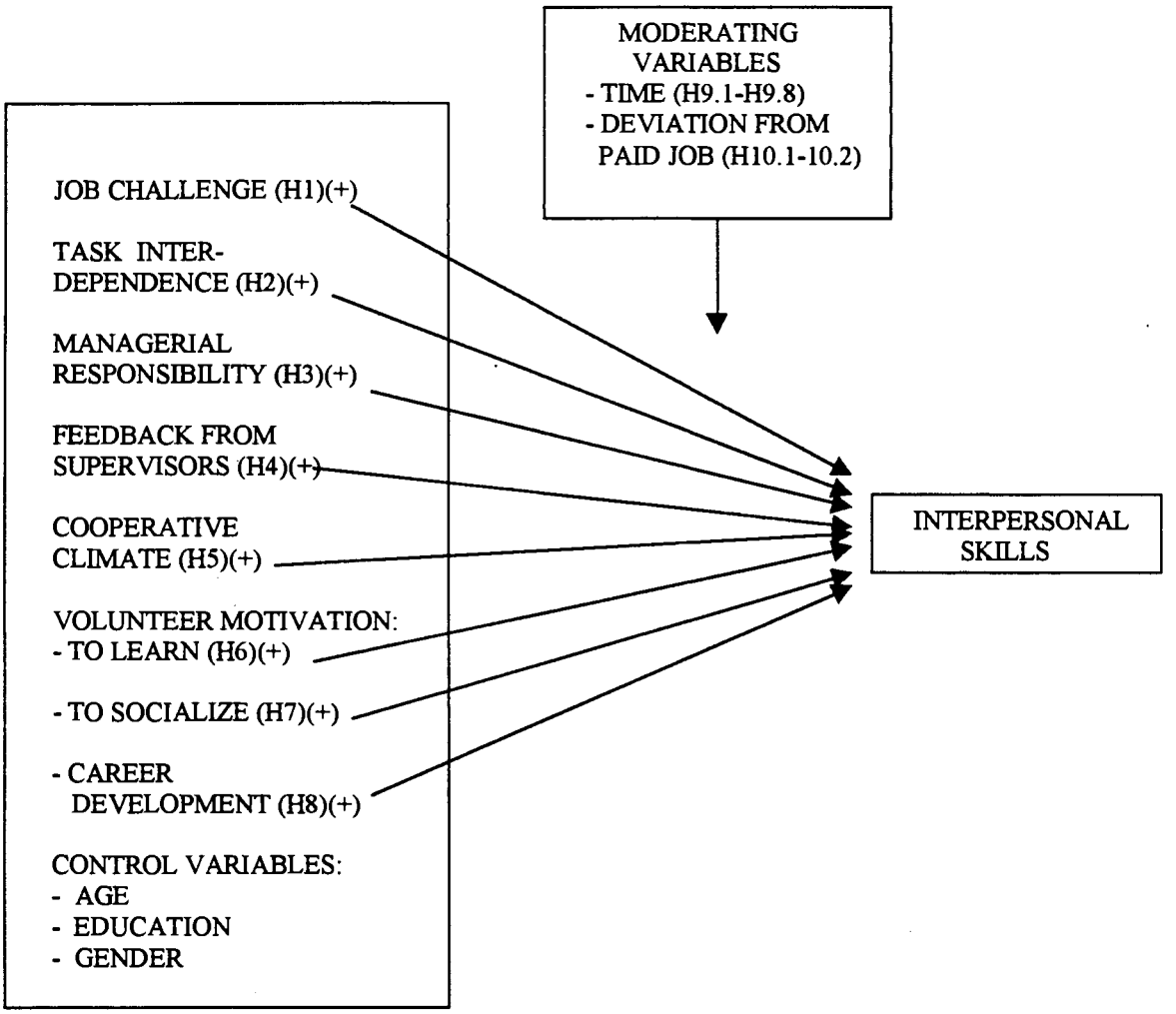

Figure 3.1 Hypotheses and research model

4. RESEARCH DESIGN

4.1 Introduction

In this chapter we shall outline and discuss methodological issues. The chapter provides a description of the research design and data collection procedures for an empirical test of the hypotheses provided in Chapter 3. In Chapter 4.2, considerations regarding the choice of overall research design are addressed. Chapter 4.3 includes discussion and description of the empirical setting. In Chapter 4.4, issues with respect to measurement are discussed. Finally, the data collection procedures are presented in Chapter 4.5.

4.2 Overall design

This discussion of research design is based on the trade off between the design's ability to test the hypotheses launched in the preceding chapter and the resources available. The hypotheses postulate relationships between different aspects of the volunteer work environment, motivational factors and generation of increased interpersonal skills. One paramount question relates to whether the hypotheses imply causal relationships or not.

The hypotheses are formulated as relations between variables, where the logic of arguments in the proposed relationships is causal. This reflects to some degree the problematic concept of causality in the social sciences. Cook and Campell (1979) suggested that three requirements must be met in order to draw truly causal inferences. These requirements are; 1) covariation between cause and effect, 2) temporal precedence of the cause, and 3) the ability to rule out alternative interpretations for possible causes and effects. Thus to test causality in social sciences, you can conduct an experimental design that allows comparison between randomly assigned experimental and control groups, spurious relationships to be controlled, and manipulation of the independent variable (Nachmias & Nachmias, 1981).

This study is not well suited for an experimental design, because we want to study relationships between constructs as they occur naturally in a special kind of context. The study of interpersonal skills as these naturally occur among volunteer workers is the main objective of the study. Furthermore, it would be very difficult to measure important motivational construct (reasons for participating in volunteer work) in an experimental design. Then, a field study stands out as the best solution for this study.

The field study was basically designed to meet two out of three core requirements for causal inference. First, the covariance between cause and effect was established through a correlation design and statistical control. Second, according to the requirement of temporal precedence of a cause, the field study was conducted with two different questionnaires: one before and one after a stimulus (a festival). This means that data about the individuals' perception of the festival was measured two times: the motivational constructs and the individual traits *before* the festival, while generation of increased interpersonal skills, job challenge, task interdependence, feedback from boss, managerial responsibility, and cooperative climate were measured *after* the festival. This implies that the temporal precedence of a cause was partly established. Because this was not an experimental design, the third criterion to rule out alternative interpretations for possible causes and effects could not be fully met. Still control variables were included in the analyses, to test the possibility that the empirically observed relationship between two variables was spurious.

To conclude this section, it is argued that a field study is the preferred design for our research questions. Even though the design does not fully meet all three requirements of causal inference, it was conducted to meet these criteria in a satisfactory way based on what is possible in a field study.

4.3 Empirical setting and sample description

The purpose of this subsection is to provide a description of the sample in this study. First, the requirement of an appropriate sample is discussed. Then volunteers at the Kongsberg Jazz Festival are introduced and discussed with reference to these requirements.

Sample requirements

As argued in Chapter 3, only a limited amount of research related to the study of interpersonal skills and volunteer workers has been reported. Furthermore, measurement instruments have not been developed and validated. Thus, a reasonable research strategy is to select one organization (case study) first, before doing a more comprehensive study of many organizations. There are three important requirements when selecting an organization for a study of volunteer workers.

The first is the requirement of *variation* in the data. Although it might be difficult in advance to judge whether there will be variation in an empirical sample or not, it is possible to plan a study which assumes variation. To ensure variation in the concepts of job challenge and task interdependence, it was important to choose an organization where the volunteers conducted dissimilar types of work. To ensure variation in feedback from supervisors and in managerial responsibility, it was important to choose an organization that had large enough number of managers. Moreover, to ensure variation in the motivation constructs, it was important to choose an organization with people who had different reasons for participating in volunteer work. To ensure variation in the cooperative climate construct, it was vital to choose an organization which comprised as many different subgroup contexts as possible. Finally, variation in the construct of interpersonal skills required a context in which we could assume that there existed the potential for increasing these skills. A heterogeneous group of volunteers in terms of volunteers with different professional and demographic backgrounds, was assumed to be a context with a potential for learning interpersonal skills through interacting with a variety of different people and observing and exchange information between volunteers with different perspectives and backgrounds.

Second, there is the question of *sample size* that is essential in relation to the applicability of various statistical analyses. According to Jaccard et al. (1990), there are a few factors that need to be addressed to determine the necessary sample size. Initially, one must specify the desired power of the statistical test. Power refers to the probability that statistical significance will be indicated when it is present (or not making a Type II error). Ideally, one should take into account the experience from previous studies when determining the appropriate power size (Kaplan, 1990). We did not have any information regarding power size based on earlier studies. Thus, common standards in the social sciences were regarded as appropriate rule-of-thumb for determining the power for the study. Following Cohen (1988), a power level of 0.80 was suggested as an appropriate power level.

Then, one needs to specify the Type I error, also known as alpha. Alpha is the probability of rejecting the null hypothesis when it is actually true, or the chance of the test showing statistically significance when it is actually not present. The alpha of the study was set to 0.05, which is a common standard in social sciences.

Next, we will discuss two other important issues related to sample size: number of independent variables in the model and the presence of moderator variables in the model. In order to estimate appropriate sample size related to number of variables, we should estimate the expected R^2 for the overall model. According to Cohen and Cohen (1983), when for example the number of independent variables are 10, you need a sample size of 100 when expected R^2 is 0.15, and a sample size of 250 when the expected R^2 are 0.06. We had little help from previous research in order to estimate R^2. If we assume that the R^2 would be between 0.06 and 0.15 approximately between 100 to 250 should be an appropriate sample size. This is based on power level of 0.80 percent and alpha = 0.05.

How will moderators effect the sample size needed to test the hypotheses? According to Jaccard, Turrisi and Wan (1990), we should estimate R^2 for the main effects model only and then estimate R^2 including the interactional effect. We expected a relatively small R^2 in the bivariate regressions. If we, for example, assume a R^2 of 0.05 for the main effects, and a R^2 of 0.10 including the interactional effect, an appropriate sample size is 143 (Jaccard et al., 1990:37) given a power of 0.80 and alpha = 0.05.

Finally, it should be noted that as a general rule the ratio of observations to independent variables should never fall below five, and that the desired level is 15 to 20 observations for each independent variable (Hair et al, 1995). Thus, in our study of eight independent variables, three control, and two moderating variables, the sample size should be at least 65 and a desired sample size between 185 and 260.

From this discussion we can conclude that there was uncertainty related to an a priori estimate of sample size. If we consider both the discussion of number of independent variables and the presence of moderating variables, the sample size should be at least 250. This assumes that there can be relatively low values of R^2 in the social sciences. Moreover, the ratio of number of observations to independent variables indicated that desired sample size was between 185 and 260. Thus, a sample size of about 250 was expected to meet main requirements discussed in the previous sections. Because we had little research to build on, the sample sizes discussed here should be considered as best guess given a power of 0.80 and an alpha of 0.05.

Third, the question of *external validity* or the extent to which the empirical results can be generalized to other empirical settings needed to be addressed. The ambition in this study was not to test the model across all the volunteers, but to conduct an initial case study to investigate interesting relationships that could later be tested in a more comprehensive survey. When conducting case studies, it is always important to be aware of the limitations related to external validity. This will be discussed more in depth in Chapter 6.

To summarize, the main requirements of the empirical setting was to ensure that the sample would meet the requirement of variation in the data. It was important to choose an organization with a variety of different jobs, sub-group contexts, and volunteers with different professional and demographic backgrounds. It was also important to ensure that the sample size allows for different statistical tests, and to achieve sufficient statistical power with a given alpha of 0.05. A sample size of about 250 was expected to meet main requirements discussed in the previous sections

The chosen sample: volunteers at the Kongsberg Jazz Festival

An organization considered being highly relevant for this study was the Kongsberg Jazz Festival - 1997, which is among the oldest and biggest jazz-festivals in Norway. It takes place during the first week of July. It 1997, it had been arranged for 33 years. The festival organization has two full-time paid workers (the head manager and an administrative employee), a management group with ten volunteers, and about 300 persons who participate as volunteers. About 30 % of the volunteers work before and after the festival, while 70 % work only during the festival. Moreover, most of the volunteers work for 7 or 8 days. The volunteers work in ten different departments, and their age is between teenage and late fifties. The portion of men and women is fairly balanced (58 % men and 42 % women), and there are volunteers who have worked for the festival for 1 year and up to 33 years.

The volunteers include both students and paid workers from the private and public sector, and they have professional experience from a variety of compensated employment. Examples of "paid work titles" among the volunteers at the Kongsberg Jazz Festival are grocery manager, engineer, economist, product manager, bartender, librarian, bank manager, nurse, doctor, geologist, teacher, lecturer, scientist, gardener, lawyer, receptionist, international manager, marketing director, child care officer, musician, and light/sound engineer. In addition, there were students from different universities and colleges.

I will now discuss how the selected organization met the sample requirements discussed in the preceding subsection.

Variation in job challenge, task interdependence, managerial responsibility, and feedback from supervisors

The variation in job challenge and task interdependence was expected to be attained through the diversity of different work contexts at the Kongsberg Jazz Festival-1997. Here follows a description of the festival organization.

The formal organization was divided into ten sub-units. These units conducted different jobs. The security group took care of tickets and security before, during, and after the concerts. This was the largest unit with 65 volunteers. Next, the technical unit with 40 volunteers was responsible for the sound and lighting during the concerts. They cooperated closely with the 26 volunteers in the «Chaos»-group who did all the manual and heavy jobs like construction and deconstruction of the scenes and festival tents. In addition, the 25 volunteers in the sales group sold tickets before and during the festival. They, in turn, cooperated with the 36 volunteers in the public relations group, who were responsible for the marketing issues related to the festival. The service/transport group was responsible for the mobility of and service to all the artists and special invited guests and sponsor groups. The 27 volunteers in this group were the main communications links between the festival organization and the artists/other invited guests. The children's festival group was responsible for arrangements for children during the festival, and was a relatively small group comprised of 10 volunteers. The smallest group was the environment group with only 4 volunteers. The festival was arranged in the center of Kongsberg, a small town with 20,000 inhabitants. The environment group was responsible for the physical environment in the town including festival banners, sponsor flags, and the number of street sales people in the festival area. The internal cafe-group was a social support group for the volunteers themselves. These 9 volunteers offered food, beverages, and maintained a cafe space, where volunteers could relax when they were not working. Finally, the 22 volunteers in the administration group worked with a variety of different tasks, such as registration of volunteers,

accreditation of media people and artists, reception services, and secretarial functions for various meetings during the festival.

The description above illustrates that the different units performed a variety of dissimilar tasks. This was expected to contribute to variation of job challenge and task interdependence. The different department also had a variety of different managers (about 20 % with managerial responsibility), with the expected variation in feedback from supervisors and managerial responsibility. Furthermore, the units varied greatly in size, from 4 to 65 volunteers. In addition, the work contexts for the different groups varied considerably. This in turn implied an expected variation in cooperative climate.

Variation in motivation

As described in the first subsection of this paragraph, the volunteers at the Kongsberg Jazz Festival had different demographic characteristics and backgrounds. They had worked for the festival between 1 year and 33 years, the age of the volunteers varied between teenagers and volunteers in their late fifties, and the gender ratio was close to 1:1. Moreover, the volunteers represented a variety of different experiences since they had dissimilar career backgrounds. Hence, we expected variation related to the motivation constructs in the study.

Potential for increased interpersonal skills

The empirical setting should include a potential for generation of increased interpersonal skills. The volunteers at the festival had a variety of different demographic characteristics and professional backgrounds. As it was argued in the preceding paragraph, a heterogeneous group of volunteers was assumed to be a context with a potential for learning interpersonal skills than would be the case in a more homogenous group of volunteers. Furthermore, the festival had a high budget and functioned in a competitive environment. The number of cultural festivals in Norway during the summer has increased over the past years, and they compete with one another about customers, sponsors, media attention, and public financial support. Consequently there

should be a pressure towards improving skills that are crucial to the ability to compete with other festivals and similar events.

Sample size

There were approximately 300 registered volunteers at the Kongsberg Jazzfestival-97. Given a reasonable high response rate, this was expected to be sufficient to enable different statistical analyses. This was close to an expected acceptable sample size of 250, given a power of 0.80 and alpha of 0.05.

Altogether, the sample of volunteers from the Kongsberg Jazz Festival-97 seemed to meet the requirement of variation through the 10 different sub-units of the festival which represent an expected variation in job challenge, task interdependence, feedback from supervisors, managerial responsibility, and cooperative climate. The volunteers also varied related to demographics and professional backgrounds, and we could expect variation in the motivation to participate as a volunteer at the festival. This was, moreover, suggested to be a context with a potential for development of interpersonal skills, as it included a heterogeneous group of volunteers in a competitive environment. Finally, a sample size of 300 volunteers was expected to be satisfactory related to the power of the statistical tests.

4.4 Measurement

The purpose of this section is to specify the development of the measurement instrument, and to present the sample of items in the questionnaires.

Procedures related to the development of the measurement instrument

The first phase of the study included semi-structured personal interviews with participants in the volunteer management group at the Kongsberg Jazz Festival. This was a group of ten volunteers who varied according to age, gender, and years as a volunteer. The main purpose of this phase was to achieve an understanding of the Kongsberg Jazz Festival as an organizational context, in order to develop questions that the volunteers would be able to and motivated to answer. Furthermore, it gave a first face validity discussion on the preliminary issues identified in the theory. The personal interviews were conducted three months before the survey. This made it possible to incorporate these responses in order to allow pre-testing of the questionnaire.

The next step was to test the first draft of the questionnaires both among other volunteers and "experts". These should be respondents who did not participate in the main survey, but who had sufficient knowledge to answer the questionnaire. Therefore, this phase was conducted with volunteers at other jazz festivals. They were able to answer the same questions because they were volunteers at a jazz festival, but did they not participate in the main survey.

First, the questionnaires were tested on a few volunteers with both managerial and non-managerial responsibility at the festival called Vossajazz. This is a festival that takes place in April every year, so there was time to implement changes in the questionnaire based on the responses. Then "experts" judged the revised questionnaire. There are a few volunteers at Døla Jazz at Lillehammer, who also work as lecturers and researchers at Lillehammer College. Two of these volunteers were asked to fill out the questionnaires as a volunteer and then give feedback both as volunteers and professional

researchers. It was assumed that both the ordinary volunteers at Vossajazz and the professional scientists who also were volunteers at a jazz festival, could give valuable feedback. Then the feedback was incorporated in the final survey instrument.

Measures

In general, the items or questions were based on a combination of general measurement instruments, measures adjusted to the festival context, and items especially tailored to this study. The main reason for this is that there are not many measurement instruments for volunteer surveys, even though there are some instruments to build on related to volunteer motivation.

INTERPERSONAL SKILLS

According to reviews by Schroeder and Rakos (1983) and Spitzberg & Cupach (1989), there are a variety of different assessment procedures of interpersonal skills, such as role-playing procedures, clinical or personal interviews, observation, co-actors judgments of actor, and actor's self-report. None of these perspectives is inherently superior, and each is subject to limitations. The most appropriate perspective depends on the purpose of the study, and the trade-offs of benefits and drawbacks associated with each technique.

Role-playing was not considered as useful here because the aim of this research is to study the development of interpersonal skills as it naturally occurs in the workplace.

Clinical or personal interviews are most commonly used in the treatment of clients with some kind of social problems, and were not considered as relevant for this study. It would also take too much time and be too costly to conduct interviews with all the volunteers at the Kongsberg Jazz Festival.

Observation or expert judge ratings of behavior is perhaps the most obvious, but not the easiest, way to assess the generation of interpersonal skills. In this study of the Kongsberg Jazz Festival, there were ten different departments and about 300 volunteers. Thus, it would have taken too much time and resources to conduct a systematic and comprehensive observational study. In addition to this, reviewed studies of reactivity of observation procedures have concluded that the presence of an observer may affect the observed behavior (Schroeder & Rakos, 1983).

An alternative to observation by a third party, is a significant other or partners evaluation of the actor. According to Spitzberg & Cupach (1989), partner reports are especially appropriate for relation-specific evaluation of interpersonal skills. Thus, a partner can be able to judge the specific relationship between the partner and actor. But when it comes to our study, the actor will probably co-act with a lot of many different actors (other volunteers, customers etc.) in a variety of different social situations. As long as we could not expect pair of volunteers to follow each other during the festival, a co-actor's evaluation would be of limited value. Then she would not be able to observe the actor in a variety of different social situations.

