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ABSTRACT
              Factors surrounding needs and obstacles in Swedish
adult education are studied. Homogenous and heterogenous groups with
varying degrees of interest in participation were chosen for the
study. A survey of the literature concerning participation in adult
education was made. As part of this study, notice was made of the
participation in adult education in the light of aspects of
motivation. Three obstacles found to hinder adult education are: (1)
those posed by the individual which form a part of the his own
attitudes and life situation, (2) those related to that which is
offered, and (3) obstacles in the societal environment. Other data
mentioned in this study concern: (1) study obstacles in adult
education, (2) specifying the problems, (3) collection of information
and methodology for collection, (4) construction of instruments, and
(5) plan for the preliminary investigation. (CK)

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RESEARCH BULLETIN

SCHOOL OF EDUCATION - STOCKHOLM

THE SOS-VUX PROJECT
STUDY NEEDS AND STUDY OBSTACLES IN ADULT EDUCATION

BACKGROUND AND DESIGN

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THE SOS-VUX PROJECT

Study Needs and Study Obstacles in Adult Education

REPORT NO. I

Background and Design

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PREFACE

The SOS-VUX project, Study Needs and Study Obstacles in
Adult Education, is financed by the Swedish National Board
of Education, Bureau L 3.

Translator's Notes

Within this report considerable reference is made to various
Swedish organisations or governmental commissions. The length
of the names of these organisations or commissions has induced
the Swedes to take hearty advantage of abbreviations, and it
is felt that the English-speaking reader may also find full
translations a bit annoying. For this reason all Swedish
abbreviations of organisations or commissions are translated
onl once (for the first time) in the text, followed by the
Swedish abbreviation in parenthesis. Thereafter only the
Swedish abbreviation will be used. For the convenience of the
reader an alphabetical presentation of all Swedish abbrevia-
tions used in this report is submitted.

Translation of Swedish Abbreviations Used in This Report

ABF   - The Workers' Educational Association
FÖVUX - The Committee on Methods Testing in Adult Education
LO   - Swedish Trade Union Confederation
LOVUX - The Workers' Committee on Adult Education
SCB   - The Swedish Bureau of Census
SOU   - State Official Reports
SVUX   - The Commission for Economic Study Assistance to Adults
SÖ   - Swedish National Board of Education
TBV   - The Salaried Employees' Educational Association
UKÄ   - Office of the Chancellor of the Universities

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Chapter 1

Background

The 1960's could easily be labelled the decade of many school
reforms for the Swedish school system. This period saw the
introduction of the comprehensive school and a re-organized
secondary school, while new courses, admittance requirements
and degrees changed, at least in part, the face of higher
education. These changes were not, however, confined to
schools dealing with the young, but affected even the areas
of continued education. A parlimentary decision, passed in
1967, brought about an intensification and expansion of acti-
vities within the field of adult education.[1]

The reasons behind the increased interest and action of the
Swedish government within adult education are many. In a State
Official Report of the labour market in 1960 (SOU 1965:9) it
was expressed that adult education would have increasing impor-
tance through the rapid structural and technical changes occur-
ring in working-conditions. Even educational reports mention
the rapid changes within society and the consequences these
changes can have for the individual citizen:

> "Society's continued development and change also
> make demands upon the individual, which in turn
> increases his need for education for different func-
> tions within society, in the home, during leisure
> time, and in different social circumstances."
> (SOU 1971:24, p. 11)

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[1] 'Adult education' as it is used here and on following
occasions within this report is defined as:

> "Education taken up by the individual after completion
> or non-completion of the basic education requirements,
> and usually after a certain amount of work experience."
> (SOU 1971:24, p. 10)

Adult education can also be motivated from the so-called
demand for equal rights to educational opportunities, as
expressed in the SOU on Secondary Education:

> "Weighty arguments for equality also indicate
> that they, who for different reasons did not
> receive an education when they were younger,
> be given the opportunity to one as adults."
> (SOU 1965:60, p. 18)

The substantial expansion of youth education carries with
it the risk that the so-called educational gap between
the generations will be widened. The Commission on Educa-
tion has also dealt with this question and the role of adult
education in reducing inequalities between generations:

> "One of the roles of adult education is therefore
> to reduce the educational gap between the young
> and the old. One of the primary goals of educa-
> tional policies is to create increased equality
> within society. This does not refer only to dif-
> ferences between generations. Adult education
> also has an important role to fulfill in reducing
> differences which have arisen within a generation,
> between the well and poorly educated."
> (SOU 1971:24, p. 10)

One other aspect of education is its possibilities to influ-
ence the development of society in general. While presenting
a Bill to the Swedish Parliment related to increased grants
for adult education, (1970:35) a Cabinet Minister touched
upon this aspect, and said, among other things:

> "Education is an important means for changing existing
> society. It is important for the economic and social

status of the individual, for his job satisfaction
and his potentials for exerting an influence on his
working environment. Education also affects people's
mutual relations and contributes to a feeling of so-
lidarity, which is a prerequisite for realizing
social equality. Education is vital for improving
democracy in depth. It can enhance the individual's
interest in social issues and his opportunities for
partaking in the cultural life of the nation."

It seems to be the general consensus in Sweden that our rapidly
changing society, with its so-called knowledge-explosion places
increased educational demands upon the individual. For this
reason, a continued expansion of different areas within adult
education must be reckoned with, and attention must be paid
to the need of continued education for large groups in society.
This is accentuated by the SOU on Vocational Education, where
the following is expressed:

"Given the stiff demands and continuing technical and
structural changes that form a part of the current
economic situation, it is not sufficient that practi-
tioners of vocations have obtained only a basic and
vocational education. In general, a series of different
kinds of continued education is needed during the
entire productive period of the employee. Such education
is necessary to maintain specific vocational skills,
and to assimilate new experiences and methods as well
as to create opportunities for advancement within the
field. Continued vocational education is also needed
for those who for one reason or another wish to or
must change occupation, as well as maintaining the
level of the individual's general education and
awareness of society. In the future it should be
considered normal that basic and vocational education
be followed by repeated continued education."
(SOU 1966:3, p. 275)

When reforms are carried through with the help of meaningful
resources, it is obviously of great importance to evaluate
the results. It seems that all too often this aspect of re-
form is overlooked. Reforms are decided upon and the work
is begun, but the activities do not become the object of a
careful and systematic follow-up. This situation has been
pointed out by The Swedish Council for Social Science Research,
which in its budget petition for 1973-74 has therefore sugges-
ted that important decisions on reform be accompanied by
research efforts, making it possible to analyze the results.
In the area of organized schools, such efforts are already
under way. The Swedish National Board of Education (SÖ) finances
a number of projects which shed light on the activities of the
schools, and The Office of the Chancellor of the Universities
(UKÄ) in a current project is seeking, among other things, to
produce models for long term evaluation and quality control of
academic studies.

With regard to evaluation of current efforts in adult education,
there are many problem areas which remain to be explored such
as, curriculum, teaching materials, dropouts, etc. One evalua-
tion which clearly must be included is the one involving the
enrollment of students. It should be determined if current
courses in adult education have attracted the participants
calculated to be reached by the Parlimentary decision of 1967
concerning adult education under national or local control. As
mentioned earlier, the targets of this decision were the so-called
less well educated, i.e. persons with six, seven or eight years
of school as the major part of their educational background. Are
these individuals to be found amoung the participants to the
extent which was hoped? From material currently available the
answer to the above question must be a decided "no". (See The
Workers' Committee on Adult Education (LOVUX), Report II, 1971,
p. 97 or Eliasson and Höglund 1971, 10:15). It is actually the
youths and individuals with relatively good basic education who
to the largest extent participate in competence-oriented adult
education.

Government authorities have observed this somewhat skewed
enrollment, as is illustrated by the following extract from
a Parlimentary Bill:

> "Formally, local adult education stands open for all.
> However, experience has shown that study obstacles
> are considerable for large groups of individuals.
> Adult education is still not reaching those who have
> the largest need for such education." (Bill 1971:37,
> p. 1. f.)

Initiatives have therefore been taken in order to, if possible,
bring about a new state of affairs. Two examples of these initia-
tives can be seen in The Committee on Methods Testing in Adult
Education (FÖVUX) the aims of which are to carry out trial pro-
grams in adult education for individuals who had a short or
insufficient education and using an active, selective recruit-
ment policy to enroll students, (see SOU 1972:19), and the
Commission for Economic Study Assistance to Adults (SVUX),
which is investigating the future forms of finance for adult
studies (see SOU 1971:80). One goal is "to afterwards right
the injustices within educational society ..." (SOU 1971:80,
p. 7). Questions which in this context make themselves felt
are those which touch upon the entire life-situation of those
who received short educations. How do these individuals expe-
rience their different roles, work roles, leisure-time roles,
etc.? What are their attitudes toward education in light of
their school background, occupation, age, lesure-time opportuni-
ties, leisure-time interests, etc.?

If, as is supposed, this group experiences a strong need for
education, what is it that hinders them from satisfying this
need? The list of possible answers can be made very long indeed.
In the meantime, however, one cannot be satisfied with hypothe-
tical answers, and must at a very basic level investigate the
causal relations. Results gained in this way ought to then form
the basis of decisions concerning suitable measures to better
the current situation.

Investigations attempting to probe the aforementioned problems
in depth have not, as yet, been attempted in Sweden. It is
against this background that our investigation on study-needs
and study-obstacles among less well educated adults should
be seen.

Chapter 2

Investigation strategy

Research concerning participants in adult education can generally
be divided into two categories:

1) investigations whose aims are to describe those participating
   in a certain type of adult education, and

2) investigations whose aims are to compare participants with
   non-participants with regard to certain characteristics
   (Brunner 1959).

