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PARTICIPATION AS A FORM OF EXCHANGE IN ADULT AND CONTINUING EDUCATION

By

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ABSTRACT

PARTICIPATION AS A FORM OF EXCHANGE
IN ADULT AND CONTINUING EDUCATION

By

Stanley Thembelani Mpofu

Motivation to participate in Adult Education can be viewed as a form of exchange. Exchange Theory states that people are more likely to perform activities that are expected to bring returns and benefits and less likely to perform activities that may prove too costly to them.

The purpose of the study was to explore and describe motivation to participate in adult education in the context of exchange. To this end, the study was designed to establish whether it is appropriate to use exchange theory to describe people's motivation to participate in adult education programs.

Data for the study were collected through personal interviews from a volunteer sample of 36 adult learners and 20 dropouts. Learners were composed of 10 Adult Basic Education (ABE) students, 10 General Education Development (GED) students, and 16 Vocational students; while dropouts consisted of 10 Adult Basic Education (ABE), and 10 General Education Development (GED) dropouts.

The analysis of the data yielded the following findings:

1. Economic and personal reasons are the exchange reasons behind participation in adult education
2. Time and money are considered to be the exchange costs of adult learning

The study's findings clearly indicate that exchange can be used to describe motivation to participate in adult education.

"It is easier to say original things than to reconcile with one another things already said."

Vauvenargues

DEDICATION

TO THE MEMORY OF MY MOTHER

DUBEKILE AINAH NCUBE MPOFU

1921-1975

AND TO MY FATHER

DUDZAYI TIMOTHY TOCHIWONA CHIZODO MPOFU

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CHAPTER I

RATIONALE OF THE STUDY

Background

The process of exchange plays an important role in shaping the nature of human behavior in a wide range of settings (Baron, Byrne, and Griffitt, 1974). Motivation to participate in adult education programs can be viewed as a special case of exchange. Exchange theory can, therefore, be used to explain human behavior with respect to adult education programs.

Exchange theory states that people's actions are motivated by the return those actions are expected to bring (Blau, 1964; Homans, 1973; and Ekeh, 1974). Conversely, the theory states that people are not likely to perform behaviors that are not expected to bring any rewards.

A key concept of exchange theory is reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960). Reciprocity is a kind of "give and take." If you give someone something, he/she must give you something of equal or near equal value in return (Ritzer, Kammeyer, and Yetman, 1979). Similarly, when a person invests effort and time in learning a skill, he/she expects returns or benefits that are commensurate with the effort and time invested. An important principle of reciprocity is that the more the reciprocal obligations of an exchange relationship

are violated, the more that the deprived parties are disposed negatively to sanction those violating the norm of reciprocity (Blau, 1964). If someone repeatedly receives something from another, and gives nothing in return, the giver will eventually stop giving. Fundamentally, then, a learner will eventually drop out from a learning program if she/he senses that:

1. The learning activity is not, or is no longer, instrumental to the achievement of an expected return.
2. The expected yield from learning a skill is not commensurate with the time and effort invested in acquiring the skill.

According to exchange theory, there are two things that society, educational institutions, and facilitators could do to attract and retain people in adult education programs:

1. Maximize the rewards for participating in adult education programs.
2. Minimize the costs for participating in these programs.

This study was designed to explore the nature of exchange forces that determine people's behavior toward adult education programs.

Statement of the Problem

According to Cross (1981), the basic assumption of adult education is that people are motivated to learn, but lack of knowledge about learning opportunities makes it impossible for them to participate in adult education. The practice of adult education

is, therefore, mostly concerned with the marketing of available adult learning opportunities (Cross, 1981). This approach ignores the deep psychological motives that determine whether the potential adult learner will pay attention to the information on learning opportunities with which he/she is bombarded. There is a need for adult education to pay more attention to other fundamental aspects of motivation.

The rationale in this study was not to pit the marketing approach to motivation against the fundamental psychological approach but, rather, to repeat what has been said by many educationists that there is more to motivation in adult learning than "passing out brochures." To believe that people's participation in learning activities is based solely on the availability of learning opportunities is tantamount to saying that motivation takes place at a particular point in time. The process of motivation takes place over a long period of time and is a result of many factors. In order to understand all the possible reasons behind adult learning, adult education must, therefore, pay attention to all aspects of motivation.

The marketing approach to the study of motivation in adult education does not address the psychological and spiritual differences in human beings. It is largely designed to address the extrinsic needs of potential learners, because it is based on the assumption that these needs are the same for people who are in similar circumstances. Also, according to Maslow (1968), the extrinsic approach to human nature is encouraged by the fact that:

> Our biological essence, our instinct remnants, are weak and subtle, and they are hard to get at. Learnings of the extrinsic sort are more powerful than our deepest impulses. These deepest impulses in the human species, at the points where the instincts have been lost almost entirely, where they are extremely weak, extremely subtle and delicate, where you have to dig to find them (Harvard Educational Review, 1981, p. 152).

A social exchange approach to the study of motivation in adult education has the potential to dig out these subtle and delicate instincts in human beings.

A social exchange approach to the explanation of social behavior is not without precedent. For example, Dillman (1978) used it as the foundation of his Total Design Method (TDM) as a method of social research. The concept of social exchange appears to have the potential of providing a deeper understanding of human values and perceptions and how they affect people's behavior toward certain issues in society.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to explore and describe the relationship between exchange forces and human behavior toward adult education programs. Social exchange states that people's decision to act in a particular direction toward an issue is a function of their notion of reward and cost. To conceptualize the constructs of exchange theory, the study sought to investigate the influence of exchange forces on people's behavior toward adult education programs in three related areas: (1) to identify the benefits (rewards) that a person is trying to achieve by participating in an adult education

program; (2) to identify the forces that may affect the individual's participation in a learning program, viz., the costs that are incurred in the name of learning; and (3) to identify forces within, and outside, the learning situation that lead a person to drop out of a learning program before completing it. Of critical importance to the study was the identification of those exchange forces that have the greatest influence on people's behavior. Also important was the establishment of a threshold for each exchange force.

Importance of the Study

A review of related literature indicates that most studies on the motivation of adults to undertake learning programs have been mostly concerned with establishing the characteristics of those who are most likely to participate in adult education programs. Very little research has been done on what motivates adults to participate in education programs. For example, according to Tough (1979), very little is known about the benefits that adults anticipate from a learning effort.

It is not enough for adult educationists to know who is most likely to participate or not participate in adult education programs. Before adult education can help an adult learner realize his/her expectations, there must be a general understanding of what adults generally hope to achieve through participation in an education program.

According to Moorcraft (1975), the motivation road to a "learning project is a complex one" (Tough, 1979). Adult education

must aim at understanding the general nature of this road: the number of bends or corners in the road, the length of the road, and whether it is a smooth or a rough road. Above all, there is a need to understand the forces that determine the length of the road, as well as the number of bends it has.

Considerable research has been done on the reasons why adults participate in learning activities. Very little, however, is known about what constitutes "costs" to an adult learner and why adults withdraw from formal learning activities before completion. In order to retain adult learners, we need to know more about what they consider to be the costs of learning, and the forces and circumstances that may force them out of the learning situation. A person drops out of a learning activity because of lack of motivation to continue or because of a stronger motivation to do something else. Theoretically, once a person starts learning something, he/she should continue learning provided the education program and the reasons he/she is undertaking it continue to be a priority to him/her. But the situation is obviously much more complicated than that. There is, therefore, a need to ascertain the forces and circumstances that lead a person to withdraw from the learning situation before completion.

Further, with regard to dropouts, research has revealed little more than the demographics of the dropouts and the nonparticipants. According to Edward Jones (1978), adult basic education research:

> . . . has failed to generate any reliable basis for predicting what type of students are most likely to persist in such programs. It has, in fact, produced only one consistent finding: the apparent fact that most people who discontinue Adult Basic Education participation do so for reasons not primarily associated with the nature of Adult Basic Education activities. On the contrary, as Prins (1972) notes, many Adult Basic Education dropouts offer high praise for Adult Basic Education Programs, teachers, and materials, and express hope for re-enrolling at later times (p. 48).

Thus, most studies on dropouts have produced very little information that can be used for the retention of adult learners.

Adult education is a complex and diverse field. A complete understanding of exchange forces influencing participation in adult education cannot come out of a few studies, let alone a single study. The complete understanding of motivation in adult learning can only be sought through small, isolated, but closely related, studies--such as this one. By examining individual motives in certain sections of adult education, this study facilitates our understanding of motivation factors in those sections of adult education and, at the same time, contributes to a more complete understanding of motivation in adult education in general. This study will, therefore, add a new perspective to the understanding of people's motivation to participate in adult education programs.

Research Questions

The study was designed to investigate the influence of exchange forces on people's participation in adult education programs. The study was exploratory in nature, seeking to develop an initial, preliminary understanding of the relationship between

exchange forces and people's behavior toward adult education programs.

Research Question No. 1: What exchange forces are responsible for people's participation in adult education programs?

The study gathered primary basic data on exactly what a person was trying to achieve by participating in an adult education program, and the minimum return that person would accept for each reason for learning.

Research Question No. 2: What exchange forces may affect people's participation in adult education programs?

The study examined the nature of the costs that the person has to incur by participating in a learning program--time, money, career, etc. It was also the intention of the study to establish how much each learner is prepared to pay regarding a particular cost in relationship to his/her education.

Research Question No. 3: What exchange forces lead people to withdraw from a learning program before completion?

Data were collected from dropouts of adult education programs to determine what exactly led to their withdrawal.

Definition of Terms

Adult Basic Education (ABE). The term "Adult Basic Education" is used to refer to elementary education for adults. It emphasizes the development of communication skills, and often includes English as a Second Language.

Adult Education. The term "adult education," both as a concept and mode of action, refers mainly (but not strictly) to education continued after formal schooling, i.e., education provided for the benefit and adapted to the needs of people not in the regular school, college, or university system.

Liveright (1980) defines Adult Education as "a process through which persons no longer attending school on a regular, full-time basis undertake activities with the conscious intention of bringing about changes in information, knowledge, understanding, skills, appreciation, and attitudes" (Axford, 1980, p. 1).

For the purposes of this study, adult education is limited to organized learning taking place in a classroom setting. In other words, independent learning projects are excluded from this study.

Adult Learner. An adult learner is considered to be a person who no longer attends school or college on a regular basis, but is enrolled in one or more organized adult learning activities.

Cost shall refer to anything the adult learner incurs in the name and in the process of learning. Cost also means a reward forgone. According to Homans (1961), the cost "of a given unit of activity is the value of the reward obtainable through a unit of an alternative activity, forgone emitting the given one" (p. 60). Further, Homans (1961) considers as costs:

> . . . only those forgone rewards that remain available throughout the period in which a particular activity is being emitted, as the reward of escaping from fatigue is open to the pigeon throughout the time it is pecking (p. 59).

Dropouts are those students who had originally enrolled in an organized learning activity with the intention of acquiring knowledge and/learning a skill, but who for some reason subsequently withdrew form the learning program before completing it.

An Exchange Force is a motive.

A Learning Activity is what the learner does, individually or as a member of a group, in the process of learning.

Learning Effort is the input, including time and costs, a learner puts into learning something.

A Learning Exercise is a learning activity.

Learning Process refers to everything that the learner has to go through or accomplish as part of acquiring knowledge or learning a skill.

Learning Program shall mean an organized learning activity.

Learning Project. Tough (1971) defines a learning project as a highly deliberate effort to gain and retain a defined area of knowledge or a skill, or to change in some other way. This study was limited to those learning projects that took place within a classroom setting and were at least six months long.

Learning Situation refers to an organized learning activity.

Motivation. For the purposes of this study, "motivation is that which causes us to act" (Farrant, 1980, p. 60). According to Atkinson and Birch (1978); Klein (1982); and Weiner (1980a), motivation is influenced by habits, expectations, and motives.

Gagne (1977) envisages three approaches to motivation: incentive motivation, task motivation, and achievement motivation:

1. Incentive (External) Motivation can be defined as the use of incentives and reinforcements to initiate and continue a particular way of behavior.
2. Task (Internal) Motivation is the want to do something out of a sense of need or enjoyment.
3. Achievement Motivation is a persisting trait of striving that makes an individual want to excel in everything he/she does.

Motive. A motive is anything that increases the tendency to act toward a goal (Atkinson and Birch, 1978; Klein, 1982; and Weiner, 1980a).

McDougall (1932) views motives as instincts. He defines instincts as:

> . . . consisting of (1) a tendency toward selective perception of certain stimuli (a hungry person perceives food objects more readily than other objects), (2) a corresponding emotional excitement experienced on perceiving the object (the root of the instinct), and (3) the activation of a tendency to seek a goal (McClelland, 1985, p. 34).

According to McDougall (1908), "every instance of instinctive behavior involves a knowing of something or object, a feeling in regard to it, and a striving towards or away from the object" (McClelland, 1985, p. 34).

Organized Learning Activity. In this study, an organized learning activity will mean an adult education course, seminar or workshop in which the participants are registered or enrolled, and offered at a particular time and place under the auspices of a recognized adult education authority.

Primary Motivation Theory. For the purposes of this study, primary motivation theory refers to major motivation theories that are generally viewed as pioneers in the discussion of motivation. Included in this group is Skinner's Psychological Behaviorism, Kurt Lewin's Force Field Analysis, Vroom's Expectancy (Valence-Instrumentality-Expectancy) Theory, and Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs.

Reward. Homans (1961) defines reward as a unit of activity or something that a person receives from another or from society for emitting a unit of activity. A reward can take many forms: it can be in the form of a praise, approval, etc.

Nigro and Nigro (1981) talk of extrinsic and intrinsic rewards in the work situation:

> Extrinsic rewards, unrelated to the job, are exchanged for work accomplished (pay, benefits, etc.); whereas intrinsic rewards are related directly to the job (satisfaction from tasks accomplishment, psychological enjoyment of the work itself, etc.). The former are most likely to appeal to the concern for job performance (meeting minimum requirements), whereas the latter are needed to motivate employees to achieve that something extra in their work (Mueller, 1983, p. 266).

Similarly, in the learning situation, extrinsic rewards are unrelated to the learning task, whereas intrinsic rewards are derived directly from the learning task.

Secondary Motivation Theory. This refers to those theories that have reformulated the primary motivation theories to explain motivation in a particular field, in this case, in adult education.

Vocational Education is the segment of education charged with the task of preparing people for work (American Vocational Association).

Limitations of the Study

The manner in which the subjects for a study are selected largely determines how extensively the findings of that study can be generalized. In this study, subjects were selected on a volunteer basis. According to Isaac and Michael (1971), the problem with a sample consisting of volunteers "is the likelihood that volunteers differ from non-volunteers, compromising the interpretation and generalizability of the results" (p. 147). Rosenthal and Rosnow (1975) provide the following volunteer characteristics:

1. Volunteers tend to be better educated than non-volunteers
2. Volunteers tend to have higher social-class status than non-volunteers
3. Volunteers tend to be more intelligent than non-volunteers when volunteering is for research in general but not when volunteering is for somewhat less typical types of research such as hypnosis
4. Volunteers tend to be higher in need for social approval than non-volunteers
5. Volunteers tend to be more sociable than non-volunteers

However, the primary objective of this research was not to generalize the findings, but to explore the relationship between motivation in adult education and exchange, and thus be able to provide a foundation upon which more complex research relating to participation as a form of exchange in adult education could be

based. Random sampling was, therefore, not considered necessary because the purpose of the study was to generate, rather than to test, hypotheses. Glaser and Strauss (1970) state that it is not necessary to use random sampling to explore relationships between variables. The exploratory nature of the study binds the findings to the 36 current learners and 20 dropouts that were interviewed for this study. Nevertheless, the findings do provide insight into what influences people's behavior toward adult education programs.

Overview of the Study

Subsequent chapters of this study are organized in the following manner: Chapter II consists of a review of related literature. The research methods are presented in Chapter III. Chapter IV includes a presentation of the study. Conclusions drawn from the findings, implications, and suggestions for further research are presented in Chapter V. Chapter VI is a summary of the study.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The review of literature provides an overview of exchange theory and examines its relationship to motivation theory. It also examines adult education theory in the context of exchange theory.

The review of literature contains five sections. The first section deals with the Historical Background and Meaning of Exchange Theory. The second section examines Education Philosophy and the Concept of Exchange. The third section, Contemporary Exchange Theory examines the broader concept of exchange as it is discussed by contemporary exchange theorists, and examines its implications to motivation in adult education. The fourth section entitled, Motivation Theory, examines Primary and Secondary motivation theories and their relationship to exchange theory. The fifth and final section examines Recent Education Studies that Appear to Use an Exchange Format.

Historical Background and Meaning of Exchange Theory

The assumptions that underlie exchange theory can be traced back to the philosophy of hedonism, which asserts that the ultimate motive of every human act is the maximization of pleasure and/or the minimization of pain (Locke, 1975). In the period between 1750 and

1850 a group of economists, among whom were Adam Smith, John Stuart Mill, Jeremy Bentham, and David Ricardo, used the philosophy of hedonism to develop an economic theory that became known as utilitarianism. Utilitarianism argues that man is primarily motivated by economic incentives and will do that which gets him the greatest economic gain. The individual weighs costs of each action against the expected material benefits from that action and chooses that course of action which he expects will lead to the greatest degree of economic gain at the least possible cost. Similarly, exchange theory assumes that people engage in any activity because of the benefits they expect to get from that activity, that all activities they perform involve costs, and that people aim at maintaining these costs below the rewards they expect to receive (Ekeh, 1974).

The original concept of exchange, as discussed by Frazer (1919), in his analysis of cross-cousin marriages among the Australian Aborigines, is mainly concerned with explaining how economic forces can determine human action. Frazer's analysis of exchange theory, in terms of economic gain and loss, is a reflection of economic thinking that prevailed at that time. Economic thinking at this time was dominated by Classical Management or Rational-Economic Man theory, sometimes referred to as the Scientific Management or Engineering approach to Management, the tenants of which have been attributed to Frederick Taylor (1911). Classical Management theory is based on the economic man who is motivated and controlled by <u>fear</u> of starvation and desire for material gain. The

economic man calculates the actions that will maximize his/her self-interest and behaves accordingly.

The concept of exchange in terms of economic gain and loss is evident in later economic and management theories. For example, it can be detected in McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y concept. Theory X is a continuation of the Rational Economic Man theory. It assumes that the average human being has an inherent dislike of work, and will avoid it if he can (McGregor, 1960). Theory X also maintains that man wishes to avoid responsibility, lacks ambition, and wants security above all. Theory Y is the opposite of Theory X. It assumes that man does not inherently dislike work because work is a part of human nature.

Applied to education, the Rational-Economic Man concept says that because students characteristically dislike work, they must be motivated to learn by either a "hard line" approach or a "soft line" approach (McGregor, 1960). The hard line approach says students must be coerced by controls, directions, and threats of punishment in order to get them to put forward an adequate effort toward the achievement of the desired learning objectives. The soft line states that students must be coaxed with rewards, praises, permissiveness, and blandishments in order to get them to work toward the fulfillment of the learning objectives (Davies, 1973). Also implied in the Rational-Economic Man theory is that education is a kind of "preparation" for a secure and financially rewarding career in the future. And, as soon as one is secure in this financially

rewarding career, further learning must cease because it will be serving no purpose then. Further, the Rational-Economic Man view implies the need for specialization in education. Because of the need for security, the Rational-Economic Man would specialize in a particular field to such an extent as to totally exclude all other fields.

Malinowski (1922) studied the Trobriand Islanders--a group of South Seas cultures--and concluded that exchange was more than just economic gain and loss. To him, exchange meant both economic and symbolic exchanges. Symbolic exchanges were in the form of armlets and necklaces, and they served to consolidate social relationships among people. Unlike Frazer, who viewed exchange as serving the personal purposes of the individuals involved in the exchange relationship, Malinowski viewed exchanges in the Kula Ring, his unit of analysis, as serving the psychological needs of the individuals involved, as well as societal needs for social integration and stability. Mauss (1952) reinterpreted Malinowski's analysis of the Kula Ring and placed even more emphasis on social needs. To Mauss, individual exchange relationships are mere representatives of what goes on in society at large. Exchange transactions among individuals are viewed as giving rise and reinforcing the normative structure of society.

The social view of exchange was later echoed by Levi-Strauss (1949). To Levi-Strauss, it is the exchange that counts--not the things that are exchanged. Exchange must be viewed for its function in integrating the larger social structure and not for what it does

for the individuals involved in particular exchange relationships. Exchange behavior is regulated by norms and values that exist in society. Exchange relationships are, therefore, a reflection of patterns of social organization that exist in society as a whole.

The social view of exchange is evident in the Human Relations approach or Social Man view of management, the prominent exponents of which are Elton Mayo (1945) and Douglas McGregor (1960).

Mayo (1945) analyzed the Hawthorne Studies, the later part of which he helped plan, and concluded that man is basically motivated by social needs and obtains his basic sense of identity through social relationships. For him, the evidence of the Hawthorne Studies and the subsequent data obtained in interviews with workers was convincing proof that man's need to be accepted and liked by one's fellow men is as important in motivation as the economic incentives offered by Scientific Management. Rational-Economic Man theory and Scientific Management viewed human behavior from what Mayo termed the "rabble hypothesis," the supposition that each individual pursues self-interest to the total exclusion of all other motivation. He countered the "rabble hypothesis" by pointing to the existence of the "informal organization" demonstrated in the Bank Wiring Room. Mayo argued that the existence of the "informal organization" in the Bank Wiring room was made possible by the spontaneous cooperation that develops among individuals when they are brought together.

The social view of exchange is also reflected in McGregor's Theory Y concept, which basically means the integration of individual

and societal needs. Theory Y assumes that man inherently likes work. To the average human being, work may actually be a source of satisfaction, and the expenditure of physical and mental effort is as natural as play or rest.

The social view of exchange holds several important implications for learning. First, it implies that learning is natural. Consequently, external control and the threat of punishment are not the only means of bringing about effort toward learning objectives. Second, it implies that students will exercise self-direction and self-control in the service of objectives to which they are personally committed. Finally, the social view of exchange implies that motivation and commitment to learning objectives is a function of the rewards associated with their achievement (Davies, 1960).

Education Philosophy and the Concept of Exchange

Van Cleve Morris (1966), a strong proponent of existentialism in education, embraces the rational-economic man view of exchange theory when he says school should be optional, i.e., there should be no compulsory attendance in schools. A person must attend school and/or learn a particular skill only if it is instrumental and suitable to his chosen lifestyle. In other words, a person chooses the lifestyle he wants to lead and then engages in the kind of education that is going to make his choice a reality. If a person realizes that he/she can achieve his/her chosen lifestyle without

engaging in a learning activity, he/she need not attend school or study any particular subject.

The basis of Morris's view is what he calls the "epistemology of appropriation." A person must take a position in relation to all options and everything to which he/she is exposed. As soon as each student reaches the "existential moment," he/she must choose a lifestyle from all the options available, and then try to align everything else to suit this lifestyle.

John Dewey (1938) views education as "preparation" for the "good life." His view of the "good life" is, however, different from the one implied by the Rational-Economic Man theory. "Good life" to Dewey means "intelligent living." While the rational-economic man would view education as "preparation" for a successful and financially secure life, Dewey views "preparation" as the basis for the promotion of further learning and "intelligent living." The rational-economic man would make "preparation" the controlling end and, thus, sacrifice the potentialities of the present educational experience to a "suppositious future." To Dewey, preparation for the future occurs when we extract at each present time the full meaning of each present educational experience.

Dewey views the type of specialization implied in the Rational-Economic Man theory as noneducative and not contributing to intelligent living--his view of the good life. According to Dewey, this type of specialization forms an obstacle to further growth and intelligent living because it leads a person into a "rut" or "groove"

and shuts him off from "stimuli" that could promote further intelligent living.

Behind Dewey's view of the "good life" in the form of "intelligent living" is the concept of "rationality." The concept of "rationality" is a relative term. In terms of what objectives, and on whose values shall rationality be judged? Is the behavior of an individual in society rational when it serves his personal desires or when it is reflective of what is generally acceptable in society? Dewey is very clear on this issue. The value of a person's behavior shall be judged by whether or not it is in accordance with scientific findings on the issue, i.e., whether it is in line with what is generally acceptable as right in society. Thus, Dewey's view of education strongly supports the social view of exchange. To Dewey, education must be based on those issues which have been identified through scientific methods to be the most fundamental issues in society. Basing education on fundamental issues, such as political, social, and spiritual affairs, makes possible any attempt to tackle other issues, while a serious deficiency on fundamental issues can prevent or undo all other problem solving. An education that is deficient on fundamental issues will produce future citizens who are unable to cope with the demands of society.

Contemporary Exchange Theory

According to Turner (1974), classical exchange theorists were mainly concerned with simple person-to-person exchange relationships taking place in relatively small settings. Contemporary exchange

theorists have expanded the conceptual framework of the theory to take into consideration some of the complexities inherent in less direct processes taking place in modern society (Turner, 1974). To contemporary theorists, exchange involves goal-oriented behavior involving the selection of alternatives in the pursuit of expected rewards. Prominent among contemporary exchange theorists are Homans (1961; 1974), Blau (1964), and Thibaut and Kelly (1959).

Homans (1951, 1961, and 1974)

Homans' original work on exchange was undertaken from an inductive point of view. He analyzed the Hawthorne studies and other field studies undertaken by psychologists, sociologists, and anthropologists, and noted that human behavior is mostly determined by the operation of three social variables on each other: interaction, sentiment, and activity. In his book, The Human Group (1951), Homans used the concepts of interaction (social communication), sentiment (attitudes), and shared activities (tasks, roles) to explain each of the social situations described in the Hawthorne and other field studies.

Homans later abandoned this approach in favor of a deductive one. Building on the psychological principles of stimulus and response, Homans (1961) extended the explanation of human behavior beyond the interdependency of the concepts of interaction, sentiment, and activity in order to accommodate other variables and conditions that place the theory much closer to social psychology. "We believe

that the propositions of behavioral psychology are the general explanatory propositions of all the social sciences" (1974, p. 67).

He broadened the concept of "activity" and used it to define the key concepts of exchange:

Rewards: Anything a person receives, or any activity directed toward him, that is perceived by the person as valuable.

Value: The degree of reinforcement or capacity to meet needs of an activity for an individual, whether his own activity or activity directed toward him.

Sentiment: Activities in which individuals communicate their internal dispositions, such as liking-dislike or approval-disapproval, of each other.

Interaction: Behaviors in which people direct their activities in order to derive rewards, and avoid punishments, from each other.

Norms: Verbal statements--a type of activity in which people communicate the kinds of activities that should, or should not, occur, in a situation.

Quantity: The number of units of an activity (whether rewarding or punishing) emitted and/or received over a particular period of time (Turner, 1974, p. 235).

Homans does not completely abandon the economic principles of classical exchange theory. The remaining concepts of his theory retain the hedonistic-utilitarian economic man assumptions on which the original concept of exchange is based:

Cost: an activity that is punishing, or an alternative reward that is foregone in order to get another reward.

Investments: a person's relevant past activities (such as skill, education, and expertise) and social characteristics (such as sex, age, and race) which are brought to a situation and evaluated by both the person and those with whom he is interacting.

Profits: Rewards, minus the costs and investments, for engaging in a certain activity.

Distributive justice: Activities involving the calculation of whether cost and investments have led to a fair profit by individuals in an exchange (Turner, pp. 235-236).

According to Homans, a person expects profit from his/her activities. He defines profit as reward minus cost. If profit is not realized from a particular activity, a person will stop performing that activity: "the less was a man's profit from a particular action, the most likely he was to change and perform an alternative one . . . as his profit approaches zero, a man does not become more apt to do nothing but rather to switch to another kind of action" (1974, p. 122).

However, Homans rejects the hedonistic-utilitarian economic man notion of maximizing utilities and argues that it cannot be applied to social exchange for two reasons. First, it would not be possible to measure value precisely enough to establish whether utilities are maximized in these terms. Second, to say that two persons in an exchange maximize their rewards, would mean the relationship would have to be terminated at an exact point. He felt that for the economic concept to be useful in the explanation of human behavior, it must be altered in four ways:

1. People do not always attempt to maximize profits; they seek only to make some profit in exchange relationships.

2. Human beings do not usually make either long-run or rational calculations in exchanges.

3. The things exchanged involve more than money, but other commodities, including approval, esteem, compliance, love, affection, and other less materialistic goods.

4. The marketplace is not a separate domain in human exchanges, for all interaction situations involve individuals exchanging rewards (and punishments) and seeking to derive profits (Turner, 1974, pp. 234-235).

The key to understanding Homans' discussion of exchange lies in understanding "behaviorism." "Behaviorism" states that "any behavior can be shaped by environmental reinforcements" (Hollander, 1981, p. 177). For Homans, "behaviorism" provided the means for the "explanation" of all human behavior. The focus of Homans' discussion of exchange is the effects of reinforcement by social rewards on individual behavior. The essentials of Homans' argument are contained in several "propositions":

1. The "Success Proposition":

   For all actions taken by persons, the more often a particular action of a person is rewarded, the more likely the person is to perform that action (1974, p. 16).

2. The "Stimulus Proposition":

   If in the past the occurrence of a particular stimulus, or set of stimuli, has been the occasion on which a person's action has been rewarded, then the more similar the present stimuli are to the past ones, the more likely the person is to perform the action, or some similar action, now (1974, pp. 22-23).

3. The "Value Proposition":

   The more valuable to a person is the result of his action, the more likely he is to perform the action (1974, p. 25).

4. The "Deprivation-Satiation Proposition":

   The more often in the recent past a person has received a particular reward, the less valuable any further unit of that reward becomes for him (1974, p. 29).

5. The "Aggression-Approval Propositions":

> When a person's action does not receive the reward he expected, or receives punishment he did not expect, he will be angry; he becomes more likely to perform aggressive behavior, and the results of such behavior become more valuable to him.
>
> When a person's action receives the reward he expected, especially a greater reward than he expected, or does not receive punishment he expected, he will be pleased; he becomes more likely to perform approving behavior, and the results of such behavior become more valuable to him (1974, pp. 37-39).

Propositions 1-4 state the general conditions for learning, echoing the tradition of Thorndike (1911), Tolman (1925), Skinner (1938) and Hull (1943). They are nothing more than statements of relationships between frequency of reward and frequency of behavior--the more frequent the reward for an activity, the more frequent the emission of that activity (Proposition 1); between a person's past history and the effectiveness of a particular reinforcer in influencing his behavior,--the more a situation approximates one in which activity has been rewarded in the past, the more likely a particular activity will be emitted (Proposition 2); between value of a reward and frequency of behavior,--the more valuable the results of an activity, the more frequent the performance of that activity (Propositions 3); between frequency of a reward and satiation,--the more frequent a reward, the less value it will have (Proposition 4). Proposition 5 introduces the concept of distributive justice which qualifies Propositions 1-4. Distributive justice is "an expected ratio of investments and costs to rewards; when this expectation is not realized, humans . . . get angry" (Turner, 1974, p. 237).

Homans considers these propositions basic to the explanation of elementary aspects of social behavior. He presents what has been labelled the "reductionist" approach, arguing that any level of "institutional analysis" is reducible to his elementary propositions. The essence of Homans' argument is that societal structures "are nothing more than the composition effects of the sum of individuals pursuing self-interest--and that the directions and formations resultant from this fact are "explainable" (cautiously halting with any suggestion of "predictable") by referring to psychological properties "basic to man" (Mitchell, 1978, p. 25). Homans writes:

> We assume now . . . that though much emerges in social behavior, (and) is emerging all the time, which goes beyond anything we can observe in the behavior of isolated individuals, yet nothing emerges that cannot be explained by propositions about the individuals as individuals, together with a given condition that they happen to be interacting. The characteristics of social groups and societies are the resultants, no doubt the complicated resultants, but still the resultants, of the interaction between individuals over time--and they are no more than that (1974, p. 12).

Homans' propositions can be best understood if they are examined together. Hollander (1981): "They each limit, modify, or increase behavior, not in isolation but in combination with one another" (p. 39). For example, propositions 1 and 3 state the relationship between frequency of reward and frequency of behavior, while proposition 4 indicates the condition under which propositions 1-3 "fall into temporary abeyance" (Turner, 1974, p. 236).