Thus, we chose to use self-report that is a common approach to assessing interpersonal skills. The most significant advantage if this method is that an individual has experience from and knowledge about how he or she behaves in a variety of different social situations in interaction with different people. Moreover, it is not as costly and more practical to use this method compared to many other methods. What about the validity of self-report measures of interpersonal skills compared to other measures of interpersonal or social skills? In a series of studies, Howard (1994) and his colleagues had assessed the construct validity of self-report indices of various constructs (social skills and anxiety, assertiveness, empathy etc.). They compared the validity of various non-self-report indices such as behavioral measures, role play, significant-other reports, and expert judge ratings (e.g. Cole, Howard and Maxwell, 1981; Cole, Lazarick, & Howard, 1987; Gabbard, Howard, & Dunfee, 1986; Howard, Maxwell, Weiner, Boynton, & Rooney, 1980).

In almost all cases, the construct validity coefficients of self-report were superior to the validity of coefficients of other measurement approaches. This does not mean that self-report measures do not have certain weaknesses or limitations. Examples are that the measures are biased by the individuals' need of social approval, self-perceived confidence or social self-esteem or inaccurate social perceptions (Spitzberg & Cupach, 1989). Still self-report measures show a high validity compared to other measures.

There are a variety and a large assortment of standardized self-report measurements of social or interpersonal skills. Some measurement instruments are general and focus on social skills that are not context-specific like the Social Skills Inventory (SSI, Riggio, 1986) and the Social Performance Survey Schedule (SPSS, Lowe & D'Ilio 1985). These instruments assume that interpersonal skills are consistent across different situations. Other measurement instruments are related to the specific context of behavior. One example is the scales related to schools such as the Social Scaling Rating System (SSRS, Gresham & Elliot, 1984).

Because of the variety and multitude of interpersonal skills, it was important to develop a measurement instrument that was related to a specific context. Then we could choose the types of interpersonal skills that were most relevant in this context. So far there has been no standardized measurement instrument for interpersonal skills in the workplace, so we were compelled to develop our own.

Interpersonal skills were defined in Chapter 2.2 as the ability to cooperate with others and to manage conflicts in order to achieve objectives that a person has for interacting with others. If we want to establish construct validity, it is important that there is a connection between the measurement level and the theoretical level. The more we are able to describe and limit the construct at the theoretical level, the better the chances that we will be able to establish a construct validity; e.g. to measure what we intend to measure (Kidder & Judd, 1986:50). We have restricted the content of interpersonal skills in this definition, by focusing on cooperative and conflict management skills. This implies that the content of the construct is restricted. This is consistent with the

measurement of interpersonal skills in a study of human resource management teams by Neuman & Wright (1999). Here interpersonal skills were measured by two questions in a questionnaire. The main difference is that they focused on conflict solving and communication skills, instead of conflict solving and cooperation skills.

It was learning or generation of increased interpersonal skills we intended to measure here. Ideally we should be able to develop "objective" measures of learning where we could study the difference level of interpersonal skills before and after the festival. As it has been argued in the last paragraphs, it is difficult to develop "objective" measures of interpersonal skills in a field setting and to use other methods than self-reports. The best way to develop "hard" measures of learning is under experimental conditions. Then there it possibilities to develop sophisticated tests, where subjects have time and are willing to participate in different tests. In contrast such tests is difficult to conduct in field settings, because you cannot expect volunteers to have time or to be willing to participate in such tests during a busy festival period. Consequently, it is the individuals' *perception* of change of interpersonal skills we were able to measure here.

Another challenge with our approach is that it is difficult to know when to measure the increased skills level after the festival. Should it be immediately after the festival, a week, a month or a year after the festival? As it was argued in Chapter 2., people have different learning curves and measurements at different times can give different results. Still we chose to measure increased interpersonal skills immediately after the festival, because the problem of memory or forgetting as time goes by. It was also impractical to collect data long time after the festival, because the volunteers work in a variety of different organizations and live all around the country. Consequently, the volunteers were asked about the change of interpersonal skills immediately after the festival.

Finally, Spitzberg & Cupach (1989) argues that individuals are generally focused outward on the environment and other social participants, and are not very adept at reporting about specific microscopic behaviors or details. Thus, self-report about general behavioral pattern or feeling is more likely to be valid than the self-reports of specific microscopic behaviors. This is taken into consideration when designing the specific items here.

Thus interpersonal skills are measured by the following items in the self-report questionnaire (Question 28):

We have listed different areas in which it could be possible to learn something new as a volunteer. To which degree have you learned something new during this year's festival?
If you choose 1, it means that you have learned very little. If you choose 5, it means that you have learned very much. If you choose 3, it means you have learned something.

Have you learned anything new as a volunteer related to: (Likert scale 1 to 5, 9=I do not know)

- cooperation (item 28.01)
- conflict management (item 28.03)

VOLUNTEER MOTIVATION

Volunteer motivation is among the constructs for which there have been developed multi-item instruments like the Volunteer Functions Inventory (Clary, Snyder, & Ridge, 1992). The inventory includes six motivational factors: understanding (learning), career, social[1], esteem, value, and protective. Later it has been translated and adjusted to a Norwegian context in surveys for the Norwegian Red Cross and the Volunteer Centrals (Lorentzen & Rogstad, 1994; Andersen, 1996). These measurements have shown satisfactory reliability and validity. Therefore, we built on this instrument in the development of measures for the motivation to learn and career motivation scales. Thus, item 23.01, 23.11, and 23.40 in the learning motivating scale, and all the items in the career motivation scale are items from the Volunteer Functions Inventory. Furthermore,

[1] The social dimension on the instrument refers to the social expectations about being a volunteer, and not the socializing dimension.

the motivation to learn scale were expanded with an item (item 23.22) from Kleiven's leisure motive scales (Kleiven, 1999).

The motivation to socialize is not included in the Volunteer Functions Inventory. Therefore, it was developed new items. They were based on measures of motivation to participate as a volunteer related to an event like Whistler's Men's World Cup of Skiing (Williams, Dossa, & Tompkins, 1995) and The Manawatu Rose and Garden Festival (Ryan & Bates, 1995) where to socialize is one main motivational factor. Also one item in this scale (item 23.24) was based on Kleiven's leisure motive scales labeled as "friends". The items were adjusted to a festival context.

This is the formulation of the questions related to volunteer motivation:

There might be several reasons to participate as a volunteer. We have listed many possible reasons. We want you to answer how important these reasons were to you when choosing to participate as a volunteer in the Kongsberg Jazz Festival. If you choose 1, it means that this reason was not important for you at all. If you choose 7, it means that this reason was very important for you.

The motivation to learn was defined as the degree to which the volunteer expects to learn something new. Items based on a seven point Likert scale from 1 to 7 were developed. The items are as follows:

THE LEARNING MOTIVATION SCALE

I learn how to deal with a variety of different people (item 23.01)

Volunteering lets me learn through direct experience (item 23.11)

I learn something new (item 23.22)

I experience opportunities to increase my skills (item 23.31)

As a volunteer I learn more about myself (item 23.40)

THE MOTIVATION TO SOCIALIZE SCALE

Motivation to socialize was defined as the degree to which the volunteer expects to enjoy being together with other people. The measures are as follows with a seven point Likert scale:

Volunteering makes it possible to be together with other people (item 23.04)

I enjoy cooperating with other volunteers (item 23.05)

I have the opportunity to get to know new people (item 23.24)

I get in touch with the festival visitors (item 23.25)

As a volunteer I can take part in the unique festival atmosphere (item 23.43)

THE CAREER MOTIVATION SCALE

Career motivation was defined as the degree to which a volunteer expects that being a volunteer will help her in her work career. The items are as follows based on a seven point Likert scale:

Volunteering can help me to get my foot in the door of a place
where I would like to work (item 23.07)

I can make new contacts that may advance my business or career (item 23.17)

Volunteering will help me to succeed in my profession (item 23.27)

Volunteering for this festival will look good for my resume (item 23.37)

JOB CHALLENGE AND TASK INTERDEPENDENCE

We intended to measure job challenge and task interdependence, by asking two key informants to describe and judge different aspects of the jobs in different departments. This was done because we wanted to get measures of job challenge and task interdependence that would be independent of the volunteers' own perceptions. We tried to do this by asking two volunteer managers that had worked at a variety of different departments at the Kongsberg Jazz Festival, to compare different aspects of job content in each department. They concluded that this was difficult, because within each department there was more than one type of jobs. Thus, we had to use the individual's perception of job challenge and task interdependence as measures of these constructs. Because job challenge and task interdependence do not include exactly the same but only close related dimensions in well-established measurement instruments like JDI (Hackman and Oldham, 1975), JCI (Sims, Szilagyi, & Keller, 1976), or OAI (Van de Ven and Ferry, 1980), we chose to develop our own items that are as follows:

We have a list of different statements that we want you to answer based on your experience as a volunteer for this year's festival. If you choose 1, it means that you strongly disagree with the statement. If you choose 5 it means that you strongly agree with the statement. If this question is not relevant for you, please choose 9.

Job challenge:

The problems that I have to solve as a volunteer are not very challenging (inverse;item 31.17)

Task interdependence:

I have to cooperate closely with other volunteers to do a good job (item 31.01)

MANAGERIAL RESPONSIBILITY

Managerial responsibility was measured by a question in the volunteer survey (Q7):

Do you have management responsibility for other volunteers? YES ___ NO___

If YES, how many volunteers do you have managerial responsibility for?_____

FEEDBACK FROM SUPERVISORS

Feedback from supervisors was defined as a communication process in which supervisors conveys a message to a "worker" in which they are responsible. It was measured from the volunteer workers' point if view with the following item on the questionnaire:

We have a list of different factors relating to the festival that we want you to answer based on your experience as a volunteer in this year's festival. If you choose 1, it means that you are very dissatisfied. If you choose 7 it means that you are very satisfied. If this question is not relevant for you, please choose 9.

Feedback from supervisor about how well we performed our job (Item 25.15)

COOPERATIVE CLIMATE

Cooperative climate was defined as the degree to which the work group members have a shared perception that they are able to work well together. Thus, cooperative climate should reflect the interpersonal milieu in the work group. As noted in Chapter 2, cooperative climate is not well-established as a concept in the climate literature so we had to develop our own measures. The items were generated especially for this survey, and item 25.06 was a new developed item. The two other measures were based on a review of earlier measurement instruments. More specifically, item 31.13 and item 31.16 build on items from a measurement instrument by Koys and De Cotiis (1991). Then the items in the survey were as follows:

THE COOPERATIVE CLIMATE SCALE

We have a list of different factors relating to the festival that we want you to answer based on your experience as a volunteer in this year's festival. If you choose 1, it means that you are very dissatisfied. If you choose 7 it means that you are very satisfied. If this question is not relevant for you, please choose 9.

The cooperation in your work group (Item 25.06)

We have a list of different statements that we want you to answer based on your experience as a volunteer on this year's festival. If you choose 1, it means that you strongly disagree with the statement. If you choose 5 it means that you strongly agree with the statement. If this question is not relevant for you, please choose 9.

People in my work group are friendly and helpful (Item 31.13)

I feel a sense of companionship with the other volunteers in my work group (Item 31.16)

CONTROL AND MODERATING VARIABLES

The demographics were measured in the questionnaire before the festival according to Norwegian and international standards like age (Q11), gender (Q1) and educational level (Q6) (see Appendix 1). Time spent on volunteer work was measured by asking the volunteer after the festival to estimate how many volunteering hours they worked before, during, and after the festival (Q42). Finally, deviation from the paid job was measured with a question as to whether their volunteer job is different from their paid job (Q14).

4.5 Data collection

The purpose of the following sub-section is to discuss the data collection procedures.

The main collection of data was conducted by written questionnaires to all the volunteers. The data collection from the volunteers was designed with one questionnaire before the festival to measure the volunteers' background, demographics and motivation for participating as a volunteer. Another questionnaire after the festival measured interpersonal skills, job challenge, task interdependence, feedback from supervisors, cooperative climate, and time spent on voluntary work at this particular festival.

One challenge related to data collection is whether the subjects are motivated to participate in the survey. So first our subjects had to be granted anonymity. The procedure for this was that the questionnaire before the festival was put in an enclosed and sealed envelope marked with the subjects' name. When they had answered the second questionnaire after the festival, they receive the sealed envelope with the first questionnaire. Then they opened this envelope, and put the first and the second questionnaire together in a new envelope. This new envelope was not marked with their name, and the subjects sealed the envelope containing the two questionnaires themselves. With this procedure we ensured anonymity, and were able to compare each individual's responses both before and after the festival.

Another challenge is to motivate subjects who already devote their leisure time to work as volunteers, to spend time and energy to answer two questionnaires. Especially after the festival, it was assumed that the volunteers were tired and wanted to get back home as soon as possible. Thus, it was necessary to motivate them through:

1) Participation in meetings before the festival to communicate the need for such a study, and the possible benefits for the festival based on the survey
2) Gaining support from the top management of the festival
3) Being present during the festival, so that the volunteers would remember that there was data collection going on
4) Offering some incentives (like lottery, prizes or bonuses) for the subjects who had answered the questionnaire

We had a meeting with the management group six months in advance of the festival, where we also asked for feedback about the intentions of the research project. The project also included a study of other organizational behavior issues, festival quality and customer behavior. Overall, the management group supported the study. Moreover, we presented the research project at the main meeting for all the volunteers before the festival. At this meeting, the top manager told the volunteers that he strongly supported this study. Moreover, there where 25 student from the tourism study at Lillehammer College that participated in the meeting who would collect the data from the volunteers during the festival. They were trained in advance in research methodology at Lillehammer College. Because the ordinary festival T-shirt was black, each student wore a green T-shirts with the festival logo printed on it. This meant that the students were easy to recognize at the festival, thus implying that the volunteers were reminded about the data collection. Finally, the volunteers that had answered the two questionnaires received an extra beverage after the festival and participated in a lottery with two CD's and two T-shirts sponsored by the festival management group.

4.6 Concluding comments

In this chapter methodological issues related to the research project have been discussed. It was argued that a field study on the Kongsberg Jazz Festival-97 would be an appropriate research setting to test the hypotheses provided in Chapter 3. A volunteer survey with a questionnaire both before and after the festival was conducted, and 25 students at Lillehammer College participated in the data collection. It should be noted that we have only presented the design requirements and the chosen research design, and only briefly discussed the limitations and weaknesses related to methodology in our study. These will be discussed in more depth in the final chapter.

5. EMPIRICAL ANALYSIS

5.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the analyses conducted in the study are presented. First, a report of descriptive statistics and discussion of the treatment of missing data is provided. Second, the validation of the measures applied is discussed. Third, the bivariate correlations are inspected followed by tests of hypotheses. Finally, a summary of the main findings in the study is presented.

5.2 Final sample and descriptive statistics

The starting point of the analyses is an inspection of the data. This section will first discuss the sample including the treatment of missing data. Next, descriptive statistics of the variables included in the study are presented and discussed.

Sample description

We expected a sample size of approximately 300 volunteers. The register of volunteers at the Kongsberg Jazz Festival included about 300 persons. Every 5th year a volunteer does not have work at the festival, and is offered free tickets to the festival. The volunteer registration system includes no information about those not working every year. This implies that the exact size of the sample of volunteers that worked on the festival in 1997 is unknown.

We designed a data collection procedure to ensure that all the volunteers that worked on this festival would fill out the before-questionnaire (see Chapter 4.5). We received 278 questionnaires from volunteers before the festival, and this seemed to be a very high response rate of volunteers who were working at the Kongsberg Jazz Festival-97. Then we received 242 questionnaires after the festival. This implies that 85 % of the

volunteers answered both the before and after questionnaires. Because many of the volunteers do not live in Kongsberg, it is reasonable to assume that some of them had already departed when we collected the data after the festival.

A two-step procedure was chosen for the treatment of missing data. First, cases that did not meet certain criteria were excluded from the analyses. Three persons were paid workers, and therefore excluded from the sample. Also, we wanted volunteers that were 16 years or older based on the fact that the questionnaires were designed for, and pre-tested, on adults. Furthermore, the hypotheses includes relationships between variables measured by both the before and after questionnaires. Thus, volunteers who did not respond to both questionnaires were excluded from the sample. Finally, we excluded respondents who had a very high missing rate on the variables in our study. Ten volunteers had not answered any of the motivational questions, and three volunteers had answered less than half of the questions in our analyses.

Table 5.1 provides an overview of the excluded cases in the study.

Table 5.1 Sample and procedures for missing data.

Original sample (volunteers participating on this festival)	N = 278
Paid workers	n = 3
Respondents age < 16 years	n = 8
Unanswered the "after"-questionnaire	n = 36
Did not answer any motivational questions at the "before" questionnaire	n = 10
Answered less than half of the motivational questions/ unanswered IPS and partly JCH/SOSCL	n = 3
Final sample	N = 218

Because the procedure for deleting cases was not done at random, it was important to avoid any "hidden" bias in the deleting process (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1995:43). Thus, units with missing values should not be substantially different from units with complete information. In Table 5.2 we have compared important characteristics of the final sample with the original sample.

Table 5.2 Characteristics of the final and original sample

	All sample		*Final sample*	
	N	In %	N	In %
DEPARTMENTS	278	100.0 %	218	100.0 %
"Adm."	22	7.9 %	17	7.8 %
"Barnival"	12	4.3 %	9	4.1 %
"Chaos"	30	10.8 %	23	10.6 %
"PR"	37	13.3 %	29	13.3 %
"Service/transp."	28	10.1 %	23	10.6 %
"Sale"	26	9.4 %	21	9.6 %
"Technical"	43	15.5 %	30	13.8 %
"Security"	65	23.4 %	53	24.3 %
"Environment"	6	2.2 %	6	2.8 %
"Internal cafe"	9	3.2 %	7	3.2 %
GENDER	278	100.0 %	218	100.0 %
Men	164	59.0 %	125	57.3 %
Women	114	41.0 %	93	42.7 %
AGE	278	100.0 %	218	100.0 %
> 16	8	2.9 %	0	0.0 %
16-17	10	3.6 %	8	3.7 %
18-24	84	30.2 %	61	28.0 %
25-34	76	27.3 %	63	28.9 %
35-44	60	21.6 %	55	25.2 %
45-54	26	9.4 %	20	9.2 %
55-64	7	2.5 %	5	2.3 %
Missing	7	2.5 %	6	2.8 %
EDUCATION	278	100.0 %	218	100.0 %
7-9 years	20	7.2 %	11	5.0 %
10-12 years	91	32.7 %	68	31.2 %
Univ. (1-4 y.)	120	43.2 %	104	47.7 %
Univ. (5-7 y.)	36	12.9 %	32	14.7 %
Missing	11	4.0 %	3	1.4 %

Table 5.2 Characteristics of the final and original sample (cont.)

	All sample		*Final sample*	
	N	In %	N	In %
MANAGERIAL RESP.	278	100.0 %	218	100.0 %
Yes	49	17.6 %	43	19.7 %
No	221	79.5 %	173	79.4 %
Missing	8	2.9 %	2	0.9 %
HOURS VOLUNTEER WORK	Mean hours		Mean hours	
Before the festival	210		196	
During the festival	236		218	
After the festival	198		184	
Total	534		498	

As we can see from Table 5.2, there is little difference between the two samples related to the distributions of gender, age, educational level, departments, managerial responsibility, and number of mean hours of work before, during, and after the festival. Even though it is difficult to fully understand the process behind the missing data, we can conclude that the two samples do not deviate much from each other with respect to important characteristics.

The number of missing data in the final sample is small, with between 206 and 218 responses to each question (see Table 5.3). Still it would imply many lost cases in the forthcoming multiple regression when all the variables are included in the analyses. The reason for this is that multiple regression requires list-wise deletion as the preferred method for treatment of missing values (Norusis, 1997:450). Examination of the missing data patterns and a test of whether the missing data are completely random were computed (MCAR-test with a Chisquare = 630.48; df = 632; Prob. = 0.51). Because there are no significant differences between the pattern of missing data of all variables and the pattern expected for a random missing process, we have indications that the missing data were randomly distributed. This makes it possible to use different imputation methods to replace missing data. The missing data here were replaced by the mean value of the variable (mean substitution)[1]. Even though these imputation methods have certain disadvantages (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1995:49), the amount of missing data here is so small that it should not cause substantial problems in

[1] Examples of other estimation methods are EM (expectation-maximization) and regression method (in SPSS). We also tried to use both those methods on the data, and these gave very small deviations from the mean method. The main reason for this is that the number of missing data is very small in the final sample.

the analyses. In fact, out of 28 questions in the analyses, 8 had no missing values and 13 questions had between 1 and 3 missing values. However due to the relatively small sample size, it was considered important to "save" the few missing values in the final sample.