Swedish investigations up to the present have been almost without
exception of the type found in category 1, and usually are con-
cerned with participants in local[1] adult education programs.
One of the aims of investigations included in category 1 have
been, as Verner and Newberry (1958) expressed it:

> "Through the identification of the characteristics of
>   those who participate, find significant clues to the
>   kind of people not now involved who might become
>   active if conditions were such as to encourage their
>   participation." (p. 212)

The type of investigation the authors refer to fills a large
role in pointing out groups which need to be more closely
studied. However, it seems rather doubtful that research of this
nature can form the basis for direct measures aimed at reaching
those who do not participate. Investigations of the type found
in category 2 have led to at least a partial understanding
of what it is that hinders certain individuals from participating.
However, like Douglah and Moss (1968) and Kuhlen (1970), we are

---

[1] Local education ......

   The local schemes provide for adult education using
   the same curriculum as the high level of the comprehensive
   school, continuation school and gymnasium (elective sub-
   jects) and vocational school (vocational courses).

critical towards the major part of investigations of this
nature. Concerning these investigations, Douglah and Moss
make the following comment:

> "One outcome of these 'clientele analyses' has been
> generalizations concerning the participation patterns
> of various sub-groups within the population, and an
> accompanying tendency to expect all members of a
> particular sub-group to exhibit similar patterns of
> behavior" (p. 248).

Our criticism is primarily directed towards the choice of in-
vestigation groups. With few exceptions these have been very
heterogeneous, which has led to concentration upon differences
between different sub-groups, for example, well and less well-
educated, and devoted little interest to differences within
the groups. The fact that there actually exist less well-educa-
ted who participate in adult education and well-educated who
do not has received surprisingly little attention.

> "Therefore, in further studying participation, it would
> appear to be useful to investigate the differential
> participation patterns exhibited within what are gene-
> rally assumed to be relatively homogenous groups"
> (Douglah and Moss, 1968, p. 248).

By choosing a homogeneous group with respect to previous formal
education it is possible, with consideration for budget and in-
vestigation-group size, to obtain results which give a detailed
picture of the attitudes of those with short educations towards
adult education, and the study obstacles they experience. How-
ever, by choosing a heterogeneous group, within the same bud-
get considerations, it is difficult to obtain other than very
general results of the type: well-educated participate more
often than those with shorter educations, younger more often
than older, etc. Results of this type can hardly form the basis
for corrective measures.

Up to this point we have been concerned with two different
types of participant-studies. Because of the previously stated
objections, we feel that neither of these types are to be re-
commended if it is the aim to try to develop methods and plans
to increase participation in certain courses, and point out
which changes must be made in the current situation to retain
this increase. In order to come a little way towards the goals
which have been presented, we feel that a dichotomization of
the investigation group into participants and non-participants
is to be avoided, and instead attention should be paid to the
degree of interest for participation. Comparisons could then
be made between those with short educations who participate -
are interested but do not participate - don't participate and
aren't interested in participating. The use of such a
method should give good possibilities to study factors which
hinder an individual from participating. In addition, it is
important that attention is paid not only to interest in the
currently existing forms of adult education, but that an un-
biased survey be made.

Besides the choice of investigation groups, it is also possible
to be critical about the choice of investigation variables. The
latter have often been limited to previous education, social
and regional factors, age and six. We are rather doubtful that
study of static categories of the types mentioned above can
reach the aims we stated previously. As Miller (1967) mentions,
it is important that researchers pinpoint what it is they are
looking for in advance - using theories within the behaviorial
sciences. Besides the earlier named background factors, interest
and obstacles should be seen against the needs the individual
experiences as well as the current general situation, i.e., job
possibilities and labor market trends. With respect to indivi-
dual needs, those which can be thought to be of importance are
those needs connected with the occupational, leisure-time,
family and societal role.

The points of view expressed here concerning research strategy
form the basis of our choice of population as well as investi-
gation variables. In the following three chapters we will deal
in more detail with previous research within the field. Chapter
3 deals with participant investigations, and in chapter 4 we
discuss in more detail factors such as motive and need and
their relation to participation to adult education. Finally,
obstacles to participation are taken up in chapter 5.

Chapter 3

Previous research concerning participation in adult education

As we made clear in chapter 1, we plan to view the individual's
interest to participate in adult education against his total
life situation. In order to do this as adequately as possible,
and in order to be able to use the experience of others in the
field, we have surveyed the literature concerning participation
in adult education.

The presentation of previous research is made with respect to
various factors, and not with respect to individual investiga-
tions. Of necessity, this leads to a certain amount of repeti-
tion. Another circumstance to be observed is that some of those
factors presented are dependent upon one another, for example
previous education, occupation and income.

Comparisons between the different investigations is made diffi-
cult because:

1) in certain investigations an attempt has been made to hold
   "surplus" or extraneous variables under control while
   this is not at all the case for other investigations, and

2) of large differences between investigation groups.

We have chosen to divide the factors into social and psycholo-
gical background factors. The first category includes home
background, previous education, occupation and income, civil
status and number of children, age, sex and regional circumstan-
ces. Under the category of psychological background factors we
take up intelligence, personality factors and work satisfaction.

3.1 Social background factors

3.1.1 Home background

Husén (1969) found that approximately half of those individuals
whose parents belonged to the higher social groups had taken part

in adult education during the 5 years previous to the study, while for the lower social groups the corresponding proportion was 30 %. This difference was not, however, larger than that between the sexes. With respect to interest for completion of upper secondary school, no large differences were observed between the social groups. An explanation for this can be that a considerably larger proportion of the higher social groups had already completed such an education.

Johansson & Molander (1969) found that students in all the school forms investigated (night high-schools, the Swedish National School for Adults, folk high-schools and correspondence schools) to a large extent came from homes where the fathers had completed only grammar school. The folk high school group, despite the fact that they constituted the youngest members, had the largest percentage of fathers who had completed only grammar school.

Rubenson (1972) posed adjustment in the home and parental attitudes to higher education (as reported by the children at the age of 13) against the interest to participate in adult education at the age of 24. When previous educational level was held under control, no relation was observed between home atmosphere and interest for adult education. However those who came from homes where the parents were positive to higher studies were somewhat more interested in taking part in adult education than those who came from homes where the parents had a negative attitude toward education. The investigation group in Rubenson's study consisted of young men with short basic educations. In this respect it should be pointed out that Johnstone & Rivera (1965) found that parental interest for their children's school results was related to the children's later interest in adult education among those with less education, while for the well-educated no such relation was observed. In addition, the authors found that the children's own education had the largest effect upon interest in continued education, but that parental educational levels were of importance, in most cases having at least as much effect as the children's own educational levels. There was, however, an interesting exeption in the cases where the

father the mother had more education than the children. In these
cases the children were somewhat more highly influenced by the
mother. The effect was especially marked in those cases where
the mother had reached a higher educational level than the
son.

3.1.2 Previous education

Educational level is the individual factor which in most in-
vestigations has been shown to have the strongest relation to
participation in adult education.

Johansson & Molander (1969) found that 70% of those who took
part in skill-learning adult education had already received
educations beyond the grammer school level. According to figures
obtained by Bromsjö (1970) and mentioned in Bill 1971:37, a
small tendency can be observed towards increased participation
of those with short educations. At the present time, however,
only a small proportion of the participants (approx. 25%) come
from the large group of adults with only a grammar school
education. With respect to participants in Stockholm's local
adult education programs, the proportion of participants with
only 6 to 8 years of grammar school has been unchanged during
the period 1967 to 1970, according to information available
in the LOVUX II Report (1971).

Study circles are more successful than local adult education
programs in attracting individuals with short educations.
According to the Swedish Bureau of Census (SCB), about 60% of
those who took part during the fall, 1970 term, in study circles
arranged by The Workers' Educational Association (ABF) had only
grammar school educations (see Bill 1971:37). The corresponding
figures for The Salaried Employees'Educational Association (TBV)
was 40%. The large proportion of individuals with shorter edu-
cations in study circles can be explained by the relatively
high age of the participants.

Knox (1965) observed, after a review of the larger American investigations, that basic education was the factor shown to have the largest direct relation to participation. Similar results were noted by Booth (1961), Dobbs (1966), Knox (1970) and Robinson (1970).

In the investigations mentioned up to this point calculations of the relation between educational level and participation have been made without holding other important variables constant. This has been done, however, by Rees & Paisley (1968), using a linear multiple regression through which the direct relation of each individual predictor with the criteria can be calculated - in this case, participation in adult education (for a description of this method see Draper and Smith, 1957). The size of the relation is expressed through a Beta-weight. The following social predictors were used: age, sex, education, income, occupation, marital status and activities in organizational memberships. Certain psychological predictors were also included: achievement motivation, attitude toward new media/technology and perception of practical education in media.

The following relations were observed:

CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS AND BETA WEIGHTS FOR PREDICTORS OF TOTAL ADULT EDUCATION PARTICIPATION

Variable	r	Beta
Age	-.32	-.25
Attitude toward New Media/Technology	.37	.14
Perception of Practical Education in Media	.21	.13
Number of Organizational Memberships	.20	.11
Sex	-.14	-.10
Education	.36	.08
Achievement Motivation	.19	.07
Occupation	.26	.07
Income	.28	.05
Marital Status	.12	-.05

(Rees and Paisley 1968 p. 15)

As can be seen from the table above education received a low
Beta-weight despite a relatively high correlation with the
criterium. This is a result of a strong relation between edu-
cation and certain other predictors, and when these have been
removed the direct relation between education and participa-
tion in adult education is quite small.

The results ought to be viewed against the background of the
method of analysis and the broad definition used for partici-
pation. It was also observed that education was more important
to participation in lectures and evening classes than in vo-
cational education or hobby activities.

Individuals who have at one time or another taken part in adult
education are often positive towards participation in other
courses (Johnstone & Rivera 1965, LO-medlemmen och utbildnings-
frågorna 1968, SOU 1972:19, Rubenson 1972).