In order to demonstrate the empirical application of the five basic propositions, Homans presented a number of "corollaries." A corollary of propositions 1 and 3 is the concept of reciprocity, which

expresses the mutual returns which are expected in interpersonal relationships, generally in a positive sense (Gouldner, 1960). In proposition 1, reciprocity is expressed in equivalent frequencies of reward and behavior, and in proposition 3, value is exchanged for frequency. A further corollary of proposition 3 states the reciprocity of value to value and value to frequency--"The more valuable to a person is the activity of another, the more valuable is the approval he gives in return and the more often he directs activity towards the other" (Chadwick-Jones, 1976, p. 166).

Other corollaries of Homans' propositions extend exchange beyond two people:

> . . . as usual we begin with a proposition stated in terms of the relation between only two men. We shall next . . . show that the proposition implies about a larger number of persons. . . . On the assumption that a group consists of a number of pairs . . . (1961, p. 188).

Two of these deserve to be mentioned here. One states that "the larger the number of members that conform to a group norm, the larger is the number that express social approval for the members" (1961, p. 119). Homans identifies three rewards of conformity to group norms:

1. "The result that the norm itself, if obeyed, will bring," such as mutual assistance or protection
2. The value that other people attach to conformity behavior
3. The approval received from others as a result of conformity to group norms (1961, p. 116).

To substantiate this corollarly, Homans cites two studies. The first study by Festinger, Schachter, and Back (1950), involving three

groups of female subjects, showed that the more friendship choices there are within a social group, the more is the conformity to the majority opinion. The other study by Seashore (1954), involving 5871 workers in a heavy machinery factory, established the existence of correlation between group productivity and employees' attraction to their work group.

The other corollary extends the liking-interaction proposition to the degree of esteem, defined by Homans as "approval or respect" (1974, p. 108). ". . . the larger the amount of social approval received by a single member from other members (that is, the higher his esteem), the more frequent the interaction he receives from other members (1961, p. 188). A study carried out by Homans (1954) illustrates this corrollary. In this study, a frequency count was made by checking the social contacts in a group of clerks every fifteen minutes of their working day. The clerks were also asked the following question" "Who are your close friends in here?" The study revealed a positive correlation between the freqeuncy of interaction and the rank order of friendship choices obtained from the interview.

Other derivations from Homans' five basic propositions include an eleven point "deductive system." Two of the points are particularly pertinent to this study:

1. Men are more likely to perform an activity, the more valuable they perceive the reward of that activity to be.

2. Men are more likely to perform an activity, the more successful they perceive the activity to be in getting that reward (1971, p. 23).

These two points constitute what Homans calls the "rationality proposition," which "sums up the first three of our propositions, those concerned with success, stimuli, and value" (1974, p. 43).

Homans' five elementary propositions and their numerous corollaries contain three variables, viz., frequency, value, and justice. According to Chadwick-Jones (1976), frequency is easy to measure because it is only a matter of counting incidents of exchange behavior. Chadwick-Jones is unable to say the same about the degree of value because as the "deprivation-satiation" proposition says, value may fluctuate with time. Also, as Homans, himself, acknowledges, two persons may make different evaluation of the same reward. This, according to Chadwick-Jones (1976), is similar to the utility function mentioned in game theory, which acknowledges "a gap between the objective material payoff and its subjective utility to the person" (p. 175). Finally, certain values, like altruism, and self-respect cannot be easily subjected to measurement (Asch, 1959).

Homans identifies two kinds of value:

1. the value of an activity in a scale of comparison with other activities
2. the value of an activity over a period of time, fluctuating with deprivation or satiation

Justice, the third variable from Homans' discussion of exchange, refers to "fair exchange"--mutual returns that are expected in interpersonal returns. It is often equated to "equity" and "reciprocity." However, according to Chadwick-Jones (1976),

> justice involves more than the reciprocal return of outcomes. It involves the evaluation of investments and rewards by a variety of criteria and it involves assessing one's own returns against those of another without necessarily implying an exchange with that particular person" (p. 243).

To the parties of an exchange, the failure of "the rule of justice" is a form of punishment, and ipso facto, "its avoidance is accordingly a reward" (1974, p. 77). People are thus more likely to engage in activities that are rewarded by the attainment of justice and less likely to engage in those that involve unjust exchanges. In this sense, "justice becomes a value itself exchanged and efforts will be made by participants in a social exchange to maintain a standard of distributive justice" (Chadwick-Jones, 1976, p. 162). The problem of measuring value has already been mentioned. Homans acknowledges this difficulty when he says:

> Unfortunately, the fact that people accept the same general rule of distributive justice need not mean that they will always agree on what is a fair distribution of reward between them. Even if they concede that reward should be proportional to investment and contribution, they may still differ in their views of what legitimately constitutes investment, contribution, and reward, and how persons and groups are to be ranked on these dimensions (1974, p. 250).

The difficulty in measuring certain variables of exchange limits the number of variables that can be empirically studied. This, in turn, limits Homans' explanation of exchange behavior to those situations "that can be expressed clearly by rank order or frequencies" (Chadwick-Jones, 1976, p. 176). For the rule of "distributive justice" to hold the same meaning to all parties of a relationship, it must be assessed by all concerned on the same scale.

Homans realizes this problem, and states that rewards and costs should not be measured on a "cardinal scale," only on an "ordinal ranking scale," aimed at establishing "more or less" comparisons.

Peter Blau (1964)

In his book, Exchange and Power in Social Life, (1964), Blau intended to present what he calls a "prolegomenon of a theory of social structure" (p. xi), i.e., a conceptualization of some of the simple and direct exchange processes occurring in relatively small interaction networks, with a view to expanding the conceptual edifice to include some of the complexities inherent in less direct exchange processes in larger social systems (Turner, 1974).

Like Homans, Blau based his discussion of social relationships on the principles of social psychology. He views exchange as a social process embedded in "primitive psychological processes" (p. 4), from which many complex phenomenon can be derived.

> The basic social processes that govern associations among men have their roots in primitive psychological processes, such as those underlying the feelings of attraction between individuals and their desires for various kinds of rewards. These psychological tendencies are primitive only in respect to our subject matter, that is, they are taken as given without further inquiry into the motivating forces that produce them, for our concern is with the social forces that emanate from them (p. 19).

However, Blau objects to Homans' assertion that all forms of human behavior are explainable by the psychological process of reinforcements. "To be sure, each individual's behavior is reinforced by the rewards it brings, but the psychological process of

reinforcement does not suffice to explain the exchange relation that develops" (p. 4).

Thus, while Blau, like Homans, recognizes "a psychological base for human social behavior," he rejects Homans' claim that the psychological process is "extendable to an explanation of more complex societal phenomena" (Mitchell, 1978, p. 59).

For Blau, exchange occurs in those behaviors that are oriented towards specified goals or rewards, and that involve individuals selecting from various potential alternatives, or costs, a particular line of action which will yield an expected reward.

> The only assumption made is that human beings choose between alternative potential associates or courses of action by evaluating the experiences or expected experiences with each in terms of a preference ranking and then selecting the best alternative (p. 18).

However, like Homans, Blau rejects the hedonistic-utilitarian economic man notion of maximizing utilities:

> The statement that men select the most preferred among available alternatives does not imply that they always choose the one that yields them the greatest material profit. They may, and often do, choose the alternative that requires them to make material sacrifices but contributes the most to the attainment of some lofty deal, for this may be their objective (p. 19).

Blau's discussion of exchange is guided by the following assumptions:

Assumption 1: The more profit a person expects from another in emitting a particular activity, the more likely he is to emit that activity.

Essentially, this assumption says the frequency and the value of reward from an activity increase the likelihood of that activity's being emitted.

Assumption 2: The more a person has exchanged rewards with another, the more likely are reciprocal obligations to emerge and guide subsequent exchanges among those persons.

Drawing from Gouldner's "norm of reciprocity," Blau states that reciprocity does two things: (1) it serves as a "starting mechanism of social interaction" (p. 92); (2) it serves to regulate subsequent social exchanges.

Assumption 3: The more the reciprocal obligations of an exchange relationship are violated, the more are deprived parties disposed to sanction negatively those violating the norm of reciprocity.

This assumption is a corollary of Assumption 2. Naturally, when a person's expectations are not fulfilled, "he becomes more likely to perform aggressive behavior" (Homans, 1974, p. 37).

Assumption 4: The more expected rewards have been forthcoming from the emission of a particular activity, the less valuable the activity, and the less likely its emission.

Utilizing the economic law of marginal utility, Blau stipulates that "the more a person has received a reward, the more satiated he is with that reward, and the less valuable further increments of the reward" (Turner, 1974, p. 268). At this stage a

person will seek an alternative line of action offering new and different kinds of rewards.

Assumption 5: The more exchange relations have been established, the more likely they are to be governed by norms of "fair exchange."

Unlike Homans, who implies that the principle of "distributive justice" can operate independently of group norms, Blau says "the system of values and norms that prevails in society, is what gives people's notion of justice its specific content and meaning" (p. 68).

Assumption 6: The less norms of fairness are realized in an exchange, the more are deprived parties disposed to sanction negatively those violating the norms.

This assumption is a modification of Homans' assertion that anger results when justice/fair exchange is not realized.

Assumption 7: The more established and balanced some exchange relations among social units, the more likely other exchange relations are to become imbalanced and unstable.

Most people engage in more than one exchange relationship, and the balance and stabilization of one exchange relationship, in accordance with Assumptions 1, 2, and 4, "is likely to create imbalance and strain in other necessary exchange relations" (Turner, p. 269). Turner writes:

> For Blau, social life is thus filled with "dilemmas" in which men must successively trade off stability and balance in one exchange relation for strain in others as they attempt to cope with the variety of relations they must maintain (p. 269).

Blau views social exchange as a process of "decision making" in management. And, just like the decision maker in management, the individual in exchange is subject to the following environmental limitations (adapted from Buford, 1979)

1. He can devote only a limited amount of time to the process of selecting from the various potential alternatives.

2. He can mentally weigh and consider only a limited amount of information at any one time.

3. The amount of information initially available to every individual about each potential alternative is only a small fraction of all the information potentially available on the issue.

4. Important aspects of potential alternatives involve information that cannot be procured at all, especially information concerning future events (Blau, 1964); hence, the individual's actual selection must be made in the face of some ineradicable uncertainty.

5. The activities of the average individual requires him/her to pursue more goals than they can consider simultaneously (Blau, 1964); hence, the individual must normally focus his attention on only part of his/her major concerns while the rest remain latent. Focus on one exchange relationship is likely to create a strain in other necessary exchange relationships (pp. 23-25).

In his explanation of social behavior, Blau employs the basic concepts of exchange, viz., reward, cost, profit, etc. But, unlike Homans, he "limits their application to relationships with others from whom rewards are expected and received" (Turner, 1974, p. 266): "Social exchange as here conceived is limited to actions that are contingent on rewarding reactions from others and that cease when these expected reactions are not forthcoming (Blau, 1964, p. 6).

Blau distinguishes between intrinsic and extrinsic rewards. Intrinsic rewards refer to value that is inherent in a relationship itself:

> Friends find pleasure in associating with one another, and the enjoyment of whatever they do together--climbing a mountain, watching a football game--is enhanced by the gratification that inheres in the association itself. The mutual affection between lovers or family members has that same result. It is not what lovers do together but their doing it together that is the distinctive source of their special satisfaction--not seeing a play but sharing the experience of seeing it (p. 15).

Extrinsic rewards are those benefits that result from the activities of the relationship rather than the relationship itself (e.g., "social approval of those whose opinions we value" [p. 17]). Blau discusses four classes of extrinsic rewards, viz., money, social approval, esteem or respect, and compliance. To Blau, money or financial return is inappropriate and the least valuable reward for most exchange situations. Unlike Homans, who equates "social approval" to "liking," Blau views "social approval" as support from others in the form of agreement with one's ideas. According to Blau: "Men are anxious to receive social approval for their decisions and actions, for their opinions and suggestions. The approving agreement of others helps to confirm their judgments, to justify their conduct, and to validate their beliefs" (p. 62). While this type of social approval is appropriate to exchange relations, its value "depends on its being genuine" (p. 17).

Respect and esteem are just another form of social approval. They often accrue to those that have the "power" to provide valued

services in society. According to Mitchell (1978), Blau's explanation of the origin and consequences of power constitute his primary contribution to social exchange theory (p. 63). Blau defines power as the capacity to obtain compliance from others through the supply of valuable rewards. "A person who commands services others need, and who is independent of any at their command, attains power over others by making the satisfaction of their need contingent on their compliance" (p. 22).

Blau illustrates this assertion by referring to the relationship of lovers and the relationship of employer and worker. With regard to the former relationship, Blau writes: "The girl with whom a boy is in love has power over him, since his eagerness to spend much time with her prompts him to make their time together especially pleasant for her by acceding to her wishes" (p. 22).

In the relationship between employer and worker, "the employer can make workers comply with his directives because they are dependent on his wages" (p. 22). However, Blau says:

> The superior's power wanes if subordinates can resort to coercion, have equally good alternatives, or are able to do without the benefits at his disposal. But given the limiting conditions, unilateral services that meet basic needs are the penultimate source of power. Its ultimate source, of course, is physical coercion. While the power that rests on coercion is more absolute, however, it is also more limited in scope than the power that derives from met needs (p. 22).

Thus while Blau acknowledges the existence and importance of coercive power and the threat of physical punishment in certain relationships, he places more emphasis on the power derived from the capacity to

supply services needed by others: "Providing needed benefits others cannot easily do without is undoubtedly the most prevalent way of attaining power . . . (p. 118). And Blau continues: "the greater the difference between the benefits an individual supplies to others and those they can obtain elsewhere, the greater is his power over them likely to be" (p. 120).

From Blau's discussion of power, Turner (1974) formulated four general propositions of power:

1. The more services people can supply in return for the receipt of particularly valued services, the less those providing these particularly valued services can extract compliance.

2. The more alternative sources of rewards people have, the less those providing valuable services can extract compliance.

3. The more those receiving valuable services from particular individuals can employ physical force and coercion, the less those providing the services can extract compliance.

4. The more those receiving the valuable services can do without them, the less those providing the services can extract compliance (p. 272).

Thus, Blau's discussion of power contains various levels of dependency. He incorporates Thibaut and Kelley's concept of comparison level for alternatives (discussed in the next sub-section).

The rewards that people acquire from exchange relationships are not without costs:

> The rewards individuals obtain in social associations tend to entail a cost to other individuals. This does not mean that most social associations involve zero-sum games in

> which the gains of some rest on the losses of others. Quite the contrary, individuals associate with one another because they all profit from their association. But they do not necessarily profit equally, nor do they share the cost of providing the benefits equally . . . (p. 15).

Blau identifies three types of costs that are incurred in social exchanges, viz., investment costs, direct costs, and opportunity costs. The first involves the investment of skills--what a person brings into a relationship in order to make himself acceptable to the other. A direct cost occurs when a person accords another superior status through subordination and the expression of respect for another, as well as by complying with another person's wishes. An opportunity cost entails the costs of giving up alternative possible actions for reward. Blau's meaning of an opportunity cost is similar to that of Homans' definition of cost as a reward foregone.

However, according to Blau, there are social rewards that involve no cost at all--mutual love--for example. A lover's cost in alternatives foregone are repaid by the pleasures of being with his/her partner which he/she obtains while he/she is rewarding the partner. Blau also argues that the costs of exchange can be reduced, and the rewards increased, if the latter were supplied in a manner which simultaneously obligates many others and thus multiply the benefits produced.

For people to continue with an exchange, they must continue to realize some profit in the relationship:

> The continuing attraction of the individuals to social relations depends not simply on the rewards they derive but also on the costs they incur and, specifically, on the ratio between the two, which determines how profitable the social relations are for them (p. 146).

As described by Homans, exchange stabilizes at the point where costs balance rewards. At this point, according to Blau, "the declining marginal utility of additional benefits is no longer worth the cost of obtaining them" (p. 90), and a person will seek an alternative relationship offering new rewards.

Finally, like Homans, Blau accepts the view that "there is a strain toward reciprocity in social associations" (p. 314). However, he extends the discussion further than Homans by drawing attention to the other implications of reciprocity on exchange: "the strain toward imbalance . . . in social associations" (p. 26):

> Reciprocity on one level creates imbalances on others, giving rise to recurrent pressures for re-equilibration and social exchange. In complex social structures with many interdependent, and often interpenetrating, substructures, particularly, every movement toward equilibrium precipitates disturbances and disequilibria and thus new dynamic processes. The perennial adjustments and counter-adjustments find expression in a dialectical pattern of social exchange (p. 314).

Thibaut and Kelley (1959)

Thibaut and Kelley (1959) identify three broad types of exchange relationships, viz., (1) a trading relationship; (2) a relationship of dominance of one person by another (fate control); (3) a relationship of compliance, persuasion, or influence over the other person (behavior control).

A trading agreement can be defined as an implicit or explicit reciprocal agreement between two or more people. For example, two or more people may agree to share the costs and rewards of a joint enterprise. A trading relationship maintains itself for as long as both or all the parties concerned receive satisfaction from it. Such a relationship breaks down when neither of the individuals involved is satisfied, or when the exchange is perceived as uneven by one of the participants.

A relationship of dominance (fate control) of one person by another occurs when one person has power over another and is in a position to allocate rewards to himself, irrespective of the choice of action by the other. Fate control can be implemented either through formal authority in an organization or through coercion in interpersonal behavior. It is on this point that Thibaut and Kelley differ from Homans' and Blau's views of social exchange. Homans and Blau limit their discussion of social exchange situations to interpersonal behavior in voluntary relationships, whereas Thibaut and Kelley extend social exchange to include "coercive power such as may be found in prisons, the armed forces, or even in industrial organizations" (Chadwick-Jones, 1976, p. 36).

According to Chadwick-Jones (1976), there is a limit to fate control in that if the weaker person's costs increase to a point where alternative relationships are more attractive and, if escape is possible, he may leave the relationship altogether. Thibaut and Kelley seem to acknowledge the limitations of coercive power when they say fate control may be converted to behavior control.

Converted fate control or behavior control occurs when "by varying his behavior, A can make it desirable for B to vary his behavior too" (p. 103). In behavior control, "B's" outcomes vary not as a function either of A's behavioral choices (fate control) or of his own, but as a function of the interaction between them (pp. 103-4). Behavior control can take place in a situation whereby each party pursues his/her personal objectives and the other's activity is of no consequence to him. For this reason, Chadwick-Jones (1976) states that "in behavior control, there may be no exchange, strictly speaking" (p. 40).

To Thibaut and Kelley, the probability of exchange behavior is a function of individual and situational factors and also of the amount of previous reinforcement. They argue that the outcomes of social associations are determined by the ratio of rewards and costs for each person. They represent this scenario in the form of an elaborate payoff matrix system. They use the payoff matrix mostly to illustrate reinforcement principles in social behavior.

> We assume that the probability of any one of A's behaviors being elicited is a function of two factors: (1) the strength of instigation to it (either from external or internal stimuli) and (2) previously experienced reinforcement resulting from it. The probability of occurrence reflects both of these factors whereas the objective reward--cost matrix reflects only the reinforcement consequent on the act (p. 26). (See Figures 2.1, 2.2, and 2.3, next page).

The figures contained in the cells of the matrix represent the maximum rewards and minimum costs which "set the limits within which the actual interaction must occur" (p. 19).

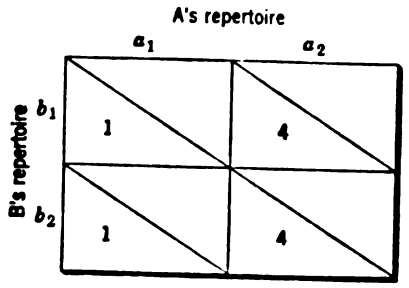

Figure 2.1.--Illustration of A's Fate Control over B.

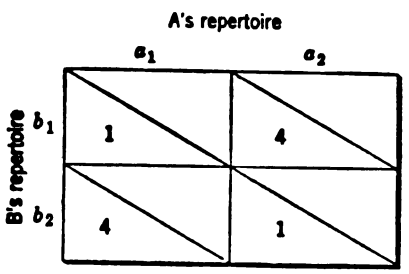

Figure 2.2.--Illustration of A's Behavior Control over B.

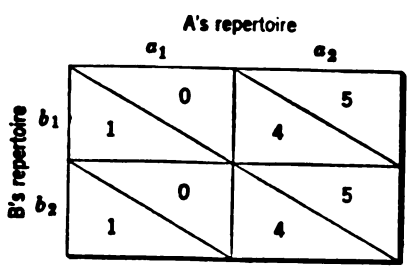

Figure 2.3.--A Affects Himself if He Exercises His Fate Control Over B.

Unlike Homans and Blau, Thibaut and Kelley believe that the values of different behavior can be precisely assessed and measured. To this end, they have identified two forms of standards or criteria against which the different outcomes of a relationship can be measured. The first of these, called the comparison level (C.L.) is the standard against which a person evaluates the "attractiveness" of the relationship or how satisfactory it is. The second is the comparison level for alternatives (C.L. alt.) which refers to the standard a person uses in deciding whether to remain in or to leave the relationship. According to Chadwick-Jones (1976), "there is a close relationship between C.L. and C.L. alt., and the two will tend to be positively correlated" (p. 45).

C.L. is a standard or criteria "by which the person evaluates the rewards and costs of a given relationship in terms of what he feels he deserves" (p. 21). The use by Thibaut and Kelley of the phrase "in terms of what he feels he deserves" makes the concept of C.L. parallel to Homans' notion of distributive justice (i.e., a person expects his rewards or outcomes to be proportional to his investments or efforts). The position of the C.L. is influenced by the person's present situation, his skills, the available opportunities and past experiences:

> The location of C.L. on the person's scale of outcomes will be influenced by all the outcomes known to the member, either by direct experience or symbolically. It may be taken to be some modal or average value of all known outcomes, each outcome weighted by its "salience," or strength of instigation, which depends, for example, upon the recency of experiencing the outcome and the occurrence of stimuli which serve as reminders of the outcome.

> Because these factors are likely to be absent or weak in the case of relationships and interactions that are unattainable, the later will ordinarily have little weight in determining the location of C.L. (p. 21).

Outcomes above the C.L. will be relatively "satisfying" and "attractive" to the member, those below it "unsatisfying" and "unattractive." Chadwick-Jones (1976), sums up the C.L. by stating that: "if one has received much, one continues to expect it. The degrees of more or less are perceived largely by comparisons with past experience" (p. 45).

C.L. alt. is "the lowest level of outcomes a member will accept in the light of available alternative opportunities" (p. 21). It follows from this that as soon as outcomes in a given relationship drop below C.L. alt. the person will, if possible, leave that relationship. The C.L. alt. is influenced by the knowledge a person has of other available relationships:

> The height of the C.L. alt. will depend mainly on the quality of the best of the member's available alternatives, that is, the reward-cost positions experienced or believed to exist in the most satisfactory of the other available relationships. As in the case of C.L., the outcomes that determine the location of C.L. alt. will be weighted by their salience (how strongly they are instigated). Unlikely outcomes in the alternative relationship will usually have little weight in fixing the location of C.L. alt. because, again, the salience of such outcomes will ordinarily be rather low (p. 21-22).

These alternative relationships can take many forms. They may be in the form of "other dyads, more complex relationships, or even the alternative of joining no group, of working or being alone" (p. 22).

Thibaut and Kelley suggest that reward values are reducible to a single psychological scale. In the matrix, the numbers in the cells are scaled from the zero point of the C.L. alt.--the least a person will accept in his present relationships. According to Chadwick-Jones (1976), the C.L. alt. "represents the individual's degree of dependence on the relationship relative to alternative relationships" (p. 45). In other words, the lower the value of a person's C.L. alt., the greater will be his dependence on that relationship.

It is quite possible, according to Thibaut and Kelley, for the C.L. alt. to fall below a person's C.L., which also "constitutes a kind of zero or neutral point on the outcome scale" (p. 97). In this case, the relationship may not offer much in the form of rewards, although the person may be coerced into it for lack of better alternatives (Chadwick-Jones, 1976). Accordingly, Thibaut and Kelley view a good relationship as "one where the members achieve for each other a relatively high number of reward-cost units above C.L. alt.; thus, each one has high power over the other" (Chadwick-Jones, p. 46).

Thus, Thibaut and Kelley agree with Homans and Blau on the basic aspect of social exchange: for each member, adequate rewards must be provided and cost of participation in the group must be kept down to reasonable levels. They do, however, differ with Homans and Blau in the extent to which they believe the concept of exchange can be applied, and in that they seem to suggest that exchange behavior

can be measured in absolute terms. But their difference with Homans and Blau is in degree, rather than in nature. And despite these differences, social exchange theorists employ more or less the same language in their discussion of social exchange.

Contemporary Exchange Vocabulary

The vocabulary of contemporary social exchange includes reinforcement, reward, cost, value, utility, resource, comparison level, transaction, profit, and outcome. Most of these concepts have been referred to in the preceding discussion of contemporary exchange theory. Consequently, their discussion here is not expected to provide anything new content wise. Nevertheless, it is expected that the definition format that is followed here will provide a set of analytic tools that can be used to enhance the reader's understanding of what goes on in exchange relationships.

Reinforcement not only serves as a point of departure for most contemporary exchange theorists, it also serves as a point of departure for the discussion of most of other concepts. As it is used in social exchange, the term reinforcement is based on Skinnerian operant psychology, which evolved around the famous Skinnerian box. It is "usually defined in quantitative measures--the frequencies of a particular behavior which are consequent on certain specified conditions" (Chadwick-Jones, 1976, p. 10). The basic assumption of reinforcement theory is that if the occurrence of a given behavior is followed by reinforcement, then the frequency of that behavior will increase. Annett (1969) views the term

reinforcement as a descriptive term that makes "anything which leads to the selective repetition of previous behavior or increases the probability of a given response to a given stimulus situation is . . . a reinforcer" (p. 122).

Among other things, the effectiveness of a particular reinforcer in influencing a person's behavior is determined by that person's past history. Baron (1966) says that "an individual's past history of social reinforcement defines for him the baseline against which the adequacy or appropriateness of present social reinforcer inputs is judged" (p. 528). Luetgert (1967) states that:

> the total reinforcement value of a given reinforcer (or class of social reinforcers) would consist partly of its general objective value in relation to the situation in which it occurs and partly of a subjective value which would vary across individuals as a function of previous experience with those reinforcers (p. 6).

Further, Luetgert (1967) writes:

> the greater the number of cues present in a given situation which have previously been associated with positive reinforcement, the greater the expectancy of positive reinforcement and the higher the level of performance (p. 8).

For research purposes, reinforcement is measurable. The frequency of a given behavior can be measured and the reinforcing conditions identified. According to Skinner (1938), frequency is a measure which indicates degree of reinforcement (i.e., the frequency of a particular behavior is a function of the rewards--positive reinforcement and punishments--negative reinforcement--that are consequent on that behavior.

Reward and Cost. In the preceding discussion, it is obvious that in reinforcement theory the concept of reward is used synonymously with "positive reinforcement," while that of punishment (which, as has been indicated earlier, is a form of cost) is used synonymously with "negative reinforcement." It is important to note that in the broader context of exchange the concepts of reward and cost carry much broader meanings than the ones portrayed here (see Definition of Terms). For example, in social exchange, the concept of reward has the "added connotation of being socially administered" (Emerson, 1976; Annual Reviews, 1976, p. 347), while that of cost is also taken to mean "rewards foregone (e.g., time and effort that could have been spent otherwise, for some other valued return)" (Emerson, 1976; Annual Reviews, 1976, p. 349).

Resource is another term whose basic meaning can be viewed in the context of reinforcement theory. It can be defined as "an ability, possession, or other attribute of an actor giving him the capacity to reward (or punish) another specified actor" (Emerson, 1976; Annual Reviews, 1976, p. 347). Like reward and cost, when viewed in the broader context of social exchange, the term resources assumes a much broader meaning than the one presented here. According to Emerson (1976), resources are not only attributes or possessions of individual actors, but they are also "attributes of the relationship between actors" (p. 348).

Value is a key concept of social exchange and its basic meaning can best be stated in terms of reinforcement. Meeker (1971)

defines a value as a conditioned nonvoluntary emotional response to stimuli. Emerson (1976) states the value of a unit of some stimulus as the magnitude of reinforcement affected by that unit. Further, Emerson (1976) draws attention to the fact that the value of a unit of Stimulus-Response (S^R) has been further elaborated in the following "derivative conditions":

a. value thresholds or standards, called "comparative levels" by Thibaut and Kelley (1959).

b. the phenomenon of satiation-deprivation and the related economic concept of diminishing marginal utility.

c. preference orders and value hierarchies.

d. the concept of cost: notably rewards foregone, or the notion of opportunity costs from economics; and aversive stimulation (Annual Reviews, 1976, p. 348).

Comparison Level (C.L.). Emerson (1976) states that the amount of S^R obtained per transaction over a series of transactions with a given environmental source becomes, over time, a neutral point on the scale of value for S^R. He gives an example of:

> a child's weekly allowance from his parents for specified duties or general good behavior might be X dollars. The child, after value adaptation to the level, will act as though departures from X carry greater value, positive or negative, than X itself (Annual Reviews, p. 348).

This "adaptation level" for valued stimuli has been discussed by different social scientists under different names. For example, Emerson (1976) notes that Baron (1966) calls it a standard of social reinforcement formed as an internal norm or frame of reference, for responding to the behavior of others. Earlier in this chapter it is referred to by Homans (1961, 1974) as the "expected level" below

which an individual will express anger. Perhaps the most elaborate discussion of the "adaptation level" is that provided by Thibaut and Kelley (see pp. 46-48).

Utility means the "subjective psychological value (i.e., amount of reinforcement) an individual derives from a good or service" (Emerson, 1976, Annual Reviews, 1976, p. 348). The process of satiation-deprivation, which is contained in Homans' fourth proposition, brings about a state of diminishing marginal utility. On this concept of diminishing utility, Emerson (1976) writes:

> The value of a unit of any type of reinforcer S^R_1 is a decreasing function of the number of units recently received (or currently possessed). . . . The organism acts in such a way as to avoid both under- and overeating--or drinking, playing, or stimulation in general (Annual Reviews, 1976, p. 348).

Summary of Exchange and Its Implications for Education

As it is discussed by both classical and contemporary theorists, exchange can be viewed as analogous to a psychological contract in a work situation. Obligations existing under a psychological contract cannot be bargained about. Both parties to the psychological contract, i.e., employer and employee, bring to the relationship a set of expectations of what each will give and receive (Lawless, 1972). Both parties are guided by assumptions of exchange concerning what is fair and equitable. Similarly, obligations created under exchange relations cannot be bargained about: they are left to the discretion of the one who owes them (Dillman, 1978).

Applied to education, this principle means that the learner expects certain returns form his participation in a learning program. If he feels that the expected returns are not likely to result from his participation in a learning program, the individual may withdraw his participation.

An analysis of classical exchange theory reveals two basic variables of exchange, viz., rewards and costs. An analysis of contemporary exchange theory reveals the same two basic variables--rewards and costs. There are only two differences between classical and contemporary theorists. First, the latter have incorporated a number of concepts into the discussion of exchange (e.g., reciprocity) that are intended to serve as governing principles in the exchange of rewards and costs. Second, while classical exchange theorists view reward and cost in terms of economic, social, symbolic, and personal exchanges, contemporary exchange theorists broaden these two primary concepts of exchange. They broaden the concept of reward to include also the following:

1. Positive regard for one's values and ideas
   (Thibaut and Kelley, 1959; Blau, 1964; Homans, 1973).
2. Positive appreciation of the task to be done and how it fits into the needs of the participant
   (Blau, 1964).

Contemporary Exchange Theorists also broaden the concept of cost to include also the following:

1. Time (Blau, 1964)
2. Physical and mental effort (Thibaut and Kelley, 1959)
3. Embarrassment, anxiety, and the feeling of inadequacy (Thibaut and Kelley,1959)
4. Subordination to another person (Blau, 1964)

This broader view of exchange holds very important implications for participation in Adult Education. First, it implies that each individual is possessed by a variety of needs, making it difficult to generalize. The individual's decision to participate in adult education programs cannot, therefore, be explained by economic, social, personal, and/or symbolic needs alone. Secondly, it implies that adult education must seek to increase the rewards of participation and at the same time, reduce the costs for participation. Increasing rewards and reducing costs should also include the development of a "cost free" learning atmosphere and the conducting of learning activities in a rewarding manner. Finally, adult education must be concerned with all possible aspects of motivation, and seek to reward the learner economically, socially, and personally.

Rewards and Costs in Adult Education

Rewards and costs in adult education can be viewed in the same way they are viewed by exchange theorists.