Variable description

Descriptive statistics of the data in the final sample are presented in Table 5.3.

Table 5.3 Descriptive statistics

	N[2]	Min.	Max.	Mean	Std-dev.	Skew-ness	Kurtosis
Interpersonal Skills							
V28.01	209	1	5	2.98	0.97	-0.18	-0.51
V28.03	206	1	5	2.77	1.12	0.07	-0.33
Job Challenge[3]							
31.17	211	1	5	3.72	1.06	-0.79	0.08
Task Interdependence							
V31.01	216	1	5	4.26	0.83	-1.21	1.75
Managerial Responsibility V07	216	1	2	1.80	0.40	-1.52	0.31
Feedback From Supervisor							
V25.15	208	1	7	4.68	1.56	-0.33	-0.63
Cooperative climate							
V25.06	215	1	5	3.94	1.00	-0.50	-0.78
V31.13	216	1	5	4.38	0.68	-1.00	1.78
V31.16	218	1	5	4.06	0.85	-0.80	0.46
Mlearn							
V23.01	216	1	7	4.37	1.79	-0.31	-0.71
V23.11	216	1	7	3.98	1.82	-0.18	-0.96
V23.22	218	1	7	4.95	1.79	-0.71	-0.32
V23.31	218	1	7	4.23	1.78	-0.27	-0.83
V23.40	217	1	7	3.30	1.75	0.27	-0.87
Msocial							
V23.04	216	1	7	5.41	1.46	-0.92	0.48
V23.05	217	1	7	5.48	1.36	-0.81	0.26
V23.24	218	1	7	5.00	1.39	-0.54	0.16
V23.35	218	1	7	4.24	1.66	-0.17	-0.75
V23.43	215	1	7	5.62	1.52	-1.11	0.78

[2] Min, max, std.dev., skewness, and kurtosis is based on N = 218 after missing value substitution except from DFPJ (N = 143) and Managerial Responsibility (N = 216).
[3] Reversed item that has been recoded.

Table 5.3 Descriptive statistics (cont.)

	N	Min.	Max.	Mean	Std.-dev.	Skew-ness	Kurtosis
Mcareer							
V23.07	216	1	7	2.49	1.83	1.07	-0.03
V23.17	218	1	7	2.44	1.72	1.06	0.09
V23.27	216	1	7	2.67	1.78	0.83	-0.45
V23.37[4]	218	1	7	1.84	1.35	1.72	2.45
Moderating variables							
Time (V42)	215	10	610	68.17	69.23	3.77	21.55
Logtime (V42)	215	1	2.79	1.70	0.33	0.40	0.14
DFPJ (V14)	143	1	5	2.06	1.20	0.89	-0.20
Control variables							
Age (V11)	212	1	5	2.19	1.05	0.55	-0.41
Education (V6)	216	1	6	1.43	0.50	0.30	0.59
Gender (V1)	218	1	2	1.43	0.50	0.30	-1.93

Violation of normality in multiple regression analyses may lead to unreliable overall model fit as well as standard error for the parameters (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988). Normality can be checked by inspecting skewness and kurtosis. Kurtosis refers to the "flatness" of the distribution, while skewness is a measure of the symmetry of the distribution (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1995:35). In a normal distribution, the values of skewness and kurtosis are zero. Based on a review of findings regarding non-normality and consequences with respect to model fit, Kaplan (1990) suggested that skewness and kurtosis values exceeding 1 in absolute value should be treated with caution for moderately sized samples such as the current one. It should be noted that with respect to skewness, this value is well-established, while the critical value for kurtosis it is not equally well-established.

Except for a few items, skewness and kurtosis did not seem to create significant problems in the sample. The few problematic items with high values on skewness and/or kurtosis will be discussed in the following section. One item in the career development motivation construct (V23.37) that had a high value for both skewness (-1.72) and kurtosis (2.45). We also conducted an analysis of the missing pattern of the data, and it showed that this item has a very high rate of extreme values (n = 27) related to other variables. Thus, V23.37 was deleted from further analyses.

The measure of task interdependence (V31.01) was another item with a high skewness (-1.21) and kurtosis (1.75). However, it did not have a large number of extreme cases (n= 8). It was also the only measure of task interdependence, so it was not excluded in the further analyses. But because of the problematic construct validity of single-item measures and the non-normal distribution, it should be treated with caution in the further analyses.

On item in the cooperative climate construct (V31.13) was an item that might be problematic (skewness = -1.00; kurtosis =1.78). It was on the "cutting point" with regard to skewness. However, the item could not be deleted without causing construct validity problems. It was also less problematic because it is a part of a scale. In general, scales will have better normality properties, since the specific problems concerning single items will to a great extent be ruled out when brought into scales.

Time was the most problematic item when it came to deviation from normality (skewness = 3.77; kurtosis = 21.55). It is a single item of the target variable, and should not be excluded from the analyses. Hamilton (1992:17) suggests power transformation as a tool to reduce skewness. Because of the high values of skewness and kurtosis (positively skewness), we chose a logarithm transformation which gave a much better distribution (skewness = 0.40; kurtosis = 0.14). Thus, it is important to note that "logtime" and not "time" was used in the forthcoming analyses.

Next, a few items had a satisfactory kurtosis, but a skewness close to -1 or 1 (Msocial-V23.43 with skewness = -1.11 and kurtosis = 0.78; Mcareer-V23.07 with skewness = 1.07 and kurtosis = -0.03; Mcareer- V23.17 with skewness = 1.06 and kurtosis = -0.09). These variables had a skewness that is very close to the absolute value of 1, and are all part of parcels. Furthermore, the kurtosis of these variables was satisfactory. Therefore, these items were not excluded or transformed.

To conclude this section, the procedures for treatment of missing data were discussed. From a sample of 278 that answered the "before"-questionnaire, the final sample in the analyses was 218. Then based on descriptive statistics of the sample, one item was deleted from further analyses.

5.3 Scale development

In this section we will discuss the development of the constructs based on multi-item measures. More specifically our main focus is on reliability, discriminant and convergent validity.

Factor analysis and estimation of reliability

Factor analysis is often used as a first step to construct scales (Carmines & Zeller, 1979:59). First, each of the multi-item constructs was factor analyzed with principal component extraction. We did not limit the number of factors in the analyses. Each analysis extracted only one factor. Coefficient alpha, a reliability measure based on Cronbach's coefficient of internal consistency (Cronbach, 1951), was also calculated. The results of these analyses are reported in Table 5.4.

Table 5.4 Factor analyses and reliability assessment

	Factor loadings	Commu-nality	Variance explained	Eigen-value	Inter-item corr.[1]	Cronbach's Alpha[2]
Interpersonal skills			75.7 %	1.513		**0.673**
V28.01	0.870	0.757			0.513	.
V28.03	0.870	0.757			0.513	.
Coop. climate			63.1 %	1.893		**0.686**
V25.06	0.763	0.583			0.479	0.653
V31.13	0.833	0.594			0.577	0.542
V31.16	0.785	0.617			0.493	0.602
Mlearn			57.9 %	2.88		**0.815**
V23.01	0.713	0.509			0.560	0.791
V23.11	0.764	0.583			0.605	0.778
V23.22	0.812	0.659			0.664	0.760
V23.31	0.812	0.660			0.663	0.760
V23.40	0.684	0.468			0.527	0.801
Msocial			59.01 %	2.95		**0.819**
V23.04	0.823	0.678			0.678	0.764
V23.05	0.809	0.655			0.665	0.770
V23.24	0.781	0.610			0.643	0.776
V23.35	0.657	0.432			0.499	0.822
V23.43	0.759	0.576			0.600	0.787
Mcareer			77.3 %	2.32		**0.853**
V23.07	0.894	0.799			0.749	0.769
V23.17	0.882	0.777			0.728	0.791
V23.27	0.861	0.742			0.695	0.821

[1] Corrected item-scale correlation for items.
[2] Cronbach's alpha for the scale, for each item, the alpha for the scale minus item *i*.

Table 5.4 shows factor loadings (the correlation between the original variable and the factor) and communalities (the amount of variance that an original variable shares with all other variables in the analysis) that are quite high for all the constructs. Furthermore, all the factors have eigenvalues exceeding 1 (amount of variance accounted for by a factor). The value of Cronbach's alpha is also high for the motivational constructs (Mlearn = 0.815; Msocial = 0.819; Mcareer = 0.852). In contrast to this, the alpha is lower for cooperative climate (0.686) and interpersonal skills (0.673). There are different views as to what is an acceptable level for Cronbach's alpha. One example is The British Psychological Society's Committee on Test Standard, which suggests that 0.70 might be acceptable. According to Loewenthal (1996), given a small number of items one may consider lowering the criterion to approximately 0.60. Cooperative climate and interpersonal skills have only three and two items in the scale, respectively, and that is one explanation for the relatively low alpha. Yet alpha is close to 0.70 for both of the constructs, and we consider this to be satisfactory based on the small numbers of items in the scale.

Factor analyses and Cronbach's alpha indicates whether indicators in a scale reflect one dimension (convergent validity). In order to study the discriminant validity or whether the indicators intended to measure different constructs diverge from each other, a multitrait analyses was conducted. The MAP-program (Multitrait Analyses Program) was used to analyze the items-scale correlations (Hays et al.,1988). This program produces a multitrait/multi-item matrix, where each row of the matrix contains correlations between the scores of one item and all hypothesized item groupings (constructs defined by scales). Each column contains correlations between the scores of one scale and all items in the analyses, including those hypothesized to be a part of the scale and those hypothesized not to be a part of the scale (Hays et al., 1988). Item convergent validity is supported if an item correlates substantially (corr. > .30) with the scale it is hypothesized to represent (internal consistency). Item discriminant validity is supported if the highest correlation in a row of the MTMI matrix lies between the item and the scale the construct it is hypothesized to measure. More specifically, the correlation between an item and its hypothesized scale should be more than two standard errors higher than its correlation with other scales. The MTMI matrix is presented in Table 5.5.

Table 5.5 The multitrait/multi-item matrix (MTMI) of the items in the different hypothesized constructs (N = 218)

ITEM	MEAN	SD	IPSKIL	COOP	MLAER	MSOC	MCAR	TOTAL
V28.01	2.98	.96	.52*	.16	.44	.22	.25	.45*
V28.03	2.77	1.12	.52*	.06	.37	.28	.16	.39*
V25.06	3.94	1.00	.10	.48*	.12	.07	.06	.16*
V31.13	4.39	.68	.06	.57*	.14	.18	.02	.21*
V31.16	4.06	.85	.12	.49*	.18	.25	-.01	.24*
V23.01	4.37	1.78	.38	.14	.56*	.52	.24	.61*
V23.11	3.98	1.82	.35	.18	.61*	.32	.43	.60*
V23.22	4.95	1.78	.34	.16	.66*	.41	.25	.60*
V23.31	4.23	1.78	.36	.11	.66*	.37	.45	.65*
V23.40	3.30	1.75	.33	.11	.53*	.46	.18	.53*
V23.04	5.41	1.46	.23	.15	.43	.68*	.06	.50*
V23.05	5.48	1.36	.23	.26	.44	.66*	.14	.55*
V23.24	5.00	1.38	.27	.18	.54	.64*	.18	.61*
V23.35	4.24	1.65	.24	.03	.38	.50*	.07	.41*
V23.43	5.62	1.51	.14	.17	.33	.60*	.01	.41*
V23.07	2.49	1.83	.21	.03	.34	.10	.75*	.42*
V23.17	2.44	1.72	.19	-.01	.36	.06	.73*	.40*
V23.27	2.67	1.78	.21	.06	.38	.14	.69*	.45*

* = pearson item-scale correlations corrected for autocorrelation

In Table 5.5 all the corrected correlations in a row exceed 0.30, and this supports the convergent validity of the items. If we investigate the columns, we see that V23.01, V23.40, V23.04, V23.05, V23.24, and V23.35 load highly on two constructs. Thus, some measures of motivation to learn and motivation to socialize overlap each other. The MAP-program also reports whether an item loads significantly higher (2), higher (1), lower (-1), or significantly lower (-2) on the hypothesized construct related to other constructs. Here only items that load significantly higher on the hypothesized construct related to other constructs will be used, to ensure the discriminant validity of the items. The MTMI matrix of these values shows that V23.01, V23.40, V23.24, and V23.35 load higher ("probable scaling failure") and not significantly higher on the hypothesized construct related to other constructs. Thus, these items were deleted from further analyses, and not included in the index construction.

The convergent and discriminant validity of the final sample of items is reported in Table 5.6.

Table 5.6 Item convergent and discriminant validity

ITEM	IPSKILL	COOP	MLAER	MSOC	MCAR	CAlpha	CAlpha (10)
IPSKILL						.68	.91
V28.01	.52*	.16	.44	.22	.25		
V28.03	.52*	.06	.29	.24	.16		
COOP						.68	.88
V25.06	.10	.48*	.12	.07	.06		
V31.13	.06	.57*	.14	.20	.02		
V31.16	.12	.49*	.17	.30	-.01		
MLEARN						.81	.94
V23.11	.35	.18	.60*	.28	.43		
V23.22	.34	.16	.68*	.36	.25		
V23.31	.36	.11	.72*	.32	.45		
MSOC						.80	.93
V23.04	.23	.15	.31	.65*	.06		
V23.05	.23	.26	.36	.69*	.14		
V23.25	.14	.17	.29	.61*	.01		
MCAR						.85	.95
V23.07	.21	.03	.38	.07	.75*		
V23.17	.19	-.01	.40	.03	.73*		
V23.27	.21	.06	.40	.11	.69*		

CAlpha = Cronbach's alpha
CAlpha(10) = Cronbach's alpha estimated for a 10-item scale

All the items in Table 5.6 load significantly higher on the hypothesized construct related to other constructs, and show a satisfactory discriminant validity. Furthermore, the motivational constructs show high internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha >.80), while interpersonal skills and cooperative climate have a reasonably high internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha = .68) based on the few items in the scales. Based on this analysis of convergent and discriminant validity, items were constructed based on the items and hypothesized constructs in Table 5.6.

Before concluding this section, we should discuss the appropriate level of measurement for cooperative climate in the further analyses. At first we had intended to measure cooperative climate as the mean of the perceptions of all the volunteers at each department minus the individual's own perception. We studied empirically whether there were significant differences between the mean scores in different departments. According to Patterson, Payne, and West's findings (1996), we should find significant differences between the mean scores of different departments if there is a collective climate at the department level. We conducted an ANOVA-analyses of cooperative

climate, and found that there was no significant difference between the mean scores of different departments (F=1.915; Sig. F = .051). Because the analysis is close to being significant at .05-level, we also conducted interviews with key informants about whether there was more than one informal group within each department. With the exception of the small departments (children's festival group, environment group, and internal cafe), key informants concluded that there is a variety of different sub-groups within the other department that consist of 17 to 53 members that work during different times of the festival. Based on both the empirical analyses and information from the key informants, we could not assume one common climate at the department level of analysis. Thus, we chose to use each individual's perception as a measure of cooperative climate.

Finally, we investigated the distribution properties of the constructs in Table 5.6. This is reported in Table 5.7.

Table 5.7 Descriptive statistics of multi-item constructs in the study

	N	Mean	Std. dev.	Skewness	Kurtosis
IPSKILL	218	2.875	0.909	-.155	-.095
COOP. CLIMATE	218	4.128	0.662	-.648	.349
MLEARN	218	4.387	1.534	-.489	-.459
MSOCIAL	218	5.502	1.224	-.833	.085
MCAREER	218	2.532	1.562	.933	-.094

The skewness and kurtosis of the construct in Table 5.7 are less than 1. Even though career development motivation and motivation to socialize has a skewness close to 1, we can conclude that the distribution of the constructed indexes is satisfactory.

Moreover, it is interesting that the mean value of interpersonal skills is 2.875. The scale of IPS ranges from 1 (learned very little) to 5 (learned very much), with a median of 3 (learned something). Hence, the volunteers at Kongsberg Jazzfestival scored close to the median, implying that they to some degree have increased their interpersonal skills.

5.4 Bivariate correlations

Bivariate correlations are used to inspect nomological validity (whether the variables behave as expected), and to create a preliminary picture of the hypothesized relationships. The bivariate correlations are reported in Table 5.8 at the next page. We will merely comment on the overall picture of the relationship here, because a more detailed analysis will be introduced in the next section based on regression analyses.

First, we must decide what is the appropriate significance level (alpha) or the chance of error we are willing to risk in rejecting the null hypothesis when it is actually true. The alpha of the study will be 0.05 or lower, which is a common standard in social sciences (Cohen, 1988).

As we can see from the correlation matrix, all the correlations go in the "right" direction related to the main effect hypotheses (h1 to h8). More specifically, the correlation between interpersonal skills and job challenge, feedback from supervisors, motivation to learn, motivation to socialize, and motivation for career development are significant at the 0.01 level, while cooperative climate are significant at the 0.05 level. Moreover, the correlation between interpersonal skills and the moderating variables deviation from paid job and logtime are significant at the 0.05 level, while the correlation between the control variable age and interpersonal skills is significant at the 0.01 level.

Furthermore, it is interesting to note other strong correlations in the matrix. There is a strong and significant negative correlation between deviation from paid job (DFPJ) and motivation for career development ($r = -0.496$). This implies that the more the volunteer job differs from the paid job, the less important the motivation of career development. In other words, those who work with tasks that are much the same as their paid job (like volunteers in the sales department working with marketing in their paid job) also think that career development is an important reason to participate as a volunteer. One possible explanation of this is that when a volunteer job has a great deal in common with the paid job, it would be possible to gain new experiences that is relevant to their paid job. They also have the possibility of meeting new people who may be useful in furthering their career.

Table 5.8 Bivariate correlations (N = 218)

	IPSKILL	JCHAL	INTERD	FEEDB	MANAG	COOP	MLEAR	MSOC	MCAR	LTIME	AGE	DFPJ	EDUC	GEND.
IPSKILL	1.000													
JCHAL	.212**	1.000												
INTERD	.130	.290**	1.000											
FEEDB	.206**	.195**	.090	1.000										
MANAG	.072	.100	.052	.103	1.000									
COOP	.143*	.326**	.242**	.303**	-.022	1.000								
MLEARN	.409**	.096	.063	.099	-.016	.192**	1.000							
MSOCIAL	.232**	.147*	.199**	.076	.169*	.249**	.377**	1.000						
MCAREER	.234**	.030	-.070	.033	.005	.033	.444**	.080	1.000					
LOGTIME	.143*	.206**	.272**	.049	.339**	.105	.096	.085	.060	1.000				
AGE	-.177**	.093	.233**	.048	.201**	.030	-.227**	.021	-.296**	.135*	1.000			
DFPJ	-.166*	-.150	-.102	-.019	-.020	-.140	-.253**	-.017	-.496**	-.217**	.119	1.000		
EDUC	-.127	.139*	.129	-.066	.107	-.105	-.167*	.004	-.201**	.056	.295**	-.152	1.000	
GENDER	-.020	-.135*	.060	-.035	.101	.004	-.202**	-.200**	-,023	.065	.032	-.057	-.028	1.000

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (two-tailed).
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (two-tailed).

Furthermore, the correlations between motivation to learn and motivation to socialize ($r = 0.377$) and motivation for career development ($r = 0.444$) are very strong. In the last paragraph we studied the convergent and discriminant validity of these concepts, which was revealed as being satisfactory. But we might have a problem of multicollinearity among the motivational construct in the model. Mulitcollinearity is descriptive of a situation with high correlation between independent variables, and can affect the significant test in the forthcoming regression analyses. It is possible to conduct a test of collinearity by using SPSS. If any values of tolerance are small (less than 0.1), multicollinearity might be a problem (Norusis, 1997:58). The tolerance values for the variables in our study are .64 or higher, so multicollinearity is not likely to cause severe problems for the analyses (see next paragraph).