From what has been presented above it seems clear that the well-
educated take part in adult education to a larger degree than
those with only basic educations. However, it is worth noting
that there are some within this last group who participate.
It might be asked whether these two groups are attracted to the
same kind of courses. Johansson & Molander (1969) found differen-
ces in educational background among students in the different
forms of schooling studied. The largest relative proportion
with only a grammer school education were found in the group
attending the folk high schools, while such an educational
background was least represented among those attending upper-
secondary schools. This difference can be explained to a large
degree by the entrance requirements of the night upper-seconda-
ry schools.

Johnstone & Rivera (1965) stated that participation in all the
courses under study was higher for the well-educated than those
with only basic educations. It is also worth noting from this
investigation that different institutions which arranged courses
at the same level, and with the same content, attracted different
groups. The universities attracted primarily students with higher
educations while secondary schools attracted the remaining stu-
dents. The differences between the well- and less-well educated

which have been discussed so far imply that these groups have
different purposes for their studies.

In some Swedish investigations involving motives for partici-
pation in local or community adult education it was found that
possibilities for advancement was of great importance. The
preparation for academic studies and the satisfaction of an
interest to study were also important reasons given for parti-
cipation (Enander 1967, Johansson & Molander 1967, Lekberg &
Lekberg 1971). Less well educated young men responded, however,
that the primary motive for participation in adult education
was the possibility for higher pay (Rubenson, 1972). Similar
results have been reported by Douglah & Moss (1968) and Knox
(1969).

From the results of some investigations it seems that the well-
educated not only have more use for an education for their pro-
fessional or occupational careers than the less-well educated,
but hold a more positive attitude towards the importance of
obtaining meaningful leisure-time through participation in adult
education (Törnqvist 1954, Johnstone & Rivera, 1965). The latter
asked interviewees how long an education they would prefer if
allowed to re-live their life. Results showed that those with
longer educations also wished long educations in their hypothe-
tical lives, longer than wished by those who had received less
education. Those with short educations and high incomes were
especially negative to education. Those from the lower social
groups thought, more often than those from the higher social
groups, that it was a waste of time to get a college degree if
one didn't use it. It was observed that more with higher socio-
economic status than lower thought courses should be attended
if it could lead to advancement at work. That it should be
interpreted that the lower classes do not consider education
to be important is contradicted by other findings from the
same investigation, where it was observed that as many from
the higher social classes as from the lower thought that a
good education was the most important factor for upward mobi-
lity. The authors gave the following explanation to the large
differences between the socioeconomic groups:

"In other words, lower-class resistance to adult
education experiences does not appear to stem from
feelings that education cannot do anything for a
person, nor from a belief that one does not need
education to get ahead in the world. The feelings
rather, seem to be of a more diffuse nature and
are undoubtedly a carry-over from feelings of
alienation from school and education which develop
during one's earliest contacts with formal educa-
tional system ....

The average lower-class person does not perceive
education in terms of personal growth or self-realiza-
tion, and this may explain why the lower classes are
much less ready to turn to adult education for recrea-
tional purposes than they are for purposes of vocatio-
nal advancement" (p. 214).

The authors' point of view is supported by Rubenson (1972).

3.1.3 Occupation_and_income

Occupation and income will be dealt with simultaneously since
income is to a large extent dependent upon occupation, and
since it has been shown in many investigations that the effect
of income disappears when occupation is controlled. What can
be of interest to observe is that individuals with "white collar"
occupations - even when consideration is given to educational
level - are more interested in participating in adult education
than those with "blue collar" occupations. (Johnstone & Rivera
1965, LO-medlemmen och utbildningsfrågorna 1968, Rubenson 1972).

3.1.4 Marital status_and_number of_children

Most participants in local adult education programs in Sweden
are unmarried (Johansson & Molander 1969, LOVUX II 1971). This
can be explained to a certain extent by the relatively low age
of the participants.

Less-well educated men with children tend to participate somewhat

more often than their counterparts without children, while
the opposite is observed for women (London 1963, Johnstone &
Rivera 1965, Douglah & Moss 1968, and Rees & Paisley 1968).
It has also been shown in the above-named investigations that
for men the differences were found in the subjects strongly
oriented towards a profession or occupation. These differences
in participation rate between men with and without children can
probably be explained by economic factors, the former group
participating in order to increase future income.

3.1.5 Age

There is a strong relation between age and participation in adult
education in Sweden.   Johansson & Molander (1969) estimated
the median age for men and women studying upper-secondary school
courses to 23.8 and 26.7 years respectively.

During the past years a somewhat increased participation of
individuals over the age of 30 in local adult education programs
has been noticed in Sweden (Eliasson & Höglund 1971). In Stock-
holm, however, the tendency has been the opposite (LOVUX II 1971).

In "LO-medlemmen och utbildningsfrågorna" (1968) it is noted that
the largest participation among members of The Confederation of
Swedish Labor Unions (LO) is found in the age group 21-25 years.
There was a marked decrease in participation among those 45 years
or older, and in the age group 61-67 years only 3% had taken
part in a course or educational program. Similar patterns have
been revealed in the USA (Brunner 1959, Booth 1961, London 1963,
Johnstone & Rivera 1965, Rees & Paisley 1968). In two investi-
gations, Knox & Videbeck (1963) and Douglah & Moss (1968) somewhat
different results were observed. The former found that age and
participation were only significantly related for the less-well
educated, and the latter found that the relation between age
and participation disappeared when variables such as educational
level and general life situation were held under control.

Interest to participate does not decrease with age to the same
extent as actual participation (Johnstone & Rivera 1965).

The choice of courses varies among participants in adult educa-
tion with respect to age. The general tendency is that participa-
tion in vocational subjects decreases after age 45 and that the
proportion taking part in order to enrich their leisure-time
increases. (Johnstone & Rivera 1965, LO-medlemmen och utbild-
ningsfrågorna 1968).

With respect to the interest shown by pensioners for adult
education, Hiemstra (1972) found that this group experiences
a need for courses through which they can obtain knowledge which
makes adjustment to their new role in society easier for them.

3.1.6 Sex

When studying differences between the sexes in adult education
it is important to hold the type of education under control.
The fact that many different investigations have reported re-
sults which are not entirely in agreement with respect to diffe-
rences between the sexes is undoubtedly a result of studying
different forms of adult education.

Knox (1965) concluded, after his review of American investiga-
tions, that there were no important differences between the
sexes if consideration was taken for the totality of partici-
pants. However, large differences were observed with respect
to participation in different subjects and forms of study.

Women generally participate to a less degree, and are less
interested in vocational courses and courses of sociological
orientation, while the opposite is true for courses in languages
(Johnstone & Rivera 1965, Rees & Paisley 1968, Lo-medlemmen och
utbildningsfrågor 1968, and Bill 1971:37).

A marked increase in the proportion of women attending courses
in local adult education programs in Sweden has been observed
in the last few years. At present (Fall, 1972) SCB (SM/U 1972:27)
reports that a little more than 60% of the students in this type
of educational program are women, while in 1968 there were approxi-
mately as many men as women. The dominance of women increases
with increased age. Among participants 20 years old or younger

53% are women, while the group 56 years old or older is made
up of 73% women.

3.1.7 Regional factors

Eliasson & Höglund (1971) have shown that participation in
adult education varies for different regions of Sweden.

Differences in education's regional distribution (in percent),
according to Eliasson & Höglund (1971, p. 14:4).

Region (groups of counties)	Participants in gov't sponsored vocational re-training programs	Participants in study circles (1967/1968)	Participants in local ed. programs	% of population
I	18	17	31	19
II	14	18	12	17
III	8	14	12	14
IV	19	19	15	23
V	19	19	22	16
VI	23	13	9	11
Total	100	100	100	100

As can be seen from the table, participants in government sponso-
red vocational re-training programs are over-represented with
respect to proportion of the population in regions V and VI. Par-
ticipation in study circles is rather evenly spread in the diffe-
rent regions, while large differences are apparent for partici-
pation in local educational programs.

It is difficult to estimate the effect regional variations in
opportunities for education may have had upon Eliasson & Höglund's
results since the regions are quite heterogeneous. Brunner (1959)
notes that interest for education is to some degree associated
with access to educational opportunities. He refers to a number
of investigations, among them Houle, who in 1947 stated that the
number of participants increases with increased knowledge about

the programs.

Participation in the USA is somewhat greater in metropolitan
areas than in either smaller cities or rural districts (Booth
1961, Sheffield 1962, Knox 1965, Johnstone & Rivera 1965).
Similar results were noted in Sweden by Rubenson (1972).

3.2 Psychological background factors

3.2.1 Intelligence

There are but a few investigations which include the possibility
to relate intelligence to participation in adult education.

Johansson & Molander (1968) compared a norm-group composed of
20 year-old men and men under 21 years of age participating in
adult education. The results of the participants were higher, or
at the same level as those of the norm-group. The largest diffe-
rences were observed in verbal ability. Rubenson (1972)
found no large differences in intelligence between those inte-
rested or not in participating in adult education, when previous
education was held under control.

It should be pointed out that an individual's intelligence, as
measured by available intelligence tests, is not fixed for all
time but to a certain extent can increase or decrease depending
upon whether the individual continues his education. For a more
complete description of this phenomenon see Husén (1950) and
Härnqvist (1968).

3.2.2 Personality factors

Only a few investigations have been made within this field.

Johansson & Molander (1969) found that the participants and the
norm-group in question were very near each other with respect to
mean scores and standard deviations on those personality tests
which were used (the EPI and SPA scales).

Douglah & Moss (1968) were not able to establish any differences
between those who did or did not participate in adult education
on a test designed to measure self-confidence. There were, how-
ever, differences between the less-well educated with respect
to "with-drawing tendencies", a measure of introverted behavior,
although no differences were observed in the well-educated
group. The opposite was observed for "social skills".

Rees & Paisley (1968) found, as is shown in the table on page
14, that some psychological factors were of more importance to
participation than previous education. In particular, attitudes
toward new media were highly related both to total participa-
tion and to participation in different forms of adult education.