Rewards

In adult education, rewards can be in any of the following forms.

1. Material Rewards. Those adult education programs that have a vocational outlook must be seen as instrumental toward employment, job security, and advancement. And, the perception of these programs as economically rewarding must continue for the individual to continue learning. A learning experience does not have to lead to a job or promotion at work for it to be regarded as rewarding. Learning a skill (e.g., carpentry) in order to remodel one's house is an economical reward.

2. Personal Rewards. Personal rewards mean those things that a person may want to do for personal fulfillment. People sometimes engage in learning activities in order to satisfy "personal" needs. Included in this category is the need to become a better informed, a happier and a more interesting person; the need to fulfill curiosity and satisfy an inquiring mind; and the need to get away from routine activities and do something "more challenging."

3. Symbolic Rewards. Symbolic rewards serve as recognition for work done or services provided. In Malinowski's Kula Ring, people exchanged armlets and necklaces as a way to display their friendship. People may participate in a learning program because of the symbolic rewards that they will get from that participation. In adult education, symbolic rewards may take the form of diplomas, certificates, and attendance awards. Also, being part of the pomp and grandeur of the graduation ceremony that often follows the successful completion of a learning program is a symbolic reward to many people. Further, completing a learning program may draw

applause from relatives and friends who may also show their recognition by seeking advice from the new "scholar."

4. Social Belongingness. Exchange theory implies that adult educators should not limit their attention to the task to be learned, but should pay more attention to the needs of the learners. Instead of being more concerned with teaching the subject matter to the participants, the adult educator should be concerned with the learner's feelings, especially with regard to acceptance and sense of belonging and identity.

Several adult educationists embrace this view of the individual as a social being. Rogers (1969) says that in the process of being and becoming himself, the learner discovers that he is soundly and realistically social. Freire (1975) describes the process of conscientization as beginning with man's realization that he is not only in the world, but with the world and together with other men. According to Freire, conscientization, which is defined as a process in which men--not as recipients, but as knowing subjects--become aware of the socio-cultural reality which shapes their lives and of their capacity to transform that reality cannot be experienced by one in isolation, but only in a group.

The individual's need for social belongingness implies that adult educators should accept learning groups as a reality and think about group incentives and group dynamics. The adult educator's role must shift from that of the creator, motivator, and controller of

learning, to that of a facilitator and animateur of learning. The initiative for learning rests with the learner himself.

5. Positive Regard for One's Values and Ideas. Being regarded positively by another person has a reward value for many individuals (Thibaut and Kelley, 1959; and Blau, 1964). Positive regard for one's values and ideas can take two forms: (a) respect for one's self concept, and (b) respect for one's experience.

a. Respect for One's Self-Concept: Self-concept means the image one has of himself. According to Knowles (1975), when we are born, we are totally dependent personalities. But, as we grow up and mature, we develop an increasingly deep psychological need to be independent, first of parental control, and then later of control by teachers and other adults. As each person grows, his/her self-concept moves from being a dependent personality to a self-directing one. Increasingly one becomes an autonomous being capable of taking decisions and facing their consequences. An adult will not learn under conditions that are incongruent with his self-concept (Knowles, 1975). Therefore, in order to retain the adult learner, the adult educator should adopt, about the learners and himself, assumptions which are congruent with any system of learner-controlled learning. He must allow the learner some control over his learning activities; for instance, deciding on measures, finding resources that are relevant, and allocating time. These are aspects which contribute to one's self-concept of nondependence and self-directedness which, in turn, motivate him to continue learning (Knowles, 1975).

b. Respect for One's Experience. As a person matures, he accumulates an expanding reservoir of experience with which he defines himself (Knowles, 1975). He expects others, and especially the instructor, to recognize and respect his experiences. If other people fail to recognize and respect his experiences, the adult learner perceives this as rejecting not only his experiences, but rejecting him as a person (Knowles, 1975). The instructor should convey his respect for the adult learner's experience by making use of his/her experiences as a resource for learning. This, in turn, will contribute to the learner's self-esteem and motivate him/her to continue learning. According to Nyerere (1982), the teacher who draws out the things the learner already knows and shows their relevance to the new thing which has to be learned builds up the self-confidence of the man who wants to learn by showing him that he is capable of contributing.

Also, utilizing the adult learner's experience as a resource for learning is consultative in nature. According to Blau (1964), and Homans (1973), a consultative approach is a form of reward and, therefore, a source of motivation to the one who is consulted.

6. Positive Appreciation of the Task to be Done and How It Fits into the Needs of the Participant. Adults need to know the value of a skill before they undertake to learn it. Tough (1979) found that when adults undertake to learn a skill on their own, they invest a lot of energy in probing into the benefits that they will gain from learning it and the negative consequences of not learning

it. Similarly, when adults engage in a learning experience guided by an instructor, they expect that instructor to point out the learning material's usefulness to the learner's objectives. This is important because adults' orientation to learning is problem-centered. Adults are interested not so much in storing knowledge for use at some future time as in applying knowledge to life goals that are important at that time (Knowles, 1975). Adults should, therefore, be provided with immediate opportunities to apply newly acquired skills in real life situations.

Adults are motivated to learn those things they need to know and do in order to cope effectively with their real-life situations. According to Knowles (1975), adults go back to school largely because of the realization of some inadequacy in their ability to cope with current life problems. A learning experience can, therefore, be regarded as rewarding if participants perceive it to be instrumental to the reduction of their inadequacy to solve their problems.

The view that the relevance and applicability of the learning materials to the learner's life is a source of motivation for learning is based on the work of human developmentalists, such as Levinson (1978) and Neugarten (1979), who maintain that people are motivated to learn those things that they need because of the developmental phases they are approaching in their roles as workers, spouses, parents, etc. Adult developmentalists state that people engage in learning in order to equip themselves with the necessary capabilities that they need to fulfill their roles in life. Implied

in this view is that individuals will drop out of a learning program if it appears that the program is not instrumental in equipping them with the needs necessary to fulfill their roles in life.

Costs

Tough (1971) suggests that the typical adult learner identifies the cheapest, easiest, fastest way to learn, and then proceeds to learn independently along this self-determined route.

1. Material Cost. Carp, Peterson, and Roelfs (1974), found that lack of money for tuition, books, and child care is the most important barrier to participation in adult education. The implication is that if the cost of these things is removed, other things being equal, people will participate in adult education programs.

2. Time. The length of time required to complete a learning program is one of the major barriers to adult learning (Cross, 1981). Dhanidina and Griffith (1975) found time to be the most important barrier to participation in adult education. Again here, the implication is clear; reduce the time required to complete a program, and people will participate in these programs.

According to the Steck-Vaughn Company (1983) the time factor is very important to adults, and this demands that the bare essentials of the subject to be learned be taught in the shortest possible time.

3. Embarrassment, Anxiety, and the Feeling of Inadequacy.

Adults are easily threatened by failure and a feeling of inadequacy (Steck-Vaughn Company, 1983). Most adults come to the learning situation with a long history of failure in education. And, according to Steck-Vaughn (1983), this often forms a psychological barrier to learning. Failure in a learning situation will compound this already strong fear of failure and impose an even stronger barrier to learning. Repeated failure in learning activities will eventually drive an adult out of a learning program.

Success is the most appropriate cure for adults' lack of confidence in learning situations. Adult students should, therefore, consistently experience success in learning. Learning experiences should be so structured as to ensure early and continued success (Steck-Vaughn, 1983). This is not to say adults should be provided with simple and easy learning material. Learning materials should be stimulating, but not too demanding, especially at the early stages. At the early stages, adult learners must be provided with learning materials that offer strong possibilities for success (Steck-Vaughn, 1983). At this stage, if adults are provided with materials that are too hard for them to handle, they may elect to drop out. As they gain more confidence from regular success, adult students may be encouraged to tackle more difficult material (Steck-Vaughn, 1983).

According to Block (1971), motivation for further learning is an important result of mastery. When a learner has mastered a subject and received both objective and subjective evidence of his

mastery, there are profound changes of his view of himself and the outer world. He develops an interest in the subject mastered. At a deeper level, mastery affects a student's self-concept. Each person searches for a positive recognition of his worth and comes to view himself as adequate in those areas where he receives assurance of his success or competence. Recognition of progress toward goals seems to serve as a powerful stimulant to adult learning (Steck-Vaughn, 1983).

Appraising a student by comparing him to his peers can be very threatening to the adult learner. Block (1971) considers appraising the student in terms of a fixed standard, rather than comparing him to his peers is less threatening and is preferable for continued learning on the part of the learner.

4. Subordination to Another Person. As an adult matures, he takes charge of his own life. Going back to school usually means placing one at the command of somebody else. An instructor who sees himself as the creator and purveyor of information may want to completely take over the learner's life. This attitude on the part of the instructor may eventually drive the learner away. For the learner to tolerate the situation of being commanded by another person, that other person must show a "willingness to be a person" (Rogers, 1969). This willingness to be a person must include "a prizing, a caring, a trust and a respect for the learner." The instructor must view the learner as an equal partner in the process of learning because an individual wants to retain some control over his own affairs.

Motivation Theory

Motivation theories can be viewed as variations of exchange theory because most view human behavior as determined more or less by the desire to satisfy specific needs and accomplish certain goals. An examination of primary and secondary motivation theories and their implications to motivation in adult education should make this point clear.

Primary Motivation Theory

There are four major motivation theories that are particularly relevant to this study.

1. Psychological Behaviorism. Turner (1974) views psychological behaviorism, the proponents of which are Skinner (1938) and Pavlov (1927) "as an extreme variant of utilitarianism because it operates on the principle that animals and humans are both reward seeking organisms that pursue alternatives that will yield the most reward and least punishment" (pp. 221-222). The terms reward and punishment in psychological behaviorism are just other terms for what social exchange theorists call reward and cost.

In his books, Science and Human Behavior (1953) and Verbal Behavior (1957), Skinner says learning takes place through conditioning. Systematic observation can reveal all the various behaviors of an organism. Desirable behaviors can be enhanced through reinforcement, while undesirable behaviors can be extinguished by withholding reinforcement. Immediate reinforcement

of desired behavior is absolutely necessary in the initial stages of conditioning. As learning proceeds toward conditioned behavior, less frequent reinforcement is necessary (Dubin and Okun, 1973).

For adult education to be effective, psychological behaviorism implies that it must be based on the principle that desired responses of adults in learning activities should receive immediate reward or reinforcement (Taylor, 1982). Conversely, psychological behaviorism implies that adult educators must not reinforce undesirable behavior; and should, in fact, try to eliminate it by withholding reinforcement (Taylor, 1982).

In the early stages of learning, the adult educator should reinforce every desired response. Once learning is proceeding as expected, the adult educator should switch to a reinforcement schedule (Taylor, 1982). Further, Taylor suggests that the adult educator should develop a hierarchical arrangement of responses and establish convenient secondary reinforcers. And, should the student fail, the adult educator should share the responsibility (Dubin and Okun, 1973).

2. Force Field Analysis. Force Field Analysis (Lewin, 1951) is another variation of exchange theory in that it assumes that in any situation human behavior is influenced by both driving (positive) forces and restraining (negative) forces. Driving forces are those that exert energy in a particular direction, leading an individual to initiate change and maintain it, and restraining forces are those that act to restrain or decrease the driving forces.

Lewin describes the human being as a complex system consisting of energy, tension, and need. The value of tensions, energies, and needs is "valence," which is the mathematical value (positive or negative) of the effect of needs, energies, and tensions on the individual's equilibrium (Taylor, 1982). Equilibrium is reached when the mathematical sum of the driving forces equals the sum of the restraining forces (Hersey and Blanchard, 1977, pp. 122-123).

According to Lewin's Force Field Analysis, the adult educator must determine those tensions and needs of adults that initiate driving forces and provide learning experiences that provide fulfillment for driving forces and, thus, supply restraining forces, bringing about a sense of equilibrium (Taylor, 1982). Thus, driving forces like a need for recognition may be satisfied by the provision of restraining forces like certificates and diplomas. Similarly, vocational motives (driving force) can be fulfilled through vocational education (restraining force) (Taylor, 1982). Taylor also suggests that learning itself may become a driving force. For example, new material that has to be learned may challenge one's beliefs and thus cause a feeling of dissonance. The individual may seek to resolve this feeling of dissonance by thriving to deepen his understanding of the learning material, and thereby create a sense of equilibrium (Festinger, 1957).

3. Expectancy (Valence-Instrumentality Expectancy) Theory. As formulated by industrial psychologists, Expectancy (V.I.E.) Theory is just another form of exchange theory. Locke (1975) describes it as a form of calculative, psychological hedonism in which the individual always chooses the course of action that he expects will lead to the greatest degree of pleasure or which will produce the smallest degree of pain. In Vroom's V.I.E. model (1964), which is the prototype of all expectancy theories in industrial psychology, the individual acts to maximize his "valences," which Vroom defines as "expected satisfactions." It is worth mentioning here that the theories from which V.I.E. theory was derived, e.g., Kurt Lewin's Force Field Analysis, did not make any explicit hedonistic assumptions.

The V.I.E. theory implies that adult educators must be good diagnosticians. Before they design education programs that will satisfy people's "valences," they must know what those "valences" are.

4. Hierarchy of Human Needs. Maslow's hierarchy of human needs is another variant of exchange theory. It is based on the assumption that people's behavior is determined by the desire to fulfill human needs. In his book, Motivation and Rationality, Maslow (1954), views man's motives as falling into classes which are arranged in a hierarchy (Figure 2.4).

Higher order needs remain latent until the biological and economic needs of survival, safety, and security have been fulfilled.

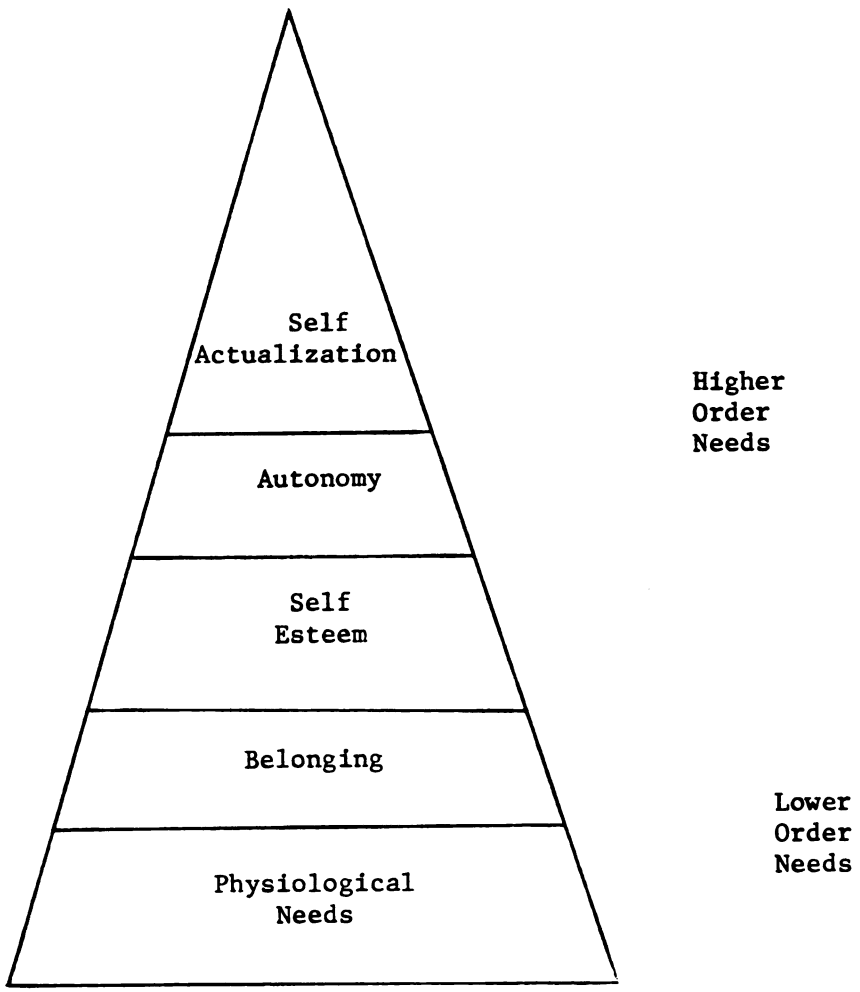

Figure 2.4 ---Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

Source: Adapted from Maslow, 1954.

According to Maslow (1970), the lower-order needs, particularly the physiological needs, are the basic drives of human nature. They are prepotent in that if they are not satisfied, they will overpower all other needs. As the lower needs are satisfied, they release some of the higher level motives. Even the lowliest untalented man seeks self-actualization, a sense of meaning and accomplishment in his work, if his other needs are more or less fulfilled. Applied to learning, Maslow's needs hierarchy implies that a person learns by steps or hierarchies. Motivation to continue learning takes place when the next step or hierarchy forward is perceived by the learner to be more "intrinsically" satisfying than the previous one (Knowles, 1975). The ultimate goal of the individual is to find, in the learning task, meaning which gives him a sense of pride and self-esteem. This process continues until the person becomes a self-actualizing being. Self-actualization is the need to maximize one's potential, whatever that potential may be (Hersey and Blanchard, 1977).

Higher order needs exist in all of us. In the case of those learners who may not be seen to be seeking challenge and self-actualization at the learning situation, the reason could be that higher order needs have not become active because lower order needs have not been satisfied.

An important aspect of Maslow's needs hierarchy is that it incorporates the need reduction philosophy and broadens it. This makes it possible for the theory to serve as a basis for further

understanding to theories and studies that are based on the concept of need. For example, the needs hierarchy concept accommodates the human development and life cycle theory of Levinson (1978) and Neugarten (1979) (Miller, 1967). Exponents of the human developmental and life cycle theory maintain that people are motivated to learn those things that they need to carry out their roles in life. Looked at within the framework of a needs hierarchy, this means that people in the early stages of adulthood are more concerned with fulfilling lower order needs of getting established in a career and raising a family than in higher order needs of achieving status and self-actualization. Having fulfilled lower order needs, older people tend to concentrate on achieving status, self-esteem, and self-actualization (Miller, 1967).

Maslow's needs hierarchy also accommodates the concept of reward. According to Mueller (1983):

> Extrinsic rewards are most useful in satisfying the lower order needs (safety, security, need for affective relationships with others). . . . Convincing employees to contribute that something extra to their jobs requires intrinsic rewards to satisfy higher order needs (self-esteem and self-actualization) p. 266).

Secondary Motivation Theory

The following set of theories are considered "secondary" because they draw heavily on the primary motivation theories discussed in the preceding section.

1. Houle's Three-Way-Typology. The first among secondary motivation theories was provided by Houle (1961). In his book, The Inquiring Mind, Houle reports his study of adults who continue to learn. The subjects of his study were 22 men and women who were identified as being actively engaged in continued learning. While there were differences among his subjects, Houle reported that, in general, these people:

> . . . had the same basic ways of thinking about the process in which they were engaged. They all had goals which they wished to achieve, they all found the process of learning enjoyable or significant, and they all felt that learning was worthwhile for its own sake (p. 15).

Further, Houle found that within the group of 22, there were three distinct, but not mutually exclusive, subgroups. He labelled those people who participated in continued education in order to accomplish specific objectives, as "goal-oriented." He termed as "activity-oriented," those persons who participated because they found a meaning in learning--a meaning that had no connection with the content or purpose of the learning activity. The third subgroup was named the "learning oriented" because they participated in learning activities for the sake of learning and acquiring knowledge (pp. 15-16).

2. Miller's Force Field Analysis. Miller (1967) uses both Lewin's Force Field Analysis and Maslow's needs hierarchy to explain differences in motivation to participate in adult vocational education between the lower-lower class and the lower-middle class. According to Miller, the lower-middle class, with its emphasis on

mobility and status, is the prime consumer of continuing education. Members of this class concentrate on satisfying belonging needs because the lower order needs of survival, safety, and security have been fulfilled. On the other hand, members of the lower-lower class are less likely to participate in adult vocational education because their lower order needs have not yet been fulfilled.

Figures 2.5 and 2.6 illustrate much higher motivation for the mobile lower-middle class for vocational education than for the relatively immobile lower-lower class. Implied in the concept of exchange is that people are likely to perform behaviors that have been rewarding to them in the past, and less likely to perform behaviors that have been painful or costly to them in the past. Positive force No. 7 in Figure 2.6 and Negative force No. 6 in Figure 2.5 seem to confirm these two implications, respectively. Familiarity with educational processes is a positive force among the lower-middle class, presumably because of their pleasant early experiences at school. On the other hand, hostility to education and middle class orientations on the part of the lower-lower class could be a result of nasty early school experiences (McClusky, 1971).

3. Kjell Rubenson's Expectancy Valency Paradigm. Using Maslow's needs hierarchy, Rubenson (1977) expands Lewin's and Vroom's valence theories to produce yet another variant of exchange theory. To Rubenson, actual motivation is a result of a combination of positive and negative forces existing within the individual and the environment. In Rubenson's V.I.E. theory, expectancy consists of:

Positive Forces

1. Survival needs
2. Changing technology
3. Safety needs of female culture
4. Governmental attempts to change opportunity structure

Negative Forces

5. Action-excitement orientation of male culture
6. Hostility to education and to middle-class object orientation
7. Relative absence of specific, immediate job opportunities at end of training
8. Limited access through organizational ties
9. Weak family structure

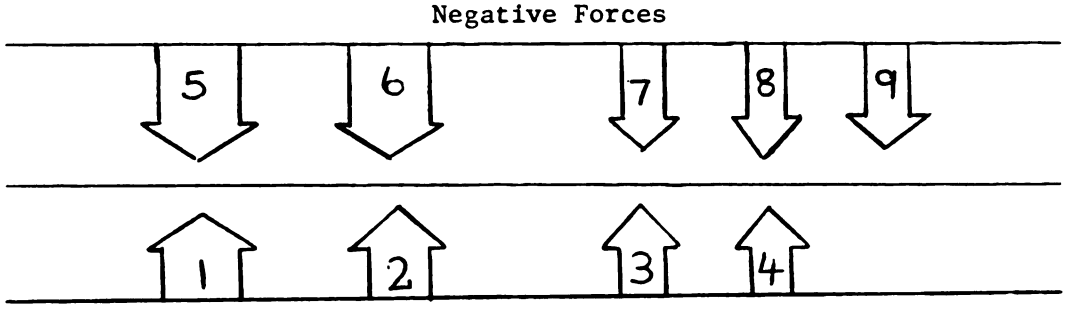

Figure 2.5.--Education for Vocational Competence, Lower-Lower-Class Level.

Source: Miller, 1967, p. 21.

Positive Forces

1. Satisfied survival need
2. Satisfied safety need
3. Strong status need
4. Changing technology
5. Access through organizational ties
6. Acceptance of middle-class career drives
7. Familiarity with educatinal processes

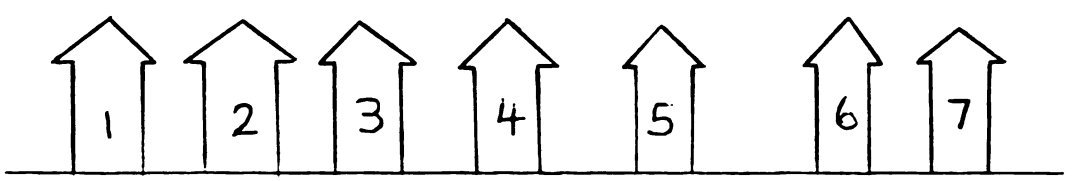

Figure 2.6.--Education for Vocational Competence, Lower-Middle-Class Level

Source: Miller, 1967, p. 23.

a. the expectation of personal success in the educational activity

b. the expectation that being successful in the learning activity will have positive consequences

For motivation to take place, each of these two components of expectancy must attain a value of more than zero. If either is zero, the resultant force of motivation to participate is zero.

In the formula, valence is the value that the individual attaches to the consequences of participation in a program. Participation in a learning program can result in both positive and negative valences. Motivation is likely to take place if more positive valences than negative valences are expected to result from participation. The expectancy alone or valence alone may not lead to participation. For participation to take place, there must be both positive expectancy and positive valence.

In a study of public administrators in Botswana, Mueller (1983) found that expectancy is an important aspect of motivation. Mueller's study revealed that the administrator's motivation to initiate and undertake a given course of action is a function of the importance of the end product of that action and the likelihood that the action can be accomplished, and will lead to the end product.

4. Boshier's Educational Participation Scale. Boshier (1971) tested Houle's three-way typology by developing an instrument, the Educational Participation Scale (EPS), that measured motives for participation. He argued that motivation to participate results from

more complex motives than those identified by Houle's typology. In a study conducted in New Zealand, including 233 adult education participants, Boshier's 48 EPS items initially revealed fourteen first-order factors of motivational orientations among participants. Further analysis produced seven second-order factors which were not exactly the same with Houle's typology, viz., (1) interpersonal improvement/escape; (2) inner versus other-directed achievement, (3) social sharing, (4) conformity to institutional expectations or requirements, (5) self-centeredness versus altruism, (6) professional future-orientedness, (7) cognitive interest (p. 15). Boshier factor analyzed, intercorrelated and rotated the seven second-order factors and produced four third-order factors that were mutually exclusive, and not very different from Houle's typology:

> Third-order factor 1 could be labelled other-directed advancement and identifies goal-oriented participants responding to some, probably vocational, environmental press. Third-order factor 2 is akin to Houle's learning orientation except that learning is undertaken not as an end in itself but to prepare oneself for some future, probably educational activity. Third order factor 3 could be described as a bipolar measure of "self versus other-centeredness." Third-order factor 4 is almost pure "social contact." The high scorer on this factor seeks social contact to compensate for what he considers to be excessively narrow and deficient educational experiences in the past (p. 19).

5. Tough's Anticipated Benefits. Tough's Anticipated Benefits model fits into the framework of exchange theory. This model views motivation to participate in adult learning as more a result of the learner's anticipation of reward than anything else. After asking a selected group of adult learners to assign weights to

selected reasons for learning, Tough (1979) concludedd that benefits for participation are anticipated at five stages:

a. Engaging in a learning activity

b. Retaining the knowledge or skill

c. Applying the knowledge

d. Gaining a material reward

e. Gaining a symbolic reward

At each stage, these anticipated benefits can be classified into three clusters: (1) pleasure (happiness, enjoyment, feeling good, satisfaction); (2) self-esteem (possessing a positive image of one's self, feeling more confident); (3) others (other people regard one more highly).

6. Cross's Chain of Response Model. After reviewing research on motivation in adult learning, Cross (1981) concluded that motivation is a complex issue that cannot be answered by a single formula. In her book, Adults As Learners, Cross proposes the Chain of Response (COR) Model, which attempts to incorporate all the formulae of motivation. The Chain of Response Model "assumes that participation in a learning activity, whether in organized classes or self-directed, is not a single act, but the result of a chain of response, each based on an evaluation of the position of the individual in his or her environment" (p. 125). Figure 2.7 illustrates the COR model.

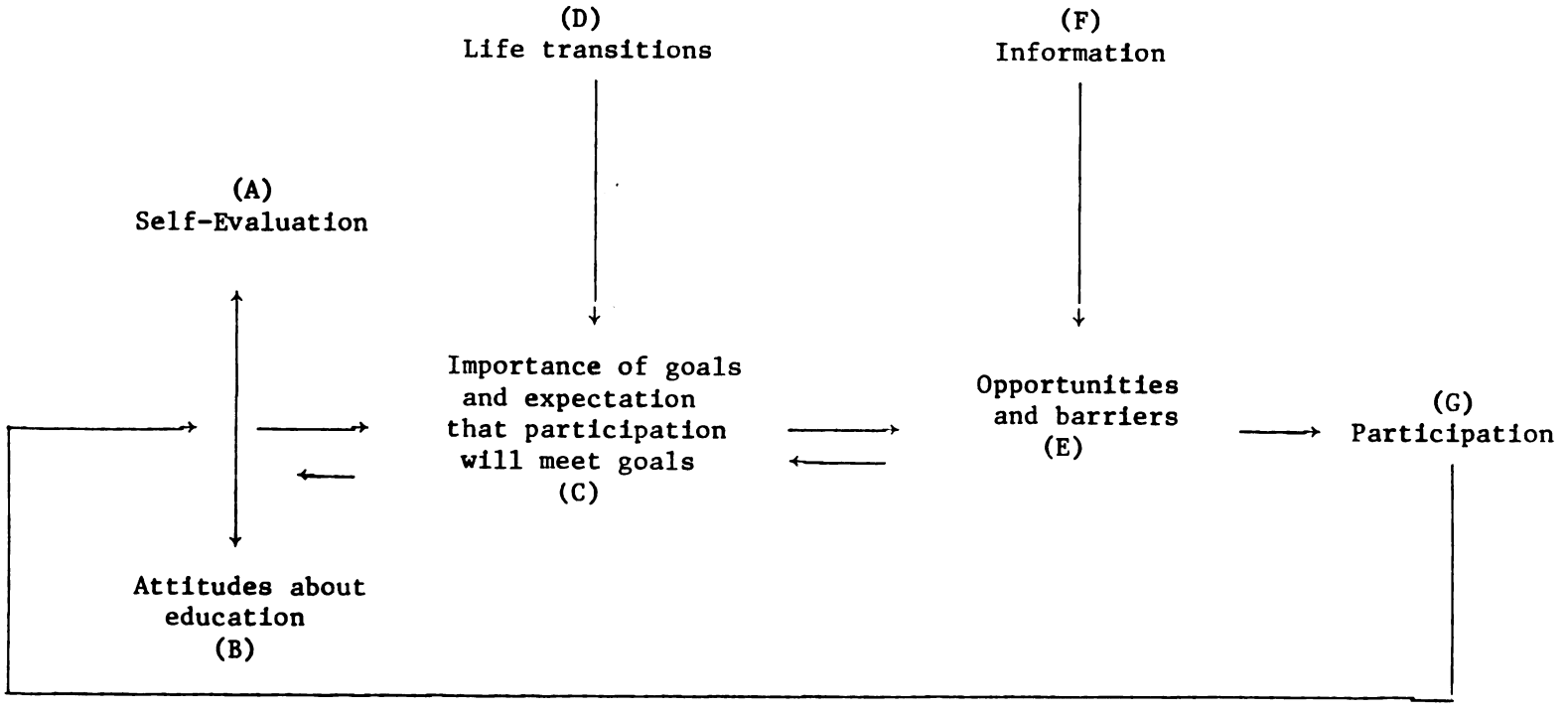

Figure 2.7.--Chain-of-Response (COR) Model for Understanding Participation in Adult Learning Activities

The COR Model indicates that motivation "in adult learning activities begin with the individual and move to increasingly external conditions--although it must be generally understood that, in any interaction situation, forces flow in both directions" (p. 125).

Point A (Self-Evaluation) suggests that motivation is a result of how the individual feels about himself. Highly confident persons are more likely to undertake learning activities than persons who lack confidence in their capabilities. The latter, "(frequently termed failure or deficiency-oriented) avoid putting themselves to the test and are unlikely to volunteer for learning which might present a threat to their sense of self-esteem" (p. 125).

Point B (Attitudes About Education) "arise directly from the learner's own past experience and indirectly from the attitudes and experiences of friends and 'significant others'" (p. 125). Adults who have pleasant memories of their early school days are likely to return to school, while adults who have unpleasant memories of early school experiences are less likely to return "to the scene of their former embarrassment."

The interaction of Points A and B, which "derive primarily from past experience and learning" can be "likened to Houle's (1961) learning-oriented adult."

Point C (Importance of Goals and Expectation that Participation will meet goals) represents the expectancy theory as it is discussed by Lewin (1951) and Rubenson (1977--that "'valence,' the importance of the goal to the individual; and 'expectancy' the individual's subjective judgment that pursuit of the goal will be successful and will lead to the desired reward" (p. 126).

Point D (Life Transitions) represents the different human development phases that may force the individual to change and adjust in order to cope with his/her life roles.

Point E (Opportunities and Barriers) is the marketing approach to motivation in adult education--remove the barriers and draw the individual's attention to "special opportunities" of education; and thus enhance the learner's motivation.

Point F (Information) is the provision of "accurate information" on suitable opportunities to "motivated learners."

Point G (Participation) is the decision to participate in a learning activity.

Finally, the arrow from G to AB represents the "research finding that people who have participated in adult education are more likely to do so in the future--presumably because such participation enhanced self-esteem, created positive attitudes toward education, led to increased expectation of success . . ." (p. 129).