In conclusion, the correlation matrix indicates that the overall pattern describing the data is as expected.

5.5 Hypotheses testing

The purpose of this paragraph is to test the hypotheses outlined in Chapter 3. This will be done in the following way. First, the regression assumptions will be inspected. Then multiple regression will be applied to test the main effects. Finally, the interaction effects will be analyzed.

5.5.1 Regression assumptions

Numerous assumptions are made whenever regression analyses are conducted, such as the Gauss-Markov assumptions (Berry, 1993:12). Therefore, it is important to inspect and discuss whether our data violate important regression assumptions. Thus before we conducted the regression analyses, we inspected main regression assumptions.

One basic assumption is that the relationship between the independent and dependent variable must be linear within the population (Norusis, 1997:399). First, the plots of each independent and dependent variable, and the plots of the studentized residuals against standardized predicted values, were observed (Norusis, 1997: 430). Due to the limited number of observations, it was sometimes difficult to observe whether the pattern deviated much from linearity. Thus, a statistical test of linearity was computed in SPSS that calculate the goodness if fit of a linear model. The results of these analyses show that most of the tests of linearity are significant at the 0.05-level. Two exceptions are task interdependence (Sig. F = .055) and education (Sig. F = .061). Still they are close to a significant linear model, and are considered as satisfactory. All in all we can conclude that the assumption of linearity is satisfactorily met in the model.

Second, the distributions of the residuals should be approximately normal. First, histogram and Q-Q plot were produced for each residual. From these displays one can judge the shape of the distribution of the residuals as well as the identification of outlying values. The shape of the distributions and the Q-Q plots looked satisfactory. In addition, a statistical test of normality was conducted in SPSS (a Kolmogorov-Smirnov test). This test indicated a satisfactory distribution for all variables, even though the standarized residuals of motivation to learn were on the lower bound of the true significance related to normality.

Third, homoscedasticity or a situation in which that the variance of the error term should be the same for all of the values of the independent variables, is another important assumption. Thus, the residuals should show no pattern when plotted against the predicted values. To check this one can plot the studentized residuals against the predicted values (Norusis, 1997:428). Even though the residuals were not perfectly constant across all values of the independent variable, they did not show any clear pattern in the sense that the variance increased or decreased with predicted values of the dependent variable. Thus, it seemed that systematic variability of the residuals was not a severe problem in the data.

Finally, multicollinearity which states that a variable is a linear combination of the other independent variables, can be a problem in multiple regression. It can affect the significance tests of regression coefficients. When there is a problem of multicollinenarity t-statistics tends to be very small (Berry, 1993). A tolerance test was performed (Norusis, 1997:458) with tolerance all values $\geq .64$, indicating that multicollinearity was not a problem in our data .

Altogether we can conclude that the main regression assumptions were not violated and that the proposed effects can then be analyzed based on regression analyses.

5.5.2 Multiple regression analyses

We conducted a multiple regression analyses in order to test the main hypotheses (H_1-H_8) in the study. Multiple regression makes it possible to analyze the partial effects of several independent variables, controlling for the effect of the other independent variables. These partial effects are often dissimilar to bivariate effects because independent variables included in a given specification are often correlated with each other and share covariation with the dependent variable. Furthermore, the bivariate correlations between deviation from paid job, time, and interpersonal skills were significant in our correlation matrix. Therefore, we included the moderating variables as control variables in the multiple regression analyses.

Furthermore, it was conducted two different regression analyses; one not including the variable "Deviation from paid job" and one including it. The main reasons for this we was that "Deviation from paid job" concerns only those volunteers who have a paid job (n=142). Because it is recommended to use listwise deletion in multiple regression, we would have lost 72 persons (students/non-employed/housewives) from our sample by including the variable "Deviation from paid job". The results of the multiple regression for the whole sample are presented in Table 5.9.

Table 5.9 Multiple regression analysis of interpersonal skills (n = 216)

	N = 216	B	Se. B	Beta	t	Sig. t
Method: enter						
CONSTANT		.84	55		1.53	.127
JOB CHALLENGE		.13	.06	.16	2.27	.025*
TASK INTERDEPENDENCE		.08	.08	.07	1.02	.308
MANAGERIAL RESPONSIBILITY		.08	.16	.04	.52	.607
FEEDBACK FROM SUPERVISORS		.08	.04	.15	2.24	.026*
COOPERATIVE CLIMATE		-.07	.10	-.05	-.70	.484
MLEARN		.18	.05	.31	4.07	.000***
MSOCIALIZE		.07	.05	.09	1.24	.218
MCAREER		.02	.04	.03	.40	.690
LOGTIME		.15	.19	.05	.78	.436
AGE		-.12	.06	-.14	-2.03	.044*
EDUCATION		-.07	.08	-.06	-0.89	.374
GENDER		.15	.12	.08	1.22	.222
R^2	.256					
Adj. R^2	.212					
F	5.830					
Sig. F	.000					

* = $p \leq 0.05$; ** = $p \leq 0.01$; *** = $p \leq 0.001$

B = unstandarized regression coefficient, Se. B: the standard error of B, Beta= standardized regression coefficient, t = Student's t-statistics, Significant t: the probability value of t (two-tailed), R^2 = proportion of variation explained by the model, F = overall regression F-test.

The model is significant with an F-value of 5.83 (Sig. F < .001). The coefficient of determination indicates that the overall model explains 25.6 per cent of the variance of the generation of interpersonal skills (R^2 = 0.256). Thus, the model has a reasonably high explanation power. In the next paragraph the results will be discussed related to each hypotheses in the study.

JOB CHALLENGE

H_1, which predicted that job challenge is positively related to the generation of increased interpersonal skills among volunteers, is supported in the multiple regression analyses ($t = 2.27$, $p \leq .05$). It was suggested that when a volunteer has a challenging job, she would be confronted with new job situations and a need for cooperating with others to solve new problems. This was expected to increase the individuals interpersonal experiences (learning from practice), learning by modeling and learning by information exchange. The result from the data analyses is consistent with previous research on job content in general which suggests that job content is a main contextual factors when it comes to explaining informal learning (see Hall & Fukami, 1979; Marsick & Watkins, 1990; Noe & Ford, 1992; Purser & Pasmore, 1992; Tesluk & Jacobs, 1998).

Because job content is a multi-dimensional construct, we should look for studies that study the relationship between *job challenge* and learning. McCauley et al. (1994) investigated the effects of challenges provided in different work situations on learning. Their research, having managers as the unit of study, identified how the amount of challenge provided in different work situations motivated development and promoted learning. This supports our finding here. If we include closely related concepts to job challenge such as variety and uncertainty, Kozlowski and Farr (1988) found some support for a relationship between the amount of variation, degree of uncertainty, and performance. Engineers holding jobs that were high in these characteristics were more positively rated by their supervisors. Nevertheless, this study has limited relevance in our context because its dependent variable was performance and not learning or increased skills, and the independent variables were job variety/uncertainty and not job challenge.

Despite that the variables is not exactly the same, these empirical studies altogether support our finding that job challenge is positively related to the generation of increased interpersonal skills.

TASK INTERDEPENDENCE

On the other hand H_2, which implied that task interdependence is positively related to the generation of increased interpersonal skills among volunteers, is not supported. What can be possible explanations of this result? Even though task interdependence is expected to increase the amount of interaction between volunteers, it does not indicate anything about the content or quality of the interaction itself. Thus, one possible explanation for this result is that the volunteers may cooperate in executing the same tasks (routine tasks), and therefore do not need to exchange information when interacting with each other. Hence, although they work together performing tasks, they might not need to actively cooperate and exchange information with each other.

Another possible explanation is that even though volunteers work much together on tasks, they may not perceive the volunteers that they cooperate with as relevant role models. Then they will not learn through modeling.

We can conclude that the content or quality of the interaction between the volunteers may explain why H_2 is not supported. Thus, we need to study the content of the interaction between the volunteers to be able to fully understand why H_2 is not supported.

MANAGERIAL RESPONSIBILITY

H_3, which predicted that managerial responsibility is positively related to the generation of increased interpersonal skills among volunteers, is not supported. It was expected that volunteers with managerial responsibility (of a total sample of 218 volunteers, 43 volunteers or approximately 20 % held managerial responsibility) would gain more experience in relating to different kind of people than volunteers that did not have such a responsibility. This was expected to imply a potential of interpersonal skill acquisition through a variety of different social experiences (learning from practice), learning by modeling and learning by information exchange.

One plausible explanation of the lack of support for H_3, is that it might be little difference between ordinary volunteer jobs and managerial volunteer jobs with respect to interaction with others. We do not have any data on amount (how much time) and variation (number of different people each volunteer interact with) of the interaction of all the volunteers. Therefore we cannot analyze whether there is a difference between volunteers with managerial responsibility and other volunteers related to this issue. Thus, based on our data we cannot conclude why H_3 is not supported. It would be interesting to include data on the interaction pattern in later research projects, and to study whether and if so how volunteer jobs without managerial responsibility differ from volunteer jobs with such a responsibility.

FEEDBACK FROM SUPERVISORS

As can be seen, H_4 which predicted that feedback from supervisors is positively related to the generation of increased interpersonal skills among volunteers, is supported ($t = 2.24$, $p \leq .05$). If we compare this with other research on feedback, there are many theoretical frameworks that argue that promotion of feedback from the supervisors is essential. When it comes to empirical contributions that explicitly focus on feedback and learning in the workplace, they are few. But if we define learning as performance improvement, the number of empirical studies increase. In a meta-analysis of the effects of feedback intervention of performance, it was found that these interventions on average improved performance but that over 1/3 of the feedback interventions decreased performance (Kluger & DeNisi, 1996). Thus, there was mixed but overall support for the hypothesis that feedback intervention improved performance.

If we focus exclusively on feedback from supervisors, the degree of status and power that an individual holds is likely to be related to the potential of that individual's behavior to serve as a role model (Sims & Lorenzi, 1992:149). Therefore there is a potential for learning through modeling on the basis of the supervisor as a role model. Moreover, in a study of the way in which the employee perceived the role of feedback from the supervisor, showed that people believed that the supervisor provided the best information on what should be done (Greller & Herold, 1975).

Even though the reported studies do not investigate exactly the same independent and dependent variables as in our study, the overall picture is that these studies support our finding that feedback from supervisors is positively related to the generation of increased interpersonal skills.

COOPERATIVE CLIMATE

H_5 which implied that cooperative climate is positively related to the generation of increased interpersonal skills among volunteers, is not supported. Actually, the relationship is very weak but negative. Even though it was expected that volunteers working in a context with a cooperative climate would spend more time communicating with each other and perceive each other as relevant role models, the variable does not indicate anything about the quality of the communication between the group members. In this context it is relevant to draw attention to the phenomenon of *groupthink*, as introduced by Janis (1972) in his study of foreign-policy decisions made by the Kennedy and Johnson administrations. Close relations between the management group members, constituted one important explanation of groupthink, and its important effects were the pressure towards conformity and lack of criticism toward the group's performance. Thus, cooperative climate might also imply that group members hold back information which they expect to be perceived as "negative" by other members. Consequently, the members cannot learn from negative feedback about their interpersonal behavior from others, which limits the development of interpersonal skills based on information exchange. Hence, even though cooperative climate may increases the interaction between volunteers, this may not increase the information exchange between them.

MOTIVATION TO LEARN

H_6, which stated that motivation to learn is positively related to the generation of increased interpersonal skills among volunteers, is strongly supported ($t = 4.07$, $p \leq .001$). It was suggested that individuals that participates as a volunteer because she expects to learn something new, will be aware of the possibility of learning from other persons' behavior (learning by modeling) and will initiate information exchange with co-workers (learning by information exchange).

To learn as a reason to participate as a volunteer, is actually the single most important factor with regard to the development of interpersonal skills. This is an interesting result, because results from earlier research have been mixed. There are older empirical studies of the relationship between motivation to learn and learning that supports our finding. Hicks (1984) and Ryman & Biesner (1975) found that learning motivation is positively related to learning and program completion. We should be aware though, that these studies focus on motivation to learn in general and not volunteer motivation to learn. Consequently, they are not directly comparable with our study.

It is probably relevant to compare our result with studies of the relationship between pre-training motivation (reason to participate in the training program) and learning outcomes. These studies are considered as especially interesting, because just as volunteer motivation, they also focus on reasons to participate in an activity (training). Noe and Schmidt (1986) studied the effect of ability, motivation, and environmental favorability on training outcomes. However, no significant correlations were obtained between motivation to learn (pre-training motivation) and learning outcomes. Furthermore, Tannenbaum, Mathieu, Salas, and Cannon-Bowers (1991) studied recruitment in the US Navy, and reported a negative relationship between pre-training motivation and post-training performance. In contrast to this, Marthoccio and Webster (1992) found that post-training test performance was significantly predicted by the pre-training motivation to learn. It is clear from this review that the evidence to date about the effect of pre-training motivation to learn on subsequent learning is mixed.

Even though we cannot compare those empirical studies directly with our study because none of them focuses on volunteer motivation, the studies of pre-training motivation are considered as especially relevant. It is interesting then that our study receive very strong empirical support as to the relationship between motivation to learn and leaning outcome (IPS), whereas the results from pre-training motivation for subsequent learning is mixed. It might be that the decision to participate as a volunteer is experienced as a more "free" choice than participation in a training program. When individuals say that they participate in a training program because they want to learn, it might be that an underlying reason stems from career development or expectations from the organization.

To conclude, we find some support for our finding. Because there is little research on volunteer motivation and learning outcomes, there is a clear need to follow-up our study in other volunteer organizations. Then we can see if the pattern of strong support for the relationship between motivation to learn and development of new skills, will be obtained again.

MOTIVATION TO SOCIALIZE

The analysis renders no support for H_7, which stated that the motivation to socialize is positively related to the generation of increased interpersonal skills among volunteers.
One possible explanation for the lack of support for H_7 is much the same as that for cooperative climate. It was expected that individuals who want to be volunteers because they intend to socialize with other volunteers, spend more time communicating with other volunteers. But if individuals are volunteers because they want to be together with others, they may want to have a good time mingling with other people and do not want to criticize other volunteers. Thus, the motivation to socialize might imply that group members withhold information they expect will be perceived as "negative" by other members. Then the members cannot learn from critical feedback about each others' interpersonal behavior, which limits the development of interpersonal skills based on information exchange.

CAREER DEVELOPMENT MOTIVATION

Finally, H_8 which predicted that career development motivation is positively related to the generation of increased interpersonal skills among volunteers, is not supported. Actually, this was the single independent variable in the study that had the lowest effect on the generation of increased IPS. It was expected that volunteers with high career motivation would try to make new contacts and develop their informal network with other volunteers and customers who might be able to help them in their career development. They were therefore expected to initiate social contact with other persons and a potential for learning by observing others and by information exchange.

A possible explanation of the lack of support of H_8 is that volunteers with high career motivation did not meet many other volunteers or customers at the festival that they perceived beneficial in their career development. Then they would not have a stronger motivation for interacting with other volunteers or customers at the festival than volunteers with low career motivation. In addition, in the context of interaction at this particular festival, conversation may have been such that it would seem incongruent to talk about career-related subjects.

CONTROL VARIABLES: TIME, AGE, EDUCATION AND GENDER

In this section a short comment the results of the included control variables in the multiple regression will be provided.

Time, or the number of hours spent at this festival, does not have a significant effect on IPS. This result indicates that qualitative and not quantitative aspects of the job seem to be most important related to the generation of increased interpersonal skills in our sample. We should notice though, that the variation in time spent on volunteer work is limited in this study since we focused on volunteer work during one festival (min. time = 10 hours; max. time = 610 hours). Thus, if we studied volunteers working more and during a longer period of time, it might be that time would have a significant effect on the generation of IPS.

Age is the only control variable, that has a significant effect on the generation of increased interpersonal skills ($t = -2.03$, $p \leq .05$). Thus, older volunteers report that they develop less interpersonal skills than younger volunteers [1]. How can we account for this?

As it was argued in Chapter 3.5, there may be many factors like environmental, biomedical, cognitive, and psychological factors that can influence learning and memory (Stems & Doverspike, 1989). More specifically, Hoyer and Lincourt (1998) found in their review of aging and development of learning that there are age-related declines in the general processing speed (of information) and in the efficiency of associative learning. Moreover, in a study of junior managers they found a negative relationship between age and learning score (Warr and Bunce, 1995). It should be noted though, that the results of research on the relationship between age on learning are quite mixed. There are even researchers that argue that the age of the learner may have no significant influence on improved performance (Poon, Krauss, and Bowles, 1984).

Another possible explanation of our finding is that older volunteers probably have had a variety of experiences related to different social settings (paid work and leisure time). Consequently they are not confronted with many novel social situations when volunteering. Particularly in this setting as a volunteer at the Kongsberg Jazzfestival, many older volunteers have participated for a considerable number of years (some of them as long as 33 years). Actually, the correlation between age and years of experience at the Kongsberg Jazzfestival is .58. Due to this, there may be less potential for learning through new social experiences for older volunteers compared to younger volunteers.

An explanation can also be found in human capital theory. The "hard core " of human capital research, is the idea that people spend on themselves in diverse ways, not only for the sake of present enjoyment but also for the sake of future pecuniary and non-pecuniary returns (Blaug, 1980:255). Older volunteers might expect that they will receive less pay-off for their investment in developing new skills compared to younger volunteers, simply

[1] It should be noted, that age were grouped in intervals of "18-24 years", "25-34 years", "35-44 years", "45-54 years" and "55-64 years". Then the number of respondents in the oldest group are only five volunteers or 2,3 % of the sample, so this result is based on a small sample.

volunteers are not willing to invest as much effort as younger volunteers to increase their skills.

To conclude this discussion it is important to note that age *per se* is not considered as the main explanation for the negative relationship between age and the generation of increased interpersonal skills. The fact that older volunteers have more interpersonal experience in different social setting, combined with lower expected payoff in their investment in developing new skills, should be considered as plausible explanations of this finding. Because our data do not allow us to clearly understand why there is a negative relationship between age and IPS, it would interesting to follow up this study. Interviews with older volunteers would probably generate valuable knowledge about this issue.

In addition, **education** does not have a significant effect on the generation of increased interpersonal skills (IPS). It was included as a control variable because studies have indicated that educational qualifications may be a proxy measure for mental ability, which is known to be strongly correlated with learning attainment (Hunter & Hunter, 1984; Tannenbaum et al., 1991). Even though the educational level provide some indication of a person's previous experience and motivation for learning, interpersonal skills are an example of skills that are learned outside the classroom and the formal educational system. Thus, interpersonal experiences at different social arenas or personal traits might be more important than formal education with regard to the potential of developing interpersonal skills.

Finally, **gender** does not have a significant effect on IPS. It was included as a control variable based on psychoanalytical theory (Chodorow, 1989). It suggest that boys differ from their mothers and develop an independent and autonomous identity, while girls tend to stay longer in a symbiosis with their mother and develop a more relation-oriented identity. This different background for boys and girls may imply differences with regard to the development of interpersonal skills later in life. In our study it seems that men and women do not differ significantly in their ability to generate interpersonal skills when acting as a volunteer.

Stepwise regression

Next, we conducted a multiple regression analysis using the stepwise method, to study how much of the variance is accounted for by the main independent variables in the study. This method for selecting variables for inclusion in the model starts with selecting the best predictors of the dependent variable. Additional independent variables are selected in terms of incremental explanatory power they can add to the regression model. Independent variables are added as long as their partial correlation coefficients are statistically significant. Independent variables may also be dropped if their predictive power drops to a non-significant level. The result of the analyses is presented in Table 5.10.

Table 5.10 Multiple regression analysis of interpersonal skills (n = 216); stepwise method

N = 216	B	Se. B	Beta	t	Sig. t
Method: stepwise					
CONSTANT	1.28	.30		4.29	.000
MLEARN	.21	.04	.35	5.53	.000***
JOB CHALLENGE	.14	.05	.16	2.63	.009**
FEEDBACK FROM SUPERVISORS	.08	.04	.14	2.32	.021*
AGE	-.11	.05	-.12	-1.99	.048*
R^2 .228					
Adj. R^2 .213					
F 15.54					
Sig. F .000					

* = $p \leq 0.05$; ** = $p \leq 0.01$; *** = $p \leq 0.001$

B = unstandardized regression coefficient, Se. B: the standard error of B, Beta= standardized regression coefficient, t = Student's t-statistics, Significant t: the probability value of t (two-tailed), R^2 = proportion of variation explained by the model, F = overall regression F-test.