3.2.3 Job satisfaction

For most people, work and related factors ought to be of great
importance to their general welfare. The person who, for one
reason or another, is unsatisfied with the conditions under
which he works generally tries to change jobs. It becomes of
interest then to ask if this leads to a greater interest for
education.

In a large number of investigations it has been observed that
the motive for participating in adult education is to a high
degree related to occupation. Among members of LO participating
in adult education 52% responded "change to a better job" as the
reason for their studies. Accordning to Johansson & Molander
(1970) the corresponding responses in their investigation reached
61%. Similar results were obtained by Enander (1967). In the
above named investigations participation and interest for educa-
tion have not been related to job-satisfaction.

Job satisfaction is a complex concept consisting of a number of
factors. We do not intend to illustrate here how these factors
influence general satisfaction, and instead refer the reader to
literature within the field of industrial psychology, for example
Herzberg (1959) and Kornhauser (1965). In this respect we can
briefly state that Rubenson (1972) found a relation between
interest to take part in adult education and the factors: wage,

working hours and possibilities of influence at the place of
work. No relation was noted between attitude towards working
companions, working premises, protective devices, or the job
in itself and interest to participate in adult education.

Johnstone & Rivera (1965) found that for the age-group 17-24 years,
more of those with low job satisfaction than high had taken part
in some type of course. This trend was especially marked among
youngsters with low-status occupations. The interest to partici-
pate in education ought to be related to a belief that education
results in certain positive consequences in the future.

It was also shown that those practical advantages which have
been attributed to education played a large role in establishing
an interest for education. The authors end their discussion with:

> "Generally, it would seem that many young persons from
> relatively disadvantaged backgrounds revise their
> judgements concerning the adequacy of their educations
> only after direct (and seemingly disappointing) contacts
> with the world around them. These are the persons who
> are most apt to be recruited from the more 'unlikely'
> candidates" (p. 480).

Johnstone & Riveras supposition is strengthened by the results
of other investigations (Knox 1970, LeClair 1970, Bradley 1972,
and Rubenson 1972).

Participation in adult education in the light of aspects of motivation

One of the concepts which has been the subject of a good number
of interpretations and theory formulations is the concept of
motivation. Madsen (1968), in his rewiew of research within
the area of motivation takes up around 25 theories. It is not
our intention to illustrate and go through each of these
theories, but simply to point out a way through which a better
understanding of why people participate in adult education can
be reached. In order to avoid misunderstandings certain concepts
will first be defined.

The point of departure for our reasoning is that needs, motives,
wants, "drives", etc. are all expressions for impulses which
steer behavior. To distinguish between these concepts would be
of little benefit for our purposes and we shall, as Berelson &
Steiner (1964), consider these inner forces as a unified concept.

We find it natural, to deal with the aspect of motivation as
seen from the individual's life cycle. This means that a person's
needs must be seen against where in the life cycle he finds him-
self. For this reason we are going to present a few different
points of view which attempt to explain an individual's behavior
in relation to the different adult roles which he can expect to
play at different age-levels. In addition we shall present a
few need-theories which can form the basis for analyses of mo-
tives for participation in adult education. We shall finally
present some results available from various studies, the aims
of which have been to survey motives for participation in adult
education.

4.1 Models in connection with the life cycle

Many of those studies which have attempted to analyze the life
cycle have been based upon Charlotte Bühler's 10 stages which
the individual passes through. Each stage is characterized by
special demands for performance. Bühler does not touch upon the
relation between the stages in the life cycle and participation

in adult education. This, however, is done by both Havighurst
(1970) and Friedmann(1970). Havighurst uses the concept "develop-
mental tasks" to explain the behavior of the individual. He ex-
plains that it is necessary to understand where in the life cycle
the individual finds himself. By trying to identify the different
roles which the individual can be expected to play, and the de-
mands these roles make upon the individual, a better understan-
ding of which needs are experienced as dominating is obtained.
When the individual passes through the life cycle, where his
needs and social roles continually change, he is confronted with
different "developmental tasks". These are dependent upon three
factors:

a) the biological development of the individual,

b) the social demands and expectations placed upon the individual,
   and

c) the individual's level of aspiration and ambition.

Havighurst maintains that an individual's development requires
that each developmental task for each stage be completed before
passing to a new stage. It is interesting to note in this respect
that education - one among several means - can be useful to the
completion of these tasks. The developmental tasks are in this
way the source of motivation. When Havighurst describes the
different stages of adult life and their dominent developmental
tasks, he differentiates between "instrumental" and "expressive"
education. By the former Havighurst means that the goal lies
outside the actual learning process, for example studies for a
profession. For expressive education the goal is incorporated
in the learning process, for example the enjoyment of learning
or to meet people. This classification is not, however, simply
a case of a form of education being one or the other but recogni-
zing in combinations of the two which category outweighs the
other. Havighurst outlines the sequence and content of the
developmental tasks in the following way:

Age 20-30

The seeking of a social identity and the period of maximum
concern with oneself and one's immediate, personal life.
Education during this period is used primarily for occupa-
tional preparation or advancement.

Age 30-40

This period is characterized by less introspection or self-
awareness, relatively high stability, and a general psycholo-
gical well-being. Instrumental education continues to dominate,
but expressive forms become more apparent.

Age 40-50

This period is characterized by participation in the activities
of citizenship. The effects of physical changes begin to become
more apparent. Educational interests are dominated by social
and cultural questions.

Age 50-60

Between the ages of 50 and 60 the strongest motives for vocational
preparation have ceased to have importance. Expressive education
becomes more dominant. Leisure time increases but is frequently
poorly used. Both physical and social activities become less
frequent. Self-confidence is not quite as strong as before, and
the individual becomes more introverted. Activities previously
postponed are now given priority.

Age 60-70

Interaction between the individual and society decreases. People
experience less need for appreciation and avoid intensive emotio-
nal attachments to people and objects.

Erikson has stressed the importance of psychological "developmen-
tal tasks" and takes up the following, which dominate different
parts of the life cycle:

```
the achievement of identity   -  personal and occupational identities,
the achievement of intimacy   -  learning to share life intimately
                                 with a partner of the opposite sex,
the achievement of generativity - giving the best of oneself to
                                    continue and improve human life
                                    and human society,
the achievement of integrity -  accepting one's life as worthwhile
                                 and as something one can take pride
                                 in."
                                 (Havighurst 1970 p. 24)
```

Generalizations such as these are often beset with difficulties
since they do not sufficiently take into account individual diffe-
rences. In addition, we feel that enviromental influences are not
sufficiently stressed.

The roles an adult enacts change not only with age but also with the
social surroundings. This, in connection with adult education, has
been given attention by Friedmann(1970). His theoretical point of
departure rests on the concept "value orientations". When an indi-
vidual's role changes his values and goals also change. The indi-
vidual looks for new goals and new "careers". Every person makes
a "career" in one area. Since participation in adult education is
volontary · it is interesting to notice how participation varies
according to the agreement between the "value orientations" of
the individual and available programs.

Since an individual's life is to a high degree influenced by his
occupational role, we shall here refer to Friedmann's analysis of
occupational roles from the point of view of the individual's
"value orientations".

Friedmann divides the occupational role into four different parts
as follows:

Stage	Approximate Age Range	Work Value Orientation		
		Time	Relational	Activity
1. Entry into career	20-28	Future-Present	Individual-Collateral	Instrumental
2. Career development	25-50	Future	Collateral-Lineal	Instrumental
3. Plateau	35-60	Present	Collateral-Individual	Expressive-Instrumental
4. Pre-retirement	55-68	Present	Individual-Collateral	Expressive-Instrumental

(Friedmann 1970, p. 48)

It is worth noting that the different age categories merge, and in this way individual differences are accounted for. The three "value orientations" can be characterized in the following ways:

Time can be: past
present
future

Relations (to goals) can be of 3 types:
collateral
individual
lineal

Activity can be:
instrumental
expressive

In the first stages of the occupational career the individual expects the future to contain improvements. Changes in attitude and ability are seen as possibilities to a better life in the future.

With respect to goal-relations the individual is, both at the

beginning and the end of his occupational life, more self-
centered and less involved in social relations. During stages
2 and 3 the opposite is true. A possible consequence of this
is that participation in adult education may to a high degree
be influenced by the attitudes of working companions during
stages 2 and 3 (see SOU 1972:19). Activities have a more instru-
mental character during the 2 first stages of the occupational
career, while expressive activities become more important during
stages 3 and 4.

Friedmann proposes that participation in adult education varies
inversely with the time the individual has been in a certain
"career". Participation is highest among those ready to begin
in a new "career", or among those who have ended an earlier
"career" and are trying to begin a new one. We have found support
for Friedmann's supposition in Johnstone & Rivera (1955), Ruben-
son (1972) and investigations concerning motives for participa-
ting in local adult education, Johansson & Molander (1969),
and Lekberg & Lekberg (1971).

Stage 3, the plateau, is of particular interest since many changes
take place during this period. Individuals involved in expressive
activities and collateral relations can be expected to turn to
that type of adult education Havighurst calls expressive. We
believe that the phenomenon of older, less well-educated not
turning to adult education which aims at providing competence
should be seen against this background. What is being offered is
quite probably not in agreement with the "value orientations" of
the individuals. Other changes which can often influence partici-
pation in adult education are, according to Kuhlen (1970),
marriage, parenthood, loss of a loved one, employment and re-
tirement.

4.2 Need theories

Participation in adult education has also been explained by
assuming that people have basic needs which must be satisfied.
People are therefore attracted to and become more engaged in
activities which can be expected to provide the greatest possi-
bilities of satisfying their needs. A common practice is to use
Maslow's need-hierarchy (1954). Maslow describes man's needs

as being organized in levels, the physiological needs being
at the bottom and needs coupled to self-actualization being
at the top.