Implications of Motivation Theory to Exchange Behavior in Adult Education

The following assumptions can be drawn from the discussions of both primary and secondary motivation theories:

1. There is no single dominating force behind motivation. Individuals are complex and highly variable. They have many motives which are arranged in a hierarchy of importance and affected by time and events. As Cross (1981) concludes:

> The answer to the question of why adults participate in learning activities will probably never be answered by any simple formula. Motives differ for different groups of learners, at different stages of life, and most individuals have not one but multiple reasons for learning. Whether there is a general tendency for people to have a characteristic stance toward learning--that is, a learning orientation compelling them to seek learning opportunities to grow personally and vocationally--is a question worth further study (p. 97).

2. Motivation for adult learning is a net result of interaction between psychological factors and extrinsic social and other environmental factors (Cross, 1981).

3. Individuals are capable of learning new motives through their experiences. Consequently, their motivation to learn and continue learning is a result of a complex interaction between initial motives and those developed by their experiences.

4. The learner's motives in different aspects of the learning task may be different. The learner who is alienated in the formal proceedings of the learning task may find fulfillment in informal relationships with other fellow learners.

5. The learner's ultimate motivation to continue learning depends only, in part, on the nature of his initial motivation. The nature of the task to be learned, the abilities and experience of the learner to master the learning task, the nature of the other learners, and the motivation and ability to learn the task at hand

all interact to produce a certain pattern of attitude and motivation toward the learning task.

Recent Education Studies that Appear to Use an Exchange Format

In an article entitled, "Today's College Students: Going First Class on the Titanic," Levine (1980) cites studies conducted in 1969, 1976, 1978, and 1979 which revealed that nearly half of all undergraduates in American colleges would drop out of college if they thought it was not helping their job chances. It was also found that more than a third would leave college immediately if they would get the same job now as after graduation. People who hold this view toward education are often referred to as "Yuppies" (Feree', 1984). Yuppies are career-oriented people. They engage in learning not so much for what they can get from the actual learning experience, but rather for its instrumentality to an occupation. They view education as a way to prepare for a "prosperous future." Their basic aim is to grasp a special field and obtain training for an occupation. Their choice of course program, indeed their reason for attending college, is solely driven by what Feree' (1984) calls "nonaesthetic" forces, i.e., its instrumentality in the acquisition of a high-paying job. To the Yuppies, education is meaningless if it does not serve as a means to an end--a good job.

The 18th annual Gallup Poll (1986) reveals that the Yuppie attitude toward education is not limited to young people. Adults seem to hold similar views with regard to their children's

participation in education. The poll revealed that more people mention job- and finance-related reasons for their children's participation in education. About a third (34%) cited job opportunities, 8% mentioned the need to get a better paying job, 4% mentioned the need to get specialized training, and 9% mentioned the need to achieve financial security.

According to the Gallup Poll, relatively fewer people mentioned preparation for life (23%), to acquire knowledge (10%), to become a better citizen (6%), to learn how to get along with others (4%), or to contribute to society (3%) as important reasons for participation in education.

An important finding of the Gallup Poll is that there are many benefits that people expect from their children's participation in education.

In adult education, Morstain and Smart (1974) used Boshier's Educational Participation Scale (EPS) to study 611 adult learners enrolled in American colleges. Their factor analysis study identified six dimensions. In a later study, Morstain and Smart (1977) defined the six dimensions as: (1) social relationships, (2) external expectations, (3) social welfare, (4) professional advancement, (5) escape/stimulation, and (6) cognitive interest (p. 669).

Morstain and Smart's (1977) study was aimed at developing a typology of adult learners based on analyses of motivational profiles. Again, using Boshier's Educational Participation Scale

(EPS), they identified six types of adult learners. Members of each type had a similar motivational profile across the six Educational Participation Scale (EPS) factors. The sixth type contained relatively fewer individuals and was dropped from further analysis. The five that were submitted to further analysis are shown in Figure 2.8.

After analyzing demographic information of the sample, Morstain and Smart (1977) concluded that

> none of the demographic variables was uniquely descriptive (either by their presence or absence) for any given adult learner type . . . each group of adult learners formed on the basis of similarity of motivation exhibited a fairly wide range in the demographic characteristics of its members (pp. 675-576).

Other studies that focused on reasons for learning were made by Burgess (1971) and Carp, Peterson, and Roelfs (1974). Burgess developed the Reasons for Educational Participation (REP) questionnaire. Using factor analysis, he identified seven factors that can be used to explain participation in learning. In 1974, the Commission on Nontraditional Study, conducted by Carp, Peterson, and Roelfs, adopted Burgess's seven factors and added two others they considered to be important. Participants of the Commission on Nontraditional Study (CNS) were asked to indicate many reasons for each of the nine factors: (1) knowledge goals, (2) personal goals, (3) community goals, (4) religious goals, (5) social goals, (6) escape goals, (7) obligation fulfillment, (8) personal fulfillment, and (9) cultural knowledge (Cross, 1974, p. 42).

Learner Type	Motivational Profile
1. Non-Directed	1. Somewhat undifferentiated pattern of motivational orientations; no particular motivation appeared to be compelling or of primary importance
2. Social	2. Relatively high score on social relationships and somewhat higher scores on social welfare and cognitive interest
3. Stimulation-Seeking	3. Had highest score of all types of escape stimulation and somewhat higher score on social welfare
4. Career Oriented	4. Had highest score of all types on external expectations; had lowest of all types on cognitive interest
5. Life Change	5. Relatively high scores on social relationships and escape/ stimulation; scores on all EPS scales were above means of total sample

Figure 2.8.--Five Types of Adult Learners Identified by Boshier's Educational Participation Scale (EPS)

Source: Morstain and Smart, 1977, pp. 671-674.

Summary

Related literature was reviewed from four perspectives. First, the historical background and the meaning of exchange theory and related concepts were examined from Sir James Frazer's (1919) analysis of the cross-cousin marriages among Australian Aborigines through Douglas McGregor's (1960) Theory X and Theory Y concept. Secondly, exchange theory was discussed in the context of the education philosophies of John Dewey (1938) and Van Cleve Morris (1966). Thirdly, the contemporary meaning of exchange theory and its concepts were examined through the eyes of George Homans (1961, 1974); Peter Blau (1964), and John Thibaut and Harold Kelley (1959). Finally, the implications of exchange theory to motivation in general, and motivation to participate in adult education specifically were examined from B. F. Skinner (1938) through Malcolm Knowles (1975, 1980) and other contemporary adult educationists. This review indicates the almost nonexistence of research dealing with participation in adult learning in the context of exchange.

CHAPTER III

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

The primary purpose of the study was to explore and describe the relationship between exchange forces and human behavior in adult learning. The study was, therefore, largely exploratory in nature. Exploratory research attempts to develop an initial, preliminary understanding of a phenomenon and plays a very important role in social, scientific research. In the social research process, exploratory research serves as a foundation upon which explanations and descriptions of social phenomenon are based (Babbie, 1986, p. 72).

The study also incorporated some descriptive research methods. According to John Best (1959), descriptive research can be used:

> . . . in solving a problem or charting a course of action, several sorts of information may be needed. These data may be gathered through the process of the descriptive method. The first type of information is based upon present conditions. Where are we now? From what point do we start? . . . The second type of information involves what we may want. In what direction may we go? What conditions are desirable or are considered to represent best practices? . . . The third type of information is concerned with how to reach the goal (p. 104).

In this sense, descriptive research serves to complement exploratory research. It provides information that may be used to chart a course of direction for future studies.

According to Cross (1981), research methods for motivation studies fall into four basic designs: (1) depth interviews, (2) statistical analysis of motivational scales, (3) survey questionnaires, and (4) hypotheses testing (pp. 82-97).

This study took the form of a questionnaire survey. Bateson (1984) defines a survey as "a means of knowledge production" (p. 10). According to Babbie (1986):

> survey research is probably the best method available to the social scientist interested in collecting original data for describing a population too large to observe directly (pp. 203-204).

The mode of data collection was a questionnaire. A questionnaire is "a group of printed questions used to elicit information from respondents. . . ." (Anderson et al., 1975, p. 311). Babbie (1986), Bateson (1984), Benson and Benson (1975) state that questionnaires are essential, and almost directly, associated with survey research.

In most cases questionnaires are used to collect information by means of a self-report. According to Ponce and Franchak (1981), this use of questionnaires as self-administered data collection tools:

> . . . is the method most widely used in descriptive research because of its distinct advantages over other methods, particularly its ease in administration (p. 37).

The mailed questionnaire offers the following advantages (Anderson et al., 1975, p. 311) over interviews:

1. Administered at relatively low expense since they are completed by respondents without need for the presence of an interviewer.
2. Distributed to respondents quickly
3. Answered by respondents at their own pace
4. Designed to maintain the anonymity of the respondents, thus reassuring them that their answers will not be used against them in any way, thereby eliciting more honest responses than might otherwise be obtained
5. Standardized so that all respondents receive exactly the same printed questions to answer, whereas in an interview a respondent's answer may be influenced by the way the interviewer poses the questions.

The mailed questionnaire, can, however, present serious problems to the researcher. Berdie and Anderson (1974, pp. 20-22), cite the following:

1. Low response rate. According to Ponce and Franchak (1981), the most obvious limitation of the mailed questionnaire:

> . . . is the danger of not receiving a representative response. Even with a proper sampling technique, unless a high response rate (e.g., more than 90 percent) is achieved, the study results are not representative of what the results would have been if all those who received questionnaires had responded (p. 38).

Kerlinger (1973) states that:

> Responses to mail questionnaires are generally poor. Returns of less than 40 to 50 percent are common. Higher percentages are rare. At best, the researchers must content themselves with returns as low as 50 to 60 percent (p. 414).

2. Reliability and validity. The nature of the questionnaire limits the effective checking of the reliability and validity of items and answers.

3. Question limitations. Sometimes only simple questions can be included in a questionnaire because increasingly complex questions have greater chances of being misinterpreted. Further, the questionnaire does not provide the researcher with an opportunity to probe deeply into answers received.

4. Sample limitations. The use of the questionnaire is limited to people who can read and write.

5. Completers of the form. One cannot be absolutely sure who has completed and returned a questionnaire.

5. Item independence. Because some respondents read through the entire questionnaire before completing it, questions asked later in the questionnaire may influence the answers to questions at the beginning of the questionnaire.

Kerlinger (1973) says:

> The mail questionnaire . . . has serious drawbacks unless it is used in conjunction with other techniques. Two of these defects are possible lack of response and the inability to check the response given. These defects, especially the first, are serious enough to make the mail questionnaire worse than useless, except in highly sophisticated hands (p. 414).

A different, and much more optimistic picture, of mailed questionnaires is painted by Dillman. Dillman (1978) maintains that with his "Total Design Method" (TDM), a return of 70% or more is quite possible for mailed questionnaire surveys. The Total Design Method is based on the concepts of reward and cost. It seeks to

increase the return rate of questionnaires by rewarding the respondent and making the process of filling out the questionnaire a very simple and easy task.

However, even the TDM cannot guarantee that the returned questionnaire was completed by the intended person. In a largely illiterate community, one cannot, therefore, be certain that the completed questionnaires were actually filled in by the targeted people.

The target population of this study was comprised of current ABE, GED, and Vocational Education students, and dropouts of the first two groups. Dropouts and current students of the first two groups generally possess a low standard of formal education. For this reason, the mailed questionnaire was not considered an appropriate data collection tool for this study. According to Lockhart (1984), there are two reasons why mail surveys are generally unsatisfactory for people with a lower standard of education:

> First, they find the questionnaire hard to read and to understand. They are concerned that they will make mistakes in answering the questions and that they will appear foolish to the person who reads the answers. Second, they have little or no experience with questionnaires, and they may be uncertain or suspicious of the study itself (p. 35).

Also, it was felt that the questions that sought to establish the respondent's threshold for each reward and/or cost item, could easily be misinterpreted in a mailed questionnaire survey.

For this study, an interview using a questionnaire format was used to collect data from respondents. According to Lockhart (1984), this procedure is likely to influence the respondents' answers if the

study is evaluative and the interview is held at the service/facility they are asked to evaluate. Because this study was not evaluative, the venue for the interview was not expected to make any difference in the responses. Further, this procedure increased the response rate and did not allow for spoiled or unusable questionnaires. However, this method of data collection reduced the size of the sample to a number that could be handled by the interviewer(s) without burden. Secondly, it may have influenced the interviewee's responses toward the side he/she believed the interviewer wanted to hear. Nevertheless, Lockhart (1984) indicated there were more advantages than disadvantages in personally administering questionnaires to the less educated.

The rest of this chapter will be divided into four sections. The first section describes the Population and Sample that was used in the study. The second section, Research Design, describes the types of information that were collected and the procedures that were used in the study. The third section, entitled Instrumentation and Data Collection, describes how the data were collected, and the instruments and the measures that were used in the study. The fourth and final section, Data Analysis, describes the procedures that were used to analyze the data.

Population and Sample

The population for this study was obtained from adult education students located in the semi-urban areas surrounding the

city of Lansing. These adult learners were predominantly low-income whites, dependent mainly on public assistance programs.

The identification of the population for the study was determined by the meaning that has been given to the term "adult education." Earlier in this report, the term "adult education" was defined as: "education continued after formal schooling, i.e., education provided for the benefit and adapted to the needs of persons not in the regular School, College, or University" (p. 7).

With regard to the basic tenets of this definition, the following were chosen to form the population for this study.

1. Adult Basic Education (ABE) students registered in community schools in the tri-county area (Ingham, Clinton, and Eaton (Michigan) counties)
2. Adult Basic Education (ABE) dropouts of community schools in the tri-county area
3. General Education Development (GED) students attending community schools in the tri-county area
4. General Education Development (GED) dropouts of community schools in the tri-county area
5. Vocational Education students in the tri-county area, enrolled at Area Skills Centers that are served by the Michigan Vocational Education Research Center at Michigan State University.

These three groups, i.e., the Adult Basic Education students, the General Education Development students and the Vocational

Education trainees, were also chosen because, together, they represent a large proportion of organized adult learning in public institutions. The first two groups largely represent high school dropouts, who are returning to school to complete their high school education or equivalent. The second group largely consists of those people who have gone through high school and, in some cases, possess some college qualification, but who need to acquire or improve their vocational skills. Because of their representativeness of organized public adult learning, it is hoped that hypotheses derived from a sample of these three are applicable to adult education in general.

The following criteria were used for the inclusion of subjects into the study:

1. Participants had to be at least 18 years of age
2. Participants should have spent at least 6 months in the education program
3. Dropouts were included only if a period of six months or less had elapsed since the person left the program
4. English as a Second Language (ESL) students were not included
5. Participants were selected on a volunteer basis

A total of 56 people were included as subjects in this study:

1. Adult Basic Education (ABE) students (10)
2. Adult Basic Education (ABE) dropouts (10)
3. General Education Development (GED) students (10)

4. General Education Development (GED) dropouts (10)

5. Vocational Education students (16)

Subjects were selected on a volunteer basis. Random sampling was not considered necessary because the purpose of the study was to generate, rather than to test, hypotheses. Glaser and Strauss (1970) support this view, stating that it is not necessary to use random sampling to explore relationships between variables.

Nevertheless, in selecting volunteers for this study, the investigator took into consideration Rosenthal and Rosnow's (1975) suggestions to reduce volunteer bias and to maximize volunteer participation. The suggestions are:

1. Make the appeal for volunteers as interesting as possible, keeping in mind the nature of the target population.

2. Make the appeal for volunteers as non-threatening as possible so that potential volunteers will not be "put off" by unwarranted fears of unfavorable evaluation.

3. Explicitly state the theoretical and practical importance of the research for which volunteering is requested

4. Explicitly state in what way the target population is particularly relevant to the research being conducted and the responsibility of potential volunteers to participate in research that has potential for benefiting others

5. When possible, potential volunteers should be offered not only pay for participation but small courtesy gifts simply for taking time to consider whether they will want to participate

6. Have the requests for volunteering made by a person of status as high as possible, and preferably by a woman

7. When possible, avoid research tasks that may be psychologically or biologically stressful

8. When possible, communicate the normative nature of the volunteering response

9. After a target population has been defined, an effort should be made to have someone known to that population make the appeal for volunteers. The request for volunteers itself may be more successful if a personalized appeal is made

10. In situations where volunteering is regarded by the target population as normative, conditions of public commitment to volunteer may be more successful; where non-volunteering is regarded as normative, conditions of private commitment may be more successful (pp. 198-9).

The population for the study had five distinct strata:

1. The Adult Basic Education students

2. The Adult Basic Education dropouts

3. The General Education Development students

4. The General Education Development dropouts

5. The Vocational Education students

An attempt was made to include a sixth strata, consisting of Vocational Education dropouts. However, few volunteered and the idea was dropped. For a strata to be included in the study, at least 10 people had to volunteer to be included as subjects for the study.

The rationale behind the stratification of the population was to enable a comparison across the various strata of the population.

Volunteer subjects were obtained through Community Schools and area skills centers, which were themselves selected on a volunteer basis. Volunteers for current students were selected almost entirely by the instructors of the institutions that had agreed to participate in the study. All the investigator had to do

was to appear at the institution at the scheduled time and the institution provided the students to be interviewed. To ensure that the right people were chosen, each volunteer institution was provided with a list of criteria for eligibility.

Two procedures were followed to contact potential subjects among dropouts. For those whose telephones had not been disconnected, the institution contacted them and briefed them about the study and asked if they would like to participate in it. The institution then phoned the researcher and gave him a list of the names and telephone numbers of all those who had agreed to be interviewed, after which the researcher called these people to confirm eligibility and to set up appointments for interviews. For those who could not be contacted by telephone, the institutions provided the researcher with their addresses. The researcher then visited each person and did one of the following:

1. If the person was available, agreeable, and eligible for the study, the researcher conducted the interview there and then.

2. If the person was available and eligible, but unwilling to be interviewed at that time, the researcher made arrangements to come back and interview the person at a more convenient time.

3. If the right person was not available, but another person was there, the researcher carefully explained the purposes of the study and how he had gotten that address to this other person, and made arrangements to come back at a time when the targeted person would be there. In situations like this, the researcher also left

his name and telephone number and requested that the targeted person phone him (collect) by a certain time/date if he/she was unwilling to participate in the study. Failure to phone the researcher by the deadline often meant that the person was agreeable to participating in the study.

No attempt was made to leave notes and letters at people's doors for two reasons:

1. Possibility of low reading skills of potential participants

2. Concern that notes and letters would not be able to explain, as the researcher would, the purposes of the study, and would, in fact, threaten people and discourage them from participating

If a particular address failed to yield a person after three visits, at different times of day, that person was struck off the list of potential participants.

Research Design

A questionnaire, administered by the investigator in person, was used to collect data for the study. The design of the questionnaire was guided by the types of information that were sought. Dillman (1978) divided questions into four categories based on the type of information requested, viz. attitudes, beliefs, behaviors, and attributes. A single questionnaire can contain some or all of the four categories.

Types of Information

1. Attitudes. Attitude questions ask people how they feel about something. They ask people to say whether they have positive or negative feelings about an issue. Words typically used in attitude questions are: favor versus oppose, should versus should not, reasonable versus unreasonable.

2. Beliefs. Belief questions are an assessment of what people think is true or false. They are often used to test people's knowledge on a particular subject. Belief questions can also be used to elicit people's perceptions of past, present, or future reality.

3. Behaviors. Behavior questions ask people to describe what they have done in the past, what they are currently doing, or what they plan to do in the future.

4. Attributes. Attribute questions ask people what they are, i.e., their personal characteristics--sex, income, education, residence, etc.

It was important to make this distinction at the outset because it helped reinforce the focus of the study and, at the same time, provided direction for the specific wording of individual questions (statements). Each type of information present different writing problems. According to Barbara Sawer (1984), "questions about attitudes and beliefs are more sensitive to wording variations than questions about behavior or attributes" (p. 30).

This study was concerned with why people behave the way they do toward adult education programs. It was not, however, concerned with behavior as Dillman describes it. For this study, behavior was a given. The study started after people had behaved in a certain manner and sought to explain why they had behaved that way. This study was based on the assumption that peoples' behavior is a result of their perceptions about reward and cost, as well as about what is attainable and not attainable. This made beliefs the main focus of the study. The study sought to establish what people believe to be reward and cost in adult education. For analysis purposes, the study also established the attributes of the participants and the education programs in question.

Measurement of perceptions and orientations has been used by educationists to assess people's beliefs, and thus explain their behavior toward an issue. Houle (1961) sought to establish orientations of 22 men and women in order to explain their behavior toward adult education programs. In Houle's study, behavior was a given. People were selected for inclusion into the study because they were already active in adult education. Houle wanted to explain why these people behaved in the way that they did.

Instrument Design

The actual design of the instrument was undertaken in three stages.

Developing the Survey Instrument

Using the research questions as guidelines, a set of objectives were created. The questions are as follows.

Beliefs

Research Question No. 1: What exchange forces are responsible for people's participation in adult education programs?

Two objectives were created for this question:

1. to find out exactly what the person was trying to achieve by undertaking the learning program; and
2. to determine the minimum return each learner would accept for each reason.

Research Question No. 2: What exchange forces may affect people's participation in adult education programs?

There were two objectives for this question:

1. to establish costs that people have to incur in the process of participating in learning programs; and
2. to establish how far each learner would tolerate a cost in order to get an education

Research Question No. 3: What exchange forces lead adults to withdraw from a learning program before completion?

This question had two objectives:

1. to establish forces, within and outside the learning situation, that drive people out of a learning program before completion; and

2. to determine the highest level of seriousness for each cost that the person would have tolerated and thus remained on the program, and whether the person would return to the education program if the cost in question could be reduced.

There are two other questions which did not form part of the research questions, but nevertheless had to be asked. These questions are:

Attributes

1. Who are the learners? That is, what kind of people engage in Adult Basic Education, General Education Development, and Vocational Education programs? The objective of this question was to establish to whom the data refer.

2. What is the nature of the education programs? Here the objective was to establish all the necessary details about the education programs that were included in this study: the length of time required to complete the program, setting, etc.

Two basic variables stem out of the objectives of the study, viz., rewards and costs.

1. Rewards: Benefits that people expect from participating in adult education programs.

2. Costs:

   a. Effort and costs that people may incur in their quest for educational rewards and benefits

b. Factors and conditions that may drive the learner out of the learning program

c. Factors and conditions that have led people to withdraw from education programs before completion

The concepts of reward and cost have been broken by exchange theorists to include the following:

1. Rewards

   a. Economic rewards

   b. Social rewards

   c. Symbolic rewards

   d. Personal rewards

2. Costs

   a. Economic costs

   b. Social costs

   c. Personal costs

   d. Time costs

   e. Physical and mental effort

   f. Embarrassment, Anxiety, and the Feeling of Inadequacy

   g. Subordination to Another Person

Theoretical definitions of these subconcepts of reward and cost are provided on pp. 56-63.

An examination of adult education literature revealed several instruments that employ the exchange concepts and subconcepts, mentioned above, in order to explain human behavior toward adult education programs. Among these were the Reasons for Educational

Participation (REP) questionnaire developed by Burgess (1971), Boshier's Educational Participation Scale (EPS) used by Morstain and Smart (1974 and 1977) and the revised version of Burgess's Reasons for Educational Participation (REP) questionnaire, used in the Commission of Non-Traditional study (CNS), conducted by Carp, Peterson, and Roelfs (1974). Of these two instruments, the Reasons for Educational Participation (REP) questionnaire as it was used by Carp, Peterson, and Roelfs (1974) appeared to contain more specifically the items that can be used to operationalize the two basic variables of exchange, i.e., rewards and costs (see Appendix A).

The CNS study instrument was designed to empirically answer these two questions, among others:

1. What reasons lead people to participate in adult education programs?
2. What factors constitute barriers to people's participation in adult education programs?

In the CNS study, there are 22 reasons for people's participation in adult education. These reasons for educational participation are classified into nine factors: (1) knowledge goals, (2) personal goals, (3) community goals, (4) religious goals, (5) social goals, (6) escape goals, (7) obligation fulfillment, (8) personal fulfillment, (9) cultural knowledge.

The CNS study used 27 reasons to explain people's lack of participation in adult education programs. While the section under

which these 27 reasons for lack of participation are listed is entitled "Barriers," Carp, Peterson, and Roelfs (1974), use the term "costs" in discussing these barriers.

These two aspects of the CNS study, i.e., reasons for participation and barriers to participation were used to develop the following questions of the questionnaire:

1. IA1 to IA22 (Rewards)
2. IIA1 to II27 (Costs)
3. IIIA1 to III22 (Rewards)
4. IIIB1 to IIIB38 (Costs)

A panel consisting of five professionals and three paraprofessionals was asked to participate in the development of the above questions. These people were selected from the following groups of people:

1. Instructors in the Department of Sociology, specializing in social psychology (4).
2. An instructor in the Department of Educational Administration who teaches a course that has exchange theory in its content.
3. Three graduate students in the Department of Educational Administration majoring in Adult Education.

The panel's initial involvement in the development of the instrument was undertaken in the following manner: the researcher scheduled a meeting with each person. Before the meeting took place,

the researcher delivered a package to the panel member. This package contained the following items:

1. A letter describing the purpose of the study and explaining exactly what was expected of the person (see Appendix A).
2. A 9 x 12 folder. One side of it contained the expanded concept of reward and its subconcepts, the other contained the expanded concept of cost and its subconcepts.
3. A set of 1 x 3 cards, twenty-two containing reasons for educational participation (REP); and twenty-seven containing the barriers (costs) of participation adapted from the CNS study.

Each person was asked to do the following:

1. Confirm that he/she recognized the concepts of reward and cost and their subconcepts as relevant to exchange theory as he/she knew it.
2. Delete concepts/subconcepts that were not relevant to exchange theory as he/she knew it.
3. Generate and add, on the blank cards provided, concepts/subconcepts that appeared to have been omitted from the list.

The involvement of the panel produced three important things:

1. Confirmation of the concepts of reward and cost and their subconcepts as relevant to exchange theory

2. Confirmation of the reward and cost items as they are used in the CNS study

3. The production of a general classification of items that were used to guide the classification of the 49 items that form the core of the instrument. While there was no universal agreement with regard to the classification of each and every item, a general pattern emerged. It was this general pattern that was used in the classification of the 49 basic items of the instrument.

Appendix A shows that the classification of reasons for participation (REP) according to the concept of reward and its subconcepts, as they are discussed by exchange theorists, cut across the nine factors used in the classification of these items in the CNS study.

The 22 reward items or reasons for participation were further classified according to whether they were intrinsic (Type I) or extrinsic (Type II) rewards (see Appendix A). The classification of the rewards of participation in adult education programs into intrinsic (Type I) and extrinsic (Type II) was done with the assistance of the aforementioned three graduate students and two other students from social psychology. Each student was provided with:

1. definitions of intrinsic and extrinsic rewards

2. 22 1 x 3 cards each containing a reward item

Members were then asked to place each item under the definition to which it came closest. There was universal agreement among the

students with regard to the classification of each of the 22 reward items (see Appendix A).

The rest of the survey instrument, with the exception of Section IV, was largely a result of the researcher's own attempt to establish the threshold of all the items (rewards and costs) that are contained in those questions that were developed/adapted from the CNS study instrument.

Section IV, containing attributes questions, was adapted from the CNS study instrument.

Refining the Survey Instrument

The refining of the instrument was confined to those parts of the questionnaire that were not derived or adapted from the CNS study instrument. The five students mentioned earlier were involved in the refinement of the instrument. Each student was asked to examine the instrument and confirm the clarity of expression and his/her ability to understand all questions and items in the questionnaire. Refinement of the instrument was in no way designed to validate the instrument, but rather to determine the clarity of the instrument. Because these parts of the instrument were mainly of the investigator's own doing, it was felt that other people should look at the instrument and assess its clarity before it was used.

Pretesting

According to Lundberg (1942), pretesting is a very important aspect of research because it often reveals the questionnaire's

weaknesses before it is presented to the participants of the study. Pretesting can be done formally or informally. The most appropriate form of pretesting of a survey instrument is done with respondents who are representative of the group that will eventually receive that instrument.

Dillman (1978) considers the following questions important to the pretesting of a questionnaire:

1. Does each question measure what it is supposed to measure?
2. Are all the words understood?
3. Do all respondents interpret the question in the same way?
4. Are all response choices appropriate?
5. Do respondents correctly follow directions?
6. Is the range of response choices actually used?
7. Does the questionnaire create a positive impression that motivates people to respond?
8. Are questions answered correctly?

For this study, pretesting was a one-to-one interview conducted by the researcher with people who were similar to the survey population. Due to some misunderstanding with a potential volunteer community school, the pretest with regard to current ABE and GED students was undertaken twice. The first unofficial pretest, which involved seven current ABE and GED students, deserves mention

here because it led to a very interesting discovery that influenced the way the next pretests were handled.

In the first, unofficial pretest, the interview was conducted in the following manner: the interviewee was handed a copy of the questionnaire and was asked to read along with the interviewer. It was noticed that interviewees tended to read ahead and several of them actually pointed out certain items as reasons for their participation before the interviewer said anything about those items.

In order to exercise more interviewer control of the interview proceedings of the subsequent official pretests, which were administered to a total of 22 people (see Table 3.1 for a strata by strata breakdown) the interviewer used a set of 3 x 5 cards, each containing a reward or a cost item. In the pretest interview, the interviewer handed the cards, one at a time, to the respondent. This helped to ensure that each reward or cost item was considered separately by the respondent, and was not affected by the other items in the questionnaire.

Table 3.1.--The Pretest Groups

Population	No. of People in Pretest Group
ABE Students	5
ABE Dropouts	4
GED Students	5
GED Dropouts	4
Vocational Students	4

The use of the cards worked very well in the pretests and was, as far as possible, incorporated into the actual interviews. However, as the pretest interviews progressed, a few minor modifications were introduced into the card system:

1. The size of the cards was altered from 3 x 5 to 1 x 3 for easier handling
2. The print on each card was done by a typewriter instead of a felt pen because people with low reading skills seem to prefer typewritten material to handwritten material

Other changes that were introduced as the pretest interviews progressed were:

1. Some items were broken into two items
2. For each section, a separate sheet of paper showing the appropriate response categories was handed to the respondent to assist him/her in the process of selecting the appropriate response category for each item.

These changes were also incorporated, as far as the situation permitted, into the actual interviews.

Description of the Instrument

The survey instrument was altered according to the revelations of the pretests, and it is presented in Appendix B. It consists of four sections. Section I asked the respondent whether each of 22 reasons for learning was responsible for his/her participation in the program and, if it were, how important was it. Costs of learning is the subject of Section II, which also sought to

establish how serious those costs that applied to the respondent were. Section III was aimed at dropouts. It was designed to establish the forces that led the learner to withdraw from a learning program before completing it. The last section of the questionnaire was used to elicit demographic data from the respondents.

For most questions, the survey used a scale of 1 (least important) to 5 (most important). For example, each participant was asked to indicate how important each reason was for his/her participation.

Data Collection and Analysis

The data were collected by the investigator over an eight-week period (April, May, June 1987). Occasionally, a colleague accompanied the investigator to assist in some way (e.g., handing the cards to the interviewee). There was never an occasion on which a colleague interviewed a person alone.

Data Preparation

The data analysis process began with a review of all completed questionnaires by the investigator, followed by the development of the codebook for the variables explored in the study. The investigator hired a programmer to enter the data into the computer and to write the appropriate computer programs for analysis.

Data Analysis

Data analysis was based on descriptive statistical techniques.

Descriptive statistics were used to tabulate and describe the data through frequent distributions, percents, and one measure of central tendency, the mean. According to Frank J. Kohout (1974), "the purpose of using any measure of central tendency is to provide a convenient and meaningful summary of an entire distribution of scores" (p. 23) Kohout also writes:

> Strictly speaking, the mean should not be used for ordinal data, since we must assume in computing the mean that the measurement level is isormophic to the set of operations we call arithmetic. . . . Since the mode is independent of the absolute values assigned to score points, it can be used with ordinal data. The median can also be used with ordinal data, since it merely indicates the point below which 50% of the scores fall (p. 23).

However, due to the small size of the sample, the mode and the median could not distinguish between variables that had minor differences. For this reason, neither of these two measures of central tendency were used to rank variables; the mean was used instead. Kohout (1974) states that:

> In some cases, the use of the mean with ordinal data does indeed make sense, so that the level of measurement might be relaxed. For example, when ranks have been assigned to scores or classes of scores, the mean rank of the distribution may be an appropriate index of central tendency (p. 23).