As expected, the same variables as those that were statistically significant based on the enter method in Table 5.9, are included in the final model. Thus, motivation to learn, job challenge, feedback from supervisors, and age are included in the model. While the full model including all the independent variables in the study accounts for 25.6 % of the variance (R^2 = .256), the adjusted model based on four main independent variables accounts for 22.8 % of the variance of IPS (R^2 = .228). Thus, when including only the main independent variable, the amount of variance decreases with only 2.8 %. This implies that the model with only four independent variables to a high degree explain the variation of increased interpersonal skills.

Moreover, if we modify the coefficient of determination (R^2) and take into account the number of variables included in the regression equation, we get the adjusted coefficient of determination (Adj. R^2). If we compare those coefficients, the Adj. R^2 for the total model is .212 while the Adj. R^2 for the model based on the stepwise method is .213. Thus, the two models have a reasonably equal explanation power when we account for the number of variables in the equation.

Multiple regression including "Deviation from paid job"

Finally, we conducted a multiple regression analysis in which "Deviation form paid job" (DFPJ) was included in the analysis. As argued in the last paragraph, the moderating variables time and DFPJ correlated significantly with IPS in the correlation matrix and were considered to be relevant to include them as control variable. "Deviation from paid job" concerns only those volunteers who have a paid job (n=142). Consequently 72 individuals (students/non-employed/housewives) would have been lost from our sample by including the variable "Deviation from paid job" in the multiple regression. Therefore we conducted a separate analysis including this variable. The results of this analysis are presented in Table 5.11.

Table 5.11 Multiple Regression Analysis of Interpersonal Skills (n = 142)

N = 142	B	Se. B	Beta	t	Sig. t
Method: enter					
CONSTANT	.03	.74		.04	.968
JOB CHALLENGE	.22	.08	.24	2.88	.005**
TASK INTERDEPENDENCE	.09	.09	.08	.96	.338
MANAGERIAL RESPONSIBILITY	.12	.18	.05	.64	.524
FEEDBACK FROM SUPERVISORS	.07	.05	.12	1.56	.122
COOPERATIVE CLIMATE	-.07	.12	-.05	-.61	.543
MLEARN	.17	.06	.29	3.07	.003**
MSOCIALIZE	.05	.07	.06	.70	.485
MCAREER	.10	.07	.15	1.53	.128
LOGTIME	.32	.25	.11	1.30	.198
AGE	-.14	.08	-.16	-1.94	.055
DEVIATION FROM PAID JOB	-.04	.07	-.05	-.61	.546
EDUCATION	.07	.10	.01	.17	.865
GENDER	.30	.15	.16	2.00	.053
R^2	.313				
Adj. R^2	.243				
F-value	4.489				
Sig. F	.000				

* = $p \leq 0.05$; ** = $p \leq 0.01$; *** = $p \leq 0.001$

B = unstandarized regression coefficient, Se. B: the standard error of B, Beta= standardized regression coefficient, t = Student's t-statistics, Significant t: the probability value of t (two-tailed), R^2 = proportion of variation explained by the model, F = overall regression F-test.

As we can see from Table 5.11, the model is significant with an F-value of 4.49 (Sig. F < .001). The coefficient of determination indicates that the overall model explains 31.3 per cent of the variance of the generation of interpersonal skills (R^2 =.313). Thus, the model has a higher explanation power of 5.7 % compared to the regression analyses including all the volunteers.

In general, there is just small differences between the results for those volunteers that have a paid job (n= 142) and the whole sample. Some minor differences are that the effect of age is a little smaller and is no longer significant, and that the effect of gender and career motivation has increased. Job challenge and motivation to learn are still significant, while the rest of the relationships are not significant.

It is interesting that the relationship between job challenge and increased interpersonal skills is among the relationships that has changed most and increased for those that have a paid job compared to the whole sample ($t=2.88$, $p \leq .01$). Most of those that do not have paid jobs were students (n = 61), while the rest of them were non-employed or housewives (n = 11). It may be that those that have paid jobs are more used to and confident with discussing job issues with others in their paid job, compared to those without a paid job. Consequently, volunteers without paid jobs may to a higher degree try to solve the problems in a challenging job alone compared to volunteers with paid jobs. Then there is less potential for learning from new social experiences, learning from modeling, and learning from information exchange.

Moreover, feedback from supervisors is significant for the whole sample, but not significant for only those that have a paid job. In other words, when those that do not have paid jobs are excluded from the sample, the effect of feedback from supervisors is somewhat smaller. Ilgen et al.(1979) have emphasized the different way feedback is perceived, the acceptance by the recipient, and the willingness of the recipients to respond to the feedback. Hence, one possible reason for this result is that students/non-employed/housewives to a higher degree accept and learn from the feedback they get from their volunteer supervisors related to those that have paid job. It might be that students/non-employed/housewives to a higher degree perceive their volunteer supervisors as individuals with a higher degree of status and prestige compared to those in paid job. In accordance to this, the need for uncertainty reduction is another possible explanation (Saks & Ashford, 1997). Those that do not have paid jobs are probably less experienced in work contexts in general, and might experience more uncertainty as a volunteer compared to volunteers that have such experiences from their paid job. Thus, volunteers with non-paid jobs might be more open to learn from the supervisors in order to reduce uncertainty.

5.5.3 Interaction effects

Finally, we will analyze the hypothesized interaction effects in our model ($H_{9.1\text{-}9.8}$, $H_{10.1\text{-}10.2}$). More specifically, time and deviation from paid job were hypothesized to moderate the effects between the independent variables and interpersonal skills.

Three methods have been widely used when testing for interaction or modification effects: (1) median split analyses, (2) moderator median split analyses, and (3) product term analyses (Jaccard, Turrisi, &Wan, 1990). As recommended by Cohen and Cohen (1983), we chose the last method for our analyses. The first step is to investigate whether an interaction effect is present, and the strength of that effect. If the independent variable is denoted as *x*, the moderator as *z*, and the dependent variable as *y*, *y* is regressed on x, z, and xz. An interaction effect is indicated by the significant effect of *xz* while *x* and *z* are controlled. Furthermore, Cronbach (1987) suggests that the variables should be centered prior to forming the interaction term as a means of addressing the problem of multicollinearity in interaction analyses. Thus, because multiplicative terms can introduce a high level of multicollinearity, we chose to center the variables in the interaction analyses.

Jaccard et al. (1990) argue that the t test is not sufficient with regard to concluding statistical interactions, because the product terms in the regression equation typically are correlated with their constituent parts. Therefore, we will use a hierarchical test recommended by Cohen and Cohen (1983). This test includes comparing the R^2 value for the regression equation involving the multiplicative term with the R^2 value based on the regression equation not including the multiplicative term. If an interaction effect is present, then the difference between the two R^2 values should be statistically significant (Jaccard, Turrisi, &Wan, 1990: 21). The results of the interaction analyses are presented in Table 5.12.a-5.12.g.

Table 5.12.a Regression analysis: Job challenge on interpersonal skills with two different interactions (centered data)

	N	B	Se. B	Beta	t	Sig. t	R^2
Model 1.1:	218						.055
CONSTANT		2.287	.060		47.827	.000	
JOB CHALLENGE		.163	.058	.191	2.815	.005	
LOGTIME		.290	.188	.104	1.537	.126	
Model 1.2:	218						.062
CONSTANT		2.899	.061		47.278	.000	
JOB CHALLENGE		.174	.059	.203	2.983	.003**	
LOGTIME		.262	.190	.094	1.380	.105	
JOBCH * LOGTIME		-.192	.159	-.081	-1.207	.229	
Change in R^2 F-value = 1.43							.007
Model 2.1:							.084
CONSTANT	143	2.843	.075		37.692	.000	
JOB CHALLENGE		.223	.076	.240	2.932	.004**	
DFPJ		-.101	.064	.130	1.588	.115	
Model 2.2:							.085
CONSTANT		2.848	.076		37.273	.000	
JOB CHALLENGE		.222	.076	.239	2.915	.004**	
DFPJ		.107	.065	.137	1.638	.104	
JOBCH * DFPJ		-.026	.059	-.036	-.434	.665	
Change in R^2 F value = .26							.001

* = $p \leq 0.05$; ** = $p \leq 0.01$; *** = $p \leq 0.001$

B = unstandarized regression coefficient, Se. B: the standard error of B, Beta= standardized regression coefficient, t = Student's t-statistics, Significant t: the probability value of t (two-tailed), R^2 = proportion of variation explained by the model, F-value = hierarchical multiple regression test.

As we can see from Table 5.12.a, there is no significant interaction effect between job challenge and time spent on volunteer work during the festival on increased interpersonal skills. Moreover, the interaction effect between job challenge and deviation from paid job on interpersonal skills is very small. It is actually the least interaction effect of all the studied interactions. Thus, $H_{9.1}$ and $H_{10.1}$ are not supported.

Table 5.12.b Regression analysis: Task interdependence on interpersonal skills with two different interactions (centered data)

	N	B	Se. B	Beta	t	Sig.t	R^2
Model 1.1:	218						.030
CONSTANT		2.875	.061		47.186	.000	
TASK INTERDEP. (TI)		.108	.077	.099	1.411	.160	
LOGTIME		.324	.194	.117	1.670	.096	
Model 1.2:	218						.045
CONSTANT		2.854	.063		45.160	.000	
TASK INTERDEP. (TI)		.125	.077	.113	1.624	.106	
LOGTIME		.319	.193	.114	1.694	.101	
TI * LOGTIME		.439	.235	.126	1.871	.063	
Change in R^2							.015
F value = 3.54							
Model 2.1:							.055
CONSTANT	143	2.841	.077		36.867	.000	
TASK INTERDEP. (TI)		.192	.095	.167	2.020	.045*	
DFPJ		-.116	.064	-.149	1.804	.073	
Model 2.1:							.071
CONSTANT		2.859	.078		36.878	.000	
JOB CHALLENGE		.164	.096	.142	1.702	.091	
TASK INTERDEP. (TI)		.151	.068	.193	2.224	.028*	
TI * DFPJ		-.151	.097	-.136	-1.559	.121	
Change in R^2							.016
F-value = 2.40							

* = $p \leq 0.05$; ** = $p \leq 0.01$; *** = $p \leq 0.001$

B = unstandarized regression coefficient, Se. B: the standard error of B, Beta= standardized regression coefficient, t = Student's t-statistics, Significant t: the probability value of t (two-tailed), R^2 = proportion of variation explained by the model, F-value = hierarchical multiple regression test.

There is a relatively strong but not significant interaction effect between task interdependence and time spent on volunteer work during the festival on interpersonal skills. Even though this is the strongest interaction effect reported in our data analyses, given an alpha level of 0.05, neither the t-test nor the F-test are statistically significant. Furthermore, the interaction effect between task interdependence and deviation from paid job is not significant. We can thus conclude that $H_{9.2}$ and $H_{10.2}$ are not supported.

Table 5.12.c Regression analysis: Managerial responsibility on interpersonal skills with one interaction (centered data)

	N	B	Se. B	Beta	t	Sig. t	R^2
Model 1.1:	218						.019
CONSTANT		2.870	.062		46.596	.000	
MANAG. RESP. (MR)		.065	.169	.029	.397	.692	
LOGTIME		.354	.201	.136	1.764	.079	
Model 1.2:	218						.034
CONSTANT		2.837	.064		44.241	.000	
MANAG. RESP. (MR)		-.031	.172	-.013	-.077	.859	
LOGTIME		.253	.209	.091	1.216	.226	
MR *LOGTIME		.753	.423	.136	1.777	.077	
Change in R^2							.015
F-value = 3.06							

* = $p \leq 0.05$; ** = $p \leq 0.01$; *** = $p \leq 0.001$

B = unstandarized regression coefficient, Se. B: the standard error of B, Beta= standardized regression coefficient, t = Student's t-statistics, Significant t: the probability value of t (two-tailed), R^2 = proportion of variation explained by the model, F-value = hierarchical multiple regression test.

$H_{9.3}$, which predicted that there is an interaction effect between managerial responsibility and time spent at volunteer work during the festival on increased interpersonal skills, is not supported in the study. Even though the multiplicative term indicates a positive relationship, neither the t-test nor the F-test are significant.

Moreover, as we can see from Table 5.12.d below, the interaction effect between feedback from supervisors, and time spent at volunteer work during the festival on increased interpersonal skills, is very small. The expanded model including the interaction only increases the explained variance with 0.2 %, compared to the model not including the interaction. Clearly, $H_{9.4}$ is not supported.

Table 5.12.d Regression analysis: Feedback from supervisors on interpersonal skills with one interaction (centered data)

	N	B	Se. B	Beta	t	Sig. t	R^2
Model 1.1:	218						.060
CONSTANT		2.875	.060		47.949	.000	
FEEDBACK		.116	.039	.199	3.006	.003**	
LOGTIME		.371	.184	.134	2.017	.045*	
Model 1.2:	218						.062
CONSTANT		2.877	.060		47.867	.000	
FEEDBACK		.116	.039	.200	3.016	.003**	
LOGTIME		.735	.184	.134	2.016	.045*	
FEEDBACK *LOG TIME		-.078	.113	-.046	-.689	.492	
Change in R^2							.002
F-value = .46							

* = $p \leq 0.05$; ** = $p \leq 0.01$; *** = $p \leq 0.001$

B = unstandarized regression coefficient, Se. B: the standard error of B, Beta= standardized regression coefficient, t = Student's t-statistics, Significant t: the probability value of t (two-tailed), R^2 = proportion of variation explained by the model, F-value = hierarchical multiple regression test.

Even though Table 5.12.e reports an stronger interaction effect than feedback from supervisors, the interaction of cooperative climate, and time spent at volunteer work during the festival on increased interpersonal skills, is not significant. Thus, $H_{9.5}$ is not supported.

Table 5.12.e Regression analysis: Cooperative climate on interpersonal skills with one interaction (centered data)

	N	B	Se. B	Beta	t	Sig. t	R^2
Model 1.1:	218						.037
CONSTANT		2.875	.061		47.371	.000	
COOP. CLIMATE		.178	.092	.129	1.922	.056	
LOGTIME		.361	.187	.130	1.929	.055	
Model 1.2:	218						.043
CONSTANT		2.822	.061		47.257	.000	
COOP. CLIMATE		.166	.093	.121	1.784	.076	
LOGTIME		.337	.188	.121	1.799	.075	
COOP * LOGTIME		-.316	.282	-.076	-1.118	.265	
Change in R^2							.006
F-value = 1.25							

* = $p \leq 0.05$; ** = $p \leq 0.01$; *** = $p \leq 0.001$

B = unstandarized regression coefficient, Se. B: the standard error of B, Beta= standardized regression coefficient, t = Student's t-statistics, Significant t: the probability value of t (two-tailed), R^2 = proportion of variation explained by the model, F-value = hierarchical multiple regression test.

As we can see from table 5.12.f, the interaction effect between motivation to learn, and time spent at volunteer work during the festival on increased interpersonal skills, is indeed very small. The expanded model including the interaction only increases the explained variance with 0.2 %. Thus, clearly $H_{9.6}$ is not supported

Table 5.12.f Regression analysis: Motivation to learn on interpersonal skills with one interaction (centered data)

	N	B	Se. B	Beta	t	Sig. t	R^2
Model 1.1:	218						.178
CONSTANT		2.875	.056		51.287	.000	
MLEARN		0.237	.037	.399	6.430	.000***	
LOGTIME		0.292	.173	.105	1.692	.092	
Model 1.2:	218						.180
CONSTANT		2.878	.056		51.010	.000	
MLEARN		.236	.037	.398	6.400	.000***	
LOGTIME		.289	.173	.104	1.688	.097	
MLEARN *LOG TIME		-.050	.111	-.029	-0.475	.635	
Change in R^2							.002
F-value = .44							

* = $p \leq 0.05$; ** = $p \leq 0.01$; *** = $p \leq 0.001$

B = unstandarized regression coefficient, Se. B: the standard error of B, Beta= standardized regression coefficient, t = Student's t-statistics, Significant t: the probability value of t (two-tailed), R^2 = proportion of variation explained by the model, F-value = hierarchical multiple regression test.

The interaction between motivation to socialize, and time spent at volunteer work during the festival on increased interpersonal skills, is stronger compared to motivation to learn. But as we can see from Table 5.12.g, it is still not significant. Thus, $H_{9.7}$ is not supported.

Table 5.12.g Regression analysis: Motivation to socialize on interpersonal skills with one interaction (centered data)

	N	B	Se. B	Beta	t	Sig. t	R^2
Model 1.1:	218						.069
CONSTANT		2.875	.060		48.177	.000	
MSOCIAL		.164	.049	.221	3.347	.001***	
LOGTIME		.347	.184	.125	1.886	.061	
Model 1.2:	218						.081
CONSTANT		2.868	.060		48.108	.000	
MSOCIAL		.161	.049	.216	3.286	.001***	
LOGTIME		.375	.184	.135	2.040	.043*	
MSOCIAL * LOGTIME		.214	.131	.108	1.632	.104	
Change in R^2							.012
F-value = 2.67							

* = $p \leq 0.05$; ** = $p \leq 0.01$; *** = $p \leq 0.001$

B = unstandarized regression coefficient, Se. B: the standard error of B, Beta= standardized regression coefficient, t = Student's t-statistics, Significant t: the probability value of t (two-tailed), R^2 = proportion of variation explained by the model, F-value = hierarchical multiple regression test.

Finally, the interaction effect of career development motivation and time spent at volunteer work during the festival on increased interpersonal skills, is relatively small and not significant. Thus, $H_{9.8}$ is not supported.

Table 5.12.h Regression analysis: Career development motivation on interpersonal skills with one interaction (centered data)

	N	B	Se. B	Beta	t	Sig. t	R^2
Model 1.1:	218						.072
CONSTANT		2.875	.060		48.243	.000	
MCAREER		.132	.038	.226	3.439	.001***	
LOGTIME		.361	.183	.130	1.971	.050*	
Model 1.2:	218						.079
CONSTANT		2.879	.060		48.311	.000	
MCAREER		.132	.038	.226	3.432	.001***	
LOGTIME		.379	.183	.136	2.065	.040*	
MCAR * LOGTIME		-.138	.108	-.084	-1.279	.202	
Change in R^2							.005
F-value = 1.66							

* = $p \leq 0.05$; ** = $p \leq 0.01$; *** = $p \leq 0.001$

B = unstandarized regression coefficient, Se. B: the standard error of B, Beta= standardized regression coefficient, t = Student's t-statistics, Significant t: the probability value of t (two-tailed), R^2 = proportion of variation explained by the model, F-value = hierarchical multiple regression test.

The reported analyses in Table 5.12.a - Table 5.12.h indicate that there are no significant interaction effects in our data. What are possible explanations of these results?

One obvious explanation is that there are no such effects, and that the arguments underlying the hypotheses do not hold true. First, in the hypotheses it was suggested that the more time spent on volunteer work, the stronger the effect of all the independent variables on increased interpersonal skills. It was expected that there would simply be more time available for the person to learn based on the volunteer job experiences. This was based basically on Tesluk and Jacobs' (1998) integrated theoretical framework for the study of work experience which suggests an interaction effect between the qualitative and quantitative components of work experience. There have been no reports empirically from this framework yet, and as such the support for the hypothesis is not very strong from earlier empirical research. Another possible explanation might be that time in this study is limited to work during one festival, and for most of the volunteers restricted to one week. Perhaps this period of time is a too short to give significant interaction effects. Thus, it would be interesting to study volunteers during a longer period of time, to see if we then find interaction effects.

Second, it was also suggested that deviation from paid job would moderate the effects between job challenge, task interdependence and increased interpersonal skills. Even though the interaction effect of task interdependence is much stronger that the interaction effect of job challenge, none of them are significant. In the hypotheses it was assumed that the potential for learning from the volunteer job experience would be greater when the volunteer job was different from the paid job, than when the paid job and the volunteer job were similar. It was assumed that the volunteer would face new work experiences and therefore have a better potential for learning, when the volunteer job differed from the paid job. These arguments did not build on earlier empirical research, therefore the arguments in the hypotheses have sparse support from earlier studies. Thus, it might be that the explanations in our hypotheses are not viable.