Maslow names the following need-levels:
1. physiological needs
2. needs of security
3. social needs
4. needs of esteem
5. needs of self-actualization

According to this theory all underlying needs must already be
satisfied in order for the next one to become important for the
individual. From this point of view, adult education ought to be
of such a character as to make possible the satisfaction of the
dominating needs of those it is designed to attract. A persons's
decision to participate or not in a certain type of adult educa-
tion thus depends on whether the arranger can offer activities
that the prospective participant experiences as need-satisfying.

We experience, however, a certain degree of difficulty in concre-
tely applying Maslow's theory owing to a certain amount of un-
clarity with respect to the higher needs. It is also not entirely
clear when and to which degree each need can be considered satis-
fied. For this reason it seems necessary to use Maslow's theory
only as a wide frame of reference in order to understand parti-
cipation in adult education.

An attempt to illuminate the aspect of need in occupational
roles has been put forth by LeClair (1969), using Maslow as a
point of departure. LeClair placed participation in adult edu-
cation in relation to the experience of an unsatisfied need
at work, a "need deficiency". In order to measure "need deficiency",
an instrument constructed by Porter (1962) was used, consisting
of a number of questions designed to measure the following needs:

a) need for security
b) need for social contacts
c) need for appreciation
d) need for self-actualization

The respondents were asked:

a) to which degree a certain characteristic, for example,
   security, was part of their current job.
b) to wch degree they felt the characteristic ought to be found,
c) and what importance the individual attached to this characte-
   ristic.

The difference between values obtained in b) and a) was assumed
to measure degree of need deficiency. LeClair found a positive
relation between an individual's experienced need deficiency and
participation in adult education.

It should be pointed out here that LeClair does not observe the
division in deficiency needs or growth needs as Maslow does. It
can be assumed that for the person who experiences deficiency
needs, balance and harmony are attained by need satisfaction.
Satisfaction of growth needs, however, will quite probably
increase the motivation to become involved in similar activities.
It thereby follows that growth needs can never be satisfied once
and for all time, since the goal for self-actualization is con-
tinually changing. A similar way of thinking can be found in
Kuhlen (1970), who differentiates between "growth-expansion"
motives and "threat-anxiety" motives. The former are assumed to
dominate during the first part of the individual's life, while
the latter become more important during the last half.

Our purpose in presenting these models is that they can help to
explain why certain persons participate in adult education
continually while for others adult education is a one-time-only
occurrance.

4.3 Studies concerning stated motives for participation in
    adult education

Motives to participate in some form of adult education are many
and varied. According to Burgess (1971), research in this field

has used at least 4 different approaches:

1. analyzing the kinds of activities in which the adult student
   participates so that reasons can be inferred for those acti-
   vities,
2. asking the student to state in his own words why he partici-
   pates in a given activity,
3. asking him to check from a list of reasons why he partici-
   pates in a given activity,
4. concentrating on the adult's orientation toward education.

<div align="center">(Burgess, 1970, p. 4)</div>

The approach one chooses depends, of course, upon the purpose of
the investigation. If only the quantitive aspect is to be illumi-
nated, e.g., which courses attract the largest number of students,
method 1 is to be preferred, although use of this method means
that the reasons behind the individual's choice of the course
indicated will not come to light. The motive for participation
does not necessarily need to be the course in itself (see Houle,
1961). Method 2 suffers technically from difficulties in measure-
ment. It is impossible to estimate the relative importance of
individual answers, making comparisons invalid. It is also quite
difficult to control the reliability of the answers, as well as
to bring to light unconscious motives. Method 3 is best suited
for surveys of the motives to participate in a particular course.
In order to survey motives to participate in general method 4 is
the most suitable. However, both methods 3 and 4 are sensitive
to the effects of social suggestion.

The quality of results obtained by using methods b, c and d are
dependent upon the individual's ability to analyze and report
upon his motives. In addition, attention must be given to the
point in time at which the investigation is done, as changes
in motives can take place during the educational process.

In accordance with the problem area of the current investigation
(see Chapter 1), only investigations which have used method d
will be referred to in this chapter.

Houle (1961) intensively studied 22 adult students. He found
three groups with respect to motives ("learning orientations"):

1. goal-oriented
2. activity-oriented
3. learning-oriented

These groups are not entirely separate, but could best be
described by 3 circles which partially overlap. The goal-oriented
use education as preparation for something else. Houle states
that this kind of participation takes place when the individual
feels a pressing need or identifies an interest. The activity-
oriented participate for the most part because they seek to sa-
tisfy a need for social contact. They often turn to the type of
courses which offer possibilities for this. The learning-oriented
seek knowledge for its own sake, and for them education seems
to be a constant phenomenon instead of a repetitive one. They are
often members of groups and organizations, the purposes of which
are education, and are selective with respect to programs on the
radio or television.

Using Houle's categories, Sheffield (1962) worked out a list of
58 possible motives to participate in different educational
activities, where each one of Houles three "learning orientations"
was represented by 16 motives. The remaining 10 motives were
difficult to assign to any of the three groups. Adult students
at Extension Programs in eight universities in the USA were
given the opportunity to report to which degree each motive
had influenced them to participate. Sheffield found 5 clusters
of motives, "orientations":

1. learning orientation
2. desire-activity orientation
3. personal-goal orientation
4. societal-goal orientation
5. need-activity orientation

One of the difficulties with Sheffield's and Houle's categories
is to clearly place a participant with several motivations, when
none clearly outweighs any of the others. Sheffield did not in-

vestigate the relation between his clusters, and it is therefore
not possible for us to determine to what degree they are dependent
upon each other. Those individuals who formed the sample for the
investigation were also not representative for all categories
of adult students. Sheffield's study shows that the reasons for
participation are many, and more complex than what was proposed
by Houle.

The complexity of the situation is underlined by the results of
Boshier (1971) and Burgess (1971). Boshier has attempted to
develop Houle's "learning orientations", and study their importance
in New Zealand. Another purpose of the study was to develop an
instrument to measure motives to participate in adult education.
The investigation group, composed of adult students at various
levels, were asked to indicate to what degree each of 48 possible
motives had influenced their participation. A factor-analysis
gave 14 primary factors, 6 social factors, 2 related to the
occupational situation and 5 associated with learning and edu-
cation. The remaining factor was specific.

Boshier's 14 "motivational orientations" are as follows:

1. social welfare
2. social contact
3. other-directed professional advancement
4. intellectual recreation (stimulus seeking)
5. inner-directed professional advancement
6. social conformity
7. educational preparedness
8. cognitive interest ("learning")
9. educational compensation
10. social sharing
11. television abhorrence
12. "social" improvement/escape
13. interpersonal facilitation
14. educational supplementation

Boshier's first factor is, by comparison, related to Sheffield's

"societal-goal (orientation.)". Factor 2 seems to lie close to
Houle's activity-orientation and Sheffield's social motives. In
factors 3 and 5 Houle's goal-orientated participants can be
identified, as well as Sheffield's motive to reach personal
goals. Cognitive interest, factor 8, gives a certain amount of
support for Houle's theory concerning the learning-oriented
participants. Factors 4 and 8 are related motives, although
intellectual recreation, factor 4, would indicate an individual
more motivated by "deficiency needs", while individuals scoring
high on factor 8, cognitive interest, are more influenced by
"growth-oriented" motives. Factor 7 is clearly goal-oriented.

Boshier intercorrelated the 14 factors to study any apparent
interrelationships. Processing of the material led to 7 factors
of the second order:

1. interpersonal improvement/escape
2. inner versus other-directed advancement
3. social sharing
4. artifact
5. self-centredness versus altruism
6. professional future orientedness
7. cognitive interest

Factor 1 seems to describe participants who remove themselves
from dull or boring situations and who hope to improve their
personal relationships by participating in adult education.,
Those who are goal-oriented within an occupation can be found
in factor 2. In factor 4 we recognize those who have been in-
fluenced by their surroundings to participate. Boshier emphasizes
that these individuals were interested in completing or improving
their previous education even before their participation in adult
education. Factor 7 comes close to describing those individuals
in Houle's investigation who stood out as being learning-oriented.

In this way, Boshier was able to show that his 14 factors of the
first order were not independent of one another. When it became
clear that even the second order factors were interrelated, factors

of the third order were calculated, resulting in 4 independent
and uncorrelated factors:

1. other-directed advancement
2. learning orientation
3. self versus other-centredness
4. social contact

The 4 independent factors of the third order, arrived at by
breaking down the 14 "motivational orientations" of the first
order, resemble in many ways the structures of Houle's three
"learning orientations". The first and second factors of the
third order are both related to the occupational role, while
factors 3 and 4 are more closely tied to social-psychological
concepts.

Burgess (1971) used a method and investigation group similar
to those used by Boshier. He produced in this way 15 factors,
fo which he could interpret 7:

1. the desire to know
2. the desire to reach a personal goal
3. the desire to reach a social goal
4. the desire to reach a religious goal
5. the desire to take part in social activity
6. the desire to escape socially
7. the desire to meet formal requirements

Burgess' results are generally in agreement with those found by
Houle, Sheffield and Boshier. Factors 6 and 7 are not, however,
revealed in Houle's or Sheffield's studies. Interestingly enough,
they are to be found in Boshier's results. That escape from some-
thing can be a motive for participation in adult education has
received relatively little attention. As part of the more recent
research concerning motivation, however, a distinction is made
between motives which imply approach or avoidance of goals,
(see Atkinson, et al 1966).

Both Boshier's and Burgess'studies lend credence to the idea
that the motives for participation in adult education are many
and quite different from one another.

Chapter 5

Study obstacles in adult education

As mentioned in Chapter 1, the less well educated in Sweden
participate in adult education to an extent less than was es-
timated by Government authorities. It is therefore natural to
ask what obstacles exist for those who wish to but do not par-
ticipate. We shall in this chapter present results from some
previous investigations which illuminate this question.

In LOVUX II (1971) obstacles to participation are discussed
using results obtained in the study entitled, "LO-medlemmen
och utbildningsfrågorna". Three different types of obstacles
are mentioned:

1. obstacles posed by the individual which form a part of the
   individual's own attitudes and life situation,
2. obstacles related to that which is offered, and
3. obstacles in the societal environment.