The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (Nie, et al., 1975) computer program using the Michigan State University IBM computer was used to determine the summary statistics for the variables of the study.

The analysis of the data was guided by the following factors.

The Purpose of the Study

The primary purpose of this research was to explore and describe the relationship between exchange forces and human behavior in adult learning. It was mainly designed to formulate hypotheses for further research, not to test hypotheses. Therefore, in addition to descriptive analysis techniques, some exploratory data analysis techniques were used. An underlying principle of the exploratory approach to data analysis is that the more information about the data, the more effectively the data can be used to develop, test, or refine theory (Hartwig and Dearing, 1979):

> The exploratory approach to data analysis seeks to maximize what is learned from the data, and this requires adherence to two principles: skepticism and openness. One should be skeptical of measures which summarize data since they can sometimes conceal or even misrepresent what may be the most informative aspects of the data, and one should be open to unanticipated patterns in the data since they can be the most revealing outcomes of the analysis (p. 9).

This view calls for caution in the examination of numerical summaries, and more openness toward alternative patterns of the data. In accordance with this view, a certain amount of skepticism was exercised in viewing numerical summaries, and more attention was paid to other patterns of the data.

The Size of the Sample

The study included a sample of 56 people: 36 current students and 20 dropouts. The sample was, therefore, small enough to be scrutinized in detail, and at the same time, big enough to indicate the nature of the relationship between exchange forces and human behavior toward adult education programs, and thus point the direction for further research.

Chapter Summary

In Chapter III the procedures used in the research were presented. The chapter was concerned with the participants, research questions, research design, description of the instrument, actual interview procedures used in the study, and data analysis. Chapter IV presents the research findings.

CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION OF FINDINGS

This chapter presents, in descriptive form, the data collected and analyzed according to procedures described in Chapter III. The chapter is divided into four main parts. Each part represents one research question and its objective(s).

Research Question No. 1: Who are the respondents?

Objective: To establish to whom the data refer.

Research Question No. 2: What exchange forces are responsible for people's participation in adult education programs?

Objective No. 1: To find out exactly what the person was trying to achieve by undertaking the learning program.

Objective No. 2: To determine the minimum return each learner would accept for each reason

Research Question No.3: What exchange forces may affect people's participation in adult education programs?

Objective No. 1: To establish costs that people incur in the process of participating in learning programs.

Objective No. 2: To establish how far each learner would tolerate a cost in order to get an education.

Research Question No. 4: What exchange forces lead adults to withdraw from a learning program before completion?

Objective No. 1: To establish forces within and outside the learning situation that drove people out of a learning program before completion.

Objective No. 2: To determine the highest level of seriousness for each cost that the person would have tolerated and thus remained on the program and whether the person would return to the education program if the cost in question could be reduced.

Tables present the number of responses (N), frequencies (f), and percentages (%). Percentages may not always add up to 100% because of rounding of numbers. In tables, items are listed either in the order of their appearance in the instrument, or in the descending or ascending order according to the number of people who selected each item and/or according to the importance or seriousness accorded each item by the respondents. Where several items share the same frequency, percentage, importance, and/or seriousness, ranking was determined by the order of items in the survey instrument. Those tables that rank items according to importance and/or seriousness also contain the mean. According to Frank J. Kohout (1974), the mode and the median are more appropriate than the mean for ranking ordinal data. However, because of the size of the sample, the mode and the median could not discriminate between those items that had minor differences. The mean had to be used instead.

Thirty-six current adult learners and 20 adult education dropouts were interviewed for the study. The learners were composed of the following groups: 10 ABE students, 10 GED students, and 16 vocational students. Dropouts were made up of 10 ABE and 10 GED dropouts. Because eligibility was established before the actual interview, all the 56 people interviewed for the study provided usable data.

Research Question No. 1

Research Question No. 1: Who are the respondents?

Objective: To establish to whom the data refer.

Table 4.1 presents a breakdown of the personal characteristics of all the respondents.

1. Nearly 60% of the respondents were female.

2. More than 90% of the respondents were between the ages of 18 and 44, and nearly all of these were under 25.

3. An overwhelming 96.4% of all respondents were white.

4. Just more than 60% were single, while 37.5% were married. One person was divorced.

5. A little more than 50% indicated that they had no children under 17 years of age; about 20% had one child under the age of 17, while 25% indicated they had two children under 17 years of age. One person had more than four children under 17 years of age.

6. Nearly three-quarters of the respondents did not finish high school, and of these, 36.6% left school in the 8th grade or below.

TABLE 4.1.--Personal Characteristics of Respondents. (Sample: N = 36 Current Learners and 20 Dropouts. Total = 56)

	Current Students		Dropouts		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Type of Program						
ABE	10	27.8	10	50.0	20	35.7
GED	10	27.8	10	50.0	20	35.7
Voc. Education (1) Technical	11	30.6	--	--	11	19.6
(2) Business	5	13.9	--	--	5	8.9
Sex						
Male	19	52.8	5	25.0	24	42.9
Female	17	47.2	15	75.0	32	57.1
Age						
Under 25	16	44.4	7	35.0	23	41.1
25 - 29	5	13.9	1	5.0	6	10.7
30 - 34	4	11.1	5	25.0	9	16.1
35 - 44	7	19.4	6	30.0	13	23.2
45 - 54	1	2.8	1	5.0	2	3.6
55 and over	3	8.3	0	0.0	3	5.4
Race						
White	34	94.4	20	100.0	54	96.4
Black	1	2.8	0	0.0	1	1.8
Hispanic	1	2.8	0	0.0	1	1.8
Native American	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Asian	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Other	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0

TABLE 4.1.--Continued

	Current Students		Dropouts		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Marital Status						
Single	23	63.9	11	55.0	34	60.7
Married	12	33.3	9	45.0	21	37.5
Divorced	1	2.8	0	0.0	1	1.8
Separated	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Widowed	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Children, 17 Years or Younger						
None	22	61.1	7	35.0	30	53.6
One	8	22.2	4	20.0	14	25.0
Two	5	13.9	9	45.0	11	19.6
Three	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Four	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
More than four	1	2.8	0	0.0	1	1.8
Highest Level of Formal Education						
8th grade or less	4	11.1	11	55.0	15	26.8
9th - 12th grade	23	63.9	9	45.0	32	57.1
High School	9	25.0	0	0.0	9	16.1
College Studies	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Current Job Situation						
Employed full time	8	22.2	2	10.0	10	17.9
Employed part time	12	33.3	10	50.0	22	39.3
Unemployed	14	38.9	8	40.0	22	39.3
Retired	2	5.6	0	0.0	2	3.6

TABLE 4.1.--Continued

	Current Students		Dropouts		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Job Classification						
Semi-skilled	6	16.7	12	60.0	18	32.1
Skilled	1	2.8	0	0.0	1	1.8
Sales/clerical	4	11.1	0	0.0	4	7.1
Manager/proprietor	4	11.1	0	0.0	4	7.1
Professional/technical	5	13.9	0	0.0	5	8.9
Annual Household Income						
Less than $3,000	9	25.0	2	10.0	11	19.6
$3,000 to $4,999	8	22.2	7	35.0	15	26.8
$5,000 to $6,999	8	22.2	9	45.0	17	30.4
$7,000 to $7,999	2	5.6	1	5.0	3	5.4
$8,000 to $9,999	5	13.9	1	5.0	6	12.5
$10,000 to $14,999	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
$15,000 to $24,999	4	11.1	0	0.0	4	7.1
$25,000 and Over	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Time of Class Meeting						
Morning/Afternoon	22	61.1	12	60.0	34	60.7
Evening	14	38.9	8	40.0	22	39.3

7. Only 10 (17.9%) had a full-time job. Twenty-two (39.3%) were in part-time employment, and another 22 indicated that they were unemployed. Two people (3.6%) indicated that they were retired. Of the 32 who were employed, only one person was doing a skilled job, 16 (50.0%) were doing semiskilled work, and the rest were divided almost equally among sales, managerial and technical work.

8. More than three-quarters of the respondents reported a household income of less than $7,000 per year.

9. About 60% of the respondents attended day school, i.e., morning and afternoon classes. The rest attended evening classes.

Research Question No. 2

Research Question No. 2: What exchange forces are responsible for people's participation in adult education programs?

Objective 1: To find out exactly what the person was trying to achieve by undertaking the learning program.

Tables 4.2 through 4.5 give data requested for Objective 1. In questions IA and IIIA of the survey instrument (see Appendix B), learners and dropouts were asked to indicate whether the 22 reasons for learning contained in these questions applied to them. Table 4.2 shows the number of responses (N), frequencies (f), and percentages (%) of learners and dropouts who selected each reason. Frequency distribution and percentages for learners are given in Table 4.3, while Table 4.4 ranks learners' reasons for learning by importance. Table 4.5 ranks dropouts' reasons for learning by frequencies and

TABLE 4.2.--Respondents' Indications of all Reasons for Learning That Were Applicable to Them.
(Learners N = 36; Dropouts N = 20; Total N = 56)

Rank #	Reason	Category of Reward		Frequencies and Percentages of Respondents who Indicated the Reason as Applicable to Them		
				Learners N = 36	Dropouts N = 20	Total N = 56
6	To help to get a new job	Economic	f	23	14	37
			%	63.9	70.0	66.1
19	To help to advance in present job	Economic	f	5	10	15
			%	13.9	50.0	26.8
2	To become better informed	Personal	f	31	20	51
			%	86.1	100.0	91.1
1	To enrich my life	Personal	f	33	20	53
			%	91.7	100.0	94.6
3	To meet new people	Social	f	23	20	43
			%	63.9	100.0	76.8
13	To meet requirements for getting into an educational program	Economic	f	18	8	26
			%	50.0	40.0	46.4
21	To be a better parent, husband, or wife	Personal	f	8	6	14
			%	22.2	30.0	25.0
9	To get away from the routine of daily living	Personal	f	18	15	33
			%	50.0	75.0	58.9
5	To work toward certification or licensing	Economic	f	26	12	38
			%	72.2	60.0	67.9
17	To better understand community problems	Social	f	9	7	16
			%	25.0	35.0	28.6
22	To be better able to serve my church	Social	f	4	3	7
			%	11.1	15.0	12.5

TABLE 4.2.--Continued

Rank #	Reason	Category of Reward		Frequencies and Percentages of Respondents Who Indicated the Reason as Applicable to Them		
				Learners N = 36	Dropouts N = 20	Total N = 56
15	To meet the requirements of my employer or profession	Economic	f	14	5	19
			%	38.9	25.0	33.9
10	To become a more effective citizen	Social	f	14	15	29
			%	38.9	75.0	51.8
12	To work toward a degree/diploma	Economic	f	19	8	27
			%	52.8	40.0	48.2
16	To learn more about my own background and culture	Personal	f	10	9	19
			%	27.8	45.0	33.9
8	To feel a sense of belonging	Social	f	17	17	34
			%	47.2	85.0	60.7
7	To satisfy curiosity	Personal	f	26	11	37
			%	72.2	55.0	66.1
4	To learn for the sake of learning	Personal	f	26	13	39
			%	72.2	65.0	69.6
11	To become a happier person	Personal	f	16	12	28
			%	44.4	60.0	50.0
18	To work toward solutions of problems, such as discrimination and pollution	Social	f	10	6	16
			%	27.8	30.0	28.6
20	To get away from personal problems	Personal	f	9	6	15
			%	25.0	30.0	26.8
14	To improve my spiritual well-being	Personal	f	15	5	20
			%	41.7	25.0	35.7

Based on the number and percentage of people who selected each reason.

TABLE 4.3.--Learners' Reasons for Learning (N = 36)

Item	Reason	Category of Reward		Learners Who Responded					Respondents who Indicated Reason Did Apply
				Not Apply	Not at all Important	Slightly Important	Moderately Important	Very Important	
1	To help to get a new job	Economic	f	13	0	0	0	23	23
			%	36.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	63.9	63.9
2	To help to advance in present job	Economic	f	31	0	0	0	5	5
			%	86.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	13.9	13.9
3	To become better informed	Personal	f	5	0	2	11	18	31
			%	13.9	0.0	5.6	30.6	50.0	86.1
4	To enrich my life	Personal	f	3	0	3	4	26	33
			%	8.3	0.0	8.3	11.1	72.2	91.7
5	To meet new people	Social	f	13	4	7	7	5	23
			%	36.1	11.1	19.4	19.4	13.9	63.9
6	To meet requirements for getting into an educational program	Economic	f	18	0	2	5	11	18
			%	50.0	0.0	5.6	13.9	30.6	50.0
7	To be a better parent, husband, or wife	Personal	f	28	0	4	2	2	8
			%	72.8	0.0	11.1	5.6	5.6	22.2
8	To get away from the routine of daily living	Personal	f	18	1	6	8	3	18
			%	50.0	2.8	16.7	22.2	8.3	50.0

TABLE 4.3.--Continued

Item	Reason	Category of Reward		Learners Who Responded					Respondents who Indicated Reason did Apply
				Not Apply	Not at all Important	Slightly Important	Moderately Important	Very Important	
9	To work toward certification or licensing	Economic	f	10	0	3	3	20	26
			%	27.8	0.0	8.3	8.3	55.6	72.2
10	To better understand community problems	Social	f	27	1	2	3	3	9
			%	75.0	2.8	5.6	8.3	8.3	25.0
11	To be better able to serve my church	Social	f	32	0	1	2	1	4
			%	88.9	0.0	2.8	5.6	2.8	11.1
12	To meet the requirements of my employer or profession	Economic	f	22	0	2	1	11	14
			%	61.1	0.0	5.6	2.8	30.6	38.9
13	To become a more effective citizen	Social	f	22	0	6	6	2	14
			%	61.1	0.0	16.7	16.7	5.6	38.9
14	To work toward a degree/ diploma	Economic	f	17	0	2	1	16	19
			%	47.2	0.0	5.6	2.8	44.4	52.8
15	To learn more about my own background and culture	Personal	f	26	1	4	2	3	10
			%	72.2	2.8	11.1	5.6	8.3	27.8
16	To feel a sense of belonging	Social	f	19	3	3	5	6	17
			%	52.8	8.3	8.3	13.9	16.7	47.2

TABLE 4.3.--Continued

Item	Reason			Learners Who Responded					Respondents Who Indicated Reason did Apply
				Not Apply	Not at all Important	Slightly Important	Moderately Important	Very Important	
17	To satisfy curiosity	Personal	f	10	1	5	8	12	26
			%	27.8	2.8	13.9	22.2	33.3	72.2
18	To learn for the sake of learning	Personal	f	10	0	3	5	18	26
			%	27.8	0.0	8.3	13.9	50.0	72.2
19	To become a happier person	Personal	f	20	1	3	7	5	16
			%	55.6	2.8	8.3	19.4	13.9	44.4
20	To work toward solutions of problems, such as discrimination or pollution	Social	f	26	2	4	2	2	10
			%	72.2	5.6	11.1	5.6	5.6	27.8
21	To get away from personal problems	Personal	f	27	2	2	3	2	9
			%	75.0	5.6	5.6	8.3	5.6	25.0
22	To improve my spiritual well being	Personal	f	21	1	1	6	7	15
			%	58.3	2.8	2.8	16.7	19.4	41.7

TABLE 4.4.--Rank Order of Learners' Reasons for Learning by Importance (N = 36)

Rank #	Reason	Category of Reward	Respondents Who Cited Reason		Learners Who Responded Very Important (%)	
					Total Respondents	Those who cited Reason
5	To help to get a new job	Economic	23	f	23	23
				%	63.9	100.0
21	To help to advance in present job	Economic	5	f	5	5
				%	13.9	100.0
2	To become better informed	Personal	31	f	18	18
				%	50.0	58.1
1	To enrich my life	Personal	33	f	26	26
				%	72.2	78.8
9	To meet new people	Social	23	f	5	5
				%	13.9	21.7
8	To meet requirements for getting into an educational program	Economic	18	f	11	11
				%	30.6	61.1
20	To be a better parent, husband, or wife	Personal	8	f	2	2
				%	5.6	25.0
12	To get away from the routine of daily living	Personal	18	f	3	3
				%	8.3	16.7
4	To work toward cerfification or licensing	Economic	26	f	20	20
				%	55.6	76.9
17	To better understand community problems	Social	9	f	3	3
				%	8.3	33.3
22	To be better able to serve my church	Social	4	f	1	1
				%	2.8	25.0
10	To meet the requirements of my employer or profession	Economic	14	f	11	11
				%	30.6	78.6
15	To become a more effective citizen	Social	14	f	2	2
				%	5.6	14.3

TABLE 4.4.--Continued

Rank #	Reason	Category of Reward	Respondents Who Cited Reason		Learners Who Responded Very Important (%) Total Respondents	Those who Cited Reason
7	To work toward a degree/diploma	Economic	19	f	16	16
				%	44.4	84.2
16	To learn more about my own background and culture	Personal	10	f	3	3
				%	8.3	30.0
13	To feel a sense of belonging	Social	17	f	6	6
				%	16.7	35.3
6	To satisfy curiosity	Personal	26	f	12	12
				%	33.3	46.2
3	To learn for the sake of learning	Personal	26	f	18	18
				%	50.0	69.2
14	To become a happier person	Personal	16	f	5	5
				%	13.9	31.3
18	To work toward solutions of problems, such as discrimination or polution	Social	10	f	2	2
				%	5.6	20.0
19	To get away from personal problems	Personal	9	f	2	2
				%	5.6	22.2
11	To improve my spiritual well-being	Personal	15	f	7	7
				%	19.4	46.7

Based on the number of people who selected each reason.

TABLE 4.5.--Dropouts' Reasons for Learning (N = 20)

Rank #	Reason	Category of Reward		Dropouts Who Selected the Reason
1	To become better informed	Personal	f	20
			%	100.0
2	To enrich my life	Personal	f	20
			%	100.0
3	To meet new people	Social	f	20
			%	100.0
4	To feel a sense of belonging	Social	f	17
			%	85.0
5	To get away from the routine of daily living	Personal	f	15
			%	75.0
6	To become a more effective citizen	Social	f	15
			%	75.0
7	To help to get a new job	Economic	f	14
			%	70.0
8	To learn for the sake of learning	Personal	f	13
			%	65.0
9	To work toward certification or licensing	Economic	f	12
			%	60.0
10	To become a happier person	Personal	f	12
			%	60.0
11	To satisfy curiosity	Personal	f	11
			%	55.0
12	To learn more about my own background and culture	Personal	f	9
			%	45.0
13	To meet requirements for getting into an educational program	Economic	f	8
			%	40.0
14	To work toward a degree/ diploma	Economic	f	8
			%	40.0

TABLE 4.5.--Continued

Rank #	Reason	Category of Reward		Dropouts Who Selected the Reason
15	To better understand community problems	Social	f %	7 35.0
16	To be a better parent, husband, or wife	Personal	f %	6 30.0
17	To work toward solutions of problems, such as discrimination and pollution	Social	f %	6 30.0
18	To get away from personal problems	Personal	f %	6 30.0
19	To meet the requirements of my employer or profession	Economic	f %	5 25.0
20	To improve my spiritual well being	Personal	f %	5 25.0
21	To be better able to serve my church	Social	f %	3 15.0
22	To help to advance in present job	Economic	f %	2 10.0

Based on the number and percentages of people who selected each reason.

percentages. The three tables also show to which of the three categories of reward--economic, personal, and social--each reason belongs.

The personal fulfillment reasons "to enrich my life" (94.6%) and "to become better informed" (91.1%) were the most frequently cited reasons for learning by both learners and dropouts. The third most frequent reason for learning was the social desire "to meet new people," mentioned by 43 (76.8%) of all respondents. Learning for the sake of learning (personal) was the fourth, with 39 (69.6%) of the respondents' identifying it as partly responsible for their participation in adult learning. Fifth in frequency was the economic reason "to work toward certification or licensing," selected by 38 (67.9%) of all respondents. Sharing the sixth position were the economic desire "to help to get a new job" (66.1%), and the personal need "to satisfy curiosity" (66.1%). While there are variations between learners' and dropouts' most frequently cited reasons, these six reasons for learning are among the first eleven in frequency distributions for each group.

Reasons for Learners

The personal reasons "to enrich my life" (91.7%), and "to become better informed" (86.1%) were the most frequently cited reasons indicated by learners (Table 4.3). Next in frequency among learners were two other personal desires, "to satisfy curiosity" and "to learn for the sake of learning," and the economic need to "work toward certification or licensing" each selected by 72.2% of the

learners. Getting a new job (economic), and meeting new people (social), were fourth in frequency, with 63.9% of learners indicating each as applicable to their participation in adult learning. Fifth and sixth were the economic desires to get a degree/diploma (52.8%) and to fulfill entrance requirements for an educational program (50%).

Learners were asked to indicate the importance of each of the reasons that applied to them. The degree of importance was based on the following Likert-type scale:

2 = not at all important

3 = slightly important

4 = moderately important

5 = very important

Table 4.4 illustrates that for learners, the most important reasons for learning were personal fulfillment, with economic or job-related reasons next in importance. A total of 26 or 72.2% of learners identified the personal need to enrich one's life as a very important reason for their participation in a learning program. Second ranked in importance, rated as very important by 50% of the learners, was the personal desire to become better informed. Learning for the sake of learning (personal) ranked third, with 18 learners (50%) rating it as very important. Ranking fourth and fifth in importance among learners were the economic reason to work toward a certificate or license and the personal reason to satisfy one's curiosity, rated as very important by 55% and 63.9%, respectively. The economic need to

get a new job was rated sixth in importance by learners, 63.9% of whom identified it as very important. No one indicated any of the first five reasons as not important as a reason for learning, and only one person (2.8%) indicated the desire to satisfy one's curiosity as a "not at all important" reason for learning.

Reasons for Dropouts

For dropouts, the most frequently cited reasons were personal, followed by social reasons (see Table 4.5). The personal reasons to become better informed and to enrich one's life, and the social desire to meet new people were the most frequently cited reasons for learning, each selected by all the 20 dropouts that were interviewed for the study. Second in frequency among dropouts was the social need to feel a sense of belonging, cited by 17 or 85% of all dropouts. Sharing the third position were the personal desire to get away from the routine of daily living and the social need to become a more effective citizen, each selected by 75% of the dropouts. Getting a new job (economic), cited by 70% was fourth in frequency among dropouts. The need to be better able to serve one's church (social) and the desire to advance in one's present job (economic) were the least in frequency, cited by 15.0% and 10.0%, respectively.

Dropouts were not asked to indicate the degree of importance for each reason that applied to them. Ranking of dropouts' reasons for learning was, therefore, based on frequencies and percentages of respondents who selected each reason.

Objective 2: To determine the minimum return each learner would accept for each reason.

For this objective, data shown in Tables 4.6 through 4.11 was requested only from learners. Learners were asked to provide the following information:

1. To indicate the comparative level (C.L.) or the level of satisfaction for each of the twenty-two reasons that may have contributed to their decision to engage in learning.

2. To identify the exchange reasons, i.e., those reasons for which they would quit the program if the level of satisfaction or the prospect of fulfillment dropped to "not at all satisfactory," and/or those reasons the fulfillment of which would lead to their withdrawal.

3. To indicate the comparison level for alternatives (C. L. alt.) or the lowest level of satisfaction for each reason, below which they would quit the program.

The degrees of satisfaction for each reason were defined according to the following scale: (1) not at all satisfactory; (2) slightly satisfactory, (3) moderately satisfactory, and (4) very satisfactory. To establish the exchange reasons, a simple yes or no was used.

Comparison Level

All learners who selected each reason indicated some degree of satisfaction with their learning program in satisfying that reason (Table 4.6) and at least 75% of these expressed satisfaction with the

TABLE 4.6.--Learners' Indications of Levels of Satisfaction (C.L.) for Reasons for Learning (N = 36)

Item #	Reason	Category of Reward		Learners Who Responded			
				Not al all Satisfactory	Slightly Satisfactory	Moderately Satisfactory	Very Satisfactory
1	To help to get a new job	Economic	f	0	1	3	19
			%	0.0	2.8	8.3	52.8
2	To help to advance in present job	Economic	f	0	0	0	5
			%	0.0	0.0	0.0	13.9
3	To become better informed	Personal	f	0	0	7	24
			%	0.0	0.0	19,4	66,7
4	To enrich my life	Personal	f	0	0	9	24
			%	0.0	0.0	25.0	66.7
5	To meet new people	Social	f	0	0	5	18
			%	0.0	0.0	13.9	50.0
6	To meet requirements for getting into an educational program	Economic	f	0	0	6	9
			%	0.0	0.0	16.9	25.0
7	To be a better parent, husband, or wife	Personal	f	0	1	5	5
			%	0.0	2.8	13.9	13.9
8	To get away from the routine of daily living	Personal	f	0	1	7	10
			%	0.0	2.8	19.4	27.8

TABLE 4.6.--Continued

Item #	Reason	Category of Reward		Learners Who Responded			
				Not at all Satisfactory	Slightly Satisfactory	Moderately Satisfactory	Very Satisfactory
9	To work toward certification or licensing	Economic	f	0	0	2	23
			%	0.0	0.0	5.6	63.9
10	To better understand community problems	Social	f	0	1	3	6
			%	0.0	2.8	8.3	16.7
11	To be better able to serve my church	Social	f	0	1	3	0
			%	0.0	2,8	8,3	0.0
12	To meet the requirements of my employer/ profession	Economic	f	0	0	2	12
			%	0.0	0.0	5.6	33.3
13	To become a more effective citizen	Social	f	0	1	3	10
			%	0.0	2.8	8.3	27.8
14	To work toward a degree/ diploma	Economic	f	0	1	7	11
			%	0.0	2.8	19.4	30.6
15	To learn more about my own background and culture	Personal	f	0	1	7	3
			%	0.0	2.8	19.4	8.3
16	To feel a sense of belonging	Social	f	0	0	4	13
			%	0.0	0.0	11.1	36.1

TABLE 4.6.--Continued

Item #	Reason	Category of Reward		Learners Who Responded			
				Not at all Satisfactory	Slightly Satisfactory	Moderately Satisfactory	Very Satisfactory
17	To satisfy curiosity	Personal	f	0	1	7	17
			%	0.0	2.8	19.4	47.2
18	To learn for the sake of learning	Personal	f	0	0	8	17
			%	0.0	0.0	22.2	47.2
19	To become a happier person	Personal	f	0	0	8	8
			%	0.0	0.0	22.2	22.2
20	To work toward solutions of problems, such as discrimination or pollution	Social	f	0	2	3	4
			%	0.0	5.6	8.3	11.1
21	To get away from personal problems	Personal	f	0	1	6	3
			%	0.0	2.8	16.7	8.3
22	To improve my spiritual well being	Personal	f	0	1	7	7
			%	0.0	2.8	19.4	19.4

TABLE 4.7.--Learners Who Are Moderately and Very Satisfied with Each Reason

Rank #	Reason	Category of Reward	Learners Who Selected the Reason		Learners Who Responded: Moderately Satisfactory	Learners Who Responded: Very Satisfactory	Total
1	To enrich my life	Personal	33	f	9	24	33
				%	27.3	72.7	100.0
2	To become better informed	Personal	31	f	7	24	31
				%	22.6	77.4	100.0
3	To work toward certification or licensing	Economic	25	f	2	23	25
				%	8.0	92.0	100.0
4	To learn for the sake of learning	Personal	25	f	8	17	25
				%	32.0	68.0	100.0
5	To satisfy curiosity	Personal	25	f	7	17	24
				%	28.0	68.0	96.0
6	To meet new people	Social	23	f	5	18	23
				%	21.7	78.3	100.0
7	To help to get a new job	Economic	23	f	3	19	22
				%	13.0	82.6	95.7
8	To work toward a degree/ diploma	Economic	19	f	7	11	18
				%	36.8	57.9	94.7
9	To feel a sense of belonging	Social	17	f	4	13	17
				%	23.5	76.5	100.0

TABLE 4.7.--Continued

Rank #	Reason	Category of Reward	Learners Who Selected the Reason		Learners Who Responded		Total
					Moderately Satisfactory	Very Satisfactory	
10	To get away from the routine of daily living	Personal	18	f	7	10	17
				%	38.9	55.6	94.4
11	To become a happier person	Personal	16	f	8	8	16
				%	50.0	50.0	100.0
12	To meet requirements for getting into an educational program	Economic	15	f	6	9	15
				%	40.0	60.0	100.0
13	To meet the requirements of my employer or profession	Economic	14	f	2	12	14
				%	14.3	85.7	100.0
14	To become a more effective citizen	Social	14	f	3	10	13
				%	21.4	71.4	92.9
15	To improve my spiritual well being	Personal	15	f	7	7	14
				%	46.7	46.7	93.3
16	To be a better parent, husband, or wife	Personal	11	f	5	5	10
				%	45.5	45.5	90.9
17	To learn more about my own background and culture	Personal	11	f	7	3	10
				%	63.6	27.3	90.9
18	To better understand community problems	Social	10	f	3	6	9
				%	30.0	60.0	90.0

TABLE 4.7.--Continued

Rank #	Reason	Category or Reward	Learners Who Selected the Reason		Learners Who Responded: Moderately Satisfactory	Learners Who Responded: Very Satisfactory	Total
19	To get away from personal problems	Personal	10	f	6	3	9
				%	60.0	30.0	90.0
20	To work toward solutions of problems, such as discrimination and pollution	Social	9	f	3	4	7
				%	33.3	44.4	77.8
21	To help to advance in present job	Economic	5	f	0	5	5
				%	0.0	100.0	100.0
22	To be better able to serve my church	Social	4	f	3	0	3
				%	75.0	0.0	75.0

Based on the number and percentage of people who responded "moderately" and "very Satisfactory/ Satisfied" to each reason.

TABLE 4.8.--Exchange Reasons for Learners (N = 36)

Rank #	Reason	Category of Reward	Learners Who Would Withdraw from Learning Program if Reason: (1) was not satisfied (2) did not show prospect of being satisfied and/or (3) were fulfilled now	
			f	%
1	To work toward certification or licensing	Economic	19	52.8
2	To become better informed	Personal	18	50.0
3	To enrich my life	Personal	18	50.0
4	To help to get a new job	Economic	17	47.2
5	To work toward a degree/diploma	Economic	12	33.3
6	To meet requirements for getting into an education program	Economic	8	22.2
7	To meet the requirements of my employer or profession	Economic	8	22.2
8	To become a happier person	Personal	6	16.7
9	To help to advance in present job	Economic	5	13.9
10	To get away from the routine of daily living	Personal	5	13.9
11	To get away from personal problems	Personal	5	13.9

TABLE 4.8.--Continued

Rank #	Reason	Category of Reward	Learners Who Would Withdraw from Learning Program if Reason: (1) was not satisfied (2) did not show prospect of being satisfied and/or (3) were fulfilled now	
			f	%
12	To feel a sense of belonging	Social	4	11.1
13	To satisfy curiosity	Personal	3	8.3
14	To be a better parent, husband, or wife	Personal	2	5.6
15	To meet new people	Social	1	2.8
16	To learn for the sake of learning	Personal	1	2.8
17	To improve my spiritual well being	Personal	1	2.8

Based on the number and percentage of people who would quit if the reason was not satisfied.

TABLE 4.9.--Learners' Indications of Levels of Satisfaction Below Which They Would Withdraw (C.L. Alt.)