Finally, a plausible explanation of the lack of support is that finding empirical support for interaction effects is a well-known problem in the social sciences (Blalock, 1979). There are a variety of challenges related to interaction analyses. First, it is the problem of multicollinearity. We have centered the data as a mean of addressing this problem. Another possible explanation of lack of statistical support, is the limited number of respondents in our sample (n=218) and the small R^2 in the study. In general, the smaller the R^2 in the two equations not including (1) and including the interaction term (2), the lower will be the statistical power. Then a greater sample size is needed to achieve statistical significant relationships. Thus, if we had a larger sample size some of the interaction might be significant. One example is the interaction effect between task interdependence and time spent on volunteer work on increased interpersonal skills. Here R^2 (1) is 0.030 while R^2 (2) is 0.045. If we compare this with a table of the approximately sizes necessary for achieving power of 0.80 for alpha = 0.05, for squared multiple Rs of 0.03 (1) and 0.05 (2), the requisite sample size is n = 372 (see Jaccard, Turrisi, & Wan, 1990:37). Hence, it should be taken into consideration that our sample size is one possible explanation as to why we do not find significant interaction effects.

5.6 Summary of findings

In Chapter 3 we presented the hypotheses in the study. In Table 5.13 the hypotheses are listed together with the accompanying results.

Table 5.13 Summary of findings

Constructs	Hypothesized effect on IPS	Findings
H_1: Job challenge	+	Supported
H_2: Task interdependence	+	Not supported
H_3: Managerial responsibility	+	Not supported
H_4: Feedback from supervisors	+	Supported all sample
H_5: Cooperative climate	+	Not supported
H_6: Motivation to learn	+	Supported
H_7: Motivation to socialize	+	Not supported
H_8: Career development motivation	+	Not supported
$H_{9.1\text{-}9.8}$: Interaction H_1-H_8 with time		Not supported
$H_{10.1\text{-}10.2}$: Interaction H_1-H_2 with DFPJ		Not supported
CONTROL VARIABLES		
Age		Significant all sample
Education		Not significant all sample
Gender		Not significant all sample

In total, our model of situational and individual factors explain a reasonable high proportion of the variation of the generation of increased interpersonal skills in our sample (R^2= .256). The results of the multiple regression analyses indicate that the hypotheses concerning job challenge, motivation to learn, and feedback from supervisor are supported for the whole sample, while the hypotheses regarding job challenge and motivation to learn are supported when we include only those with paid job in the analyses. Furthermore, age has a significant negative effect on the generation of increased interpersonal skills for the whole sample. Finally, none of the hypothesized moderating effects are demonstrated in the study.

In general, the results indicate that individual factors (motivation to learn, age) and situational factors (job challenge, feedback from supervisors) are important when the generation of increased interpersonal skills is to be explained. The four most important independent variables; motivation to learn, job challenge, feedback from supervisors, and age, account for 22.8 % of the variance of increased interpersonal skills.

6. DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

6.1 Introduction

This chapter contains the following sections. After a brief discussion of the main contributions and findings of this thesis in Chapter 6.2, Chapter 6.3 addresses the managerial implications of the study. Finally, Chapter 6.4 discusses the limitations and suggestions for future research.

6.2 Main contributions and findings

The main contribution of this thesis has been the outline of a theoretical framework from which an understanding of situational and individual factors that contribute to increase volunteers' interpersonal skills can be drawn.

An important background for this study was that for a long time, authors have discussed the shortage of empirical work in the field of organizational learning (Fiole & Lyles, 1985). Even recently there are no signs of patterns changing. For example, of 150 papers on the learning organization abstracted in ABI Inform during 1997, only 10 per cent were based on new empirical data collected by the authors (Easterby-Smith & Araujo, 1999). Furthermore, there is almost no empirical research on informal learning that occurs outside the employment organization. Consequently, a contribution is that it has been conducted empirical research on informal learning outside organizational borders.

This study is also relevant to ordinary work life, because we have focused on interpersonal skills that are valuable in paid jobs. Moreover, the organization under study contains a formal organizational structure and offers products to customers in a competitive environment. In this sense, it bears resemblance to "paid work organizatons" and our findings may prove relevant for public and private firms. In accordance to this, because many people actually participate in volunteer work, the thesis contributes to the understanding of organizational behavior of volunteers where the amount of research remains limited.

Main findings

Overall, our model of situational and individual factors explains 25,6 % of the variation of increased interpersonal skills in our sample. Moreover, the significant variables motivation to learn, job challenge, feedback from supervisors, and age explain 22,8 % of this variation. Thus, the model explains a fairly high portion of the variance of increased interpersonal skills.

HYPOTHESES THAT ARE SUPPORTED

Motivation to learn (H_6) is the single most important factor for explaining the development of interpersonal skills. Thus, it seems that to learn as a reason to participate as a volunteer, is a very important predictor of the development of new skills. An interesting implication of this finding is that several studies of volunteers conclude that motivation to learn is an important reason for participating as a volunteer (Andersen, 1996; Clary, Snyder, & Ridge, 1992; Clary, Snyder, & Stukas, 1996; Lorenzen & Rogstad, 1994; Lynn & Smith, 1991; Ryan & Bates, 1995; Williams et al., 1995). Our study may therefore serve as a preliminary indication that many individuals increase their interpersonal skills when working as volunteers.

In accordance to this, the relationship between job challenge (H_1), feedback from supervisors (H_4) and the generation of increased interpersonal skills are significant for the whole sample. This is consistent with previous research that suggests that job content is a main contextual factor when it comes to explaining informal learning. Moreover, most of theories of learning include feedback as an essential element in the learning process.

Finally, age is the only control variable that is significant. Thus, the older the volunteers the less generation of increased interpersonal skills.

HYPOTHESES THAT ARE NOT SUPPORTED

No interaction effects are found in the study. Among the main hypotheses that are not supported, it is interesting that all the hypotheses that in some way or another concern the amount of social interaction among the volunteers are not supported. Thus, there are no significant relationship between task interdependence (H_2), managerial responsibility (H_3), cooperative climate (H_5), motivation to socialize (H_7) and the generation of increased interpersonal skills. Altogether, it might be that that the lack of support for these hypotheses is based on the contents of the interaction between the volunteers. Even though task interdependence, managerial responsibility, cooperative climate, and motivation to socialize were suggested to imply an increased amount of interaction with other volunteers, this is a necessary but not sufficient condition for an increase in the volunteers' interpersonal skills. In other words, suggested increased interaction between volunteers does not automatically imply increased interpersonal skills. The contents of the interactions may also be important and should receive more attention in later studies.

Concluding comments

Our study of volunteers at the Kongsberg Jazz Festival -97 indicates that individual factors such as motivation to learn and age, and situational factors such as job challenge and feedback from supervisors, contribute significantly to explain the generation of increased interpersonal skills. In contrast, there is no support for the hypothesized increased amount of interaction between the volunteers (task interdependence, managerial responsibility, motivation to socialize, cooperative climate) and increased interpersonal skills. Thus, it seems that we also have to study the content of the interaction in order to explain informal learning in the workplace.

6.3 Managerial implications

The study shows a strong relationship between motivation to learn and increased interpersonal skills in our sample. This implies that an individual's reason for participating in an activity (here; volunteer work) is very important if development of new skills is an important goal. Thus, if an organization with volunteers intends to create a learning arena or a "community of practice" in which learning is a goal, its management should carefully investigate the motivation of volunteers when they recruit them.

Furthermore, job challenge is another important determinant of increased interpersonal skills. This implies that organizations should try to design jobs that the individual finds challenging. Our study does not investigate the main determinants of a challenging job. This would be important as a tool for developing such jobs, and therefore would be an interesting future research question.

Feedback from the supervisors is also significantly related to increased interpersonal skills. This implies that managers play an important role in the development of the volunteers' interpersonal skills. In a department in which the manager is responsible for many individuals, it is important to develop feedback systems that ensure that everybody receives feedback from their supervisors.

It should also be noted that a good social climate or a large amount interaction between individuals is not sufficient to ensure informal leaning. In our study none of the independent variables of task interdependence, managerial responsibility, cooperative climate, or motivation to socialize, were significantly related to increased interpersonal skills.

Moreover, the study indicates that individuals to some degree develop their interpersonal skills when performing volunteer work. This highlights the importance of competence transfer across organizational units. Stated differently, to what degree does the organization's human resource management policy facilitate the transfer of competence based on learning outside the everyday work context? Ample research on

the transfer of training indicates that there are substantial barriers between learning programs and the normal work setting.

Finally, Sims and Lorenzi (1992) argue in their book about leadership, that in a variety of different social settings, learning is an important part of managerial development. Some organizations therefore choose to send their managers on "adventure learning" excursions where work groups are exposed to difficult and unfamiliar physical and mental challenges in an outdoor environment (Wagner, Baldwin, & Rowland, 1991). These are often expensive training activities, and the evidence regarding the effectiveness of adventure learning is sparse (Noe & Ford, 1992). Given that volunteer work is a context where people increase essential skills, it is a less expensive training alternative that could be integrated into the overall training and managerial development plans. It might also be integrated into the recruitment, reward, and career policies, where participation in volunteer work may be considered as an asset.

6.4 Limitations and future research

The purpose of this section is to discuss limitations and suggestions for future research. Limitations and future research are discussed together, because the limitations of the study may be an effective method for identifying the need for future research. In Section 6.4.1, different theoretical perspectives are discussed. In Section 6.4.2, the overall research design is discussed, then continues with discussion of the measurement and data collection in Section 6.4.3. Then the sample is discussed is Section 6.4.4. Finally, concluding comments are offered in Section 6.4.5.

6.4.1 Theoretical perspectives

In this section we discuss the theoretical perspectives that were included, their limitations, and suggest future research based on these limitations.

LEVEL OF ANALYSIS

As noted in Chapter 1, research on learning in organizations has been heavily expanded during the 1990s. The field has attracted the attention of numerous scholars from a variety of disciplines that has resulted in a wide spectrum of different theoretical perspectives. Perhaps the most cited controversy within in the field of organizational learning is the difference between individual and organizational learning (Huysman, 1999). Even though there is much confusion about the relationship between individual and organizational learning, there seem to be consensus about that individual learning is different from organizational learning (Fiole & Lyles, 1985).

In this study we have focused on the individual as the learning entity. There are other perspectives that perceive organizational leaning as not simply the sum of individual learning (Fiole & Lyles, 1985), but as having an additional "emergent component" like a change of routines in the organization (Levitt & March, 1988). Furthermore, Sandelands and Stablein (1987) argues that organizations have a kind of collective minds, and some proponents of artificial intelligence argue that the capacity to learn can be embedded in expert systems (Huber, 1991). Our study does not investigate such

learning at the organizational level of analyses, but are limited to the individual as the primary learning entity.

LEARNING PERSPECTIVE

A major distinction is whether authors emphasize organizational learning as a technical or as a social process. The technical view assumes that learning in organizations is about the effective processing, interpretation of, and response to information both inside and outside the organization (Easterby-Smith & Araujo, 1999). Major contributors to this school are Argyris and Schön (1974; 1978; 1996), who developed the important concepts of single- and double-loop learning. Furthermore, Levinthal and March's (1993) examination of the dilemma of exploration and exploitation in the use of technology, is also an important contribution within this research tradition.

Our study is based on the *social perspective* of organizational learning. This implies that learning is viewed as something that emerges from social interactions, normally in the natural work setting. Within the social perspective there are at least two basic ideas. One is the idea of learning as a social construction (Brown and Duguid, 1991). A central idea in this perspective is that crucial organizational knowledge exists not on paper, nor in the heads of individuals, but within the "community" as a whole. Learning takes place through informal exchange between experienced and less experienced people, and through the use of anecdotes and stories (Orr, 1990). Another significant contribution from the social perspective proponents, is the notion of learning as a cultural artifact. Learning is seen as a part of an organizational culture, and most significantly, learning is something that does not take place within the heads of individuals, but in the interaction between people. It is manifest in the ways people behave when working with others, and these patterns of behavior are normally learned by newcomers to the community through the process of socialization (Lave and Wenger, 1991).

Even though our study of volunteers at Kongsberg Jazzfestival is based on a social perspective, implying that learning is viewed as something that emerges from social interactions, we do not explicitly focus on *the learning process*. Both the social constructive view of learning and the interpretations of learning as a cultural artifact focus on the social process of newcomers in an organization or "community" is going through. Such social processes of newcomers are not included in our study, and are an interesting project for future research in this field. According to Easterby-Smith & Arujo (1999:7), the trend is toward the evolution of methodologies that enable researchers to investigate such learning processes empirically. Furthermore, in her review of theories on organizational learning, Prange (1999) argues that there is a lack of research on the link between the learning content, learning process and results. Thus, there is a need to integrate knowledge of learning processes in a study such as ours, where we have focused on sources of the generation of skills and learning results, but not the on learning processes as such.

There are also other aspects of the learning process that would be interesting to investigate in future studies. In our study many of the hypotheses were based on social learning theory (learning by observing). Recently, Sims and Lorenzi (1992) have argued that social learning theory (lately renamed as social cognitive theory) is very relevant to understanding how people think, learn, and behave in organizations. There is still limited empirical research on issues regarding which persons are selected as relevant role models, and how different characteristics of the role-models effect the learning process and outcomes.

The exchange of information is another important learning mechanism in our study. We do not focus on the transformation process of information into knowledge and the questions of the relevance, credibility and authority of information as well as the problem of accessibility and information overload (Olaisen, 1996). In general, we have not integrated the cognitive processes in our research model, and the relationship between the interpretation of information, learning processes and learning outcomes. There is a significant research tradition of learning in organization labeled as traditional cognitive theory (Fox, 1997). TDT see learning as a process that takes place in the head or inside the mind, and central concepts are "organizations as interpretation systems" (Daft & Weick, 1984), "shared cognitive maps" (Langfield-Smith, 1992), and that

organizations are seen as possessing "knowledge structures" (Lyles & Schwenk, 1992). In our study we do not include such a cognitive perspective. A central research challenge is to investigate the complex process of interpretation of information, learning processes and learning outcomes. There is a growing interest of such research and the use of linguistic and narrative methods of doing research on this topic (Easterby-Smith & Araujo, 1999).

CONSTRUCTS IN THE MODEL

There are also limitations related to the chosen constructs in our model. First, we focus on interpersonal skills. There are other general skills that would be interesting to study, including problem solving skills and creativity. These are important general skills which can be applied both as a volunteer and in a paid job. A fundamental question is whether and to what degree different factors are effective in the development of dissimilar kinds of skills. Furthermore, are there certain general skills that are developed more effectively in volunteer work than in other work contexts?

There are also shortcomings related to the independent variables in our model. First, we have only included job challenge and task interdependence as characteristics of the job. Further studies should also include other job characteristics such as task identity, task significance, task uncertainty, task autonomy, task complexity and their effects on learning outcomes. Moreover, we have not studied the main determinants of job challenge. This is important knowledge for those who want to develop challenging jobs.

Second, we did not get any support for the hypothesis that there is a positive relationship between managerial responsibility and increased interpersonal skills. Based on our data we cannot explain why this result occurs. One plausible explanation of the lack of support for H_3, is that it might be little difference between ordinary volunteer jobs and managerial volunteer jobs with respect to interaction with others. In later research projects it would be interesting to include data on the interaction pattern for individuals with and without managerial responsibility in order to achieve a better understand of the learning process for both groups.

Third, we have only focused on feedback from the supervisors. It would also be interesting to study and compare learning outcomes based on feedback from other sources, such as the formal organization, the task itself, co-workers and customers. Moreover, feedback can vary along other dimensions, e.g. feedback frequency, feedback signs and feedback types. Researchers have also focused on the feedback process as a whole, including the way it is perceived, its acceptance by the recipients and the willingness of the recipients to respond to the feedback (Ilgen et al., 1979; London, 1995). Thus, a variety of different dimensions would be relevant in a more comprehensive study of the role of feedback in the learning process.

Next, we have only focused on one aspect of the social climate. We did not find any support for our hypothesis about cooperative climate. There are probably other aspects of the climate that facilitate learning. Anderson and West (1998) identified four dimensions in their study of climate for work group innovation such as vision, participation safety, support for innovation, and task orientation. Because innovation and leaning are concepts that are closely related to each other (both imply change), this might be a promising place to identify climate dimensions that have positive effects on learning processes and outcomes in the organization.

We have also limited the number of motivational factors in our study. In the literature of volunteer motivation, at least twelve different motivational factors have been identified (Elstad, 1997b). An interesting research project in itself would be to study the effects of these different motivational factors on leaning processes and outcomes. Furthermore, an interesting research question is whether the relationship between motivation to learn and increased skills is the same for paid workers as for volunteer workers.

Moreover, there are certain variables that are not included in the study that could be relevant to explain the generation of increased interpersonal skills. Perhaps the most obvious variable is self-efficacy or a belief in one's capability to mobilize the cognitive resources, motivation, and courses of action needed to meet task demands. Research has demonstrated that self-efficacy is related to different training outcomes such as acquisition of computer software skills (Gist, Schwoerer, & Rosen, 1989; Martocchio & Webster, 1992), idea generation among managers (Gist, 1989) and acquisition and maintenance of negotiation skills (Gist, Stevens, & Bavetta, 1991). Thus, in future

research self-efficacy will be relevant to include in a study of generation of skills in the workplace.

Finally, based on methodological considerations socially desirable responding (SDR) could have been included as a control variable in the study. Social desirability is the tendency of respondents to convey favorable impressions of themselves (DeMaio, 1984, pp. 276). Respondents may find it socially desirable to possess interpersonal skills or that certain motivational factors are deemed to be more social acceptable than others. A weakness in this study is that since SDR was not included in the questionnaire, it was not possible to control for this effect.

6.4.2 Research design

Although the hypotheses are causal in nature, we did not choose an experimental design because we wanted to study informal leaning as it occurs naturally in a volunteer work setting. Furthermore, it would be very difficult to measure important motivational constructs (reasons for participating in volunteer work) in an experimental design. To draw truly causal inferences, Cook and Campell (1979) suggest a covariation between cause and effect, temporal precedence of the cause and ability to rule out alternative interpretations for a possible cause and effect connection (isolation). The first criterion is met in our design, while there are certain limitations related to the last two requirements.

To meet the second criterion of temporal precedence of the cause, we designed a "before"- questionnaire and an "after"- questionnaire. Background variables and motivational factors were included in the "before"-questionnaire, while contextual factors like job challenge, task interdependence, feedback from supervisors, cooperative climate, and interpersonal skills were included in the "after"- questionnaire. Thus, the motivational factors (causes) were measured before increments of interpersonal skills (effect), while job challenge, task interdependence, feedback from supervisors, and cooperative climate were measured at the same time as changes of interpersonal skills. In other words, H_1, H_2, H_4, and H_5 and the interaction hypotheses build on cross-sectional data. The research design therefore only partially met the second criterion of causality.

To meet the criterion of isolation, we used statistical tests to control for variables that might have an effect on the proposed relationships. Because we included only one organization in our study, we could not control for variables at the organizational level of analyses such as size, profitability, aggregated level of education, and types of industry.

It can be concluded that our research design to a reasonable extent met the main criteria to test the proposed hypotheses in the study. A main weakness was related to the fact that some hypotheses were tested on the basis of cross-sectional data. In section 6.4.3

we will discuss alternative measurements that might improve such a design in future research. Furthermore, a possible improvement for future research would be to use a cross-lagged panel design (Cook & Campbell, 1979:309). In this design both the causes and the effects are measured on two or more occasions, which provides the opportunity to compare the correlations between the causes and effects at different times.

The time perspective in the study is also interesting to discuss with respect to research design. Learning was only measured one point of time, related to how much the volunteer had learned "on this year's festival". A comprehensive research tradition on learning curves focuses on the relationship between learning and time (see Yelle, 1979 for a review). This research shows how the rate of learning changes in different phases of the learning process. We were not able to identify different learning curves in our design, which poses an interesting research question in itself. Because we only studied one festival, we could not study the learning curve over years or from one festival to another. Hence, it would be interesting in future research to conduct studies of learning processes during a longer period of time.