Obstacles posed by the individual can be lack of knowledge con-
cerning courses or financing, lack of self-confidence, lack of
time, etc. Obstacles related to that which is being offered can
be lack of courses relevant for the individual in question,
unsuitable courses or courses with unsuitable goals and a lack
of adaptation to the adult's special study situation. Obstacles
related to the societal environment can be lack of stimulance
in the surroundings, economical difficulties, child care,
transportation difficulties, unsuitable working hours and so
forth. The LOVUX discussion seems based upon the supposi-
tion that most individuals who do not participate in adult
education are, in spite of everything, strongly motivated to
do so. Obstacles such as lack of interest for education, desire
to use leisure time for something else, etc. are not taken up
in this discussion.

FÖVUX (SOU 1972:19) found by using a questionnaire that of
those asked nearly half responded that lack of time was the
main obstacle to participation. Many of the older respon-
dents offered the explanation that they "were too old".
FÖVUX also presents the impressions of the course organizers
concerning the reasons given verbally for not participating.
ackording to this the most common reason offered to explain
non-participation was that those asked considered themselves
to be too old. Other reasons for non-participation were fatigue,
lack of time, transportation difficulties and that studies were
not useful. The course organizers also state that they felt
that behind the arguments presented lay an insecurity and fear
concerning study-abilities. The results of FÖVUX should be
interpreted with a certain amount of caution since the investi-
gation group was not representative and data concerning study
obstacles was collected for a limited number of individuals
(n=141).

Rubenson (1972) found that the most outstanding obstacle for
young, less well educated men was of an economic nature. "Do
not enjoy studying" and "already have sufficient education"
were the next most popular responses. Even in this study insecu-
rity was noted concerning the respondents' abilities to be
successful in studies. Rubenson proposes that the attitude
toward adult education is influenced by inner and outer factors,
both having approximately the same degree of influence. He also
compared obstacles for those who were totally uninterested in
participating with those who could only think of participating
under the condition that it occurred during paid working time.
Obstacles named by this last group were chiefly economical, as
well as that they had received too little information. The first
group to a large extent offered lack of interest and that they
already had sufficient education as a reason for their unwilling-
ness to participate. A weakness of the Rubenson data is that
non-response to this question was 19%.

"Lack of time and energy" as well as economic reasons were the
strongest reasons given for not beginning planned studies
(Borgström et al 1970).

Among foreign investigations which attempted to map out obstacles
to participation in adult education the studies of Johnstone &
Rivera (1965) and London (1970) are noteworthy. In the first
named study it was found that those who were interested in
participating in education did not differ from the total inves-
tigation group with respect to obstacles in their environment.
The most important environmental obstacles were of economic
nature as well as lack of time. There were, however, clear
differences with respect to psychological obstacles. The
attitude that they were too old and that they were not amused
by studies were the most important.

London (1970) obtained similar results. The most important
reason for not participating was "occupied with other things".
In addition fatigue and lack of time were important obstacles.
Economic reasons were also found to be of importance, as well
as the feeling of being too old. This last obstacle was ex-
perienced much more frequently by older men with blue-collar
occupations (49%) than men of a comparable age in white-collar
occupations (25%).

Darinsky (1971) discusses certain recruitment problems experienced
in adult education in the USSR, in the light of a reduction in
registered students. The most important reasons given for non-
participation were difficulties in combining studies with work,
as well as poor experiences connected with previous compulsory
education. In addition, those asked commented that their plans
for the future were not related to adult education.

There exist a few limitations in those investigations which
have been referred to so far, among other things with respect
to instruments. The choice of obstacles to which the respondents
have been allowed to express an opinion has not been based upon
a thorough review of the entire obstacle syndrome. What is lacking
is an approach similar to that used in the construction of mo-
tivation scales (see Chapter 4). Also, the degree to which each
obstacle is experienced has not been given sufficient attention.
In addition there seems to be little discussion about to what
extent rationalizations are present in individual responses.

Obstacles experienced by the individual must be seen against the individual's total situation, in a way similar to surveys of motives to participate in adult education.

From research done in this area we will differentiate environmental from psychological obstacles. With the former we mean factors included in the home and working environment as well as courses available in adult education, for example. Psychological obstacles, often called "inner obstacles", are seen to be connected with the individual's self-confidence, level of ambition and attitudes towards adult education.

Environmental and psychological obstacles should not, of course, be assumed to be independent of one another. An individual's experience of obstacles in the environment is many times dependent upon his attitude towards education. It is for this reason important that we try to hold attitude toward education under control while analyzing experience of obstacles.

Seaman (1968) and Knox (1970) related participation in adult education to the individual's attitudes to adult education. Both authors found, to their surprise, that attitudes to education were not related to participation. We feel that a possible explanation for their results could lie in weaknesses in the instruments used. It is also possible that an individual's attitudes do not influence behavior in the same way as the authors presumed. Knox does not discuss this problem. Seaman, however, presents the following model:
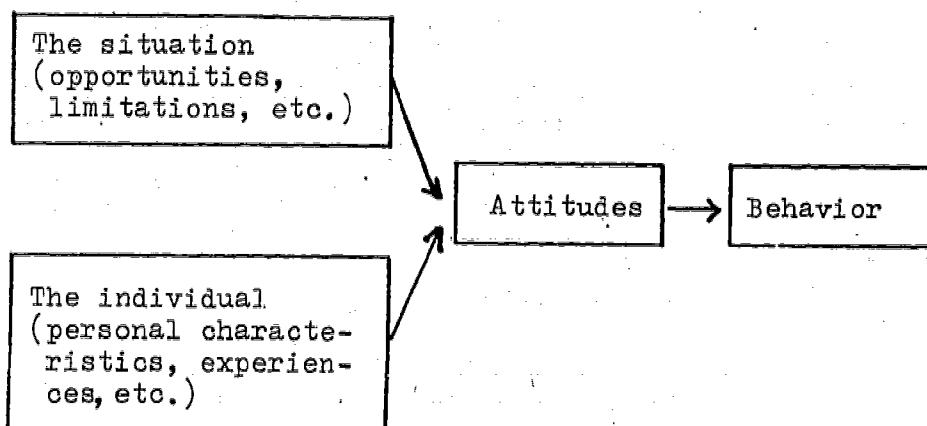
(Seaman 1969, p. 46)

The model is a combination of Rosenberg's (1960) and Newcomb's (1965) theories concerning attitudes and their influence upon behavior. According to this model, attitudes influence behavior directly, and the author uses Rosenberg as a support for this supposition. The idea that the situation has influence upon attitudes is put forth by Newcomb.

According to Seaman's model it appears that behavior (in this case participation in adult education) ought to be exclusively dependent upon the individual's attitude. The model does not permit us to take into account obstacles that might be found in the environment. We feel that this could be a possible explanation of the results arrived at by both Seaman and Knox. It seems feasible to speculate that many of those positive to education could not participate because of various "outer" obstacles. Analogous with this, we should like to see the relationship between the environment, individual and attitudes in the way shown in the following model:

```
┌─────────────────────┐
│ The situation       │
│ (opportunities,     │─────────────────┐
│   limitations, etc.)│                 │
└─────────────────────┘                 ▼
                         ┌───────────┐   ┌──────────────┐
                         │ Attitudes │──▶│ Participation│
                         └───────────┘   └──────────────┘
┌─────────────────────┐      ▲
│ The individual      │      │
│ (personal characte- │──────┘
│   ristics, experiences,│
│   etc.)             │
└─────────────────────┘
```
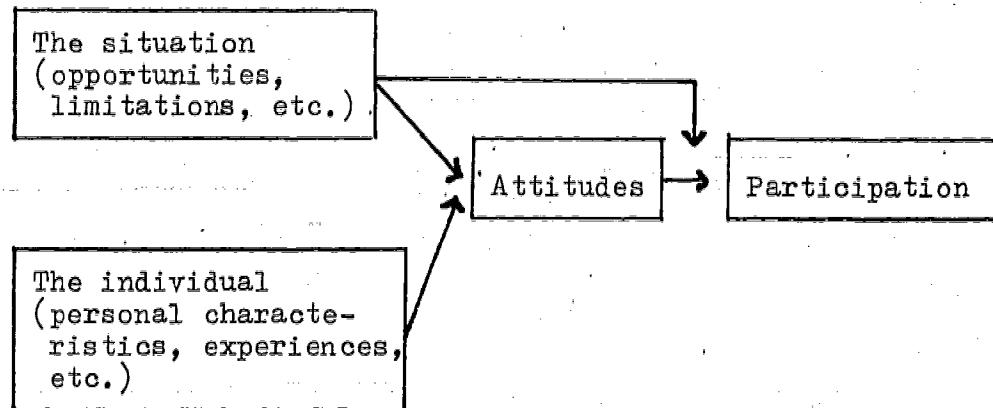
Our model is, of course, like all models, a simplification of reality. In the meantime, however, we believe that it can form the basis for an analysis of obstacles.

Chapter 6

Specifying the problems

In the introduction it was mentioned that participation of the less well educated in adult education does not occur to the desired extent in consideration of our rapidly changing society and the resulting demands upon the individual. In light of the fact that adult education can be expected to become more important in the near future, this situation is regrettable, and measures ought to be considered which will reduce any resulting tension, both between and within generations. To arrange and offer education in the traditional way is apparently not sufficient, and according to our viewpoint the problem must be dealt with in another way. Once the affected categories have been established, an attempt must be made to obtain a clear picture of their total life-situation, including different roles and how these are interpreted. Only thereafter is it possible to make meaningful statements concerning how our educational society is experienced and which eventual changes must be made. It is for this reason that the area of motivation plays such an important role in the current study.