Rank #	Reason	Category of Reward	# of learners who would withdraw from learning program if reason were not satisfied		Levels of Satisfaction (C.L. alt.) Slightly Satisfactory	Moderately Satisfactory	Very Satisfactory
1	To work toward certification or licensing	Economic	19	f	2	7	10
				%	10.5	36.8	52.6
2	To become better informed	Personal	18	f	12	3	3
				%	66.7	16.7	16.7
3	To enrich my life	Personal	18	f	12	5	1
				%	66.7	27.8	5.6
4	To help to get a new job	Economic	17	f	3	4	10
				%	17.6	23.5	58.8
5	To work toward a degree/diploma	Economic	12	f	0	8	4
				%	0.0	66.7	33.3
6	To meet requirements for getting into an educational program	Economic	8	f	0	4	4
				%	0.0	50.0	50.0

TABLE 4.9.--Continued

Rank #	Reason	Category of Reward	# of learners who would withdraw from learning program if reason were not satisfied		Levels of Satisfaction (C.L. alt.)		
					Slightly Satisfactory	Moderately Satisfactory	Very Satisfactory
7	To meet the requirements of my employer or profession	Economic	8	f	1	2	5
				%	12.5	25.0	62.5
8	To become a happier person	Personal	6	f	6	0	0
				%	100.0	0.0	0.0
9	To help to advance in present job	Economic	5	f	0	3	2
				%	0.0	60.0	40.0
10	To get away from the routine of daily living	Personal	5	f	4	1	0
				%	80.0	20.0	0.0
11	To get away from personal problems	Personal	5	f	3	2	0
				%	60.0	40.0	0.0
12	To feel a sense of belonging	Social	4	f	2	1	1
				%	50.0	25.0	25.0
13	To satisfy curiosity	Personal	3	f	1	2	0
				%	33.3	66.7	0.0

TABLE 4.9.--Continued

Rank #	Reason	Category of Reward	# of learners who would withdraw from learning program if reason were not satisfied		Levels of Satisfaction (C.L. alt.)		
					Slightly Satisfactory	Moderately Satisfactory	Very Satisfactory
14	To be a better parent, husband, or wife	Personal	2	f	1	1	0
				%	50.0	50.0	50.0
15	To meet new people	Social	1	f	1	0	0
				%	100.0	0.0	0.0
16	To learn for the sake of learning	Personal	1	f	1	0	0
				%	100.0	0.0	0.0
17	To improve my spiritual well being	Personal	1	f	1	0	0
				%	100.0	0.0	0.0

Based on the number of people who would withdraw from learning program if reason were not satisfied

TABLE 4.10.--Rank Order of Learners' Reasons for Learning by Comparison Levels for Alternatives (C.L. Alt.'s) (N = 36)

Rank #	Reason	Category of Reward		Learners Who Responded Moderately and Very Satisfactory
2	To help to get a new job	Economic	f	14
			%	38.9
8	To help to advance in present job	Economic	f	5
			%	13.9
6	To become better informed	Personal	f	6
			%	16.7
7	To enrich my life	Personal	f	6
			%	16.7
14	To meet new people	Social	f	0
			%	0.0
4	To meet requirements for getting into an educational program	Economic	f	8
			%	22.2
12	To be a better parent, husband, or wife	Personal	f	1
			%	2.8
13	To get away from the routine of daily living	Personal	f	1
			%	2.8
1	To work toward certification or licensing	Economic	f	17
			%	47.2
5	To meet the requirements of my employer or profession	Economic	f	7
			%	19.4
3	To work toward a degree/ diploma	Economic	f	12
			%	33.3
9	To feel a sense of belonging	Social	f	2
			%	5.6
10	To satisfy curiosity	Personal	f	2
			%	5.6

TABLE 4.10.--Continued

Rank #	Reason	Category of Reward		Learners Who Responded Moderately and Very Satisfactory
16	To learn for the sake of learning	Personal	f %	0 0.0
15	To become a happier person	Personal	f %	0 0.0
11	To get away from personal problems	Personal	f %	2 5.6
17	To improve my spiritual well being	Personal	f %	0 0.0

Based on the number of people whose C.L. Alt. for each reason is moderately and very satisfactory.

TABLE 4.11.--Explanations of the Learners Who Indicated They Would Continue Learning In Spite of "No Satisfaction at All."

Item	Reason	Learners Who Mentioned the Reason	
		f	%
1	There is very little time left to complete the program	4	11.1
2	It is fun to be at school	1	2.8

education program at the third (moderately)) and fourth (very) satisfactory levels (Table 4.7). Two-thirds (66.7%) of all learners described their learning programs as "very satisfactory" with respect to enriching their lives and making them better informed persons (personal). More than 60% of the learners stated that they were very satisfied that their learning programs would earn them certificates or licenses (economic). Hope of getting a new job (economic) as a result of participating in an adult education program was expressed by 52.8% of the learners. About 50% indicated they were very satisfied with their learning programs in fulfilling their social desire to meet new people. Nearly half (47.2%) of the learners were very satisfied with their adult education programs in satisfying their curiosity and in helping them learn for the sake of it. Only one reason, "to be better able to serve my church," did not have a single person expressing satisfaction at the "very satisfactory" level.

Exchange Reasons

Of the 22 reasons for learning, 17 emerged as exchange reasons in that at least one person would quit the education program: (1) if that reason were not satisfied, (2) if there were no prospects that the reason would be satisfied, and/or (3) if the reason were fulfilled then (see Table 4.8). Slightly more than half the learners (52.8%) would quit their education programs if they could acquire now the certification or licensing they hope to get at the end of their learning programs. The same people would drop out of their education

programs if they felt that they would not lead to certification or licensing. Exactly half would quit if their course programs were not enriching their lives and making them better informed people. Seventeen or 47.2% would quit if they got a job or if they felt that the learning program was not helping their job chances. A third would drop out of learning programs if they could be awarded a degree/diploma now or if they felt that their education programs were not improving their chances of getting a degree/diploma in the future. Gaining entry qualifications for an educational program and meeting requirements of one's employer or profession were identified as exchange reasons by 22.2% who would quit their learning programs if these reasons were satisfied now, or if they sensed that the learning programs would not fulfill them.

Comparison Level for Alternatives

Table 4.9 gives the comparison level for alternatives or the lowest level of satisfaction or return for each reason, below which learners would quit the education program. By indicating that they would quit if satisfaction or the prospect of it for a particular reason dropped to "not at all satisfactory," the learners automatically removed level 1 (not at all satisfactory) as a possible choice for a comparative level for alternatives (C. L. alt.), hence the exclusion of that level from Table 4.9.

Table 4.10 illustrates that the five top most comparison levels for alternatives belong to five of the six economic reasons for learning that were included in the study. Getting certification

or licensing had the highest C. L. alt., with 10 or 27.8% of learners indicating that they would quit their education programs if the prospect of satisfying this reason by participating in the learning program dropped below "very satisfactory." Second was getting a new job, also with 27.8% of learners indicating that they would withdraw if the chances of getting a new job after completing the program dropped below "very satisfactory." Obtaining a degree or a diploma for which 11.1% would not tolerate anything less than "very satisfactory," had the third highest C. L. alt. Ranking fourth and fifth were the need to acquire entry qualifications for an educational program, and to meet requirements for one's employer or profession, with 11.1% and 13.9%, respectively, indicating that they would quit if prospects of fulfilling these reasons dropped below "very satisfactory." The personal desire to become better informed had the sixth highest C. L. alt., with 8.3% of learners saying they would quit if satisfaction dropped below "very satisfactory." To meet new people (social), to improve my spiritual well being and to learn for the sake of learning (personal) had the lowest C. L. alt., each with the only person that identified the reason as an exchange reason indicating willingness to tolerate "slight satisfaction" for it.

Five learners insisted that they would continue learning even if their education programs were not showing any prospects of fulfilling their reasons for learning. Their explanations are contained in Table 4.11. Four (11%) indicated there was very little

time left to complete their education programs, and one person (2.8%) indicated it was "fun" to be in school.

Research Question No. 3

Research Question No. 3: What exchange forces may affect people's participation in adult education programs?

Objective 1: To establish costs that people incur in the process of participating in learning programs.

Table 4.12 indicates what constitutes costs to learners. Learners were asked to indicate what they considered to be costs to their learning from a list of 27 possible reasons for dropping out. They indicated the degree of seriousness for each of the 27 reasons using the following scale: (2) not at all serious, (3) slightly serious, (4) moderately serious, and (5) very serious. Table 4.12 also shows to which category of cost each reason belongs.

Of the 27 reasons that were listed, 21 were identified as costs by learners. The clash between the time of courses and other responsibilities (time) was identified as a cost by the greatest number of learners (33.3%). The clash between courses and other responsibilities was followed by "not enough energy and stamina to continue learning" (physical and mental effort), cited as a cost by 27.8%. Third in frequency were the cost of transportation (economic), amount of time required to complete program, and going to school full time (time), each with 25.0% identifying it as a cost. "No place to study or practice," "don't want to seem too ambitious"

TABLE 4.12.--Learners' Costs of Learning (N = 36)

Rank #	Reason	Category of Cost	Learners Who Identified the Reason as a Cost	
			F	%
3	Cost of transportation	Economic	9	25.0
14	Not enough time	Time	4	11.1
4	Amount of time required to complete program	Time	9	25.0
9	Strict attendance requirements	Subordination to another person	7	19.4
17	Don't know what learning would lead to	Personal	2	5.6
19	No place to study or practice	Personal	1	2.8
1	Time of courses clash with other responsibilities	Time	12	33.3
5	Going to school full time	Time	9	25.0
15	No information on what I can do next	Personal	3	8.3
16	No transportation	Personal	3	8.3
10	Traveling to and from school	Time	7	19.4
18	Too much red tape in getting enrolled	Time	2	5.6
20	Don't want to seem too ambitious	Personal	1	2.8
21	Friends or family don't like the idea	Social	1	2.8

TABLE 4.12.--Continued

Rank #	Reason	Category of Cost	Learners Who Identified the Reason as a Cost	
			F	%
6	Home responsibilities	Time	8	22.2
12	Job responsibilities	Time	6	16.7
2	Not enough energy and stamina to continue learning	Physical and Mental Effort	10	27.8
7	Not confident in my ability to continue learning	Embarrass-ment, anxiety, and the feeling of inade-quacy	8	22.2
8	Other courses I want don't seem to be available	Personal	8	22.2
11	Don't enjoy studying	Personal	7	19.4
13	Getting tired of school	Physical & mental effort	6	16.7

Based on the number and percentage of people who identified each reason as a cost.

(personal), and "friends or family don't like the idea" (social) were the least frequent, with only one person citing each as a cost.

Objective No. 2. To establish how far the learner was prepared to tolerate a cost in order to get an education.

Tables 4.13 through 4.22 give all data requested for this objective. For this objective, learners were asked to indicate the level of seriousness for each cost and the extent to which they would put up with a cost, i.e., the level of seriousness above which they would withdraw from the learning program. The degrees of seriousness for each cost were defined by the following scale: (2) not at all serious, (3) slightly serious, (4) moderately serious, and (5) very serious. Economic and certain time costs were treated as a special case in the survey instrument (Appendix B), in that learners were requested to indicate C.L.'s and C. L. alt.'s for them, irrespective of whether they identified them as costs or not. For these economic and time costs, the levels of seriousness were measured on more specific scales. Economic costs employed a monetary scale ranging from nothing to more than $200, while time costs used three different variables, viz., hours, minutes, and months.

Comparison Levels

Table 4.13 shows that none of the costs of learning were considered to be critically serious by learners. The two top-rated costs were each cited as very serious by only one person (Table 4.14). The more specific scales of economic and time costs also

TABLE 4.13.--Learners' Indications of the Seriousness of each Cost of Learning (C.L.) (N = 36).

Rank #	Reason	Category of Cost		Learners Who Responded				
				Not at all Serious	Slightly Serious	Moderately Serious	Very Serious	Total
3	Cost of transportation	Economic	f	1	5	2	1	9
			%	2.8	13.9	5.6	2.8	25.0
14	Not enough time	Time	f	1	2	0	1	4
			%	2.8	5.6	0.0	2.8	11.1
4	Amount of time required to complete program	Time	f	2	4	2	1	9
			%	5.6	11.1	5.6	2.8	25.0
9	Strict attendance requirements	Subordination to another person	f	2	3	2	0	7
			%	5.6	8.3	5.6	0.0	19.0
17	Don't know what learning would lead to	Personal	f	1	0	1	0	2
			%	2.8	0.0	2.8	0.0	5.6
19	No place to study or practice	Personal	f	0	1	0	0	1
			%	0.0	2.8	0.0	0.0	2.8
1	Time of courses clashed with other responsibilities	Time	f	6	4	2	0	12
			%	16.7	11.1	5.6	0.0	33.3
5	Going to school full time	Time	f	3	2	3	1	9
			%	8.3	5.6	8.3	2.8	25.0

TABLE 4.13.--Continued

Rank #	Reason	Category of Cost		Learners Who Responded				
				Not at all Serious	Slightly Serious	Moderately Serious	Very Serious	Total
15	No information on what I can do next	Personal	f	1	2	0	0	3
			%	2.8	5.6	0.0	0.0	8.3
16	No transportation	Personal	f	1	2	0	0	3
			%	2.8	5.6	0.0	0.0	8.3
10	Travelling to and from school	Time	f	2	4	1	0	7
			%	5.6	11.1	2.8	0.0	19.4
18	Too much red tape in getting enrolled	Time	f	1	0	0	1	2
			%	2.8	0.0	0.0	2.8	5.6
20	Don't want to seem too ambitious	Personal	f	0	1	0	0	1
			%	0.0	2.8	0.0	0.0	2.8
21	Friends or family don't like the idea	Social	f	0	1	0	0	1
			%	0.0	2.8	0.0	0.0	2.8
6	Home responsibilities	Time	f	4	1	3	0	8
			%	11.1	2.8	8.3	0.0	22.2
12	Job responsibilities	Time	f	2	3	1	0	6
			%	5.6	8.3	2.8	0.0	16.7
2	Not enough energy and stamina to continue learning	Physical and Mental Effort	f	6	4	0	0	10
			%	16.7	11.1	0.0	0.0	27.8

TABLE 4.13.--Continued

Rank #	Reason	Category of Cost		Learners Who Responded				
				Not al all Serious	Slightly Serious	Moderately Serious	Very Serious	Total
7	Not confident in my ability to continue learning	Embarrassment, anxiety, & the feeling of inadequacy	f	3	5	0	0	8
			%	8.3	13.9	0.0	0.0	22.2
8	Other courses I want don't seem to be available	Personal	f	0	6	1	1	8
			%	0.0	16.7	2.8	2.8	22.2
11	Don't enjoy studying	Personal	f	3	4	0	0	7
			%	8.3	11.1	0.0	0.0	19.4
13	Getting tired of school	Physical and mental effort	f	2	3	1	0	6
			%	5.6	8.3	2.8	0.0	16.7

Based on the number of people who identified each reason as a cost.

TABLE 4.14.--Rank Order of Learners' Costs by Comparison Levels. (C.L.'s) (N = 36)

Rank #	Reason	Category of Cost	Mean		Learners Who Responded Very Serious
1	Cost of transportation	Economic	1.583	f	1
				%	2.8
12	Not enough time	Time	1.250	f	1
				%	2.8
2	Amount of time required to complete program	Time	1.555	f	1
				%	2.8
6	Strict attendance requirements	Subordination to another person	1.388	f	0
				%	0.0
18	Don't know what learning would lead to	Personal	1.111	f	0
				%	0.0
19	No place to study or practice	Personal	1.055	f	0
				%	0.0
3	Time of courses clash with other responsibilities	Time	1.555	f	0
				%	0.0
4	Going to school full time	Time	1.555	f	1
				%	2.8
16	No information on what I can do next	Personal	1.138	f	0
				%	0.0
17	No transportation	Personal	1.138	f	0
				%	0.0
8	Travelling to and from school	Time	1.361	f	0
				%	0.0
15	Too much red tape in getting enrolled	Time	1.142	f	1
				%	2.8
20	Don't want to seem too ambitious	Personal	1.054	f	0
				%	0.0

Table 4.14.--Continued

Rank #	Reason	Category of Cost	Mean		Learners Who Responded Very Serious
21	Friends or family don't like the idea	Social	1.040	f %	0 0.0
5	Home responsibilities	Time	1.405	f %	0 0.0
14	Job responsibilities	Time	1.203	f %	0 0.0
11	Not enough energy or stamina to continue learning	Physical and Mental Effort	1.254	f %	0 0.0
9	Not confident in my ability to continue learning	Embarrassment, anxiety, and feeling of inadequacy	1.295	f %	0 0.0
7	Other courses I want don't seem to be available	Personal	1.372	f %	1 2.8
13	Don't enjoy studying	Personal	1.229	f %	0 0.0
10	Getting tired of school	Physical and Mental Effort	1.255	f %	0 0.0

#Based on the mean.

TABLE 4.15.--Learners' Indications of Comparison Levels for Economic Costs on a Monetary Scale (N = 36)

Rank #	Reason	Mean		Learners Who Responded				
				Nothing	$50 or Less	$51 to $100	$101 to $200	More than $200
1	Cost of Transportation	1.727	f	12	18	4	2	0
			%	33.3	50.0	11.1	5.6	0.0
2	Cost of tuition	1.000	f	36	0	0	0	0
			%	100.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
3	Cost of books and other learning materials	1.000	f	36	0	0	0	0
			%	100.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
4	Cost of child care	1.000	f	36	0	0	0	0
			%	100.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0

Based on the mean.

TABLE 4.16.--Learners' Indications of Comparison Levels for Time Costs (N = 36)

Rank #		Mean		Learners Who Responded														
				Hours						Minutes					Months				
				0	1-5	6-10	11-15	16-20	More Than 20	1-15	16-30	31-45	46-60	More Than 60	6-12	13-18	19-24	25-30	More Than 30
1	Time spent attending classes per week	2.250	f		7	7	16	3	3										
			%		19.4	19.4	44.4	8.3	8.3										
2	Time spent travelling to and from school per day	2.119	f							9	15	5	6	1					
			%							25.0	41.7	13.9	16.7	2.8					
4	Time spent on home-work and studying per week	1.777	f	14	18	2	2	0	0										
			%	38.9	50.0	5.6	5.6	0.0	0.0										
3	Length of course program	2.055	f												21	2	8	0	5
			%												58.3	5.6	22.2	0.0	13.9

Based on the mean.

TABLE 4.17.--Exchange Costs for Learners (N = 36)

Item #	Reason	Category of Cost
1	Cost of tuition	Economic
2	Cost of books and other learning materials	Economic
3	Cost of child care	Economic
4	Cost of transportation	Economic
5	Amount of time required to complete program	Time
6	Strict attendance requirements	Subordination to another person
7	Don't know what learning would lead to	Personal
8	Time of courses clashed with other responsibilities	Time
9	Going to school full time	Time
10	No information on what I can do next	Personal
11	Travelling to and from school	Time
12	Home responsibilities	Time
13	Job responsibilities	Time
14	Not enough energy and stamina to continue learning	Physical and mental effort

#Based on the number of people who mentioned each reason.

TABLE 4.18.--Potential Exchange Costs for Learners (N = 36)

Rank #	Reason	Learners Who Mentioned the Reason as a Potential Exchange Cost	
		f	%
1	Nothing	18	50.0
6	Death	1	2.8
2	Sickness	10	27.8
3	Moving to another place	3	8.3
4	If learning material became difficult	2	5.6
5	Getting another job	2	5.6

Based on the number and percentage of people who mentioned each reason.

TABLE 4.19.--Learners' Reasons for Not Taking More Courses or More Instruction (N = 36)

Rank #	Reason	Learners Who Selected the Reason	
		f	%
2	I'd be interested in taking some type of course, but there is nothing like that available around here	2	5.6
4	The courses I have heard about sound pretty dull	0	0.0
5	I can learn all I need to know without taking courses to do it	0	0.0
1	I'm much too busy with other things right now, and just wouldn't have the time	11	30.6
6	I am interested in a lot of things, but I really don't enjoy studying	0	0.0
7	Right now I just couldn't afford it	0	0.0
3	I have never thought about taking a special course	1	2.8
8	Other	0	0.0

#Based on the number of and percentage of people who mentioned each reason.

TABLE 4.20.--Learners' Indications of Comparison Levels for Alternatives (C.L. Alt.'s) for Economic Costs (N = 36)

Rank #	Reason	Mean		Learners Who Responded				
				Nothing	$50 or Less	$51 to $100	$101 to $200	More than $200
1	Cost of child care	1.042	f	34	2	0	0	0
			%	94.4	5.6	0.0	0.0	0.0
3	Cost of tuition	1.511	f	13	23	0	0	0
			%	36.1	63.9	0.0	0.0	0.0
2	Cost of books and other learning materials	1.471	f	11	25	0	0	0
			%	30.6	69.4	0.0	0.0	0.0
4	Cost of transportation	2.040	f	8	14	8	3	3
			%	22.2	38.9	22.2	8.3	8.3

Based on the mean (note that ranking was done in the ascending order).

TABLE 4.21.--Learners' Indications of Comparison Levels for Alternatives (C.L. Alt.'s) for time costs (N = 36)

Rank #	Reason	Mean		Learners Who Responded														
				Hours						Minutes					Months			
				0	1-5	6-10	11-15	16-20	More than 20	1-15	16-30	31-45	46-60	More Than 60	6-12	13-18	19-24	25-30	More Than 30
3	Time spent attending classes per week	3.047	f		1	8	12	6	9									
			%		2.8	22.2	33.3	16.7	25.0									
2	Time spent travelling to and from school per day	2.951	f							0	13	10	5	8				
			%							0.0	36.1	27.8	13.9	22.2				
1	Time spent on home-work and studying per week	2.583	f	0	22	10	1	3	0									
			%	0.0	61.1	27.8	2.8	8.3	0.0									
4	Length of course program	3.542	f												4	7	9	0	16
			%												11.1	19.4	25.0	0.0	44.4

Based on the mean (Note that ranking was done in the ascending order).

TABLE 4.22.--Learners' Indications of Levels of Seriousness Above Which They Would Quit the Program (C.L. alt.) For Other Reasons (N = 36)

Rank #	Reason	Mean		Learners Who Responded			
				Not at all Serious	Slightly Serious	Moderately Serious	Very Serious
3	Strict attendance requirements	3.000	f	1	0	1	0
			%	2.8	0.0	2.8	0.0
2	Don't know what learning would lead to	2.000	f	1	0	0	0
			%	2.8	0.0	0.0	0.0
5	Time of courses clash with other responsibilities	4.000	f	0	0	2	0
			%	0.0	0.0	5.6	0.0
6	No information on what I can do next	4.000	f	0	0	1	0
			%	0.0	0.0	2.8	0.0
7	Home responsibilities	4.000	f	0	0	3	0
			%	0.0	0.0	8.3	0.0
4	Job responsibilities	3.500	f	0	1	1	0
			%	0.0	2.8	2.8	0.0
1	Not enough energy and stamina to continue learning	1.000	f	1	0	0	0
			%	2.8	0.0	0.0	0.0

Based on the mean (Note that ranking was done in the ascending order).

reveal very low comparative levels for costs. For the cost of transportation, which was the only one among economic costs, for which something was paid, only 5.6% indicated they paid more than $100 per term, and one-third indicated they paid nothing, due to the fact that they stayed within walking distance to the school (Table 4.15). The highest rated among time costs, which had relatively higher comparative levels, was the time spent attending classes per week which was more than 20 hours for 8.3% of the learners (Table 4.16).

Exchange Costs

Of the 27 costs, only 14 can be described as exchange costs in that learners would withdraw from their education programs if they became "very serious" (Table 4.17). It was not possible to rate the costs according to the number of people who identified them as exchange costs because, for economic and those time costs, that used separate scales, questions were asked in such a way as to elicit a response from all the 36 learners, while for other costs only those learners who selected the reason were asked to indicate whether or not they would continue with the program if the cost became "very serious."

Table 4.18 indicates other reasons that constitute potential costs of learning. When asked to mention any other reason that could make them withdraw from the learning program, half the learners could not think of anything else that could make them quit. Nearly a third (27.8%) gave their own sickness and/or sickness in the family as a

possible reason for withdrawal. Death in the family had the least potential of making people leave the program with only one person mentioning it.

A little more than 30% could not take more courses or more instruction because they were too busy with other things, and just could not find the time (Table 4.19). In spite of the fact that the majority of learners found most of the seven possible reasons for not enrolling for more classes not applicable to them, they did not volunteer other possible reasons for not taking more classes.

Comparison Levels for Alternatives

Tables 4.20 through 4.22 indicate the highest levels of seriousness for each cost, above which learners would withdraw from their educational programs. Learners indicated they would tolerate a much higher level of seriousness for time costs than they would for economic costs. The cost of child care had the highest C. L. alt., with 94.4% of learners indicating that they would quit their learning programs if they had to pay anything for child care. The cost of books and other learning materials was second with more than two-thirds of learners indicating unwillingness to pay more than $50 per term (9 weeks) for it, while the cost of tuition was third with 63.9% showing unwillingness to pay more than $50 per term for tuition.

Among time costs, the amount of time spent on homework had the highest C. L. alt., with 61.1% of learners saying they would not allocate more than 10 hours per week for studies and assignments. The length of the learning program had the lowest C. L. alt., with

44.4% showing willingness to remain in the education program if the length of that program was increased to more than 30 months. Of the other costs, strict attendance requirements, not knowing what learning, would lead to, and lack of energy and stamina to continue learning were the highest rated, each with one person not willing to tolerate anything above the "not at all serious" level. Lowest rated among these were no information on what one can do next and home responsibilities, with 2.8 and 8.3, respectively, willing to put up with seriousness at the "moderately serious" level.

Research Question No. 4

Research Question No. 4: What exchange forces lead adults to withdraw from a learning program before completion?

Objective No. 1: To establish forces within and outside the learning situation that drove people out of a learning program before completion.

Table 4.23 shows the 24 reasons that were indicated by dropouts as reasons for their withdrawal from adult education programs. Dropouts were asked to indicate, out of 37 possible reasons for dropping out, all those that caused their withdrawal from a learning program before completion. More than half (55%) said that they dropped out because they became too busy with other things and just couldn't find the time to continue learning. Becoming too busy with other things (time) was followed by getting a job (economic) and the fact that each class meeting was too long (time), each cited by 40% of the dropouts. Third in frequency, each cited by 30%, were:

TABLE 4.23.--Dropouts' Reasons for Withdrawal (N = 20)

Rank #	Reason	Dropouts Who Selected the Reason	
		f	%
19	I moved to another place	2	10.0
15	I joined another education program	4	20.0
2	I got a job	8	40.0
1	I became too busy with other things at the time, and just couldn't find the time to continue	11	55.0
16	I needed to devote more time to another education program	4	20.0
10	I realized it would take more time than I had bargained for to complete the education program	5	25.0
5	I couldn't see what benefit would come out of what I was learning	6	30.0
6	The time of courses clashed with other responsibilities	6	30.0
11	I could not get information on what I could do next	5	25.0
23	I became tired of travelling to and from school	1	5.0
17	I could not master enough energy and stamina to continue learning	4	20.0
12	I suddenly lost confidence in my ability to continue learning	5	25.0
13	Other courses I wanted didn't seem to be available	5	25.0
14	I got tired of school	5	25.0
18	I don't enjoy studying	3	15.0

TABLE 4.23.--Continued

Rank #	Reason	Dropouts Who Selected the Reason	
		f	%
3	The class meeting was too long	8	40.0
7	I could not comprehend or master learning activities	6	30.0
20	I realized I could learn all I needed to learn without taking a course to do it	2	10.0
4	The learning activities were pretty dull and boring	7	35.0
21	My friends and relatives were not sympathetic toward what I was learning	2	10.0
22	I didn't want to seem too ambitious	2	10.0
8	My instructor was unsympathetic to my learning needs	6	30.0
9	I could not get along with other students	6	30.0
24	My two favorite teachers transferred to other schools	1	5.0

Based on the number and percentage who selected each reason.

(1) I couldn't see what benefit would come out of what I was learning, (2) the time of courses clashed with other responsibilities, (3) I could not comprehend or master learning activities, (4) my instructor was unsympathetic to my learning needs, and (5) I could not get along with other students. Most dropouts did not volunteer other reasons for dropping out. The only person who did stated that she/he also dropped out because two of her/his best teachers transferred to other schools.

Objective No. 2: To determine the highest level of seriousness for each cost that the person would have tolerated and thus remained on the program and whether the person would return to the education program if the cost in question could be reduced.

The information requested for this objective is presented in Tables 4.24 through 4.29. For this objective, reasons for dropping out were divided into three categories, viz. economic, time, and other reasons. For each economic and time cost, dropouts were asked to indicate, irrespective of whether the cost applied to them or not, the amount of money/time that they spent (C.L.), and the amount of money/time that would have been more acceptable to them (C. L. alt.), on a monetary/time scale. While respondents were not expected to remember every little detail about their learning programs, it was assumed that they would recall costs that involved money or time, than those who required no such expenditures. For this reason, dropouts were not required to provide the C.L.'s and C. L. alt.'s for

TABLE 4.24.--Dropouts' Indications of Comparison Levels (C.L.) for Economic Costs (N = 20)

Rank #	Reason		Learners Who Responded				
			Nothing	$50 or Less	$51 to $100	$101 to $200	More Than $200
1	Cost of tuition	f	20	0	0	0	0
		%	100.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
2	Cost of books and other learning materials	f	20	0	0	0	0
		%	100.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
3	Cost of child care	f	19	0	1	0	0
		%	95.0	0.0	5.0	0.0	0.0
4	Cost of transportation	f	14	6	0	0	0
		%	70.0	30.0	0.0	0.0	0.0

Based on the mean (note that ranking was done in the ascending order).

TABLE 4.25.--Dropouts' Indications of Comparison Levels (C.L.) for Time Costs (N = 20)

Rank #		Mean		Learners Who Responded														
				Hours						Minutes					Months			
				0	1-5	6-10	11-15	16-20	More Than 20	1-15	16-30	31-45	46-60	More Than 60	12	24	36	60	No Time Limit
1	Length of course program	5.500	f												6	6	3	1	4
			%												30.0	30.0	15.0	5.0	20.0
3	Time spent attending classes per week	2.850	f		0	5	13	2	0										
			%		0.0	25.0	65.0	10.0	0.0										
4	Time spent on travelling to and from school per day	1.950	f							1	19	0	0	0					
			%							5.0	95.0	0.0	0.0	0.0					
5	Time spent on home-work and studying per week	1.450	f	11	9	0	0	0	0										
			%	55.0	45.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0										

Rank #	Reason	Mean		Hours					Rank #	Reason	Mean		Time of Day	
				1	2	3	4	5					Day	Evening
2	Length of each class session	3.000	f	0	0	20	0	0	6	Meeting	1.400	f	12	8
			%	0.0	0.0	100.0	0.0	0.0				%	60	40

Based on the mean.

TABLE 4.26.--Exchange Costs for Dropouts (N = 20)

Rank #	Reason	Dropouts Who Identified the Reason as an Exchange Cost	
		f	%
14	I moved to another place	2	10.0
9	I joined another education program	4	20.0
7	I got a job	5	25.0
1	I became too busy with other things at the time, and just couldn't find the time to continue learning	9	45.0
10	I needed to devote more time to another education program	4	20.0
12	I couldn't see what benefit would come out of what I was learning	3	15.0
3	The time of courses clashed with other responsibilities	6	30.0
11	I could not master enough energy and stamina to continue learning	4	20.0
8	I suddenly lost confidence in my ability to continue learning	5	25.0
13	Other courses I wanted didn't seem to be available	3	15.0
15	I got tired of school	2	10.0
2	The class meeting was too long	8	40.0
4	I could not comprehend or master learning activities	6	30.0
19	The learning activities were pretty dull and boring	1	5.0
16	My friends and relatives were not sympathetic toward waht I was learning	2	10.0

TABLE 4.26.--Continued

Rank #	Reason	Dropouts Who Identified the Reason as an Exchange Cost	
		f	%
5	My instructor was unsympathetic to my learning needs	6	30.0
6	I could not get along with other students	6	30.0
20	My two favorite teachers transferred to other places	1	5.0
17	Cost of child care	1	5.0
18	Cost of transportation	1	5.0

Based on the number and percentage of respondents who identified each reason as an exchange cost.

TABLE 4.27.--Dropouts' Indications of Other Reasons that Would Make Them Return to School (N = 20)

Rank #	Reason	Dropouts Who Mentioned the Reason	
		f	%
1	If I lost my job	6	30.0
2	Nothing	3	15.0
3	If I could not continue with my present education program	3	15.0
4	If there could be separate classes for adults and youngsters	3	15.0
5	If I went back to live there	2	10.0
6	If teachers were willing to work with students on a one-to-one basis	2	10.0
7	If they could change classrooms and class activities after every hour	1	5.0

Based on the number and percentage of people who mentioned the reason.

TABLE 4.28.--Dropouts' Indications of Comparison Levels for Alternatives (C.L. Alt.'s) for Economic Costs (N = 20)

Rank #	Reasons	Mean		Dropouts Who Responded				
				Nothing	$50 or Less	$51 to $100	$101 to $200	More than $200
2	Cost of tuition	1.500	f	10	10	0	0	0
			%	50.0	50.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
3	Cost of books and other learning materials	1.500	f	10	10	0	0	0
			%	50.0	50.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
1	Cost of child care	1.300	f	15	4	1	0	0
			%	75.0	20.0	5.0	0.0	0.0
4	Cost of transportation	1.700	f	7	12	1	0	0
			%	35.0	60.0	5.0	0.0	0.0

Based on the mean (note that ranking was done in the ascending order).