Thus, it should be noted that based on our research design we were not able to capture the long-term effects of participation at the Kongsberg Jazz Festival. The volunteers were asked in questionnaires before and just after the festival, so we only captured the immediate learning effect in our study. An interesting research question would be to focus on the long- term effects of participating in volunteer work.

6.4.3 Measurement and data collection

The items or questions were based on a combination of general measurement instruments, measures adjusted to the festival context, and items especially tailored to this study. The main reason for this is that there are not many multi-item measurement instruments that have been elaborated for volunteer surveys. Most of the volunteer surveys are actually based on single item measurements, even though there are some instruments to build on regarding volunteer motivation. This implies that the measures were not validated prior to our research. The face validity of the measurement was investigated by "experts" (lecturers at Lillehammer College) and volunteers (Døla Jazz) at Lillehammer College, and by the general manager and the paid secretary at the Kongsberg Jazz Festival. Even though most of our measures have satisfactory face validity and discriminant and convergent validity, there is a need to improve some of the measures in our study. The main problems related to constructs will be discussed in the next sections.

First, it should be noted that the measures were based on each volunteers' *perception* of the situation. It would have improved the validity of the measures if we had collected data from other informants like co-workers, managers, or ratings by key informants. We tried to collect the latter type of data for measures of job challenge and task interdependence. This was done by asking two volunteer managers who had worked in a variety of different departments at the Kongsberg Jazzfestival, to compare different aspects of job content in each department. They concluded that this was difficult, because there were several types of jobs within each department.

With respect to cooperative climate, we intended to use the department as the unit of measurement. Since there were as many as 53 volunteers is some departments, we concluded that there were many different informal groups within each department, each with probably their own climate. Our ANOVA-analyses supported this. As Jones and James (1979) found in their study of group climate in the U.S. Navy, large departments did not have a homogeneous climate. Moreover, most of the volunteers at the Kongsberg Jazz Festival worked together during a short period of time. Since shared perception of the organizational environment is a function of social interaction, the individuals might need more time together than just a week to develop those shared perceptions (Patterson, Payne, & West, 1996). Thus, even though work group climate should reflect

the individuals' shared perception of the climate in a work group, the department was not the relevant unit of analysis here. Thus, we had to use the individual's cognitive representations of their work environment as measures of cooperative climate. This has also been done in much previous climate research (Anderson & West, 1998). In later research, we should pay more attention to the identification of relevant units other than departments in order to measure climate as the shared perception of the work environment.

Second, there were weaknesses and limitations related to the measurement of interpersonal skills. Ideally, we should have developed reliable and valid measures of interpersonal skills before and after the festival, and measured the level of IPS both before and after the festival. The measure of IPS should be closely related to the volunteers' actual interpersonal behavior, and include at least two different measurement methods. The difference of level of IPS before and after the festival would then have been an indication of increased IPS.

In this study IPS was measured by the volunteers' perception of increased IPS in the questionnaire. This measure did not actually capture a change in the volunteers' interpersonal behavior. It only captured the volunteers' own *perception* of increased IPS after the festival. One problem is that people might overestimate their interpersonal skills when answering the questionnaire, or that they are unskilled and unaware of it (Kruger & Dunning, 1999). Thus, the volunteer might be incapable of knowing that he or she is incompetent. It can also be affected by social desirability bias (Spector, 1994), individuals' need of social approval, social self-esteem or inaccurate social perceptions (Spitzberg & Cupach, 1989).

In general, there are limitations related to all measurement methods and in later research we should consider the possibility of multi-method measures. One example of such a study is Cole et al. (1987) study of construct validity and the relationship between depression and social skills. Social skills were measures by self-report, behavioral ratings, interviews, and significant others. They found that self-report of social skills correlated significantly with behavioral and significant other measures, and that all the four measures of social skills correlated in the same pattern with different measures of

depression. Such a methodology decrease the probability of making false conclusions based on mono-method bias.

It is especially challenging to measure interpersonal skills in field settings. Thus, in further research it is vital that we also look for alternative methods to measure interpersonal skills in natural settings. One example is to develop further a methodology for behavioral assessment in social interaction in natural settings provided by Santoyo, (1996). Their observational and behavioral system of interaction (OBSSI) is an instrument that allows the systematic study of individual and social behavior in natural settings. The behavioral assessment of social skills is based on the consequences and effects of social interaction.

Another problem related to the measurement of interpersonal skills is the fact that the content of the construct was restricted in this research project. Content validity depends on the extent to which an empirical measure reflects a specific domain of content (Carmines and Zeller, 1979). Interpersonal skills is a complex construct, and there have been argued in favor of choosing two core characteristics of this concept. There are also other researchers that have chosen to measure interpersonal skills with only two questions, like Neuman & Wright's (1999) study of the performance of 79 four-person teams. This measurement strategy does not capture a broad range of the possible contents of interpersonal skills. Thus, there is clearly a need to study in more depth the concept of interpersonal skills, and to develop a measurement instrument that reflects a broader spectrum of the construct.

An interesting example of possible dimensions is presented in a review of interpersonal/ social skills by Spitzberg and Cubach (1989). They found that control that allows the individual to be effective, collaboration, and adaptability or behavioral flexibility are key features of social skills. This was based on an extensive review of research on interpersonal or social skills. The two first dimensions are to some extent included in our measure, while adaptability is not included in our study. Furthermore, relevant dimensions of interpersonal skills in an organizational context is offered by Baron and Markman (2000) in their article about how social skills can enhance entrepreneurs' success. They suggest that social perception, impression management, persuasion and

social influence, and social adaptability, are core characteristics of social skills for entrepreneurs. These categories also fit into the three broadly categories suggested by Spitzberg and Cubach (1989). Thus, it seems that it will be interesting to study social or interpersonal skills based on the three categories suggested by Spitzberg and Cubach.

Another potential measurement problem was that the final sample of items in the scales mostly included positively framed questions. This implies that it is more difficult to discover response bias related to yea-saying. Yea-saying, also known as the "agreement tendency", is the tendency to choose "agree" as a response category (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994:385). A scale consisting of items balanced in the direction of keying, would have eliminated that potential bias.

Finally, there are some constructs that are measured by single-item measures. This is a threat to the reliability and validity of these measures.

6.4.4 The sample

One main factor related to sampling, is the number of respondents required to achieve a high power on the statistical tests. Furthermore, a higher number of respondents imply that it is possible to conduct more interesting sub-group analyses than with smaller samples. The Kongsberg Jazz Festival was chosen partly due to the relatively large number of volunteers. Even though we obtained a high response rate, only 218 out of 278 volunteers were left in our final sample when we excluded paid workers, volunteers under 16 years, and volunteers that had only responded to a limited number of questions in the questionnaire. This implies that the sample was big enough to conduct many analyses, but that the numbers of respondents in some sub-groups (ex. volunteers older than 55 years = 5) was relatively small. Furthermore, the chances of detecting interactional effects would have been higher with a larger sample.

Moreover, the sample in this study included volunteers who worked for a festival during a short period of time. Only about 30 % of the volunteers worked longer than the festival period of 9 days. Hence, this context was somewhat different from volunteer work that is conducted all through the year. Thus, an interesting research project would be to study other volunteer organizations where individuals work on a longer basis. One research question then is whether it is more effective learning-wise to work a great deal during a short period of time than to regularly work a few hours throughout the whole year?

It would also be interesting to study different sub-groups of volunteers with their own specific research problems. One example is related to age. Only five volunteers or 2,3 % of our sample was older than 55 years, so we obtained limited information about older volunteers. It would be interesting to study other volunteer organizations with a large membership of older volunteer workers. Lifelong learning is seen as a goal at least in the economically advanced nations. Relevant research questions are whether older volunteers perceive volunteer participation as an important arena of learning, and if it has a positive effect on performance in their paid work. Similar issues relate to younger volunteers. We could, for example, study student' associations. What kind of competence do volunteers develop there? And does this experience have any positive effects on their career opportunities?

Moreover, there is other research questions with regard to the group of volunteers that are in full- time paid jobs. Even though they comprised the majority of our sample, we did not focus on questions such as whether they are able to transform what they learn as volunteers to their paid jobs. Research has focused on the learning "transfer process", and the challenges of transferring the training to their actual job (see Baldwin & Ford, 1988 for a review). It has been estimated that only 10 % of the expenditures related to the training activities actually result in transfer to the job (Georgenson, 1982). What characterizes organizations and individuals in which volunteers are able to transfer their knowledge and skills gained as a volunteer? An especially interesting group of volunteers is comprised of those who are managers in their paid jobs. Organizations spend a significant amount of resources on managerial training. It would be interesting to compare the effectiveness of volunteer work related to other managerial training activities.

Finally, it is interesting to discuss the issue of external validity or degree to which the findings in this study can be generalized to other settings? The first question is whether the results could be generalized to other volunteer organizations? As discussed in the first paragraph, the jazz festival is characterized by work during a short period of time involving a great deal of intense work. Thus, it is what Tesluk & Jacobs (1998) label as "high-density" experience. They argue that high-density experiences are likely to have dramatic effect on outcomes such as learning, motivation and performance. This implies that we cannot automatically generalize our findings to volunteers who work a few hours throughout the whole year or a "low-density" experience.

A second question is whether the findings can be generalized to paid organizations? The organization under study has a formal organizational structure and offers products to customers in a competitive environment. In this sense, it bears resemblance to "paid work organizations" and our findings may prove relevant for public and private firms. Still it would probably be most relevant for organizational structures which include high-density experiences, such as project organizations in which people work during a limited period of time including time pressure.

6.4.5 Concluding comments

All in all, this thesis is an early empirical study of informal leaning in a volunteer-driven organization. There is a need to conduct more empirical studies of informal learning in other volunteer, public, and private organizations. In order to this, there is a need to develop our research methodology. In this thesis, it has been argued that there is especially a need to study the acquisition of knowledge and skills outside organizational borders, including settings like strategic alliances, joint ventures, networks, virtual organizations, volunteer-driven organizations and leisure activities.

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Appendix 1: Questionnaires

HØGSKOLEN I LILLEHAMMER
Postboks 1004 Skurva, 2601 Lillehammer, Tlf. 61 28 80 00, Fax 61 26 07 50

Skjema nr. _____

Kongsberg Jazzfestival 1997

SKJEMA 1: Spørreskjema til frivillige funksjonærer før festivalen

Hei.

Du kjenner sikkert til at Høgskolen i Lillehammer utfører en undersøkelse på årets festival i samarbeid med Kongsberg Jazzfestival. Både publikum og samtlige frivillige funksjonærer vil i den anledning få utdelt spørreskjema.

Til deg som er frivillig har vi to spørreskjema; dette som du nå sitter med foran deg ("Skjema 1"), samt ett skjema som du får på slutten av festivalen ("Skjema 2"). Undersøkelsen er anonym, slik at det er ikke mulig å koble svar på skjema til enkeltpersoner.

Du vil først bli informert av en student. Deretter skal du svare på noen spørsmål ved hjelp av selvutfylling. En student vil være tilstede for å veilede deg om det er noe du lurer på. Vær ikke redd for å spørre om noe er uklart.

Når du har fylt ut dette skjemaet ("Skjema 1") vil det bli lagt i en konvolutt som blir limt igjen. Du setter ditt navn og gruppe utenpå, og vi tar vare på konvolutten for deg til slutten av festivalen. Når du har fylt ut "Skjema 2" etter festivalen, vil du få utdelt konvolutten der "Skjema 1" ligger. Du vil da selv legge "Skjema 1" og "Skjema 2" i en ny konvolutt. Den nye konvolutten vil bli limt igjen uten navn og gruppe utenpå for å sikre din anonymitet.

Vi antar at du vil bruke ca. 15 minutter på hvert av skjemaene. Selv om dette tar noe tid, håper vi at du tar den tiden du trenger for å fylle ut skjemaet. Kvaliteten på resultatene er avhengig av at alle besvarer alle spørsmål. De som leverer inn skjemaet i utfylt stand, vil bli med på en trekning av to t-skjorter og to CD-er.

Resultatene fra undersøkelsen vil bli presentert for dere på nyåret 98, og vil forhåpentligvis kunne gi nyttige innspill i forhold til en best mulig organisering og ledelse av funksjonærene på Kongsberg Jazzfestival.

DENNE DELEN KAN GJENNOMFØRES VED HJELP AV PERSONLIG INTERVJU ELLER SELVUTFYLLING.

1) Kjønn: ☐ Mann ☐ Kvinne

2) Hvor mange år har du vært frivillig for denne festivalen (inkl. årets festival)? ____år

3) I hvilken gruppe/funksjon jobber du? _____

4) Hvor lang tidsperiode jobber du i tilknytning til årets festival (sett ett kryss)?
(festivaluken regnes fra 30.06-06.07)

☐ a) Bare i selve festivaluken
☐ b) Siste 1-4 ukene før festivalen og selve festivaluken
☐ c) Mer enn en måned før og selve festivaluken Oppgi antall måneder: ____

5) Hvordan ble du rekruttert <u>første gangen</u> som frivillig til Kongsberg jazzfestival?
(sett **ett kryss** i en av rutene)

☐ a) Jeg var med og startet festivalen
☐ b) Jeg ble pålagt det av arbeidsgiver/annen frivillig org.
c) Via andre frivillige som er:
☐ i) Familie/venner
☐ ii) Kollega på jobben/medstudent/skolekamerat
☐ d) Via annonse i avisen
☐ e) Via informasjonsmøte
☐ f) Jeg tok kontakt på eget initiativ med festivalen
☐ Annet (spesifiser): _____
_____

6) Hva er din utdanning?

☐ a) 7- 9 årig grunnskole
☐ b) Videregående skole eller tilsvarende
☐ c) 1- 4 år på universitet/høgskole
☐ d) 5- 7 år på universitet/høgskole

7) Har du lederansvar for andre frivillige? JA ☐ NEI ☐
Hvis JA, hvor mange har du ansvaret for? _____

8) Jobber du som frivillig for andre organisasjoner? ☐Ja ☐Nei

Hvis JA, hvilke: _____
_____
_____

9) Hvordan bor du under årets festival:

☐a) Hjemme hos meg selv/ familien
☐b) Hos venner/bekjente
☐c) På vandrerhjem/pensjonat
☐d) Campingplass
☐e)Hotell:
☐f)Annet:_____

Spørsmål 10 besvares bare av de som er tilreisende funksjonærer (ikke a på spm. 9)
10) Har Kongsberg Jazzfestival hjulpet deg med å få overnatting?

JA ☐ NEI ☐

11) Hva er din alder?

☐ a) 16-17 år
☐ b) 18-24 år
☐ c) 25-34 år
☐ d) 35-44 år
☐ e) 45-54 år
☐ f) 55-64 år
☐ g) 65--> år

12) Hva er hovedbeskjeftigelsen din til daglig?

☐ a) Er på arbeid, heltid
☐ b) Er på arbeid, deltid
☐ c) Er arbeidsledig
☐ d) Er trygdet
☐ e) Er hjemmeværende
☐ f) Er student/skoleelev
☐ g) Pensjonist
☐ h) Annet: .....

13) og 14) besvares bare av de som har betalt arbeid (alt. a eller b på spørsmål 12)

13) Hva er din yrkestittel? _____

14) I hvilken grad er jobben din som frivillig lik din betalte jobb?

Svært forskjellig min betalte jobb	<1	2	3 Noe lik	4	5>	Svært lik min betalte jobb

****

RESTEN AV SPØRRESKJEMAET SVARER ALLE PÅ VED HJELP AV SELVUTFYLLING.

15) Har du utdannelse over grunnskolenivå (inkl. sertifiserte kurs), som du mener du har direkte nytte av i jobben som frivillig? (Sett ett kryss pr. linje).

	JA	NEI
a) økonomi/administrasjon/ledelse	☐	☐
b) teknisk/data	☐	☐
c) lyd/scenografi	☐	☐
d) språk/reiseliv	☐	☐
e) salg/markedsføring	☐	☐
f) media	☐	☐
g) pedagogikk	☐	☐
h) musikk/kultur	☐	☐

i) annet: _____

16) Hjemstedsfylket ditt er: _____

17) Ditt forhold til Kongsbergområdet er (sett ett kryss):

☐ a) Jeg er født i Kongsberg og bor her
☐ b) Jeg er innflytter og bor i Kongsberg
☐ c) Jeg er oppvokst i Kongsberg, og studerer nå andre steder
☐ d) Jeg er utflytter fra Kongsberg
☐ e) Jeg har aldri bodd i Kongsberg, men har slekt/ nære venner her
☐ f) Jeg har aldri bodd i Kongsberg, og har ikke slekt/nære venner her
☐ g) Annet (spesifiser): _____

18) Min sivilstatus er:

a) Samboer/ektefelle med barn hjemme ☐
b) Samboer/ektefelle med ingen barn hjemme ☐
c) Samboer ektefelle uten barn ☐
d) Enslig/skilt/enke(-mann) med barn hjemme ☐
e) Enslig/skilt/enke(-mann) uten barn hjemme ☐
f) Bor hjemme hos foreldrene mine ☐

Annet:.....

19) Omtrent hvor mye er din personlige årsinntekt (sett ett kryss)?

☐ a) Under 100 000
☐ b) 100 000 til 149 999
☐ c) 150 000 til 199 999
☐ d) 200 000 til 249 999
☐ e) 250 000 til 299 999
☐ f) 300 000 til 349 999
☐ g) 350 000 til 399 999
☐ h) 400 000 eller mer

20) Hvor viktig er følgende forhold for deg når du vurderer hvor attraktiv en **betalt jobb** er?

SETT ETT KRYSS PÅ HVER LINJE	1	2	3	4	5
EGENSKAPER VED JOBBEN	Ikke viktig i det hele tatt	Ikke viktig	Verken viktig eller uvikig	Viktig	Svært viktig
a) En sikker jobb?					
b) Høy inntekt?					
c) Gode muligheter for avansement?					
d) En jobb som gir mye fritid?					
e) En interessant jobb?					
f) En jobb man kan arbeide selvstendig i?					
g) En jobb der man kan hjelpe andre?					
h) En jobb som er samfunnsnyttig?					
i) En jobb med fleksibel arbeidstid?					

21) Tenk deg at du kunne forandre måten din tid ble brukt, ved å bruke mer tid på noen ting og mindre tid på andre. Av listen nedenfor, hva ville du bruke mer eller mindre tid på?

SETT ETT KRYSS PÅ HVER LINJE	1	2	3	4	5
Hva med mer/mindre:	Bruke mye mindre tid	Bruke litt mindre tid	Bruke samme tid som nå	Bruke litt mer tid	Bruke mye mer tid
a) Tid til lønnet arbeid?					
b) Tid til husarbeid?					
c) Tid sammen med familien?					
d) Tid sammen med venner?					
e) Tid til å slappe av?					
f) Tid til andre fritidsaktiviteter?					
g) Tid til å arbeide som funksjonær for Kongsberg Jazzfestival?					

22) Nedenfor er det listet opp en rekke utsagn som vi vil du skal ta stilling til om du er **enig** eller **uenig** i som frivillig funksjonær på Kongsberg Jazzfestival. Dersom du krysser av på *1*, betyr det at du er *svært uenig* i påstanden. Krysser du av på *7*, betyr det at du er *svært enig* i påstanden. Krysser du av på *4* betyr det at du er *middels enig* i påstanden.

SETT ETT KRYSS PÅ HVER LINJE	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Utsagn	Svært uenig	Meget uenig	Uenig	Middels enig	Enig	Meget enig	Svært enig
1) Som ny funksjonær fikk jeg tilstrekkelig med forhånds-informasjon om festivalen							
2) Nye funksjonærer føler seg velkommen hos oss							
3) Jeg har en klar forståelse av hvilke forventninger festivalen har til meg som funksjonær							
4) Vi har passe med felles sosiale arrangementer i løpet av et år							
5) Jeg mener det er behov for mer opplæring av frivillige funksjonærer							

23) Vi vet svært lite om hvorfor mange mennesker velger å jobbe som frivillige funksjonærer. Nedenfor er det derfor listet opp mange mulige grunner. Vi ber deg nå avslutninsgvis å svare på hvor viktig disse ulike årsakene er for at **du** velger å være frivillig funksjonær på Kongsberg Jazzfestival. Dersom du krysser av på 1, betyr det at årsaken ikke har betydning for deg. Krysser du av på 7, betyr det at årsaken har svært stor betydning for deg.