Our review of the literature has shown that motives for studies during adulthood can be numerous. They are often intimately connected to school-background and the different roles the adult plays, the family role, the occupational role, the leisuretime role, etc. The attitude to different kinds of studies also changes with increasing age. However, in spite of an existing need for studies, there can exist obstacles to these studies which prevent their expression. These obstacles can partly lie in the environment and partly be of a psychological nature. Certain of these obstacles are probably connected with a lack of insight concerning what studies mean for the individual as well as lack of knowledge of what possibilities are offered in today's society. It is also possible that the desired educational programs are not available.

Using our review of the literature as a base, we shall now
detail our previously stated, rather general aim: "investigate
study needs and study obstacles for less well educated adults".

The purpose of this investigation is by using the individual's
total life-situation and previous experience as a base, study
the less well educated individual's:

> need of adult education
>
> awareness of adult education
>
> motives to participate in adult education
>
> experienced obstacles preventing participation in adult
> education
>
> plans to participate in adult education
>
> previous experience of adult education.

In connection with this it is important to take into considera-
tion the individual's position in the life-cycle.

If answers can be found for the stated problems in such a way
that we gain knowledge of how study needs and study obstacles
are related to the individual's different roles and previous
experience, it ought to be possible to spread information and
take measures to insure that the intentions of society's investment
in adult education are realized.

Chapter 7

Data collection

According to our stated aims (Chapter 6) we shall attempt to
map out the individual's total life-situation in consideration
of the roles he plays and can be expected to play. From the
larger quantity of data which in different ways can illuminate
our chosen problem areas, a selection had been made. This
chapter will be concerned with the principles which have led to
this selection.

Among those roles which are related to attitudes to education,
the most interesting for our purposes are the family role, the
occupational role and the leisure-time role. These roles should,
naturally, not be seen isolated, but rather as parts of the in-
dividual's total situation. The individual's position in the
life-cycle will have great importance in determining how these
different roles are experienced and played. We have for this
reason, like Friedmann (1970), chosen to view the different areas
in three time dimensions: the past, the present and the future.
How the present is experienced must, of course, be seen against
the background of previous experiences. The individual's hopes
and desires concerning the future are steered by previous ex-
periences and by how the present situation is experienced. It
is for this reason, and in accordance with our model (p.41),
that we are not going to group background factors separately,
but within each area shed light on the three time dimensions.

In connection with our appraisal of which information is necessary
and relevant to illuminate the individual's situation, we have
also taken into account methodological problems. Recall-effects
which can make answers unreliable have thus been taken into
consideration. Areas which can be of great interest but which
can be thought to be experienced as sensitive or too personal
have been avoided as much as possible since questions in these
areas would undoubtedly influence the individual's attitude to

the whole data collection, and thus affect the reliability
of answers. As an example for this we have avoided going all
too deeply into personal adjustment and life-satisfaction.
In the presentation of investigation variables which follows
below we have chosen to group them with respect to the earlier
named roles. In addition, some variables are related to all
these roles and these will be given under the title, "Infor-
mation related to all roles".

7.1 Information related to the family role

Information we feel to be important to illuminate the family
role concern the previous and present home environment, child-
hood environment, parents' occupations as well as attitudes to
education. In this connection, we feel that other factors which
ought to be set in relation to the individual's attitude to adult
education are spouse's educational background and occupation,
as well as children's educational level.

7.2 Information related to the occupational role

With respect to the occupational role we have made a distinction
between the employed and those who work at home.

As concerns the employed, we intend to obtain data on occupation
and job-satisfaction. Both these factors have in previous inves-
tigations been shown to be related to participation in adult
education. In addition, we shall collect data on the number of
jobs and employers the individual has had during the past five
years in order to get an estimation of what we call "work stabi-
lity". Information concerning whether the individual has been
laid-off in the last five years is considered to be worthwhile
in this connection.

Using LeClair's method (1969) as a base to shed light on the
need-aspect in the occupational role, we shall attempt to map
out how the individual experiences his job within certain areas,
such as influence over working conditions, job-security, varia-
tions in job routines and opportunities for advancement. It is
here important to take into account what the individual himself

feels are important requirements for occupational advancement,
since these ideas will probably influence his attitude to adult
education.

"Job-satisfaction" is an important factor when mapping out the
attitudes to adult education of those working at home. Interest
in joining the labor market will also be studied. An important
aspect in connection with this is to regard the strength of any
interest to take part in some form of education motivated by a
desire to increase the possibilities of obtaining work outside
the home.

7.3 Information related to the leisure-time role

As a step in our desire to see the individual's total life-
situation, we also intend to look at the individual's leisure-
time. Self-actualization may take place in areas other than the
aforementioned roles, and dominating needs can be satisfied
even within the scope of the leisure-time role.

Earlier studies of adult leisure-time habits (Nielsen 1958, Klee-
meier 1961), imply that the choice of leisure-time activity is
highly related to experienced needs and their satisfaction. For
this reason we shall map out the individual's leisure-time acti-
vities. The leisure-time role, in similarity to the occupational
role, will be viewed from the aspect of satisfaction. We shall
in this connection give our attention to which degree leisure-
time gives relaxation, variety, stimulance and possibilities
to gain new experiences.

7.4 Information related to all roles

In the majority of studies concerned with participation in adult
education, the factor showing the strongest relationship to part-
icipation is the individual's educational background. We shall
for this reason attempt to map out the individual's formal, as
well as actual education. In connection with this it seems
natural to attempt to shed light on the individual's earlier
feelings about and experiences from schooling, as well as satis-
faction and performance at the obligatory school. We also plan
to map out if, and to which degree, the individual has previously

taken part, or is currently taking part in some form of educa-
tion apart from   formal schooling, as well as their opinions
concerning these studies. In connection with this it is of great
interest to obtain information concerning how the individual
became aware of the educational program in question. According
to some earlier studies (Mezirow et al 1970, SOU 1972:19)
it seems as if the less well educated are recruited and informed
better through certain channels than others.

We shall attempt to find out in which situations the individual
feels that he has insufficient knowledge and if he should like
to learn more in these areas. Is the individual interested in
participating in some form of adult education? If so, in which
subject area, which form of education, and when had he considered
beginning? In connection with this we shall attempt to estimate
the degree of preparation for action. If the person expresses
an interest in participation but has not or is not yet doing so, he
can answer to what extent a number of possible obstacles has
prevented his participation. In the same way those who are inte-
rested in participating, and those who have or are currently
participating can indicate which motives influenced their
interest.

As can be seen from our choice of variables, we have not confined
ourselves to static background variables, but have purposefully
chosen to illuminate such dynamic factors which can be expected
to increase our understanding of attitudes to adult education.
We feel that a similar procedure must form the background of
our consideration of study-needs and study-obstacles as exper-
ienced by the less well educated.

Chapter 8

Methods for data-collection

In order to collect the necessary data there are primarily
three ways open to us:

> telephone interviews
> personal interviews
> mailed questionnaires

In this chapter we shall take up the advantages and disadvantages
of the different methods, and by using this as a base discuss
some points of view concerning the different methods.

8.1 Choice of method

In choosing between the three methods, the telephone interview
was discarded at an early stage. According to Kerlinger (1969)
this method lends itself to the asking of simple, superficial
questions. For our purposes an additional practical reason
made itself felt. It was judged unrealistic to attempt to
carry out a telephone interview which would last for at least
one hour. In reality our choice was limited between personal
interviews and mailed questionnaires.

Advantages and disadvantages for these two methods include
the following:

The respondent during the answering situation.

Many people are unaccustomed to reading and answering in writing
questions of the type we plan to use. In this respect, the mailed
questionnaire lends itself poorly particularly for the less well
educated. Of course, this group may also be unaccustomed to
answering questions posed by an interviewer. An interviewer,
however, has the possibility to give the respondent support and
create an atmosphere conducive to cooperation by explaining
the purpose of the questions and why the individual in question
has been selected. The mailed questionnaire includes the
advantage that the individual is given more time to think through
his answers. He can even answer questions in the order he finds

most suitable, sometimes an advantage although most often
it is desired that the questions be answered in the order
presented, something which cannot be controlled when using a
mailed questionnaire. When using the personal interview it
is also possible to see to it that the selected individual
is the one who answers the questions, as well as controlling
that the answering process is carried out in a responsible
way. However, there is also a risk that the interviewer in-
fluences the answers of the respondent. Factors which can be
thought to be of importance in this respect are the inter-
viewer's age, sex and personality (see among others, Hyman
1954). The fact that the use of interviewers can lead to
large errors during data-collection if the interviewers
have not been selected and trained in a satisfactory manner,
and if their work has not been controlled, has been pointed
out by the U.S. Bureau of the Census. The relationship bet-
ween sampling error and measurement error for the 1950 census
was 1:30.

Standardization v.s. flexibility.

Use of a questionnaire insures that the stimuli are offered,
at least superficially, in the same way, but it can be asked
if the stimuli are construed by all individuals in the same
way. The problem here is one of "constant stimulus". During
an interview it is possible to take into account the respon-
dent's personality, experiences and knowledge and thereby
create the desired frame of reference. In the meanwhile it
can be argued that homogeneous groups provide opportunities
to make use of the standardization inherent in questionnaires.
One strength of the interview is its flexibility which makes
it possible to follow up an answer and correct any misunder-
standings.

Inclination to answer.

Interviews normally provide a higher percent of response.
Because of this, Kerlinger (1969) feels that questionnaires
should not be used if possibilities exist to use other methods.

That it is difficult to illuminate interest for adult education

through the use of mailed questionnaires has been apparent in
a number of investigations, including some carried out in
Sweden. Fall, 1969 an investigation was carried out by the
Swedish Community Employees Organization, Local 25 in Marie-
stad in cooperation with ABF in Skaraborg, using a question-
naire mailed to members of the above-named Local. Response
rate to this questionnaire was 11 %. The response rate by
the control group in the FÖVUX investigation was so low that
it was deemed meaningless to process the data collected for
this group. It should be pointed out that respondent were
offered the sum of 10 Sw.crowns (appr. $2) for an answered
and returned questionnaire (SOU 1972:19, p. 59). Non-response
can become expecially large with an increase in the length
of the questionnaire (see Larsson 1970). In some cases
questionnaires have resulted in 70 % response rates, although
non-response to individual questions has also sometimes been
considerable (see LO-medlemmen och utbildningsfrågorna, 1968).