TABLE 4.29.--Dropouts' Indications of Comparison Levels for Alternatives (C. L. alt.'s) for Time Costs (N = 20)

Rank #	Reason	Mean		Dropouts Who Responded														
				Hours						Minutes					Months			
				0	1-5	6-10	11-15	16-20	More Than 20	1-15	16-30	31-45	46-60	More Than 60	6	18	24	36	60
1	Doing homework and studying per week	2.200	f	0	20	0	0	0	0										
			%	0.0	100.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0										
3	Travelling to and from school per day	2.550	f							1	7	12	0	0					
			%							5.0	35.0	60.0	0.0	0.0					
4	Attending Classes per week	2.900	f		0	4	14	2	0										
			%		0.0	20.0	70.0	10.0	0.0										
5	Length of course program	3.950	f												10	4	1	1	4
			%												50.0	20.0	5.0	5.0	20.0

Rank #	Reason	Mean		Hours				
				1	2	3	4	5
2	Length of each class session	2.350	f	5	3	12	0	0
			%	25.0	15.0	60.0	0.0	0.0

Based on the mean (Note that ranking was done in the ascending order).

all other reasons that applied to them. Instead, they were asked to indicate whether they would still be there "if things had turned out differently, and/or whether they would return to the program if the cost in question could be reduced."

Comparison Level

Most dropouts did not pay anything for economic costs (Table 4.24). However, 30% paid up to $50 per term for transportation, while one person paid between $51 and $100 for child care. Table 4.25 shows the amount of time spent by dropouts in the name of learning. Only two people spent 16-20 hours attending classes per week, 65% spent between 11 and 15 hours at school per week, and one quarter spent only 6-10 hours in class per week. All the 20 dropouts indicated that the average class session was three hours long. As many as 60% attended day classes, while the rest went to evening school. Most respondents stayed very close to their schools: 95% spent 16-30 minutes travelling to and from school, and one person spent 15 minutes or less travelling to and from school. More than half, 55%, did no school work or reading outside school hours, and 45% allocated 1-5 hours per week to studies and school-related work. For 30% of the dropouts, six months was the total length of their education programs. Another 30% indicated 24 months as the length of the course programs they withdrew from. Three (15%) were attending 36 month-long education programs. One person (5%) was attending a five-year-long course, and four people (20%) were attending courses that did not have time limits.

Exchange Costs

Table 4.26 shows those reasons that emerged as exchange costs for dropouts, in that dropouts indicated that: (1) they would have stayed in the course "if things had turned out differently," or (2) they would return to the education program if the costs in question were reduced or removed. A total of nine people (45%) would have stayed in the program if they had not become too busy with other things. Eight (40%) would return to the education program if the length of each class session could be reduced. In addition, 30% would not have left the learning program if the class meeting had not clashed with other responsibilities, and another 30% indicated they would have stayed if they had been able to comprehend what learning activities were all about. Six people left because their teachers were unsympathetic to their needs, and another six left because they could not get along with other students. It is interesting to note that one person indicated that they would return to the program if his/her two favorite teachers came back.

Dropouts were also asked to indicate, "What, if anything, would make" them return to the learning program. The results are shown in Table 4.27. Six (30%) indicated they would go back if they lost their jobs. Three people would go back only if they could not continue with their present education programs, and another three would return if they could be assured of separate classes for older adults and youngsters, and yet another three indicated nothing would make them return. Two people would return to school if they went

back to where they had been staying before, while another two indicated they would return to school if teachers were willing to work with students on a one-to-one basis. Finally, one person would return to school if classrooms and class activities could be changed after every hour.

Comparison Level for Alternatives

Table 4.28 indicates the C. L. alt.'s for economic reasons, i.e., the highest possible amount each dropout would be willing to pay for each cost. The cost of child care had the highest C. L. alt. with 75% indicating unwillingness to pay anything for it. The cost of tuition and learning materials were second with 50% saying they are not prepared to pay anything for them.

The C. L. alt.'s for time costs are shown in Table 4.29. The highest rated was the time for homework and studying with all the 20 dropouts saying they are not willing to allocate more than five hours for homework and studying. Second ranked was the length of each class session with five (25%) suggesting one hour as the maximum period for each class session. The least rated was the length of the education program with 20%, indicating their willingness to do a course for five years.

Chapter Summary

This chapter presented the findings of the study according to the four research questions of the study and their objectives. The first section of the chapter presented the personal characteristics

of the respondents. Section two presented exchange forces or reasons for learning and the minimum returns people would accept for each. The forces that may affect people's participation in adult learning and their seriousness were presented in Section three. Section three also presented the highest level of seriousness that learners would tolerate for each reason. The forces responsible for people's withdrawal from education programs were presented in Section four. Section four also presented the levels of seriousness that they would put up with for each reason.

The chapter contains a total of 29 tables showing the numerous data that were collected for the study. In Chapter V, conclusions drawn from the study's findings, along with discussion and recommendations are presented.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS, DISCUSSION, AND IMPLICATIONS

The purpose of the study was to explore and describe the influence of exchange forces on human behavior toward adult education programs. The study was designed to establish whether it is appropriate to use exchange theory to describe adult learners. On the basis of the findings presented in Chapter IV, several conclusions were formulated. These conclusions should be viewed as most applicable to low income whites who are between 18 and 44 years of age, who did not finish high school and whose primary source of income is public assistance.

Conclusion and Discussion

This chapter will present conclusions that were drawn from the study. Hypotheses applicable to testing the existence and strength of exchange in adult education are offered, as well as possible implications for teaching and research in adult education.

Conclusions from the study's findings are presented by order of research questions. Each is discussed in accordance with its relationship to exchange theory and its relationship to past research in adult learning.

Reasons for Adult Learning

The focus of Research Question No. 2 was to establish the reasons why adults undertake learning programs and to determine the minimum return each learner would accept for each reason.

Exchange theory states that people's participation in any activity is determined by the return they hope to get from that activity. The study shows that people largely expect to fulfill personal and economic reasons by participating in adult education programs. This finding is supported by the findings of the Commission on Nontraditional Study (CNS) conducted by Carp, Peterson, and Roelfs (1974). Like the CNS study, this study indicates that the most important reasons for learners are the personal reasons to enrich one's life, to become better informed, and to learn for the sake of learning, followed by the economic reasons to work toward certification or licensing and to get a new job. The only difference between the CNS study and this study is that the former refers to personal and economic reasons as knowledge and personal reasons, respectively (see Appendix A).

Exchange theory also states that people are not likely to perform behaviors that are not expected to bring any rewards. It is evident from the study's findings that adults who return to school in order to earn certificates, licenses, degrees, or diplomas with a view to improving their chances of getting new jobs would quit if they felt that the learning programs they were enrolled in were not improving their job chances in any of the ways mentioned above. It

is also evident from the study's findings that these job-oriented learners would drop out if they could get the jobs they expect to get after completion. This finding is supportive of the findings of several studies cited by Lewine (1980). According to these studies, conducted in 1969, 1976, 1978, and 1979, nearly half of all undergraduates in American colleges would drop out of college if they thought it was not improving their chances of getting a job, and more than a third would leave immediately if they would get the same job now as after graduation.

In addition, the study's findings indicate that the personally oriented adult learners would quit if their education programs were not improving them personally, e.g., by enriching their lives or making them better informed persons.

The study's findings indicate that it is appropriate to use exchange theory to describe reasons for learning in adult education. That there is a relationship between fulfillment of personal and economic reasons for learning and continued participation in adult education is one hypothesis that could be used to test this conclusion. People expect certain rewards from their participation in adult education programs. If these expected returns are not forthcoming, people will withdraw their participation in adult learning.

Costs of Learning

The focus of Research Questions Nos. 3 and 4 was to establish the costs of adult learning and/or the reasons for withdrawal, and to

determine the extent to which a learner would tolerate a cost in order to get an education.

Exchange theory states that people are not likely to perform activities that may be too costly. The theory states that people are also not likely to continue with a relationship that is too costly to them. The research indicated that adults were likely to withdraw from school if, as a result of their participation in education programs, their time and financial commitments exceed what they consider to be fair and reasonable. These findings are compatible with the findings of the CNS study (1974) and those of a study conducted by Dhanidina and Griffith in 1975. The CNS study found that money and time demanding situations were the most frequently cited barriers to learning by potential adult learners. Dhanidina and Griffith found that time was the most serious barrier to participation in adult education.

From this finding, it can be concluded that reasons for withdrawal and costs of learning in adult education can be viewed in the context of exchange. The following hypotheses could provide an empirical test of the appropriateness of using exchange in examining costs of learning in adult education:

Hypothesis 1: There is correlation between an increase in financial costs and dropping out in adult education.

Hypothesis 2: There is correlation between an increase in time costs and dropping out in adult education.

According to exchange theory, people's participation in activities involve costs, and people aim at maintaining these costs below a certain level. If one's costs of participating in an activity exceed a certain level, one will withdraw from that activity and seek an alternative activity (Thibaut and Kelley, 1959).

Possible Implications

Being largely exploratory in nature, the implications of this study were viewed largely from the perspective of what would be useful for future study of exchange in adult education. However, because further research largely results from the need to answer questions resulting from practice, possible practical implications were considered to be in order here.

Reasons for Learning

While adults return to school for personal, economic, social, and other reasons, this study indicates that adult learners are likely to drop out if the learning program does not fulfill their personal and economic reasons.

This calls for an understanding and appreciation of the expectations of the learners on the part of the adult educator. According to adult educationists, including Knowles (1975) and Rogers (1969), the most certain way for the adult educator to ensure that the adult learning activities are on target all the time is to adopt about himself and the learner, a self-directed system of learning.

A self-directed system of learning is a method of instruction where the learner is given some control over his learning activities. Self-directed learning does not mean that the teacher should abdicate all authority. All it means is that the teacher should give the learner some measure of control over the learning process. Numerous labels are used for different systems of instruction which include an element where the learner takes some responsibility for his own learning. Some of these are: (1) individualized learning, (2) criterion referenced instruction, (3) mastery learning, (4) personalized system of instruction, and (5) humanistic self-instruction.

According to Knowles (1975), self-directed learning, in its broadest sense, describes a process in which individuals take the initiative in diagnosing their learning needs, formulating learning goals, identifying human and material resources for learning, choosing and implementing appropriate learning strategies and evaluating learning outcomes.

Underlying the self-directed system of learning is the humanistic view of man, which according to Maslow (1968), "involves self-discovery, self-acceptance, and self-making: discovering about both one's commonness and one's uniqueness" (Harvard Educational Review, 1981, p. 151). The humanistic view of man suggests that the adult educators should start from the fundamental assumption of the purposive nature of human striving, which leads to a belief in the freedom of the learner to choose his own direction, the educator

becoming a facilitator in an authentic human relationship (Jones, 1979).

Hogan (1978) states that when learners freely chose any method of instruction because they are committed to learning a skill, the method enhances humanistic instruction. Hogan also states that self-instructional materials are those that enable learners at various levels of interest and self-management ability, to take as much responsibility for their learning as they are willing and able to.

This study also indicates that adult learners are likely to drop out of school if the learning activities are not relevant and meaningful to their reasons for learning. Adults are not interested in learning material that they will use some time in the future. They are mostly concerned with learning things that will provide solutions to the problems they encounter in their roles as parents, workers, and citizens (Knowles, 1975). Again, this calls for a self-directed system of learning. Inherent in the self-directed system of learning is a significant element of intrinsic motivation. Self-directed learning will ensure that learning is relevant and meaningful to the learner and his/her commitment and motivation should be greater as a result of this perceived relevance.

Costs of Learning

As concluded from the findings of this study, adult learners from low income, semi-urban areas are not prepared to commit large amounts of money and time for education. This suggests that in order

to attract and retain adult learners from low income semi-urban sections of society, adult education should be inexpensive and convenient. Tough (1971) found that the typical adult learner would like to learn by the cheapest, easiest, and fastest way of learning. This presents a challenge to researchers and educators to develop cheaper, easier, and faster delivery systems.

In the absence of new and perhaps more convenient delivery systems, it is believed that a self-directed system of learning could alleviate the problem of dropping out in adult education. In a self-directed system of learning, the learner decides on resources and methods that are relevant and allocates resources and time to relevant learning activities, and this contributes to his commitment to learning objectives. Kulik (1979) concluded that personalized systems of learning generally produce superior student achievement, less variation in achievement, and higher affective ratings by students in college courses, but does not affect withdrawal rate and study time.

A significant proportion of the respondents indicated that embarrassment and other situations that threaten one's self-concept constitute costs of learning to them. According to Knowles (1975), an adult will not learn under conditions that are incongruent with his self-concept. A self-directed system of learning is one way to provide the learner with an environment that does not threaten his self-concept. In a self-directed system of learning, the learner has some control over his learning activities, and this contributes to

his self-concept of nondependence and self-directedness and thus his intrinsic motivation.

Implications for Further Research

As descriptive research, this study illustrates the existence of a relationship between motivation to participate in adult education and exchange, and this could have a major influence on future studies of participation in adult education. Research in motivation to participate in adult education is often limited to establishing people's reasons for and costs of learning. The exchange approach does not only introduce another stage in the study of participation in adult education, it also adds a new dimension and perspective to the understanding of motivation to participate in adult learning. In order to broaden the understanding of the relationship between motivation to participate in adult education and exchange, further research should be undertaken to answer the following questions that were raised by this study:

1. Are the findings of the study applicable to all types of adult learners?

In order to answer this question, replicative studies could be made using a larger sample of adult learners including participants from all forms of adult education representing people from all races and all levels of society.

2. Do learners and dropouts exhibit different forms of exchange behavior?

The study reveals that while learners selected personal and economic reasons as their most frequent reasons for learning, dropouts cited personal, and social reasons for their learning. Does this mean that people who are likely to drop out are more social than those who are likely to continue learning?

3. What other variables need to be included in a study of exchange behavior in adult learning?

A much broader review of exchange theory literature should be made in future studies of participation as a form of exchange in adult education.

In its role as exploratory research, this study has provided another way to examine motivation to participate in adult learning, by demonstrating that exchange can be used to describe adult learners. The study has also formulated the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1: There is a relationship between fulfillment of personal and economic reasons for learning and continued participation in adult education.

Hypothesis 2: There is correlation between an increase in financial costs and dropping out in adult education.

Hypothesis 3: There is correlation between an increase in time costs and dropping out in adult education.

These hypotheses could be used to test the strength of the relationship between participation in adult education programs and exchange.

Further Reflection

A key concept of exchange is "reciprocity," which states that when people invest effort and time in an activity, they expect returns or benefits that are commensurate with the effort and time invested (Gouldner, 1960). When applied to adult learning, "reciprocity," means that adult learners would withdraw from school if, as a result of their participation in education programs, their time and financial commitments far exceed what they consider to be fair and equitable to the expected end product. Essentially, this means that a person's threshold for a cost incurred in seeking a particular reward is determined by the magnitude and value of that particular reward. In other words, it is expected that the higher the value of the expected reward, the higher the person's threshold of obtaining that reward, i.e., the more the individual should be willing to spend in order to obtain the expected reward. Conversely, the lower the expected rates of return, the lower should be the personal investment to attain them.

While the findings of this study indicated that adult learners would quit school if the costs became very serious, it did not indicate whether the thresholds that were identified for each cost were a function of their value of the end product or the expected rates of return. Further research could attempt to ascertain the actual costs against the expected rates of return, and determine whether the threshold of the former is proportional to the actual value of the latter.

Throughout the course of this study the researcher detected a slight indication of a breakdown of communication between the adult and continuing education authorities and the adult learners. For example, the fact that some people indicated that they dropped out because they realized that it would take more time than they had bargained for is testimony of the fact that the person was not aware of the time involved at the time of his/her enrollment. It would appear that a significant proportion of dropouts result from an intentional or unintentional block out of information by adult education authorities with regard to what is expected of learners. A survey of adult educators should reveal further insight into the question of learning and dropping out by revealing information about what the adult education system expects of learners.

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY OF STUDY

The purpose of this study was to explore and describe the influence of exchange forces on human behavior toward adult education programs. To accomplish this purpose, the study identified exchange reasons for learning and exchange costs of learning, and established a threshold for each exchange force.

This study was undertaken to determine the exchange forces that: (1) lead people to participate in adult education programs, (2) may affect people's participation in adult learning, and (3) lead people to drop out of learning programs before completion, and to determine the threshold for each exchange force. The meaning of threshold, which is referred to as the comparative level for alternatives after Thibaut and Kelley (1959), is twofold. For exchange reasons for learning, it is the minimum return for each reason that a learner will accept and still remain in the education program, while, for exchange costs, it is the highest level of payment or seriousness above which a person will withdraw from a learning program.

In order to develop a broader understanding of forces that influence participation in adult education, both current learners and

dropouts were surveyed. The study instrument used for this study was a combination of an adaptation of the reasons for educational participation (REP) and the barriers of learning used in the Commission of Non-Traditional Study (CNS), conducted by Carp, Peterson, and Roelfs (1974), and what the investigator put together in order to establish the threshold for each reason (expected reward) and barrier (cost). The adaptation for the study of the reasons for educational participation and the barriers of learning, was done with input from a panel consisting of professors and graduate students, whose disciplines were in social psychology and/or adult education.

The survey instrument, which was in the form of an interview schedule, consisted of four sections. The first section asked current learners about their reasons for learning, and section two asked them about the costs they had to incur in the process of learning. Section three asked dropouts about their reasons for learning and their reasons for dropping out, i.e., those costs of learning that may have contributed to their decision to withdraw from the learning program before completion. The fourth and last section asked respondents about personal characteristics, such as race, age, marital status, and the level of formal education.

Data collection, using the questionnaire, was done through a total of 56 personal interviews conducted by the investigator, occasionally assisted by colleagues who were graduate students majoring in adult education. The interviewees consisted of 10 Adult Basic Education (ABE) students, 10 General Education Development

(GED) students, 16 Vocational Education Students, 10 Adult Basic Education (ABE) dropouts and 10 General Education Development (GED) dropouts. Because the research used a personal interview to collect data, each interview yielded usable data. Interview schedules were coded, data entered into the computer, and analyzed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences.

The examination of reasons for learning and dropping out in the context of exchange was chosen by the investigator as a study area in order to demonstrate that, while learners may indicate a variety of reasons for learning or dropping out, not all those reasons are exchange reasons. The review of related literature in Chapter II shows that, while a lot of research has been done on adult learners and their reasons for learning and dropping out, very little is known about what constitutes exchange among adult learners. This study was an attempt to identify exchange reasons, among the many reasons for learning and withdrawal that have been indicated by adult learners. The findings of the study reported in Chapter IV reveal the exchange reasons for learning and dropping out and the threshold for each.

Findings

The findings of the study are listed here, according to each research question and its objective(s).

Research Question No. 1: Who are the respondents?

To whom do the data refer. The personal characteristics of the respondents have been summarized in Table 4.1.

1. Demographically, the typical respondent was a white person aged between 18 and 44 who lives in a semi-urban area.
2. More than half of the respondents were single and did not have children 17 years or younger.
3. The typical respondent did not finish high school.
4. The majority of the respondents were either unemployed or employed on a part-time basis.
5. Of those who were employed, half were doing semiskilled work.
6. The typical respondent earns less than $7,000 a year.

Research Question No. 2. What exchange forces are responsible for people's participation in adult education programs?

Reasons for learning:

1. The most frequently cited category of reasons for learning, by both learners and dropouts, was personal reasons, with the desires to enrich one's life and to become better informed at the top of the category.
2. For learners, the second most frequently cited category of reasons was the economic group of reasons, with the need to earn certification or licensing and to get a new job topping the list.
3. For dropouts, the social category of reasons, e.g., to meet new people and to feel a sense of belonging, was second in frequency.

4. The most important reason for learning cited by learners was personal fulfillment, with economic or job-related reasons next in importance.

Learners' levels of satisfaction (C. L.) for each reason.

1. All learners who selected a reason indicated some measure of satisfaction with their learning program in satisfying that reason, and at least three-quarters of these expressed satisfaction at the moderately and very satisfactory levels.
2. The top rated reasons in terms of satisfaction were the personal reasons to enrich one's life and to become better informed, followed by the economic needs to obtain certificates or licenses and to get a new job.

Exchange reasons for learners

1. Economic and personal reasons received the highest ratings as exchange reasons.
   a. Slightly more than half of the learners would quit their education programs if they could now be given the certificates or licenses they hope to get at the end of their learning programs, or if they felt that their education programs would not lead to certification or licensing.
   b. Half the learners would quit if their education programs were not enriching their lives and making them better informed people.

c. Nearly half (47.2%) would quit if they got a job or if they felt that their education programs were not helping their job chances.

d. A third of the learners would drop out of their learning programs if they could be awarded degrees/diplomas now, or if they felt that their education programs were not improving their chances of getting degrees/diplomas in the future.

2. Very few learners indicated they would quit learning for social reasons, the highest rated, "to feel a sense of belonging," was selected by only four people.

Levels of satisfaction below which learners would quit (C. L. alt.).

1. The top five levels of satisfaction below which learners would quit learning belong to the following five of the six economic reasons included in the instrument.

   a. To work toward certification or licensing

   b. To help to get a new job

   c. To work toward a degree/diploma

   d. To meet requirements for getting into an educational program

   e. To meet requirements of my employer or profession.

Learners' costs of learning.

1. Time and money related costs were the most frequent costs of learning cited by learners.

Learners' levels of seriousness (C. L.) for each cost.

1. None of the costs of learning cited by learners was considered critically serious.
2. Learners considered time costs relatively more serious than economic and other costs.
3. The only economic cost for which learners paid anything was the cost of transportation.

Exchange costs for learners.

1. More time costs were cited as exchange costs than any other type of costs.
2. All the economic costs, including those for which they were paying nothing, were identified as exchange costs by learners.

Levels of Seriousness above which learners would quit (C. L. alt.)

1. Learners would tolerate a much higher level of seriousness for time-related costs than they would for economic costs.
    a. The cost of child care had the highest C. L. alt. with all but two of the learners saying they would quit their learning programs if they were faced with a situation which required them to pay for child care.
    b. About two thirds of the learners would not pay more than $50 per a nine-week term for tuition, books, and other learning materials if they were required to.

c. Slightly more than 60% of the learners would not allocate more than 10 hours per week for homework and assignments.

d. The amount of time required to complete a learning program had the lowest C. L. alt. with 44.4% of the learners saying they are prepared to remain in their education program if the length of these programs was increased to more than 30 months.

2. The C. L. alt.'s for other costs were based on very few cases, with the ratings of the two highest rated costs based on the unwillingness to tolerate anything above "not at all serious" of the only person who identified them as exchange costs.

Research Question No. 4. What exchange forces lead adults to withdraw from a learning program before completion?

Reasons for dropping out:

1. Three of the six most frequently cited reasons for dropping out were the following time reasons: I became too busy with other things at the time, and just couldn't find the time to continue (55%), the class meeting was too long (40%), and the time of courses clashed with other responsibilities (30%).

2. Other reasons mentioned by at least 30% of dropouts were: (1) I got a job (40%), (2) the learning activities were pretty dull and boring (35%), (3) I couldn't see what

benefit would come out of what I was learning (30%), I could not comprehend or master learning activities (30%), my instructor was unsympathetic to my learning needs (30%), and I could not get along with other students (30%).

Dropouts' levels of seriousness (C. L.) for economic and time costs

1. Most dropouts did not pay anything for economic costs.
   a. 30% paid $50 or less for transportation while the rest paid nothing.
   b. Only one person paid anything for child care.
2. Dropouts indicated relatively higher C. L.'s for time costs.
   a. The shortest education program for which dropouts were enrolled was 12 months long, and 20% indicated they were enrolled for courses that had no time limit.
   b. All 20 dropouts indicated the average length for each class session as three hours.
   c. 65% spent between 11 and 15 hours attending classes per week.
   d. At most, dropouts spent 30 minutes a day travelling to and from school.
   e. 55% of the dropouts did not do any school work outside school hours, and the rest did only 1-5 hours a week of school-related work outside school time.

Exchange costs for dropouts

1. More time costs than any other type of costs were identified as exchange costs by dropouts.
   a. 45% would not have left if they had not become too busy with other things.
   b. 40% would return to their education program if the length of each class session were reduced.
   c. 30% would not have left if the class meeting had not clashed with other responsibilities.
2. Other exchange reasons, identified as such by 30% were: I could not comprehend or master learning activities, my instructor was unsympathetic to my learning needs, and I could not get along with other students.
3. Another 30% indicated they would return to school only if they lost their jobs.

Dropouts' C. L. alt.'s for economic and time costs.

1. The cost of child care had the highest C. L. alt. among economic costs with 75% saying they are not willing to pay anything for it.
2. The cost of tuition, books, and other learning materials were second with half the dropouts showing unwillingness to pay anything for them.
3. Among time costs, the highest rated was the time for homework and studying with all 20 dropouts indicating

unwillingness to allocate more than 5 hours per week for assignments.

4. The length of each class session was the second ranked time cost, with 25% suggesting one hour as the maximum period for each class session.
5. The least rated was the amount of time required to complete program with 20% willing to spend 5 years attending one course program.

The findings of the study suggest that there is a relationship between participation in adult education and exchange. This indicates the appropriateness of using exchange to describe people's motivation to participate in adult education programs.

The study presents a challenge to researchers to determine whether its findings are applicable to all types of adult learning. The study's findings indicate the tenability of the following hypotheses:

1. There is a relationship between fulfillment of personal and economic reasons for learning and continued participation in adult education.
2. There is correlation between an increase in financial costs and dropping out in adult education.
3. There is correlation between an increase in time costs and dropping out in adult education.

The study also presented a challenge to adult educators. It offers recommendations, the application of which could go a long way into

alleviating the problem of dropping out in adult and continuing education.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

DEVELOPMENT OF THE SURVEY INSTRUMENT

ITEMS USED IN THE CNS STUDY

I. Reasons for Learning

1. Help to get a new job
2. Help to advance in present job
3. Become better informed, personal enjoyment, and enrichment
4. Meet new people
5. Meet requirements for getting into an educational program
6. Be a better parent, husband, or wife
7. Get away from the routine of daily living
8. Work toward certification or licensing
9. Better understand community problems
10. Be better able to serve my church
11. Meet the requirements of my employer, profession, or someone in authority
12. Become a more effective citizen
13. Work toward a degree
14. Learn more about my own background and culture
15. Feel a sense of belonging
16. Curiosity, learn for the sake of learning
17. Become a happier person
18. Work toward solutions of problems, such as discrimination and pollution
19. Get away from personal problems
20. Improve my spiritual well being

Barriers to/Costs of Learning

1. Cost, including books, learning materials, child care, transportation, as well as tuition
2. Not enough time
3. Amount of time required to complete program
4. No way to get credit for a degree
5. Strict attendance requirements
6. Don't know what to learn or what it would lead to
7. No place to study or practice
8. No child care
9. Courses I want aren't scheduled when I can attend
10. Don't want to go to school full time
11. No information about places or people offering what I want
12. No transportation
13. Too much red tape in getting enrolled
14. Hesitate to seem too ambitious
15. Friends or family don't like the idea
16. Home responsibilities
17. Job responsibilities
18. Not enough energy and stamina
19. Afraid that I am too old to begin
20. Low grades in the past not confident of my ability
21. Don't meet requirements to begin program
22. Courses I want don't seem to be available
23. Don't enjoy studying
24. Tired of going to school; tired of classrooms

II. LETTER TO PANELISTS THAT WERE INVOLVED IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE INSTRUMENT

433 Erickson Hall
East Lansing, MI 48824
(517) 355-2865
February 9, 1987

[Dr./Mr. First and Last Name
Department Office Address]

Dear DR./Mr. [Last Name]:

Thank you for agreeing to review my "adult Learner" survey instrument. I have asked you to participate in the preliminary stages of my doctoral research project because of both your knowledge of social theory and your experience in dealing with adult learners. Your comments and suggestions shall be used to develop part of a survey instrument that shall serve as a guideline to a personal interview.

The purpose of my research project, entitled "Participation As a Form of Exchange in Adult and Continuing Education," is to examine reasons for and problems of participation in adult and continuing education programs in the context of exchange. As you may know from sociological theory, exchange theory assumes that people engage in any activity because of the benefits they expect to get from that activity, that all activities they perform involve costs, and that people aim at maintaining these costs below the rewards they expect to receive.

While classical exchange theorists, like Sir James Frazer (1919), Bronislaw Malinowski (1922), and Claude Levi-Strauss (1949) viewed reward and cost in terms of economic, social, symbolic, and personal exchanges, contemporary exchange theories, the most prominent of which are George Homans (1961, 1974) and Peter Blau (1964), have broadened these two primary concepts of exchange. They have broadened the concept of reward to include also the following:

1. Positive Regard for One's Values and Ideas (Thibaut and Kelley, 1959; Blau, 1964; Homans, 1974).

2. Positive Appreciation of the Task to be Done and How It Fits into the Needs of the Participant (Blau, 1964).

Contemporary exchange theorists have also expanded the concept of cost to include also the following:

1. Time (Blau, 1964.

2. Physical and Mental Effort (Thibaut and Kelley, 1959).

3. Embarrassment, Anxiety, and the Feeling of Inadequacy (Thibaut and Kelley, 1959).

4. Subordination to Another Person (Blau, 1964).

Along with this letter, you will find two sheets of paper: one contains the concept of reward and its subconcepts, while the other contains the concept of cost and its subconcepts. You will also find 49 cards, each bearing a cost or a reward that is associated with participation in Adult Education. These costs and rewards were adapted from a study by Carp, Peterson, and Roelfs (1974), the purpose of which was to determine the benefits that people expect to get by participating in adult education programs and the barriers that may prevent them from participating in these programs.

I would like you to assist me in the following ways:

1. Determine from your knowledge of exchange theory and adult education which cards contain cost items and which contain rewards

2. Starting with rewards, examine each item briefly and place it under the subconcept to which you think it belongs.

3. Do the same for the cost items.

Please note that there are no right or wrong answers in this task. Just place each item where you think it belongs. There is no limit to the number of items you may place under one subconcept. If you feel that all items fall under one subconcept, place them under that concept. Also, if you feel that some or all the items do not belong to any of the subconcepts, place them aside. You are also free to generate and write on the blank cards provided any reward and/cost items that you feel have been overlooked.

Please be prepared to explain briefly to me, when we get an opportunity to meet, the rationale of your decisions.

Sincerely yours,

Stanley Mpofu, Graduate Student

Dr. Gloria H. Kielbaso, Chairperson

III. CLASSIFICATION OF THE CNS STUDY REASONS FOR LEARNING ACCORDING TO THE CONCEPT OF REWARD AND ITS SUBCONCEPTS

Item No.	Reason	Classification According to the Concept of Reward	Classification According to the CNS study
1.	To help to get a new job	Economic	Personal
2.	To help to advance in present job	Economic	Personal
3.	To become better informed	Personal	Knowledge
4.	To enrich my life	Personal	Knowledge
5.	To meet new people	Social	Social
6.	To meet requirements for getting into an educational program	Economic	Obligation
7.	To be a better parent, husband, or wife	Personal	Personal
8.	To get away from the routine of daily living	Personal	Escape
9.	To work toward certification or licensing	Economic	Personal
10.	To better understand community problems	Social	Community
11.	To be better able to my church	Social	Religious
12.	To meet the requirements of my employer or profession	Economic	Obligation
13.	To become a more effective citizen	Social	Community
14.	To work toward a degree/diploma	Economic	Personal

III. CLASSIFICATION OF THE CNS STUDY REASONS FOR LEARNING ACCORDING TO THE CONCEPT OF REWARD AND ITS SUBCONCEPTS (continued)

Item No.	Reason	Classification According to the Concept of Reward	Classification According to the CNS study
15.	To learn more about my own background and culture	Personal	Cultural
16.	To feel a sense of belonging	Social	Social
17.	To satisfy curiosity	Personal	Knowledge
18.	To learn for the sake of learning	Personal	Knowledge
19.	To become a happier person	Personal	Personal
20.	To work toward solutions of problems, such as discrimination or pollution	Social	Community
21.	To get away from personal problems	Personal	Escape
22.	To improve my spiritual well being	Personal	Religious

IV. CLASSIFICATION OF COSTS OF LEARNING ACCORDING TO THE CONCEPT OF COST AND ITS SUBCONCEPTS

Item No.	Reasons	Classification According to the Concept of Cost
1.	Cost of tuition	Economic
2.	Cost of books and other learning materials	Economic
3.	Cost of child care	Economic
4.	Cost of transportation	Economic
5.	Not enough time	Time
6.	Amount of time required to complete program	Time
7.	Strict attendance requirements	Subordination to another person
8.	Don't know what learning would lead to	Personal
9.	No place to study or practice	Personal
10.	No child care	Personal
11.	Time of courses clash with other responsibilities	Time
12.	Going to school full time	Time
13.	No information on what I can do next	Personal
14.	No transportation	Personal
15.	Travelling to and from school	Time
16.	Too much red tape in getting enrolled	Time
17.	Don't want to seem too ambitious	Personal
18.	Friends or family don't like the idea	Social
19.	Home responsibilities	Time
20.	Job responsibilities	Time

IV. CLASSIFICATION OF COSTS OF LEARNING ACCORDING TO THE CONCEPT OF COST AND ITS SUBCONCEPTS (continued)

Item No.	Reasons	Classification According to the Concept of Cost
21.	Not enough energy and stamina to continue learning	Physical and mental effort
22.	Afraid that I am too old to continue learning	Personal
23.	Not confident in my ability to continue learning	Embarrassment, anxiety, and the feeling of inadequacy
24.	Don't meet requirements to continue learning	Personal
25.	Other courses I want don't seem to be available	Personal
26.	Don't enjoy studying	Personal
27.	Getting tired of school	Physical and mental effort

V. CLASSIFICATION OF REWARD ITEMS ACCORDING TO WHETHER THEY WERE TYPE I OR TYPE II.

Type I (Intrinsic) Rewards: Those that are obtained from the actual act of participating in a learning program, e.g., meeting new people.