Listen over mulige årsaker er nokså lang, og det er meningen at du skal svare raskt på hvert spørsmål. Du skal bruke ca. 4 minutter på hele lista.

SETT ETT KRYSS PÅ HVER LINJE	**Ingen betydning**			**En del betydning**			**Stor betydning**
Årsak	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
1) Jeg lærer å omgås ulike mennesker							
2) Jeg får brukt mine ferdigheter og kunnskaper							
3) Som frivillig får jeg holde på med ting som interesserer meg							
4) Å være frivillig gir meg muligheter til sosialt samvær med andre mennesker							
5) Jeg liker samarbeidet med de andre frivillige							
6) Folk jeg kjenner har oppfordret meg til å arbeide som frivillig							
7) Å være frivillig kan gi muligheter for senere yrkeskarriere							
8) Jeg liker å være frivillig på grunn av frynsegodene vi får							
9) Frivillig arbeid øker min innflytelse i lokalmiljøet							
10) Jeg er opptatt av å hjelpe jazzen som musikkform							
11) Som frivillig lærer jeg gjennom praktisk erfaring							
12) Jeg får anledning til å dele mine kunnskaper og erfaringer med andre							
13) Jeg er svært interessert i musikk							
14) Jeg har venner/familie som er frivillige							
15) Jeg får anledning til å jobbe med dyktige ledere							
16) Folk jeg kjenner godt utfører også frivillig arbeid							
17) Min erfaring som frivillig kan bidra til å gi meg en bedre jobb i arbeidslivet							
18) Som frivillig får jeg gratisbilletter og t-skjorter							
19) Gjennom frivillig arbeid blir jeg bedre kjent med folk i mitt lokalmiljø							
20) Jeg synes det er viktig å hjelpe andre							
21) Som frivillig får jeg dyrket hobbyer/interesser som jeg har							
22) Jeg lærer noe nytt							

	Ingen betydning						Stor betydning
Årsak	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
23) Jeg føler jeg kan tilføre festivalen noe gjennom egne erfaringer/ kunnskaper							
24) Jeg får anledning til å bli kjent med nye mennesker							
25) Jeg liker å komme i kontakt med festivalpublikumet							
26) Folk jeg omgås synes det er viktig å jobbe for denne festivalen							
27) Jeg kan få kontakter som kan hjelpe meg senere i arbeidslivet							
28) Som frivillig får jeg gratis inngang på konserter på festivalen							
29) Frivillig arbeid øker min anseelse/status i nærmiljøet							
30) Jeg kan gjøre noe for en god sak som er viktig for meg							
31) Jeg får anledning til å øke kunnskapene mine							
32) Som frivillig kan jeg bruke viktige egenskaper ved meg selv, som jeg ikke får brukt i andre sammenhenger							
33) Det gir muligheter til å videreutvikle personlig interesse/hobby							
34) Jeg får anledning til å beholde kontakten med venner							
35) Jeg liker den unike "festival-atmosfæren"							
36) Jeg representerer en annen frivillig organisasjon der vi har forpliktet oss til å være frivillig							
37) Å være forbundet med denne festivalen gir en prestisje i forhold til betalte jobber/studier							
38) Jeg synes det er viktig å hjelpe til i et lokalsamfunn							
40) Gjennom frivillig arbeid lærer jeg meg selv bedre å kjenne							
41) Jeg kan omgås folk med samme interesser som deg selv							
42) Jeg får anledning til å spise og drikke i godt lag							
43) Som frivillig får jeg ta del i folkefesten under festivalen							
44) Arbeidsplassen min forventer at jeg stiller opp som frivillig							
45) Jeg ønsker å hjelpe denne festivalen til å nå sine mål							
46) Som frivillig funksjonær føler jeg meg verdifull og nyttig							
47) Jeg hadde tid til overs til å være frivillig							

TAKK FOR DIN TID!

HØGSKOLEN I LILLEHAMMER
Postboks 1004 Skurva, 2601 Lillehammer, Tlf. 61 28 80 00, Fax 61 26 07 50

Skjema nr. _____

Kongsberg Jazzfestival 1997

SKJEMA 2: Spørreskjema til frivillige funksjonærer etter festivalen

Hei.

Nå er du sikkert stort sett ferdig med arbeidet som frivillig funksjonær under årets festival. Vi håper at du har litt krefter igjen til å fylle ut det andre spørreskjemaet. Vær ikke redd for å spørre en student om noe er uklart. Ved å gi din vurdering av årets festival, vil du gi nyttige innspill til festivalledelsen om hva som kan gjøres bedre til neste år.

Skjemaet består av to hoveddeler. I den første delen ønsker vi å kartlegge hvordan du tror publikum har opplevd kvaliteten på årets festival. I den andre delen ønsker vi å kartlegge dine egne erfaringer som frivillig funksjonær. Du må nok regne med å bruke 15-20 minutter på skjemaet. Kvaliteten på resultatene er svært avhengig av at du tar deg tid til å svare på alle spørsmålene.

Når du har svart på dette skjemaet, vil du få utdelt konvolutten med "Skjema 1". Deretter skal du legge alle skjemaene i en konvolutt som du selv forsegler for å sikre din anonymitet.

Resultatene fra undersøkelsen vil bli presentert for dere på nyåret 98, og vil forhåpentligvis kunne gi nyttige innspill for at Kongsberg Jazzfestival skal befeste sin posisjon som en av Norges ledende festivaler.

De som leverer inn skjemaet i utfylt stand, vil bli med på en trekning av to t-skjorter og to CD-er. Riv av siste side av skjemaet der du skriver på navnet ditt og levèr sammen med skjemaet for å bli med i trekningen.

LYKKE TIL!

Del 1. Vurdering av publikums oppfatning av festivalkvaliteten

24a) Publikum har i år blitt bedt om å vurdere ulike sider ved årets festival. Dette er listet opp i punktene nedefor. På bakgrunn av din erfaring med årets festival, *hvor fornøyd tror du at publikum* har vært? Hvis du tror at publikum har vært meget tilfreds, sett en ring rundt tallet 7. Tror du publikum har vært meget utilfreds, sett ring rundt 1. Dersom det er ting du ikke har forutsetninger for å svare på, setter du en ring rundt spørsmålstegnet til høyre.

Lista nedenfor er nokså lang, og det er meningen at du skal svare raskt på hvert spørsmål.

		Meget utilfreds						Meget tilfreds	
1.	Skilting til arrangementer	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	?
2.	Hot News (internavisa) under festivalen	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	?
3.	Billettpriser	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	?
4.	Overnattingstilbud i Kongsberg og omegn	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	?
5.	Informasjon i aviser i forkant av festivalen	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	?
6.	Informasjon på Internett i forkant av festivalen	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	?
7.	Funksjonærenes evne til å besvare sørsmål	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	?
8.	Tilgang på billetter før festivalen	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	?
9.	Tilgang på billetter under festivalen	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	?
10.	Serveringsstedenes åpningstider	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	?
11.	Transporttilbud til og fra arrangementene	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	?
12.	Prisnivået på overnatting	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	?
13.	Kapasitetsnivå på serveringsstedene i festivalområdet	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	?
14.	Variasjon i serveringstilbud (mat og drikke)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	?
15.	Funksjonærenes synlighet og gjenkjennelighet	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	?
16.	Prisnivå på mat og drikke i Kongsberg under festivalen	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	?

		Meget utilfreds						Meget tilfreds	
17.	Tilgang til sanitæranlegg	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	?
18.	Renhold av sanitæranlegg	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	?
19.	Renhold av festivalområdets utearealer	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	?
20.	Pynting av byen under festivalen	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	?
21.	Lydkvaliteten på konsertene	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	?
22.	Tilpassing av størrelsen på konsertlokalene	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	?
23.	Sikkerheten under festivalen (Politi og Røde Kors er godt synlige og lett tilgjengelige)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	?
24.	Artistutvalget for årets jazzfestival	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	?
25.	Overholdelse av programmet i henhold til fastsatt tid og sted	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	?
26.	Muligheten for å gå på de konsertene en ønsker (unngå overlapping)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	?
27.	Barnivalen/programtilbudet for barn under festivalen	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	?
28.	Avvikling av køer/trengsel i forbindelse med konsertene	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	?
29.	Tilrettelegging for handikappede	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	?
30.	Parkeringsmuligheter i Kongsberg	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	?
32.	Funksjonærenes serviceinnstilling	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	?
33.	Helhetsinntrykket av Kongsberg Jazzfestival	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	?

24b) Ta til slutt et raskt overblikk over lista, og sett ring rundt de tre viktigste forholdene du tror er **viktigst for publikums fornøydhet med festivalen** (du skal sette ring rundt tallet til venstre for setningene).

Del 2. Din egen erfaring som frivillig funksjonær

25) Nedenfor er det listet opp en rekke forhold som vi ber deg ta stilling til med bakgrunn i din erfaring som funksjonær under årets festival. Dersom du krysser av på *1*, betyr det at du er *svært misfornøyd*. Krysser du av på *7* betyr det at du er *svært fornøyd* . Er ikke spørsmålet relevant for deg, krysser du av på 9.

SETT ETT KRYSS PÅ HVER LINJE	**Svært misfornøyd**			**Middels fornøyd**			**Svært fornøyd**	**Ikke relevant**
Erfaring	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**	*****	**9**
1) Variasjon i arbeidsoppgavene								*	
2) Internkafeen for funksjonærene								*	
3) Mattilbudet til funksjonærene								*	
4) Overnattingstilbud til funksjonærer som har hatt behov for det								*	
5) Transporttilbud til de funksjonærene som har hatt behov for det								*	
6) Samarbeidet i din arbeidsgruppe								*	
7) Muligheter for å utnytte gratisbillettene dine								*	
8) Forholdet mellom publikum og funksjonærene								*	
9) Gruppeledernes evne til å skape samhold/teamfølelse i gruppa								*	
10) Kommunikasjonen mellom festivalkontoret og de frivillige								*	
11) "Intranets" evne til å gi rask og korrekt informasjon om viktige forhold/endringer i programmet								*	
12) Ledelsens evne til å delegere ansvar til funksjonærene								*	
13) Samarbeidet generelt mellom alle funksjonærene på festivalen								*	
14) Festivalatmosfæren/den generelle stemningen på festivalen								*	
15) Tilbakemelding fra ledelsen om hvordan vi utførte jobben vår								*	
16) Tilbakmeldingene fra publikum i forhold til fornøydhet med årets festival								*	
17) Tilbakemeldingene fra musikerne om service og kvalitet på festivalen								*	
18) Medbestemmelse på forhold som jeg føler har angått meg								*	
19) Kvaliteten på gjennomføringen av årets festival								*	
20) Egen arbeidsinnsats under årets festival								*	
21) Arbeidsgruppen min sin arbeidsinnsats under årets festival								*	
22) Arbeidsinnsatsen til alle frivillige funksjonærer under årets festival								*	

26) Under årets festival har jeg hatt (sett ett kryss):

- ☐ 1) For lite å gjøre
- ☐ 2) Passe mye å gjøre
- ☐ 3) For mye å gjøre

27) Mener du det er behov for følgende opplæringsmateriale (sett ett kryss pr. linje):

JA	NEI	
☐	☐	a) egen håndbok for alle frivillige funksjonærer
☐	☐	b) skrevne jobbinstrukser
☐	☐	c) annen skreven informasjon beregnet til opplæring
☐	☐	d) flere informasjonsmøter før festivalen
☐	☐	e) mer skreven informasjon fra festivalkontoret før festivalen
☐	☐	f) mer personlig opplæring/veiledning av gruppeleder
☐	☐	g) mer felles opplæring i gruppa av gruppeleder

28) Vi har listet opp områder hvor det kan være mulig å lære noe nytt som frivillig funksjonær. I hvilken grad har du lært noe nytt under årets festival på disse områdene?

Dersom du krysser av på *1*, betyr det at du har lært *svært lite*. Krysser du av på 5 betyr det du har lært *svært mye*. Krysser du av på 3 betyr at du har lært *noe* på området.

SETT ETT KRYSS PR. LINJE	1	2	3	4	5		9
HAR DU SOM FUNKSJONÆR LÆRT NOE NYTT I FORHOLD TIL	Svært lite	Lite	Noe	Mye	Svært mye	*	Vet ikke
1) Samarbeid?						*	
2) Ledelse?						*	
3) Konfliktløsning?						*	
4) Takle stress ?						*	
5) Kreativ problemløsning?						*	
6) Egne sterke/svake sider?						*	
7) **Praktiske ferdigheter** jeg kan få bruk for i min betalte jobb/ studier/hjemmearbeid?						*	
8) **Teoretisk kunnskaper** jeg kan få bruk for å min betalte jobb/ studier/hjemmearbeid ?						*	

29) Har du spist middag på Mr. Kong i løpet av festivalen?

JA ☐ NEI ☐

30) Har du vært innom internkafeen i løpet av festivalen?

JA ☐ NEI ☐

31) Nedenfor er det listet opp en rekke utsagn som vi vil du skal ta stilling til som frivillig funksjonær på Kongsberg Jazzfestival. Dersom du krysser av på *1*, betyr det at du er *svært uenig* i påstanden. Krysser du av på 5 betyr det at du er *svært enig* i påstanden. Krysser du av på 3 betyr det at du er *middels enig* i påstanden. Du skal sette ett kryss for hvert utsagn.

SETT ETT KRYSS PÅ HVER LINJE	1	2	3	4	5		9
Påstand	Svært uenig	Uenig	Middels enig	Enig	Svært enig	*	Ikke relevant
1) Jeg må samarbeide nært med andre funksjonærer for å gjøre en god jobb						*	
2) Kongsberg Jazzfestival er flinke til å inspirere meg til å yte mitt beste						*	
3) Jeg er stolt av å kunne fortelle andre at jeg jobber for Kongsberg Jazzfestival						*	
4) Jeg ser lett resultatene av jobben jeg gjør som frivillig						*	
5) Jeg har anledning til å bestemme selv hvor raskt jeg utfører arbeidsoppgavene mine						*	
6) Jeg er villig til å jobbe hardere enn jeg egentlig må for at festivalen skal bli enda bedre						*	
7) Jobben som funksjonær gir meg lite muligheter til å bruke mine kunnskaper og ferdigheter						*	
8) Jobben jeg gjør som frivillig er meningsfull for meg						*	
9) Jeg har frihet til selv å bestemme hvordan jeg skal utføre oppgavene jeg er blitt delegert						*	
10) Jeg føler liten lojalitet til Kongsberg jazzfestival						*	
11) En kan stole på lederne om det oppstår problemer						*	
12) Frivillig funksjonærer blir spurt til råds om det er områder det er behov for endre på festivalen						*	
13) Mennesker i min funksjonær-gruppe er vennlige og hjelpsomme						*	
14) Jeg tenker endel på å slutte som frivillig funksjonær							
15) Jeg føler at mine egne verdier er i samsvar med jazzfestivalens verdier						*	
16) Jeg føler fellesskap med de andre i min funksjonærgruppe						*	
17) Problemene jeg må løse som funksjonær er lite utfordrende						*	
18) En kan stole på alle funksjo-nærene jeg har jobbet i gruppe med						*	
19) Jeg er svært glad for at jeg valgte å være funksjonær under årets festival						*	

SETT ETT KRYSS PÅ HVER LINJE	1	2	3	4	5		9
Påstand	Svært uenig	Meget uenig	Uenig	Middels enig	Enig	*	Ikke relevant
20) Som funksjonær for KJ blir en oppmuntret til å utvikle sine kunnskaper og ferdigheter						*	
21) Gruppelederen min bryr seg om velferden til funksjonærene						*	
22) Jeg er villig til å nedprioritere andre fritidssysler for å kunne fortsette som funksjonær ved Kongsberg Jazzfestival						*	
23) Kongsberg Jazfestival bryr seg om min personlige utvikling						*	
24) Gruppelederen blander seg lite inn i hvordan jeg gjør jobben min						*	

32) Hvor fornøyd er du **totalt sett med hele perioden din** som frivillig funksjonær i tilknytning til årets jazzfestival (sett ring rundt ett tall)?

svært misfornøyd < 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 > svært fornøyd
middels fornøyd

33) Dersom du møter andre som er interessert i å være frivillig funksjonær, hvor sannsynlig er det at du vil anbefale dem å være frivillig funksjonær ved neste års festival ?

svært lite sannsynlig <1 2 3 4 5 6 7 > svært sannsynlig
middels sannsynlig

34) Ut fra hva du vet i dag, ville du fortsatt bestemme deg for å engasjere deg på samme måte i festivalen, om du fikk bestemme om igjen?

svært lite sannsynlig <1 2 3 4 5 6 7 > svært sannsynlig
middels sannsynlig

35) I hvor stor grad svarer jobben som funksjonær ved årets festival til de forventningene som du hadde på forhånd?

i svært liten grad <1 2 3 4 5 6 7 > i svært stor grad
i middels stor grad

36) Hvor sannsynlig er det at du er funksjonær ved Kongsberg Jazzfestival til **neste år**?

svært lite sannsynlig <1 2 3 4 5 6 7 > svært sannsynlig
middels sannsynlig

37) Hvor sannsynlig er det at du er funksjonær ved Kongsberg Jazzfestival om **fem år**?

svært lite sannsynlig <1 2 3 4 5 6 7 > svært sannsynlig
middels sannsynlig

38) Har du noen gang vurdert å slutte som frivillig ved Kongsberg Jazzfestival?

JA ☐ NEI ☐

39) Hvis JA, hvor viktig har følgende årsaker vært for deg i din vurdering:

SETT ETT KRYSS PR. LINJE	1	2	3	4	5		9
ÅRSAK	Svært lite viktig	Lite viktig	Middels viktig	Viktig	Svært viktig	*	Vet ikke
1) Omsorg for familie						*	
2) Dårlig tid til andre fritidsinteresser/møte venner						*	
3) Flytting						*	
4) Ny jobb						*	
5) Arbeidsbelastningen (antall timer) som frivillig						*	
6) Organiseringen av festivalen						*	
7) At en ikke føler fellesskap lenger blant de frivillige						*	
8) At en blir pålagt arbeidsoppgaver en misliker						*	
9) At en ikke verdsettes nok som frivillig funksjonær						*	
10) At en ikke får bestemme over eget ansvarsområde						*	
11) At festivalen blir for stor						*	
12) Uenighet med festivalens eventuelle endring av målsettinger/ideologi						*	

40) Har du fått nye venner i løpet av årets festival, som du regner med å holde kontakten med (via brev og/eller møtes igjen utenom festivalen) i fremtiden ?

JA ☐ NEI ☐

41) Har du blitt kjent med nye mennesker under årets festival, som du antar kan hjelpe deg i din betalte yrkeskarriere/ studier)?

JA ☐ NEI ☐

42) Vi vil at du til slutt skal forsøke å gjøre et overslag over hvor mange timer du har jobbet i tilknytning til årets festival. Vi vet at dette kan være vanskelig, men ber deg gjøre et forsøk. Du skal runde av til nærmeste 10 timer (Ca. 10 timer, ca. 20 timer, ca. 30 timer osv.).

I forhold til arbeid **før/etter** festivaluka skal du inkludere både møter og forberedelser til møter, telefonsamtaler, reiser, og annet administrasjonsarbeid der hovedformålet er å jobbe for Kongsberg Jazzfestival. **Under selve festivalen** skal du regne med antall timer du er i aktiv tjeneste på vakt (ikke fritiden) under festivaluka.

Festivaluka regnes fra 30.06-06.07.

i) Før festivaluka: Ca._____ timer

ii) Festivaluka: Ca._____ timer

iii) Etter festivalen(antatt) Ca. _____ timer

43) Helt til slutt: Dersom du har generelle kommentarer til det å være frivillig funksjonær på Kongsberg Jazzfestival som du mener er viktig å få med i undersøkelsen, har du anledning til å skrive det her.

_____

_____

_____

_____

TIL SLUTT: EN STOR TAKK FOR DIN TID OG OPPMERKSOMHET!