Cost and time.

A mailed questinnaire is not as costly as a personal interview.
Another advantage of the questionnaire is that a larger propor-
tion of the investigation group can be reached at the same
time, although actual collection of the data can be time-consu-
ming since many respondents require several reminders before
returning the questionnaire. Many reminders may be necessary
before data-collection can be assumed to be completed. By
using a large number of interviewers data-collection may be
completed relatively quickly.

Reliability and validity.

Reliability and validity are difficult to measure for both
interviews and questionnaires. One technique which is sometimes
used entails measuring the same factor or element with a number
of questions. When this technique is sensed by the respondent
it is doubtful that the desired goal is reached. By using a
questionnaire one possible source of error, the interviewer,
is eliminated. Arguments have been forwarded that the inter-
viewer's flexibility provides opportunities for greater validity.
Others argue that it is just this factor which reduces relia-

bility, and thereby validity (see Galtung 1970). Against the
background of research done in this area we feel that it is
impossible to assert that one method is better than the
other with respect to reliability or validity. However,
one important factor to consider when judging the value
of the collected material is the percent of response.

When committing ourselves to either personal interviews or
mailed questionnaires, it was primarily the following fac-
tors which were deciding in our choice of the personal
interview:

> response percent
> completeness of answers
> the investigation group.

8.2 Type_of_interview

An interview can be more, or less structured. We shall for
this reason discuss the pros and cons of structured and open
interviews.

For our purposes the following four types of interviews were
possible to choose from:

> open question - open answer
> structured question - open answer
> structured question - structured answer
> structured question - open and structured answers.

The first of these types is used primarily in so-called clinical
interviews, and is not suitable for our purposes since it does
not result in comparable data. The type "structured question -
open answer" is also less suitable since attempts to categorize
answers usually lead to less than satisfactory results. This
technique is even less suitable for use with the less well
educated (Clausen 1950). In addition, it has been suggested
that interviewer-effect becomes a more important factor when
using open as opposed to structured answers (Sellitz et al 1965).

One advantage of this method is that collected material can
be used to form new ideas concerning the problem area, as
well as providing knowledge as to how structured questions
should be formed. In addition, this method is relatively
insensitive to suggestion-effects (Clausen 1950).

Interviews of the type "structured question - structured answer"
eliminate difficulties of categorization as well as limiting
interviewer-effect. One disadvantage, however, is that the
risk for suggestion-effects is larger for this method than
others since the respondent may sometimes be tempted to choose
socially acceptable alternatives.

For the preliminary investigation we have chosen the fourth type
of interview, "structured question - open and structured answer".
In those cases where there exists a basis for the formulation
of structured questions and answers we shall use the form,
"structured question - structured answer". For the remaining
questions we shall use the form "structured question - open
answer", and use the material collected in this way to formulate
structured questions and answers to be used in the main investi-
gation. The type of interview we have chosen can be administered
in the following ways:

1. The respondent receives a questionnaire which he
   completes in the presence, and if necessary with
   the help of the interviewer.
2. The interviewer retains the only copy of the question-
   naire and reads the questions and alternative answers
   aloud for the respondent. The respondent answers ver-
   bally, and does not directly take part in completing
   the questionnaire.
3. A combination of 1 and 2. The interviewer reads the
   questions aloud and notes the respondent's answers.
   In those cases where structured answers exist the
   respondent is given a number of answer-cards and is
   asked to choose between the alternatives found on
   the cards.

We have chosen the procedure outlined in 3 because:

1. The respondents are less well educated. Interview
   time should be more effectively used if the interviewer
   asks the questions verbally and if the risk for mis-
   understandings is reduced. The interviewer can in
   this case. explain and clarify when necessary.
2. If the different structered alternatives are only
   read aloud, and not shown to the respondent visually,
   there exists a risk that the last alternative can
   be over-represented owing to the effects of memory
   (see Sellitz et al 1965).
3. A certain amount of interviewer bias ought to be
   avoided if the respondent is allowed to choose
   alternatives himself, whenever this is possible.
   Otherwise there is a risk that the interviewer in
   these cases decides which alternative comes closest
   to the respondent's answer. In addition, it can be
   expected that this method will lead to the respon-
   dent's increased participation in the interview.

Chapter 9

Construction of instruments

In Chapter 7 we discussed the data we feel is necessary in order
to shed light upon the problem-areas we plan to investigate.
Using the discussion in Chapter 8, a questionnaire was developed
to bring light on the various roles, composed of 100 main items.
During various seminars with specially invited experts these
questions were discussed and modified.

In the first version there were no questions concerning obstacles
and motives. We felt that in order to map out these it would be
necessary to develop special instruments. Using Boshier's technique
as a base (see Chapter 4.3) a questionnaire was constructed includ-
ing approximately 50 possible motives to participate in adult edu-
cation. This questionnaire was tested at Gävle's adult secondary
school and at the ABF school in Gävle (n=153). The respondents
were asked to fill out the motive questionnaire during class time.
Personnel from the project administered the testing procedure.
When the collected material was factor-analyzed, 12 factors were
found which could explain 69% of the variance. Against the back-
ground of the factors we obtained, 16 possible motives were selected
to be included in the questionnaire to be used in the preliminary
investigation.

The obstacle questionnaire was constructed in a similar way, at
first being composed of 40 possible reasons for not participating
in adult education. Testing occurred in cooperation with ABF in
Arboga, which had previously undertaken a program of active
recruitment in order to attract less well educated individuals
to adult studies. Among those contacted there was an identifiable
group which did not wish to participate. A number of these indivi-
duals were invited by ABF to complete the obstacle questionnaire,
for which they were offered the sum of 15 Sw. crowns (appr $ 3).
65 completed questionnaires were obtained in this way. Factor
analysis of the material yielded 13 factors, which explained 80%
of the variance. From these results 22 possible reasons for not

participating in adult education were selected to appear in the instrument to be used in the preliminary investigation.

Using the experiences gained in this way, a trial questionnaire was constructed which was tested by two interviewers who would be taking part in the preliminary investigation. Interviewees were 15 persons drawn from the same population used for the preliminary investigation. These interviews were recorded on tape and then analyzed, following which the questionnaire was modified and completed.

The final version used in the preliminary investigation was composed of 60 main items. In order to facilitate the interview all answer cards were placed in a binder which the interviewer could manipulate during the course of the interview.

Interview time was calculated to be approximately one hour.

Chapter 10

Plan for the preliminary investigation

There exists only a limited amount of accumulated experience
concerning the collection of data which shed light on our
problem-areas. For this reason we felt it necessary to carry
out a preliminary investigation, which had the following aims:

to test underlying theories

to test instruments

to test data-collection methods

to test the abilities of SCB's interviewers

to collect material which could be used to test methods of ana-
lysis.

The preliminary investigation took place during Fall, 1972 in
three different communities located in Westmanland County;
Västerås, Hallstahammar och Sala.

The choice of Westmanland County was motived by practical reasons,
since in this county we could test the instrument on different
occupational categories and in different environments. We used
population density and the distribution of employees in various
industries as criteria in selection of the sample.

10.1 The investigation group

The investigation numbered approximately 600 individuals distri-
buted among the communities in the following way:

Age	Västerås		Hallstahammar		Sala	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
24 years	33	33	33	33	33	33
38 years	33	33	33	33	33	33
52 years	33	33	33	33	33	33

n = 594

The following criteria were used in selection of the sample:

1. born 1920, 1934 or 1948

2. employed in an occupation which required less than 1 year
   theoretical education beyond obligatory school

3. were Swedish citizens.

The sampling was carried out by first, from county lists con-
taining all residents within the three communities, obtaining
a list of all persons born during 1920, 1934 or 1948, who were
Swedish citizens. The next step was to sort out those who could
not be considered to be less well educated. Unfortunately there
existed no register with complete information concerning educa-
tion for these individuals. We chose, therefore, to use occupa-
tion as an indicator of educational level, well aware of all the
pitfalls involved. From those who filled the above-named three
criteria, an independent random sample was drawn to include 33
individuals for each age- and sex-category.

Since this project has only limited possibilities to shed light
on the study situation for immigrants, we chose to eliminate
them from the study instead of only investigating surface factors.

Our choice of three age groups was motivated by consideration of
the possibilities of analysis. By concentrating on only three
age groups we could then increase the number of individuals in
each cell. The ages 24, 38 and 52 were chosen because they are
connected with interesting stages in the life-cycle (see Chapter
4).

10.2 Data-collection

Information concerning the labor market has been obtained from
the county Labor Office in Västerås. In addition, we have mapped
out the adult educational opportunities available in each of the
three communities.

Trained interviewers were selected from SCB's Interviewer Unit,
who were then specially trained in two stages. At the end of August,

1972 the interviewers were given the instrument, instructions
and training exercises. These exercises were solved by the
interviewers, who sent them to the project. After correction
with comments the material was returned to the interviewers.
The second stage was carried out during a one-day training
period in Västerås.

In order to gain the support of the investigation group, con-
tact was taken with the local press and radio stations. This
resulted in an article being published concerning the investi-
gation in the newspaper "Vestmanlands Läns Tidning" on the 15th
of Sept., 1972. In addition, during a local radio news broad-
cast of the 14th of September, the investigation was also men-
tioned. A letter of introduction was sent to all members of
the investigation group on the same day. During the period
Sept. 18 - Nov. 21, 1972, personal interviews were carried out
by 22 of the trained interviewers mentioned above.

The material is currently being coded for data-processing. At
the same time a questionnaire has been sent out to the inter-
viewers, asking them to comment on any difficulties with the
questionnaire or the interview situation, as well as suggest
improvements. We also plan to meet with the interviewers in
the near future to discuss their individual points of view in
a group.

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