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3. To become better informed
4. To enrich my life
5. To meet new people
8. To get away from the routine of daily living
15. To learn more about my own background and culture
16. To feel a sense of belonging
17. To satisfy curiosity
18. To learn for the sake of learning
19. To become a happier person
21. To get away from personal problems
22. To improve my spiritual well being

TYPE II (Extrinsic) Rewards: Those that are expected to result from participating in a learning program, e.g., getting a job.

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1. To help to get a new job.
2. To help to advance in present job
6. To meet requirements for getting into an educational program
7. To be a better parent, husband, or wife
9. To work toward certification or licensing
10. To better understand community problems
11. To be better able to serve my church
12. To meet the requirements of my employer or profession.
13. To become a more effective citizen
14. To work toward a degree/diploma
20. To work toward solutions of problems, such as discrimination and pollution

---

APPENDIX B

THE SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

PARTICIPATION AS A FORM OF EXCHANGE
IN ADULT AND CONTINUING EDUCATION

I. REASONS FOR PARTICIPATING

Thank you for agreeing to participate in this survey, the purpose of which is to determine why people participate in education programs such as the one you are engaged in, and to identify the costs of participating in these programs.

You are part of _____ adult learners engaged in ABE/GED/Vocational studies that were selected from a list provided by the _____. Your responses will be kept confidential. Do you have any questions before we begin?

A. People have different reasons for participating in ABE/GED/Vocational Education programs. I have with me 22 cards. Each card contains one reason for learning. For each reason I want you to tell me:

1. Whether it applies to you. And if it does apply to you:
2. How important it is as a reason for your participation in this program.

ITEM NUMBER	REASONS	HOW IMPORTANT IS EACH REASON? (Circle ONE Number for Each) DOES NOT APPLY TO ME	NOT AT ALL IMPORTANT	SLIGHTLY IMPORTANT	MODERATELY IMPORTANT	VERY IMPORTANT
1.	To help to get a new job	1	2	3	4	5
2.	To help to advance in present job	1	2	3	4	5
3.	To become better informed	1	2	3	4	5
4.	To enrich my life	1	2	3	4	5
5.	To meet new people	1	2	3	4	5

HOW IMPORTANT IS EACH REASON?
(Circle ONE Number for Each)

ITEM NUMBER	REASONS	DOES NOT APPLY TO ME	NOT AT ALL IMPORTANT	SLIGHTLY IMPORTANT	MODERATELY IMPORTANT	VERY IMPORTANT
6.	To meet requirements for getting into an educational program		1	2	3	4	5
7.	To be a better parent, husband or wife		1	2	3	4	5
8.	To get away from the routine of daily living		1	2	3	4	5
9.	To work toward certification or licensing		1	2	3	4	5
10	To better understand community problems		1	2	3	4	5
11	To be better able to serve my church		1	2	3	4	5
12	To meet the requirements of my employer or profession		1	2	3	4	5
13	To become a more effective citizen		1	2	3	4	5
14	To work toward a degree/diploma		1	2	3	4	5
15	To learn more about my own background and culture		1	2	3	4	5
16	To feel a sense of belonging		1	2	3	4	5
17	To satisfy curiosity		1	2	3	4	5
18	To learn for the sake of learning		1	2	3	4	5
19	To become a happier person		1	2	3	4	5
20	To work toward solutions of problems, such as discrimination and pollution		1	2	3	4	5

HOW IMPORTANT IS EACH REASON?
(Circle ONE Number for Each)

ITEM NUMBER	REASONS					
21	To get away from personal problems	1	2	3	4	5
22	To improve my spiritual well-being	1	2	3	4	5

B. There are many reasons why you are participating in this program. Let us examine each of these reasons one by one.

(TYPE I) 1. On a scale of 1 (NOT AT ALL SATISFACTORY) to 4 (VERY SATISFACTORY) how satisfactory is this education program with regard to the fulfillment of this reason?
(RECORD ANSWER AND REPEAT QUESTION FOR EACH REASON)

COMPARISON LEVEL
(Circle ONE Number for Each)

ITEM NUMBER	NOT AT ALL SATISFACTORY	SLIGHTLY SATISFACTORY	MODERATELY SATISFACTORY	VERY SATISFACTORY
_____	1	2	3	4
_____	1	2	3	4
_____	1	2	3	4
_____	1	2	3	4
_____	1	2	3	4
_____	1	2	3	4
_____	1	2	3	4
_____	1	2	3	4

COMPARISON LEVEL
(Circle ONE Number for Each)

ITEM NUMBER	NOT AT ALL SATISFACTORY	SLIGHTLY SATISFACTORY	MODERATELY SATISFACTORY	VERY SATISFACTORY
_____	1	2	3	4
_____	1	2	3	4

(GO TO QUESTION C1 ON PAGE 5)

(TYPE II) 2. On a scale of 1 (NOT AT ALL SATISFIED) to 4 (VERY SATISFIED) how satisfied are you with this course in preparing you for this reason? (RECORD ANSWER AND REPEAT QUESTION FOR EACH REASON)

COMPARISON LEVEL
(Circle ONE Number for Each)

ITEM NUMBER	NOT AT ALL SATISFIED	SLIGHTLY SATISFIED	MODERATELY SATISFIED	VERY SATISFIED
_____	1	2	3	4
_____	1	2	3	4
_____	1	2	3	4
_____	1	2	3	4
_____	1	2	3	4
_____	1	2	3	4
_____	1	2	3	4
_____	1	2	3	4
_____	1	2	3	4
_____	1	2	3	4

(GO TO QUESTION C2 ON PAGE 5)

C. (TYPE I) 1. Let us examine these reasons one by one. Your level of satisfaction with regard to this reason is . . . Would you withdraw from this education program if the level of satisfaction for the reason dropped to 1 (NOT AT ALL SATISFACTORY)?
(RECORD ANSWER AND REPEAT QUESTION FOR EACH REASON)

ITEM NUMBER	WOULD YOU WITHDRAW? YES	NO
_____	1	2
_____	1	2
_____	1	2
_____	1	2
_____	1	2
	1	2
_____	1	2
_____	1	2
_____	1	2
_____	1	2

(IF YES FOR AT LEAST ONE GO TO QUESTION D1 ON PAGE 7)

(IF NO FOR ALL ITEMS, AND ALL REASONS GIVEN FALL UNDER TYPE I, GO TO QUESTION E1 ON PAGE 8)

C. (TYPE II) 2. Let us talk about these reasons one at a time. Would you withdraw from this program if this reason was fulfilled now? (RECORD ANSWER AND REPEAT QUESTION FOR EACH REASON)

ITEM NUMBER	WOULD YOU WITHDRAW? (Circle ONE Number) YES	NO
_____	1	2
_____	1	2
_____	1	2

ITEM NUMBER	WOULD YOU WITHDRAW? (Circle ONE Number) YES	NO
_____	1	2
_____	1	2
_____	1	2
_____	1	2
_____	1	2
_____	1	2
_____	1	2

(IF YES FOR AT LEAST ONE ASK QUESTION C3)

(IF NO FOR ALL ITEMS, AND ALL REASONS GIVEN FALL UNDER TYPE II, GO TO QUESTION C4 ON PAGE 7)

3. Would you withdraw from this education program, if you felt that it was no longer instrumental to the fulfillment of this reason? (RECORD ANSWER AND REPEAT QUESTION FOR EACH REASON)

ITEM NUMBER	WOULD YOU WITHDRAW? (Circle ONE Number for Each) YES	NO
_____	1	2
_____	1	2
_____	1	2
_____	1	2
_____	1	2
_____	1	2
_____	1	2
_____	1	2
_____	1	2

(IF YES FOR AT LEAST ONE GO TO QUESTION D2 ON PAGE 8)

(IF NO FOR ALL ITEMS, AND ALL REASONS GIVEN FALL UNDER TYPE II, GO TO QUESTION E2 ON PAGE 9)

C. (TYPE II) 4. Why would you want to continue with this program if all the reasons why you are in it have been fulfilled?

_____

_____

(GO TO SECTION II ON PAGE 10)

D. (TYPE I) 1. What lowest level of satisfaction/ fulfillment would you accept for this reason in order for you to remain on this program? (RECORD ANSWER AND REPEAT QUESTION FOR EACH REASON)

COMPARISON LEVEL FOR ALTERNATIVES
(Circle ONE Number for Each)

ITEM NUMBER	NOT AT ALL SATISFACTORY	SLIGHTLY SATISFACTORY	MODERATELY SATISFACTORY	VERY SATISFACTORY
_____	1	2	3	4
_____	1	2	3	4
_____	1	2	3	4
_____	1	2	3	4
_____	1	2	3	4
_____	1	2	3	4
_____	1	2	3	4
_____	1	2	3	4
_____	1	2	3	4
_____	1	2	3	4

(GO TO SECTION II ON PAGE 10)

D. (TYPE II) 2. What is the lowest level of satisfaction you would accept, and still remain in the program? (RECORD ANSWER AND REPEAT QUESTION FOR EACH REASON)

COMPARISON LEVEL FOR ALTERNATIVES
(Circle ONE Number for Each)

ITEM NUMBER	NOT AT ALL SATISFACTORY	SLIGHTLY SATISFACTORY	MODERATELY SATISFACTORY	VERY SATISFACTORY
_____	1	2	3	4
_____	1	2	3	4
_____	1	2	3	4
_____	1	2	3	4
_____	1	2	3	4
_____	1	2	3	4
_____	1	2	3	4
_____	1	2	3	4
_____	1	2	3	4
_____	1	2	3	4

(GO TO SECTION II ON PAGE 10)

E. (TYPE I) 1. Why would you want to continue with this program if it does not satisfy any of the reasons why you are in it.

_____

_____

_____

(GO TO SECTION II ON PAGE 10)

(TYPE II) 2. **Why would you want to continue with this program if you are not satisfied with it, with regard to the fulfillment of any of the reasons why you are in it?**

_____

_____

_____

(GO TO SECTION II ON PAGE 10)

II. COSTS OF PARTICIPATING

A. Participating in an education program such as this one, may involve costs and other forms of inconveniences. I have with me 27 cards. Each card contains something that may stop you from continuing with this learning program, or that may affect your participation in one way or another; e.g. it may affect the frequency of your participation. For each item I want you to tell me:

1. Whether it applies to you and if it does apply to you.
2. How serious it is as a cost or a problem to your participation in the ABE/GED/VOCATIONAL EDUCATION PROGRAM.

HOW SERIOUS IS EACH PROBLEM?
(Circle ONE Number for Each)

ITEM NUMBER	REASONS	DOES NOT APPLY TO ME	NOT AT ALL SERIOUS	SLIGHTLY SERIOUS	MODERATELY SERIOUS	VERY SERIOUS
1.	Cost of tuition		1	2	3	4	5
2.	Cost of books and other learning materials		1	2	3	4	5
3.	Cost of child care		1	2	3	4	5
4.	Cost of transportation		1	2	3	4	5
5.	Not enough time		1	2	3	4	5
6.	Amount of time required to complete program		1	2	3	4	5
7.	Strict attendance requirements		1	2	3	4	5
8.	Don't know what learning would lead to		1	2	3	4	5
9.	No place to study or practice		1	2	3	4	5
10	No child care		1	2	3	4	5

HOW SERIOUS IS EACH PROBLEM?
(Circle ONE Number for Each)

ITEM NUMBER	REASONS	DOES NOT APPLY TO ME	NOT AT ALL SERIOUS	SLIGHTLY SERIOUS	MODERATELY SERIOUS	VERY SERIOUS
11	Time of courses clash with other responsibilities	1	2	3	4	5
12	Going to school full-time	1	2	3	4	5
13	No information on what I can do next	1	2	3	4	5
14	No transportation	1	2	3	4	5
15	Travelling to and from school	1	2	3	4	5
16	Too much red tape in getting enrolled	1	2	3	4	5
17	Don't want to seem too ambitious	1	2	3	4	5
18	Friends or family don't like the idea	1	2	3	4	5
19	Home responsibilities	1	2	3	4	5
20	Job responsibilities	1	2	3	4	5
21	Not enough energy and stamina to continue learning	1	2	3	4	5
22	Afraid that I am too old to continue learning	1	2	3	4	5
23	Not confident in my ability to continue learning	1	2	3	4	5
24	Don't meet requirements to continue learning	1	2	3	4	5
25	Other courses I want don't seem to be available	1	2	3	4	5

HOW SERIOUS IS EACH PROBLEM?
(Circle ONE Number for Each)

ITEM NUMBER	REASONS	DOES NOT APPLY TO ME	NOT AT ALL SERIOUS	SLIGHTLY SERIOUS	MODERATELY SERIOUS	VERY SERIOUS
26	Don't enjoy studying		1	2	3	4	5
27	Getting tired of school		1	2	3	4	5

ECONOMIC COSTS.

B. How much are you paying per term for:

TOTAL EXPENDITURE PER TERM (C.L.)
(Circle ONE Number for Each)

ITEM NUMBER	NOTHING	$50 or LESS	$51 to $100	$101 to $200	MORE than $200
1	1	2	3	4	5
2	1	2	3	4	5
3	1	2	3	4	5
4	1	2	3	4	5

C. **What is the highest possible amount you are willing to pay for? (MENTION ITEM/REASON) - OR if there were a charge for (MENTION ITEM/REASON), how much would you be willing to pay for it? (INCLUDE ITEMS FOR WHICH NOTHING IS PAYABLE AT THE MOMENT)**

HIGHEST POSSIBLE AMOUNT PAYABLE (C.L. alt.)
(Circle ONE Number for Each)

ITEM NUMBER	NOTHING	$50 or LESS	$51 to $100	$101 to $200	MORE than $200
1	1	2	3	4	5
2	1	2	3	4	5
3	1	2	3	4	5
4	1	2	3	4	5

TIME

D. How many hours a week on the average do you spend attending classes?

NUMBER OF HOURS PER WEEK (C.L.)
(Circle ONE Number)

1 to 5 HOURS	6 to 10 HOURS	11 to 15 HOURS	16 to 20 HOURS	MORE THAN 20 HOURS
1	2	3	4	5

E. How many more hours would you be willing to set aside for classes per week without being forced to withdraw from the program?

NUMBER OF HOURS PER WEEK, INCLUDING ADDITIONAL HOURS
(C.L. alt.)
(Circle ONE Number)

1 to 5 HOURS	6 to 10 HOURS	11 to 15 HOURS	16 to 20 HOURS	MORE THAN 20 HOURS
1	2	3	4	5

F. How many minutes a day on the average do you spend travelling to and from school?

NUMBER OF MINUTES PER DAY (C.L.)
(Circle ONE Number)

1 to 15 MINUTES	16 to 30 MINUTES	31 to 45 MINUTES	46 to 60 MINUTES	MORE THAN 60 MINUTES
1	2	3	4	5

G. How much more time would you be willing to spend travelling to and from school (if it became necessary due to a change of address or school location?)

NUMBER OF MINUTES PER DAY, INCLUDING ADDITIONAL TIME (C.L. alt.)
(Circle ONE Number)

1 to 15 MINUTES	16 to 30 MINUTES	31 to 45 MINUTES	46 to 60 MINUTES	MORE THAN 60 MINUTES
1	2	3	4	5

H. How many hours a week on the average do you spend doing homework and/or studying?

NUMBER OF HOURS PER WEEK (C.L.)
(Circle ONE Number)

NONE	1 to 5 HOURS	6 to 10 HOURS	11 to 15 HOURS	16 to 20 HOURS	MORE THAN 20 HOURS
1	2	3	4	5	6

I. How much more time a week are you willing to spend doing homework and/or studying?

NUMBER OF HOURS PER WEEK, INCLUDING ADDITIONAL TIME (C.L. alt.)
(Circle ONE Number)

NONE	1 to 5 HOURS	6 to 10 HOURS	11 to 15 HOURS	16 to 20 HOURS	MORE THAN 20 HOURS
1	2	3	4	5	6

J. For how long will this course or activity run?

NUMBER OF MONTHS (C.L.)
(Circle ONE Number)

6 to 12 MONTHS	13 to 18 MONTHS	19 to 24 MONTHS	25 to 30 MONTHS	MORE THAN 30 MONTHS
1	2	3	4	5

K. How much time is left for you to complete this program?

1 to 3 MONTHS	4 to 6 MONTHS	7 to 9 MONTHS	10 to 12 MONTHS	MORE THAN 12 MONTHS
1	2	3	4	5

L. If need be, for how many more months are you willing to remain on this program?

NUMBER OF MONTHS, INCLUDING ADDITIONAL TIME
(C.L. Alternative)
(Circle ONE Number)

6 to 12 MONTHS	13 to 18 MONTHS	19 to 24 MONTHS	25 to 30 MONTHS	MORE THAN 30 MONTHS
1	2	3	4	5

(FOR ALL THOSE ITEMS IN QUESTION A ABOVE, THAT ARE NEITHER TIME NOR ECONOMICALLY COST RELATED, THAT APPLY AND ARE NOT CONSIDERED VERY SERIOUS BY THE RESPONDENT)

M. Would you withdraw from this education program if this (MENTION PROBLEM) became very serious?

ITEM NUMBER	WOULD YOU WITHDRAW? YES	NO	IF YES, PLEASE SPECIFY THE NATURE OF THE PROBLEM
_____	1	2	_____
_____	1	2	_____
_____	1	2	_____
_____	1	2	_____
_____	1	2	_____
_____	1	2	_____
_____	1	2	_____
_____	1	2	_____
_____	1	2	_____
_____	1	2	_____

(IF YES FOR AT LEAST ONE ASK QUESTION M)

(IF NO FOR ALL GO TO QUESTION R ON PAGE 17)

N. What highest level of seriousness are you willing to tolerate for this problem?

HOW SERIOUS (C.L. alt.)
(Circle ONE Number for Each)

ITEM NUMBER	NOT AT ALL SERIOUS	SLIGHTLY SERIOUS	MODERATELY SERIOUS	VERY SERIOUS
_____	1	2	3	4
_____	1	2	3	4
_____	1	2	3	4
_____	1	2	3	4
_____	1	2	3	4
_____	1	2	3	4

(FOR EACH OTHER ITEM MENTIONED IN A ABOVE, THAT APPLIES AND IS CONSIDERED VERY SERIOUS)

O. If this problem became worse would you quit?

1. Yes _____

2. No _____

P. Is there anything else that would make you withdraw from this program?

_____

_____

Q. If, for any reason, you would not continue with this program, what would you do?

_____

_____

R. Here are some reasons people have given for not taking more courses or more instruction. Which apply to you?

ITEM
NUMBER

1. I'd be interested in taking some type of course, but there is nothing like that available around here.

2. The courses I have heard about sound pretty dull.

3. I can learn all I need to know without taking courses to do it.

4. I'm much too busy with other things right now, and just wouldn't have the time.

5. I'm interested in a lot of things, but I really don't enjoy studying.

6. Right now, I just couldn't afford it.

7. I have never thought about taking a special course.

8. Other_____

_____

(IF RESPONDENT WOULD NOT QUIT, NOT MATTER WHAT)

S. Is there anything at all that would make you withdraw from this program?

_____

_____

T. Any other comments/additional information.

_____

_____

III. REASONS FOR WITHDRAWING FROM A LEARNING PROGRAM

Thank you for agreeing to participate in this survey, the purpose of which is to determine why people participate in education programs, and to establish why they may find it necessary to withdraw from these education programs before completion.

You are part of _____ people who recently withdrew from ABE/GED studies that were selected from a list provided by the _____.
Your responses will be kept confidential. Do you have any questions before we begin?

A. People have different reasons for participating in ABE/GED/Vocational Education programs. I have with me 22 cards. Each card contains one reason for learning. Think back to when you decided to start learning. Which reasons applied to you?

ITEM NUMBER	REASONS
1.	To help to get a new job.
2.	To help to advance in present job.
3.	To become better informed.
4.	To enrich my life.
5.	To meet new people.
6.	To meet requirements for getting into an educational program.
7.	To be a better parent, husband or wife.
8.	To get away from the routine of daily living.
9.	To work toward certification or licensing.
10	To better understand community problems.
11	To be better able to serve my church.
12	To meet the requirements of my employer or profession.
13	To become a more effective citizen.
14	To work toward a degree/diploma.

ITEM NUMBER	REASONS
15	To learn more about my own background and culture.
16	To feel a sense of belonging.
17	To satisfy curiosity.
18	To learn for the sake of learning.
19	To become a happier person.
20	To work toward solutions of problems, such as discrimination and pollution.
21	To get away from personal problems.
22	To improve my spiritual well-being.

B. Many things stop people from continuing with a course of study. I have with me 37 cards. Each card contains a reason that has been given by some for withdrawing from a course study before completing it. Think back to when you withdrew from this learning program and tell me, which of the reasons contained in the cards apply to you.

ITEM NUMBER	REASONS
1.	I got transferred to another place.
2.	I moved to another place.
3.	I joined another education program.
4.	I got a job.
5.	I became too busy with other things at the time, and just couldn't find the time to continue learning.
6.	I needed to devote more time to another education program.
7.	I could not afford the cost of tuition.
8.	I could not afford the cost of books and other learning materials.
9.	I could not get reliable child care.
10.	I could not afford the cost of child care.

ITEM NUMBER	REASONS
11.	I could not get reliable transportation.
12.	I could not afford the cost of transportation.
13.	I realized it would take more time than I had bargained for, to complete the education program.
14.	I could not cope with strict attendance requirements.
15.	I could not cope with being a full-time student.
16.	I couldn't see what benefit would come out of what I was learning.
17.	I had no place to study or practice.
18.	The time of courses clashed with other responsibilities.
19.	I could not get information on what I could do next.
20.	I became tired of travelling to and from school.
21.	I could not master enough energy and stamina to continue learning.
22.	I realized that I was too old to continue learning.
23.	I suddenly lost confidence in my ability to continue learning.
24.	Other courses I wanted didn't seem to be available.
25.	I could not meet requirements to continue learning.
26.	I got tired of school.
27.	I don't enjoy studying.
28.	The class meeting was too long.
29.	I could not comprehend or master learning activities.
30.	I could not cope with the demands and requirements of the learning program.
31.	I realized I could learn all I needed to learn without taking a course to do it.
32.	The learning activities were pretty dull and boring.

ITEM NUMBER	REASONS

33. My friends and relatives were not sympathetic toward what I was learning.

34. The learning program was not approved by my employer.

35. I didn't want to seem too ambitious.

36. My instructor was unsympathetic to my learning needs.

37. I could not get along with other students.

38. Other _____

_____

ECONOMIC COST

C. How much were you paying per term for:

TOTAL EXPENDITURE PER TERM (C.L.)
(Circle ONE Number for Each)

ITEM NUMBER	NOTHING	$50 or LESS	$51 to $100	$101 to $200	MORE than $200
7	1	2	3	4	5
8	1	2	3	4	5
10	1	2	3	4	5
12	1	2	3	4	5

D. If this item became free (REPEAT FOR EACH ITEM) would you return to the program?

WOULD YOU RETURN?
(Circle ONE Number for Each)

ITEM NUMBER	YES	NO	BRIEF EXPLANATION
7	1	2	_____
8	1	2	_____
10	1	2	_____
12	1	2	_____

E. What is the highest possible amount you would be willing to pay for:

HIGHEST POSSIBLE AMOUNT PAYABLE (C.L. alt.)
(Circle ONE Number for Each)

ITEM NUMBER	NOTHING	$50 or LESS	$51 to $100	$101 to $200	MORE than $200
7	1	2	3	4	5
8	1	2	3	4	5
10	1	2	3	4	5
12	1	2	3	4	5

TIME COSTS

F. How many hours a week on the average did you spend attending classes (ITEM # 14 AND/OR # 15)?

NUMBER OF CLASS HOURS PER WEEK (C.L.)
(Circle ONE Number)

1 to 5 HOURS	6 to 10 HOURS	11 to 15 HOURS	16 to 20 HOURS	MORE THAN 20 HOURS
1	2	3	4	5

G. Would you return to the program if class hours were reduced?

1. YES

2. NO
BRIEF EXPLANATION: _____

_____

_____

H. How many hours a week would you be willing to spend attending classes?

NUMBER OF CLASS HOURS PER WEEK (C.L. alt.)
(Circle ONE Number)

1 to 5 HOURS	6 to 10 HOURS	11 to 15 HOURS	16 to 20 HOURS	MORE THAN 20 HOURS
1	2	3	4	5

BRIEF EXPLANATION: _____

_____

_____

I. How long on the average was each class session (ITEM # 28)?

LENGTH OF EACH CLASS SESSION (C.L.)
(Circle ONE Number)

1 HOUR	2 HOURS	3 HOURS	4 HOURS	MORE THAN 4 HOURS
1	2	3	4	5

J. Would you return to the program if the time for each class session was reduced?

1. YES

2. NO
BRIEF EXPLANATION: _____

_____

_____

K. How many hours would you be willing to spend in each class session?

LENGTH OF EACH CLASS SESSION (C.L. alt.)
(Circle ONE Number)

1 HOUR	2 HOURS	3 HOURS	4 HOURS	MORE THAN 4 HOURS
1	2	3	4	5

L. At what time of day did your class meet (ITEM # 18)?

TIME OF DAY (C.L.)
(Circle ONE Number)

MORNING/AFTERNOON	EVENING
1	2

M. Would you return to the program if this class was offered at another time?

1. YES

2. NO
   BRIEF EXPLANATION: _____

_____

_____

N. At what time of day would you want to attend this class?

TIME OF DAY (C.L. alt.)
(Circle ONE Number)

MORNING/AFTERNOON	EVENING
1	2

BRIEF EXPLANATION: _____

_____

_____

O. How many minutes a day on the average did you spend travelling to and from school (ITEM #2 AND #20)

NUMBER OF MINUTES PER DAY (C.L.)
(Circle ONE Number)

1 to 15 MINUTES	16 to 30 MINUTES	31 to 45 MINUTES	46 to 60 MINUTES	MORE THAN 60 MINUTES
1	2	3	4	5

P. Would you return to the program if the distance/travelling time were shorter?

1. YES

2. NO
BRIEF EXPLANATION: _____

_____

_____

Q. How many minutes a day on the average would you be willing to spend travelling to and from school?

NUMBER OF MINUTES PER DAY (C.L. alt.)
(Circle ONE Number)

1 to 15 MINUTES	16 to 30 MINUTES	31 to 45 MINUTES	46 to 60 MINUTES	MORE THAN 60 MINUTES
1	2	3	4	5

BRIEF EXPLANATION: _____

_____

_____

R. How many hours a week on the average did you spend doing homework and/studying (ITEM #27).

NUMBER OF HOURS PER WEEK (C.L.)
(Circle ONE Number)

NONE	1 to 5 HOURS	6 to 10 HOURS	11 to 15 HOURS	16 to 20 HOURS	MORE THAN 20 HOURS
1	2	3	4	5	6

S. Would you go back to school if you could be assured of a less load of homework/assignments?

1. YES

2. NO
BRIEF EXPLANATION: _____

_____

_____

T. How many hours a week would you be willing to spend on homework/studying?

NUMBER OF HOURS PER WEEK (C.L. alt.)
(Circle ONE Number)

NONE	1 to 5 HOURS	6 to 10 HOURS	11 to 15 HOURS	16 to 20 HOURS	MORE THAN 20 HOURS
1	2	3	4	5	6

BRIEF EXPLANATION: _____

_____

_____

U. How much time was required for you to complete this learning program, and how much time was left at the time of your withdrawal (ITEM #13)? (C.L.)

a) _____ MONTHS b) _____ MONTHS

V. Would you return to the learning program if the time required for you to complete it was reduced?

1. YES

2. NO
BRIEF EXPLANATION: _____

_____

_____

W. How much time would you be willing to spend doing this program? (C.L. alt.)

_____ MONTHS

BRIEF EXPLANATION: _____

_____

_____

(FOR ALL THOSE REASONS IN QUESTION B ABOVE THAT APPLY, BUT ARE NEITHER ECONOMIC NOR TIME COSTS, ASK QUESTIONS X AND/OR Y. CLARIFY THE QUESTION IN THE CONTEXT OF THE ITEM/REASON CONCERNED).

X. Would you still be there if things had turned out differently?

WOULD YOU STILL BE THERE?
(Circle ONE Number for Each)

ITEM NUMBER	YES	NO	BRIEF EXPLANATION
_____	1	2	_____
_____	1	2	_____
_____	1	2	_____
_____	1	2	_____
_____	1	2	_____

OR

Y. Would you go back if the barrier in question was removed?

WOULD YOU RETURN?
(Circle ONE Number for Each)

ITEM NUMBER	YES	NO	BRIEF EXPLANATION
_____	1	2	_____
_____	1	2	_____
_____	1	2	_____
_____	1	2	_____
_____	1	2	_____

Z. Right now, what, if anything, would make you return to the education program?

_____

_____

_____

_____

IV BACKGROUND INFORMATION

The following questions will help me learn about the people who participate in adult education programs. As with all information provided in this survey, your answers are completely confidential. None of your responses will ever be associated with your name.

1. Sex

   1. Male
   2. Female

2. Age:

   1. under 25
   2. 25 - 29
   3. 30 - 34
   4. 35 - 44
   5. 45 - 54
   6. 55 and over.

3. Race:

   1. White
   2. Black
   3. Hispanic
   4. Native American
   5. Asian, Oriental
   6. Other _____

4. Marital Status:

   1. Single
   2. Married
   3. Divorced
   4. Separated
   5. Widowed

5. Children, 17 years or younger:

   1. None
   2. One
   3. Two
   4. Three
   5. Four
   6. More than four

6. Highest level of formal education completed:

   1. 8th grade or less
   2. 9th - 12th grade
   3. graduated from High School
   4. College studies.

7. Do you have a paid job?

   1. Yes, a full-time job
   2. Yes, a part-time job
   3. No
   4. Retired

8. How would you classify your current paid job?

   1. Semi-skilled worker or apprentice craftsman
   2. Skilled worker, craftsman or foreman
   3. Sales or clerical/office worker
   4. Manager or proprietor of small business
   5. Professional or technical worker.

9. Annual household income before taxes:

   1. Less than $3.000
   2. $ 3.000 to $ 4.999
   3. $ 5.000 to $ 6.999
   4. $ 7.000 to $ 7.999
   5. $ 8.000 to $ 9.999
   6. $10.000 to $14.999
   7. $15.000 to $24.999
   8. $25.000 and over.

10. Which education program best describes your learning activity?

    1. Basic reading, writing or mathematics (ABE)
    2. General education (GED)
    3. Technical skills, e.g. Auto Mechanics
    4. Business Administration, e.g. Marketing and/or Accounting
    5. Other _____

11. Time of class meeting:

    1. Morning/Afternoon
    2. Evening

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